

INFINITIVE IN ENGLISH

ABSTRACT

The study aims at verifying the source of difficulty in using the infinitive as a verb complement. To be used out of the context depending on the grammar-based rules, the infinitive, paying much more attention on the use of the full- infinitive, represents an error of verb complementation. Memorizing lists of verbs with their verb complementation as a before and after relation, even though possible, would be futile for the contextually competent use of the target language, English. As EFL learners, fourth year students at the department of English, College of Education, University of Al- Qadissiya face a problem in knowing when to use the infinitive with certain verbs that are possibly to be followed by infinitive, bare or full, gerund or either. To be more specific, they confuse the use of full-infinitive with that of the gerund as a verb complement in the sense that verbs in English have certain semantic implications or properties, that are contextually based ones, according to which the verb complements have to be selected. This does not mean that EFL learners do not confront a difficulty in the use of the infinitive as a verb complement with other verb forms, such as bare-infinitive or past participle but with the gerund is a remarkable error.

Keywords: complement, infinitives, contextually, semantic, implication, EFL

INTRODUCTION

The present study focusses exclusively on the contrast in meaning between the two versions of the English infinitival form, the so-called bare and to infinitives. Since at first sight this may seem an insignificant aspect of English grammar and even of the infinitive, the reader may be surprised that other forms of complementation are not brought in. This formal-functional type of approach to language with its focus on forms only in as much as they are able to perform a given function will not be adopted here, however. On the contrary, it is held that words and their distribution are both instruments for expressing meaning. Consequently, a meaning-focused approach to syntax will allow us to account both for differences in semantic import and ipso facto for differences in distribution, thus delivering us from the meaningless universe of arbitrary, blind rules and arbitrary, blind exceptions to the rules', to use Wierzbicka's words (1988: 7).

This study represents the first systematic comparison of the bare and to infinitives in their full range of uses in English. To date, these two forms of the infinitive have always either been studied along with various other forms of complementation, as in Ransom 1986,' or treated separately, as in Mair 1990 (which deals only with the to infinitive and exclusively in its use as a complement). Even the most comprehensive grammar of contemporary English, Quirk et al. 1985, although it cites uses of both forms of the infinitive with have, help, dare and need, never contrasts the bare and to infinitives as such. This brings out another reason for concentrating on a single grammatical contrast here: it seems only sound method to build up to general conclusions about how complementation works in English by careful study and analysis of attested usage of each individual structure, exploring the relations between them, starting with the most obvious and natural contrasts. Studying the to infinitive all by itself neglects the obvious fact that it is made up of to plus bare infinitive. On the other hand, lumping the infinitive together with such complements as that-clauses, whether- clauses, for + noun + to structures, whether to structures, -ing forms, and verbless clauses containing only an adjective or a noun leads to problems which are just as, if not more, serious. Studies which do this tend, firstly, to begin by postulating abstract, universal semantic categories and then to look for the various forms which can be used to express them. Thus Ransom begins her book on complementation's meanings and forms by stating:

There are two questions which this research addresses.

1- Can one find a small, finite set of meanings which systematically under- lies the enormous variety of meanings found in complements?

2- And can one make predictions from this set of meanings about the variety of forms they take? The answer to both questions is yes. (Wierzbicka's : 1986: 1)

She then proceeds to postulate two sets of 'modality meanings': a set of four 'Information Modalities' (Truth, Future Truth, Occurrence, Action), which 'describe information about someone's knowledge or behavior in the world', and a second set of four 'Evaluation Modalities' (Predetermined, Determined, Undetermined, Indeterminate), which describe evaluations of alternatives' (Wierzbicka's: 15). After claiming that these two sets combine to form sixteen different types of modality meaning (Predetermined Truth, Determined Truth, etc.), Ransom attempts to show how these meanings are related to certain types of higher predicates and their complements.

CHAPTER 1: The Use of the Infinitive

1-1: Definition of Infinitive

Infinitive (abbreviated inf) is a linguistics term for certain verb forms existing in many languages, most often used as non-finite verbs. As with many linguistic concepts, there is not a single definition applicable to all languages. The word is derived from Late Latin [modus] infinitivus, a derivative of infinitus meaning "unlimited".

In traditional descriptions of English, the infinitive is the basic dictionary form of a verb when used non-finitely, with or without the particle to. Thus to go is an infinitive, as is go in a sentence like "I must go there" (but not in "I go there", where it is a finite verb). The form without to is called the bare infinitive, and the form with to is called the full infinitive or to-infinitive.

In many other languages the infinitive is a distinct single word, often with a characteristic inflective ending, like morir ("[to] die") in Spanish, manger ("[to] eat") in French, portare ("[to] carry") in Latin, lieben ("[to] love") in German, читать (chitat', "[to] read") in Russian, etc. However, some languages have no infinitive forms. Many Native American languages, Arabic, Asian languages such as Japanese, and some languages in Africa and Australia do not have direct equivalents to infinitives or verbal nouns. Instead, they use finite verb forms in ordinary clauses or various special constructions.

Being a verb, an infinitive may take objects and other complements and modifiers to form a verb phrase (called an infinitive phrase). Like other non-finite verb forms (like participles, converbs, gerunds and gerundives), infinitives do not generally have an expressed subject; thus an infinitive verb phrase also constitutes a complete non-finite clause, called an infinitive (infinitival) clause. Such phrases or clauses may play a variety of roles within sentences, often being nouns (for example being the subject of a sentence or being a complement of another verb), and sometimes being adverbs or other types of modifier. (Huddleston, R. 1988:15)

Many verb forms known as infinitives differ from gerunds (verbal nouns) in that they do not inflect for case or occur in adpositional phrases. Instead, infinitives often originate in earlier inflectional forms of verbal nouns. Unlike finite verbs, infinitives are not usually inflected for tense, person, etc. either, although some degree of inflection sometimes occurs; for example Latin has distinct active and passive infinitives.(Quirk, R., Sidney:18)

1-2: Infinitive in English

Infinitive is a form of verb that is not limited by person, number or tense. In English it may stand alone or be preceded by the particle 'to' to which Hartmann and Stroke (1972:111) refer as 'first infinitive' and 'second infinitive' respectively. According to Yesperson(1962:346), the 'to' is "often felt as belonging more closely to the preceding verb than to the infinitive", clarifying that through the possibility of using the 'to' by itself instead of "a clumsy repetition of the whole to-infinitive.", as in "Will they play? Yes, they will." The same could be said as in, "Yes, I asked them to.= asked them to play." The 'to' of the infinitive is used in short responses to questions and statements, and also in short clause endings: "Why did you take the longer route?" "I wanted to" or "He was surprised when he got an A on his composition." "Yes, he hadn't expected to." Furthermore, 'be' should be added if the question or statement is in the passive voice, as in: (ibid:63-4)

1. she seemed to be troubled by someone.
Yes, she seemed to be.

2. Does he expect to be promoted?
Yes, he expected to be.

Moreover, grammarians such as Quirk et al. (ibid:1985: 687) have also explicitly stated that the infinitive marker 'to' may be viewed as related to the spatial preposition 'to' through metaphorical connection.

In addition, having no subject and tense agreement, as other types of non-finite constructions, the infinitival construction, to Huddleston(1988:51), is non-kernel that requires a double reference to the subject in the sense that the subordinate clause lacks a subject and the missing subject is recoverable from the superordinate clause subject, as in :

3. Ed remembered to take his key.

He adds (ibid:63-4) saying that some non-finite clauses, like finites, be assigned the same functions as NPs. This applies to the 'copulative construction' with 'be' in its identifying sense, e.g., 'The solution is to resign.'. And also to the complex-transitive construction. As far as thematic variation is concerned, he (ibid:181-82) explains it saying that extra position puts subordinate clause in final position for the heavy and complex material is to come late. 'Extra position' is a term that applies to a syntactic process which characteristically moves a subordinate clause subject to the right, to a position beyond the main predicate; depending on the language concerned, it may or may not involve the addition of a dummy pronoun to take over the vacated subject function, as in '(For you) to change your mind now is a mistake.' Or 'it would be a mistake (for you) to change your mind now'. Or 'This made it a waste of time to accompany them' rather than 'this made to accompany of them a waste of time.' To Close(1981: 77) and Yespersen (1962:330), the use of 'extraposition' is possible with 'anticipatory it' or 'preparatory it', as a subject, but not with present participials, e.g., 'She considered attempting it a waste of time.'.The 'anticipatory it' refers to the infinitive and this is what modern English tends to prefer, compare the following:

4. It is not always possible to get eight hours' sleep each night.

5. It has taken a long time to finish the project.

Moreover, Yespersen (1962: 330) states that it is sometimes hard to consider the infinitive as a subject without 'to' in colloquial constructions like the following;

6. Better wait and not say a word about it at present.= We had better wait... 7.

As well be hanged for a sheep as for a lamb.= One may as well be hanged...

Huddleston(1988:182) states that it is usually, though not invariable, the relation between the object and the complement over which it is moved; it is comparable to that between a subject and a predicate in a simpler construction, cf, "Being able to talk things over with her was a great help/ It was a great help being able to talk things over with her." So that this application of extraposition is clearly analogous to the prototype. Where the subordinate clause is finite or infinitival, however, extraposition is obligatory: He made it known that he was dissatisfied. And not He made that he was dissatisfied known. They hadn't intended it to be so easy to get away. And not They hadn't intended to get away to be so easy. This is a special case of a broader restriction when finite or infinitival clauses are functioning in the structure of a larger clause they are virtually excluded from medial position. For further information concerning the "extraposed to-clause," for further information, (Biber :1999: 714).

1-3: Infinitive in English Language Learning

Teaching grammar does not imply the idea of mastering the grammatical rules of the language being taught. This implies the idea that the word grammar is not simply a function of the class that a word belongs to in the sense that a word can have its own unique grammatical profile. Therefore, using a language depends not only upon a knowledge of structure but also upon the context in which the language is used. Speaking and writing imply the idea that both semantics and syntax work together to transmit meaning. This is often the case for the infinitive that is used differently according to the preceding or controlling verb and the context of situation which the speaker is in. The source of problem or difficulty in using the infinitive as a verb complement lies in the fact that EFL learners fail to recognize that some of the verbs should sometimes be followed by the gerund not the infinitive according to the semantic content the speaker is after. The English verb 'suggest' can be followed by an '-ing' form, e.g. 'I suggest leaving now' but not an infinitive; the converse is true of 'expect'. Words, then, may contain a lot of grammar. Being difficult for learners to master all the verbs and their complementation patterns, the focus on the form regardless of all other aspects of language use is of a limited and specific objective. This implies the idea that teaching English has to be built on the form, that is represented by the verb and its complementation, and the context of use. In other words, it is a matter of language awareness; it is axiomatic that the problem be first encountered in a meaningful context. It is form and function that should be focused on, as in:

1. She objected to working overtime.
2. He succeeded in passing the test.

Here, one would want students to infer the fact of the presence of the propositions triggers gerund complementation. They should then be in position to detect and correct errors such as: *We look forward to see the show. However, when it comes to accounting for verbal complementation it is not entirely satisfactory. It is suggested that the one should go beyond the form-focused instruction to meaning-focused instruction depending on the semantic properties of verbs. Learners should be aware of factivity that is one of these semantic properties to enable learners to predict the type of complement that can be selected. Factivity refers to the idea that the information contained in the complement is true. To Kirby(1987:24),

It is in contrast with the mere assertion or assumption. Factive verbs are complemented by gerund or that clause, while the non-factive ones are complemented by the infinitive, e.g.,

3. He resented paying the bill.

4. He hoped to visit China.

To avoid the problem that learners may face in distinguishing which of the verbs is factive and which is not, one can say that the reference of the complement with the factive verbs is to an event that happened prior to the action of the matrix verb,:

5. She admitted hitting the child.

1-4: The Use of the Infinitive

The English verb has two major forms, finite and non-finite. How to use them correctly is very important to English language learners (ELL), whose native language is not English when they study English. Having taught English as a second language for many years, the writer tried to summarize and illustrate the various use of the infinitive, one of the three non-finite forms - the infinitive, the participles (which have two forms, the present participle and the past participle), and the gerund, on the basis of his extensive reading and review of different English grammar books, reference books, magazines, newspapers, books, and English dictionaries, etc., in order for English language learners to further understand how to use the infinitive properly in the English language. The infinite is the verb form that simply names the action of the verb, without any other specification, etc., (in English used with or without to). The infinitive also has two kinds of infinitive – infinitive with to (to-infinitive) and infinitive without to (bare infinitive). “She always comes to help me,” in which to help is an infinitive with to. “I saw her leave the house,” in which leave the house is an infinitive without to or bare infinitive. We do not say “I saw her to leave the house”, because the verb see is followed by a bare infinitive when the infinitive is used American English and BrE, British English. SVO means subject + verb + object, SVC, subject + verb + complement, SVOiOd, subject + (indirect) object + (direct) object, SVOC, subject + verb + object + complement, SVOA, subject + verb + object + adverbial, and SVOCA, subject + verb + object + complement + adverbial.(Duffley, P. J. :2004:48)

1-5: Infinitive forms

	Active	Passive
Indefinite	to write	to be written
Perfect	to have written	to have been written
Continuous or progressive	to be writing	to be being written
Perfect continuous or progressive	to have been writing	to have been being written

From the above table, we do not usually have *to have been being written*, which sounds very awkward although it exists.

For example:

- a. Sandy is *to visit me next week*.
- b. I aim *to have finished the project by tomorrow*.
- c. He was seen *to be walking away*.
- d. He seems *to have been sitting there all day*.
- e. I asked for Mary *to be met by John*.
- f. She was found *to have been stabbed*.
- g. How would you like *to have been being scolded all day?* (rarely used)
- h. The picture is believed *to have been being painted for years*.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2-1: The verbs like and love

Like and love were the verbs which were examined in this study. Each word has different meanings. However, there are times when they share some similar meanings. Longman dictionary of contemporary English (2005) provides the of like and love as follows:

1- Like

- THINK SOMETHING IS NICE: to enjoy something or think that it is nice or good.
- LIKE A PERSON: to think that someone is nice or enjoy being with the
- APPROVE OF SOMETHING: to approve of something and think that it is good or right
- DO SOMETHING REGULARLY: to try to do something regularly or make something happen regularly
- WANT: used to say that you want something or want to do something/ used to ask someone if they want something or want to do something (Longman dictionary, 2005. 936-937)

2- Love

- ROMANTIC ATTRACTION: to have a strong feeling of /affection for someone, combined with sexual attraction
- CARE ABOUT: to care very much about someone, especially a member of your family or a close friend
- LIKE/ ENJOY: to like something very much or enjoy doing something very much
- LOYALTY: to have a strong feeling of loyalty to your country, an institution etc. (Longman dictionary of contemporary English, 2005,. 368)

When considering the meanings of verbs *like* and *love*, there is a similar meaning. *Like* means to enjoy something or think that it is nice or good and *love* means to like something very much or enjoy doing something very much. The similar meaning of them is the notion of enjoyment (Duffley, 2004).

2-2: Studies on infinitives and gerunds

In English, there are some verbs that are usually followed by an infinitive (V + V infinitive) or gerund (V + V ing). Some verbs are only followed by V infinitive, e.g. *ask, agree, want, choose*, etc. Some verbs are normally followed by the *-ing* form, e.g. *admit, avoid, miss, consider*. Interestingly, some are followed either by V Infinitive or V ing with different meanings, e.g. *stop, try, remember* (Carter, McCarthy, Mark & O’Keeffe, 2011).

(1) We stopped to buy some water at the motorway service area.

(2) She stopped crying as soon as she saw her mother.

When considering the meanings of *stop* in (1) and (2), they provide different meanings. In (1), it means we were travelling and we stopped for a short time in order to buy some water at the motorway service area. On the other hand, *stop* in (2) means that she was crying, and then she stopped and did not cry anymore. *Stop* has different meanings when followed by an infinitive or gerund as in *stop* in (1) that we stopped for a short time before doing another thing, and *stop* in (2) that she did not cry anymore. *Stop* followed by V infinitive indicates that someone stops doing something in order to do something else while *stop* followed by V ing indicates that an action or event is no longer continuing (Carter, McCarthy, Mark & O’Keeffe, 2011).

This exemplifies how some researchers have investigated particular verbs followed by an infinitive and gerund to examine the meaning differences between them. Huddleston and Pullum (2002) investigated the differences between the infinitive and the *-ing* form complement after the verb *like*. The results showed that *like + V infinitive* is associated with change while *like + V ing* is associated with actuality (as cited in Dubská, 2013), as in (3) – (4).

(3) I like being married.

(4) I like to be married. (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, 1242)

Smith (2009) made a comparison between the verbs followed by V infinitive and V ing. The emotive verbs like *like/love* followed by V ing were accepted because “they evoke some kinds of overlap in one of their senses between the matrix and subordinate processes”. In contrast, the emotive verbs followed by V infinitive “evoke more sense that the matrix subjects love/like “the idea of doing” the subordinate process in its entirety” (as cited in Dubská, 2013, p. 11), as in (5) – (6).

(5) We love/like walking to the lake.

(6) We love/like to walk to the lake.

2-3: The bare infinitive

The *bare infinitive* represents, in Langacker's (1991: 421) terms, an instantiation of a type. Not only is it not grounded, it is not even quantified, i.e. it does not exhibit aspectual features. the *infinitive* in French in these terms.) If we compare a situation encoded by a finite verb phrase to a motion picture, the *bare infinitive* may be compared to a frozen picture: in the first case we can picture a person running from point *a* to *b*, in the second we see them frozen in mid-flight (or, perhaps more correctly, end-flight), as it were. To conclude, we seem to be justified in assuming that the *bare infinitive* profiles a situation as complete, bounded and totally lacking in aspectual contours. the *bare infinitive* is used with six of nine types of matrix verb. It is used in same-subject Effort and Applied Attitude constructions, and different-subject Perception, Communication, Enablement and Causation constructions. Apart from Perception constructions, in each case it only occurs with a small handful of matrix verbs. (1) – (6) illustrate the six types. (Thomas Egan:2008)

(1) Mr. Bruce Hepburn, the 24-year-old former student who *helped found* the Imperial Ventures company which commissioned the survey, said if companies did not improve their image 'they will go out of business'. (A94 241) (Effort)

(2) But she *didn't dare ask* him about Spider glass and what he was doing there. (FP0 256) (Applied Attitude)

(3) Cecilia Darne, who lived round the corner, said she *heard a bell toll* once at about eight in the morning. (EDN 355) (Perception)

(4) Judy, an elegant woman in her early 40s with a peaceful demeanour, *bids us sit* down on the verandah. (CK5 2825) (Communication)

(5) Eventually Phil's dad *had let them borrow* his garage. (FNW 1283) (Enablement)

(6) He looked surprised when everyone laughed, then joined in himself, with very hoarse, loud laughter which *made everyone start* laughing all over again. (G12 2052) (Causation)

Based on the TAM relationship between the matrix verb and the complement situation, the *bare infinitive* form only occurs in two of the six types. It occurs in Same-time and Forward-looking constructions, but never in Backward-looking,

General, Judgement or Contemplation constructions. One may wonder why it never occurs in these four contexts. The answer appears to be related to its always encoding a situation that is located in temporal proximity to the time of the matrix verb. Either it is actually realised at the time of the matrix verb, as is the case with Same-time constructions such as in (167), or, if it located in time after the matrix verb, it follows hard upon it. As a rule the complement clause subject in different-subject constructions is not profiled as having an independent say in the realization of the complement situation. This is the case in (170). (Thomas Egan:2008) Forward-looking bare infinitive constructions, both different-subject and same-subject, encode situations incorporating force-dynamic relations which ensure the immediate realisation of the complement situation. The notion of immediacy is not compatible with General and Backward-looking situations. The notion of certainty of realisation is not compatible with Judgment and Contemplation situations. (Thomas Egan:2008)

2-4: The to infinitive

The to infinitive form of complement occurs with all nine types of matrix verb, two classes in General constructions and three in Judgement constructions. One example of each of these is listed in (1) – (12).

Forward-looking constructions:

- (1) The Arctic was everything I *expected it to be*, and much more in the way of high seas than I had bargained for. (FBR 101) (Mental Process)
- (2) ‘Bob,’ said Tessa, when he had put the phone down again, ‘do you *want me to come* to the funeral or not?’ (GI2 2341) (Attitude)
- (3) I *urge you to seriously consider* this offer and to ensure that you reply before the closing date. (AYR 180) (Communication)
- (4) In the day centre, they *help you to get into* college, or to get work, things like that. (FR5 1648) (Enablement)
- (5) One held a knife to his throat while *forcing him to drive* to nearby Hackney. (CBF 6069) (Causation)
- (6) And that is the moment when you *begin to decide* what you are going to do about going grey. (G2V 3406) (Aspect)
- (7) There didn’t seem to be any point in pushing it, so I *made to leave*. (HTL 1679) (Applied Attitude)

General constructions:

- (8) He *liked to finish* it each morning before he fetched the new day’s papers. (AC4 2555) (Attitude)
- (9) And yet Darlington council *continues to receive* planning applications from company’s eager to break into the market. (K52 4669) (Aspect)

Judgement constructions:

(10) Cuvier's system was open-ended because he *considered each species to be* a variation of the underlying type adapted to a particular way of life. (GOH 221)

(Mental Process)

(11) *These*, when I passed them, I *saw to be* sitting or kneeling beside cradles, rocking them, or singing, or gazing intently. (ABL 734) (Perception)

(12) Upmarket readers generally *scorn to read* about somebody we've never heard of having it off with somebody else we've never heard of. (G2E 2121) (Applied Attitude)

The classification and labeling of examples (1) – (12) may not meet with the approval of all grammarians. However, irrespective of the system of classification which they espouse, grammarians are faced with the challenge of postulating a schematic meaning for the *to infinitive* form that will account for its semantic contribution to the meaning of each of these instantiation types, there have been many attempts to do this, but while most of these account satisfactorily for some of the constructions exemplified in (1) – (12), none do so for all of them. Moreover, not only should an account of the meaning of the *to infinitive* form be able to explain its use in these constructions, it should also offer some explanation for its apparent non-occurrence in three classes of constructions, to wit Same-time, Backward-looking and Contemplation constructions. In addition the characterisation should be compatible with the function of the form in other syntactic roles, such as the roles of subject and adverbial. (Longman dictionary:2005:17)

2-5: The *to infinitive* as subject and adverbial

In actual fact, of course, *to infinitive* clauses occur in many other positions in English utterances. They occur both in clauses and phrases, as complements and as modifiers. There is no space here to do more than scratch the surface in relation to these other uses. It may, nevertheless, be of interest to try to ascertain to what extent the characterisation proposed in the previous section is applicable to the *to infinitive* in some other contexts. As this book is concerned with the clausal level, the focus in this section is restricted to some other uses of *to infinitive* clauses on this same level. We will first look at some instances in which it figures as a syntactic subject and then at some instances in which it is used as an (optional) adverbial. In both cases we will consider to what extent the characterisation in the previous section is compatible with these uses. *To infinitive* clauses as subjects are of rare occurrence in all registers according to Biber *et al.* (1999: 722).

Not only are they rare in themselves but they appear to collocate with a very limited range of predicators. More than two thirds of the downloaded occurrences in my material collocate with a copular predicator, as in (1) and (2). The remainder, with one exception, all collocate with Enablement verbs like *involve*, *require*, *demand* or *mean*, as in (3) and (4).

(1) *To write* of male artisans is tautologous. (HXC 97)

(2) ‘*To love* human beings is still the only thing worth living for; without this love you really do not live.’ (B1F 1291)

(3) *To win* a significant amount of new business would require a big cultural change at the company. (BMB 1669)

(4) *To live* life to the full involves awareness of the physical, emotional, mental and spiritual self. (AYK 418)

Can the four *to infinitive* clauses in (1) – (2) be said to refer to ‘the most likely of several alternatives in some domain’? Do they, in other words, imply the existence of other possible alternatives? I think the answer to the second question, at least, is ‘yes’ in all four cases. In (1),

for instance, the speaker clearly implies that the tautology involved in applying the epithet *male* to *artisans* is avoidable. In (2) *to love human beings* is presented as one of several theoretically possible goals. In (3) the subject clause also clearly instantiates one of several possible outcomes, although in this case it is hardly correct to state that it is the most likely one. Indeed, I think it would be more correct to say of (3) that the *to infinitive* clause encodes the *highlighted* of several possible alternatives, rather than the *most likely* alternative. It may well be the case that a maximally schematic definition of the *to infinitive* form should be phrased in terms of the *focussed* or *targeted* of several alternatives, and that when employed as a post-predicator complement this element of focussing leads to its being interpreted in terms of likelihood of realisation. 6 Three of the four tokens of *to infinitive* cited as (1) – (4) occur with a main verb in the present, the fourth a modalised main verb.

We may posit a network like the one in Figure 4.2 for all clausal uses of the form. In Figure 1.21 we can see that, when used as a subject, the *to infinitive* form inherits the specifications of the maximally schematic sense without adding any semantic content to this sense. The other three uses all involve the addition of some semantic content, the nature of this addition varying in accordance with the general functions they are used to encode.

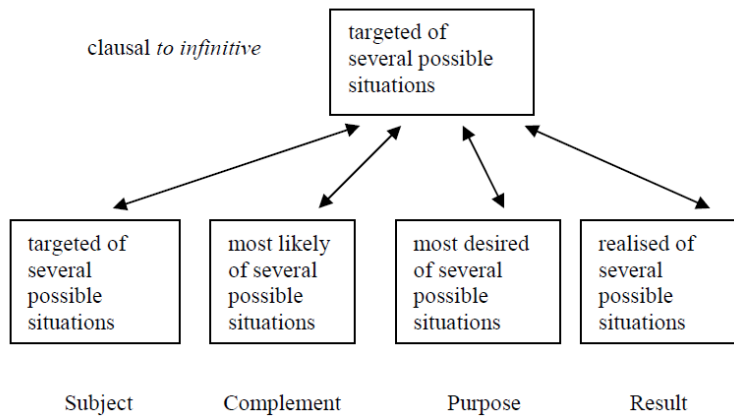


Figure 1.1: Illustration of network containing the most prominent clausal uses of the *to infinitive* form, as Subject, Complement, Purpose Adverbial and Adverbial of Result

CHAPTER 3: The -ing form

3-1: Introduction

Like the *to infinitive*, the *-ing* complement form occurs with all nine types of matrix. It also occurs with four of the six types of construction. Combining the two categorizations, it occurs in as many as eighteen different construction types, making it the most versatile form of non-finite complement. It occurs in Same-time constructions with six different types of matrix verb, in Backward-looking constructions with four different types, and in Forward-looking constructions with seven. It also occurs in the Contemplation construction type, which is always Mental Process. One example of each of the constructions is listed in (1) – (10).

Same-time constructions:

- (1) ‘I *adored her being there* in a place I equate with hell.’ (K32 1033) (Attitude)
- (2) In spite of her love of reading Eva *denies being* an egghead. (H7E 417) (Communication)
- (3) You’re going to a friend’s for a barbecue on a hot summer’s evening, and you’re walking up the drive and you *can smell the barbecue sizzling* away. (JK8 17) (Perception)

Backward-looking constructions:

- (4) The warden at the time *remembers seeing* someone like Eila, but they could find no record of her name. (K1X 710) (Mental Process)
- (5) Now she *regretted stripping* the clothes from his body. (HTM 2278) (Attitude)
- (6) Richard Baylis, defending, said his client *admitted smoking* heroin in the past but had told him he would not be going near it again. (C88 527) (Communication)

Forward-looking constructions:

(7) Then we *envisage starting* a housegroup on the estate, and then a monthly family service, and in the end a church. (C8L 70) (Mental Process)

(8) She says he must have been released early, and she's *dreading him coming* to see her and demanding his parents' address. (CKF 2137) (Attitude)

(9) The give-us-our trough back campaign is threatening to organise a protest march every week but Councillor Smith says he won't even *discuss moving* the trough until he receives a full apology from his accusers. (K1H 525) (Communication)

Contemplation construction:

(10) She *had never imagined wearing* clothes like this, or that they could make such a difference. (AT7 1101) (Mental Process)

Not only is the *-ing* complement form extremely versatile with respect to the types of matrix verb with which it occurs, it is also very versatile when it

comes to the type of complement situation it encodes. It may be used to encode

activities, as in (1) and (8), Attitude, as in (6) and (9), Communication. The fact that it can be used to encode achievements and states distinguishes it from the progressive, may only be used with activities and accomplishments in unmarked .

The nature of the relationship between the *-ing* of the progressive and the *-ing* of the gerund-participial, to adopt the composite term used by Huddleston and Pullum (2002: 1187), is just one of the puzzles facing the grammarian grappling with the semantics of the *-ing* form.

3-2: -ing complements encoding accomplishments

There are two sorts of predicates in Vendler's (1967) classification that occur freely in the progressive. One consists of activities, the other of accomplishments. In the case of the latter the situation in progress is one which, unless interrupted, will come to an end of its own accord (under its own momentum, in forcedynamic terms). Same-time accomplishments, as in (1) – (3), resemble Same-time activities in that they share five of the six properties of the progressive, the exception being *limited duration*.

(1) She had a bad moment as she *heard the alley door closing* behind her, but she was already on her way down. (GW0 34)

(2) Meanwhile, she can help herself to control her panic attacks by slowing down her breathing as soon as she *feels an attack coming on*. (A70 1108)

(3) And business executives *have disliked travelling to a special studio*. (B73 1029)

These examples are all *ongoing, imperfective, durative* and *dynamic*. They are also *mid-interval*. In (1), for instance, the alley door has started to close but is not yet closed. We saw in the previous section that the *mid-interval* property was not encoded by the *-ing* form with activities in Forward-looking constructions. It does not seem to be a property of such constructions with complement situations of the accomplishment type either. and (4) – (6),

(4) Buildings occupied by the PSP and by the Shiite militia Amal were also repossessed and on July 27 Hezbollah *began evacuating* its largest base in Lebanon - the Sheikh Abdullah Barracks in Bekaa, 70 km east of Beirut. (HLM 2283)

(5) At about nine o'clock I *start putting Mum to bed*. (HJC 177)

(6) Partnerships could henceforth be established between consenting adults so that 'two men could live permanently together without *fearing prattling informers bringing down* the criminal law upon them'. (ASK 298) In none of these examples is the accomplishment viewed from a particular point within its unfolding. Nor is it profiled as being of *limited duration*. The other four properties are, however, exhibited by all three examples.

3-3: *-ing* complements encoding states

Same-time *-ing* constructions encoding states, (1) – (3) share three of the progressive's six properties. They are *imperfective, mid-interval* and *durative*.

(1) Apart from being sick and having to keep going to the loo I *loved being* pregnant. (FU1 1941)

(2) I *don't mind it being* quiet'. (CEB 579)

(3) Why had she never realised before now that Dana *resented looking like her sister*? (H8J 1990)

States are, by definition, *imperfective* and *durative*. One effect of using the progressive with a stative verb is to impose a *limited duration* construal on the situation in question. This is not the case with the *-ing* complement construction. For instance, in the case of (1), the state of being pregnant is undoubtedly inherently bounded, but its boundaries are not in focus in this construction. The subject merely states that she derived great pleasure from being in the middle of the condition of pregnancy, as it were. Forward-looking *-ing* constructions encoding states, such as

(4) – (5) resemble Same-time statives in being *imperfective* and *durative*. They differ from them, however, with respect to the *mid-interval* property.

(4) Referring to the rescheduling agreement signed with the club in March 1989, False said that ‘Nigeria *does not foresee being* in a position to maintain payments at contractual levels beyond the first quarter of this year’. (HL0 2811)

(5) The French goal-ace *had feared being* out of the game for two months after hobbling out of the 3-0 first leg defeat with a damaged hamstring.

(CH3 4783)

The states in these examples are viewed as extended, without any particular time within their extension constituting a focal point. To put it simply, the subject in (5) fears the whole state of exclusion from the game of football, not just the being in the middle of such a state of exclusion. We may note that this lack of a *mid-interval* perspective is not peculiar to Forward-looking *-ing* complements encoding states.

3-4: **The *-ing* complement form: a summary**

The length of the examination was necessitated by the fact that the form can occur in so very many different contexts, with all sorts of matrix verbs and complement predicates and in four of our six basic construction types. The two construction types which are incompatible with the *-ing* form are Judgement and General constructions. It does not normally occur in General constructions for the simple reason that the aspectual contours of a situation encoded by an *-ing* form are not compatible with the intermittently recurring

nature of non-stative General complement situations. The *-ing* form profiles a situation as extended along the time axis. General constructions profile situations that are not extended as such but that are likely to recur at more or less regular intervals on the time axis. As for Judgement constructions, these always admit of an element of doubt as to the existence of the complement situation. They always point to an option chosen among several more-or-less latent alternatives. Situations encoded by *-ing* never imply any element of doubt. They always profile a situation as occurring, or non-occurring, in some specified domain.

Apart from these two exceptions, *-ing* complements occur freely in both different subject and same-subject constructions. Dixon's emphasis on the element of *extension* accounts, as we have mentioned on several occasions, for the majority of construction types. Langacker, who emphasises the *imperfectivity* of the situation encoded by *-ing* form, comes closest to accounting for the full range of meanings of the form. The main difference between the proposals made in this section and Langacker's treatment is the extent to which we open for a construal of the internal portions of some *-ing* construction types as heterogeneous in nature.

3-5: Conclusion

According to the subjects' error analysis, the study confirms the idea that the use of the full-infinitive represents a difficult area for EFL learners to deal with for being remarkably overlapped with that of the gerund, as a verb complement particularly with those verbs that accept both as complements in certain contexts. This reflects the fact that context is of a significant role in the interpretation of utterances. Accordingly, teaching English must be built on exercises and drills that enable EFL learners to understand and recognize the semantic relations among the linguistic forms in utterances and to form messages that are coherent to the context of use. To be pedagogically valuable and to avoid the sense of confusion with other forms as verb complements, instructors have to teach the infinitive deepening on what precedes, the catenative use of the linguistic forms, and the constrains of the given communicative situation.

When teachers introduce and teach the infinitive along with the gerund, some students find them easier to understand. However, students could become confused about the differences in using each one (Lubin, 2018). Thus, teachers should understand the differences between the infinitive and gerund, especially using the verbs which could provide similar meanings, e.g. *like*, *love*. For example, teachers need to define the gerunds and infinitives clearly and provide authentic examples for the differences between *to* infinitive and *-ing* form. As for the results in this study, they indicate it would be beneficial to consider the importance of verbs *like* and *love* followed by the infinitive and gerund in teaching because of the similar meanings and provide a better explanation of *like* and *love* in an infinitive and gerund to students with appropriate lessons.

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