



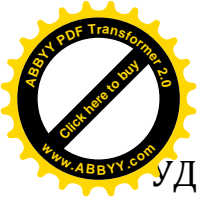
Міністерство освіти і науки, молоді та спорту України  
Сумський державний педагогічний університет  
імені А. С. Макаренка

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*Навчальний посібник  
для студентів II курсу факультетів іноземних мов*

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Г12

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Посібник складається з 4 розділів: Infinitive, Gerund, Participle I, Participle II. Кожна з частин побудована в певній алгоритмічній послідовності: ознайомлення з граматичною одиницею, її формами, функції даної граматичної одиниці в реченні, комплекси та конструкції, до складу яких входить дана граматична одиниця, порівняльний аналіз її відмінностей від інших безособових форм. В кінці розміщено блок тестових завдань для контролю рівня засвоєння матеріалу студентами. Посібник розраховано для студентів II курсу факультетів іноземних мов.

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## INTRODUCTION

The book is aimed as a reference guide for clear and concise explanation of particular points of English grammar – non-finites forms of the English verbs. It is divided into units, each covering particular grammar topic: the Infinitive, the Gerund, the Participle I and the Participle II. Each unit starts with the explanation of the grammar points, and this is followed by a set of tests which give the opportunity for more practice and enable to assess how much a student has learned. Each explanation is provided with examples of correct use in context, with advice on common errors to avoid. Trouble spot sections give more accurate descriptions of the grammatical forms and rules.

The book can be used both as a textbook and as a workbook by students and teachers. Detailed explanations, covering particular English grammar rules in depth, allow to take grammar knowledge to a much higher level and stretch the language skills.



# PART I

## The Infinitive

The Infinitive was originally a verbal noun, which in the course of its development has acquired some characteristics of the verb, retaining at the same time some of the nominal properties. Thus in Modern English the Infinitive has a double nature, nominal and verbal.

The Infinitive names a process in a most general way. It is naturally treated as the initial form of the verb, which represents the verb in dictionaries.

In Modern English the Infinitive is usually preceded by the particle *to*. Formerly this *to* was a preposition which was put before the Infinitive to indicate direction or purpose. In the course of time *to* lost its meaning of direction or purpose, and became merely the sign of the Infinitive \*(see Note 1). The particle *to* is generally used with the Infinitive stem and is so closely connected with it that does not commonly allow any words to be put between itself and the stem. \*(see Note 2).

Although the particle *to* is very closely connected with the Infinitive, sometimes the bare Infinitive stem is used.

*Note 1.* In some cases the particle *to* has still preserved its old meaning of purpose. Compare:

*I like to read.*

*I want to stop here.*

*I went to the library to read(purpose).*

*Everything was done to stop the fire (purpose).*

*Note 2.* Occasionally, however, an adverb or a particle may be inserted between them:

*She doesn't want to even see me once more.*

The Infinitive thus used is called the *split* Infinitive.



## The Verbal Characteristics of the Infinitive

The verbal features of the Infinitive are of two kinds: morphological and syntactical.

1) Morphological: the Infinitive has the verb categories of voice, correlation and aspect.

*The evening is the time to praise the day. (active)*

*To be praised for what one has not done was bad enough. (passive)*

*She did not intend to keep me long, she said. (non-perfect)*

*I am so distressed to have kept you waiting. (perfect)*

*She promised to bring the picture down in the course of ten minutes. (non-continuous)*

*At that time I happened to be bringing him some of the books borrowed from him two days before. (continuous)*

2) Syntactical: the Infinitive possesses the verb combinability:

a) It takes an object in the same way as the corresponding finite verbs do:

*To tell him about it the same night was out of the question. (Infinitive)*

*She told me about it only yesterday. (finite verb)*

*She did not mean to depend on her father. (Infinitive)*

*You see, I depend on his word only. (finite verb)*

b) The Infinitive can be modified by an adverb in the same way as finite verbs.

*To draw his attention I had to speak very loudly. (Infinitive)*

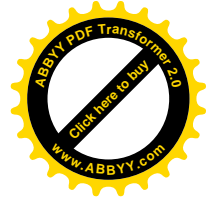
*He spoke loudly, turning his head from side to side. (finite verb)*

## The Nominal Characteristics of the Infinitive

The nominal features of the Infinitive are only syntactical. The Infinitive can be used:

a) as the subject of a sentence.

*To talk of those merry school-days makes one young again.*



b) as a predicative.

*My intention was to see her as soon as possible, to talk to her, to calm her.*

c) as an object.

*Jerry said to tell you how sorry he is.*

### The Grammatical Categories of the Infinitive

Correlation	Voice	Active	Passive
	Aspect		
Non-Perfect	Non-continuous	<i>to take</i>	<i>to be taken</i>
	Continuous	<i>to be taking</i>	
Perfect	Non-continuous	<i>to have taken</i>	<i>to have been taken</i>
	Continuous	<i>to have been taking</i>	

The category of correlation finds its expression in the opposition of non-perfect and perfect forms.

The non-perfect Infinitive indicates that the action expressed by the Infinitive is *simultaneous* with the action of the finite form of the verb in the sentence. So its may refer to the present, past or future.

*I am glad to meet you.*

*I was glad to see Mr. Paul.*

*Mr. Forsyte will be very glad to see you.*

In connection with the Present Tense of such verbs as *to expect, to hope, to intend, to want*. the non-perfect Infinitive refers to an action in the future.

*I want you to give me some information.*

When associated with modal verbs and their equivalents (to have or to be followed by an Infinitive), the non-perfect Infinitive may also refer to a future action.

*I must go and see him in a day or two.*

*What am I to do?*

*Let's have tea – she has to catch a train.*



The perfect Infinitive denotes an action prior to the action expressed by the finite verb.

*I'm glad to have seen you.*

After such verbs as *to mean, to expect, to intend, to hope* used in the Past Indefinite, the perfect Infinitive shows that the hope or intention was not carried out.

*I meant to have gone there (\*see Note 1)*

*I quite expected you to have been here before 6 o'clock.*

*He hoped to have come.*

Note 1. The same meaning can be conveyed by the Past Perfect of the finite verb followed by the non-perfect Infinitive.

*I had meant to go there.*

The idea, however, is often expressed in the following way: I meant to go there, but never did.

### A Perfect Infinitive with a Modal Verb

is equivalent to:

1) Past Indefinite

*You must have been very tired if you went to bed so early (probably you were very tired...)*

2) Present Perfect or Past Perfect

*She may not have arrived yet (perhaps she has not yet arrived).  
He must have locked the door before he left the house (certainly he had locked the door before he left the house).*

After the modal verbs *should, could, ought, might* and the Past Indefinite of the verb *to be* (when used as a modal equivalent) the perfect Infinitive is used to show that an action considered desirable or planned was not carried out.

*You should have phoned me at once.*

*I ought to have done it*





## The Category of Aspect

finds its expression in contrasting forms of the non-continuous aspect and the continuous aspect. In the Infinitive the category of aspect is expressed only in the active voice:

*to speak – to be speaking*

*to have spoken – to have been speaking*

The passive voice has practically no aspect oppositions.

The continuous Infinitive denotes an action simultaneous with the action expressed by the finite verb, but it is an action in progress.

*It's extremely funny for me to be consoling you.*

*Can they be studying at such a late hour?*

The perfect continuous form of the Infinitive is equivalent to a present or past perfect continuous:

*We must have been walking for two hours; let us have a rest (probably we have been walking for two hours...)*

The Infinitive of transitive verbs has the Category of Voice.

In the Infinitive it is found only in the non-continuous aspect forms.

*He expected to find them very soon.*

*They expected to be found by night fall.*

*I know I ought to have told you everything long ago.*

*She ought to have been told of what had actually happened.*

Note. At first the Infinitive had only one form (active or indifferent) which had either an active or a passive meaning. In the course of time a passive form of the Infinitive developed. Traces of the old active form with a passive meaning are still found in the following sentences:

*They were not to blame (= to be blamed).*

*The reason is not far to seek (= to be sought).*

*There is a lot to see there (= to be seen).*



## The Bare Infinitive

The bare Infinitive (the Infinitive without the particle *to*) is used:

1) After auxiliary verbs :

*Why didn't you come?*

2) After modal verbs (except *ought to, be to, have to*)

*I must go and look at the flowers at Hampton Court.*

*Will you come? I had to send him money.*

*We are to see her tonight.*

3) After the verb *to help*

(often in an informal style).

*I helped (to) make dinner.*

4) After perception words, such as *to see, to hear, to feel, to watch, to observe, to notice, to smell, to taste, to perceive etc.*

*We heard a black bird sing.*

Note: the verb *to be* after the verb *to feel* is used with the particle *to*

*I felt it to be true.*

5) After verbs of inducement: *to make, to let, to have, to bid.*

*I let him go there.*

*A few light taps upon the pane made him turn to the window.*

*I bowed and waited, thinking she would bid me take a seat* (Bronte). (The verb *to bid* is not used in colloquial speech).

*We had them take my baggage.*

The verb *to have* is chiefly used after the modal verb *will* and *would* in negative sentences.

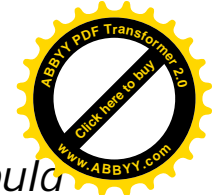
*I wouldn't have you think that I am selfish.*

Note: All the verbs in 4 and 5 require an Infinitive in with *to* when they are used in the passive voice.

*He was heard to open the door.*

*He was seen to drive a car at great speed.*

*He was made to come.*



6) After the expressions : *had better, would rather, would sooner, cannot but, to do nothing but, nothing to do but.*

*You had better go there at once.*

*I would rather not tell them about it.*

*I cannot but agree with you on that subject.*

(*cannot but* and *cannot choose but* are characteristic of elevated style)

*She does nothing but grumble.*

*There was nothing left for him to do but watch and wait.*

7) In sentences of special type beginning with *why, why not, how.*

*Why go by bus if we can take a taxi?*

*Why not start earlier?*

8) After "*than*"

*I have more important things to do than hang on the phone.*

Note: When there are several Infinitives with the same or similar function – *to* – is put only before the first Infinitive.

## Syntactical Functions of the Infinitive

The Infinitive performs almost all syntactical functions characteristic of the noun although in each of them it has certain peculiarities of its own. A single Infinitive seldom occurs: in most cases we find an Infinitive phrase – an Infinitive with one or several accompanying words.

### The Infinitive as Subject

*To find a cook was his most urgent problem.*

*To walk in the garden was pleasant.*

*To have seen her was even a more painful experience.*

*To have been interrogated in such a way was a real shock to him.*



(The Infinitive precedes the predicate which takes the 3d person singular.)

When a subject of the sentence is an Infinitive phrase, it is placed after the predicate. In this case the sentence opens with the introductory – *it*, which serves as an introductory subject:

*It is necessary to...*

*It is important to...*

*It is good (better) to...*

*It is bad (worse) to...*

*It is useless to...*

*It is (of) no use to...*

*It is (im)possible to...*

*It is quite possible to...*

*It is quite natural to...*

*It is difficult (hard, easy) to...etc.*

*It was pleasant to walk in the garden.*

*It is useless to discuss the question.*

*It wasn't safe to cross the bridge at night.*

*Sue sang delightfully: it was a treat to listen to her.*

The introductory *it* is not translated into Ukrainian.

### The Infinitive as part of the Predicate

The Infinitive is used in predicates of several types, both nominal and verbal.

#### The Infinitive as Predicative.

#### (Part of a Compound Nominal Predicate)

In the function of a predicative the Infinitive is used in compound nominal predicates after the link verb – *to be*.

*The point is to achieve the aim.*

*His dearest wish was to have a son.*



The set of nouns that can function as a subject in this case is very limited. It includes about 50 abstract nouns:

*Action, advice, duty, experience, function, habit, happiness, aim, ambition, hope, idea, ideal, instruction, intention, attempt, business, job, method, need, object, order, consequence, custom, plan, principle, problem, purpose, reason, desire, difficulty, risk, role, rule, task, wish.*

Note: The noun thing may also perform the function of the subject of a Infinitive-predicative

*The best thing was to agree.*

The subject of the sentence with the Infinitive-predicative is either a noun or an Infinitive.

*To come there at this hour was to risk one's life.*

Sentences in which both Infinitives are used without any modifiers are usually of aphoristic meaning.

*To see is to believe.*

The function of the subject may be also performed by the pronoun *all* or the substantivized superlatives *the most* and *the least* with an attributive clause attached to it. In such cases the predicative Infinitive may lose its marker *to*.

*All he wanted was (to) be left alone.*

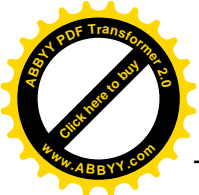
*The best I can expect is (to) have this day all to myself.*

*The most he could do at that moment was (to) give me a cigarette.*

Note: A predicative Infinitive may be introduced by the conjunctive adverbs and pronouns "how", "when", "where", "what", "whom", the choice depending on the lexical meaning of the noun.

*Now the question was what to tell him*

*The problem was how to begin.*



## The Infinitive as Part of a Compound Verbal Predicate

The compound verbal predicate can be divided into two types according to the meaning of the finite verb:

- 1) the compound verbal modal predicate.
- 2) the compound verbal aspect predicate.\*

\*It should be born in mind that by aspect we do not mean here the verbal category of aspect but the lexical meaning of certain verbs as denoting the beginning, the duration and the end of the action.

### The Compound Verbal Modal Predicate

may consist of:

1) A modal verb (*can(could), may(might), must, to be to, to have to, shall, should, will(would), ought to, dare, need*) and an Infinitive.

*I can tell you nothing at all about him.*

*She was to arrive by train at half past twelve.*

*She ought to have told me before.*

2) A verb with a modal meaning and an Infinitive. Such verbs do not denote actions but express various modal meanings (intention, determination, attempt, desire, hope, etc.). Here belong such verbs as to intend, to resolve, to decide, to plan, to mean, to desire, to attempt, to try, to endeavor, to fail, to strive, to seek, to hope, to long, to expect, to wish, to want, etc.

*Certainly I don't mean to take advantage of my position.*

*He longed to recall to her those moments...*

3) A modal expressions and an Infinitive. Modal expressions have no independent lexical meaning but only impart various modal meanings (obligation, readiness, ability, etc.):

*To be obliged, to be compelled, to be inclined, to be eager, to be anxious to be ready, to be willing, to be capable, etc.*



*We are most anxious to cooperate.*

*And children were always willing to play cricket with him.*

4) The expressions to be going and an Infinitive which has often modal force (to intend to do something):

*I'm not going to stand this sort of thing any longer.*

5) The following phraseological units: had better, had best, would sooner, would rather combined with the Infinitive:

*You had better not tell her about it.*

*She's not at all musical.*

*She would much rather see a good film.*

### The Compound Verbal Aspect Predicate

may consist of an Infinitive combined with the finite form of a verb which denotes the beginning, the duration or the end of the action (*to begin, to start, to commence, to continue, to cease*).

*Now I begin to understand you.*

*The continued to whisper.*

*His bones ceased to ache.*

Also the combinations: would+Infinitive, used to+ Infinitive, which express repeated, habitual actions in the past.

*On sunny days we would go out into the garden and sit on the grass.*

*I remember I used to climb that oak.*

Note. In some cases the verbal predicate may be both modal and aspect.

*You must begin to study properly.*

### The Infinitive as Object

The Infinitive can have the function of object of other verbs, adjectives, adjectivized participles and statives.



– After verbs the Infinitive may be either the only object of a verb or one of two objects.

1. Verbs that take only one object are: *to agree, to arrange, to attempt, to care(to like), to chose, to claim, to consent, to decide, to deserve, to determine, to expect, to fail, to fear, to forget, to hesitate, to hope, to intend, to learn, to like, to long, to love, to manage, to mean, to neglect, to omit, to plan, to prefer, to pretend, to refuse, to regret, to remember, to swear, to tend.*

*She agreed to come at ten.*

*He planned to spend the day in town.*

*You'll soon learn to read, Sonny.*

Besides the above-mentioned verbs there are also some rather common phrases used with the Infinitive-object. There are the phrases *can afford, can bear* in the negative or interrogative and such phrases as *to make sure, to make up one's mind, to take care, to take the trouble.*

*Can you afford to buy it yourself?*

*I can't bear to hear of it again.*

*At last he made up his mind to answer Sibyl's letter.*

2. Verbs that take two objects, the first of which is a noun or a pronoun and the second an Infinitive. These are the verbs of inducement:

*to advise*

*to allow*

*to ask*

*to beg*

*to cause*

*to command*

*to compel*

*to direct*

*to induce*

*to instruct*

*to invite*

*to leave*

*to let*

*to make*

*to order*

*to permit*





*to encourage*  
*to forbid*  
*to force*  
*to have*  
*to impel*  
*to implore*

*to persuade*  
*to recommend*  
*to request*  
*to require*  
*to tell*  
*to urge*

*Tell him to hurry.*

*He asked her to keep an eye on the clock.*

*What would you recommend me to do?*

– After certain adjectives (adjectivized participles), mostly used as predicative. Semantically and structurally these fall into two groups.

1. The most frequent of the first groups are: *anxious, apt, bound, careful, curious, determined, difficult, eager, easy, entitled, fit, free, hard, impatient, inclined, interested, keen, liable, powerless, prepared, quick, ready, reluctant, resolved, set, slow, worthy*.

*She's determined to go on.*

*I'm powerless to do anything.*

*I'm fully prepared to meet them any time they choose.*

*I was so impatient to start.*

When used with these adjectives, the Infinitive denotes actions either simultaneous with or posterior to the states expressed by the predicates, and cannot therefore be used in perfect forms.

2. The most frequent adjectives (adjectivized participles) of the second group are: *amused, annoyed, astonished, delighted, distressed, frightened, furious, glad, grateful, happy, horrified, pleased, proud, puzzled, relieved, scared, sorry, surprised, thankful, touched*.

*He was amused to hear it.*

*I'm delighted to see you again, darling.*



*She is proud to have grown such a son.*

*Mother was furious to see them together again.*

These adjectives and participles express certain psychological states which are the result of the action of the Infinitive object, and have both non-perfect and perfect forms. The non-perfect forms are used to express immediate priority:

*I'm glad to see you* (I see you and this makes me glad).

The perfect forms are used to show that there is a gap between the action and resulting state.

*I'm glad to have seen you* (I have seen you and this makes me glad).

After certain statives denoting psychological states, such as *afraid, agog, ashamed*:

*I'd be afraid to step inside a house that he had designed by himself.*

*Mary herself was agog to know what was going on.*

In such cases the Infinitive points out the source of the state expressed by the stative.

### The Infinitive as Attribute

The English Infinitive functioning as an attribute is far more frequent than the Ukrainian Infinitive. This is because in Ukrainian the Infinitive attribute can combine with abstract nouns only while in English it is used with a much wider range of words.

Thus it can modify:

1. abstract and concrete nouns:

*Alice thought of her long-cherished wish to revisit the home of her childhood.*

*We made a list of things to be taken on the journey.*



2. indefinite + negative pronouns (*somebody, something, anybody, anything, nobody, nothing, etc.*):

*There is something to discuss.*

*Is there anybody to help you?*

*There is nothing to live on any more.*

Note. Occasionally the Infinitive can have the function of an attribute to personal and reflexive pronouns:

*I've only you to look to.*

*Oh, but you have only yourself to praise.*

3. substantivized ordinal numerals (especially *first*) and the substantivized adjectives *next* and *last*:

*He was always the first to enter the dining-room and the last to leave it.*

4. the substantivized quantitative adjectives *much, little, (no) more, (no) less, little more, enough*:

*A man in your position has so much to lose.*

*I've no more to add.*

Note. The Infinitive attribute can also be used with the substantivized adverb *nowhere*:

*Now I had nobody to see, nowhere to go.*

5. The noun-substitute *one*:

*He is not the one to trust.*

Very often the preposition is used after an attributive Infinitive:

*It is not a question to joke about.*

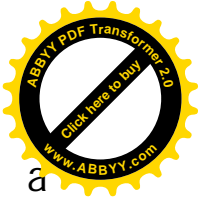
*I had nobody to talk to.*

*What a night to wander out in !*

Note. The Infinitive as an attribute may be introduced by a conjunction:

*I had now an idea what to do.*

*He had sought in vain for inspiration how to awaken love.*



The conjunctive Infinitive phrase may be governed by a preposition:

*They had no knowledge of how to live on.*

*He's got no information about when to start.*

### The Infinitive as an Adverbial Modifier

1. The adverbial modifier of purpose. It can be expressed only by non-perfect common aspect forms of the Infinitive (both active and passive).

*He dressed and went out to buy the morning paper.*

The Infinitive as an adverbial modifier of purpose can be introduced by *in order* and *so as*.

*I was silent in order to give him time to think.*

*I hired a taxi so as not to miss the train.*

2. The adverbial modifier of subsequent events.

In this function the Infinitive denotes an action that actually take place after the action denoted by the predicate.

The position of this adverbial in the sentence is fixed – it always follows the predicate. The only forms of the Infinitive occurring in this function are those of the non-perfect common aspect usually active:

*He entered the room to see his brother waiting for him.*

*(He entered and saw that...)*

*He returned from the office to be struck by that terrible news*

*(He returned and was struck...)*

In this function the Infinitive may be preceded by the particles *only*, *merely*, *simply*, which change the meaning of the whole sentence: the action denoted by the Infinitive preceded by these particles makes the action denoted by predicate pointless or irrelevant.

*She returned to London, only to understand that her hopes meant nothing. (She returned..., but understood...)*



### 3. An adverbial modifier of result.

It occurs after:

- a) adjectives and adverbs modified by *too*;
- b) adjectives and adverbs modified by *enough*;
- c) adjectives modified by *so*;
- d) nouns modified by *such*.

After *so* and *such*, the Infinitive is introduced by *as*:

a) *It was too dark to distinguish anything.*

*He had gone too far to draw back.*

b) *He was old enough to be my father.*

*I thought I liked Laura well enough to marry her.*

c) *Are you so stupid as to believe him?*

d) *He is not such a man as to break his promise.*

The position of the Infinitive is fixed, it always follows the words it modifies. The form of the Infinitive is non-perfect, common aspect, usually active.

### 4. The adverbial modifier of comparison.

The Infinitive is introduced by *than*.

*She seemed more anxious to listen to the troubles of others than discuss her own.*

The Infinitive can also be introduced by the conjunction *as if* or *as though* (in most cases with the additional meaning of purpose)

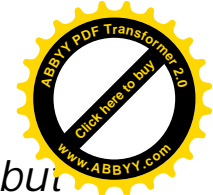
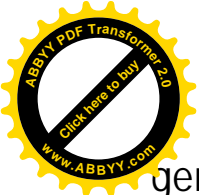
*He opened his mouth wide as if to speak.*

### 5. The adverbial modifier of condition.

The range of verbs thus used is semantically limited; they are all verbs of sense perception (*to look, to listen, to touch, to watch*, etc.)

*To touch it one would believe that it was the best of furs. (If one touched it, he would believe...)*

6. The adverbial modifier of exception – denotes the action which is the only possible one in the situation. The Infinitive is



generally used without *-to-* and is introduced by the prepositions *but* and *except*. It is found in negative and interrogative sentences.

*I had nothing to do but wait.*

*What could I do but submit?*

*There is nothing to do except turn back.*

7. The adverbial modifier of time.

Denotes the action which marks out the moment of time up to which or at which the action of the predicate is performed.

*His father lived to be ninety. (lived till he was...)*

*Go away! I shudder to see you here. (I shudder when I see...)*

The position of the Infinitive is fixed, it always follows the predicate it modifies. Its form is non-perfect, common, active.

### The Infinitive as Parenthesis

The Infinitive used as parenthesis is usually part of a collocation, as in:

- *to begin with;*
- *to be frank;*
- *to be sure;*
- *to make matters worse;*
- *to put it mildly;*
- *to say the least;*
- *to tell the truth;*
- *needless to say;*
- *strange to say;*
- *so to speak;*
- *to cut a long story short;*
- *to say nothing of;*
- *to crown it all.*

*To begin with, you have been lying to me all the time.*



*To be quite frank, I don't like him at all.  
He was rude, to say the least of it.*

Trouble spots

The Infinitive as Predicate in Infinitive Sentences.

The Infinitive may function as a predicate in so-called Infinitive sentences. It may be used in exclamatory sentences expressing the speaker's rejection of the idea that the person to whom the action of the Infinitive is ascribed is likely to perform the action, as in:

*You – of all men –to say such a thing!*

*Me – to be your lover!*

As a rule the Infinitive in exclamatory sentences is used with the particle *to*, although it occasionally occurs without it.

*Me – marry him!*

The Infinitive may also be used as predicate in interrogative Infinitive why – sentences, both affirmative and negative, where it expresses the suggestion.

*Why not go away?*

*Why waste your time on this kind of work?*

In such sentences the Infinitive is always used without the particle *to*.

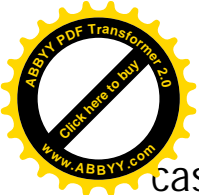
## Constructions with the Infinitive

The Infinitive is used in predicative constructions of three types:

- 1) The Objective-with-the – Infinitive Construction;
- 2) The Subjective – Infinitive Construction;
- 3) The for-to-Infinitive construction.

### The Objective-with-the-Infinitive Construction

In the objective-with-the-Infinitive construction the Infinitive is attached to a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective



case (hence the name of the construction). In the sentence this construction has the function of a complex object. The Objective-with-the-Infinitive construction is used in the following cases:

1) After the verbs of sense perception: *to hear, to see, to feel, to smell* and also after the verbs expressing observation as *to watch, to notice, to observe*.

In this case only the Non-perfect Infinitive Active is possible, used without particle *to*.

*He heard the blackbird sing.*

*No one noticed him leave the room.*

After the verb *to feel* however the Infinitive of the verb *to be* is used with *to*.

*I felt it to be very unjust.*

Note 1: If the verb *to see* is used with the meaning "to understand" "to realize" or the verb *to hear* with the meaning "to learn", "to be told", the Objective-with-the-Infinitive Construction cannot be used.

*I saw that he didn't know anything.*

*I hear that he left for the South.*

After the verbs *to see* and *to notice* the Objective-with-the-Infinitive construction is not used with the verb *to be*; a subordinate clause is used in such cases.

*He only had time to notice that the girl was unusually pretty.*

*I saw that he was pale.*

2) After verbs of mental activity: *to know, to think, to believe, to consider, to expect, to understand, to suppose, to find, to imagine, to realize, to acknowledge, to admit, to assume, etc.*

*We thought her to be about twenty-five.*

*I didn't expect him to pay for the meal.*

Here the Infinitive is used in any form, though the perfect forms are seldom.





*The doctor found his heart to have stopped two hours before.*

With the verbs *to think*, *to consider*, *to find* the same idea can be expressed without an Infinitive.

*We consider him (to be) a cruel person.*

If the action of the finite verb and that of the Infinitive refer to the same person or thing, a corresponding reflexive pronoun must be used.

*He considered himself to be right.*

3) After verbs of emotion: *to like*, *to love*, *to hate*, *to dislike*, *cannot bear* and some others. Here non-perfect, common aspect forms of the Infinitive are the most usual.

*She hated her son to be separated from her.*

*I'd love you to come with me too.*

*I can't bear you to be unhappy.*

4) After verbs of wish and intention: *to want*, *to wish*, *to desire*, *to intend*, *to mean*, *to choose*, *should like*, *to prefer* and some others.

After these verbs only non-perfect common aspect forms of the Infinitive with the particle *to* are used.

*He only wished you to be near him.*

*I don't want him to be punished.*

5) After verbs of declaring: *to declare*, *to pronounce*, *to announce*, *to report*.

*I declare you to be out of your mind.*

*The surgeon pronounced the wound to be a slight one.*

6) After verbs of inducement: *to have (донускати)*, *to make (примушувати)*, *to get (добиватись)*, *to cause*, *to force*, *to bid*, *to induce*, *to urge*, *to set*, *to persuade*, *to compel*.

After *to make*, *to have*, *to bid* bare Infinitive is used; after the verb *to get* the Infinitive may be used with or without particle *to*.

*They made him apologize for his behavior.*

*Why don't you get him (to) explain it to you?*



*I won't have you speak like that.*

*Nothing will induce me to agree.*

7) After verbs of order, request and permission: *to order, to command, to ask, to beg, to implore, to request, to allow, to permit, to let, to forbid, to suffer etc.*

After to let bare Infinitive is used.

*He ordered the cabman to drive on.*

*He allowed a little time to pass.*

*She suffered Mr. Franklin to lead her back into the room.*

*Why won't you let me explain?*

8) After certain verbs requiring a prepositional object: *to count (up) on, to rely (up) on, to look for, to listen to, to wait for.*

After the verb *to listen to* the bare Infinitive is used.

*Can't I count on you to help me?*

*He listened to her talk of his mother.*

## The Subjective Infinitive Construction

The subject of a sentence is sometimes expressed by a noun (or pronoun) and an infinitive which follows the predicate. Although the noun (or pronoun) and the Infinitive do not stand together, they are closely connected and form one syntactical unit a complex subject. In the sentence *The girl was seen to leave the house* The girl ... to leave the house is a complex subject to the predicate *was seen*.

1. The Subjective Infinitive Construction is used with the following groups of verbs in the Passive Voice:

a. After verbs of sense perception and verbs expressing observation: *to hear, to see, to watch, etc.*

*The garden gate was heard to bang.*

*She was often seen to walk all alone.*

b. After verbs of mental activity: *to know, to think, to believe, etc.*

*You are expected to start work at 8 a.m.*



*He is supposed to be leaving tonight.*

*The church is believed to have been built in the 11<sup>th</sup> century.*

c. After verbs of declaring: *to say, to report, to pronounce, to announce, to declare, to state.*

*She was announced to be the winner.*

*These islands are said to have been discovered as early as 1762...*

d. After the verbs *to make, to force, to compel.*

*He was made to keep silent.*

e. After verbs expressing permission, request, intention, order: *to allow, to permit, to suffer, to order, to advise, to instruct, to command, to request, to mean, to intend, etc.*

*I have been advised to rest.*

*They were requested to be ready by 7.*

Note\*

...was said to... - казали, що

...was seen to... - бачили, що

...was heard to... - чули, що

...was supposed to... - припускали, що

...was believed to... - вірили, що

...was expected to... - сподівались, що

...was reported to... - повідомляли, що

...was considered to... - вважали, що

...was thought to... - думали, що

...was found to... - виявилось, що

...was announced to... - оголосили, що

...was known to... - було відомо, що

2. The Subjective Infinitive Construction is used with the following pairs of synonyms in the Active Voice: *to seem – to appear, to happen – to chance, to prove – to turn out.*



*The night turned out to be cold.*

*The man seemed to have come from far off.*

3. The Subjective Infinitive Construction is used with the word groups: *to (un)likely, to be sure, to be (un)certain*

*I feel that you are sure to change.*

*He is not likely to recognize you.*

### The For-to-Infinitive Construction

In a number of cases the preposition *for* introduced a construction in which a noun (in the common case) or a pronoun (in the objective case) has an infinitive attached to it. The construction is used where the doer of the action, expressed by the Infinitive, is different from that of the finite verb. Compare the following sentences :

1. *We are sorry to leave the seaside so soon*

*All I want is to get out of here for good (the doer of the action is the same).*

2. *We are sorry for you to leave the seaside so soon.*

*All I want is for Jack to get out of here for good (the doer is not the same).*

The For-to-Infinitive Construction often has the same meaning as a *that - clause*, especially when we want to express wishes, recommendations, suggestions. A *that - clause* is usually more formal than the For-to-Infinitive Construction.

*It's important for the meeting to start on time. = It's important that the meetings should start on time.*

The construction can have different functions in the sentence.

1. **Complex Subject.** The For-to-Infinitive construction in the function of the subject usually occurs in sentences with the introductory *it*.

*It is necessary for us to talk to him before he meets his boss*

*It was unusual for him to go out for dinner.*



This construction is sometimes placed at the head of the sentence.

*For us to fail now would be a disaster.*

2. Complex Predicative. In this function the construction is usually used with the link verb to be.

*The best thing will be for me to go home and settle everything now.*

3. Complex Object

The construction functions as complex object of both verbs and adjectives.

*They waited for the rain to stop.*

*I arranged for him to meet the professor.*

*His family were anxious for him to do something.*

*I'm so glad for you to have come at last.*

4. Complex Attribute

*Fortunately, there is no need for me to risk anything.*

*Eppie was a suitable child for them to take into their home.*

5. Complex Adverbial Modifier of purpose or result:

a) Purpose

*I left something under your door for you to read it.*

*She held the door open for the girl to pass through.*

b) Result

*He looked too eager for me to believe him.*

*"Dear", she said, " are we not friends enough by now for you to trust me a little bit?"*



## Test 1

Choose the correct item

1. I'd rather *stay/to stay* at home tonight, if that's all right.
2. You are fortunate *to pass/to have passed* all the exams this year.
3. We stopped *have/to have* lunch and then continued our journey.
4. Charles claims *to have met/to meet* the president, but I don't believe him.
5. He completely forgot *pay/to pay* the bills this month.
6. I always wanted *to be/to have been* a photographer.
7. Can you help me *to open/open* this door?
8. The company management requests that all mobile phones *to be turned off/be turned off* at the premises.
9. They never knew *her to play/play/that she should play* the guitar.
10. They couldn't afford *to wait/wait* any longer, so they left.
11. These clothes make him *to look/look* much older.
12. She had Pete *to repair/repair* her TV set at last.
13. The text is too difficult *for him to translate/that he should translate* it.
14. The students were let *to see/see* their test papers.
15. She was made *to put/put* her clothes on.
16. She seemed *to wait/to have been waiting* there for hours.
17. She is too young *to think/that she should think* of getting married.
18. She opened the door just enough *for them to look in/that they should look in*.
19. When we go to a club, they ask me *to show/to be shown* proof that I'm eighteen.
20. "Would you like *me to pour/me pour* you another cup?" she asked.



## PART II

### The Gerund

The Gerund is a descendant of the old English verbal noun and the present participle; hence its double nature and its noun and verb characteristics. As the result of the blending of the two forms, the verbal noun in -ing began to develop verbal characteristics under the influence of the participle. In Middle English and in early Modern English the verbal noun, like any other noun, was preceded by the definite article and followed by the preposition of.

*He thanked him for the saving of his life.*

The article as well as the preposition of were gradually dropped, the -ing form took the following noun as its direct object. Thus crystallized the new form, the Gerund.

*He thanked him for saving his life.*

Later on the Gerund became more verbal and developed tense distinctions and the passive voice, still preserving its syntactical characteristics of a noun.

#### The Double Nature of the Gerund

The grammatical meaning of the Gerund is that of a process. Thus to some extent it competes with nouns of verbal origin, e.g. translating – translation, describing- description, arriving – arrival, perceiving – perception, helping – help. Nouns, however, tend to convey the fact or the result of an action, which in certain circumstances may be something material.

*Show me your translation.*

*You will enrich your vocabulary by translating from English into Russian.*

If the meaning of the Gerund is nearly the same as that of the noun, the former emphasizes the process, and the latter-the fact:



*Thank you for helping me.*

*Thank you for your help.*

The nominal character of the Gerund reveals itself syntactically, mainly in its syntactical function but partly in its combinability.

1. Like a noun, it can function as subject, object, or predicative, but not as predicate.

*Seeing you is always a pleasure.*

*I remember seeing you somewhere.*

*Peter's hobby is seeing all new movies.*

2. The Gerund, like a noun can be preceded by a preposition (when it is an attribute, an adverbial modifier or a prepositional object).

*There is a chance of catching the train.*

*Don't forget to call me up before leaving.*

*I think of going to the south in the autumn.*

3. Like a noun it can combine with a possessive pronoun and a noun in the genitive case.

*I insist on her going there.*

*I insist on her sister's going there.*

Morphologically the verbal character of the Gerund is manifested in the categories of voice and correlation and syntactically in its combinability.

1. The Gerund has tense distinctions; the Gerund of transitive verbs has also voice distinctions. (see Table II).

2. The Gerund of transitive verbs can take a direct object.

*They postponed giving a definite answer.*

*Avoid making mistakes.*

3. The Gerund can be modified by an adverb.

*She burst out crying bitterly.*





## The Grammatical Categories of the Gerund

The Gerund has only two grammatical categories, those of voice and correlation.

### The Grammatical Categories of the Gerund

Voice Correlation	Active	Passive
Non-perfect	running taking	– being taken
Perfect	having run having taken	– having been taken

### The Category of Correlation

The category of correlation finds its expression in the contrast of non-perfect (definite) and perfect forms.

The non-perfect Gerund expresses that the action denoted by the Gerund is simultaneous with the action of the finite form of the verb in the sentence.

*She enjoys sitting in the sun.*

*I was quite disappointed at not finding him there.*

*You will enlarge your vocabulary by reading.*

The perfect Gerund indicates that the action of the Gerund precedes the action of the finite verb in the sentence.

*We are surprised at Kate's having failed in the examination.*

*We knew nothing of his having published the poems.*

*I will always regret having uttered these words.*

The meaning of the non-perfect Gerund is more flexible than that of the perfect Gerund and may easily be modified by the context.



## Trouble Spots

The meaning of the non-perfect Gerund is more flexible than that of the perfect Gerund and may easily be modified by the context. The non-perfect Gerund may denote a prior action thanks to the lexical meaning of the main verb or the preposition suggesting priority. The non-perfect Gerund is generally used after verbs of recollection, gratitude, blame, reproach, punishment and reward.

*I shall never forget taking this exam.*

*I remember talking to him once.*

*Thank you for helping me.*

The non-perfect Gerund can be found in Gerundial phrases introduced by the prepositions *on* and *after*. The preposition *on* suggests immediate priority.

*On reaching the end of the street we turned towards the river.*

*After walking about ten yards he found the hat among the leaves.*

However, when the priority is emphasized the Perfect Gerund may also be found after the above mentioned verbs and prepositions.

*He did not remember ever having seen her in black.*

*He came back after having been away for about ten years.*

The non-perfect Gerund expresses a succeeding action after verbs, adjectives and prepositions implying reference to a future event (such as *to intend*, *to insist*, *to object*, *to suggest*, *to look forward to*) and after the preposition *before*.

*I intend going there tomorrow.*

*She insists on starting at 6 o'clock.*

*We are looking forward to visiting new places.*

*We met once more before parting.*

The same occurs after nouns suggesting futurity such as *plan*, *intention*, *hope*, *prospect*:

*There is some hope of catching the last train.*



## The Category of Voice

The Gerund of transitive verbs has special forms for the active and the passive voice.

*I hate interrupting people. – I hate being interrupted.*

*He entered without having knocked at the door. – The door opened without having been knocked on.*

The perfect passive Gerund is very rarely used.

As the passive voice is of later development, we still find in Modern English instances when the active form of the Gerund is passive in meaning; those constructions are survivals of the time when one and the same form was used with active and passive meaning.

The Gerund is always used in the active voice with passive meaning after the verbs to need, to want, to require, to deserve; also after the adjective worth:

*The car needs repairing (= being repaired).*

*The child deserves praising.*

*We saw all the plays that were worth seeing.*

## Syntactical Functions of the Gerund

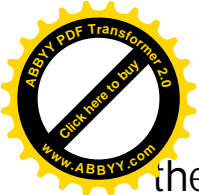
The Gerund can perform various syntactic functions. A single Gerund occurs but seldom; in most cases we find a Gerundial phrase or a Gerundial construction.

### The Gerund as a Subject

*Learning rules without examples is useless.*

*Not being punctual makes him unreliable.*

The Gerund used as a subject may follow the predicate; in these cases the sentence opens with the introductory it (which serves as an introductory subject) or with the construction there is. It happens when



the predicate is a phrase such as *to be (of) no use (no good, useless), to make all the (no) difference*.

*It's no use crying over spilt milk.*

*It will make no difference your being nervous.*

Note. In sentences with the introductory there the Gerund is preceded by the negative pronoun no. Such sentences are usually emphatic.

*When he took a thing into her hed there was no stopping her.*

*There was no mistaking the expression on her face.*

### The Gerund as Part of the Predicate

1) The Gerund as a predicative (a part of the compound nominal predicate).

*His singing was annoying.*

*Her aim is mastering English in the shortest time possible.*

Note. The Gerund is also a predicate in the sentences of the following pattern:

*Do you feel like going for a walk?*

*He felt like giving up the whole affair.*

2) The Gerund as part of the compound verbal aspect predicate

With verbs denoting the beginning the duration or the end of an action the Gerund forms a compound verbal Gerund aspect predicate. The most common phasal verbs are: *to begin, to burst out, to start, to continue, to go on, to keep on, to finish, to atop, to give up, to leave off, to cease*.

*A cuckoo began calling from a thorn tree.*

*And do leave off worrying about him.*

*Anthony finished cutting and buttering the rolls.*

*Dancing, I kept stepping all over her feet.*



## The Gerund as Object

The Gerund can be used as a direct or a prepositional object. As a direct object it follows a number of verbs which take only the Gerund.

*They enjoyed having a guest that evening.*

*I couldn't help laughing when I saw him wearing those trousers.*

*They postponed giving a definite answer.*

*You won't mind carrying my bag?* (the verb to mind is used in negative and interrogative sentences)

Verbs followed by either the Gerund or the Infinitive are less numerous: *to like, to dislike, to hate, to intend, to plan, to prefer, to forget, to remember, to regret, to propose, neglect, can't bear, can't afford.*

*I hate being bothered with silly questions.*

*I propose accepting their terms.*

As a prepositional object the Gerund may follow:

a) such verbs as

to agree	}	to	to hear	}	of
to look forward			to learn		
to object			to think		
to adjust			to accuse		
to devote			to suspect		
	to dream				
	to (dis)approve				

to consist	}	in	to count	}	on
to persist			to depend		
to succeed in			to rely		
to assist			to insist		



to help  
to believe } in

to congratulate  
to plan  
to concentrate } on

to prevent  
to stop  
to refrain } from

to argue  
to care  
to complain  
to dream  
to forget  
to talk  
to think  
to worry  
to warn } about

to thank  
to blame  
to praise  
to punish  
to sentence  
to apologize  
to forgive } for

*They objected to changing their plans at this late date.*

*He insisted on being told the result.*

*She suspected them of trying to cheat her.*

b) such adjectives and participles II

to be afraid  
to be aware  
to be conscious } of

to be responsible  
to be appropriate  
to be famous } for



to be (in)capable	}	of	to be grateful	}	for
to be fond			to be suitable		
to be tired			to be sorry		
to be ignorant			to be sorry	}	about
to be proud			to be concerned		
to be sure			to be excited		
to be certain			to be lazy		
to be ashamed			to be worried		
to be guilty					
to be absorbed	}	in	to be used	}	to
to be engrossed			to be accustomed		
to be interested			to be essential		
to be (dis)pleased	}	at	to be keen on		
to be surprised					
to be good					
to be overjoyed					

*I am tired of doing much the same thing every day.*  
*He was pretty certain of finding the letter.*  
*I am well used to travelling.*

*I was always fond of visiting new scenes, and observing strange characters and manners.*

### The Gerund as Attribute

When used as an attribute the Gerund modifies nouns, mainly abstract nouns\*. It is always preceded by a preposition, in the vast majority of cases of, as in the following combinations: *the art of teaching, the habit of speaking, a certain way of walking, a chance of seeing somebody, a hope of getting a ticket, an idea of going to the cinema, an intention of learning another foreign language, etc.*



*There is a chance of catching the train.*  
*They were trying to find a way of talking to him alone.*  
*I began to have a feeling of being watched.*

\*Note. A list of abstract nouns modified by the Gerund:

(dis)advantage, aim, attempt, attitude, business, chance, choice, consequence, custom, danger, delight, difficulty, effect, emotion, evidence, experience, fact, fear, feeling, gift, grief, guilt, habit, hope, horror, humiliation, idea, illusion, importance, impression, intention, interest, irritation, issue, joy, luck, madness, manner, means, method, fortune, mistake, necessity, notion, object, opinion, opportunity, pleasure, policy, possibility, privilege, process, prospect, purpose, question, result, right, risk, role, rule, satisfaction, sense, shock, sign, standard, success, surprise, talent, task, terror, thought, trick, trouble, use, way.

In some cases the choice of the preposition depends on the requirements of the modified noun, as in *surprise at*, *experience in*, *skill in*, *apology (excuse) for*, *objection to*.

*He has very much experience in driving.*

*He felt irritation at being disturbed.*

When a Gerund modifies a concrete noun it is preceded by the preposition *for*.

*The thermometer is an instrument for measuring temperature.*

### The Gerund as Adverbial Modifier

#### 1. The adverbial modifier of time.

Gerund as an adverbial modifier of time is always used with the prepositions: *on*, *after*, *in*, *before*, *since*.

*On arriving at the garden entrance, he stopped to look at the view.*

*After hesitating a moment or two, he knocked at the door.*





2. The adverbial modifier cause (introduced by the prepositions because of, for, from, for fear of, on account of, owing to, with).

*I felt better for having taken the medicine.*

*She was in a hurry for fear of being late.*

3. The adverbial modifier of manner.

Generally occurs with the prepositions by, in, or with.

*The day was spent in packing.*

*He improved his article by changing the end.*

*I cut him short by giving him a cup of tea.*

4. The adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances (requires the preposition without).

*He said something without raising his eyes.*

*He threw the cigarette out of the window without putting it out.*

5. The adverbial modifier of concession (preceded by the preposition in spite of, despite of).

*In spite of being busy, he did all he could to help her.*

6. The adverbial modifier of condition (takes the preposition without, but for, in case of, in the event of, subject to).

*You will never speak good English without learning grammar.*

*But for meeting him, I shouldn't have become an English teacher.*

7. The adverbial modifier of purpose (introduced by the preposition for, though this pattern is rather rare).

*One side of the gallery was used for dancing.*

8. The adverbial modifier of comparison (is always used with the preposition than).

*The country is much better for you than working in the hot city all summer.*



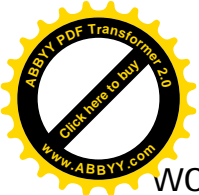
## The Gerund and the Verbal noun

In the English language besides the Gerund which is half-verb, half-noun there is a pure verbal noun ending in -ing. The main points of difference between the Gerund and the verbal noun are as follows:

The Gerund	The Verbal Noun
1. The Gerund has tense and voice forms. <i>The pleasure of seeing her again was intensified extraordinary by the welcome in her eyes... (Cronin)</i>	1. The verbal noun has naturally neither tense nor voice forms
2. The Gerund has no plural form.	2. The verbal noun may be used in the plural. <i>Our likings are regulated by our circumstances.</i>
3. The Gerund has no article.	3. The verbal noun may be used with an article ( definite or indefinite) <i>At the same moment a clapping of hands...told that the waltz had ended. (Joyce)</i>
4. The Gerund of a transitive verb takes a direct object. <i>He received more and more letters, so many that he had given up reading them. (Priestly)</i>	4. The verbal noun cannot take a direct object; it takes an object preceded by the preposition of: <i>There was the splashing of big drops on large leaves.</i>
5. The Gerund may be modified by an adverb. <i>Doing morning exercises regularly will improve your health.</i>	5. The verbal noun may be modified by an adjective. <i>The early coming of spring gladdens my heart. (Gissing)</i>

### Trouble spots

It is more difficult to discriminate between a Gerund and a noun in cases where the verbal characteristics of the verbal noun are not apparent. This happens mainly when an -ing form is used as a single



word without any modifiers or with such modifiers as occur with both the Gerund and the verbal noun (*His coming was unexpected. Her acting was perfect.*) In such cases the meaning of the form should be taken into account. Thus a Gerund suggests a process, an activity, whereas a verbal noun denotes kinds of occupation (*skating* as compared to hockey), an art form (*acting, painting*), a branch of knowledge (*engineering, spelling* as opposed to pronunciation and as a synonym for orthography).

It goes without saying that an -ing form is a pure noun when it denotes an object, often the result of activity (*a building* – a house; *a drawing, a painting* – a picture). In such cases a noun unlike a Gerund, may also combine with numerals, as in *two drawings, four buildings*, etc.

## The Gerund and the Infinitive Compared

The Gerund and the Infinitive have much in common since they both have some nominal and some verbal features. However, in the Infinitive the verbal nature is more prominent, whereas in the Gerund the nominal one.

With a number of verbs and word groups both the Gerund and the Infinitive may be used. The most important of them are: *to be afraid, to begin, to cease, to continue, to go on, can (cannot) afford, to dread, to fear, to forget, to hate, to intend, to like (dislike), to neglect, to prefer, to propose, to remember, to recollect, to start, to stop, to regret, to allow, to advise, to permit, to forbid, to try.*

The basic difference in their meaning is that the Gerund is more general, whereas the Infinitive is more specific and more bound to some particular occasion. When they combine with the same verb the difference in their meaning and use should be fully realized.



1. With the verbs *to like*, *to hate*, *to prefer* the Gerund expresses a more general or a habitual action, the Infinitive a specific single action:

*I like swimming (I am fond of swimming)*

*I shouldn't like to swim in this lake*

*I hate interrupting people*

*I hate to interrupt you, but I have to*

*They prefer staying indoors when the weather is cold.*

*I'd prefer to stay at home in this cold weather.*

The same refers to the word-group *to be afraid*.

*The child was not afraid of remaining alone, but he was afraid to remain alone on such a stormy night.*

With the verbs *to begin* and *to start* either form may generally be used but again the Gerund is preferable when the action is more general.

*She began singing when a child.*

*She went over to the piano and began to sing.*

No Gerund is used:

a) when the finite verb is in the continuous form

*He is beginning to study French.*

*It's beginning to rain.*

b) with the verbs *to understand* and *to see* (meaning to understand)

*He began to understand how it was done.*

c) when the subject denotes a thing, not a living being

*The door began to creak.*

*The clock began to strike.*



2. With the verbs *to remember* and *to forget* the Infinitive usually refers to the future, and the Gerund to the past.

*I remember posting the letters (having posted the letters)*

*Remember to post the letters!*

*I shall never forget hearing him sing (having heard).*

*Don't forget to post the letters!*

3. The verb *to regret* is followed by the Gerund to suggest priority, whereas the Infinitive suggests a simultaneous action.

*I regret not having worked harder at the language as a boy.*

*I regret to inform you.*

*I regret following (having followed) his advice.*

*I regret to have to inform you.*

4. After *to stop* the Gerund is used when it suggests the end of the action denoted by the Gerund, whereas the Infinitive is used as an adverbial of purpose.

*Stop arguing!*

*I stopped talking (and resumed reading).*

*I stopped to talk to a friend of mine (stopped in order to talk).*

5. Go on+ Gerund means "continue without interruption"; go on+ Infinitive refers to a change of activity/doing something different:

*The teacher went on explaining the use of verbals (continued).*

*The teacher went on to explain the use of the Gerund after some verbs (explained one rule and then started on another).*

6. The verb *to allow* is used with a Gerund when it is not followed by an indirect object, if there is an indirect object the Infinitive is used:

*They don't allow smoking here (smoking is not allowed)*

*They allowed us to smoke.*

The same refers to the verbs: to advise, to permit to forbid.



7. Try+Infinitive means "make an effort";

Try+Gerund means "experiment"

*Try holding your breath to stop sneezing.*

*You really must try to overcome your shyness*

The action of the Infinitive often refers to the subject of the sentence, whereas the action of the Gerund used in the same connection is not necessarily associated with the agent expressed by the subject of the sentence, but may also refer to some other agent:

*She does not like to trifle with serious thing herself.*

*She does not like trifling with serious things (either herself or when somebody else does it).*

## Constructions (Complexes) with the Gerund

Like all the verbals the Gerund can form constructions in which the verbal element is expressed by the Gerund and the nominal element is expressed by a noun in the genitive case or a possessive pronoun.

*They told us of Peter's coming here.*

*They were afraid of my finding out the truth.*

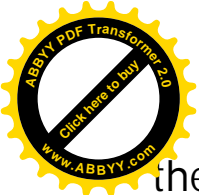
If the noun which precedes the Gerund cannot be used in the genitive case, the common case is used (when the noun denotes a lifeless thing; when it consists of two or more nouns; when it is a noun modified by an attribute in post-position).

*He did not recollect such a thing having happened to him before*

*I object to Mary and Jane going out on such a windy day.*

*Did you ever hear of a man of sense rejecting such an offer?*

Note. Two constructions of the type: *Fancy David's courting Emily* and *Fancy David courting Emily* may be used indifferently, but sometimes there is a slight difference in meaning: in the first example



the action ( the verbal element of the construction) is emphasized, whereas in the second the doer of the action ( the nominal element of the construction) is emphasized. The nominal element of the construction can also be expressed by a pronoun which has no case distinctions, such as *all, this, that, both, each, something*.

*I insist on both of them coming in time.*

Thus we can find two separate constructions: the Gerundial Construction (a construction whose nominal element is expressed by a noun in the genitive case or by a possessive pronoun ) and the Half-Gerundial Construction (a construction whose nominal element is expressed by a noun in the common case, a pronoun in the objective case, or a pronoun which has no case distinctions).

### Rendering of the Gerund

The Gerund may be rendered in Russian by an Infinitive, a noun, or a whole subordinate clause:

*She had tea with her sister before leaving.*

Перед тем как **уйти**, она выпила чаю с сестрой.

*Learning rules without examples is useless.*

**Заучивание** правил без примеров бесполезно.

*And without waiting for her answer he turned and left us.*

И, **не дожидаясь** ее ответа, он повернулся и вышел.

*Don't you remember meeting me in London?*

Разве вы не помните, что **встречали** меня в Лондоне?

*He regretted now having come.*

Теперь он сожалел, что **пришел**

Constructions with the Gerund are usually rendered in Russian by subordinate clauses introduced by **что; то, что; тем, что; как; чтобы, etc.**



*Our missing the train was most vexing.*

*Было крайне досадно, что мы опоздали на поезд.*

*His being a foreigner was bad enough.*

*То, что он был иностранец, было уже плохо.*

*Her thoughts were interrupted at last, by the door opening gently.*

*Ее мысли были наконец прерваны тем, что дверь тихонько открылась.*

*You will discuss it after my leaving.*

*Вы это обсудите после того, как я уйду.*

*I insist on your going there immediately.*

*Я настаиваю на том, чтобы вы пошли туда немедленно.*





## Test 2

Choose the correct item

1. Alice went on *to act/acting* until she was forced to retire because of her health.
2. He stopped *to have /having* coffee because it kept him awake at night.
3. He stopped *to have/having* a coffee and then he went back to work.
4. I know you are tired but please try *to concentrate/concentrating* for a few more minutes.
5. I am going to try *to drink/drinking* warm milk before I go to bed; it might help to sleep better.
6. They suggested *to postpone/postponing* the match to the following week.
7. I look forward *to seeing/to see* you at the party.
8. Flights kept *being delayed/delaying* because of bad weather.
9. Mr Jacobson reminded us of the importance *of keeping/keeping* our passports in safe place.
10. I saw someone *to climb/climbing* through the window.
11. We could see people *swimming/to swim* in the river.
12. I've always dreamt of *opening/to open* my own boutique.
13. We arrived home from our holidays only *to discover/discovering* that we had been burgled.
14. Do you fancy *ordering/to order* pizza tonight?
15. Marco Polo will be remembered for *establishing/to establish* trade between Asia and Europe.
16. Colin went on *to study/studying* for two more hours after his friends left the library.



17. She stopped *to watch/watching* the horror films because she couldn't sleep.

18. I hate *to listen/listening* to loud music when I am studying.

19. Sorry, I didn't mean *to interrupt/interrupting* your meeting, Mr Jackson.

20. You should try *to walk/walking* more. It's a great form of exercises.

21. I tried *to lift/lifting* the boxes, but they were full of books, so they were too heavy.

22. She told us her theory and went on *explaining/to explain* the details.

23. The last time I saw Alan he denied *loosing/lose* the files.

24. I regret *to tell/telling* you that your contract will not be renewed.

25. I regret *to tell/telling* you about it because it upset you.

26. You shouldn't forget *to send/sending* a greeting card to her.

27. The tutor disapproved *of his going/that he goes* abroad at this time of the year.

28. The teacher insisted *to help/on helping* John even though he had not asked to.

29. John is not accustomed *to live/to living* at a students' hostel.

30. She would never forgive him for *not doing it/for not having done* it, whatever the circumstances.



## PART III

### The Participle I

The Participle I is a non-finite form of the verb which has a verbal and adjectival or an adverbial character.

There are two participles in English – Participle I and Participle II, traditionally called the Present Participle and the Past Participle.

Participle I doesn't necessarily refer to the present, just as Participle II needn't refer to the past. The difference between them is not a difference in tense, but chiefly in voice.

Participle I is a non-finite form of the verb with some adjectival and adverbial features which are manifested in its syntactic functions (attribute or adverbial modifier).

*Do you know the man sitting in the middle of the first row?*

*Rising early, you'll make your days longer.*

Some participles have lost their verbality altogether and have become adjectives: *interesting, charming, complicated, distinguished, furnished*:

*An interesting book, a charming girl, the alarming news, a complicated problem, a distinguished writer, a furnished apartment*

The verbal characteristics of the participle are as follows:

1) Participle I of a transitive verb can take a direct object.

*Opening the door, he went out on the terrace.*

2) Participle I can be modified by an adverb.

*Leaving the room hurriedly, he ran out.*

3) Participle I has tense distinctions; Participle I of transitive verbs has voice distinctions.

In modern English Participle I has the following forms:



## Grammatical Categories of Participle I

Voice/ Correlation	Active	Passive
Non-perfect	taking	being taken
Perfect	having taken	having been taken

The category of correlation in Participle I finds its expression in the contrast of the non-perfect and perfect forms.

The non-perfect form denotes an action simultaneous with the action of the finite verb; depending on the tense form of the finite verb it may refer to the present, past or future, thus the time reference can be understood from the context.

*you know your native tongue better*

*Leaning foreign languages I used to begin my day with repeating the new words.*

*you will learn a lot about your native tongue.*

Sometimes non-perfect form of Participle I denote an action referring to no particular time.

*The last turning had brought them into the high road leading to Barth.*

The perfect form of Participle I indicates that the action denoted by the Participle I is prior to that denoted by the finite verb.

*I shall start upon French.*

*Having learnt the elements of English our students start upon French or German.*

*we started upon French.*



Non-perfect Participle I expresses immediate priority if it is formed from:

a) the verbs of motion (*to come, to arrive, to enter, to turn, to leave*);

b) verbs of sense perception (*to see, to hear, to find*);

c) verbs associated with motion (*to put, to put on, to take, to take off, to seize, to grasp, to open*).

*Turning the corner, he found his train gone.*

*Hearing a noise in the garden, I looked out of the window.*

*Taking off our shoes, we tiptoed into the nursery.*

The perfect Participle of the same verbs is used when there is a lapse of time between the two actions.

*Seeing Jane, I rushed to greet her.*

*Not having seen her for a long time, I didn't recognize her.*

Non-perfect Participle I may denote a posterior action, immediately following the first action, forming its part or being its result, as in:

*Lizzy left the room, banging the door shut.*

*John felt, hurting the knee.*

As seen from the above examples non-perfect Participle I denoting prior action usually precedes the predicate verb. When it denotes a posterior action, it stands always after the predicate verb.

Participle I of transitive verbs, both non-perfect and perfect, has voice distinctions, which are realized in the contrast of active and passive forms:

*Translating from English into Russian, he should know well both languages.*

*Having translated the text into Russian, we handed it to the teacher.*



*Being translated into many languages, the novel is known all over the world.*

*Having been translated long ago, the novel is likely to be re-translated.*

Participle I active denotes an action directed from the subject.  
Participle I passive denotes an action directed towards the subject.

## Syntactical Functions of Participle I

Participle I performs the syntactical functions characteristic of the adjective and the adverb, and can therefore be used as attribute, predicative, part of the predicative construction, as adverbial modifier. It may be used alone (a) or as headword of a participial phrase (b).

a) *Let sleeping dogs lie.*

*He drank his coffee standing.*

b) *There are some other people waiting for you.*

### Participle I as Attribute

This function is peculiar to non – perfect Participle I in its main sense , that of a process simultaneous with the action denoted by the main verb or with the moment of speech.

When a participial phrase is used as attribute it follows the modified noun.

A participial phrase may be (a) non – detached or (b) detached:

a) *We went along the street leading to the seashore.*

b) *Once a month Tommy, arriving separately, came in for a brief drink.*

A detached participial phrase is set off from the modified noun by a comma (or commas) in writing and by a pause (or pauses) in speech.



When a single Participle Is used as attribute, it generally functions as a pre modifier.

Note 1: Participle I as a pre modifying attribute differs from the Gerund in the same function. The relationship between participle and the noun differs from that of the Gerund and the noun. The noun serves as the subject of the action expressed by the participle, as in a living man = a man who lives, a burning house = a house that is burning, a dancing girl = a girl who is dancing (or dances). The Gerund suggests the destination of the object or a person's occupation, as in writing paper = paper for writing, dancing hall = a hall for dancing, a singing teacher = a teacher of singing.

Note also the difference in stress patterns. There are two stresses in the pattern with the participle (*a ,burning' house*), the second being the main stress, while in the pattern with the Gerund only the first (Gerundial) element is stressed (*a 'dancing hall*); if there are two stresses, the first component has the main stress, as in *a 'speaking, habit, a 'writing, career*.

Note 2: When a prior action is meant only an attributive clause is used.

Женщина, стоявшая на крыльце, вошла в дом.

– *The woman who had been standing on the porch went into the house.*

But: Я обратился к женщине, стоявшей на крыльце.

– *I addressed the woman standing on the porch (simultaneous actions).*

## Participle I as Adverbial Modifier

All four forms of Participle I can function as adverbial modifiers of different semantic types (time, reason, manner, attendant circumstances and sometimes condition, concession, comparison).



In some cases, however, the distinction is not so obvious. For example, there may be a combination of causal and temporal elements, as in:

*Seeing her, her stopped,* or of causal and conditional elements:

*Living alone, one becomes self – centered.*

Participle I as adverbial modifier of time

Participle I as adverbial modifier of time may denote a simultaneous or a prior action.

Non-perfect Participle I active, when used as an adverbial modifier of time, most often is a participle of the verbs of sense perception (*to see, to hear*), motion and associated with motion (*to come, to walk, to go, to arrive, to enter, to seize, to look out, to turn*) position in space (*sit, lie, stand*) and some others.

*Reaching her room, she turned on all the lights.*

*Being asked to sit down he laid his hat and stick on the table.*

Perfect Participle I as adverbial modifier of time, always denotes a prior action.

*Having opened the window, I went downstairs.*

*Having been packed, the parcel was taken to the post-office.*

The notion of time is explicitly expressed by the conjunction when and while.

*When reading this book, he remembered his childhood.*

*He continued to speak while walking down the path.*

Note: Participle I Indefinite of the verb to be is not used as an adverbial modifier of time. Clauses of the type... "Когда он был ребенком ...", "Когда он был в Киеве..." may be translated When a boy..., When he was a boy..., When in Kiev..., When he was in Kiev...





## Participle I as Adverbial Modifier of Cause

Participle I as adverbial modifier of cause can be expressed by all the four forms. The most frequently used non-perfect Participles I are the participles being and having.

*I thought I should sleep well being tired; but I didn't.*

*Having plenty of time, he did not hurry home.*

Another characteristic feature of participles functioning as adverbials of cause consists in their combinability with negation (no matter what it is expressed by).

*I turned back, not knowing where to go.*

*I returned, home, not noticing the letter on the floor.*

## Participle I as Adverbial Modifier of Attendant Circumstances

The meaning of attendant circumstances is one of the most characteristic of Participle I, it is considered to be the main grammatical meaning of non-perfect Participle I. Participle I denotes some action or event parallel to the action or state denoted by the main verb.

*They ran up the stairs talking loudly.*

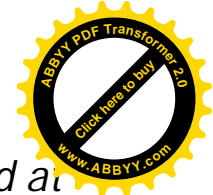
*Still they worked on, talking turns and whispering cheerfully to one another.*

## Participle I as an Adverbial Modifier of Manner

Participle I as an adverbial modifier of manner is akin to an adverbial of attendant circumstances. It is not always easy to discriminate between them. The difference consists in the fact that an adverbial of manner characterizes the action of the main verb.

*He came in limping (jumping). –He came in carrying a big parcel.*

Note: Participle phrases expressing time or cause may be replaced by an adverbial clause:



*Arriving at the cottage she found it locked. (=when she arrived at the cottage...)*

Participle phrases expressing manner cannot be replaced by subordinate clauses.

The action expressed by a Participle In the function of an adverbial modifier always refers to the subject of the sentence.

Participle I as an Adverbial Modifier of Comparison or Concession

Occasionally Participle I occurs as an adverbial modifier of comparison or concession.

As an adverbial of comparison the Participle Is always preceded by the conjunction as if, as though:

*He paused for a moment as if hesitating.*

*She looked at him as though expecting an answer.*

When Participle I is used as an adverbial of concession the idea of concession may be understood from the relationship between the modified and modifying parts of the sentence. However the conjunction though makes the semantic relationship clearer.

*Though knowing what was there, he took the paper out and walked to the window to read it.*

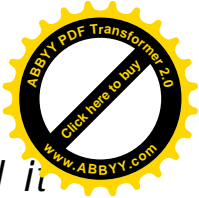
### Participle I as Predicative

In the position of predicative only non-perfect Participle I active occurs.

Participle I as predicative can be distinguished from Participle I as part of the continuous form with the help of its distribution:

*The children are amusing\_ = they seem amusing to me.*

*But: They are amusing me*



*The music is deafening = it seems deafening to me, I find it deafening.*

*But: The music is deafening me*

### Participle I as Parenthesis

Here we find such participial phrases as:

*generally (properly, roughly, legally, strictly) speaking,*

*putting it mildly,*

*judging by (from),*

*allowing for,*

*taking everything into consideration, etc.*

*Judging from what you say, he ought to succeed.*

## Participial Constructions with Participle I

### The Objective Participial Construction

The Objective Participial Construction consists of a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the objective case and Participle I

*I saw John playing tennis.*

*I saw him playing tennis.*

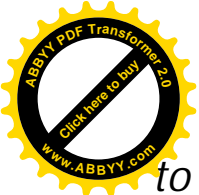
It performs the function of a complex object. As in its meaning it corresponds to a subordinate clause it is usually translated into Ukrainian by a subordinate object clause:

*Я бачив, як Джон грає в теніс.*

The construction is generally used with non – perfect Participle I active and occasionally it occurs with Participle I passive:

*I could see the decision being taken.*

Note: Some of the verbs followed by the Objective Participial Construction occur with the objective infinitival construction (such as



*to see, to watch, to hear, to feel*). The difference between these two constructions concerns the meaning suggested by an Infinitive or Participle I, the former emphasizes the fact of an action being completed, the latter its processual character, as in:

*I saw the car stop at the gate* – Я видел, что машина остановилась у ворот.

*I saw the car stopping.* – видел, как машина остановилась у ворот.

If the homogeneous Infinitives are used, they denote two actions in succession. If two participles I are homogeneous, they suggest two simultaneous actions.

*I heard him leave the room and lock the door.* – Я слышал, как ты вышел из комнаты и запер ее.

*Soames saw Bosinney watching her and smiling to himself* – Сомс увидел, что Босинни наблюдал за ней и улыбался сам себе.

The Objective Participial Construction is used:

a) With verbs of sense perception: *to see, to notice, to find, to listen(to), to hear, to observe, to catch, to feel, to perceive, to discover, to watch, to smell, to look (at)*

*We listened to the train approaching the station.*

*Do you smell something burning?*

*He found her sitting at the breakfast-table.*

*I felt him looking at me.*

*Don't let me catch you doing that again!*

b) With various verbs of causative meaning: *to have, to leave, to get, to start, to keep, to set.*

*I won't have you smoking at your age!*

*They soon got (started) things going.*

*Don't keep me waiting, I'm in a hurry.*



*Your words set me thinking.*

*Can you start (set)\_that engine going?*

Note 1: The verbs to have, to get may be used in the construction without their causative meaning, as in:

*I have some students waiting for me.*

*I've got my grandson staying for a week.*

c) Occasionally with verbs expressing wish: *to want, to like*

*I don't want you talking back to me.*

*She didn't like me leaving so early.*

### The Subjective Participial Construction

The Subjective Participial Construction consists of a noun in the common case or a pronoun in the nominative case. It performs the function of a complex subject. The construction is chiefly used after verbs of sense perception in the passive voice, such as *to see, to hear, to feel, to find, to catch,* also some causative verbs, such as *to keep, to leave.*

*They were heard laughing in the kitchen.*

*He could be seen following her with his eyes.*

*The boy was caught teasing the cat.*

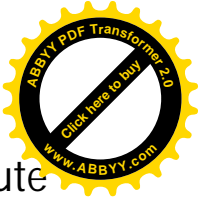
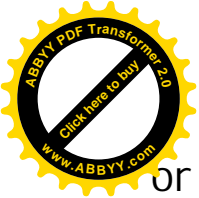
*I was kept waiting an hour or so.*

*I was left standing on the stage.*

Sentences of this type are translated into Ukrainian by indefinite personal or impersonal sentences, complex or simple, depending on the verb in the passive voice.

### The Nominative Absolute Participial Construction

The Absolute Participle Complex is a construction in which a participle has its own subject expressed by a noun in the common case



or a personal pronoun in the nominative case. In the Absolute Participle Complex all the forms of the Participle are used.

The difference between a participial phrase and a Nominative Absolute Participial Construction may be illustrated as follows:

*Having read the novel Jane (she) put it aside*

*The novel having been read, Jane (she) put it aside.*

The Absolute Participle Complex is used in the function of adverbial modifiers of time, cause, manner or attendant circumstances and condition.

*The rain having stopped we went home.*

*The student knowing English well, the examination did not last long.*

*It being very dark, I could see nothing there.*

Note: As well as in sentences with participial phrases causal and temporal meanings may be combined, as in:

*Ice having thus been broken, the two former rivals grew still more affectionate.*

Note. A Nominative Absolute Participial Construction of attendant circumstances stands in postposition.

*Weather permitting, we shall start tomorrow.*

### Prepositional Absolute Participial Construction with Participle I

A prepositional absolute construction differs from a non-prepositional participial construction in that it is introduced by the preposition with. Its nominal part is usually a noun in the common case, or very rarely a personal pronoun in the objective case. It is not necessarily set off by a comma.

The main syntactical function of the construction is an adverbial modifier of attendant circumstances.



*By twelve o'clock, with the sun pouring into the room, the heat became quite oppressive.*

*At a distance was a neat hamlet, with the smoke from the cottage chimneys hanging over it.*

The meaning of attendant circumstances may be combined with temporal or causal ones:

*I won't speak with him staring at me like that.*

## Participle I and the Gerund Compared

Participle I and the Gerund are alike in their verbal characteristics, both morphological (the categories of voice and correlation) and syntactical (verbal combinability).

The difference between the two lies in their non-verbal characteristics, that is in their syntactical functions and non-verbal combinability. Participle I, unless substantivized, cannot be used as subject or object, whereas such use is typical of the noun and therefore of the Gerund.

When used as adverbial modifier or attribute, Participle I like an adjective or an adverb is never preceded by a preposition. On the other hand when the Gerund is used as attribute or adverbial modifier it is preceded by a preposition like a noun in these functions.

The difference between the two is also to be found in the nominal tendencies of the Gerund and the adjectival tendencies of Participle I. The is most evident in their function of a predicative and an attribute.

As predicative Participle I gives qualitative characteristics to the subject, thus tending towards an adjective, as in:

*The sound of the thunder was deafening.*

The Gerund does not qualify the subject, it rather identifies the subject by revealing its meaning, as in:



*His favourite occupation is collecting stamps (or playing football or just football)*

When a Gerund or a Participle Is used as an attribute, the difference between them does not lie only in the absence, or presence of the preposition, but also in their meaningful relationship to the modified noun.

Participle I denotes an action that the person or thing performs or experiences:

*What is the name of the man talking with your sister?*

Thus the modified noun forms the subject to the participle.

The Gerund usually reveals the meaning of the modified noun, which never denotes the performer of the action.

*That was my last chance of seeing him.*

When used as an adverbial modifier, the Gerund is more varied in its application than the participle because it is used with different prepositions.

The participle and the Gerund are interchangeable when used as adverbials of time characterizing the verb through simultaneous or prior events:

*(In) discussing the plan ,we heard a lot of helpful suggestions.*

*(On) entering the room, he closed the door.*

*After discussing the plan we started carrying it out.*

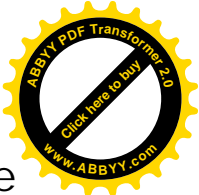
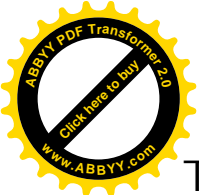
*Having discussed the plan...*

Only the Gerund is possible when the starting or the final point of the action is meant , as in :

*He has never been at his native town since leaving it in 2004.*

*You must get your parents permission before leaving for the mountains.*





## The Differences between the Gerund and the participle

	The Gerund	The Participle
Is preceded by a preposition	Yes	No
Is modified by a noun in the genitive case/ possessive pronoun	Yes	No
As a subject	Yes	No
As a predicative	Yes	Yes
As a part of a compound verbal predicate	Yes	Yes
As an object	Yes	Yes
As an attribute	With prepositions	Without prepositions
As adverbial modifiers	With prepositions	Without prepositions



## Test 3

Find the participles and participial constructions and state their form and function in the sentence

1. Dressing myself as quickly as I could I went for a walk.
2. She came into the dressing-room to look for things belonging to their father and mother.
3. Mary stood for a time in silence, watching and listening.
4. Still looking at me, she took her head while I was speaking.
5. I saw a passing shadow on her face.
6. He walked around saying nothing.
7. Mary sat still looking at the writing.
8. We sat there talking about our pleasant old Canterbury days.
9. They ran to the steps leading down to water.
10. She opened the door and heard their voices speaking.
11. She found an old man and his granddaughter sitting at breakfast.
12. Antony saw his younger brother coming.
13. She had seen him reading it over.
14. I saw the mild eye of the good old doctor turned upon me for a moment.
15. And so often he overheard them discussing so interesting things.
16. Her heart beating, Marry hurried home.
17. I saw him going downstairs early in the morning.
18. He saw her sitting in bed, her golden hair floating behind her.
19. The weather being very cold, she heated the room
20. Her daughter having fallen ill, she sent for a doctor.



## PART IV

### Participle II

Participle II is a non-finite form of the verb with verbal and adjectival features (for the formation of Participle II see Note). Participle II stands apart from the other non-finites, in that it does not possess their morphological categories.

One of the most essential characteristics of Participle II is that when it is used a part of the sentence, Participle II of a transitive verb is passive in meaning, Participle II of an intransitive verb is active.

Thus the participles *invited, told, taken* are semantically passive. The participles *arrived, gone, risen* are semantically active.

Participle II has no tense-forms. It expresses either that the action of the participle precedes the action of the finite form of the verb, or that it is simultaneous to the action of the finite form.

This difference depends on the lexical character of the verb. With terminative verbs (see "Terminative, Durative and Mixed verbs") Participle II expresses an action already completed, that is, an action which precedes the action expressed by the finite form of the verb in the sentence (*broken, opened, closed, translated, built, made, written, etc.*).

*A few rough logs, laid side by side served for a bridge over this stream. (Irving)*

*A few early fallen leaves strewed the terrace already... (Galsworthy.)*

*Andrew lay with closed eyes... (Cronin)*

*... a broken child's toy lies upon the floor... (Dickens)*

But depending on the context, Participle II of a terminative verb may lose its perfective meaning and indicate an action which is simultaneous to the action of the finite form of the verb:



*Give me some words written with a final y in English.*

With durative verbs (see “Terminative, Durative and Mixed Verbs”) Participle II has no perfective meaning and denotes an action simultaneous to the action of the finite form of the verb :

*“The time was coming when I should see him loved, trusted, admired ” (Conrad.)*

*I was highly amused. (Conrad).*

The adjectival nature of Participle II manifests itself in its function in the sentence, which is usually that of either attribute or predicative. It may combine with adverbs of degree peculiar to adjectives, such as *very, too, slightly, much, more*, as in:

*I am very pleased with you.*

*The children were too excited to notice the newcomer.*

*No man has ever had a more devoted sister than I.*

Instead of the negation not, which we find with the other nonfinites, Participle II is often negated with the prefix un-, as in *unfinished, unanswered*.

Participle II may undergo adjectivization, sometimes acquiring qualitative meaning and becoming synonymous with an adjective, as in *celebrated – famous, tired – weary*. Some of these deverbal adjectives have true participles as homonyms. For example, compare these phrases:

*the celebrated professor and the anniversary celebrated all over the world.*

Similar to adjectives and Participle I, Participle II may form adverbs with the help of the suffix – ly: *fixedly, unhurriedly, admittedly*.



Participle II may be accompanied by an adverbial modifier expressed by adverbs or phrases combining with verbs : *a house built two years before, man hidden in the bush, a play well acted, a story long forgotten.*

## Syntactical Functions of Participle II

As part of the sentence Participle II may stand alone or be the headword of a participial phrase. It may function as an attribute (close or detached) , predicative or as an adverbial modifier.

### Participle II as Attribute

Participle II usually functions either as premodifier when it stands alone (a) or form a very short participial phrase containing an adverb (b). The verbal character of the Participle In the first case is made clear only by its lexical meaning:

- a) *First of all she went to the bombed building ;*
- b) *It was a neatly written letter.*

Sometimes the preposition is kept:

*The room even had a faint perfume about it which gave it a lived in air.*

As a post modifier Participle II manifests its verbal character more explicitly, even when it stands alone. It may be accompanied by a preposition phrases as adverbial modifiers.

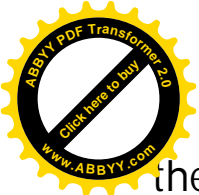
*Things seen are mightier than things heard.*

*The dictionary referred to is to be found in our library.*

*These are cities inhabited by their creators.*

*Two women dimly seen in the shadow are talking softly.*

When Participle II or participial phrase is detached, its position is not fixed. It may occupy the initial position, the mid-position or the final position in the sentence. Detached attributes are separated from



the noun by a comma in writing and by a pause in speech. They are confined to literary style only.

*Greatly excited, the children followed her into the garden.*

*" ... this plant, hidden from the light, has kept its flowers till the autumn"*

*And people hurried by, hidden under their dreadful umbrellas.*

### Participle II as Predicative

In his function Participle II denotes a state, as in:

*You seem surprised.*

*He looks perplexed and troubled.*

*The door remained locked.*

Participle II of intransitive verbs may be used as an independent element of the sentence (attribute or predicative) only when the verb expresses an action which results in creating a certain state as quality.

Attribute: *a faded flower, a withered leaf, a retired sea captain, a deserted island, a grown-up girl.*

*..... the withered leaves came showering down.*

Predicative: *The rose is faded.*

*The bunches were withered.*

Note: Participle II of an intransitive verb which governs its object by means of a preposition (to look for..., to stare at..., to talk about, etc.) when used attributively retains the preposition which is often written with a hyphen:

*An unlooked-for circumstance.*

*An un hoped-for pleasure.*

*Things never heard of before.*

*A book quoted from.*

*A man stared at, or talked about.*



*A child properly looked after,  
It is an un hoped-for pleasure to see you with us again.  
It is a book much talked about...  
a most unlooked-for incident occurred...(Dickens)*

### Participle II as Adverbial Modifier

The adverbial function and meaning of Participle II can be seen only from the general meaning of the sentence. Thus, if considered by itself the participial phrase, *arrived there* does not suggest any idea of time, but in the context of the sentence *arrived there, he went into a shop* the phrase acquires the function and meaning of an adverbial modifier of the time. In the vast majority of cases, when used adverbially, Participle II is preceded by a conjunction, which explicitly indicates the semantic type of the adverbial modifier.

Participle II may serve as an adverbial modifier of:

Time, usually with the conjunction when or until:

*When praised, he was ill at ease.*

*He won't stop arguing until interrupted.*

Cause:

*Frightened by the dog, the child began to cry.*

Condition, mostly with the conjunction if or unless:

*If cornered, he can tell a lie.*

*John will speak for hours, unless interrupted.*

Concession, with the conjunction though or although

*Though wounded, the soldier didn't leave the battlefield.*

Comparison, with the conjunction as if or as though:

*"I get off the train", he repeated as if hypnotized.*

*As if torn with inner conflict and indecision, he cried.*



## Predicative Constructions with Participle II

### The Objective Participial Construction with Participle II

The Objective Participial Construction with Participle II consists of a noun in the common case or a personal pronoun in the objective case and Participle II.

*I must have my watch mended.*

*I never heard him spoken of badly.*

The construction is used with:

a) verbs of causative meaning: *to have, to get, to make;*

*You must have your photo taken.*

*Where did you have your hair done?*

*I won't have my best friend laughed at.*

*We must get our tickets registered.*

*The speaker made himself heard with the help of a microphone.*

b) verbs of sense perception: *to see, to hear, to feel, to find;*

*I saw Jane addressed by a stranger.*

*have you ever heard the writer's name mentioned before?*

*We found the door locked.*

*She turned round to pick up her bag and found it stolen.*

c) verbs of wish and preference: *to wish, to want, to like, to prefer;*

*I want the answer sent at once.*

*We prefer the letters answered by the chief.*

d) some verbs of mental activity: *to think, to believe, to consider, to understand;*

*I consider the work finished.*





## The Nominative Absolute Participial Construction with Participle II

The construction consists of a noun or a pronoun and Participle II. The Nominative Absolute Participial Construction with Participle II has the syntactical function of a detached adverbial modifier of:

a) attendant circumstances

*The next day I observed you – myself unseen – for half an hour.*

*We walked along hurriedly, her purse clutched tightly in her hands.*

b) manner

*He sat on the sofa, his legs crossed.*

c) time

*The preparation completed, we started off.*

*Today, a symphony finished, Leonard spoke of famous conductors.*

d) cause

*We began to talk, but my attention distracted by my surroundings, I took small notice of him.*

e) condition

*He was a gentlemen, but he was passionate, the cup once slipped, would he consent to put it down?*

## The Prepositional Absolute Construction with Participle II

The construction differs from the nominative absolute construction with Participle II in that it is introduced by the preposition with, its nominal element hardly ever presented by a pronoun.

The main syntactical function of the construction is that of an adverbial modifier of manner or attendant circumstances.



*It is unhealthy to sleep with the windows shut.*

*She went on reading with her eyes fixed on the pages of the book.*

Note. An additional idea of time, reason or condition may be prompted by the context, as in:

*I can't walk with my leg broken.*

### Absolute Constructions Without a Participle

<p>It is expressed by its second element: an adjective, a prepositional phrase, an adverb – the nominative absolute construction;</p> <p>the prepositional absolute construction;</p> <p>The Nominative Absolute Participial Construction and the nominative absolute construction are separated by a comma or semicolon.</p>	<p><i>The work on his paper over, Harry decided to relax for a while.</i></p> <p><i>She won't be able to help us with all her family commitments.</i></p>
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## Test 4

State the function of the Participle II and constructions with Participle II in the following sentences

1. The doll lay deserted on the porch.
2. I had heard these topics argued between the scientists for years.
3. Friendship restored, we walked along together.
4. Dogs have often been seen killed on the road.
5. But what if he had his money stolen?
6. The plant has withered because it was left exposed to the sun.
7. She sat down on a fallen tree to do the Times cross-word puzzle.
8. The probability is that there won't be anything left to wait for.
9. Bernard found himself compelled to read and give his opinion on one or two books.
10. That done, he felt almost obliged to leave the room.
11. The dog was found tied to a tree.
12. When challenged, he denied it.
13. But this friend of yours looks odd to me and he gets himself talked about.
14. This done, Margot travelled back to fetch the boy.
15. He made undergraduates, newly arrived in London, feel that they were important.
16. All things considered, there was nothing to be done now.
17. It was clear to him that she would go back on the whole thing if given half a chance.



18. I looked at him as if I were surprised to see him there.

19. Freddy felt very relieved.

20. As I was busy finishing the article, I got the new fellow sent instead of me.



## Exit test

Supply the appropriate verbal for the following sentences

1. They stared at each other, Dan... with his tea cup and Willy... out in the chair. (to stand, to stretch)
2. The snow never stopped ... that afternoon. It was dreadful... outdoors. (to fall, to be)
3. The thought came ... into his mind. (to flash)
4. I spent some time with Tom ... the maps of the country. (study)
5. He was accustomed to ...through the morning noises of the neighborhood. (to sleep)
6. She couldn't help... into her conversation the names of people she knew (to drop).
7. It is true that... is ... and ... (to understand, to pity, to forgive)
8. He walked down the street, not... where...or what... (to know, to turn, to do)
9. Bob glanced away from his mother so as not... the tears in her eyes.(to see)
10. She woke up at half past ten in the morning ... her husband... (to find, to go)
11. They said that Roger had been known... her between five and seven in the evening, on the dates ... down. (to visit, to set)
12. There were several ships ... in the harbour. (to anchor)
13. She opened the door just in time... Tom... round the corner. (to see, to disappear)
14. Not ... your letters, I haven't any idea what you are talking about (to read)
15. He took the first opportunity ... for his rudeness. (to apologize)



16. I am too old... my ways. (to change)
17. It might be worth.... (to try)
18. He was sitting with his hands ...round his knee, ... at the water. (to clasp, to stare)
19. She looked at a ... photograph of Jimmy. (to frame)
20. Suddenly they saw him... his temper and were uncomfortable. (to lose)

## Suppl ements

### I. Regular and Irregular Verbs

Owing to the historical development of the verb system the English verbs fall into two groups: *regular* and *irregular verbs*.

The regular verbs, which go back to the Germanic weak verbs, constitute the larges group. The past indefinite and Participle II of these verb are formed by means of the dental suffix *-ed* added to the stem of the verb. This is the productive pattern according to which all new verbs form their past indefinite and Participle II.

The irregular verbs form their past indefinite and Participle II according to some fixed tradition patterns going back partly to the Germanic strong verbs, partly to the weak verbs, which underwent some changes in the process of history.

#### Pronunciation Rules of the Suffix *-ed*

The suffix *-ed* is pronounced in three ways:

1) [id] when the verb stem ends in the dental consonant:

skate – skated decide – decided

chat – chatted end – ended

2) [d] when the stem ends in any voiced sound except [d]:

live – lived

stay – stayed

travel – travelled

change – changed



3) [t] when the stem ends in any voiceless sound except [t]:

### Spelling Rules of the Verb Forms with the Suffix *-ed*

1) The letter -d is added to stems ending in -e:

skate – skated          free – freed

2) In all the other cases the letters -ed are added:

stay – stayed          talk – talked

The final consonant letter is doubled if it is single and follows a single vowel in a stressed syllable:

nod – nodded          permit – permitted

stop – stopped          refer – referred

stir – stirred          compel – compelled

The final -l is doubled even in an unstressed syllable (British English):

travel – travelled          cancel – cancelled

In some words the final -p is doubled in the same position:

kidnap – kidnapped          worship – worshipped

handicap – handicapped

The final -y is changed to -i if it is preceded :

cry – cried          reply – replied

The irregular verbs are about 250 in number. They can be arranged in the following way:

Group 1. Verbs changing their root vowel both in the past indefinite and Participle II:

begin – began – begun          sing – sang – sung

Some of these verbs keep the old suffix of Participle II -en:

rise – rose – risen          write – wrote – written







Group 6. Verbs having the same form for the Infinitive, the past form and Participle II :

cut – cut – cut

hurt – hurt – hurt

put – put – put

thrust – thrust – thrust

Group 7. Suppletive verbs:

go – went – gone

be – was/were – been

Group 8. Verbs of mixed formation, regular and irregular:

crow – crew – crowed

show – showed – shown

## II. Formation of Participle I

Participle I of both regular and irregular verbs is composed by adding the suffix -ing to the stem of the verb. In writing the following rules of spelling are observed:

1) if the stem ends in a mute -e, the -e is dropped before adding -ing:

skate – skating

2) if the stem ends in a single consonant letter preceded by a single vowel letter of a stressed syllable, the consonant letter is doubled:

stop – stopping permit – permitting

nod – nodding refer – referring

stir – stirring compel – compelling

3) if the stem ends in -l after a single vowel of an unstressed syllable, the -l is doubled (British English):

travel – travelling

cancel – cancelling



The same refers to some words ending in -p:

kidnap – kidnapping

worship – worshipping

handicap – handicapping

4) verbs ending in -ie drop the final -e and change i into y before taking the suffix -ing:

lie – lying

die – dying

Note. The same rules apply to the formation of the Gerund.

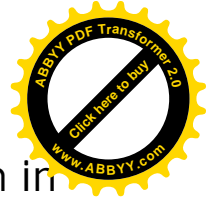
### III Terminative, Durative and Mixed Verbs

1. According to their lexical character verbs in English may be classified into two groups: terminative verbs and durative verbs. Besides these two main groups there is an extensive group of verbs of a mixed (or double) character (terminative and durative).

2. A terminative verb expresses an action which has a final aim in view, a certain limit beyond which the action cannot be continued. For instance the final aim of the action expressed by the verb *to close* does not go.

To the class of terminative verbs belong such verbs as *to close, to open, to come, to bring, to build, to settle, to find, to lose, to break*, etc. Also compound verbs (verb + adverb) such as *to sit down, to stand up, to tie down, to take off, to look out*, etc. Here also belong verbs expressing point actions (миттєві дії) such as *to throw, to jump, to drop, to burst, to clap, to seize, to catch, to nod*, etc.:

"But I have not finished my story," he said. (London.) He opened the door with a latch-key... (London.) Tom stopped immediately in his walk. (Eliot.) ... the boy opened his eyes and sat up with a bewildered air. (Voynich.) Martin seemed immediately to wake up. (London.)



3. A durative verb expresses an action which has no final aim in view, no limit beyond which the action cannot be continued. To the class of durative verbs belong such verbs as *to like, to love, to admire, to esteem, to hate, to detest, to hope, to wish, to want, to possess, to sleep, to lie, to move, to work, to watch, to shine, to smoke, to smoke, etc.*

He loved the Old Masters of painting... (*Galsworthy*.) " I wish you wouldn't smoke any more." (*London*.) " How do you like Thornfield?" (*Bronte*.) The man did not move. (*Gordon*.) He watched the two of them... (*Galsworthy*.) " Well, you ought to sleep..." (*Galsworthy*.)

4. Verbs of a mixed (or double) lexical character are such verbs which may have durative meaning in one context and terminative meaning in another. Thus in sentence... *I stood at the head of the stairs.* (*Maurier*) / (Я стояла...) the verb *to stand* has durative meaning. In the sentence *He went and stood by the window.* (*Maurier*) (Він пішов та став...) the verb *to stand* has terminative meaning.

To the class of mixed verbs belong such verbs as *to sit, to stand, to kneel, to know, to remember, etc.*

#### Durative meaning

He sat very still a moment.

(Він сидів...)

Meggie stood motionless...

(Мегі стояла...)

I knelt there watching his face.

(Я стояла навколішках...)

I remember every detail of that evening.

(Я пам'ятаю...)

#### Terminative meaning

I went and sat beside him.

(Я пішла і сіла...)

He came and stood before me.

(Він підійшов і став...)

I went and knelt beside him.

(Я пішла і стала навколішки...)

Then he remembered his long buried past...

(Тоді він згадав...)



Compare the following:

To the class of mixed verbs belong also such verbs as *to see, to hear, to read, to write, to sing, to play, to draw*, etc. These verbs have durative meaning when they denote actions of a general character (the ability of seeing, writing, etc.) and terminative meaning when they are used with reference (*to hear a noise, to read a book, to write a letter, etc.*)

Compare the following:

Durative meaning

"Can you read" asked Mr. Dombey. (Ви умієте читати?...)

"Do you draw?"  
(Ви малюєте?...)

Do you play and sing, Miss Bennet? (Ви граєте та співаєте?...)

Terminative meaning

He longed to read his stories to Ruth...

(Він прагнув прочитати..)

I took a sheet of fine cardboard, and drew a careful outline.

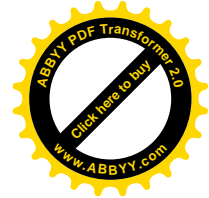
(Я...намалювала...)

"Play me some Chopen."

(Зіграйте мені Шопена...)

"I'll get him to sing a song before he goes."

(Я змушу його заспівати...)



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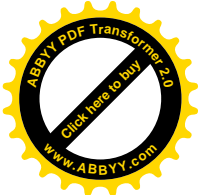


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