Anglická gramatika

Distanční studijní text

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Obsah

ÚVODEM

Studijní opora je určena studentům bakalářského studijního programu Angličtina pro odbornou praxi jako podpůrný studijní materiál ke kurzu Gramatika 2.

Sudijní opora obsahuje:

- teoretický základ probíraného tématu s konkrétními příklady,
- kontrolní cvičení,
- klíč ke cvičením,
- seznam citované a parafrázované literatury.

Student nastuduje dané téma a vypracuje úkoly, pomocí kterých si ověří pochopení vysvětleného gramatického jevu. Po kontrolních cvičeních následuje klíč se správným řešením, díky kterému má student možnost sám vyhodnotit, zda probírané látce dostatečně porozuměl.

RYCHLÝ NÁHLED STUDIJNÍ OPORY

Kurz je koncipován tak, aby měl po jeho absolvování student hlubší přehled o formě a použití slovesa a slovesné fráze, a dále o gramatice základních typů hlavních i vedlejších vět. Náplní kurzu bude kromě detailního rozboru slovesa coby klíčového prvku v anglické větě také výčet a podrobný popis variací slovesné fráze (čas, aspekt, rod, způsob, zápor, a modalita). V druhé části kurzu bude pozornost věnována slovosledu ve větách, shodě podmětu s přísudkem, otázkám, větám rozkazovacím a zvolacím. Závěrečné kapitoly představí typy vedlejších vět a specifika používání interpunkčních znamének a psaní velkých písmen v angličtině. Cílem tohoto kurzu je prohloubit a dále rozvinout znalosti získané v úvodním kurzu Úvod do gramatiky a v návazném kurzu Gramatika 1.

1 VERBS

QUICK OVERVIEW

The first chapter introduces the English verb. It offers an overview of different types of verbs and provides grammatical, formal, and semantic classification. It introduces the morphology of the regular verb and patterns of irregular verbs, shows the difference between lexical and auxiliary verbs, and introduces verb-formation processes and valency patterns.

AIMS

In this chapter you will

- learn about different types of verbs
- learn about grammatical classification of verbs
- learn about formal classification of verbs
- learn about semantic categories of verbs
- learn about verb-formation processes
- learn to identify and name different valency patterns

KEYWORDS

verb, regular verb, irregular verb, primary auxiliaries, modal auxiliaries, verb formation, valency patterns

1.1 Verbs

Verbs represent a key element in every clause. They are the action words in the sentence that describe what the subject is doing. Without verbs it would be impossible to convey the message of the sentence. We can identify verbs based on their position in the sentence. Verbs typically follow subject and precede any other syntactic elements (complement, object, adverbial). The following subchapters will present different types of classification of verbs.

1.2 Classification of verbs

1.2.1 FORMAL CLASSIFICATION

Formal classification looks at the morphological qualities of verbs. We identify the base form (the infinitive), the –s form (3rd person singular), the –ing form (present participle), the past form, and the –ed form (past participle). **Regular verbs** have four forms, because the past form and the past participle are identical. **Irregular verbs** have from five to eight forms. The most complex verb in English is the irregular verb *be*, which has eight forms (*be, am, is, are, was, were, been, being*).

Table 1: Formal classification

Form	Example	Function
base	*work, eat*	infinitive, present tense except 3rd person sg., subjunctive
-s form	*works, eats*	3rd person sg present tense
-ing participle	*working, eating*	progressive aspect, continuous tense
past form	*worked, ate*	simple past tense
-ed participle	*worked, eaten*	passive, perfect tense, -ed participle clauses

REGULAR VERBS

The 3rd person singular of regular verbs has two spellings. Most verbs take –s, verbs ending in sibilants /s, z, ʃ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ/ take –es (e.g. *kisses, touches, boxes*). The 3rd person singular has three spoken realizations:

- /–s/ after voiceless consonants /p, t, k, f, θ, h/ other than sibilants
  speaks, cuts, stops, laughs, treats
- /–z/ after voiced consonants /b, d, g, v, z, ð, l, m, n, r, j/ (other than sibilants) and all the vowels
  arrives, grows, digs, deals, lives, plays
- /–ɪz/ after sibilants /s, z, ʃ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ/
  catches, buzzes, loses, expresses

There are four verbs that have irregular –s form: *do – does, go – goes, say – says, have – has*. Verbs ending in consonant + y form the 3rd person singular by dropping -y and adding –ies (e.g. *cry – cries, study – studies, try – tries*). Verbs ending in vowel + y simply add –s (e.g. *play – plays, stay – stays, toy – toys*).

The –ed spoken form has three spoken realisations: /ɪd/, /d/, and /t/.

- /–t/ after voiceless consonants other than /t/

> *stopped, hoped, watched*
- /–d/ after voiced consonants other than /d/ and all the vowels
  > *moved, played, tired, called, lived*
- /–ɪd/ after /t/ and /d/
  > *wanted, suggested, divided, included*

The –ing spoken form is a straightforward addition of [ɪŋ] to the base without any changes in pronunciation. When it comes to spelling, the final consonant is doubled when the preceding vowel is stressed and spelled with the combination of consonant-vowel-consonant.

drop	*dropping*	*dropped*
admit	*admitting*	*admitted*
stop	*stopping*	*stopped*

There is no doubling when the preceding vowel is unstressed or spelled with two letters (e.g. *order – ordered – ordering, enter – entered – entering*). British English breaks the rule with respect to certain consonants (e.g. *cancel – cancelled – cancelling, travel – travelled, travelling, worship – worshipped – worshipping*). American English follows the rule and does not double.

In bases ending in a consonant + y, the –y is dropped and replaced with –ied to form the past form (e.g. *cry – cried (crying), study – studied (studying)*). Verbs ending in a vowel + y simply add –ed (e.g. *play – played, stay – stayed*). There are three exceptions to the rule: *lay – laid, pay – paid, say – said*.

In bases ending in –ie, the –ie is replaced with –y- before the –ing inflection (e.g. *die – dying, lie – lying*). The final –e is dropped before the –ing and –ed inflections (e.g. *move – moved – moving, shave – shaved – shaving*). Verbs with bases ending in *–ee, -ye, -oe, -ge* are exceptions to the rule, they do not drop –e before -ing but they drop it before –ed.

agree	*agreeing*	*agreed*
dye	*dyeing*	*dyed*
toe	*toeing*	*toed*
binge	*bingeing*	*binged*

Verbs ending in –c take additional –k to –ing and –ed ending (e.g. *traffic – trafficked – trafficking)* in order to keep the base pronunciation.

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Write and mark the pronunciation of the third person singular.

avoid	say	draft
worry	voice	employ
lift	link	serve

ring	dry	rent
relax	perform	impress

Write and mark the pronunciation of the *-ing* form of the following verbs.

visit	mimic	spot
commit	file	panic
riot	fry	suffer
split	live	refer
singe	lie	intrigue

Write and mark the pronunciation of the past tense.

free	admit	kick
profit	train	borrow
trim	vary	imply
seal	laugh	nod
bury	delay	divide

☑ **ANSWERS**

Write and mark the pronunciation of the third person singular.

avoids /–z/	says /–z/	drafts /–s/
worries /–z/	voices /–ɪz/	employs /–z/
lifts /–s/	links /–s/	serves /–z/
rings /–z/	dries /–z/	rents /–s/
relaxes /–ɪz/	performs /–z/	impresses /–ɪz/

Write and mark the pronunciation of the *-ing* form of the following verbs.

visiting	mimicking	spotting
committing	filing	panicking
rioting	frying	suffering
splitting	living	referring
singeing	lying	intriguing

Write and mark the pronunciation of the past tense.

freed /–d/	admitted /–ɪd/	kicked /–t/
profited /–ɪd/	trained /–d/	borrowed /–d/
trimmed /–d/	varied /–d/	implied /–d/
sealed /–d/	laughed /–t/	nodded /–ɪd/
buried /–d/	delayed /–d/	divided /–ɪd/

IRREGULAR VERBS

The majority of English verbs are regular. There are about 200 irregular verbs that are in everyday use. We recognise seven patterns of irregular verbs.

Table 2: Irregular verbs

Pattern	Description	Example
1	Verbs take a voiceless -t suffix to mark past tense and past participle, which replace the final -d in the base of the verb or are added to the base.	*build-built-built* *send-sent-sent* *spoil-spoilt-spoilt*
2	Verbs take a –t or –d suffix to mark past tense or past participle, with a change in the base vowel.	*mean-meant-meant* *think-thought-thought* *sell-sold-sold*
3	Verbs take the regular –ed suffix for past tense, but a –(e)n suffix for past participle.	*show-showed-shown*
4	Verbs have no suffix used for the past tense, but there –(e)n ending that marks past participle; in addition, the base vowel changes in either the past tense, past participle, or both.	*give-gave-given* *know-knew-known* *see-saw-seen*
5	Verbs have past tense and past participle marked only by a change in the base vowel.	*begin-began-begun* *come-came-come* *find-found-found*
6	Verbs have past tense and past participle forms identical to the base form.	*cut-cut-cut* *hit-hit-hit*
7	Verbs one of the forms is completely different.	*go-went-gone* *be-was/were-been*

Some irregular verbs have regular alternatives, sometimes with no difference in meaning or usage (e.g. *speed – sped / speeded – sped / speeded*). Sometimes the difference is in usage, e.g. *learn – learnt – learnt* preferred in BrE compared to *learn – learned – learned* used in AmE. In some cases the regular and irregular forms differ in meaning (e.g. *hang – hung / hanged – hung / hanged*).

1.2.2 TYPE CLASSIFICATION

Another classification looks at verbs by *type*, that is the function they fulfil in the sentence. The key distinction here is between ***lexical verbs***, which convey the semantic meaning in the sentence, and ***auxiliary verbs***, which add functional or grammatical meaning. While lexical verbs form an open category, auxiliary verbs represent a closed category with three primary auxiliary verbs and twelve modal auxiliary verbs.

Table 3: Type classification

Verbs		
Lexical (open class)	**Auxiliary** (closed class)	
	primary	**modal**
	do, have, be	*will, would, shall, should, can, could, may, might, ought to, must, (need, dare)*

PRIMARY AUXILIARIES

As a lexical verb, the verb ***do*** has an activity meaning. It often combines with a noun phrase and forms a fixed idiomatic expression (e.g. *to do the job, do the your best*). As an auxiliary verb, *do* is used:

- to make negatives in Present Simple and Past Simple
  *I **don't** know what you mean.*
- to make questions *Why **did** you give him my number?*
- to emphasize ***Do** sit down.*
- in short answers *Do you read the papers every day? – Yes, I **do**.*
- in tag questions *She works in a lab, **doesn't** she?*
- to avoid repetition *He left school one year earlier than I **did**.*

The verb ***have*** in its lexical meaning shows physical possession, links a person or a thing to an abstract quality (e.g. *We had a great fun at the party.*), describes family connections (e.g. *I have a sister and two brothers.*), or describes eating and drinking (e.g. *I'll have the steak.*). As an auxiliary verb, it is used:

- to form Present Perfect and Past Perfect
  *What **have** you found so far?*
- in short answers *Have you talked to him yet? – No, I **haven't**.*
- to avoid repetition *I've never tried scuba diving and neither **has** my husband.*
- in tag questions with *have got*
  *She hasn't got the answers, **has** she?*

The verb ***be*** as a lexical verb is used in the existential *there is/are* construction. It is also the most frequently used linking verb. As an auxiliary verb, it is used:

- in the progressive aspect *We**'re** leaving soon.*
- to form passive voice *It**'s** broken.*
- to express the modal meaning of a planned, necessary, or possible action
  *What **am** I to tell him?*
  *Such examples **are** to be found everywhere.*

MODAL AUXILIARIES

Just like primary auxiliaries, modal auxiliaries represent a closed system. The verbs *can, could, shall, should, will, would, may, might, must,* and *ought to* are true modal verbs. The verbs *need* and *dare* are called semi-modals, because they can be used as both modal and lexical verbs (e.g. *We don't need to go just yet. We needn't go just yet.).* Modal verbs have the following features in common:

- there is no –s in the 3rd person singular
- modal verbs are followed by bare infinitive (except *ought to*)

- negation is formed by adding the negative particle *not*
- question is formed by means of inversion
- modal verbs are used in short answers and in repetitions

Modal verbs express various functions: probability (all modals), advice *(must, should, ought to)*, obligation (*must, need*), prohibition (*mustn't, can't*), ability (*can*), permission or request (*can, could, may, might, would, need*).

1.2.3 GRAMMATICAL CLASSIFICATION

Another way of looking at verbs is by their grammatical form. The grammatical categories we identify are tense, aspect, voice, and mood. Tense and aspect form grammatical tense.

Table 4: Grammatical classification

Tense	present, past	
Aspect	simple, perfect, progressive, perfect progressive	tense + aspect = grammatical tense
Voice	active, passive	
Mood	indicative, imperative, subjunctive	

1.2.4 SEMANTIC CLASSIFICATION

Generally we can say that verbs express an action or a state of being. A more detailed classification recognises several ***semantic categories*** of lexical verbs. ***Activity verbs*** refer to a volitional activity, that is an intentionally performed activity. ***Communication verbs*** involve activities describing speech and writing. ***Mental verbs*** refer to mental states and activities, these verbs do not involve a physical activity. The category of mental verbs comprises of a wide range of mental states or processes (e.g. *think, believe, consider*), emotions and attitudes (e.g. *love, need*), perceptions (e.g. *feel, taste*), or the receiving of communication (e.g. *read, listen*). ***Causative verbs*** indicate that someone or something caused something to happen. ***Verbs of occurrence*** refer to events that occur without an agent. ***Verbs of existence or relationship*** refer to the state of existence or relationship. **Verbs of aspect** indicate a change in the progress of an event or an activity. Activity and mental verbs are the most commonly used lexical verbs in English (*say, get, go, know, think, see, make, come, take, want, give, mean)*.

Table 5: Semantic classification

Category	Definition	Example
Activity verbs	indicate physical activity	*bring, buy, get, come, give, go, leave, make, play, run, take, show, work*
Communication verbs	indicate speech and writing	*ask, describe, speak, tell, thank, write*
Mental verbs	indicate mental states and activties	*believe, expect, feel, remember, want, wonder*
Causative verbs	indicate an event that was caused to happen by somebody or something	*get, have, let, help, allow*
Verbs of occurrence	indicate an even that happened without an evident cause	*occur, happen, become, develop*
Verbs of existence and relationship	indicate the state of existence or relationship	*appear, seem, exist, indicate*
Verbs of aspect	indicate a change	*begin, continue, start, stop*

1.3 Formation of verbs

New verbs are formed in English by means of the three major word-formation processes: derivation, conversion, and compounding. Idiomatic expressions also act as single verbs.

DERIVATION

Table 6: Derivational prefixes

Prefix	Meaning	Example
re-	again	*reattach, rebuild, redefine, refinance*
dis-	opposite, apart	*disarm, disconnect, dislike, disallow*
over-	too much	*overbook, overcome, overeat, overheat*
un-	opposite, in reverse	*undo, uncover, unfold, unload, unpack*
mis-	wrongly, poorly	*misinterpret, miscalculate, misinform*
out-	to go over	*outdo, outgrow, outweigh*
be-		*behead, befriend, belittle*
co-	to exist together	*coexist, co-star*
de-	in reverse	*decode, defrost, devaluate*
fore-	in advance	*foretell, foresee*
inter-	in between	*interact, interconnect*
pre-	in advance	*pretest, prepack, prewash*
sub-		*subcontract, subdivide, sublet, subtitle*
trans-		*transform, transplant*
under-		*undergo, undercut, underdevelop*

Table 7: Derivational suffixes

Suffix	Example
-ate	*activate, cultivate, assassinate, regulate*
-en	*frighten, widen, soften, blacken, awaken*
-ify	*identify, specify, qualify, simplify, notify*
-ise (BrE) / -ize (AmE)	*realise, recognise, modernise, energise*

CONVERSION

The process of conversion typically involves the change of noun into a verb (e.g. *saw, nurse, hand, wire, mask, mail, bottle*). Sometimes there is also a change in pronunciation. The stress shifts from the first syllable in noun or adjective to the second syllable in a verb.

NOUN/ADJ		**VERB**
'subject	→	sub'ject
'object	→	ob'ject
'export	→	ex'port
'permit	→	per'mit
'perfect	→	per'fect

COMPOUNDING

Typical compound verb-forming combinations are verb + verb (e.g. *stir-fry, freeze-dry*), noun + verb (e.g. *hand-wash, air-condition, steam-clean*), or adjective + verb (e.g. *dry-clean, whitewash*).

MULTI-WORD LEXICAL VERBS

Multi-word units act as a single verb. These combinations have an idiomatic meaning, that is they only work as a unit. The typical combinations are:

- **phrasal verbs**: verb + adverbial particle
  carry out, find out, pick up, come over, break down
- **prepositional verbs**: verb + preposition
  look at, talk about, listen to, apply for, ask for
- **phrasal-prepositional verbs**: verb + adverbial particle + preposition
  get away with, get out of, put up with, get back to, come up with

1.4 Valency patterns

Valency is the capacity of a verb to combine with other elements in the sentence. It is the verb in the sentence that determines whether the sentence requires a complement or a object for it to convey a complete thought. There are three valency patterns in English.

TRANSITIVE VERBS

Transitive verbs require a direct object to complete its meaning in the sentence. The action of the verb is transferred onto an object. The direct object can be found by asking a question about the action, that is *who* or *what* is affected by the action of the verb. Depending on the sentence structure, we identify three types of transitives:

1. **monotransitives**   S – V – Od
         They considered [our proposal].
2. **ditransitives**   S – V – Oi – Od or S – V – Od – Oprep
         She gave [him] [a dirty look]. He threw [the ball] [to Helen].
3. **complex transitive**   S – V – Od – Co
         We found the guard [sleeping] [by the gate].

INTRANSITIVE VERBS

Intransitive verbs do not require an object. The action of the verb in the sentence ends or is modified by an adverbial.

> *We arrived late [at the meeting].* Aplace
> *The crowd moved [angrily][across the field].* Amanner, Aplace

LINKING (COPULAR) VERBS

Linking (copular) verbs connect the subject of the sentence to subject complement. Typical linking verbs are verbs of sensation (*feel, look, smell, sound, taste*), verbs of existence (*be, seem, appear, remain, keep, stay*), or verbs of result (*become, get, grow, turn*).

> *The meal smelled [delicious].* Cs
> *He looked [incredibly uncomfortable].* Cs

Although certain verbs tend to appear more frequently in a particular valency pattern, is quite common for a verb to act as transitive in one sentence, but intransitive or linking in another.

> *The dog smelled [the food].* Od   transitive
> *The dog smelled.*   intransitive
> *The dog smelled [nice].* Cs   linking

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Identify the verbs in the sentences as transitive, intransitive or linking.

1. My little brother acts crazy sometimes.
2. I sold some old books at the fair.
3. The test proved more difficult than we had imagined.

4. Thousands of cranes will return in the spring.
5. I understood all the questions.
6. I found the necklace at the bottom of the drawer.
7. The security guard was snoring loudly.
8. The rubbish in the street smelled bad.
9. Motherhood has really changed her.
10. I felt refreshed after the nap.

ANSWERS

Identify the verbs in the sentences as transitive, intransitive or linking.

1. My little brother **acts** crazy sometimes.	linking
2. I **sold** some old books at the fair.	transitive
3. The test **proved** more difficult than we **had imagined**.	linking, intransitive
4. Thousands of cranes **will return** in the spring.	intransitive
5. I **understood** all the questions.	transitive
6. I **found** the necklace at the bottom of the drawer.	transitive
7. The security guard **was snoring** loudly.	intransitive
8. The rubbish in the street **smelled** bad.	linking
9. Motherhood has really **changed** her.	transitive
10. I felt **refreshed** after the nap.	intransitive

SUMMARY

In the first chapter we looked at the basic categorisation of the English *verb*. You learnt about different types of verbs and you now understand the verb form a ***grammatical, formal,*** and ***semantic point of view***. You learnt about the morphology of the ***regular verb*** and patterns of ***irregular verbs,*** you know the difference between **lexical and auxiliary verbs**. You are familiar with the ***verb-formation processes*** and can recognise different types of verbs based on their ***valency pattern***.

2 VARIATION OF THE VERB PHRASE

QUICK OVERVIEW

The second chapter introduces the six variations in the structure of the English verb phrase, which can be combined in numerous ways to form a number of different structures. The chapters presents the issue of tense, aspect, voice, mood, modality, and negation.

AIMS

In this chapter you will

- learn about the six variations in the structure of the verb phrase
- learn about the present and past tense of the English verb
- practise recognising the simple, perfect, progressive and perfect progressive aspect
- learn the difference in usage of the active and passive voice
- learn about the difference between mood and modality
- learn about the principles of negation in English

KEYWORDS

verb phrase, tense, aspect, voice, mood, modality, negation

There are six kind of variations in the structure of the verb phrase. These structures can be combined in numerous ways to form a number of different structures.

Table 8: Variation of the verb phrase

Tense	present, past
Aspect	unmarked (simple), perfect, progressive, perfect progressive
Voice	active, passive
Mood	indicative, imperative, subjunctive
Modality	unmarked (tensed), modal
Negation	positive, negative

2.1 Tense

"Traditionally, tense is defined as a grammatical system which is used by languages to encode (or grammaticalize) the time at which a situation denoted by a verb is viewed as taking place." (Aarts, Chalker and Weiner 2014, 414).

Tense refers to the absolute location of an event or action in time. Traditionally, tense is marked by an inflection of the verb. The English verb can only express present or past. Reference to other times and the idea of grammatical tense is extended to include other variations of the verb phrase, namely aspect and voice. There is no inflection to mark future tense on verbs in English, future is therefore formed by a combination of the modal *will* + lexical verb, and by other structures (*going to* + inf, present simple, *will be* + ing form, *be about to*).

The table below shows the standard grammatical tenses in simple and continuous form, both in active and passive voice. The continuous forms of Present Perfect, Past Perfect and Future Perfect in passive can be formed, but are unlikely to be used.

Table 9: Grammatical tenses in English

	Active		Passive	
	Simple	Continuous	Simple	Continuous
Present	*I make cakes.*	*I am making cakes.*	*Cakes are made.*	*Cakes are being made.*
Present Perfect	*I've made cakes.*	*I've been making cakes.*	*Cakes have been made.*	*Cakes have been being made.*
Past	*I made cakes.*	*I was making cakes.*	*Cakes were made.*	*Cakes were being made.*
Past Perfect	*I had made cakes.*	*I had been making cakes.*	*Cakes had been made.*	*Cakes had been being made.*
Future	*I will make cakes.*	*I will be making cakes.*	*Cakes will be made.*	*Cakes will be being made.*
Future Perfect	*I will have made cakes*	*I will have been making cakes.*	*Cakes will have been made.*	*Cakes will have been being made.*

2.2 Aspect

Df	DEFINITIONS

"A category of grammar used to describe how a situation, as expressed by a verb, or by a verb in combination with its arguments, unfolds over time." (Aarts, Chalker and Weiner 2014, 35).

While tense refers to an absolute location of an event or action in time, aspect refers to how an event or action is to be viewed with respect to time. Aspect defines the temporal flow of a given action, event, or state. It indicates the speaker's perspective of time, particularly whether they see the action as finished or still in progress. The two aspects in English are therefore **perfect** and **progressive** which then expand to an unmarked, **simple aspect**, and a combination of the first two, that is **perfect progressive aspect**.

SIMPLE ASPECT

Simple aspect puts no emphasis on a completed or on-going action. Simple aspect is used to form simple past tense, simple present tense, and simple future (will + inf).

We watched the baloon slowly inflate and then take off.
She is so sure of herself, I don't know how she does it.
I will email you as soon as I have news.

PERFECT ASPECT

Perfect aspect reflects a finished, bounded action or event. It is used to form present perfect simple, past perfect simple, and future perfect simple (will have + -ed).

We've talked about this.
The shop had closed by the time we got there.
I will have finished dinner by the time my husband gets home.

PROGRESSIVE ASPECT

Progressive aspect is used to mark and on-going, unbounded action or event. It is used to form present continuous, past continuous and future continuous (will be + ing).

Shhh, the baby's sleeping.
The children were splashing around in the swimming pool.
This time tomorrow we'll be swimming in the sea.

PERFECT PROGRESSIVE ASPECT

Perfect progressive aspect is used to refer to an on-going, but then finished action or event. It is used to form present perfect continuous, past perfect continuous, and future perfect continuous (will have been + ing).

> *They've been going out for two months now.*
> *He'd been stealing the apples before the owner of the orchard arrived.*
> *By the time he gets here we'll have been waiting for almost an hour.*

2.3 Voice

English recognises the active and passive voice. The active voice means that the subject of the sentence performs the action denoted by the verb. It is the more common, unmarked voice, typically used in spoken and informal English. Certain verbs appear more frequently in the active voice (e.g. *like, love, hate, hesitate, mind, quit, reply, try, want, wonder, wish*).

The passive voice reflects the situation when the subject is being acted upon the verb. The passive is formed by the combination of the verb **be + past participle**, and in informal English also the combination of **get + past participle** (e.g. *She got married last year. He got stuck and didn't know what to say*.) Passive is used particularly in formal, written English for the following reasons:

- to **avoid the agent** when it is
  - unknown   *This book's been damaged.*
  - unimportant   *You will be introduced to the audience.*
  - obvious   *The thief was arrested.*
  - refers to people in general
    These stories have been told since the dawn of ages.
  - when we wish to avoid the agent
    Something should be done about this.

- to **emphasise the agent** by placing it at the end of the clause (*by* construction)
  This document was approved by the President.

Among the verbs that typically appear in the passive voice are *be born, based on, situated, entitled,* or *classified.*

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Identify all verb phrases and decide which <u>tense</u>, <u>aspect</u> and <u>voice</u> they are marked for.
  1. Had you been waiting long before the taxi arrived?
  2. She was arrested outside an all-night gas station.

3. I had been raised by loving parents in a secure environment.
4. Are you working on anything interesting now?
5. Socrates was quickly becoming my mentor and friend.
6. It has been difficult at times.
7. I have been travelling through Europe since June.
8. She is really getting on my nerves.
9. All the books were burnt at the stakes like witches.
10. He's being interviewed at the moment.

☑ ANSWERS

Identify all verb phrases and decide which <u>tense</u>, <u>aspect</u> and <u>voice</u> they are marked for.

1.	**Had** you **been waiting** long before the taxi **arrived**?	past perfect progressive active
		past simple active
2.	She **was arrested** outside an all-night gas station.	past simple passive
3.	I **had been raised** by loving parents in a secure environment.	
		past perfect active
4.	**Are** you **working** on anything interesting now?	present progressive active
5.	Socrates **was** quickly **becoming** my mentor and friend.	
		past progressive active
6.	It **has been difficult** at times.	present perfect active
7.	I **have been travelling** through Europe since June.	present perfect progressive active
8.	She **is** really **getting** on my nerves.	present progressive active
9.	All the books **were burnt** at the stakes like witches.	past simple passive
10.	He'**s being interviewed** at the moment.	present progressive passive

2.4 Mood

Df DEFINITIONS

"One of the formal grammatical categories into which verb forms are classified, indicating whether the clause in which the verb occurs expresses a fact, command, hypothesis, etc." (Aarts, Chalker and Weiner 2014, 256).

Mood is a grammatical feature of finite verbs, which is used to signal modality. Verbal inflections allow speaker to express their attitude to what they are saying. There are three types of mood in English.

INDICATIVE MOOD

The indicative mood is the most common type of mood. It is used to make statements and provide information (via the means of declarative sentences) or to ask questions and make inquiries (via the means of interrogative sentences).

> *Joe will pick up the boxes later today.*
> *He didn't know you'd called.*
> *Did he tell you where the man lives?*

IMPERATIVE MOOD

We use the imperative mood to give orders, make requests, and grant or deny permission. We use imperative sentences to convey imperative mood.

> *Please take those boxes and drop them off at the main office.*
> *Don't do that!*
> *Turn right at the crossroads.*

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

The subjunctive is the least frequently used mood in present-day English. We use the subjunctive in conditional clauses (e.g. *If I were you, I'd hide it. He'd let us know if he were planning to arrive late*.), in wish clauses (e.g. *If only he were here with us. I wish it were summer already*.) and in depended clauses that express a wish, possibility, suggestion, proposal, necessity, etc. after verbs *advise, ask, command, propose, suggest, recommend, request, urge*.

The subjunctive is formed by the base form of the verb in every person. Therefore, the present subjunctive is formed by dropping the –s in the 3rd person singular.

> *We suggest that Mr Beaty **move** the car out of the no parking zone.*
> *Is it important that we **be** there?*

Negative is formed by placing *not* before the base of the verb.

> *The boss insisted that Sam **not be** at the meeting.*
> *The company asked that employees **not make** personal calls during business hours.*

Passive is formed by the base of the verb *be* + past participle of the lexical verb.

> *Jake recommended that Susan **be hired** immediately.*
> *Chrisine demanded that I **be allowed** to take part in the negotiations.*

The present continuous is formed by the base of the verb *be* + ing participle.

> *It is crucial that a car **be waiting** for the boss outside when he gets here.*

The past subjunctive is indistinguishable from the past indicative, except for the verb *be*, which takes the form *were* in all persons. The past subjunctive is typically used for unreal, hypothetical situations (conditional and wish clauses).

> *My head felt as if it **were** split open.*
> *Try to imagine he **were** here.*

2.5 Modality

Df | ***DEFINITIONS***

"The semantic concept of modality is concerned with the expression of notions such as possibility, probability, necessity, likelihood, obligation, permission, and intention, typically by modal auxiliary verbs, but also by other linguistic means (e.g. modal adjectives, adverbs, and nouns)." (Aarts, Chalker and Weiner 2014, 252).

Modality is a semantic notion relating to the speaker's subjective attitude to what is being said. We use a specific type of mood (grammatical form of a sentence) to express modality (semantic aspect). One way of looking at modality is by the function of the utterance. We identify two types of modality.

EPISTEMIC MODALITY

Epistemic modality expresses various degrees of probability. It communicates the level of certainty or evidence the speaker has for their proposition. We can use modal verbs to express epistemic modality, but there are other ways of communicating it.

> *I **might regret** this later.*
> *These letters **may not have been** meant for me.*
> ***Maybe** there is something in it for me too.*
> *He **couldn't have been** more than 12.*
> ***I'm sure** she'll call tonight.*

DEONTIC MODALITY

Deontic modality expresses ability, permission, willingness, obligation, duty, or intention.

> *I **couldn't give** him what he wanted, so we went our separate ways.*
> *You **must get** a visa to enter Canada.*
> *We**'ll be able** to help you out.*
> *She **had to leave** work early yesterday.*

The same words can be used to express both epistemic and deontic modality, the meaning is distinguished from context. The difference becomes evident when the sentence is in past or when it is negative. In epistemic modality the past with modal verbs is formed by the **modal verb** + **have** + **past participle** (e.g. *You must've been tired after walking all day.),* in deontic modality the past is often expressed by means of related verbs (e.g. *He had to sell his house to pay off his debts.)*. Similarly, negation can differ in case of epistemic and deontic modality.

Epistemic	*It must be Peter.*	*It can't be Peter.*
Deontic	*I must go now.*	*I musn't / needn't / don't have to go.*

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Translate the sentences using modal verbs and decide whether they express epistemic or deontic modality.

1. Lžeš, nemohla jsi s ním mluvit, celý týden nebyl v kanceláři.
2. Musím se jí na to zeptat.
3. Taky jsme nemuseli všechno platit předem.
4. To od něj bylo pěkné, to jsi musela mít radost!
5. Bylo tam tolik kouře, že jsem nemohla dýchat.
6. Nemohu najít její telefonní číslo. Musela mi ho zapomenout dát.
7. Tak se styděl, že se na mě ani nemohl podívat.
8. Nic zlého se nestalo, ale mohl se zranit.
9. Nemuseli jsme platit, vstup byl zdarma.

ANSWERS

Translate the sentences using modal verbs and decide whether they express epistemic or deontic modality.

1. You're lying, you can't/couldn't have talked to him, he wasn't in the office the whole day.   E
2. I must ask her about it.   D
3. We needn't have paid for everything in advance.   D
4. That was nice of him, she must've been happy!   E
5. There was so much smoke there I couldn't breathe.   D
6. I can't find her phone number. She must've forgotten to give it to me.   E
7. He felt so embarrassed he couldn't even look at me.   D
8. Nothing bad happened, but he could've been hurt.   E
9. We didn't have to pay, there was a free entry.   D

2.6 Negation

Negation is twice as more common in conversation as it is in written registers. Negation can happen in a number of ways. We can use:

- **primary negative words** *no, not, neither, never, nobody, none, no one, nothing, nowhere*
- **words that form negative statements**
  few, hardly, barely, little, rarely, scarcely, seldom
- **negative prefixes** *de-, dis-, il-/im-/in-/ir-, mis-, non-, un-*
- **negative suffix** *-less*

In standard English there is usually only ***one negation*** in a sentence. There is also a tendency to express the negation as early in a sentence as possible (e.g. ~~*Anybody isn't there.*~~ *Nobody is here*). Negative sentences with a negative object or adverbial often have two ways of negation.

> *He **wasn't** anywhere yesterday.*
> *He was **nowhere** yesterday.* (less common)
>
> *You **didn't** see anything.*
> *You saw **nothing**.* (less common, emphasized)

When introducing negative ideas with verbs *think, believe, imagine, suppose,* or *except,* the negation is expressed in the main clause.

> *I **don't think** you're right.*
> *I **don't suppose** you'd like to work overtime this week.*
> *I **don't expect** him to contact me.*

The only exceptions to the rule are the verbs *hope* and *wish*.

> *I hope you **aren't** too tired.*
> *I wish I **hadn't** sent that email to Jane.*

A negative word standing on its own makes more impact than when attached to a verb. E.g. *No dogs are allowed in my house*. is more forceful than *Dogs aren't allowed in my house.* Sometimes the choice of no-/not- negation can change the meaning of an utterance. Compare for example *She's **not** a teacher.* with *She's **no** teacher.* In the first case the person has another job, in the second case she is a teacher, but not a very good one.

Double negation can be used in standard English to make a forceful affirmative (two negatives make a positive) (e.g. ***I cannot not** agree with you.* = I agree with you.) or to express ideas cautiously (e.g. The government is **not** blame**less**. = they are to blame).

Double negation can often be seen in colloquial English (e.g. *You better **not never** tell **nobody** but God. I **won't** use **no** double negatives. I **ain't never** heard of **no** licence*).

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Translate the following negative sentences.

1. Nikam nechoď.
2. Nemohli jsme nic neříct.
3. Nedovol jí s tebou takhle mluvit.
4. Myslím, že mě nemá rád.
5. Nikdo tam se mnou nikdy nemluvil.
6. Nebýval u nás dřív na návštěvě tak často.
7. Tuto knížku neprodávají nikde ve městě.
8. Nemůžeme vám nijak pomoci.
9. Tohle není neobvyklá žádost.
10. Nenechme se příliš unést.

ANSWERS

Translate the following negative sentences.

1. **Don't** go anywhere.
2. We **couldn't** say **nothing**. (double negative)
3. **Don't** let her talk to you like that.
4. I **don't** think he likes me.
5. **No one** ever talked to me there.
6. He **didn't** use to visit us so often.
7. They **don't** sell the book anywhere in town.
8. We **can't** help you in any way.
9. This is **not** an unusual request.
10. Let's **not** get / **Don't** let's get too carried away.

SUMMARY

In the second chapter you learnt about the six variations in the structure of the English verb phrase. You know that the English verb can only express present or past via inflection. You can now form the *grammatical tenses* by *combining tense, aspect,* and *voice.* You can distinguish between *mood* and *modality* and you know the difference between *indicative, imperative* and *subjunctive mood*, and between the *epistemic and deontic modality*. You can also form *negation* in sentence.

3 WORD ORDER

QUICK OVERVIEW

The third chapter deals with the basic word order in the English sentence. It compares the Czech and English word order and points out the differences between the two languages. It further introduces the syntactic devices we use to change the standard word order (fronting, S-V inversion, existential there clauses, dislocation, clefting).

AIMS

In this chapter you will

- learn about the basic word order in English
- learn about reasons why the basic word order is changed
- learn to identify and use fronting
- learn to identify and use S-V inversion
- learn to identify and use existential *there* clauses
- learn to distinguish dislocation from clefting

KEYWORDS

basic word order, fronting, S-V inversion, existential *there* clauses, dislocation, clefting

3.1 Basic word order

The basic word order in English is Subject – Verb – Object – Adverbial of manner – Adverbial of place – Adverbial of time, the so called SVOMPT as demonstrated below.

SUBJECT	VERB	OBJECT	MANNER	PLACE	TIME
		▲		▼	
	Oi	Od Oprep		ADVERBIAL	

Compared to Czech, the English word order is much more set, which is given by the fact that in English grammatical relations are expressed through word order, while Czech uses the means of declination and conjugation. However, just as the Czech word order is not completely free, the English word order is not completely rigid. Within the set standard order, we can adapt clauses and move phrases around to fit the requirements of communication.

The major factors that influence word order are information flow, focus end emphasis, weight, and contrast. There is a strong tendency to start a sentence with old information and work our way towards new information. This logical distribution helps the receiver build on what they already know as well as remember the new information more easily as it was the last thing mentioned. This typical order of information from old to new is called the ***information flow***.

Every clause has at least one point of ***focus***, the part of sentence which is the most prominent. Typically the focus falls on the last item in the clause – end-focus. If we wish to stress an element that naturally falls at the end of the clause, we can move it to the beginning. That way we put more ***emphasis*** on it.

Clause elements differ in their size and complexity, or in other words they differ in ***weight***. A complex noun phrase is heavier than a basic noun phrase. Supporting the principle of information flow, we tend to put the heavier elements at the end of the clause.

Contrast occurs when the focused part is highlighted to show its difference from another element in the clause (e.g. *It's not **what** you say, it's **how** you say it that I don't like.)*

The following sub-chapters introduce the syntactic devices that allow a change of word order in English. They help us build a coherent text and facilitate the process of understanding. There is one more device that allows us to change the word order that will not be mentioned here, because we talked about it in the previous chapter – the passive voice.

3.2 Fronting

Fronting is a technique that involves taking an element that typically follows the verb and placing it at the beginning of the sentence. We can front:

- objects   ***This** I'll never understand.*
        ***Why he wanted to know this** I have no idea.*
- adverbials   ***Ten years** we've lived here.*
- non-finite clauses   ***Enclosed** you will find a letter of complaint.*
- predicates   ***Far more serious were** the head injuries.*

3.3 Subject-verb inversion

Subject-verb inversion involves placing the verb before the subject. Inversion can take place:

- after initial place and time adverbials (a combination of fronting and inversion)
    Here comes the first question.
    Not once did he look at me during his entire speech.
- after direct speech
    "Don't say anything," said Tom.
- in conditional clauses
    Should you change your mind, please let us know.
    Had he known what to say, he would've answered.
- after negative and restrictive opening elements (*never, hardly, rarely, seldom, little, scarcely*)
    Never have I heard such nonsense.
    Little did she know what was about to unfold.
- to agree with positive statements (so + auxiliary verb + subject)
    I'm hungry. – So am I.
    We saw them last night. – So did we.
- to agree with negative statements (neither/nor + auxiliary verb + subject)
    He hasn't heard about it yet. – Neither have I.
    Mary can't go there today. – Neither can we.

3.4 Existential *there* clauses

Existential there construction is used to state the existence or occurrence of something. It is a commonplace phrase we use when we introduce new information presented in the noun phrase. The standard structure is the introductory *there is/are* construction followed by a noun phrase and then other elements (typically an adverbial).

There's	*a painting*	*on the wall next to the door.*
There were	*many visitors*	*in the castle gardens.*

The existential *there* is a function word that is lexically empty. Its job is to move the key element towards the end of the sentence and thus give it more weight.

The most typical verb used in the *there* construction is the verb *be*, but the verbs *come, emerge, follow,* or *remain* are also possible.

There followed an awkward silence.
There remained only a ruin of the once opulent castle.
Then there came a time when astronomy escaped from the confines of astrology.

3.5 Dislocation

   Dislocation is a word-order changing technique that involves breaking up a clause-like structure into two separate units. A definite noun phrase is placed at one end of the clause and then repeated with an empty pronoun in the centre of the clause.

It's a lovely little shop.	→	*This little shop **it**'s lovely.*
Where is that box of chocolates?	→	*That box of chocolates, where is **it**?*
I've weeded the garden.	→	*The garden, I've weeded **it**.*

3.6 Clefting

   Clefting is a technique similar to dislocation, but for clefting the clause is broken into two simple clauses, each with its own verb. Cleft sentences help us focus on a certain part of a sentence to draw attention to the part of the sentence we want to emphasize. There are two types of clefting: ***it-cleft*** shifts the focus on the beginning of the clause, ***wh-cleft*** puts emphasis on the end of the clause.

- it-cleft   *It's a real man I want.*
                    It was Luke who ate the last piece of pizza.
                    That was my pencil you took.
- wh-cleft   *What I want is a real man.*
                    All I want for Christmas is you.
                    The one thing I want is some peace and quiet.

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Make sentences by putting the words in the most natural order .

1. talking / was / her / in / office / quietly / she / on the phone
2. new / the / system / at first / worked / computer / badly / very
3. job / I / have / yet / better / not / a / found
4. out / has / files / sorted / all / he / already / those
5. clearly / he / never / explain / very / do / can / to / things / how
6. the meetings / usually / now / them / is running / Tony / on time / don't start
7. morning / check / how many / we / have / every / I / to / have received / exactly / orders
8. date / out / model / already / years / is / of / this
9. component / sell / tried / cheap / he / us / Korean / to / a
10. often / have / at about / a cup / three o'clock / of tea / they / at the hotel / in the afternoon
11. California / the / are relocating / plant / production / they / to / whole / next year
12. always / at nine / out of the garage / in the morning / gets / his / o'clock / car / he

ANSWERS

Make sentences by putting the words in the most natural order .

1. She was in her office quietly talking on the phone.
   She was quietly talking on the phone in her office.
2. (At first) The new computer system worked badly at first.
3. I have not found a better job yet.
4. He has already sorted out all those files.
5. He can never explain very clearly how to do things.
6. The meeting usually don't start on time now Tony is running them.
7. (Every morning) I have to check (every morning) exactly how many orders we have received (every morning).
8. This model is already years out of date.
9. He tried to sell us a cheap Korean component.
10. We often have a cup of tea at the hotel at three o'clock in the afternoon.
11. (Next year) They are relocating the whole plant production to California next year.
12. He always gets his car out of the garage at nine o'clock in the morning.

SUMMARY

In the third chapter you learnt about the ***basic word order*** in English sentences. You have learnt that word order plays a different role in Czech than it does in English. You learnt the reasons why we might want to change the word order and then you discovered six syntactic devices we use to change the standard word order (***fronting, S-V inversion, existential there clauses, dislocation, clefting***).

4 GRAMMAR OF THE CLAUSE

QUICK OVERVIEW

The fourth chapter looks at the grammar of the clause. It looks at the issue of subject-verb concord, that is the way subject and verb match each other in terms of number and person. The chapter further introduces different types of questions and imperatives, presents different structures of exclamative clauses, finite clauses, non-finite clauses, and verbless clauses.

AIMS

In this chapter you will

- learn to match subject with the verb in a sentence
- learn to name different types of questions
- learn about different types of imperatives
- learn about the structure of exclamatives
- learn about finite and non-finite clauses
- learn about verbless questions

KEYWORDS

subject-verb concord, questions, imperatives, exclamatives, finite clauses, non-finite clauses, verbless clauses

4.1 Subject-verb concord

DEFINITIONS

Concord is a "morphosyntactic phenomenon whereby two (or more) elements in a clause or sentence are harmonized in terms of the shape they take, e.g. with regard to person, number, or gender". (Aarts, Chalker and Weiner 2014, 19).

Concord (or agreement) refers to the situation when the subject and verb of the sentence agree with each other in terms of number and person. The general rule is for the verb to match the subject.

Concord is only apparent in finite verbs, which are marked for tense and for person. There is no visible concord in non-finite verbs, modal auxiliaries, and in imperative and subjunctive clauses.

Although the rules of S-V concord are easy to state, they are not always easy to apply. Difficulties arise because singular and plural can be understood either in terms of form or in terms of meaning; we talk about grammatical and notional concord. ***Grammatical concord*** is the simple principle of a singular verb matching a singular subject, and a plural verb matching a plural subject (e.g. *A girl was sitting at the water's edge. Two girls were sitting at the water's edge.*) ***Notional concord***, on the other hand, is governed by meaning rather than form, and so it is possible for a singular verb to go with a plural subject, e.g. when the subject is seen as one unit (*Mushrooms cooked in cream and herbs is my favourite here.*).

UNCOUNTABLE NOUNS WITH PLURAL FORM → SINGULAR

Uncountable nouns that have plural form (e.g. *diabetes, mumps, measles, linguistics, mathematics, athletics, bowls, billiards, news*) mostly take singular verb. Nouns referring to academic disciplines (e.g. *statistics, physics, economics*) take a plural verb when used in general terms.

> *No news is good news.*
> *Diabetes is an incurable disease.*
> *Statistics **was** always my worst subject at school.*
> *Statistics **are** able to prove anything you want them to.*

COLLECTIVE NOUNS → PLURAL

There is a group of collective nouns that have a singular form but take a plural verb. These are for example *police, cattle, clergy, people, staff.*

> *The police are looking for the suspects.*
> *Most cattle are fattened for slaughter.*

COLLECTIVE NOUNS

Other collective nouns (e.g. *audience, class, committee, crowd, family, government, group, population, team, university*) can take either singular or plural verb, depending on what the speakers wants to express. When they view the noun as one unit, they use a singular verb, when they see it more as a group of individuals, they can choose a plural verb (e.g. *The government **is/are** discussing the proposal*).

MEASUREMENTS, AMOUNTS, QUANTITIES → SINGULAR

Measurements, amounts and quantities are seen as one item and always take a singular verb (e.g. *The fifty pounds he gave her was soon spent. Ten miles is too far to walk*).

TITLES OF BOOKS, QUOTATIONS, COLLOCATIONS → SINGULAR

Titles of books, quotations, or collocations are seen as one item and as such they take a singular verb. Collections of stories can also take plural.

> *The Grapes of Wrath is Steinbeck's most mature work.*
> *"Senior citizens" means people over sixty.*
> *The Canterbury Tales **is/are** Chaucer's masterpiece.*

SUBJECTS WITH TWO OR MORE ITEMS JOINED BY *AND*

Phrases joined by *and* are typically followed by plural (e.g. *Peter and Jane and moving back to London.*), but can also take singular when we think of them as a single item (e.g. *Fish and chips is a common take-away food.*).

SUBJECTS JOINED BY OR, NOR

If the subjects are both singular, the verb is singular (e.g. *Julia or Helen is responsible for baking the birthday cake.*). When the subjects are plural, so is the verb (e.g. *Roses or geraniums are going to be planted here.*). If one subject is plural and the other singular, the verb is matched with the nearer noun (e.g. *Does Joe or his friends want some pizza? Do the children or Joe wants some pizza?*).

A/THE MAJORITY → PLURAL

Both *a majority* and *the majority* take plural (e.g. The majority of students were studying in the computer lab.).

A/THE NUMBER

The number takes a singular verb, *a number* takes a plural verb (e.g. The number of failed students has decreased this year. A number of students are being failed this year.)

THERE CONSTRUCTION

In written English we follow the rules of grammatical concord, but in spoken and colloquial English where the verb is contracted, singular is more common. There's a similar tendency to use singular with *here's, how's,* and *where's.*

> *Here's apples if you want one.*
> *Where's your shoes?*

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Choose the correct form of the verb that agrees with the subject.

1. Annie and her brothers is/are at school.
2. Either my mother or my father is/are coming to the meeting.
3. Diabetes is/are a medical condition in which someone has too much sugar in their blood.
4. The movie, including all the previews, takes/take about two hours to watch.
5. *The Wings of the Dove* is/are one of the novels written by Henry James.
6. Is/are the news on at five or six?
7. Mathematics is/are John's favourite subject.
8. Is/are the tweezers in this drawer?
9. Eight dollars is/are the price of a movie these days.
10. Bread and butter is/are our daily food.
11. The majority of the students was/were studying in the computer lab.
12. All of the pie is gone/are gone.
13. All of the cookies is gone/are gone.
14. "Homo sapiens' is/are often misspelled.
15. The number of employees has/have decreased this year.
16. A number of employees is/are being fired this year.
17. Two and two is/are four.
18. The staff in the hospital was/were very good.
19. Neither of the women has/have a reliable car.

ANSWERS

Choose the correct form of the verb that agrees with the subject.

1. Annie and her brothers is/**are** at school.
2. Either my mother or my father **is**/are coming to the meeting.
3. Diabetes **is**/are a medical condition in which someone has too much sugar in their blood.
4. The movie, including all the previews, **takes**/take about two hours to watch.
5. *The Wings of the Dove* **is**/are one of the novels written by Henry James.
6. **Is**/are the news on at five or six?
7. Mathematics **is**/are John's favourite subject.
8. Is/**are** the tweezers in this drawer?
9. Eight dollars **is**/are the price of a movie these days.
10. Bread and butter **is**/are our daily food.
11. The majority of the students was/**were** studying in the computer lab.
12. All of the pie **is gone**/are gone.
13. All of the cookies is gone/**are gone**.
14. "Homo sapiens' **is**/are often misspelled.
15. The number of employees **has**/have decreased this year.

16. A number of employees is/**are** being fired this year.
17. Two and two **is**/are four.
18. The staff in the hospital was/**were** very good.
19. Neither of the women **has**/have a reliable car.

4.2 Interrogative clauses

Interrogative clauses are typically marked by inversion of the subject and verb. In writing, interrogatives end with a question mark, in speech the intonation is sometimes falling and sometimes rising, depending on the type of question.

WH- QUESTIONS

Wh- questions are the most common type of questions in English. Their job is to elicit missing information, although they can also serve other functions, such as a suggestion (*Why don't we stay in for a change?*) or an exclamation (*Who do you think you are?*). They are called wh- questions because they begin with a wh- word (*who, what, where, when, why, which, how*). They cannot be answered with a simple 'yes' or 'no', a full answer needs to be provided to answer this type of question. The intonation is falling. Who-questions can be subject questions (e.g. *Who saw you*?) or object questions (e.g. *Who did you see*?).

YES-NO QUESTIONS

We use yes-no questions to ask whether a proposition is true or false. These questions expect a 'yes' or 'no' answer. The intonation is rising. Just like who- questions, yes-no questions are used for other purposes than obtaining information, they can be meant as an exclamation (*Isn't that lovely? Didn't I tell you not to go there?*), a directive (*Can we go now*?), or we can use them to back-channel (*She's new in town. – Oh, is she?*).

QUESTIONS TAGS

Question tags are very popular in English, especially as a means to initiate conversation and elicit agreement. If that is the case, the intonation is falling. When we use question tag as a real question that requires an answer, the intonation is rising.

Question tags are short questions put at the end of the sentence. When the sentence is positive, the question tag is negative and vice versa.

> *He's a doctor, isn't he?*
> *You work in a bank, don't you?*
> *You haven't met Peter yet, have you?*
> *This isn't working, is it?*

Sometimes a positive-positive structure is used when the purpose of the question is to seek confirmation (*She likes vanilla ice cream, does she?*).

We use auxiliary verbs in question tags. In sentences with *let's* the question tag is *shall* (e.g. *Let's get out of here, shall we*?). With imperatives, both positive and negative the question tag is usually *will you?* (but also *can't you?* or *would you?*). After *I am* the tag is *aren't I?,* with *there is/are* constructions, the there is repeated in the question tag (e.g. *There's no more milk left, is there?*).

ALTERNATIVE QUESTIONS

Alternative questions offer a choice between two or more items contained in the question, which a linked by *or* (e.g. *Do we turn left or right here? Would you like tea, coffee, or mineral water?*).

NEGATIVE YES-NO QUESTIONS

In English negative questions are used to express surprise (e.g. *Isn't she your sister? =* I thought she were your sister), unlike in Czech were we use them to make our request more polite. E.g. the *Czech Nevíte, kolik je hodin?* translated as *Don't you know what the time is?* comes across as rather rude. Instead, English uses *Could/Would you tell me the time? Do you happen to know the time?*

DECLARATIVE QUESTIONS

Declarative questions have a S-V structure with a question mark and rising intonation. They are used to express surprise and to back-channel, that is to show the speaker we are listening and paying attention to what they are saying (e.g. *And then he told me about his divorce. – He told you about it?*).

NON-FINITE QUESTIONS

Non-finite questions have non-finite verbs in them (e.g. *To be or not to be?*).

VERBLESS QUESTIONS

Verbless questions do not include verbs at all (e.g. *What about that book?*).

ELIDED QUESTIONS

Elided questions have a part of the sentence omitted. This can be done because the rest of the question can be easily recovered from context (e.g. *(Would you like) Anything else? What (do you want)? That (is) all?*).

Translate the following questions.

1. Kdo mi chce pomoci?
2. Copak ty nevíš, kde bydlí?
3. K čemu je to dobré?
4. Koho tady znáš?
5. Nemohl byste nám pomoct?
6. Na co se díváte?
7. Pro kolik jste jich poslal?
8. Co mu mám říct?
9. Komu jste to dali?
10. Kdo tu bydlí?

ANSWERS

Translate the following questions.

1. Who wants to help me?
2. Don't you know where he lives?
3. What is it good for?
4. Who do you know here?
5. Could/would you help us?
6. What are you looking at?
7. How many did you send for?
8. What am I to tell him? / What should I tell him?
9. Who did you give it to?
10. Who lives here?

4.3 Imperative clauses

Imperative clauses can generally be identified by a plain form of the verb, omission of the 2nd person subject, and the used of auxiliary *do* in negation.

> *Have fun tonight.*
> *Stop talking and open your books.*
> *Don't touch that!*

However, there are other kinds of imperative clauses that do not match the aforementioned definition.

- **imperative with subject**
  - used to emphasize   *You listen to me now!*
  - use to distinguish   *You stay here and you come with me.*
- **negative imperatives with subject pronoun**

    Don't you worry about me.

- **imperative with let**
  - 1st person imperative, which is not directed at other people only, but includes the speaker as well

    Let's go wild!
    Let's not go there. Don't lets go there.

- **imperative with modal verbs**
  - include subject   *You must see it.*

    You can't talk to him like that.

- **verbless imperative**   *Not like that! Over here!*

Imperatives typically serve the purpose of giving orders, but they can have other functions too.

- invitation   *Take another cookie. Do sit down.*
- advice   *Keep all your belonging with you at all times.*
- permission   *Take whatever you want. Use as much paper as you need.*
- wish   *Have a great holiday. Enjoy the party.*

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Translate the sentences into English.
1. Pojďme mu nic neříct.
2. Nemluvte u jídla.
3. To nesmíte!
4. Tudy ne.
5. Podrž mi to.

ANSWERS

Translate the sentences into English.
1. Let's not tell him anything. / Don't let's tell him anything.
2. Don't speak while eating.
3. You can't do that!

4. Not this way!
5. Hold it for me.

4.4 Exclamative clauses

Exclamative clauses usually have one of the following structures:

- What + noun phrase + subject + verb + (other elements)
   What a great idea that is!
   What a fool I've been!
- How + adjective / adverb + subject + verb + (other elements)
   How quickly she made herself comfortable here.
   How cute the baby is!

Other sentence types (declarative, interrogative, imperative) can fulfil the same function as exclamatives, that is to express strong emotion, but they are not exclamative sentence types (e.g. *That hurts! Who the hell are you? Don't be so stupid!*).

4.5 Finite vs non-finite clauses

Finite clauses contain a verb inflected for tense and for person. They typically have a subject (except most imperatives) and can be independent (main) as well as dependent (subordinate) clauses.

> *He's been living on his own ever since his wife died.*
> *We could just stay in and order pizza for dinner.*
> *They haven't been in touch with us in ages.*

Non-finite clauses contain a lexical verb that does not indicate tense or person. Non-finite clauses are typically subordinate and they combine with finite clauses in complex or complex-compound sentences. Reference to time, person, and number are easily deduced from context or information in the finite clause. There are four types of non-finite clauses:

- **to-infinitive clauses**   *He gave up his job to travel the world.*
                    I'd always wanted to visit Australia.
- **bare infinitive clauses**   *All I did was tell him the truth.*
                    She made me tidy up the room.
- **-ing participle clauses**   *Not having anyone to talk to, he left the party early.*
                    Feeling sick, she sat down in the shade.
- **-ed participle clauses**   *Taken three times a day, these pills should help.*
                    Tired from working all day, she went for a walk.

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Underline the non-finite clauses in the sentences.
1. After having spent six hours at the hospital, they eventually came home.
2. There was still one last task for him to achieve.
3. He went to college worried about his future.
4. Deprived of oxygen, plants will quickly die.
5. Harry was proud to have served in the army.

ANSWERS

Underline the non-finite clauses in the sentences.
1. <u>After having spent six hours at the hospital</u>, they eventually came home.
2. There was still one last task <u>for him to achieve</u>.
3. He went to college <u>worried about his future</u>.
4. <u>Deprived of oxygen</u>, plants will quickly die.
5. Harry was proud <u>to have served in the army</u>.

4.6 Verbless clauses

Verbless clauses are elliptical structures without verbs and often even subjects. They are considered clauses because they are as functional as finite or non-finite clauses. The verb has been omitted, but it can be easily recovered by expanding the sentence to its full form.

When (you are) in trouble, don't hesitate to ask for help.
Though (he were) old, he managed by himself.

SUMMARY

In the fourth chapter you learnt about the grammar of the clause. You practised ***subject-verb concord***, learnt about different types of ***interrogative clauses*** and ***imperative clauses***. You can distinguish ***exclamative clauses*** from other types of clauses that fulfil the same function. You can recognise and identify ***finite clauses, non-finite clauses,*** and ***verbless clauses.***

5 COORDINATION AND SUBORDINATION

QUICK OVERVIEW

The fifth chapter briefly introduces the topic of coordination and subordination, and then it presents the types of relative clauses both from the point of view of place in the sentence, as well as type. The second part of the chapter introduces thirteen types of adverbial clauses.

AIMS

In this chapter you will

- learn about coordination and subordination
- learn about different types of relative clauses
- learn to recognise and name different types of adverbial clauses

KEYWORDS

coordination, subordination, relative clauses, adverbial clauses

5.1 Coordination and subordination

Clause can be joined together to form sentences. There are two levels or relationship between clauses in the sentences. ***Coordination*** means joining two related ideas of equal importance into one sentence. Two coordinate clauses can be joined by a simple comma, or by one of the coordinating conjunctions (*for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so*).

> *Cycling class is a tough workout, but I still go three times a week.*
> *Betty loves animals, so she volunteers in the local shelter.*
> *Yesterday I bought eggs and milk, and today I'm baking a cake.*

Two subordinate clauses can be joined by one of the subordinating conjunctions.

Subordination means joining two (or more) sentences together where one idea is less important than the other. Subordinate sentences have one main clause and at least one subordinate clause. The main (independent) clauses can stand on their own without being joined to another clause. The subordinate (dependent) clauses have to be joined to the main clause, they depend on it and cannot stand on their own. Typical conjunctions joining the subordinate clauses to the main clauses are *when, after, once, since, unless, before, because, where, as soon as, while, even if, although*, etc.

There are two main types of subordinate clauses – relative clauses and adverbial clauses.

5.2 Relative clauses

Relative clauses are subordinate clauses that provide more information about the main clause. Depending on how vital the information in the subordinate clause is for the meaning of the main clause, we identify defining relative clauses and non-defining relative clauses.

5.2.1 DEFINING RELATIVE CLAUSES

Defining relative clauses define the subject or the object in the main clause. The information in the subordinate clause is necessary for a complete identification of the information in the main clause.

> *I like that painting that hangs in the living room above the sofa.*
> *Students who study hard will do well in my class.*
> *Are you reading the the book which I lent you last week?*
> *The woman who(m) you called is my friend.*

We use the relative pronouns *who* and *that* to refer to people, *which* or *that* to refer to things, and *where* or *preposition + which* to refer to places. When the relative clause defines the object of the sentence, no relative pronoun is necessary.

Table 10: Relative pronouns used in defining clauses

	Person	**Thing**	**Place**
Subject	*who / that*	*which / that*	*where / prep+which*
Object	*who(m) / that / θ*	*which / that / θ*	*where / prep+which / θ*

> *This is the film which / that / θ I told you about.*
> *Let me tell you about the problem which / that / θ we're dealing with here.*
> *This is the house where / in which I grew up. This is the house θ I grew up **in**.*

There are no commas separating the main clause from the subordinate clause in defining relative clauses.

5.2.2 NON-DEFINING RELATIVE CLAUSES

Non-defining relative clauses provide additional information which is not necessary for the sentence to convey a complete thought. Subordinate non-defining clauses do not define the main clauses in the relative sentences. The relative pronouns used are *who(m)* for people and *which* for things. We do not use the relative pronoun *that* in non-defining clauses, and we cannot omit the relative pronoun either. Commas are used to separate the main clause from the subordinate clause.

Table 11: Relative pronouns used in non-defining clauses

	Person	**Thing**
Subject	*who*	*which*
Object	*who(m)*	*which*

Non-defining relative clauses can be either embedded, that is inserted in the middle of the main clause, in which case they refer only to the noun phrase in the sentence, or they can refer to the whole sentence, in which case they are placed at the end of the sentence.

We'll ask Joseph, who is the oldest in the family, to say a few words.
The Tower of London, which used to be a prison, is a museum now.
He agreed to spend the night, which surprised us all.

5.3 Adverbial clauses

Adverbial clauses act as modifiers of the main clause. They specify circumstances such as time, place, cause and reason, result, purpose, preference, or condition.

5.3.1 CLAUSES OF TIME

Adverbial clauses of time say when something happens by referring to a period of time. Typical conjunctions are *when, after, as soon as, before, once, since, until, till,* or *while*. The question we ask is *when?* There is no *will* in the subordinate clause, only the main clause, with the exception of indirect speech and indirect questions.

I'll call you as soon as I have more information.
I always take bath before I go to bed.
Will you wat here until I'm ready?

5.3.2 CLAUSES OF PLACE

Adverbial clauses of place tell us the location or position of someone or something. Typical conjunctions are *where, whenever, wherever*, but also *when, once, until*. We ask *where?*

Everybody knew where I grew up.
Wherever he went, DaVinci always brought Mona Lisa with him.
Turn left when you reach the old millhouse.

5.3.3 CLAUSES OF CAUSE AND REASON

Adverbial clauses of cause and reason indicate the reason for an activity or event. Typical conjunctions are *because, since, as, for, given.* We ask the question *why?* to identify this kind of adverbial clauses.

The picture came out badly because the light was poor.
Since I can spare only a few minutes, please be brief with your presentation.
As he was not at home, I left a message with his mother.

5.3.4 CLAUSE OF PURPOSE

Adverbial clauses of purpose indicate the purpose of an action. We ask the same question as when identifying the clauses of cause and reason, that is *why?* and also *for what purpose?*, but the conjunctions are different – we use *to, in order to, so that, so as to.*

I took my shoes off so as not to diry the carpet.
John popped out in the morning to get milk and the papers.
Charlie was whispering so as not to disturb the other passengers.

5.3.5 RESULT CLAUSES

Adverbial clauses of result indicate the result of an action or situation. Result clauses are introduced by the conjunctions *so* or *so that*.

The lecture was boring, so some of the students started to fall asleep.
Roy's up in Manchester tomorro, so he won't be joining us for dinner.
He bought a car so that he was more independent.

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Identify the adverbial clauses (time, place, cause & reason, purpose, result).

1. I'm studying hard because I want to pass my exam.
2. When she called, he had already eaten lunch.
3. She took a computer course so that she could get a better job.
4. The river continues winding until it reaches a large lake.
5. They had to leave early since their train left at 8.30.
6. She began cooking while I was finishing my homework.
7. He opened the window so as to let some fresh air in.
8. I've forgotten my password, so I can't read my email.

9. Wherever there are computers, there is Microsoft software.
10. Once ashore, the boat was thoroughly inspected.
11. She supported him so that he wouldn't fall.
12. She was so lovely that everyone in class was in love with her.

☑ **ANSWERS**

Identify the adverbial clauses (time, place, cause & reason, purpose, result).

1. I'm studying hard because I want to pass my exam.	cause & reason
2. When she called, he had already eaten lunch.	time
3. She took a computer course so that she could get a better job.	purpose
4. The river continues winding until it reaches a large lake.	place
5. They had to leave early since their train left at 8.30.	cause & reason
6. She began cooking while I was finishing my homework.	time
7. He opened the window so as to let some fresh air in.	purpose
8. I've forgotten my password, so I can't read my email.	result
9. Wherever there are computers, there is Microsoft software.	place
10. Once ashore, the boat was thoroughly inspected.	time
11. She supported him so that he wouldn't fall.	purpose
12. She was so lovely that everyone in class was in love with her.	result

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5.3.6 CLAUSES OF CONTRAST

Adverbial clauses of contrast link two ideas that contrast with each other. These clauses put into contrast similar aspects of two different people, things, or situations. Typical conjunctions introducing clauses of contrast are *whereas, while, whilst, though,* or *although.*

> *Mary prefers tea while Peter likes coffee more.*
> *The south of England is rather flat, whilst the north is hilly.*
> *Even though this is a university city, you can see many elderly people here.*

5.3.7 CONCESSIVE CLAUSES

Concessive clauses also link two contrasting ideas together and they employ the same conjunctions as. Concessive clauses differ from clauses of contrast in the way they contrast two different aspects of the same person, thing or situation.

> *Although she understands English, she can't speak it.*
> *Sarah is a company director in spite of being only 26.*

Despite knowing how to cook, she said she didn't.

5.3.8 CLAUSES OF SIMILARITY AND COMPARISON

Clauses of similarity and comparison state comparison of a skill, size, amount, etc. Typical conjunctions are *as ... as, than, as, as if*.

> *He looked as if he'd seen a ghost.*
> *Johan can speak as fluently as his teacher.*

5.3.9 CLAUSES OF PROPORTION

Adverbial clauses of proportion involve some kind of comparison or a changing ratio. They may be introduced by the conjunction *as ...(so)*, or the construction *the ... the*.

> *As he got older, (so) his health deteriorated.*
> *The harder he worked, the easier it all seemed.*
> *You get more tolerant of other people as you get older.*

5.3.10 CLAUSES OF PREFERENCE

Clauses of preference indicate which option the speaker prefers. Typical conjunctions introducing this type of adverbial clauses are *rather than* or *sooner than.*

> *We want to buy it directly rather than through an agent.*
> *They'll fight to finish sooner than surrender.*

5.3.11 CLAUSES OF EXCEPTION

Adverbial clauses of exception usually state an exception that prevented a certain situation from happening or a statement to be true or complete. Typical conjunctions are *except that, only, but that, save that*.

> *She didn't do anything, except water the plants.*
> *I would've called you, only I didn't have your number.*

5.3.12 COMMENT CLAUSES

Comment clauses represent a separate tone unit. They can stand at the end of a clause or be placed in the initial position. They communicate the speaker's personal take on things. They are always separated from the main clause by a comma.

> *I don't know what to think about this, to be honest.*
> *As you know, I won't be here next week.*
> *Speaking as a layman, I don't think plastic straws are bad for the environment.*

5.3.13   CONDITIONAL CLAUSES

Conditional clauses express either real or unreal condition in the future, present or the past.

REAL (OPEN) CONDITIONS

- in the future   (1st conditional)
  If you don't sit properly, you'll get backache.
  at present   (0 conditional)
  If you're getting backache, you're not sitting properly.
- in the past   (mixed conditional)
  If you got backache, you must've been slouching.

UNREAL (HYPOTHETICAL) CONDITIONS

- at present   (2nd conditional)
  I'd go with you if I didn't have to work. If I were you, I'd help him.
- in the past   (3rd conditional)
  Tessa would've been furious if she'd heard him say that.

The most frequently used conjunctions in conditional clauses are the conjunctions *if* and *unless*. However, other conjunctions are also possible, such as *provided that, providing that, as long as, so long as, on condition that, supposing, assuming, but for, in case of,* or *lest*.

> *As long as it doesn't rain, we'll have a great time.*
> *I'll take an umbrella with me in case it rains.*
> *Assuming we don't sell the house, we can still move.*

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Identify the adverbial clauses (concessive, contrast, similarity and comparison, proportion, exception, comment, and condition).

1. He bought me a lovely gift, although he can't really afford it.
2. Provided he feels fine, he can go back to work.
3. I think of him all the time while he doesn't even know me.
4. He ran as if ghosts were chasing him.
5. As prices rose, the demand for higher salaries became more intense.
6. I'm happy she's moved out, to be perfectly honest.
7. Though he is not perfect, she is crazy about him.
8. They didn't speak to us except for answering our questions.
9. Even though he worked hard, he failed the final exam.
10. Well, speaking as a journalist, I'm dismayed by the violence in the media.
11. While I don't agree with her, I can understand her viewpoint.

12. It seems as if the day would never end.
13. The more she thought about it, the less she liked it.
14. Unless somebody comes up with something, we're screwed.

ANSWERS

Identify the adverbial clauses (concessive, contrast, similarity and comparison, proportion, exception, comment, and condition).

1.	He bought me a lovely gift, although he can't really afford it.	concessive
2.	Provided he feels fine, he can go back to work.	condition
3.	I think of him all the time while he doesn't even know me.	contrast
4.	He ran as if ghosts were chasing him.	similarity
5.	As prices rose, the demand for higher salaries became more intense.	proportion
6.	I'm happy she's moved out, to be perfectly honest.	comment
7.	Though he is not perfect, she is crazy about him.	contrast
8.	They didn't speak to us except for answering our questions.	exception
9.	Even though he worked hard, he failed the final exam.	concessive
10.	Well, speaking as a journalist, I'm dismayed by the violence in the media.	comment
11.	While I don't agree with her, I can understand her viewpoint.	concessive
12.	It seems as if the day would never end.	similarity
13.	The more she thought about it, the less she liked it.	proportion
14.	Unless somebody comes up with something, we're screwed.	condition

SUMMARY

In the fifth chapter you learnt about ***coordination*** and ***subordination***. You can now differentiate between clauses of the same quality and those dependent on the main clause. You have learnt to recognise the different types of ***relative clauses*** as well as all adverbial clauses. You know the difference between defining and non-defining relative clauses and you know which questions to ask to identify the ***adverbial clauses***.

6 PUNCTUATION AND CAPITALIZATION

👁 *QUICK OVERVIEW*

The last chapter introduces the rules of punctuation and capitalization in English. It lists the most common punctuation marks and shows where and how they are used, then it summarizes the rules of capitalization in English.

⊕ *AIMS*

In this chapter you will

- learn to name and use punctuation marks
- learn which words are capitalized in English

🔑 *KEYWORDS*

punctuation, capitalization

6.1 Punctuation

In speaking, we use pauses and the pitch of the voice to communicate an end of a sentence, a question, etc. In writing, this role is played by punctuation marks.

. FULL STOP / PERIOD

We use full stop at the end of declarative sentences, imperative sentences, reported questions, some abbreviations (*a.m., Washington, D.C.*), in websites, email addresses, and in decimal numbers. When used at the end of sentences, there is no space between the last letter and the full stop, but there is a space before the first letter of the next sentence. If an abbreviation with a full stop falls at the end of a sentence, we do not use another full stop (e.g. *Bring your pens pencils, rulers, etc. I'll pick you up at 8 a.m.*).

? QUESTION MARK / INTERROGATION POINT

Question mark is used at the end of direct and indirect questions, tag questions, and rhetorical questions (e.g. *What are you doing? Do you know where he's going? He's a bit*

bonkers, isn't he?). There are no questions marks in reported questions (e.g. *He wanted to know where we were going. He asked me if I knew his address*.)

! EXCLAMATION MARK / EXCLAMATION POINT

We use exclamation mark at the end of an emphatic declaration, interjection (e.g. *Ha! Whoops!*), or in imperatives. Exclamations marks can also be put in brackets and inserted in a sentence to emphasise not a whole sentence, but a specific word (e.g. *And he asked me for two (!) thousand.*). In academic register or formal register, exclamation mark is virtually nonexistent.

, COMMA

Commas are used for many things. The following table lists the most common functions with examples.

Table 12: The uses of comma

Rule	Example
We use comma to separate three or more items in a series. Comma before *and* is optional. We call it *serial comma* or *Oxford comma*.	*He hit the ball, dropped the bat(,) and ran to first base.*
We can (but do not have to) use commas in compound clauses before the coordinators.	*I was tired(,) but I kept working.*
We use commas to set off subordinate clauses. There is no need to use a comma before the subordinating conjuction.	*When I get home, I'll call you.* *I'll call you when I get home.*
We use comma to set off introductory elements.	*Fortunately, she was able to help us.* *On the one hand, I think the price is fair.*
Commas set off parenthetical elements.	*I'm telling you, Jane, I couldn't be more surprised.*
We use commas to separate coordinate adjectives.	*We live an a very old, run-down house.*
We use commas to set off quoted elements from the rest of the sentence.	*"The question is," said Alice, "whether you can make words mean so many things."*
Commas can be used to set off phrases that express contrast.	*It was her money, not her charm, that attracted him.*
Commas help us avoid confusion.	*Ouside, the lawn was cluttered with hundreds of broken branches.*
We use commas to separate names and titles.	*David Crystal, Professor of English*
Commas can be used in numbers to separate thousands.	*1,500,000*
Commas can be used in dates to separate days from years.	*July 4, 1776 (but 4 July 1776)*

;   SEMICOLON

Semicolon helps us separate closely related independent clauses. It marks a break that is stronger than a comma, but not as final as a full stop (e.g. *My grandma seldom goes to bed this early; she's afraid she'll miss out on something*.). Semicolons are also used to sort out complicated lists, they represent a stronger division in sentences that already contain commas (e.g. *There were participants from Bangor, Maine; Hartford, Connecticut; and Boston, Massachusetts.*).

:   COLON

Colon can be used to introduce a quotation (e.g. *The police report stated: "We found the suspect's fingerprints at the scene of the crime."*), or we use it to name items on a list or provided an explanation (e.g. *The committee now includes the following people: the mayor, the chief of police, and the chair of the town council. There's only one thing left to do: confess while there's still time.*).

'   APOSTROPHE

We use apostrophe to show possession (e.g. *Jacob's sister*) and in contracted verb forms (e.g. *isn't, don't, haven't*).

-   HYPHEN

We use hyphens to form compound words (e.g. *well-known, out-of-date, brother-in-law*), compound numbers (e.g. *twenty-three*), and for some prefixes (e.g. *ex-husband, self-control, anti-American*).

–   DASH

Dash is used as a super-comma to set off parenthetical elements (e.g. *All three of them – Tom, Susan, and Pete – did well in college.*) or we use it to show breaks in thoughts or shifts in tone (e.g. *"I asked you not to–," Victor suddenly stopped speaking*.)

" " QUOTATION MARKS / INVERTED COMMAS

We use quotation marks before and after direct speech (e.g. *"I'll never talk to you again," he shouted*.) or to set off words in a sentence (we can use italics or single quotations marks for the same purpose).

( ) ROUND BRACKETS

We use round brackets to include extra information we want to de-emphasize in the sentence or that would not fit into the flow of the text. While brackets tend to de-emphasize test, dashes make the set-off text more prominent.

[ ] SQUARE BRACKETS

Square brackets are used to include explanatory words or phrases within quoted language (e.g. *"... and [we] decided to include this information."*).

… ELLIPSIS

We use ellipsis to replace words that have been left out or to indicate an unfinished sentence that trails off into silence (e.g. *But I thought you were …*). We leave a space before the ellipsis.

@ AT SIGN

At sign (or *at symbol*) is used in email addresses. It separates the name of the user from the user's mail server address. In everyday writing it can also stand for the word *at*. The origin of the at sign is unknown, but one of the theories says that it developed as a shorthand for the Latin word *ad* used before the invention of printing press by Medieval monks to save paper and a stroke of pen when transcribing manuscripts.

6.2 Capitalization

The following table lists the rules of capitalization in English.

Table 13: Capitalization rules

Rule	Example
Capitalize the fist word in a sentence.	*That day everything changed for her.*
Capitalize the first word of a quote when the quote is a complete sentence, but not when it is a partial quote.	*Lucy asked, "When did she call you?"* *She said she was "way too busy" to join us.*
Capitalize names and surnames of people.	*Maggie, Mary Jane, Robert Procter*
Capitalize the pronoun *I*.	*He asked what I wanted to do next.*
Capitalize titles used with names.	*Dr Johnson, Ms Cooper, General Black, President Obama, William the Conqueror*
Capitalize cities, countries, and geograpic names.	*Brighton, Israel, Stonehenge, the Sahara, Rocky Mountains, Lake Michigan, Europe, North America, Jupiter*
Capitalize street and square names.	*Regent Street, Oxford Circus, Atlantic Boulevard*
Capitalize names of buildings, monuments, bridges, and towers.	*Eifell Tower, the Statue of Liberty, the Golden Gate Bridge*
Capitalize the names of holidays.	*Christmas, Easter, Halloween*
Capitalize the days of the week and	*Monday, September, spring*

months of the year, but not seasons.	
Capitalize names of races, nationalities, and tribes.	*British, French, Swiss, Czech, Navajo, Eskimo*
Capitalize adjectives relating to nationalities.	*French fries, Arabic writing, Brazilian coffee, Colgate toothpaste*
Capitalize names of languages.	*English, Spanish, Chinese*
Capitalize all the words in the title of an art piece, book, film, song, magazine, play, newspaper, or a TV show (except articles, conjuctions, and prepositions when not in initial position).	*Lat Supper, Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone, Pride and Prejudice, What a Wonderful World, Good Will Hunting, National Geographic, The Telegraph, Daily Mail, How I Met Your Mother, Game of Thrones*
Capitalize organisation, associations, and institutions.	*Oxford University, The British Museum, European Union, Royal Albert Hall, Red Cross, Alcoholics Anonymous*
Capitalize government titles, goverments and government terms.	*the Queen of England, the Secretary of Defense, British Parliament, House of Lords, the President's Cabinet, the Ministry of Internal Affairs*
Capitalize brand names and names of companies.	*Range Rover, Microsoft Corporation, Braun, Hoover, Samsung, Marks & Spencer, Starbucks*
Capitalize historical events, documents, and eras.	*Battle of Hastings, World War II, Declaration of Independence, Victorian Era, Stone Age*
Capitalize names of gods, religious figures, and holy books.	*Buddha, Zeus, Moses, the Virgin Mary, the Bible, Holy Bible*
Capitalize salutations and closings in letters.	*Dear student, Yours truly, Love, Best regards*
Capitalize initials, initalisms, and acronyms.	*Angus R. Brown, House, M.D., FBI, USA, UNESCO, JPEG, LOL*

COMPREHENSION CHECK

Use appropriate punctuation marks and capitalization in the following sentences.

1. We had a great time in france the kids really enjoyed it
2. Some people work best in the mornings others do better in the evenings
3. What are you doing next weekend
4. Mother had to go into hospital she had heart problems
5. Did you understand why I was upset
6. It is a fine idea let us hope that it is going to work

7. We will be arriving on monday morning at least I think so
8. A textbook can be a wall between teacher and class
9. The girls father sat in a corner
10. In the words of murphys law Anything that can go wrong will go wrong

ANSWERS

Use appropriate punctuation marks and capitalization in the following sentences.

1. We had a great time in France , / – the kids really enjoyed it.
2. Some people work best in the mornings , / ; others do better in the evenings.
3. What are you doing next weekend?
4. Mother had to go into hospital: she had heart problems.
5. Did you understand why I was upset?
6. It is a fine idea , / ; let us hope that it is going to work.
7. We will be arriving on Monday morning – at least, I think so.
8. A textbook can be a "wall" between teacher and class.
9. The girl's father sat in a corner.
10. In the words of Murphy's Law : / , "Anything that can go wrong will go wrong."

SUMMARY

In the last chapter you learnt the rules of ***punctuation*** and ***capitalization*** in English. You can name and use all the common punctuation marks, and you know the rules of capitalization as well.

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SHRNUTÍ STUDIJNÍ OPORY

Cílem této opory bylo zprostředkovat studentovi hlubší přehled o formě a použití slovesa a slovesné fráze, a dále o gramatice základních typů hlavních i vedlejších vět. Náplní kurzu byl kromě detailního rozboru slovesa coby klíčového prvku v anglické větě také výčet a podrobný popis variací slovesné fráze (čas, aspekt, rod, způsob, modalita a zápor). V druhé části textu se čtenář seznámil s principy slovosledu ve větách, dozvěděl se o specificích shody podmětu s přísudkem, typech otázek, vět rozkazovacích a vět zvolacích. Závěrečné kapitoly představily typy vedlejších vět a specifika používání interpunkčních znamének a dále používání velkých písmen v angličtině. Cílem textu bylo prohloubit a dále rozvinout znalosti získané v úvodním kurzu Úvod do gramatiky a v návazném kurzu Gramatika 1 tak, aby měl absolvent všech tří kurzů spolehlivý teoretický přehled do anglické gramatice a zároveň uměl nabyté vědomosti aplikovat v praxi.

PŘEHLED DOSTUPNÝCH IKON

	Čas potřebný ke studiu		Cíle kapitoly
	Klíčová slova		Nezapomeňte na odpočinek
	Průvodce studiem		Průvodce textem
	Rychlý náhled		Shrnutí
	Tutoriály		Definice
	K zapamatování		Případová studie
	Řešená úloha		Věta
	Kontrolní otázka		Korespondenční úkol
	Odpovědi		Otázky
	Samostatný úkol		Další zdroje
	Pro zájemce		Úkol k zamyšlení

Tato publikace neprošla jazykovou úpravou.