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Bakalářská práce

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Nominal vs adjectival *when/where* relative clauses

Alternace vztažných nominálních a adjektivních *when/where* clauses

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Poděkování

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Prohlášení

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Abstract

The present thesis compares nominal relative clauses and adnominal relative clauses with a general antecedent with the focus on omissibility of the antecedent. General antecedents *time, place, thing, or person* should be omissible in adjectival relative clauses, which results in a potential alternation of adjectival and nominal relative clauses. Using the data drawn from the British National Corpus (BNC), this thesis examines the hypothesis that it is possible to omit all general locative and temporal antecedents introducing adjectival relative clauses without a significant change in meaning, and tries to identify syntactic or semantic constraints in cases where the omission does not seem viable. Fifty examples of adjectival and fifty examples of nominal relative clauses served as a material for this thesis. It was observed that certain constructions, syntactic functions and syntactic structures disallow the omission of the antecedent regardless of its generality often due to the nature of the fused relatives *where* and *when* which do not sufficiently indicate the nominal function of the clause. Furthermore, their locative or temporal nature prevents their occurrence with free and static prepositions whose presence is in such structures redundant.

Key words: relative clauses, nominal relative clauses, free relative, general antecedents, omission of the antecedent

Abstrakt

Tato bakalářská práce porovnává nominální a adnominální vztažné věty s obecným antecedentem a zaměřuje se především na možnost vypuštění antecedentu. Obecné antecedenty jako *time*, *place*, *thing* a *person* mohou být v adjektivních vztažných větách vynechány, což vede k alternaci adjektivní a nominální vztažné věty. Tato práce ověřuje na základě dat získaných z Britského národního korpusu (BNC) hypotézu, že všechny obecné místní a časové antecedenty adjektivních vztažných vět mohou být vypuštěny bez výrazné změny významu věty, a pokouší se rozpoznat syntaktické a sémantické restriktce, v případech, kdy vypuštění antecedentu není možné. Jako materiál pro tuto práci sloužilo padesát příkladů adjektivních a padesát příkladů nominální vztažných vět. Bylo zjištěno, že určité konstrukce, syntaktické funkce a větné struktury zamezují vynechání antecedentu bez ohledu na jeho obecnost, často z důvodu povahy *where* a *when*, která nedostatečně signalizuje nominální funkci vztažných vět. Prostorový a temporální význam, který *where* a *when* vyjadřují, navíc zamezuje jejich výskytu s volnými předložkami a předložkami s primárně statickým užitím, které jsou v takových případech nadbytečné.

Klíčová slova: vztažné věty, samostatné relativum, nominální vztažná věta, obecné antecedenty, vynechání antecedentu

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List of Abbreviations

(')	Paraphrased example
A	Adverbial
BNC	British National Corpus
Co	Object complement
Cs	Subject complement
FR	Fused relative
L-antecedent	Locative antecedent
L-sentences	Sentences containing a relative clause with a locative antecedent
LGSWE	<i>Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English</i>
LI	Locative antecedent impossible to omit
LP	Locative antecedent possible to omit
NP	Noun phrase
NRC	Nominal relative clause
Od	Direct object
Oi	Indirect object
Op	Prepositional object
PP	Prepositional phrase
S	Subject
T-antecedent	Temporal antecedent
T-sentences	Sentences containing a relative clause with a temporal antecedent
TI	Temporal antecedent impossible to omit
TP	Temporal antecedent possible to omit
V	Verb

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Table 1: Patterns of clauses containing an antecedent

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1. Introduction

A nominal relative clause is a clause introduced by a free-relative (fused relative) pronoun which is the result of a fusion of an antecedent and a relative clause. It is therefore possible to paraphrase the nominal relative clause with its fused antecedent using a general antecedent followed by an adjectival relative clause. The adnominal relative then functions as a postmodifier of the general antecedent.

The aim of this work is to analyse the degree of potential alternation between a nominal relative clause and an adjectival relative clause (or eventually between a nominal relative clause and an adverbial relative clause) and vice versa tested by using a paraphrase. This work aims to describe which antecedents can be considered general and occur in the paraphrase of nominal relative clauses as well as the general syntactic and semantic environment which allows the alternation of the two clauses and the factors which disallow it.

The theoretical part of this work describes the types of the respective subordinate clauses and the basis for their classification important for examining the possibility of alternation between two types of subordinate clauses. Furthermore, it establishes terminology important for the analysis of possible omission of general antecedents in nominal relative clauses and defines terms such as *antecedent*, *fused relative*, or *free and bound prepositions*. Moreover, the theoretical part describes the features of syntactic phenomena which might hinder the omission of the antecedent.

This work is based on one hundred examples of sentences containing a subordinate clause which were excerpted from the British National Corpus. The analytical part examines the sample sentences and analyses their syntactic structure in order to determine what factors in a particular environment allow or disallow the omission of the antecedent.

2. Theoretical Background

The following chapter focuses on the classification of subordinate clauses important for the analysis of alternation between two types of subordinate clauses present in chapter 4 and establishes the terminology used throughout the thesis.

2.1 Subordinate clauses

A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language (Quirk et al., 1985: 987) defines subordination as one of the major devices for linking clauses and thus forming a complex sentence. In a complex sentence, two or more clauses of a different hierarchy are linked together by means of subordination, such as subordinate conjunctions, relative pronouns, *wh*-words, and inversion. (Dušková et al., 2009: 16.2) Subordinate clauses might be also called ‘dependent’ or ‘embedded’ (Quirk et al., 1985: 988) since they are a constituent of the superordinate clause as well as a clause dependent on the main clause. As its constituent, the subordinate clause functions as one of the elements of the superordinate clause. (ibid: 991) Based on their potential functions, the subordinate clauses are further divided into several major categories. These categories are: nominal, adverbial, relative, and comparative subordinate clauses. (ibid: 1047) For the purpose of this work, only nominal relative, adjectival relative, and adverbial clauses will be discussed in greater depth in Sections 2.2.1, 2.2.2, and 2.3, with a special focus on their structure, syntactic functions and the possible alternation of the clause types stated above.

2.2 Relative clauses

Relative clauses are generally introduced by relativizers, such as pronouns, adverbs, and particles, that indicate their subordinate relationship with the main clause. (Dušková et al., 2009: 16.22) Quirk et al. describe relative clauses as restrictive or non-restrictive post-modifiers, (Quirk et al., 1985: 1048) where the head noun is the antecedent of the relative. The two subtypes of relative clauses are further distinguished based on the syntactic function of the subordinate clause. These subtypes are nominal and adjectival relative clauses. (Dušková et al., 2009: 16.22) The syntactic functions of a nominal clause correspond to those of a noun phrase, whereas the adjectival relative clause has an adjectival nature and functions always as a postmodifier. Both these subtypes, which are described in detail in Sections 2.2.1

and 2.2.2, are introduced by *wh*-words, however, they differ in the presence, or rather the nature, of their antecedent.

2.2.1 Nominal relative clauses

In nominal relative clauses, the antecedent of the relative is not overtly present in the structure of the sentence but might be retrieved from *wh*-words. The *wh*-element can be paraphrased by a noun phrase containing a noun head with a general reference that is modified by a relative clause (Quirk et al., 1985: 1056) and, therefore, the relative can be transformed from what might be called a fused relative without an overt antecedent to a postmodifier of an overt general antecedent. The relative in nominal relative clauses are to be paraphrased with a postmodified nominal antecedent, such as in the following example:

(I) I saw where it happened. (Dušková et al., 2009: 16.22.1)

(Ia') I saw the place where it happened.

The nominal relative clause in example (I) contains merely a *wh*-word (a locative relative adverb *where*) with no overt antecedent. In the first example, the relative clause has a nominal function of an object of the matrix clause. However, the NRC can be paraphrased with a postmodified noun phrase (general locative antecedent) and thereby transformed into an adjectival relative clause, as seen in example (Ia'). This transformation is further analysed in Chapter 4.

2.1.1.1 Nominal relative clauses vs dependent interrogative clauses

The possibility to paraphrase a nominal relative clause is one of the main differences between NRC and a dependent interrogative clause, which is also introduced by *wh*-words (Dušková et al., 2009: 16.22.1) In nominal relative clauses, the rest of the clause is postmodification of the covert antecedent comprised in the relative introducing the nominal relative clause. (ibid: 16.22.1) On the contrary, the whole dependent interrogative clause has one certain syntactic function: subject or object. (ibid: 16.22.1) Another characteristic that distinguishes nominal relative clauses and dependent interrogative clauses is the gap of unknown information that occurs in dependent interrogative clauses, (Quirk et al., 1985: 1060) In certain cases, however, the distinction between the two types of clauses might be difficult to make based merely on that characteristic since certain sentences are disputable, (ibid: 1061) for example, the sentence in the following example:

(II) Do you remember when you got lost? (Quirk et al., 1985: 1061)

(IIa') Do you remember the time when you got lost?

(IIb') When did we get lost? Do you remember?

The clause in example (II) might be interpreted either as a relative clause (paraphrased with a general antecedent *the time* as in the example (IIa')) or as an interrogative clause with a gap of unknown information (IIb'). (Quirk et al., 1985: 1061) This work does not focus on dependent interrogative clauses but since it analyses the alternation of nominal relative clauses and adjectival relative clauses, it is important to properly distinguish the two types of nominal clauses to prevent any mistakes in compiling the sample for the analysis.

2.1.1.2 Nuances in terminology

The general definition of a nominal relative clause might be quite problematic since individual comprehensive grammars treat nominal relative clauses in a slightly different manner. For instance, *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* works with the term 'relative construction' rather than 'relative clause,' since it considers the character of NRCs, which is, according to Huddleston and Pullum, more similar to a noun phrase than to a clause. (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002: 1033) *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*, therefore, considers a nominal relative clause an NP, with the exception of NRCs introduced by adverbs *when* and *where*. Those nominal relative clauses are considered to be PPs. *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* does not refer to a nominal relative clause entirely as to an NP, however, both grammars agree on the similarities in character between a nominal relative clause and a noun phrase. Quirk et al. acknowledge their similarity in relation to 'the possibility to be concrete as well as abstract and to refer to persons' that a nominal relative clause shares with a noun phrase. In addition, Quirk et al. also share the possibility to display number concord with the verb. (Quirk et al., 1985: 1056) Although *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, in contrast to Huddleston and Pullum (2002), does not refuse the analysis of NRCs as clauses (Malá, 2005: 86), it describes the nominal relative clause as "basically a noun phrase modified by an adnominal relative clause." (Quirk et al., 1985: 1056) This work refers to this type of structure as nominal relative clause (NRC) regardless of which *wh*-word it is introduced by.

2.1.1.3 Fused relatives

The term ‘fused relative,’ which has already been mentioned, is another slight nuance between the two grammars. In *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*, the term ‘fused relative’ refers to the fusion of antecedent and the relative which occurs in the nominal relative clause and which cannot be separated in order to be examined individually. (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002: 1036) Quirk et al. do not refer to the *wh*-word in the nominal relative clauses as a ‘fused relative,’ however, they describe it as merged with its antecedent (Quirk et al., 1985: 1056) supporting the idea of a fused antecedent and its postmodification into one element. The fused element can be paraphrased by a nominal antecedent and its postmodification, transforming the character of the clause from nominal relative to adjectival relative. The fused relative *what* can be paraphrased as *the thing that* in the sentence ‘What he did was quite outrageous.’ (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002: 1035)

2.1.2 Adjectival relative clauses

By paraphrasing the fused relative of a nominal relative clause with a nominal antecedent and its postmodification, the type of the relative clause changes as well as its syntactic function. The adjectival relative clause differs from the nominal relative clause in the presence of the antecedent. In an adjectival relative clause, the antecedent is overt and further modified by a *wh*-relative, *that*, or zero relative. The clause introduced by the relative either specifies the antecedent with information important for the identification of its referent, or further describes an antecedent that is already specific enough. (Dušková et al., 2009: 16.22.2) Based on this difference, two subtypes of adjectival relative clauses can be distinguished: restrictive relative clauses and non-restrictive relative clauses. (ibid: 16.22.2) The specific meaning of the antecedent (often proper names) (ibid: 16.22.22) and the boundaries formed by commas present in non-restrictive clauses cause this type of adjectival relative clauses not suitable for alternation with the nominal relative clauses, since the antecedent is usually not omissible. For example, in ‘He behaves like a very important person, which he is not.’ (ibid: 16.22.22) the antecedent *important person* cannot be omitted.

The introductory relatives in adjectival relative clauses, such as pronouns or adverbs, have two functions. They are the means of subordination and therefore they connect the subordinate clause with the main clause. Inside a relative clause, the relatives also have a syntactic function, such as subject, object, subject complement, adverbial, etc. (Dušková et

al., 2009: 16.22.2) Adverbs *when* and *where* function as relatives when following a locative or temporal antecedent (such as *place, country, town, period, day, etc.*) (ibid: 16.22.21) Alternation with a nominal relative as well as with an adverbial clause is possible after the omission of the general locative or temporal antecedent in the adjectival relative clause. The following examples show the assumed alternation of a nominal relative clause (III) and an adjectival relative clause (IIIa') after the omission of the antecedent.

(III) What interests my son usually bores my daughter. (Dušková, 1999: 231)

(IIIa') That which / a thing that interests my son usually bores my daughter.

(ibid: 231)

After the omission of the antecedent, the adjectival relative clause can transform into a clause whose distinction between a nominal relative clause and an adverbial clause is blurry. This is the case of the clauses where “the borderline between an object and an adverbial is not clear-cut” (ibid: 234), for instance, in the following example:

(IV) Look at where the ski-tow is going to be. (where? at what?) (Dušková, 1999: 234)

2.3 Adverbial clauses

Adverbial clauses are similar to adjectival relative clauses in their non-nominal character. They function mostly as adjuncts, occasionally also as disjuncts or conjuncts. For the purpose of this work, only two categories of adverbial clauses need to be examined: adverbial clauses of place introduced by the locative adverb *where* and adverbial clauses of time introduced by the temporal adverb *when*. Firstly, similarly to the nominal relative clauses, adverbial clauses of place have to be distinguished from dependent interrogative clauses. Both of these types of clauses can be introduced by *where*. However, the dependent interrogative clause introduced by *where* is similar to the one introduced by *what* in leaving a gap of unknown information in the main clause. Relative nominal clauses can be introduced by the adverb *where* as well. For instance, in the example ‘I saw where it happened.’ (Dušková, 1999: 231)

2.4 Wh-words

Wh-words, which, apart from two exceptions (*how, that*), begin with *wh*-, frequently introduce subordinate clauses. They are used as interrogative clause markers or as

relativizers introducing a relative clause (Biber et al., 2007: 87). Interrogative clause markers can be used as pronouns (*who, whom, what, which*), determiners (*what, which, whose*), or adverbs (*how, when, where, why*). Relativizers are used as pronouns (*who, whom, which, that*), determiners (*which, whose*), or adverbs (*when, where, why*). (ibid: 87). Normally, a relativizer has a close relationship with the preceding noun phrase since the clause it introduces is a postmodifier in the noun phrase, and, therefore, the choice of relativizer depends largely on the head of the noun phrase (ibid: 87). On the contrary, as stated in the *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (LGSWE), there is no such relation between noun phrases and subordinators (ibid: 87). This work focuses on the *wh*-words *when* and *where* and their transformation from a postmodified relative adverb in adjectival relative clauses to a fused relative in nominal relative clauses.

2.5 Antecedents

For the purpose of this work, it is important to define the term ‘antecedent.’ The term ‘antecedent’ refers to “a linguistic unit from which another unit in the sentence derives its interpretation (anaphoric reference), typically a later unit.” (Crystal, 2008: 26) According to *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*, an antecedent is the head of the noun phrase which the relativizer points back to. (Biber et al., 2007: 195). In nominal relative clauses, the antecedent and the relativizer are both represented by the *wh*-word (ibid: 195). In the sentence ‘We have 30 men who are working from 6am to 11pm [...]’ (ibid: 195) the relativizer *who* points back to the antecedent *30 men*.

2.5.1 General antecedents

One of the factors that needs to be considered in this work is the degree of generality of the antecedent since it influences the possibility of the omission. (Dušková et al., 2009: 16.22.21) For instance, general antecedents which are frequently used in locative and temporal clauses, such as *place, area, day, time, moment*, etc. are expected to be more prone to the omission than other less frequent antecedents whose meaning might be less general. Since the general antecedents carry a vague meaning which is not important for the understanding or interpreting of the sentence, their absence should not be problematic due to semantic constraints. This is further supported by the possibility of adding a general antecedent, such as *the thing, the place, the time*, etc. in nominal relative clauses without the

need for a previous mention of the antecedent. Even though the meaning might be slightly changed by the omission of the antecedent, the nuance in meaning is insignificant. On the other hand, the omission of an antecedent that is not general and not retrievable from the context or the fused relative alone might cause a significant change of meaning which would preclude the omission. When the antecedent is not general and has a specific meaning which cannot be retrieved from the context or from the relative itself in case of its absence, the omission is not possible, since it would change the meaning of the sentence.

2.5.2 Omission of the antecedents

In general, the possibility of omission of an antecedent in adjectival relative clauses is not regarded as a property of an adjectival relative clause. On the contrary, the paraphrase of the fused head into an antecedent and a postmodifier is a defining feature of a nominal relative clause. The omission of an antecedent in adjectival relative clauses is in most cases impossible and their transformation into nominal relative clauses, or adverbial clauses, is therefore not plausible. Based on my preliminary survey of examples, Sections 2.6, 2.7, 2.8, and 2.9 focus on factors which might influence the possibility of omitting an antecedent.

2.6 Premodifiers and quantifiers

2.6.1 Premodifiers

Premodifiers, modifiers which precede the head noun in a noun phrase, are one of the factors which might influence whether an antecedent can be omitted or not. “Premodifiers include primarily adjectives, but also participial modifiers, and other nouns” (Biber et al., 2007: 574). Adverbs may also occasionally function as premodifiers in noun phrases (ibid: 575). The major structural types of premodification are general adjective, *ed*-participial modifier, *ing*-participial modifier, and noun (ibid: 588). Premodifiers are in most cases more condensed than postmodifiers but also less explicit in expressing the ‘meaning relationship’ between the modifier and the noun (ibid: 588). It can be assumed that premodifiers of a general antecedent might make its omission problematic since premodification alters its general meaning. For example, *areas* and *home areas* or *room* and *staff room* do not have the same general meaning. This assumption is dealt with in Section 4.2.1.1.

2.6.2 Quantifiers

Indefinite pronouns include several groups of quantifiers, expressions which denote the quantity (Dušková et al., 2009: 4.7). Quantifiers belong to indefinite pronouns due to their ability to function as a nominal proform. (ibid: 4.7) Subgroups of quantifiers, such as universal, existential, negative, etc., differ from each other morphologically as well as syntactically (ibid: 4.7). They can function as a determiner of a noun (ibid: 4.7) and if they occur in the position of a determiner of the antecedent, we can expect that they can be an important aspect in deciding whether the antecedent is omissible. Determiners (as well as possessive nouns and numerals) specify the reference of the noun phrase (Biber et al., 2007: 588). This work assumes that whether the quantifier is omissible depends mainly on the degree to which it alters the meaning of the antecedent, respectively the sentence. This topic is further described in Section 4.2.1.1.

Some of the quantifiers, such as negative quantifier *no*, alter the meaning of the sentence significantly since their presence results in its negation. If a negative quantifier *no* is present in the sentence, the verb form must be positive in order to avoid double negation. (Dušková et al., 2009: 12.15.3) The elimination of the quantifier would therefore result in a significant change of meaning.

The existential quantifier *some* can occur in its reduced form as a determiner, in addition to a proform in its fully pronounced form (Dušková et al., 2009: 4.72.1). The reduced *some* has a similar function as an indefinite article (ibid: 4.72.11), however, it can also bear the meaning of an unspecified small amount, digressing slightly from the meaning of the indefinite article (ibid: 4.72.11). The existential quantifiers indicate that a particular group has at least some representatives, as opposed to the universal quantifiers which refer to all members of a particular group, and thereby mark their existence (ibid: 4.72).

2.7 Existential constructions, cleft sentences, correlative pairs

This work assumes that apart from premodification and determination, certain grammatical constructions, such as existential constructions, cleft sentences, and correlative pairs, influence the possibility of the omission of an antecedent. The potential influence of the special constructions on the elision of an antecedent is described in Section 4.2.1.2.

2.7.1 Existential constructions

In the *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* by Biber, D. et al. (2007) the role which existential *there* assumes in the existential construction is described as a special type of dummy subject (Biber et al., 2007: 125). The construction is used with verbs denoting existence, mainly with the verb *be* (ibid: 153) and is used to predicate the existence or occurrence of the postponed notional subject (ibid: 944). Since the construction denotes the existence of the nominal element, it can be assumed that it is impossible to omit general locative and temporal antecedents, since the nature of *where* and *when* is not nominal enough.

2.7.2 Cleft sentences

In *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*, the *it*-cleft construction is described as consisting of a foregrounded element and a cleft relative clause. (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002: 1035) According to Huddleston and Pullum, the cleft construction divides the elementary construction into two parts: one which is foregrounded and the other which is backgrounded. (ibid: 1035) The types of clefts include *it*-cleft (example V), *wh*-cleft (example VI), and reversed *wh*-cleft (example VII) which differs from the *wh*-cleft in the position of the *wh*-clause and the focused element. (Biber et al., 2007: 960) We can assume that if the antecedent is the foregrounded information it is impossible to omit it.

(V) It was Tom who (that) repaired Jane's typewriter at the office yesterday.

(Dušková et al., 2009: 14.36.2)

(VI) What he did was to go to Holy Trinity Church. (Biber et al., 2007: 960)

(VII) Help is what I want, not your pity. (ibid: 960)

As stated in *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*, there is a very common type of structure, structurally related to reversed *wh*-clefts, referred to as demonstrative *wh*-cleft. (Biber et al., 2007: 961) Demonstrative *wh*-clefts contain a demonstrative pronoun (usually *that*) followed by the verb *be* and a dependent clause introduced by a *wh*-word. (ibid: 961) The following example illustrates such structure:

(VIII) That's what I thought. (Biber et al., 2007: 961)

This type of cleft sentences allows the fused relative to function as a subject. The influence that the cleft sentences, including the demonstrative *wh*-cleft, have on the possibility of omitting the antecedent is dealt with in Section 4.2.1.2.

2.7.3 Correlative Coordinators and Subordinators

Correlative coordinators refer to a more complex form corresponding to a simple coordinator (Biber et al., 2007: 80). For instance, correlative coordinators in the sentence ‘The couple were both shoved and jostled.’ (ibid: 80) correspond to the simple coordinator *and*. The pairs of correlative coordinators are called correlative pairs in some sources. Correlative pairs are used in order to stress the meaning of addition, alternative, or contrast as well as to single out each of the coordinated elements. (ibid: 80) Correlative subordinators refer to the subordinators which “cooperate with the form they correlate with to express the relation between the clauses” (ibid: 86). Correlative subordinators include pairs such as *as...as* in ‘You are not as dumb as you look are you? (ibid: 86)’ *more...than* in ‘I was confused by all these solicitous questions, and found myself telling more lies than I had to.’ (ibid: 86), *so...that* in ‘Confidence is so fragile at this stage that if recovery were to falter, interest rates would have to be reduced further.’ (ibid: 86), etc. It is expected that correlative pairs represent another structure that might influence whether a particular antecedent can be omitted.

2.8 Prepositions

The present work assumes that a preposition preceding an antecedent might be another factor influencing the hypothesized omission of the antecedent. The cases when a preposition precedes the antecedent might cause disputes since the possible omission of the preposition might be subjective. In some cases, their presence with a fused relative results in a sentence which is not grammatically correct. This case is illustrated by the following example:

(IX) * I bought with what you could wrap it. (Caponigro, 2002: 3)

In other cases, for instance when the relative clause functions as a complement of a preposition, the presence of a preposition is possible (Biber et al., 2007: 103). It is the case in the following example:

(X) Component drawings carry instructions on where they are used and from what they are made. (ibid: 103)

When considering which prepositions might be complemented by a nominal relative clause, one might consider the eight patterns of clauses containing an antecedent, preposition and relative that *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* distinguishes (Quirk et al., 1985: 1254).

Clausal patterns	Examples (Quirk et al., 1985: 1254)
Pattern 1: antecedent + preposition + <i>wh</i> -pronoun	<u>the day on which</u> she arrived
Pattern 2: antecedent + <i>wh</i> -pronoun + deferred preposition	<u>the day which</u> she arrived <u>on</u>
Pattern 3: antecedent + that + deferred preposition	<u>the day that</u> she arrived <u>on</u>
Pattern 4: antecedent + zero relative + deferred preposition	<u>the day</u> she arrived <u>on</u>
Pattern 5: antecedent + <i>wh</i> -adverb	<u>the day when</u> she arrived
Pattern 6: antecedent + zero relative + zero preposition	<u>the day</u> she arrived
Pattern 7: antecedent + <i>that</i> + zero preposition	<u>the day that</u> she arrived
Pattern 8: <i>wh</i> -clause without antecedent (<i>ie</i> a nominal relative clause)	<u>when</u> she arrived

Table 1: Patterns of clauses containing an antecedent

These patterns show different paraphrases of the same clause and vary mainly in the position of the preposition. However, the only pattern with an omitted antecedent is Pattern 8. In addition to the antecedent, the preposition which occurred in the original clause is omitted as well. When the prepositions cannot be deferred, only three other options remain: a preposition preceding the *wh*-word, omission of the preposition, or the impossibility to remove the antecedent.

2.8.1 Free and Bound Prepositions

The distinction between free and bound prepositions, which is described in *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*, is made based on the degree of independence of the preposition. “Free prepositions have an independent meaning and the choice of

preposition is not based on any specific words in the context” (Biber et al., 2007: 74). One preposition can function as a free as well as a bound preposition (ibid: 74). As noted in *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*, other grammars might refer to bound prepositions which are part of prepositional verbs as ‘particles’ (ibid: 74). The following examples show an instance of a free preposition (XI) and a bound preposition (XII).

(XI) But the only other thing perhaps, he’ll go with one of the kids, that’s a possibility. (ibid: 74)

(XII) They’ve got to be willing to part with that bit of money. (ibid: 74)

This work considers the distinction between the free and bound prepositions important for deciding which prepositions need to be omitted together with the antecedent.

2.8.2 Prepositional Phrases

For the purpose of this work, it is also important to consider the terms ‘prepositional phrase’ and ‘prepositional complement’. Prepositional phrases consist of a preposition and its complement, which is most frequently a noun phrase (Biber et al., 2007: 103). The *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* describes a prepositional phrase as a phrase which may be viewed as “a noun phrase extended by a link showing its relationship to surrounding structures” (ibid: 103). Prepositions may also take nominal clauses as complements, particularly *wh*-clauses and *ing*-clauses (ibid: 103). An instance of a nominal clause used as a complement of a preposition can be found in the following example:

(XIII) Component drawings carry instructions on where they are used and from what they are made. (Biber et al., 2007: 103)

The complement of the preposition can also be an adverb or another prepositional phrase which are mainly found in expressions of direction (ibid: 104). The following examples (XIV) and (XV) show an adverb as a complement of a preposition:

(XIV) So you’re sitting in here at the moment are you Stanley?
(Biber et al., 2007: 104)

(XV) Allow yourself time for home thoughts from abroad. (ibid: 104)

2.9 Valency

It can be assumed that the valency of the matrix clause verb is another factor that needs to be considered when considering the potential omission of an antecedent. One should especially focus on the clause elements which are obligatory and cannot be omitted. Specific patterns of clause elements that can or must occur with the verb are referred to as ‘valency patterns’ (Biber et al., 2007: 380). These patterns contain a subject and optional additional element that have to occur with the verb (ibid: 380).

Table 2 shows the five major valency patterns described in *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* with respective examples (ibid: 380-381). It should be noted that this work uses a slightly different terminology when describing syntactic functions from the one used in LGSWE. Terms such as an object complement (Co) and an object predicative (Po) as well as a subject complement (Cs) and a subject predicative (Ps) refer to the same phenomena. Any further mentions of these syntactic functions have been changed in order to remain consistent.

Valency pattern	Example
Intransitive (SV)	<i>More people came.</i>
Monotransitive (SVOd)	<i>She carried a long whippy willow twig.</i>
Ditransitive (SVOiOd)	<i>Fred Unsworth gave her a huge vote of confidence.</i>
Complex transitive (SVOC _o , SVO _d A)	<i>It was natural to call them photons.</i> <i>He reached out to put his hand on the child's shoulder.</i>
Copular (SVC _s)	<i>Carrie felt a little less bold.</i>
Intransitive with optional adverbial (SVA)	<i>He went to the corner shop.</i>
Transitive with optional adverbial (SVOA)	<i>He ate nearly all those chips tonight.</i>

Table 2: Major valency patterns

The valency patterns shown in table 2 can be described as follows. The intransitive verb occurs with no additional object or complement, monotransitive verb requires an additional clause element, particularly an object, ditransitive verbs occur in a pattern with an object and an additional indirect object, complex transitive verbs can occur in two different patterns. The first pattern SVOC_o includes a direct object and an object complement, the second

pattern SVOdA consists of a direct object and an obligatory adverbial. The copular verbs appear in the SVCs pattern in which the subject, copular verb and subject complement, realized by a noun, adjective or a prepositional phrase, occur. Lastly, the patterns SVA and SVOA contain an optional adverbial, in case of SVOA in addition to an object. (Biber et al., 2007: 380-381) The distinction of these patterns is important for the determination of which clause elements can be omitted.

3. Material and Method

3.1 Material

The material used for the analytical part of this work consists of a hundred subordinate clauses (50 adjectival and 50 nominal relative clauses) which were excerpted from the British National Corpus accessed via *www.korpus.cz*. The syntactic and semantic observations made in the analytical part are based on sections on the particular topics presented in the major comprehensive grammar books.

3.2 Method

As the first step in our sample compilation, lemmas that occur in the position of an antecedent in the adjectival relative clauses introduced by *when* and *where* and their frequencies were excerpted from the BNC in order to determine which head nouns should be sought in the subsequent queries. That goal was achieved by searching a sequence of a noun followed by the lemma *where* or *when* using the CQL query [tag="N.*"] [lemma="when"] and [tag="N.*"] [lemma="where"]. As the second step, the lists of excerpted lemmas and their frequencies were examined and the most general antecedents of the first 100 locative and 100 temporal lemmas were further excerpted.

The degree of generality of each lemma was determined subjectively on the basis of its interchangeability with the general antecedent *place* for locative antecedents and *time* for temporal antecedents. Antecedents specific in their meaning, such as *house*, *hospital*, *town*, *war*, *Saturday*, *weekend*, etc., were excluded as well as lemmas which were not locative or temporal and whose occurrence preceding *when* or *where* indicated an adverbial clause rather than a relative clause. For example, sequences of a lemma and an adverb such as *mind when*, *child when*, *work when*, *idea where*, *money where*, etc. were excluded. The second step resulted in a list of seven general locative and seven general temporal antecedents which are listed and analysed in detail in Section 4.1. and which were used in the CQL query below.

In order to compile the material, sequences of a general antecedent and the adverb *when* or *where* were sought in the corpus using the CQL queries [lemma="area|place|spot|site|environment|space|location"] [lemma="where"] and [lemma="time|moment|period|date|era|day|year"] [lemma="when"]. The first 155 sentences for each query were excerpted to obtain two preliminary samples. After the examples which were not relative clauses or which were fragmentary or not complete were excluded, the

preliminary samples contained 149 sentences with temporal and 135 sentences with locative antecedents. Subsequently, sentences with overly repetitive patterns were excluded in order to provide a varied sample for the analysis (see 3.2.1).

3.2.1 Compiling the sample

The ultimate goal was to obtain two samples, each of 50 sentences; the first sample represents adnominal relative clauses and the second sample represents NRCs complementing a preposition, see Appendix.

1. For the purpose of the analysis of adnominal relative clauses with general antecedents, which focuses on describing different possible environments allowing or disallowing the omission of an antecedent, a variety of syntactic structures was preferred to an objective excerpt which would result in a rather homogeneous sample. For this reason, every instance of repetitive structures, such as existential constructions, premodified antecedents, antecedents as a complement of the same prepositions, and antecedents functioning as a subject complement in a sentence beginning with a demonstrative pronoun, was not included in the sample.

For instance, the existential construction appeared very frequently in sentences with a temporal antecedent. Since two examples of a sentence containing the existential construction and a temporal antecedent had been already included in the sample (TI2, TI10), additional sixteen examples (out of 149) with existential construction were excluded to ensure a more varied sample. The sentences with the existential construction and a locative antecedent were treated similarly. The following sentences (XVI) and (XVII) have the same syntactic structure and therefore would not provide any additional information for the analytical part which examines the different types of syntactic environment.

(XVI) There are times when his world can appear to consist of Jews and of those to whom a Jew might wish to escape -- such as America 's well-heeled Wasps, or the semi-imaginary anti-Semites...

(XVII) There are times when it might seem that this is a definition which can produce the sense of a self which is both amorphous and autonomous, of a doubtful self which also serves...

Both locative and temporal antecedents very often occurred in the sequence ‘preposition + noun + relative adverb’, especially in sequences with prepositions *in*, *at*, *on*, *from*. Since twelve examples of sentences with such sequences were included in the sample, the remaining sentences with the same structure were excluded. For example, sentence (XVIII) and (XIX) were not included because examples (XX) and (XXI) were already present in the sample.

(XVIII) This passage was written, incidentally, at a time when he was not well informed about Klee 's own ideas.

(XIX) We live at a time when reporters go to foreign countries where there is trouble and come back to write books in which they say that it was hard to make out what was going on.

(XX) I was particularly impressed by the way you managed to organise all the available services so efficiently -- just at the time when we were beginning to wonder how we'd manage. (TI1)

(XXI) This kind of move came at a time when Tetley's, along with other arms of Allied Breweries, espoused and encouraged a culture of well-informed and caring in-house designers. (TI4)

The rest of the sentences with prepositions as well as other repetitive structures were treated in a similar manner. A number of sentences which contained a premodified antecedent were also excluded since the aim of the analyse of the sample was mainly to observe the different syntactic structures. The presence of a different lemma in the function of a premodifier does not influence the syntactic structure of the sentence.

All sentences beginning with a demonstrative pronoun in which the antecedent functions as a subject complement were also not included in the sample due to their repetitive occurrence. Sentences such as examples (XXII) and (XXIII) were excluded, since the sample had already contained the example (XXIV) with a very similar structure. The same process was used for sentences with locative antecedents.

(XXII) This was the place where there were rows about his reformation.

(XXIII) So this is an area where no sort of remedy is obtainable from the attempt to invoke or elicit the natural response of a community to an attack upon its health.

(XXIV) This is one area where modern criticism has notably failed. (LP8)

In general, if the same syntactic structure occurred in a number of subsequent examples, the latter examples were excluded in order to sustain a varied sample. The exception after the exclusion of repetitive patterns resulted in a sample of 25 relative clauses with temporal and 25 relative clauses with locative antecedents. This sample was further used for the analytical part of this thesis.

2. As the next step, a sample of 50 nominal relative clauses complementing a preposition was excerpted from the corpus. A slightly different approach was used for compiling the sample of the nominal relative clauses. A varied sample was not necessary since the analysis of nominal relative clauses focuses on the most frequent syntactic environment. First, a list of sentences containing the sequence ‘preposition + *when* or *where*’ was excerpted from the corpus using the CQL query [tag="PR.*"] [lemma="when|where"]. Subsequently, clauses which were not nominal relative clauses or which were not complete were excluded. Sentences such as example (XXV) and (XXVI) were therefore not included in the sample.

(XXV) Keep your cutting shaded and pot on when well rooted.

(XXVI) Do you know what it's like when people turn away before you've finished speaking?

The first 50 complete nominal relative clauses were then excerpted. The final sample of nominal relative clauses complementing a preposition followed by a fused relative was used for the second part of the analysis in Section 4.3 which focuses on the syntactic environment in which a fused relative and a preposition occur.

3.3 Hypothesis

The main hypothesis is that it is possible to omit all general locative and temporal antecedents which introduce adjectival relative clauses without a significant change of meaning if there are no other syntactic or semantic blocking factors. Therefore, it is possible to alternate the adjectival and nominal relative clause without a change of meaning or its structure apart from the elimination of the antecedent in an environment which allows this alternation.

This work aims to describe such environment and tendencies which are apparent in examples where an antecedent can or cannot be omitted as well as constraints which disallow the elimination of the antecedent.

4. Analysis

The present chapter contains a description and an analysis of lemmas that occur in the position of an antecedent of adjectival relative clauses (4.1), as well as of fifty adjectival (4.2) and fifty nominal relative clauses (4.3) excerpted from the British National Corpus. The sentences used for the analysis consist of adjectival relative clauses with a general locative or temporal antecedent and nominal relative clauses introduced by adverbs *where* and *when* complementing a preposition. Attention has been paid mainly to the possible omission of the antecedent in the adjectival relative clauses and the environment which allows such action. The nominal relative clauses introduced by *where* and *when* were examined in order to further describe the environment which allows the presence of fused relatives.

4.1 General antecedents and their frequencies

Locative and temporal antecedents which introduce the adjectival relative clauses excerpted from the BNC were organised in a list according to the frequency of their occurrence. A hundred most frequent antecedents in each category were then examined and a short list of lemmas which can be considered general antecedents was created. Whether a particular antecedent can be considered general or not was decided based on its possible alternation with the general nouns *place* for locative and *time* for temporal antecedents with as little change of meaning as possible. The following table of general antecedents and their frequencies was developed based on this criterion.

Locative antecedents		Temporal Antecedents	
Lemma	Absolute frequency	Lemma	Absolute frequency
Area	1646	Time	3986
Place	1637	Day	1700
Spot	229	Year	907
Site	179	Moment	670
Environment	115	Period	454
Space	78	Date	134
Location	54	Era	66

Table 3: Frequency of general locative and temporal antecedents

Table 3 shows that the most frequent antecedent followed by the relative adverb *where* is the noun *area*. It should be noted that this result includes clauses in which *area* does not

refer to a location but rather to abstract concepts such as *area of knowledge*. The exclusion of instances of antecedents which are not locative resulted in a decrease in proportion of the noun *area*. After the exclusion of antecedents which were not locative, the antecedent *place* became the most frequent locative general antecedent. The substantial decrease in proportion of the noun *spot* is surprising, considering the minute nuance in the meaning of *spot* and *place*.

The other locative antecedents which can be considered general in meaning appear to be significantly less frequent than *area* and *place*. While the meaning of the antecedents *site*, *space*, and *location* is fairly similar to the meaning of *place* and their interchangeability is theoretically possible in most cases, the substitution by the antecedent *place* can result in a slightly less natural sentence. The noun *location* bears the closest meaning to the general noun *place* in most of the cases, for instance, in the following example:

- (1) The museum is also the place where the closest consideration can be given to the troublesome problems of fakes and other forms of inauthenticity. (LP1)
- (1a') The museum is also the location where the closest consideration can be given to the troublesome problems of fakes and other forms of inauthenticity.
- (1b') The museum is also the space where the closest consideration can be given to the troublesome problems of fakes and other forms of inauthenticity.

As can be seen from the examples (1), (1a') and (1b'), the antecedent *place* and *location* are very close in meaning in most contexts. In this particular example, the antecedent *space* can replace *place*, however, the possible alternation of the antecedent *place* and *space* or *site* depends more on the context and does not always sound natural. Even though, these antecedents might not be interchangeable in all contexts without resulting in a slight difference in meaning or a less natural sounding sentence, all of them can be considered general and therefore can be omitted from a sentence without changing its meaning, as shown on the following example:

- (1c') The museum is also where the closest consideration can be given to the troublesome problems of fakes and other forms of inauthenticity.

The possibility of the omission of a general antecedent is not influenced by a particular lemma which appears in the position of an antecedent, however, there are certain factors which may influence whether an antecedent can be left out. For instance, the antecedent

environment is omissible in sentences with a locative meaning in which it can be substituted with the general noun *place*. It is evident from our corpus data that the antecedent *environment* frequently appears after the preposition *in* which influences the analysis of its possible omission. It is important to note that the number of sentences with the antecedent *environment* is not substantial enough to draw any conclusion, since there is only one instance of the antecedent *environment* in the sample (LI4). The frequency of the sequence of the preposition *in* and the noun *environment* is based on further corpus search. Even though the omission of *environment* is often disallowed by factors, such as the preposition *in*, it does not suggest that *environment* is not an omissible general antecedent. Its general and omissible character can be demonstrated on the following example in which the noun *environment* can be substituted with *place* with only a slight change of meaning.

(2) These are not just fizzy lager joints, but environments where a bank of six beer engines can sit happily on the bar counter offering a wide selection of real ales. (LI4)

(2a') These are not just fizzy lager joints, but places where a bank of six beer engines can sit happily on the bar counter offering a wide selection of real ales.

Table 3 further shows that *time* is the most frequent as well as the most general antecedent is followed by the relative adverb *when*. In contrary to the locative general antecedents which are in many cases fully interchangeable with the noun *place*, the inventory of temporal antecedents shows a certain nuance in meaning. For instance, the meaning of the nouns *day* and *year* is not interchangeable by any means but both these antecedents might be considered general in most cases since their presence is not required for understanding of the sentence. In other words, meaning of these nouns can be substituted by a rather vague meaning of the noun *time* without any significant difference in meaning. This can be demonstrated on the following examples.

(3) He asks the daughter of the refugee cook, remembering the days when he made love with this daughter, if she had known two different boys. (TP2)

(3a') He asks the daughter of the refugee cook, remembering the times when he made love with this daughter, if she had known two different boys.

(4) That was the year when, in the parks and boulevards of the great cities of the West, people first began to talk about the death of images. (TP4)

(4a') That was the time when, in the parks and boulevards of the great cities of the West, people first began to talk about the death of images.

The examples (3) and (3a') are closer in meaning than examples (4) and (4a') which show a slightly different meaning. However, this nuance in meaning can be considered rather insignificant since it does not change the overall message of the sentence or its parts.

Whereas the first two most frequent antecedents followed by the relative adverb *where* were very similar in their frequency, the most frequent antecedent followed by the temporal adverb *when* appears more than twice as frequently as the second most frequent temporal antecedent. The slight difference in meaning of the antecedents concerns mainly the duration, as the difference in duration between a *moment* and an *era* is quite substantial. *Period* mirrors to some extent the characteristics of the antecedent *spot*. The difference in meaning of *period* and *time* is quite insignificant and the two nouns are interchangeable in most cases (similarly to *place* and *spot*). The antecedent *period*, however, appears much less frequently than the antecedent *time*. It occurs mostly in various written texts, chiefly in non-fiction. There are other nouns which can be considered general antecedents and which do not appear in Table 3 such as *phase*, *second* (temporal), *section*, *setting* (locative) etc. Such antecedents are not examined in this work since they appear in low numbers with absolute frequency under 40 in the whole BNC.

4.2 Omission of the antecedent

The sample of 50 adjectival relative clauses was organised into two categories based on their characteristics. The sentences were divided based on the antecedent into a category of sentences in which the relative clause is introduced by a locative antecedent (L) and those introduced by a temporal antecedent (T). The sample sentences within these groups were further organised into a group of examples in which the antecedent is possible (P) or impossible (I) to be omitted without any other structural changes as well as changes of meaning. The restrictions which might disallow the omission are dealt with in Section 4.2.1.

	T-sentences	L-sentences	Total
P-sentences	13	16	29
I-sentences	12	9	21
Total	25	25	50

Table 4: Distribution of TP- and LP- sentences

4.2.1 Constraints in the process of elimination

4.2.1.1 Change of meaning

A very frequent type of a restriction which prevents the elimination of an antecedent is a resultant change in meaning. The change in meaning in most sentences with both temporal and locative antecedent is caused by the elimination of a premodified antecedent. The degree of acceptability of sentences with the omitted antecedent is rather subjective, causing the omission of the antecedent to be disputable; however, it can be objectively examined to what extent the elimination of the antecedent changes the overall meaning of the sentence. In some cases, the missing information caused by the elimination of the antecedent can be retrieved from the context, particularly from the relative clause. It is the case of the following example:

(5) I found myself in the same place where I 'd been wounded in Easter, 1917. (LI1)

(5a') *I found myself in where I'd been wounded in Easter, 1917.

(5b') I found myself where I'd been wounded in Easter, 1917.

Even though the premodifier of the antecedent would have to be omitted with the antecedent in example (5), the postmodification of the antecedent indicates that the speaker had been to the place before and therefore provides the needed information which indicates that the place the speaker is in and the place where the speaker had been wounded are indeed the same place. Since the information expressed by the premodifier is at least partly retrievable from the linguistic context, the premodifier does not necessarily disallow the omission of the antecedent. The presence of premodification does not change the meaning and therefore the antecedent could have been omitted, were it not for the preposition preceding the adverb. Sentence (5a') does not appear to be grammatically correct due to the presence of the preposition. A spatial preposition, such as *in*, is redundant since the spatial nature of the relative adverb *where* is sufficient enough to express the meaning. In this case, the antecedent can be left out only if the preposition is left out as well and thus transformed into an adverbial clause (example 5b').

In the following example (6), premodification has a greater importance since it modifies the meaning of a general antecedent more significantly.

(6) He moaned about 'declining standards' and fondly recalled his own early days when each detective had to wear a dark striped, three-piece suit, an Anthony Eden homburg, and a watch chain at the correct angle. (TI8)

(6a') He moaned about 'declining standards' and fondly recalled the days when each detective had to wear a dark striped, three-piece suit [...]

(6b') He moaned about 'declining standards' and fondly recalled when each detective had to wear a dark striped, three-piece suit [...]

The premodifier in example (6) could be left out without inflicting on the grammaticality of the sentence but the meaning of the speaker's involvement and the reference to his life, partly expressed by verb *recall*, would be lost. If we consider the verb *recall* and its meaning a source that would be sufficient enough in retrieving the missing information, the premodification can be omitted. In that case, as shown in example (6a'), a general antecedent is present in the sentence. This antecedent can be further omitted since there are no other syntactic restrictions, resulting in a nominal relative clause, as shown in example (6b'). In the sentence (6b'), the relative clause becomes a direct object due to its nominal character.

The information expressed by the premodifier is not always retrievable from the immediate context. However, it does not always disallow its elimination. In the following example, the adjective *last* modifies the general antecedent *year*.

(7) The saga began last year when the council opened a new open-plan primary school to relieve overcrowding in Groby's two existing primary schools. (TI12)

(7a') The saga began when the council opened a new open-plan primary school to relieve overcrowding in Groby's two existing primary schools.

In this case, the premodifier can be omitted if the time of the action is known from the extralinguistic context or considered a general knowledge in a certain group of people. Since there are no other syntactic or semantic restrictions, the antecedent is then omissible as in example (7a'). In this case, the sentence is transformed into an adverbial clause rather than a nominal relative clause.

In addition to modification, another factor influencing the potential absence of the antecedent due to the possible changes in meaning is the presence of quantifiers. Similarly to modification, quantifiers also change the meaning of the sentence. The change of the meaning might alter from insignificant to substantial and in some cases, it may not prevent the omission. In the following example (8), the quantifier *one* expresses a meaning similar to an indefinite or definite article which are frequent with general antecedents. Since the quantifier does not have a significant impact on the meaning of the sentence, it can be freely

omitted. In other cases, however, the quantifier might be more significant for the general meaning of the sentence than a premodifier and therefore its elimination would be impossible.

(8) This is one area where modern criticism has notably failed. (LP8)

(9) After his retirement there was no place where he took more delight in an invitation to talk than in one of the Cambridge churches or one of the college chapels. (LI9)

As mentioned in 2.6.2, due to the negative quantifier *no* which is present in the example (9), the antecedent of the relative clause is not omissible since the omission would change the meaning significantly, changing the polarity of the sentence. The polarity of the verb needs to be changed in order to omit the antecedent and its quantifier and therefore it is not possible to omit the antecedent without any other structural change. Furthermore, the omission of the antecedent in example (9) is disallowed also by the presence of the existential construction.

4.2.1.2 Syntactic structure

The possibility of omitting the antecedent is also influenced by the syntactic structure of the sentence. Certain constructions, such as the existential construction or correlative pairs can make the omission of the antecedent impossible. It was observed on the corpus data that certain constructions, such as an existential construction, are one of the most frequent factors disallowing the omission of the temporal antecedent. In the following example (10), the existential construction does not allow the elimination of the locative antecedent since the nature of *where* and *when* is not nominal enough to substitute for the nominal antecedent and function as the subject proper. Comparison with fused relatives *what* (11) shows that it is possible for the fused relative to occur in existential construction if the nominal nature of the fused relative is apparent.

(10) Guerrillas, then, is shaped in order to accommodate its three zones, and in accordance with a distinction between the political and the phantasmagorical, though there are moments when phantasmagoria, futility, threatens to envelop the island. (TI2)

(11) Besides which, there is what is called a diplomat in our midst, Mrs Winkowski. (BNC)

The fused relatives introducing nominal relative clauses can occur in all nominal syntactic functions and therefore also as a subject but it is impossible to eliminate the antecedent in

cases such as the existential construction which denotes the very existence of the said antecedent. The omission of the antecedent would result in an ungrammatical construction.

Similarly, existential constructions which occur in sentences with a locative general antecedent prohibit the antecedent from elimination, as it is in the following example:

- (12) While a good proportion of the West Coast route could be raised from 100 to 125mph at reasonable cost, there are many locations where it is necessary to impose speed restrictions because of curvature and track geometry. (LI7)

Even though, antecedents of the relative clauses which occur in cleft sentences appear to have a similar structure to the one of the existential constructions, since they too consists of a dummy subject and a postponed proper subject. In *wh*-clefts and reversed *wh*-clefts, the whole nominal relative clause can function as a subject (example 13 and 14). But in demonstrative *wh*-clefts, the fused relative can function as a subject (15).

- (13) What you should do is tag them when they come in (Biber et al., 2007: 960)
(14) You see a weekend flight is what you want. (ibid: 960)
(15) That's what I thought. (ibid: 961)

Some of the constructions that need the presence of a subject or coordination of two nouns present a difficulty when the omission of any of these elements is intended. Examples of such construction are, apart from those mentioned earlier, correlative pairs. The two elements cannot be omitted from its parallel structure which can be coordinate as well as subordinate in many cases since they emphasize the relationship (additive, contrastive, etc.) of the two constituents. It is possible to omit both or only the second antecedent in cases where the relative clause appears in a syntactic function which typically allows the elimination, such as a subject complement or an object (see 4.2.2), if certain conditions are fulfilled. For example, for the antecedent to be omissible, the coordinate elements must have a similar structure and the same antecedent. That is not the case in the following example:

- (16) These are not just fizzy lager joints, but environments where a bank of six beer engines can sit happily on the bar counter offering a wide selection of real ales. (LI4)

The correlative construction *not...but* would allow the omission of the antecedent due to its syntactic function, however, only if the antecedents of both coordinated elements were the same or had the same general meaning.

4.2.1.2.1 Prepositions

Some structural elements make the omission of the antecedent impossible, other factors, such as premodifiers of the antecedent or prepositions, might cause disputes. The possibility of omitting the antecedent is ambiguous mainly in sentences which contain prepositions. Sentences which include prepositions can be paraphrased in several ways, omitting or postponing certain elements of the sentence. In most cases it is impossible to omit an antecedent which is preceded by a preposition without any other structural changes in the sentences. There are, however, certain prepositions whose presence allows the elimination of the antecedent in certain environments. (These environments will be further discussed in Sections 4.2.2 and 4.3.1.)

As described in 2.8, there are eight patterns distinguished by *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* which include an antecedent, preposition and a relativizer. Only four of the patterns, however, contain a *wh*-word. Furthermore, only two of those patterns include a *wh*-word which is not a pronoun. These are the patterns 5 (antecedent + *wh*-adverb) and 8 (*wh*-clause without antecedent). The table of patterns shows that *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* does not consider a deferred preposition following a *wh*-adverb an option.

If the preposition is left stranded, the relativizer is often omitted, whereas the antecedent maintains its position in the sentence (Biber et al., 2007: 624), for example in ‘some of the houses I go to’ (ibid: 624). Deferred preposition, however, occurs only with *that* or zero relative or eventually with a *wh*-pronoun, as suggested by the list of patterns distinguished by Quirk et al. (1985). The second option is omitting the preposition altogether which often leads to omission of the relativizer as well (ibid: 624). For example, ‘the way I look at it’ (ibid: 624).

According to *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*, relative adverbs *where*, *when* and *why* “do not need to occur with a preposition, since they substitute for an entire adverbial while the other relativizers substitute only for a noun phrase” (Biber et al., 2007: 624). Therefore, if the verb can occur without a preposition, the least disputable option, when considering the possibility of omitting a locative or temporal antecedent, is to omit the preposition.

This is the case of free prepositions (whose difference from bound prepositions has been described in 2.8.1). The presence of free prepositions in the sample sentences results each

time in inability to omit the antecedent. In the sample sentences, it is not possible for the antecedent to be omitted and for the free preposition to remain in the sentence. However, it is possible to omit the antecedent as well as the preposition.

(17) I found myself in the same place where I 'd been wounded in Easter, 1917. (LI1)

(17a') *I found myself in where I 'd been wounded in Easter, 1917.

(17b') I found myself where I 'd been wounded in Easter, 1917.

(18) Although such findings are not in dispute, and of course are rarely undertaken in areas where public antagonism to the institution is known to run high, there is continual pressure to replicate them and repeat the consoling message. (LI5)

(19) On Saturday the two prelates attended a service of vespers at the Church of San Gregorio, which stands on the site where Pope Gregory sent St Augustine of Canterbury off to become the first Archbishop of Canterbury in 597. (LI8)

Examples (17), (18), and (19) are sentences in which it is impossible to omit the locative antecedent without omitting the preposition and therefore adjectival relative clauses in these examples cannot be transformed into nominal relative clauses. The ungrammaticality of these clauses without omission of the preposition is demonstrated by example (17a'). It is, however, possible to omit the antecedent as well as the preposition which results in a transformation of the adjectival relative clause into an adverbial clause as demonstrated by example (17b'). It is possible to omit the preposition, since its meaning is provided by the adverbial clause, however, it is not possible to omit the antecedent without any other structural changes and therefore these sentences are categorised as LI.

The antecedents also cannot be omitted from sentences with relative clauses introduced by *when* which include a free preposition followed by the antecedent. The following sentences are examples of such cases out of the 25 sample sentences which include a relative clause with a temporal antecedent:

(20) I was particularly impressed by the way you managed to organise all the available services so efficiently -- just at the time when we were beginning to wonder how we'd manage. (TI1)

(21) In those moments when a light was a dream or a miracle, you were light in that darkness. (TI3)

- (22) This kind of move came at a time when Tetley's, along with other arms of Allied Breweries, espoused and encouraged a culture of well-informed and caring in-house designers. (TI4)
- (23) 5 Inexperienced pilots should only try cloud flying on days when there is no risk of large clouds developing, i.e. when there is an inversion preventing large vertical development. (TI7)
- (24) British nuclear weapons were 'a total anachronism' in an era when political reform had swept the Soviet Union and Poland had a non-communist government, she said. (TI11)

The examples (20)-(24) contain a free preposition which is not dependent on any other word in the sentence. Therefore, there is no reason for the presence of the preposition once the antecedent is omitted. The antecedent can be omitted together with the preposition in examples (20)-(24) as well which transforms the relative clause into an adverbial clause.

4.2.1.2.2 Object

There are certain restrictions that can influence the omission of the antecedent functioning as an object. The instances in which it is not possible to omit the antecedent functioning as an object are illustrated by the following examples:

- (25) Mid-afternoon gives us a moment when the heart of light in a leaf trembles russet rainbows. (TI9)
- (26) I had to go back to the room, as if I needed to tell the place where I lived of my feeling. (LI6)

In example (25), the antecedent functions as a direct object in the pattern SVOiOd which appears to be impossible to omit. The clause pattern in example (26) is SVOiOp and the antecedent which functions as an indirect object is again not omissible. These examples indicate that while it is often possible to omit antecedent functioning as a direct object in the pattern SVO, it is not possible to omit the antecedent functioning as the direct object from the pattern SVOiOd or the indirect object from the pattern SVOiOp. Another restriction influencing the possible to omit an antecedent functioning as an object might be premodification which was already discussed in 4.2.1.1.

4.2.2 Environment allowing the omission

4.2.2.1 Syntactic functions

When considering what environment allows the omission of an antecedent, it is propitious to focus on the syntactic structure first. As observed on corpus data, the antecedent of adjectival relative clauses and the whole clause in nominal relative clauses can occur in several syntactic functions. Since it was assumed that the syntactic function influences the omission of the antecedent, further analysis was made on the sample sentences.

Syntactic functions which disallow the omission of the antecedent were already discussed in Section 4.2.1.2. These syntactic functions include a direct object in the clause pattern SVOiOd, an indirect object in the pattern SVOiOp and a subject proper in an existential construction. The distribution of the syntactic functions which allow the omission of the antecedent is illustrated by the following table.

Syntactic function	S	Cs	O	Prepositional Complement	Adv	Total
LP-sentences	3	3	5	5	0	16
TP-sentences	0	3	6	4	0	13
Total	3	6	11	9	0	29

Table 5: Distribution of syntactic functions of TP-/LP-sentences

Table 5 shows the distribution of syntactic roles in the 29 sample sentences with an omissible antecedent. In sentences containing a locative antecedent, the most frequent syntactic functions of the antecedent are the prepositional complement (27) and an object (28).

- (27) You need to bring it to a place where God reaches out into the secret places of the soul. (LP13)
- (28) Along the north Antrim coastal path, you can admire the work of a giant, see the place where a witch turned a king 's daughters into swans. (LP11)

The omissible locative antecedent functions less frequently as a subject (29) and subject complement (30)

- (29) Below us is the spot where King Lir's second wife, a witch naturally, turned his two daughters into swans. (LP12)
- (30) The poem is the place where occasions are exhausted, where opportunities are used up. (LP4)

The most frequent syntactic function for relative clauses with an omissible temporal antecedent is an object (31).

(31) The doctor will work out the date when your baby is due. (TP5)

Less frequent functions of the omissible temporal antecedent are a prepositional complement (32) and an object (33)

(32) I was practising this the other day, in preparation for the time when my climbing standard drops slightly, and was surprised to read some interesting facts about myself. (TP10)

(33) ‘The portrait painter seeks the moment when the model looks most like himself; in the capacity to find and hold this moment lies also the talent of the portraitist.’ (TP12)

On the other hand, none of the clauses where the antecedent is omissible function as an adverbial and in case of relative clauses with a temporal antecedent, also as a subject. It is important to note that all the omissible antecedents which function as a subject occur in sentences with a singular verb form and all the copular verbs in sentences with omissible antecedents functioning as a subject complement were the current copular verb *be*.

As observed on the corpus data, there was no instance of a relative clause with a general antecedent functioning as a subject complement in sentences with the copular verb *be* (and without any syntactic or semantic restriction) which would not be omissible. Restrictions which might influence the possibility of the omission of the antecedent are premodification (whose impact of the possibility of elimination of the antecedent has been discussed in 4.2.1.1) and plural, especially in sentences described in 2.7.2 in which a demonstrative pronoun *these* is followed by the plural form of the verb *be* and a dependent clause introduced by a *wh*-word. Even though, current copular verbs seem to be always in favour of elimination of the antecedent, the resulting copular verbs, such as *become*, appear to be more problematic.

4.2.2.1.1 Subject complement and subject

In the sample of 25 adjectival relative clauses with a locative antecedent and 25 adjectival relative clauses with a temporal antecedent, there are six examples of sentences with copular

verbs in which the NP with the relative clause functions as a subject complement, illustrated by examples (34)-(39):

- (34) The museum is also the place where the closest consideration can be given to the troublesome problems of fakes and other forms of inauthenticity. (LP1)
- (35) The poem is the place where occasions are exhausted, where opportunities are used up. (LP4)
- (36) This is one area where modern criticism has notably failed. (LP8)
- (37) The right moment to begin, he wrote, is the moment when right and wrong are no longer an issue. (TP3)
- (38) That was the year when, in the parks and boulevards of the great cities of the West, people first began to talk about the death of images. (TP4)
- (39) This, he suggests, is a time when we have witnessed the ending of the construct of what he calls, 'the homogeneity of man.' (TP9)

Based on the corpus data, it can be noted that sentences containing a current copular verb *be* are significantly more frequent than sentences containing resulting copulas. In the sample, there is no instance of a sentence with a resulting copular verb and an antecedent functioning as a subject complement. It can be assumed that the presence of a resulting copular verb can negatively influence the omission of the antecedent but there is not enough evidence in the sample to support this assumption. The plural form of the verb also might be problematic when it comes to omitting the antecedent.

In contrast with L-sentences, there is one example in the sample of 25 T-sentences, which contains the copular verb *be* in the past tense (38). The tense of the copular verb, however, does not influence the likelihood of omitting the antecedent. In all of the examples (37), (38), (39), the antecedent can be omitted no matter the tense of the verb. In all of the sentences where the relative clauses are introduced by *when*, the copula is a current copula *be*.

The results show that the possibility of elimination of the antecedent is very high when the relative clause functions as a subject complement after the omission. But there are restrictions which may cause disputes or disallow the omission. These restrictions are premodification and plural form of the verb (especially in sentences which contain the sequence 'demonstrative pronoun – verb *be* – dependent clause introduced by a *wh*-word'). Resulting copulas, such as *become*, might also be problematic.

The sentences in which the antecedent functions as a subject, appear to be more complicated. As noted in 4.2.2, the subject proper of an existential construction cannot be realized by a fused relative, since the nominal antecedent needs to occur in the construction. In several other cases, the antecedent is not omissible if it functions as a subject. It is the case of the following examples:

(40) Also listed are some other places where these services may be provided, or where you can get more information. (LI2)

(40a') Some other places where these services may be provided, or where you can get more information, are also listed.

(40b') *Also listed are where these services may be provided, or where you can get more information.

Inversion occurs in example (40) perhaps due to the end-weight and end-focus principle. It is grammatically correct to invert these two clause elements in their more regular S-V order, which results in the example (40a'). After the omission of the antecedent from the original sentence, the sentence is not grammatically correct, therefore it belongs to the category of sentences including a temporal antecedent which is not omissible (TI-sentences). To support this, there is no instance in the BNC of a sentence in which the verb *listed* is followed by the verb *be* and the adverb *where*. It is possible to omit the antecedent with certain structural changes; however, the grammaticality of the resulting sentence might be disputable. The problematic factors appear to be the plural verb form as well as the non-nominal nature of *where*.

(40c') ? Where these services may be provided, or where you can get more information, are also listed.

(40d') Where these services may be provided, or where you can get more information, is also listed.

Sentence (40c') appears to be less natural than sentence (40d') in which the verb is in the singular. Generally, in nominal relative clauses both singular and plural concord are plausible (Biber et al., 2007: 187), however, the presence of plural in the original sentence might be a restriction in the process of elimination of the general antecedent. The choice of the verb in the sentence with a fused relative might be therefore determined by a notional concord rather than the grammatical one. In example (30d), the relative clause functions as

a subject, proving that it is indeed possible in some cases. Example (41) with a temporal antecedent is similar to example (40) with a locative antecedent.

- (41) Gone are the days when women and children scabbled along the furrows in the wake of a plough or simple digger collecting the fruits of the earth by hand. (TI13)

The antecedent functioning as a subject is however omissible in sentences which contain a singular form of the verb and inverted word order A-V-S probably due to the presence of the adverbial at the beginning of the clause. It is the case of the following examples:

- (42) At the end of the corridor which he describes, before you get to the rubbish, is the place where the young make love. (LP2)
- (43) And here is a place where nice need not mean too naughty -- the creamless syllabub is made with Tofu, the dandelion coffee mousse contains agar agar, and the all-time favourite is a gravity. (LP6)
- (44) Below us is the spot where King Lir's second wife, a witch naturally, turned his two daughters into swans. (LP12)

4.2.2.3 Prepositions

It is possible to omit the antecedent in sentences in which a bound preposition occurs. The difference between a bound and a free preposition has been described in 2.8.1. The distinction between a free and a bound preposition often influences whether the antecedent can be omitted. In all the sentences with a bound preposition in the studied sample, the antecedent is omissible and the preposition remains in the sentence. In the sentences with free prepositions, the preposition has to be omitted together with the antecedent, otherwise the antecedent cannot be omitted. The examples of sentences with bound prepositions, and therefore an omissible antecedent, are:

- (45) They must be performed and co-ordinated with the dance style and musical rhythms appropriate to the location where the story is being enacted. (LP5)
- (46) But access to the sites where arctic alpines grew often demands considerable rock-climbing expertise, so Evan touches upon our world again. (LP7)
- (47) Body of Mrs Wilks was not found until two days later, at the bottom of a motorway embankment two-and-a-half miles away, when a motorist took police to a spot where he had seen a silver Renault 25 parked. (LP9)

- (48) You need to bring it to a place where God reaches out into the secret places of the soul. (LP13)
- (49) Indeed, there are some who feel that there should be no border, thinking back nostalgically to days when there was only one domain of art. (TP1)
- (50) I was practising this the other day, in preparation for the time when my climbing standard drops slightly and was surprised to read some interesting facts about myself. (TP10)
- (51) This is a far cry from the days when increases in national income were committed by the conference before they were generated and the economy's commanding heights were deemed to be heavy, smokestack industries. (TP11)

It can be concluded that the omission of the antecedent is influenced by the semantics as well as by the syntactic structure of the sentence. There are certain syntactic structures described in Section 4.2.1 which disallow the omission and on the other hand there are syntactic functions which favour the omission of the antecedent. Usually more than one factor influencing the omission appears in the sentence and each of them must be considered individually since a factor disallowing the omission might outweigh a factor allowing it.

4.3 Nominal relative clauses

The occurrence of a fused relative in nominal relative clauses was already touched upon in Section 2.2.1.1. Fused relatives in nominal relative clauses can be paraphrased by the addition of a general antecedent and thus transformed into adjectival relative clauses. In this section, fifty examples of nominal relative clauses following a preposition were examined in order to further analyse the environment in which it is possible to transform an adjectival clause into a nominal relative clause. This section focuses mainly on the prepositions followed by NRCs and the factors which allow a certain type of prepositions in the sequence 'preposition + fused relative'. These sentences are marked as FR standing for 'fused relative'.

4.3.1 Fused relatives accompanied by prepositions

As already discussed in 4.2.1.2.1 and 4.2.2.3, there are certain prepositions which allow the omission of the antecedent whilst remaining in the sentence. The omission of the antecedent then results in a sentence in which the preposition is followed by a relative adverb *when* or

where. These cases were further studied in corpus in order to examine which prepositions appear frequently in such position and with which relative. Tables 5 and 6 illustrate the results.

Relative <i>where</i>	
Preposition + <i>where</i>	Absolute frequency
To where	1122
From where	861
Of where	550
About where	279
On where	196
As to where	120

Table 6: Frequency of the patterns preposition + *where*

Relative <i>when</i>	
Preposition + <i>when</i>	Absolute frequency
For when	300
Of when	288
About when	257
To when	252
Like when	161
From when	159
Since when	121
On when	111

Table 7: Frequency of the patterns preposition + *when*

It is important to note that the absolute frequency of the combinations depicted in Tables 6 and 7 do not refer merely to the occurrence in nominal relative clauses. These are the lists of most frequent combinations of a preposition and a relative adverbial *where* or *when* which can appear in adverbial clauses as well as in nominal relative clauses. The method used for excerpting the list of prepositions followed by *when* or *where* is described in detail in Section 3.2.1. The possible occurrence of the sequence preposition + *when* or *where* in examples which are not nominal relative clauses is illustrated by examples (XXV) and (XXVI) in the same section. Moreover, it is possible that the absolute frequency includes examples in which the particular lemma functions as a particle or conjunction rather than a preposition.

Table 6 shows that the most frequent preposition which occurs with the relative *where* is the preposition *to* which can be a complement of the preceding word as well as a direction marker similarly to the second most frequent preposition *from*. Preposition *of*, which is the third most frequent preposition in combination with *where*, usually occurs as a complement of a preceding word and is usually bound. There is a decrease in proportion after the third most frequent preposition. The absolute frequency of prepositions *about*, *on*, and *as to* is more than 100, however, the absolute frequency of prepositions *in*, *at*, *by*, *for*, *with*, and *away from* in combination with *where* is less than 93.

Table 7 lists the most frequent prepositions which appear in sentences in combination with the relative *when*. As illustrated in the table, the overall frequency of the relative *when* is notably lower but the distribution of individual prepositions is more balanced. The most frequent preposition occurring with the relative *when* is the preposition *for* which can, similarly to the second most frequent preposition *of*, occur as a complement of the preceding word. The third most frequent preposition is *about* which often appears as a complement of a verb therefore as a bound preposition.

The most frequent sequences ‘preposition + *where* or *when*’ show that fused relative *where* appears most frequently with spatial prepositions which express direction (*to*, *from*) and less frequently with static prepositions of place (*on*) and other bound prepositions (*about*). The fused relative *when* occurs frequently with the temporal preposition specifying duration (*for*, *to*, *from*, *since*) and less often with static prepositions of time (*on*).¹ Preposition *on* appears to be the only frequent static preposition followed by fused relatives *when* and *where*. Other static prepositions of place or time (such as *at* or *in*) do not appear frequently with fused relatives *when* and *where*. It can be assumed that prepositions *at* and *in* occur with FR *when* and *where* only as bound prepositions. The presence of free prepositions *at* and *in* with *when* and *where* is redundant (see 4.2.1.1).

In the fifty examined sentences, the most frequently occurring preposition is the preposition *of* which appears in 34% of all the sentences predominantly with the relative *where*. The second most frequent preposition in the sample is the preposition *from* which occurs in 18% of the examples. Both these prepositions occur frequently as bound prepositions dependent on the preceding word. The distribution of the individual prepositions in the sample and their frequency is illustrated in Table 8.

¹ Classification of prepositions based on Sections 9.31 and 9.32 in *Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny*. (Dušková, et al.: 2012)

Sample sentences				
Preposition	Absolute frequency	With <i>where</i>	With <i>when</i>	Total
Of	17 (34%)	12	5	17
From	9 (18%)	8	1	9
About	8 (16%)	4	4	8
To	6 (12%)	5	1	6
For	4 (8%)	0	4	4
On	3 (6%)	2	1	3
Away from	2 (4%)	2	0	2
With	1 (2%)	1	0	1
Total	50 (100%)	34	16	50

Table 8: Distribution of prepositions followed by *where*, *when* in the sample

Table 8 shows that in most cases the more frequent fused relative in the excerpted sentences is the relative *where* with the exception of prepositions *about* and *for*. Even though complex prepositions often appear as free prepositions (Biber et al., 2007: 74), in the two instances of the studied sample, it is not possible to omit the preposition without a change of meaning due to the premodifiers which precede it:

(52) I'm back two doors away from where it all started, maybe I've been offered a new beginning. (FR39)

(53) A buffalo, one of Africa's most unpredictable and dangerous animals, out of sight but just a few feet away from where we were standing. (FR40)

As described in 4.2.1.2.1 and 4.2.2.3, usually if the preposition is bound or dependent on another word in the sentences, it is not necessary to omit the preposition together with the antecedent as it is in the following example:

(54) One source of interest can be a description of where the interview has taken place, perhaps a studio, or maybe the artist's home. (FR2)

In the sample of relative clauses with locative and temporal antecedents, all the prepositions that had to be omitted were free prepositions. For example,

(55) On Saturday the two prelates attended a service of vespers at the Church of San Gregorio, which stands on the site where Pope Gregory sent St Augustine of Canterbury off to become the first Archbishop of Canterbury in 597. (LI11)

- (56) 5 Inexperienced pilots should only try cloud flying on days when there is no risk of large clouds developing, i.e. when there is an inversion preventing large vertical development. (TI7)

It shows that bound preposition are not constraints in omitting the antecedent and can remain in the sentence. In the studied sample of sentences with fused relatives, not all prepositions are bound prepositions. The difference between a bound and a free preposition can be illustrated by the following examples:

- (57) But our sense of its space will always depend on where it is placed. (FR7)
(58) Courts Correspondent Policemen standing yards from where 95 soccer fans died in the Hillsborough football stadium disaster were last night expecting disciplinary charges. (FR9)

Example (57) is a demonstration of a bound preposition which appears after a prepositional verb *depend on*. It is indisputable that the preposition must remain in the sentence. On the other hand, example (58) shows a preposition which might be considered free since *stand from* is not a prepositional verb. But it is dependent on the word preceding it, namely the word *yards*, and therefore it remains in the sentence. If the preposition was to be omitted, the word *yards* has to be omitted as well.

It is also important to note that combining prepositions with fused relatives and its possibility is quite subjective and depends on the decision of the speaker. The highest frequency of instances per million of the sequence ‘preposition + relative adverb *where* or *when*’ is in spoken context governed language. That shows that this combination might be often based only on immediate decision of the speaker or can be slightly informal. It is advised in LGSWE to omit the preposition which is followed by *where* or *when* since the relative adverbs substitute for entire adverbial and the preposition is therefore redundant (4.2.1.2.1). Based on that, it can be assumed that when possible, it is better to omit the preposition together with the antecedent in formal speech.

Both combinations (preposition + *when* and *where*) still appear in quite high frequency in written books and periodicals. The absolute frequency of ‘preposition + *where*’ in written books and periodicals is 3009, which is the highest absolute frequency. The frequency of ‘preposition + *when*’ is 1672, which is the highest absolute frequency as well. However, it should be noted that these frequencies do not include only NRCs.

5. Conclusion

The aim of the thesis was to compare nominal relative and adnominal relative clauses with a general antecedent with the focus on the potential omission of the antecedent. The work described the general antecedents of adjectival relative clauses prone to omission and examined the environment which allows the omission of the general antecedent as well as factors which disallow it. The analysis was based on one hundred examples of adjectival and nominal relative clauses excerpted from the British National Corpus. The theoretical part of this work classified subordinate clauses and described in detail characteristics which distinguish the types of subordinate clauses since a proper distinction between the types was necessary for the purpose of the analysis and for the compilation of the sample. The sample consisted of 50 adjectival relative clauses with temporal and locative antecedents and 50 examples of nominal relative clauses following a preposition.

The first part of the analysis focused on nouns that can be considered general antecedents and the possibility of their omission. It was observed that antecedents which can be replaced by the most frequent and most general antecedents *place* and *time* in all or most cases without a change of meaning can be considered general and omissible regardless of their form, even if the particular environment prefers a certain lemma. Furthermore, it was described which general antecedents are most frequent with relative adverbs *where* and *when*. That survey showed that even though there are many antecedents which might be used as general antecedents, the most frequent general antecedents *place* and *time* are still preferred significantly.

The second part of the analysis described the environment which allows the omission of general antecedents as well as syntactic and semantic constraints which disallow it. The analysis showed that the omission of the temporal and locative antecedents is impossible in certain syntactic structures mainly due to the nature of the fused relatives *where* and *when* which does not, in some environments, sufficiently signal the nominal function of the clause. Therefore, fused relatives *where* and *when* cannot function as a subject proper in existential constructions or ditransitive clause patterns. On the other hand, fused relative *where* can function as a subject in the inverted clause pattern A-V-S since the adverbial at the beginning of the clause signals the function of the fused relative. Furthermore, it was observed that fused relatives can function as subject complement, object or prepositional complement. The omission of a general locative or temporal antecedent following a preposition is possible. Bound prepositions can (or must, depending on the structure) remain in the sentence after

the omission of the antecedent, whereas free prepositions should be omitted. Even though fused relatives *where* and *when* often function as a subject complement, it was observed that it is impossible (or disputable) to omit the antecedent functioning as a subject complement in sentences with a plural verb form or a resulting copular verb. The omission of the antecedent can be disallowed due to semantic change. For that reason, the omission of an antecedent with a premodifier or a quantifier can be impossible.

The last part of the analyses focused on nominal relative clauses. The syntactic environment in which a preposition is followed by a nominal relative clause was examined. The analysis of 50 nominal relative clauses following a preposition showed that the prepositions occurring in such environment are not only bound but also more frequently dynamic prepositions of place or time than static prepositions whose presence in the sentence is often redundant. It was further observed that the decision to omit the preposition together with the antecedent could depend on the speaker and their subjective choice.

We can conclude that general antecedents of adjectival relative clauses are omissible in all cases which comply the necessary conditions. And therefore, the alternation between an adjectival relative clause and nominal relative clause (or eventually an adjectival relative clause and an adverbial clause) is possible.

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British National Corpus (BNC). Available at <https://kontext.korpus.cz> [Last accessed 4 Aug 2019]

7. Resumé

Předmětem této studie bylo zkoumání alternace nominální a adjektivní vztažné věty a možnosti vypuštění antecedentu adjektivních vztažných vět s *where* a *when*, která tuto alternaci umožňuje. Jednou z charakteristických vlastností nominální vztažné věty je možná parafráze uvozovacího relativu na obecný antecedent a jeho postmodifikaci. Po této parafrázi se nominální vztažná věta stává adjektivní vztažnou větou. Tato práce se zabývala alternací těchto dvou typů vět, a to zejména těmi případy, kdy je možné převést adjektivní vztažnou větu na vztažnou větu nominální. V teoretické části byly popsány hlavní rysy vedlejších vět, jejichž správné rozlišení bylo nutné pro sběr dat potřebných pro praktickou část a jejich další zkoumání. Dále byly definovány pojmy a jevy, které byly použity pro popis syntaktického prostředí v praktické části práce.

Východiskem pro praktickou část bakalářské práce byla hypotéza, že všechny obecné místní a časové antecedenty adjektivních vztažných vět lze vypustit bez výrazné změny významu, pokud tomu nebrání sémantika nebo syntaktická struktura věty. Pokud je antecedent adjektivní vztažné věty obecný, lze jej vypustit, a dochází tak k přeměně na vztažnou větu nominální, popř. na větu příslovečnou. Tímto procesem dochází ke změně antecedentů s postmodifikací na tzv. *fused relatives*, relativu, které v sobě zahrnují antecedent i postmodifikaci. Pro ověření této hypotézy bylo zapotřebí v první řadě definovat výraz „obecný antecedent.“

Touto problematikou se zabývala první část praktické části této práce. Prvním krokem bylo sestavení vzorku vět potřebných pro zkoumání místních a časových antecedentů a struktury adjektivních vztažných vět. Příklady byly excerpovány z Britského národního korpusu (BNC). Nejprve byly vyhledány věty obsahující sekvenci podstatného jména a adverbia *when* nebo *where*. Tyto věty sloužily k získání seznamu podstatných jmen, která se nejčastěji vyskytovala v této sekvenci. Obecnost těchto podstatných jmen byla posouzena subjektivně na základě jejich zaměnitelnosti s obecným podstatným jménem *place* nebo *time*. Ze seznamu bylo dále vybráno sedm nejčastějších obecných místních a sedm nejčastějších obecných časových antecedentů, které sloužily jako materiál pro první část praktické části. Tato část se zabývala tím, jaké antecedenty lze považovat za obecné a zda platí, že každý obecný antecedent lze vypustit. Zkoumání vybraných antecedentů vedlo k závěru, že obecný antecedent je takový antecedent, který lze ve všech nebo alespoň ve většině případů nahradit obecných podstatných jménem *place* nebo *time* bez výrazné změny významu. Dále byla

v této části práce zjištěna silná preference typických obecných antecedentů *place a time* a to i v případech, kdy lze nahradit tyto obecné antecedenty jiným výrazem.

Druhý úsek praktické části se zabýval možnostmi vypuštění obecných místních a časových antecedentů na konkrétních příkladech. Materiálem pro tuto část bylo 25 adjektivních vztažných vět s místním a 25 adjektivních vět s časovým obecným antecedentem. Tento vzorek byl získán vyhledáním sekvence obecného antecedentu (určených v předchozím úseku práce) a adverbia *where* nebo *when*. Z těchto vět byly posléze vyřazeny nevyhovující příklady, tedy příklady vět, které nebyly vztažnými větami nebo nebyly kompletní, a opakující se větné struktury, za účelem sestavení vhodného a pestrého vzorku pro zkoumání různých syntaktických prostředí. Na těchto větách bylo zkoumáno, v jakém prostředí lze obecný antecedent vypustit a jaké podmínky ovlivňují jeho vypuštění. Tato podkapitola se nejprve zaměřila na restriktce, které zabraňují eliminaci antecedentu, a to jak z hlediska sémantiky, tak syntaktické struktury věty. Z této podkapitoly praktické části vyplývá, že mezi prvky, které znemožňují vypuštění antecedentu patří jak prvky, které neovlivňují gramatičnost souvětí, ale mění výrazně jeho význam, tak ty prvky, které ovlivňují gramatičnost daného souvětí.

Ze vzorku příkladů bylo zjištěno, že faktory, které znemožňují vypustit antecedentu kvůli změně významu souvětí, jsou především premodifikace a determinace. Premodifikátor či determinátor se nemohou ve větě vyskytovat bez antecedentu, který modifikují či determinují. Zároveň jejich vypuštění společně s antecedentem mění význam antecedentu samotného či celého souvětí. Pokud je tato změna výrazná, či pokud není možné zjistit vypuštěnou informaci ze zbytku věty, antecedent není považován za vypustitelný. Je možné, že syntaktická struktura věty vypuštění antecedentu dovoluje, ale sémantické restriktce vypuštění zamezují.

Další podkapitola této práce byla zaměřena na syntaktické faktory zamezující vypuštění antecedentu. Na základě zkoumaného vzorku bylo zjištěno, že mezi syntaktické faktory ovlivňující možnost vypuštění antecedentu patří speciální konstrukce, jako například existenciální konstrukce (*there* konstrukce), vytýkací konstrukce a korelační páry, dále některé typy předložek a určité syntaktické funkce. Z této podkapitoly, která se podrobně zabývala těmito restrikcemi, vyplývá, že nemožnost antecedent vypustit je v určitých syntaktických strukturách a funkcích je způsobena povahou *when* a *where*, které i jako samostatná relativa nedostatečně signalizují nominální funkci. Jelikož nominální povaha *when* a *where* není dostatečně zjevná, jejich výskyt může způsobovat nepřehlednost větné

struktury. Kvůli nepřehlednosti se *where* a *when* nevyskytují ani ve funkci přímého předmětu ve vzorci SVOiOd a nepřímého předmětu ve vzorci SVOiOp. Dalším faktorem zamezujícím vynechání antecedentu je přítomnost volné předložky, které musí být vynechána spolu s antecedentem, aby byla zachována gramatičnost věty.

V dalším úseku praktické části bylo popsáno prostředí, které umožňuje vypuštění antecedentu. Tato část práce se soustředila zejména na syntaktické funkce antecedentu, u kterých je pravděpodobné, že umožní vypuštění antecedentu a na četnost jejich výskytu. Ze sesbíraných příkladů vyplývá, že nejčastější syntaktickou funkcí, která umožňuje vypuštění antecedentu, je předmět a předložkový komplement u místního antecedentu a předmět u časového antecedentu. V této podkapitole bylo dále zjištěno, že pokud se antecedent objeví ve funkci jmenného přísudku, je pravděpodobné, že jej lze vypustit. To stejné platí pro antecedent ve funkci podmětu ve větě se slovesem v jednotném čísle a inverzí, či přímého předmětu.

Poslední úsek praktické části této práce se zaměřil na nominální vztažné věty, které následovaly po předložce. Materiálem pro tuto část byl vzorek 50 nominálních vztažných vět získaných z Britského národního korpusu (BNC). Prvním krokem při sestavování tohoto vzorku bylo vyhledání sekvence předložky a adverbia *where* nebo *when*. Prvních 50 kompletních nominálních vztažných vět poté bylo použito pro sestavení vzorku příkladů pro tuto část práce. Cílem analýzy nominálních vztažných vět, které se vyskytují po předložce, bylo zkoumání syntaktického prostředí, které tuto sekvenci umožňuje a zejména toho, jaké předložky se v takovém prostředí vyskytují. Tato podkapitola se nejprve zaměřila na četnost výskytu předložky a adverbia *where* nebo *when* a to na základě vyhledání této sekvence v Britském národním korpusu (BNC).

Bylo zjištěno, že adverbium *where* se vyskytuje po předložce častěji než adverbium *when* a to nejčastěji po předložce *to*. Adverbium *when* se nejčastěji vyskytuje s předložkou *for*. Při zkoumání četnosti jednotlivých předložek bylo zjištěno, že *when* a *where* v nominálních vztažných větách se nejčastěji vyskytují po předložkách směrových (otázka kam? odkud? apod.) a předložkách specifikujících trvání děje (otázka od kdy? jak dlouho? apod.) a jen zřídka po předložkách s primárním statickým užitím. V poslední části tohoto úseku bylo zjištěno, že rozhodnutí, zda předložky vypustit či ne může z velké části záviset na mluvčím. Na základě informací sesbíraných a popsanych v teoretické části je pravděpodobné, že vypuštění předložky v souvětích s nominální vztažnou uvedenou *when* a *where* je pravděpodobně vhodné ve formálním projevu.

Závěrečná kapitola této práce shrnuje všechny její části a výsledky analýzy. Z této práce vyplynulo, že místní a časové antecedenty, které lze považovat za obecné, je možné vypustit pokaždé, kdy to syntaktické prostředí dovoluje, pokud se ve větě nevyskytují restriktce, které by vynechání antecedentu zabraňovaly, a pokud se vypuštěním antecedentu nemění význam věty. Alternace nominální vztažné a adjektivní vztažné věty je v každém takovém prostředí možná, a to v obou směrech.

8. Appendix

Relative clauses with a locative antecedent	
LP1	The museum is also <u>the place where</u> the closest consideration can be given to the troublesome problems of fakes and other forms of inauthenticity.
LP2	At the end of the corridor which he describes, before you get to the rubbish, is <u>the place where</u> the young make love.
LP3	The event it took the two of them, scrambling and sliding downwards beside each other, faces to the rocks, only some five or six minutes to reach <u>the spot where</u> the railing which Sven Hjerson had noticed [...]
LP4	The poem is <u>the place where</u> occasions are exhausted, where opportunities are used up.
LP5	They must be performed and co-ordinated with the dance style and musical rhythms appropriate to <u>the location where</u> the story is being enacted.
LP6	And here is <u>a place where</u> nice need not mean too naughty -- the creamless syllabub is made with Tofu, the dandelion coffee mousse contains agar agar, and the all-time favourite is a gravity.
LP7	But access to <u>the sites where</u> arctic alpines grew often demands considerable rock-climbing expertise, so Evan touches upon our world again.
LP8	This is <u>one area where</u> modern criticism has notably failed.
LP9	Body of Mrs Wilks was not found until two days later, at the bottom of a motorway embankment two-and-a-half miles away, when a motorist took police to <u>a spot where</u> he had seen a silver Renault 25 parked.
LP10	It took more than 40 years for that memorial to be raised, near <u>the place where</u> Raoul Wallenberg 's car was found after his disappearance into Russian hands.
LP11	Along the north Antrim coastal path, you can admire the work of a giant, see <u>the place where</u> a witch turned a king 's daughters into swans [...]
LP12	Below us is <u>the spot where</u> King Lir's second wife, a witch naturally, turned his two daughters into swans.
LP13	You need to bring it to <u>a place where</u> God reaches out into the secret places of the soul.
LP14	For years afterwards, Jay 's heart gave a lurch every time she passed <u>the place where</u> they parked.

LP15	It was a relief to cross the Channel alone and to arrive <u>at a place where</u> it was not generally such a struggle to make herself understood.
LP16	Will you fail to visit <u>the spot where</u> Walt Whitman had been known to read Homer after Shakespeare to the waves?
LI1	I found myself <u>in the same place</u> where I 'd been wounded in Easter, 1917.
LI2	Also listed are <u>some other places where</u> these services may be provided, or where you can get more information.
LI3	Not so much an object as <u>a place where</u> , the means by which, the past can be called up, the future foretold?
LI4	These are not just fizzy lager joints, but <u>environments where</u> a bank of six beer engines can sit happily on the bar counter offering a wide selection of real ales.
LI5	Although such findings are not in dispute, and of course are rarely undertaken <u>in areas where</u> public antagonism to the institution is known to run high, there is continual pressure to replicate them and repeat the consoling message.
LI6	I had to go back to the room, as if I needed to tell <u>the place where</u> I lived of my feeling.
LI7	While a good proportion of the West Coast route could be raised from 100 to 125mph at reasonable cost, there are <u>many locations where</u> it is necessary to impose speed restrictions because of curvature and track geometry.
LI8	On Saturday the two prelates attended a service of vespers at the Church of San Gregorio, which stands <u>on the site where</u> Pope Gregory sent St Augustine of Canterbury off to become the first Archbishop of Canterbury in 597.
LI9	After his retirement there was no <u>place where</u> he took more delight in an invitation to talk than in one of the Cambridge churches or one of the college chapels.
Relative clauses with a temporal antecedent	
TP1	Indeed, there are some who feel that there should be no border, thinking back nostalgically to <u>days when</u> there was only one domain of art.
TP2	He asks the daughter of the refugee cook, remembering <u>the days when</u> he made love with this daughter, if she had known two different boys.
TP3	The right moment to begin, he wrote, is <u>the moment when</u> right and wrong are no longer an issue.

TP4	That was <u>the year when</u> , in the parks and boulevards of the great cities of the West, people first began to talk about the death of images.
TP5	The doctor will work out <u>the date when</u> your baby is due.
TP6	Every leap, turn, beat and somersault is perfectly co-ordinated with the phrase and with the music despite the fact that the dance scarcely reflects <u>the period when</u> the music was composed as does Ashton 's choreography in other ballets.
TP7	It is useful to point out that when using such materials choreographers must know their vocabulary very thoroughly and select movements through which they can emphasise <u>the moment when</u> disaster strikes.
TP8	Both areas, breaking and mending, engrossed Dostoevsky from <u>the time when</u> the shared convict existence of prison snapped him like a dry biscuit yet also made him new [...]
TP9	This, he suggests, is <u>a time when</u> we have witnessed the ending of the construct of what he calls, 'the homogeneity of man.'
TP10	I was practising this the other day, in preparation for <u>the time when</u> my climbing standard drops slightly, and was surprised to read some interesting facts about myself.
TP11	This is a far cry from <u>the days when</u> increases in national income were committed by the conference before they were generated and the economy 's commanding heights were deemed to be heavy, smokestack industries.
TP12	'The portrait painter seeks <u>the moment when</u> the model looks most like himself; in the capacity to find and hold this moment lies also the talent of the portraitist.'
TP13	I never thought I 'd live to see <u>the day when</u> a detective inspector would look like this.
TI1	I was particularly impressed by the way you managed to organise all the available services so efficiently -- just at <u>the time when</u> we were beginning to wonder how we'd manage.
TI2	Guerrillas, then, is shaped in order to accommodate its three zones, and in accordance with a distinction between the political and the phantasmagorical, though there are <u>moments when</u> phantasmagoria, futility, threatens to envelop the island.
TI3	In those <u>moments when</u> a light was a dream or a miracle, you were light in that darkness.

TI4	This kind of move came at <u>a time when</u> Tetley's, along with other arms of Allied Breweries, espoused and encouraged a culture of well-informed and caring in-house designers.
TI6	Kathleen, absolute brick to the end, has let me keep my season ticket for London so I've still been able to pop down there during <u>the day when</u> I feel like it
TI7	5 Inexperienced pilots should only try cloud flying on <u>days when</u> there is no risk of large clouds developing, i.e. when there is an inversion preventing large vertical development.
TI8	He moaned about 'declining standards' and fondly recalled <u>his own early days when</u> each detective had to wear a dark striped, three-piece suit, an Anthony Eden homburg, and a watch chain at the correct angle.
TI9	Mid-afternoon gives us <u>a moment when</u> the heart of light in a leaf trembles russet rainbows.
TI10	For there comes <u>a time when</u> he absolutely must go somewhere.
TI11	British nuclear weapons were 'a total anachronism' <u>in an era when</u> political reform had swept the Soviet Union and Poland had a non-communist government, she said.
TI12	The saga began <u>last year when</u> the council opened a new open-plan primary school to relieve overcrowding in Groby's two existing primary schools.
TI13	Gone are <u>the days when</u> women and children scabbled along the furrows in the wake of a plough or simple digger collecting the fruits of the earth by hand.

Nominal relative clauses containing fused relatives

FR1	He pauses at the rebuilt Bethlehem Chapel, the site <u>of where</u> the Mass was first allowed in Czech, and Jan Hus preached before being burnt for heresy [...]
FR2	One source of interest can be a description <u>of where</u> the interview has taken place, perhaps a studio, or maybe the artist's home.
FR3	The article leads you to wonder about her religious faith, if she has one, and <u>about where</u> it stands in relation to the outlook of the editor of Commentary, author of a book about his ambitions for worldly
FR4	Singer is a writer of standing in the matter <u>of when</u> , in what he sees as the 'disappointing' modern world, a Jew is not a Jew.

FR5	I kept walking, past the old mill, right up around the bend <u>to where</u> the council property starts, and I thought, oh, shit, council houses.
FR6	The drama school will give you some advice <u>on when</u> and where to write to, and how you organise your letters, but outside advice is very important in
FR7	But our sense of its space will always depend <u>on where</u> it is placed.
FR8	Much of the middle, in fact, he wrote, will depend <u>on where</u> it is set up.
FR9	Courts Correspondent Policemen standing yards <u>from where</u> 95 soccer fans died in the Hillsborough football stadium disaster were last night expecting disciplinary charges.
FR10	I know <u>from where</u> it comes and where it wishes to get to.
FR11	I can't serve anything that needs thinking <u>about when</u> people are meeting to discuss big money deals.
FR12	Nevertheless, he seemed willing enough to accompany the Finnish detective in the dangerous climb down over the tumbling rocks <u>to where</u> his cousin and his cousin's pretty, peroxidized fiancée lay.
FR13	I became conscious <u>of where</u> I was and what I was doing so I quickly stood up and dried my eyes.
FR14	She fetched herself a packet of sandwiches from the counter and then came back <u>to where</u> she had been sitting.
FR15	It's near the bottom end of Ladbroke Grove, almost due south <u>of where</u> I used to live up until about this time last year.
FR16	It reminded me <u>of when</u> I used to give people money just to make them go away again.
FR17	The toad 's colouring blended perfectly with the surroundings for, Harry remembers, you never knew <u>from where</u> it might jump.
FR18	Such incidents can only be avoided if the pilot has a more open mind <u>about where</u> he is going to land.
FR19	Often the pilot is lost and has been worrying for the past half an hour <u>about where</u> he is.
FR20	The student may not form the habit of checking the situation after every turn and of making his own decision <u>about when</u> to turn back.
FR21	Smoke alarms need to be close <u>to where</u> a fire is most likely to break out, but also in a position where an alarm can be heard.

FR22	You should keep a register <u>of when</u> the child comes to you together with basic information like his date of birth, doctor's name and phone.
FR23	The doctor will also give you a thorough health check and talk to you <u>about when</u> to have your baby, and how to look after yourself until the birth.
FR24	Jay played Satie and waited <u>for when</u> Lucy would stop shaking.
FR25	She bit back the unwordable sweet pain <u>of when</u> Lucy had whispered: I love you [...]
FR26	I went back to our bed to curl up <u>next to where</u> you had been.
FR27	Floated around on a lilac cloud, heart beating scarlet with desire for Astrid and the tingling delight of waiting <u>for when</u> she would return.
FR28	So, your rear hand has to be drawn further and further back <u>from where</u> it should be in order to remain immediately effective.
FR29	Leonard now found himself not so very far <u>from where</u> the great revolutionary poet (of Imagism, Vortism etc.) was actually incarcerated.
FR30	It is tempting to think of it as a felt tendency, so that one is somehow aware <u>of where</u> the mind is going.
FR31	We recently did a simple experiment which happens to illustrate how children's knowledge <u>of where</u> an object is determines their behaviour.
FR32	I'm incredibly proud of what I've achieved, <u>of where</u> I am today, just like Maggie, however scornful you get.
FR33	I ever tell you <u>about when</u> Daddy and I went to Greece on our honeymoon.
FR34	You mightn't think it but it would be nice to feel proud <u>of where</u> you come from.
FR35	I taught Jimmy the sensation <u>of where</u> to expect the serve of an opponent, plus where to plan to return that shot.
FR36	They are urging better 'housekeeping', and a better understanding <u>of when</u> and how to use respiratory protective equipment (RES).
FR37	Core services will make it difficult to ensure that people will have access to appropriate, locally based services, regardless <u>of where</u> they live.
FR38	Tourism agencies, word of mouth, and occasional advertising in the up-market Sunday colour supplements -- a clear indication <u>of where</u> VSOE Ltd sees its main market.

FR39	I'm back two doors <u>away from where</u> it all started, maybe I 've been offered a new beginning.
FR40	A buffalo, one of Africa's most unpredictable and dangerous animals, out of sight but just a few feet <u>away from where</u> we were standing.
FR41	The grade is E5/b 6a: a fine effort from Gary not 50 yards <u>from where</u> he broke his back last year!
FR42	Now, without moving your feet <u>from where</u> they are, let the trolley slowly roll away from you until you feel it start to go out of control.
FR43	But it has never really shown that it has any new ideas <u>about where</u> it should end up.
FR44	Will pay nothing more now but will have the delayed interest on at least two mortgage rate rises to account <u>for when</u> the new yearly rates are fixed early in 1990.
FR45	There are strict time limits: generally, six years <u>from when</u> damage first occurred.
FR46	The concern, though, was always <u>with where</u> the music was going and which of its layers were propelling it.
FR47	Mr Shute has had an impressive track record with BM, which he was appointed <u>to when</u> it was controlled by Beazer [...]
FR48	But some bankers have an acute awareness <u>of where</u> their loyalties lie [...]
FR49	All these shares should be bought and tucked away <u>for when</u> interest rates ease.
FR50	Yesterday eclipsed the conference with a sideshow at the Grand Theatre, a couple of hundred yards down the road <u>from where</u> the full conference was taking place.