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Faculty of Arts and Philosophy**

**Cleft Constructions in Public Speeches and in Fiction**

**Marek Čaladi**

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## ZADÁNÍ BAKALÁŘSKÉ PRÁCE (PROJEKTU, UMĚLECKÉHO DÍLA, UMĚLECKÉHO VÝKONU)

Jméno a příjmení: **Marek Čaladi**  
Osobní číslo: **H08250**  
Studijní program: **B7310 Filologie**  
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### Z á s a d y p r o v y p r a c o v á n í :

Cílem této bakalářské práce je popsat a porovnat výskyt vytýkacích konstrukcí (cleft sentences) v anglických veřejných projevech a v přímé řeči objevující se v anglické beletrii. Student nastuduje relevantní odbornou literaturu a v teoretické části nejprve stručně nastíní obecné principy pořádku slov v angličtině. Dále už se bude podrobně věnovat struktuře a použít vytýkacích konstrukcí obou hlavních typů. Na začátku praktické části student popíše hlavní rysy obou zkoumaných stylů. Pro analýzu samotnou student zpracuje dostatečné množství autentického jazykového materiálu a výsledky zpracuje statisticky. Posléze zhodnotí hlavní tendence v užití vytýkacích konstrukcí v obou stylech, porovná jejich výskyt a užití a popíše jejich funkci s ohledem na daný funkční styl.

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Vedoucí bakalářské práce:

**Mgr. Anna Kavalírová**

Katedra anglistiky a amerikanistiky

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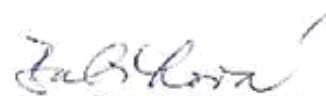
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prof. PhDr. Petr Vorel, CSc.

děkan

L.S.



Mgr. Šárka Buhíková, Ph.D.

vedoucí katedry

V Pardubicích dne 30. listopadu 2011

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## **Abstract**

The aim of this paper is to describe cleft constructions in public speeches and in direct speech in fiction. The paper is divided into two parts. The theoretical part provides a description of English word order and sentence elements, their structure and main functions. After that, it deals with two main types of cleft constructions, namely cleft sentences and pseudo-cleft sentences and their structure and functions are described. In the practical part, an analysis of a linguistic corpus is conducted based on the theoretical knowledge discussed in the first part of the paper. Overall occurrence and major tendencies of the use of cleft constructions in both functional styles are observed and commented on.

## **Key words**

Cleft construction, it-cleft, wh-cleft, highlighted element, functional sentence perspective

## **Abstrakt**

Cílem této práce je popsat vytýkací konstrukce v mluvených projevech a v přímé řeči v beletrii. Práce je rozdělena na dvě hlavní části. Teoretická část se zabývá nejprve anglickým slovosledem a větnými členy, jejich strukturou a funkcemi. Posléze popisuje strukturu a funkce obou hlavních typů vytýkacích konstrukcí, tj. „cleft sentence“ a „pseudo-cleft sentence“. V praktické části je provedena analýza lingvistického korpusu na základě teoretických poznatků z první části práce. Zkoumá se především celkový výskyt a hlavní tendence užití vytýkacích konstrukcí v obou funkčních stylech.

## **Klíčová slova**

Vytýkací konstrukce, it-cleft, wh-cleft, vytknutý člen, aktuální větné členění

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# 1. Introduction

This bachelor paper aims to describe and thoroughly examine a syntactic device that violates the standard structure of English word order – cleft construction – in public speeches and in direct speech in fiction. The main goal is to describe the structure and functions of cleft constructions from the theoretical point of view and subsequently analyze selected public speeches and direct speech occurring in fiction in respect to the theoretical background.

The paper is divided into two major parts – the theoretical part and the practical part. The first part aims to set an appropriate theoretical background for the second part. Due to the fact that cleft constructions are related to word order in English, word order structure, its main functions, and deviations from word order are described at the beginning of the theoretical part. Then, cleft constructions are characterized. Two major types of cleft constructions – cleft sentences and pseudo-cleft sentences – are being dealt with according to their structure, determination of highlighted sentence elements and functions. Lastly, the main features of both functional styles – rhetorical style and fiction – are mentioned.

The practical part is concerned with an analysis of selected public speeches and with direct speech in fiction according to the theoretical background. Firstly, sources for the analysis are briefly introduced. Secondly, methodology and hypotheses based on corpus findings of respected linguists and the theoretical background are set. Then, the analysis itself is conducted. Overall occurrence of cleft constructions in both functional styles is commented on, types and functions of highlighted sentence elements are observed and ambiguous cases of cleft constructions are being dealt with.

The last part of the paper summarizes both the theoretical part and the practical part and reviews similarities and differences of cleft constructions in respect to both functional styles.

## 2. Word order in English

The first chapter of this paper is concerned with English word order, in particular with word order structure, word order function and deviations from grammatical word order. Basic concepts are defined and they function as the ground for the major topic of this thesis – cleft constructions.

### 2.1 Word order structure

Leech (1991: 550) describes word order as “the order of the elements in a sentence or clause.” English distinguishes five basic elements of clause structure: **subject** (S), **verb** (V), **object** (O), **complement** (C) and **adverbial** (A). (Quirk et al., 1985: 49) Biber (1999: 898) and Leech (1991: 550) state that English word order is usually described as rather fixed, due to the fact that the position of the above-mentioned elements indicates their syntactic function in a clause. This is closely related to the analytic structure of English language. (Dušková et al., 2006: 518) In order to illustrate the main functions of these elements, the following sentence is analyzed:

That cyclist (S) has called (V) Dave (O) a fool (C) twice (A). (Crystal, 1995: 220)

The first element in this clause is the subject (S) *That cyclist*. The initial position of the subject in this sentence is the major feature that distinguishes the subject from the object in English because it is placed before the verb. (Huddleston, 2005: 67) The second and the most important element is the verb (V) *has called*. The verb can express variety of different meanings, such as actions, states of being etc. The third element is the object (O) *Dave*. Objects identify “who or what has been directly affected by the action of the verb” (direct objects) and also “refer to the person who ‘benefits’ from the action expressed in the verb” (indirect objects). (Crystal, 1995: 220; Alexander, 1988: 5) The next element is the complement (C) *a fool*. The complement is further divided into a subject complement, which applies an attribute or definition to the subject, and an object complement, which functions on the same basis but with the object. In this sentence, it is the case of the object complement. (Quirk et al., 1985: 54-55) The last element in this clause is the adverbial (A) *twice*. Adverbials provide additional information about the situation, for instance time, place, frequency, manner etc. (Crystal, 1995: 220)

Apart from the function of sentence elements, several types of sentence elements and types of subordinate clauses must be described as they form a significant part of the analysis of this paper. The first and the most common type of sentence element is a **noun phrase** (NP). Leech (2002: 231) describes the noun phrase as a phrase that can function as subject, object or complement of a clause. The main part of the phrase is usually a noun, hence the term “noun phrase”. Consider the following example:

John found the new secretary in his office a very attractive woman.  
(Leech, 2002: 231)

*John* is a noun phrase and functions as the subject. *The new secretary in his office* is also a noun phrase but functions as the object. And lastly, there is a noun phrase *a very attractive woman* that functions as the object complement. (Leech, 2002: 231) Sometimes a **pronoun** (P) can function as a noun phrase due to the fact that it can act as subject or object of a clause. Pronouns usually replace noun phrases in the context as well. (Leech, 2002: 255)

Another important type of sentence element is a **prepositional phrase**. It is composed of a preposition and a following prepositional complement. The prepositional complement can be:

- A noun phrase: There will be 1400 delegates *at the conference*.
- A *wh*-clause: No conclusions can be drawn *from what the press reported yesterday*.
- An *-ing* clause: *By signing the treaty* both nations have made an effort towards peace. (Leech, 2002: 253)

The practical part of this paper also deals with an **adverb phrase**. According to Biber (1999: 64, 102), adverb phrases include an adverb that functions as head of the whole phrase. Adverb phrases most commonly function as adverbials in the clause.

Concerning subordinate clauses, two basic types emerge. The first is a **finite clause** that “contains a verb phrase which is marked for tense or modality.” (Biber et al., 1999: 193) Finite clauses are divided into several subtypes. For the purposes of this paper, the main subtypes are nominal clauses (usually function as subject or direct object), adverbial clauses (used as adverbials) and relative clauses. (Biber et al., 1999: 194-195)

The second type of subordinate clause is a **non-finite** clause. Non-finite clauses “contain a predicate that has the form of a verb phrase headed by a secondary form of the verb. This means that they do not have primary tense.” (Huddleston, 2005: 204) There are four main types of non-finite clauses:

- To-infinitival: Liz wants *to write a novel*.
- Bare infinitival: Liz might *write a novel*.
- Gerund-participial: Liz dreams of *writing a novel*.
- Past-participial: Liz has *written a novel*. (Huddleston, 2005: 204)

## 2.2 Word order function

In English, word order is applied on several different levels. Dušková (2006: 518-519) distinguishes three basic levels. The first and the most important level in English is the **grammatical level**. This means that the position of a word in a sentence indicates its syntactic function, as was already mentioned in chapter 2.1. As a result, the exchange of positions of the elements essentially changes the meaning of the whole sentence. This is illustrated on the following examples:

- [A] The hunter killed the bear.  
[B] The bear killed the hunter. (Dušková et al., 2006: 518)

*The hunter* in the first sentence functions as the subject and *the bear* as the object. If we exchange their positions in the sentence, the whole meaning is altered.

The next is the **semantic level**. Dušková (2006: 519) states that the semantic function in English language is fairly similar to the grammatical function due to the fact that both of these functions are concerned with the position alteration of certain sentence elements, which subsequently change the meaning of the whole sentence. The main difference she sees in the way how certain words affect different sentence segments and eventually alter the meaning of the sentence. Mainly quantifiers and adverbials can function this way as seen from the following examples:

- [C<sub>1</sub>] I've been waiting outside his door the whole day, *yet* I haven't seen him.  
[C<sub>2</sub>] I've been waiting outside his door the whole day, but I haven't seen him *yet*.

[D<sub>1</sub>] *Naturally*, the children are behaving well while you are here.  
[D<sub>2</sub>] The children behave *naturally*. (Leech, 2002: 181)

In [C<sub>1</sub>] *yet* functions as a sentence adverbial and can be replaced by ‘nevertheless’. In [C<sub>2</sub>] *yet* is a time adverbial and means ‘so far’. In [D<sub>1</sub>] *naturally* can be altered by ‘of course’ and it modifies the whole sentence, whereas in [D<sub>2</sub>], it modifies only the verb. (Leech, 2002: 181)

The last is the level of **functional sentence perspective**. Functional sentence perspective is a concept presented by Prague linguistic school and is concerned with the information flow and ‘communicative dynamism’ in a sentence. According to Dušková (2006: 519), communicative dynamism is low at the beginning of the sentence and increases towards the end. In other words, elements with low degree of communicative dynamism (thematic elements) usually precede elements with high degree of communicative dynamism (rhematic elements). This corresponds with the information principle introduced by Biber (1999: 896), who states that there are two types of information in any clause. ‘Given information’ is usually placed in the initial position of a clause, and it is known to the reader from the preceding discourse. ‘New information’ is the most important in a clause and is usually placed in the final position. These two types of information are derived from the context. This is supported by Leech (2002: 157), who claims that the most important information is spared to the end, which results in sort of ‘climax’ of the sentence. Quirk (1985: 1362) adds that these terms (theme, rheme) can be sometimes substituted by different terms, namely ‘topic’ for theme and ‘focus’ for rheme, and that they are linguistically defined. Leech (2002: 158) and Biber (1999: 897) mention a principle that is closely related to this topic - the principle of ‘end-focus’. End-focus means that the most important piece of information is placed towards the end; ergo the focus is placed on the last element in a clause. The following sentence illustrates the end-focus principle:

[E] Inside the house Mr Summers found a family of cats shut *in the bathroom*. (Biber et al., 1999: 896)

In [E] it is obvious that *the house* and *Mr Summers* have already been mentioned earlier in the discourse, thus they represent the given information. *In the bathroom* is the new information and the focus is placed on this last element. (Biber et al., 1999: 896-897)

## 2.3 Deviations from grammatical word order

In order to present basic types of deviations from grammatical word order, the term ‘linear modification’ must be defined. According to Chamonikolasová (2009: 18-19), linear modification corresponds with functional sentence perspective by means of placing less important pieces of information in the initial position and more important information in the final position in a sentence. In this spirit, word order is therefore referred to either as *objective*, to the intent that it respects linear modification, or as *subjective*, which violates linear modification. The example of a sentence with objective word order is:

[A<sub>1</sub>] In the middle of the night the villagers heard a fearsome cry.

The example of a sentence with subjective word order is:

[A<sub>2</sub>] A fearsome cry could be heard in the middle of the night.  
(Chamonikolasová, 2009: 18)

Chamonikolasová (2009: 18-19) adds that if the sentence with objective word order starts with thematic elements and ends with rhematic elements, then the sentence does not violate the principle of linear modification unlike the sentence with subjective word order starting with rhematic elements and ending with thematic elements. As was already mentioned, theme is usually placed first and rheme of the message last.

But there are other ways how to convey the rhematic information to the initial position in a sentence. This method is usually applied in order to emphasize particular sentence elements and is often referred to as *marked word order*. (Crystal, 1995: 231) Marked word order uses variety of syntactic devices to violate the standard structure of English word order. Crystal (1995: 231) and Quirk (1985: 1377-1380) distinguish several of these devices, e.g. fronting, inversion, passive voice, extraposition or existential. Although this paper is not concerned with such devices, it is important to comment on some of them in a brief manner. Fronting is described as a process of moving a certain sentence element into the initial position in a sentence, where this sentence element is considered rather unusual. For illustration:

[B<sub>1</sub>] *Really good meals* they serve at that hotel. (Quirk et al., 1985: 1377)

*Really good meals* is fronted into the initial position and therefore gains more prominence than it would have had in the original sentence as direct object:

[B<sub>2</sub>] They serve *really good meals* at that hotel.

Inversion is a syntactic device, in which a sentence element (usually a complement or an adverbial) is fronted into the initial position and the positions of subject and verb are inverted. Consider the following SVA structure:

[C<sub>1</sub>] His beloved body lies in a distant grave. (Quirk et al., 1985: 1379)

*His beloved body* conforms to the function of the subject, *lies* functions as the verb and *in a distant grave* is an adverbial of place. Inversion puts the adverbial into the initial position and the verb and the subject swap their positions, which results in forming AVS structure:

[C<sub>2</sub>] In a distant grave lies his beloved body. (Quirk et al., 1985: 1380)

Extraposition is used in cases in which the subject or object is in the form a clause and the tendency is to place this clause into the final position. The original element is then replaced by the pronoun *it*:

[D<sub>1</sub>] What you say doesn't matter.

[D<sub>2</sub>] It doesn't matter what you say. (Crystal, 1995: 231)

But for the purposes of this paper, the most important syntactic device is cleft construction, particularly cleft sentences and pseudo-cleft sentences. Cleft constructions will be further dealt with in the forthcoming chapter.

In conclusion, English is an analytical language with relatively fixed word order, where the position of sentence elements is the most important indicator of their syntactic function. English distinguishes five basic elements of the clause structure, namely subject, verb, object, complement and adverbial. English word order functions on three different levels but it is the level of functional sentence perspective that is given the greatest importance in this paper. If the standard word order is violated in order to emphasize particular sentence elements, it is called marked word order or subjective word order. Basic syntactic devices of marked word order were introduced as well.

### 3. Cleft construction

As was mentioned in the previous chapter, the most important device enable to violate the standard structure of English word order is the cleft construction. In the forthcoming chapters, the main types of cleft constructions are being discussed, their structure is described and the main functions are presented. The main types of cleft constructions are already-mentioned cleft sentences and pseudo-cleft sentences. According to Dušková (1999: 319), these two constructions differ in their syntactic and functional sentence perspective structure, so they are best discussed separately.

#### 3.1. Cleft sentences

According to Peters (2004: 108), the term ‘cleft sentence’ is defined as “a sentence in which the normal sequence of SVO is interrupted and even rearranged.” It is achieved by splitting the sentence into two halves, each with its own verb. (Leech, 2002: 163) The basic structure of cleft sentence is following:

- The pronoun *it*
- The verb *be* either in its present or past form
- The highlighted (= focused) element (usually a noun phrase, a prepositional phrase, or an adverb phrase)
- A relative-like subordinate clause introduced usually by *that*, zero, and rarely by *who/which* (Biber et al., 1999: 959)

Given the standard SVO sentence “A faulty switch caused the trouble”, derived cleft sentence would hence look as follows:

*It was a faulty switch that caused the trouble.* (Huddleston, 1993: 459)

The term *it-cleft* is often used when talking about cleft sentences due to the initial position of *it* in such constructions. Dušková (2006: 537) claims that the focus can be put on any element in a clause except for the verb. Constructions where the verb phrase is being highlighted are discussed in greater detail in the forthcoming chapter. To prove Dušková’s theory, the following clause is analysed:

John wore his best suit to the dance last night.

Excluding the verb *wore* as a possible element to highlight, four cleft sentences can be derived from this clause:

- [A] It was *John* who/that wore his best suit to the dance last night.
- [B] It was *his best suit* (that) John wore to the dance last night.
- [C] It was *last night* (that) John wore his best suit to the dance.
- [D] It was *to the dance* that John wore his best suit last night. (Quirk, 1973: 415)

In [A], the highlighted element is the subject (S) *John*. In [B], it is the direct object (O<sub>i</sub>) *his best suit* that is highlighted. Adverbials are highlighted in the last two sentences, namely the adverbial of time (A<sub>time</sub>) *last night* in [C], and the adverbial of place (A<sub>place</sub>) *to the dance* in [D]. (Quirk, 1973: 415) These derived sentences also comply with the above-mentioned structure of *it*-clefts, namely the pronoun *it* + the verb *be* (here in its past form *was*) + the highlighted element followed by a relative clause introduced by *that*, zero, or *who*. (Jacobs, 1995: 177)

Greenbaum (1990: 413) adds that two other elements can be focused in cleft sentence; the first is *the indirect object*:

- [E<sub>1</sub>] It was *me* he gave the book to.
- [E<sub>2</sub>] It was *to me* that he gave the book. (Greenbaum, 1990: 413)

The second element with the possibility of being highlighted is the complement; both *object complement* and *subject complement*. The object complement is highlighted in the following cleft sentence:

- [F] It's *dark green* that we have painted the kitchen. (Greenbaum, 1990: 413)

Nevertheless, there are some restrictions on the use of the subject complement, mainly when it is realized by an adjective phrase. For example:

- [G] It's *very tall* you are. (Greenbaum, 1990: 413)

According to Eastwood (1994: 62), not only subjects, objects, or adverbials can be focused. He states that often a whole clause can be highlighted. Consider the following:

- [H] It was *because they were playing in London* that England had an advantage. (Eastwood, 1994: 62)

Peters deals with another phenomenon, especially with sentences, where the pronoun occupies the position of the highlighted element. According to Peters (2004: 108), in formal style, the subject form of pronouns is used (e.g. I, he, she, we, you, and they). The cleft sentence has the following structure:

[I<sub>1</sub>] It is *I* who am unsure.

However, informal style accepts the use of the object forms of pronouns:

[I<sub>2</sub>] It is *me* who is unsure. (Peters, 2004: 108)

These examples were given to outline the structure of the ‘initial part’ of the cleft sentence. The ‘final part’, as was already mentioned, is close in structure to a relative clause. (Quirk, 1973: 416) According to Dušková (1999: 320), this may result in similarity between *it*-clefts and sentences with relative clauses. What makes them distinguishable is a different functional sentence perspective in terms of position of thematic and rhematic elements. Consider the following sentence:

[J] It is the country that suits my wife best. (Dušková, 1999: 320)

If the *that*-clause in [J] represents an adjectival relative clause, the rhematic element with the main stress is *best* (this country is best for her, other countries do not fit her so well). On the other hand, if the *that*-clause denotes a part of an *it*-cleft, it then contains thematic information and the main stress is placed on *country* (*town life* could be used instead of *country*). (Dušková, 1999: 320)

Another important feature of cleft sentences is their context in/dependence of constitutive clauses, namely *it*-clause and the subordinate clause. According to this concept, two types of *it*-clefts emerge. The first type is *it*-cleft with new information in the *it*-clause and is referred to as ‘stressed-focus *it*-cleft’. The subordinate clause contains given information, hence it is contextually bound (dependent) and its degree of communicative dynamism is significantly lower than the one of the focused part. This is noticeable mainly in the prosodic structure because the subordinate clause is weakly stressed. The second type is *it*-cleft with new information in the subordinate clause which is called an ‘informative-presupposition *it*-cleft’. The subordinate clause carries new information, therefore the difference in the degree of communicative dynamism is comparatively small. This type of *it*-cleft exemplifies

divided focus. Contextually dependent is the initial part, which is highlighted syntactically by the cleft construction, while the subordinate clause presents new information. (Dušková, 1999: 326) The two types have the following structure:

[K] Inexperienced dancers often have difficulty in ending the Natural Turn in the correct alignment...It is usually the man who is at fault.

[L] The Indians were helpful in many ways. It was they who taught the settlers how to plant and harvest crops successfully in the New World. (Dušková, 2010: 30-31)

In [K] it is obvious that having difficulty may result in being at fault, therefore the subordinate clause *who is at fault* is context dependent, while in [L] the subordinate clause is context independent and presents new information. (Dušková, 2010: 30-31)

In terms of function, Dušková (2006: 537) states that the main function of cleft sentences is to **focus** the rhematic element in contrast to the thematic elements. Rheme is therefore conveyed in the position after the verb *be* and before the introductory pronoun *that*. This is considered a deviation of communicative dynamism (the principle of end-focus) and linear modification mentioned in chapters 2.2. and 2.3., where the rhematic element usually occupies the final position in a sentence. (Dušková, 1999: 325) In other words, cleft sentences are a useful device to front an element as topic, and also for putting focus (emphasis) on this fronted element. (Leech, 1975: 180) According to Swan (1996: 114), cleft sentences are principally beneficial in writing where intonation cannot be used for emphasis however they are very common in speech. In order to illustrate the change of focus in the sentence, consider the following sentences:

[K<sub>1</sub>] The bulldozer destroyed the cottage.

[K<sub>2</sub>] It was the bulldozer that destroyed the cottage. (Jacobs, 1995: 177)

[K<sub>1</sub>] is the standard SVO structure with theme (given information) placed in the initial position (*The bulldozer*) and rheme (new information), on the other hand, placed in the final position (*the cottage*). [K<sub>2</sub>] is its cleft counterpart and due to the cleft structure, *the bulldozer* becomes the rhematic element. (Jacobs, 1995: 177)

Apart from the function of focusing a certain element in a sentence, Leech (1975: 180) introduces another function which is to **contrast** the meaning of the topic by including an implied negative. This is illustrated on the following examples:

[L] It's the other book, *not that book*, that I want to read.  
[M] But it was in the north of England, *not in London*, that...(Leech, 1975: 180)

To conclude this subchapter, cleft sentences violate the standard structure of English word order in order to make particular elements of a sentence more prominent or contrastive. It is achieved by splitting the sentence into two parts - each with its own verb.

### 3.2. Pseudo-cleft sentences

In the previous chapter, the construction highlighting all the elements except for the verb was discussed. This chapter is devoted to the construction in which the verb (among other elements) is highlighted. This construction is called 'pseudo-cleft sentence' and is sometimes referred to as *wh-cleft*. The reason for using this term is obvious from the pseudo-cleft sentence structure:

- A clause introduced by a *wh*-word, usually *what*
- The verb *be* either in its present or past form
- The highlighted element (a noun phrase, a nominal clause, and a non-finite clause) (Biber, 1999: 959)

According to Dušková (1999: 322), the *wh*-clause is usually regarded as a 'nominal relative clause'. There are two possible positions of the *wh*-clause in a sentence. It can be in the position of the subject as in the following example:

[A<sub>1</sub>] *What caused the trouble* was a faulty switch.

The second possible position of the *wh*-clause is the position of the complement, illustrated as follows:

[A<sub>2</sub>] A faulty switch was *what caused the trouble*. (Huddleston, 1993: 459)

This construction is often referred to as 'reversed *wh*-cleft'. (Biber et al., 1999: 960)

What follows the nominal relative clause and the verb *be*, hence is highlighted (in terms of function of the fronted element), is frequently object (O), as illustrated on the following example:

[B] What he needs is *a good trashing*.

Subject (S) is highlighted in a similar manner:

[C] What was remarkable was *her admitting it*. (Dušková et al., 2006: 538)

And as was already mentioned above, in terms of type of the fronted element, pseudo-cleft sentences highlight a finite clause and a non-finite clause:

[D] What you mean is *that you did not really believe what you were told*.

[E] What we need is *to find a safe place soon*. (Dušková, 1999: 323)

In contrast to *it*-clefts, Quirk (1973: 417) adds one more element that can be focused – the verb (further referred to as the predication). It is achieved through the use of the verb *do* as pro-form. The focus of the sentence is then in the form of a non-finite clause (with or without *to*):

[F] What he's done is *(to) spoil* the whole thing. (Quirk, 1973: 417)

Concerning the aspect of the verb, Greenbaum (1990: 414) claims that if the verb in the *wh*-clause has progressive aspect, the complement following the copula corresponds with an *-ing* clause:

[G] What *I'm doing* is *teaching him Japanese*. (Greenbaum, 1990: 414)

Wh-clefts are to a certain degree more restricted than *it*-clefts, due to the fact that it is almost exclusively the word *what* that enables to make a direct comparison between the two constructions. Clauses introduced by *when*, *who* and *where* are sometimes tolerable but under the condition that the *wh*-clause is subject complement:

[H] Here is *where the accident took place*.

Clauses with *how*, *whose*, and *why* are not frequent at all.

[I] With a Scottish accent is *how he talked*. (Quirk, 1985: 1388)

Carter (2000: 206) provides a reasonable explanation. According to him, words like *why*, *where*, *who*, *when* etc. are usually replaced by nouns. Consider the following examples:

- [J] *The person* you need to talk to is the manager.  
[K] *The place* where I've been is where they train local midwives.  
[L] *The reason* it wasn't sorted out earlier was because they were short of staff. (Carter, 2000: 206)

According to Swan (1996: 116), *what* can be replaced by different expressions as well, namely *all* and *the thing*:

- [N] *All* I want is a home somewhere.  
[O] *The only thing* I remember is a terrible pain in my head. (Swan, 1996: 116)

Dušková (1999: 318) advocates that although these constructions are often included in studies of pseudo-cleft sentences due to their functional equivalence, they should not be considered proper pseudo-cleft sentences because “from the syntactic point of view they represent sentences with adjectival relative clauses postmodifying a head noun.”

Another reason why *wh*-clefts are more limited than *it*-clefts is that the range of possible highlighted elements is not as wide as with *it*-clefts. Prepositional phrases, adverb phrases, and adverbial clauses usually cannot be highlighted by *wh*-clefts. (Biber, 1999: 960)

The function of pseudo-cleft sentences is identical with the function of cleft sentences; it is to emphasize a certain element in a sentence. The major difference is in their functional sentence perspective structure. Unlike *it*-clefts, where the rhematic element occupies the initial position of a sentence and therefore communicative dynamism (see chapter 2.2) is violated, *wh*-clefts fully conform to the distribution of communicative dynamism by means of placing the highlighted element (rheme) in the final position of a sentence. This is also in accord with the principle of end-focus (see chapter 2.2). (Dušková, 1999: 328-331) Another difference, rather similar to the formerly mentioned one, is in the information principle (see chapter 2.2). The standard information structure (theme – rheme) is adhered to, because the *wh*-clause contains given information and the highlighted part (that comes after the verb *be*) includes new information. (Jacobs, 1995: 178) He adds that if the *wh*-clause is in the position of a complement (reversed *wh*-cleft), it puts stronger emphasis on the new information in the highlighted element, which occupies the position of a subject. It is due to the fact that the subject position is more prominent.

In conclusion, pseudo-cleft sentences are used to emphasize certain elements of a sentence (including the verb) but at the same time conform to functional sentence perspective (theme – rheme), which is the principal difference from cleft sentences.

## 4. Rhetorical style

Galperin (1981: 288) classifies rhetorical style as “the oral subdivision of the publicistic style.” Although public speeches are conveyed orally, he claims that they belong to the written register of the language. The basic feature of rhetorical style is the verbal element, which is equivalent to the non-verbal communication elements. Lotko (1997: 19-20) distinguishes the terms ‘rhetorical style’ and ‘rhetorical speech’. Rhetorical style is according to him concerned with linguistics and linguistic stylistics, whereas rhetorical speech is a complex of verbal and non-verbal elements. The major functions of rhetorical style are informative, persuasive, and ritual. (Lotko, 1997: 111)

Although there are many subdivisions of rhetorical speech, such as public wedding speeches, funeral speeches, jubilee speeches, sermons and debates, as listed by Galperin (1981: 288), for the purposes of this paper the most important branch of rhetorical speech is a political speech. Political speeches are classified as agitational genre with persuasion as the major purpose together with informational function. The speaker contrasts pros and cons of a certain policy and logically structures his or her principal points. These speeches are usually conveyed in a ‘trichotomous composition’ manner (introduction – core – conclusion) and they clearly indicate the importance level of ideas. According to this, the complex sentence structure with anaphoric elements is applied. Important emphasizing devices include specific linguistic and stylistic devices, intonation, and non-verbal properties. (Lotko, 1997: 26) Mistrik (1997: 481) adds that the most convenient and at the same time most frequent emphasizing device is repetition. Among other emphasizing devices, he also mentions explication of a certain grammatical category where cleft constructions are encompassed.

In conclusion, rhetorical style is considered written register even though it is communicated orally. The main function is to inform and persuade the listeners. Speakers performing political speeches use various emphasizing devices to accomplish the main purposes of political speeches which is to persuade and inform.

## 5. Style of fiction

Fiction as a functional style is rather different from any other functional style. While other styles are primarily used for their informational function, the main function of fiction is the aesthetic one. (Mistrík, 1997: 512) Biber (1999: 16-25) agrees to the extent that the essential function of fiction is “depicting imaginary narrative events for aesthetic and recreational purposes.” He additionally states that unlike other written registers, such as academic prose or news, fiction is a sort of an intermediary between the written and spoken register by means of including dialogues of fictional characters. This is supported by Galperin (1981: 270), who claims the following:

“It would perhaps be more exact to define this as a combination of the spoken and written varieties of the language, inasmuch as there are always two forms of communication present – monologue (the writer’s speech) and dialogue (the speech of the characters)”

As was already mentioned, fiction differs fundamentally from other functional styles. This may result from the fact that fiction is clearly very subjective written register, where individual characteristics and idiosyncrasies of an author play the major role in terms of unique vocabulary usage, word order structure, etc. The main emphasis is then put on the aesthetic quality of means of expression, therefore fiction is stylistically changeable and dynamic. Another factor accompanying the wide range of stylistic, syntactic and lexical devices is that fiction is concerned with facts either partly or fully fictional, hence the term fiction. The author is then given the liberty of modifying the facts according to his or her idiosyncratic individuality. (Mistrík, 1997: 514-517)

In conclusion, fiction is subjective written register, where the individuality of the author plays the principal role. The main function is to depict fictional events in order to entertain the reader. This is accomplished by the use of various stylistic, syntactic and lexical devices.

## 6. Analysis

The following chapters and subchapters are concerned with the analysis of cleft constructions found in public speeches and in direct speech in fiction. The aim of this practical part is to comment both on the quantitative approach - in terms of overall occurrence of cleft constructions (*it*-clefts and *wh*-clefts), fronted sentence elements, and context in/dependence of subordinate clauses in *it*-clefts in both analyzed functional styles, and the qualitative approach focusing on the use and functions of both aforementioned cleft constructions. The first part of the analysis introduces the reader to the sources of the corpus and the methodology. Hypotheses are set in the second part. The final part deals with the analysis of the studied corpus material itself and aims to get an insight into the distribution and functions of cleft constructions.

### 6.1. Sources for the analysis

The aim of the analysis is to explain and interpret the overall occurrence and various uses of both types of cleft constructions in accordance with rhetorical style and fictional style in English. For this purpose, two books representing fictional style and a wide range of public speeches of various political figures were chosen for the further detailed investigation. The first book is called *Extremely Loud and Incredibly Close* by Jonathan Safran Foer. This book was published in 2005 and is concerned with fictional events following the terrorist attack in New York on 9/11. The second book is called *The Valkyries* by Paulo Coelho. *The Valkyries* was first published in 1988 and the main plot is about a fight with personal demons and a relationship between the main characters. Both books were published recently and this fact should ensure no significant differences in the language point of view. Concerning the rhetorical style, 41 speeches of important political figures (Barack Obama, Margaret Thatcher, Tony Blair, Martin Luther King, etc.) are included in the analysis. In order to maintain the research comparable, various types of public speeches are taken into consideration (inauguration speeches, speeches in congress, speeches dealing with important issues nowadays, etc.)

## 6.2. Methodology

As was mentioned earlier, the purpose of this analysis is to comment on the overall occurrence of both types of cleft constructions from statistical point of view and elaborate a tendency of their use according to the respective functional style. *It*-clefts and *wh*-clefts are analyzed according to their functional sentence perspective structure, i.e. distribution of theme – rheme and given and new information in a sentence. Another important aspect of the analysis is the determination of the focused sentence element both in *it*-clefts and *wh*-clefts. The last area of investigation is the context in/dependence of subordinate clauses in *in*-clefts. The corpus consists of 175 samples of cleft constructions collected from 400 standard pages of fiction and 400 standard pages of public speeches. It should be stated early in the analysis that pseudo-cleft sentences listed in the corpus contain proper *wh*-clefts, reversed *wh*-clefts, and other cleft constructions. As was mentioned earlier in chapter 3.2., some linguists include these ‘other cleft constructions’ in their studies and some do not. The author decided to involve these ‘ambiguous’ constructions in the corpus and the analysis itself because they indeed comply with most of the attributes of cleft constructions and separate chapters in the practical part are concerned with this phenomenon. All the collected sentences are listed in the appendices with cleft constructions being contrasted in italics. Some of the sentences are listed twice in the appendices due to the fact that these sentences contain more than one cleft construction. Each sentence excerpted from fiction in the corpus contains the name of the author and the page number in brackets. Sentences excerpted from public speeches contain reference to the bibliography (e.g. Speech 1, Speech 2, etc) in brackets. What follow the brackets are abbreviations of sentence elements that are being highlighted and abbreviations for context in/dependent subordinate clauses in *it*-clefts. The highlighted sentence elements are in bald print. Concerning the sentences that are being described in greater detail in the analysis itself, the reference numbers correspond with the numbers in the appendices. Letters *a* and *b* sometimes accompany these reference numbers in order to distinguish the cleft constructions and their non-cleft counterparts.

### 6.3. Hypotheses

The hypotheses are based on the corpus findings of respected linguists and on the findings discussed in the theoretical part of this paper. Firstly, to comment on both functional styles, cleft constructions are rather common in spoken English and quite convenient in writing. (Quirk, 1985: 1384) Although it is indicated in chapter 4 that rhetorical style should be regarded as the written register, public speeches are still communicated orally and therefore conform to the spoken register as well. Considering both types of cleft constructions themselves, according to Biber's corpus findings, it is the *it*-cleft that is the most frequent type resulting in *wh*-cleft being the less frequent (Biber, 1999: 961). It is due to the fact that *wh*-clefts are to a certain degree more restricted than *it*-clefts in terms of highlighting sentence elements to a lesser extent as was already mentioned in chapter 3.2. In author's point of view, on the other hand, the difference in occurrence of both aforementioned cleft constructions will not be that significant. Even though *it*-clefts are capable of highlighting wider range of elements, *wh*-clefts, on the other hand, enable highlighting of whole clauses in greater number than *it*-clefts. Concerning the function of highlighted elements, Dušková (1999: 326-327) claims that the most frequent highlighted element in *it*-clefts is the subject, followed by adverbials. The least frequent is the object. The reason seems to be that particularly *it*-clefts put focus on an element that would normally be thematic. The last hypothesis is concerned with the context in/dependence of the subordinate clauses in *it*-clefts. According to Dušková quoting Dvořáková's figures, stressed-focus *it*-clefts appear to be more frequent than informative-presupposition *it*-clefts (Dušková, 1999: 326)

### 6.4. Rhetorical style

This chapter is devoted to the analysis of cleft constructions in public speeches. Firstly, overall occurrence is being commented on as well as the type and function of the highlighted elements. Secondly, the functional sentence perspective in terms of distribution of given and new information following the theme – rheme pattern is given an appropriate attention. Lastly, the context in/dependence of subordinate clauses in *it*-clefts and ambiguous cases of cleft constructions are included.

### 6.4.1. Overall occurrence of cleft constructions

Concerning the overall occurrence of both types of cleft constructions in public speeches, the results show that this particular syntactic focusing device appears in 147 cases on 400 standard pages of transcribed public speeches. *It*-clefts are represented in 51% (74 out of 147 samples) and *wh*-clefts in 49% (72 out of 147 samples) respectively. These data are demonstrated in the table below:

**Table 1**

Type of cleft construction	No. of occurrences	Ratio (%)
IT-cleft	74	51
WH-cleft	72	49
<b>Total</b>	<b>146</b>	<b>100</b>

The difference between the occurrence of *it*-clefts and *wh*-clefts is comparatively small and proves both the results of Biber's corpus findings in that the *it*-cleft is more frequent type of cleft construction than the *wh*-cleft and the author's claim that the difference will not be significant. The reason for this similar number of occurrences appears to be the fact that although the span of possible highlighted elements in *it*-clefts exceeds the one of *wh*-clefts, it is the *wh*-clefts that emphasize whole clauses in greater number than the *it*-clefts.

Given the number of standard pages (400) and the number of occurrences of both cleft constructions (146), one cleft construction appears per 2,7 standard pages. This figure is relatively high considering the fact that public speakers, apart from specific stylistic and linguistic emphasizing devices, are able to use other emphasizing devices such as intonation and non-verbal properties, as was already mentioned in chapter 4.

#### 6.4.2. Types of fronted elements in cleft constructions

As it was mentioned in chapters 3.1. and 3.2., there is a wide range of element types that can be fronted. This includes noun phrases, prepositional phrases, finite clauses, non-finite clauses, etc. The full list of types of fronted elements is shown in the table below:

**Table 2**

Type of fronted element	Type of cleft construction		
	IT-cleft	WH-cleft	Total
Noun phrase	45	34	<b>79</b>
Prepositional phrase	14	0	<b>14</b>
Pronoun	3	0	<b>3</b>
Proper name	3	0	<b>3</b>
Adverb phrase	2	0	<b>2</b>
Finite clause	3	26	<b>29</b>
Non-finite clause	4	12	<b>16</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>74</b>	<b>72</b>	<b>146</b>

As Table 2 suggests, the most frequent type of fronted element both in *it*-clefts and *wh*-clefts is a noun phrase. The number of noun phrases in *it*-clefts is even more substantial, counting 45 occurrences in 74 *it*-clefts, which is an absolute majority. Noun phrases in *wh*-clefts appeared 34 times out of 72 sentences, which is still a very prominent number. It is obvious from the table that *it*-clefts are able to front more types of elements than *wh*-clefts, but on the other hand, it is the *wh*-clefts that fronted the whole clauses almost 6 times more than the *it*-clefts. And it is precisely for this reason that the similar number of occurrences of both cleft constructions is apparent. Given the theoretical background set in the first part of this paper, functions of fronted elements are being commented on in greater detail in the forthcoming chapter.

### 6.4.3. Functions of fronted elements in cleft constructions

This chapter deals with different functions of fronted elements in cleft constructions, as was mentioned in the previous chapter. Fronted elements can function as subjects, objects, adverbials, complements, or predications (verbs) (see chapters 3.1. and 3.2.). For more clarity, the following table is included:

**Table 3**

Function of fronted element	Type of cleft construction		
	IT-cleft	WH-cleft	Total
Subject	47	34	<b>81</b>
Object	9	33	<b>42</b>
Adverbial	18	0	<b>18</b>
Complement	0	0	<b>0</b>
Predication	0	5	<b>5</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>74</b>	<b>72</b>	<b>146</b>

The table shows that the most frequent fronted element in terms of function is the subject. This fact is in accordance with the hypothesis set earlier in the practical part (see chapter 6.3.) that it is indeed the subject that is being highlighted most often. This number is especially high with *it*-clefts, where 47 out of 74 examples have the subject as the fronted element. It is due to the fact that the subject occupies the initial position in a sentence and is then perceived as a thematic element. Owing to clefting, the thematic subject becomes the rheme in the newly formed cleft sentence and therefore functions as the focus of such construction. This is considered a deviation of communicative dynamism and linear modification, as explained in chapter 3.1. The second most frequent fronted element is the object. While not that significant with *it*-clefts, the amount in *wh*-clefts is almost the half of all the examples (33 out of 72 examples). The reason that the subject and the object are the most frequent types of fronted elements appears to result from the fact that both of these elements are commonly realized by a noun phrase. The reason for such high number of occurrences of the object in *wh*-clefts seems to be the fact that the object, apart from being in the form of a noun phrase, is often in the form of a finite clause as well.

According to the table above, adverbials are quite common in *it*-clefts (18 out of 74), while no fronted element functions as an adverbial in *wh*-clefts. It is simply because such construction is not largely applied. On the other hand, the *wh*-cleft is the only type of cleft construction that enables highlighting of the predication (5 out of 72 examples), although this number is comparatively small. No subject or object complement was found either in *it*-clefts or in *wh*-clefts.

#### **6.4.3.1. Subject as the fronted element in cleft constructions**

This subchapter is concerned with *it*-clefts and *wh*-clefts with the subject as the fronted element. As illustrated in Table 3, the subject is the most common highlighted element in both of these constructions. Although the subject is most frequently realized by a noun phrase, some of the examples prove that other types of sentence elements can function as the subject as well. As for the noun phrase, consider the following examples:

[1a] And yet, at this moment - a moment that will define a generation  
- *it is precisely **this spirit** that must inhabit us all.* (Speech 22) NP, S,  
IP

[1b] Precisely this spirit must inhabit us all.

In [1a], the *it*-cleft highlights a noun phrase “*precisely this spirit*” that functions as the subject. Given the non-cleft counterpart in [1b], the reason for using the cleft sentence is obvious. Had the speaker used “*Precisely this spirit must inhabit us all.*”, the thematic subject would have not been classified as the focus of the sentence and the rheme would be perceived towards the end of the sentence, in accordance with the end-focus principle (see chapter 2.2.). By using the *it*-cleft, the speaker puts focus on the subject, which subsequently becomes the rheme of the sentence and communicative dynamism is violated. The use of the *it*-cleft is also beneficial from the contextual point of view. The speaker aims to emphasize that it is some particular spirit that must inhabit all of us. It is obvious from wider context that it is the spirit of service, which is embodied by brave Americans. (Speech 22)

Noun phrases functioning as subjects are relatively common in *wh*-clefts as well. This number is not as prominent as in *it*-clefts, which might be attributed to the fact that subjects are frequently realized by finite and non-finite clauses, which is further

analyzed in this subchapter. Noun phrases functioning as subjects in *wh*-clefts are demonstrated on the following example:

[77a] *What is required of us now is a new era of responsibility.*  
(Speech 22) NP, S

[77b] A new era of responsibility is required of us now.

The *wh*-cleft in the example [77a] is derived from the non-cleft sentence [77b]. “*A new era of responsibility*” is a noun phrase that functions as the subject in the non-cleft construction. As was already mentioned several times in the theoretical part, the cleft construction is a useful device to front an element as the topic of a sentence. While *it*-clefts disrupt the common theme – rheme structure, *wh*-clefts fully comply with communicative dynamism. And this statement is obvious in the analyzed example. The theme “*What is required of us now*” precedes the rheme and assumes that something is required. This creates certain anticipation in the listener in what it is that is required. The rheme “*a new era of responsibility*” is that something that is being required. The thematic subject in the non-cleft construction becomes the rheme in the newly formed *wh*-cleft and communicative dynamism is maintained. This is the essential difference between both types of cleft constructions. While *it*-clefts violate the theme – rheme structure and therefore the principle of end-focus, *wh*-clefts are able to highlight a particular sentence element without disturbing communicative dynamism of a sentence.

These examples described subjects realized by noun phrases. But as was stated earlier in this subchapter, other types of elements can function as the subject of cleft constructions. Consider the following example:

[27a] *It was they who led a second struggle against French domination at tremendous costs, and then were persuaded to give up the land they controlled between the thirteenth and seventeenth parallel as a temporary measure at Geneva.* (Speech 11) P, S, IP

[27b] They led a second struggle against French domination at tremendous costs ...

This is the example of a pronoun functioning as the subject in the *it*-cleft. The pronoun “*they*” is in its subject form, which is the only possible use in formal style, which public speaking indeed is. The pronoun “*they*” refers to some people already mentioned in discourse and by using the *it*-cleft construction the speaker makes it

clear that it was they and nobody else, who led the second struggle against French domination. Preceding context clarifies that “*they*” refers to the men in Hanoi and the speaker highlights this fact in order to prevent any kind of misunderstanding. (Speech 11)

The subject is often in the form of finite and non-finite clauses. While very rare with *it*-clefts, they are frequently fronted in *wh*-clefts:

[135] But *what intrigued me was **why such condemnation was necessary*** (and, by the way, it was necessary) (Speech 7) FC, S

[91] I won’t stand here and pretend that there are many good options left in Iraq, but *what’s not an option is **leaving our troops in that country for the next hundred years***... (Speech 25) NFC, S

#### 6.4.3.2. Adverbial as the fronted element in cleft constructions

As Table 3 suggests, adverbials are the second most frequent sentence element that is being highlighted in *it*-clefts. This fact proves the hypothesis set earlier in the practical part that adverbials are more frequent than objects and at the same time less frequent than subjects. Adverbials were highlighted in 18 out of 74 examples in *it*-clefts, which makes it approximately a quarter of examples in *it*-clefts. Most of the adverbials were connected to place, manner or time. Although Dušková (1999: 324) advocates that adverbials, usually of place or direction, are possible to be emphasized by *wh*-clefts as well by including a “*where*-clause”, none of these examples were found in the analyzed corpus material. In addition, adverbials were mostly in the form of a prepositional phrase. The use of adverbials is illustrated on the following examples:

[28] *It is **with such activity in mind** that the words of the late John F. Kennedy come back to haunt us.* (Speech 11) PP, A, IP

In the example [28], the prepositional phrase “*with such activity in mind*” functions as an adverbial of manner. Had the speaker used the non-cleft construction, this adverbial would have been placed in the final position in the sentence, however the focus would not have been so eminent. By forming the cleft sentence, the speaker moves the adverbial into the initial position of the sentence, usually conceived as the subject position, which is more prominent and by the same time makes it more

comprehensible for the listener.

As was mentioned earlier in this subchapter, adverbials occurred mostly in the form of a prepositional phrase. Nevertheless, several cases of adverbials in the form of a non-finite clause were found in the data collected:

[43] *It is in trying to find a point of balance between these two aspects – [...] – that the difficulty arises.* (Speech 32) NFC, A, SF

Dušková (1999: 327) claims that the relatively high number of occurrences of adverbials in *it*-clefts could be ascribed to the fact that the adverbials of time and place commonly set the scene of the events that are being depicted. This results in them being the thematic elements and hence placed in the beginning of the sentence in the non-cleft counterparts. Consider the following examples:

[71a] *Yet it was less than twenty years ago that priests here in Mexico were given the right to vote.* (Speech 6) NP, A, IP

[71b] *Less than twenty years ago, priests in Mexico were given the right to vote.*

The non-cleft in [71b] has the adverbial of time in the initial part of the sentence and therefore it belongs to the thematic part of the sentence. The reason for using the *it*-cleft in this case is that the speaker highlights an element, which would normally be thematic without being focused. This corresponds with what Dušková claims. (Dušková, 1999: 327)

#### **6.4.3.3. Object as the fronted element in cleft constructions**

According to Table 3, the object in *it*-clefts was found 9 times out of 74 examples. This proves the hypothesis that the object is less frequent than the subject and adverbials in *it*-clefts. On the other hand, the number of occurrences in *wh*-clefts appears to be rather prominent since 33 out of 72 examples have the object as the highlighted element, which makes it almost 50%. The reason is that while the object in *it*-clefts is usually in the form of a noun phrase, the object in *wh*-clefts is very commonly in the form of a finite clause and as was indicated earlier in the practical part, the number of occurrences of finite clauses in *wh*-clefts greatly exceeded their amount in *it*-clefts. Consider the following example:

[81a] But *what we know* – what we have seen – is ***that America can change.*** (Speech 17) FC, O

[81b] We know that America can change.

The presupposition is that we know something. By using the *wh*-cleft, the speaker prepares the listener for the new information contained in the final part of the utterance, which is that America can change.

#### 6.4.3.4. Predication as the fronted element in cleft constructions

Table 3 shows that the predication did not occur as the highlighted element in *it*-clefts but only in *wh*-clefts. This proves Quirk's theory described in the theoretical part (see chapter 3.2.) that only the *wh*-clefts enable to focus the predication. However, the number of occurrences is rather insignificant (5 out of 72 examples). The example is as follows:

[86] But *what I will not do* is ***suggest that the Senator takes his positions for political purposes.*** (Speech 27) NFC, V

In [86], the highlighted element is the predication “*suggest that the Senator takes his positions for political purposes*”. It is anticipated by the verb “*do*” as the pro-form. The predication is introduced by the infinitive, in this case bare infinitive.

As was already mentioned in chapter 3.2., when the verb in the *wh*-clause has progressive aspect, what follows the copula matches the *-ing* clause as in the following example:

[136] *What we should be doing*, instead, is ***confronting the narrative head on***... (Speech 7) NFC, V

#### 6.4.4. Context in/dependence of subordinate clauses in *it*-clefts

This chapter deals with context in/dependence of subordinate clauses in *it*-clefts. As was stated in the theoretical part (see chapter 3.1.), there are two types of *it*-clefts: stressed-focus *it*-clefts with given (known) information in the subordinate clause and informative-presupposition *it*-clefts with new information in the subordinate clause. The occurrence of both types is illustrated in Table 4:

**Table 4**

Type of <i>it</i> -cleft	No. of occurrences	Ratio (%)
Stressed-focus	35	48
Informative-presupposition	39	52
<b>Total</b>	<b>74</b>	<b>100</b>

According to Table 4, informative-presupposition *it*-clefts were more frequent than stressed-focus *it*-clefts but the difference seems to be rather imperceptible. Nevertheless, according to Dušková quoting Dovřáková's figures, it is the stressed-focus *it*-clefts that are supposed to be more common so the number of occurrences rather disproves the hypothesis set earlier. (Dušková, 1999: 326) The reason that the collected data show slightly higher number of informative-presupposition *it*-clefts in public speeches seems to be that some of the subordinate clauses in informative-presupposition *it*-clefts anticipate further development of the information they carry. Consider the following example:

[28] It is with such activity in mind that *the words of the late John F. Kennedy come back to haunt us.* (Speech 11) PP, A, IP

Without the context, the subordinate clause in the *it*-cleft could be considered context dependent, in terms that what John F. Kennedy said has already been mentioned in the preceding discourse. However, this cleft sentence introduces a new paragraph and what John F. Kennedy said is being mentioned in following sentences. Thus this cleft sentence is considered informative-presupposition *it*-cleft with new information in the subordinate clause and divided focus, one in each of the constituent parts of the cleft sentence. This results in a relatively small difference in the degree of

communicative dynamism. (Speech 11)

Another reason is simply that the subordinate clause contains information new to the listener, information that is not known from the preceding context:

[36] Let us remember that it was a man from this state *who first carried the banner of the Republican Party to the White House...*  
(Speech 26) NP, S, IP

The subordinate clause in the example [36] is context independent and carries the new information.

Concerning stressed-focus *it*-clefts, where the subordinate clause contains given information, consider the following example:

[35] And yet, it is China that *has launched the largest effort in history to make their economy energy-efficient.* (Speech 18) PN, S, SF

The speaker talks about energy and claims that renewable energy will lead the 21<sup>st</sup> century in the preceding context. So the fact that China tries to make their economy based on capability of using the sources of energy is somehow presupposed and the subordinate clause in [35] is therefore context dependent. (Speech 18)

#### **6.4.5. Ambiguous cases of cleft sentences**

This subchapter is concerned with constructions that may present a certain difficulty in terms of classification of these constructions as proper cleft constructions. It is mainly pseudo-cleft sentences that fall into this predicament. As was already mentioned in chapters 3.2 and 6.2., some of the linguists consider these constructions cleft constructions and some do not. The author involved these structures in the corpus and deals with them in this separate chapter and chapter 6.5.5. The reason for including these constructions is that they comply with most of the attributes of cleft constructions. Firstly, they conform to the principal function of cleft constructions, which is to provide a certain emphasis to particular sentence elements and consequently highlight such elements. Secondly, these constructions introduce the sentences with expressions like *the reason*, *the thing* etc. and these expressions function only as a substitution of the *wh*-word which usually introduces the pseudo-cleft sentence. The following examples illustrate this point of view:

[138a] But *the reason it can work today is that we find we have colleagues from those countries working alongside the AGI team...*  
(Speech 5) FC, O

[138b] *Why it can work today is that we find we have colleagues from those countries working alongside the AGI team...*

It is obvious from these examples that “*the reason*” in [138a] substitutes the word “*why*” in the proper *wh*-cleft in [138b]. The main reason for using this ‘paraphrase’ is that clauses introduced by *why* (among others) do not easily enter into the *wh*-cleft and sound rather awkward. (Greenbaum, 1990: 414-415) In formal style, which public speaking surely is, it seems more convenient to use these paraphrases instead of *wh*-words.

Another interesting ambiguity results from the similarity between *it*-clefts and sentences with relative clauses, as was already mentioned in chapter 3.1. Consider the following example:

[14] *It's the answer told by lines that stretched around schools and churches...* (Speech 20) NP, S, IP

The main difference is in communicative dynamism. If the *that*-clause is simply a relative clause, the rheme (*schools and churches*) is in the final position. This structure would suggest that some lines of people stretched around schools and churches. On the other hand, if the *that*-clause represents a part of an *it*-cleft, it then functions only as a thematic element and the main stress is on “*the answer told by lines*”. For instance “*the question*” could be used instead of “*the answer*”. The cleft construction would suggest that it is the answer, not the question, that stretched around schools and churches. Nevertheless, it is obvious from the context that this example does not represent the *it*-cleft, however the author decided to include this sentence in the corpus in order to demonstrate its ambiguity.

## 6.5. Style of fiction

Previous chapter and subchapters dealt with the occurrence and functions of cleft constructions in public speeches. This chapter and subchapters are devoted to the study of cleft constructions in direct speech in fiction following the same pattern of analysis as in public speeches with the main stress on comparison of both functional

styles. The overall occurrence of cleft constructions is commented on, as well as the types and functions of fronted elements and context in/dependence of subordinate clauses in *it*-clefts. Ambiguous cases of cleft constructions are also included.

### 6.5.1. Overall occurrence of cleft constructions

In comparison with public speeches, cleft constructions in direct speech in fiction appear to be rather rare. Only 29 cleft constructions were found on 400 standard pages of collected material in direct speech in fiction. *It*-clefts are represented in 13 out of 29 examples (45%) and *wh*-clefts in 16 out of 29 examples (55%). This is shown in the table below:

**Table 5**

Type of cleft construction	No. of occurrences	Ratio (%)
<i>IT</i> -cleft	13	45
<i>WH</i> -cleft	16	55
<b>Total</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>100</b>

The difference in occurrence of *it*-clefts and *wh*-clefts is more or less insignificant, as it was in public speeches, with the difference that it is the *wh*-clefts that are slightly more frequent. This proves the author's hypothesis that the difference in occurrences of both cleft constructions will be relatively small. Concerning the overall low figures of cleft constructions in direct speech in fiction, the reason is obvious. The narration consists both of direct and indirect speech and which one is in preponderance depends exclusively on the author. Although the number of standard pages is as the same as in public speeches (400), the amount of direct speech may significantly differ and it will always be substantially lower than in public speeches, which are perceived as direct speech as whole. Given the number of standard pages (400) and the number of cleft constructions collected (29), it follows that a cleft construction appears once per 13,8 pages in direct speech in fiction.

## 6.5.2. Types of fronted element in cleft constructions

Table 6

Type of fronted element	Type of cleft construction		
	IT-cleft	WH-cleft	Total
Noun phrase	5	4	<b>9</b>
Prepositional phrase	2	0	<b>2</b>
Pronoun	4	0	<b>4</b>
Proper name	0	0	<b>0</b>
Adverb phrase	2	1	<b>3</b>
Finite clause	0	6	<b>6</b>
Non-finite clause	0	5	<b>5</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>29</b>

Table 6 reveals differences rather than similarities with public speeches. Noun phrases appeared 9 times out of 29 examples, which is not an absolute majority as it was in public speeches. The number of pronouns in *it*-clefts (4 out of 13) is basically the same as the number of noun phrases (5 out of 13), unlike in the case of public speeches where noun phrases appeared 45 times and pronouns only 3 times out of 74 examples (see Table 2). The last difference that should attract attention is the number of adverb phrases. While in public speeches the number of occurrences is 2 out of 146 (1,4%), their amount in direct speech in fiction is significantly higher – 3 out of 29 examples (10,3%).

## 6.5.3. Functions of fronted elements in cleft constructions

In comparison with public speeches, Table 7 below is basically identical according to the figures. The subject is the most frequent fronted element, which is in accordance with the hypothesis set earlier (see chapter 6.3.). The reason appears be the same as in public speeches, which is that clefting permits the focus to fall on an element that would otherwise be thematic. The second most frequent is the object with 2 examples in *it*-clefts and 6 examples in *wh*-clefts. Adverbials (3 out of 13 examples)

were found again only in *it*-clefts and were more frequent than the object in *it*-clefts (2 out of 13 examples), which proves Dušková’s hypothesis outlined in chapter 6.3. The last element is the predication that is highlighted only by *wh*-clefts with the verb “*do*” as the pro-form. Table 7 shows the aforementioned data:

**Table 7**

Function of fronted element	Type of cleft construction		
	IT-cleft	WH-cleft	Total
Subject	8	7	<b>15</b>
Object	2	6	<b>8</b>
Adverbial	3	0	<b>3</b>
Complement	0	0	<b>0</b>
Predication	0	3	<b>3</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>29</b>

### 6.5.3.1. Subject as the fronted element in cleft constructions

As was mentioned in the previous chapter, the subject is the most frequent fronted element in terms of function. Similarly as in public speeches, the subject is commonly found in the form of a noun phrase and since the noun phrase is the most frequent type of highlighted element, the relatively high number of occurrences of the subject is apparent:

[147] “Some, like that boy’s family, [...] *It’s the rest of the world that’s moving*. Our borough...” (Foer, 2005, p. 220) NP, S, SF

In [147], the noun phrase “*the rest of the world*” functions as the subject. In the non-cleft sentence (“*The rest of the world is moving.*”), the subject would function as a thematic element. By using the *it*-cleft, communicative dynamism is violated and the rheme is placed in the initial position, ergo the position of the subject, which becomes the focus of the whole sentence. The author makes it perspicuous that it is the rest of the world, not this part of the world, that is moving.

### 6.5.3.2. Adverbial as the fronted element in cleft constructions

Adverbials appeared only 3 times and only in *it*-clefts. What is interesting is that 2 out of these 3 examples are in the form of an adverb phrase. Consider the following example:

[153] “*It was here that I was first able to see my angel*, although I knew...” (Coelho, 2007, p. 51) AP, A, SF

The adverbial of place in the form of an adverb phrase “*here*” would in the non-cleft sentence simply describe the scene from the local point of view. The cleft sentence allows the adverbial to function as the rheme and subsequently represent the main focus.

### 6.5.3.3. Object as the fronted element in cleft constructions

According to Table 7, the object is more frequent in *wh*-clefts than in *it*-clefts. Identical figures are observable in public speeches (see Table 3). 6 out of 16 examples of fronted object in *wh*-clefts were found in the data collected. It is due to the fact that the object is often in the form of a finite or non-finite clause:

[160a] “Well, *what I don’t get is why do we exist?*” (Foer, 2005, p. 13) FC, O

[160b] I don’t get why do we exist.

[163a] I asked him what happened to make him stop reporting war. He said, “I realized that *what I wanted was to stay in one place with one person!*” (Foer, 2005, p. 161) NFC, O

[163b] I wanted to stay in one place with one person!

In both of these examples, the object in the non-cleft sentence is the rheme in its pseudo-cleft counterpart. The structure of communicative dynamism is adhered to because the rheme is towards the end in pseudo-cleft sentences. Distribution of given and new information is based on the same principle as the theme – rheme structure. In [160a] it is evident that the author of the utterance does not get something. New information (what it is that he does not get) is contained in the object. The example [163a] is explicated in the same manner.

#### 6.5.4. Context in/dependence of subordinate clauses in *it*-clefts

The difference between context in/dependence of subordinate clauses in *it*-clefts in both functional styles is considerably significant. While informative-presupposition *it*-clefts were slightly more frequent than stressed-focus *it*-clefts in public speeches, it is the stressed-focus *it*-clefts that are exclusively dominant in direct speech in fiction. This fact is in accordance with the hypothesis that stressed-focus *it*-clefts exceed the number of occurrences of informative-presupposition *it*-clefts (See chapter 6.3.). In fact, only 1 out of 13 examples appears to be informative-presupposition *it*-cleft. This very low number of occurrences might result from the fact that the content of subordinate clauses in *it*-clefts is presupposed by the context in indirect speech. This is illustrated in the following example:

[150] “It was this observatory that *saved the building from going into bankruptcy.*” (Foer, 2005, p. 248) NP, S, SF

Concerning the context, it is stressed earlier in the text that it was difficult to find tenants to rent space in the building (Foer, 2005, p. 248). Therefore the fact that the building was facing bankruptcy is obvious from the preceding context.

#### 6.5.5. Ambiguous cases of cleft constructions

These cleft constructions were already introduced in the theoretical part (see chapter 3.2.) and the practical part itself (see chapter 6.4.5.). In contrast to public speeches, these constructions were even more frequent (6 out of 16 examples in *wh*-clefts). Unlike in public speeches where the ‘paraphrases’ were usually expressions such as *the thing* or *the reason*, the paraphrase most frequently observable in direct speech in fiction was the word *all*:

[173] “But *all one can do is use the power of the elementals* – we never learn anything from them.” (Coelho, 2007, p. 52) NFC, V

In the example [173], the word “*all*” replaces more common “*what*” but the function of this particular construction remains the same as the one of the *wh*-cleft; to emphasize a certain element (in this case the predication) without violating the theme – rheme structure. The main reason to use the word “*all*” appears to be that it indicates that it is the only thing that one can do. Had the author used the word “*what*”, it would have suggested other possibilities and not just the one.

## 6.6. Summary of the analysis

To conclude the analysis, sources for the analysis were introduced, main hypotheses were set, and the analysis itself was conducted. The analysis included describing the overall occurrence of cleft constructions, the main types and functions of fronted elements, context in/dependence of subordinate clauses in *it*-clefts, and ambiguous cases of cleft constructions.

The overall occurrence of both cleft constructions was diametrically different in both functional styles. While cleft constructions appeared 146 times in public speeches, only 29 examples were found in direct speech in fiction.

Concerning the type of fronted elements, noun phrases were the most frequent in both functional styles. While the number of noun phrases in *it*-clefts was relatively dominant, the number in *wh*-clefts was similar to the number of finite and non-finite clauses.

The most frequent sentence element in terms of function in both functional styles was the subject. In *it*-clefts, the second most frequent were adverbials followed by the object. On the other hand, *wh*-clefts did not highlight adverbials at all. However, they highlighted the object in similar amount as the subject and proved to be the only cleft construction to highlight the predication.

In terms of context in/dependence of subordinate clauses in *it*-clefts, stressed-focus *it*-clefts and informative-presupposition *it*-clefts were represented almost equally in public speeches, however, in direct speech in fiction it was the stressed-focus *it*-cleft that was entirely dominant (12 out of 13 examples).

## 7. Conclusion

The aim of this bachelor paper was to describe the structure and functions of cleft constructions in public speeches and in direct speech in fiction. The necessity for forming cleft constructions derives from the fact that while in speaking, where the speaker is able to use various devices to emphasize certain information by intonation, and non-verbal properties, writers are forced to use specific syntactic devices in order to highlight particular information.

The paper was divided into two major parts – the theoretical part and the practical part. The theoretical part focused on description of English word order, its structure, function, and deviations from grammatical word order. What followed was the study of cleft constructions, namely their structure, the determination of highlighted sentence elements, and functions. Lastly, both functional styles were introduced.

Word order in English was described as rather fixed because the position of sentence elements indicates their syntactic function in a clause. In terms of function, English distinguishes five basic elements – subject, verb, object, complement and adverbial. While it was claimed that the most important level on which English word order functions was the grammatical one, it was the functional sentence perspective level that was given the greatest importance in this paper. It is a concept that is concerned with the information flow and communicative dynamism in a sentence. According to this concept, the most important information (rheme) is placed in the final position in a sentence, while theme occupies the initial position. The same pattern is observable with linear modification in terms of placing less important information at the beginning of a sentence and more important information towards the end. Deviations from grammatical word order were subsequently described. These deviations are beneficial especially when particular sentence element needs to be emphasized, focused or contrasted. Basic types of these deviations were briefly introduced.

The first type of cleft construction was the cleft sentence, sometimes referred to as the *it*-cleft. The cleft sentence was described as “a sentence in which the normal sequence of SVO is interrupted and even rearranged.” (Peters, 2004: 108) The sentence is split into two halves, each with its own verb. The structure is following: the pronoun *it*, the verb *be*, the highlighted element and a subordinate clause usually

introduced by *that*. Concerning highlighted elements in terms of function, it was pointed out that subjects, objects, adverbials, complements, and predications can be highlighted. Context in/dependence of subordinate clauses in *it*-clefts was also described and two types of *it*-clefts emerged; stressed-focus *it*-clefts with known information in the subordinate clause and informative-presupposition *it*-clefts with new information in the subordinate clause. The main functions of cleft sentences were introduced, namely the function of putting focus on otherwise thematic elements and the function of contrasting the meaning of the topic.

Then, the second type of cleft construction – the pseudo-cleft sentence, sometimes referred to as the *wh*-cleft – was introduced. The structure of the pseudo-cleft sentence was described as follows: a clause introduced by *wh*-word, the verb *be* and the highlighted element. Pseudo-cleft sentences were described as less flexible than cleft sentences in terms of the range of possible highlighted elements. Nevertheless, pseudo-cleft sentences were also described as sentences with the possibility of highlighting finite and non-finite clauses in greater number. The function of pseudo-cleft sentences was presented as the same as in cleft sentences – to highlight a certain element in a sentence. The major difference was found in the functional sentence perspective structure. While cleft sentences violate the standard word order and place the rheme in the initial position in a sentence, pseudo-cleft sentences conform to the theme – rheme structure by placing the rheme in the final position.

The last chapters of the theoretical part were devoted to the brief description of both functional styles. Rhetorical style was described as “the oral subdivision of the publicistic style.” (Galperin, 288) The major functions of rhetorical style are informative, persuasive and ritual. Style of fiction was described as an intermediary between the written and spoken register where the idiosyncratic individuality of the author plays the major role. The main function of fiction is the aesthetical one.

What followed after the theoretical part was the practical part. Sources for the corpus and methods of the analysis were introduced. 175 examples of cleft constructions were collected from 400 standard pages of fiction and 400 standard pages of public speeches in order to provide statistical comparison. Then, the hypotheses were set.

The first hypothesis was that cleft constructions are quite common in the spoken register. This proved to be correct because 146 out of 175 cleft constructions were

found in public speeches. The reason for the low occurrence of cleft constructions in direct speech in fiction seemed to be the fact that fiction consists both of direct and indirect speech and which one presents the majority depends on the author. Therefore, despite the fact that the number of standard pages of both functional styles was the same, the overall occurrence of cleft constructions in public speeches was significantly higher as it is perceived as direct speech as whole.

The second hypothesis was that *it*-clefts are more frequent than *wh*-clefts on one hand but the difference would not be that significant on the other hand. *It*-clefts were indeed more frequent in public speeches (74 out of 146 examples) but the difference between them and *wh*-clefts (72 out of 146 examples) was considerably small, which proves both of the hypotheses. The reason for the similar overall occurrence of cleft constructions is that despite the fact that *it*-clefts are able to highlight wider range of sentence elements, *wh*-clefts, on the other hand, enable highlighting of whole clauses in greater number. Concerning direct speech in fiction, 13 out of 29 collected examples were *it*-clefts and 16 out of 29 examples were *wh*-clefts. This rather disproves the hypothesis that *it*-clefts would be more frequent than *wh*-clefts but conforms to the author's claim that the difference would be imperceptible.

The next hypothesis was concerned with highlighted elements in *it*-clefts and *wh*-clefts. In terms of function of fronted elements, the subject was most frequently highlighted both in *it*-clefts and *wh*-clefts and both in public speeches and in direct speech in fiction. The occurrence was especially dominant in *it*-clefts, where 47 out of 74 examples were highlighted subjects in public speeches and 8 out of 13 examples were highlighted subjects in direct speech in fiction. The reason for the subject being highlighted so frequently is that in non-cleft sentences, the subject occupies the initial position in a sentence, therefore constitutes the theme. By clefting, the subject becomes the rheme due to the violation of communicative dynamism. The predominant occurrence of the subject as the highlighted element is in accordance with the hypothesis. The next in number of occurrences in *it*-clefts were adverbials with 18 out of 74 examples in public speeches and 3 out of 13 examples in direct speech in fiction. This again proves the hypothesis set in the practical part. The least frequent sentence element in *it*-clefts (complements were not taken into account as long as there was no example of fronted complement in *it*-clefts) was the object with 9 out of 74 examples in public speeches and 2 out of 13

examples in direct speech in fiction. While not very frequent in *it*-clefts, the number of occurrences in *wh*-clefts was nearly the same as the one of the subject. Objects were present in 33 out of 72 examples in public speeches and in 6 out of 16 examples in direct speech in fiction. The reason for such high number of occurrences of the object in *wh*-clefts is that it is very commonly in the form of a finite clause. It was also proved that the predication is fronted only by *wh*-clefts, nevertheless, the number of occurrences of the predication was not very significant.

The last hypothesis was concerned with context in/dependence of subordinate clauses in *it*-clefts. Stressed-focus *it*-clefts were found in 35 out of 74 examples in public speeches, while informative-presupposition *it*-clefts presented 39 out of 74 examples. The difference was marginal, nevertheless these figures disproved the hypothesis that stressed-focus *it*-clefts would be more frequent. On the other hand, stressed-focus *it*-clefts in direct speech in fiction were exclusively dominant with 12 out of 13 examples. This very low number of occurrences of informative-presupposed *it*-clefts in direct speech in fiction appeared to result from the fact that the content of subordinate clauses in *it*-clefts was obvious from the context in indirect speech.

In conclusion, most of the hypotheses were proved correct and the need to use cleft constructions in order to emphasize particular sentence elements was found significant.

## 8. Resumé

Cílem této bakalářské práce bylo popsat strukturu a funkce vytýkacích konstrukcí (v angličtině nazývaných *cleft constructions*) v mluvených projevech a v přímé řeči v beletrii. Potřeba používat vytýkací konstrukce především v psaném projevu plyne z faktu, že zatímco mluvčí v mluveném projevu může využít širokou škálu prostředků ke zdůraznění určité informace (například intonaci, mimoverbální schopnosti), při psaném projevu se musí použít specifické syntaktické prostředky, aby byla daná informace zdůrazněna.

Tato práce je rozdělena na dvě hlavní části, a to část teoretickou a část praktickou. Teoretická část práce se zabývá popisem struktury slovosledu v angličtině, jeho funkcemi a odchylkami od gramaticky správného slovosledu. Dále následuje rozbor vytýkacích konstrukcí, především jejich struktura, určení zdůrazněných větných členů a funkce. V neposlední řadě jsou v teoretické části popsány oba funkční styly, ve kterých se analyzuje výskyt vytýkacích konstrukcí.

Anglický slovosled byl definován jako poměrně fixní, jelikož pozice větných členů určuje jejich syntaktickou funkci ve větě. Co se týče funkce větných členů, angličtina rozlišuje pět základních – podmět, sloveso, předmět, doplněk a příslovečné určení. Zatímco bylo zdůrazněno, že v anglickém slovosledu je nejdůležitější rovina gramatická, pro tuto práci byla nejdůležitější jiná rovina, a to rovina aktuálního větného členění. Je to koncept, který se zabývá sdělnou hodnotou a výpovědní dynamičností ve větě. Z hlediska aktuálního větného členění je nejdůležitější informace (réma) umístěna na konci věty, zatímco téma se nachází na jejím počátku. Se stejným schématem pracuje i větná linearita, kde se méně důležité informace nacházejí na začátku věty, zatímco důležitější informace se nacházejí na konci. Dále byly popsány odchylky od gramaticky správného slovosledu v angličtině. Tyto odchylky jsou užitečné zejména tehdy, kdy určité větné členy potřebují být zdůrazněny nebo uvedeny do kontrastu a příklady základních typů těchto odchylek byly uvedeny.

Prvním typem vytýkacích konstrukcí je tzv. *cleft sentence*, která se často označuje jako *it-cleft*. Cleft sentence byla popsána jako větná struktura, kde je klasické řazení větných členů (podmět – sloveso – předmět) narušeno, nebo dokonce přeskupeno.

Věta je pak dále rozdělena na dvě části, každá s vlastním slovesem. Struktura takové věty je pak následující: zájmeno *it*, sloveso *be*, zdůrazněný větný člen a vedlejší věta obvykle uvozená spojkou *that*. Co se týče funkce větných členů, které mohou být ve vytýkáci konstrukci cleft sentence vytknuty, bylo zjištěno, že podměty, předměty, příslovecná určení, doplňky a celé věty mohou být takto zdůrazněny. Dále byl popsán další fenomén, a to závislost či nezávislost vedlejších vět ve vytýkáci konstrukci *it-cleft* na kontextu. V rámci této problematiky se objevuje rozdělení vytýkáci konstrukce *it-cleft* na dva hlavní typy: první se v angličtině nazývá *stressed-focus it-cleft*, kde vedlejší věta obsahuje již známou informaci, a druhý nese název *informative-presupposition it-cleft*, kde vedlejší věta obsahuje informaci novou. Posléze byly popsány hlavní funkce vytýkáci konstrukcí cleft sentence, a to funkce přenášení důrazu na jinak tematické větné členy a funkce kontrastní.

Druhým typem vytýkáci konstrukcí je tzv. *pseudo-cleft sentence*, často označována jako *wh-cleft*. Struktura této konstrukce byla popsána následovně: věta začínající na slovo s písmeny *wh* v jeho počátku, sloveso *be* a zdůrazněný element. Vytýkáci konstrukce *pseudo-cleft sentence* je považována za méně flexibilní z důvodu toho, že není schopna vytknout takové množství větných členů jako vytýkáci konstrukce cleft sentence. Na druhou stranu tato struktura daleko častěji vytýká větné a polovětné vazby. Funkce je identická s funkcí cleft sentence, a to zdůraznit určitý větný člen ve větě. Zásadní rozdíl se nachází ve struktuře aktuálního větného členění. Zatímco vytýkáci konstrukce cleft sentence narušuje standardní pořádek slov v angličtině a umísťuje réma na počáteční pozici ve větě, *pseudo-cleft sentence* plně dodržuje strukturu, kde se téma nachází jako první a réma až za ním.

Poslední kapitoly teoretické části byly věnovány stručnému popisu obou funkčních stylů. Rétorický styl byl popsán jako mluvená sekce publicistického stylu. Základními funkcemi rétorického stylu jsou informativní, přesvědčovací a obřadní. Beletristický styl byl interpretován jako jakýsi prostředník mezi psanou a mluvenou formou, kde charakteristická individualita autora hraje hlavní roli. Hlavní funkcí beletristického stylu je funkce estetická.

Po teoretické části následuje část praktická. Nejprve byly stručně představeny korpusové zdroje a metody analytického zkoumání. Bylo shromážděno celkem 175 příkladů vytýkáci konstrukcí, které byly objeveny na 400 normostranách beletrie a

na 400 normostranách mluvených projevů, aby mohlo být provedeno statistické srovnání. Posléze byly stanoveny hypotézy.

První hypotéza vyplývá z tvrzení, že vytýkací konstrukce jsou poměrně běžné v mluvené formě, což se ukázalo jako tvrzení správné, jelikož 146 z celkových 175 vytýkacích konstrukcí bylo nalezeno v mluvených projevech. Důvod pro tak nízký výskyt vytýkacích konstrukcí v přímé řeči v beletrii se jeví ten, že beletristický styl se skládá jak z přímé, tak z nepřímé řeči, a která z těchto dvou bude převažující, závisí pouze na autorovi. Tím pádem i když je počet analyzovaných normostran v obou funkčních stylech stejný, celkový výskyt vytýkacích konstrukcí v mluvených projevech byl podstatně vyšší, jelikož se mluvený projev skládá pouze z přímé řeči.

Druhá hypotéza byla na jedné straně ta, že vytýkací konstrukce *it-cleft* bude častější než vytýkací konstrukce *wh-cleft*, ale na druhé straně tento rozdíl nebude nijak výrazný. Vytýkací konstrukce *it-cleft* byla skutečně častější v mluvených projevech (74 ze 146 příkladů), ale rozdíl mezi touto konstrukcí a konstrukcí *wh-cleft* (72 ze 146 příkladů) byl opravdu zanedbatelný, což dokazuje obě stanovené hypotézy. Důvodem se zdá být to, že zatímco konstrukce *it-cleft* je sice schopna zdůraznit širší škálu větných členů, konstrukce *wh-cleft* vytýká větné a polovětné vazby v daleko větší míře. Co se týče vytýkacích konstrukcí v přímé řeči v beletrii, 13 z 29 příkladů byly konstrukce *it-cleft* a 16 z 29 příkladů byly konstrukce *wh-cleft*. Tato čísla nepotvrdila hypotézu týkající se převahy konstrukce *it-cleft*, nicméně potvrdila autorovo tvrzení, že rozdíl bude nepatrný.

Další hypotéza se týkala vytčených větných členů v obou typech vytýkacích konstrukcí. Co do funkce větných členů, podmět byl nejčastěji vytýkaným členem v obou typech vytýkacích konstrukcí i v obou funkčních stylech. Výskyt vytčeného podmětu byl převažující hlavně v konstrukci *it-cleft*, kde bylo nalezeno 47 ze 74 příkladů s vytčeným podmětem v mluvených projevech a 8 ze 13 příkladů mělo vytčený podmět v přímé řeči v beletrii. Důvod je ten, že v normální větě se podmět nachází na začátku věty a tím pádem tvoří téma. Díky vytýkací konstrukci a změně výpovědní dynamičnosti se z podmětu stane rématický element. Převládající výskyt vytčeného podmětu je v souladu s hypotézou. Druhým v pořadí ve vytýkací konstrukci *it-cleft* byla příslovečná určení s 18 příklady v mluvených projevech a se třemi příklady v přímé řeči v beletrii. Tato čísla opět potvrdila hypotézu stanovenou

na začátku praktické části. Nejméně častým vytčeným větným členem v konstrukci it-cleft, pokud nepočítáme doplněk, který se neobjevil ani jednou, byl předmět. Ten se objevil celkem v devíti případech v mluvených projevech a ve dvou případech v přímé řeči v beletrii. Zatímco výskyt předmětu v konstrukci it-cleft nebyl příliš výrazný, v konstrukci wh-cleft se objevoval skoro stejně často jako podmět. Důvodem se zdá být to, že předmět byl v této konstrukci velmi často ve formě větné vazby a jak už bylo zmíněno, konstrukce wh-cleft daleko častěji vytýká jak větné, tak polovětné vazby. Dále bylo dokázáno, že přísudek může být zdůrazněn pouze pomocí konstrukce wh-cleft, nicméně výskyt vytčeného přísudku nebyl nijak výrazný.

Poslední hypotéza se zabývala ne/závislostí vedlejší věty v konstrukci it-cleft na kontextu. Stressed-focus it-cleft se nacházela ve 35 případech a informative-presupposition it-cleft ve 39 případech z celkových 74 v mluvených projevech. Tento rozdíl se zdá být nepodstatný, nicméně neprokázal hypotézu, že stressed-focus it-cleft bude častější. Co se ale týče přímé řeči v beletrii, rozdíl mezi oběma typy je velmi výrazný a tato hypotéza byla prokázána, jelikož 12 ze 13 příkladů byla konstrukce stressed-focus it-cleft. Velmi nízký výskyt konstrukce informative-presupposed it-cleft v přímé řeči v beletrii plyne z toho, že informace obsažené ve vedlejší větě v konstrukci it-cleft jsou čtenáři většinou známé z předchozího obsahu v řeči nepřímé.

Závěrem, většina stanovených hypotéz byla prokázána a potřeba používat vytýkací konstrukce za účelem zdůraznění a vytčení určitých větných členů se ukázala jako velmi významná.

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## **10. Appendices**

### **List of abbreviations**

#### **Fronted element:**

**NP** – Noun phrase

**PP** – Prepositional phrase

**P** – Pronoun

**PN** – Proper name

**AP** – Adverb phrase

**FC** – Finite clause

**NFC** – Non-finite clause

#### **Function of fronted element (in a non-cleft construction)**

**S** – Subject

**O** – Object

**A** – Adverbial

**P** – Predication

#### **Context in/dependence of subordinate clauses in it-clefts**

**SF** – Stressed-focus it-cleft

**IP** – Informative-presupposition it-cleft

## It-clefts in public speeches

1. And yet, at this moment - a moment that will define a generation - *it is precisely **this spirit** that must inhabit us all.* (Speech 22) **NP, S, IP**
2. For as much as government can do and must do, *it is ultimately **the faith and determination of the American people** upon which this nation relies.* (Speech 22) **PP, O, IP**
3. *It is **the kindness to take in a stranger** when the levees break, **the selflessness of workers** who would rather cut their hours than see a friend lose their job *which sees us through our darkest hours.* (Speech 22) **NP, S, IP***
4. *It is **the firefighter's courage to storm a stairway filled with smoke, but also a parent's willingness to nurture a child, that finally decides our fate.*** (Speech 22) **NP, S, IP**
5. And yet, *it has only been **in the last couple of weeks** that the discussion of race in this campaign has taken a particularly divisive turn.* (Speech 17) **PP, A, SF**
6. *It is **that promise** that has always set this country apart - that through hard work and sacrifice, each of us can pursue our individual dreams but still come together as one American family, to ensure that the next generation can pursue their dreams as well.* (Speech 27) **NP, S, IP**
7. And *it is **on their behalf** that I intend to win this election and keep our promise alive as President of the United States.* (Speech 27) **PP, A, SF**
8. Instead, *it is **that American spirit - that American promise** - that pushes us forward even when the path is uncertain; that binds us together in spite of our differences; that makes us fix our eye not on what is seen, but what is unseen, that better place around the bend.* (Speech 27) **NP, S, IP**
9. And *it is **that promise** that forty five years ago today, brought Americans from every corner of this land to stand together on a Mall in Washington, before Lincoln's Memorial, and hear a young preacher from Georgia speak of his dream.* (Speech 27) **NP, S, IP**
10. On this World AIDS day, *it is **the stories of overcoming, and not just illness** that the world needs to hear.* (Speech 29) **NP, O, IP**
11. *It's **the same story** that has made this country a beacon for the world-a story of struggle and sacrifice on the part of my forebearers and a story overcoming great odds.* (Speech 19) **NP, S, IP**

12. But ultimately *it is our brave men and women in uniform and their families who bear the greatest burden for these mistakes.* (Speech 21) **NP, S, SF**
13. *It is the light of opportunity that led my father across an ocean.* (Speech 23) **NP, S, IP**
14. *It's the answer told by lines that stretched around schools and churches in numbers this nation has never seen.* (Speech 20) **NP, S, IP**
15. *It is the founding ideals that the flag draped over my grandfather's coffin stands for.* (Speech 23) **NP, O, IP**
16. But *it wasn't a liberal Democrat or union leader who said this.* It was the president of the very health industry association that funded the "Harry and Louise" ads designed to kill the Clinton health care plan in the early nineties. (Speech 28) **NP, S, SF**
17. But *it wasn't a liberal Democrat or union leader who said this. It was the president of the very health industry association that funded the "Harry and Louise" ads designed to kill the Clinton health care plan in the early nineties.* (Speech 28) **NP, S, SF**
18. History shapes men, but *it is a necessary faith of leadership that can help men shape history.* (Speech 28) **NP, S, SF**
19. *It is freedom's flame that the terrorists sought to extinguish.* (Speech 14) **NP, O, IP**
20. But *it is that same torch, so proudly held by the United States, that can lead the free world to crush the forces of terror and secure our tomorrow.* (Speech 14) **NP, S, IP**
21. For *it is bravery that is required to secure freedom.* (Speech 39) **NP, S, IP**
22. And *it was his advice and counsel that bolstered us in that effort.* (Speech 40) **NP, S, SF**
23. *It was this event that shattered my faith in my religion and my country.* (Speech 40) **NP, S, IP**
24. *It is this notion — that our race defines us — that Ralph Ellison so eloquently rebuts in his essay, "The World and the Jug."* (Speech 40) **NP, O, IP**
25. But *it is precisely this — in its historic form, not its present-day diluted form — that I have rejected.* (Speech 40) **P, O, SF**
26. *It is with a heavy heart that I stand before you, my friends and colleagues, in the Congress of the United States.* (Speech 41) **PP, A, IP**

27. It was **they** who led a second struggle against French domination at tremendous costs, and then were persuaded to give up the land they controlled between the thirteenth and seventeenth parallel as a temporary measure at Geneva. (Speech 11) **P, S, IP**
28. It is **with such activity in mind** that the words of the late John F. Kennedy come back to haunt us. (Speech 11) **PP, A, IP**
29. It was **this misinterpretation** that caused Nietzsche, who was a philosopher of the will to power, to reject the Christian concept of love. (Speech 13) **NP, S, IP**
30. It was **this same misinterpretation** which induced Christian theologians to reject the Nietzschean philosophy of the will to power in the name of the Christian idea of love. (Speech 13) **NP, S, SF**
31. It is precisely **this collision of immoral power with powerless morality** which constitutes the major crisis of our times. (Speech 13) **NP, S, IP**
32. It is **the work of men** who somehow find a form of work that brings a security for its own sake and a state of society where want is abolished. (Speech 13) **NP, S, SF**
33. It's [...] **the business you built your dreams upon** that's now hanging by a thread, ... (Speech 18) **NP, S, SF**
34. I say this not to lay blame or to look backwards, but because **it is only by understanding how we arrived at this moment** that we'll be able to lift ourselves out of this predicament. (Speech 18) **NFC, A, SF**
35. And yet, **it is China** that has launched the largest effort in history to make their economy energy-efficient. (Speech 18) **PN, S, SF**
36. Let us remember that **it was a man from this state** who first carried the banner of the Republican Party to the White House—a party founded on the values of self-reliance, individual liberty, and national unity. (Speech 26) **NP, S, IP**
37. It is **from your ranks** that I come and on your side that I stand. (Speech 9) **PP, A, IP**
38. It is from your ranks that I come and **on your side** that I stand. (Speech 9) **PP, A, IP**
39. So, tonight **it is not the power and the glamour of the Presidency** that leads me to ask for another four years; it is something every hard-working American will understand—the challenge of a job well begun, but far from finished. (Speech 9) **NP, S, SF**

40. *It is **our system** which flourishes and grows stronger in a world free from the threat of war.* (Speech 10) **NP, S, IP**
41. *It is not **we** who must reexamine our view of China. It is the Chinese Communists who must reexamine their view of the world.* (Speech 10) **P, S, IP**
42. *It is not we who must reexamine our view of China. **It is the Chinese Communists** who must reexamine their view of the world.* (Speech 10) **NP, S, SF**
43. *It is **in trying to find a point of balance between these two aspects**—the public right of knowledge and the necessity on occasion for private conference—that the difficulty arises.* (Speech 32) **NFC, A, SF**
44. *For us, it is not **who you are, who your family is or where you come from** that matters. It is what you are and what you can do for our country that counts.* (Speech 34) **FC, S, IP**
45. *For us, it is not who you are, who your family is or where you come from that matters. **It is what you are and what you can do for our country** that counts.* (Speech 34) **FC, S, IP**
46. *And in Wrexham the other day, at a Youth Training Centre, I was delighted to see a poster saying "**It is the customer** that makes pay days possible."* (Speech 34) **NP, S, SF**
47. *Because **it is the spirit of enterprise** that provides jobs.* (Speech 34) **NP, S, SF**
48. *It was **Anthony Eden** who chose for us the goal of "a property-owning democracy".* (Speech 35) **PN, S, SF**
49. *But it is **not the State** that creates a healthy society.* (Speech 35) **NP, S, SF**
50. *Yet it was **Mr. Kosygin** who said "No peace loving country, no person of integrity, should remain indifferent when an aggressor holds human life and world opinion in insolent contempt."* (Speech 35) **PN, S, IP**
51. *Marxists claim that the capitalist system is in crisis. But the Polish workers have shown that **it is the Communist system** that is in crisis.* (Speech 35) **NP, S, SF**
52. *It was **British support to resistance movements throughout the last War** that helped to keep alive the flame of liberty in so many countries until the day of liberation.* (Speech 36) **NP, S, SF**
53. *And it was **from our island fortress** that the liberation of Europe itself was mounted.* (Speech 36) **PP, A, SF**

54. You cannot build on unsound foundations, financial or otherwise, and *it was the fundamental reforms agreed last winter which paved the way for the remarkable progress* which we have made since on the Single Market. (Speech 36) **NP, S, IP**
55. *It is to such basic practical steps that the Community's attention should be devoted.* (Speech 36) **PP, O, SF**
56. *It is to NATO that we owe the peace* that has been maintained over 40 years. (Speech 36) **PP, O, IP**
57. *It was at your annual dinner of 1972 that I had the privilege of speaking to your Society in my capacity as Secretary of State for Education and Science.* (Speech 37) **PP, A, IP**
58. *It is mainly by unlocking nature's most basic secrets*, whether it be about the structure of matter and the fundamental forces or about the nature of life itself, *that we have been able to build the modern world.* (Speech 37) **NFC, A, IP**
59. *It is only when industry and academia recognise and mobilise each other's strengths that the full intellectual energy of Britain will be released.* (Speech 37) **FC, A, SF**
60. *It is in that spirit that I address myself to those great issues facing our nation* which are above partisanship. (Speech 16) **PP, A, SF**
61. *It is with this same spirit that we have resumed discussions with Communist China in our talks at Warsaw.* (Speech 16) **PP, A, IP**
62. And *it is not only the acts of terror that should alarm us.* It is the extremism that promotes persecution of religious minorities or for example the assassination of political figures in Pakistan who want to change blasphemy laws and even worse the celebration of their killers by large numbers of Pakistani citizens. (Speech 4) **NP, S, SF**
63. And it is not only the acts of terror that should alarm us. *It is the extremism that promotes persecution of religious minorities or for example the assassination of political figures in Pakistan* who want to change blasphemy laws and even worse the celebration of their killers by large numbers of Pakistani citizens. (Speech 4) **NP, S, IP**
64. *It is this belief in a higher purpose*, God's purpose for us and this yearning for spiritual as well as material fulfillment *that draws people to profess their faith so strongly.* (Speech 4) **NP, S, SF**

65. It is **here** that the designing and embedding of protective constitutional provisions will not be enough. (Speech 4) **AP, A, SF**
66. But it is **the interpretation of these truth-claims** that is the problem. (Speech 4) **NP, S/O, SF**
67. It is **here** that African leaders need support. (Speech 5) **AP, A, SF**
68. It is **actually doing it** that is hard. (Speech 5) **NFC, S, SF**
69. And we start from the position that **it is Africa's priorities not ours** that are on the agenda and that in achieving them, you need some political realism in the plan. (Speech 5) **NP, S, SF**
70. Whatever happens this week, we are going to have to find a way of restoring the political process for the credibility that allows us to get a two-state solution that **it is the common consensus** that everyone wants to see. (Speech 1) **NP, O, IP**
71. Yet it was **less than twenty years ago** that priests here in Mexico were given the right to vote. (Speech 6) **NP, A, IP**
72. It is precisely **this thinking** that has led to the idea of "cash on delivery" which I support. (Speech 3) **NP, S, IP**
73. When people see improvements taking place as a result of Government decisions, their sense that politics is about changing lives not simply changing rulers, takes root; **and it is at that point** that they see corruption not as an inevitable consequence of an inevitably broken system, but as a brake on their aspirations that is neither inevitable nor acceptable. (Speech 3) **PP, A, SF**
74. It was **the British** that did that. (Speech 2) **NP, S, SF**

### **Wh-clefts in public speeches**

75. What the cynics fail to understand is **that the ground has shifted beneath them** - that the stale political arguments that have consumed us for so long no longer apply. (Speech 22) **FC, O**
76. What is demanded then is **a return to these truths**. (Speech 22) **NP, S**
77. What is required of us now is **a new era of responsibility**. (Speech 22) **NP, S**
78. What would be needed were **Americans in successive generations who were willing to do their part** - through protests and struggle, on the streets and in the courts, through a civil war and civil disobedience and always at great risk - to narrow

that gap between the promise of our ideals and the reality of their time. (Speech 17)

**NP, S**

79. *What's remarkable is **not how many failed in the face of discrimination, but rather how many men and women overcame the odds***; how many were able to make a way out of no way for those like me who would come after them. (Speech 17) **FC, S**

80. *But what my former pastor too often failed to understand is **that embarking on a program of self-help also requires a belief*** that society can change. (Speech 17)

**FC, O**

81. *But what we know -- what we have seen - is **that America can change***. (Speech 17) **FC, O**

82. *And today, whenever I find myself feeling doubtful or cynical about this possibility, what gives me the most hope is **the next generation*** - the young people whose attitudes and beliefs and openness to change have already made history in this election. (Speech 17) **NP, S**

83. *She knew that food was one of their most expensive costs, and so Ashley convinced her mother that *what she really liked and really wanted to eat more than anything else was **mustard and relish sandwiches****. (Speech 17) **NP, O**

84. *In Washington, they call this the Ownership Society, but *what it really means is - **you're on your own****. (Speech 27) **FC, O**

85. *Ours is a promise that says government cannot solve all our problems, but *what it should do is* that which we cannot do for ourselves - **protect us from harm and provide every child a decent education***; keep our water clean and our toys safe; invest in new schools and new roads and new science and technology. (Speech 27) **NFC, V**

86. *But what I will not do is **suggest that the Senator takes his positions for political purposes***. (Speech 27) **NFC, V**

87. *What has also been lost is **our sense of common purpose - our sense of higher purpose***. (Speech 27) **NP, S**

88. *What the nay-sayers don't understand is **that this election has never been about me***. (Speech 27) **FC, O**

89. *But what the people heard instead - people of every creed and color, from every walk of life - is **that in America, our destiny is inextricably linked***. (Speech 27) **FC, O**

90. But *what it really means is that you're on your own*. (Speech 19) **FC, O**
91. I won't stand here and pretend that there are many good options left in Iraq, but *what's not an option is leaving our troops in that country for the next hundred years* – especially at a time when our military is overstretched, our nation is isolated, and nearly every other threat to America is being ignored. (Speech 25) **NFC, S**
92. But *what you don't deserve is another election that's governed by fear, and innuendo, and division*. (Speech 25) **NP, O**
93. *What you won't hear from this campaign or this party is the kind of politics that uses religion as a wedge, and patriotism as a bludgeon* – that sees our opponents not as competitors to challenge, but enemies to demonize. (Speech 25) **NP, O**
94. Over 4 years later, we can't revisit that decision or reverse some of the tragic outcomes, but *what we can do is make sure we provide the kind of oversight and constraints on the President this time* that we failed to do the last time. (Speech 21) **NFC, V**
95. But today, *what North Carolina decided is that the only game that needs changing is the one in Washington, DC*. (Speech 23) **FC, O**
96. John McCain has offered this country a lifetime of service, and we respect that, but *what he's not offering is any meaningful change from the policies of George W. Bush*. (Speech 24) **NP, O**
97. And yet, in recent years, *what's caught the attention of those who haven't always been in favor of reform is the realization that this crisis isn't just morally offensive, it's economically untenable*. (Speech 28) **NP, S**
98. Because when you see what the health care crisis is doing to our families, to our economy, to our country, you realize that *caution is what's costly*. (Speech 28) **NP, S, reversed wh-cleft**
99. *Inaction is what's risky*. (Speech 28) **NP, S, reversed wh-cleft**
100. *Doing nothing is what's impossible* when it comes to health care in America. (Speech 28) **NFC, S, reversed wh-cleft**
101. *What is at stake today is nothing less than the survival of our civilization*. (Speech 14) **NP, S**
102. *This highly pathological aspect of Islamic militancy is what makes it so deadly for mankind*. (Speech 14) **NP, S, reversed wh-cleft**

103. *This clarity* is what enabled America and Britain to root out piracy in the nineteenth century. (Speech 14) **NP, S, reversed wh-cleft**
104. But what is striking is *that I was widely denounced for advocating the beating of prisoners*, which is ridiculous. (Speech 39) **FC, S**
105. What makes it worthwhile is *something greater than all of us*. (Speech 39) **NP, S**
106. What makes it all worthwhile is *to devote ourselves to the common good*. (Speech 39) **NFC, S**
107. But what hurts more, much more, is *the amount of time and attention spent on manufactured controversies and media sideshows* when so many problems cry out for constructive attention. (Speech 40) **NP, S**
108. For it occurs to me that *what we are submitting them to in Vietnam is not simply the brutalizing process that goes on in any war* where armies face each other and seek to destroy. (Speech 11) **NP, O**
109. You see, *what happened is that some of our philosophers got off base*. (Speech 13) **FC, S**
110. What is needed is *a realization that power without love is reckless and abusive, and love without power is sentimental and anemic*. (Speech 13) **NP, S**
111. What has happened is *that we have had it wrong and confused in our own country*, and this has led Negro Americans in the past to seek their goals through power devoid of love and conscience. (Speech 13) **FC, S**
112. What is needed is *a strategy for change*, a tactical program that will bring the Negro into the mainstream of American life as quickly as possible. (Speech 13) **NP, S**
113. What I'm saying to you this morning is *that Communism forgets that life is individual*. (Speech 13) **FC, O**
114. What I am saying today is *that we must go from this convention and say, "America, you must be born again!"* (Speech 13) **FC, O**
115. What is required now is *for this country to pull together*, confront boldly the challenges we face, and take responsibility for our future once more. (Speech 18) **NFC, S**
116. But what I want to say to you is *that we do consider these difficult choices in the public expenditure annual round* and we are just coming up to it, and we have

managed to allocate a very considerable sum to capital investment. (Speech 34) **FC, O**

117. Mr. President, *what we have seen in this country is **the emergence of an organized revolutionary minority*** who are prepared to exploit industrial disputes, but whose real aim is the breakdown of law and order and the destruction of democratic parliamentary government. (Speech 34) **NP, O**

118. Yet from our perspective today surely *what strikes us most is **our common experience***. (Speech 36) **NP, S**

119. And *what we need now is **to take decisions on the next steps forward***, rather than let ourselves be distracted by Utopian goals. (Speech 36) **NFC, O**

120. *What we need now is **a far greater degree of personal responsibility and decision, far more independence from the government, and a comparative reduction in the role of government***. (Speech 38) **NP, O**

121. *What is wrong is **that people should want more without giving anything in return***. (Speech 38) **FC, S**

122. *What remains is **to give life to what is in the law***: to ensure at last that as all are born equal in dignity before God, all are born equal in dignity before man. (Speech 15) **NFC, S**

123. *What rural America needs most is **a new kind of assistance***. (Speech 16) **NP, O**

124. Even more than the programs I have described today, *what this nation needs is **an example from its elected leaders in providing the spiritual and moral leadership*** which no programs for material progress can satisfy. (Speech 16) **NP, O**

125. ***This – the true face of faith – is what compels the Church to be so active in the provision of healthcare in Africa, saving countless thousands of lives; or brings the Unione Superiore Maggiore d'Italia together to fight the evil of people trafficking***. (Speech 4) **NP, S, reversed wh-cleft**

126. *What AGI offers is **help***, there on the ground, from people who have done it, not just talked about it. (Speech 5) **NP, O**

127. *What works is, if we can achieve it, **calm and peace*** so that people can move more stuff through the process if we can ease the restrictions and if we can get the private sector going. (Speech 1) **NP, S**

128. *What doesn't work, frankly, is **either blockade on the one hand or attacks out of Gaza on the other***. (Speech 1) **NP, S**

129. *What works is a sense of forward momentum in politics*, which then supports the economy and security, and likewise improvements in economy and security support the politics. (Speech 1) **NP, S**
130. *What doesn't work is when the politics breaks down*. (Speech 1) **FC, S**
131. *What is really hard is getting there and doing it*. (Speech 3) **NFC, S**
132. *What we have found in the AGI work is that there is this huge untapped resource out there in the wealthy nations*, for precisely, the expertise the African countries need. (Speech 3) **FC, O**
133. So when we examine the history of liberty *what we find is not some predetermined course of events but ordinary human beings doing extraordinary things in the midst of earth-changing events*. (Speech 2) **NP, O**
134. And *that optimism of the human spirit is what drives progress and indeed what drives liberty too*. (Speech 2) **NP, S, reversed wh-cleft**
135. But *what intrigued me was why such condemnation was necessary* (and, by the way, it was necessary). (Speech 7) **FC, S**
136. *What we should be doing, instead, is confronting the narrative head on*, forming an alliance across the faiths and across the divides of culture and civilisation to defeat it. (Speech 7) **NFC, V**
137. *The most important thing about these proposals is that the alternative may be a national catastrophe*. (Speech 8) **FC, O, ambiguous case**
138. But *the reason it can work today is that we find we have colleagues from those countries working alongside the AGI team* who are convinced effective government is the key. (Speech 5) **FC, O, ambiguous case**
139. I think literally *one thing that everybody in the international community agrees is that Prime Minister Fayyad has achieved something quite remarkable with his colleagues and officials in terms of state building*. (Speech 1) **FC, O, ambiguous case**
140. So it's really up to us to summon the will and frankly the foresight to understand that right at this moment in this region, *the last thing that we need is a breakdown of the situation of state building from the Palestinian Authority*. (Speech 1) **NP, O, ambiguous case**
141. *The one lesson we learn unequivocally from Europe's past is that when we close down, we lose*. (Speech 6) **FC, O, ambiguous case**

142. *The reason religion is important is **that it is about so much more than religion**.* (Speech 6) **FC, O, ambiguous case**
143. One sits there for about 15 minutes and *all one hears is **numbers being counted up to about twenty*** and starting all over again. (Speech 32) **NP, O, ambiguous case**
144. Because in an economy like this, *the last thing we should do is **raise taxes on the middle-class***. (Speech 27) **NFC, V, ambiguous case**
145. *All I know is **that** no matter how or why my family became sick, **I would be called to care for them and comfort them and do what I could to help find a cure**.* (Speech 29) **FC, O, ambiguous case**
146. Because *one thing I know from traveling to forty-six states this campaign season is **that we're not as divided as our politics suggests***. (Speech 24) **FC, O, ambiguous case**

### **It-clefts in direct speech in fiction**

147. “Some, like that boy’s family, wouldn’t leave the Sixth Borough. Some said, ‘Why should we? *It’s **the rest of the world that’s moving***. Our borough is fixed. Let them leave Manhattan.’ (Foer, 2005, p. 220) **NP, S, SF**
148. “Children were allowed to lie down on the park as it was being moved. This was considered a concession, although no one knew why a concession was necessary, or why *it was **to children that this concession must be made***.” (Foer, 2005, p. 221) **PP, O, SF**
149. “I not know was New York. In Chinese, ny mean ‘you.’ Thought was ‘I love you.’” “*It was **then that I noticed the “I-LOVE-NY“ poster on the wall, and the “I-LOVE-NY” flag over the door, and the “I-LOVE-NY” dishtowels, and the “I-LOVE-NY” lunchbox on the kitchen table***. (Foer, 2005, p. 239) **AP, A, IP**
150. “*It was **this observatory that saved the building from going into bankruptcy***.” (Foer, p.248) **NP, S, SF**
151. “*Was it **your father who taught it to you?***” (Coelho, 2007, p. 24) **NP, S, SF**
152. “That’s your second mind”, he said. “*It’s **your second mind that’s humming the song***.” (Coelho, 2007, p. 26) **NP, S, SF**

153. “It was **here** that I was first able to see my angel, although I knew that the angel was everywhere, and that the angel’s face is the face of the desert I live in, or of the city where I lived for eighteen years.” (Coelho, 2007, p. 51) **AP, A, SF**
154. “It was **not an angel** that we met up with yesterday. It was a guy driving truck.” (Coelho, 2007, p. 57) **NP, O, SF**
155. “Four processes! And he only said three! **It’s through the fourth process that you converse with your angel!**” (Coelho, 2007, p. 61) **PP, A, SF**
156. “It is **we** who will win,” the girl said. (Coelho, 2007, p. 149) **P, S, SF**
157. “It is **we** who will win the war.” (Coelho, 2007, p.149) **P, S, SF**
158. “I look at you, able to talk with your angel before I was – even though **it was I** who came here to do that.” (Coelho, 2007, p. 189) **P, S, SF**
159. “After all, your ideals were lovely, but **it is we** who are capable of putting them into practice.” (Coelho, 2007, p. 209) **P, S, SF**

### **Wh-clefts in direct speech in fiction**

160. “Well, *what I don’t get is why do we exist?*” (Foer, 2005, p. 13) **FC, O**
161. “Well then, *what I want to know is how can I find the lock that it opens?*” (Foer, 2005, p. 39) **FC, O**
162. “Because *what’s really fascinating is that she’d play the call of a dead elephant to its family members.*” (Foer, 2005, p. 96) **FC, S**
163. I asked him what happened to make him stop reporting war. He said, “I realized that *what I wanted was to stay in one place with one person!*” (Foer, 2005, p. 161) **NFC, O**
164. “You’re obviously in love with him, so *what I want to know is, why?* What’s so great about him?” (Foer, 2005, p. 171) **AP, O**
165. “*What I was saying was, they found a piece of paper, about half a kilometer from the hypocenter,* and the letters, which they call characters, were neatly burned out.” (Foer, 2005, p.190) **FC, O**
166. “Or maybe a suspension is a better word. Because *what was so inspiring about the leap was not how the jumper got from one borough to the other, but how he stayed between them for so long.*” (Foer, 2005, p. 218) **FC, S**

167. “*What’s weird,*” I said, “*is that I’ve never seen you cry.*” (Foer, 2005, p. 315)  
**NC, S**
168. “*What will vanish is the idea that the mountains I’ve conquered are too small.*” (Coelho, 2007, p. 84) **NP, S**
169. “*What was interesting was the fact that I’m sure none of that was there when we had first passed by.*” (Coelho, 2007, p. 206) **NP, S**
170. “*All that was left were white pieces on white square islands.*” (Foer, 2005, p. 189-190) **NP, S, ambiguous case**
171. “Im sorry, if that’s true, *the last thing I would have wanted was for you to be like me,* I left so you could be you.” (Foer, 2005, p. 277) **NFC, O, ambiguous case**
172. “You are a river. You have already run down to the sea, and you know its wisdom. You have died and been reborn many times. *All you have to do is remember.*” (Coelho, 2007, p. 5) **NFC, V, ambiguous case**
173. “*But all one can do is use the power of the elementals* – we never learn anything from them.” (Coelho, 2007, p. 52) **NFC, V, ambiguous case**
174. “Contained in them are all we need to know, and *all we have to do is imitate them.*” (Coelho, 2007, p. 54) **NFC, V, ambiguous case**
175. “When I learned that *channeling* was all that was needed in order to speak with my angel, I lost interest.” (Coelho, 2007, p. 83) **NP, S, reversed ambiguous case**