WAYS OF EXPRESSING COMMANDS IN VARIOUS FUNCTIONAL STYLES

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ABSTRAKT

Cílem této bakalářské práce je vysvětlit a porovnat, jak mohou být vyjádřeny rozkazy v různých funkčních stylech. Práce se zabývá způsoby, jakými je možné rozkazy vyjadřovat podle gramatických pravidel v anglickém jazyce. Dále se práce zabývá popisem vybraných funkčních stylů. Výše zmíněné gramatické jevy jsou následně využity pro každý z funkčních stylů v praktickém rozboru. Výsledky jsou interpretovány podle rozdělení funkčních stylů.

Klíčová slova: rozkazy, funkční styly, imperativy, modální slovesa

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this bachelor's thesis is to explain and compare how commands can be expressed in various functional styles. The work deals with the ways of expressing the commands according to English grammatical rules. Furthermore, chosen functional styles are described. The explained grammatical features are applied according to each functional style in an analysis. Results are presented with regard to the division of functional styles.

Keywords: commands, functional styles, imperatives, modal verbs

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CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

Commands play an important role in a language if someone needs to order anyone else. Therefore, an analysis of their form and usage might be appropriate. On the other hand, the language is a wide and complex unit, whereas a division of functional styles narrows it into smaller units that enable an investigation. In English language, the ways of expressing commands differ in each functional style. The thesis hence deals with the topic how the commands can be expressed across various functional styles.

The work is primarily divided into two parts: the theory and the analysis. First of all, the theoretical part explains every possible way how to express the commands and furthermore, second chapter describes the division of functional styles. The aim of the theoretical part is to provide a necessary knowledge for the reader to understand the practical part, which then consists of the analysis that compares particular usage of the commands across the functional styles.

The theory describes each way each possible type of command in a separate chapter followed by examples to illustrate grammatical properties. The study is based on comprehensive English textbooks e.g. *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language, Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* or *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language, etc.* An organization of the second chapter is based on the division of functional styles. Speaking about the functional styles, they are divided differently according to every author. The thesis uses a division of functional styles according to David Crystal and Derek Davy's work *Investigating English style* followed by facts from Dagmar Knittlová's work *Funkční styly v angličtině a češtině*. The analysis preserves the division of functional styles from the theory and is structured accordingly. Results of the research are described separately for each style, where the summary follows if the research was performed on more kinds of text within a style. The analysis is based on own research where the investigated texts were found online, in journals and books, or subtitles from films are used.

I.　　　THEORY

1 COMMANDS

1.1 Commands as a Discourse Function

Quirk et al. (1985, 804) and Huddleston with Pullum (2002, 29) claims that command is a narrow grammatical term which belongs to a group called directives. According to Quirk et al. (1985, 804), directive is a discourse function and therefore, commands can also be classified as more specific discourse function. In addition to commands, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 29) adds orders, requests and other acts with purpose of forcing someone to perform an action under the category of directives. As a result, the thesis deals with the discourse function called the command which is one of the directives. According to Quirk et al. (1985, 804) the discourse functions are associated with a syntactic division of sentence types which differ in their form. With regard to the sentence types, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 29) claims that commands typically take a form of imperative. In this case, the command seems obvious. The important fact is that it is not a strict rule and there are many possibilities to express the command in a different way. Therefore, it is important to illustrate connections between the sentence types and the discourse functions. Quirk et al. (1985, 803) claims that there are four basic sentence types in English language:

1. Declaratives with typical sentence pattern subject-verb-object

    a. *Peter usually smokes ten cigarettes every day.*

2. Interrogatives

    a. Yes-no interrogatives where operator precedes subject

        a. *Does Mary go for a walk every morning?*

    b. Wh-interrogatives with wh-element at the beginning of the sentence

        b. *Where did you buy your new coat?*

3. Imperatives where the subject is usually omitted

    b. *Repeat your answer.*

4. Exclamatives starting with *what* or *how*

    c. *What a nice painting you have!*

 As mentioned above, the sentence types are associated with the discourse functions and Quirk et al. (1985, 803-804) distinguishes four of them:

1. Statements providing some information

2. Questions used to look for an information

3. Directives (including commands) used to order someone

4. Exclamations expressing an impression

1.1.1 Connections between Sentence Types and Discourse Functions

In connection with the previous division of sentence types and discourse functions, there might be a natural tendency to mark declaratives as statements, interrogatives as questions, imperatives as directives, and exclamatives as exclamations. These links are true and occur frequently in the language. Nevertheless, it is important to point out that there are many cases of interconnection of these categories displayed in following examples.

(1)   Peter left the house after the lunch?

Example (1) shows the question in a form of the declarative sentence. This kind of questions is sometimes called a declarative question. The sentence has syntactic functions of the declarative. The subject *Peter* is followed by the predicate *left*. After the verb, there is the object *the house*. This is a typical sentence pattern for any declarative sentence in English. On the other hand, semantic features are typical for the question because the speaker wants to know if Peter actually left the house. (Quirk et al. 1985, 804)

(2)   What do I care? Quirk et al. (1985, 804)

The opposite case than in the paragraph above is portrayed in example (2). The sentence has a form of wh-question with wh-element at the beginning, while the function is to state an attitude. The speaker wants to express that he does not care. Therefore, the discourse function of the example is the statement. (Quirk et al. 1985, 804)

(3)   Sleep well. (Huddleston, Pullum 2002, 29)

Example (3) is a typical imperative sentence, where the subject is omitted. But from the point of view of the meaning of the sentence, the speaker does not order anyone to sleep well. He wants to express a hope or a wish that he will sleep well. (Huddleston, Pullum 2002, 29)

(4)   Aren't our kids smart!

The last case shows a possibility to express the exclamation by using an interrogative sentence pattern. Form of the sentence is the same as in example (4), where the inversion occurs. On the other hand, the speaker wants to exclaim and emphasize smartness of his kids. The exclamative sentence would be: *How smart our kids are!* (Quirk et al. 1985, 804)

1.1.2 Connection between Sentence Types and Commands

(5)   I want you to lend me your textbook.

A command with the form of declarative sentence is displayed in example (5) where syntactic properties confirm the declarative sentence. The subject *(I)* precedes the verb *(want)* and the object *(you)* follows. The fact is that the speaker does not want to state any information. He insists on the hearer to lend him the textbook. Therefore, discourse function of the sentence is command. (Quirk et al. 1985, 804)

(6)   Can you open the window?

In English language, it is possible to state the command by using the interrogative sentence. Example (6) has an inverted word order typical for polar questions. There is a use of inversion where a subject is fronted. (Emonds, Veselovská 2011, 66) On the other hand, the speaker does not want to ask if the hearer is actually able to open the window. He wants him to do it. This is the reason why the sentence can be in terms of discourse function classified as the command. (Huddleston, Pullum 2002, 29)

(7)   Give him what he wants.

The very last example shows a command formed by the imperative which is recognized because of an omission of subject and the verb *give* at the beginning of the sentence. From the semantic point of view, the speaker wants the hearer to do something.

1.2   Division of Commands

Based on Svoboda (1996, 24), there are six ways of expressing commands in English:

1. Without subject

   Visit your parents every week.

   Peter, don't drive without my permission. (Peter is a vocative.)

2. With subject

   Somebody give me the pen.

   You stay at home, and you come with me.

3. With *let*

   Let's go to the cinema tonight.

   Let me finish the reading.

4. Negative commands

   Do not come late.

   NO SMOKING

5. With modal verbs

   You must tell him the truth!

You can finish the task immediately.

6. Verbless

This way!

Quickly!

1.2.1 Imperatives without a Subject

Quirk et al. (1985, 827) claims that it is typical for commands to take a form of imperatives where their main feature is an absence of subject. The sentence, therefore, starts with a verb in a bare position (see example 1) or a main verb is preceded by an auxiliary (see example 2). The post-verbal part of the imperative can have the same structure as any declarative clause. More to the point, objects, adverbials, complements or adjunct can follow (see examples 3-5). (Quirk et al. 1985, 827)

(1) Finish the task before you leave.

(2) Don't leave me now.

(3) Open the window.

(4) Tell him the secret.

(5) Go back.

From the syntactic point of view, any tense distinction is not reflected across imperatives and no modal auxiliaries are allowed according to Quirk et al. (1985, 827). On the other hand, it is possible to express an aspect however it is not very frequent. Both progressive and perfective aspects are demonstrated in examples (6) and (7). Moreover, it is possible to form a passive imperative usually in a negative form with a meaning of not doing some activity (see example 8). Nevertheless, passive imperatives are not very frequent. Furthermore, use of *get* may be marked as the imperative in the passive form (see example 9). (Quirk et al. 1985, 827)

(6) Be reading the book this time for the whole week.

(7) Start tidying your room and have finished it before I come home.

(8) Don't be made to seem arrogant.

(9) *Get prepared.*

1.2.2 Imperatives with a Subject

The fact is that subject in imperatives is usually hidden. In this case, the hidden subject is *you*. To prove this statement, there is a possibility to add a question tag (see example 1) or either a reflexive or a possessive pronoun (*yourself* or *your*) as displayed in examples (2)

and (3). On the other hand, English language uses a subject in imperatives in order to emphasize it as demonstrated in example (4). According to Quirk et al. (1985, 828-829), if the subject occurs it may reflect certain level of irritation of the speaker. Hence its use sounds quite informally. Presence of the subject is obligatory if there is a group of people and only one of them is addressed. The command is in that case usually supported with a gesture or a vocative as portrayed in example (4). Furthermore, it is possible to use a third person imperative but it is not very frequent. In these cases, subject is necessary as displayed in example (5). (Quirk et al. 1985, 828-829)

(1) Tidy your room, will you?

(2) Help yourself.

(3) Make your bed every morning.

(4) Peter, you finish the last exercise, and Lucas, you wait for him.

(5) Anybody tell me the truth.

Second person imperatives with a subject might be difficult to recognize because the sentence pattern is in this case the same with the declarative sentence. The only exception is verb *be*, where the imperative is obvious thanks to its bare form *be* (see example 6), whereas the form *are* is used for a second person declaratives. On the other hand, the form of lexical verbs remains the same in both cases as demonstrated in example (7). The sentence type can be recognized only with a context. The example can express either a command or a statement. (Huddleston, Pullum 2002, 925-926)

(6) You be quiet.

(7) You visit your grandparents regularly.

1.2.3   Imperatives with *Let*

A use of verb *let* across imperatives is very specific. Based on Huddleston and Pullum's words (2002, 934), *let* can be used in two forms. With regard to the original meaning of verb *let: to allow something*, the imperative actually means to allow performing an action as demonstrated in example (1). In this case, the form of imperative is ordinary. It means that the sentence starts with a verb and object follows. The target recipient and subject is *you* and is unspoken. On the other hand, the second form of imperatives with *let* refers to both the speaker and the hearer who should be participants of the commanded action. This is portrayed in example (2), where the speaker's intention is to go to the cinema with the hearer. Therefore, the subject is *us*, usually abbreviated to *'s*. Huddleston and Pullum (2002,

934) marks this kind of imperative as inclusive *let*-imperative. Consequence has it, that verb *let* can form a new form of imperative but also frequently occurs in a basic imperative form.

(1)   Let me finish the book.

(2)   Let's go to the cinema.

1.2.4   Negative Imperatives

Negative imperatives occur with the meaning of not performing an action. Quirk et al. (1985, 830-831) claims, that they are formed by adding an auxiliary verb *do* and a negative particle *not* as portrayed in example (1). In case of first person imperatives where *let* occurs, the negative element follows the subject in an objective case *us* or *me* (see example 2). According to Quirk et al. (1985, 830-831), there is also a possibility to use *do* plus *not* which follows *let* (see example 3) but this form is used in informal occasions. Furthermore, third person can be negated by *not* after *let* or by *do not* before *let* (see examples 4-5).

(1)   Don't talk to any strangers.

(2)   Let's not go to the restaurant for dinner tonight.

(3)   Let's don't go to the restaurant for dinner tonight.

(4)   Let not anyone enter our party.

(5)   Don't let anyone enter our party.

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 928) adds that there is a possibility to use a non-verbal negation in imperatives. In example (6), *nobody* might seem as a subject meanwhile it is in fact an object which negates the sentence. Subject would be *you* and is therefore hidden.

(6)   Tell nobody the truth.

1.2.5   Commands with Modal Verbs

The truth is that a use of modal verbs can be an effective way of commanding someone. In these cases, the commands are softened and usually sound more polite and formal. With regard to the previous statement, it is important to specify an intensity of each modal verb because it differs. According to Thomson and Martinet (1986, 246-247), there are several modal verbs possible to use for a command. The most informal modal verb is *can*, whereas *could, may* and *might* are classified as the formal ones (see examples 1-4). Commands with modal verbs can be formed either as the interrogatives or as the declaratives (compare examples 1 and 2). Verb *could* in a negative form shows speaker's hope to hear a positive reply. Furthermore, if a question tag is added, the answer is expected to be negative (see examples 5 and 6). (Thomson, Martinet 1986, 246-247) Above all, it is crucial to state that

these commands are recognized only thanks to a context. The declarative sentences look more like statements, whereas the interrogatives are supposed to be the questions. On the other hand, the discourse function can be the command if it is required by the situation.

(1)   Can you go home right now?

(2)   You can go home right now.

(3)   Could we borrow your book?

(4)   May I go to the cinema tonight?

(5)   Could you possibly tell me your opinion?

(6)   You couldn't go with me, could you?

In addition to the previous paragraph, Thomson and Martinet (1986, 248-249) claims that a use of modal verbs *will* and *would* is common, where *would* has in connection with *please* the same meaning and level of formality as *could*. On the other hand, *will* is impolite and informal. Occurrence of both negative and positive question tag might be used in informal situations. According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 942), the question tags are classified as elliptical versions of the full interrogatives. For illustration, see example (8) which displays the full version of the question tag that appears in example (7). This is the reason why imperatives can form either positive or negative question tag. Moreover, *will* or *would* may be used for third person (see example 9). If the speaker is confident about a fulfilment of the action, phrase *perhaps you would* is often used as demonstrated in example (10). Straight command is sometimes replaced by a question as displayed in example (11). (Thomson, Martinet 1986, 248-249)

(7)   Open the window, will you?

(8)   Will you open the window?

(9)   Will anyone tell me the truth?

(10) Perhaps you would let us know when the goods arrive.

(11) Would you like to open the window?

1.2.6   Verbless Commands

Using verbless commands is a very direct and resolute way which occurs when an immediate action is required. The speaker often expresses his irritation or emotions (see examples 1 and 2). The commands without a verb often appear in an adverbial form. In this case, based on Quirk et al. (1985, 842) the verb of motion is usually omitted in order to make the command stronger where the actual meaning refers to the verb as portrayed in

examples (3) and (4). Verbless commands frequently occur in a military language (see example 5). In addition to previous instances, verbless noun phrases can stand itself as a command (see examples 6 and 7). (Huddleston, Pullum 2002, 945)

(1) *Out of my spot!*

(2) *Securely!*

(3) *That way!*

(4) *Go that way!*

(5) *Right turn!*

(6) *No smoking!*

(7) *Coffee with milk!*

1.2.7 Positive Commands Supported by an Auxiliary Do

Quirk et al. (1985, 833) claims that a use of an auxiliary *do* in imperatives which precedes a verb is suitable if the speaker needs to make his command more resolute. The sentence is in that case stronger and shows more intensive effort to perform the action. Quirk et al. (1985, 833) also adds that this kind of imperative occurs more in British than American English and especially in women's speech.

(1) *Do be ready for the test.*

(2) *Do let's go outside this afternoon.*

1.2.8 Commands Supported by a Conditional Clause

Previously mentioned commands can be supported by a conditional clause as portrayed in example (1). In this case, the command should be performed if the condition is fulfilled. It is often connected with modal verbs (see example 2). The purpose of using the conditional clause might be to soften force of the command. (Biber et al. 1999, 821)

(1) *Give me your jacket if you do not need it anymore.*

(2) *You can tell him the truth if you want.*

2 FUNCTIONAL STYLES

"Functional styles are subsystems of the language and represent varieties of the norm of the national language. Their evolution and development has been determined by the specific factors of communication in various spheres of human activity. Each of them is characterised by its own parameters in vocabulary usage, syntactical expression, phraseology, etc." (Znamenskaya 2006, 126)

Language is a very complex and complicated unit which is possible to divide into smaller parts. According to Knittlová (1990, 7), there are some features the language requires to be met in a particular communicational situation, where function is the most important factor of the language. As a result, functional styles developed according to the most important functions of a language. For instance, within an interaction of a particular number of people, the functional style is mostly referred to as a conversation because of a verbal intention between the participants of the situation. The function of the process is to contact the other person.

Gal'perin (1971, 253) claims that the functional styles are quite stable groups and have some features that are typical for them. These features help in identifying the styles and therefore, following chapters describe them.

2.1 Functional Styles in Written Language

Written language plays an important social and educational role. Therefore, it has a higher social value than spoken language. The function of written language is more referential, whereas spoken language has a communicative function. Furthermore, written language can be divided into several functional styles according to more specific functions. These styles are for example the language of religion or the language of advertising. In comparison to spoken language, written functional styles are characterized by graphology. A way of organizing and highlighting some statements is an important means of written texts, which contribute to emphasizing specific meanings. A reader's attention is also influenced by a use of font and its size. Moreover, pictures and other additional material such as maps or charts play a very important role in attractiveness of the text. (Urbanová, Oakland 2002, 31-33)

Written English is from the grammatical point of view more clear and intelligible. There is a linear modification, supported by use of full-stops and capital letters for purpose of dividing into sentences, consequently into paragraphs, pages, etc. Sentences across written functional styles are more precise and strict. There is a majority of complex sentences in

order to express relations of time, place or any others. Compound sentences are not very frequent because of poorer context expression. Consequently, sentences tend to be longer. (Urbanová, Oakland 2002, 34-35)

Urbanová and Oakland (2002, 36) stresses that it is essential to explain the context. Therefore, lexical level is more developed in written language. Choice of words depends on broadness of the audience and whether the text is formal or informal. The more broad the audience is, the more varied is the vocabulary. Diversity of the language should catch the attention of the reader and attract him. (Urbanová, Oakland 2002, 36)

2.1.1 The Language of Religion

The language of religion is a special kind of language of certain community. This community has some religious beliefs in common. It has to be taken into consideration that most of religious texts are very old. Even if there are some transcriptions into modern English, the old ones have bigger impact on linguistic society. Language of religion is recorded within literature because of a historical background. Therefore, the old form is preserved till these days. (Crystal and Davy 1969, 147-149)

There are several typical features at the level of graphology across religious texts. The most important and very remarkable is use of old writing habits. An example of this might be a use of word *Iesus* for *Jesus*. These differences are due to the old age of the texts and do not occur in modern transcriptions. Furthermore, usage of paragraphs, spaces and capitalization are very typical and frequent graphological devices. Very important and repeated words like *God* are usually capitalized. Punctuation divides text into smaller units, not necessarily into sentences. If the text is read, the punctuation has a phonetic value and is reflected in speech of the reader. (Crystal and Davy 1969, 152, 156-157)

From the grammatical point of view, there also occur older forms like *seith* instead of *said* or old form of definite article *ye*. Traditional sentence structure is sometimes inverted, where predicate precedes subject. There is also a very frequent occurrence of vocatives and imperatives at the beginning of the sentence. According to Crystal and Davy, the imperatives might be longer and occur very frequently in comparison with other functional styles. I will comment of this fact in practical section of my thesis. On the other hand, no questions should be found in religious texts. There are some exceptions, including rhetorical prayers but majority of texts do not contain any of them. (Crystal and Davy 1969, 152, 159-161)

Religious texts are very typical for the choice of vocabulary. Their repetition is quite usual, especially quotations from the Bible occur very frequently. The language is influenced by target audience. The choice of words has to be appropriate and inoffensive because of a great deal of public share of these texts. The words are very distinctive, whereas archaisms and obsolete terms typically occur. Naturally, there are a lot of theological terms in religious English. We can find many terms, which are neither archaic nor theological but they are typical for this kind of language and do not occur in other types of texts very often. These words are for instance *praise, bless, perpetual* or *ages.* (Crystal and Davy 1969, 149, 165-168)

2.1.2   The Language of Legal Documents

The language of legal documents is a written form of language which occurs in law materials. The language differs in many areas from other styles. One of the reasons is to avoid ambiguity and to be clear. Graphology of legal documents is significant thanks to a use of well structured paragraphs. The aim is to specify the importance of particular parts of the text. Moreover, there are several uses of emphasizing crucial statements within paragraphs by using capital letters or use of other font. From the syntactic point of view, complex sentences in indicative mood dominate. There is a frequent use of conditional sentences and conjunction *and*. Legal English is highly nominal, where post-modification is often used because of need to explain certain statement. (Knittlová 1990, 17-19)

Lexicology of legal documents is significant for repetition of verbs. The usage of verbs is limited to several ones such as *accept, issue, register, specify,* and several others. The language of Legal Documents is characteristic for occurrence of special terms, which might be very traditional and specific. The language might be difficult and unintelligible for a reader who does not understand the vocabulary. Usage of modal verbs is very common. For instance, *might* or *shall* represent uncertainty. Moreover, archaisms occur quite frequently in this kind of language and reflect very traditional approach. (Knittlová 1990, 19-20)

2.1.3   The Language of Public Speaking

The language of public speaking involves many varieties which differ according to occupation of the speaker or purpose of the language. There are several particular examples to be distinguished. Sermons are one of them and it is important to point out that they do not belong to religious texts because of stylistic features that are more similar with public speeches. A priest has a concept how to recite his sermon but he can add some personal

opinion. Therefore, his speech is somehow predetermined but followed by his own views. Another type of public speech is a lecture. A lecturer's purpose is to inform the listeners about some unfamiliar topic. This kind of speech is typical for its structure because speaker should have prepared his lecture in advance. Therefore, his speech is not very emotional and influenced by surroundings. Public speeches are very often used by politicians to attract potential voters. This kind of language might have some features similar to advertisements because of the intention to attract someone. Politicians are usually quite emotional in their speeches but there must be very high degree of formality with the view of preserving their respect. (Crystal and Davy 1969, 226)

2.1.4 The Language of Advertising

Advertising is a form language which tries to persuade people through mass media. This is achieved by communicating with potential customers. Advertisements are usually well structured and reasoned. They are part of our everyday life and it is almost impossible to ignore them. Nowadays, there are several ways of advertising. The very classic ones are press media and television. Moreover, billboards, brochures, leaflets, or types of promoting on the streets belong to the methods of advertising. On the other hand, the most important media in these days is the internet because of its enormous extension of last few decades. (Knittlová 1990, 72)

The purpose of advertisement is to attract the audience and consequently sell the product. Therefore, the language must be easy and attractive. At the level of graphology, advertisement must be very eye-catching, whereas in case of television advertising, phonology plays a crucial role. Consequently, the way of speaking must be emphatic and strong. Short sentences are easy to remember and therefore, it is appropriate to use them in advertisements. Furthermore, the verb might be sometimes omitted. As Knittlová says, use of passive form is not frequent as well as use of negative forms. In the terms of tenses, past tense is usually avoided. Subsequently, there is a majority of present tenses, whereas at the level of mood, imperatives should be frequent. As I have mentioned above, there is a tendency to omit verbs. In case they occur, there is a use of very frequent ones such as *be, make, take* or *try*. In order to catch the attention, traditional spelling might not be followed or new words may be created. (Knittlová 1990, 73-74)

2.1.4.1 The Language of Television Advertising

A visual message on screen plays a very important role in this kind of advertising. Nevertheless, it is possible to investigate the language without pictures. The spoken text is always written in advance and recited by professional speakers or actors and repeated several times before the final version of the speech. As a result, every phonetic peculiarities or even grammatical mistakes are done on purpose and after a long consideration in order to attract the customer. (Crystal and Davy 1969, 218-219)

2.1.4.2 The Language of Press Advertising

The language of press advertising is a very broad topic. It has to be pointed out that ways how to advert in press differ according to every magazine or news. It depends on target readers. If we compare a serious newspaper with a tabloid or a women's magazine with a magazine for kids, advertisements naturally differ. If we investigate just a textual message of advertising in press, there are differences concerning vocabulary and grammar, which tend to be as easy as possible. The purpose is clearly to attract the reader with no useless facts. Distinct grammar and simple words are easier to remember. In terms of graphology, pictures used in printed media are also very important. (Crystal and Davy 1969, 222)

2.1.5 The Language of Written Instructions

The language of written instructions is one of the most specific and narrow types of language represented in manuals or recipes. Organization of these texts is very important because it is suitable to be clear. Therefore, graphology plays an important role and is very specific for these texts. They are divided into steps and short paragraphs, which are usually separated by numbers or bullets. From the lexical point of view, use of special and scientific terms might be very frequent. There is an assumption of at least basic reader's knowledge of the topic. As for the grammar, imperatives might be a good tool to command the reader, whereas other sentence types might occur. (Crystal and Davy 1969, 236-237)

2.2 The Language of Conversation

"In simple terms, English conversation can be described as an activity where, for the most part, two or more people take turns at speaking." (Yule 1996, 142) It means that one person is speaking at a time, and consequently, another's speech follows. There is a pause or a question to recognize the end of a speech and some space to start reacting. This end is called a completion point. The fact is that there are several ways how to react and take a

turn in conversation. People can start to produce short non-verbal sounds, use body language or facial expressions. While investigating conversation, we have to take into consideration variations depending on different circumstances. Each conversation might differ according to the roles of speakers and their relationship, age, sex and other conditions. (Yule 1996, 142-143)

To describe the conversation in more details, it is essential to start from the phonological point of view. Urbanová and Oakland (2002, 12-13) claims that this style is significant for use of stress, rhythm and intonation. Furthermore, the conversation is typical for difference between strong and weak pronunciation. It means, that short words with grammatical function must not be pronounced, whereas it is obligatory to pronounce lexical words, which express meaning of the statement. Way of speaking also depends on the relationship between involved people.

According to Urbanová and Oakland (2002, 15-17), the grammar of conversation has a loose structure and loose coordination, where ellipsis is very frequent. This might be the reason, why spoken language seems more complicated from the grammatical point of view. English language is typical for occurrence of indirectness and weak uncertainty avoidance. Indirect sentences are used in order to achieve a more polite way of speaking, whereas avoiding certain statements is produced so that the speaker has some space to have his argument open.

Lexical level of the conversation is characteristic for lexical sparsity, while the words might be polysemic. In this case, participants of the interaction understand the meaning thanks to the context. There is a majority of short vocabulary in spoken language. Furthermore, speakers tend to shorten some words, for example exam instead of examination. Moreover, idioms and slang terms are very frequent and a popular tool in spoken language. Discourse markers, such as well, you know or all right are used very often and play an important role in terms of understanding the statement and filling the gap between sentences. Furthermore, there is a frequent use of vague terms, for example: a bit, a sort of or possibly in spoken language. (Urbanová, Oakland 2002, 24-26)

II.   ANALYSIS

3   STUDY OF COMMANDS ACROSS FUNCTIONAL STYLES

3.1   The Language of Religion

The research across religious texts was performed on commandments rather than on any other sacred articles. The reason is that they contain a majority of commands, whereas biblical stories include them only in a direct speech, which does not belong to this particular functional style. Data were analysed using commandments of several religions, namely Catholicism, Protestantism, Judaism, Native American, Puritan, Celtic, Buddhism or Islam. Some of them are not originally written in English however, their translated English versions were subject of the analysis. The fact is that the study was based on twelve commandments.

The analysis has portrayed that the discovered commands appeared in four forms. In more details, modal verbs in a negative form occurred in religious texts the most frequently. This feature is very specific and cannot be found in any other styles in this amount. The fact is that modal verbs (see example 1) occupied more than fifty percent of the investigated corpus where the majority of them were negative (see example 2). In particular, the modal verb *shall* was used in all cases and moreover, its old version *shalt* was found as displayed in example (3). There was an evidence of the modal verb *must* only in one case. As a result, *shall* plays a crucial role beyond question.

(1) *You **shall** remember the Sabbath and keep it Holy.* (Biblical Heritage Center 2013)

(2) *You **shall not** murder.* (Bible Knowledge 2013)

(3) *Thou **shalt** put the Lord first in my life and obey his words.* (Teachers Network 2013)

Secondly, negative imperatives were found very frequently across religious commandments. There was either a use of pattern *do not* or a lexical verb followed by a negative particle as portrayed in examples (4) and (5). As a result, if a negative commandment is not expressed by a modal verb, negative imperative is used. The very last tool used in order to command across religious texts is the imperative respectively. It was found in the form without a subject as demonstrated in examples (6) and (7). There were not any imperatives with subject furthermore no imperatives with *let* occurred in these texts. There was an evidence of one declarative command as portrayed in example (8). The declarative command is preceded by *your Lord ordains* and therefore, it should be a command.

(4) ***Do not worship*** *any other gods besides me.* (Islam 101 2003)

(5) ***Tell*** *no lies and* ***deceive*** *no one.* (Strategic Acceleration 2013)

(6) ***Take*** *full responsibility for your actions.* (Native Village 2013)

(7) ***Honor*** *thy Father and Mother.* (Bible Scripture 2013)

(8) *And your Lord* ***ordains*** *that you* ***do not worship*** *anyone but only Him, and do good to your parents* (Islam 101 2003)

In conclusion, it has showed that there are only four ways of expressing commands across religious texts. The most frequently used are negative modal verbs, respectively in about 60 cases out of 140. In addition to them, negative and positive imperatives follow and occupy more than 20% per each. Furthermore, only 8% of the commands use the positive modal verbs. The particular religions either combine the commands or use only one of them. To be more precise, Buddhism uses negative imperatives (see example 9), Native Americans use ordinary imperatives (see example 10), Puritans use modal verbs (see example 11), whereas Catholicism, Protestantism (see example 12), or Islam combine all of them.

(9) ***Do not destroy*** *life.* (Strategic Acceleration 2013)

(10) ***Show*** *great respect for your fellow beings.* (Native Village 2013)

(11) *Thou* ***shalt*** *worship a strict and Christian God.* (Teachers Network 2013)

(12) *You* ***shall*** *not take the name of the Lord your God in vain.* (Biblical Heritage Center 2013)

(13) *You* ***shall*** *remember the Sabbath and keep it Holy.* (Biblical Heritage Center 2013)

(14) ***Honor*** *your mother and father.* (Biblical Heritage Center 2013)

3.2 The Language of Legal Documents

The analysis of commands across legal documents was performed on law materials available online. In particular, the study dealt with the U.S. Code provided by Cornell University Law School, Louisiana Laws: Prohibited acts, Criminal Code of Canada, an article about forbidden marriage laws of the United Kingdom and several law documents available on website legislationonline.org. Furthermore, a manual of military law, where commands were more frequent, was investigated. In addition, several contracts were analysed, in particular a couple of tenancy agreements, and contract agreements. The research also focused on visa application forms for several countries.

The fact is that the study showed very clear results. Example (1) portrays that modal verbs are the most commonly used commands across the law materials. In more details, the

modal verb *shall* can be found in the majority of the texts as demonstrated in examples (1-3). In addition to positive modal verbs, *must* appeared. On the other hand, speaking about negative modal verbs, a phrase *cannot* was the most frequent, where *may not,* or *should not* followed (see examples 5 and 6). Furthermore, example (7) confirms the use of both positive and negative modal verbs across the legal documents. On the other hand, there was an evidence of imperatives without a subject as displayed in example (8). However, their occurrence was very low. It is necessary to say that neither inclusive-*let* imperatives nor imperatives with *let* in the ordinary form were found across the legal documents. Moreover, no other ways of expressing commands were found. Consequence has it, that this kind of language uses commands in a very limited way. In fact, commands including modal verbs appeared in more than 90% cases of the investigated corpus.

(1) *It **shall** be unlawful for any person:*

Who is subject to the requirements of this part to distribute or dispense a controlled dangerous substance in violation of this part (Justia US Law 2013)

(2) *No citizen **shall** be imprisoned or otherwise detained by the United States except pursuant to an Act of Congress.* (Cornell University Law School 2013)

(3) *§ 5. Temporal applicability of penal law*

*(a) A punishment **shall** be imposed pursuant to the law in force at the time of commission of the act.* (Legislation Online 2013)

(4) *Judges **must** read and give effect to legislation (other laws) in a way which is compatible with the Convention rights.* (Liberty Human Rights 2013)

(5) *A Man **may not** marry his grandmother.* (Genetic and Quantitative Aspects of Genealogy 2013)

(6) *Under the terms of the Army Act a non-commissioned officer **cannot** be awarded field punishment or forfeiture of pay by his commanding officer.* (Internet Archive 2013)

(7) *To go to live in the UK as a husband or wife*

*You **must** be lawfully married*

*You **must not** be under 16 years* (Documents &Recourses for Small Business & Proffesionals 2013)

(8) *Before filling this form **go through** the website http://in.vfglobal.co.uk and **read** the important note and disclaimer given at the bottom of the page carefully. Also,*

check if you already hold a valid visa. (Documents &Recourses for Small Business & Proffessionals 2013)

3.3   The Language of Public Speaking

3.3.1   Lectures

Speaking about public speeches, lectures belong under this category. The analysed corpus contained five lectures on various topics where the majority of them come from an academic field. The first one took part at the University of Idaho and comments on a psychological topic, whereas the speaker of the second lecture states a post-gradual speech at the University of Melbourne. The third lecture is called "Art and the Age of Digital" and hence deals with an art topic. Purpose the fourth text is to inform about a connection between religion and world affairs, whereas the last one is an example of less formal lecture and tries to explain how to be happy.

First of all, it is necessary to point out that commands were not found very frequently in lectures. Nonetheless, the research showed clear results. The found commands mostly referred to first person plural as demonstrated in example (1). Consequently, the most frequent command was the imperative using *let* in both cases, as the ordinary imperative (see example 2) and the inclusive-*let* imperative (see example 3) which in fact outweighed. Via these commands, the speaker usually introduced a new topic and especially phrase *Let's talk* was used very often as displayed in example (3). Besides that, the texts contained commands referring to the second person. Namely, a use of modal verbs was found several times, particularly *should* or *need to* appeared across the texts as portrayed in example (4). An interesting fact is that no command in form of the imperative without a subject was found except for the ordinary form of *let*. In addition, there were no declarative of interrogative commands. Furthermore, neither verbless nor negative imperatives were found. As a result, lectures contain only commands using verb *let* and modal verbs.

(1)   *So **let's** begin by looking at a little bit of an overview of schizophrenia on page two.* (Letters, Arts & Social Sciences 2013)

(2)   ***Let** me **take** you to Tahrir Square.* (Foreign Policy Research Institute 2013)

(3)   *Well, **let's talk** about some of these drugs a little bit.* (Letters, Arts & Social Sciences 2013)

(4)   *You **need to** look at the DSM-IV for more detail for each of these other symptoms and to get more accurate information regarding the diagnosis of schizophrenia.* (Letters, Arts & Social Sciences 2013)

3.3.2   Political Speeches

A monologue presented by a politician is a typical example of the language of public speaking. For politicians, it is a part of their job to speak publically and therefore, there are many sample texts to be investigated. Particularly, eight texts were used for the research. They were presented by British current and former Prime Ministers David Cameron and Tony Blair, presidential nominee in 2008 John McCain, and current President of the United States of America Barack Obama. The last text is a well-known speech "I Have a Dream" delivered by an activist Martin Luther King, Jr., which deals with political and humanitarian topic.

In comparison with lectures, political speeches use commands more frequently. On the other hand, their occurrence is broader and the results are less definite. Nonetheless based on the research, it can be stressed that commands containing modal verbs appeared the most frequently as demonstrated in example (1). The reason apparently is that politicians see modal verbs as a good tool to soften the command in a polite way. Especially modal verb *must* occurred frequently, where the aim is to express a certain and resolute command as displayed in example (2). However, *should, need to* or *can* also often appeared. Moreover, modal verbs were sometimes in a negative form as portrayed in example (3) but this feature does not appear very often.

(1)   *We **should** never forget that for many in the world the closest relative of poverty is injustice.* (Number 10 2012)

(2)   *And we, in this United Nations, **must** do everything we can to support them.* (Number 10 2012)

(3)   *We **cannot** expect the damage of decades to be put right in a matter of months.* (Number 10 2012)

A remarkable fact was found across imperatives. The basic form of imperative without a subject occurred several times as showed in example (4). One of them was a part of a quote where David Cameron utters an idea of someone else (see example 5). But the fact is that the research showed their distribution in groups. It means that the speaker, in this case John McCain and Martin Luther King, expressed a sequence of orders as demonstrated in

examples (6) and (7). The reason is that they wanted to be very persuasive and therefore, the repetition is used. Regarding the previous statement, both speakers used a basic form of imperative, where King used *let* in the ordinary form with the meaning *to allow*. Moreover, ordinary imperatives with *let* occurred often in connection with organizing a speech and speakers frequently started a new topic with this phrase as Cameron shows in examples (8) and (9). Nevertheless, *let* occurs also in the inclusive form (see example 10) but this use was not found very frequently.

(4) *Well, **look**, with all this financial crisis and so on, is there room to deal with this issue?* (The Office of Tony Blair 2011)

(5) *So they point to the poverty that so many Muslims live in and say: **get rid** of this injustice and the terrorism will end.* (Number 10 2011)

(6) ***Fight for** our children's future. **Fight for** justice and opportunity for all. **Stand up** to defend our country from its enemies. **Stand up** for each other, for beautiful, blessed, bountiful America. **Stand up, stand up, stand up,** and **fight.*** (NY Times 2008)

(7) *But not only that:*

    ***Let** freedom ring from Stone Mountain of Georgia.*

    ***Let** freedom ring from Lookout Mountain of Tennessee.*

    ***Let** freedom ring from every hill and molehill of Mississippi.*

    *From every mountainside, **let** freedom ring.*

    (American Rhetoric 2013)

(8) *But first, **let** me address one point.* (Newstatesman 2013)

(9) ***Let** me end with this.* (Number 10 2011)

(10) ***Let's** be clear: these things will only come about with the clean break of a new Conservative government.* (Conservatives 2010)

Besides the imperatives and modal verbs, the research showed a use of declarative commands. In these cases, the command is softer and not very strict as demonstrated in example (11), where David Cameron states his belief, but the fact is that he appeals on his listeners not to get back to past events. Other forms of commands did not appear so often but they cannot be omitted in the findings. An interesting imperative supported by a conditional clause produced by David Cameron is displayed in example (12). The speaker clearly insists on his listeners to vote his political party. In the speech of Barack Obama,

there was an evidence of a verbless command. Example (12) displays this fact where the American president commands via the adverb *enough*.

(11) And if we are to defeat this threat, I believe it's time to turn the page on the failed policies of the past. (Number 10 2011)

*(12) Whether you've been a Lib Dem voter or a Labour voter or a Green voter – if you care about the environment, if you want action to improve your quality of life, if you care about civil liberties, if you care about people power, if you want a clean break from the past – **vote** Conservative.* (Conservatives 2010)

*(13) Tonight, I say to the American people, to Democrats and Republicans and Independents across this great land - **enough**!* (Obama Speeches 2008)

3.3.3 Summary

To be more precise, following summary provides numbers that show what is typical for the language of public speeches. The analysis dealt with approximately 130 commands where more than half of them contained a modal verb. This kind of command therefore dominates across public speeches. Furthermore, imperatives without a subject followed and took about a quarter of the investigated commands. The important fact is that a large number of them were found in a group as portrayed in example above (6) which may influence the results. Without this, the number would be smaller. In more details the non-subject imperatives without John McCain's sequence of imperatives took one eighth of the whole sum. In addition, *let* in the ordinary form follows, but with regard to previous statements, it can be again influenced the group of *let* imperatives expressed by Martin Luther King Jr. This form of imperative takes one eighth including the group. Without it the number is less significant (approximately 5%) and the same statement can be applied to inclusive-*let* imperatives and declarative commands. A verbless command was represented only once and hence it is not very important. The same rule proceeds for negative commands that did not occur at all.

3.4 The Language of Advertising

With regard to the theoretical part of the thesis, the language of advertising can be divided according to the media where the text comes from. For the research, advertisements from newspaper available online were used. Namely, the analysis dealt with British broadsheet: The Times, The Telegraph, and The Independent. On the other hand, The Mail on Sunday, Sunday Express, and The People considered as a tabloid were investigated. Furthermore,

journal articles, namely Research Journal of Chemistry and Environment, Journal of System and Control Engineering, and Plastics: The Global Application Medium represented academic magazines. The language of television advertising was investigated through samples available on server youtube.com.

The analysis of commands across advertisements showed very clear results. The use of imperatives without a subject was the most frequently found way of expressing commands in all used media. There are many examples that confirm this fact, particularly examples (1) and (2) represent newspaper, whereas example (3) is an advertisement taken from a journal article. For the journal articles, imperatives often contained word *please* in order to soften the command. In addition to previous cases, example (4) portrays the basic form of imperative used in television advertising. Furthermore, verb *let* in an ordinary form was found as demonstrated in example (5). On the other hand, inclusive-*let* imperatives did not appear in advertisements at all. Moreover, example (6) displays an evidence of the imperative including a conditional clause.

(1) ***Learn*** *languages online.* (The Telegraph 2013)

(2) ***Win*** *an Apple i-phone.* (Joana Morais 2007)

(3) *Please **register** at earliest.* (Research Journal of Chemistry and Environment 23)

(4) ***Find*** *your way. Go to Vodafone.com* (Youtube 2013)

(5) ***Protect*** *your family. Also **let** the underlying grow your money.* (Kiosko 2013)

(6) *If you are thinking of taking up a pension plan or planning to introduce one in your business, **talk** to the pension specialist first, talk to Castiel Winser!* (123 Printers 2013)

In addition to the previous paragraph, negative commands were found across the advertisements as showed in example (7). Furthermore, example (6) shows the use of interrogative command in a television advertisement where according to a context, the speaker orders the hearer not to wait and order his product. As a result, the research has showed that the language of advertising uses the most brief and resolute way of commanding, in other words the basic form of imperative. There are some cases where other ways are used but this form outweighs in more than 90% cases.

(1) *So **don't forget** with wow what you see is what you get!* (123 Printers 2013)

(2) *So why wait?*   (Youtube 2013)

3.5 The Language of Written Instructions

3.5.1 Recipes

The language of written instructions is written in order to explain someone how to do something. Therefore, food recipes, user manuals, or growing manuals belong under this section. First of all, the research focuses on recipes where directions for preparing a dish are the crucial part of the text and are typical example of the instructive text. For the analysis, eleven recipes available online were investigated. Some of them were written by well-known British chefs Gordon Ramsay and Jamie Oliver, while some less known British chefs wrote the other ones. Furthermore, many recipes from two books were part of the analysis. Firstly, Jamie Oliver's book containing approximately 200 recipes was analyzed. Secondly, work *GoodFood: The Collection* took part in the research, where more than 480 recipes can be found. The important fact is that the aim of the texts is not only to show the way how to cook, the writers also want to entertain the readers and therefore, the language is mostly informal.

According to the research, majority of commands in the text had a form of the imperative. More to the point, the basic imperative form without a subject was used for second person singular. The target recipient of the text is a reader who probably wants to prepare the meal. As a result, the hidden subject is *you*. Therefore, it can be omitted as demonstrated in example (1). The imperatives were sometimes followed by a conditional clause. In this case, the action should be performed only if the condition is fulfilled (see example 2). In addition to previous cases, the ordinary form of imperative with *let* was found across recipes as showed in example (3). The meaning of the phrase is to leave something for a moment (e.g. *let rest, let stand, let cool, etc.*). Based on my research, negative imperatives sometimes occurred. But their frequency was not very high. For illustration, see example (4) where the command does not directly refer to the directions how to prepare the food. On the other hand, no other ways of expressing commands were found, namely the texts did not contain any commands with modal verbs, or declarative, or interrogative commands. See example (5) where the whole recipe from the book *GoodFood* confirms the fact that the ordinary form of imperative is used and appears at the beginning of each step. The truth is that all the recipes were written in this style.

> *(1)* ***Preheat*** *the oven to 190°C/375°F/gas 5. Finely **slice** the whole fennel, peel and finely **slice** the garlic and lightly **crush** the fennel seeds. **Place** a medium pan over*

*a medium heat and **add** the olive oil and half the butter. Once hot, **add** the fennel and fennel seeds and fry gently for around 5 minutes.* (Jamie Oliver 2013)

(2) **Seal** *the foil bag at the end or, if you're using foil, **fold** it **up** like a parcel.* (Jamie Oliver 2013)

(3) **Take** *the pork chops out of the oven and **let rest** in a warm place for 5 minutes.* (Gordon Ramsey's Recipes 2009)

(4) **Don't worry** *too much about quantities.* (English Food Spotlight 2013)

(5) *1* **Put** *the apricots, apple juice and 200ml/7fl oz water in a pan. **Bring** to the boil, **cover** and **simmer** for 20 minutes.*

2 **Remove** *from the heat and **leave** to cool – you can make ahead up to this stage.*

3 **Tip** *the cooled apricots into a bowl and stir in the banana. **Mix** in the flesh from the passion fruit. **Sprinkle** the almonds over the fruit and **serve** with yogurt or crème fraiche, and biscuits.* (Cadlon 2008, 120)

3.5.2   Manuals

In addition to recipes, manuals and other instructive materials belong to the style of written instructions and will be described in following paragraph. The investigated materials consist of five manuals for electronic devices and five instructive texts describing a way how to do something (e.g. how to be a good manager, how to build your own longboard, how to tie a tie, how to be a good goalkeeper, and manuals for growing).

In the same vein as recipes, imperative without a subject was the most frequent tool used in order to command. These texts were usually divided into steps by bullets or numbers where the paragraph started with the verb in imperative form (see example 6). The imperatives often expressed a reference as demonstrated in example (7). To be more precise, verbs *see* or *refer* were used for this purpose. Similarly with the paragraph above, the imperatives were sometimes followed by a conditional clause as displayed in example (8). In addition to previous statement, imperatives using *let* occurred in several cases as demonstrated in example (9). The fact is that the verb *let* appeared only in the ordinary imperative form, whereas no inclusive-*let* form was found. In contrast with recipes, commands with modal verbs can be found more frequently. The fact is that the most commonly used modal verb was *should* (see example 10), but other modal verbs such as

must or *need to* were also used. Furthermore, negative imperatives cannot be omitted. They were an important tool across manuals as you can see in example (11).

*(6) 1 **Open** iTunes on your computer. (Apple Manuals 2012)*

*(7) For more information, **refer** to "Unlocking the Device" on page15. (Samsung Galaxy Note 10.1 Manual 2013)*

(8) When charging is complete, unplug the Charging Headfrom the power outlet and remove the USB cable from the device. (Samsung Galaxy Note 10.1 Manual 2013)

*(9) **Let** the glue **dry** well. (EHow 2013)*

*(10) You **should update** to the latest version of iTunes. (Apple Manuals 2012)*

*(11) You **don't want to cut** into the trunk as the tree grows. (Life on the Balcony 2009)*

3.5.3   Summary

To summarize the language of written instruction, the analysis has illustrated that imperatives play the most important role in expressing commands. To be more specific, the basic form of imperative including ordinary *let* imperative without a subject can be found the most frequently. Other ways of commands, namely negative imperatives are not used in recipes but it is possible to find them in other instructional texts. The same rule is applied for commands using modal verbs. The fact is that imperatives with a subject, verbless commands or commands as adverbials were not found in the chosen texts. A consequence has it, that recipes have very limited range of using commands, whereas manuals use more linguistic tools for commands.

3.6   The Language of Conversation

First of all, it is essential to note that conversation is a wide and complicated area of language which might differ according to each speaker. Therefore, the investigated corpus should be large enough so that the results are precise. For the analysis, commands expressed in conversations from films and sitcoms were used. In more details, the research dealt with American movies The Hours, Schindler's List and Pulp Fiction. Moreover, British film Oscar Wilde was investigated. On the other hand, several episodes of The Big Bang Theory and Californication stand for a modern American English and furthermore, a conversation from British sci-fi sitcom Red Dwarf was part of the analysis.

According to Biber et al. (1999, 221), "the imperatives are many times more common in conversation than in writing." With regard to the previous statement, imperatives with the

discourse function of command should be expected to appear very frequently across conversation. Based on the research, this fact has been proved. Imperatives prevailed over any other ways of expressing commands. The truth is that the basic imperative form without a subject was found in most cases (see example 1), namely more than a half of the investigated corpus that contained 200 commands. Regarding these cases, the repetition of commands occurred frequently when the speaker was somehow irritated or needed an immediate reaction (see examples 2 and 3). On the other hand, the form of imperatives with a subject appeared several times as demonstrated in example 5. In order to soften the command, the word *please* was used very frequently. Furthermore, phrase containing a modal verb and *please* could be found (see examples 5 and 6). Concerning imperatives, the inclusive-*let* form was used while commanding a first person plural as demonstrated in example (7). Negative imperatives occurred across conversation as well, where the negation *don't* is used in most cases as displayed in example (8).

(1) ***Try*** *me.* (Oscar Wilde 1960)

(2) ***Look at*** *the snow.* ***Look*** *at the snow.* (Schindler's List 1993)

(3) ***Give*** *me the phone. Just* ***give*** *me the phone.* (The Big Bang Theory 2010)

(4) *Everybody* ***be*** *cool, this is a robbery.* (Pulp Fiction 1994)

(5) *Holy,* ***give*** *me a cold shower, please.* (The Red Dwarf 1988)

(6) ***Come*** *closer, would you please.* (The Hours 2002)

(7) ***Let's give*** *a Colorado welcome here.* (Oscar Wilde 1960)

(8) ***Don't stay up*** *too late, Robbie.* (Oscar Wilde 1960)

Besides the imperatives, other forms of commands were found in conversation in almost similar representation. In particular, these tools were: commands with modal verbs, declarative and interrogative commands. In more details, a wide range of modal verbs was used namely *must, have to, need to, should, shall, can* or *will* as showed in examples (9-11).

(9) *You* ***have to*** *choose.* (Schindler's List 1993)

(10) *Then you* ***must eat***. (The Hours 2002)

(11) *I'***ll*** *have a diet coke.* (The Big Bang Theory 2010)

With reference to a context, declarative sentences were used for commanding. Example (12) displays an order where the speaker uses particular phrase *I order you*. On the other hand, example (13) can be seen as an ordinary declarative sentence, whereas the speaker actually orders the hearer what he wants. Interrogative sentences were found as the very

last tool used across conversation. They were usually formed using a modal verb as portrayed in examples (15-16), where *shall* and *can* represents a formal language, while *will* is an example of an informal English.

> *(12) Holly, as senior rank, I **order** you to tell me where he is.* (The Red Dwarf 1988)
>
> *(13) We're going to need lots of cognac.* (Schindler's List 1993)
>
> *(14) **Shall** we **go** and **have** dinner somewhere?* (Oscar Wilde 1960)
>
> *(15) **Can** you **move** out of the way please?* (Oscar Wilde 1960)
>
> *(16) **Will** you **stop** saying 4,981 irradiated haggis and **speak** to me?* (The Red Dwarf 1988)

To sum up, the research has showed that the imperatives cover majority, in fact more than two-thirds of the investigated corpus. Within the imperatives absolute majority of them were the non-subject imperatives (55%). In addition to them, negative imperatives (8%), inclusive-*let* imperative (5%), and imperatives containing subject followed (2%). Besides the imperatives, modal verbs (10%), declarative (10%) and interrogative (10%) commands were represented.

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this bachelor's thesis was to describe how commands can be expressed in various functional styles. It has been proved that these ways differ according to each style with respect to some features in common. The analyses have illustrated that the possible range of commands is sometimes very limited whereas some of the styles combine more of the ways. In more details, the language of written instructions and advertisements are based mostly on the imperatives without a subject whereas the legal documents use modal verbs. On the other hand, the language of public speeches, conversation and religion combine more of them.

From the grammatical point of view, the imperatives play the most important role. They were represented across all the functional styles except for the language of legal documents. In more details, the imperatives without a subject were found the most frequently. On the other hand, imperatives containing subject appeared only in the conversation. The imperatives with *let* in the ordinary form occurred in several styles but none of them contained this command very frequently. More to the point, the inclusive-*let* imperative was found only in the conversation and the public speeches. Negative imperatives are very important for religious texts and conversation.

Furthermore, the use of modal verbs is the most important for the legal documents. With the exception of the advertisements, modal verbs occurred in every functional style where the negative form of the modal verbs was very frequently found across the commandments. With regard to the sentence types, both declarative and interrogative commands are sometimes used only in the conversation.

Commands supported by a conditional clause were frequently used in the written instructions and also appeared in the advertisements. On the other hand, the research showed only one example of the verbless command in the language of public speeches. The fact is that no commands supported by auxiliary *do* were found. In conclusion, some of the ways of expressing commands occur very frequently, whereas the others can be found rarely. The functional styles use different commands and their percentage share differs.

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