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Theme:

NON-FINITE FORMS OF THE VERBS

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THE NON-FINITE FORMS OF THE VERB

Verbals are the forms of the verb intermediary in many of their lexicogrammatical features between the verb and the non-processual parts of speech. Thus, these forms possess some verbal and some non-verbal features. The non-finite forms are four in number, they are: the infinitive, the gerund, participle I and participle II. Non-finites possess the verb categories of voice, perfect, and aspect. Syntactically the verbal character of non-finites is manifested mainly in their combinability. All non-finite verb forms may participate in the so-called predicative constructions.

THE INFINITIVE

The infinitive serves as the verbal name of a process. It is considered as the head-form of the whole paradigm of the verb. The infinitive has a double nature: it combines verbal features with those of the noun. The verbal features of the infinitive are of two kinds: morphological and syntactical. Morphological: the infinitive distinguishes three grammatical categories sharing them with the finite verb, namely, the aspective category of development (continuous in opposition), the aspective category of retrospective coordination (perfect in opposition), the category of voice (passive in opposition). Thus, the infinitive of transitive verbs has six forms. The verb-type combinability of the infinitive is displayed in its combining, first, with nouns expressing the object of the action; second, with nouns expressing the subject of the action; third, with modifying adverbs. The infinitive performs the functions of all types of notional sentence-parts, i. e. the subject, the object, the predicative, the attribute, the adverbial modifier

THE GERUND

The gerund is a non-finite form of the verb with some noun features. The gerund serves as the verbal name of a process. The general combinability of the gerund is dual. Morphologically the verbal character of the gerund is manifested in the categories of voice and perfect. The verb-type combinability of the gerund is displayed in its combining with with nouns expressing the object of the action; second, with modifying adverbs; third, with certain semi-functional predicator verbs, but other than modal. The nominal character of the gerund reveals itself syntactically, mainly in its syntactical function, partly in its combinability. Like a noun, it can function as subject, object, or predicative. When it is an attribute or an adverbial modifier, a gerund, like a noun is preceded by a preposition. The fact that the gerund can associate with a preposition is a sure sign of noun features. Like a noun, but unlike the other nonfinites, it can combine with a possessive pronoun and a noun in the genitive case denoting the doer of the action expressed by the gerund. It distinguishes two grammatical categories: of retrospect (perfect in opposition), and the category of voice (passive in opposition). Thus, the categorial paradigm of the gerund of the objective verb includes four forms. The gerund performs the functions of all types of notional sentence-parts, i. e. the subject, the object, the predicative, the attribute, the adverbial modifier

THE PARTICIPLE

There are two forms of the participle – participle I and participle II. *The* present participle is the non-finite form of the verb which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective and adverb, serving as the qualifying-processual name. Since it possesses some traits both of adjective and adverb, the present participle is not only dual, but triple by its lexicogrammatical properties, which is displayed in its combinability, as well as in its syntactic functions. *The past participle* is the non-finite form of the verb which combines the properties of the verb with those of the adjective, serving as the

qualifying-processual name. The verbal character of participle I is manifested morphologically in the categories of voice and perfect and syntactically in its combinability. The adjectival and adverbial features of participle I are manitested in its syntactical functions as an attribute and an adverbial modifier. The adjectival nature of participle II manifests itself in its function in the sentence, which is usually that of either attribute or predicative. The verbal character of participle II is manifested in its combinability. The present participle distinguishes the grammatical categories of retrospective coordination and voice. Thus, the categorial paradigm of the present participle of the objective verb includes four forms. The past participle is a single form, having no paradigm of its own.

THE ADJECTIVE

The meaning of adjective is property of the thingness. According to the way of nomination all the adjectives are traditionally divided into two large subclasses: qualitative and relative. According to their morphological composition adjectives can be subdivided into simple, derived and compound. Only qualitative adjectives have the category of degrees of comparison (positive, comparative, superlative) Ways of formation may be synthetic, analytical and suppletive. The synthetic way is by adding the suffixes-er, -estt. This means is found with monosyllabic and some disyllabic adjectives in which the stress falls on the last syllable, in which the second syllable is the syllabic [1], with adjectives in-er, -y, -some, -ow. Polysyllabic adjectives form their degrees of comparison analytically, by means of more and most. Several adjectives form their degrees of comparison irregularly. These are suppletive forms. In the sentence the adjective performs the functions of an attribute and a predicative. Of the two, the more specific function of the adjective is that of an attribute, since the function of a predicative can be performed by the noun as well.

The stative denotes a temporary state of a person or a non-person. Unlike such classes of words as nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs the number of statives functioning in English is limited. There are about 30 stable statives, used both in colloquial and in formal style and about 100 unstable ones, which are seldom used even in formal style and never in colloquial. Semantically statives fall into five groups describing various states of persons or non-persons.

From the point of view of their morphological composition the class of statives is homogeneous, that is all of them have a special marker, the prefix a. As regards their structure, statives with the marker a- fall into two groups: those that can be divided into morphemes (the prefix a- and the stem of a noun, a verb, or an adjective), and those that cannot be divided because the part following a-does not correspond to any noun, verb, or adjective stem (aloof, aware, afraid). When they have the function of objective predicative, statives describe the state of the person or non-person denoted by the object. Although the function of attribute is not characteristic of statives, some of them may have this function (either detached or undetached attributes). Thus, the analysis shows that statives, though forming a unified set of words, do not constitute a separate lexemic class existing in language. They should be looked upon as a subclass within the general class of adjectives. Statives as undetached attributes are always postmodifying. When used as detached attributes, statives may be either post- or premodifying.

There are 3 types of adverbs in modern Grammatik: qualitative (-ly или совпадают), quantitative (very, too, extremely), circumstantial (of time – tomorrow, of place – here). Adverbs vary in their structure. There are simple, derived, compound, and composite adverbs. Simple e.g. *after, here, well.* Derived e.g. *lately, sideways, home-wards*. Compound e.g. *sometimes, downstairs, everywhere.* Composite phrasal e.g. *a little bit, far enough, sort of/*

The three grades are calledpositive, comparative, and superlative degrees. Only qualitative adverbs can have degrees of comparison. Adverbs that are identical in form with adjectives take inflections following the same spelling and phonetic rules as for adjectives. However most disyllabic adverbs in-*ly* and all polysyllabic ones form the comparative and superlative analytically, by means of *more* and *most*. There is a small group of adverbs with comparatives and superlatives formed from different stems (suppletive forms). Adverbs may function as adverbial modifiers of manner, place, time, degree to a finite or non-finite form of the verb. Adverbs may also function as adverbial modifiers to an adjective or another adverb.

The verb has finite and non-finite forms, the latter being also called verbals. The verbals are 3 in number: the Infinitive, the Gerund and the Participle (I, II)

The verbals combine the characteristics of a verb with some other parts of speech.

The Infinitive and the Gerund combine the characteristics of a verb and a noun

They can be used in sentences as a subject or an object, both syntactical functions being typical of the noun.

e.g. To bathe in the sea is pleasant. (subject)

He spoke of going there. (object)

The Participle combines the characteristics of <u>a verb and an adjective</u> or <u>a verb and an</u>
<u>adverb</u>

e.g. *The mountains were reddened by the <u>setting</u> sun.* (attribute)

<u>Having gathered</u> a whole basket of mushrooms the children went home. (AM of time)

SIMILARITIES

1. Like the finite forms of the verb the verbals have voice, tense and aspect distinctions: e.g. to write – to be written (voice)

to write – to have written (tense and aspect)

What is traditionally called "tenses" of the finite forms differs greatly from the tenses of the non-finite forms. The latter comprise relative time indication. They don't show whether the action they denote refers to the present, past or future; they indicate only whether the action expressed by the verbals is **simultaneous** with the action of the finite verb or **prior** to it:

e.g. I see you run/running. (simultaneous action)

I'm glad to have met you. (prior action)

2. The verbals can take a direct object (if the verb is a transitive one):

e.g. I want to read a book.

Reading good books is a pleasure.

My wife is sitting in an armchair, reading <u>a book</u>.

3. The verbals can be modified by adverbs:

e.g. I would like to speak English <u>fluently</u>.

Writing quickly tires my hands.

He came in laughing loudly.

The Infinitive

The Infinitive is historically a noun derived from a verb stem. In MnE the Infinitive is commonly used with the particle "to". In most cases it is merely the sign of the Infinitive, but sometimes it has preserved its OE meaning: "in order to", "in purpose of":

e.g. We came here to study.(=We came here in order to study)

Verb Characteristics of the Infinitive

1. The Infinitive has: **tense**, **aspect and voice distinctions**:

	Active	Passive
Indefinite	to write	to be written
Continuous	to be writing	
Perfect	to have written	to have been written
Perfect Continuous		

to have been writing

Note: At first the Infinitive had only one form (active), which had either an active or a passive meaning. In the course of time the passive form of the Infinitive developed. Traces of the old form with the passive meaning are still found in some sentences: e.g. ^ We are not to blame. (**not:** We are to be blamed) Ми не винні.

- 1) <u>The Indefinite Infinitive</u> expresses the action <u>simultaneous</u> with the action of the finite form of the verb:
- e.g. I saw her cross the street.

In connection with the present tense of such verbs as **to expect**, **to intend**, **to hope**, **to want** the Indefinite Infinitive refers to an action in the future:e.g. *I expect to go there tomorrow*.

When we use the modal verbs and their equivalents the Indefinite Infinitive may also refer to a future action: e.g. *It may rain tomorrow*.

- 2) <u>The Continuous Infinitive</u> denotes an action <u>simultaneous</u> with the action of the finite form of the verb, but this action is <u>in progress</u>: e.g. *They happened to be standing near us*.
- 3) <u>The Perfect Infinitive</u> indicates an action <u>prior</u> to the action expressed by the finite form of the verb: e.g. *I'm glad to have taken your advice*.

After the <u>past</u> tense of the verbs **to hope, to mean, to expect, to intend** the Perfect Infinitive is used to indicate that the action was <u>not carried out</u>: e.g. *He hoped to have*

come.

I meant to have written a letter.

The same meaning can be conveyed with the help of modal verbs **should**, **ought**, **could**, **might** and **was/were** in modal meaning: e.g. *He should have stayed at home*.

- 4) <u>The Perfect-Continuous</u> Infinitive denotes an action, which lasted a certain time before the action of the finite verb:
- e.g. For some days we seemed to have been living on nothing but bread.
- **2.** The Infinitive of a transitive verb takes a direct object:
- e.g. I would like to drive a car.
- **3.** The Infinitive can be modified by an adverb:
- e.g. I don't like to eat quickly.

Noun Characteristics of the Infinitive

Noun characteristics of the Infinitive are manifested in its syntactical functions. It can be used as a subject, a predicative or an object:

e.g. To skate is pleasant.

Her plan was to drive there.

I have never learned to read and write.

The Bare Infinitive

In MnE the Infinitive is usually used with the particle to. e.g. I like to read.

The Infinitive is used without *to* in the following cases:

- **1.** After the auxiliary verbs: e.g. *I don't understand the meaning of this passage*.
- **2.** After the modal verbs except for **ought to**: e.g. *I can speak English*.
- 3. In complex object after the verbs expressing physical (sense) perception to see, to watch, to notice, to observe, to hear, to smell, to taste, to feel:
- e.g. I saw her dance. I heard them quarrel. I felt somebody touch me on the shoulder.

Note: The verb **to be** after the verb **to feel** is used with **to**: I felt this to be true.

- **4.** In complex object after the verb **to let**: e.g. *I won't let you say such things*.
- 5. In complex object after the verbs to make (in the meaning of "to force") and to have (in the meaning of "to cause"): e.g. He made me obey him.

Note: The above mentioned verbs (items 3-5) require an Infinitive with *to* when they are used in the Passive Voice: *She was seen to cross the street. I was made to obey him*. (let = was/were allowed to)

- **6.** After the verb **to know** (in the meaning of "**to experience**, **to observe**"):
- e.g. Have you ever known me tell a lie?
- **7.** After the verb **to bid,** though it is obsolete and should not be used in colloquial speech:
- e.g. I waited thinking she would bid me take a seat.
- **8.** After the verb **to help** in MnE: e.g. Can you help me (to) carry the box?
- 9. After the expressions had better, had best, cannot but, nothing but, would have, would rather, would sooner, need scarcely:
- e.g. You had better go home. I would rather stay here. I cannot but express my gratitude.
- 10. In special questions beginning with Why ...? Why not ...?
- e.g. Why sit here? Why not go to the theatre?

Repetition of to Before Several Infinitives

- **1.** When there are several Infinitives with the same or similar functions *to* is put only before the first Infinitive:
- e.g. I want to enter this Institute and master foreign languages.
- **2.** But sometimes if emphasis or contrast is intended, **to** is repeated before each Infinitive: e.g. *To be or not to be*.
- **3.** In colloquial speech *to* is often used without the Infinitive if the latter is clearly understood from the context. e.g. *I must go there whether I want to or not*.

Split Infinitive

The particle *to* is sometimes separated from the infinitive by an adverb. This construction is called a split Infinitive. It is mostly used in belles-lettres style: e.g. *He was unable to long keep silence*.

The Functions of the Infinitive in the Sentence

The Infinitive can be used in different syntactic functions, as:

1. a **subject** e.g. *To live is to hope*.

When the subject of the sentence is an infinitive phrase it is sometimes placed after the predicate, then the sentence begins with the pronoun it – an introductory word called the anticipator: e.g. It's necessary / important / impossible to do it in such a short time.

- **2.** a **predicative** e.g. *To live is to hope*.
- 3. a part of a compound verbal predicate
 - **compound verbal modal predicate** together with modal verbs:
 - e.g. You can do it without my help.

compound verbal aspect predicate with verbs denoting beginning, continuation or the end of some action **to begin, to come on, to go on, to continue, to cease, etc:**

e.g. It began to rain.

4. an object

• to such verbs as: to want, to wish, to desire, to care, to choose, to agree, to consent, to undertake, to mean, to intend, to tend, to expect, to decide, to determine, to hope, to try, to fail, to attempt, to ask, to beg, to entreat, to manage, to order, to command, to forget, to learn, to allow, to permit, to teach, to pretend, can't bare, can' afford, can't stand*, to like*, to prefer*, to begin*, to start*, to continue*, to need*, to love*, to hate*...

to such adjectives and participles: to be able/unable, certain, sure, likely willing/unwilling, inclined/disinclined, worthy, eager, anxious, sorry, impatient, fit, pleasant/unpleasant, difficult, hard, easy, boring, pleased, usual, prepared, common, dangerous, good, ready...

e.g. She had learned to dance at boarding school. Mason is anxious to see his family.

5. an attribute

e.g. He was the first to learn the news. I have no time to examine the room. I have nobody to talk to. An attributive infinitive often has the preposition, which is used in a construction where the same verb is followed by an object:

e.g. It's not the thing to trifle with.

6. an **adverbial modifier** (AM)

- of purpose, often introduced by in order and so as
- e.g. I have come here to talk to you.
- of result and consequence, especially when the demonstrative pronoun **such** or adverbs **enough, so, too** are used in the sentence:
- e.g. You are clever enough to understand this. His tone was such as to allow no contradiction.
- of comparison (manner), introduced by the conjunctions **as if** or **as though**
 - e.g. She moved her hand away as if to stop him.
 - of attendant circumstances e.g. He has left never to come back.
- **7.** a **parenthesis**, e.g. to tell the truth, to put it mildly, to make a long story short, to say the least of it, etc.

Objective with the Infinitive Construction

e.g. I saw her cross the street.

The relation between the noun (or pronoun) and the infinitive is similar to that of object and predicate. In the sentence e.g. ^ *I saw her cross the street* two things are predicated: the first predication is "I saw" and the second – "her cross". The two elements "her" and "cross" are closely connected and syntactically form a complex object. The latter is used:

A) with verbs expressing physical (sense) perception

to see (to notice, to watch, to observe), to hear, to smell, to taste, to feel e.g. I heard her sing in the next room.

Note: When the verbs to see (in the meaning of "to understand"), to hear (in the meaning of "to be told, to learn"), to feel (in the meaning of "to have an opinion")

express mental perception they can not be followed by a complex object, but require an object clause:

e.g. I see that you don't understand. I heard that you had been looking for a flat.

Note: 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:

e.g. I saw that she was pale.

B) with verbs expressing permission, request, order, compulsion

to allow, to permit, to let, to request, to ask, to order,

to command, to force, to cause, to make, to insist

e.g. He ordered a taxi to come at 9 o'clock. The teacher let me go home.

C) with verbs expressing wish, intension, liking and disliking

to want, to wish, to to intend, to desire, to love, to like,

to dislike, to hate, cannot bear, won't have e.g. I want you to be happy.

D) with verbs of mental perception

to prove, to know, to believe, to understand, to think,

to consider, to suppose, to imagine, to find, to trust

Note: After these verbs the verb **to be** is generally used. This does not apply, however, to the verb **to expect**: e.g. *I expect you to come*.

Note: With the verbs **to think**, **to consider**, **to find** the same idea may be expressed without the infinitive: e.g. *John thought her beautiful*.

E) with the verbs of declaring

to pronounce, to declare, to report e.g. She declared him to be handsome.

Note: 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: e.g. *He declared himself to be the leader*.

F) with such verbs as **to wait, to rely, to listen etc** followed by the prepositional object with the Infinitive e.g. *I rely on you to do it*.

The complex object is rendered in Ukrainian by means of the Subordinate Objective Clause or a noun and a pronoun in dative and accusative case.

The Subjective Infinitive Construction

e.g. The girl was seen to run.

In the sentence above mentioned the relation between "the girl" and the Infinitive "to run" is that of secondary subject and secondary predicate, and the whole construction "the girl to run" is the complex subject to the predicate "was seen": *What was seen? - The girl to run*.

The complex subject is used:

1. with verbs expressing physical (sense) perception

to see (to notice, to watch, to observe), to hear, to smell, to taste, to feel e.g. The girl was seen to leave the house.

B) with verbs expressing permission, request, order, compulsion

to allow, to permit, to let, to request, to ask, to order,

to command, to force, to cause, to make, to insist

e.g. They were requested to be ready at 8 o'clock. We were made to clean the room.

C) with verbs expressing mental perception

to know, to believe, to expect, to deny e.g. He was known to be a capable student.

D) with verbs of saying or reporting e.g. He is said to be a good doctor.

E) with the following pairs of synonyms to seem/to appear, to prove/to turn out, to happen/to chance

Remember These verbs are used in the Active Voice:

e.g. She seems to know everything. I happened to hear their talk.

F) with the word groups to be likely, to be sure, to be certain

e.g. But he is sure to marry her.

Note the difference between the constructions *He is sure to come*. *He is sure of coming*. With some verbs, such as **to see**, **to hear**, **to order**, **to allow**, **to permit**, **to know** a sentence with a complex subject has a corresponding active construction with the complex object. e.g. *The girl was seen to run*. – *I saw the girl run*.

Remember that the Infinitive with the construction can't refer to a future action except with verbs and word-groups whose meaning allows it: **to expect, to be sure/certain/likely**

e.g. He is expected to give us the answer tomorrow.

The complex subject is rendered in Ukrainian by means of безособові речення.

The For-to-Infinitive Construction

In many cases the preposition **for** introduces a construction in which a noun in the common case or a pronoun (in the objective) has an infinitive attached to it:

e.g. It is necessary for us to go.

The relation between the noun or a pronoun and the infinitive is that of secondary subject and predicate "for us to go" means "we should go":

Compare the following examples: We are sorry to leave.

We are sorry for you to leave.

A for-phrase may be used in the sentence as:

a) a complex subject e.g. For him to realize the difference is hard.

It is often introduced by the anticipatory "it". e.g. It was strange for him to have said it.

- **b**) a complex predicative e.g. *The main thing for us is to get all the details.*
- c) a complex object e.g. I can't bear for us not to be friends.
- d) a complex attribute e.g. Here are some books for you to read.
- e) a complex AM of purpose e.g. Call me up for me not to be late.
- **f**) a complex AM of result e.g. *The problem was too difficult for the boy to solve*.

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