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Characteristics of English Modal verbs
(Diplomová práce)

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1. Auxiliary verbs

Verbs in English, as well as in other languages form a large and versatile group. They differ in meaning, in the forms they take, in independence, ... and they can be divided into groups. However, the number of the groups differs from author to author. The main reason for the differences in the classification is the point of view the grammarians take into account. For some of them the most important factor of the classification is the meaning of the verbs. Others look at their morphological forms. Although there are so many differences all grammarians agree that modal verbs form a distinctive verb group that plays a different role in the verb phrase when compared with lexical (full) verbs.

In my thesis I would like to look closer at the modal verbs. For my thesis I have chosen two representative sources of information. The first is *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* written by Quirk et al. (1985) and the second is *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* written by Huddleston et al. (2002).

Generally, Huddleston et al. (2002:92) divides verbs into 2 main classes, these are **lexical verbs** and **auxiliary verbs**. The main criterion for this classification is the inflectional morphology and syntax of these verbs. **Auxiliary verbs** are divided into two classes. The first verb class is **modal auxiliary verbs**: *can, may, will, shall, must, ought to, need, dare*. The second verb class is **non-modal auxiliary verbs** *be, have* and *do*. Quirk et al. (1985:96) classifies verbs into three major verb categories. The decisive factor for this division is the verb's function within the verb phrase. There are: open class of **full verbs** (also **lexical verbs**), a closed class of **primary verbs** (*be, have, do*) and **modal auxiliary verbs**. **Modal auxiliary verbs** are later divided into two groups: **central modals** and **marginal modals**. According to Quirk et al. (1985:120) both primary verbs (*be, have, do*) and modal auxiliary verbs have something in common. Unlike the lexical verbs, these verbs are capable of functioning as auxiliaries ('helping verbs'), i.e. the verbs that contribute to the verb phrase in different way. Auxiliary verbs are somehow defective, i.e. they lack certain forms and tend to be semantically 'bleached'. Huddleston et al. (2002:102) states that the general definition of auxiliary verbs is that they denote a closed class of verbs that are characteristically used as markers of tense, mood, aspect, and voice, i.e. they are grammaticalized. In this way, they are distinguished from the modal verbs which are associated mainly with the expression of the modal meanings (possibility, obligation, volition, ...). According to Swan (1980:388) modal auxiliary verbs have more 'dictionary meaning' and they are not used to talk about things which are definitely happening, or have definitely happened. They are used when we say that we expect something to happen, or that the events are possible, or necessary, or improbable, or impossible, or we say that things did not happen, or that we are not sure whether they happened. Although auxiliary verbs vary in their function in the verb phrase, they share one important syntactic function – their ability to act as an operator. According to Quirk et al. (1988:79) the operator together with predication forms a predicate. The operator is defined as the first or the only auxiliary. It has the crucial role in the formation of questions and negation.

As mentioned before, both primary verbs and modal auxiliary verbs belong to the verb group with auxiliary function. Even though they are members of one group they differ in many aspects. Alexander et al. (1988:208) say that structurally, modal auxiliaries resemble primary verbs *be, have, do* in some ways and differ

from them in others. Both, primary verbs as well as modal auxiliary verbs take the negative particle NOT in negation and in questions they take the pre-subject position. However, modal auxiliaries unlike primary auxiliaries are defective verbs because they lack some forms that ordinary lexical verbs have (see 1.2). Another important difference between the primary and modal auxiliaries is the number of verbs that may be combined in one verbal phrase (see 1.2.1.). There are other differences which will be considered later.

In next part of this chapter I would like to present the basic characteristic of the auxiliary verbs. Here I will follow Huddleston's classification of the verbs. I will leave out lexical verbs and concentrate only on auxiliary verbs and their features.

1.1 Non – modal auxiliary verbs

The primary verbs are *be*, *do* and *have*. All of these verbs may function either as main verbs or as auxiliaries.

• DO

As a main verb, DO has the full range of forms (*do*, *does*, *did*, *done*, *doing*). DO in sentences may very often be replaced with the verb with more exact meaning as in 1)b).

1)

a) *Let's do the dishes.* = *wash, dry*¹

b) *She has done some really good essays.* = *has written*

As auxiliaries it is the only semantically empty syntactical component. It is followed by infinitives without *to*. And Swan (2005:146) presents a list of uses of auxiliary verb *do*.

a) questions

We use *do* to make questions with lexical verbs. Here it functions as 'empty', 'dummy' operator (do-support).

2)

a) *Do you like football?*

b) **Like you football?*

c) **Do you can drive?*

d) *Can you drive?*

b) negatives

Do is also used to make clauses with lexical verbs. Here it also functions as a 'dummy' operator.

3)

a) *I don't like football.*

b) **I like not football.*

c) *I can't play football.*

d) **I don't can play football.*

¹ The examples used in this chapter are taken from the grammar books listed in the bibliography.

c) emphasis

We can use *do* in an affirmative clause for emphasis.

4)

- a) *Do sit down.*
- b) *You do look very nice.*
- c) *I don't do much sport now, but I did play football when I was young.*

d) inversion

Do is used in some inversion structures.²

5) *At no time did he lose his self-control.*

e) ellipsis

In cases where an auxiliary verb is used instead of a whole verb phrase, *do* is common in affirmative clauses as well as in questions and negation.

6)

- a) *She doesn't like dancing, but I do.*
- b) *You saw Allan, didn't you?*
- c) *Anne thinks there's something wrong with Bill, and so do I.*

• HAVE

As the main verb it is used with static meaning. It takes *do* support (negation, questions, ...) but in the traditional construction in BrEng *HAVE* may be used without *do* support 7)a) and 7)b). But these constructions are somewhat uncommon. As an auxiliary verb *HAVE* contributes to the aspect. We use *HAVE* as an auxiliary verb with past participle to make 'perfect' verb forms.

7)

- a) *We haven't any money.*
- b) *Have you lighter?*

a) perfect verb forms

8)

- a) *Have you heard about Peter and Kate?* -Present perfect
- b) *I realized that I had met him before.* -Past perfect
- c) *We'll have to been living here for two years next Sunday.* -Future perfect
- d) *I'd like to have lived here in the eighteen century.* -Perfect infinitive
- e) *Having been there before, she knew what to expect.* -Perfect participle

b) questions and negative

Like all auxiliary verbs *have* makes questions without *do*.

² We put an auxiliary verb before the subject in several structures. Some of them are: questions, exclamations, after *so*, *neither*, in conditional clauses, etc. For more information see Swan (2007:279 - 280).

- 9)
- a) *Have you heard the news?*
 - b) **Do you have heard the news?*
 - c) *I haven't seen them.*
 - d) *I don't have seen them.*

c) progressive forms

There are no progressive verb forms of the auxiliary verb *have*.

- 10)
- a) **I am not having seen her anywhere.*
 - b) *I haven't seen her anywhere.*

In older English some present perfect forms were made with *be*, not *have*.

- 11) *Winter is come.*

This does not normally happen in modern English. But in informal language *to be finished* with personal subjects is often used in the same meaning as *to have finished*.

- 12)
- a) *How soon will you be finished, dear?*
 - b) = *How soon will you have finished, dear?*
 - c) *I went to get the car from the garage, but they weren't finished.*
 - d) = *I went to get the car from the garage, but they haven't finished.*

• BE

Be may be used as a main verb. Here it has a copular function.³ As an auxiliary verb it contributes to aspect and voice.

a) passive verb forms

We normally make passive forms of a verb by using tenses of the auxiliary *be* followed by the past participle (pp) of the verb.

- 13)
- a) *You will be told soon enough.* -Future simple
 - b) *Everything will have been done by Tuesday.* -Future perfect
 - c) *English is spoken here.* -Present simple
 - d) *Excuse the mess, the house is being painted.* -Present progressive
 - e) *Has Mary been told?* -Present perfect
 - f) *I wasn't invited, but I went.* -Past simple
 - g) *I felt like I was being watched.* -Past progressive
 - h) *I knew why I had been chosen.* -Past perfect

³ Copular verbs: *become*, *be* are followed by a subject complement or an adverbial, as in the types SVC and SVA.

Tom is a lorry-driver.

Three-quarters of the AIDS problem is in London and much of the rest in Scottish cities.

b) progressive aspect

Progressive verb forms are made with *be + ing*. They are used to refer to a short momentary action and often suggest a repetition.

14)

- | | |
|--|------------------------------|
| a) <i>I am waiting for the shops to open.</i> | -Present progressive |
| b) <i>Your suit is being cleaned.</i> | -Present progressive passive |
| c) <i>She phoned while I was cooking.</i> | -Past progressive |
| d) <i>I didn't know how long she had been sitting there.</i> | -Past perfect progressive |
| e) <i>Will you be going out this evening?</i> | -Future progressive |
| f) <i>I'd like to be lying on the beach now.</i> | -Progressive infinitive |

1.2 Modal auxiliary verbs

Both authors I am referring to (Quirk et al. as well as Huddleston et al.) agree that there is not only one general type of modal auxiliary verb. There are more classes of them that respond to the criteria for auxiliary verbs in different degrees. There is a scale of the modal auxiliaries with the lexical verbs and central modals as the border points of the scale. Some of the auxiliary verbs are closer to lexical verbs, and some are closer to the central modals. Here, I would like to look more closely at some of the criteria that help us to define the verb class of a particular verb.

According to Huddleston et al. (2002:106) the **central modal auxiliaries** have five distinctive properties: they have only primary forms, they do not show any agreement with the subject, they take bare infinitival complements, they are required in remote conditionals, and the use of their preterits with the modal remoteness meaning is less restricted than in the case with the other verbs. Some of these criteria apply also to **non-central modal verbs**. I am going to add one more criterion that applies more narrowly to central modal auxiliaries introduced by et et al. It is the *abnormal time reference* criterion.

1.2.1 Only primary forms

This criterion applies specifically to modal auxiliaries and it draws the distinction between the modal auxiliary verbs and primary verbs (*be, have, do*). Huddleston et al. (2002:106) claims that the modal auxiliaries, unlike primary verbs, have no secondary inflectional forms, i.e. *to* –infinitival 15)a), bare infinitival 15)b), and imperative construction 15)c). That is why they cannot occur in constructions that require them. Modal auxiliaries cannot occur either in the gerund participle 15)d) or in the perfect participle 15)e). Quirk et al. (1985:127) also takes into account this criterion. Auxiliaries are optional but when used they have a fixed position in the sequence. Because of the fact that modal auxiliary verbs have only primary forms they can occur only as the first element of the verb phrase and they cannot combine, i.e. there is a possibility to use only one modal auxiliary in the verb phrase that takes the initial position in the sequence 15)g). As this example shows there are rigid restrictions in the order of auxiliary verbs. The modal auxiliary is followed by the perfect auxiliary, the progressive and passive auxiliary.

15)

- *I'd like to can swim.*
- *I will can swim soon.*

- c) **Can swim by June!*
- d) **I regret not canning swim.*
- e) **I have could swim for six years.*
- f) **He may must work tomorrow.*
- g) *will have been being taken*

1.2.2 No agreement

Huddleston et al. (2002:107) describes modal auxiliary verbs as the verb class which does not display the usual person-number agreement with the subject in the present tense 16)a). The normal distinction between a 3rd person singular and plain present tense is therefore missing. Quirk et al., beside the *No 3rd person inflection* criterion have also *Independence of subject* criterion which more or less covers with Huddleston's *No agreement criterion*. Modal auxiliary verbs are not only formally "independent" of the subject but also semantically. Quirk et al. (1985:126) reflects the independence of the modal verb in three ways. First, it does not matter whether the modal auxiliary verbs are used with animate or inanimate subjects 16)b), i.e. there are not any semantic restrictions (boy x bus). With lexical verbs it is different; there are more restrictions in their use. Not all verbs can be freely used with every subject 16)c). Secondly, there is a possibility of the use of the existential *there* constructions with modal auxiliaries 16)c). And finally, there is a possibility of the change of the voice (active x passive) without the change of the meaning 16)e) and 16)f). As the example 16)g) shows the active – passive change of the verb *hope* is not possible without a change of the meaning.

16)

- a) **He cans/musts/mays go there.*
- b) *The man ought to be here at five./ The bus ought to be here at five.*
- c) *The man hopes to be here at five / *The bus hopes to be here at five.*
- d) *There must be a school on the island. / *There hope to b e a school on the island.*
- e) *Thousands of people will meet the president.*
- f) =*The president will be met by thousands of people.*
- g) *Thousands of people hope to meet the president.*
- h) ≠*The president hopes to be met by thousands of people.*

1.2.3 Bare infinitival complement

Another characteristic feature of the central modal verbs according to Huddleston et al. (2002:107) is their ability to accept bare infinitival complements only. Most verbs with infinitival complements take to-infinitives.

17)

- a) *I want to go there with her.*
- b) **I must to work. *I can to read.*
- c) *You will be asked questions.*
- d) **You will to be asked questions.*

1.2.4 Remote conditionals

Huddleston et al. (2002:107) describes the central modal auxiliaries as the first verbs in the apodosis⁴ of a conditional. No other type of verb may be used in that position.

18)

- a) *If you came tomorrow, you could help with the flowers.*
- b) **If you came tomorrow, you were able to help with the flowers.*

1.2.5 Modally remote preterite

According to Huddleston et al. this is the last criterion for central modal auxiliary verbs. The preterits of modal auxiliary verbs could, would, should, might can be used with the modal meaning without the grammatical restrictions that apply with other verbs.

19)

- a) *I wish you could move it. I wish you were able to move it.*
- b) *Could you move it? Were you able to move it?*

In 19)a) both verbs (could and were able to) are the complements of wish and they have the modal remoteness meaning. But in 19)b), i.e. in the main clause, the preterite of be able to indicates the past time only. Could, on the other hand, indicates the past time as well as the modally remote non-past time meaning.

1.2.6 Abnormal time reference

Quirk et al. (1985:137) introduces one more criterion that applies for the central modal auxiliaries. Some of the central modal verbs have past forms (*could, would, should, might*). These forms, however, do not have to refer to the past, but similar to the present forms they may refer also to the present as well as to the future (often with the hypothetical meaning) as in the example 20)a) and 20)b). Also modal auxiliaries which do not have a distinct past forms (*must, need, ought*) can be used to refer to the past in the indirect speech as in the example 20)e).

20)

- a) *I think he may/might retire next year.*
- b) *Will/would you phone him tomorrow?*
- c) **I think he retired next May.*
- d) **Did you phone him tomorrow?*
- e) *I told him he must be home early. [' ... he had to be ...]*

According to these six criteria we can distinguish a group of central modal auxiliaries. However, as I have mentioned before, there are also other modal verbs that share some of these characteristics with the central modal verbs. Quirk et al. (1985:137) introduces four verb groups that are placed somewhere between the lexical verbs and central modal verbs. These are marginal modals, modal idioms,

⁴ In conditional relationships the traditional terms PROTASIS for subordinate and APODASIS for the main clause are used.

semi-auxiliaries and catenatives. They also have their distinctive syntactic characteristics that distinguish these auxiliaries from the lexical verbs. These features are also shared by the central modal verbs.

1.2.7 The NICE construction

Huddleston et al. (2002:92) introduces the acronym NICE that stands for Negation, Inversion, Code and Emphasis. These are four non-canonical constructions that are not found with lexical verbs, but they are found only with auxiliaries.

1.2.7.1 Verb negation

Unlike lexical verbs, auxiliaries have the ability to create a negative form, i.e. to take the negative particle NOT. Lexical verbs do not have this ability, so they have to take an operator to form a negative form.

21)

a) *She cannot do it.*

b) **She saw not the play. He did not see the play.*

1.2.7.2 Subject auxiliary inversion

Quirk et al. (1985:125) states that auxiliaries, as operators, admit inversion, i.e. the subject noun phrase and the auxiliary (the first auxiliary if there are more than one) change places in some constructions, especially in the interrogative sentences. Lexical verbs have to take do-support to form questions.

22)

a) *She will come. Will she come?*

b) *She plans to come. *Plans she to come? Does she plan to come?*

1.2.7.3 Code

Another characteristic feature of auxiliary verbs according to Huddleston et al. (2002:93) is their use in elliptical constructions. Quirk et al. (1985:125) proposes that in this case auxiliaries function as the operator. They are used in reduced clauses as the reply to the question where the main verb is omitted (23)a) and (23)b). On the other hand, a more likely reply would be the elliptical construction. Another type of reduced constructions are the clauses with *so, no neither, ...* Here the reduced clause also contains only an operator without main verb. Huddleston et al. (2002:99) refers to it as “stranding”, i.e. the verbs are left on their own before the site of ellipsis. In the example, (23)d) the lexical verb *help* was left unexpressed but its semantic content is recoverable from the context.

23)

a) *Won't you try it again? Yes, I will [try again].*

b) *Can you drive a car? No, I can't [drive a car].*

c) *Ann will stay and so will Barbara.*

d) *Ann won't stay and neither will Barbara.*

e) *Pat [can help him too]. I can help him and Pat. [can_ too].*

1.2.7.4 Emphasis

Here, Quirk et al. (1985:124) also refers to auxiliaries as operators that can carry nuclear stress to mark sentence as positive rather than negative as in 24)a). Lexical verbs in this case use the operator do 24)b). Huddleston et al. (2002:98) talks about emphatic positives and emphatic negatives. Emphatic positives very often serve to contrast the positive with the contrasting negative proposition that has been expressed in the preceding discourse 24)c). In negative emphatic polarity the stress is placed on the negative element 24)d).

24)

- a) *Won't you try again? Yes, I WILL try again.*
- b) *You DID speak to her? [I thought you didn't.].*
- c) *That's not true: I WILL be there.*
- d) *You're wrong. I DID not move it.*

1.3 Summary

Here I presented the basic and crucial characteristics of the modal auxiliary verbs. Basically, in English there are two main verb groups. These are lexical verbs and auxiliary verbs. They differ in many aspects: semantically, morphologically and syntactically. However, auxiliaries as a verb group do not form a homogenous group. Here in this group we can find verbs like do, be and have which are called primary auxiliaries (see 1.1) as well as modal auxiliaries (1.2). The main difference between them is their function in the verb phrase. Primary verbs contribute mainly to the sentence processes such as negation, interrogation, aspect and voice. Modal auxiliaries on the other hand contribute to the meaning of the verb phrase. Some of the auxiliary verbs are called the central auxiliaries and they form the core of the group. Other verbs are rather peripheral and they accomplish only some of the auxiliary verb criteria (see 1.2.1 - 1.2.7).

2. The British National Corpus

In writing my thesis I am going to use the British National Corpus (later only the BNC). Here I would like to present at least the most essential information concerning the above mentioned corpus. Most of the information come from *The BNC Handbook* (2008) and from the BNC website <http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/corpus/creating.xml>.

The BNC consists of a sample collection and its aim is to represent the entirety of contemporary British English. It attempts to capture the full range of varieties of language use and also enables grammarians to provide better descriptions of language. The BNC together with the Bank of English (Harper Collins) are the largest corpora of British English. The BNC is a collection of over 4000 samples of modern British English (both spoken and written) which are stored in electronic form. It consists of over 1000 million words and is used by lexicographers to create dictionaries, by linguists to describe the English language and by language teachers and students to teach and learn English. The Corpus results from an effort of a large number of participants; organizations and individuals and was created by a consortium led by the Oxford University Press, together with major dictionary publishers Longman and Chambers, and research centers at the University of Lancaster and Oxford, and at the British Library.

The BNC characterizes the state of present contemporary British English. It is a mixed corpus containing both written and spoken texts. Ninety percent of it is made up of written texts. The texts are selected according to three independent *selection criteria*: domain, time, and medium. The *domain* of a text indicates the kind of writing it contains. Most of the texts were chosen from informative writings from the fields of applied sciences, arts, belief and thought, commerce and finance, leisure, ... The *medium* of a text indicates the kind of publication in which it occurs such as books, periodicals, brochures, advertising leaflets, etc. A small amount comes from material written to be spoken for example, political speeches, plays, broadcast scripts, etc. The *time* criterion refers to the date of publication of a text.

The BNC is a synchronic corpus and should contain texts from roughly the same period. The intention was that no text should date back further than 1975. There is, however one exception, namely, imaginative works which date back to 1964, because of their continued popularity and consequent effect on the language.

The BNC consists of two parts: a *demographic part* and a *context-governed part*. The first contains transcriptions of spontaneous conversations. All the original recordings have been deposited at the National Sound Archives of the British Library.⁵ The second part contains speech samples recorded during lectures, news broadcasts, classroom discussions, tutorials, demonstrations, consultations, interviews, sermons, political speeches, parliamentary proceedings, sports, commentaries, club meetings, and radio phone-ins.

⁵ The Demographic part of the Spoken Corpus

A total of 124 volunteers were recruited by the British Market Research Bureau. The volunteers came from four social groupings. There were male and female volunteers from a wide range of ages, and they lived at 38 different locations across the UK. Recruits were chosen in such a way as to make sure there were equal numbers of men and women, approximately equal numbers from each age group, and equal numbers from each social grouping. Recruits used a personal stereo to record all their conversations over two or three days.

The British National Corpus (later only the BNC) will serve me as a source of examples and as a proof that a particular verb form is used. It will also show the frequency of a particular grammatical structure in a contemporary English language and the meanings which a particular phrase may have. Not all of this information is equally easy to obtain. Using the BNC we have to search for specific strings of words, which is a problem when looking for examples of particular syntactic, semantic or pragmatic categories, unless these have clear lexical correlates, or the corpus mark-up (*italics*, underlying) clearly distinguishes them.

3. Criteria for modal auxiliary verbs

I have presented the modal auxiliary verb criteria in the previous chapter. Verbs respond to these criteria in different degrees. That is why in English we can speak about the verb scale as it is presented by Quirk et al. (1985:137). Lexical verbs are on one side and modal verbs on the other form the border points of this scale. Between them there are four more groups of verbs which can be classified neither as lexical nor as modal verbs.

In this chapter I will survey the verb responses to the different auxiliary verb criteria (see Chapter 1.) I have chosen one or two random verbs from each of the 6 verb classes given below (a-f) as they are mentioned by Quirk et al. (1985:137). I have assumed that even the verbs belonging to the same group will not respond to the criteria in the same degree. To prove or disprove this assertion, I have taken, in one case two verbs from the same verb class, namely from marginal modals. There I have chosen *dare* and *need to*. These verbs differ in many aspects which I will describe later in this chapter.

I am going to work with 12 criteria for auxiliary verbs proposed by Quirk et al. and by Huddleston et al. The criteria are as follows:

- 3.1 Operator in negation
- 3.2 Verb contraction
- 3.3 Negative contraction
- 3.4 Operator in inversion
- 3.5 Emphatic positive
- 3.6 Operator in reduced clause
- 3.7 Pre – adverb position
- 3.8 Independence of subject
- 3.9 Bare infinitival complement
- 3.10 Finite functions only
- 3.11 No –s forms (No agreement criterion)
- 3.12 Abnormal time reference

The above mentioned auxiliary verb criteria form 12 sub-chapters of this chapter (3.1 – 3.12). It means that in each sub-chapter I will study the verb forms according to a particular criterion. First, I am going to state theoretically the forms which verbs may take according to a particular criterion. I assume that in most cases there will be two possibilities, the verb either follows the criterion or it does not. Secondly, I am going to present the behaviour of below mentioned verbs (a-f) with practical examples (i.e. in sentences). I am going to use examples from the BNC. The aim of my thesis is not to present all possible forms of a particular verb (all persons and numbers). My aim is to find out which verbs answer positively and which answer negatively to a particular criterion. Negative examples, i.e. forms that could not be found in the BNC, are marked as *. In each case I will present one or two random examples, sometimes in multiple numbers and persons. I will sum up the results in the table at the end of each chapter. I assume that the results will clearly show that verbs (a-f) differ in the number of positive responses to a particular criterion. I suppose that the modal auxiliary verb will respond positively to most of the considered criteria while lexical verbs will respond negatively to most of them. As to the four remaining verb groups it is impossible

to state how many positive or negative responses we can expect. But I assume that the closer the verbs are to the auxiliary verbs the more positive responses we will get. The verbs I will study are:

- a) Lexical verb
- b) Catenative: *seem to*
- c) Semi-auxiliary: *have to*
- d) Modal idiom: *have got to*
- e) Marginal modal: *dare, need to*
- f) Central modal: *must*

3.1 Operator in negation with NOT

The first criterion concerns negative clauses. In the negative finite clauses the negative particle *not* follows the first auxiliary verb. However, some of the lexical verbs may function as auxiliaries and in negative sentences they are followed by *not*. Others verbs do not have this ability and in negative clauses they have to take the auxiliary verb *do*. In this chapter, I will concentrate on the presence or lack of *do*-support with different verbs.

a) Lexical verbs

In positive declarative sentences, lexical verbs cannot function in most cases as auxiliaries. So the verb *do* is used as a “dummy” auxiliary to take the roles of the operator (see 1.1). Huddleston et al. (2002: 94) refers to it as primary verb negation.

25)

- a) *In reality, most attorneys have made almost no preparation for this phase and they do not understand it.*
- b) **In reality, most attorneys have made almost no preparation for this phase and they understand not it.*

In the BNC I have found 2331 positive examples of lexical verb negation with *do*-support in the 3rd person plural. There was only one negative example without *do* support.

Here I will also mention analytical forms of lexical verbs. However, I will not include them in the final conclusion. Lexical verbs in the progressive and perfective aspect (generally in analytical forms) do not need *do*-support, because auxiliaries (*be, have*) take the negation⁶ (see 1.1). In the BNC there were 479 positive examples and only 2 negative ones.

26)

- a) *I am not talking primarily about myself, he wrote, for it will be obvious to anyone who reads these notes that you have used me simply as a stalking horse.*

⁶ In my thesis I will not provide examples of all analytical forms. I have chosen present continuous.

- b) **I am talking not primarily about myself, he wrote, for it will be obvious to anyone who reads these notes that you have used me simply as a stalking horse.*

Quirk et al. give us examples of the sentences with lexical verbs that do not take the *do* operator even though they are negative⁷. Huddleston et al. (2002:94) refers to it as non-verbal negation. I will just mention this possibility here as I am interested only in the verbal negation. That is why I am not going to take it into account in the summary.

27)

- a) *I decided not to inform him about this.* Quirk (1985:122)
b) *I like not working on Fridays.* Quirk (1985: 122)

These sentences differ from those in example 25) because here the negation is associated with the second verb phrase (non-finite verb phrase).

Another interesting example of negation is example 28):

- 28) **She saw not the play. BUT She saw not the play but the opera.*
Quirk(1985:122)

In this case *not* belongs to the noun phrase *the play*.

There are also exceptional cases of the lexical verb negation without the operator *do*:

§ We may still find negative contractions without the operator in archaic usage. Here I have found only 7 examples without the *do* operator in negation and 2230 examples with it.:

- 29) *I know not.* instead of *I don't know.*

§ The operator in negation is not used in pro-form clauses. These are clauses which make explicit reference to clauses mentioned earlier. I have found 107 positive examples and there were no negative ones:

30)

- a) *She may be sad, I hope not.*
b) **She may be sad, I do not hope.*

b) Catenative verb seem to

Catenatives have meaning related to aspect or modality. However, semantically they are also very close to lexical verbs denoting state of perception (*see, hear, feel, smell, ...*)⁸. They also share their grammatical patterns. In negation, similarly to lexical verbs, catenatives take *do*-support.

⁷ For exceptions see Quirk et al. (1985:122f).

⁸ See Quirk et al. (1985:203)

31)

- a) *They do not seem to have noticed that many predominantly market economies suffer from inflation, and often very rapid inflation.*
- b) **They seem to not have noticed that many predominantly market economies suffer from inflation, and often very rapid inflation.*
- c) **They seem not to have noticed that many predominantly market economies suffer from inflation, and often very rapid inflation.*

In the BNC I have found 190 positive examples as in 31)a), 1 negative example as in 31)b) and 50 negative examples as in 31)c). However, the sentence in example 31)c) is possible but the meaning would be different from that in example 32)a). The negative particle does not belong to the verb *seem* but to the following verb *notice*.⁹

c) Semi-auxiliary have to

This verb differs from the other semi-auxiliaries. It is the only verb in this class that begins with *have*. The rest of the verbs begin with *be*. Some of the “*be*” semi-auxiliaries are: *be able to*, *be bound to*, *be willing to*, ...

When we talk about negation, the adjectives in the “*be*” semi-auxiliaries take a negative particle *un-* in negative forms and form a negative semi-auxiliary verb. Here the numbers are irrelevant to me. I will not to use them in the final conclusion.¹⁰

32)

- a) *The British Historic Buildings Trust is unable to pay architects, builders and financial backers because it cannot raise money from most of the 33 houses it repaired Hanover Square.*
- b) *The verificationist who is unwilling to admit the possibility of such facts must say that such a statement still cannot achieve determinate truth.*

But the negative prefix *un-* cannot be used with *have to*. Semi-auxiliary *have to* takes *do*-support and there is no possibility to use the negative prefix *un-*.

33)

- a) *The existence of the network ensures that searchers do not have to go to London to obtain this information.*
- b) **The existence of the network ensures that searchers unhave to go to London to obtain this information.*
- c) **Those companies shouldn't sponsor ballet or opera, but I think they have to not lose sight of sponsorship potential.*

Here I have found 366 positive examples of *have to* negation with *do* support and there were no negative examples as in 33)b). In the BNC there was only one example as in 33)c).

d) Modal idiom have got to

⁹ Compare with examples (27 a, b)

¹⁰ In the BNC there were 6141 positive examples such as in example 32)a) and 966 such as in 32)b).

The modal idiom *have got to* does not require the *do* operator because it is formally the perfect form of the verb *get* (see page 14). In the negative construction the first word in the idiom takes the negation.

34)

- a) *The one thing that really marks them out is good preparation, so that when they stand up in court they haven't got to think much about the content.*
- b) **The one thing that really marks them out is good preparation, so that when they stand up in court they don't have got to think much about the content.*

I have found 83 positive and 0 negative examples. Generally, the results from the BNC show that *have got to* in negative forms is used mainly in contracted forms. Such examples as in 35) are very rare and these are the only examples I have found in the corpus.

35)

- a) *And they quote epistles of St. Paul so difficult that the theologians have not got to the bottom of them.*
- b) *Okay, now, as long as the standing order's kicking okay, there's not a problem, you have not got to worry now.*

e) Marginal modals *dare*, *need to*

In Modern English *dare* is not a common verb. In informal style people generally use other expressions instead. However, both verbs *dare* and *need* are distinctive in that they may be constructed either as a lexical verb (with *to infinitive*) or, under some conditions¹¹, as the modal verb (*bare infinitive*). When used as lexical verbs they take *do*-support.

36)

- a) *Reptiles need far less food than mammals because they do not need to expend food energy in keeping themselves warm.*
- b) **Reptiles need far less food than mammals because they need not to expend food energy in keeping themselves warm.*
- c) *We do not dare to classify or compare ourselves with some who commend themselves.*
- d) **We dare not to classify or compare ourselves with some who commend themselves.*

In the BNC there were 239 examples of *do not need to* and 6 of *do not dare to*. There were not any negative examples without *do* support.

As the modal auxiliary they do not need *do*-support but *need* or *dare* take the negative particle *not*:

37)

- a) *Pitiful images of a desolate people. Yet these pictures need not exist.*
- b) **Pitiful images of a desolate people. Yet these pictures do not need exist.*

¹¹ Quirk et al. (1985:138) The modal verb construction is restricted to a non-assertive context, i.e. in negative and interrogative sentences. We do not have positive sentences with the modal auxiliaries *dare*, *need to*. The main verb construction can almost always be used and in fact it is more common.

- c) *I dare not ask directly what the precise matter is.*
 d) **I do not dare ask directly what the precise matter is.*

In the BNC I have found 699 positive examples of *need not* and 143 of *dare not*. No negative examples were possible. Strang (1969:158) claims that it has recently been shown that for *need* in the negative as well as in the positive forms the lexical (main verb) pattern is strongly preferred. The same is true for *dare*. However, Biber (1999:162) says it is not as easy as that. *Dare* and *need* show different tendencies with respect to *do*-insertion. *Dare* is less frequent than *need* and is found mainly in fiction and BrEng conversation. In BrEng *dare* as an auxiliary verb is the predominant choice for negation and the *do*-insertion is the dominant form in negation in AmEng fiction. So, the auxiliary – lexical verb use of the modal auxiliaries *dare* and *need to* differs with respect to English and American usage. Biber (1999:163) points out also the difference between the written and spoken language. The auxiliary construction is the predominant choice for negation with *need* in the written registers. Another factor that influences the use of the marginal modals *dare* and *need* is context. Quirk et al. (1985:138) states that the modal construction is restricted to a non-assertive context⁴. Palmer (1988:25) adds that, in fact, auxiliary forms of these verbs occur not only with negation and inversion but also with any type of inversion such as clauses with semi-negative words *hardly*, *only*, *never* ...38)a). They can also occur where the context is negative in meaning but not in form 38)b).

38)

- a) *No one need know. He hardly dare ask. He need never know.*

Palmer (1988:25)

- b) *All he need do is ask. [=He need do nothing more than ask.]* Palmer (1988:25)

In actual use modal auxiliaries are rather rare. But when they are used, a modal verb construction is chosen more often than a lexical verb construction. There were 991 examples of *need not* with different verbs and only 239 examples of *do not need to*. What is interesting, the contracted form *needn't* is used rarely as opposed to *don't need to* which is the dominant form. Sometimes, even though the negation does not take *do*-support (i.e. used as the modal verb) it is followed by the *to* infinitive (lexical verb usage) as in 39)a). This blending with *need* is usually of the type –s inflection and bare infinitive. However, according to Quirk et al. (1985:138) the blends between the auxiliary verb and the main verb construction seem to be widely accepted more in the case of *dare* than in that of *need*.

39)

- a) *He needs not to forget that there are demonic forces in the universe.*

(5 examples)

- b) *They do not dare ask for more. Do they dare ask for more?* (11 examples)

f) Central modal must

The negative construction of the central modal *must* does not require an operator and *must* itself functions as an auxiliary. I have found 1893 positive examples and no negative ones.

40)

a) *People with bright ideas must not only carry their opinions out of politics and into the research institutions.*

b) **People with bright ideas do not must only carry their opinions out of politics and into the research institutions.*

Conclusion

According to the operator in negation, with *not* criterion, verbs may be divided into three groups: verbs in the first group take the negative particle (i.e. they behave as the operator), verbs in the second group need *do* support. There are also verbs that may occur either with or without *do*-support. Lexical verbs, the catenative verb *seem to* and the semi-auxiliary *have to* need *do*-support. The modal idiom *have got to* and the central modal *must* function as operators they do not need any other auxiliary. Marginal modals *dare* and *need to* may function as a modal auxiliary and in this case they do not take *do*-support. There is also a possibility of lexical (main) verb construction when *do*-support is used. However, with the marginal modals the auxiliary verb construction is a dominant form.

Table 3.1.¹² *Operator in negation with NOT*

	a ¹³	b	c	d	e	f
3.1. ¹⁴	-	-	-	+	+-	+

3.2 No verb contractions

Another criterion relates to word contractions. Generally, the contraction is a process of the shortening of a word, syllable, or word group by the omission of some letters. In English we have a negative particle contraction when *not* is attached to *do*-support or auxiliary verb. We will discuss this later in 3.3. Apart from that, some of the verbs also have this ability to form contractions. In this chapter I will observe which of the above mentioned verbs have the ability to form contractions and which do not.

a) Lexical verbs

The majority of lexical verbs cannot be contracted. It is formally impossible.

41) **I`nk ? I think ?I drink*

However, there is a small group of verbs which may function both as lexical and auxiliary verbs. *Be* and *have*¹⁵, without any doubt, belong to this group. The auxiliary verb function of these verbs is described in the previous chapter. Here, I am interested mainly in their lexical function. As examples in 42) show, these verbs have contracted forms which are used quite often. For example, in the BNC I

¹² Symbols used in 3.1.:
- the verb may not function as an operator and it has to take *do*-support.
+ the verb functions as an operator and *do* is not use.
- + 2 possibilities, the verb functions either as an operator and *do*-support is not used or the verb may not function as an operator and it has to take *do*-support.

¹³ The letters represent a particular verb as stated on page 14.

¹⁴ The numbers represent a particular criterion as stated on page 13.

¹⁵ For more information see Swan (2009:234).

have found 62446 positive examples of *I am*, 330 of *I've* and 897 of *you're* contractions. Because there are only a few verbs belonging to that group I will not take them into account. And in the final conclusion I will include the verbs with lexical function only.

42)

- a) "No, we're not having a party, but I'm at one, I'm (I am) at your sister's."
- b) "I've an elder sister but she's (she is) in America at the moment."
- c) "Fine lying, fresh air and the whole place to yourself. You'll think you're (you are) in a palace."

b) Catenative seem to

The catenative verb *seem* is formally, and to some extent, semantically similar to the lexical verb. In relation to that, it cannot be contracted in any way. In the BNC I have not found any contracted forms of *seem to/seems to*.

43)

- a) *Hurricanes: we never used to have them; now they seem to be a regular meteorological fixture.*
- b) **Hurricanes: we never used to have them; now they'em (*they'm, *they'eem) to be a regular meteorological fixture.*
- c) *He did not know how long Miss Hepburn had been ill. She seems to be recovering well, he added.*
- d) **He did not know how long Miss Hepburn had been ill. She'ems (*she'ms, *she'eems) to be recovering well, he added.*

c) Semi-auxiliary have to

The semi-auxiliary *have to*, in formal language, is not used in contracted forms. None of the grammar books I am referring to in my thesis mention such a possibility. The BNC also does not provide many examples of *have to* in contracted forms. I have found only 44 positive examples of contractions. However, most of the examples in the BNC were taken from spoken language (conversation, radio broadcasts, discussions, ...).

44) *Thing is, I've got my heater right in front of my wardrobe, and I've to move it so someone'll open my bloody wardrobe.*

In the 3rd person singular, the contracted form *she's to* may have two meanings: *she is to* (modal idiom *be to*) or *she has to* (semi-auxiliary *have to*). Sometimes the semantic difference between these two forms is not clear-cut.

45)

- a) *I found her just in time. She's to see a psychiatrist in the morning. (In this case the meaning is quite clear – she has to see)*
- b) = *She has to see psychiatrist because next time she can really harm herself.*

But in some examples it is quite ambiguous.

46)

- a) *She's to give him a hand and lead him across the road.*

- b) = *She has to take the child's hand, it is an order.*
 c) = *She is to take child's hand to cross the street safely.*

d) Modal idiom have got to

Though *have got to* behaves in many cases like the semi-auxiliary *have to* here it can be used in a contracted form as *'ve got to/ 's got to*.

47)

- a) *Now I've got to be cruel to be kind.*
 b) *She was always secretive. I won't stand for it. She's got to put it in writing.*
 c) *I've told them I will help, but I can't commit one dollar, they've got to do it themselves.*

In the BNC there were 1386 positive examples of *I've got to*, 116 of *she's got to* and 379 of *they've got to*. In non-standard language there is a tendency to simplify language and adjust standard language to a colloquial one. In informal English, *have got to* tends to be contracted into *gotta* which makes it similar, as Quirk et al. (1985:142) claim, to a single modal auxiliary. Examples in 48) are taken from the BNC.

48)

- a) *I've gotta look at them separately cos I haven't got the industrial yet.*
 b) *If she wants a new pair of shoes she's gotta go to a new town and pay for them.*
 c) *If someone approaches me with a song, it's gotta hit me in the face. It's gotta make me jump up and down.*

The interesting thing about *have got to* is that according to Biber (1999:488) recently BrEng has been more innovative in the use of it than in AmEng. The semi-modal *have got to* is far more common in BrEng conversation than in AmEng. The negative contraction *'ve not gotta* follows the negation rule and the negative particle *not* follows the auxiliary *have*.

- 49) *I'm gonna lose the part if you keep on telling me I've not gotta tell you to do anything.*

The contraction *'ve not gotta* is mainly used in the first person singular. There are not many examples of *we've not got to / you've not gotta* as in example 50) and forms like *he's/ she's/it's not gotta / they've not gotta* are not used at all.

50)

- a) *We've not gotta do all these work experiences have we?*
 b) *You've not gotta be timid, y'know.*

e) Marginal modals dare, need to

In positive sentences, marginal modals *dare* and *need to* occur only in lexical verb constructions. That is why these verbs do not have contracted forms; there are no positive examples in the BNC.

51)

- a) *At first she sympathized a bit, but basically she thinks it's because I dare to walk around and look people in the eye.*
- b) **At first she sympathized a bit, but basically she thinks it's because I 're to walk around and look people in the eye.*
- c) *You need to leave a gap around pipes, thresholds and any other fixed objects such as fireplace surrounds.*
- d) **You'ed to leave a gap around pipes, thresholds and any other fixed objects such as fireplace surrounds.*

f) Central modal must

The central modal *must* does not have contracted forms; there are no positive examples in the BNC.

52)

- a) *Billy must have been reading his thoughts.*
- b) **Billy'st have been reading his thoughts.*
- c) *It must be a proper justification which shows that your time is not likely to be wasted.*
- d) **It'st be a proper justification which shows that your time is not likely to be wasted.*

Conclusion

Generally, according to the verb contractions criterion, there are two groups of verbs. The verbs in the first group cannot be contracted. The verbs in the second group can. The modal idiom *have got to* belongs, without any doubt, to the second group. The semi-auxiliary *have to* is contracted mainly in spoken language. However, the contractions are possible. The rest of the verbs: lexical verbs, the catenative *seem to*, marginal modals *dare* and *need to* and the central modal *must* can never be contracted.

Table 3.2.¹⁶ *Verb contractions*

	a	b	c	d	e	f
3.1.	-	-	-	+	+-	+
3.2.	-	-	+	+	-	-

3.3 Negative contractions

The third criterion I deal with is similar to that in 3.2. However, it applies only to the negative particle *not* that is shortened to *n't* and attached to the preceding verb. Not all verbs have the ability to accept it. Some verbs need *do*-support to carry the negative particle *not*. In this chapter I will examine which verbs in negative clauses need and do not need to take *do* support in negative contractions.

¹⁶ Symbols used in 3.2. : - the verb cannot be contracted.
+ the verb can be contracted.

a) Lexical verbs

Lexical verbs in the simple tense forms (negation, questions) take *do*-support and the negative particle is always attached to that auxiliary.

53)

- a) *We don't charge extra for coffee, service or bread, which is home-made.*
- b) **We chargen't extra for coffee, service or bread, which is home-made.*
- c) *"Look, if it doesn't work out, come back and see us and we'll try to do something for you, OK?"*
- d) **"Look, if it worksn't out, come back and see us and we'll try to do something for you, OK?"*

I have found 93656 positive examples of negative contractions with lexical verbs in 1st person plural and 17137 in 3rd person singular. There were no examples of negation without the contracted forms *don't/ doesn't*. Analytical forms of lexical verbs do not need *do*-support. The auxiliary takes the negative particle *not*. There were 1068 positive examples of *aren't* and 1926 of *isn't* in the BNC. There were no negative examples with *don't/ doesn't*.

54)

- a) *"They aren't planning freedom for us, but serfdom."*
- b) **"They don't planning freedom for us, but serfdom."*
- c) *Drama school isn't going to teach anybody to act but it does give the vital techniques.*
- d) **Drama school doesn't going to teach anybody to act but it does give the vital techniques.*

In non-standard English, the lexical verb *be* with the negative particle *not* (*am not, are not, is not*) can be contracted to *ain't*. The examples presented below are taken from the BNC.

55)

- a) *I'm glad I ain't (am not) at Combe Court now, that's where he was taking me to.*
- b) *What's her name? Anna Beckett. She ain't (is not) mine, ma'am. I foster 'er.*

b) Catenative seem to

Catenatives resemble lexical verbs in many aspects. In this particular case they behave in the same way as lexical verbs. For negation, *seem* needs *do*-support. The short form of the negative particle *not* will be attached to the primary verb *do*.

56)

- a) **English dancers seemn't to have the same enthusiasm as Americans.*
- b) *But it doesn't seem to be an acceptable idea.*
- c) **But it seemsn't to be an acceptable idea.*

In the BNC there were 374 positive examples of *don't seem to* and 379 of *doesn't seem to*. I have not found any negative examples.

c) Semi-auxiliary have to

Have to can, in this case, behave either as a lexical verb 57)a), it takes *do*-support, or as an operator and in this case it takes the negative *n't* 57)b) and 57)c).

57)

- a) *This, of course, doesn't have to mean that the pop stars, or the programs which court them, will disappear.*
- b) *If we are expecting a good level of practice then we have not to expect them to be out of pocket at the end of the day as a result.*
- c) *She said I can't tell you, I haven't to tell you!*

However, even though both constructions are possible, studies in BrEng usage shows that *have to* in negative and interrogative clauses is constructed in most cases with *do*-support. The examples from the BNC clearly show this usage. I have found 320 examples of constructions with *do*-support and only 9 constructions without it.

d) Modal idiom have got to

Unlike *have to* this verb does not take the *do*-operator. In the negative construction the first word takes the negative particle.

58)

- a) *They're much easier this way round because you haven't got to go through the minor*
- b) ** They're much easier this way round because you don't have got to go through the minor at all to reach them.*

In BNC there were 83 positive examples *haven't got to* and no examples of *don't have got to*.

e) Marginal modals dare, need to

These marginal modals may be used as lexical verb as in 59)a) and 59)b), with *do*-support that takes the contracted negative form *n't*. They may also function as modal verbs as in 59)c) and 59)d). There they behave as operators and in questions and negation they take *not*. As the examples from the BNC show auxiliary verb construction is preferred to lexical verb construction.

59)

- a) *He doesn't need to excuse himself for interrupting his narrative.*
- b) *He doesn't dare to escape.*
- c) *But observations needn't be direct to be good.*
- d) *We daren't tell her, we were so frightened of her.*

In the BNC there were 492 positive examples of *needn't* and 183 of *daren't*. The numbers of lexical verb constructions were much lower. There were 79 examples of *doesn't need to* and only one example of *doesn't dare to*.

f) Central modal must

The central modal *must* does not require *do*-support in negation. The contracted negative particle *not* follows the central modal.

60)

- a) *You mustn't give anything away.*
- b) **You don't must give anything away.*

In the BNC I have found 249 positive examples of *you mustn't* and no examples of *you don't must*.

Conclusion

The negative particle *not* can in most cases be contracted. But it depends on the verb what the negative particle is attached to. Lexical verbs in present simple as well as the catenative verb *seem to* do not function as operators and they take *do*-support. The semi-auxiliary *have to* and marginal modals *dare*, *need* may in this particular case function either as a lexical verb or as the operator, they take *do*-support in the case of lexical verb form or they take the contracted negative particle *not*. However, with the semi-auxiliary *have to*, the form with *do*-support is preferred. The modal idiom *have got to* can form negative contracted forms without *do* support. The central modal *must* does not require *do*-support. In contracted forms *n't* is attached to *must*. Beside the negative form *mustn't* there is also the possibility to use other forms. But the occurrence of other forms is determined geographically as well as semantically.

Table 3.3.¹⁷ *Negative contractions*

	a	b	c	d	e	f
3.1.	-	-	-	+	+-	+
3.2.	-	-	+	+	-	-
3.3.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+

3.4 Inversion of subject and operator

As Swan (2007:301) claims inversion, the change of the order of the subject and auxiliary and non-auxiliary *have* and *be*, takes place in questions, exclamations, conditional clauses and after negative or restrictive expressions. Generally, auxiliary verbs admit inversion, i.e. these verbs take place in front of the sentence subject. Lexical verbs, on the other hand, require *do*-support and follow the sentence subject. In my study of the inversion of subject and operator I will observe whether the verb changes its position and functions as operator or whether the position of the verb does not change and the operator *do* is added in questions, exclamations, etc.

a) Lexical verbs

Lexical verbs cannot function as operators. So in all above mentioned cases when the inversion takes place, they require *do*-support which takes place before the sentence subject. (see 1.1). The subject and lexical verb position do not change.

¹⁷ Symbols used in 3.3.:
- a contracted negative form without *do*-support cannot be formed.
+ a contracted negative form without *do*-support can be formed.
+- there are two possibilities, a contracted negative form can be formed with or without *do*-support

- Questions:

There were 27600 positive examples of negation with *do*-support in the BNC and I have not found any examples of negation without *do*.

61)

- a) *Do you think drama school should include more training for television and film?*
- b) **Think you drama school should include more training for television and film?*

- After negative and restrictive expressions:

62)

- a) *Not until much later did she learn who her father was.* Swan (2007:302)
- b) **Not until much later learned she who her father was.*

In the BNC I have found 1 example of the auxiliary and lexical verb inversion with not until. There were no examples without the inversion.

- After so

63)

- a) *So ridiculous did she look that everybody burst out laughing.* Swan (2007:302)
- b) **So ridiculous looked she that everybody burst out laughing.*

There was only 1 positive example as in 63)a). No negative examples were found.

- Questions:

In the BNC I have found 379 positive examples of subject and verb inversion in questions.

- 64) *Is he trying to be helpful by making himself different from McQueen?*

- Exclamation:

In the BNC I have found only 3 positive and 0 negative examples.

65)

- a) *How moving are these words with which the congregation welcomes the newly baptized.*
- b) **How moving these words are with which the congregation welcomes the newly baptized.*

- After nor

There were 12 positive and 0 negative examples in the BNC.

66)

- a) *Nor are you in any position to make them.*
- b) **Nor you are in any position to make them.*

b) Catenative verb *seem to*

Catenative *seem to* in negation patterns exactly in the same way as lexical verbs (see 3.1). However, in questions it is different. The problem is that *seem to* in questions is used rather rarely. Quirk et al. in the chapter *Catenative verb constructions* (1985:146) do not give any examples of questions with *seem to*. Also Swan in his *Practical English Usage* does not present any case of *seem to* in questions. My conclusion is that *seem to* simply is not used in questions as regularly as other verbs and some other verbs with similar meaning may be used instead of *seem to*.

- Questions:

In the BNC I have found only 2 examples of *seem to* in questions with *do*-support and no examples of questions without it. It is obvious that these examples cannot serve as the basis to make any statements. But at least we can see that in questions, even very rarely, *seem to* behaves similar to lexical verb and takes *do*-support.

67)

a) *Looking at him, do you seem to see a 25-year-old rather than a player of 35?*

b) * *Looking at him, seem you to see a 25-year-old rather than a player of 35?*

I have not found any other examples of inversion with *seem to*.

c) Semi-auxiliary *have to*

Have to may pattern either as a lexical verb or an auxiliary. Obviously the inversion of the subject and the operator takes place in the case of the auxiliary verb pattern. However, there is a difference between these two patterns. *Have to* with *do*-support in the lexical verb pattern as in 69) is common in both AmEng and BrEng. In the BNC I have found 553 positive examples of such a construction. *Have to* as an auxiliary in 68) is rather old-fashioned in BrEng. In the BNC there were 126 examples.

- Questions:

68) *Have I to hang all the garrison for letting you slip through?*

More often questions are formed with *do*-support without inversion.

69) *Do I have to put on a special overall or something?*

I did not find any other examples of inversion with *have to*.

d) Modal idiom *have got to*

In this particular case, the modal idiom *have got to* behaves as an auxiliary verb. It does not take *do*-support and in questions, it just changes place with the sentence subject.

- Questions:

In the BNC I have found 227 positive examples of *have got to* in questions without *do*-support. There were not any examples of *have got to* in questions with *do*-support.

70)

- a) *Listen, have you got to stay on at the track, or is it possible for you to leave and come back to the hotel?*
b) **Listen, do you have got to stay on at the track, or is it possible for you to leave and come back to the hotel?*

I did not find any other examples of *have got to* with inversion.

e) Marginal modals *dare, need to*

As these verbs can occur in two different constructions, either as modal auxiliary or as the lexical verb, the inversion occurs only with the modal verb construction.

- Questions:

I have found 14 positive examples of *dare I* and 27 of *need I*.

71)

- a) *Dare I repeat a story I've told before about a friend?*
b) *Need I say how much I admire your own work?*

- Exclamations:

In the BNC there were 10 positive examples of *dare I* and 5 of *need I* in exclamations.

72)

- a) *Dare I say we've finished!*
b) *Need I remind council about such things!*

Dare is quite often used in the idiomatic constructions expressing a threatening rebuke where the inversion takes place. In the BNC I have found 210 positive examples of this.

- Threatening rebuke:

73) *How dare you say his name to me!" she said angrily.*

f) Central modal *must*

Must as a central modal does not take *do*-support in any case (questions, exclamations, negative and restrictive expressions ...). It just changes its place with the sentence subject and inversion takes place.

- Questions:

I have found 33 positive examples of inversion in questions. There were no negatives ones.

74)

- a) *How many times must I tell you that?*
b) **How many times do must I tell you that?*

- Exclamations:

I have found 17 positive examples of inversion in exclamations and no negative ones.

75)

- a) *How bitter must he be to find himself in the position in which he was now!*
b) **How bitter does he must be to find himself in the position in which he was now!*

• Negative and restrictive expressions:

Here I have found 27 positive and no negative examples.

76)

- a) *Not only must she cope with Cherie's distressing withdrawal symptoms, she also needs eyes in the back of her head to curb a two-year-old's natural mischief.*
b) **Not only does she must cope with Cherie's distressing withdrawal symptoms*

Conclusion

Inversion, the change of the order of the subject and the auxiliary takes place in questions, exclamations, conditional clauses and after negative or restrictive expressions. Not all verbs I am working with admit the inversion. Some have to accept *do*-support. Lexical verbs in the present simple tense in questions as well as in other constructions do not change their place with the sentence subject, but the auxiliary *do* takes place in front of the sentence subject. In present continuous tense and other analytical forms it is different and the auxiliary *be (have)* moves in front of the subject. The catenative verb *seem to* is not usually used in questions, but as a few examples from the BNC show that *seem to* in questions behaves similarly to lexical verbs and it takes *do*-support. There are not many examples of inversion with the semi-auxiliary *have to* and the modal idiom *have got to*. The most frequent case when the inversion takes place is in questions. As the semi-auxiliary *have to* may also pattern as a lexical verb *do*-support may be used in questions, exclamations, etc. In the auxiliary verb pattern inversion of *have* and the subject takes place. The modal auxiliary *have got to* in questions never takes *do*-support but always precedes the sentence subject (inversion). Marginal modals *dare* and *need to* are similar to *have to* as they may pattern either as lexical verbs in which *do*-support is needed or auxiliaries where inversion takes place. The central modal *must* never takes *do*-support (questions, exclamations, ...) and it changes its place with the sentence subject.

Table 3.4.¹⁸ *Inversion of subject and operator*

	a	b	c	d	e	f
3.1.	-	-	-	+	+-	+
3.2.	-	-	+	+	-	-
3.3.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+
3.4.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+

¹⁸ Symbols used in 3.4.: - inversion of the verb and subject does not take place, *do*-support is used.
+ inversion of the verb and subject takes place, *do*-support is not used.
+-there are two possibilities: either inversion or *do*-support.

3.5 Emphatic positive

Another criterion concerns the strengthening of the assertions. We often emphasize a particular word, in this case a verb, in the sentence and basically there are two main reasons for that. We want to show that we feel strongly about what we are saying. This is called *emotive emphasis*. Or we want to point out the contrast between true or false, present or past, ..., this is *contrastive emphasis*.¹⁹ In this part I will be interested in the way in which the emphasis is reflected. Basically there are two possibilities. The verb itself may be strengthened, it may carry the emphasis or *do*-support may be added to take this function.

a) Lexical verbs

Unlike auxiliary verbs, lexical verbs do not have the ability to carry a nuclear stress that marks a clause either as positive or negative. With lexical verbs *do*-support is used to stress the sentence as positive or negative.

77)

- a) *I do remember seeing two - maybe three - cars pass on the Silcaster road, but I didn't*
- b) *That's good! Anyway you did get your hair done this morning then, yeah?*
[I thought you didn't]

I have found 87 positive examples with *I do* and 69 examples with *you did* where auxiliary *do* carries the stress. In progressive aspect auxiliary *be* is used to carry the stress. In the BNC there 85 examples of *I am* with stressed auxiliary.

78) *But I am straying from my theme.*

b) Catenative seem to

Semantically, catenatives are related to modal auxiliaries. Formally, however, they behave as lexical verbs and they need *do*-support for emphasis.

79)

- a) *He did seem quite certain that 55 is the age.*
- b) *It does seem rather odd to say that death is for the good of the person involved.*

In the BNC I have found 45 positive examples of *did seem* and 256 of *does seem*.

c) Semi-auxiliary have to

There are two ways to emphasize the sentence either as positive or negative with semi-auxiliary *have to*. The verb can carry the stress itself and then it does not take *do*-support as in example 80) or *have to* takes *do*-support, which marks the emphasis.

80)

- a) *Yes, I have to carry them all over the place. No?*
- b) *But you do have to make this nomination whilst you are employed in reckonable service.*

¹⁹ For more information see: Swan (2009:183 – 184).

There were 18 positive examples of *I have to* where *have* carries the stress and 258 where *do* is used to carry it.

d) Modal idiom *have got to*

As the modal idiom *have got to* does not take *do*-support there is no other way to stress the sentence than by *have got to* itself. As I have mentioned before, *have got to* is formally a perfective form, so the emphasis is carried by the auxiliary *have*. There were 18 positive examples of *have go to* and 6 of *has got to* where *have/has* carries the emphasis. I have not found any negative examples where *do* could carry the stress.

81)

- a) *But I have got to remind people that we are still on the bottom.*
- b) **But I do have got to remind people that we are still on the bottom*
- c) *But he has got to attract the more intelligent if he is to succeed.*
- d) **But he does have got to attract the more intelligent if he is to succeed.*

There were 18 positive examples of *have go to* and 6 of *has got to* in *have* carries the emphasis. I have not found any negative examples where *do* could carry the stress.

e) Marginal modals *dare, need to*

Dare occurs with nuclear stress in the following idiomatic constructions expressing a threatening rebuke as in 82)a) and 82)b), where it is used without the auxiliary *do*. It can also be used with *do*-support. There are, however, very few constructions with the emphatic *dare* like in example 82)b). In fact this is the only example in the BNC. I have also found 210 positive examples of *how dare you* and only 1 example of *I do dare to* where the *do* carries the stress.

82)

- a) *And, talking of that lady, how dare you leave me to cope with an hysterical female on my own?*
- b) *Don't you dare ask!*
- c) *But I do dare to ask your patience, he said; his top priority is to get IBM's layoffs completed.*

Need in most cases has the lexical verb forms. Also in this case, similarly to lexical verbs it

takes *do*-support for emphasis. In the BNC there were 156 positive examples of *do need to* and 24 examples of *does need to*.

83)

- a) *We do need to note that they are posing an important challenge to the conventional wisdom.*
- b) *Oh, Mark, she does need to love and be loved. It isn't given to everyone to have that good fortune.*

f) Central modal must

The central modal *must* never takes *do*-support and it carries the nuclear stress itself. There were 1794 positive examples of *I must* where *must* carries the stress. There were no examples of *I do must*.

84)

a) *But I must ask you to stop washing your hands in the Holy water.*

b) **But I do must ask you to stop washing your hands in the Holy water.*

Conclusion

With the emphatic positive we want to show that we feel strongly about what we are saying or we want to point out the contrast between true or false, present or past, ... In such constructions some verbs require *do*-support because they lack the ability to carry a nuclear stress. Lexical verbs and the catenative *seem to* are the verbs that belong unquestionably to that group. The semi-auxiliary *have to* differs from them as there are two possibilities for emphasis. *Have to* can either, similar to lexical verbs and catenatives, take *do*-support or *have to* itself carries the stress. The modal idiom *have got to* and the central modal *must* do not take *do*-support and they carry the stress. Marginal modals *dare* and *need*, even though they are the members of the same verb group, behave in different ways. *Dare* is mainly used in idiomatic constructions expressing a threatening rebuke where the inversion is applied. With *need to* the dominant construction is the lexical one (i.e. with *do*-support).

Table 3.5.²⁰ *Emphatic positive*

	a	b	c	d	e	f	
3.1.	-	-	-	+	+-	+	
3.2.	-	-	+	+	-	-	
3.3.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+	
3.4.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+	
3.5.	-	-	+-	+	²¹ +-	-	+

3.6 Operators in reduced clauses

According to Quirk et al. (1985:125) reduced clauses are clauses where the main verb is omitted either by ellipsis or by pro-form substitution. These clauses are understood as the repetition of the content of the earlier clause.²² In reduced

²⁰ Symbols used in 3.5.: - *do*-support is used, the verb cannot carry the nuclear stress.

+ *do*-support is not used, the verb itself carries the nuclear stress.

+- there are two possibilities, either *do*-support is used, the verb cannot carry the nuclear stress or *do*-support is not used, the verb itself carries the nuclear stress.

²¹ Marginal modals differ in this case. In the first box in e) there is *dare*, in the second *need*.

²² Quirk et al. (1985:125) The clause is understood as the repetition of the content of the earlier clause. Examples of reduced clauses:

- So/neither/ nor +operator
- Operator + too/either
- Predication fronting
- Relativized predication

clauses auxiliaries function as operators. With lexical verbs it is different. They cannot function as operators so they have to take auxiliary support. In this section I will examine whether a particular verb needs auxiliary support or if it can function as an operator and auxiliary support is not used.

a) Lexical verb

The lexical verb as the main verb in the verb phrase does not have the potential of the operator, it cannot function as the substitute for the whole sentence. Similarly as in negation (see 3.1.a), questions (see 3.4 a) and the emphatic positive (see 3.5 a) the lexical verb needs the *do*-operator in present simple reduced clauses (see 2.1.7.3.), *will* for future tense, *have* in perfective aspect, etc.

85)

- a) *The Vice Chancellor rejected this view. So do I.*
- b) **The Vice Chancellor rejected this view. So reject I.*
- c) *Yes, a lot of people want to be policemen. I do too.*
- d) **Yes, a lot of people a lot of people want to be policemen. I want to be too.*
- e) *He was warned by another constable that he was liable to be arrested for obstruction if persisted, which he did.*
- f) **He was warned by another constable that he was liable to be arrested for obstruction if he persisted, which he persisted.*

In the BNC there were 74 positive examples of *so do I*, 15 of *I do too* and 65 of *which he did*. I have not found any negative examples.

b) Catenative seem to

Similar to lexical verbs, *seem to* needs *do*-support in negation, questions and the emphatic positive, so it cannot be used in reduced clauses as a substitute for the whole clause and an auxiliary verb is used instead. Here I will not provide any results from the BNC (impossible to find due to the BNC limitations²³). Examples provided below were constructed on the basis of theoretical grammar knowledge.

86)

- a) *I seem to remember a paragraph in one of the papers and so does she.*
- b) **I seem to remember a paragraph in one of the papers and so seems she.*
- c) *He didn't seem to notice it and she didn't either.*
- d) **He didn't seem to notice it and she seemed either.*

c) Semi-auxiliary have to

In most cases in AmEng and BrEng *have to* in questions and negation is used with *do*-support. The forms without *do*-support are used, but rather rarely, and are somewhat old-fashioned. That is why *have to* in reduced clauses does not function as the operator and requires *do*-support. Here, however, it was quite difficult to find appropriate examples in the BNC (*so, neither, too, ...*)²¹; so I have used questions tags. In a sense, questions tags are also reduced clauses, the main verb is omitted either by ellipsis or by pro-form substitution and the clause may be

²³ The BNC is not parsed so I had to look for examples according to the lexical content and according to morphology. In these sentences I needed two criteria to be applied at a time which is impossible to do in the BNC. That is why I had to use another way to prove that they may function as operators. I have chosen question tags.

understood as the repetition of the content but with the opposite colouring (positive – negative).

87)

- a) *So, you have to laugh, don't you ?*
- b) *?Breaking off, she gave a snort of laughter. 'You have to admire him, haven't you.'*
- c) *'What do you expect? Mario has to win, doesn't he?'*
- d) *?What do you expect? Mario has to win, hasn't he?'*

It was quite difficult to find more examples similar to those in 87). So here again I have to rely only on theoretical knowledge.

d) Modal idiom have got to

According to Quirk et al. (1985:141) *have got to* does not behave as an operator because only the first word in the phrase acts as the operator. That is why in questions tags only the first word *have* is repeated. It is similar to the present perfect question tags as *has got to* is a formally perfective form.

88)

- a) *Is that sort of thing, presumably we've got to get the racking people back in to do that, haven't we?*
- b) **Is that sort of thing, presumably we've got to get the racking people back in to do that, haven't we got to?*
- c) **Is that sort of thing, presumably we've got to get the racking people back in to do that, do we?*
- d) *My son buys two or even three at a time and he's got to though, hasn't he?*
- e) *?My son buys two or even three at a time and he's got to though, doesn't he?*
- f) **My son buys two or even three at a time and he's got to though, hasn't he got to?*

I was not able to find any convenient examples in the BNC due to the practical reasons stated above. Examples provided above result from theoretical knowledge.

e) Marginal modals dare, need to

In a non-assertive context marginal modals *dare, need* may function either as lexical verbs or as modal auxiliaries. However, in positive sentences they may function only as lexical verbs. That is why, in reduced clauses, *need to* requires auxiliary support. *Dare* is mainly used in idiomatic constructions so there were no examples of reduced clauses with *dare* in the BNC.

89)

- a) *You need to confirm the accommodation in Pollensa, don't you?*
- b) **You need to confirm the accommodation in Pollensa, needn't you?*

Here again I had to make up sentences according to theoretical knowledge only. The reason is similar to that as in 3.6. (b, c, d).

f) Central modal *must*

The central modal *must* occupies the border point of the modal lexical scale. It takes the opposite position to the lexical verb and it functions as the operator in questions, negations, ... In this case, it does not behave in a different way and it is used in the reduced clauses as the substitute for the omitted part of the clause.

90)

a) "A doctor *must be fetched*," he said, and *so must her son*.

b) *"A doctor *must be fetched*," he said, and *so does her son*.

In the BNC I have found 56 positive examples of *so must to* and 5 of *neither must you*. There were no negative examples.

Conclusion

The lexical verbs, catenative *seem to* and semi-auxiliary *have to* do not have the ability to function as operators and in reduced clauses they are replaced by the auxiliary operator. Because the modal idiom *have got to* is the perfective form, *have* is understood here as the auxiliary. There is no need to insert an operator and *have* is repeated in reduced clauses. The marginal modals *dare* and *need to* in positive sentences function only as lexical verbs. However, only *need to* occurs in reduced clauses and it requires auxiliary support. There were no examples of *dare* in reduced clauses. The central modal *must* is used as the operator, so in reduced clauses auxiliary support is never used.

Table 3.6.²⁴ *Operator in reduced clauses*

	a	b	c	d	e	f
3.1.	-	-	-	+	+-	+
3.2.	-	-	+	+	-	-
3.3.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+
3.4.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+
3.5.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+
3.6.	-	-	-	+	²⁵ / -	+

3.7 Pre – adverb position

Another criterion for auxiliary verbs, according to Quirk et al., is the pre-adverb position of the verb. As we know there are different kinds of adverbs in English and they take different positions in the sentence (initial position, mid-position, end position). There are certain groups of the adverbs, frequency subjuncts²⁶ (*always*,

²⁴ Symbols used in 3.6.: - auxiliary support is needed; the verb cannot be used in reduced clauses.
+ auxiliary support is not needed; the verb itself or at least some word from the phrase is used in reduced clauses.
+- there are two possibilities, either *do*-support is used, the verb cannot carry the nuclear stress or *do*-support is not used, the verb itself carries the nuclear stress.
/ the form does not exist, no examples in the BNC.

²⁵ Marginal modals differ in this case. In the first box in e) there is *dare*, in the second *need*.

²⁶ Quirk et al. (1985:501-503) says that adverb as a clause element functions as a subjunct, disjunct, adjunct or conjunct. Subjuncts are the adverbials which have a subordinate role in the clause (emphasize, intensify, focusing.), i.e. they have a lesser role than other sentence members.

never) and disjuncts (*certainly, probably*) that generally, but not necessarily, follow auxiliary verbs and precede lexical verbs. My task in this section is to state which verbs are preceded and which followed by these adverbs.

a) Lexical verbs

With lexical verbs the verb-adverb order is excluded and adverb always precedes lexical verbs. This rule, however, must be distinguished from the one applied in example 91).²⁷

91)

- a) *He looks, always, quite miserably.* (Huddleston, 102)
- b) *But the passage certainly suggests that there was a distance between them.*
- c) **But the passage suggests certainly that there was a distance between them.*
- d) *The children probably appear as a source from which to develop new relationships.*
- e) **The children appear probably as a source from which to develop new relationships.*
- f) *Move your arms as little as is necessary and always move them together.*
- g) **Move your arms as little as is necessary move always them together.*

Examples from the BNC clearly show that disjuncts and subjuncts stand in front of lexical verbs. There were 609 positive examples of *certainly*, 2110 examples of *always* and 425 examples of *probably* in front of lexical verbs. There were no examples of disjuncts and subjuncts following lexical verbs.

b) Catenatives seem to

The catenative *seem to*, similarly to lexical verbs follows these adverbs.

92)

- a) *She just lets them hang around, they never seem to give her a hand.*
- b) ** She just lets them hang around, they seem to never give her a hand.*
- c) *There are a number of actual and quasi-tax havens around the world, and they certainly seem to prosper.*
- d) **There are a number of actual and quasi-tax havens around the world, and they seem to certainly prosper.*

In the BNC there I have found 84 positive examples with *never* and 28 with *certainly*. There was 1 example of *seem certainly to*. The BNC does not provide any negative examples.

c) Semi-auxiliary have to

In this case the semi-auxiliary *have to* is closer to the lexical verb and the adverb stands in front of *have to*.

93)

Disjuncts on the contrary are syntactically more superordinate, their scope extends over the sentence as a whole.

²⁷ According to Huddleston et al. (2002:102) this example involves what we call complement, which interrupts the clause rather than forming an integrated part of its structure, i.e. in this case we cannot make a claim about the adverb.

- a) *So there does seem to be a line there, even if we don't know, we certainly have to draw it.*
- b) **So there does seem to be a line there, even if we don't know, we have to certainly draw it.*
- c) *You'll never have to worry about it.*
- d) **You'll have to never worry about it.*

The BNC provides 30 positive examples of *certainly have to* and 77 of *never have to*. There was one negative example of *have to never*. According to the corpus no other positions of *certainly* are possible.

d) Modal idiom have got to

Generally, the modal idiom *have got to* is not used with these adverbs. The BNC does not provide any examples of *have to* with subjuncts or disjuncts. I assume that this is closely connected with the meaning of *have got to*. Although *have got to* tends to have the same meaning as *have to* (obligation, logical necessity) there is a slight difference between them. *Have got to* does not have a habitual meaning so we cannot use it with frequency subjuncts in any position in the sentence (*always, never*). Disjuncts (*certainly, probably*) are also excluded because they express epistemic²⁸ doubt/certainty and *have got to* according to Palmer (1988:131) is in its basic function deontic. In the BNC I have not found any examples like 94)b), 94)c), 94)e) and 94)f).

94)

- a) *You have got to find out whether B is telling the truth or not.*
- b) **You always have got to find out whether B is telling the truth or not.*
- c) **You have got to always find out whether B is telling the truth or not.*
- d) *You have got to go along with us.*
- e) **You never have got to go along with us.*
- f) **You have got to never go along with us.*

e) Marginal modals dare, need to

Both verbs may behave either as lexical verbs or as modal auxiliaries. In positive sentences they always follow the lexical verb construction. Most of the sentences with adverbs are positive. So, similarly to lexical verbs marginal modals *dare* and *need to* follow adverbs. In the case of *never* as in example 95)c), which marks the sentence as the negative, *need to* in most cases is used with *to*-infinitive but there were also a few cases of *need to* with the bare infinitive (like modal auxiliaries).

95)

- a) *You always need to store the file handle.*
- b) **You need to always store the file handle.*
- c) *A few people never need to wear a watch because they always know what the time is.*

²⁸ Leech (2004:84) Most of the core modals have two separate meanings. The first is **deontic** modality. It is the most basic kind of modality and it includes permission, obligation, theoretical possibility and requirement. The second meaning is **epistemic** one. This kind of modality is oriented more towards logic and it deals with the statements about the universe and the constraints about the likelihood of their truth or falsehood.

- d) *A few people need to never wear a watch because they always know what the time is.

I have found 20 positive examples of *always need to* and 25 of *never need to*. There were not any negative examples.

As I have mentioned before *dare* is used quite rarely. Many of the sentences with *dare* are negative. In such cases *dare to* may follow either the lexical verb pattern (*to*-infinitive) or the auxiliary one. There were 7 positive examples of *never dare to* (lexical verb construction) and 9 of *never dare* (auxiliary verb construction).

96)

- a) We shall never go there, we shall never dare to go there, but all the same, we like to hear of it.
b) The Bogeyman would never dare enter the kitchen.

With other adverbs (*always, certainly, probably*) *dare* normally is not used (no examples in the BNC).

f) Central modal must

Frequency subjuncts (*always, never*) and disjuncts (*certainly, probably*) in most cases, but not always, follow auxiliary verbs.

97)

- a) You must always remember to shut every gate.
b) *You always must remember to shut every gate.
c) Nannerl must certainly have a fur rug for the journey.
d) *Nannerl certainly must have a fur rug for the journey.

In the BNC I have found 472 positive and 0 negative examples of *must always*. The construction *must certainly* has occurred in BNC only 41 times. There were also 7 negative examples of *certainly must* where the modal auxiliary follows the adverb.

Conclusion

There is no general rule that the adverbs always follow or precede a certain verb. Here we can talk about the preferable position where the adverb is most likely to be found. With lexical verbs the position of the adverbs is quite fixed. In a majority of examples adverbs precede lexical verbs. The same is true with the catenative *seem to* and the semi-auxiliary *have to*. The modal idiom *have got to* is not used with these adverbs. It is mainly due to semantic reasons. Unlike the semi-auxiliary *have to*, the modal idiom *have got to* does not have habitual meaning, so it cannot be used with frequency subjuncts (*always, never*) which carry the meaning of repetition, habit, Disjuncts (*certainly, probably*) are also excluded because they are closely associated with the epistemic meaning while *have got to* is in its basic function deontic. Marginal modals *dare* and *need to* in the construction with the adverb follow the lexical verb pattern, i.e. marginal modals *dare* and *need to* follow adverbs. Only one verb, namely the central modal *must* is followed by adverbs.

Table 3.7.²⁹ *Pre-adverb position*

	a	b	c	d	e	f	
3.1.	-	-	-	+	+-	+	
3.2.	-	-	+	+	-	-	
3.3.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+	
3.4.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+	
3.5.	-	-	+-	+	+-	-	+
3.6.	-	-	-	+	/	-	+
3.7.	-	-	-	/	-	-	+

3.8 Independence of subject

Independence of subject criterion tells us that some verbs are semantically independent and it does not matter what the subject/object of the sentence is. According to Quirk et al. (1985:126) this independence may be reflected in at least three ways. First, it does not matter whether the verbs are used with animate or inanimate subjects, i.e. there are not any semantic and grammar restrictions (boy x bus). Secondly, there is a possibility of existential *there* constructions. And finally, there is a possibility of the change of the voice (active x passive) without the change of the meaning. In this chapter I will concentrate on the behaviour of each verb in each of the above mentioned cases. I will see if the verb can be freely used with every subject/object or if there are any semantic restrictions.

a) Lexical verbs

Quirk et al. (1985:772) claims that the meaning of lexical verbs is closely connected to that of the subject/object of the clause. A particular verb requires a particular subject.

98)

- a) *The workers assembled.* (the verb assemble requires subject in plural)
- b) **The worker assembled.*
- c) *The glass contains water.* (concrete object should be used in this case)
- d) **The glass contains kindness.* (abstract object cannot be used)

As the examples show lexical verbs are semantically dependent on the sentence subject and apart from the number and the concrete/abstract dependence there are other cases in which the use of the lexical verbs is restricted due to the semantics of a particular verb. In the BNC I have found 80 positive examples of nouns in the plural with the verb *assemble*. Other nouns used, were for example *people, bishops, masses, delegates, ...* There were no examples of nouns in a singular number. As example 98)c) shows the verb *contain* requires a concrete object. The BNC provides 143 positive examples of such construction. Other nouns used were for example *examples, blood, lists, words, ...* There were no examples of abstract objects with the verb *contain*.

- Animate - inanimate/human – nonhuman difference

²⁹ Symbols used in 3.7.: - the adverb is placed in front of the verb
+ the adverb is placed behind the verb
/ the verb is not used with adverbs, no examples in the BNC

Not every lexical verb can be used with every noun.

99)

- a) *Humans sleep through most of the night.*
- b) *People sleep on the floor or huddle round television sets.*
- c) **Notebook sleeps on the table.*

The BNC provides 152 examples of the verb sleep with an animate subjects. There were no examples like 99)c).

However there are also examples like:

100)

- a) *All the one bedroomed apartments sleep 2 people.*
- b) *=Two people may sleep in the apartment.*

One could argue that *sleep* cannot be used with inanimate/nonhuman nouns. But in this case *apartment* has the locative role and people are still the agents of the sentence.

- Existential *there* construction

Not all of the lexical verbs can be used with the existential *there*.

101)

- a) *In the pond there lives a grass snake.*
- b) ** In the pond there dreams a grass snake.*

The BNC gives us 1553 sentences with *there lives* and no examples of *there dreams*.

- Active - passive correspondence³⁰

We cannot freely change every active sentence with lexical verbs into passive ones. Such transformation is possible only with transitive verbs (i.e. when verb has two arguments).

102)

- a) *The material will be written and piloted by Lauder College and their partners.*
- b) *= Lauder College and their partners will write and pilot the material.*
- c) *I marvel at the way so great a power is falling so gentle on the earth.*
- d) ** ≠The way so great a power is falling so gentle on the earth is marvelled at (by me).*

- b) Catenative *seem to*

The catenative *seem to* is semantically independent and may be used with both animate/ inanimate or human/nonhuman nouns. It also occurs in the existential *there* constructions and there is active /passive correspondence.

³⁰ All passive sentences in the in this sub-chapter were approved by the native speaker. Positive sentences are taken from the BNC.

- Animate - inanimate/human – nonhuman difference

103)

- a) *Art criticism seems more likely to remain in the shadows, out of the spotlight of academic controversy.*
- b) *He seems to have a natural ability which encourages plants to grow well.*

I have found 1532 positive examples of *seems to* with inanimate objects and 1254 with animate ones.

- Existential there construction

- 104) *'There seem to be more fires than ever on the hill tonight,' said Louise brightly.*

There were 101 existential there constructions with *seem to*.

- Active - passive correspondence

The active sentence with *seem to* may be transformed into a passive construction.

105)

- a) *Belugas can be found in all shallow waters and only the temperatures higher than 15°C (60°F) seem to limit them.*
- b) *= Belugas can be found in all shallow waters and they seem to be limited only by temperatures higher than 15°C (60°F).*

- c) Semi-auxiliary have to

The semi-auxiliary is a semantically independent unit. It occurs both with animate/ inanimate, human/ nonhuman nouns. The existential *there* constructions are quite common with this verb. Finally, there is also an active/passive correspondence.

- Animate - inanimate/human – nonhuman difference

Examples clearly show that the verb *have to* maybe used with animate as well as with inanimate nouns.

106)

- a) *To cope with this, the father has to take a very active part in housekeeping.*
- b) *The chemicals have to be carefully selected so that they affect only the tin oxide and nothing else.*
- c) *The dog has to be restrained from its desire to circle round and drive them back.*

In the BNC there I have found 1686 positive examples of animate human + *have to*, 1849 of inanimate and only 13 of animate nonhuman constructions.

- Existential there construction

The existential *there* construction is used with *have to*.

107)

- a) *There have to be three stages, first the making of the glass, then the showing of the glass, and then the end.*
- b) *There has to be a period of simply understanding how things work.*

There were 50 positive examples of *there have to* and 271 of *there has to* existential constructions.

- Active - passive correspondence

Active sentences with *have/has to* can be changed into passive ones.

108)

- a) *We lose a lot of credibility when this happens. We have to do something about it. (from the BNC)*
- b) = *We lose a lot of credibility when this happens. Something has to be done about it.*

- d) Modal idiom have got to

The modal idiom *have got to*, similarly to the semi-auxiliary *have to*, occurs in all above mentioned constructions. However, with the existential *there* construction there is a limitation in the usage of *there* construction with plural nouns. (See the explanation below)

- Animate - inanimate/human – nonhuman difference

109)

- a) *So the political commissar has got to convince you.*
- b) *Our concentration has got to be on the teaching of children.*
- c) *'That's right,' said a big green frog named Fred. 'That dog has got to go!'*

In the corpus I have 43 examples of *have got to* with human, 91 with inanimate and 12 with animate nonhuman subjects.

- Existential there construction

110)

- a) *There has got to be some kind of responsibility to deliver what they think they are buying.*
- b) *There have got to be rivalry and life can be very frustrating.*

In the BNC I have found 13 positive examples of *there has got to*. No examples of *there have got to* were available. According to Quirk et al. (1985:1405) existential *there* very often determines the concord, governing a singular form of the verb even when the following notional subject is plural. Most of the verbs allow the plural construction with the existential *there*, but in this case, according to the BNC, *have got to* is not used in a plural form (*there have got to be*).

- Active - passive correspondence

111)

- a) *Children like to hold a sparkler but they have got to do it under proper supervised conditions.*
b) *=Children like to hold a sparkler but it has got to be done under proper supervised conditions.*

e) Marginal modals need, dare to

The marginal modals *need to* and *dare to* occur in all above-mentioned constructions, i.e. the forms are possible. However, in current English some of the forms are dominant and more preferred than others.

- Animate - inanimate/human – nonhuman difference

112)

- a) *So if you're in the market for some new doors, here are some of the things you need to know.*
b) *Horses need to exercise each day, for both their physical and psychological welfare.*

There were 6521 positive examples of *you need to*, i.e. with human subject and 20 examples of *need to* with nonhuman animate subject. According to the BNC in current English *need to* with inanimate, nonhuman nouns occurs mostly in passive constructions, i.e. nouns are not agents of the action but the patients. There were 188 examples of *need to* in passive sentences.

113)

- a) *All tests on products for overseas markets need to be interpreted with caution.*
b) **All tests on products for overseas markets need to interpret with caution.*

Because *dare to* is not a common verb in modern English there are not many examples of this verb in the BNC. But from the examples I have found I can conclude that generally *dare to*, is used both with human and nonhuman nouns but in very limited numbers.

114)

- a) *But what really bugs our Sharon is that they dare to show any football at all.*
b) *No other Windows product dares to offer this level of compatibility.*

In the corpus there were 68 positive examples of *they dare to*, i.e. with human animate subject and 12 with inanimate subject.

- Existential there construction

The existential *there* constructions with the marginal modal *need to* are quite rare.

115) *For conservation efforts to succeed, there need to be practical programs.*

In this case, however, it is also evident that this verb prefers a singular verb form rather than a plural one (see 8.2. e). In the BNC there are more examples with the singular form *needs to* (110) than with the plural *need to* (11).

116) Finally, there needs to be a commitment to continuous improvement through development.

In the BNC *dare to* does not appear in the existential *there* constructions.

- Active - passive correspondence

117)

- a) *What the leaders need to do is to accept all that.*
- b) = *What needs to be done by the leaders is to accept all that.*
- c) *Again, either a solicitors or Sheriff Officer need to do it.*
- d) = *Again, this needs to be done by either a solicitor or Sheriff Officer.*

In the BNC *dare* also does not appear in passive constructions.

f) Central modal *must*

The central modal *must* is semantically independent and may be used in all of above mentioned constructions.

- Animate - inanimate/human – nonhuman difference

118)

- a) *She must remember on no account to go on thinking about that or she might let something slip.*
- b) *What they did realize was that their grand design must afford an acceptable challenge.*
- c) *The dogs must also be trained not to be easily distracted by the environment.*

There were 1829 examples of *must* with human (*she*), 21 with nonhuman and 1869 with inanimate subject.

- Existential *there* construction

There are existential *there* constructions with the central modal *must*. In the BNC I have found 1483 positive examples of such a construction.

119) *But first there must be an architectural competition pending the decision as to whether the monument will be built.*

With *must* most of the existential *there* constructions occur with the verb *be*. Other verbs used in this constructions are, however, semantically closely related to the verb *be*. There were 14 sentences with the verb *exist* and 3 with the verb *remain*.

120)

- a) *For example, male and female is not a relationship; there must exist love or desire to actualise and sustain the relationship.*
- b) *There must remain a realm, a sphere of private morality and immorality.*

- Active - passive correspondence

121)

- a) *The people/customers must pay for tickets by post or in person within one week of booking by phone.*
- b) *Tickets booked by phone must be paid for by post or in person within one week.*

Conclusion

In the case of independence of subject most of the verbs are not entirely independent. In many examples there is some kind of limitation to use a particular verb form. However, examples in the BNC prove that the verbs *have to*, *seem to* and *must* are quite independent and may be used with all nouns, animate as well as inanimate. They may also be found in the existential *there* constructions. Finally, they may easily undergo voice transformation from an active sentence into a passive one without the change of the meaning. Unlike these three verbs, the rest of the verbs, show a certain reluctance to accept all forms. The main reason of the limitation is a semantic reason. Particularly lexical verbs prove to be semantically dependant on the subject. So, in no case (animate/ inanimate, human/ nonhuman, existential *there* construction and active/ passive transformation) they can be freely used without any regard to the sentence subject. Examples with *have got to*, *need to* and *dare to* show that some of the forms are more preferred than the other. *Have got to*, for example, is used mainly in a singular form. *Need to* in current English occurs mostly with inanimate, nonhuman nouns in passive constructions. *Dare to* shows the highest degree of reluctance. Generally, it can be used both with animate and inanimate nouns. However, very few examples were found and there are no examples of *dare to* in the existential *there* constructions as well as in passive. But from the examples I have found I can conclude that generally *dare to* is used both with animate and inanimate nouns but in very limited numbers.

Table 3.8.³¹ *Independence of subject*

	a	b	c	d	e	f
3.1.	-	-	-	+	+-	+
3.2.	-	-	+	+	-	-
3.3.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+
3.4.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+
3.5.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+
3.6.	-	-	-	+	/	+
3.7.	-	-	-	/	-	+
3.8.	-	+	+	-	-	+

3.9 Bare infinitival complement

This criterion concerns the complementation required by the verb. Some of the verbs require an infinitive, i.e. the basic verb form, without *to*, known as the *bare* infinitive. Other verbs need to be followed by the *to*-infinitive. In this chapter I will study which verbs require the *bare* infinitive and which need the *to*-infinitive.

³¹ Symbols used in 3.8.: - there are some limitations in the use in above mentioned constructions
+ the verb may be freely used in all above mentioned constructions

a) Lexical verbs

Generally, most of the lexical verbs are followed by the *to*-infinitive. The best known examples of the verbs used with the bare infinitive are *make* and *let*.

122)

- a) *The mother of the groom may also ask to see the bride and she will be taken off to a remote room in the bride's house.*
- b) **The mother of the groom may also ask see the bride and she will be taken off to a remote room in the bride's house.*
- c) *Should you become our first prize winner, we require to know your prize preference.*
- d) **Should you become our first prize winner, we require know your prize preference.*

In the corpus I have found I have found 209 positive examples of *ask to* and 226 examples of *require to*. There were no sentences of these verbs without *to*.

b) Catenative seem to

Catenatives are the verb constructions followed by a *to*-infinitive. In some cases *seem to* may be, however, followed by adjectives or by the verb *to be*. According to Swan (2007:507) *seem to* is used with *to be* when we talk about objective facts 123)c). *Seem to* without *to be* is used when we talk about subjective impression. In this case it followed by an adjective 123)e). But the difference is not always clear-cut. Sometimes both forms are possible.

123)

- a) *Waiting for Godot and Endgame are the only two which seem to offer possibilities.*
- b) **Waiting for Godot and Endgame are the only two which seem offer possibilities.*
- c) *Accordingly it would seem to be impossible to entrench a provision in our constitution.*
- d) **Accordingly it would seem be impossible to entrench a provision in our constitution.*
- e) *There is no guarantee that such meaning as can be given to them will seem interesting.*
- f) **There is no guarantee that such meaning as can be given to them will seem to interesting.*

In the BNC I have found 30 sentences with *seem to offer*. There were also 514 examples of *seem* followed by an adjective and 580 followed by *to be*. There were no examples of *seem* (without *to*) followed by a verb.

c) Semi-auxiliary have to

While *to* is an inseparable part of the verb *have to*, it is clear that this verb is always followed by the *to* - infinitive.

124)

- a) *Now, however, you have to lay down the law and force relatives to realise that a major move is unavoidable.*

- b) *Now, however, you have lay down the law and force relatives to realise that a major move is unavoidable.
- c) What the counsellor has to do is to provide counsellees with the necessary knowledge.
- d) *What the counsellor has do is to provide counsellees with the necessary knowledge.

The BNC provides 5239 positive examples of *you have to* and 682 positive examples of *he has to*. This semi-auxiliary can be never used without *to*.

d) Modal idiom have got to

Here, *to* is also an inseparable part of the verb, so the verb occurs always with the *to* -infinitive.

125)

- a) 'Most importantly of all, we have got to increase the quality and the quantity of skills training.
- b) *'Most importantly of all, we have got increase the quality and the quantity of skills training.'
- c) Francis has got to try to get Hirst back to business quickly.
- d) *Francis has got try to get Hirst back to business quickly.

The corpus provides 523 positive examples of *have got to* and 320 of *has got to*. No negative examples were available.

e) Marginal modals dare, need to

Marginal modals *dare* and *need to* may occur in modal auxiliary constructions and in the main verb constructions. However, I have decided to concentrate only on the positive sentences where *dare* and *need to* occur mostly in lexical verb constructions. It means that they require the *to*-infinitive. However, *dare to* may be used in some phrases without *to*-infinitive. In the BNC were 539 examples as in 126)b). Other verbs used with *dare* were for example *ask, call, come, touch, ...*

126)

- a) I hardly dare to mention the 15 per cent average rate of inflation under the last Labour Government.
- b) I dare say he's afraid to, for fear of catching something!
- c) Too many students imagine that all they need to do is to note down and read over the contents of lectures.
- d) *Too many students imagine that all they need do is to note down and read over the contents of lectures.
- e) As every flat needs to have these service spaces, it made sense to maximize this internal accommodation.
- f) *As every flat needs have these service spaces, it made sense to maximize this internal accommodation.

I have found 252 positive examples of *dare to*. There were also 259 examples of *dare say*. With *need to* the numbers are higher. There were 734 positive examples of *they need to* and 4 negative examples of *they need*. *It needs to* occurred 393 times and no examples of *needs* without *to* were found.

f) Central modal *must*

Must, as a central modal verb, is always followed by the bare infinitive.

127)

a) *The need here is to convince people that they must change their behaviour.*

b) **The need here is to convince people that they must to change their behaviour.*

In the BNC there were 2877 positive examples of *they must* and 1 negative example of *they must to*.

Conclusion

Lexical verbs are in most cases followed by the *to*-infinitive. The same is true with the catenative *seem to*. However, Quirk et al. (1985:146) includes among the catenative verbs such as *start out, keep on, go on, ...* which are followed by the *-ing* participle or by the *-ed* participle and they are not followed by the *to*-infinitive. *To* in the semi-auxiliary *have to* and the modal idiom *have got to* forms an inseparable part of these verb constructions. That is why they are always followed by the *to*-infinitive. With marginal modals *dare* and *need to* two verb constructions are possible: the modal auxiliary construction and the main verb one. However, only the lexical verb constructions of these require *to*-infinitive. The central modal *must* is never followed by the *to*-infinitive.

Table 3.9.³² *Bare infinitival complement*

	a	b	c	d	e	f
3.1.	-	-	-	+	+-	+
3.2.	-	-	+	+	-	-
3.3.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+
3.4.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+
3.5.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+
3.6.	-	-	-	+	/	+
3.7.	-	-	-	/	-	+
3.8.	-	+	+	-	-	+
3.9.	+-	-	-	-	³³ +-	+

3.10 Finite functions only

Some of the verbs apart from the finite functions have also non-finite ones. Non-finite functions such as infinitives and participles enable these verbs to occupy positions other than the initial one in the verb phrase. In this section I will study if a particular verb has non-finite forms. In other words, I will be concerned with the verb's position in the verb phrase.

a) Lexical verbs

Lexical verbs have the full range of non-finite verb forms:

³² Symbols used in 3.9.: - verbs followed by the *to*-infinitive
+ verbs followed by the bare infinitive
+- verbs vary, some may be used with the *to*-infinitive, some without it

³³ Marginal modals differ in this case. In the first in e) there is *dare*, in the second one *need to*.

128) *to make / make (is) making (has) eaten*

In the verb phrase they may be preceded by other verbs (modal, lexical, auxiliary):

129)

- a) *Whilst waling around the Hop Farm you can encounter our magical collection of fascinating owls.*
- b) *Sit and write down what you like or love in life and then what you want to change.*
- c) *Check over all the things you have written down earlier in the preparation phase.*
- d) *It is known that they used ink and it would have been natural to use that ink for cursive writing.*

In the BNC there were 31726 examples of *you can*, 5588 examples of *you want to*, 3230 examples of *you have written* and 1393 examples of *it would have been*.

b) Catenative seem to

The catenative verb *seem to* has also a full range of the non-finite forms but their usage is somewhat limited. It cannot be freely preceded by every verb. The reason of the limitation is mainly a semantic one. Example 130)f) where *seem to* precedes *have to* is semantically impossible. Other constructions with lexical, modal and auxiliary verbs are possible.

130)

- a) *to seem to / seem to (is) seeming to (possible but rare) (has) seemed to*
- b) *Is it still lined up with the door edge? It should seem to have moved to the side.*
- c) *I'm sure he wouldn't want to seem to be walking out on his friends.*
- d) *None of the girls I've brought to the house over the years have seemed to arouse your animosity.*
- e) *With no lighting, the roads can be treacherous and the weather is seeming to worsen*
- f) ** I have to seem to be there on time.*

In the BNC there were 6 examples of *seem to* preceded by *should*, 1 example of *seem to* preceded by *want to*, 47 examples of *have seemed to* and 2 examples of *is seeming to*. I have not found any examples of *have to seem to*.

c) Semi-auxiliary have to

The semi-auxiliary *have to* has non-finite forms but there are also some limitations in their usage. These are mainly semantic limitations. *Have to* cannot be, for example, preceded by the modal idiom *have got to* as in 131)f). As the examples show it can be preceded by modal auxiliaries and by lexical verbs. *Have to* can also be found in the perfective and continuous aspects.

131)

- a) *to have to (is) having to (has) had to*
- b) *There seems no reason why they should have to pay extra for credit.*
- c) *You don't want to have to think of anything during your two weeks of bliss.*

- d) *Until now, we have had to rely on casual contacts with groups, annual reports and occasional documents.*
- e) *For sheer lack of space and resources he is having to turn away drug-addicts who are begging for admission.*
- f) **He has got to have to go there with her.*

I have found 10 examples of *should have to pay*, 31 of *don't want to have to think*, 1081 of *have had to* and *is having to*. There were no examples of *has got to have to*.

d) Modal idiom have got to

With the modal idiom *have got to* there are even more limitations than with the semi-auxiliary *have to*. This verb does not have participle forms. And as the examples show, *have got to* may not co-occur with *have to* and modal verbs.

132)

- a) *to have got to * (is) having got to *(has) had got to*
- b) **Plants can have got to fit your gardens not just in youth, but also when fully grown.*
- c) *Dido doesn't claim to have got to the bottom of what she calls the Canine Predicament.*
- d) *The strain seemed to have got to the aged suspects.*
- e) **We have had got to work towards a situation where burning is no longer the routine disposal method for getting rid of surplus straw.*
- f) **We are having got to work towards a situation where burning is no longer the routine disposal method for getting rid of surplus straw.*
- g) **Young people have to have got to stand up for their rights Alexander.*

I have found 2 examples of *doesn't claim to have got to* and 2 of *seemed to have got to*. There were no examples of constructions such as *have had got to work*, *we are having got to work* or *have to have got to*.

e) Marginal modals dare, need to

Marginal modals *dare* and *need to* differ in the number of non-finite forms. *Need to* has the full range of non-finite forms while *dare* lacks the *ing*-participle as in 133)i). However, all of these forms are very rare and used scarcely ever. So we cannot talk here about the regular non-finite functions. As the BNC shows, both verbs may be preceded by central modals 133)b). Even though they form infinitives they cannot be preceded by lexical verbs as in examples 133)d) and 133)e). I assume that this limitation results from the semantic restrictions.

133)

- a) *to dare to (rare) *(is) daring to (have /has) dared to more often than: (have /has) dared*
- b) *to need to (very rare) (is) needing to (very rare)(has) needed to*
- c) *And also I hear Mrs. isn't well so I can need to pray for Mrs. and I think also today we should pray for Mrs. (rare, exceptional use)*
- d) *But I think that in this company I can dare to make a few observations.*
- e) **You want to need to know the costs of failure, and the price to be paid in attacking a view.*

- f) **I want to dare to present this point of view because I believe it is not just my little pipe-dream.*
- g) *Those involved have needed to become secretive, for protection.*
- h) *Who could have dared to blot the landscape so?*
- i) *We are needing to learn active roles, to choose what we want and how to achieve it.*
- j) **We are daring to compare ourselves with some who commend themselves.*
- k) **More and more decisions have to need to to have been concentrated not merely in Westminster or Whitehall.*
- l) *The glass needs to breathe, he wrote. You have to dare to let it breathe.1*

In the BNC I have found 2 examples of *can need to* and 4 of *can dare to*. There were no examples of *dare* and *need to* preceded by *want to*. In the perfective aspect *need to* has occurred 44 and *dare to* 32 times. In the progressive aspect *need to* has occurred 3 times. *Dare* is never used in progressive aspect. In the BNC there was also one example of *dare to* preceded by *have to*.

f) Central modal *must*

The central modal *must* does not have non-finite forms and therefore it cannot occupy other than the initial position in the verb phrase. No examples of such constructions were found in the BNC.

134) * *to must* *(*is*) *musting* *(*has*) *musted to*

Conclusion:

Lexical verbs have the full range of non-finite forms. They may function as infinitives and participles and this enables them to occupy places other than the initial position in the verb phrase. The catenative *seem to* has also a full range of non-finite forms. Despite this fact it cannot freely co-occur with every verb. The same conclusion may be applied to the semi-auxiliary *have to* which, for example, cannot be preceded by the modal idiom *have got to*. The modal idiom *have got to* is even more limited in its form because it lacks participle forms. The marginal modal *dare* unlike *need to* has no *-ing* participle. Both marginal modals cannot be preceded by lexical verbs mainly due to semantic limitations. The central modal *must* does not have the infinitive, *-ing* and *-ed* participles. That is why its only position in the verb phrase is the initial one.

Table 3.10.³⁴ *Finite functions only*

	a	b	c	d	e	f	
3.1.	-	-	-	+	+-	+	
3.2.	-	-	+	+	-	-	
3.3.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+	
3.4.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+	
3.5.	-	-	+-	+	+-	-	+
3.6.	-	-	-	+	/	-	+
3.7.	-	-	-	/	-	+	

³⁴ Symbols used in 3.10.: - verbs that have finite and non-finite forms
 + verbs that have only finite functions
 +- verbs that have finite and some of the non/finite forms or verbs that have full range of non-finite forms but cannot co-occur with all verbs

3.8.	-	+	+	-	-	+
3.9.	+-	-	-	-	+-	+
3.10.	-	+-	+-	+-	+-	+

3.11 No s-forms

Most verbs in the 3rd person singular take the inflection –s. Here, I will concentrate on the presence or lack of the –s inflection with a particular verb (a-f) from page 14.

a) Lexical verbs

According to the grammar rule, lexical verbs in English in the 3rd person singular are always inflected.

135)

- a) *She/he works in oils and, among other things, paints about a dozen portraits a year.*
b) **She/he work in oils and, among other things, paints about a dozen portraits a year.*

In the BNC I have found 179 positive examples of *works*. There were also 3 negatives ones used in conversation.

b) Catenative seem to

The catenative *seem to* in the 3rd person singular also takes the inflection –s.

136)

- a) *'Film is basically a matter of personal statement. All arts are in the final analysis. And film seems to be an art.'*
b) **'Film is basically a matter of personal statement. All arts are in the final analysis. And film seem to be an art.'*

The catenative *seem to* occurred in the BNC 140 times. I have found one example of *seem to* in the 3rd person singular.

c) Semi-auxiliary have to

The semi-auxiliary *have to* takes also in the 3rd inflection –s and changes into *has to*.

137)

- a) *Here the degree of complicity is, and perhaps has to be, far higher than the viewer ever suspects.*
b) **Here the degree of complicity is, and perhaps have to be, far higher than the viewer ever suspects.*

In the BNC I have found 176 examples *it has to be* and there were no examples of *it have to be*.

d) Modal idiom *have got to*

The modal idiom *have got to* does not differ from the above mentioned verbs and in the 3rd person singular it takes the inflection –s. Similar to *have to*, *have got to* in the 3rd person singular changes into *has got to*.

138)

- a) *Francis has got to try to get Hirst back to business quickly.*
- b) **Francis have got to try to get Hirst back to business quickly.*

In the BNC *has got to* occurred 320 times. No other form in the 3rd person singular was possible.

e) Marginal modals *dare, need to*

As I have mentioned before these verbs may be constructed either as lexical verbs or as modal auxiliaries. However, this distinction exists only in the non-assertive context (see 3.1. e). In positive sentences these marginal modals are constructed only as lexical verbs so they take the inflection –s.

139)

- a) *The tack traveler must be bold, prepared to go where no tourist dares to step.*
- b) **The tack traveler must be bold, prepared to go where no tourist dare to step.*
- c) *The critical reader of a poem needs to have some idea of what a poem is.*
- d) **The critical reader of a poem need to have some idea of what a poem is.*

I have found 42 examples of *dares to* and 4328 of *needs to*. No other forms in 3rd person singular were possible.

f) Central modal *must*

The central modal *must* never takes the –s inflection in the 3rd person singular.

140)

- a) *And that if she must choose between love and work, she should never hesitate: it is work that gives her the only real satisfaction.*
- b) **And that if she musts choose between love and work, she should never hesitate: it is work that gives her the only real satisfaction.*

The BNC provides 1829 positive examples of *she must*. There were no examples like *she musts*.

Conclusion

The grammatical inflection –s used in the 3rd person singular is typical for the lexical verbs. However, as the analysis clearly shows that almost all the verbs I am interested in take this inflection. The only exception is central modal verb *must*.

Table 3.11.³⁵ *No s-forms*

	a	b	c	d	e	f
--	---	---	---	---	---	---

³⁵ Symbols used in 3.11.: - verbs takes the –s inflection
+ verb never takes the –s inflection

3.1.	-	-	-	+	+-	+	
3.2.	-	-	+	+	-	-	
3.3.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+	
3.4.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+	
3.5.	-	-	+-	+	+-	-	+
3.6.	-	-	-	+	/	-	+
3.7.	-	-	-	/	-	+	
3.8.	-	+	+	-	-	+	
3.9.	+-	-	-	-	+-	-	+
3.10.	-	+-	+-	+-	+-	+	
3.11.	-	-	-	-	-	+	

3.12 Abnormal time reference

The abnormal time reference means that some verbs may refer to past or some other tense without the change of the verb form. Such verbs in the past tense, for example, neither take the *-ed* ending, nor have irregular past tense forms. In this chapter, I would like to examine which verbs may refer to the past or future without the change of their form.

a) Lexical verbs

Lexical verbs have a full range of forms marking different tenses. It means that each tense has its typical ending. Without the particular verb form it cannot refer to a different tense.

141)

- a) *Yesterday I received a letter from you which has considerably upset me* (past tense)
b) **Yesterday I travel very early in the morning from Crook to Ferryhill, changing at Bishop Auckland.*

In the BNC I have found 357 examples of *received* and 225 examples of verbs in the past tense (the word *yesterday* appears in the sentence). No verbs in the present tense were used with the word *yesterday*. Sometimes there is a possibility to refer to the future without the change of the verb form. But generally *will* is used to mark the future tense from.

142)

- a) *Tomorrow I travel very early in the morning from Crook to Ferryhill, changing at Bishop Auckland.* (possible)
b) *Next week I will /I'm going to travel very early in the morning from Crook to Ferryhill, changing at Bishop Auckland.* (future)

I have found 3 examples of *tomorrow I travel*. There were also 3405 examples of *I will travel* and 2880 of *I'm going to travel*.

b) Catenative seem to

The catenative *seem to* also has special forms to mark different tenses and without the change in the verb form; the verb cannot refer to different time.

143)

- a) *I seem to vaguely remember you gave me some directions last time.* (present tense)
- b) *Ten minutes seemed to make little difference, with the jerry-cans still discernible on the roof-rack.* (past tense)
- c) **Ten minutes seem to make little difference, with the jerry-cans still discernible on the roof-rack.* (not referring to the past)
- d) *High doses of hormone will seem to have higher risk, and new studies will indicate stronger.* (future tense)
- e) *The money crisis of 1836 is going to seem like a high feast when people look back on 45' and 46'.* (future tense)

I have found 1137 examples of *it seemed to*, 24 of *will seem to* and only 2 of *is going to seem to*.

c) Semi-auxiliary have to

In some cases there is a possibility to use this verb without a change in the form but with the change in the time reference as in example 144)a). But generally *have to* has special forms to refer to the future and the past.

144)

- a) *I have to admit that I do still like the comfort of shorts and a T-shirt.* (present tense)
- b) *I have to get up at 5.30 tomorrow to fly to Manchester to interview a woman who collects bassoons. 5.* (future tense)
- c) *Afterwards I will have to knock on other doors but I am sure that yet again the right door will open at the right time.* (future tense)
- d) **Afterwards I have to knock on other doors but I am sure that yet again the right door will open at the right time.*
- e) *I go to Barn Mead on a Thursday as a rule you see, but yesterday I had to have a day off to go out.* (past tense)
- f) **I go to Barn Mead on a Thursday as a rule you see, but yesterday I have to have a day off to go out.* (not referring to the past)

There were 66 examples of *will have to* and 11 examples of *have to* referring to the future without a change in the form. In the past tense *had to* occurred 3240 times. I have not found any examples of *have to* referring to the past.

d) Modal idiom have got to

Modal idiom *have got to* cannot usually refer to the past or the future without a change in the verb. According to Leech (1987:96) *have got to* does not have a usual past tense form; *had got to* in BrEng is rare and is limited to indirect speech and *had to* may be used instead.

145)

- a) *Lewis had got to know him because he was a frequent visitor to Oxford.* (possible but rare)
- b) **You will have got to give him credit.*

In the BNC I have found 120 examples of *had got to* and no examples of *will have got to*.

e) Marginal modals *dare, need to*

Marginal modals used in the lexical verb constructions cannot refer to the future or the past without a change in the verb form.

Marginal modals used in lexical verb construction:

146)

- a) *One evening I dared to stretch out my hand to his plate, but he struck me a sharp blow.*
- b) **One evening I dare to stretch out my hand to his plate, but he struck me a sharp blow.*
- c) *Honours weren't even and though time was getting on, I needed to climb a route (past)*
- d) **Honours weren't even and though time was getting on, I need to climb a route.*
- e) *I must tell you about Hess. There is a chance that he will dare to leave. (future)*
- f) *The building will need to be carefully leak-proofed against the outside air. (future)*

In past tense form *dared to* occurred 14 times. *Dare to* without a change of the form cannot refer to the past. *Need to* in the past tense form occurred 184 times. *Need to* is not used in the past tense form. In the future tense form *dare to* occurred once. *Need to* in the future form with *will* occurred 1467 times.

Marginal modals used in auxiliary verb construction:

As a modal auxiliary, *need* had no tense contrast (no examples in the BNC). With *dare* there exists a past tense form *dared* and a future tense form *will dare*. In the BNC I have found 5 positive examples of *will dare* and 142 of *dared not*.

147)

- a) *You can be sure no-one will dare cut you up on the motorway. (future)*
- b) *But Paul dared not suggest it to his mother. (past)*

f) Central modal *must*

The central modal *must* does not have special forms to refer to the future or the past and very often other verbs are used instead. But there are examples of reference to the past without a change in the verb form. However, Quirk et al. (1985:232) claims that *must* cannot normally be used in reference to the past time outside indirect speech or indirect thought context. The past tense form of *have to* can be used in the main clause. Curme (1931:413) says that *must* is used with reference to the past in independent sentences as well as in subordinate clauses and in some cases as a past indicative. In fact, in such instances it always stands in the neighbourhood of some other verbal form which clearly points to the past. Here I used the examples from the books (impossible to find any examples in the BNC, see page 33).

148)

- a) *A commander like Mansfield, who could not pay his soldiers, must, of necessity, plunder wherever he was.* Curme (1931:413)
- b) **A commander like Mansfield, who could not pay his soldiers, musted, of necessity, plunder wherever he was.*
- c) *I told him what he must do.* Dušková (1988:194)
- d) **I told him what he musted do.*
- e) *You can borrow my car, but you must bring it back before ten.* Swan (2007:336)
- f) **You can borrow my car, but you will must bring it back before ten.* Swan (2007:336)

Conclusion

Lexical verbs do not refer to the past or future without a change in their form, they have a formal tense contrast. However, there are some exceptions when lexical verbs may refer to the near future without a change in the form. But without the change of the verb form it cannot refer to the past. The catenative *seem to* and the semi-auxiliary *have to* behave similarly to lexical verbs and basically they also take grammatical morphemes when they refer to past or future. The marginal modals *dare* and *need to* in the lexical verb constructions have the tense contrast. As the modal auxiliary *need to* does not have the contrast but *dare to* does. The central modal *must* does not have special forms to refer to the future or the past, i.e. it has no tense contrast. However, very often other verbs are used instead of *must* to refer to the future or the past.

Table 3.12.³⁶ *Abnormal time reference*

	a	b	c	d	e	f	
3.1.	-	-	-	+	+-	+	
3.2.	-	-	+	+	-	-	
3.3.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+	
3.4.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+	
3.5.	-	-	+-	+	+-	-	+
3.6.	-	-	-	+	/	-	+
3.7.	-	-	-	/	-	+	
3.8.	-	+	+	-	-	+	
3.9.	+-	-	-	-	+-	-	+
3.10.	-	+-	+-	+-	+-	+	
3.11.	-	-	-	-	-	+	
3.12.	-	-	-	-	³⁷ --	-/	+

³⁶ Symbols used in 3.12.:
 - verbs that have past/future tense morphemes
 + verb does not have past/future tense morphemes
 / no examples in the BNC

³⁷ Marginla modals differ in this case. *Dare* has the tense contrast in both constructions, in auxiliary as well as in lexical ones. *Need to* has the tense contrast only when used as a lexical verb.

4. General conclusions

The aim of this thesis was to make a survey of verb responses to different criteria for auxiliary verbs (see the previous chapter). I have chosen verbs representing six verb groups. I have assumed that not all of the verbs belonging to one group will behave in the same way. That is why in one case I have taken two verbs from one group. I decided to examine two marginal modals, namely *dare* and *need to*. The verbs I have examined are as follows:

- a) Lexical verb
- b) Catenative: *seem to*
- c) Semi-auxiliary: *have to*
- d) Modal idiom: *have got to*
- e) Marginal modal: *dare, need to*
- f) Central modal: *must*

The starting point for my survey was the assumption that in English we can speak about the verb scale. Lexical verbs and modal verbs form the border points of this scale. Between them there are 4 other groups of verbs. Some of these verbs are closer to lexical verbs, some to modal verbs. In each chapter, I studied verbs forms according to a particular criterion. First, I theoretically stated the forms which verbs may take according to a particular criterion. Second, I presented the behaviour of above mentioned verbs (a-f) with practical examples, in sentences. I assumed that in most cases there would be two possibilities, the verb either follows the criterion or does not. I have written down all my results in the table. If the verb behaved according to the criterion, I marked it as +, if it did not I used -. There were also cases when a particular form is never used. In such cases I used /. Some verbs could take both forms and I marked it as +-.

Table 4.1. *Criteria for modal auxiliary verbs*

	a	b	c	d	e	f
3.1.	-	-	-	+	+-	+
3.2.	-	-	+	+	-	-
3.3.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+
3.4.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+
3.5.	-	-	+-	+	+- -	+
3.6.	-	-	-	+	/ -	+
3.7.	-	-	-	/	-	+
3.8.	-	+	+	-	-	+
3.9.	+-	-	-	-	+- -	+
3.10.	-	+-	+-	+-	+-	+
3.11.	-	-	-	-	-	+
3.12.	-	-	-	-	-- -/	+

The behavior of the particular verbs is summed up in each sub-chapter. That is why I am not going to repeat all the conclusions here. I would just like to make general comments on the results presented in table 3.1.

The results clearly show that each verb belonging to a particular verb group fulfils a different number of the verb criteria. There is a scale of verbs. Lexical verbs do not fulfill any of the auxiliary verb criteria. Central modals, on the other hand, follow nearly all of the criteria. There is only one exception, namely in verb contraction criterion when the central modal *must*, similar to the lexical verb cannot be contracted in any way. Verbs taking place somewhere between these two border verbs differ in the number of positive responses to particular criteria. There is one visible feature in the behavior of verbs. The closer a particular verb stands to the central modal, the more positive responses we get.

However, there is one exception, namely the marginal modals *dare to* and *need to*. These verbs are special in one feature. Both can behave either as lexical verbs or as auxiliaries. That is why in four cases (criteria) there are two forms possible. One of them is typical for lexical verbs; the second for modal auxiliary verbs. Even though they belong to one verb group their behavior differs in four cases. In the *emphatic positive* two constructions (lexical and auxiliary) are possible with *dare to*. With *need to* it is different. In this case, it is used in lexical verb construction only. In the other case, namely in the *operator in reduced clauses* criterion, *dare to* is not used at all. *Need to* follows the lexical verbs behavior. In the *bare infinitival complement* criterion *dare to*, unlike *need to*, may be used in some phrases without *to*-infinitive. *Need to* in positive sentences is always followed by *to*-infinitive. In the last case, the *abnormal time reference* criterion, *need to* is more limited in its use than *dare to*. *Need to* has the tense contrast only in the lexical verb use. *Dare to* has the past/future tense morphemes both in lexical as well as in auxiliary constructions.

Other interesting verbs similar in form and meaning, which are very often exchangeable, are the modal idiom *have got to* and the semi-auxiliary *have to*. Quirk et al. (1231:12) say that from the semantic point of view *have got to* is a variant of *have to*. Results in the table 4.1. clearly show that in five cases they take the same forms. In the other seven cases they differ. Another feature visible in the chart is this: the semi-auxiliary *have to* is closer to the lexical verb (in six cases it answers negatively and positively only twice to the criteria), *have got to* is closer to modal verbs (it fulfils 5 criteria and responds negatively to four of them). With *have to* in four cases two forms are possible; while with *have got to* in one case two forms are possible. In one case, namely in the *pre-adverb position*, this modal idiom is limited in its use; it is not used at all. It is closely connected with the semantics of this verb.

The last verb I have been working with in this thesis is the catenative verb *seem to*. In most cases it gets the lexical verb form. However, in one case it accepts the modal verb form. *Seem to* is semantically independent of the subject. The examples show that unlike lexical verbs it can freely co-occur with both animate/inanimate and human/nonhuman nouns. There is also a possibility to transform this verb from passive into active without a change in the meaning.

The verbs in English which were in the focus of my attention in this thesis form a complicated system in language. There are many rules and criteria in the language. However, not all of them can be automatically applied without any limitations. Language is a living construct; it is changing and adjusting to the needs of its users. But still, in spite of all of these changes we can notice some regularities in forms which enables us to classify verbs into groups.

5. Shrnutí

Tato diplomová práce se zabývá systémem anglických sloves. V první řadě se ale soustředí na modální slovesa a jejich charakteristické rysy. Hlavní cílem je ukázat, že jednotlivé slovesa se liší jak formálně tak významově, a proto podle kritérií pro modální tvoří různé slovesné skupiny.

První kapitola se zabývá klasifikací sloves v angličtině. Zaměřuje se hlavně teoreticky. Vychází především se dvou zdrojů: prvním je *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, jejíž autorem jsou Quirk a kol. (1985), druhým je gramatika Huddleston'a a kol. (2002) *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*. Slovesa v angličtině, stejně jako v jiných jazycích, tvoří komplikovaný systém. Jednotlivé skupiny sloves se liší formálně, významově a také samostatností. Při klasifikaci sloves záleží na tom, které kritérium je považováno za rozhodující. Obecně se výše zmínění autoři liší ve svých klasifikacích. Pro Quirk'a a kol. je rozhodujícím faktorem funkce daného slovesa ve slovesné frázi a proto rozlišuje tři slovesné skupiny: *plnovýznamová slovesa*, *primární slovesa* a *modální pomocná slovesa*. Modální slovesa pak rozděluje do dvou skupin: *centrální modální slovesa* a *marginální modální slovesa*. Huddleston a. kol (2002:92) mluví jenom o dvou skupinách sloves: *lexikální slovesa* a *pomocná slovesa*. Důležitým kritériem pro jeho klasifikaci je morfologie a syntax sloves. Pomocná slovesa se pak rozdělují do dvou skupin: *modální pomocná slovesa* a *nemodální pomocná slovesa*.

Další část první kapitoly se podrobněji zabývá klasifikací pomocných sloves podle Huddleston'a a kol., tj. *modálními pomocnými slovesy* a *nemodálními pomocnými slovesy*. Charakteristickým rysem *nemodálních sloves* *be*, *do*, *have* je jejich schopnost plnit funkci plnovýznamových stejně jako pomocných sloves. Jako pomocná slovesa plní důležitou roli v otázkách, negaci, inverzi, důrazu, ... Sloveso *have* tvoří navíc perfektní tvary a sloveso *be* se používá v průběhových a pasivních tvarech. Modální slovesa tvoří mnohem komplikovanější skupinu. Oba autoři se shodují, že existuje více skupin modálních sloves a každá z nich splňuje různý počet kritérií pro modální slovesa. V angličtině proto mluvíme o škáli sloves. Lexikální slovesa a centrální modální slovesa tvoří hraniční body. Mezi nimi se nachází další čtyři slovesné skupiny: *marginální modální slovesa*, *modální idiomy*, *semi-pomocná slovesa* a *sponová slovesa*. Rozhodujícími kritérii, podle kterých se daná slovesa klasifikují, jsou:

- 1) primární formy (viz 1.2.1)
- 2) neshoda v osobě a čísle (viz 1.2.2)
- 3) holý infinitiv (viz 1.2.3)
- 4) vzdálené kondicionály (viz 1.2.4)
- 5) modálně vzdálené préteritum (viz 1.2.5)
- 6) odkazování na přítomnost, popř. budoucnost (viz 1.2.6)
- 7) další charakteristiky modálních sloves
 - i. negace (viz 1.2.7.1)
 - ii. inverze podmětu a slovesa (viz 1.2.7.2)
 - iii. eliptické konstrukce (viz 1.2.7.3)
 - iv. důraz (viz 1.2.7.4)

V druhé kapitole jsou uvedeny základní informace týkající se Britského národního korpusu. BNK slouží v této diplomové práci nejen jako hlavní zdroj příkladů, ale

také potvrzuje, zda jednotlivé tvary sloves vůbec existují. Ukazuje také frekvenci výskytu jednotlivých slovesných forem v současné angličtině.

Třetí kapitola se prakticky, tj. pomocí konkrétních příkladů, zaměřuje na výskyt jednotlivých slovesných tvarů u vybraných sloves. V této kapitole jsem se věnovala slovesům z každé slovesné skupiny (viz níže). Ve většině případů jsem si vybrala jedno sloveso z každé třídy. Výjimkou jsou *margiální slovesa*. Zde jsem zkoumala dva slovesa. Předpokládala jsem, že slovesa jedné skupiny se nebudou vždy chovat stejným způsobem. Slovesa, která jsem si si náhodně vybrala, jsou:

- a) lexikální sloveso
- b) sponové sloveso: *seem to*
- c) semi-pomocné sloveso: *have to*
- d) modální idiom: *have got to*
- e) marginální modální sloveso: *dare, need to*
- f) centrální modální sloveso: *must*

Tato kapitola se skládá z 12 podkapitol. Každá podkapitola se soustředí na jedno z níže uvedených kritérií.

- 5.1 funkce pomocného slovesa v negaci
- 5.2 stažené formy sloves
- 5.3 stažená forma negativní částice *not*
- 5.4 funkce pomocného slovesa v inverzi
- 5.5 pozitivní důraz
- 5.6 pomocné sloveso v krátkých odpovědích
- 5.7 pozice před adverbem
- 5.8 nezávislost podmětu
- 5.9 doplnění holým infinitivem
- 5.10 finitní funkce
- 5.11 gramatická koncovka –s
- 5.12 odkazování na přítomnost, popř. budoucnost

V závěru jsem uvedla pouze obecné výsledky v podobě tabulky (viz Tab. 5.1). Podrobnější komentáře jsou obsažny v každé podkapitole. Obecně mohu konstatovat, že v angličtině existuje škála sloves. Jak jsem již zmínila výše, *lexikální* a *centrální modální* slovesa tvoří hraniční body škály. Další čtyři skupiny se nacházejí někde mezi nimi. Některé z nich jsou blíže lexikálním slovesům, jiné modálním.

Pomocí konkrétních příkladů jsem zjišťovala, jaké tvary podle daného kritéria mají jednotlivá slovesa. Výsledky jsou zaznamenány v tabulce. Pokud sloveso splňovalo dané kritérium, použila jsem symbol +, pokud ne -. V případě dvou možností jsem použila +-. V některých případech se sloveso v dané formě nevyskytovalo vůbec. V tom případě jsem použila symbol /.

Tab. 5.1. *Kritéria pro modální slovesa*

	a	b	c	d	e	f
3.1.	-	-	-	+	+-	+
3.2.	-	-	+	+	-	-
3.3.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+
3.4.	-	-	+-	+	+-	+

3.5.	-	-	+-	+	+-	-	+
3.6.	-	-	-	+	/	-	+
3.7.	-	-	-	/	-	-	+
3.8.	-	+	+	-	-	-	+
3.9.	+-	-	-	-	+-	-	+
3.10.	-	+-	+-	+-	+-	+-	+
3.11.	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
3.12.	-	-	-	-	--	-/	+

Výsledky jasně ukazují, že každé sloveso splňuje jiný počet kritérií pro modální slovesa. Lexikální slovesa nespĺňujú ani jedno z nich. Na druhou stranu, modální slovesa splňujú skoro všechna. Jedinou výjimkou je zde kritérium stážených forem sloves. Slovesa umístěna mezi těmito dvěma skupinami se liší počtem pozitivních a negativních reakcí. Můžeme zde však vidět, že čím blíže je dané sloveso modálnímu slovesu, tím víc pozitivních odpovědí.

Je zde ale jedná výjimka, a to marginální modální slovesa *dare to* a *need to*. Tato slovesa můžou někdy vystupovat buď jako lexikální nebo modální slovesa. Proto také mohou mít ve čtyřech případech dvě formy. I když tato slovesa patří do jedné skupiny, ve čtyřech případech se jejich chování liší. V kritériu *pozitivní důraz* může mít sloveso *dare to* dva tvary. *Need to* se zde vyskytuje pouze v jednom, a to lexikálním. V dalším případě, *funkce pomocného slovesa v krátkých odpovědích*, sloveso *dare to*, na rozdíl od slovesa *need to*, nevystupuje vůbec. Podle kritéria *doplňení holým infinitivem*, *dare to*, narozdíl od *need to*, může být v některých frázích následován infinitivem bez *to*. V poslední řadě se tato slovesa liší v kritérium *abnormal time reference*. Sloveso *need to* má morfémy pro vyjadřování budoucnosti a minulosti pouze v lexikální konstrukci. Sloveso *dare to* má tento kontrast také v modální konstrukci.

Dalšími zajímavými slovesy, která mají podobný význam, jsou semi-pomocné sloveso *have to* a modální idiom *have got to*. Výsledky ukazují, že v pěti případech mají tato slovesa stejné formy, v sedmi se liší. *Have to* stojí blíže lexikálnímu slovesu (šest pozitivních a dvě negativní odpovědi). Modální idiom *have got to* se více podobá modálnímu slovesu (pět pozitivních a čtyři negativní odpovědi). U modálního idiomu *have got to* ve čtyřech případech jsou dvě formy možné, zatímco u semi-pomocného slovesa *have to* pouze v jednom. V jednom případě, a to v kritérium *pozice před adverbium*, *have got to* se nevyskytuje vůbec. Toto ohraničení je úzce spjato se sémantikou tohoto slovesa.

Posledním slovesem, kterým jsem se v této diplomové práci zabývala, je sponové sloveso *seem to*. Ve většině případů se toto sloveso chová obdobně jako sloveso lexikální. Liší se pouze v jednom případě. Sloveso *seem to* je sémanticky nezávislé na podmětu a příklady jasně ukazují, že se *seem to* vyskytuje se životnými stejně jako s neživotnými podstatnými jmény. Dalším znakem sémantické samostatnosti je aktivní/pasivní transformace vět. Z aktivních vět se slovesem *seem to* můžeme tvořit pasivní konstrukce bez toho, aby došlo ke změně významu.

Anglická slovesa tvoří složitý systém. V angličtině, stejně jako i v jiných jazycích, existuje spousta paravidel a kritérií. Můžeme říct, že jazyk žije. Mění se, reaguje na změny ve společnosti a přizpůsobuje se potřebám svých uživatelů. Nemůžeme proto všechna tato pravidla uplatnit automaticky bez jakýchkoli omezení. Na druhou stranu, navzdory všem změnám a vývoji, můžeme v systému

sloves zaznamenat určité pravidelnosti a podle nich vytvořit určité skupiny sloves, které se ve většině případů, chovají stejným způsobem.

6. Anotace

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Název práce: Characteristics of English Modal Verbs

Vedoucí diplomové práce: doc. PhDr. Ludmila Veselovská, MA., Dr.

Počet znaků: 115340 znaků

Počet titulů použité literatury: 16 titulů

Klíčová slova: criteria for modal auxiliary verbs (operator in negation, verb contraction, negative contraction, operator in inversion, emphatic positive, operator in reduced clause, pre – adverb position, independence of subject, bare infinitival complement, finite functions only, no agreement criterion, abnormal time reference), lexical verb, catenative *seem to*, semi – auxiliary *have to*, modal idiom *have got to*, marginal modal *dare*, *need to*, central modal *must*.

Charakteristika diplomové práce: Tato diplomová práce se zabývá systémem anglických sloves. V první řadě se ale soustředí na modální slovesa a jejich charakteristické rysy. První kapitola se zabývá klasifikací sloves v angličtině. Zaměřuje se hlavně teoreticky. Vychází se dvou zdrojů: prvním je *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, jejíž autorem jsou R. Quirk a kol. (1985), druhým je gramatika R. Huddleston'a a kol. (2002) *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*. Další část první kapitoly se podrobněji zabývá klasifikací pomocných sloves podle Huddleston'a a kol. V druhé kapitole jsou uvedeny základní informace týkající se Britského národního korpusu. Třetí kapitola se prakticky, tj. pomocí konkrétních příkladů, zaměřuje na výskyt jednotlivých slovesných tvarů u vybraných sloves. Výsledky jsem prezentovala pomocí tabulky. (viz tab. 5.1.)

Characteristics of the diploma thesis: This diploma thesis works with the system of English verbs. However, it focuses mainly on modal verbs and their features. The first chapter theoretically presents the classification of English verbs. It is based mainly on two grammar books which are: *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (1985) by R. Quirk et al. and *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* (2002) by Huddleston et al. In the second chapter is some information concerning the BNC. The third chapter looks closer at the occurrence of particular verb forms with verbs belonging to different verb groups. The results are summed up in the table. (see Table 5.1.)

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