

Discourse Study of A Clausal Subject Extraposition in Selected Political and Religious Speeches

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Abstract

Extraposition can be defined as a process by which an element is moved from its normal position to another position that is at or near the end of the sentence. It is regarded as a stylistic rule, the failure to extrapose can result in awkward constructions that may even cause interpretation difficulties. It is mostly used in the formal writings more than in the informal ones.

The extraposition strategy is in general used with certain verbs such as (seem, appear, follow,). It has two cases: extraposition of a clausal subject and extraposition of a clausal object. In addition, it has several syntactic constructions such as that-clause, infinitive and gerund.

This study is limited with studying the clausal subject extraposition and also it focuses on the use of the clausal subject extraposition in two selected registers: political speeches and religious speeches showing the cases and the forms of extraposition that are used in these two registers.

The issues that are going to be discussed are:

1. the concept of extraposition, its cases and syntactic constructions
2. the meaning of each case and construction
3. the reasons for using extraposition in general and its constructions in specific
4. the frequency of clausal subject extraposition in political and religious speeches

It has been found that the clausal subject extraposition is used more in the political speeches than in the religious speeches. *that* -clause is used more than the other forms.

1.1. The Problem and its Significance

Extraposition is a strategy that is used to move important information to the end of the sentence. The most important case in extraposition is the clausal subject extraposition because it is used mostly by speakers/writers.

This aspect is used very widely in written and spoken forms but the reason of using it is still ambiguous. It is right to say that the use of this aspect is connected with the heaviness of information but the problem is that how the writer/ speaker decides what is the heavy information, why in English language, the speaker/ writer wants to focus on this exact piece of information, and what are the constructions that are mostly used and why? Extraposition has several constructions so there is a need to shed light on its kinds, constructions and cases and how it is used in the normal speech and what are the reasons for using this strategy in our daily speech.

This research examines how English speaker/writer reconstructs some sentences in order to lead the hearer/ reader to focus on certain information by postponing it. Also it shows that extraposition in general and the clausal subject extraposition in specific are used more in religious speeches than the political speeches for the purpose of focusing on the new information.

2.1. On Defining Extraposition

It is a term used in grammar referring to the process or result of moving an element from its normal position to a position at or near the end of the sentence, for example:

1. a. *That boy came in late* upset the teacher.
b. It upset the teacher *that the boy came in late*.
2. a. *Working here* is nice.
b. It's nice *working here*.

Extraposition operates almost exclusively on subordinate nominal clauses

(Crystal, 2003: 174 and Crystal, 2010: 447).

Quirk and et.al.(1973:422-423) mention that extraposition is a device of postponement that serves the two principles of end-focus and end-weight. English allows a pattern where a finite or infinitival clause appears in sentence-final (or 'extraposed') position:

3. a. I made it my objective [to settle the matter].
b. I owe it to you [that the jury acquitted me].

(Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990: 418)

This pattern involves the introduction of expletive (or 'dummy') *it* which, though morphologically identical to the third person singular pronoun, is not referential, and hence is unable to be assigned by any semantic role.

Another aspect of *it*-extraposition that distinguishes it from canonical cases is that the extraposed constituent is usually a clause; *it*-extraposition cannot extrapose a prepositional phrase. This fact can be explained by

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appealing to the status of *it* as a *cataphor*. In other words, *it* is a pro-form of a sort; its appearance pushes the clause that it stands for to the end of the sentence. Since prepositional phrases cannot appear in the position of a clause, it should not be surprising that prepositional phrases cannot be *it*-extraposed (Jespersen, 2004: 89,113).

Richards and Schmidt (2010: 211) state that “heavy” constituents are more likely to be placed near the end of a sentence than “light” ones. Compare *He picked the book up* with *He picked up the first book he saw*. Another important fact about extraposition is that it is clause-bound. This aspect of extraposition is known as the *Right Roof Constraint*. In other words, extraposition cannot occur out of an embedded clause:

4. a. That we think **that the idea is good** is no secret.
 - b. *That we think is no secret **that the idea is good**. - Failed attempt to extrapose out of a subject clause
5. a. Someone who thinks **that Romney will win** was talking non-stop.
 - b. *Someone who thinks was talking non-stop **that Romney will win**. - Failed attempt to extrapose out of a relative clause
6. a. Before it was certain **that it would rain**, we were planning a picnic.
 - b. *Before it was certain, we were planning a picnic **that it would rain**. - Failed attempt to extrapose out of an adjunct clause

Extraposition is regarded as a stylistic rule, the failure to extraposed can result in awkward constructions that may even cause interpretation difficulties.

The reasons for using the extraposition are:

- a. When a sentence contains heavy or dominant elements, the speaker/writer intends to move those elements to the end of the sentence. Murcia and Freeman (1999: 671) say that this kind of movements is a processing strategy since dominant noun phrases are harder to encode and decode in initial and medial positions than in final position such as:
 7. a. We saw [the movie which she had spoken about] Sunday.
 - b. We saw Sunday [the movie which she had spoken about].The noun phrase is followed by a relative clause modifier so it is relatively longer than other kinds of noun phrases so there is a need to extrapose it to the end of the sentence. But in such sentences, the extraposition strategy is impossible:
 8. a. We saw the movie Sunday.
 - b. We saw Sunday the movie.

(ibid)

b. The second reason for using the extraposition is that English language tends to place old and given information in subject position and new information in the predicate. Since old information is typically encoded in brief form relative to the rest of the sentence. A sentence like the following tends to sound better with an extraposed subject:

9. a. That the governor will formally announce the new sales tax bill is likely. → Unextraposed form

b. It is likely that the governor will formally announce the new sales tax bill. → Extraposed Form

If *the bill* in question is already familiar to the hearers/readers and is mentioned within the subject, it is far more likely to appear in shorter form:

c. The governor's new sales tax bill is likely to be announced today.

So the given/new distinction may play a considerable role in an utterance's decision to extrapose (ibid: 672).

Generally speaking, the use of clausal *that* subjects is higher in formal writings than the spoken or informal written genres.

The case in which someone should not choose to extrapose is that when the predicate of the main clause itself contains a clause. The use of extraposition may present a serious problem such as:

10. a. That he always selects the correct answer shows that he has studied the material.

b. * It shows that he has studied the material that he always selects the correct answers.

11. a. That you brought this matter to our attention helps us to see the real problem.

b. It helps us to see the real problem that you brought the matter to our attention. (ibid)

2.2. Discourse Functions of Extraposition

Extraposition is used to lighten the load of a sentential subject (and less frequently, an object) by demoting a subordinate clause from subject (or object) position to the end of a sentence. For instance:

1. a. **That he left in such a hurry** is no surprise.

b. It is no surprise **that he left in such a hurry**.

2. a. It never ceases to surprise and horrify me **how these criminals get away**.

3. Well, I believe it to be a crime **to let any murderer walk free like that**.

4. The professor found it incredible **that any student could write such an essay on their own**.

There is consensus in the literature regarding the type of clauses which can be extraposed: they can be finite (the most frequent type), or non-finite with gerunds, much less frequent than infinitives, and they can be introduced by *that*, a *wh*-word or nonfinite *to* (Biber *et al.*, 1999; Huddleston and Pullum, 2005).

However, one aspect which still causes debate concerns is the status of *it*. As with IT-clefts, *it* has been analyzed in different ways. Some argue that extraposed constructions have two subjects, *it* being the ‘formal’ subject and the extraposed clause being the ‘notional’, ‘real’, or ‘postponed’ one (Quirk *et al.*, 1985); others maintain that *it* is the only subject, the extraposed clause being stripped of its subject-like properties once it is demoted to sentence-final position . With regard to the discourse function of extraposition, a recent study by Rowley-Jolivet and Carter-Thomas (2005) found two main and partially related uses of extraposition. First, it helps to “increase dynamism” by placing new information sentence-finally. Secondly, it is used to express the speaker’s/writer’s evaluative opinion in a “rhetorically effective” way by introducing the evaluative comments sentence-initially: *It is obvious that* [...] or *It is unusual that* [...] so that they are less conducive to being challenged (Rowley-Jolivet and Carter- Thomas, 2005: 51).

Despite the fact that extraposition has received most attention in past work, it could be argued that the opposite phenomenon (i.e., non-extraposition) merits equal, if not more, attention. There are two related reasons for this. First, extraposition is more frequent than non-extraposition. Secondly, extraposition is functionally motivated, whether one adopts a psychologically oriented explanation whereby sending heavy constituents to the end of the sentence allows for easier processing (as shown by Biber *et al.* for *that*-clauses (1999: 676) and Quirk *et al.* (1985: 1392), from a statistical standpoint.), or whether it is simply assumed that end-focus and end-weight principles are at work here . In other words, both functionally, as well as statistically, extraposition appears to be the norm rather than the exception.

Nonextraposition requires that the content of the subject be discourse-old or directly inferable. If the content is discourse-new, then extraposition is necessary. The choice between extraposition and nonextraposition for discourse-old and inferable subjects is examined and is shown to depend on the discourse status of the predicate and on whether it is the predicate or the subject that links to the following discourse so that the common discourse properties of fronting and nonextraposition must

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be linked to their common linear ordering properties, rather than to a common syntactic position (Calude, 2008:12).

Bolinger (1977: 288) claims that the extraposed construction may be used when "the topic has been introduced" . Also he claims that the nonextraposed variant is impossible if the content of the sentential subject is topical and that sentences such as his [7] are impossible, as opposed to [8] and [9], because the anaphoric link entails topic status. As for the extraposition of infinitives, while a pair such as

5. To give in now would be fatal.

6. It would be fatal to give in now.

are interchangeable in many contexts and look as if they might be in free variation, actually the *it* again relates to some kind of prior basis. Consider the following answers to the question *What do you think of running him as a candidate?*:

7. *To do that would be a good idea.

8. To run him as a candidate would be a good idea

9. It would be a good idea to do that.

In [7], the use of that forces the anaphora -- the speaker has to be picking up the idea from his interlocutor and is therefore obliged to use *it* and the construction in [9]. But [8] is possible where the speaker is turning the question over in his mind and treating it as his own idea (ibid).

Given the importance of end focus , it is not surprising that English has numerous resources to enable us to phrase a sentence in such a way to ensure the distribution of information according to our wishes.

2.3. The Constructions of Extraposition

2.3.1. that- clauses

The main kind of extraposition is the extraposed *that- clause*:

1. a. *That you don't fit their image of a fairy princess* annoys them.

b. May be it annoys them *that you don't fit their image of a fairy princess*.

In these two sentences, *that- clause* functions as the subject of the main sentence (Biber. et.al, 1999: 676).

There is a kind called pre-predicate that is in form just like the extraposed *that- clause* such as:

2. * *That Saint managed to cause an upset with nothing more than direct running and honest endeavor* bodes well for Great Britain.

This pre-predicate (that) presents the proposition in *that- clause* as factual or generally accepted information (ibid).

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Extrapolated *that- clauses* reports an attitude or stance which is overtly attributed to any person. This is usually the attitude of the speaker or the writer of the texts, even though the author does not assume explicit responsibility for the attitude:

3. * It was obvious *that the challenges ahead are at least as daunting as anything the Cold War produced.*
4. * It was obvious *that no subjects could perceive the movement at a normal distance.* (ibid, 661)

There are certain verbs that take the extrapolated *that- clause* and they are as follows:

- a. verbs to (be)
- b. seem, appears
- c. follow
- d. passive verbs (be found, be known, be assumed, be said, be shown)

for examples:

5. It's wonder he's got any business at all.
6. It seemed however that in-pig sows showed more stress than empty ones.
7. It now appears that I will be expected to part with a further portion of my income as a graduate tax.
8. It follows that frequentist probability is conceptually inadequate for the design or licensing of hazardous facilities.
9. It has been shown that sites near the mushroom bodies control the production of normal song-rhythm. (ibid: 670-671)

Murcia and Freeman (1999: 668-669) also say that (seem) is a verb with which the extraposition case can take place such as:

10. It seems that John is happy.

But it is wrong to say:

11. * That John is happy seems.

So the use of extraposition (it) here is important because *that- clause* can not take the place of the subject although it represents the doer and that is because of the presence of the verb (seem).

(that) can not be omitted when its clause is placed in the subject position such as:

- 12.a. It is unfortunate that he left without any money.
- b. It is unfortunate he left without any money.
- c. That he left without any money is unfortunate.
- d. * He left without any money is unfortunate.

In the first two sentences (12. a and b), the occurrence and the absence of (that) does not effect on the meaning of the sentence but in sentence (12.

d), the omission of (that) is unacceptable cause it is placed at the beginning of the sentence (ibid).

Greenbaum and Quirk (1990: 417) add that besides the verb (seem), there are verbs like (appeared, happened, chanced,) with which the extraposition is obligatory as in the following examples:

13.a. * That she wanted to go into politics is said.

b. It is said that she wanted to go into politics.

Also with the copula verbs (to be), this kind of extraposition is “used for expressions of possibility and (especially) for reflective questions” as in:

14. It may be that she no longer trusts you. Could it be that you left the keys in your office? (ibid)

2.3.2. Relative Clauses Extraposition

Rochemont, (1986, Ch.4) claims that definite NPs from which relative clauses have been extraposed appear to require a stringent set of discourse conditions. He assumes that the structures themselves are well-formed, but whether or not they can be interpreted depends on finding the appropriate context for them, though he does not discuss what the possible contexts might be:

1. The guy just came in that I met at TRENO’S yesterday.

Huck and Na (1990) describe a context in which the speaker has been talking about two people, one of whom he met at *Treno’s* and one of whom he met somewhere else, e.g. at *Andrea’s*. If the first of these two people walks in, the speaker could felicitously say (1); the emphasis on *Treno’s* signals contrast with the person he met at *Andrea’s*.

In the example just described, the NP subject refers to a person already in the common ground of the discourse - the speaker was already talking about this person. The information contained in the relative clause is not new, because the interlocutors know, from explicit mention in the conversation, that the speaker met one guy at *Treno’s* and one at *Andrea’s*. The use of the definite NP implies that its referent is familiar to participants in the discourse. More specifically, Huck and Na (1990) state that “a definite NP is acceptable when the identity of its referent is calculable from the information given.” In (1), the definite NP *the guy* has been explicitly mentioned at some point in the discourse, so the referent of the NP is present in the common ground. In addition, according to Huck and Na’s description of the context for (1), both interlocutors know that the speaker met two people, one of those people at *Treno’s*, so the property expressed by the relative clause, “meeting x at *Treno’s*,” is in the common ground as well. So definite NPs presuppose that the referent is calculable from discourse information, the information status of the definite NP will always

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be such that the referent of the NP is present in the discourse context somehow. If they assume this, then the only way for a mismatch to be generated, according to their view, would be to have the property expressed by the relative clause to be new with respect to the discourse.

Extraposition of relative clauses from definite NPs is acceptable as long as the information in the relative clause is given in the discourse, so that it is congruent with the given nature of the definite NP.

In the theoretical literature, it has been claimed that the acceptability of the relative clause extraposition decreases when:

- a. the antecedent noun phrase of the relative clause is definite (the definiteness restriction)
- b. the main verb of the sentence is not a verb of appearance (the predicate restriction)

Walker (2013, 149) says that a sentence with extraposition becomes ungrammatical when a definite instead of an indefinite noun phrase is used as antecedent as in:

2. a. A man is here who is carrying a large package.
- b. *The man is here who is carrying a large package.

Ziv and Cole (1974: 772) also make a contrast between extraposed and nonextraposed relative clauses, they speak about reduced acceptability as in:

3. a. A guy whom I met at Treno's yesterday just came in.
- b. The guy whom I met at Treno's yesterday just came in.
- c. A guy just came in whom I met at Treno's yesterday.
- d. * The guy just came in whom I met at Treno's yesterday.

Walker (2013: 153) says that the verbs that are used in relative clause extraposition are verbs with an appearance meaning such as (arrive, enter, come in, show up, appear). It is possible that this kind of extraposition can occur with other kinds of verbs but the appearance kind is preferable. Any verb can be used as a predicate of appearance if the sentence is embedded in an appropriate discourse context. So it seems possible to improve the acceptability of extraposition with a verb like (scream) if the sentence is embedded in a context in which "the verb is pragmatically emptied of all semantic content beyond that of appearance in the world of the discourse" (Guéron, 1980: 653-645). The following example illustrates this idea:

4. Suddenly there was the sound of lions growling. Several women screamed. Then a man screamed who was standing at the very edge of the crowd.

(Culicover and Rochemont, 1990: 65)

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Maynell (2003:4) adds that the information contained in extraposed relative clauses must be given with respect to the discourse, in order to match the given status of the definite noun phrase that the relative clause modifies, see these examples:

5. a. The woman who was wearing a blond wig walked into the room.
- b. *The woman who was wearing a blond wig walked into the room.
- c. A woman walked into the room who was wearing a blond wig walked into the room.

In sentence (5 b) when the noun phrase is definite, the movement has to be to the left side not to the right.

It has to be mentioned that just the restrictive relative clauses can be extraposed. Restrictive relative clauses are necessary modifiers: they restrict the set of entities referred to by the nominal head and help pick out its referent. Nonrestrictive relative clauses give only additional information about the head whose reference is independently established as in:

6. a. Here is the man (who I love).
- b. Here is the man (that I love).
- c. Here is the man (\emptyset I love).
7. a. That handsome man, who looks like Ewan McGregor, is my Husband.
- b. John, who is going to move to Antarctica, is having a farewell party tomorrow. (Manninen, 2011: 2)

2.3.3. Non- Finite Clauses Extraposition

The extraposition of the –ing participle clauses is possible as in:

1. a. Getting the equipment loaded was easy.
 - b. It was easy getting the equipment loaded.
- (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973: 423)

-ing clauses occur in ordinary subject position:

2. a. Teaching her to drive turned out to be quite enjoyable.

But extraposed –ing clause is uncommon, it is used mostly in the informal speech because it seems to be untidy afterthoughts:

- b. It turned out to be quite enjoyable teaching her to drive.

(Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990: 417)

Dixon (2005: 48) states that –ing clauses are generally not extraposable but there is what is called right dislocation “in which the two clauses are set off by contrastive , appositional intonation” as in:

3. It was admired, Mary’s singing ‘Salty Dog’ in church.

(it) here refers to (Mary’s singing), it is not an empty (it). This case is different from extraposition.

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In addition, Murcia and Freeman (1999: 669) say that the –ing clause does not extrapose well with possessive subjects, but it sometimes occurs extraposed without expressed subject in colloquial English:

4. a. (Her whistling old songs) woke up the neighborhood.
b. *It woke up the neighborhood (her whistling old songs).
5. a. (Spending the afternoon with you) is nice.
b. It is nice (spending the afternoon with you).
6. a. (Living without a car in this city) is not easy.
b. It is not easy (living without a car in this city).

In sentence (4 a), the subject (her whistling old songs) has a possessive meaning so its extraposed form is unacceptable as exemplified in (4 b).

Quirk and et. al. (1985:1393) mention that the –ing clause often “shows itself in completely adapted to the extraposition construction, notably by being resistant to bearing the main information focus”. Instead of:

7. a. It's *fun being a HOS`TESS*.
b. It's *FU`N being a HOS`TESS*.

This can be noticed in spoken form while in the writing form, the following sentence is used:

8. It's fun, being a hostess.

So the –ing clause has just as much affinity with a noun phrase tag as with a genuine extraposed subject as in:

9. He's a friend of mine, that man. (ibid)

Dixon (2005: 160, 162) adds that –ing clauses occur with certain kinds of verbs such as (like, love, hate, prefer, fear, dread, dislike, loathe, abhor, admire, value, regret, enjoy, favour, object,.....). The infinitival (to) occurs with the following verbs (like, love, hate, fear and dread) and it does not occur with the other previously mentioned verbs such as:

10. I like/hate to go.
11. * I dislike/loathe to go. (ibid)

When the non-finite clause functions as extraposed subject, however, the infinitive is usually preferred, as in (4)-(5). There can be a good deal of variation here too, though, e.g.:

12. It's nice to have/having money in the bank.
13. It wasn't nice to call/*calling your brother a jerk.
14. It's enough just to know/knowing you're here.
15. Do you think it's clever to make/*making a remark like that?

If the subject of the extraposed non-finite clause is expressed--i.e. introduced by for--only the infinitive is possible (Morrissey, 2007: 284).

There are a number of different syntactic and semantic factors that affect the choice of the infinitive or participle in noun clauses. All things

considered there seem to be more restrictions on the -ing participle than on the infinitive--except in subject position, where the -ing participle occurs more frequently. As a rule of thumb, then, it is advised to use the -ing participle clause as subject and the infinitive elsewhere.

3. The Extraposition of a Clausal Subject

Elements of the sentence that are shifted from their normal position to the end of the sentence are either complex and lengthy or under stress (emphatic) or both. For example, when the subject is expressed by a non-finite (infinitival or gerundial) or a finite clause, it is normally shifted after the predicator and the subject position is filled by the anticipatory (introductory, dummy) subject *it*. The non-finite or the finite clause then functions as apposed or postponed subject.

The most important type of extraposition is that of a clausal subject. A simple rule for deriving a sentence with subject extraposition from one of orthodox ordering is:

Subject + predicate ~ *it* + Subject + predicate

(Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973:423)

But it is worth emphasizing that for clausal subjects, the extraposition is more usual than the basic position before the verb as in:

1. Type SVC : It is a pleasure to teach her .
2. Type SVA : It was on the news that income tax is to be lowered .
3. Type SV : It doesn't matter what you do .
4. Type SVO : It surprised me to hear him say that .
5. Type SVOC : It makes her happy to see others enjoying themselves .
6. Type SV pass : It is said that she slipped arsenic into his tea .
7. Type SV pass C : It was considered impossible for anyone to escape .

(ibid)

The extraposed subject might be a finite clause, then the real subject may be expressed by:

a. a noun:

8. It's a good thing *that you had a fire extinguisher at hand.*

b. an adjective, particularly one expressing modality:

9. It's desirable *that all possible doubts and ambiguities concerning this project should be eliminated now.*

c. the passive construction with the verbs such as *believe, consider, expect,*

know, report, say, think:

10. It is believed *that the prisoners will be set free.*

d. a dependent question with a rather limited number of openings:

11. It doesn't matter *how he got that information.*

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12. It is not certain yet *when they will move into the new flat.*

e. occasionally a dependent exclamatory clause with such opening as:

13. It's unbelievable *how easily some people earn lots of money.*

(Dixon, 2005:47)

It is generally the indefinite present infinitive of the active voice (and affirmative form) that occurs as predicator in a non-finite subject clause – it occurs after:

a. adjectives:

14. It's dangerous to cross the street *when the lights are red.*

b. participial adjectives (expressing emotion):

15. It is annoying *to be kept waiting.*

The infinitival clause may have its own subject introduced by a *for*-phrase or an *of*-phrase:

16. It was impossible *for me to remain serious.*

17. It is hard *for him to live away from his family.* (ibid)

The –ing clauses are extraposed when they occur:

a. after some adjectives (also infinitival clause could be used):

18. It seems foolish *quarrelling over such trifles.*

19. It's incredible *meeting you in London.*

b. after some nouns and set expressions: *It's no use, It's a pleasure, It's a good thing...*

20. It's no use *complaining.* (ibid)

A gerund or a gerundial clause is used as postponed subject in certain types of exclamatory sentences beginning with *what* or *how*. *What a nuisance (it is) having to wait for an hour.*

Sometimes just one part of a subject, such as a relative clause or a complement, may detach and move to sentence-final position; such movement in structures other than complements is most common in colloquial usage but is not considered good formal written style:

A. Extraposed NP Complement

21. a. The fact *that you have won the lottery* is irrelevant.

b. The fact is irrelevant *that you have won the lottery.*

B. Extraposed Relative Clauses

22. a. The plan *which the president proposed* has been approved.

b. The plan has been approved *which the president proposed.*

23. a. The problem *that I told you about* has been diagnosed.

b. The problem has been diagnosed *that I told you about.*

C. Extraposed Participial Clauses

24. a. Any questions *regarding the contract* should be dealt with immediately.

- b. Any questions should be dealt with immediately *regarding the contract*. (Murcia and Freeman, 1999: 671)

In addition, clauses with extraposed subject must be distinguished from superficially similar clauses in which *it* is a personal pronoun or empty 'prop' subject : 13. It's good to eat. (ie This fish is good to eat)

25. It's lovely weather to go fishing . (Quirk et.al, 1985:1392)

Also *If-* and *when-* clauses behave very much like extraposed subjects in sentences like:

26. a. It would be a pity *if we missed the show*.

of

- b. It is a pity *that we missed the show*.

27. It'll be a great day *when you win the sweepstake* . (ibid)

It is doubtful in each case , however , whether the clause could act as subject, although it could act as initial adverbial clause :

28. If we missed the show , it would be a pity .

On balance, therefore these appear to be adverbials rather than the extraposed subjects. Contrast :

29. For us to miss the show would be a pity ~ It would be a pity for us to miss the show .

Another marginal case is the 'phrasal extraposition' of

30. It's two hundred miles from Boston to New York.

Where the prepositional phrase sequence , if fronted , could act either as subject or as adverbial:

31. From Boston to New York (it) is two hundred miles

Compare also :

32. It's Wednesday today ; Today (it) is Wednesday .

While the extraposed clause can only rarely be a nominal relative in type SV, It is even rarer with SVC :

33. Whoever said that was wrong but

34. * It was wrong whoever said that .

In examples like *It's a mystery why she did it \ how he does it* , the *wh-* clauses are best regarded as indirect interrogatives (ibid).

The extraposition is avoided when it gives rise to certain awkward combinations that are generally avoided. For example, if there is both a subject complement and an object complement, extraposition of the subject complement gives rise to a derived structure in which the object complement is in the middle of the sentence:

35. a. That the corkscrew had blood on it proves that the butler is the culprit.

- b. *It proves that the butler is the culprit that the corkscrew had

blood on it.

Sentences having a S in the middle of a constituent are avoided regardless of whether Extraposition plays any role in them . . ."

4. Data Analysis

The sentences that are used in the political and religious speeches are intended to highlight and show the speakers are concerned with the problems of their followers and they try to convince their audience of what they believe to be right.

The main goal for the political and religious speeches is to convince the listeners of the orators' opinions by choosing the most powerful linguistic devices. They use the most appealing or effective words and sentences in order to catch the attention of the listeners (Uvehammer, 2004: 20-24; Keane, 1997: 44-49).

The data of this research consists of four samples of speeches: Two are political and the other two are religious. The political speeches were spoken by Eleanor Roosevelt, Jimmy Carter while the religious ones are by Jefferson Davis, Dr. Martin Luther King Jr..

It has been found that the strategy of extraposition is used very often in the political speech more than in the religious speech. The following table illustrates the findings of the analysis:

Table (4.1) The Frequency of the Clausal Subject Extraposition in the Political Speeches

No.	Kind of Clauses	Frequency	Ratio
1	That- clauses	84	44%
2	Non-Finite clauses	60	32%
3	Relative Clauses	45	24%
Total		189	100%

Table (4.2) The Frequency of the Clausal Subject Extraposition in the Religious Speeches

No.	Kind of Clauses	Frequency	Ratio
1	That- Clauses	27	19%
2	Non-Finite Clauses	66	47%
3	Relative Clauses	48	34%
Total		141	100%

The total number of the clausal subject extraposition that are used in the political speeches is 189 sentences while in the religious speeches, the total number is 141 sentences. The frequency of the clausal subject extraposition in the political speeches is higher than in the religious speeches.

The politicians intend to use extraposition in order to take the intention of the hearers to focus on the new information that they utter. For the religious men, they intend to just give advices which are not necessary to be new information all the time.

The frequency of *that*- clauses is higher in the political speech than in the religious speech because *that*- clauses are used to report an attitude or stance which is overtly attributed to any person. It is usually the attitude of the speaker (Biber et.al., 1999: 661). The politicians give their opinions about certain matters so they intend to use the *that*- clauses more while the religious men do not give their opinions most of the time.

The frequency of the non-finite clauses is higher in the religious speech than the political speech. The religious men intend to use informal speech with their audience in order to be more understandable and familiar for their followers. Quirk and et. al (1985) say the non-finite extraposed clauses are mostly used in the informal speeches so this is the reason of the high frequency of this kind in the religious speeches.

The frequency of the extraposed relative clauses is higher in the religious speeches than in the political speeches because they are used when the noun phrase is known from the context, ie, the speaker and the listeners already know the reference of the mentioned noun (Maynell, 2003:4). In the religious speeches, the speaker tries to clarify what he is talking about as possible as he can so he intends to use the extraposed relative clauses in order to give more details while the politicians do not need this kind of strategies because they only need to persuade the listeners and catch their attention by using new words, changing the order of the sentence, politeness strategies (Uvehammer, 2004: 20).

5. Conclusions

It has been concluded the following:

1. the extraposed *that*- clauses are used to report the attitude of the speaker and also they occur with certain verbs (such as seem, follow).
2. the extraposed relative clauses are used when the noun phrase is definite and its reference is known from the context.
3. just the restrictive relative clauses can be extraposed for they restrict the set of entities referred to by the nominal head and help pick out its referent.
4. – ing participle clauses can be extraposed more than the other forms of the non- finite clauses.
5. the clausal subject extraposition is used mostly in the political speech than in the religious speech.

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6. the that- clause is used mostly in the political speech than the religious speech because it is used to express the opinions of their speaker.
7. the non-finite extraposition is used mostly in religious speech because it is used mostly in the informal speeches and the religious speeches can be considered as a type of informal speech.
8. the relative clauses extraposition is used mostly in the religious speech because it give description of the noun phrases that are mentioned before.

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دراسة خطابية لتقديم وتأخير عبارة الفاعل في الخطابات السياسية والدينية

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الخلاصة

الزحلقة عبارة عن تحريك جزء من الجملة من موقعه الطبيعي إلى نهاية الجملة أو قريب من النهاية. تعتبر الزحلقة نظام أسلوبية حيث إن عدم القدرة على تطبيق هذه العملية يؤدي إلى صعوبة في فهم معنى الجملة. تستخدم الزحلقة في أسلوب الخطاب الرسمي أكثر منه في الخطاب غير الرسمي.

seem, appear, follow, تستخدم تقنيه الزحلقة مع أفعال معينه على سبيل المثال هناك حالتان في الزحلقة: جملة الفاعل وجملة المفعول به. أيضا لديها عدة تراكيب والجملة المصدرية و جملة اسم الفاعل واسم المفعول. that نحوية على سبيل المثال تم تحديد الدراسة حول زحلقة جملة الفاعل كما تركز هذه الدراسة على استخدام هذا النوع من الزحلقة في نوعين من النصوص: الخطابات السياسية والخطابات الدينية مع بيان حالات وتراكيب الزحلقة المستخدمة في هذه الخطابات.

النقاط التي سيتم طرحها في هذه الدراسة هي:

1. مفهوم الزحلقة وحالاتها وتراكيبها النحوية
2. معنى كل حالة وكل تركيب من تراكيبها
3. أسباب استخدام الزحلقة بشكل عام وتراكيبها النحوية بشكل خاص
4. تكرار استخدام زحلقة جملة الفاعل في الخطابات السياسية والخطابات الدينية تستخدم زحلقة جملة الفاعل بشكل كبير في الخطابات السياسية أكثر من استخدامها في الخطابات الدينية. استخدام جملة أكثر من باقي التراكيب النحوية الأخرى.