Categorizing the Parts of Speech in English

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Akademický rok: 2019/2020

ZADÁNÍ BAKALÁŘSKÉ PRÁCE
(projektu, uměleckého díla, uměleckého výkonu)

Jméno a příjmení: **Simona Holubová**
Osobní číslo: **H16705**
Studijní program: **B7310 Filologie**
Studijní obor: **Anglický jazyk pro manažerskou praxi**
Forma studia: **Prezenční**
Téma práce: **Kategorizace slovních druhů v angličtině**

Zásady pro vypracování

Shromáždění materiálů k tématu práce
Studium odborné literatury
Formulace cílů práce
Analýza členění slovních druhů u jednotlivých lingvistů
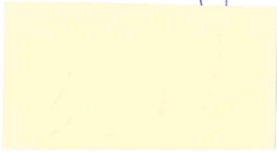Vyvození a formulace závěrů práce

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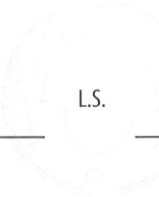Jazyk zpracování: **Angličtina**

Seznam doporučené literatury:

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Quirk, Randolph, and Sidney Greenbaum. 2004. *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*. London: Longman.

Vedoucí bakalářské práce: **Mgr. Michaela Čakányová, Ph.D.**
Ústav moderních jazyků a literatur

Datum zadání bakalářské práce: **8. listopadu 2019**
Termín odevzdání bakalářské práce: **11. května 2020**

L.S.

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Mgr. Libor Marek, Ph.D.
děkan

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ABSTRAKT

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá kategorizací slovních druhů v anglickém jazyce. Obsahuje obecnou teorii jednotlivých slovních druhů a jednotlivých přístupů, které jsou ke kategorizaci slov používány. Konkrétněji rozděluje slova do slovních druhů pomocí jednotlivých přístupů a popisuje jejich spolehlivost. Teoretická část této bakalářské práce je podložena praktickými příklady.

Klíčová slova: slovní druhy, kategorizace, kategorie, přístupy, kritéria

ABSTRACT

This bachelor thesis deals with the categorization of parts of speech in English language. It contains the general theory of individual parts of speech and of individual approaches which are used to categorization of words. More specifically, it distinguishes words into parts of speech according to several approaches and describes their reliability. The theory of this thesis is supported by practical examples.

Keywords: parts of speech, categorization, categories, approaches, criteria

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I hereby declare that the print version of my Bachelor's/Master's thesis and the electronic version of my thesis deposited in the IS/STAG system are identical.

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

This Bachelor's thesis deals with Parts of Speech and their categorization in English, which can seem as an easy and basic grammar every language has, however, it is more complex and unfixed than one would consider. This thesis consists of theoretical text supported by more than one hundred practical examples for better understanding of the topic. I decided to divide the thesis into two main chapters; Categorization and Parts of Speech. In my opinion, it is better and important to understand and know particular approaches to the categorization of parts of speech first and after that to deal with concrete parts of speech, their features and possibilities of their categorization.

The first chapter deals with the theory of categorization of Parts of Speech in English and with the approaches that are typically used. Firstly, it provides the reader with the theory of categorization in general and after that several approaches are being mentioned each supported by practical examples. The theory of approaches used in categorization of Word Classes begins with the Semantic criterion that is widely used in almost every grammar of English, by scholars, and even in textbooks. I would consider this criterion as the main one however as we will see it is really an inadequate one. Another approach in the categorization of Word Classes mentioned in this chapter is the Morphological one. This section focuses on suffixes which words can take. The last approach out of three that can be also considered as the main one is the Syntactic approach focused on syntax and the structure of sentences. All these approaches are, as mentioned before, supported by grammatically correct practical examples though sometimes also ungrammatical ones are provided, so it is easier for the reader to understand the categorization of Parts of Speech in the right way.

These tree main approaches are followed by other two – Phonological and Pragmatic - which are not being used so frequently nowadays. It is important to mention that English language and its grammar are still evolving. The grammar rules that were in force in the period of Old English are no longer used today as they are out of the date. The grammar that is being taught today may be completely different from what it will be in 100 years. Every language is changing, some can completely disappear as there is no native speaker of this language anymore, and, on the other hand, some may develop even more. As for English, it is one of the world's languages and there is hardly any chance of its disappearing. Consequently, it is possible that these two criteria which are now considered

the least important can be used a lot in the future and that is the reason why I also decided to mention them in my bachelor's thesis.

All approaches to the categorization of Parts of Speech are not only supported by practical examples but for each, the reason for its reliability or, on the other hand, unreliability is presented. As mentioned in the thesis, none of the approaches is fully reliable, so the combination of them is the right way to the correct categorization.

The second part of the thesis focuses on the theory of Word Classes in general. It discusses two main systems in the terminology of Parts of Speech in English called open and closed system. Another fact that is being focused on is the quantity of Word Classes existing in English language as each grammar provides a different number. After this introduction of word classes, a detailed theory of parts of speech follows supported by over a hundred examples. Each part of speech is described from the semantic, morphological and also syntactic point of view for better understanding and possibility to compare the reliability and usefulness of each approach in the categorization of the concrete word class.

The purpose of my bachelor thesis is to show that the English language grammar is much more complex than it may seem and that even the most basic issue can hide a lot of uncertainty. One would think that there is no exception and dubiety in grammar as basic as Parts of Speech but the opposite is true. Parts of speech and their categorization are more complex that one would think and it is the main issue I wanted to focus on and clear in my thesis.

1 CATEGORIZATION

The first chapter of this bachelor thesis deals with the exact meaning of the categorization of words in English. This chapter focuses firstly on the categorization in general and later also some concrete approaches are being outlined. To understand the theme of this thesis it is important to know the basic meaning of word categories and also to be able to name few main approaches that exist in English.

Thanks to categorization people are able to do different kinds of mental activities such as for example thinking, speaking or working in a way which is effective and efficient. As Aarts (2015, 361) says "it is a process of systematization of acquired knowledge," or, to be even more concrete, "a cognitive process which allows human beings to make sense of the world by carving it up, in order for it to become more orderly and manageable for the mind." Rijkhoff (2007, 709) also pointed out, that it can be compared to "putting people or things, but also more abstract entities such as words, into groups on the basis of certain shared characteristics."

Crystal (2011, 68), on the other hand, defines categorization as "the whole process of organizing human experience into general concepts with their associated linguistic labels". In contrast to definitions mentioned above, Crystal states that without a language categorization would be impossible. Categorization as a process is, according to him sometimes also described as psycholinguistic phenomenon. He also mentions that it is necessary to divide words into parts of speech "to be able to make general and economical statements about the way the words of the language behave" (Crystal 2011, 68). Thanks to their division into these categories we know how nouns, verbs and other word categories generally behave, which would be impossible to state if there was no concept of categories. In Crystal's work (Crystal 2011, 68) he also says that: "there is no obvious single criterion, which could be used to classify all, or even most words". Even linguists cannot say if there is some criterion which could be considered as the most relevant one, on the other hand, there are some criteria which could be seen as more reliable than the other ones.

In English there are three main approaches describing the division of parts of speech: semantic, syntactic and morphological, however, there are also other but minor types as phonological or pragmatic.

1.1 Semantic Approach to Categorizing the Parts of Speech

According to Veselovská (2017, 18) "notional definitions are actually useless for defining parts of speech". Semantic sometimes also called notional approach is connected to the meaning the words have and this is at the same time the way words are categorized into parts of speech. Verbs, for example, are usually described as words which stand for actions (e.g. *do*), events (e.g. *occur*) or states (e.g. *be*), nouns, on the other hand, denote people (e.g. *sister*), things (e.g. *lamp*), or places (e.g. *cinema*) (Alexander and Close 1988). However, there are exceptions which make this type of approach unreliable. In some contexts, nouns can also stand for properties the same as adjectives do (e.g. *honesty*) and events (e.g. *party*) which means that only because a word denotes property, it does not mean that it has to be an adjective. For this reason parts of speech cannot be categorized only based on the semantic criterion even though it is the most traditional one.

There are many other examples, when it is not possible to rely only on the semantic criterion when categorizing parts of speech. Even though the fact, that this criterion is not always reliable, the semantic criterion is still widely used by authors of student's books of English (such as a textbook "Get Ready for Success in English" written by Prater Karl James") and very often this criterion is said to be the traditional one. In every student grammar book the first definition of nouns you will find is that nouns denote people and things, which is true but it is not enough to know and to give only this definition. In my thesis there are a lot of exceptions to be found which will persuade us that studying parts of speech in more detail brings out interesting facts which not everyone knows, as these exceptions are usually not taught at schools or, at least, not at Czech elementary and high schools.

1.2 Morphological Approach to Categorizing the Parts of Speech

Another approach which helps to distinguish parts of speech is called Morphological approach. Morphemes can be divided according to various criteria, but we are going to use the division into two classes – the derivational class which focuses on derivational affixes and the inflectional one that focuses on inflectional affixes. Morphology studies the structure of words. Derivational morphology describes how the words in English are established from the combination of elements called "morphemes". According to Veselovská (2017, 5): "[d]erivational affixes create a new word, usually of a different category". Inflectional morphology, on the other hand, describes how the word form varies

while expressing the grammatical contrast (e.g. *cars* – where the suffix *-s* is used to mark plurality) (Crystal 1995).

In English there are words, which cannot be segmented into parts because they consist only of a "root" or also called "a base form". It is not possible to classify these words into parts of speech according to the morphological point of view. What is more, the only way these words can be divided into word classes is based on their meaning (semantic criterion), their pronunciation (phonological criterion) or position in the sentence (syntax). In fact, the existence of these words that consist only of the base form is the first reason why the morphological criterion is not always reliable or at least it is not possible to rely solely on this approach when dividing words into parts of speech.

As mentioned before, dependent elements which can be added before and also after the base form are called "affixes". Affixes can have three forms – "prefixes" used before the base form, "infixes" used within the base and "suffixes" used after the base. By prefixes a lot of new words can be created as prefixes have usually only lexical role, i.e. they are derivational (1). There are about 57 varieties of English prefixes and in fact some of them can have more than one meaning. Prefixes can be used to express negation (e.g. *non-smoker*), reversal (e.g. *de-frost*), disparaging (e.g. *mis-hear*), size (e.g. *mini-bus*), orientation (e.g. *anti-social*), location (e.g. *inter-play*), time (e.g. *neo-classical*) or for example a number (e.g. *multi-purpose*). Suffixes are mostly lexical as they can change the meaning of the base form, on the other hand, there are also inflectional suffixes which are grammatical and show usage of the word in a sentence (Crystal 1995). According to Veselovská (2017, 6) "[i]nflectional morphemes alter a word/part of speech (category) within its own paradigm." The example (2) shows different forms of the English word *child* that got case/number paradigms (Veselovská 2017).

    1.

       a. It is possible to go there.

       b. It is impossible to go there.

    2. Child, child's, children's, children

1.2.1 Right-Hand Head Rule

As mentioned before, derivational morphemes are those which derive a new word that usually belongs to the different word class (category) as in the example (3) where the verb "*read*" changed into a noun "*reader*" after the addition of the derivational morpheme *-er*.

    3. Verb "*read*" + derivational morpheme *-er* = Noun "*reader*"

Right-Hand Head Rule helps us to distinguish a word class of a complex word in English by the element that is almost every time the rightmost one as in the example (4). It is possible to apply this rule to all English compounds which are regular and productive (Veselovská 2017).

4. *Coloni-al*   =Adjective
   Coloni-al-ize   =Verb
   Coloni-al-ism   =Noun
   Coloni-al-iz-ation   =Noun

1.3 Syntactic Approach to Categorizing the Parts of Speech

English language is known as a "fixed word-order language" and also Veselovská in her Morphosyntax (2017, 11) states that: "each part of speech appears not freely but in typical environments". This subchapter deals with the distribution of words in the sentence but also with the syntagmatic relations within a clause or a sentence. Word-order in English clauses and sentences differs depending on their particular type. Word order in English is important because typologically, it is a rather analytic language, and as such it is nor rich in inflectional morphology. The syntagmatic relations are thus expressed by the fixed positions of particular elements. The position of subject, verb and object is usually in the pattern *S-V-O* in declarative sentences, however, there are exceptions that do not follow this rule. Sometimes there is a possibility that the element can move within the sentence. Main elements are subject and predicate which can be moved only in very few situations. Objects are more versatile and adverbials are the ones that are moved quite often and it is possible to move them to the initial, medial or also final position easily (Quirk 2004).

The syntactic criterion examines the distribution of words in a sentence (Crystal 2011). According to the syntactic criterion, words which belong to the same category can be replaced by one another in a sentence as shown in the example (5) where the noun "*Lily*" from the first sentence is in the second one replaced by the noun "*Thomas*".

5.

   a. *Lily talks a lot.*

   b. *Thomas talks a lot.*

   c. *She talks a lot.*

According to syntax in English there can be parts of speech called as "subordinate" and then those which are typically superordinate. As an example can be mentioned nouns: subordinate elements that depend on nouns are for example Adjectives on the other hand

nouns depend on verbs so verbs are superordinate elements with nouns (Veselovská, 2017).

The problem with this criterion is that the noun can be interchanged also with a pronoun (5c) which is a completely different part of speech. Moreover, the noun "*Lily*", which is by the way also a bare NP, can be exchanged with the noun phrase "*this girl*" (6). That is one of the reasons why the syntactic approach proves to be unreliable as in the one place of the sentence several parts of speech can stand.

6. *This girl with the dragon tattoo.*

The placement of words in a sentence is not only about syntax as the sentence has to also have a meaning. Words in a sentence need to be in the correct position according to both syntactic and also semantic criterion. For example the expression (7a) is correct syntactically as well as semantically, on the other hand, the sentence (7b) is syntactically right however semantically the sentence is wrong and without meaning as dogs cannot speak so the replacement does not work in this sentence (Crystal 2011).

7.

a. *Girls speak.*

b. **Dogs speak.*

At the centre of syntax there is a word order that can be, according to Crystal (1995), also called "the heart of syntax". The meaning of each sentence depends mainly on the word order as it is a domain that is the most important in English grammar. The importance of the word order is demonstrated bellow in the example (8), where the first sentence and the second one are both syntactically and semantically correct, however, the meaning differs. The word "*dog*" in the first sentence is a subject on the other hand it is an object in the second one (Crystal 1995). Nevertheless, it is also the matter of semantic roles as the word *dog* is an agent in (8a) and patient in (8b). It is the other way round with the word *postman* as the word *postman* is a patient in the sentence (8a) and agent in the (8b).

8.

a. *Dog chases postman.*

b. *Postman chases dog.*

1.3.1 Phrases

Phrases in Syntax are more complex structures with a head that can be of a different lexical category – a noun, an adjective, a verb or a preposition. These phrases are then called according to the word category of their head. Phrases can consist of pre-modifiers, head

and post-modifiers which differ according to the type of phrase (9) (Veselovská, 2017). More about phrases is mentioned later in my thesis where I analyse concrete parts of speech.

9. a. Noun: *girl*   *[NP this little girl of mine]*

     b. Adjective: *tall*   *[AP much taller than Lily]*

     c. Verb: *write*   *[VP to never write a book]*

     d. Preposition:*down*   *[PP right down the mountain]*

1.4 Phonological approach in Categorizing Parts of Speech

The phonological approach is about a stress placement, the number of syllables the word has or about the harmony of vowels (Crystal 1967). The phonological criterion is not as much popular and used in English as those three that we have already mentioned. This is the reason why phonological criterion has only a minor role in contrast to the syntactic or morphological approach. Stress is a criterion that can be applicable the most. Some words in English may seem the same, are written the same but their pronunciation differs. An example can be the word "*record*" which has the same form as a noun and also as a verb. The only difference is the stress placement. As a noun the word "*record"* is pronounced with the stress placed on the first syllable, on the other hand, as a verb the stress is placed on the second one (Wells 2007).

According to the example mentioned above the first rule is that nouns are usually pronounced with the stress put on the first syllable while verbs are stressed on the second one. The problem with this criterion is that it is not possible to categorize the word using only the phonological criterion because if the word "*record*" appears in written context only it is impossible to assume if the word is a noun or a verb and this is the first proof that makes this criterion unreliable.

A different stress placement is also used in connection with compounds that are widely used in English. If the word is a compound, than it has only one main stress. However, if the word is not a compound and it is written as two words than both of them will be stressed in the beginning. The perfect example of a compound is the word "*a greenhouse*" – the place where plants grow. It is a noun and the stress is placed only on the first syllable here. However, the second phrase is "*a green house*" - the house that is green, where each of the words has its own stress.

1.5 Pragmatic Approach in Categorizing Parts of Speech

Pragmatic criterion which is a relatively new one defines word classes according to functions of discourse that are prototypical for each word category. Croft (2000,88) in his "Parts of Speech as Language Universals and as Language Particular Categories" defines nouns as a part of speech that refers to an object, verbs whose pragmatic function is to predict an action or adjectives whose pragmatic function is a modification by a property (Vogel and Comrie 2000). He, in fact, focuses on three - according to him also main – parts of speech (nouns, verbs and adjectives) and combined their semantic functions with pragmatic ones. As an example can be a noun *bike* whose reference form is "*a bike*", modification form is "*bike's*" and predication form would be "*is a bike*" (Croft, 2000, 89).

2 PARTS OF SPEECH

The term "part of speech" expresses an amount of features shared by concrete groups of words. Knowing, understanding and identifying different types of words in English is important to understand English grammar. It helps us to use the right word form in the right place. Each part of speech explains how the word is used in different contexts.

The first and at the same time also the most important information that, due to my opinion, should be explained is the definition of "word". Many linguists describe a word as a single element of speech for which it is possible to stand on its own and carry a meaning. These elements can be next assigned to different word categories according to their morphological or syntactic properties (Radford 2004).

Generally, there are two systems in the terminology of parts of speech in English called open and closed system distinguished by the fact that in the open system the membership is indefinite and unlimited. It means, that new members can be easily added into this group and also new words can be easily created. The open system includes: nouns, adjectives, adverbs and verbs. For example, some of the new nouns can be created by adding the suffix *–ee* (10), new adjectives by adding *–ish* (11) (Quirk and Greenbaum 1991).

10. *employee, devotee*

11. *bookish*

On the other hand, the closed system consists of a limited number of members and there is almost no possibility to add new words into this group. This system contains grammar words such as pronouns, prepositions or conjunctions.

Traditional grammars for example *Longman English Grammar* (Alexander and Close 1988) or *Oxford Modern English Grammar* (Aarts 2011) classify words based on nine parts of speech: verbs, nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, determiners, conjunctions, and interjections, however, I decided to mention modal verbs and auxiliary verbs as separate word categories as some other grammars also do. I will explain my reasons for this classification in section 2.6.

2.1   Nouns

According to the semantic criterion, nouns can be defined as names of things or what someone or something is called. A noun denotes someone's name (e.g. *Jack*); a job title (e.g. *teacher*); a thing (e.g. *table*); a place (e.g. *London*); an action (e.g. *running*) and even more also some numerals can be counted as nouns (e.g. *a hundred*) (Alexander and Close 1988). According to Veselovská (2017, 18): "semantic divisions can be found in dictionaries or a thesaurus, but have no use in grammar". From the morphological point of view there are several features connected with nouns (e.g. number, gender and case).

2.1.1   Compounds

As Alexander and Close (1988) notice there are lots of nouns consisting of two or three parts. Such words are called compounds. Compounds can be sometimes spelt with a hyphen and usually they have stress pronounced on the first syllable however there are some exceptions.

Single-word compound nouns are words, about which we no longer think as about compounds even though they are created from two words (e.g. *a cupboard*; *a typewriter*) (Alexander and Close 1988). There are two different ways words can be written - as a compound (12) or as an adjective and noun separately (13). As mentioned before, when it is written as a noun and an adjective separately then the stress is placed at the beginning of both words, however, when the word is written as a compound then the stress is being placed only once at the beginning of the compound structure.

12. *a 'blackbird (= a concrete type of a bird)*

13. *a 'black 'bird (= a bird which is black)*

In English there are words of which we can guess the meaning using a common sense (14). Some nouns can be also created from a verb and an adverb (e.g. *a breakdown*) or as a compound of two nouns, which is the biggest category of compound nouns. In these cases, the first noun is usually considered as having an attributive function called "noun modifier" (e.g. *a car key; a chair leg*).

14. *a frying pan (= a pan that is used for frying)*

2.1.2   Proper nouns

Another type of nouns are proper nouns sometimes also called "proper names" which are used to name a concrete person, place, idea or thing that is unique. These words are usually written with a capital letter at the beginning; however, there are some exceptions. Usually

there is no article written before a proper noun but when *a/an* article is used it usually means that it is referring to an example of that class (Alexander and Close 1988, 47) (15). English grammar has a lot of types of proper names as personal names (e.g. *Jack, Chuck, Daniel*) or for example geographical names (e.g. *Asia, England*). On the other hand there are of course cases when personal names (16) and geographical names can be used with the definite article.

15. *It is a Picasso. (= means that it is his picture)*

16.

a. *The Simpsons arrives at the Party.*

b. *I met the Lady Gaga, it was truly her.*

c. *I have visited the Alps and the Hague recently.*

2.1.3 Common nouns

Common nouns are another type of nouns including any noun which is not a particular person, place, thing or idea. Usually, an article (*a/an/the*) or a zero article is used before a common noun depending on the meaning of the word and the context. Every common noun has to be countable or uncountable. In English grammar it is important to distinguish these two groups to know when to use plural and singular form or to know in which situation to use particular article - if indefinite *a/an*; definite *the* or zero article. Besides identifying the article it also helps to choose the appropriate quantifier.

2.1.4 Countability

Countability is one of the prototypical features of nouns as most nouns express number. There are nouns that have only singular or only plural number and are thus less prototypical than others, but they are still categorised as nouns because of the other features they share with the members of this category.

It is impossible to distinguish which common noun is uncountable and which is countable only by common sense. Countability is according to Veselovská (2017, 19) : "an inherent feature of the noun category (i.e., it is a property of a given lexical item; the speaker cannot change it without changing the lexical entry)" and "in English Countability is an important formal feature that affects the choice of Articles and (some) Quantifiers". As countability is an inherent feature, the speaker cannot decide whether a noun is or is not countable as it is connected to morphology and syntax. Words that are uncountable in English can be countable in another language (e.g. *information* is uncountable in English but not in Czech). At the same time, many common nouns can be used sometimes as

countable and also as uncountable. This means that the classification of nouns into uncountable or countable ones is very unreliable in many cases (17) (Alexander and Close 1988).

17. *There is a chicken in the garden. (= In this sentence the word "chicken" is countable with the meaning of an animal, however, in the sentence "Would you like some chicken?" is the word "chicken" uncountable with the meaning of a meal.)*

Countable nouns can be preceded by *a/an* article (e.g. *a book*) and they also have a plural form mostly using the inflectional suffix *–s* and the quantifier *–many* in statements but also in questions (18). The major difference between countable and uncountable nouns is the fact that countable nouns can be used with numbers and uncountable nouns not (19). Uncountable nouns, on the other hand, do not have an indefinite article (e.g. *milk*), they do not have plural form and there is usually no number used in front of them (Alexander and Close 1988). Number is typically expressed morphologically by a suffix (*-s, -en, 0*) and it is also visible through agreement with the verb. Nouns that do not take suffix *–s* to express a number are called "irregular nouns" (e.g. *child - children*, *sheep - sheep* or *foot - feet*).

18. *How many houses are there?*

19.

a. *I read five books.*

b. **I read five informations.*

Lots of countable nouns have their own individual physical reference. These nouns are called "concrete nouns" (e.g. *a girl, a bottle, a slice*) and they can be either uncountable or countable. Sometimes it happens that they also have their physical reference however they have no individual existence (e.g. *milk, eating*).

Lots of uncountable nouns are considered abstract, it means, they usually denote a state rather than a concrete thing (e.g. *honesty*), conversely, only a few countable nouns are abstract (e.g. *an idea*) (Alexander and Close 1988).

2.1.5 Animacy and Gender

As Veselovská (2017, 22) notices: "animacy is an inherent feature: lexical items are animate or inanimate because of their meaning/form". English as well as Czech grammar states that humans and domestic animals are animate so their gender can be expressed with *he* or *she.* Gender is according to Veselovská (2017, 22): "an inherent feature; lexical items have it either because of their meaning (semantic Gender) (20) or in languages like Czech and Latin, because of their form (grammatical Gender)" (21). In English there is a very

small number of gender distinctions and there is very close connection between the grammatical category which is "gender" and "sex" which is a biological one (Quirk and Greenbaum 1991).

20. *man vs. woman vs. child*

21. free morphemes: ***boy*** *student vs.* ***girl*** *student*

bound morphemes: *steward vs.* *steward-**ess** (stevard vs. stevard-**ka**)*

2.1.6 Derivation of Nouns

Nouns can be created by addition of prefixes and suffixes to the word. A noun can be derived from a verb (e.g. *manage – a manager*) or adjective (e.g. *active – activity*). Morphological derivation is one of the word formations that was and still is widely used for forming new words from words that already exist. In contrast to inflectional morphology, derivational morphemes typically change the word class of the original word (Quirk and Greenbaum 1991).

2.1.7 Case

Nouns in English language get three cases – subjective, objective and genitive which as the only one typically changes a noun form with case inflection. The case depends on the position a noun has in the sentence – so by word order. The morphological realization of genitive case trigger is usually another noun. As mentioned above, the genitive case is marked by - *'s* or rarely in the case of plural nouns *–s'*. There are several examples how the apostrophe *s* can be used. With singular nouns and plural nouns that do not end in *–s* is the genitive case marked with *'s* (e.g. *the dog's house, men's clothes*). Sometimes, when the plural noun ends in *–s* there is only the apostrophe used (e.g. *girls' clothes*) the same as with the classical names that end in *-s* (e.g. *Archimedes' Law*) or with fixed expressions (e.g. *for goodness' sake*) (Veselovská 2017) The formation of a genitive case is a prototypical feature of nouns, nevertheless, in English there are also nouns, that cannot form a genitive case because of the restriction for concreteness (e.g. **danger's intensity – the intensity of danger*). Even though that the word order in this example differs, it does not mean that the word *danger* is not a noun as it has other common features with nouns.

2.1.8 Noun Phrase NP

Syntactically, Nouns can stand in the position of a head of a more complex structure called *a phrase* (22). NPs consist of elements pre-modifying a noun (N-premodifiers) and then those that post-modify a noun (N-postmodifiers). N-premodifiers can be of many kinds

listed below (23). Central determiners are obligatory with singular countable nouns and unique (e.g. *a/ the/ my/ which*), however adjectives are in contrast to them recursive and as Veselovská (2017, 34) mentions: "their structure can be repeated again and again with no syntactic restriction" (24). These relationships within the NP can be used as a perfect example of the categorization of nouns. One syntactic prototypical feature of nouns is that they typically take a determiner in front of them so typically if the word in a sentence has a determiner it is probably a noun. Nevertheless, not all of nouns can take a determiner, as was already mentioned before, so it does not mean that a word which does not have a determiner cannot be a noun. In these cases it is important to take into consideration also other criteria.

22. *[NP this little girl of mine]*

23.

a. central determiners	*(a/ the/ my/ which) book*
b. English Possessives	*[NP my little sister Lily] 's t-shirt cost a lot.*
c. adjectives (APs)	*some cute small hairy brown cat*
d. secondary adjectives	*birthday cake*

24. *any two [AP really tall] [AP very green] trees in the garden*

Post-modifiers of a head noun follow this noun in the NP and consist, the same as N-premodifiers, of many kinds, however, in contrast to N-premodifiers there are almost all recursive, so they can be used again and again (25). Only *of-phrases* are unique and modify only the modifier that precedes them so these *of-phrases* stand usually immediately behind the noun (Veselovská 2017).

25.

a. complex adjectival phrases	*a girl [AP more beautiful than me]*
b. of-phrase	*that friend [PP of mine] from London*
c. PPs	*the girl [PP with short hair] [PP from Zlín]*
d. V-ing	*some girl [VP reading book]*
e. V-infinite	*a book [VP to read]*
f. clauses (e.g. relative clause)	*a picture [RC which you bought for me]*

An NP can stand for almost any sentence member even though there are sentence functions more usual than others (26). It is possible to distinguish sentence members only if they appear in a context because if there is a single word standing on its own without any context and no grammatical relation to any other constituent then, it is impossible to choose which sentence member this word stands for (Veselovská 2017, 37).

26.

a. subject	*[NP Those two sisters of yours] will come soon.*
b. object of a verb	*I saw [NP those two sisters of yours] there.*
c. object of a preposition	*I spoke about [NP those two sisters of yours] to him.*
d. adverbial	*Lucas arrived [NP the last day of the week].*
e. attribute	*I stayed in [NP those two sister of yours]'s house.*
f. nominal predicate	*Lucy and Clare are [NP two sisters of yours].*
g. possessive attribute	*[NP those two sisters]' house*
h. object complement	*We appointed him [NP the boss of the group].*

2.2 Pronouns

Pronouns are words sometimes used in the place of a noun or a noun phrase; on the other hand, a noun can also immediately follow the pronoun but only in some specific and not typical contexts (e.g. *she devil*). In some grammars pronouns are categorized as a subclass of nouns as for example Huddleston and Pullum (2005, 100) state "pronouns form a subclass of nouns distinguished syntactically from common nouns and proper nouns by their inability to take determiner" and "they nevertheless occur as a head of NPs functioning in the main NP positions of subject, object, predicative complement, complement of preposition. They form a subclass of nouns rather than being a separate category". Also Aarts (2011, 44) describe pronouns as a subclass of nouns because "they are heading noun phrases that can have a function of a Subject, Direct Object, Indirect Object, Complement of a preposition and Predicative Complement".

Using a pronoun (e.g. *he, she, it* and *they*) instead of a noun is better in situations when the name of the particular person was mentioned before so it would not sound good to repeat it twice. However, pronouns (e.g. *I/me, you, we/us*) are used normally as a direct reference to someone addressed rather than in place of nouns. There is a difference between pronouns and determiners (e.g. *some, this*). If there is a noun placed after words such as *some* and *this* then these words are classified as determiners (27) as they determine a noun, on the other hand, if these words stand on their own then they are considered as pronouns as they are used instead of a noun (28) (Veselovská 2017). A prototypical feature of pronouns is that they can typically stand for a noun in the sentence and also they can be a head of NPS. Nevertheless, there are also those words that can stand for more than one part of speech. In these situations we have to take syntax into consideration as mentioned in the example with words *some* and *this*. These two words are, as shown above, perfect

examples of the importance of syntax when categorizing parts of speech as they can stand for pronouns in one context as well as for determiners in another one.

27. I want some tea. (= the word "some" is followed by the noun "tea" so the word "some" is a determiner)

28. I want some. (= here the word "some" stands on its own so it is a pronoun)

2.2.1 Personal Pronouns

Just as nouns which were mentioned before in my thesis, also pronouns have their various types. Firstly, I would like to mention personal pronouns (e.g. *I/me, we/us, he/him*) which refer not only to people but they are called as such in connection with grammatical persons. In contrast to some other European languages which usually have two forms of the pronoun *you* , one which is informal and used for family members or friends and one which is formal and used for strangers, in English there is now only one form of this pronoun used for everybody. The choice of a pronoun always depends on the fact which NP is being replaced (29). All other pronouns except for *you* and a noun (NP) which is going to be replaced agree in number (if it is singular or plural form) and also some of them agree in gender too (masculine, feminine and neuter) (Veselovská 2017).

29. Alice is here. She (replacing Alice) can't stay long.

2.2.2 Relative Pronouns

Another type of pronouns is called "Relative". Relative pronouns (e.g. *WH-series, that*) are distributed in a *WH-phrase* which occurs at the beginning of a relative clause providing more details and information about the person or a thing that is being denoted by the preceding noun - the antecedent. Relative pronouns *who* and *whom* (30) are used in nominative and accusative case with the connection to a human while *whose* is used in genitive and can have human but also non-human antecedents. In English there is also another relative pronoun *which* that has only non-human antecedent (31). (Aarts 2011)

30. My friend, who attends the same school as me, is sick.

31. This is the book which she gave me.

 Even though that in the history the grammarian Otto Jespersen claimed that *that*, which can replace any English Relative Pronoun if there is no preposition before it, is not a relative pronoun, nowadays, it is typically used as one. Very often the relative pronoun is omitted in non-defining statements where there is no verb immediately after relative pronoun or a preposition before it (Veselovská 2017) (32).

32.

a. I know the girl whom you love.

b. I know the girl that you love.

c. I know the girl you love.

d. Show me the man she was in love with.

*e. *Show me the man with she was in love.*

f. I know the boy who/that used to play football.

*g. *I know the boy used to play football.*

2.2.3 Interrogative Pronouns

WH-words which appear at the beginning of interrogative clauses are called interrogative pronouns (e.g. *WH-series, how, why*). The form of interrogative pronouns has to relate to the constituent they replace. The nominative form *who* that is indefinite the same as *what* typically stands in the subject (33) or object position (34) while the accusative form *whom* is used in a direct object or prepositional complement position and occurs more in formal written language. The interrogative pronoun *which* is distributed in questions in connection to humans (35) as well as non-humans and is definite as it asks the addressee to choose among two or more possibilities. (36) (Aarts 2011).

33. Who needs more money?

34. I met a girl who you all know.

35. Which girl do you love?

36. Which of the houses do you like the most?

An interrogative pronoun is fronted in the WH-question so it moves from the position it has as a sentence member to the beginning of the sentence. The interrogative constituent can be of many sizes and not only one word as the WH element gets a function of a phrase replacing not only one word but the whole sentence member (Veselovská 2017) (37).

37. She found [OBJECT NP the two cats] [ADVERBIAL PP in the park in the town].

a.	*[OBJECT NP What else]*	*did she find in the park?*
b.	*[OBJECT NP How many cats]*	*did she find in the park?*
c.	*[ADV PP Where]*	*did she find the two cats?*
d.	*[ADV PP In which park]*	*did she find the two cats?*

2.2.4 Possessive Pronouns

Another group of pronouns I would like to mention are possessive pronouns (e.g. *my, your, mine, your, his…*) describing possession. Possession means that someone owns something

and it answers the question *Whose?*. In English two types of possessives exist – "independent" which stand as a final part of the NP (38) and "determinative" that have to be always followed by something (39). Even though each person has a possessive pronoun "*its*" is the only one never used as a pronoun but rather as an adjective (*Barbie clothes* – ***its*** *clothes*). Talking about possession, there are cases when the extra emphasis is given to the possession when adding *own* to the possessive adjective (40) (Aarts 2011).

 38. *There are many books. These books are mine.*

 39. *This is my book.*

 40. *This is room of my own.*

2.2.5   Demonstrative Pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns (e.g. *this/these, that/those*) are used when talking about something and pointing at that at the same time, however, it differs if the object we are talking about is near or in the distance. Nearness is expressed by demonstrative pronouns *this* in singular and *these* in plural. They can be used in connection with the physical nearness or with the nearness in time. These two demonstrative pronouns are used when the speaker is talking about something he is actually holding or when the thing or a person about whom he is talking to is close to him and present in the situation (41) (Aarts 2011).

 41. *The book I was looking for is this one here.*

 Distance, on the other hand, is expressed by demonstrative pronouns *that* in singular and *those* in plural and they can be used in connection with the physical distance or with the distance in time. These two demonstrative pronouns are used when the speaker is talking about something that is not close to him (42) (Aarts 2011).

 42. *The book I am referring to is that one there.*

2.2.6   English Indefinite Pronoun *one*

Indefinite pronouns (e.g. *all, some, any, none…*) have many kinds that are used with respect to the context as there are those that are positive (e.g. *some, all, every*) and then those called "negative" (e.g. *no, none, any, either…*). Their usage is similar to other pronouns however, in contrast to some other pronouns these indefinite ones cannot be used in the sentence with clear lexical item in the position of a Noun so they are called indefinite because it is basically not known to whom or what they are referring. Moreover, also short adjectives can be preceded by compound indefinite pronouns (e.g. *someone tall, someone hungry…*) (Veselovská 2017). In English there are two forms: *-one form* (e.g. *someone*) and *-body form* (e.g. *somebody*) both referring to males and also females without

any difference and written as a one word except *no one*. Moreover, they all have a genitive form except for those formed with the suffix *-thing* (e.g. **something's*) (43).

43. *Someone's house alarm keeps going off.*

In English there is also a pronoun *one* which is called indefinite pronoun and means "everyone/anyone". In some grammars the indefinite pronoun *one* is also called a "prop word" as it is sometimes used as a substitution word after a determiner (e.g. *this one*) and supports also the meaning of the noun which is replaced. The pronoun *one* is used when replacing a countable singular noun while *ones* is used when replacing the plural noun and both are be used to replace a noun when talking about things or people so the speaker does not have to repeat it (44) (Aarts 2011). English *one* gets also a function of so called "animate generic one" as shown in the example (45) or - as in the example (46) - of "numeric one" which is more accurately a "pro-quantifier" than a truly pronoun (Veselovská 2017). Here again unreliability of the semantic criterion can be pointed out as a word *one* can get several meanings – *one* as a pronoun or *one* as a number. If the word *one* stands on its own, without any context, it is impossible to decide in which word class it belongs to.

44. *Which chocolate do you like? I like this one.*

45.

a. *One would assume that president Trump was going to get impeached.*

b. *He makes one feel bad.*

46. *One of the girls arrived earlier.*

2.2.7 Reflexive Pronouns

Pronouns also include a subgroup called "Reflexive pronouns" which are described as compounds created from possessive adjectives and the suffix *–self* (e.g. *myself, yourself*) or from the object pronoun and the suffix *–self* (e.g. *himself*) and they are usually attached to an antecedent that precedes them. In English there are few cases when a reflexive pronoun follows the verb. In those sentences subject the same as the reflexive both to the same person and the reflexive pronoun here is typically used to emphasize the subject (47). Certain verbs are called intransitive which means that they do not have to be followed by any reflexive pronoun but it is not wrong when they are. It usually happens in situations when the subject is doing something to himself (48) (Alexander and Close 1988).

47. *I did this homework myself.*

48. *I washed myself.*

2.2.8 Reciprocal Pronouns

Reciprocal pronouns (e.g. *each other, one another*) are bound with a plural antecedent (typically a subject/agent) in the same clause (49) (Alexander and Close 1988).

49.

a. The two girls introduce each other.

b. Both of us introduce one another.

2.2.9 Dummy *it* and Existential *there*

Every English sentence (clause) has to have a subject, so sometimes, when there is not an overt subject, *it* is used as an "empty subject" or also called "Dummy *it*". "Dummy *it*" does not carry any information, nevertheless it is often used to talk about weather (e.g. *it is hot*), time (e.g. *it is Tuesday*) or distance (e.g. *it is 20 miles from Prague*) (Veselovská 2017).

In some cases *it* is used also as a so called "preparatory subject" placed in the beginning of the sentence and followed by an infinitive, gerund or a nominal clause (50). This situation, when the subject of a sentence is placed at the end of the sentence is called "heavy constituent shift". Heavy constituent shift refers to the situation when a noun phrase is moved to the right in the sentence because it is "heavy" which means that the noun phrase is long and complex. A noun phrase can refer to the object (in square brackets) in the example (51) or to the subject as mentioned in the example (50). In most of the time it is only direct object or subject that is moved rightward. (52) (Veselovská 2017).

50. It is easy [to ride a car]. [To ride a car] is easy.

51. I gave to my mum [a book that I bought in Spain].

*52. *I gave a book [my mum who really likes reading].*

Apart from *it* also a pronoun *there* exists in English sometimes called "existential *there*" which has the function of the obligatory subject (53). "Existential *there*" has unlike the referential *there* no meaning of location and it is used only to have the grammatical but no semantic function of the subject.

53. There are many books on the table.

2.2.10 Cases of Pronouns

Inflectional morphology is an important property associated with pronouns and their cases as personal pronouns display a great number of inflectional variations. Except for the contrast between pronouns that are reflexive and non-reflexive, pronouns also get three main cases – subjective, possessive and objective – indicating the relation of a pronoun to other words used in the sentence. The form of pronouns changes according to different

cases using inflectional morphology and the word changes within its own paradigm. Firstly, the pronoun can stand for a subject of the sentence in its nominative form (e.g. *I, you, he, she*) (54). Another case used in connection to pronouns is a possessive case that has a meaning of possession of something (e.g. *my, mine, their*) (55). Pronouns can be also used as a direct object, indirect object or the object of the preposition if they are in their objective case (e.g. *me, you, her*) (56). In the table below there are listed all cases that are possible for personal pronouns. In all cases (except for first persons) the form of pronouns is created by an inflectional suffix, however, in the first person singular the same as plural the word change its form completely to a different one (Huddleston and Pullum 2005).

54. He has a book.

55. This is my car.

56. Give the book to me, please.

Table 1: Cases of Pronouns

Subject case	Object case	Possessive case	Possessive independent pronoun
I	Me	My	Mine
You	You	Your	Yours
He	Him	His	His
She	Her	Her	Hers
It	It	Its	Its
We	Us	Our	Ours
They	Them	Their	Theirs

2.3 Adjectives

Adjectives are words or phrases that modify and describe nouns in the way the person, thing or idea seems like. From the semantic point of view, adjectives can give us information about quality, size, age, temperature, shape, colour, origin and many others (Aarts 2011). Adjectives are usually stative, however, there are cases where dynamic adjectives occur. It is possible to use dynamic adjectives with the progressive aspect (57) on the other hand, using of progressive aspect with stative adjectives is impossible (58) (Quirk 2004).

57. She is being careful.

*58. *She is being tall.*

2.3.1 Derivational Morphology of Adjectives

It is almost impossible to distinguish if the word is an adjective or not if it occurs in isolation. Some adjectives have common suffixes which are typical only for this part of speech (e.g. *–ish* in *foolish* or *–able* in *washable*) however, there are many adjectives which do not have any of these suffixes (e.g. *good, hot, fat*) (Quirk 2004) so morphological approach is not fully reliable in categorization of adjectives and it has to be supported by other two approaches – syntactic and semantic. Adjectives can be derived from many word categories by adding a suffix as shown in the example (59) (Veselovská 2017). Prefixes that are added to adjectives usually create a negation (e.g. using a prefix *dis-* to create a negation of the adjective "*agreeable*" to "*disagreeable*") the same as it is with verbs from which the concrete adjective is derived (*agree – disagree*) (Alexander and Close 1988).

59. V to ADJ *agree-**able**, confus-**ing***

N to ADJ *friend-**ly**,*

NUM to ADJ *seven-**th***

2.3.2 Inflectional Morphology of Adjectives

Regarding inflectional morphology, most adjectives have comparative and superlative forms created with inflectional morphemes added to the end of the word. This feature of adjectives is also called "gradability" - a prototypical feature of adjectives that is very useful for their categorization, nevertheless, not all adjectives are gradable and still they are counted into this category (e.g. *asleep, dead*). Adjectives that are gradable have their specific forms that change their intensity using bound morphemes (e.g. *big – bigger – the biggest*). A comparative form of adjectives is used for comparison and it is expressed by the suffix *-er* (e.g. *closer*) and the superlative form of adjectives take the suffix *-est* (e.g. *closest*). Furthermore, there are those that are analytic or also called periphrastic which have two or more syllables and do not finish with *–y*. These adjectives change their intensity using free morphemes *more* and *the most* except of the bound ones (e.g. *important – more important – the most important*). Third and the last group of gradable adjectives are irregular adjectives that get their specific forms when being graded (e.g. *good – better – the best*) (Veselovská 2017).

2.3.3 Adjectival Phrase AP

According to Huddleston and Pullum (2005, 118) "an AP consists of an adjective as head, alone or accompanied by one or more dependents". This syntactic criterion is another prototypical feature of adjectives as they typically stand for a head of an AP which helps us to distinguish them. There is no limitation when using adjectives in a sentence, which means, they may be stacked infinitely in theory. Some adjectives can be found exclusively in the attributive position (e.g. *main, future*) (60), and at the same time there are many adjectives used exclusively in the predicative position after linking verbs (e.g. *be, seem, appear*) (61). Adjectives which have both predicative and also attributive function are called "central adjectives" (e.g. *happy*) (62), on the other hand, adjectives which have only one of these features are called "peripheral"

60.

    a. *This is the main problem.*

    b. **This problem is main.*

61.

    a. *He was alone in the morning.*

    b. **I saw an alone man.*

62.

    a. *He is happy.*

    b. *He seems to be happy.*

Adjective that stands as a head of an AP can be premodified by many modifiers out of which the most common one is an adverb (e.g. **extremely** *cold*) sometimes also called "grading adverb" (Huddleston and Pullum 2005). Measure phrases can be counted as another type of pre-modification of adjective (e.g. *[AP five-meter **high**] tree*).

An adjective as a head of an AP is typically post-modified by three main elements – prepositional phrase (63) that is very often also idiomatic combinations (e.g. *good at, afraid of or based on*), clause (64) or infinite VP as in the example (65). In English more concretely in adjectival phrases there are modifiers that can be pre-modifiers and at the same time also post-modifiers of an adjective shown in the example (66) (Veselovská 2017).

*63. a mother [AP (very) **proud** of her daughter]*

*64. I am **sure** that he will come.*

*65. She was **ready** to help her mother.*

66. He is as tall as me.

2.4 Adverbs

According to Huddleston and Pullum (2005, 122) "the adverb is one of the categories of lexemes that we call open – the categories with huge and readily expandable membership". Adverbs are semantically explained as heads of adverb phrases modifying adjectives giving them more intensity and making the situation even more dramatic, intensive and specific (Quirk and Greenbaum 1991) (67), verbs (68) and sometimes also another adverb (69). Adverbs usually enlargers the meaning of a verb which means provide information about something more in connection with the action. Adverbs as a word class allow a lot of semantic groupings as focusing (e.g. *also, just, only*), manner (e.g. *quickly, well*), modal (e.g. *actually, obviously*), degree (e.g. *very, really*) or they can be also numerals (e.g. *I saw you twice*) and many others (Veselovská 2017).

67. *The trip was **extremely** dangerous.*

68. *I can sing **beautifully**.*

69. *He came **very** soon.*

It should be mentioned, that sometimes adverbs and adjectives can both have the same form but completely different meaning. In the example (70) the adjective *very* means something like the "concrete" while in the example (71) the meaning of the adverb *very* is something like "extremely". This is a perfect example of the insufficiency of the semantic and morphological criterion and importance of the syntactic criterion as one word can be a part of several word classes as for example the word *very*. If the word *very* appears without a context then it would be impossible for us to distinguish this word into parts of speech based only on the semantic criterion because semantically the word *very* is an adjective but also an adverb. Another example of the overlap between these two categories can be a word *early* (72) or *well* (73) (Huddleston and Pullum 2005).

70. *that very day*

71. *This day was very hard.*

72.

    a. an early departure (ADJ)

    b. They departed early. (ADV)

73.

    a. I do not feel well. (ADJ)

    b. I did not play well. (ADV)

2.4.1   Morphology of Adverbs

Adverbs, the same as adjectives get some specific suffixes which help us to recognize them in the context easily. It is possible to derive adverbs typically from adjectives as mentioned in the example (74) moreover also Huddleston and Pullum (2005, 122) state that "the main thing that makes the adverb category open is that such a high proportion of adverbs are morphologically derived from adjectives by adding the suffix –*ly*". This can be counted as a prototypical feature of adverbs as morphologically adverbs are typically created with the suffix –*ly*. Of course it does not mean that words that do not take suffix –*ly* cannot be adverbs, it is important to use also another criteria (syntactic and phonological) in their categorization than (Huddleston and Pullum 2005).

*74. bad-**ly**, easi-**ly***

Adverbs, just like adjectives, can be graded. Grading is mostly done by means of free morphemes *more* and *the most* (e.g. *slowly – more slowly – most slowly*) furthermore adverbs can also be pre-modified by the modifier *very*, as mentioned before, which leads us to the fact that they cannot be distinguished from adjectives based only on these two features (Huddleston and Pullum 2005, 122) (75).

*75. The meal was **very** good.*

2.4.2   Adverbial Phrase

An adverbial phrase has almost identical structure as an adjective phrase although somewhat simpler. It is a prototypical feature of adverbs to stand for a head of an adjectival phrase which helps us in categorization of adverbs. An adverb in an adverbial phrase just like adjective in an adjectival phrase can be pre-modified by grading adverbs which consist of degree words (e.g. *more easily*) or an adverbial (e.g. *surprisingly easily*). Other pre-modifiers of an adverb are measure phrases (e.g. *to look ten meter-s long*). In contrast to adjective phrase, measure phrases which pre-modify an adverb usually contain a plural marked by –*s*. An adverbial phrase is typically structured according to the kind of word that it modifies (76) (Veselovská 2017).

76.

    a. [AP five-meters high] tree

    b. To look five meter-s high.

2.5 Verbs

From the semantic point of view, verbs are words which express events, states, affairs or preferences. As mentioned before, verbs belong to the open class of parts of speech just as nouns, adjectives and adverbs. However, it is not exactly true. Only "*full verbs*" or sometimes called "*lexical verbs*" can be counted as members of the open class category and new words can be easily added to them. In more detail, there are also two other groups of verbs called *auxiliary verbs (be, have, do)* and *modal verbs (can, may, shall, will, must, could, might, should, would)* which cannot belong to the open class as no new words can be added there (Quirk and Greenbaum 1991, 24). However, firstly I would like to focus mainly on lexical verbs and modals with auxiliaries will be mentioned later in my thesis in a separate chapter.

Lexical verbs can be inflected by tenses. Tenses in English have two forms – simple and progressive (sometimes also called "continuous") (Alexander and Close 1988). Verbs that are used only in simple form and never in progressive form are called "stative verbs" referring to states as experiences and not to actions. In simple form, stative verbs can be found in all tenses and categories such as: feelings, believing, wants, perception or owning. For example in (77) the verb *loves* is stative because it is a feeling which is involuntary and so for this reason the progressive form cannot usually be used there (Alexander and Close 1988).

77. She loves her son.

Even though it is true that the verb *love* is stative, there can be some exceptions. Language just as anything else evolves overtime and so do the grammar rules. An example of that can be the motto of one famous fast food brand McDonald's "*I/m loving it*". One would say that grammatically this sentence is completely wrong, however, this is only an indication, that language is changing and this is done especially by advertising, companies and the younger generation. In this particular case, it is using stative verbs in continuous form. In my opinion there is nothing wrong about that, even more so, it is good that language is still changing and improving, as it would be boring to learn, use and speak still by the same old grammar rules. Just imagine chatting online with your friends using the language your grandparents used, quite funny, moreover, "*I am loving it*" sounds more positively and happily than "*I love it*" (Veselovská 2017).

Except of *love* there are also other verbs that can behave as stative the same as dynamic but with different meaning however I would like to point out a verb *have* that is

typically and more often used as a stative verb expressing possession (e.g. *I have a car*) however, this verb can also behave as dynamic with completely different meaning (e.g. *I am having a lunch*). In my opinion, these dynamic and, at the same time, also stative verbs are another perfect example of irresponsibility of semantic criterion in categorization of parts of speech as for example a verb *have* can get several meanings depending on the context it appears in.

Dynamic verbs, on the other hand, are used with the connection to actions that are usually voluntary or if the situation is changing like in the case of activities. These activities have a beginning and also an end. However, in contrast to stative verbs, dynamic ones can have progressive but also simple aspect forms. We can see these distinctions in the example bellow (78). In this sentence there is a verb *looking at* in the progressive aspect while in the sentence (79) there is the verb *look* in the simple aspect (Alexander and Close 1988).

78. I am looking at her.

79. I look at her.

Regular full verbs are known for their four inflectional morphological forms. First morphological form (*s-form*) is used with the 3rd person singular, present tense, indicative mood agreement - by adding a suffix "-*s*" to the verb (80). The second one is about the adding of -*ed* suffix at the end of the verb used to mark a past tense (81) if the verb is not irregular. The third form is past participle form which is created using the suffix -*en*, -*t* and -*en* attached at the end of the verb (82) and the last form of verbs is –*ing* present participle form created with the suffix -*ing* (83) (Veselovská 2017).

80.

a. regular verb	*She **helps** me.*
b. irregular verb	*She **drives** the car very well.*
c. be	*She **is** in the kitchen helping her mother with the dinner.*

81.

a. regular verb	*He **helped** his father with e-mails.*
b. irregular verb	*He **went** to the school in the morning.*
c. be	*He **was** in the kitchen making a dinner.*
d. be	*They **were** home last night.*

82.

a. regular verb	*Working in this company **has helped** me develop my communication skills.*

      b. irregular verb   *Peter **has chosen** his wife very well.*

      c. be   *I **have been** in England for two years.*

83.

      a. regular verb   *He was **helping** me in the garden.*

      b. irregular verb   *He is **driving** so fast.*

      c. be   *He is **being** mad at me.*

2.5.1 Finite and Non-finite Clauses

There is an important difference between finite and non-finite clauses that are closely connected with the contrast between main clauses and the subordinate ones. Finite clause always agrees with a subject NP (e.g. *she kisses, she drove, she drives*) and contains a verb which shows tense (84) (Veselovská 2017). This type of clause can stand for the main clause as well as for the subordinate one while non-finite clause is usually subordinate and its verb does not carry a tense (85) (Huddleston and Pullum 2005).

    84.

      *a. She **is** going home.*   (present tense)

      *b. She **spoke** to him yesterday.*   (past tense)

    *85. I want **to buy** a chocolate*

2.5.2 Tense

Moving to tenses, in English there are three main possible tenses – present, past and future - all usually being marked by free or bound morphemes. According to Veselovská (2017, 88) "tenses refers to the main grammatical ways of referring to *pragmatic/semantic notions of Time*. Real time is an open and infinite phenomenon. Language uses a simplified version of Time = Tense, which is related to the moment of the speech act".

    The present tense is used when talking about something that is happening right now in the moment of the speech act. With present tense, suffix *–s* is used to mark the third person singular (e.g. *he reads*). The past tense is used when talking about something that has happened in the past before the speech act. Past tense is usually marked with the suffix *–ed* in the case of regular verbs (e.g. *he helped me*) or the verb can get its special form in the case of irregular ones (e.g. *he drove to the town*). The last tense is a future one marked by a free morpheme *will* which typically stands before a verb in statements (Veselovská 2017).

2.5.3 Aspect

Aspect of verbs consists of several types – simple, progressive, perfect and their combinations – each referring to a different duration or completeness of the action. In Czech, perfective aspect is connected more to the (in)completeness of the activity however in English, aspect is a discretionary verbal component. The verb can have no aspect (in "simple" tenses), or it can have one aspect or two aspects (Veselovská 2017).

The simple aspect is utilized to communicate a single action (86), action that is repeated regularly (87) or a durable state (88). On the other hand, occasions that are continuous are expressed by the progressive aspect (89). Perfective aspect is mostly created with the auxiliary *have* and past participle of a verb and it is used to talk about occasions that are already completed (90) while the perfect progressive aspect is a combination of a perfect and a progressive aspect used to express a completed part of an action that still continues (91). In English, progressive and perfective aspects are typically combined with all three tenses to create 12 grammatical temporal forms used to express a huge amount of variations of meaning (Veselovská 2017).

86. *Alice **lives** in Czech Republic.*

87. *She **runs** every evening.*

88. *She **graduated** from the Thomas Bata University.*

89. *Lucas **is riding** a bike.*

90. *We **had left** the Czech Republic in 1999.*

91. *I **have been working** here for two years now.*

2.5.4 Mood

In comparison to Czech (92), in English the category of mood is not expressed using verbal morphology as it does not use any inflectional morphemes that would signalize the intended communicative meaning of the sentence. English modality is rather a syntactic feature expressed by the distribution of sentence elements. English contains four main mood categories – Indicative, Interrogative, Imperative and Optative (93) (Veselovská 2017).

92.

a.	Indicative	***Plave** ráda.*
b.	Interrogative	***Plave** ráda?*
c.	Imperative	***Plave-j**!*

93.

a.	Indicative	She can **swim**.
b.	Interrogative	Can she **swim**?
c.	Imperative	**Swim**!
d.	Optative	May she swim fast!

2.5.5 Voice

Category of voice in English is also a syntactic feature and it express the relation of semantic roles and sentence functions. The voice in English can be active (94) or passive which moves the object of the first sentence at the beginning of the second (passivized) one and becomes the subject while sentence functions remain the same (95) (Veselovská 2017).

94. Lucas saw Simona.

95. Simona was seen by Lucas.

2.5.6 Verb Phrase

It is a prototypical feature of verbs in English that they function as heads of verbal phrases. As mentioned before, it is an adverb that usually pre-modifies a verb. This feature can again help us in categorization of verbs. Nevertheless, VPs are the most complex of all phrases in English and so the categorization of verbs is.

There are four types of verbs according to the number of participants that are obligatory to be selected by the verb. On the right in the verb phrase a verb can combine with several constituents selected according to their nature. Based on semantic distinctions there are four classifications of verbs according to a number of arguments (semantic roles) it takes. Firstly, there are "intransitive verbs" which choose zero participants (96). Another type is called "transitive verbs" choosing one participant (97), "ditransitive verbs" that choose more than one semantic role (98) and there are also "complex transitive verbs" with subject or object complement. (99) (Veselovská 2017).

*96. The rain **fell**.*

*97. To **find** a book.*

*98. To **put** the book on the table.*

*99. Jane **is** a lawyer.*

A VP can lexically select several possible constituents – NPs (100), PPs (101), APs (102), semi-clause VPs (103) and finite clauses (104).

100. I love reading books.

101. I sing in the shower very often.

102. I often sing very loud.

103. I often start crying when I feel alone.

104. I wish that he comes.

2.6 Auxiliaries and Modals

Some grammars (e.g. Huddleston and Pullum 2005) categorize verbs into two main groups – lexical verbs and auxiliary verbs which are further divided into modals and non-modals. On the other hand, auxiliaries and modals are also very often taken as a subgroup of verbs. I decided to categorize lexical verbs as one separate category and then auxiliaries with modals as a second separate category for reasons that will be discussed in this chapter of my thesis.

Auxiliaries typically express different behaviour than lexical verbs in many situations. Among auxiliaries, verbs as *be*, *have* and *do* are counted. It is impossible for auxiliaries to assign semantic role as these verbs do not have lexical meaning and serve only as grammatical words with several forms in connection with the verbal paradigm. In the example (105) there is portrayed an example of the verbal paradigm of the auxiliary verbs *be*, *have* and *do* (Veselovská 2017).

105.

a. *Be – am, is, are*

b. *Have - has*

c. *Do – does*

Modals (*must, can/could, will/would, may/might, shall/should*) just as auxiliaries express a different behaviour than lexical verbs, nevertheless, in comparison to auxiliaries, modals express only modality – deontic and epistemic. It is possible for almost every modal in English to express both modalities. Sometimes, it is not easy to distinguish between these two modalities as they can appear being ambiguous mainly in the case of modals in present tense. On the other hand, the distinction between deontic and epistemic modality is almost always clear in the past tense as the epistemic modality (106) - which express probability, possibility or logical necessity - usually does not convey the Tense feature. Deontic modality (107) considers an obligation, ability and prohibition and they usually specify activities done by people. Deontic verb *must* can carry the tense feature, however, *must* cannot create a past tense form on its own so this verb has to be always interchanged by the auxiliary verb *have* in its past form with a *to*-infinite that follows

(108). In the case of epistemic modality, the tense is possible to be attached to the lexical verb of the sentence in the infinitive to create a perfect infinitive (109) (Veselovská 2017).

    *106. It **must** be about 4 o'clock now.*

    *107. I **have to** go home now.*

    *108. I **had to** go to school yesterday.*

    *109. She **must have been** at the school yesterday.*

 First modal I would like to mention is *can/could* which can be translated with the meaning of possibility (110), ability (111) and permission (112) (Quirk and Greenbaum 1991).

    110. He can be at school right now.

    111. He can play football very well.

    112. Can you go to the cinema tomorrow?

 A modal verb *may/might* expresses permission (113) as a deontic modality but also possibility as an epistemic modality however, in contrast to the possibility expressed by the modal *can*, the one expressed by the modal *may* is more formal (114) moreover, *might* is even more polite version of *may* (Quirk and Greenbaum 1991).

    113. You may go there if you want to.

    114. He may be wrong/He might be wrong.

 As mentioned before, when talking about logical necessity the most common modal verb used in this situation is *must* (115). Speaker who uses this verb is usually persuaded that the proposition has to be true. In interrogative and negative sentences, the modal *must* is usually replaced by *can* (116). The statement in the example (117) has completely different meaning that those two that precede it as the first two examples have an epistemic meaning of "possibility" and the last one expresses a deontic meaning – the negative modal *must* in this sentence means something as "prohibition" (Quirk and Greenbaum 1991).

    115. He must be tired.

    116. He can't be tired

    117. He must not be tired.

 Another verb which can replace modal *must* in questions and negative sentences is *need* (118) (Quirk and Greenbaum 1991).

    118. Need they be so loud?

 In situations, when the speaker does not know exactly, if the statement is correct or not, modal *ought to* or *should* can be used (119). Moreover, it is possible to use a modal *should* when giving an advice (120) (Quirk and Greenbaum 1991).

119. The house should/ought to be visible from the hill.

120. You should help your mum.

When talking about prediction and future situations, the modal *will* is usually used (121) however, also *shall* is a one that can be used when talking about predictions (122) or volition (123) with the difference that using *shall* instead of *will* is more formal (Quirk and Greenbaum 1991).

121. I will be there at 5pm.

122. When shall I know the results?

123. We shall consider your opinion.

2.6.1 Morphology of Auxiliaries and Modals

As Machová (2015, 53) states "probably the most distinguishing property of English central modals (*can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would, must*) is the morphological absence of agreement, in English visible only in the 3rd person singular" (124). This morphological feature is called "subject-verb agreement" (Dušková 1994) however, it is possible only with lexical verbs in the present tense as they – as mentioned before in my thesis - agree with the sentence subject in the number and person (Machová 2013). Subject-verb agreement is another prototypical feature of lexical verbs but not of modals that is also a reason I decided to list them as a separate word class from verbs.

*124. She must/*musts be at home.*

Even more, it is not possible to combine modals with other forms of verbal paradigm (e.g. *infinitive, present/past participle tense*) (125), (126) (Machová 2013). On the other hand, modals can very often combine with verbs that carry perfective aspect (127) (Biber and Quirk 2012). However, this applies only to modals, as auxiliaries can get many forms that correspond with subject-verb agreement (128) (Veselovská 2017).

*125. *to can / *canted / *canten / *canting*

126. to draw / drew / drawn / drawing

*127. She **could have studied** harder, but she was lazy.*

*128. Lucas **is** playing football.*

According to some traditional grammars (e.g. Quirk and Greenbaum 1991), most modals have also their present and past form (e.g. *may/might, can/could, shall/should, will/would, can/could*) and what is more, tense past forms are usually more polite variant than the present one (Quirk and Greenbaum 1991) however, this is not as correct statement as it seems to be. Machová (2015, 54) states: "The suffix –d in for example *could* cannot

be regarded as an independent suffix, as it cannot be separated from *can* by decomposing *could* into **did you can*, as can be observed with lexical verbs *took/did you take*. Moreover, it is highly questionable whether the pair *can - could* represents the difference in tense". Sentences in (129) and (130) contain *can* and *could*, however, they do not represent any difference in tense, but the distinction is rather stylistic (Machová, 2015). Moreover, for example *should* is a modal that is according to Machová (2015, 55) "not compatible with past at all" (131).

129. *Can I put off the light soon?*

130. *Could I put off the light soon?*

131. **I should go to school yesterday.*

As I already mentioned in my thesis, there are two types of aspect in English – progressive and perfective. Auxiliary verbs the same as lexical verbs allow both of these aspects, however with modals it does not work this way so there is no modal verb that would get aspect (132) (Veselovská 2017).

132.

a. Lucas **is** playing football.	Progressive aspect
b. Lucas has done it.	Perfective aspect.
c. *Lucas is canning play football.	Modals do not get aspect

As Veselovská (2017, 106) states "neither auxiliaries nor modals can be passivized" so Voice is a morphosyntactic feature that does not work with either modals or auxiliaries (133).

133. **Footbal is could play by me.*

2.6.2 Syntax of Auxiliaries and Modals

Moving to syntax, in terms of auxiliaries it is important to mention again, that English language is analytic and so is the predicate. It is possible to divide the predicate into several elements. There can be up to five elements involved in one predicate including one in the "operator position" – the first position in the predicate – and then four others standing in so called "V position" (Veselovská 2017).

Quirk in his "Comprehensive Grammar of English Language" shows the 5-slot Predicate model (from morphological point of view) which consists of five elements – Modal, Perfect, Progressive, Passive and Lexical (134), where *will* is the operator and other verbs stand in other four possible V positions (Quirk 2004). However, from the syntactic point of view there is only 2-slot Predicate model based on N.I.C.E. properties

that are described later in this chapter. This model consists of the operator position and one or more auxiliaries or verbs (135). Modals in contrast to Lexical verbs always appear in the operator position on the other hand auxiliaries can stand in the operator position just as in the V position (Machová 2015, Veselovská 2017) .

134. The picture $_{MOD}$**will** $_{PERF}$<u>have</u> $_{PASS}$<u>been</u> $_{PROG}$<u>being</u> $_{LEX}$<u>done</u>.

135. The picture **will** <u>have been being done</u>.

Operator or sometimes also called "AUX/MOD" position usually appears in each clause however, it is not always visible. A dummy do is the type of the operator that is hidden or silent in declarative sentences (136), however, it is visible and provides so called "DO-support" in other types of sentences – interrogative (137) or negative (138) also described in the following paragraph about N.I.C.E. properties (Veselovská 2017).

136. I live in Ostrava. / I **do** live in Ostrava.

137. **Do** you live in Ostrava?

138. I **do** not live in Ostrava.

N.I.C.E. properties are specific for the operator. It is an acronym and each of the letters represents one of the properties – negation, inversion, coda or sometimes also called "question tags" and ellipsis or in other words also "short answers". These properties are useful in situations when there is a silent operator in the sentence and we want to prove, that the operator is present in the particular clause (Veselovská 2017).

In English it is possible to negate a statement using the negative particle *not*. In the case of operator, the negative particle *not* stands after the operator or it can be attached to the operator in its contracted form *-n't* (139). In comparison to modal verbs, lexical verbs are negated differently as they cannot be negated itself and so it is not possible to attach the negative particle to the lexical verb but dummy do has to be used (140) (Veselovská 2017).

139. You should **not**/ should**n't** go to school.

140.

    a. *I live **not**/ live**n't** in Ostrava.

    b. I **do not**/ **don't** live in Ostrava.

Inversion is another property that is typical for modals and auxiliaries used in questions or so called interrogative sentences (141) (Machová 2015). It is also another property that distinguishes modals and auxiliaries from lexical verbs. Declarative sentences in English have very strictly fixed word order and in interrogative sentences operator appears before a subject (Veselovská 2017).

141.

*a. **Should** I live in Ostrava?*

*b. ***Live I** in Ostrava?*

*c. **Does** she live in Ostrava?*

Coda stands for the letter "C" in N.I.C.E. properties and related to "question tags". It is possible only for modals and auxiliaries to appear in question tags but not for lexical verbs (142) (Veselovská 2017).

142.

*a. He **can** live in the Ostrava, **can't** he?*

*b. He **is** playing football, **isn't** he?*

*c. ***He **lives** in Ostrava, **lives he not**?*

The last property is called "Ellipsis" which means a possibility of modals and auxiliaries to appear in short answers (143) (Veselovská 2017).

143.

a. She can swim very well – and so <u>can</u> I.

*b. She used this mascara – ***and so <u>used</u> I.*

Beside N.I.C.E. properties, English modals differ from lexical verbs also in the case of subcategorization because modals can be followed only by a bare infinitival VP, however, it is possible for lexical verbs to be combined with all four types of phrases (NP, VP, PP, AP) and also with the clause (144) (Machová, 2015).

*144. I can $_{VP}$[go there] / *$_{PP}$[to the cinema] / *$_{AP}$[tired]*

As it was demonstrated in the examples above, N.I.C.E. properties and subcategorization are evidences that modals and auxiliaries differ from lexical verbs (Veselovská 2017). These characteristics proved by N.I.C.E. properties and subcategorization show the reason why I decided to separate them from verbs and listed them as a separate word class in my thesis.

2.7 Prepositions

Prepositions are heads in prepositional phrases. They are usually short words representing the closed class category of word classes. It is important to mention prepositions in this thesis as they connect two units in a sentence and specify their relationship. As said before they represent closed category of parts of speech and there are only about a hundred prepositions which are used daily. Even though prepositions are separated from others groups of parts of speech, there are some which can be classified also as adverbs in several contexts (Huddleston and Pullum 2005). Prepositions are usually known for having NP

complements, however, there are some exceptions as in the example (145b) where the word "bellow" is traditionally not counted as a preposition as it does not have a complement. More often it is counted as an adverb as it answers the question "*Where*?" (Joseph Edmonds 1987).

145.

    a. The sun went <u>bellow</u> the mountain.

    b. I went <u>bellow</u>.

Another prototypical feature of words traditionally classified as prepositions is that they do not take inflections which means that there is only one form they can have (e.g. *on* and no *onner or *ons). This absence of inflections is also the reason why the morphological approach is not useful here.

As I mentioned before, there are some prepositions which can be classified also as adverbs if they do not have a NP complement (145) for this reason it is also not reliable to distinguish words into parts of speech based only on the semantic approach, but also based on morphological and syntactic approach together (Huddleston and Pullum 2005).

Moreover, prepositions are sometimes incorrectly characterized only as having a meaning related to time (e.g. *before lunch),* place (e.g. *at the school*) or direction (e.g. *into the house*), however, there are also those prepositions that get completely different meaning (e.g. *despite*) so this general definition is again not relevant (Huddleston and Pullum 2005).

English language distinguishes two main types of prepositions – simple and complex. The very common prepositions are simple, it means, they are monosyllabic, unstressed and there is usually only a small number of them (e.g. *in, on, for, at*). On the other hand, there are also polysyllabic prepositions which are usually compounds created from monosyllabic ones (e.g. *outside*). In English, there can be distinguished two types of complex prepositions. First one is created of one simple preposition, which is preceded by an adverb, adjective, conjunction or participle (e.g. *because of*). The second type is when the simple preposition is before a noun which is followed by another preposition (e.g. *in charge of*). Prepositions can be also modified usually by adverbs that typically give degree or measure information (***exactly*** *into the hoop*) (Quirk and Greenbaum 1991).

From the syntactic point of view, prototypical feature of prepositions is that they stand for heads of prepositional phrases. Usually prepositions modify nouns or verbs. A prepositional phrase usually consists of a preposition, object and its modifier however, a PP has to consist at least of a preposition as a head and an object (noun, pronoun, gerund or

clause) which is usually modified as in the example (146) where the word *my* is a modifier (Huddleston and Pullum 2005).

*146. I got this PP[from **my** grandmother].*

Usually, a PP has a function of an adjective or adverb. When the preposition behaves as an adjective then it typically modifies a noun (147). On the other hand, when the preposition has the same behaviour as an adverb than it very often modifies a verb (148). Sometimes there are also cases when a PP behaves as a noun of the sentence (149) however, it is not so common (150) (Huddleston and Pullum 2005).

147. The book <u>on the table</u> is really good.

148. Lucas drank a tea <u>with lemon</u>.

149. <u>After the school</u> will be the right time to go out with my friends.

2.8 Conjunctions

Conjunctions or in other words "coordinators" are counted as another group of parts of speech which stands for a closed category, so almost no new words can be added into this group. They have a function of linking two clauses together, so sometimes also the term "linking words" can be found in traditional grammars (Aarts 2011).

Conjunctions can be divided into two groups – coordinating conjunctions (e.g. *and, or, but*) and subordinating conjunctions sometimes also called "subordinators" (e.g. *that, whether, if, for*). Coordinating conjunctions connect phrases and sentences on the same syntactic level, on the other hand, subordinate conjunctions connect the subordinate clause to the main one as in the example (150) where "*I think*" is the main clause and "*that it is a really nice picture*" is the subordinate one. In the case of conjunctions, syntax is the most important and useful criterion for their categorization as they do not take any morphological inflections and for example a word *that* can stand for a conjunction the same as for a pronoun in different context (e.g. *give me that*) (Aarts 2011).

150. I think [that it is a really nice picture].

Clauses connected with coordinate conjunctions are often fixed to each other, which means, there is a relation among the first one and the second clause and sometimes the sentences would not have a grammatical meaning if standing on their own (Quirk and Greenbaum 1991, 268).

2.9   Determiners and Quantifiers

English language has generally two types of articles – the indefinite article *a/an* and the definite one *the* (Aarts 2011).

The indefinite article is used when the information we want to convey is not known to the addressee from the discourse and is mentioned for the first time. In front of the consonant sounds the indefinite article *a* is used (e.g. *a radio*). Before the vowel sound, on the other hand, there is almost always used the indefinite article *an* (e.g. *an umbrella*). The indefinite article *a/an* can be used also as a quantifier to express a quantity with meaning of "only one" (e.g. *I would like an apple*) (Aarts 2011).

Usually *the* can be used in references to a single identifiable place, on the other hand, some locations are only one of a kind so they are always used with the definite article *the* (e.g. *the sky, the sea, the moon*). The definite article *the* can be combined with nouns which are singular countable, plural countable or with nouns which are always plural (e.g. *trousers*, *scissors*) or always singular - in English called "uncountable nouns". The definite article *the* is also used with some nationality adjectives usually with endings *-ch, -sh,* and *–ese* (e.g. *the French*). Nationality adjectives with these endings are used when it is referred to the group as a whole, on the other hand, it is important to mention that nationality adjectives can be used only with definite article *the* or with zero article to refer to the group as a whole. When referring to individuals the nationality adjectives can be combined with numbers or quantifiers (e.g. *some, many*). As mentioned in the section on Proper Nouns, these are also used with the definite article *the* so that the identity of these referents is emphasized (e.g. *the Beatles*) (Alexander and Close 1988).

Even though using articles in English is grammatically correct and important there are many situations in everyday life when definite and also indefinite articles are omitted for example in newspaper headlines, maps, notes and so on in order to save space, time and money.

In English there are also quantifiers, very often counted as determiners as they, the same as determiners, modify nouns by expressing their quantity. Quantifiers can be combined with countable and uncountable nous. In English there are quantifiers *many* and *a few* combined with countable nouns on the one hand and quantifiers *much* and *a little* on the other hand which are are combined only with nouns that are uncountable. Quantifiers can be also indefinite, it means, that they do not inform us about the concrete number (e.g.

some, any, each, every) and definite ones tell us the concrete number of something (Alexander and Close 1988).

Quantifiers *much* and *many* are not normally used in the everyday conversation because they are more formal than *a lot of* quantifier also written as *lots of* informally used in affirmative or in questions when the speaker expects a positive answer (Alexander and Close 1988)

2.10 Interjections

From the semantic point of view interjections are words which express emotions or reactions (e.g. *cool*, *aha*, *ooh*, *yuck, please, yes, damn*) (Aarts 2011). As Emonds (1987) states "interjections have a non-trivial syntax – they are subjectless (e.g. *damn you* vs. *damn yourself)". It is not possible to describe interjections from morphological point of view as these words typically do not take any inflections and they are used mostly in conversations rather than in books, so morphological and syntactic criterion are not useful in categorization of interjections. The lack of morphology and syntax in the case of interjections make them even more specific.

CONCLUSION

My bachelor thesis deals in its chapters with the issue of word classes and their division in English language. The first part of the thesis discusses possible approaches to categorization of parts of speech; and the second part of the thesis focuses on parts of speech in general. The theoretical part of the thesis is always interlinked with practical examples as this thesis does not contain any separate analytical part. Thanks to these examples it is easier to understand those concrete issues that are being examined and exceptional grammatical possibilities (also ungrammatical ones) are often being listed there.

Parts of speech are one of the most well-known segments of grammar of every language. There are a lot of similarities words can have and for this reason it would be hard to describe them one by one without the knowledge of word classes. Words would be just words without any classification, there would be no rule by which words should be used in different contexts. In my opinion, parts of speech are one of the most important classifications in the grammar of any language even though it is probably the most basic one. Every language in the world contains some parts of speech, however, their classification is not always the same. The world is full of various languages each of them having distinctive grammar rules. For someone it can be a reason to study languages and differences between them.

In my thesis I presented a lot of examples showing, that it is not always so easy to describe word classes and classify them even though it is said to be the base of every language. The categorization is a question of assumptions and methodology each linguist has, and as we have seen, that every linguist has his own way of categorization of word classes and these linguists often disagree with each other in choosing the criteria.

I mentioned three main approaches to the classification of word classes. The semantic one which focuses mainly on the meaning of words, syntactic that focuses on the syntax of the language, even though the word order of English is said to be fixed, this rule can be always overcome in almost every language, and finally the morphological one that focuses mainly on affixes a word can take. However, it is important to mention once more that the boundaries between these criteria are not strict and there are always some exceptions when words cannot be classified only based on the one of these criteria but it is important to use all of them together to classify them correctly. What I want to say is that there is not only one right approach for the categorization of words and that none of them is 100% reliable.

And it is exactly the main issue that my bachelor thesis is focused on as they should all be taken into consideration at the same time.

I dealt a lot with the problem of the correct word classification. I have read through a lot of grammars written by various authors when each of them stated a different number of word classes, called some of them differently or classified word classes based on different criteria. I found out that some grammars present only eight parts of speech while another one has presented nine of them. It could be, in my opinion, confusing for people who starts to learn English as a new language, however, it is maybe the reason why these grammars for beginners use mainly the semantic criterion in the term of parts of speech as it is, as I mentioned before, the basic and the easiest one, nevertheless unreliable.

Mostly, grammars present only eight parts of speech – nouns, pronoun, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. In my thesis I decided to divide words into ten word classes – nouns, pronouns, verbs, adverbs, adjectives, auxiliaries and modals, prepositions, conjunctions, determiners and quantifiers and interjections. Auxiliaries and modals, in my thesis, represent the separate word class so, in comparison to some grammars, they are not written as a subclass of verbs. This division seems for me more logical, as auxiliaries and modals get many features that are not possible with lexical verbs (e.g. NICE criteria, operator position). Each part of speech in my thesis is described from semantic, morphological and also syntactic point of view for better and more correct understanding and it is also supported by examples that show insufficiency of each approach and prove my opinion that all approaches have to be taken into consideration in categorization of word classes.

According to semantic criterion, verbs are denoting actions, states or events; nouns denote to people, things or places and adjectives are said to denote qualities or properties notwithstanding, that is not enough. This approach is considered to be unreliable as there are a lot of exemptions when it is impossible to categorize words based only on their notional meaning. In several grammars I found that it is possible for nouns to refer to qualities just the same as it is for adjectives (e.g. *honesty*) or to events just the same as verbs do (e.g. *meeting*). It is not the correct way of categorization to take in consideration only the semantic criterion as very often a word without context can get more than one meaning. Morphological approach, on the other hand, categorizes words into parts of speech according to affixes they can take, nevertheless, as mentioned in my thesis, there are words which do not take any inflection and do not change their form and it is then impossible to distinguish them based only on this criterion. These words, which cannot

take any inflections, are for example conjunctions (e.g. *and*), prepositions (e.g. *on*) or interjections (e.g. *damn*) and it is impossible to categorize them using only the morphological approach. Moreover, there are also word classes that typically take inflections, however, not all of the representatives of the particular word class do so. Nouns are known for taking inflections in connection to plural form (e.g. *car – cars*). Nevertheless, there are also irregular nouns for which it is not possible to take inflection to their base. Then, the singular and plural form of irregular nouns is the same (e.g. *sheep – sheep*). Moreover, sometimes one affix can be used for several purposes. There is a suffix *–s* that is usually used to mark plural form of nouns the same as the 3rd person singular present form (e.g. *hers*). Syntactic criterion is connected with the distribution of words within the sentence. It may seem, that it is the most reliable approach however, as I already stated in my thesis, it is not always like that. As I mentioned in the chapter of pronouns, it is possible for pronouns to replace nouns in the sentence. Even though that nouns and pronouns are different parts of speech, they can both appear in the same place in the sentence. What I also describe in my thesis is the difference between a semantically correct sentence and a syntactically correct sentence. There are sentences that can be syntactically correct however, they would not have a semantic meaning. Let us consider the expression "*dogs bark*" and "*girls bark*". Both of these sentences are syntactically correct so they are grammatical, however, the second one in unacceptable as semantically it does not have a meaning.

The relevance of each criterion is also discussed a lot in my thesis. I believe that it is impossible to assume which criterion is relevant or not as all criteria are important when categorizing parts of speech and even though the syntactic criterion is used and being focused on by grammarians mostly nowadays, I pointed out several examples when this approach does not work in the right way just the same as other two approaches. In my thesis I always stated why, according to me, the specific approach either is or is not reliable in the classification of word classes. I provided more than one hundred examples to fulfil the practical part of my bachelor thesis and to show that it is not always clear which word belongs to which category. I would like to summarize it with the statement that it is impossible to choose which approach is relevant or not as all of them are essential and important to be used when dealing with the categorization of words into parts of speech.

In my thesis I also mentioned two approaches that are not so popular nor used nowadays. It is the phonological criterion which deals with the pronunciation of words and the issue of words that are written in the same way but pronounced differently as they

belong to the distinct word category, and the pragmatic approach that focuses on the pragmatic function of the each word category, however, it is relatively new and not used so much nowadays. A little usage and unreliability of these two last criteria is the reason why I did not spend much time dealing with them.

To conclude my bachelor thesis, there are three main approaches that should be taken into consideration in the case of categorization of words into parts of speech as none of them is fully reliable by itself, it is impossible to choose only one of them that should be used the most.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AP   -adjectival/adverbial phrase

AUX   -auxiliary verb

LEX   -lexical verb

MOD   -modal verb

N   -noun

NP   -noun phrase

PP   -prepositional phrase

SOV   -subject object verb

VP   -verb phrase

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