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Clausal Postmodification of Noun Phrases in Political Discourse

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Zásady pro vypracování

Cílem bakalářské práce je prostudovat užití větné postmodifikace substantiva v politickém diskurzu. Student nejprve na základě relevantní odborné literatury definuje jmennou frázi, představí její strukturu a syntaktické funkce. Zaměří se především na postmodifikaci substantiva ve formě vět, které podrobně popíše z hlediska funkce a významu (vztažná, apoziční, restriktivní, nerestriktivní) a formy (finitní, nefinitní). Dále student vymezí politický diskurz, uvede jeho hlavní funkce a shrne specifické jazykové prostředky politických projevů. Následně provede analýzu vybraných politických projevů s cílem zmapovat výskyt a užití vět vztažných a apozičních, identifikovat jejich nejčastější formy a zhodnotit kontexty jejich výskytu. Závěrem objasní převažující tendence v závislosti na analyzovaném diskurzu a jeho funkcích.

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Prohlašuji:

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ANNOTATION

This bachelor thesis aims to analyse the use of clausal postmodification of noun phrases in political discourse. The thesis is divided into theoretical and practical part. The theoretical part of the thesis defines a noun phrase and focuses on its structure and prototypical syntactic roles. Additionally, the theoretical part concentrates on clausal postmodification of noun phrases and its forms, functions and meaning (finite and non-finite, appositive and relative, restrictive and non-restrictive). The last chapter of the theoretical part defines political discourse and its key functions and it also examines political speeches from a linguistic point of view. The thesis's practical part consists of analysing clausal postmodifiers in the selected political speeches. The analysis aims to determine the prevailing forms of relative and appositive clauses while also focusing on other key characteristics of the two clausal postmodifiers in the selected speeches. All the prevailing tendencies are summarised and explained through their connection to the selected discourse.

KEY WORDS

noun phrase, clausal postmodification, appositive clause, relative clause, political discourse, political speech

ANOTACE

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá větnou postmodifikací jmenných frází v politickém diskurzu a je rozdělena na teoretickou a praktickou část. Teoretická část nejdříve definuje jmennou frázi a představí její strukturu a syntaktické funkce. Dále se tato část práce zaměří na samotnou větnou postmodifikaci a detailně popíše její formy, funkce a význam (finitní a nefinitní, vztavná a přístavná, restriktivní a nerestriktivní). Závěr teoretické části definuje politický diskurz, představí jeho hlavní funkce a poskytne charakteristiku politických projevů z pohledu lingvistiky. Praktická část této práce se pak sestává z analýzy větných postmodifikací jmenných frází ve vybraných politických projevech. Jejím cílem je zmapovat výskyt a užití vztavných a přístavných vět, určit jejich nejčastější formy a zhodnotit kontexty jejich výskytu. V závěru práce budou poté převažující tendence vztahující se k větné postmodifikaci objasněny v závislosti na analyzovaném diskurzu a jeho funkcích.

KLÍČOVÁ SLOVA

jmenná fráze, větná postmodifikace, vztavná věta, přístavná věta, politický diskurz, politický projev

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Introduction

The aim of the thesis is to analyse clausal postmodification of noun phrases in political discourse and to determine the distribution, prototypical forms and other key characteristics of the two clausal postmodifiers – appositive and relative clauses – in selected speeches. The term clausal postmodification is used throughout the thesis to refer to clausal postmodification of noun phrases.

The theoretical part of the thesis is divided into three chapters. The first chapter focuses on the structure and syntactic roles of a noun phrase. Chapter two is devoted solely to clausal postmodification. It begins with a definition of a clause, goes on to explain some of the more general terms related to clausal postmodifiers (finite and non-finite verb forms as well as restrictive and non-restrictive postmodification) and ends with the description of the defining features of relative and appositive clauses including their forms. The third and final chapter of the theoretical part defines political discourse, describes the process of nominalisation and examines political speeches from a linguistic point of view.

The practical part of the thesis consists of chapter four which presents and interprets the findings resulting from this thesis' analysis. The overall distribution of clausal postmodifiers in the analysed political speeches is discussed first, followed by a close examination of the individual forms of appositive and relative clauses found in the corpus. The last part of chapter four focuses on the syntactic roles of the analysed noun phrases.

1 Noun Phrase, its structure and function

A sentence or a clause is not a sequence of isolated words put together like “beads on a string”; both of these structures can be described as being comprised of a sequence of words that form units, i.e. phrases (Biber et al. 2007, 94). Traditionally, only units consisting of more than just one word were called phrases, however, a significant number of modern grammarians today apply the term phrase even to units consisting of a single word (Quirk et al. 1985, 40). Therefore, the complexity of a phrase can range from one word to an almost indefinite number of words. Phrases consisting of only one word are generally called simple, while phrases containing multiple words are typically referred to as complex.

There are five major types of phrases and each phrase type derives its name from the word class whose members represent the obligatory constituent of such a phrase: verb phrases, noun phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases, and prepositional phrases (Quirk et al. 1985,60). As the main focus of the thesis is clausal postmodification of noun phrases, the first chapter will deal with the structure of noun phrases (i.e. its constituents), along with their typical syntactic roles.

According to Quirk et al. (1985, 1238–1239), the four possible constituents of a noun phrase are: the head, the determinative, premodification and postmodification:

[1] The tall girl standing in the corner is my sister.

Example [1] contains two noun phrases which are underlined: the head noun *girl* has the definite article *the* as its determinative, the adjective *tall* as its premodification and the clause *standing in the corner* as its postmodification. The other noun phrase has only two constituents: the head noun *sister* and the determinative *my*.

Only the head is obligatory in all noun phrases and it is the central constituent made of one word, around which other constituents of a noun phrase can occur (Quirk et al. 1985, 61). It is also important to mention that not only common (*houses*) or proper nouns (*Wembley*) can function as the head of a noun phrase, but personal pronouns (*they*) and nominalised adjective (*the rich*) appear frequently in such a position as well (Biber et al. 2007, 97).

However, there are noun phrases where the head cannot stand on its own and has to be accompanied by another constituent used to specify whether the reference of a noun phrase is

definite or indefinite. Such constituents are called determinative and they become in such cases obligatory, too. Therefore, while plural noun phrases (*some beautiful Flemish vases*) can consist of only one element (*vases*), and noun phrases with personal pronouns (*I, him, her, etc.*) as their heads cannot even have more than one constituent, a different structure becomes obligatory when it comes to singular nouns that cannot stand on their own and have to be accompanied by a determinative element (Quirk et al. 1985, 61). Thus, the nouns phrases with the singular head nouns *girl* and *sister* from example [1] have another obligatory constituent: the determinative *the* and *my*, respectively.

One of the major issues that arises when trying to describe the structure of a noun phrase is that not all linguists use the same terminology for its constituents. The difference in terminology concerns mainly the constituents that accompany the head. While Quirk et al. (1985, 1238–1239) choose the terms introduced earlier (the determinative, premodification and postmodification) to talk about other possible constituents of a noun phrase that are subordinate to the head, Huddleston and Pullum (2016, 329) prefer the term dependent, which they further divide into pre-head and post-head dependents. Such division is based on whether the dependent precedes the head (pre-head dependents) or follows (post-head dependent). Dependents can be also divided into internal, which are “immediate constituents” of the head, and external, which relate to the whole noun phrase and are typically represented by determinatives (Huddleston and Pullum 2016, 330–331). Using Huddleston and Pullum’s terminology and the noun phrase *the tall girl standing in the corner* from example [1], we would classify *the* as an external dependent of the head (*girl*) and *standing in the corner* as an internal post-head dependent. It should be pointed out that this thesis will follow terminology proposed by Quirk et al. (1985, 1238–1239), and therefore, it is important to describe in greater detail the terms that have been only mentioned thus far, those of premodification and postmodification.

Quirk et al. (1985, 1239) use the term premodification to describe constituents that appear in the position before the head and are not determinatives; typically, adjective phrases or nouns occupy this position: *some very expensive office furniture*. As has been already stated, Huddleston and Pullum (2016, 330) prefer the term internal pre-head dependent for the same constituent.

Different terminology is also used for the last constituent of a noun phrase which has not been discussed yet. While Quirk et al. (1985, 1239) use the term postmodification for all the

constituents of a noun phrase that appear after the head, Biber et al. (2007, 97) distinguish between postmodification and complementation. Complements in the form of infinitive or *that*-clauses follow abstract nouns in the position of the head of a noun phrase and help to complete or determine often quite vague meaning of such nouns:

[2] *the popular assumption that language simply serves to communicate “thoughts” or “ideas” is too simplistic.* (Biber et al. 2007, 97)

As the main focus of this thesis is postmodification of noun phrases, it is important to reiterate that the definition of postmodification proposed by Quirk et al. (1985, 1239) will be used throughout the thesis, so that even an appositive clause (see example [2]) with an abstract noun as its head can be classified as postmodification because the clause appears after the head. Clausal postmodification will be covered at great length in the following chapter, but there are other structural types of postmodification which need to be mentioned. Apart from clauses, the head noun is most frequently postmodified by a prepositional phrase (e.g. *a phone with a couple of buttons on it*), but there are also some phrasal postmodifiers that are less common: particularly adverb phrases (e.g. *no way out*) and adjective phrases (e.g. *varieties common in India*) can be classified as marginal types of postmodifiers (Biber et al. 2007, 604–605).

Lastly, some attention should be paid to another key characteristic of noun phrases: the great variety of different syntactic roles a noun phrase can take, in fact, the phrase has the ability to be any clause element except for the verb (Quirk et al. 1985, 61). However, it is important to mention that such flexibility does not correspond to the same frequency of representation across different clause elements or syntactic roles. In other words, there are clause elements that are prototypically represented by a noun phrase, while there are also syntactic roles that a noun phrase takes less frequently. Biber et al. (2007, 98) state that the syntactic roles that a noun phrase represents most frequently include the subject (*Two women had come in...*), direct object (*The pilot saw a field ahead*), indirect object (*...he had been allowed to make her a birthday card*) or complement of preposition (*He worked in a shop*).

2 Clausal postmodification of noun phrases

The previous chapter focused on a noun phrase and described its structure as well as its prototypical syntactic roles. As discussed above, the thesis follows terminology proposed by Quirk et al. (1985, 1238–1239), who consider all the constituents of a noun phrase appearing after its head as part of postmodification.

Chapter two will examine clausal postmodification in greater detail. The chapter will begin with definitions of general terms related to clausal postmodification, before covering the two types of clauses which can function as postmodifiers. Firstly, the definition and description of a clause will be given, as it is essential for an analysis of clausal postmodifiers. Secondly, the difference between finite and non-finite verb forms will be discussed with the explanation of the process of condensation. Thirdly, the distinction between restrictive and non-restrictive postmodifiers will be pointed out. After introducing these concepts and terms, relative and appositive clauses will be discussed and compared in the remaining part of the chapter.

2.1 Clause

Clausal postmodification can hardly be examined without the definition of a clause, one of the key linguistic terms of the thesis: even though there is not a universally accepted definition of a clause, many grammarians agree on its key characteristics. For example, Carter and McCarthy (2006, 486) and Biber et al. (2007, 120) state that the centre of a clause is a verb phrase that to a great degree controls and regulates the kind of clause elements that can or cannot appear around it. For instance, the clause in example [3] has the verb phrase *'ve got* in its centre:

[3] *I've got a parcel for you in my car.* (Carter and McCarthy 2006, 486).

According to Carter and McCarthy (2006, 486), a clause can be divided into two parts: a subject (typically represented by a noun phrase) and a predicate (consisting of a verb phrase and its potential dependents). Thus, the clause in example [3] can be said to consist of a subject represented by the noun phrase *I* and the predicate *'ve got a parcel for you in my car*. The predicate can be further divided into a verb phrase (*'ve got*) and clause elements which are dependent on and subordinate to the verb phrase itself: an object represented by the noun phrase *a parcel for you* and an adverbial represented by the prepositional phrase *in my car*.

As example [3] illustrates, a clause is made of individual phrases. Quirk et al. (1985, 42–43) talk about “hierarchical ranking” of such units of grammar according to “their potential size”.

A clause is placed one level above a phrase in such a hierarchy because one or more phrases make a clause. Similarly, one or more clauses make a sentence. However, it is important to once again repeat that a clause always needs to have a verb phrase in its centre and that other phrases cannot form a clause on their own. Therefore, the noun phrases *I* and *a parcel for you* or the prepositional phrase *in my car* from example [3] need to be accompanied by a verb to become elements of a clause.

2.2 Finite and non-finite clausal postmodification

It has already been said that one of the possible definitions of a clause is the one stressing the importance of a verb phrase as the centre and obligatory constituent of every clause. This part of chapter two will closely examine the types of verb phrases which can appear in clausal postmodification: Dušková et al. (1994, 165) suggest that verb forms are typically divided into two major groups according to their ability to express all the grammatical categories related to verbs (such verb forms are called finite) or only some of them (such verb forms can be classified as non-finite).

Only finite verb forms show agreement (i.e. concord) with the subject of a clause in terms of grammatical categories of person and number (Dušková et al. 1994, 165). However, for the vast majority of lexical verbs in English the concord of person and number is clearly manifested only in the third person singular of the present tense (Quirk et al. 1985, 149):

[4] *Anyone/Anybody who helps the handicapped deserves our support.* (Quirk et al. 1985, 1247)

[5] *Those who help the handicapped deserve our support.* (Quirk et al. 1985, 1247)

The finite clausal postmodifiers are underlined in examples [4] and [5]. The key difference is that the finite clausal postmodification [4] has a subject in third person singular and the postmodifier [5] in the third person plural. As can be clearly observed, only if the subject of a clause is in the third person singular of the present simple does the verb form end with the inflectional ending *-s*, thus showing the concord of number and person overtly.

Before any further description of the differences between the two major groups of verbs is given, it is necessary to introduce the types of non-finite verb forms that can appear in clausal postmodification. Biber et al. (2007, 198–200) distinguish between three possible non-finite

verb forms that can postmodify a noun phrase – the infinitive [6], the *-ing* participle [7] and the *-ed* participle [8]:

[6] *They say that the **failure** to take precautions against injuring others is negligence.*

[7] *I think he smashed the two **cars** coming down the road.*

[8] *This, as we have seen, is the **course** chosen by a large minority of households.*

As has already been stated, all three non-finite verb forms listed above are unable to show the concord with the subject, moreover, they also lack the means to express the grammatical categories of time and mood (Biber et al. 2007, 198). Concerning the grammatical category of time, Quirk et al. (1985, 149) talk about the ability to show “the distinction between the present and past tenses” that is restricted to finite verbs only. For instance, the past tense of the finite clause [7] (*he smashed the two cars*) can be changed into the present (*he is smashing the two cars*), while the non-finite clausal postmodification [7] (*coming down the road*) would remain the same even if such a change did occur.

As far as the grammatical categories of voice and aspect are concerned, not all non-finite verb are able to express both of the categories. In other words, there are limitations when it comes to the possible combinations of the voice and aspect auxiliaries *be* and *have* and different non-finite postmodifiers (Quirk 1985, 153). Those limitations will be pointed out when discussing individual non-finite postmodifiers and their ability to express the grammatical categories of voice and aspect (2.4.1.).

Non-finite verb forms differ from their finite counterparts in some other key aspect: According to Dušková et al. (1994, 542) and Tárníková (2007, 216–221), non-finite verb clauses are frequently used in English as sentence condensers. In the process of condensation, finite clauses are turned into non-finite, resulting in a greater compactness of a given text. Biber et al. (2007, 198) even mention compactness along with a certain lack of explicitness as one of the defining features of non-finite verb forms, especially when compared with their finite counterparts. The process of condensation in English can be illustrated with the help of example [8] which includes an *-ed* participle (*...the course chosen by a large minority of households*). The non-finite clausal postmodification (*...chosen by a large minority...*) can be seen as a condensed variant of the possible finite postmodifier (*...is/was/has been chosen by a large minority...*). As can be clearly observed, the finite clause shows the grammatical category of time, and therefore, is more explicit than its non-finite counterpart that does not have such an ability.

2.3 Restrictive and non-restrictive clausal postmodification

Apart from the distinction between finite and non-finite clausal postmodification, there is another important division of clauses functioning as postmodifiers of noun phrases: any clausal postmodification is either restrictive or non-restrictive. Restrictive postmodifiers provide information or characteristics that are essential for the identification of the head of a noun phrase, while non-restrictive postmodification only gives additional description of the head whose identity is already known (Biber et al. 2007, 602).

The difference between the two types of postmodifiers can be further illustrated with the help of examples mentioned by Fabb (1990, 57):

[9] *The swans, which are white, are in that part of the lake.*

[10] *The swans which are white are in that part of the lake.*

Examples [9] and [10] clearly show the importance of punctuation in distinguishing between restrictive and non-restrictive postmodification. Using the explanation provided by Fabb (1990, 57): example [9] suggests that all the swans in the lake share the same colour (i.e. *white*), and therefore, the colour itself cannot be used to distinguish the swans that are in one part of the lake from those that are situated somewhere else on the lake. Thus, the clausal postmodifier in example [9] can be classified as non-restrictive and separated from the rest of the sentence by commas because it does not contain any information that would be essential for the identification of its head (i.e. *swans*). On the other hand, example [10] implies that there are swans of at least two different colours on the lake. In such a case, the information that they are white becomes crucial for identifying the swans found in that part of the lake. As a result, the clausal postmodification in example [10] is restrictive and no commas are used.

While the non-restrictive postmodification is clearly marked in written language by the use of punctuation (i.e. commas, dashes or parentheses), it is far harder for any hearer to be able to distinguish between restrictive and non-restrictive postmodifiers in spoken language because pauses and intonation cannot be as reliable markers of non-restrictiveness as commas, for example (Biber et al. 2007, 602). Therefore, Biber et al. (2007, 602–603) choose to analyse the distinction between restrictive and non-restrictive postmodification only in written discourse where it is clearly marked by the use or absence of punctuation; using such criteria, they conclude that restrictive postmodification appears far more frequently than its counterpart

across registers. In other words, the prototypical purpose of clausal postmodifiers is to help to identify their head rather than to provide additional information about it.

It should be noted that some grammarians challenge the terminology that labels clausal postmodifiers either as restrictive or non-restrictive. Huddleston and Pullum (2016, 1064) suggest that the terms “integrated” or “supplementary” should be used instead when referring to the two types of clausal postmodification. They (2016, 1064–1065) argue that not all postmodifiers typically classified as restrictive help to identify their head noun, sometimes the same postmodification is used only to provide some important information about the head whose identity was already established. In such cases, the difference between integrated and supplementary postmodification is that the former adds important information which is part of the focus of the sentence, while the latter provides only additional information and stands outside the focus of the sentence:

[11] *She had two sons (,) who were studying law at university (,) and a daughter (,) who was still at high school.* (Huddleston and Pullum 2016, 1065)

According to Huddleston and Pullum (2016, 1065), the underlined clausal postmodifier [11] can be interpreted either as integrated or supplementary: in both cases, the mother has only two sons and one daughter. This should be compared with examples [9] and [10] where the choice between restrictive or non-restrictive interpretation was crucial for determining whether there were swans of multiple colours on the lake or just white ones.

Using example [11] and the explanation provided by Huddleston and Pullum (2016, 1065), the focus of the sentence with supplementary clauses is on the fact that the mother had two sons and a daughter, the information that they were studying law at university or that she (*the daughter*) was still at high school can be considered not as important, only additional (i.e. supplementary), and as a result, not being fully integrated into the sentence (i.e. divided by commas). The main focus of the sentence with integrated postmodifiers, on the other hand, is on the fact that they were studying law at university and she was still at high school. Therefore, the clausal postmodifiers are integrated into the sentence structure and no commas are used. Even though this thesis will follow the terminology that divides postmodifiers into restrictive and non-restrictive, the analytical part of the thesis will also try to highlight the cases where the restrictive postmodification does not serve to identify the head noun but rather gives some important information about it.

2.4 Relative clause

After covering some of the more general term related to clausal postmodification in the previous parts of chapter two, the following part will focus on relative clauses that represent one of the two types of clauses which can postmodify a noun phrase. Such relative clauses are often called adnominal to distinguish them from nominal and sentential, both of which do not postmodify a noun phrase (Quirk et al. 1985, 1244–1245). Whenever the term relative clause is used in the rest of the thesis, it will always mean adnominal relative clause. Also, it should be pointed out that the meaning of a relative clause was already discussed in the previous part of chapter two that dealt with restrictive and non-restrictive clausal postmodification.

The following examples [12] and [13] can be used to illustrate the individual constituents of a relative clause:

[12] *The **news** which we saw in the papers this morning was well received.* (Quirk et al. 1985, 1244)

[13] *I have two **friends** who write to me regularly.* (Dušková et al. 1994, 615)

The thesis will use the term antecedent and relativizer to describe the two main components of a relative clause. The antecedent is the head noun (in bold) that precedes the relative clause (i.e. its postmodifier), while the relativizer – typically represented by a relative pronoun (*which*, *who*, *whom*, *whose* and *that*) or a relative adverb (*where*, *when* and *why*) – is a constituent that “anaphorically refers to the same person or thing as the head noun” it follows (Biber et al. 2007, 608). This type of reference is classified as anaphoric because the relativizer refers backwards to the antecedent. Thus, examples [12] and [13] have the head nouns *news* and *friends* respectively as their antecedents and the relative pronouns *which* and *who* respectively as their relativizers. The two examples also highlight one of the key characteristics of wh- relativizers: the wh- pronouns can show concord with their antecedent in terms of their gender, the distinction being made between personal (used for human being) and non-personal gender (Quirk 1985, 1245). Thus, the relative pronoun *which* is typically used only with a non-personal antecedent (e.g. *news*), while the relativizer *who* usually follows a personal antecedent (e.g. *friends*).

According to Dušková et al. (1994, 615), the relativizer functions also as a clause element (subject, object, subject complement, adverbial, etc.) in the relative clause. For instance, the relativizer *which* [12] has a syntactic role of a direct object in the relative clause, while the

relativizer *who* [13] is the subject of the postmodifying clause. For example, the syntactic position of the relativizer *who* [13] becomes apparent if the relative clause is transformed by replacing the relative pronoun with the head noun it refers to: *two friends write to me*.

The relativizer is not an obligatory constituent of all relative clauses. Relative pronouns and relative adverbs can be left out if they do not function as the subject of a relative clause (Dušková 1994, 616–617). Thus, the relativizer *which* [12] in the object position can be omitted without making the relative clause ungrammatical: *The news we saw in the papers this morning*. Biber et al. (2007, 608) use the term zero relativizer to refer to the constituent of a relative clause that has been left out, while Dušková et al. (1994, 616) talk about juxtaposed relative clauses.

However, not all grammarians assign the relativizer a syntactic role in the relative clause. For example, Biber et al. (2007, 608) argue that one of the defining features of a relative clause is that there is always a clause element which is missing and that “corresponds in meaning to the head noun”. Biber et al. (2007, 608) call such an element “the gap” and list it among the main constituents of a relative clause, along with the antecedent and the relativizer. The gap in the relative clause in example [12] can be found after the verb *saw* in the position of the direct object: *The news which we saw (the gap) in the papers*. This can be further illustrated with a possible paraphrase of the relative clause: *We saw the news in the paper this morning*. However, it could be also argued that the direct object gap found after the verb *see* appears there because the syntactic role of the direct object is fulfilled by the relativizer *which* that immediately follows the head noun and is placed at the beginning of the relative clause. Therefore, the thesis will follow the classification and terminology proposed by Dušková et al. (1994, 615).

2.4.1 Condense relative clause

So far, only the finite relative clause has been discussed and its key characteristics given. However, many finite relative clauses can be condensed and transformed into non-finite clausal postmodifiers with the same function. The thesis will use the term “condensed relative clause” to describe the non-finite counterpart of finite relative clauses. The process of condensation and the major differences between finite and non-finite verb forms have already been covered (see 2.2.). The following part of the thesis will describe and discuss each of the non-finite verb forms that can appear in clausal postmodification (i.e. *-ing* participle, *-ed* participle and the *to*-infinitive).

Example [14] contains two *-ing* participle clauses that are underlined:

[14] *A military jeep travelling down Beach Road at high speed struck a youth crossing the street.* (Biber 2007, 630)

The finite equivalents of the underlined condensed relative clauses [14] could be *(a military jeep) that was travelling down Beach Road at high speed* and *(a youth) who was crossing the street*. It should be said that the *-ing* participles can condense only finite relative clauses with a relativizer in the subject position (Quirk et al. 1985, 1263). The finite counterparts of the participle clauses from example [14] fulfil this requirement, as the relative pronoun *that* and *who* both function as the subjects of the relative clauses they introduce. When it comes to the *-ing* postmodifier, it is the antecedent (*a military jeep* and *a youth*) that represents, at least implicitly, the subject of the non-finite verb form (Quirk et al. 1985, 1263).

As has been already discussed, non-finite verb forms are not able to express the grammatical category of tense (see 2.2.). However, the tense of the condensed relative clause with the *-ing* participle can be typically deduced, either from the context or from the tense of the finite verb in a sentence (Quirk et al. 1985, 1264). The finite verb *struck* in example [14] is in the past tense, and therefore, it can be inferred that the *-ing* participles in the sentence would share the same tense (*was travelling* and *was crossing*). While some *-ing* participles can be transformed into finite verb phrases with progressive aspect (as is the case in [14]), there are also present participle clauses with stative verbs (e.g. *a theoretical approach involving...*) where such a transformation “would be highly unusual” (Biber et al. 2007, 631). Therefore, *-ing* participle clauses should not be understood as inherently expressing progressive aspect.

The *-ed* participle as a postmodifier shows a lot of similarities with the *-ing* participle with same function. They both can condense only finite relative clauses that have the relativizer as their subject, moreover, the antecedent that precedes the *-ed* participle clauses is also their implied subject, as is the case with the *-ing* postmodifier (Quirk et al. 1985, 1264–1265). However, there are also some major differences between the two non-finite verb forms. The *-ed* participle is always passive in meaning and its form is used for the finite passive postmodifier as well (Biber et al. 2007, 631–632):

[15] *The approach adopted allows simultaneous treatment of both forms.* (Dušková et al. 1994, 582)

The finite equivalent of the *-ed* postmodifier from example [15] (*the approach that was/is adopted...*) clearly illustrates the use of the passive voice as well as the inability of the *-ed* participle to distinguish between the present and past tense, which is characteristic of all non-finite verb forms (see again 2.2.). Another important difference between the two participles is that the *-ed* postmodifier is able to express progressive aspect (Quirk et al, 1985, 1265). Using example [15], the *-ed* postmodifier combined with progressive meaning (*the approach being adopted...*) would signal that the approach has not been fully adopted yet.

Examples [16] and [17] show the infinitive (underlined) in the position of a postmodifier of a noun phrase and its potential finite counterparts (in brackets and taken from the same sources as the infinitives):

[16] *There was no one to consult (“whom one might consult”).* (Dušková et al. 1994, 564)

[17] *The time to go (“at which you should go”) is July.* (Quirk et al. 1985, 1266)

As can be clearly seen, the infinitive is more flexible than the other two non-finite verb forms, as it is able to condense not only finite relative clauses with a relative pronoun as their subject, but also those where the relativizer had the syntactic role of an object [16] or an adverbial [17].

Unlike the *-ing* and *-ed* participles, the infinitive can also have its subject overtly expressed, a *for-phrase* is typically used (Biber 2007, 632–633). The infinitive *to consult* from example [16] has a general subject that implies all people, whereas the infinitive with an overt subject (e.g. *no one for me to consult*) would suggest that *there was no one I could consult*. Examples [16] and [17] can be also used to illustrate the fact that the postmodifying infinitive is often transformed into finite clauses with modal verbs. The ability of the infinitive to carry a modal meaning (e.g. expressing necessity, obligation, future reference) is highlighted by Dušková et al. (1994, 567) and by Quirk et al. (1985, 1269).

It should be also said that the infinitive postmodifier is the most flexible non-finite clause even when it comes to the ability to express the grammatical categories of active and passive voice (*to choose* and *to be chosen*, respectively) as well as progressive and perfective aspect: *to be meeting* and *to have met*, respectively (Quirk et al. 1985, 1267).

So far, the examples of condensed relative clauses ([14], [15], [16] and [17]) were all restrictive, but it should be noted that non-finite relative postmodifiers can be also non-restrictive:

[18] *Style variation is intrinsic to the novel's satiric epic picture of Victorian urban society, concentrating on the capitalist house of Dombey* (Biber et al. 2007, 605)

The underlined *-ing* participle clause in example [18] is non-restrictive because it provides only additional information about the picture of Victorian urban society. The picture is already identified in the premodification of the same noun phrase by the 's genitive (i.e. *novel's*).

2.5 Appositive clause

As has been already suggested, finite relative clauses and their condensed equivalents do not represent the only type of clausal postmodification associated with the English noun phrase. According to Quirk et al. (1985, 1244), the head noun can be postmodified by an appositive clause, too. The difference between relative and appositive clauses will be illustrated with the help of the following examples provided by Huddleston and Pullum (2016, 1038):

[19] *They ignored the suggestion that Kim made.*

[20] *They ignored the suggestion that Kim cheated.*

The underlined restrictive relative clause in example [19] helps to identify the suggestion that was ignored. It was the one proposed by Kim. It should be noticed that the relative clause does not say what the suggestion was. In contrast, the finite appositive clause underlined in example [20] provides such information: The suggestion was that Kim cheated. As example [20] demonstrates, the function of appositive clauses is to express "the complete content of the head noun" they postmodify (Biber 2007, 645).

Examples [19] and [20] also clearly illustrate that the difference between relative and appositive clauses is not only semantic but syntactic or structural, too. In the relative clause [19], *that* is a relative pronoun functioning as a clause element, whereas *that* in the appositive clause [20] is a conjunction which cannot function as an element of the postmodifying clause (Quirk 1985, 1260). Because *that* in appositive clauses is a conjunction, it cannot be omitted or replaced by *which* like the pronoun *that* in relative clauses. *That*-clause is the most frequently used finite appositive postmodifier, but there are also some marginal types of finite appositive clauses such as *wh*-interrogative clause (often preceded by the preposition *of*): *We have only the most general notion of how the first continent formed* (Biber 2007, 646).

It should be mentioned that not all grammarians follow the terminology and classification proposed by Quirk et al. (1985, 1244) which names appositive clauses as one of the two types

of clausal postmodification. For example, Biber et al. (2007, 644–645) prefer the term noun complement clause and choose to classify such clauses not as postmodifiers but as complements because their primary function is to complete the meaning or the content of their head noun. Huddleston and Pullum (2016, 1038–1039) use the term content clause, but agree with Biber et al. about classifying such clauses as complements. As chapter one already discussed, the thesis will follow the terminology used by Quirk et al. (1985).

While the antecedent of relative clauses can be represented by almost any head noun, appositive postmodifiers can only postmodify abstract nouns (e.g. *suggestion*), as they complete their vague meaning. The number of abstract nouns (e.g. *idea, belief, concern, proposal, news, etc.*) is quite limited, whereas the list of head nouns (e.g. *cat, boy, health, energy, etc.*) that cannot be followed by an appositive clause is almost endless (Huddleston and Pullum 2016, 1039). It should be noticed that many of the head nouns in appositive clauses have a corresponding verb form and can be said to be “nominalised equivalents” of such verbs (Biber 2007, 648–653). For example, the abstract nouns *belief, concern* and *proposal* correspond to the verbs *believe, concern* and *propose*. Moreover, abstract head nouns postmodified by appositive clauses are typically singular in form with definite reference (Biber et al., 2007, 648), as example [20] illustrates.

Regarding non-finite appositive clauses, only the infinitive [21] and the *-ing* participle [22] can be used, however, infinitive clauses are much more common:

[21] *The appeal to give blood received strong support.* (Quirk et al. 1985, 1271).

[22] *There is plenty of work for us shovelling snow* (Quirk et al. 1985, 1272).

Unlike the condensed relative clause, the appositive postmodifier cannot have the antecedent (*appeal* and *plenty of work*) as its implied subject. Instead, the subject typically needs to be deduced from the context [21] or overtly expressed with the help of a *for-* phrase [22] (Quirk et al. 1985, 1271).

The choice between finite and non-finite appositive postmodifiers is often determined by the preceding head noun. According to Biber et al. (2007, 647–648), *that*-clause, the prototypical finite appositive postmodifier, is used with abstract head nouns which either express a speaker’s assessment of the certainty of information contained in the clause (e.g. *fact, possibility or assumption*) or “the source” of the proposition contained in the clause (e.g. *belief, opinion, suggestion*). In contrast, *to*-infinitive appositive clauses postmodify abstract nouns expressing

“human goals, opportunities, or actions” – e.g. *chance, attempt, effort, decision* (Biber et al. 2007, 653). Therefore, the non-finite appositive clause should not be considered the condensed equivalent of the finite appositive postmodifier, as was the case with relative clauses.

Finite [23] and non-finite [24] appositive postmodifiers can be also non-restrictive:

[23] *It was a pleasing thought, that I might soon be moving in more exalted circles.* (Biber et al. 2007, 646)

[24] *This last appeal, to come and visit him, was never sent.* (Quirk et al. 1985,1271)

The focus of the sentence [23] is on the fact that the thought was pleasing and the actual content of the thought – expressed by a non-restrictive appositive clause – is of secondary importance. In example [24], the use of the demonstrative determiner *this* would suggest that it was already mentioned what the appeal was, and the non-finite appositive clause only repeats it, and therefore, the postmodifier is non-restrictive.

3 Political discourse

The focus of the thesis is on clausal postmodification in one of the genres of political discourse (i.e. political speeches). Therefore, the last chapter of the theoretical part of thesis will provide a definition of political discourse and focus on one of its aspects which is connected to noun phrases, the process of nominalisation and its potential use for political manipulation of syntax. Lastly, the chapter will deal with political speeches and their key features from the viewpoint of linguistics.

Political discourse as linguistic discipline can be at least partly defined by its main participants, politicians; in fact, there is an abundance of political discourse studies that focus primarily on the spoken and written language of presidents, prime ministers and other elected officials and the institutions they represent (van Dijk 1997, 12). Even though politicians play a key role in almost any political communication, the public or ordinary citizens can also become participants in political discourse, being either the addressee of a given political message or having an active role themselves (van Dijk 1997, 13).

While ordinary citizens protesting a certain government policy might be easily seen as being actively involved in political discourse, in many other cases, such categorisation is much harder to make. Wilson (2001, 398) points out that the word *political* is often associated with a struggle over division of power and control, and therefore, any type of discourse or communication where such matters are at stake could be classified as political. However, he also adds that such a definition would lead to a considerable generalisation and that political discourse should be limited only to political context and political actors (2001, 398). In other words, politicians and members of the public participate in political discourse only when being involved in some “political action, such as governing, ruling, legislating, protesting, dissenting or voting” (van Dijk 1997, 14).

3.1 Nominalisation in political discourse

Nominalisation and its use in political discourse can have a great influence on the frequency of noun phrases in political speeches. The term nominalisation refers to a process in which a whole clause is reduced to a single noun phrase. For example, the clause *people destroy things* can be nominalised and transformed into the noun *destruction* (Fairclough 2003, 143). Nominalisation

is a form of condensation and represents one of the ways of achieving compactness of a text (Tárnyiková 2007, 215).

It should be notice that nominalisation shares many similarities with another process of condensation, the transformation of finite clauses into non-finite (see 2.2). Unlike the finite clause, the noun *destruction* is not able to express the category of tense or modality, moreover, the agent (*people*) – the entity responsible for the action (*destroy*) – is missing (Fairclough 2003, 143–144). Because the deletion of the agent can be used to hide responsibility for the action, nominalisation is often also regarded as one of the processes used in political manipulation of syntax (van Dijk 1997, 33).

According to Woods (2006, 73), such use of nominalisation can be observed, for instance, in one of the speeches of Tony Blair: ‘

[25] *We were simply tested by the forces of change.*

The underlined noun *change* is the result of nominalisation and it prevents the audience from knowing what is changing and who is responsible for it (Woods 2006, 73). Tony Blair and other political actors might want to hide their responsibility for the actions that could be viewed negatively, in this case, it would be the changes that tested the nation. It should be also noted that the deletion of the agent is not always ideological, nominalisation can be also used for generalising, in fact, that is its most common use in scientific or technical discourse, for example (Fairclough 2003, 144).

3.2 Political speech

A political speech can be defined as “a coherent stream of spoken language” presented by a politician or a different political actor and addressed to an audience in situations that are political in their nature (Charteris-Black 2018, xiii). However, such speeches differ from other examples of spoken language in one key aspect: they are typically not “spontaneous” but “scripted” (Clark 1996, 91). The word “scripted” refers to the fact that political and other types of public speeches are usually written beforehand, and therefore, they seem to lack certain characteristics of spontaneous speech: frequent use of pauses, fillers (*ur, um, erm*) or midsentence self-corrections (*I wanted to go to I wanted to ride my horse*) to name just a few (Clark 1996, 92). As a result of having been planned, the language of political speeches can be more complex and its structure more organised.

Political speeches are often quite ceremonial in style, and therefore, the use of formal language is expected (Woods 2006, 53). Moreover, the speeches frequently contain certain rhetorical devices (e.g. repetition, rhythm, alliteration) to make the message of such speeches “as potent and memorable as possible” (Woods 2006, 56). In other words, political speeches need to contain certain highlights that can be also replayed in the news and on other occasions instead of the entire speech, these highlights can be termed as soundbites (Beard 2000, 37). The most frequently used soundbites contain a list of three parts or elements, three being understood as expressing “a sense of unity and completeness” (Beard 2000, 38–39):

[26] *Government of the people, /By the people, / For the people.* (Beard 2000, 38–39).

The given example represents one of the highlights of Lincoln’s Gettysburg Address and is often quoted partly because of its memorability. The head noun *people* is repeated in each of the three parts, it is the preposition that is unique and changes three times.

Repetition does not occur only in three-part lists. It should be also considered as one of the defining features of political speeches in general. As Charteris-Black (2018, 61–62, 70) points out, repetition is a type of lexical cohesion, which helps to establish a sense of textual unity or interrelatedness in a text. Moreover, repeated words in a political speech are like drops of water which are capable of eventually penetrating even the hardest of rocks, effectively expressing “determination and strength of purpose” (Charteris- Black 2018, 72). Therefore, repetition should be seen as a powerful rhetorical device, a form of persuasion, an effort of many politicians to win the support of their audience for the presented message.

4 Analysis

The analysis will focus on clausal postmodification of noun phrases in political speeches. The main aim of the analysis is to determine the distribution of relative and appositive clauses, their prototypical forms and syntactic roles of their antecedents in selected speeches. All the prevailing tendencies related to clausal postmodification will be summarised and explained through their connection to key features of political speeches, which were introduced in the theoretical part of the thesis.

4.1 Corpus and methodology

Twenty political speeches were selected for analysis covering the period from 1962 to 2021. It was decided that the corpus would include only political speeches from the second half of the 20th century onwards and not older ones to ensure that the English of the analysed speeches would not be considered too archaic nor dramatically different from the way the language is used by politicians and other political actors today. This criterion is essential if the findings of the analysis are to be used to make some generalisation concerning the language of political speeches of today.

The political speeches chosen for analysis equally represent the two most widely used varieties of English, i.e. American and British English: There are 10 speeches by American speakers and the same number by British speakers. However, it should be said that the analysis will not aim to compare the two varieties in terms of their distribution of clausal postmodifiers. American and British political speeches are represented in the corpus only to provide a greater diversity of different political speakers. The fact that each speaker has their unique style of expressing themselves has been taken into account, too: each of the twenty analysed political speeches is by a different politician or a political actor in order to have a large selection of different styles of public speaking, so that a prevailing tendency of one speaker doesn't shape or has a profound impact on the overall findings of the analysis. For the same reason, the selected political speeches will not be analysed in their entirety, instead, only the first 10 clausal postmodifiers in each of the speeches will be selected for analysis, together creating a corpus of 200 examples of clausal postmodification.

The 20 political speeches selected for analysis are arranged in chronological order and each speech is assigned a letter (A–T). Thus, the alphabetical list of the analysed speeches starts with

the oldest speech (A) in the corpus – “*We choose to go to the Moon (1962)*” by J.F. Kennedy – and ends with the most recent one (T) – “*On Afghanistan (2021)*” by Tom Tugendhat. The antecedents are in bold, the clausal postmodifiers are underlined and the beginning of the clausal postmodification is always signalled with an index which consists of the letter assigned to the speech (A–T) and also of the number (1–10) marking the order of clausal postmodifiers in the speech: A¹ ... A¹⁰ ... T¹ ... T¹⁰.

4.2 Overall occurrence of clausal postmodifiers

The results of the analysis clearly show that relative clauses are by a wide margin the most prevalent type of clausal postmodification in the selected political speeches. The individual forms of relative clauses together represent 72 % (144 occurrences) of all clausal postmodifiers in the analysed texts while finite and non-finite appositive clauses constitute the remaining 28 % (56 occurrences).

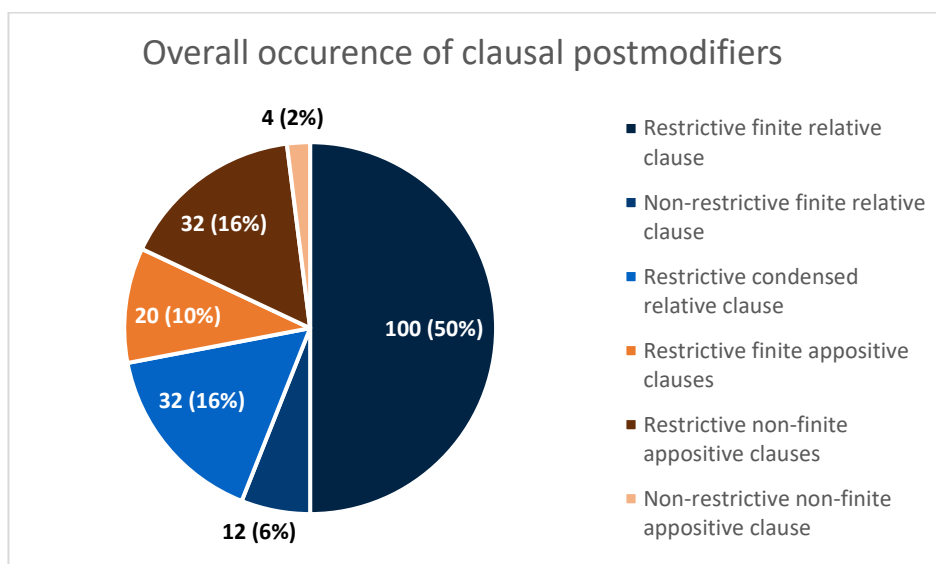


Figure 1. *The overall occurrence of clausal postmodifiers*

As was pointed out in the theoretical part of the thesis (see 2.5.), appositive clauses can postmodify only a limited number of nouns which need to be abstract in their nature. Relative clauses, on the other hand, are not hindered by such restrictions and can follow almost any head noun. Therefore, the higher frequency of relative postmodifiers in the analysed political speeches is a result of a greater variety of different antecedents of relative clauses.

While the overall occurrence of clausal postmodifiers in selected speeches shows some general tendencies regarding clausal postmodification in such speeches, it should be also remembered that the distribution of the two types of clauses varies to a great extent in the individual texts.

For instance, Tony Blair's "*Leader's Speech at the Labour Party Conference*" (J) contains no examples of appositive clauses in the first 10 analysed postmodifications, while Geoffrey Howe's "*Resignation Speech*" (H) includes 7 appositive postmodifiers. In fact, Geoffrey Howe's speech is the only one out of the 20 analysed political speeches in which there are more appositive than relative clauses (7 out of 10 clausal postmodifiers):

- (1) *It was a **privilege** (Cs) ^{H3}to serve as my right hon. Friend's first Chancellor of the Exchequer; ^{H4}to share in the transformation of our industrial relations scene; ^{H5}to help launch our free market programme ..., ^{H6}to achieve such substantial success against inflation ...*

The abstract nouns *privilege* or *honour* followed by appositive clauses are used in resignation speeches because they enable the speaker to look back on or recapitulate his political career and achievements, while expressing a sense of humility and humbleness, too. The example from Howe's speech can be also used to illustrate one of the key characteristics of political speeches which had a great influence on the overall distribution of clausal postmodifiers, i.e. listing. The underlined appositive clauses represent the individual parts of a four-part list. Because a list typically consists of the same type and form of clausal postmodification, its use always significantly shapes distribution of clausal postmodifiers in a given speech.

Listing can be also found in the speech (J) by Tony Blair, which contained no appositive postmodifiers:

- (2) *But we can be the best. The best **place** ^{J1}to live. The best **place** ^{J2}to bring up children, the best **place** ^{J3}to lead a fulfilled life, the best **place** ^{J4}to grow old.*

The underlined restrictive to-infinitive condensed relative clauses (2) create together a four-part list. Once again, the type and form of the postmodification is identical for all parts of the list. Example (2) shows another characteristic of political speeches that influenced the results of the analysis: i.e. repetition. The antecedent *place* is repeated four times and precedes each of the postmodifiers. The combination of repetition and listing can be frequently found in the corpus. Partly because repetition shares certain similarities with listing: both are typically used by politicians and other political actors to express a sense of urgency, determination and to win the support of the audience for the presented message. The findings of the analysis clearly demonstrate that listing or repetition have far greater influence on the overall occurrence of relative and appositive postmodifiers than the selected types of political speeches. In other words, whether a speech is used to announce a policy or resignation or accepting defeat does

not seem to play a significant role as far as the prevailing type of clausal postmodification is concerned.

Lastly, the distribution of restrictive and non-restrictive postmodifiers in the selected speeches needs to be discussed. As *Figure 1* illustrates, non-restrictive finite relative clauses (6 % with 12 occurrences) and non-restrictive non-finite appositive clauses (2 % with 4 occurrences) are the only two types of non-restrictive postmodification found in the analysed speeches and together account for 8 % of all postmodifiers. Restrictive postmodification is generally used far more frequently than its non-restrictive counterpart, however, the percentage of non-restrictive postmodifiers in the selected political speeches is quite low when compared with some other registers. For example, the corpus study done by Biber et al. (2007, 603) found that non-restrictive finite relative clauses represent about 15 % of all finite relative postmodifiers in academic and fiction prose and up to 30 % in news. In comparison, non-restrictive finite relative clauses make up only about 11 % of all finite relative postmodifiers in the selected speeches (with 12 occurrences out of 112). In this respect, the speeches in the corpus of this thesis are more similar to academic and fiction prose.

It could be argued that the relatively low frequency of non-restrictive postmodifiers in the selected speeches is a direct result of the need of all public speakers to keep the attention of their audience. In other words, anybody who would choose to add far too many pieces of additional information about the individuals, groups or concepts mentioned in the speech would inevitably run a risk of at least partially losing the attention of the intended audience.

It should be noted that this analysis relied heavily on the transcripts of the selected political speeches and that punctuation in such transcripts played a key role in classifying clausal postmodifiers as non-restrictive. However, punctuation might slightly differ between various transcripts of the same speech, resulting in a different number of non-restrictive postmodifiers in some of the transcripts. Therefore, the transcripts found on official websites of politicians or governments were used where possible.

4.3 Relative clause

As was already determined, relative clauses (144 occurrences) are the prevailing type of clausal postmodification in the analysed speeches, representing 72 % of all clausal postmodifiers. The low occurrence of non-restrictive relative clauses (accounting for only 8 % of all relative postmodifiers) in the analysed texts was also pointed out and explained in the previous part of chapter four. However, the prevailing tendencies concerning the individual forms of relative clauses have not been discussed yet. The analysis clearly shows that finite clauses (112 occurrences) are the preferred form of relative postmodification in the selected speeches, representing almost 78 % of the analysed relative postmodifiers. In comparison, condensed relative clauses with non-finite verb forms (*to*-infinitive, *-ed* participle and *-ing* participle) in their centre constitute only about 22 % (32 occurrences) of all relative postmodifiers.

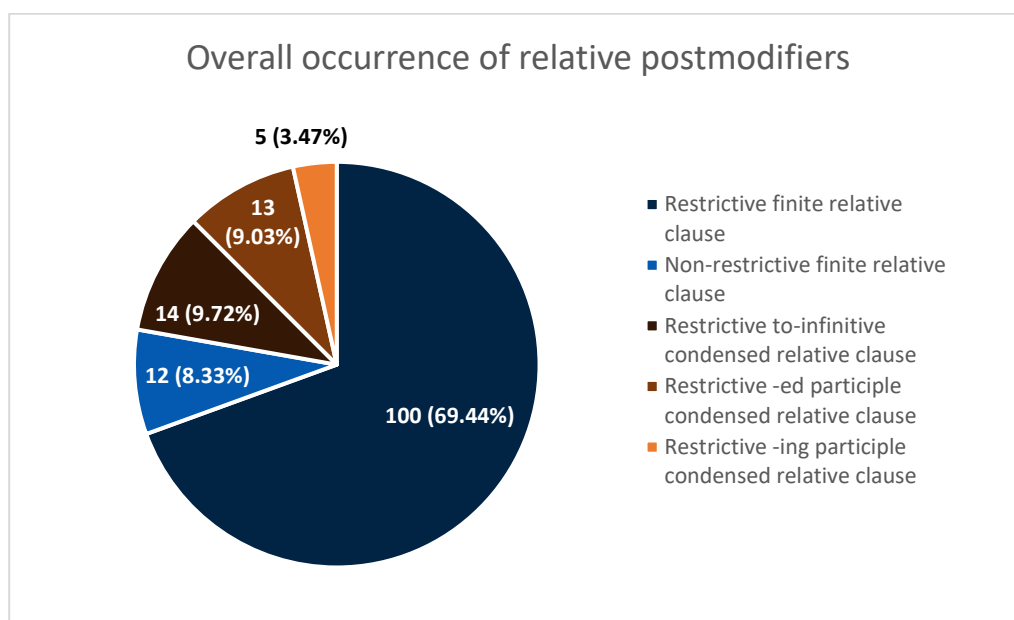


Figure 2. The overall occurrence of relative postmodifiers

The preference for finite relative clauses over their non-finite counterparts in the analysed political speeches can be attributed to one of the defining features of such speeches. It should be remembered that political speeches are written and prepared with the intention of being read aloud to an audience of people, and therefore, they should be considered a form of spoken discourse even though they differ from a prototypical spontaneous speech (see 3.2). The preference for finite relative clauses seems to be characteristic of other forms of spoken discourse, too: The study carried out by Rafajlovičová (2008, 71) found that finite relative clauses outnumbered non-finite forms in spoken interviews, while the opposite was true in academic prose.

Because of the less explicit nature of all non-finite verb forms, the high degree of condensation – typical for written formal texts (e.g. academic prose) – could be difficult for an audience to follow in any spoken text and might potentially make such a speech incoherent. Even though selected political speeches are mostly formal in their nature, the fact that they are spoken seem to be more important, resulting in high occurrence of finite relative clauses.

Restrictive finite relative clauses (100 occurrences) need to be discussed first because they account for over 70 % of all relative clauses in the corpus. Their primary function is to help to identify their antecedent:

- (3) ***Federal agencies** in Washington ^{K7}which had to be evacuated today are reopening for essential personnel tonight, and will be open for business tomorrow.*
- (4) *Today I say to you that the **challenges** ^{N9}we face are real.*

The restrictive finite relative clause in example (3) helps to identify the Federal agencies that were closed for business on the day of the speech because of being evacuated. Similarly, the restrictive relative postmodifier in example (4) is necessary to identify the challenges the speaker has in mind and which he considers to be real.

Examples (3) and (4) can be also used to illustrate the different syntactic functions of the relativizer and the restrictions that apply to its potential omission: The relativizer *which* is the subject of the relative clause (3), and therefore, it cannot be left out without making the sentence ungrammatical, whereas the relative clause in example (4) is grammatically correct even without the relativizer. The subject of the clause (4) is the relative pronoun *we* and its relativizer is considered optional because it would only fulfil the syntactic role of an object. However, such an omission can be a sign of a more informal or colloquial speech or text (Biber 2007, 621). While some speakers in the selected speech choose to omit the relativizer when possible to make their speech less formal or ceremonial, most noticeably Barack Obama (F) or Joe Biden (S) in their Inaugural Addresses, others generally show the tendency to keep even the optional relativizer (see the speech B or T). It should be also pointed out that the majority of the analysed finite relative clauses has the relativizer in the subject position, and therefore, the decision about the potential omission of the relativizer is limited only to a small number of cases. Additionally, only *wh-* relativizers that are expressed can show the concord of gender with its antecedent, as in (3), where the impersonal antecedent is followed by the impersonal relativizer *which*.

The antecedent of the analysed finite relative clauses is also frequently represented by pronouns with generic reference (referring to all people). Such head nouns can be only followed by restrictive relative postmodification:

- (5) *I have no sympathy with, and I will give no comfort to, **those** ^{L5}who want to use this crisis to displace him.*

The demonstrative pronoun *those* requires restrictive postmodification which helps to specify the people that the speaker is referring to. In other words, the pronoun *those* with restrictive postmodification does not refer to people in general, but to a particular group of people. In this case, the people who want to use this crisis. The demonstrative antecedent appears frequently in the analysed speeches because it helps politicians to define not only their political adversaries, as example (5) illustrates, but also their political allies. In fact, the pronoun *those* represents the most common antecedent of the analysed restrictive finite relative clauses (15 occurrences out of 100 possible).

It should be also noted that not all restrictive relative clauses help to identify their antecedent. As was already discussed in the theoretical part of the thesis (see 2.3.), there are restrictive relative postmodifiers that only add some important information about the head noun whose identity is known:

- (6) *This momentous decree came as a great beacon light of hope to millions of Negro **slaves** ^{C2}who had been seared in the flames of withering injustice.*

The purpose of the restrictive finite relative clause in example (6) is not to identify the *slaves* that suffered from *injustice* and set them apart from the ones that did not. Martin Luther King Jr., the author of the speech, certainly considered all slaves to be victims of the same injustice. The postmodifier is restrictive because the new and important information it adds about the head (i.e. *slaves*) is part of the main focus of the whole sentence. The focus is on the slaves and the injustice that caused their suffering.

Finite relative clauses can be also non-restrictive, providing only additional information about the head noun whose identity is already known. The key characteristic of all non-restrictive postmodifiers is that the information they contain stands outside the main focus of the sentence (see 2.3.). As was already discussed (see 4.2), non-restrictive finite relative clauses represent only about 11 % (12 occurrences) of all analysed finite relative postmodifiers, and thus, they should be considered a marginal type of finite relative postmodification:

- (7) *You know the resilience of our Constitution and the strength of our nation. As does **President Carter**, ^{S4}who I spoke to last night but ^{S5}who cannot be with us today, but ^{S6}whom we salute for his lifetime of service.*

The antecedent of the relative clauses in example (7) is the proper noun *President Carter*. It is important to say that proper nouns (specific names of people, places or things) are typically followed only by non-restrictive postmodifiers because such nouns do not need to be further identified. There is only one *President Carter*.

Example (7) also illustrates some other important features of non-restrictive postmodifiers: the relativizer cannot be omitted, regardless of its syntactic role. Moreover, the focus of the sentence is not on the information contained in the non-restrictive relative clause, but on the fact that President Carter is also aware of the resilience of the Constitution and the strength of the nation. The three postmodifiers provide only additional information that the audience may or may not find to be important. That is part of the reason why non-restrictive clauses are rare in the analysed speeches. It should be also highlighted that the occurrence of three non-restrictive finite relative clauses in a row (7) is certainly not coincidental, but rather an intentional use of a three-part list, a powerful rhetorical device which is frequently used in the analysed speeches because it provides a sense of semantic unity and completeness. The lists consisting of fewer or more parts seem to lack such an ability.

Non-restrictive relative clauses can also postmodify head nouns which were previously mentioned in a speech. Because the antecedent is being repeated, its identity does not need to be established:

- (8) *A week or two ago I fell into conversation with a **constituent**, a middle-aged, quite ordinary working **man**...Here is a decent, ordinary fellow **Englishman**, who in broad daylight in my own town says to me, his Member of Parliament, that his country will not be worth living in for his children.*

The head nouns *constituent*, *man* and *Englishman* all represent the same person. The identity of the antecedent *Englishman* does not need to be established because it is understood that the antecedent refers to the man who was introduced in one of the previous parts of the speech. Furthermore, the underlined non-restrictive clause does not contain any new information, but only repeats what was said about the man and his conversation with the politicians earlier in the speech.

4.3.1 Condensed Relative Clause

As was already discussed, condensed relative clauses account for about 22 % of all relative clauses (32 out of 144 occurrences), representing 16 % of the analysed clausal postmodifiers (32 out of 200 occurrences). As far as the overall distribution of the analysed non-finite relative postmodifiers is concerned, *-ing* participle clauses (5 occurrences) are not as common as *-ed* participle (13 occurrences) or *to*-infinitive postmodification (14 occurrences), both of which are almost equally represented. It should be also added that the 32 analysed condensed relative clauses are all restrictive. Even though non-finite clauses can occur in non-restrictive postmodification, the analysis clearly shows that non-restrictive relative clauses are prototypically finite. Non-restrictive postmodification seem to go against some of the key characteristics of condensed relative clauses: they are more closely attached to their antecedent than their finite counterparts, and as their name suggests, their primary function is to condense sentences, to increase compactness of a given text by omitting information that can be deduced from the context (e.g. tense or subject).

The *-ing* participle clauses (5 occurrences) account for only about 3 % of the analysed relative postmodifiers, representing the most marginal type of relative postmodification:

- (9) *The pictures of **airplanes** ^{K1}flying into buildings, **fires** ^{K2}burning, huge **structures** ^{K3}collapsing, have filled us with disbelief, terrible sadness, and a quiet, unyielding anger.*

The implied subject of an *-ing* postmodifier is always its antecedent. In the case of the underlined *-ing* relative clauses (9), the head nouns *airplanes*, *fires* and *structures*. While identifying the subject of the *-ing* relative clause might be an easy task, determining its tense is not always so straightforward. In the case of example (9), the context is crucial for deducing the tense of the non-finite postmodifiers: the sequence of clausal postmodifiers is used to recapitulate the events which happened earlier that day, and therefore, the past tense needs to be inferred.

The lack of explicitness of the *-ing* participle clauses (9) becomes even more apparent when they are compared with their finite counterparts (...*airplanes that were flying into buildings, fires that were burning*...). As was already suggested, an audience that listens to a speech for the first time might sometimes struggle to deduce all the information which are not overtly expressed, and thus, finite relative clauses are generally preferred in political speeches for their

greater clarity. It should be also observed that example (9) features yet another three-part list, and as a result, the speech (K) contains more *-ing* relative postmodifiers than all the other 19 speeches combined.

The *-ed* participle clauses (13 occurrences) represent little more than 9 % of all relative postmodifiers and are only slightly less frequent than the most common type of non-finite relative postmodification in the corpus (i.e. *to*-infinitive). The *-ed* participles can condense only finite relative clauses that have the relativizer as their subject, as was the case with *-ing* relative postmodifiers. However, unlike the *-ing* clauses that inherently express active voice, the *-ed* postmodifiers are always passive:

- (10) *I have just taken the sacred oath each of these patriots took — an oath ^{S8}first sworn by George Washington.*

The underlined *-ed* participle postmodifier uses a *by*-phrase to specify the agent (*George Washington*) responsible for the action (*swearing an oath*). Such passives are called long, while the passive structures without the *by*-phrase are termed short. Naming the agent is not always possible or desirable in passive structures, and therefore, the short passive is the preferred option in the analysed *-ed* relative clauses.

The *-ed* participle (10) should be understood as a condense variant of the finite relative clauses with the passive voice: *(an oath) that was first sworn by George Washington*. According to Biber et al. (2007, 631), postmodifying clauses with the passive voice are typically expressed by *-ed* participles rather than by their finite counterparts, as the condense relative clause represents a more economical use of language. The analysed clausal postmodifiers show the same tendency. Even though finite relative clauses are far more common in the selected speeches than their non-finite counterparts, it should be highlighted that the vast majority of the analysed finite relative postmodifiers are in the active voice. As far as the clauses in the passive voice are concerned, the analysis shows that the *-ed* relative postmodifiers are preferred over their finite counterparts. Therefore, the tendency of political speeches to favour finite relative clauses is only limited to clauses with the active voice.

Example (10) contained the *-ed* relative postmodifier in the long passive, but as was already pointed out, the short passive (11) is more common in the analysed *-ed* participle clauses:

- (11) *We meet at a college ^{A1}noted for knowledge, in a city ^{A2}noted for progress, in a State ^{A3}noted for strength, and we stand in need of all three...*

Example (11) contains another three-part list. The *-ed* participle remains the same in all three postmodifiers, but the antecedent (*college, city, State*) and the prepositional complement (*knowledge, progress, strength*) is different for the individual parts of the list. The short passive is used in example (11) because the agent has a generic reference (i.e. noted by people in general).

The *to*-infinitive clause (14 occurrences) accounts for almost 10 % of all relative postmodifiers, representing the most common type of condense relative clause in the corpus:

(12) *There are many **lesson**^{G6} to learn and we shall learn them.*

(13) *Now, for the third time, a new century is upon us, and another **time**^{I5} to choose.*

The infinitive postmodifier typically includes a modal meaning. The modality of the infinitive can be clearly seen in the possible finite counterparts of the condense relative clauses (12) and (13), both of which express obligation: (*many lessons*) *which we should learn*, and (*another time*) *at which we need to choose*, respectively. The examples also illustrate the fact that the infinitive can condense not only finite relative clauses with the relativizer in the subject position, but also those in which the relativizer has a syntactic role of an object (12) or adverbial (13). Infinitives that condense relative clauses with adverbial relativizers represent the majority of the analysed *to*-infinite relative postmodifiers (8 occurrences out of 14 possible). However, the infinitives postmodify only two different head nouns that are repeated four times, the antecedent *time* in the speech C and the head *place* in the speech J. Once again illustrating the frequent use of listing in the analysed speeches.

The implied subject of the infinitives (12) and (13) is the relative pronoun *we*, referring to all members of a political party (13) and to all citizens of a country (14). Unlike the *-ing* and *-ed* participle clauses, the infinitive can also have its subject overtly expressed with a *for- phrase* (see 2.4.1.). However, according to Biber et al. (2007, 633), only 10 % of infinitive postmodifiers have their subject expressed overtly across registers. This tendency can be clearly seen even in the analysed speeches. In fact, none of the 14 analysed infinitive postmodifiers contains a *for-* phrase. Politicians typically refer to all members of their audience and do not single out particular individuals, and therefore, the personal pronouns *we* or *you* (referring to all citizens or members of a particular group) are the implied subjects of the majority of the analysed infinitive postmodifiers.

It should be also said that the corpus includes a few borderline *to*-infinitive postmodifiers which could be also classified as adverbial clauses of purpose:

(14) *We vowed then to set a clear **course** ¹⁸to renew our nation.*

The underlined infinitive clause can be understood as either expressing purpose (*we vowed then to set a clear course in order to renew our nation*) or as specifying the course that was chosen (*a clear course which will renew our nation*). The former would have to be classified as an adverbial, while the latter would be considered postmodification of a noun phrase. As was already suggested, it was decided that even such borderline cases would be classified as postmodifiers of noun phrases, and therefore, they are part of the corpus.

4.4 Appositive clause

Appositive clauses account only for 28 % (56 occurrences) of the analysed clausal postmodifiers due to a limited number of abstract nouns that function as antecedents in such clauses. Non-finite appositive clauses represent about 64 % (36 occurrences) of the analysed appositive postmodifiers, while finite appositive postmodification constitutes the remaining 36 % (20 occurrence). All the non-finite appositive postmodifiers in the corpus are *to*-infinitive clauses and they can be further divided into restrictive (32 occurrences) and non-restrictive (4 occurrences). In contrast, the analysed finite appositive postmodifiers – consisting of *that*-clauses (15 occurrences) and *wh*- clauses (5 occurrences) – are all restrictive.

The significantly higher frequency of non-finite appositive clauses in the corpus is the result of the type of abstract nouns found in the selected political speeches. The analysed finite appositive clauses do not share any antecedent with the non-finite appositive postmodifiers, each postmodifies a unique set of abstract nouns. This can be illustrated with the help of *Table 1* which contains all the appositive antecedents from the corpus (number of occurrences in brackets and antecedents of *that*-clauses in bold):

Abstract nouns as antecedents of finite appositive clauses	Abstract nouns as antecedents of non-finite appositive clauses
<i>fact</i> (5)	<i>privilege</i> (6)
<i>indication, conviction, fear</i> (2)	<i>effort, failure, honour</i> (3)
<i>recognition, questions, evidence, accusations, awareness, forecast, belief, doubt, dispute, promise</i> (1)	<i>temptation, opportunity, choice, chance</i> (2)
—	<i>determination, courage, fortitude, right, precaution, necessity, industry, will, power, invitation, duty, mission, much, task</i> (1)

Table 1. *Abstract nouns as antecedents of appositive clauses*

As the theoretical part of the thesis already discussed (see 2.5) and as *Table 1* exemplifies, *that*-clauses, the prototypical finite appositive postmodifier, are used with abstract nouns expressing a speaker's stance towards the proposition contained in the clause, while *to*-infinitive appositive clauses postmodify abstract antecedents which refer to human goals and actions.

The corpus study done by Biber et al. (2007, 647) discovered that *to*-infinitive appositive postmodifiers occur most frequently in news and *that*-appositive clauses in academic discourse. Biber et al. (2007, 653) argue that the abstract nouns postmodified by *to*-infinitive clause are commonly found in news because the discourse is mainly focused “on human goals and actions rather than on the attitudes of the writer”. The same appears to be true for political speeches. The *to*-infinitive clause is the most common appositive postmodifier in the corpus because the politicians in the selected speeches seem to be more concerned with both the present and past actions and political goals instead of focusing mainly on personal assessment of certain propositions.

Table 1 also illustrates the tendency of appositive antecedents to be singular in number. The corpus contains only two head nouns of appositive clauses that are plural in number: *questions* and *accusations*, both of which are postmodified by finite appositive clauses.

The finite appositive clauses will be now discussed in greater detail, starting with *that*- clause (15 occurrences), which is the only prototypical finite appositive postmodifier:

- (15) *We should be proud of the **fact** that in these islands we trust the people for these big decisions.*

The appositive postmodifier (15) completes the meaning of the abstract noun *fact*. In other words, it helps to determine what the fact is. By using the antecedent *fact*, the speaker also expresses his stance or attitude towards the information contained in the clause: He is certain that the politicians (i.e. *we*) of the country trust the people with big decisions. The proposition in the clause is presented as something given, undisputable. Perhaps, that is the reason why the noun *fact* is the most frequently used antecedent of finite appositive clauses in the corpus (see *Table 1*).

The majority of the abstract nouns of the analysed *that*- clauses have a corresponding verb form (see *Table 1*):

- (16) *Perhaps this habit goes back to the primitive **belief**^{D5} that the word and the thing, the name and the object, are identical.*

- (17) *It was a **recognition**^{T5} that globalisation has changed us all.*

The head nouns *belief* (17) and *recognition* (18) are both examples of the process of nominalisation which turns verbs (*believe* and *recognise*) into nouns (*belief* and *recognition*), typically with the help of derivational affixes. Nominalisation can represent a powerful tool in political discourse (see 3.1.): By choosing to use a noun instead of a verb, the speakers (16) and (17) do not need to specify who believes (*that the word and the thing...*) and who recognises (*that globalisation has changed...*), and therefore, they can make general statements whose validity might be harder to dispute or challenge.

That-clauses do not represent the only type of finite appositive postmodification in the corpus: the *wh*- clauses (5 occurrences) also postmodify a limited number of the abstract antecedents:

- (18) *But at the same time, I believe we have a precious opportunity to step back and ask some searching **questions** (**O_d**)^{Q7} about what kind of country we want to be here at home too.*

The abstract noun *questions* – one of the two examples of plural appositive antecedents in the corpus – is postmodified by *wh*- clause that helps determine what the questions will try to answer: *What kind of country do we want to be?* It should be said that *wh*-clauses represent only

a marginal type of appositive postmodification. Moreover, they should be seen as a borderline case, as far as the analysed clausal postmodifiers are concerned. As example (18) illustrates, the *wh*-clauses are typically preceded by a preposition, and therefore, they could be classified as prepositional complements, and not as postmodifiers.

Example (18) contains two other appositive postmodifiers (*a precious **opportunity** ^{Q5}to step back and ^{Q6}ask some searching questions about what...*). The *wh*-clause is part of and subordinate to the infinitive appositive postmodifier (Q6). In other words, the *wh*-clause is embedded in the non-finite postmodifier, showing that sentence structures in political speeches can be quite complex.

4.4.1 Non-finite appositive clause

It was already determined that *to*-infinitive clause – the only non-finite appositive postmodifier in the corpus – represents the preferred type of appositive postmodification in the selected speeches (64 %, 36 occurrences). It was also pointed out that the *to*-infinitive is the most common appositive clause in the speeches because of their tendency to favour abstract nouns referring to human actions and goals:

(19) *It was a huge **privilege** ^{T9}to be recognised by such an extraordinary unit in combat.*

(20) *Our economy is badly weakened, a consequence of greed and irresponsibility on the part of some, but also our collective **failure** (C_p) ^{N4}to make hard choices and ^{N5}prepare the nation for a new age.*

The appositive clauses in examples (19) and (20) complete the meaning of the abstract antecedent *privilege* and *failure*, respectively. The abstract nouns are used by the speakers to talk about past achievements (19) or (in)actions (20) and the content of the clauses helps to establish the privilege or the failure the speaker is referring to. The infinitive clause (19) provides an example of the long passive and its implied subject is the speaker himself (*I was recognised...*). On the other hand, the implied subject of the infinitive (20) is determined by the determinative *our* and premodifier *collective* and refers to all citizen of the country (*We did not make hard choices...*).

The noun *privilege* (19) is the most commonly used antecedent of the analysed non-finite appositive clauses (see Table 1). While it might be used frequently by many politicians when summarising their achievement in order to come across as being humble, it should be noted that

the abstract noun occurs only in two different speeches (H and T), and therefore, the analysis cannot make such a generalisation. As was already partly illustrated (see example 1), the antecedent *privilege* is postmodified by five different *to*-infinitive appositive clauses in the speech H, once again highlighting the influence of listing on the overall findings of the analysis.

Examples (19) and (20) were concerned with the past, but the non-finite appositive clauses are also frequently used in the selected speeches to talk about present (21) and future (22) actions or goals:

(21) *We the citizens of America are now joined in a great national **effort** (C_p)^{R1} to rebuild our country and ^{R2} restore its promise for all of our people.*

(22) *I believe that we have a moral and practical **duty** (O_a)^{O7} to extend the action that we are already taking in Iraq to Syria.*

The effort described in example (21) is the rebuilding of the country and restoring of its promises, both of which can be considered as the present actions or goals of the citizens. Example (22) focuses more on the future and the politician chooses the abstract noun *duty* to portray the action contained in the clause as something that must be done. Lastly, both of the non-finite appositive clauses have the personal pronoun *we* as their implied subject. This again illustrates the fact that politicians often try to appeal to or persuade their audience, whether it is the general public (21) or fellow politicians (22).

It should be also noted that the appositive postmodifier (22) contains relative clause *that we are already taking in Iraq to Syria* which postmodifies one of the elements (*the action*) of the superordinate *to*-infinitive appositive postmodifier. Thus, being another example of embedding (see also example 18).

The *to*-infinitive clause also represents the only type of non-restrictive appositive postmodification in the corpus:

(23) *At our party conference last year I said that **the task** (S) in which the Government were engaged—^{E3} to change the national attitude of mind—was the most challenging to face any British Administration since the war.*

The speaker in example (23) repeats what was said at a previous party conference and chooses to focus on the fact that the government were engaged in the task (expressed by a relative clause) and that the task itself was proving rather difficult. The information that the task was about

changing the national attitude was also mentioned a year ago and the speaker expects the audience to know what the task was about, and therefore, the underlined non-finite appositive clause (23) can be backgrounded and become non-restrictive. Lastly, it might be also worth noting that non-restrictive postmodifiers constitute almost the same percentage of appositive clauses (7 %, 4 out 56 appositive clauses) as they do of relative clauses (8 %, 12 out 144 relative postmodifiers).

4.5 Syntactic roles of the antecedent

The head nouns of clausal postmodifiers also have a syntactic role in the superordinate or the main clause in which they occur (see chapter 1). Biber et al. (2007, 623) distinguish between subject and non-subject antecedents and point out that the head noun with clausal postmodification rarely functions as the subject of the main clause.

As *Figure 3* illustrates, the subject head nouns precede only 6 % (12 occurrences) of the analysed clausal postmodifiers. The majority of clauses postmodifies non-subject heads (86 %, 172 occurrences) with a variety of different syntactic functions: complement of preposition (89 occurrences, 44,5 % of all head nouns), direct object (40, 20 %), subject complement (34, 17 %), and apposition (9, 4,5 %). The remaining 8 % (16 occurrences) of head nouns are part of irregular sentence structures without any main clause.

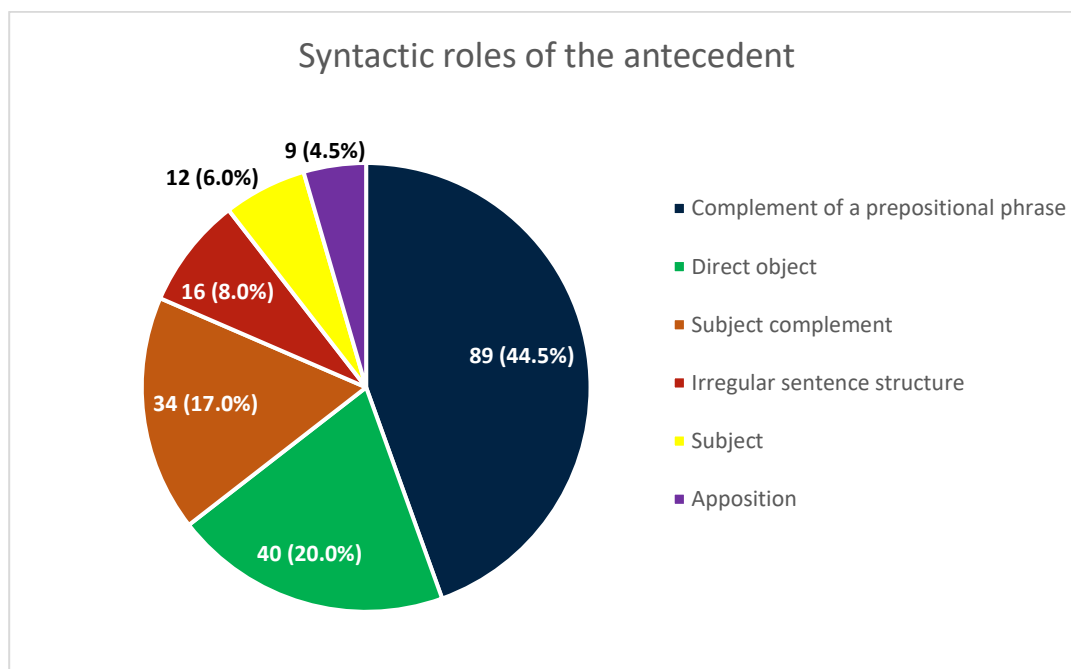


Figure 3. Syntactic roles of the antecedent

There is a strong tendency in English to place long and more complex units at the end of the sentence (end-weight principle) and after the verb of the main clause (Biber et al. 2007, 623, 898). Clausal postmodifiers with subject head nouns go against both of these tendencies and can be found disruptive:

(24) *And now the **ideas** and the **ideals** ^{B6}which he so nobly represented must and will be translated into effective action.*

The head nouns *ideas* and *ideals* represent the subject of the main clause (*the ideas and ideals must and will be translated...*) and are postmodified by the underlined relative clause. The relative clauses separate the subject from the verb of the main clause and the audience needs to remember that it is *the ideas and ideals* that the verb *must be translated* is referring to, which might pose even greater challenges in the case of longer relative clauses. That is the reason why the subject head noun is rarely used as an antecedent of the analysed clausal postmodifiers.

Head nouns functioning as complements of prepositional phrases represent the most common syntactic role of the non-subject antecedent in the corpus. The prepositional phrase itself has a syntactic function, too:

(25) *And I thought, well, Cath, I have the next few minutes and if I do what you have done in the **time** ^{G1}allotted to you then it will be quite remarkable.*

(26) *Those who knowingly shirk it deserve, and not infrequently receive, the curses of **those** ^{D7}who come after.*

The head noun *time* followed by *-ed* participle clause (25) has a syntactic role of complement in the prepositional phrase *in the time allotted...* Only the prepositional phrase as a whole functions as an adverbial of time. The underlined relative clause in example (26) postmodifies the head noun *those*, which is a complement of the prepositional phrase *of those who...* The whole prepositional phrase functions as a phrasal postmodifier of the head noun *curses*. Such structures can be also placed at the beginning of a sentence (rare in the corpus). It should be also highlighted that example (26) contains two different types of postmodification (phrasal and clausal), illustrating the fact that political speeches differ from other examples of spoken language in their complexity.

Non-subject heads of the analysed clausal postmodifiers also frequently fulfil the syntactic role of a direct object (27) or a subject complement (28):

(27) *I know **aid workers and diplomats** (**O_d**) ^{T2}who feel the same way.*

(28) *The will of the British people is an **instruction** (C_s)^{P7} that must be delivered.*

Unlike the prepositional complement, direct object (27) and subject complement (28) are clause elements and they can be typically found only at the end of a clause or a sentence, in the position after the verb they are dependent on (*know* and *is*, respectively).

The head nouns of the analysed clausal postmodifiers also occur to a lesser degree in appositive constructions:

(29) *And so we've come to cash this check, a **check** (Ap)^{C6} that will give us upon demand the riches of freedom and the security of justice.*

The term apposition describes a relation between two noun phrases which are placed next to each other and refer to the same person, thing or concept (Quirk 1985, 1300–1301). In the case of example (29), the noun phrases *this check* and *a check that will...* share the same reference (i.e. a check). The second noun phrase (*a check that will...*) is more specific, providing more information than the first. As example (29) illustrates, the apposition in the selected speeches frequently features repetition, a rhetorical device used by politicians to highlight and make memorable key aspects of their message. Lastly, it is worth noting that apposition should not be confused with appositive clauses.

Apart from repetition, listing represents another key linguistic characteristic of political speeches. The lists in the selected speeches are often marked by irregular sentence structure. In other words, the head nouns do not have any syntactic roles because the list frequently does not contain any superordinate or main clause:

(30) *...but for too many of our citizens a different reality exists. **Mothers and children**^{R8} trapped in poverty in our inner cities, rusted out **factories**^{R9} scattered like tombstones across the landscape of our nation, an education **system** flush with cash but^{R10} which leaves our young and beautiful students deprived of all knowledge.*

Conclusion

The aim of the thesis was to analyse clausal postmodifiers of noun phrases (i.e. relative and appositive clauses) in political discourse and determine their distribution, prototypical forms and syntactic roles of their antecedents in the selected political speeches. The theoretical part of the thesis laid the necessary groundwork for the subsequent analysis of relative and appositive clauses in the 20 selected political speeches.

The findings of the analysis clearly show the relative clauses occur more frequently as clausal postmodifiers in political speeches than appositive clauses. The former accounts for 72 % of the analysed postmodifiers, while the latter represents the remaining 28 %. The lower frequency of appositive postmodifiers is the result of the limited number of abstract nouns which appositive clauses can postmodify. Additionally, the analysis reveals that both types of clausal postmodifiers are rarely non-restrictive in political speeches, representing only 8 % of the analysed clauses. Adding too many non-essential information could potentially result in losing the attention of the audience, something that no public speaker can afford.

As far as relative postmodifiers and their forms are concerned, the results of the analysis demonstrate that finite relative clauses (78 % of all relative postmodifiers) are preferred over their condensed (i.e. non-finite) counterparts in political speeches. The *-ed* and *-ing* participles and infinitive clauses account for about 22 % of the relative postmodifiers. The preference for finite relative postmodifier seem to reflect the fact that such speeches are typically spoken. The less explicit nature of non-finite relative clauses might be harder for an audience to follow, and therefore, the high degree of condensation – common in formal written texts – is usually avoided in political speeches. However, this tendency does not seem to apply to relative postmodifiers in the passive voice which are more likely to be expressed by the *-ed* participle clause (accounting for 9 % of the relative clauses) than by its finite equivalent.

In contrast, the analysed appositive postmodifiers show a different tendency: non-finite appositive (*to*-infinitive) clauses account for 64 % of the appositive postmodifiers, while finite appositive (*that*- and *wh*-) clauses represent only the remaining 36 %. However, the former cannot be considered a condensed variant of the latter because they each typically postmodify a different set of abstract nouns. Abstract head nouns postmodified by *to*-infinitive clause and referring to human goals and actions occur more frequently in the selected speeches than

abstract antecedents postmodified by *that*-clause and expressing speaker's attitude. In other words, the fact that political speeches seem to be more concerned with human actions and goals results in the higher frequency of non-finite appositive postmodifiers.

Lastly, the analysis focused on different syntactic roles of head nouns of the analysed clausal postmodifiers. The analysis distinguished between subject (6 %, 12 occurrences) and non-subject head nouns (86 %, 172) and head nouns that were part of irregular sentence structure (8 %, 16). The findings clearly support the fact that antecedents of clausal postmodifiers rarely function as the subject in the superordinate clause because of the tendency to place longer and more complex units at the end of a clause or a sentence. The selected speeches also contained antecedents that had no syntactic role, being part of irregular sentence structures. These head nouns frequently occurred as parts of lists without any superordinate or main clause. It should be added that the frequent occurrence of listing in the selected speeches also had a great influence on the overall distribution of relative and appositive clauses in the corpus because the analysed lists typically featured the same type and form of postmodification in all its parts.

Resumé

Tato práce se zabývá větnou postmodifikací jmenných frází v politickém diskurzu. Jejím primárním cílem je určit procentuální rozložení vztahných a přístavkových vět, jejich forem a dále syntaktických funkcí jmenné fráze v politických projevech, jednom ze žánrů politického diskurzu. Práce je členěna na část teoretickou, jež definuje jednotlivé pojmy, a na část praktickou, která představuje a interpretuje výsledky analýzy větných postmodifikací ve vybraných politických projevech.

Teoretická část práce je rozdělena do tří kapitol. První kapitola se soustředí na jmennou frázi, její strukturu a syntaktické funkce. Pozornost je nejprve věnována možným členům či konstituentům jmenné fráze. Hlava fráze představuje její řídicí člen, na němž jsou ostatní konstituenty dané fráze závislé, a proto ji není možné vynechat. Hlavou fráze mohou být nejen substantiva, ale rovněž i zájmena či také substantivizovaná adjektiva (*the rich, the poor atd.*). Terminologie či klasifikace týkající se dalších konstituentů jmenné fráze se mezi odbornými zdroji často liší. Tyto rozdíly jsou také předmětem pozornosti první kapitoly, zároveň je však rozhodnuto, že tato práce se bude řídit členěním jmenné fráze, které navrhnul Quirk et al. (1985). Kromě hlavy tak jmenná fráze může obsahovat determinátor, premodifikaci či postmodifikaci. Důležité je, že determinátor a premodifikace se vždy vyskytují před hlavou fráze, zatímco postmodifikace je část jmenné fráze, jež se nachází až po samotné hlavě. Kromě vztahných a přístavkových vět se v postmodifikaci velmi často objevují předložkové fráze. Další typy frází – například adjektivní fráze – jsou postmodifikátory jmenné fráze jen zřídka. V neposlední řadě se první kapitola soustředí na skutečnost, že jmenné fráze mají obvykle funkci větného členu ve větě řídicí, tedy nadřazené. Jmenné fráze jsou v tomto ohledu velmi flexibilní a mohou být jakýmkoliv větným členem kromě přísudku.

Druhá kapitola teoretické práce je zaměřena pouze na větnou postmodifikaci. Zde je nutné říci, že anglická gramatologie používá poněkud přesnější termín *clausal postmodification*. *Clause* neboli klauze je definována v první části druhé kapitoly. Klauze označuje gramatickou jednotku, jež se hierarchicky nachází mezi větou a frází. Jinými slovy, jedna či více frází tvoří klauzu a jedna či více klauz tvoří větu. Každá klauze však musí obsahovat verbální frázi, jež stojí v jejím středu.

Další část druhé kapitoly definuje formy (finitní a nefinitní) větné či klauzální postmodifikace. Slovesa v postmodifikaci mohou mít buď určitý (finitní) nebo neurčitý (nefinitní) tvar. Jedině finitní slovesa jsou schopna vyjádřit všechny slovesné kategorie a shodu s podmět, ta je však v angličtině omezena u většiny sloves jen na 3. osobu jednotného čísla přítomnosti. Mezi nefinitní tvary sloves, které mohou být v angličtině součástí postmodifikace, patří přítomné (-ing) a minulé (-ed) participium a také infinitiv. Neurčité tvary sloves nemají obvykle vyjádřený podmět a jsou jedním z hlavních prostředků větné kondenzace v angličtině.

Druhá kapitola se rovněž zabývá větnými postmodifikacemi z hlediska významu (restriktivní a nerestriktivní). Restriktivní větný postmodifikátor přináší informace, které jsou zásadní pro identifikování hlavy jmenné fráze. Naproti tomu nerestriktivní postmodifikátor přidává pouze další informace o hlavě jmenné fráze, jejíž identita je známá nebo již byla vymezena. Druhá kapitola dále rozděluje větné postmodifikátory na dva druhy na základě jejich funkce (vztažná a přístavková). Vztažné věty buďto pomáhají blíže specifikovat hlavu jmenné fráze či o ní podávají další informace, jejich funkce jsou tedy shodné s primárním významem restriktivní a nerestriktivní postmodifikace. Naproti tomu přístavkové věty určují či dotvářejí význam abstraktních substantiv (např. *belief*, *effort*, *privilege* atd.). Nerestriktivní přístavková věta se liší od restriktivní v tom, že nejčastěji pouze znovu opakuje informaci specifikující význam abstraktního substantiva, tato informace již byla vyřčena či je danému publiku známá. V některých případech může nerestriktivní přístavková postmodifikace také určovat význam některého z abstraktních substantiv, ale při nerestriktivním postmodifikaci není na danou informaci kladen žádný důraz a je upozaděna.

Poslední kapitola teoretické části práce se věnuje politickému diskurzu, jenž je definován skrze jeho hlavní participanty, tedy politiky a další politické aktéry, kteří se podílejí na vládnutí, schvalování zákonů či vyjadřují odpor či protest například vůči některým politickým rozhodnutím. Kapitola se dále zaměřuje na nominalizaci jako jeden z možných prostředků politické manipulace větné skladby. Během tohoto procesu je sloveso (např. *assume*) přeměno na substantivum (tj. *assumption*), typicky za pomoci derivace či konverze. Na rozdíl od slovesa nevyjadřují substantiva obvykle nijak činitele děje, proto mohou mít generalizující funkci či skrýt informaci, kdo je za daný děj odpovědný. V druhém případě mohou být prostředkem politické manipulace. Poslední kapitola se také zabývá charakteristikou politických projevů z pohledu lingvistiky. Politické projevy jsou obvykle připravené dopředu, což potenciálně může vést k jejich větší jazykové komplexnosti. Tím se ostatně odlišují od celé řady ostatních

ústních projevů, které jsou spontánní. Politici rovněž často využívají ve svých projevech stylistické prostředky jako repetice (tj. opakování stejných slov) či enumerace (tj. výčet jednotlivých složek), aby získali pozornost svého publika či zdůraznili hlavní poselství daného projevu.

Ve čtvrté kapitole je obsažena praktická část této práce. K analýze bylo vybráno 20 politických projevů pokrývajících období od roku 1962 do roku 2021. Projevy rovněž rovnoměrně zastupují dva nejrozšířenější dialekty angličtiny (tj. britskou a americkou angličtinu). Dále bylo rozhodnuto, že v každém politickém projevu bude analyzováno pouze prvních 10 větných postmodifikací, aby převažující typ postmodifikace v jednom z projevů neměl příliš velký vliv i na souhrnné výsledky analýzy. Celkový jazykový korpus této práce se tedy sestává z 200 příkladů větných postmodifikátorů.

Vztažné věty představují 78 % analyzovaných větných postmodifikací. Ve vybraných projevech se tak vyskytují mnohem častěji než věty přístavkové (28 %). Toto nerovnoměrné zastoupení větných postmodifikátorů lze vysvětlit relativně malým počtem abstraktních substantiv, které přístavkové věty mohou postmodifikovat. Analýza rovněž ukázala, že nerestriktivní vztažné a přístavkové věty se jen zřídka objevují ve vybraných politických projevech. Nerestriktivní význam má jen 8 % analyzovaných větných postmodifikací. Politici jsou si vědomi, že do svých projevů nemohou zahrnout velké množství dodatečných informací, které nejsou pro daný projev zásadní nebo již byly zmíněny, jinak by riskovali, že přijdou o pozornost svého publika. Svou roli hraje i skutečnost, že politické projevy jsou většinou časově omezené.

Vztažné a přístavkové věty byly rovněž analyzovány s cílem určit jejich nejčastější formu v daných politických projevech. Analýza jednoznačně ukázala, že finitní forma je preferována u vztažných vět. Finitní vztažné věty tvoří 78 % analyzovaných vztažných postmodifikací, zatímco kondenzované vztažné věty a jejich jednotlivé nefinitní formy (tj. infinitiv, přítomné a minulé příčestí) dohromady představují jen zbývajících 22 %. Tendence politických projevů preferovat finitní vztažné věty může být vysvětlena skutečností, že se povětšinou jedná o mluvené projevy. Obecenstvo obvykle daný projev jen slyší a nemá u sebe jeho psanou podobu. V takových případech by vysoká míra větné kondenzace mohla snižovat celkovou koherenci daných projevů, neboť nefinitní tvary sloves jsou méně explicitní než jejich finitní protějšek. Je nutné však dodat, že drtivá většina finitních vztažných vět obsahuje sloveso v činném rodě, pro vyjádření rodu trpného se častěji používá minulé příčestí.

Přístavkové větné postmodifikace jsou naopak častěji nefinitní (64 %) než finitní (36 %). V případě přístavkových postmodifikací však nelze považovat jejich nefinitní formu za kondenzovaný ekvivalent finitní přístavkové věty, neboť obě formy postmodifikují jinou skupinu abstraktních substantiv. Nefinitní přístavkové věty obvykle postmodifikují abstraktní substantiva vztahující se k dějům či cílům (např. *effort, privilege, chance, duty* atd.), naproti tomu finitní přístavkové věty typicky dotvářejí význam těch abstraktních substantiv, která vyjadřují postoj mluvčího k informaci obsažené v postmodifikaci (např. *fact, belief, conviction, accusation* atd.). Větší četnost nefinitních přístavkových postmodifikací v analyzovaných projevech je tak důsledkem skutečnosti, že dané projevy jsou více zaměřené na děje a cíle než na postoje jejich mluvčích.

Poslední část analýzy se věnovala syntaktickým rolím jmenné fráze ve větě řídicí. Bylo zjištěno, že jmenné fráze s větnou postmodifikací jsou jen výjimečně podmětem nadřazené věty (jen 6 %) ve vybraných projevech. Toto souvisí s tendencí umísťovat komplexnější gramatické struktury až za sloveso věty řídicí, tedy ke konci věty. Analyzované jmenné fráze tak mají v 86 % syntaktické role, pro něž je typická pozice až za slovesem věty řídicí: komplement předložky (*prepositional complement*), předmět (*direct object*), komplement podmětu (*subject complement*). U 8 % jmenných frází nebylo možné určit jejich syntaktickou roli, neboť nebyly součástí žádné věty řídicí. Velká část těchto frází byla součástí enumerací (*listing*), tedy výčtů, v nichž dané fráze představovaly jednotlivé položky seznamu. Je nutno říci, že enumerace se vyskytovaly ve vybraných projevech v hojné míře a ovlivnily i celkové procentuální zastoupení vztahných a přístavkových vět a jejich forem, neboť jednotlivé položky daného seznamu povětšinou obsahovaly stejný typ a formu větného postmodifikátorů.

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List of abbreviations

Condensed relative clauses

RTORC – Restrictive to-infinitive condensed relative clause

REDRC – Restrictive -ed participle condensed relative clause

RINGRC – Restrictive -ing participle condensed relative clause

Syntactic position of the antecedent

S – Subject

O_d – Direct object

O_i – Indirect object

C_s – Subject complement

C_p – Complement of a prepositional phrase

ISS – (the antecedent is part of) irregular sentence structure

Ap – Apposition

Appendix 1 – Corpus

Restrictive finite relative clause

1. Despite the striking fact that most of the **scientists (C_p)** ^{A5}that the world has ever known are alive and working today, despite the fact that this Nation's own scientific manpower is doubling every 12 years in a rate of growth more than three times that of our population as a whole, despite that, the vast stretches of the unknown and the unanswered and the unfinished still far out-strip our collective comprehension.
2. But this city of Houston, this State of Texas, this country of the United States was not built by **those (C_p)** ^{A7}who waited and rested and wished to look behind them.
3. But this city of Houston, this State of Texas, this country of the United States was not built by **those (C_p)** who waited and ^{A8}rested and wished to look behind them.
4. But this city of Houston, this State of Texas, this country of the United States was not built by **those (C_p)** who waited and rested and ^{A9}wished to look behind them.
5. This country was conquered by **those (C_p)** ^{A10}who moved forward-and so will space.
6. Today, John Fitzgerald Kennedy lives on in the immortal **words and works (C_p)** ^{B1}that he left behind.
7. No words are strong enough to express our determination to continue the forward **thrust (O_a)** of America ^{B3}that he began.
8. The dream of conquering the vastness of space, the dream of partnership across the Atlantic -- and across the Pacific as well -- the dream of a Peace Corps in less developed nations, the dream of education for all of our children, the dream of jobs for **all (C_p)** ^{B4}who seek them and need them, the dream of care for our elderly, the dream of an all-out attack on mental illness, and above all, the dream of equal rights for all Americans, whatever their race or color.
9. The dream of conquering the vastness of space, the dream of partnership across the Atlantic -- and across the Pacific as well -- the dream of a Peace Corps in less developed nations, the dream of education for all of our children, the dream of jobs for **all (C_p)** who seek them and ^{B5}need them, the dream of care for our elderly, the dream of an all-out attack on mental illness, and above all, the dream of equal rights for all Americans, whatever their race or color.
10. And now the **ideas** and the **ideals (S)** ^{B6}which he so nobly represented must and will be translated into effective action.

11. We have proved that we are a good and reliable friend to **those (C_p)**^{B⁹}who seek peace and freedom.
12. We have shown that we can also be a formidable foe to **those (C_p)**^{B¹⁰}who reject the path of peace and those who seek to impose upon us or our allies the yoke of tyranny.
13. This momentous decree came as a great beacon light of hope to millions of Negro **slaves (C_p)**^{C²}who had been seared in the flames of withering injustice.
14. When the architects of our republic wrote the magnificent words of the Constitution and the Declaration of Independence, they were signing a promissory **note (O_a)**^{C³}to which every American was to fall heir.
15. Instead of honoring this sacred obligation, America has given the Negro people a bad check, a **check (A_p)**^{C⁵}which has come back marked insufficient funds.
16. And so we've come to cash this check, a **check (A_p)**^{C⁶}that will give us upon demand the riches of freedom and the security of justice.
17. In seeking to do so, it encounters **obstacles (O_a)**^{D¹}which are deeply rooted in human nature.
18. **Those (S)**^{D⁶}who knowingly shirk it deserve, and not infrequently receive, the curses of those who come after.
19. Those who knowingly shirk it deserve, and not infrequently receive, the curses of **those (C_p)**^{D⁷}who come after.
20. I am, however, very fortunate in having a marvellous **deputy (O_a)**^{E¹}who is wonderful in all places at all times in all things – Willie Whitelaw.
21. At our party conference last year I said that the **task (S)**^{E²}in which the Government were engaged—to change the national attitude of mind—was the most challenging to face any British Administration since the war.
22. This week we Conservatives have been taking stock, discussing the achievements, the set-backs and the **work (O_a)**^{E⁴}that lies ahead as we enter our second parliamentary year.
23. Let me instead use this valuable opportunity to deal immediately with the **questions (C_p)**^{F²}that should determine this election and that we all know are vital to the American people.
24. Let me instead use this valuable opportunity to deal immediately with the **questions (C_p)** that should determine this election and ^{F³}that we all know are vital to the American people.

25. But there's another city; there's another part to the shining city; the **part (Ap)** ^{F5}where some people can't pay their mortgages, and most young people can't afford one; where students can't afford the education they need, and middle-class parents watch the dreams they hold for their children evaporate.
26. But there's another city; there's another part to the shining city; the **part (Ap)** where some people can't pay their mortgages, and ^{F6}most young people can't afford one; where students can't afford the education they need, and middle-class parents watch the dreams they hold for their children evaporate.
27. But there's another city; there's another part to the shining city; **part (Ap)** where some people can't pay their mortgages, and most young people can't afford one; ^{F7}where students can't afford the education they need, and middle-class parents watch the dreams they hold for their children evaporate.
28. But there's another city; there's another part to the shining city; the part where some people can't pay their mortgages, and most young people can't afford one; where students can't afford the **education (Oa)** ^{F8}they need, and middle-class parents watch the dreams they hold for their children evaporate.
29. But there's another city; there's another part to the shining city; the **part (Ap)** where some people can't pay their mortgages, and most young people can't afford one; where students can't afford the education they need, and ^{F9}middle-class parents watch the dreams they hold for their children evaporate.
30. But there's another city; there's another part to the shining city; the part where some people can't pay their mortgages, and most young people can't afford one; where students can't afford the education they need, and middle-class parents watch the **dreams (Oa)** ^{F10}they hold for their children evaporate.
31. Indeed it is that **fact (Cs)** ^{G3}which, to all intents and purposes, ^{G3}dominates our agenda, sets our agenda.
32. Indeed it is that **fact (Cs)** which, to all intents and purposes, dominates our agenda, ^{G4}sets our agenda.
33. We learn from our defeat, and we learn hard enough and deep enough to ensure that it is the last **defeat (Cs)** ^{G5}that will be inflicted upon our movement.
34. And as we set about the task I think it is helpful in preparing ourselves for that task of review, of assessment, of analysis, of learning, to remind ourselves without any complacency that there were **features (Cs)** of that election which we lost ^{G7}that provide us with foundations of confidence.

35. And as we set about the task I think it is helpful in preparing ourselves for that task of review, of assessment, of analysis, of learning, to remind ourselves without any complacency that there were features of that **election (C_p)** ^{G8}which we lost that provide us with foundations of confidence.
36. I say again, without complacency, there were **features (C_s)** of that election ^{G9}which meant that, yes, we were defeated, but we certainly were not beaten - certainly not like so many of the commentators and anticipators and watchers of the runes and readers of the tea leaves would have had us believe just weeks before that election started.
37. Indeed, if some of my former colleagues are to be believed, I must be the first **Minister (C_s)** in history ^{H2}who has resigned because he was in full agreement with Government policy.
38. Not one of our economic achievements would have been possible without the courage and leadership of my right hon. Friend—and, if I may say so, they possibly derived some little benefit from the presence of a **Chancellor (C_p)** ^{H8}who was not exactly a wet himself.
39. At this last presidential inauguration of the 20th century, let us lift our eyes toward the **challenges (C_p)** ^{I1}that await us in the next century.
40. It is our great good fortune that time and chance have put us not only at the edge of a new century, in a new millennium, but on the edge of a bright new prospect in human affairs, a **moment (A_p)** ^{I2}that will define our course, and our character, for decades to come.
41. America became the world's mightiest industrial power; saved the world from tyranny in two world wars and a long cold war; and time and again, reached out across the globe to **millions (C_p)** ^{I4}who, like us, longed for the blessings of liberty.
42. **Problems (S)** ^{I9}that once seemed destined to deepen now bend to our efforts: our streets are safer and record numbers of our fellow citizens have moved from welfare to work.
43. Thank you to the Party organisation, the volunteers, the **professionals (C_p)** ^{J5}who fashioned the finest political fighting machine anywhere in the world.
44. And thanks to **those (C_p)** ^{J6}that led before me.
45. To John Smith: who left us a fine legacy, and to whom we can now leave a fitting monument - a Scottish Parliament in the **city (C_p)** ^{J9}where he lived, serving the country he loved and the people who loved him.

46. To John Smith: who left us a fine legacy, and to whom we can now leave a fitting monument - a Scottish Parliament in the city where he lived, serving the **country (Oa)** ^{J10}he loved and the people who loved him.
47. And we responded with the best of America – with the daring of our rescue workers, with the caring for strangers and **neighbors (Cp)** ^{K4}who came to give blood and help in any way they could.
48. Our first priority is to get help to **those (Cp)** ^{K5}who have been injured, and to take every precaution to protect our citizens at home and around the world from further attacks.
49. **Federal agencies (S)** in Washington ^{K7}which had to be evacuated today are reopening for essential personnel tonight, and will be open for business tomorrow.
50. The search is underway for **those (Cp)** ^{K8}who are behind these evil acts.
51. We will make no distinction between the **terrorists (Cp)** ^{K9}who committed these acts and those who harbor them.
52. We will make no distinction between the terrorists who committed these acts and **those (Cp)** ^{K10}who harbor them.
53. I have no sympathy with, and I will give no comfort to, **those (Cp)** ^{L5}who want to use this crisis to displace him.
54. I applaud the heroic **efforts (Oa)** ^{L6}that the Prime Minister has made in trying to secure a second resolution.
55. It is not **France (Cs)** alone ^{L7}that wants more time for inspections.
56. The reality is that Britain is being asked to embark on a war without agreement in any of the international **bodies (Cp)** ^{L8}of which we are a leading partner—not NATO, not the European Union and, now, not the Security Council.
57. Only a year ago, we and the United States were part of a **coalition (Cp)** against terrorism ^{L9}that was wider and more diverse than I would ever have imagined possible.
58. History will be astonished at the diplomatic **miscalculations (Cp)** ^{L10}that led so quickly to the disintegration of that powerful coalition.
59. A little while ago, I had the honor of calling Sen. Barack Obama — to congratulate him on being elected the next president of the **country (Cp)** ^{M2}that we both love.
60. This is an historic election, and I recognize the special significance it has for African-Americans and for the special **pride (Cp)** ^{M4}that must be theirs tonight.

61. I've always believed that America offers opportunities to **all (C_p)**^{M5} who have the industry and will to seize it.
62. But we both recognize that though we have come a long way from the old **injustices (C_p)**^{M7} that once stained our nation's reputation and denied some Americans the full blessings of American citizenship, the memory of them still had the power to wound.
63. But we both recognize that though we have come a long way from the old **injustices (C_p)** that once stained our nation's reputation and denied some^{M8} Americans the full blessings of American citizenship, the memory of them still had the power to wound.
64. My fellow citizens: I stand here today humbled by the task before us, grateful for the **trust (C_p)**^{N1} you've bestowed, mindful of the sacrifices borne by our ancestors.
65. I thank President Bush for his service to our nation -- (applause) -- as well as the **generosity and cooperation (C_p)**^{N3} he has shown throughout this transition.
66. Today I say to you that the **challenges (S)**^{N9} we face are real.
67. On this day, we come to proclaim an end to the petty **grievances** and false **promises,** the **recriminations** and worn-out **dogmas (C_p)**^{N10} that for far too long have strangled our politics.
68. Now Mr Speaker, we have had an intense and impassioned debate – and rightly so, given the clear and present threat from Daesh, the gravity of the **decision (C_p)**^{O2} that rests upon the shoulders and the conscience of every single one of us, and the lives that we hold in our hands tonight.
69. Now Mr Speaker, we have had an intense and impassioned debate – and rightly so, given the clear and present threat from Daesh, the gravity of the decision that rests upon the shoulders and the conscience of every single one of us, and the **lives (C_p)**^{O3} that we hold in our hands tonight.
70. The **question (S)**^{O4} which confronts us in a very very complex conflict is, at its heart, very simple.
71. What should we do with others to confront this threat to our citizens, our nation, other nations and the **people (C_p)**^{O5} who suffer under the yoke, the cruel yoke, of Daesh?
72. The carnage in Paris brought home to us the clear and present **danger (Oa)**^{O6} that we face from them.
73. I believe that we have a moral and practical duty to extend the **action (Oa)**^{O8} that we are already taking in Iraq to Syria.

74. We not only have a parliamentary democracy, but on questions about the **arrangements (C_p)** ^{P2}for how we're governed there are times when it is right to ask the people themselves and that is what we have done.
75. I want to thank **everyone (O_a)** ^{P3}who took part in the campaign on my side of the argument, including all those who put aside party differences to speak in what they believe was the national interest and let me congratulate all those who took part in the Leave campaign for the spirited and passionate case that they made.
76. I want to thank everyone who took part in the campaign on my side of the argument, including all **those (C_p)** ^{P4}who put aside party differences to speak in what they believe was the national interest and let me congratulate all those who took part in the Leave campaign for the spirited and passionate case that they made.
77. I want to thank everyone who took part in the campaign on my side of the argument, including all those who put aside party differences to speak in what they believe was the national interest and let me congratulate all **those (O_a)** ^{P5}who took part in the Leave campaign for the spirited and passionate case that they made.
78. I want to thank everyone who took part in the campaign on my side of the argument, including all those who put aside party differences to speak in what they believe was the national interest and let me congratulate all those who took part in the Leave campaign for the spirited and passionate **case (C_p)** ^{P6}that they made.
79. The will of the British people is an **instruction (C_s)** ^{P7}that must be delivered.
80. It was not a **decision (C_s)** ^{P8}that was taken lightly, not least because so many things were said by so many different organisations about the significance of this decision.
81. Across the world people have been watching the **choice (O_a)** ^{P9}that Britain has made.
82. When I stood in Downing Street as Prime Minister for the first time this summer, I set out my mission to build a **country (O_a)** ^{Q2}that works for everyone.
83. Today I want to talk a little more about what that means and lay out my vision for a truly meritocratic **Britain (C_p)** ^{Q3}that puts the interests of ordinary, working class people first.
84. That involves asking ourselves what kind of country we want to be: a confident, global trading **nation (ISS)** ^{Q4}that continues to play its full part on the world stage.
85. They were also expressing a far more profound sense of frustration about aspects of life in Britain and the **way (C_p)** ^{Q8}in which politics and politicians have failed to respond to their concerns.

86. January 20th, 2017 will be remembered as the **day (C_p)** ^{R5}the people became the rulers of this nation again.
87. You came by the tens of millions to become part of a historic movement, the **likes (ISS)** ^{R6}of which the world has never seen before.
88. Mothers and children trapped in poverty in our inner cities, rusted out factories scattered like tombstones across the landscape of our nation, an **education system (ISS)** flush with cash but ^{R10}which leaves our young and beautiful students deprived of all knowledge.
89. So now, on this hallowed **ground (C_p)** ^{S1}where just days ago violence sought to shake this Capitol's very foundation, we come together as one nation, under God, indivisible, to carry out the peaceful transfer of power as we have for more than two centuries.
90. We look ahead in our uniquely American way – restless, bold, optimistic – and set our sights on the **nation (C_p)** ^{S2}we know we can be and we must be.
91. We look ahead in our uniquely American way – restless, bold, optimistic – and set our sights on the **nation (C_p)** we know we can be and ^{S3}we must be.
92. I have just taken the sacred **oath (O_a)** ^{S7}each of these patriots took — an oath first sworn by George Washington.
93. But the American story depends not on any one of us, not on some of us, but on all of us. On “**We the People**” (C_p) ^{S9}who seek a more perfect Union.
94. The feeling of abandonment, not just of a country but of the **sacrifice (C_p)** ^{T2}that my friends made.
95. I know **aid workers** and **diplomats (O_a)** ^{T2}who feel the same way.
96. I know **journalists (O_a)** ^{T3}who've been the witnesses to our country in its heroic effort to save people from the most horrific fates.
97. The **phone calls (S)** ^{T6}that I am still receiving, the text messages that I have been answering, putting people in touch with our people in Afghanistan, reminds us that we are connected.
98. The phone calls that I am still receiving, the **text messages (S)** ^{T7}that I have been answering, putting people in touch with our people in Afghanistan, reminds us that we are connected.
99. Afghanistan is not a faraway **country (C_s)** ^{T8}about which we know little.
100. To see their commander-in-chief call into question the courage of **men (C_p)** ^{T10}I fought with — to claim that they ran.

Non-restrictive finite relative clause

1. Five score years ago, a great **American (S)**^{C1} in whose symbolic shadow we stand today, signed the Emancipation Proclamation.
2. By the same token, they attract little attention in comparison with current **troubles (C_p)**,^{D3} which are both indisputable and pressing: whence the besetting temptation of all politics to concern itself with the immediate present at the expense of the future.
3. Here is a decent, ordinary fellow **Englishman (C_s)**,^{D10} who in broad daylight in my own town says to me, his Member of Parliament, that his country will not be worth living in for his children.
4. A shining city is perhaps all the President sees from the **portico (C_p)** of the White House and the **veranda (C_p)** of his ranch,^{F4} where everyone seems to be doing well.
5. To **John Smith (ISS)**:^{J7} who left us a fine legacy, and to whom we can now leave a fitting monument - a Scottish Parliament in the city where he lived, serving the country he loved and the people who loved him.
6. To **John Smith (ISS)**: who left us a fine legacy, and^{J8} to whom we can now leave a fitting monument - a Scottish Parliament in the city where he lived, serving the country he loved and the people who loved him.
7. None of those 20 years were more enjoyable or more rewarding than the past **two (C_p)**,^{L1} in which I have had the immense privilege of serving this House as Leader of the House, which were made all the more enjoyable, Mr. Speaker, by the opportunity of working closely with you.
8. None of those 20 years were more enjoyable or more rewarding than the past **two (C_p)**, in which I have had the immense privilege of serving this House as Leader of the House,^{L2} which were made all the more enjoyable, Mr. Speaker, by the opportunity of working closely with you.
9. But that he managed to do so by inspiring the hopes of so many millions of **Americans (C_p)**,^{M3} who had once wrongly believed that they had little at stake or little influence in the election of an American president, is something I deeply admire and commend him for achieving.
10. As does **President Carter (ISS)**,^{S4} who I spoke to last night but who cannot be with us today, but whom we salute for his lifetime of service.
11. As does **President Carter (ISS)**, who I spoke to last night but^{S5} who cannot be with us today, but whom we salute for his lifetime of service.

12. As does **President Carter (ISS)**, who I spoke to last night but who cannot be with us today, but ^{S6}whom we salute for his lifetime of service.

Condensed relative clause

1. We meet at a **college (C_p)** ^{A1}noted for knowledge (REDRC), in a city noted for progress, in a State noted for strength, and we stand in need of all three, for we meet in an hour of change and challenge, in a decade of hope and fear, in an age of both knowledge and ignorance.
2. We meet at a college noted for knowledge, in a **city (C_p)** ^{A2}noted for progress (REDRC), in a State noted for strength, and we stand in need of all three, for we meet in an hour of change and challenge, in a decade of hope and fear, in an age of both knowledge and ignorance.
3. We meet at a college noted for knowledge, in a city noted for progress, in a **State (C_p)** ^{A3}noted for strength (REDRC), and we stand in need of all three, for we meet in an hour of change and challenge, in a decade of hope and fear, in an age of both knowledge and ignorance.
4. This is no **time (C_s)** ^{C7}to engage in the luxury of cooling off (RTORC) or to take the tranquilizing drug of gradualism.
5. This is no **time (C_s)** to engage in the luxury of cooling off or ^{C8}to take the tranquilizing drug of gradualism (RTORC).
6. Now is the **time (C_s)** ^{C9}to make real the promises of democracy (RTORC).
7. Now is the **time (C_s)** ^{C10}to rise from the dark and desolate valley of segregation to the sunlit path of racial justice (RTORC).
8. A week or two ago I fell into conversation with a constituent, a middle-aged, quite ordinary working **man (A_p)** ^{D8}employed in one of our nationalised industries (REDRC).
9. There are many **things (C_s)** ^{E9}to be done (RTORC) to set this nation on the road to recovery, and I do not mean economic recovery alone, but a new independence of spirit and zest for achievement.
10. Our response to disappointment has not been to lengthen our stride but to shorten the **distance (O_d)** ^{E10}to be covered (RTORC).
11. And I thought, well, Cath, I have the next few minutes and if I do what you have done in the **time (C_p)** ^{G1}allotted to you (REDRC) then it will be quite remarkable.

12. There are many **lessons (Cs)** ^{G6}to learn (RTORC) and we shall learn them.
13. It was a privilege to serve as my right hon. Friend's first Chancellor of the Exchequer; to share in the transformation of our industrial relations scene; to help launch our free market programme, commencing with the abolition of exchange control; and, above all, to achieve such substantial success against inflation, getting it down within four years from 22 per cent. to 4 per cent. upon the basis of the strict monetary **discipline (Cp)** ^{H7}involved in the medium-term financial strategy (REDRC).
14. Now, for the third time, a new century is upon us, and another **time (ISS)** ^{I5}to choose (RTORC).
15. We vowed then to set a clear **course (Oa)** ^{I8}to renew our nation (RTORC).
16. We need a new government for a new century - humble enough not to try to solve all our problems for us, but strong enough to give us the **tools (Oa)** ^{I10}to solve our problems for ourselves (RTORC); a government that is smaller, lives within its means, and does more with less.
17. But we can be the best. The best **place (ISS)** ^{J1}to live (RTORC).
18. The best **place (ISS)** ^{J2}to bring up children (RTORC), the best place to lead a fulfilled life, the best place to grow old.
19. The best place to bring up children, the best **place (ISS)** ^{J3}to lead a fulfilled life (RTORC), the best place to grow old.
20. The best place to bring up children, the best place to lead a fulfilled life, the best **place (ISS)** ^{J4}to grow old (RTORC).
21. The pictures of **airplanes (Cp)** ^{K1}flying into buildings (RINGRC), fires burning, huge structures collapsing, have filled us with disbelief, terrible sadness, and a quiet, unyielding anger.
22. The pictures of airplanes flying into buildings, **fires (Cp)** ^{K2}burning (RINGRC), huge structures collapsing, have filled us with disbelief, terrible sadness, and a quiet, unyielding anger.
23. The pictures of airplanes flying into buildings, fires burning, huge **structures (Cp)** ^{K3}collapsing (RINGRC), have filled us with disbelief, terrible sadness, and a quiet, unyielding anger.
24. My fellow citizens: I stand here today humbled by the task before us, grateful for the trust you've bestowed, mindful of the **sacrifices (Cp)** ^{N2}borne by our ancestors (REDRC).

25. I am also clear—and I say this to my colleagues—that the **conditions (S)**^{O9}set out in the emergency resolution passed at the Labour party conference in September (REDRC) have been met.
26. I am also clear—and I say this to my colleagues—that the conditions set out in the emergency **resolution (C_p)**^{O10}passed at the Labour party conference in September (REDRC) have been met.
27. I would reassure those markets and investors that Britain's economy is fundamentally strong and I would also reassure **Britons (O_d)**^{P10}living in European countries (RINGRC) and European citizens living here there will be no immediate changes in your circumstances.
28. It belongs to **everyone (C_p)**^{R3}gathered here today (REDRC), and everyone watching, all across America.
29. It belongs to everyone gathered here today, and **everyone (C_p)**^{R4}watching (RINGRC), all across America.
30. **Mothers (ISS) and children (ISS)**^{R8}trapped in poverty in our inner cities (REDRC), rusted out factories scattered like tombstones across the landscape of our nation, an education system flush with cash but which leaves our young and beautiful students deprived of all knowledge.
31. Mothers and children trapped in poverty in our inner cities, rusted out **factories (ISS)**^{R9}scattered like tombstones across the landscape of our nation (REDRC), an education system flush with cash but which leaves our young and beautiful students deprived of all knowledge.
32. I have just taken the sacred oath each of these patriots took — an **oath (A_p)**^{S8}first sworn by George Washington (REDRC).

Restrictive finite appositive clause

1. Despite the striking **fact (C_p)**^{A4}that most of the scientists that the world has ever known are alive and working today, despite the fact that this Nation's own scientific manpower is doubling every 12 years in a rate of growth more than three times that of our population as a whole, despite that, the vast stretches of the unknown and the unanswered and the unfinished still far out-strip our collective comprehension.
2. Despite the striking fact that most of the scientists that the world has ever known are alive and working today, despite the **fact (C_p)**^{A6}that this Nation's own scientific

manpower is doubling every 12 years in a rate of growth more than three times that of our population as a whole, despite that, the vast stretches of the unknown and the unanswered and the unfinished still far out-strip our collective comprehension.

3. This note was a **promise (Cs)** ^{C4}that all men — yes, Black men as well as white men — would be guaranteed the unalienable rights of life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness.
4. One is that by the very order of things such evils are not demonstrable until they have occurred: at each stage in their onset there is room for **doubt (Cp)** and for **dispute (Cp)** ^{D2}whether they be real or imaginary.
5. Perhaps this habit goes back to the primitive **belief (Cp)** ^{D5}that the word and the thing, the name and the object, are identical.
6. When I am asked for a detailed **forecast (Cp)** ^{E5}of what will happen in the coming months or years I remember Sam Goldwyn 's advice: “Never prophesy, especially about the future.”
7. And you—and perhaps they—will be looking to me this afternoon for an **indication (Cp)** ^{E6}of how the Government see the task before us and why we are tackling it the way we are.
8. And you—and perhaps they—will be looking to me this afternoon for an **indication (Cp)** of how the Government see the task before us and ^{E7}why we are tackling it the way we are.
9. Because of what happened at that conference, there has been, behind all our deliberations this week, a heightened **awareness (Cs)** ^{E8}that now, more than ever, our Conservative Government must succeed.
10. Comrades, this conference is dominated by the **fact (Cp)** ^{G2}that we meet in the shadow of defeat.
11. Amongst those foundations of confidence is the **fact (Cs)**, first, ^{G10}that we significantly increased the number of women Labour MPs - not enough, but a firm step in the right direction.
12. The promise of America was born in the 18th century out of the bold **conviction (Cp)** ^{I3}that we are all created equal.
13. It was frequently the necessity for me as Leader of the House to talk my way out of **accusations (Cp)** ^{L4}that a statement had been preceded by a press interview.

14. Our health care is too costly, our schools fail too many -- and each day brings further **evidence (Oa)** ^{N6}that the ways we use energy strengthen our adversaries and threaten our planet.
15. Less measurable, but no less profound, is a sapping of confidence across our land; a nagging **fear (Cs)** ^{N7}that America's decline is inevitable, that the next generation must lower its sights.
16. Less measurable, but no less profound, is a sapping of confidence across our land; a nagging **fear (Cs)** that America's decline is inevitable, ^{N8}that the next generation must lower its sights.
17. We should be proud of the **fact (Cp)** ^{P1}that in these islands we trust the people for these big decisions.
18. But at the same time, I believe we have a precious opportunity to step back and ask some searching **questions (Oa)** ^{Q7}about what kind of country we want to be here at home too.
19. At the center of this movement is a crucial **conviction (Cs)** – ^{R7}that a nation exists to serve its citizens.
20. It was a **recognition (Cs)** ^{T5}that globalisation has changed us all.

Restrictive to-infinitive appositive clause

1. No words are strong enough to express our **determination (Oa)** ^{B2}to continue the forward thrust of America that he began.
2. Under John Kennedy's leadership, this nation has demonstrated that it has the **courage (Oa)** ^{B7}to seek peace, and it has the fortitude to risk war.
3. Under John Kennedy's leadership, this nation has demonstrated that it has the courage to seek peace, and it has the **fortitude (Oa)** ^{B8}to risk war.
4. By the same token, they attract little attention in comparison with current troubles, which are both indisputable and pressing: whence the besetting **temptation (ISS)** of all politics ^{D4}to concern itself with the immediate present at the expense of the future.
5. The answer is that I do not have the **right (Oa)** ^{D9}not to do so.
6. Please allow me to skip the stories and the poetry and the **temptation (Oa)** ^{F1}to deal in nice but vague rhetoric.

7. Fortunately, however, it has been my **privilege (Cs)** ^{H1}to serve for the past 12 months of that time as Leader of the House of Commons, so I have been reminded quite recently of the traditional generosity and tolerance of this place.
8. It was a **privilege (Cs)** ^{H3}to serve as my right hon. Friend's first Chancellor of the Exchequer; to share in the transformation of our industrial relations scene; to help launch our free market programme, commencing with the abolition of exchange control; and, above all, to achieve such substantial success against inflation, getting it down within four years from 22 per cent. to 4 per cent. upon the basis of the strict monetary discipline involved in the medium-term financial strategy.
9. It was a **privilege (Cs)** to serve as my right hon. Friend's first Chancellor of the Exchequer; ^{H4}to share in the transformation of our industrial relations scene; to help launch our free market programme, commencing with the abolition of exchange control; and, above all, to achieve such substantial success against inflation, getting it down within four years from 22 per cent. to 4 per cent. upon the basis of the strict monetary discipline involved in the medium-term financial strategy.
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12. It was a great **honour (Cs)** ^{H9}to serve for six years as Foreign and Commonwealth Secretary and to share with my right hon. Friend in some notable achievements in the European Community—from Fontainebleau to the Single European Act.
13. It was a great **honour (Cs)** to serve for six years as Foreign and Commonwealth Secretary and ^{H10}to share with my right hon. Friend in some notable achievements in the European Community—from Fontainebleau to the Single European Act.

14. Our first priority is to get help to those who have been injured, and to take every **precaution (C_p)** ^{K6}to protect our citizens at home and around the world from further attacks.
15. It was frequently the **necessity (C_s)** for me as Leader of the House ^{L3}to talk my way out of accusations that a statement had been preceded by a press interview.
16. I've always believed that America offers opportunities to all who have the **industry (O_a)** and **will (O_a)** ^{M6}to seize it.
17. But we both recognize that though we have come a long way from the old injustices that once stained our nation's reputation and denied some Americans the full blessings of American citizenship, the memory of them still had the **power (O_a)** ^{M9}to wound.
18. A century ago, President Theodore Roosevelt's **invitation (C_s)** of Booker T. Washington ^{M10}to visit — to dine at the White House — was taken as an outrage in many quarters.
19. Our economy is badly weakened, a consequence of greed and irresponsibility on the part of some, but also our collective **failure (C_p)** ^{N4}to make hard choices and prepare the nation for a new age.
20. Our economy is badly weakened, a consequence of greed and irresponsibility on the part of some, but also our collective **failure (C_p)** to make hard choices and ^{N5}prepare the nation for a new age.
21. He is an honest, principled, decent and good man, and I think the Prime Minister must now regret what he said yesterday and his **failure (O_a)** ^{O1}to do what he should have done today, which is simply to say, “I am sorry.”
22. I believe that we have a moral and practical **duty (O_a)** ^{O7}to extend the action that we are already taking in Iraq to Syria.
23. When I stood in Downing Street as Prime Minister for the first time this summer, I set out my **mission (O_a)** ^{Q1}to build a country that works for everyone.
24. But at the same time, I believe we have a precious **opportunity (O_a)** ^{Q5}to step back and ask some searching questions about what kind of country we want to be here at home too.
25. But at the same time, I believe we have a precious **opportunity (O_a)** to step back and ^{Q6}ask some searching questions about what kind of country we want to be here at home too.
26. And they were inspired to do so because they saw a **chance (O_a)** ^{Q9}to reject the politics of ‘business as usual’ and to demand real, profound change.

27. And they were inspired to do so because they saw a **chance (Oa)** to reject the politics of ‘business as usual’ and ^{Q10}to demand real, profound change.
28. We the citizens of America are now joined in a great national **effort (Cp)** ^{R1}to rebuild our country and restore its promise for all of our people.
29. We the citizens of America are now joined in a great national **effort (Cp)** to rebuild our country and ^{R2}restore its promise for all of our people.
30. We will press forward with speed and urgency, for we have **much (Oa)** ^{S10}to do in this winter of peril and possibility.
31. I know journalists who’ve been the witnesses to our country in its heroic **effort (Cp)** ^{T4}to save people from the most horrific fates.
32. It was a huge **privilege (Cs)** ^{T9}to be recognised by such an extraordinary unit in combat.

Non-restrictive to-infinitive appositive clause

1. At our party conference last year I said that the **task (S)** in which the Government were engaged—^{E3}to change the national attitude of mind—was the most challenging to face any British Administration since the war.
2. We began the 19th century with a **choice (Cp)**, ^{I6}to spread our nation from coast to coast.
3. We began the 20th century with a **choice (Cp)**, ^{I7}to harness the Industrial Revolution to our values of free enterprise, conservation, and human decency.
4. A little while ago, I had the **honor (Oa)** of calling Sen. Barack Obama — ^{M1}to congratulate him on being elected the next president of the country that we both love.

Appendix 2 – Figures and tables

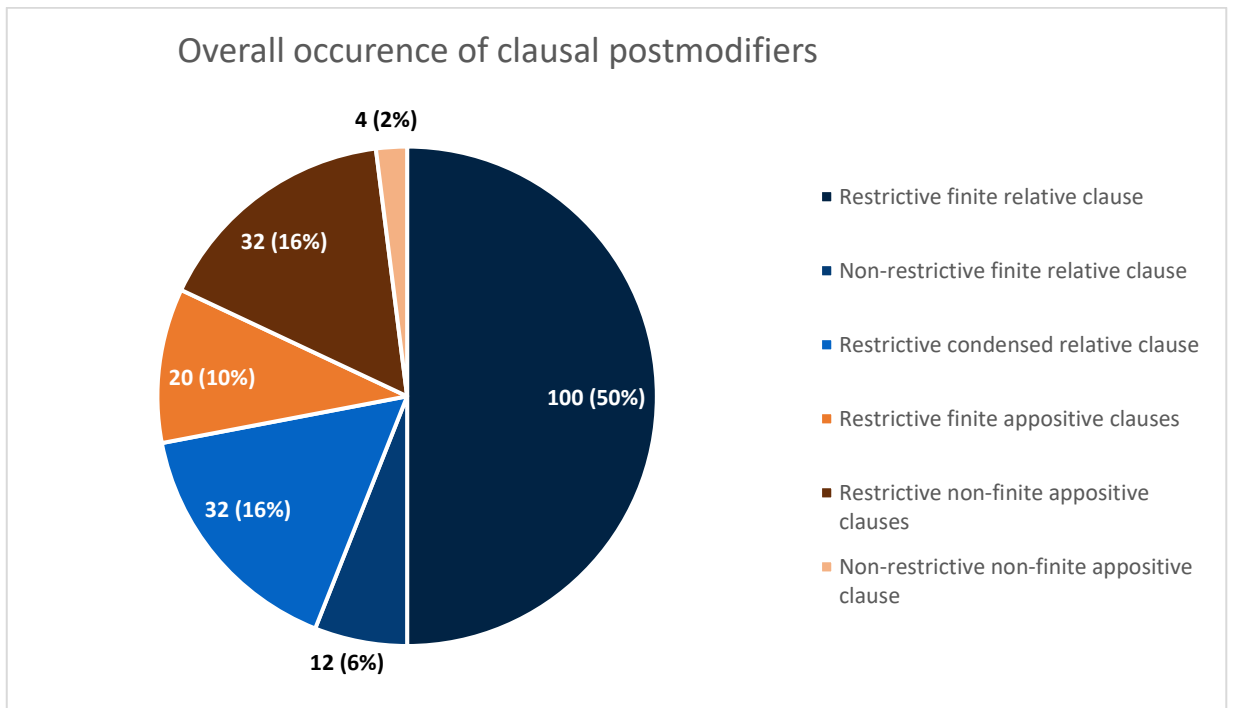


Figure 1. The overall occurrence of clausal postmodifiers

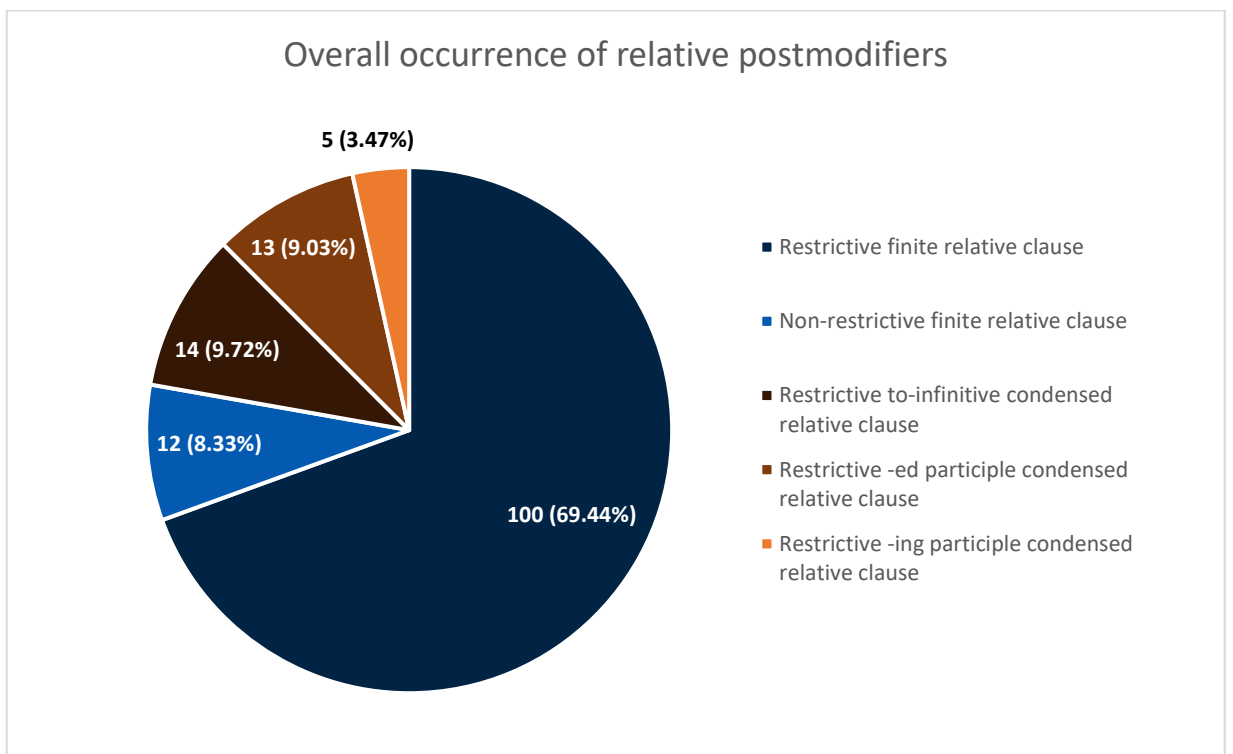


Figure 2. The overall occurrence of relative postmodifiers

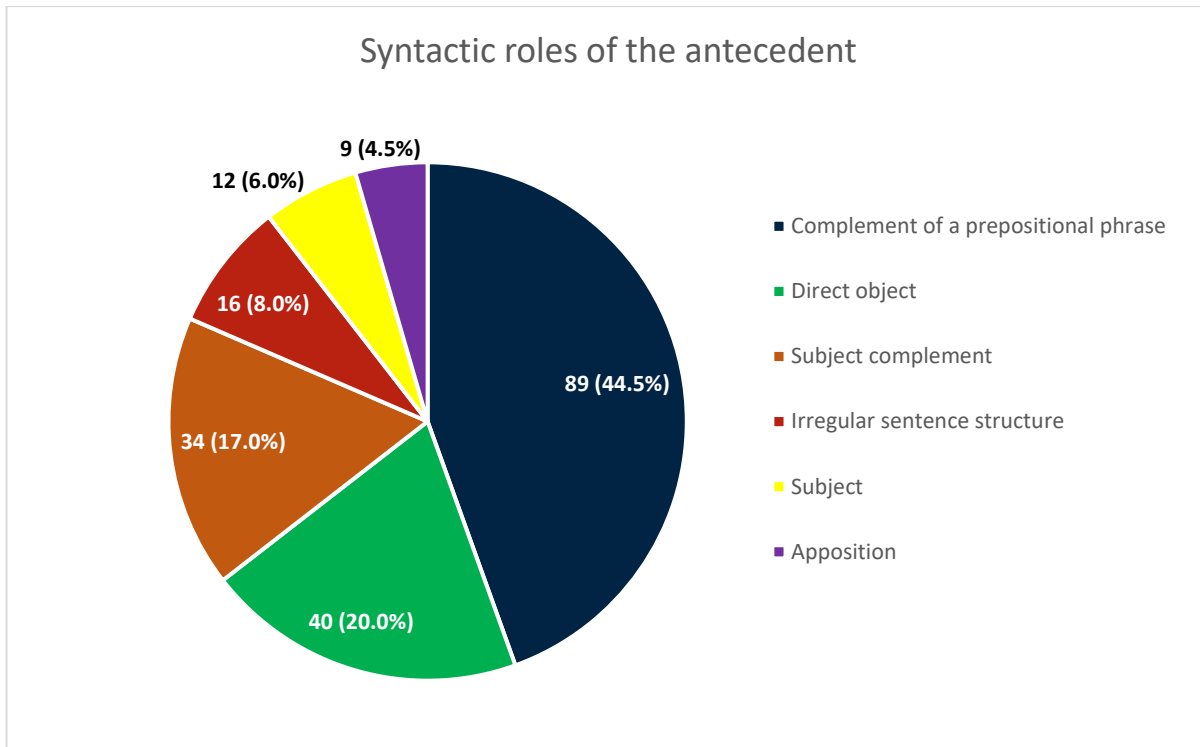


Figure 3. Syntactic roles of the antecedent

Abstract nouns as antecedents of finite appositive clauses	Abstract nouns as antecedents of non-finite appositive clauses
<i>fact</i> (5)	<i>privilege</i> (6)
<i>indication, conviction, fear</i> (2)	<i>effort, failure, honour</i> (3)
<i>recognition, questions, evidence, accusations, awareness, forecast, belief, doubt, dispute, promise</i> (1)	<i>temptation, opportunity, choice, chance</i> (2)
–	<i>determination, courage, fortitude, right, precaution, necessity, industry, will, power, invitation, duty, mission, much, task</i> (1)

Table 1. Abstract nouns as antecedents of appositive clauses