The End-Weight Principle and Word Order in English

Adéla Přibylová

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

Jméno a příjmení: **Adéla Přibylová**
Osobní číslo: **H16828**
Studijní program: **B7310 Filologie**
Studijní obor: **Anglický jazyk pro manažerskou praxi**
Forma studia: **prezenční**

Téma práce: **Slovosled a informační struktura v anglickém jazyce**

Zásady pro vypracování:

Shromáždění materiálů k tématu práce
Studium odborné literatury
Stanovení cílů a hypotéz na základě odborných materiálů
Analýza vybraných principů
Vyvození a formulace závěrů práce

Rozsah bakalářské práce:

Rozsah příloh:

Forma zpracování bakalářské práce: **tištěná/elektronická**

Seznam odborné literatury:

Dušková, Libuše. 2012. Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny. Prague: Academia.

Huddleston, Rodney, and Geoffrey K. Pullum. 2002. The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Quirk, Randolph, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, and Jan Svartvik. 2004. A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language. London: Longman.

Radford, Andrew. 2004. Minimalist Syntax: Exploring the Structure of English. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Veselovská, Ludmila. 2017. English Syntax (2): Syllabi fot the Lectures, Examples and Exercises. 2nd ed. Olomouc: Palacký University Olomouc.
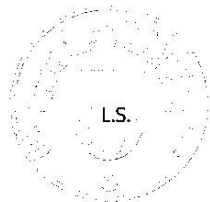
Vedoucí bakalářské práce: **Mgr. Michaela Čakányová, Ph.D.**
                                   Ústav moderních jazyků a literatur

Datum zadání bakalářské práce: **9. listopadu 2018**

Termín odevzdání bakalářské práce: **3. května 2019**

Ve Zlíně dne 22. ledna 2019

L.S.

doc. Ing. Anežka Lengálová, Ph.D.   Mgr. Libor Marek, Ph.D.
děkanka   *ředitel ústavu*

PROHLÁŠENÍ AUTORA BAKALÁŘSKÉ PRÁCE

Beru na vědomí, že

- odevzdáním bakalářské práce souhlasím se zveřejněním své práce podle zákona č. 111/1998 Sb. o vysokých školách a o změně a doplnění dalších zákonů (zákon o vysokých školách), ve znění pozdějších právních předpisů, bez ohledu na výsledek obhajoby [1];
- beru na vědomí, že bakalářská práce bude uložena v elektronické podobě v univerzitním informačním systému dostupná k nahlédnutí;
- na moji bakalářskou práci se plně vztahuje zákon č. 121/2000 Sb. o právu autorském, o právech souvisejících s právem autorským a o změně některých zákonů (autorský zákon) ve znění pozdějších právních předpisů, zejm. § 35 odst. 3 [2];
- podle § 60 [3] odst. 1 autorského zákona má UTB ve Zlíně právo na uzavření licenční smlouvy o užití školního díla v rozsahu § 12 odst. 4 autorského zákona;
- podle § 60 [3] odst. 2 a 3 mohu užít své dílo – bakalářskou práci - nebo poskytnout licenci k jejímu využití jen s předchozím písemným souhlasem Univerzity Tomáše Bati ve Zlíně, která je oprávněna v takovém případě ode mne požadovat přiměřený příspěvek na úhradu nákladů, které byly Univerzitou Tomáše Bati ve Zlíně na vytvoření díla vynaloženy (až do jejich skutečné výše);
- pokud bylo k vypracování bakalářské práce využito softwaru poskytnutého Univerzitou Tomáše Bati ve Zlíně nebo jinými subjekty pouze ke studijním a výzkumným účelům (tj. k nekomerčnímu využití), nelze výsledky bakalářské práce využít ke komerčním účelům.

Prohlašuji, že
- elektronická a tištěná verze bakalářské práce jsou totožné;
- na bakalářské práci jsem pracoval samostatně a použitou literaturu jsem citoval. V případě publikace výsledků budu uveden jako spoluautor.

Ve Zlíně *24.4.2019* ....

---

(2) Disertační, diplomové, bakalářské a rigorózní práce odevzdané uchazečem k obhajobě musí být též nejméně pět pracovních dnů před konáním obhajoby zveřejněny k nahlížení veřejnosti v místě určeném vnitřním předpisem vysoké školy nebo není-li tak určeno, v místě pracoviště vysoké školy, kde se má konat obhajoba práce. Každý si může ze zveřejněné práce pořizovat na své náklady výpisy, opisy nebo rozmnoženiny.

(3) Platí, že odevzdáním práce autor souhlasí se zveřejněním své práce podle tohoto zákona, bez ohledu na výsledek obhajoby.

2) zákon č. 121/2000 Sb. o právu autorském, o právech souvisejících s právem autorským a o změně některých zákonů (autorský zákon) ve znění pozdějších právních předpisů, § 35 odst. 3:

(3) Do práva autorského také nezasahuje škola nebo školské či vzdělávací zařízení, užije-li nikoli za účelem přímého nebo nepřímého hospodářského nebo obchodního prospěchu k výuce nebo k vlastní potřebě dílo vytvořené žákem nebo studentem ke splnění školních nebo studijních povinností vyplývajících z jeho právního vztahu ke škole nebo školskému či vzdělávacího zařízení (školní dílo).

3) zákon č. 121/2000 Sb. o právu autorském, o právech souvisejících s právem autorským a o změně některých zákonů (autorský zákon) ve znění pozdějších právních předpisů, § 60 Školní dílo:

(1) Škola nebo školské či vzdělávací zařízení mají za obvyklých podmínek právo na uzavření licenční smlouvy o užití školního díla (§ 35 odst. 3). Odpírá-li autor takového díla udělit svolení bez vážného důvodu, mohou se tyto osoby domáhat nahrazení chybějícího projevu jeho vůle u soudu. Ustanovení § 35 odst. 3 zůstává nedotčeno.

(2) Není-li sjednáno jinak, může autor školního díla své dílo užít či poskytnout jinému licenci, není-li to v rozporu s oprávněnými zájmy školy nebo školského či vzdělávacího zařízení.

(3) Škola nebo školské či vzdělávací zařízení jsou oprávněny požadovat, aby jim autor školního díla z výdělku jím dosaženého v souvislosti s užitím díla či poskytnutím licence podle odstavce 2 přiměřeně přispěl na úhradu nákladů, které na vytvoření díla vynaložily, a to podle okolností až do jejich skutečné výše; přitom se přihlédne k výši výdělku dosaženého školou nebo školským či vzdělávacím zařízením z užití školního díla podle odstavce 1.

ABSTRAKT

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá slovosledem a informační strukturou v anglickém jazyce. Konkrétně popisuje princip End-Weight a jeho využití v anglické větě. Zaměřuje se na různé větné konstrukce umožněné díky zmíněnému principu. Tato práce také zmiňuje obecná pravidla slovosledu a informační struktury. Teoretická část je podložena praktickými příklady.

Klíčová slova: slovosled, informační struktura, princip End-Weight, větné konstrukce, téma, réma, výchozí slovosled

ABSTRACT

This bachelor thesis deals with the word order and information structuring in English language. Specifically, it focuses on End-Weight Principle and its use in an English sentence. It discusses possible information-packaging constructions driven by this principle and it also mentions general rules of a default word order and information structure in a clause. The theory of this thesis is interspersed with practical examples.

Keywords: word order, information structuring, End-Weight Principle, information-packaging construction, topic, focus, default word order

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

In this way, I would like thankto my supervisor for the assistance and a great communication, which really made the whole process of writing the Bachelor's thesis easier.

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

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

This Bachelor's thesis on the topic of the End-Weight Principle and Word Order in English is divided into two parts. There is no theoretical and analytical part, while the whole thesis is a linguistic topic with an example-based text. The content of the thesis includes two main chapters; Word Order and End-Weight Principle.

The first part of the thesis deals with the word order of English language in general. It is subdivided into three subchapters. First subchapter discusses the default word order, different clause types, possible order of clause elements in a sentence and pro-drop languages. It provides standard rules concerning the word order of English. Second subchapter focuses on various types of sentences, specifically it takes into consideration indicative sentences, interrogative, imperative or exclamative sentences, and sentence patterns of the word order. Third subchapter concentrates on the information structuring in a sentence. It explains the two phenomenal principles; the Given-Before-New Principle and the Principle of End-Weight. Further, it discusses the information-packaging constructions driven by the Given-Before-New Principle and their use in dealing with theme and rheme in a sentence. These constructions include passivization, existential structures, fronting and subject verb inversion.

The second chapter of the thesis follows the previous subchapter concerning the End-Weight Principle. It discusses the mentioned principle in more detail and analyzes its information-packaging constructions. These constructions are divided into individual subchapters dealing with various possibilities how to disrupt the fixed word order of English language. First subchapter discusses extraposition, specifically extraposition of a clausal subject, extraposition of *–ing* clauses and extraposition of a clausal object. The second and third subchapter concernsconstructions with heavy constituent shift and double object structuresand is followed by the fourth subchapter on the subject of cleft sentences. This subchapter discusses general properties of clefts, *it*-clefts and pseudo-cleft sentences. The last subchapter of the thesis focuses on the word order of adverbials and its possible variations.

The purpose of this Bachelor's thesis is to show that English word order is not that much fixed as one might think it is. It provides several examples, correct examples as well as ungrammatical ones, in order to understand the theoretical text. In some parts, English is compared to Czech language to see the distinction, while these two languages have different properties and take into account different grammatical functions.

1 WORD ORDER

The first chapter of this bachelor thesis focuses on the default word order of English, word order patterns and information structuring. There will be discussed the position of word order of English language among other world languages and how they differ. English language will be also compared to Czech language.

Word order is at the heart of syntax and it is related to the order of elements in a sentence (Crystal 2003, 214). This linguistic tool expresses the syntactic relations in a sentence and sometimes the same position might express different syntactic functions. From the grammatical point of view its importance and function differs depending on the language. English has a fixed word order and its grammatical function is important. On the other hand in Czech language the grammatical function of the word order is secondary, because primary are features like cases and subject verb agreement (Dušková 2003, 518).

1.1 The Default Word Order

This subchapter focuses on the fixed word order in English, clause types and the order of clause elements, it mentions the position of English in the World Atlas of languages and describes the terms pro- drop and non pro-drop languages.

English is described as a 'fixed word-order language', which means the positions of subject, verb and object in a sentence are relatively firm. In declarative sentences they typically appear in the order S-V-O, unless there are some exceptions which break this pattern. English language has strict limitations on the ordering of clause elements. However, if the element is marginal, it is possible to move it within the clause or even sentence. Predicate is the most central and the least mobile component, followed by subject, one or two objects or complement and adverbial, which is the most peripheral element. Adverbial can occurin a sentence initially, finally or medially. We can see in the example (1) the mobility of adverbials and how they can be moved to initial or final position. On the other hand, the rest of the elements cannot be similarly moved from their SVO order (2) (Quirk 1985, 49-51).

　1) *My sister usually stays home every evening. (SAVOA)*

　　Usually my sister stays home every evening. (ASVOA)

　　My sister stays home every evening, usually. (SVOAA)

　2) **Usually stays home my sister every evening. (AVOSA)*

　　*Stays usually my sister home every evening. (VASOA)

　　*My sister home usually stays every evening. (SOAVA)

Concerning the typology of languages, English is rather an analytic language, which means its grammatical function is primary and the word order has a big role in English syntax. It is not possible to switch for instance a subject and an object without changing the meaning of a sentence. This is in contrast to Czech, which is a synthetic language containing a wide range of inflections that allow for more free order of words in a sentence (Dušková 2003, 518).According to the World Atlas of Languages the dominant pattern of word order in a declarative clause in English is SVO, which appears also in languages such as Arabic, Czech, French, Mandarin, overall in 488 languages throughout the world. From the geographical point of view SVO is present mainly in Europe, South and West Africa, Indonesia, and a bit in South America. However, it is not the most frequently occurring word order, primary pattern of the word order in the world is SOV, present in 565 languages like Japanese or Persian. Geographically, it appears mostly in Asia, North and South America, Australia and middle Africa. The third most frequently occurring word order is VSO, which with a significant drop dominates in 95 languages mainly in the North America, Indonesia, but also in Europe in Ireland or Scotland.

Moving on from the world languages to one concrete, in English language the basic types of sentences differ with the positions of subject and predicate. In an indicative sentence subject precedes predicate. On the other hand, subject-verb inversion in English indicates a question (3a). Compared to Czech, a question with a covert subject is signalized only by intonation (3b). And if a subject is overt, the inversion is not obligatory (3c), which works in English language as well, but it is a matter of intonation. In cases when a question is made with the help of the operator *do*, the inversion of subject is compulsory. Nevertheless, using an operator *do* the sentence itself does not change from a declarative to an interrogative sentence, because the word order remains the same. Subject precedes the predicate as demonstrated in the example (4) (Dušková 2003, 520-521).

    3) *a. Is the shop is still open?*

       b. Je doma?

       c.Je obchod / obchod je stále otevřený?

    4) *Do you like swimming?*

As said before, the scheme of the word order in a simple English declarative sentence is S-V-O-Adv, which means thatsubject precedes the predicate, object comes after the predicate and adverbial follows the object, as exemplified below (5) (Dušková 2003, 521).

    5) *I cooked a dinner$_{OBJ}$ yesterday$_{ADV}$.*

       I haven't seen him$_{OBJ}$ for ages$_{ADV}$.

1.1.1 Clause Types

Some elements in an English clause are optional like adverbials and some are the necessary core of the sentence like the main verb, which determines the form of the structure. There are seven clause types – SV, SVO, SVC, SVA, SVOO, SVOC and SVOA, where C stands for complement and A for adverbial. These types are divided into three groups according to the number of elements. SV type is the only two-element pattern. Then there are three three-element patterns and three four-element patterns as you can observe in the examples below (6) (Quirk 1985, 53-54).

6) *SV: Somebody was crying.*

   SVO: I love chocolate.

   SVC: My sister became totally independent

   SVA: I have been in the park.

   SVOO: I gave him a present.

   SVOC: I consider these shoes rather expensive.

   SVOA: I had to put all the books on a shelf.

The clause type depends on the class of the verb. The verb may be intransitive, which means no following element is obligatory, transitive followed by object or objects, if it is ditransitive, or a copular verb, which is followed by subject complement or adverbial (Quirk 1985, 53-54).

1.1.2 The Order of Clause Elements

It is enough to state that the order of clause elements is fixed and it follows the general pattern SVO (or SVC, SVOO, etc.). In spite of that, there are some factors which may disrupt the order. Firstly, I would like to mention optional adverbials/adjuncts, which may interfere with the order. As stated before, they can occur either initially, usually conjuncts or disjuncts, finally or in the middle of the clause (7) (Quirk 1985, 739).

7) *She has **probably** seen the movie before.*

   ***Anyway**, we don't have time.*

Secondly, other variations in the syntactic form of the clause may have an impact on the order e.g. in yes/no questions with the subject-operator inversion (8a), in wh-questions (8b), where the questioned part and the operator precedes the subject, in relative clauses (8c) or in exclamative sentences (8d), where the *what-* or *how-* phrase precedes the subject, unless it is identical with it (Quirk 1985, 739).

8) *a. Did you do your homework?*

b. What did you do all day?

c. I know the man who stands over there.

d. What a silly thing she says!

Emphasis or informal highlighting may also shift the elements from their fixed order. The element which is emphasized is usually moved to the initial or final position (9). Next part is moving a longer element after the shorter one (10). Last case of breaking the fixed order of elements might appear if it is stylistically preferable for the subject, which is too long, divide into two parts, one preceding and one, the post-modifier, following the verb (11) (Quirk 1985, 740).

9) *Chocolate, I like very much.*

He is hungry, and so am I.

10) *I told you **yesterday** what my plans are.*

11) ***A new movie** was awarded **about the Queen and their career**.*

1.1.3 Pro-drop Language

English language belongs to the group of non pro-drop languages, which means it does not allow omission of a subject in a sentence, unlike Czech language. Czech is a pro-drop language and it allows the omission of a subject, because it is a language with rich verbal inflection showing agreement. Subject is realized only as a bound morpheme on the predicate (12). However, English can omit subject in some exceptional cases, for example in an imperative sentence (13a), spoken language (13b) or in fixed phrases (13c) (Veselovská 2017a, 49-50).

12) a. *(On) odešel pryč.* → *Odeše**l** pryč.*

(he) went$_{M\ SG\ Past}$away → went$_{M\ SG\ Past}$ away

'He went away. → *Went away.'

b. *(Ona) snědla celý dort.* → *Snědla celý dort.*

(she) ate$_{F\ SG\ Past}$ whole cake → ate$_{F\ SG\ Past}$ whole cake

'She ate the whole cake. → *Ate the whole cake.'

13) a. *Study harder!*

b. *Came home, took a shower and went to bed.*

c. *Thank you!*

The example (12) shows that in Czech language a covert subject is recognizable due to the suffix bound to the predicate. On the other hand, English does not have such suffixes,

therefore the subject in a sentence is obligatory and a sentence without a subject is ungrammatical (Veselovská 2017a, 49).

1.2 WO Patterns

In the previous subchapter it was stated that the default word order of an indicative sentence in English language is SVO. This chapter focuses on other possible word order patterns, two of which were briefly mentioned in the previous subchapter. Also, an interrogative sentence was included, which together with imperative and exclamative sentences will be further discussed in this subchapter.

1.2.1 Types of Sentences

English distinguishes a number of different sentence moods based on their syntactic characteristics: indicative (declarative), interrogative and imperative according to the intention of a speaker. Apart from these three types there are wishing and exclamative sentences and negation. In Czech language it is similar. The order of elements in a sentence differs depending on its type. Simple indicative sentence was described in the previous chapter and it was said that its order or pattern is S-V-O-Adv (5). With indicative sentence the speaker shares some information in the form of statements, which the speaker believes to be true. This type of sentence is the most important, because it forms most of the speech either written or spoken (Aarts 2011, 166).

Second type is interrogative, otherwise a question, which was also already mentioned. By a question a speaker expresses ignorance and at the same time asks the listeners to complete the unknown information (Crystal 2003, 2018). The pattern of an interrogative sentence is the Operator-S-V-O and includes the subject verb inversion or subject operator inversion, if a question is constructed with the operator e.g. *do*, showed in the examples (3) and (4) (Dušková 2003, 309-311). Interrogative sentences can be either open or closed. Open interrogative sentences are used for questions that can obtain an unlimited set of answers (14a). However, closed questions can get only *yes* or *no* answers (14b) (Aarts 2011, 169).

> 14) a. *What are you doing?*
>
> b. *Have you done your homework?*

By imperative sentence a speaker encourages the listeners to execute something. Imperatives are often called commands, which is a rather confusing term, while it represents only one function of imperatives (Crystal 2003, 219). The basic form of

imperative is in the 2nd person with covert subject (15a). There are some distinctions between Czech and English imperative sentences e.g. in some cases the English imperative might correspond to Czech infinitive. Beside the basic form of imperative, there is imperative with an overt subject, which serves to specify the addressee usually in spoken conversation (15b). In English there might also occur imperative in the 3rd person, where the subject is mostly an indefinite pronoun (15c), in 1st person plural (15d) or an imperative expressed by infinitive (15e) (Dušková 2003, 329). Imperatives, unlike other types of sentences, can appear only in main clauses (Aarts 2011, 170).

15) a. *Do your homework!*

b. *You bet! You wait and see!*

c. *Somebody open the door!*

d. *Let's go to the cinema!*

e. *Not to be disturbed by anyone!*

Last type is exclamative sentence, which expresses speaker's emotions. In English this type of sentence begins most often with *what* or *how*. This way it looks like a question, but it differs with its word order, which is the same as in an indicative sentence, thus there is no Subject-verb inversion (16a)(Dušková 2003, 333).

16) a. *What a beautiful day we have! How pretty she is!*

b. *Mary finish her bachelor thesis in time? No way!*

c. *Mary finished what?*

In the Czech language the exclamative sentence is purely based on intonation, which might exceptionally occur in English as well (16b), which is very similar to echo questions (16c). In this case there is used infinitive and SVO order without any question words (Dušková 2003, 333-334)Together with exclamative sentences there are wishing sentences, which do not have any specific form.

17) a. *Long live peace!*

b. *May the God be with you!*

c. *If only I were a princess!*

d. *I wish I could fly! I wish I knew what he thinks!*

In English wish clauses can be formed by many ways for example using subjunctive mood (17a), verb *may* plus subject inversion (17b) or the beginning phrase *If only*(17c). Nevertheless, the most used form of wishing sentences is the verb *wish* itself together with another verb in the past tense*, would* or *could* (17d). In Czech language wishing sentences are a separate type of sentences as well as exclamative sentences (Dušková 2003, 335).

1.2.2   Sentence Patterns

Though the fixed word order pattern SVO is a correct constituent order, the letter V for verb is not explained into detail enough to capture the constituent order in different cases of English sentence patterns. The predicate, a verb phrase, is usually formed from several parts in a sentence and it is called an analytic predicate. On the other hand, Czech has a synthetic predicate. An analytic predicate might include modal verbs or auxiliaries, which have the same syntactic function that is to act as an operator when they occur as the first verb of a finite verb phrase (18a). In questions, the operator is usually isolated from the rest of the predicate in the sense that it stands at the beginning of a sentence no matter how complex the verb phrase is. Verbs *be* and *have* can also function as lexicaland in this case the term operator will also be used in some sentence for them (18b) (Quirk 1985, 120).In terms of negation the particle *not* is a part of the predicate and it immediately follows the operator (19) (Veselovská 2007a, 79-80).

> 18) a.**Can** *you hold the door for me?*
>
>   b. **Is** *the door open?*
>
> 19) *I* **am** *not reading a magazine.I* **will** *not have a dinner tonight.*

According to Veselovská (2017a, 80), the fixed order pattern SVO is not able to determine the position of negation or question inversion. Moreover, it signalizes the presence of object, which might not be always present. As a result, she advices to replace it by more accurate pattern S-M/A-V-(O), in which the letters M (Modal) /A (Auxiliary) and V form two main parts of the analytical predicate.

There are two exceptions which somehow do not correspond to the replaced pattern. The first case discussed is the verb *be*, which is quite unique. It can function in a sentence as a lexical verb (20a), however, if any modal or auxiliary is missing, it takes over the position and leaves the lexical verb position empty as showed in example (20b). A word used to link the subject with a predicate such as *be*is called a copula.The second case are lexical verbs, which usually follow auxiliary or modal, but sometimes they appear alone in a sentence and the operator is covert, it seemsthat the pattern does not agree even though it does (21). Howeverdue to its properties, the operator will still appear in question tags or short answers(Veselovská 2017a, 80-81).

> 20) a. *I will be reading a magazine. I may have been at work.*
>
>   b. *Don't be stupid! You were friends for many years.*
>
> 21) a. *I might sleep at home.*
>
>   b. *I sleep at home.*

We can use the structure S-M/A-V-(O) for other purposes such as question tags, short answers or questions of surprise. However, it is important to state that SVO order does not mean that the first element in a sentence is a subject. There can be for instance fronted elements in front of the subject (22), a subject (NP) itself can be pre and also post-modified or verb might also be complex and contain other auxiliaries. Question tags (23), short answers (24) and questions of surprise (25) are formed using pronominalized subject and operator, which you can see in the examples (Veselovská 2017a, 80-82).

22) ***In the morning*** *I am leaving.*

23) a. *Your sister is upstairs, isn't she?*

b. *Kate will be here in a minute, won't she?*

c. **Kate will be here in a minute, will she?*

24) a. *Is your sister upstairs? Yes, she is.*

b. *Will Kate be here in a minute? No, she won't. / *No, Kate not.*

25) a. *My sister is upstairs. Is she?*

b. *Kate will be here in a minute. Will she? / *Will Kate?*

To conclude the subchapter dealing with word order patterns, there are different orders depending on the type of sentences and various approachesdepending on the linguist.

1.3 Information Structuring

This third subchapter focuses on the information structuring or in other words information packaging or functional sentence perspective and its beginnings. It describes the terms 'theme' and 'rheme', 'topic' and 'focus', Given-Before-New Principle and End-Weight Principle. The second part discusses some devices for changing the position of an element in a clause and provides some relevant examples. There are many approaches to the topic of information structuring and this thesis focuses on the most prominent ones.

One of the first people who dealt with the topic of information structuring in a sentence was a large group of scholars and linguists from Europe, centred in Prague, who were part of the so called Prague Linguistic Circle at the Prague school of linguistics.The School has been enriching its traditions since the 1920s until today. However, what is called the Prague School nowadays is a group of linguists of the latterly rebuilt PLC. The original PLC is represented by excellent scholars like Vilém Mathesius, Roman Jakobson, Vladimír Skalička or Bohuslav Havránek. The general approach of the PLC is a combination of structuralism and functionalism. They also claim that synchronic and diachronic approaches are interconnected and influence each other (Dušková 2003, 1-5).

In anylanguage, especially in English, it is very common for speakers/writers to emphasize certain elements of a clause and move them to the initial or final position and this is called the information structuring (Aarts 2011, 314). When composing a sentence, a clause has two parts. One which expresses already known old information and it is called the Theme/Topic and new important information that the speaker/writer wants to present and this one is named Rheme/Focus. In a discourse the line goes from the known to the new. So, theme is located in the beginning and rheme tends to be at the end of a clause as demonstrated in the example (26)(Veselovská 2017b, 85).

> *26)* *I gave her a book. The book was in a pink wrapping paper. The pink wrapping paper has been chosen by my Mum. My Mum has a good taste.*

Apart from the terms Theme and Rheme, there is a different approach to the information packaging, which Vallduví (1993, 3) introduces in his Survey *Information Packaging*. He claims that a sentence can be divided into Topic and Comment or Ground and Focus. In this case, ground denotes that information is known to the hearer, it represents Theme.Ground is located on the left side of the structure. The new, unknown information, which is located on the right side of the sentence, is called Focus. This term corresponds with Rheme. Focus is the last element in a sentence and it can be observed in the example (27). Nevertheless, intonation plays a great role when stressing and focalizing an element. Concerning the topic and comment, "topic performs the anchoring role to the previous discourse or the hearer's mental world, while comment is what makes some new contribution," (Vallduví 1992, 4).

> *27)* *The wall is **white**. My sister is **sick**.*

The focus of a clause, usually a certain part, is the element, which is the most stressed, and it represents addressee-new information. The rest of the sentence is called the focus-frame, which is addressee-old information. The topic is the meaning, an intuitive concept, what the clause is about. It is difficult to identify the topic in a clause in English, but we can use some device for denoting the topic like *as for, regarding, speaking of* etc. (28) As was already said, in Czech language the word order is more free, therefore the topic and focus can be more or less freely moved in a sentence and the sentence would be still grammatically correct due to inflections (29a). This is not possible in English (29b). Nevertheless, English has other ways, specifically constructions, which deal with the information packaging, but more about those in the next subchapter(Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1370-1371).

> *28)* *Speaking of school, I've got some homework to do.*

29) a. Myslivci zabili vlky. Vlky zabili myslivci.

hunters_{NOM} killed wolves_{ACC}   wolves_{ACC} killed hunters_{NOM}

b. The hunters killed the wolves. The wolves killed the hunters.

The Czech example (29a) shows the flexibility of the word order. Even though the subject*myslivci* is exchanged with the object *vlky*, the sentences carry the same meaning. It is possible due to subject verb agreement and a wide range of inflections that Czech language possesses. In comparison to the English example (29b), the two sentences express different information. The first indicates that *the wolves* were killed, but the other says that *the hunters* were killed.

Information structuring is driven by several principles, which describe the arrangement of information. I will focus only on the two main principles Given-Before-New Principle and End-Weight Principle (Aarts 2011, 315).

1.3.1 Given-Before-New Principle

Given-before-new principle or simply the information principle says that the clause begins with old information and ends with a new one. Old given information is understood to be known information from the previous linguistic context or situation. On the contrary new information has not become familiar at the moment of the communication. This principle also helps to make a text cohesive and communication easier for all the participants of the conversation (Aarts 2011, 316).

"When theme occurs in its expected or 'unmarked' form, its direct relation to given information can be seen informally as announcing that the starting point of the message is established and agreed" (Quirk 1985, 1361). Therefore, *the* there is a definite article related to the noun phrase. As said before, rheme is the new information of the message. Naturally, we tend to place it after providing a context for the given information. Because it is unknown information, the indefinite article relates to the NP. Both NPs with their articles areshowed in the example above (26) (Quirk 1985, 1361).

This principle is a universal phenomenon, thus it is applied cross-linguistically. There are several information-packaging constructions concerning the given-before-new principle such as passivization, existential structures, fronting, topicalization andinversion. They influence the way the information content is presented. Besides these constructions there are also cleft and pseudocleft sentences, extraposition and double object structures which will be discussed in the next chapter. All of these constructions are used especially in English language, because of its fixed word order, while there is no need touse them in

Czech. As was already stated, Czech word order is more flexible in regard to the information structuring (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1365).

1.3.1.1 Passivization

There are some distinctions between Czech and English methods for rhematizing a certain element.In Czech an element can be rhematized by changing its position in a sentence, but English uses passivization for rhematizing (30a). Another function of passivization is deleting the agent of a sentence (30b). In Czech, we can easily omit the subject, because it is a pro-drop language and rhematize the agent by changing the word order (Veselovská 2017a, 33-34). Passives containing the agent in a sentence for example *by me*are called long passives and passives in which the agent is not present are short passives (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1428).

> *30) a. The window was broken **by me.**/ Okno jsem rozbila já.*
>
> *b. The window was broken. / Okno se rozbilo.*

In terms of passivization of ditransitive verbs, there are two possible passives depending on the object that is externalised.

> *31) a. My mother wrote **me** this letter. →I was written this letter by my mother.*
>
> *b. My mother wrote me **this letter**. →**This letter** was written me by my mother.*

The example (31a) containing passivization of an indirect object is called the first passive, which is far more common, while the second example (31b) demonstrates passivization of a direct object, called the second passive. The passivization of a direct object is very rare and acceptable in only a few cases (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1432).

1.3.1.2 Existential structures

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 1390) state, that these constructions are divided into existentials and presentationals. The first group includes the 'dummy' pronoun *there* and the verb *be* (32a). The second group contains also the same pronoun and some other verb for instance *appear, arise, follow, emerge, seem, remain* and other copula verbs (32b). The dummy *there* comes from the locative *there*, which isan Intransitive preposition, contrasting with *here*. Nevertheless, both of them can occur in the same sentence (33). The existential constructions can be further subdivided into bare and extended existentials. Bare one contains only *there*, verb *be* and a displaced subject (34a). On the other hand, extended existentials contain in addition other constituent, the extention (34b) (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1390-1393).

> *32) a. There is a book on the shelf.*

> *b. There remain only two chocolates left.*
>
> 33) *There is a dog there.*
>
> 34) *a. There is no chocolate.*
>
> *b. There is one book on the table.*

According to the examples it can be seen which element is being focused. The existential structures allow the speaker to put the emphasized element in the focused position, after the verb, using the subject *there*, which is in the topic position at the beginning of the sentence. For instance, in the example (32a) the rhematized element is *a book*, which includes an indefinite article that signalizes new information.

1.3.1.3 Fronting

Fronting or complement preposing is a syntactic operation that moves a constituent from its usual position and places it in front of a subject, at the beginning of a sentence. From the information point of view, a sentence member is moved into the theme position, so it is known old information (35a). However, the fronted element might be also a rheme (35b), very often when it is emphasized with no pause. Quirk (1985, 1377-1378) also claims that the elements which might be fronted are those which depend on verb such as an object (36a), a subject complement (36b), or a nominal part of a predicate itself (36c).

> 35) *a. Milk and flour are on the shelf, bananas, apples and chocolate. All these ingredients, I will use for making a birthday cake.*
>
> *b. His car, I will borrow, not hers.*
>
> 36) *a. **English**, Mary studies.*
>
> *b. **Tired**, he looks.*
>
> *c. **To ride a bike**, my favorite activity is.*

Fronting is very common in speech as well as in written material and it is used for stressing the important part of a sentence or to begin with what has preceded. A comma is sometimes used after the fronted element to increase its importance even more (Quirk 1985, 1378).

1.3.1.4 Subject-Verb Inversion

Connected to fronting is inversion. There is subject-verb inversion and subject-operator inversion, in one term called the subject-dependent inversion. Both of them were discussed in the part concerning questions above. In this inversion the subject appears in postposed position and some other part of the verb is fronted (37). Usually the preposed element is a complement of the verb *to be* (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1385).

37) a. *Here comes the teacher.* → *The teacher comes here.*

b. *A wallet with a credit card and a lot of money was found.* → *Found was a wallet with a credit card and a lot of money.*

The purpose of the inversion is to put subject in final position and in doing so achieve end focus on the subject. SV inversion is not very frequent, it occurs a lot in poetry and literature in general, but it is sometimes used also in an ordinary informal speech as exemplified in (37) (Quirk 1985, 1380).

1.3.2 End-Weight Principle

The Principle of End-Weight suggests that long and complex constituents tend to be located at the end of a sentence. These constituents might be pre and also post-modified and they are often described as heavy. It can be seen being applied in the example (38) (Aarts 2011, 316). Because of this principle it is simpler for the receiver to process the information since he/she does not have to remember the phrase in the beginning and it is very likely that the heavy constituent holds the essential information, which also follows the principle Given-Before-New (Quirk 1958, 1362).

38) *I visited him on Sunday.*

I visited my grandpa on Sunday.

I visited on Sunday my funny and beloved grandpa.

Therefore, the rule of this principle is that heavy constituents are placed at the end of a sentence. But Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 1371) argue that weight is rather a scalar concept, because there might be an exception like the one demonstrated in the following example. The particle *up* may stand in front (39a) or behind (39b) the NP. However, in (39c) it is likely for the particle to precede the NP, still it may occur behind the heavy NP, but it is a marginal exception (39d).

39) a. *I picked up the book.*

b. *I picked the book up.*

c. *I picked up the book about the travels through New Zealand.*

d. *I picked the book about the travels through New Zealand up.*

There are also several information-packaging constructions related to the End-Weight Principle such as heavy constituent shift, extraposition, double object structures, cleft sentences or word order of adverbials (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1363). Together with these constructions the principle of end-weight will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter of my bachelor thesis.

To summarize the first chapter of this thesis, English has a rather fixed word order in comparison to the Czech one, but it is important to know that every word order can be changed and every reordering has an impact on the meaning of the sentence. Therefore Veselovská (2017b, 85) claims, it is suitable to say, that Czech constituent word order is controlled by pragmatic factors, while English language relies on the grammatical factors.

2 THE END-WEIGHT PRINCIPLE

Second part of this bachelor thesis deals with the End-Weight Principle itself. Specifically, it focuses on several information-packaging constructions, which are related to the mentioned principle and which influence the way the information is presented in a sentence. The information-packaging constructions includeextraposition, heavy constituent shift, double object structures, cleft sentences and word order of adverbials.

As was stated in the previous chapter, the Principle of End-Weight says that heavy constituents tend to be placed at the end of a sentence (Aarts 2011, 316). The adjective *heavy* refers to elements which are long and complex from a syntactic and morphological perspective. These constituents might be pre modified (1a), post modified (1b) or both (1c). According to this principle it is the weight of a constituent that may affect its position in a sentence. Regarding the second main principle, the Given-Before-New Principle, heavy constituent is usually new information, therefore placed at the end of a sentence, as the principle suggests. On the other hand, old information is expressed by a short constituent for instance by pronouns(Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1371).

> *1) a. I have found **three beautiful pink flowers**.*
>
> *b. I have found **flowers which my Mother loves the most.***
>
> *c. I have found **three beautiful pink flowers which my Mother loves the most.***

The End-Weight Principle allows the recipient to process the information faster and more simply, because it is very probable that the heavy constituent holds the vital information, following the Given-Before-New Principle (Quirk 1985, 1362). The Principle of End Weight is applied in the example (2).

> *2) I saw **her** on the street.*
>
> *I saw **my friend** on the street.*
>
> *I saw on the street **my old best friend from kindergarten**.*

The example above shows what this principle can do to the default word order and information conveyed in the sentence. It is understandable that the NP *my old best friend from kindergarten* is the heavy constituent and the essential information in the sentence.

Nevertheless, this principle is not applied every time there is a heavy constituent in a sentence. According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 1371), the weight is a rather scalar concept, which results in exceptions like the one exemplified in the previous chapter (39).

2.1 Extraposition

This subchapter focuses on the theory and examples of extraposition, an information-packaging construction, which is driven by the End-Weight Principle.

When discussing any information-packaging construction, it is necessary to give some background. Changing the word order of a constituent in a sentence is called a movement. Movements might be obligatory or optional. Regarding the information structuring reasons, the movements are usually optional. These optional movements are divided into leftward movements and rightward movements, depending on the principle which regulates them. Given-Before-New Principle regulates the displacements to the left, but they might be also made by the speaker himself. On the contrary, rightward movements are controlled by the Principle of End-Weight therefore extraposition is a rightward movement (Aarts 2011, 316-320).

Radford (2004, 226-227) defines extraposition as a replacement of a moved clause by expletive *it*for the displaced clause. The substitute serves as a so called place-holder (Aarts 2011, 321-322).

> 3) a. ***It** is quite clear **that my uncle was very sad**.*
>
> b.***It** seemed to me **that my uncle is very sad**.*
>
> c. *I have found **it** unfortunate **that my uncle was very sad**.*

In the examples (3a) and (3b) is demonstrated the rightward movement of a subject of the clause. However, in (3c) there is movement of a direct object to the end of a sentence. All the displaced clauses are heavy and placed at the end, as rules the End-Weight Principle. In (3a) the extraposition is optional, because without it, it is a perfectly understandable and grammatical sentence (4a).

> 4) a. *That my uncle was very sad is quite clear.*
>
> b. **That my uncle was very sad seemed to me.*
>
> c. **I have found that my uncle was very sad unfortunate.*

On the other hand, in the examples (4b, 4c) the extraposition is obligatory, otherwise the sentence is ungrammatical(Aarts 2011, 321-322).

According to Quirk (1985, 1391-1393), there is possible extraposition of a clausal subject, extraposition of–*ing* clause and extraposition of a clausal object.

2.1.1   Extraposition of a clausal subject

Extraposition of a subject is the most common and direct case. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 1403) claim, that the subject position is replaced by anticipatory pronoun *it* and the

subordinate clause is moved to the end of a sentence. The subordinate clause might be indicative (5a), interrogative (5b) or an infinitival clause (5c).

     5)   a. *It worries me***that she hasn't showed up***.*

           b. *It is unclear* ***why she hasn't showed up***.

           c. *It would be pointless* ***to show up***.

The position in which the subordinate clause appears is called extraposed subject position or postposed subject, and it is related to a dummy subject (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1403).

     6)   ***It*** *surprised me* ***that she hasn't showed up.***

The word order pattern is *it + predicate + subject*, thus the sentence has two subjects, postposed subject and an expletive it (6) (Quirk 1985, 1391).

2.1.2 Extraposition of –ing clauses

Although the common case of extraposition is extraposition of a clausal subject, there are further cases of extraposition like extraposition of *–ing* clauses or as Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 1407) call it extraposition of gerund-participial subjects. In fact, these types of clauses appear quite frequently in a subject position, mostly in informal speech (7) (Quirk 1985, 1392-1393).

     7)   a. *It's no use* ***doing*** *it now.*

           b. *It wouldn't be any good* ***telling*** *her about it.*

Nevertheless, gerund-participials with an overt subject are untouchable when it comes to extraposition, as demonstrated in the example (8). In this case a sentence with extraposition is ungrammatical(Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1407).

     8)   a. *Mary and John getting divorced had taken us all by surprise.*

           b. * *It had taken us all by surprise* ***Mary and John getting divorced***.

2.1.3 Extraposition of a clausal object

Another case of extraposition, which Quirk (1985, 1393) mentions, is extraposition of a clausal object."When the clausal object is an –ing clause in SVOC and SVOA clause types (9), it can undergo extraposition; when it is a to-infinitive clause or a that-clause (10), it must do so," (Quirk 1958, 1393).

     9)   a. *You must find* ***it*** *terribly boring* ***watching the presentation***.

           b. *You must find* ***watching the presentation*** *terribly boring.*

           c. ***Watching the presentation*** *is terribly boring.*

     10) a. *You made* ***it*** *clear* ***that you won't come.***

b. *You made **that you won't come** clear.

c. ***That you won't come**is clear.

In the example (9) it is seen, that in all cases the sentence is grammatically correct, with or without extraposition. However, in (10) only the first sentence is grammatical and the other two sentences in (10b, c) are ungrammatical, they simply make no sense.

Apart from the three cases of extraposition, there is another further case of extraposition, which is very marginal. Extraposition of NPs also occurs in English, but there isa limited amount of types of NPs that can undergo it (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1407).

11) a. *It's unbelievable **the things you can manage**.*

*It impressed me **the way he treated her**.*

b. *It's unbelievable **how much beer he puts away**.*

*It impressed me **how he treated her**.*

c. *The things you can manage are unbelievable.*

The way he treated her impressed me.

The pattern of such an NP is the definite article *the + N + relative clause* (11a). This type of NP is called a 'concealed question', because it is very similar to the interrogative clause (11b). In this case the extraposition is not obligatory, because the basic version of the sentence is also possible (11c) (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1408).

To summarize the first subchapter, there are different possibilities of extraposition, an information-packaging construction, but the most frequent case is extraposition of a clausal subject. In an extraposed sentence there are two subjects, expletive *it*and a postposed subject. Other constructions driven by the Principle of End-Weight will be discussed in the next chapters.

2.2 Heavy Constituent Shift

In the second subchapter Heavy Constituent Shift (HCS) will be discussed in more detail, which is another information-packaging construction driven by the End-Weight Principle. It focuses on the way how HCS disrupts the canonical pattern of word order in English and on the difference between objects (complements) and adverbials (adjuncts). Heavy objects will be described and demonstrated together with examples of HCS in a sentence.

The purpose of this construction is to move long and complex Direct Objects to the end of a sentence, after Adjuncts, despite the rule that objects (complements) precede adjuncts. It is necessary to state, the difference between a Direct Object and an Indirect

Object, because Indirect Objects cannot be shifted(12) (Veselovská 2017b, 95). An object is an element which is related to the predicate and which, immediately follows the verb. It is to be found inside of a VP. Verbs which require an object are called transitive verbs. On the other hand, verbs which demand no object are called intransitive. There are also ditransitive verbs, which necessitate two objects. English distinguishes three types of objects: direct object, indirect object and object of preposition. Direct object (13a) typically corresponds to the semantic role of Patient, but Indirect object (13b) correlates with Recipient. Czech language also differentiates direct and indirect object, however, this is indicated by the particular inflectional suffix showing the case. In Czech, direct object carries accusative case, but indirect object dative case. The third type of object is Object of preposition (13c), whichis similar to the direct object. It depends on the verb and on the preposition connected to the verb (Dušková 2003, 423-439).

12) *You should buy a big cup of coffee now **to her**.

13) a. I saw **my best friend**.

b. I gave **my best friend** a book.

c. I gave a book to **my best friend**.

Regarding the form of objects, an object might be an NP (14a), which is the most frequent form, a VP (14b) or a clause (14c) (Veselovská 2017b, 23).

14) a. I love **hot chocolate.**

b. I love **to cook**.

c. I love **when the family is together on Sundays**.

Another necessity is to state the difference between complements and adjuncts. Complements (15a) are objects selected by the Verb, whereas Adjuncts (15b) are usually adverbials and they are not selected by the Verb in terms of subcategorization. It can be said that both of them are additions to the verb, but one is closer and one is more distant.Moreover, there are other distinctions, which tell apart complements from adjuncts (Veselovská 2017a, 20).

15) a. She wrote **a note to John**.

b. She wrote a note to John **last Wednesday**.

Further difference is that prepositions related to complements are selected by the verb (16a), however, prepositions connected to adjuncts are independent of the verb (16b). Saying that complements are obligatory elements (16c)is a rather trickystatement, because even complements (indirect) might be omitted from the sentence for instance with

ditransitive verbs. On the other hand, adjuncts are always optional (16d) (Veselovská 2017a, 20-22).

16) a. I am taking care *of my niece*.

b. I am taking care of my niece *in the evening*.

c. I sent *(Mary) an email*.

d. I sent Mary an email *yesterday*.

Another way of recognizing a complement is that there might be the maximum of three complements in a VP (17a), therefore, the number of complements is limited. On the contrary, the number of adjuncts is theoretically unlimited (17b). As was already stated, complements immediately follow the verb (17c), whereas adjuncts follow complements (16d). The word order pattern is S-V-C-C-A-A-... Last but not least, complements can be passivized (17e), but adjuncts cannot (17f) (Veselovská 2017a, 20-22).

17) a. I met *her Dad her brother*.

b. I met her Dad *on the street yesterday at 5 p.m. with his dog*.

c. I bought *a magazine* yesterday.

d. *I bought *yesterday* a magazine.

e. I wrote *a letter*. →*That letter* was written by me.

f. I wrote a letter *on the computer*. → **The computer** was written a letter *on*.

Heavy Constituent Shift is an information-packaging construction driven by the End-Wight Principle, which already suggests that only heavy constituents can be moved to the end of a sentence. As it was already mentioned the fixed word order pattern is S-V-C-A, which says that complements follow the verb, while adjuncts follow the complements. We can see this in example (18a, b), where the complement is in bold and the adjunct is underlined. Nevertheless, if the complement is too heavy, it can be shifted to the position after the adjunct. That is the principle of HCS (18c, d). Weight is an important factor when shifting constituents, because if a postposed constituent is short, it is much less natural, acceptable or even ungrammatical (18e, f) (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1383).

18) a. I saw *my friend*in the park.

b. You'll find *a cake*in the fridge.

c. I saw in the park*my old friend from the kindergarten*.

d. You'll find in the fridge*a delicious chocolate cake from my birthday*.

e. *I saw in the park*my friend*.

f. *You'll find in the fridge*a cake*.

According to Aarts (2011, 320-321), the HCS, or in other words postposing, helps the addressee to process the information quicker and easier since the heavy constituent tends to be postposed to the end of a sentence as exemplified in (18c, d). The heavier the constituent is, the harder it is to process the containing clause, and the more likely it is that HCS will take place. Therefore the result of HCS is disrupting the order, but at the same time making the language more understandable and easier for the addressee as well as for the speaker.

2.3 Double Object Structure

This subchapter focuses on another information-packaging construction, specifically Double Object Structure. It will be discussed what type of verbs this construction concerns, what two different word orders are possible and how it is connected to the information structuring. There will be included grammatically correct and also ungrammatical examples.

English language categorizes verbs into different groups according to many aspects. Regarding the double object structure, there is a relevant classification of verbs based on subcategorization. Subcategorization was already mentioned in the subchapter concerning the HCS and it expresses the requirements of a verb, semantic as well as syntactic. Semantic subcategorization includes semantic roles and syntactic one involves all XPs selected by the head. Depending on the subcategorization there are intransitive, monotransitive, ditransitive and complex transitive verbs. Double object structure is feasible with ditransitive verbs due to the requirement of two objects, which refer usually to a Patient and Recipient. In other words, these objects may be called Direct and Indirect object, both of which were discussed in the previous subchapter. Ditransitive verbs include verbs such as *give, grant, send* or *tell* (Veselovská 2017b, 8).

Double object structure means that ditransitive verbs allow two possible word orders with direct and indirect objects. Even though grammatical function is primary in English, when there is a choice between two structures, information structuring plays a big role (Veselovská 2017b, 93).

19) a. *I gave Mary a flower.*

b. *I gave a flower to Mary.*

In the example (19a) direct object *a flower* follows the indirect object *Mary*. In the second case, it is vice versa. Direct object precedes the indirect one. In (19b) the indirect object *to Mary* might be called the object of a preposition, because of the preposition *to*.

These are the two possible word orders which ditransitive verbs allow and both of them are grammatically correct. Based on the importance or complexity one of these word orders can be preferred.

> 20) a. *I told the truth to Mary not Jane.*
>
> b. *? I told Mary not Jane the truth.*
>
> c. *I told Mary the truth not the lie.*
>
> d. *? I told the truth not the lie to Mary.*

When the object is long and complex or carries more important information it is preferable to put it at the end of a sentence like in the examples (20a, c). In the other two cases (20b, d) the sentence is not completely ungrammatical, but it seems rather odd and for some speakers it is not correct. As the Principle of End-Weight suggests, heavier elements always tend to be placed at the end.

Occasionally, it might occur that only one of the two word orders is possible and grammatically correct in the English language (Veselovská 2017b, 93).

> 21) a. *Where is the book? I gave it to Bill.*
>
> b. *Where is the book? *I gave Bill it.*
>
> c. *Give me a break.*
>
> d. **Give a break to me.*

As the asterisk in (21b, d) indicates, in these cases the sentence is ungrammatical and only one word order is possible, because of the information structuring. "If a direct object is a personal pronoun, the prepositional construction is favoured, especially if the other NP is not a pronoun – example like (21b) is inadmissible for most speakers, especially in American English," (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 310). In the examples (21a, c) the more important object appears at the end of a sentence.

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 1384) claim, that it is impossible to postpose an indirect object to the end of a sentence. At some point, this is right, because it distinguishes between an indirect object and object of preposition. As was stated above, when an indirect object for example *to me* appears in a sentence, it might be considered as an object of preposition. Huddleston and Pullum (2002) call it a PP complement.

> 22) a. *The teacher gave anyone who scored over 95% an A+.*
>
> b. **The teacher gave an A+ anyone who scored over 95%.*
>
> c. *The teacher gave an A+ to anyone who scored over 95%.*

Example (22b) is the case of what Huddleston and Pullum mean by impossibility to postpose an indirect object over a direct one, which is ungrammatical. The sentence in

example (22a) is perfectly grammatically correct, even though, the indirect object is complex. However, it is more suitable to use the version in the example (22c), which is the second possible word order that was discussed before. The only difference is that Veselovská (2017b) calls the second object an indirect object, whereas Huddleston and Pullum name it a PP complement.

To continue with Huddleston and Pullum's (2002) opinions, there are ditransitive verbs which do not allow the possibility of an indirect object preceding a direct object and on the other hand, there are monotransitive verbs with *to* phrase or *for* phrase which require an indirect object following a direct one. In this case, the indirect object is called a PP complement, as was introduced before (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 308-309).

> 23) a. *I explained him the homework.
>
> b. I explained the homework to him.
>
> c. *I borrowed her the car.
>
> d. I borrowed the car for her.
>
> e. I spared him the trouble.
>
> f. *I spared the trouble to/for him.

According to these examples, it can be observed that there are different verbs with different requirements. Verbs like *give, offer, buy* or *get* allow both word order patterns, either indirect object preceding a direct one or a direct object followed by a PP complement. In the examples (23a, b) there occurs a verb *explain*, which together with *say, deliver, mention* or *reveal*, allows only one order, specifically a direct object followed by *to* phrase. Further, there are verbs like *acquire, borrow* or *recover* which demand a direct object preceded by *for* phrase (23c, d). Last, but not least, there are ditransitive verbs such as *spare, charge, save* or *permit* which allow only an indirect object to precede a direct object (23e, f) (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 309).

"With verbs allowing an alternation between ditransitive and prepositional constructions, the difference between them is very largely a matter of information packaging" (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 309).

2.4 Cleft Sentences

The fourth subchapter deals with another information-packaging construction driven by the Principle of End-Weight and it is called clefting, or cleft sentences. In this chapter the focus is put on the general properties of the cleft sentences and on their division. Clefts and

Pseudo-clefts will be discussed in detail and they will be put in contrast to see some comparisons between them. The theory will be demonstrated on examples.

Clefting is a construction, which divides a sentence into two clauses, each with its own predicate. Like any other construction discussed in this thesis it is done for the information structuring reasons (Aarts 2011, 331). Clefts have two main categories. There are *it*-clefts (24b) and pseudo-clefts (24c) or as Aarts (2011, 331) calls them *wh*-clefts. Pseudo-clefts further bifurcate into two subcategories; basic and reversed versions (24d) (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1414).

> *24) a. I read a new sci-fi book.*
>
> *b. It was a new sci-fi book that I read.*
>
> *c. What I read was a new sci-fi book.*
>
> *d. A new sci-fi book was what I read.*

According to these examples the whole clefting process can be observed. A cleft sentence is formed by splitting up a simple sentence into two clauses, one main and one subordinate clause. In the example (24a) there is a simple sentence, from which a cleft sentence can be formed. Example (24b) is a perfect example of *it*-cleft with the main clause expletive subject which refers to the subordinate clause. On the other hand, examples (24c, d) are pseudo-clefts also containing one main and one subordinate clause with the difference that, (24c) is a basic pseudo-cleft and (24d) is an example of a reversed pseudo-cleft.

2.4.1   General Properties of Clefts

This part of thesubchapter focuses on some general properties of clefts and the differences between them and non-cleft sentences.

As was already stated, there are two parts in a cleft sentence. One of them is foregrounded and the other is backgrounded. "Syntactically, the foregrounded element is made a complement of the verb *be*in its specifying sense – an internal complement in the *it*-cleft and basic pseudo-cleft, a subject in the reversed pseudo-cleft. The backgrounded component, by contrast, is subordinated by being placed in a relative construction," (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1414-1415). In the example (24) there is a foregrounded direct object, *a new sci-fi book*, and the backgrounded element is *I read*. However, not only objects can be foregrounded. There are other constituents that can be foregrounded for instance foregrounded subject, demonstrated in the example (25).

> *25) a. The complexity of the task confused me.*

b. It was the complexity of the task that confused me.

In the previous example (24) the foregrounded element *a new sci-fi book* is the antecedent for the object of the relative, while in the example (25) the foregrounded constituent *the complexity of the task* is the antecedent for the subject of the relative construction (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1415).

In terms of negation, there is an important distinction between clefts and the corresponding non-clefts. Sometimes the difference is sharp and sometimes it is hidden (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1415).

> 26) *a. Mary met her sister Jane.*
>
> *b. Mary didn't meet her sister Jane.*
>
> *c. It was her sister Jane that Mary met.*
>
> *d. It wasn't her sister Jane that Mary met.*

Here in (26c, d), the positive cleft and the negative cleft sentence indicates that Mary met someone, and it might or might not be her sister Jane, but that is not the case of the non-clefts. The negative non-cleft sentence (26b) assumes that Mary met someone other than her sister Jane or that she did not meet anyone at all.

> 27) *a. Joe wrote the letter.*
>
> *b. Joe didn't write the letter.*
>
> *c. It was Joe who wrote the letter.*
>
> *d. It wasn't Joe who wrote the letter.*

On the other hand, the example (27) shows that both negations, cleft and non-cleft, express the same information, that someone wrote the letter. The distinction is that in the case of the non-cleft sentence, it is because of the use of the definite DP *the letter*, which suggests that some specific letter exists and somebody wrote it. "The point is, then, that in the cleft sentence the presupposition is attributable to the cleft construction itself, whereas in the non-cleft if it is present at all it is not attributable to the general syntactic structure but to independent factors" (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1415).

Another property of positive clefts is that they express exhaustiveness and exclusiveness, which is not stated by the non-clefts.

> 28) *a. I like the red dress.*
>
> *b. It is the red dress that I like.*

The non-cleft (28a) indicates that I like the red dress, but I might also like some other ones. On the contrary, the cleft sentence (28b) suggests that I like only the red dress and not any other.

2.4.2   It-clefts

The pattern ofsuch a cleft sentence consists of the pronoun*It+be+ rheme*and a *relative clause* (*who, that*) (Veselovská 2017b, 92). The pronoun *it*represents the subject of the sentence and according to the process it is named *cleft it*or an *expletive subject*. It is followed by the suitable form of the verb *be*and an NP, PP, AP or non-finite VP, which corresponds to the focus position in the clause allowing a speaker to emphasize a constituent. The relative clause in the end provides detailed information about the focused element (Aarts 2011, 332-333).

Concerning the tenses in *it*-clefts, usually the tense in the first clause matches the tense in the relative clause (29a, b), but there is no grammatical rule for that. It is possible to have present tense in the first one and past tense in the second clause of a cleft sentence (29c). The tense depends on the content of the clause(Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1419-1420).

> 29) a. It **is** *you she* **doesn't like**.
>
> b. It **was** *you she* **didn't like**.
>
> c. It **is** *you she* **didn't like**.

The focus position might be filled with different elements for example a Subject (30a), a Direct Object (30b) or an Adjunct (30c), which are the most common types.Marginally, there might occur also an Indirect object (30d) in the form of a prepositional phrase and an Object Complement (30e). Moreover, a Subject Complement is acceptable in a focused position under the circumstances that it is not realized by an adjective phrase and there is not the verb *be* at the end of a second clause (30f). However, verb phrasecan be highlighted in the focused position only when it is a non-finite VP (30g), other VPs are unacceptable (30h) (Quirk 185, 1385).

> 30) a. It was **her humor** *that attracted me*.
>
> b. It is **more time** *that you need*.
>
> c. It was **here** *that I have met your mother*.
>
> d. It is **him** *I gave the keys* **to**. / It is **to him** *that I gave the keys*.
>
> e. It is **light blue** *that we've painted the kids room*.
>
> f. It was **a princess** *that she wanted to become*.
>
> g. It was **listening to the birds***that made me relax*.
>
> h. *It was **attract me** *that her humor did*.

Regarding the foregrounded or backgrounded element, the focused constituent usually provides foregrounded information. On the other hand, the relative clause gives further

information either new or old, but in general this information is secondary, because it is backgrounded (Aarts 2011, 333). According to Quirk (1985, 1384), *it*-clefts are the most flexible ones in the sense of fronted elements. And while the pronoun *it* is an empty theme, it is natural that it will be followed by an element in the focus position.

Concerning the second clause of a cleft sentence, it is very similar to the structure of a restrictive relative clause, meaning that pronouns such as *who, that* or *zero pronoun* introduce relative clauses as well as cleft sentences. Nevertheless, there are also some distinctions. Firstly, cleft sentences use the pronoun *that* or *zero* the most, while *wh-* pronouns are not that frequent in comparison to restrictive relative clauses. Pronoun *whose* is allowed in a cleft sentence (31a), but *whom* and *which* are possible to only a limited extent. Moreover, it is impractical to put a preposition before them (31b). As a result, the sentence containing *which* or *whom* preceded by a preposition is more likely to be read as a postmodifying relative clause (31c) rather than a cleft sentence (Quirk 1985, 1386-1387).

> 31) a. *It is my Mum whose cell number I lost.*
>
> b. *?It was the dog to which I gave the toy.*
>
> c. *He was the boy to whom I gave the toy.*

Another difference between those two clauses is that *wh*-pronoun cannot be used in clefts if an adjunct is in the focused position and if the pronoun *that*does not have "a strict pronominal status". In that case, it is inappropriate to call the linking word *that* a pronoun. The adjunct might be either a clause or a prepositional phrase (Quirk 1985, 1387).

> 32) a. *It was because she had no money (that) we decided to go home.*
>
> b. *It was on Monday (that) I first noticed it.*
>
> c. **It was because she had no money which we decided to go home.*

Examples (32a, b) show that there is no NP antecedent and the linking word is optional. Sentence in the example (32c) is ungrammatical due to presence of the pronoun *which*.

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 1417) mention that the relative clause can be omitted from an*it*-cleft sentence in case it is understood from the preceding discourse. Then, the sentence is called a *truncated it-cleft*.The truncated it-cleft in the example (33a) corresponds to its equivalent in the second clause (33b).

> 33) a. *Who ate the cake? I don't know;* ***it certainly wasn't me****.*
>
> b. *It certainly wasn't me who ate the cake.*

With regard to negation of *it*-clefts, both of the clauses can be negated. However, it results in various meanings (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1419). Negation was described in the subchapter regarding general properties of cleft sentence (26, 27).

2.4.3 Pseudo-clefts

In comparison to *it*-clefts, pseudo-clefts have a slightly different word order pattern. There are definitely two clauses as well, but the first begins with the initial *wh*-item such as *what*, *where* or *when* followed by a clause containing subject, predicate and other possible elements. Thereafter, the suitable form of the verb *be* comes after the first clause followed by an XP, which represents the focus of a sentence (34) (Quirk 1985, 1387-1388).

34) *What I saw was a cat on the roof.*

The focused element in pseudo-cleft sentences appears at the end of the second clause after the auxiliary *be*. This is in contrast to *it*-clefts, where the element in focus position occurs in the first clause after the auxiliary *be*. "The constituent that fills the focus position identifies whatever it is that the free relative clause specifies as requiring identification," (Aarts 2011, 334). Thus in the example (34) the focused noun phrase determines what the speaker saw. The relative clause in pseudo-clefts provides already known information, backgrounded, or it is known from the previous discourse (Aarts 2011, 335).

As was stated at the beginning of this subchapter, pseudo-clefts might be further divided into basic and reversed pseudo-clefts. Basic one is in (35a), and on the other hand, the reversed pseudo-cleft is demonstrated in the example (35b), which has, as the name suggests, a reversed word order (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1420).

35) a. *What I am looking for is my wallet.*

b. *My wallet is what I am looking for.*

There is a variety of elements which can function as the focused element. Very frequently the foregrounded element is an NP, which results in overlapping between the *it*-cleft and the pseudo-cleft (36a). Although content clauses occur marginally in *it*-clefts, they are the most common in basic pseudo-clefts (36b). It is the same case with non-finite clauses, which appear very rarely in *it*-clefts, while they are strongly preferred in pseudo-clefts (36c). Sometimes the infinitival *to* is obligatory, however not in the construction containing *do*. In the focus position might appear also adjectival phrases (36d) or prepositional phrases (36e). APs occur very rarely, but they are more acceptable in pseudo-clefts than in *it*-clefts. On the contrary, PPs can be usually found in *it*-clefts, nevertheless

locative and temporal PPs are possible in pseudo-clefts as well (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1421-1422).

> 36) a. What I read was ***a new sci-fi book***.
>
> b. What I meant was ***that you look handsome in that suit***.
>
> c. What you must do is (to) ***wash the dishes***.
>
> d.***Arrogant*** is how I would be inclined to describe him.
>
> e.***In the evening*** is when I like to exercise.

In comparison to *it*-clefts, the pseudo-cleft sentence might not have its non-cleft version, which is one of the reasons why they are called pseudo-clefts rather than real clefts. (Aarts 2011, 334-335). This statement is confirmed by the examples below, which show that a non-cleft version (37b) is unacceptable to the pseudo-cleft sentence in (37a).

> 37) a. What I found irritating during my studies was that I began to focus on my future rather than the presence.
>
> b. *I found that I began to focus on my future rather than the presence irritating during my studies.

To conclude this subchapter, there are several similarities as well as distinctions between *it*-clefts and pseudo-clefts, nevertheless both of them are information-packaging construction driven by the End-Weight Principle.

2.5 Word Order of Adverbials

Last subchapter of this bachelor thesis focuses on the word order of adverbials in a sentence. There is a pattern, according to which the adverbials are ordered. However, there is always a loophole to disrupt the given word order.

Adverbials are sentence members which primarily modify a VP in a sentence. They can also modify adjectives, adverbs, prepositional phrase or the whole content of the sentence. Adverbials are divided into adjuncts (38a), which modify sentence members and sentence adverbials (38b), which influence the whole sentence (Dušková 2003, 444-445).

> 38) a. The price of butter increased ***rapidly***.
>
> b. ***Surprisingly***, he didn't forget about my birthday.

There is a specific word order according to which the adverbials are placed in a sentence. The adverbials follow objects in a sentence, especially when they function as adjuncts. In case there are several adjuncts in a sentence, the pattern is *manner – place – time*. The adverbial of place usually precedes the adverbial of time and the adverbial of manner follows the verb (39a). There are other types of adverbials, which do not fit into

this pattern. Frequency adverbs like *usually, always, sometimes, often* or *frequently* tend to be placed between a subject and a verb (39b). Another exception is adverbials of intensity, which precede the word that they modify. This group includes adverbials like *quite, rather, very* or *extremely* (39c)(Dušková 2003, 522).

> 39) a. She walked **quickly out of the house today**.
>
> b. I **always** do my homework on time.
>
> c. I was **quite** happy about my results.

The Principle of End-Weight suggests that complex and more important constituents should be placed at the end of a sentence and adverbials are no exception. The position of adverbials already is final in the sentence and there is a word order pattern according to which the adverbials should be placed (40a). However, based on the Principle adverbials which are more important, and which the speaker wants to emphasize can be shifted at the very end of a sentence (40b)(Biber 2002, 370).

> 40) a. I was driving recklessly to school this morning.
>
> b. I was driving to school this morning **really recklessly**.

Example (40a) shows the adverbials of manner, place and time ordered according to the given pattern and it is grammatically correct. Nevertheless, if the adverbial of manner is more important for the speaker than the others, it can be moved to the end. This case is demonstrated in the example (40b).

Regarding the order of adverbials, adverbial adjuncts might be also preposed in a sentence. This process is connected to inversion, which occurs if the preposed adverbial is in a rhematic position (41b). On the other hand, there is no inversion if the adverbial is thematic (41a) (Veselovská 2017b, 94).

> 41) a. **From the same E-shop** I bought the dress (from the same E-shop).
>
> b. **Here** comes the train.

In case the adverbials of manner, place and time are all preposed, the order would be reversed. In other words, the peripheral elements retain their distance from the core elements. For example, the adverbial of time tends to be placed at the very end of a sentence. It is the farthest element from the core ones. Therefore, it would be preposed as the first adverbial to keep its distance, followed by adverbial of place and manner (42b) (Veselovská 2017b, 94).

> 42) a. I was driving recklessly to school this morning.
>
> b. This morning to school recklessly was I driving.

Example (42a) shows the order of adverbials according to the given pattern and as was suggested, in case of preposing, the order of adverbials is reversed (42b). In the preposed example appears also inversion and that happens if the adverbials are in a rhematic position.

This subchapter is the very last one of this bachelor thesis, which deals with the information structuring and its constructions driven by the End-Weight Principle. The first part of this thesis discussed the general word order of English language, its patterns and information structuring together with the information-packaging constructions of the Given-Before-New Principle. Second part focused on the Principle of End-Weight and its specific constructions that assist in disrupting the given word order of English.

CONCLUSION

This Bachelor's thesis discusses in its chapters the English word order, information structuring and the End-Weight Principle. First part of the thesis deals with the word order itself, possible patterns of word order and information structuring, which introduced the terms theme and rheme in a sentence. Second part focuses on the Principle of End-Weight which drives several information-packaging constructions that allow breaking the English word order.

Even though the general word order of English language is rather fixed, the language always finds its way to overcome this rule. Because English is not as flexible language as Czech and the grammatical function in English is primary, there are needed specific information-packaging constructions that allow a speaker to emphasize different elements of a sentence. Czech language, on the other hand, can focus elements by changing the word order in a sentence which is possible due to inflectional cases, subject verb agreement and a wide range of inflections, that Czech language has.

This thesis focuses on the information-packaging constructions driven by the End-Weight Principle, which suggests that long and complex constituents tend to be placed at the end of a sentence. This group of constructions, that have an impact on the information structure in a sentence, include extraposition, heavy constituent shift, double object structures, cleft and pseudo-cleft sentences and word order of adverbials.The thesis uses different sources and mentions different approaches to this topic. While there is no analytical part of the thesis, the theory is demonstrated on the examples that interlink text. The examples allow better understanding of the topic and they also show grammatical and ungrammatical possibilities.

To conclude this bachelor's thesis, in English language, there is primary the grammatical function of word order, which means, there is a given order for elements in a sentence such as the subject precedes the verb, the object follows the verb or the object precedes the adjunct. Despite this order, the speaker can disrupt the pattern so as to change the information structure by using various constructions. On the contrary, Czech language can emphasize different elements by changing the word order itself, because Czech has more flexible word order than English.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BOOKS

Aarts, Bas. 2011. *Oxford Modern English Grammar*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Biber, Douglas, Susan Conrad, and Geoffrey N. Leech. 2002. *Longman student grammar of spoken and written English*. Harlow, Essex: Longman.

Crystal, David. 2003.*The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language.*2nd ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dušková, Libuše. 2003. *Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny*. 3rd ed. Praha: Academia.

Dušková, Libuše, Vachek, Josef and Josef Dubský. 2003. *Dictionary of the Prague School of Linguistics*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.

Huddleston, Rodney, and Geoffrey K. Pullum. 2002. *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Quirk, Randolph, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, and Jan Startvik. 1994. *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*. London: Longman.

Radford, Andrew. 2004. *English Syntax: An Introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Vallduví, E. 1993. *Information packaging: A survey*. Ms. Center for Cognitive Science, University of Edinburgh.

Veselovská, Ludmila. 2017a. *English Syntax (1): Syllabi for the Lectures, Examples and Exercises*. Olomouc: Palacký University Olomouc.

Veselovská, Ludmila. 2017b. *English Syntax (2): Syllabi forthe Lectures, Examples and Exercises*. Olomouc: Palacký University Olomouc.

ONLINE SOURCES

WALS Online - Language Great Andamanese, wals.info/feature/81A#2/18.0/153.1.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AP   - adjectival/adverbial phrase

HCS   -heavy constituent shift

N   -noun

NP   - noun phrase

PLC   - Prague Linguistic Circle

PP   - prepositional phrase

SM/AVO   - subject modal/auxiliary verb object

SOV   - subject object verb

SV   - subject verb

SVA   - subject verb adjunct

SVC   - subject verb complement

SVO   - subject verb object

SVOA   - subject verb object adjunct

SVOC   - subject verb object complement

SVOO   - subject verb object$_1$ object$_2$

VP   - verb phrase

VSO   - verb subject object