

Syntactic and semantic analysis of the Gerund

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Introduction

Nowadays people consider English is a very high value in usage. This language can be regarded as the center of the world`s communication. English is an international language that spoken in many countries both as a native and as a second or foreign language. It is taught in the schools in almost every country on this earth. It is spoken by over 1 milliard people as their native languages. Millions more speak it as an additional language. This language is widely used in many countries with various purposes in a lot of sides of life. English is used in Medicine, Technology, Education, Science, Diplomacy, Press, Economy, Industry and etc. That is one of the most important reasons why the government of the Republic of Uzbekistan put English as one of many essential subjects in the sphere of education. Particularly, a number of laws and decrees, being admitted by government, are distinct samples of putting attention to the education system, especially to the young generation to be master of English.

The youth are the future of Uzbekistan. That`s why it is important to grow up young generation with the deep erudition and a feeling of patriotism. As our 1st President Islam Karimov said: “The future of Uzbekistan is in the youth`s hands. In the youth I trust”¹, the young generation of Uzbekistan are growing up by feeling pride and high heed. In response to this high heed, they are arming with advanced and perfect knowledge, wide world outlook, deep and sound ideas to defeat honor of their motherland, Uzbekistan, on the stage of the world. All necessary preconditions to show off our abilities in all spheres to all over the world are being created in our country.

On December 10, 2012 the 1st President of the Republic of Uzbekistan Islam Karimov signed a decree “On measures to further improvement of foreign language learning system”.² After this Presidential Decree, a lot of projects have been done as an implementation of this important document. It should be mentioned that from 2013-2014 academic year teaching of foreign languages,

¹ Karimov, I. A. 2008, “Yuksak ma`naviyat—yengilmas kuch”, T. “Ma`naviyat”.

² The decree of the 1st President of Uzbekistan I. A. Karimov № 1875 “On measures to further improvement of foreign language learning system” December 10, 2012.

mainly English, started from the first grade of the primary schools in the format of games and informal conversation lessons and schoolchildren of the second form learned grammar and developed speech skills. And regular training programs, cartoons were shown in the mass media. All these are giving positive results not only in acquisition of knowledge and skills, but also in motivating uzbek children to foreign language learning. Parents also pay attention to their children and their language acquisition. We can meet parents who are proud of their children speaking English because of new and effective reforms in education system within this short period of time in any part of our country. Therefore the necessary conditions for successful learning of foreign languages, especially English, at all grades of continuous education are being created in the country. The establishment of the republican scientific and practical centre for developing innovative techniques of teaching foreign languages at the Uzbek State University of World Languages is the result of these reforms in education system for developing teaching and learning foreign languages.

Mastering foreign language is not easy, it is like we learn another way of life, because language actually represents a way of life. It is need a long process; nothing is gained instantly, especially in language acquisition. Because of that awareness, so in our country English has been taught in school since in elementary school, and also as we know English has been integrated in educational curriculum of Uzbekistan.

Learning language is the difficult and complicated process that is connected with human`s mental activity. Learning another language is not only learning different words for the same things, but learning another way to think about things. Knowing another language means having different vision of life. Learning and knowing a foreign language help to develop learner`s creative thinking. Cause that person who is learning another language begins thinking in two languages. That`s why he or she has wider out-looking than a person who doesn`t know other languages. Nelson Mandela, who served as President of South Africa said that: “If you talk to a man in a language he understands, that goes to his head. If you talk to

him in his language, that goes to his heart.” That is true. Knowing a foreign language opens the door of a new world, new vision of life.

Moreover, as the continuation of positive reforms done by The First President of Uzbekistan I.A.Karimov, our current President of independent Uzbekistan Sh.M.Mirziyoyev several times reiterated to develop the quality of education. In this regard, Sh.M.Mirziyoyev noted as follows: “Nothing can develop a country as high as sports and education. High competence of our youth determines the bright future of our country, in this turn the quality of education must be provided from the early stages of childhood. That is why the role of pre-school education is vital in developing the system of education”³. As it is stated above, the issue of teaching and learning foreign languages in early stages of children has been put forward and in this regard, several presidential resolutions have been adopted to further increase the quality of education which can compete with the standards of world education system. Such demands shouldered on the personnel who teach and investigate foreign languages increase the responsibility double-folded.

Rapid development of modern linguistics proved the fact that the language levels (lexics, morphology, syntactic, pragmatic linguistics and cognitive linguistics) should be investigated connectively with one another. This case leveled up the research works regarding the foreign languages. In this regard, in the research works following the verbal systems has created new aspects and concepts in investigating the lexical, syntactic-semantic features of languages. Such aspectual issues required special systematic orders and generalizations in the area of linguistics. Modern day linguistics mostly focuses on investigating issues on the level of pragmatic and cognitive aspects. Investigating the aspectual issues in several degrees of linguistics gives a proof that it is a wide and problematic side of the issue. When stating about the analysis of the gerund, it is clear that the object

³ Mirziyayev SH.M- during the speech delivered in the meeting with scholars, academics, and scientists 2017, August 4 Tashkent 2017

of the research is done in the circle of the verbals (the gerund, infinitive, present participle).

Gerunds have the internal characteristics of a verb phrase, but are distributed in sentences like noun phrases. This has made it difficult for both traditional grammar and modern linguistic theory to deal with gerunds.

As far as traditional grammar is concerned, gerunds are a problem because they don't fit into the classic 8 Parts of Speech Theory. Gerunds have mixed behaviour, as I described in this post, and they aren't a "person place or thing" nor are they obviously "action words" or an example of a "linking verb".

In linguistics, gerunds are a problem for syntactic theory, because they require positing phrase structure that doesn't always fit neatly with the way that English is otherwise described. If a gerund is something with overall noun-like distributions in the syntax, then the top-most node in the gerund phrase must be a noun phrase. But the gerund clearly contain a verb-like thing inside, which gives us the general structure below:

Some linguists do not assign a single structure to gerunds. This paper gives different structures to gerunds with a possessive in them, and those without. Those without a possessive are called "clausal gerunds" in the paper, and they therefore have a top-most node which is a clause (labeled XP in the sentence tree). Those with the possessive are called "possessive gerunds" (go figure), and they have a topmost determiner phrase, which is what would otherwise be used for possessive noun phrases.

In traditional Kellogg-Reid diagrams, gerunds are notated with a line that slants downward and out like a step. The top step has the verbal root, and the bottom step has the -ing suffix. The gerund is attached to the sentence with a forked line. In the master's dissertation paper, the gerund and its syntactic, semantic meaning in the sentence of Modern English have been highlighted based on the suggestions, namely semantic compositions such as grammar, lexical, syntactic and semantic concepts with the help of different methods such as

omitting, transformational methods and others. And we try to show contrast between the gerund and the present participle with examples in the sentences.

The actuality of the research paper. As it was mentioned above new methods, ways and aspects, such as psycholinguistics, lingua-culturology, cognitive linguistics and many others have emerged in investigating the modern linguistics. In spite of the fact that pragmatic and cognitive aspects were first analyzed in the lexical level of the language, nowadays they are being referred to the grammar structure, syntactic and semantic levels of language, as well. One of the most striking features of Modern English is the system of non-finite forms of the verb. Their dual grammatical nature, both verbal and nominal and their wide use in some predicative constructions have been described in great detail by the authors of scientific grammars.

In the use of the forms, however, there are some peculiarities which present certain theoretical difficulties and which are still a matter of dispute among grammarians.

One of these difficulties is to distinguish such homonymous forms as the Gerund and verbal noun in *-ing* and the Gerund and the present participle. The Gerund is widely used in the structure of Modern English grammar nowadays. We analyze the Gerund syntactically and syntactic-semantically in our research paper.

Theoretical significance of the research paper. Many studies have been done to examine the use of the gerund by second language learners. However, the present study has focused on errors and confusion particularly in the use of the gerund and the present participle. Scholars have investigated the occurrence of students' errors in the usage of the gerund and the present participle in the structure of Modern English sentence. The researcher came across difficulties analyzing contrasts between the gerund and the present participle in the text. In this research paper, syntactic and semantic analysis of the *-ing* forms in the sentence structure are researched and highlighted in the circle of analyzing semantically and syntactically the *-ing* forms, especially the gerund, gerund phrase.

The aim and the tasks of the research paper. The aim of the work is to show syntactic and syntactic-semantic analyses of the Gerund. We can count the following tasks of the research paper:

- to differentiate the Gerund from verbal noun and present participle;
- to index the Gerund separately;
- to express syntactic relations of the Gerund;
- to express syntactic-semantic attributes of the Gerund;
- to identify the ways of syntactic functions of the gerund in order to differentiate it from the syntactic functions of the present participles with the help of omitting and transformational methods;
- to study grammatical features of the gerund in English;

Practical value of dissertation paper. All of the information, such as conclusions and materials referred in this dissertation paper can be independently used as a source for those who deal with semantics, grammar, cognitive and pragmatic aspects of English, as well as it can come in handy in writing works related to cognitive investigations and in writing course, independent, creative, and qualification works of theoretical and practical grammar lessons.

Scientific novelty of the research work. In this research work we try to define and differentiate the Gerund from “the *-ing* form” which used under the common term in English grammar. Besides that we analyze chief peculiarities of the Gerund we define syntactic relations such as nuclear predicative relations, non-nuclear predicative relations, subordinate relations, coordinative relations of the Gerund. And then we define such semantic features of the Gerund as Process object syntaxeme, Process object stative syntaxeme, Process object possessive syntaxeme, Process object continuative syntaxeme, Process manner active instrumental syntaxeme, Process manner active negative comitative syntaxeme, Process manner active negative comitative stative syntaxeme, Process stative syntaxeme, Process possessive syntaxeme, Process negative syntaxeme, Qualificative stative syntaxeme, Qualificative stative causal syntaxeme. We’ll analyze the Gerund in the deep structure of Modern English sentences.

The object of the research paper. The object of the work is the Gerund, functions and semantics of the Gerund that should be studied in linguistics. Learning these features plays an important role in syntactic and syntactic-semantic analysis of the Gerund, differentiating the gerund and the present participle.

Material of the research paper is provided in the research paper include the gerund and its syntactic, semantic analysis, the functions of the gerund in the Modern English sentence structure and more than thousand selected examples of sentences by famous English writers' works.

Theoretical methodology of the work is almost entirely based on the theories of the great linguists and scientists such as V. L. Kaushanskaya, L.L Iofik, B. Ilyish, prof. A.M. Muxin and followers prof. Sh.Safarov, prof. U.Usmonov, prof. A. Irisqulov, Pardayev Z.(2013), Kiyomov R.(2009) and Djamalova M (2017)

Structure of research work. It contains introduction, 3 chapters, conclusion, list of used literatures, covered fictions, used dictionaries and 3 appendixes. In the introduction part, there are discussed the aims, tasks, actuality, novelty, theoretical, practical value, general description of discussed issues and the ways of analysis.

The first chapter is devoted to differentiate the gerund and present participle with distinct examples in order to show contrasts between them. We try to show main properties of verbals. It is about the problem of –ing forms in the structure of Modern English sentences and about the general notion of the Gerund that is double nature of the Gerund, tense and voice distinctions of the Gerund, predicative constructions with the Gerund, the use and the functions of the Gerund.

The second chapter contains 4 units and says the syntactic relations of the Gerund that nuclear predicate relation, non-nuclear predicate relation, subordinate relation, coordinate relation of the Gerund. These relations are pointed out and proved with examples and charts.

The third chapter includes 8 units and tell us about syntactic-semantic features of the Gerund that is Process object, Process object stative, Process object possessive, Process object continuative, Process object comparative, Process manner active instrumental, Process manner active negative comitative, Process manner active negative comitative stative, Process stative syntaxemes and etc. in the structure of Modern English sentences. At the end we gave a general conclusion about our research work. So in the conclusion part of the research paper, the overall views have been once more gathered. On the latest pages used literatures are given. Two appendixes express syntaxemes and their variants expressed by the Gerund, the list of abbreviations and the list of marks of syntactic relations.

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Chapter I. General review of verbals in Modern English

The nature of *-ing* nominals has been widely debated since the early days of generative grammar (e.g. Lees 1960, Chomsky 1970). This paper, part of a larger project investigating the syntax and semantics of nominalizations, will focus on the constructions given in (1) along with labels for each construction, which have been at the center of theoretical discussions of *-ing* nominals, such as Abney (1987).

Part of the interest in *-ing* nominals is no doubt due to the large variation in syntactic and morphological behavior they manifest. Marchand (1969) gives eight derivational processes that produce *-ing* words, such as deverbal adjectives (*charming, fascinating*) or denominal nouns of material (*planking, roofing*), while Pullum & Zwicky (1999) list twenty-five distinct syntactic constructions that use an *-ing*-inflected verb. A full account of *-ing* forms in their syntax, morphology, and semantics remains a challenge for the future. Yet even the syntactic and semantic analysis of just those *-ing* forms in (1) has given rise to much controversy.

Since at least Vendler (1967), interpretive differences between the forms have been treated by appeal to different sorts of abstract objects and, as such, *-ing* forms have played a central role in debates over natural language ontology. While there has traditionally been agreement that the nominal gerund forms in (1d)-(1e) refer to events, there has been far less consensus as to what sort of semantic object is at issue in the verbal gerund forms in (1a)-(1c). Vendler (1975) argues that the POSS-*ing* form in (1c) designates a *fact*, which is distinct from a propositional entity. Zucchi (1993), disagreeing with some of the empirical claims put forth by Vendler, takes the POSS-*ing* form to designate a *state of affairs*, which in turn is a primitive object in the subdomain of propositional entities.¹ Portner (1992) recasts the propositional analysis of verbal gerund *-ing* forms in a system that defines propositions terms of situations rather than possible worlds. Finally, a completely different perspective is given by van Lambalgen & Hamm (2005), working within

their own particular event calculus. They argue that the ACC-*ing* (1b) and POSS *ing* (1c) forms denote *fluents*, which are primitive time-dependent properties, while *-ing* of (1d) and POSS-*ing* of (1e) may denote either event types or tokens. Despite the merits these accounts, additional ontological objects such as facts, states of affairs as Zucchi defines them, and fluents are not otherwise motivated and have not been widely integrated elsewhere in semantic theory. This paper attempts to simplify the ontology and account for the different uses and interpretations of all of the *-ing* forms in (1) using only a distinction between event types and event tokens. A core insight will be that the different constructions in (1) reflect different paths by which the *-ing* form may come to have type or token reference. A central contrast present among these different paths involves whether the event types/tokens are individuated through nominal morphology or through temporal anchoring.

1.1. General reviews on the verbals in Modern English

Verbals include three non-finite forms of the verb: the infinitive, the gerund and the participle. Unlike the finite forms of the verb, they do not express the grammatical categories of person, number and mood. Therefore they cannot be used as the predicate of the sentence.

The main characteristics of the verbals

1. Their syntactical functions differ from those of the finite verb and are typical of parts of speech other than the verb.
2. They are widely used in the so-called predicative constructions, consisting of two elements – nominal and verbal. The components are related to each other like the subject and the predicate of the sentence. They make up a syntactical unit (or a complex) treated as one part of the sentence.
3. Verbals have relative tense distinctions showing whether the action expressed by the verb is simultaneous with, or prior to the action expressed by the finite verb. Thus they have non-perfect and perfect forms.

4. They also express the category of voice represented by the opposition of active and passive forms.

5. Like all other verbs, verbals take objects and are associated with adverbial modifiers.

The forms of the verb, and the phrases they are part of, are usually classified into two broad types, based on the kind of contrast in meaning they express. The meaning of finiteness is the traditional way of classifying the differences. This term suggests that verbs can be ‘limited’ in some way, and this is in fact what happens when different kinds of endings are used. The finite forms are those which limit the verb to a particular number, tense, person, or mood. For example, when the *-s* form is used, the verb is limited to the third person singular of the present tense, as in *does*, *likes* and *speaks*. The non-finite forms do not limit the verb in this way. For example, when the *-ing* form is used, the verb can be referring to any number, tense, person and mood.

I'm leaving. (first person, singular, present)

They're leaving. (Third person, plural, present)

He was leaving. (Third person, singular, past)

He might be leaving tomorrow. (first person, plural, future, tentative)

(Crystal, 1999: 212)

Carter (Carter, 2006: 401) also distinguishes 2 kinds of verb forms in English: tensed and non-tensed. Tensed forms indicate whether a verb is present or past tense. The *-s* form and the past form of the verb are tensed forms. The *-ing* participle and the *-ed* participle are non-tensed forms. The base form may be tensed or non-tensed. When it has a subject, it is tensed (and is called the present form); when it is used as the infinitive form (with or without *to*), it is called non-tensed.

In grammars, the form of the verb ending in *-ing* used like nouns has a special name – **the gerund**. (Swan, 1984: 332) Therefore, there are four verbals (non-tensed/nonfinite forms of the verb) in English: the infinitive (to do), the

gerund (doing), participle I (doing) and participle II (done). They are called verbals as they possess some verbal and some non-verbal features.

Criterion	Finite forms of the verb	Verbals
Grammatically	Have 7 grammatical categories: The Mood <i>(Indicative/Imperative/Subjunctive)</i> The Voice <i>(Active/Passive)</i> The Tense <i>(Present/Past/ Future)</i> The Aspect <i>(Simple/Continuous)</i> The Perfect <i>(Non-perfect/Perfect)</i> The Person <i>(1st/2nd/3rd)</i> The Number <i>(singular/plural)</i> <i>It has been raining since early morning today.</i> (the Indicative Mood, Active, Present, Continuous, Perfect, 3rd person, singular)	Have only 3 grammatical categories: The Voice <i>(Active/Passive)</i> The Aspect <i>(Simple/Continuous)</i> The Perfect <i>(Non-perfect/Perfect)</i> <i>It started to rain early in the morning today.</i> (Active, Simple, Non-perfect)
Lexically	<p style="text-align: center;">There is no difference</p> <p><i>He reads a newspaper before I would like to read a newspaper going to bed in the evening. before going to bed tonight</i></p> <p style="text-align: center;">.</p>	
Morphologically	Express a primary action in the sentence	Denote a secondary action or process related to that expressed by the finite verb. (primary action)
Syntactically 1) Combinability	<p style="text-align: center;">There is no difference in their combinability.</p> <p style="text-align: center;">Both can combine with:</p> <p>a) nouns functioning as direct, indirect, or prepositional objects</p>	

	<i>She smiled when she saw her old friend in the supermarket. (DO)</i>	<i>Seeing her old friend in the supermarket, she smiled. (DO)</i>
	<i>He gave me the address I asked. (IO)</i>	<i>I asked him to give me the address of the hotel. (IO)</i>
	b) adverbs and prepositional phrases used as adverbial modifiers	
	<i>I study English philology hard. (Manner)</i>	<i>Studying English philology hard leads to good results. (Manner)</i>
	c) subordinate clauses	
	<i>I saw that they needed help. (DO clause)</i>	<i>Seeing that he needs help I stopped. (DO clause)</i>
	Both can act as link verbs, when combining with nouns, adjectives or statives as complements	
	<i>She is a teacher of geography at a local school. (Complement)</i>	<i>Being a teacher requires high qualification and patience. (Complement)</i>
	They may act as modal verb semantic equivalents when combined with an infinitive	
	<i>I have to wait for 15 minutes more before I can go.</i>	<i>Having to wait for 15 minutes more, I couldn't join them at once.</i>
2) Syntactic function in the sentence	They perform different syntactic functions in the sentence.	
	have only one function – the predicate of the sentence: <i>I work only 35 hours a week. (Predicate)</i>	can never be the predicate but predicative of: 1) Compound Nominal Predicate <i>Her wish is to travel round the world. (Infinitive)</i> <i>Her hobby is collecting stamps. (Gerund)</i> 2) Compound Verbal Predicate a) Modal <i>I can help you with your work.</i>

		<p><i>I must work hard to succeed.</i> (Bare infinitives)</p> <p>b) Phasal <i>They started to laugh at the joke.</i> (Infinitive)</p> <p><i>They finished talking when I entered the room.</i> (Gerund)</p> <p>c) of Double Orientation <i>The plane is said to be landing in 5 minutes.</i> (Infinitive)</p> <p>They are also found in the function of :</p> <p>1) Subject <i>Seeing you/To see you is always a pleasure.</i> (Gerund/Infinitive)</p> <p>2) Object <i>I remember seeing you once.</i> (Gerund) <i>I forgot to call you yesterday.</i> (Infinitive)</p> <p>3) Attribute <i>Do you know the man standing over there?</i> (Participle I) <i>Can you recognize that well-read person?</i> (Participle II)</p> <p>4) Adverbial modifier <i>I come here to help you.</i> (Infinitive of purpose) <i>Entering the room he greeted everyone.</i> (Participle I – of time)</p>
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Thus, there are some similarities and differences between verbals and finite forms of the verb. The main verbal feature of the infinitive and participles I and II is that they can be used as part of analytical verbal forms (*is doing, is done, have done, will do, etc.*) Other similarities are found in morphology (3 grammatical categories

coincide) and in one sphere of syntax (combinability) as well as in the meaning of the two forms (lexical point of view). They may be accounted by the characteristic features peculiar to the verb. Differences occur in syntax, i.e. in syntactical functions of the two forms as finite forms of the verb have only one function of the predicate of the sentence while verbals perform all functions peculiar to nouns, adjectives and adverbs as they combine some verbal features with nominal (infinitive and gerund) and adjectival (participle I and participle II).

The Verbals, unlike the finite forms of the verb, do not express the person, number or mood. Therefore they cannot be used as the predicate of a sentence.

Like the finite forms of the verb the verbals have tense and voice distinctions, but their tense distinctions differ greatly from those of the finite verb.

There are three verbals in English: the participle, the gerund and the infinitive.

In Russian and in Uzbek we also have three non-finite forms of the verb, but they do not fully coincide with those in the English language

In English: the participle, the gerund and the infinitive.

In Russian: причастие, деепричастие, инфинитив

In Uzbek: sifatdosh, ravishdosh, harakat nomi

The verbals make up a part of the English verb system, they have some features in common with the finite forms and they have some peculiarities of their own.

Let us first consider the system of verbal categories which are expressed in the English verbals. We must observe that it is by no means certain in advance that all the verbals are in the same position as regards the verb categories.

It is clear that none of the verbals has any category of person or mood. The English verbals have no category of number either, so this is not so in some other languages.

The problem of the categories of tense and that of correlation in the Verbals have to be considered together, for reasons which will become clear immediately.

In the infinitive, we find the following oppositions

(to) speak -- *(to) have spoken*
(to) be speaking -- *(to) have been speaking*

In the gerund and the participle the oppositions

speaking -- *having spoken*
being spoken -- *having been spoken*

The question is now is, what category is at the base of these oppositions?

The considerations which can be put forward in this matter might be compared to those which were applied to similar phenomena in the forms

should speak -- *should have spoken*

But here everything is much simpler. If we start from the way these forms are derived we shall say that it is the category of correlation which finds its expression here, the first-column forms having no pattern “*have+second participle*” and the second column-forms having this very pattern. If we turn to the meaning of the second-column, we shall find that they express precedence, whereas the first-column forms do not express it.

If this view is accepted it follows that the category of correlation is much more universal in Modern English verb than that of tense: correlation appears in all forms of the English verb, both finite and non-finite, except the imperative. Since the verbals are hardly ever the predicate of a sentence, they do not express the category in the way the finite verb forms do. It seems pointless to argue that there is a present and past tense in the system of verbals.

We will therefore endorse the view that the opposition between

(to) speak and *(to) have spoken*,

and that between

speaking and *having spoken*

is based on the category of correlation.⁴

⁴ B. Ilysh “*The Structure of Modern English*”

1.2. The definition of the –ing forms

One of the most striking features of Modern English is the system of non-finite forms of the verb. Their dual grammatical nature, both verbal and nominal and their wide use in some predicative constructions have been described in great detail by the authors of scientific grammars. In the use of the forms, however, there are some peculiarities which present certain theoretical difficulties and which are still a matter of dispute among grammarians.

One of these difficulties is to distinguish such homonymous forms as the Gerund and the present participle. It must be said that this is one of the questions which do not admit a definite solution. The solution largely depends on what view we take. The traditional view is, that we have here two homonymous forms: the Gerund and the present participle. More recent view put forward by the Dutch scholar Kruisinga, is that there are not two different forms sounding the same but one form, which he shortly terms “*the –ing*”, being used in various ways in the sentence.⁵

It's a peculiar feature of this ing problem that in some contexts the two “ings” come very close together. The two “ings” coincide in such sentences as, *He was afraid of her knowing the truth*,⁶ where the “ing” is a Gerund if *her* is a possessive pronoun, and a participle if *her* is a personal pronoun in the objective case; also in the sentence *He was glad at John's coming* the “ing” is a Gerund, but if *John's* is replaced by *John*, the “ing” seems to be a participle, though this is not acknowledged by all scholars: M. Deutschbein believed the “ing” to be a Gerund in both cases.

The question is very difficult one. Since up to now it has not been possible to find a convincing invariable meaning to cover both the Gerund and participle. Now we give a definition to the Gerund holding to the traditional view

⁵ E. Kruisinga, *A Handbook of Present-Day English*, vol. II, p 55.

⁶ The example is taken from M. Deutschbein, *System der neuenglischen Syntax*.

which has it that the Gerund and participle are two essentially different forms sounding the same.

In most cases the differentiation between the Gerund and the Participle does not present any difficulty.

Unlike the Participle the Gerund may be preceded by a preposition, it may be modified by a noun in the possessive case or by a possessive pronoun; it can be used in the function of a subject, object, and predicative. In the function of an attribute and of an adverbial modifier both the Gerund and the Participle may be used, but the Gerund in these functions is always preceded by a preposition.

There are cases, however, when the differentiation between the Gerund and the Participle presents some difficulty; for instance, it is not always easy to distinguish between a gerund as part of a compound noun and a participle used as an attribute to a noun. One should bear in mind that if we have a gerund as part of a compound noun, the person or thing denoted by the noun does not perform the action expressed by the *ing*-form: e. g. a *dancing*-hall (a hall for dancing), a *cooking*-stove (a stove for cooking), *walking* shoes, a *writing*-table, etc.

If we have a participle used as an attribute the person denoted by the noun performs the action expressed by the *ing*-form: e. g. a *dancing* girl (a girl who dances), a *singing* child, etc.

However, there are cases which admit of two interpretations; for example a sewing machine may be understood in two ways: a machine for sewing and a machine which sews; a hunting dog may be a dog for hunting and a dog that hunts.

NOMINAL AND VERBAL CHARACTERISTICS OF GERUND

	USAGE	EXAMPLES
NOMIN	1. The Gerund may function as: a) Subject b) Object c) Predicative	<i>Smoking</i> destroys your health. I hate <i>smoking</i> . Your problem is <i>smoking</i> .

	2. The Gerund can be preceded by a preposition.	<i>I am afraid <u>of</u> skating.</i>
	3. The Gerund can be modified by a noun or a pronoun.	<i>We insisted on <u>John's</u> coming to Rio de Janeiro.</i> <i>We insisted on <u>his</u> coming as soon as possible.</i>
VERBAL	1. The Gerund has categories of a) Tense b) Voice	<i>She denied having spoken to them.</i> <i>Students like being asked a lot of questions.</i>
	2. The Gerund of a transitive verb may have a direct object.	<i>All students enjoy writing tests.</i>
	3. The Gerund may be modified by an adverb.	<i>I like reading <u>aloud</u>.</i>

5. ADJECTIVAL/ADVERBIAL AND VERBAL CHARACTERISTICS OF PARTICIPLE I

	USAGE	EXAMPLES
ADJECTIVAL/ ADVERBIAL	1. Participle I may function as: a) Attribute b) Adverbial modifier	<i>We looked at the barking dog.</i> <i>Answering my question he went out.</i>
VERBAL	1. Participle I of a transitive verb may have a direct object.	<i>Having read <u>the novel</u> I went to sleep.</i>
	2. Participle I may be modified by an adverb.	<i>He sat reading <u>aloud</u>.</i>
	3. Participle I has categories of a) Tense b) Voice	<i>Having spoken to him she went away.</i> <i>Being translated into many</i>

		<i>languages, the novel is known all over the world.</i>
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PARTICIPLE I AND GERUND COMPARED

		GERUND	PARTICIPLE I
CHARACTER		Nominal	Adjectival/Adverbial
FUNCTION	SUBJECT	<i>There is no translating this text without a dictionary.</i>	
	OBJECT	<i>He suggested translating this text without a dictionary.</i>	
	PREDICATIVE	<i>My dream is translating this text every day.</i> Note: The Gerund does not qualify the subject but identifies the subject by revealing its meaning.	<i>The sound was deafening.</i> Note: Participle I gives qualitative characteristics to the subject.
	ADVERBIAL MODIFIERS	<i><u>On entering</u> the room, he closed the door.</i> Note: The Gerund is always used <u>with prepositions</u> .	<i>Entering the room, he closed the door.</i> <i><u>When entering</u> the room, he stumbled over the threshold.</i> Note: Participle I is used <u>without prepositions</u> . It can be used <u>with conjunctions</u> .
	ATTRIBUTE	1. <i>He liked the idea of going to Hungary.</i> (preceded by the preposition “of”) 2. <i>a reading hall</i> (=a hall for reading) <i>a hunting dog</i> (=a dog for hunting) The Gerund does not denote the performer of the action.	<i>a reading boy</i> (=a boy who is reading) <i>a hunting dog</i> (=a dog that is hunting) Participle I denotes an action that the person or thing performs or experiences.

The gerund and the infinitive

With a number of verbs and word-groups both the Gerund and Infinitive may be used. The most important of them are: *to be afraid of, to begin, to cease, to continue, 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.*

The young man ***began turning*** over the pages of a book. (Priestly)

At length she ***began to speak*** softly. (Eliot)

She ***continued standing*** near the piano. (Eliot)

She ***continued to look*** at him... (Dickens)

It is sometimes possible to find a reason for the use of a given form. With some verbs and word-groups, such as *to be afraid, to forget, to hate, to like (dislike), to prefer* the infinitive is mostly used with reference to special occasion, the Gerund being more appropriate to a general statement.⁷

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

I ***was*** always ***afraid of losing*** his goodwill. (*Llewellyn*)

Don't forget shutting the window when you leave home, it is very windy today.

I ***don't like interrupting*** people.

I ***don't like to interrupt*** him, he seems very busy.

With the verb *to remember* the Infinitive usually refers to the future, and the Gerund to the past.

I ***remember seeing*** the book in many bookshops.

Remember to buy the book.

With the verb *to stop* the Infinitive and the Gerund have different syntactical functions.

The Gerund forms part of a compound verbal aspect predicate.

They ***stopped talking*** when he came in. (Galsworthy)

⁷ V. L. Kaushanskaya, R. L. Kovner "A Grammar of the English Language

The Gerund and Verbal noun.

The Gerund shouldn't be confused with the verbal noun, which has the same suffix *-ing*. The main points of difference between the Gerund and the Verbal noun are as follows:

1. Like all the verbals the Gerund has a double character – nominal and verbal. The verbal noun has only a nominal character.

2. The Gerund is not used with an article.

The verbal noun may be used with an article.

The making of a new humanity can not be the privilege of a handful of bureaucrats. (*Fox*)

I want you to give my hair a good **brushing**. (*Hardy*)

3. The Gerund has no plural form.

The verbal noun may be used in the plural.

Our **likings** are regulated by our circumstances. (*Ch. Bronte*)

4. The Gerund of a transitive verb takes a direct object.

He received more and more letters, so many that he had given up **reading them**. (*Priestly*)

A verbal noun cannot take a direct object; it takes a prepositional object with the preposition *of*.

Meanwhile Gwendolen was rallying her nerves to **the reading of the paper**. (*Eliot*)

5. The Gerund may be modified by an adverb.

Drinking, even *temperately*, was a sin. (*Dreiser*)

The verbal noun may be modified by an adjective.

He (Tom) took a **good scolding** about clodding Sid. (*Twain*)

1.3. The nominal and verbal properties of the gerund

The gerund is a non-finite form of the verb, which combines verbal and nominal features. It is formed by adding the suffix *-ing* to the stem of the verb. The grammatical meaning of the gerund is that of a process. Thus, it can be easily compared to nouns of verbal origin, e.g. *translating -translation, describing - description, arriving - arrival, perceiving - perception, helping - help* (Kobrina, 2008: 131)

The gerund developed from the verbal noun, which in course of time became verbalized preserving at the same time its nominal character. In fact, the Gerund behaves like a noun, though it can take an object like a verb. The gerund is formed by adding the suffix *-ing* to the stem of the verb, and coincides in form with Participle I.

The double nature of the gerund.

The gerund has nominal and verbal properties. The **nominal** characteristics of the gerund are as follows.

1. The gerund can perform the function of subject, object and predicative.

Crossing the river was a hard task. (subject)

She enjoyed **sitting** in the sun. (direct object)

Deciding is **acting**. (predicative)

2. The gerund can be preceded by a preposition.

The rain showed no sign **of stopping**.

I am relieved **at being left** alone.

3. Like a noun the gerund can be modified by a noun in the possessive case or by a possessive pronoun.

His **getting divorced** surprised everybody.

She insisted on **his taking** a cup of tea with the family.

The **verbal** characteristics of the gerund are the same as those of the participle:

1. The gerund of transitive verbs can take a direct object.

I had now made good progress in **understanding** and **speaking their language**. (*Swift*)

2. The gerund can be modified by an adverb.

He began **snapping** the pebbles **carefully** into the stream.

She burst out **crying bitterly**. (*Hardy*)

3. The gerund has tense distinctions; the gerund of transitive verbs has also voice distinctions. The forms of the gerund in Modern English are as follows:

Indefinite: doing (Active Voice), being done (Passive Voice)

Perfect: having done (Active), having been done (Passive)

There is no gerund in Russian and the English gerund is rendered in Russian in different ways:

a) by a noun:

Dancing had not begun yet... (*Mansfield*)

b) by an infinitive:

She enjoyed **sitting** in the sun.

c) by a gerund.

Jolyon stood a moment without **speaking**. (*Galsworthy*)

d) by a subordinate clause.

He regretted now **having come**. (*Galsworthy*)

It should be noted that though the active forms of the gerund may be rendered in different ways, the passive forms are nearly always rendered by a clause.

I felt relieved at **being left** alone.

The tense distinctions of the gerund.

The tense distinctions of the gerund, like those of the participle, are not absolute but relative.

1. The Indefinite Gerund Active and Passive denotes an action simultaneous with the action expressed by the finite verb; depending on the tense form of the finite verb it may refer to the present, past, or future.

I was tired of **reading** and dead sleepy.

Gwendolen will not rest without **having** the world at her feet. (*Eliot*)

No one could pass in or out without **being seen**. (*Dickens*)

2. The Perfect Gerund denotes an action prior to that of the finite verb.

He didn't remember ever **having seen** her in black.

She denies **having spoken** with him.

However, the Perfect Gerund does not always express a prior action; in some cases we find an Indefinite Gerund. This occurs after the verbs *to remember, to excuse, to forgive, to thank* and after the prepositions *on (upon), after* and *without*.

I paused outside the door on **hearing** my mother's voice.

Don't you remember your **coming** to meet me?

The Perfect Gerund may also be used after the above mentioned verbs and prepositions.

He did not remember **having been** in that room. (*Galsworthy*)

The voice distinctions of the gerund.

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

He liked neither **reading** aloud nor **being read** aloud to. (*Maugham*)

It is to be observed that after the verbs *to want, to need, to deserve, to require* and the adjective *worth* the gerund is used in the active form, though it is passive in meaning.

The car *needs* **repairing**.

The house *wants* **painting**.

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

Predicative constructions with the gerund. Like all the verbals the gerund can form predicative constructions, i. e, constructions in which the verbal element expressed by the gerund is in predicate relation to the nominal element expressed by a noun or pronoun.

I don't like your **going off** without any money. (*Maltz*)

Here the gerund *going off* is in predicate relation to the pronoun *your*, which denotes the doer of the action expressed by the gerund.

The nominal element of the construction can be expressed in different ways.

1. If it denotes a living being it may be expressed:

a) by a noun in the genitive case or by a possessive pronoun.

That would prevent *people's* **noticing**.

Occasionally examples are found where the nominal element of the construction is expressed by a pronoun in the objective case.

I hope you will forgive *me* **disturbing** you. (*Du Maurier*)

I remember *you* **coming** and **taking** her out once.

There are cases when the nominal element of the construction, though denoting a living being, cannot be expressed by a noun in the possessive case, but only by a noun in the common case, namely when it consists of two or more nouns or when it is a noun modified by an attribute in post-position.

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

He felt no uneasiness now in the thought of the *brother* and *sister* **being** alone together. (*Eliot*)

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

2. If the nominal element denotes a lifeless thing, it is expressed by a noun in the common case (such nouns, as a rule are not used in the genitive case) or by a possessive pronoun.

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

3. 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.

The play isn't so bad but I can't imagine *anyone* **wanting** to see it three times.

Note. Some grammarians recognize the existence of 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 a

construction with a half gerund (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).

The use of the gerund.

In Modern English the gerund is widely used and often competes with the infinitive.

In the following cases only the gerund is used:

1. With the verbs and verbal phrases: *to avoid, to burst out, to deny, to enjoy, to excuse, to fancy* (in imperative sentences as an exclamation of surprise), *to finish, to forgive, to give up, to go on, to keep (on), to leave off, to mind* (in negative and interrogative sentences), *to postpone, to put off, cannot help* and some others.

He **avoided looking** at Savina. (*Wilson*).

...she **burst out crying**. (*Collins*)

She **denied having been** at the station that evening. (*Gaskell*)

... he **enjoyed thinking** of her as his future wife. (*Eliot*)

Excuse my leaving you in the dark a moment. (*Dickens*)

Fancy finding you here at such an hour! (*Hardy*)

Forgive my speaking plainly. (*Hardy*)

They **went on talking**. (*Hardy*)

Doctor **keeps coming** and **having** a look at me. (*Priestley*)

I have **left off shooting**. (*Eliot*)

Do you **mind my asking** you one or two more questions? (*Collins*)

Would you **mind waiting** a week or two? (*Dreiser*)

I don't **mind going** and **seeing** her. (*Hardy*)

She **couldn't help smiling**. (*Mansfield*)

2. With the following verbs and verbal phrases used with a preposition: *to accuse of, to agree to, to approve of, to complain of, to depend on, to feel like, to insist on, to look like, to object to, to persist in, to prevent from, to rely on, to speak of, to succeed in, to suspect of, to thank for, to think of, to give up the idea of, to*

look forward to, not to like the idea of, to miss an (the) opportunity of and some others.

They **accuse** me **of having dealt** with the Germans. (*Heym*)

You did not **approve of** my **playing** at roulette. (*Eliot*)

All the happiness of my life **depends on** your **loving** me. (*Eliot*)

I **don't feel like going out**. (*Wilson*)

I **feel like talking**. (*Priestley*)

It **looks like raining**.

3. With the following predicative word-groups (with or without a preposition):
to be aware of, to be busy with, to be capable of, to be fond of, to be guilty of, to be indignant at, to be pleased (displeased) at, to be proud of, to be sure of, to be surprised (astonished) at, to be worth (while), and some others.

He was **aware of** Becky's **having got married**.

I felt physically **incapable of remaining** still in any one place and totally **incapable of speaking** to any one human being. (*Collins*)

I am very **fond of being looked at**. (*Wilde*)

...she was not **pleased at** my **coming**. (*Hichens*)

... nobody knows better than I do that she **is proud of being** so pretty.

Are you quite **sure of** those words **referring** to my mother? (*Collins*)

The bridal party **was worth seeing**. (*Eliot*)

The functions of the gerund in the sentence.

The gerund may be used in various syntactic functions. A single gerund occurs but seldom. In most cases we find a gerundial phrase or a gerundial construction.

1. The gerund as a subject.

Avoiding difficulties isn't my method. (*Snow*)

Talking mends no holes. (proverb)

When the subject of the sentence is a gerundial phrase, the subject is sometimes placed after the predicate. Then the sentence begins with the anticipatory *it*:

It was great **meeting** you here.

It's no good **worrying**.

2. The gerund as a predicative.

Deciding is **acting**.

Her aim is **mastering** English.

3. The gerund as part of a compound verbal predicate.

a) With verbs and verbal phrases denoting modality the gerund forms part of a compound verbal modal predicate (*to intend, to try, to attempt, can't help*):

We *intend* **going** to Switzerland, and **climbing** Mount Blanc. (*Ch. Bronte*)

Joseph *could not help* **admiring** the man. (*Heym*)

b) With verbs denoting the beginning, the duration, or the end of an action, the gerund forms part of a compound verbal aspect predicate.

She *began* **sobbing** and **weeping**. (*Dickens*)

In the night it started **raining**. (*Hemingway*)

4. The gerund as an object.

The gerund may be used as a direct object and as a prepositional indirect object.

a) after the verbs associated only with the gerund— *to avoid, to delay, to put off, to postpone, to mind (in interrogative and negative sentences), to excuse, to fancy, to want (= to need), to require, to need* – the gerund is found in the function of a direct object:

Avoid **making** mistakes.

Excuse my **interrupting** you.

Fancy **having** to go back tonight.

The house wanted **painting**.

b) we find the gerund as a direct object after the adjectives *like, busy* and *worth*:

She was busy **writing**.

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

I felt like **laughing**.

c) the gerund occurs as a direct object after the verbs associated both with the infinitive and the gerund (*to neglect, to like, to dislike, to hate, to prefer, to enjoy* etc.):

She likes **sitting** in the sun.

She preferred **staying** at home.

The gerund is used as a prepositional object:

a) after phrasal verbs and verb phrases used with a preposition (*to think of, to insist on, to rely on, to miss the opportunity of, to like the idea of* etc.):

They *talked of* **going** somewhere else.

I really *thank you for* **taking** all this trouble.

b) after adjectives used predicatively (*fond of, tired of, proud of, ignorant of, used to*):

He was never *tired of* **talking** about her, and I was never *tired of* **hearing**.

I am well *used to* **travelling**.

Predicative constructions with the gerund form a complex object as they consist of two distinct elements, nominal and verbal.

Perhaps you wouldn't mind **Richard's coming in**? (*Dickens*)
(COMPLEX OBJECT).

Aunt Augusta won't quite approve of **your being** here. (*Wilde*)
(PREPOSITIONAL COMPLEX OBJECT)

5. *The gerund as an attribute.*

In this function the gerund is always preceded by a preposition, mostly the preposition *of*.

He was born with the gift of **winning** hearts. (*Gaskell*)

...there's no chance of their **getting married** for years. (*Galsworthy*)

Presently there was the sound of the car **being brought** to the door.

6. *The gerund as an adverbial modifier.*

In this function the gerund is always preceded by a preposition. It is used in the function of an adverbial modifier of time, manner, attendant circumstances, cause, condition, purpose and concession; the most common functions are those of adverbial modifiers of time, manner, and attendant circumstances.

a) As an **adverbial modifier of time** the gerund is preceded by the prepositions *after, before, on (upon), in* or *at*.

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

After **talking** to us for a moment, he left.

b) As an adverbial modifier of **manner** the gerund is used with the prepositions *by* or *in*.

She startled her father by **bursting** into tears. (*Gaskell*)

The day was spent in packing. (*Du Maurier*)

c) As an adverbial modifier of **attendant circumstances** the gerund is preceded by the preposition *without*.

She was not brilliant, not active, but rather peaceful without **knowing** it. (*Dreiser*)

d) As an adverbial modifier of **purpose**, the gerund is chiefly used with the preposition *for*.

... one side of the gallery was used **for dancing**. (*Eliot*)

e) As an adverbial modifier of **condition** the gerund is preceded by the preposition *without*.

He has no right to come bothering you and papa without **being invited**. (*Shaw*)

f) As an adverbial modifier of **cause** the gerund is used with the prepositions *for, for fear of, owing to*.

I feel the better myself for **having spent** a good deal of my time abroad. (*Eliot*)

I dared not attend the funeral for fear of **making** a fool of myself. (*Coppard*)

g) As an adverbial modifier of **concession** the gerund is preceded by the preposition *in spite of*.

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

Overview on Chapter I

Verbals include three non-finite forms of the verb: the infinitive, the gerund and the participle.

Unlike the finite forms of the verb, they do not express the grammatical categories of person, number and mood. Therefore they cannot be used as the predicate of the sentence.

The main characteristics of the verbals

Their syntactical functions differ from those of the finite verb and are typical of parts of speech other than the verb. They are widely used in the so-called predicative constructions, consisting of two elements – nominal and verbal. The components are related to each other like the subject and the predicate of the sentence. They make up a syntactical unit (or a complex) treated as one part of the sentence. Verbals have relative tense distinctions showing whether the action expressed by the verb is simultaneous with, or prior to the action expressed by the finite verb. Thus they have non-perfect and perfect forms. They also express the category of voice represented by the opposition of active and passive forms. Like all other verbs, verbals take objects and are associated with adverbial modifiers.

A gerund is a verbal that ends in *-ing* and functions as a noun. It can take on the role of a subject, direct object, subject complement, and object of preposition.

Gerund as subject:

- *Traveling* might satisfy your desire for new experiences.

Gerund as direct object:

- They do not appreciate my *singing*.

Gerund as subject complement:

- My cat's favorite activity is *sleeping*.

Gerund as object of preposition:

- The police arrested him for *speeding*.

A participle is a verbal that is used as an adjective and most often ends in *-ing* or *-ed*. There are two types of participles: present participles and past participles. Present participles end in *-ing*. Past participles end in *-ed*, *-en*, *-d*, *-t*, or *-n*, as in the words *asked*, *eaten*, *saved*, *dealt*, and *seen*.

- The *crying* baby had a wet diaper.
- *Shaken*, he walked away from the *wrecked* car.
- The *burning* log fell off the fire.
- *Smiling*, she hugged the *panting* dog

Chapter II. Syntactic analysis of the Gerund in the structure of Modern English according to the Syntactic Theory.

Modern English grammars such as *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002) deem this distinction unjustifiable, and refer to such inflected forms as gerund-participles regardless of their grammatical relations. Notice though that this is a label like plain form or past participle and does not refer to a part of speech in any way.

Notice that gerund-participles are verbs regardless of whether they function as a subjects or objects or modifiers. For example, unlike nouns they take objects:

Eating children is wrong. (subject)

The people eating children need to be punished. (modifier)

Nouns cannot take objects. Instead the noun phrase with the comparable semantic relation must occur in a preposition phrase after the noun:

The government destroyed the bill. (verb with object)

The government's destruction of the bill. (noun with PP complement).

Unlike nouns, gerund-participles are modified by adverbs just like other verbs. They cannot be modified by adjectives.

Quickly eating elephants is wrong.

Eating elephants quickly is wrong.

*Quick eating elephants is wrong.

Most of the deepest blunders in English grammar as traditionally presented over the past two or three centuries stem from a single long-standing confusion between (i) grammatical categories or word classes; (ii) syntactic functions or grammatical relations; and (iii) semantic and discourse-related notions.

It is surprising to see the tenacity of this confusion. It does not appear in other domains. People do not confuse butter knives with screwdrivers, even though occasionally someone who cannot find a screwdriver may use a butter knife to turn a screw. Yet in grammar people just cannot keep syntactically relevant categories or classes of words separate from the relational properties they have when used in

particular constructions, and cannot keep either separate from meaning. They insist on trying to define the first of these in terms of the other two, and they have done so since the very earliest attempts to write grammars of English.

In short we need to be careful about confusing word categories and functions/grammatical relations. These two things are entirely different.

Notice that we can form nouns out of verbs using an -ing suffix in English resulting in multitudinous verb noun homophones:

The eating of children is forbidden.

Notice that the noun eating above is preceded by the definite article and takes of children as a PP. It cannot take children as an object:

*The eating children is forbidden

2.1. Syntactic relation of the Gerund and predicative constructions with the Gerund

In starting to analyze syntactic relations of the Gerund in the structure of Modern English sentences we must first of all try to explain what is the syntactic relation. We know that the constituent words of a sentence may belong to a certain part of speech. These parts of speech join together and denote a certain relation in the structure of Modern English sentences.

Basing on the theory of a Great Russian linguist A.M.Muxin we can say that “the components of a sentence join together in a certain syntactic relation”.⁸

According to A.M.Muxin’s theory in component-syntaxeme analysis we we’ll divide parts of a sentence into the Subject, Object, Attribute and Adverbial Modifier. At the same time we’ll find out that the parts of a sentence are dependent on each other.

In this analysis we’ll do our research in three approaches:

⁸ Мухин А.М. “Синтаксемный анализ и проблема уровней языка”

- 1) according to means of expressing the linguistic units;
- 2) according to syntactic features of the linguistic units;
- 3) according to syntactic position of the linguistic units.

When we define the syntactic relations and different attributes of the components of a sentence we have to refer to component analysis. The latter shows up nuclear predicate relation, nuclear predicating component, nuclear predicated component, dependant part and etc. which are seen in the system of opposition in internal syntactic relations in a sentence.

As we know, the syntactic relation is of great significance in the structure of the most widespread type of sentences. One of them is Predicate Relation, that is, Nuclear Predicate Relation, which express nuclear structural relation in a sentence.

It expresses the syntactic relation between the Subject and Predicate,

Subject – Nuclear Predicating (NP₁)

Predicate – Nuclear Predicated (NP₂)

These NP₁ and NP₂ can form the sentence independently.

Here we consider it to be appropriate to note Smirnitsky's statement. From his point of view it is impossible to leave out the main parts of a sentence (NP₁ and NP₂) as in this case the sentence will lose its actual semblance.

What we are interested here is Nuclear Predicate relation of the Gerund in the structure of Modern English sentences.

In the following sentences the Gerund functions as the main part of a sentence: a Subject (NP₁) or a Predicate (NP₂).

The Gerund can be freely used as a subject. From the point of view of Russian linguist E.M.Gordon the Gerund in the function of subject usually expresses permanent or recurrent actions.⁹ Sentences with the Gerund as subject have certain structural peculiarities.

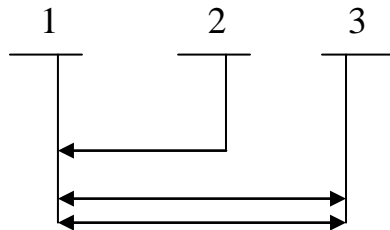
- 1) We usually find the Gerund as subject in declarative sentences.

⁹ E. M. Gordon, I. P. Krylova “*A grammar of present - day English*“

2) The Gerund as a subject is usually placed at the head of the sentence.

Now we'll see it in the following examples:

Writing¹ letters² is⁽³⁾ a⁽³⁾ waste³ of⁽³⁾ time³. (EGG 137)



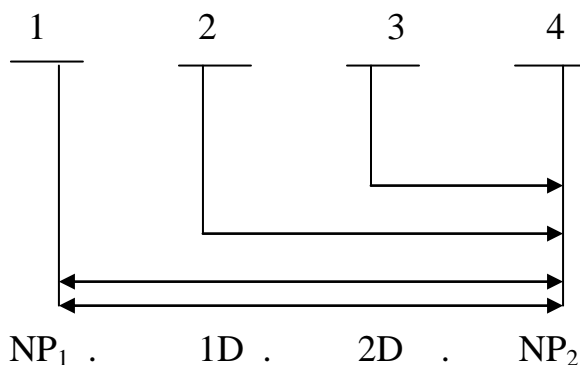
NP₁ . 1D . NP₂

We use the method of omitting the components of the sentence to prove that the Gerund *writing* is NP₁ and it is in NP relation with the component *is a waste of time*.

Writing letters is a waste of time. → Writing ... is a waste of time. → ...
letter is a waste of time. → Writing letter ...

There is NP relation between the components *writing* and *is a waste of time*.

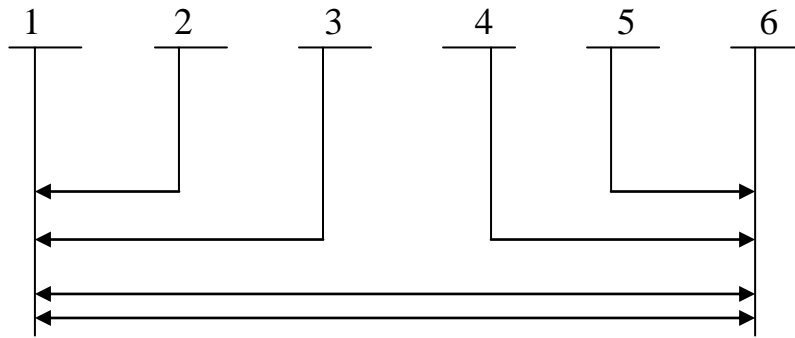
Bathing¹ is⁽⁴⁾ such² a⁽⁴⁾ wonderful³ game⁴. (GHM 11)



NP₁ . 1D . 2D . NP₂

In this sentence the component 1 is the Gerund and it is in the function of a Subject that is NP₁. And there is NP relation between the component 1 and component 4.

Buying¹ presents² for⁽³⁾ men³ is⁽⁶⁾ one⁶ of⁽⁶⁾ life's⁴ eternal⁵ problems⁶. (GHM 27)



NP₁ . 1D . 2D . 3D . 4D . NP₂

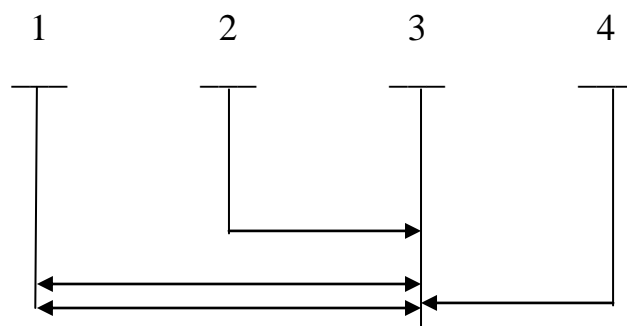
Here the component 1 is the Gerund and it is in the function of a Subject that is NP₁ . And there is NP relation between the component 1 and component 4. We prove the Gerund to be subject by the method of omitting the components of the sentence:

Buying presents for men is one of eternal problems. → *Buying...*is one of...problems.

Or by the transformational method of substituting the word for another one which belong to the same category:

Buying presents for men is one of eternal problems. → *Buying...*is one of...problems. → *It* is one of problems.

Washing¹ ... is⁽³⁾ the⁽³⁾ first² stage³ of⁽⁴⁾ decomposition⁴... (GHM 79)



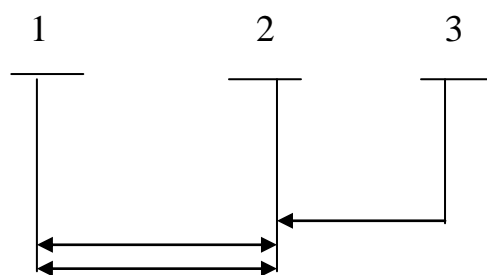
NP₁ . 1D . NP₂ . 2D

Here the Gerund *washing* is in the function of a Subject that is NP₁. Now we'll prove it with the help of the following transformational method of substituting the word for another one which belong to the same category:

Washing ... is the first stage of decomposition... → It is the first stage of decomposition...

The result shows that *washing* is the NP₁ component of the sentence. It has NP relation with the element *stage*.

Thinking¹ is⁽²⁾ no⁽²⁾ good² to⁽³⁾ anyone³. (KMSS 110)

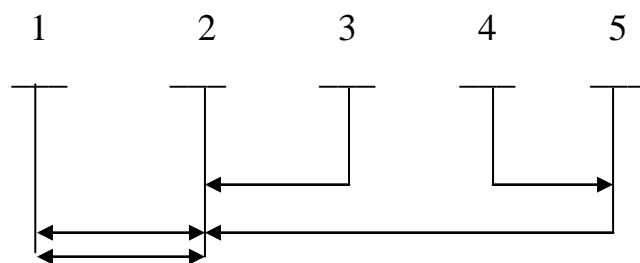


NP₁ . NP₂ . 1D

Thinking is no good to anyone. → *It* is no good to anyone.

The result shows that *thinking* is the NP₁ component of the sentence.

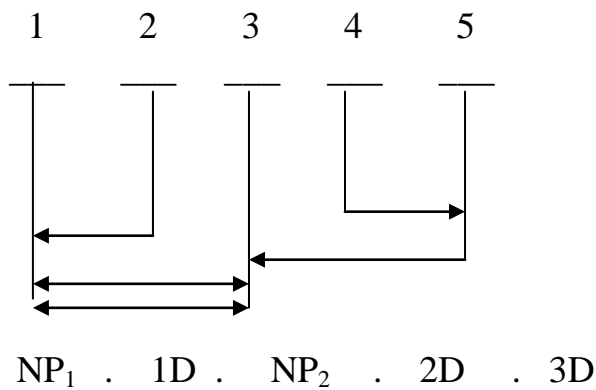
Travelling¹ costs² money³ in⁽⁵⁾ this⁴ city⁵. (GHM 39)



NP . NP . 1D . 2D . 3D

Travelling costs money in this city. → *It* costs money in this city.

Writing¹ quickly² tires³ my⁴ hand⁵. (VDA447)



In this sentence we must prove the Gerund to be in Nuclear Predicate relation. To prove it we'll use the method of putting question:

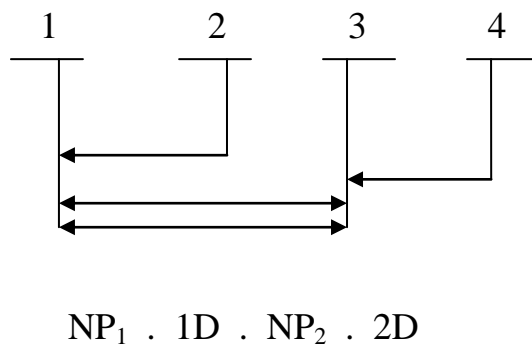
What tires my hand?
 Writing tires my hand.

Or the method of leaving out:

...quickly tires my hand.
 ...tires my hand.
 Writing quickly tires my hand.

The result of this experiment shows that the Gerund in this sentence is in the function of a Subject and between the Gerund and the element *tires* there is a Nuclear Predicate relation.

Looking¹ after⁽¹⁾ children² requires³ patience⁴. (VDA448)



In this example a phrasal verb *look after* is in the Gerund form and this Gerund functions as the Subject – NP₁ Nuclear Predicating component of the

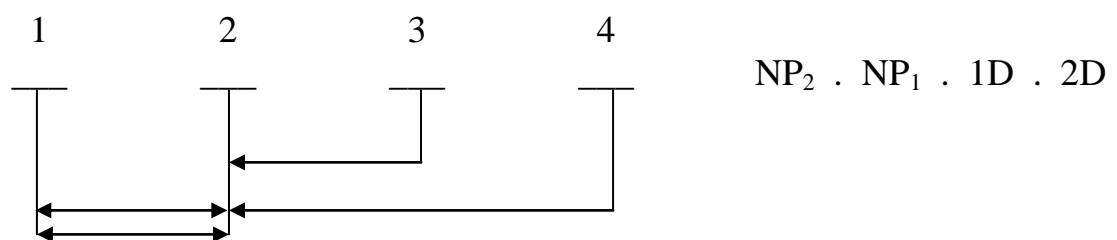
sentence. The component *looking after* that we are interested in is in Nuclear Predicate relation with *requires*, the Predicate – NP₂ Nuclear Predicated component of the sentence. We'll prove it by the method of omitting DP Dependent Parts of the sentence:

Looking after children requires patience. → ... children requires patience. →
 Looking after...requires patience. → Looking after children...patience. →
 Looking after children requires.... → Looking after ...requires...

The result of this method shows that these NP₁ and NP₂ (Looking after requires) can form the actual semblance of the sentence.

The Gerund as a Subject is occasionally found in sentences beginning with *there is*, but its use is restricted to negative sentences where it is usually preceded by *no*.

There¹ was¹ no⁽¹⁾ **arguing**² with⁽³⁾ her³ about⁽⁴⁾ it⁴.



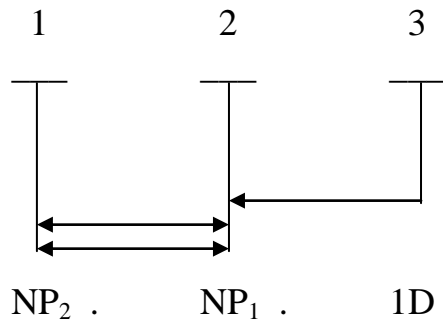
It is time now to point the special case which do not come under the general word order. There is a type of declarative sentence in which the order “predicate+subject” is normal. These sentences state the existence or the appearance of something in a certain place.¹⁰

The most widely known type of such sentences is the one beginning with the words *There is...* the two words *there* and *is* constitute together the Predicate of the sentence.

¹⁰ B. Ilysh “*The Structure of Modern English*”

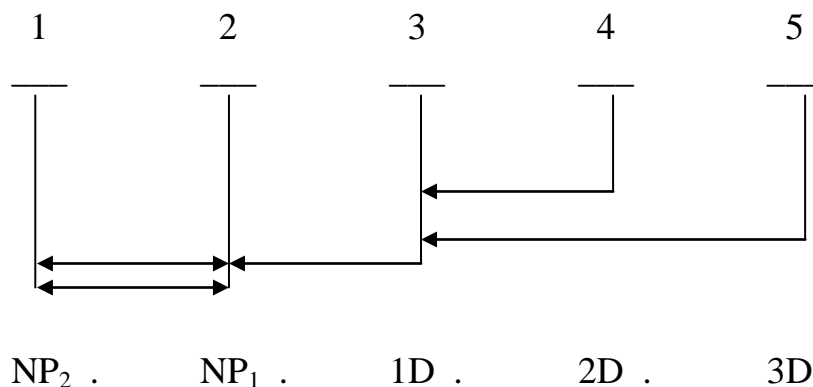
In such type of sentences the Predicate NP₂ always comes before the Subject NP₁. For instance,

There¹ is¹ no¹ **getting² away⁽²⁾** from³ this³. (NFGS5)

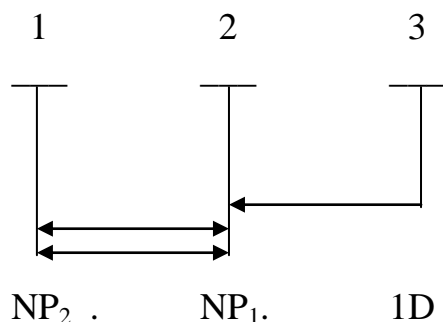


In this sentence the Gerund is NP₁ element of the sentence and is expressed by a phrasal verb.

There¹ was¹ no⁽¹⁾ reason² for⁽³⁾ **leaving³** there⁴ early⁵. (ChBSh215)



There¹ was¹ **christening²** at⁽³⁾ the⁽³⁾ Squire's³, and ... (ThHFC239)

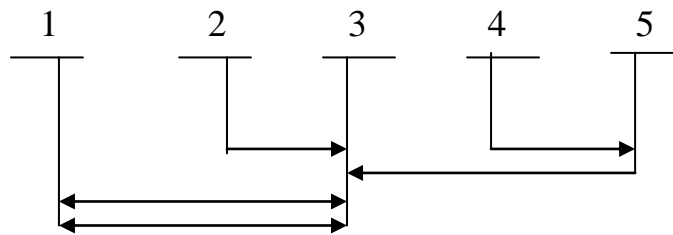


To improve that the Gerund *christening* is NP₁ element of the sentence we use the method of leaving out the elements of a sentence:

There was christening at the Squire's → There was ... at the Squire's → ... christening at the Squire's.

It shows that the elements *There was* and *christening* are in NP Relation and leaving out either of them changes the original meaning of the sentence.

There¹ was¹ painful² **pleading**³ in⁽⁵⁾ her⁴ voice⁵. (PAPTH 69)

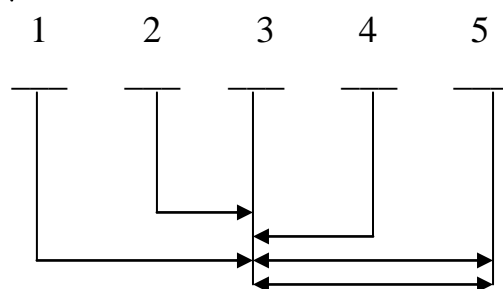


NP₂ . 1D . NP₁ . 2D . 3D

The components *There was* (NP₂) and *pleading* (NP₁) are in NP relation. Here the NP₁ component *pleading* is preceded by the dependant part *painful*.

It should also be noted that the Gerund as a subject is occasionally preceded and followed by some secondary parts in a sentence.

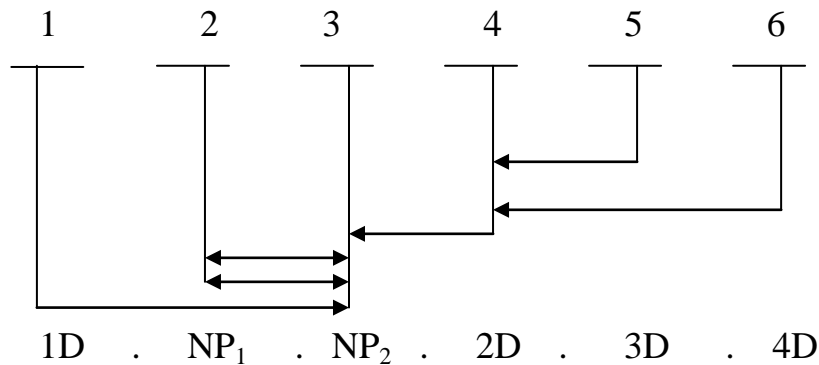
This¹ frantic² **rushing**³ to⁽⁴⁾ France⁴ was⁵ a⁽⁵⁾ mistake⁵. (ACHS 97)



1D . 2D . NP₁ . 3D . NP₂

The components *rushing* (NP₁) and *was a mistake* (NP₂) are in NP relation. Here the NP₁ component *rushing* is preceded by the dependant parts *this* and *frantic* and followed by the dependant part *to France*.

Usually¹ **warning**² is⁽³⁾ given³ on⁽⁴⁾ the⁽⁴⁾ day⁴ before of⁽⁶⁾ a⁽⁶⁾ private⁵ sitting⁶. (GHM 99)

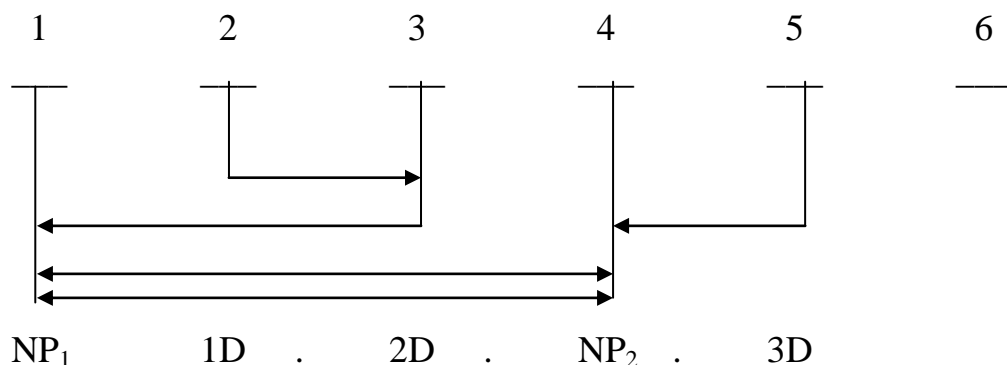


In this example the Gerund *warning* is the Subject – NP₁ component of the sentence. It has NP relation with the Predicate *is given* (NP₂). We'll prove it by omitting the dependant parts of the sentence:

Usually warning is given on the day before of a private sitting. →
 ...warning is given...

From the point of view of the Russian linguists L.L. Iofik and L.P. Chakhoyan the Gerund is occasionally used as a nominal predicate in a sentence expressing the identity of subject and predicate.

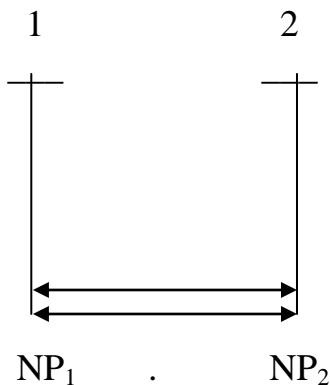
Telling¹ Roger's² father³ is⁽⁴⁾ not⁽⁴⁾ **making**⁴ it⁵ public⁶. (EMG 89)



There is Nuclear-predicate relation between the component 1 and component 4. We use the method of omitting to prove it:

Telling Roger's father is not making it public. → Telling... is not making... public.

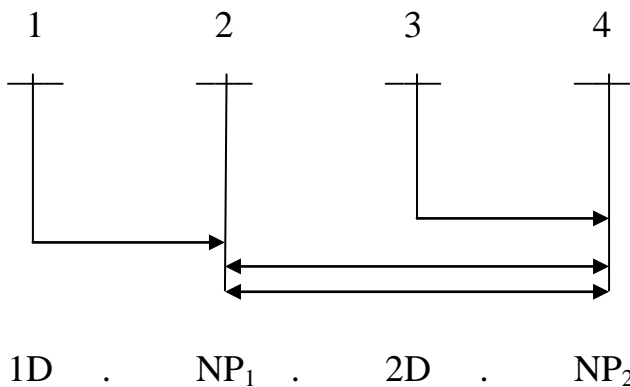
No⁽¹⁾ **progressing**¹ is⁽²⁾ **regressing**². (VDA 374)



The sentence only consists of two components and there is Nuclear-predicate relation between the component 1 and component 2.

The Gerund as predicative is usually used after the verb *to be*.

The⁽¹⁾ dry-cleaning¹ business² was⁽⁴⁾ not⁽⁴⁾ his³ **calling**⁴. (NFGS 24)

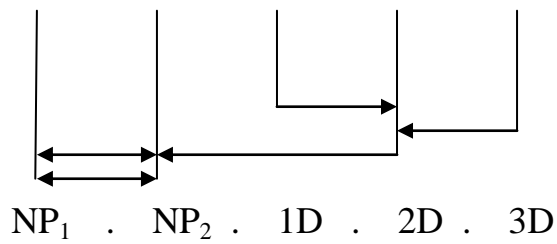


There is Nuclear-predicate relation between the component 2 and component 4. We use the method of omitting to prove it:

The dry-cleaning business was not his *calling*. → ...business was not... *calling*.

It¹ is⁽²⁾ **playing**² a⁽³⁾ child's³ game⁴ of⁽⁵⁾ hide-and-see⁵. (ACHS 97)





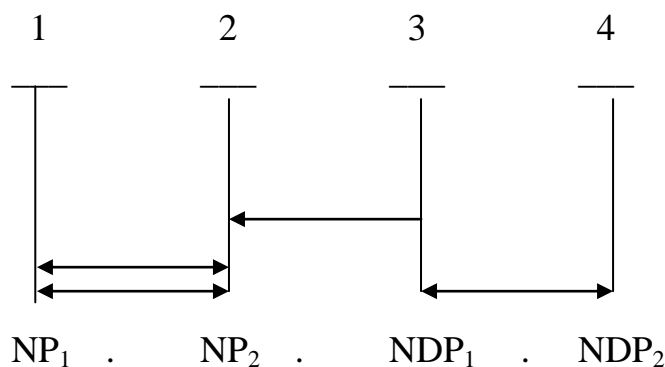
Here the Gerund *playing* is in the function of predicative and it is [receded by the link verb *be* and followed by the secondary parts *a child's game of hide-and-peek*. Though we leave out these parts the sentence doesn't change its structure. This means that they are the dependent parts of the sentence. The components it and is

2.2. Non-nuclear predicate relation of the Gerund

Non-nuclear predicate relation is like nuclear predicate relation: it also has NDPredicating and NDPredicated components in a sentence. But they are considered dependent parts, so these components can't be the structural basis of a sentence like NPredicating and NPredicated components.

The Gerund can also be in Non-nuclear predicate relation in the structure of Modern English sentences. For instance in the following sentences, we'll see them in junction model:

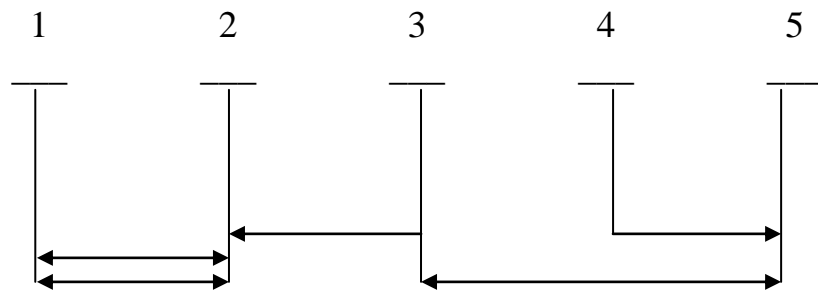
She¹ complained² about the⁽³⁾ porridge³ **being**⁴ lumpy⁴. (EGG 173)



In this sentence the components *porridge – being lumpy* are non-nuclear predicative components of the sentence. Here we use the transformational method of linguistic experiment to prove it:

She complained about the porridge *being* lumpy. → ...porridge *being* lumpy. → porridge *was* lumpy.

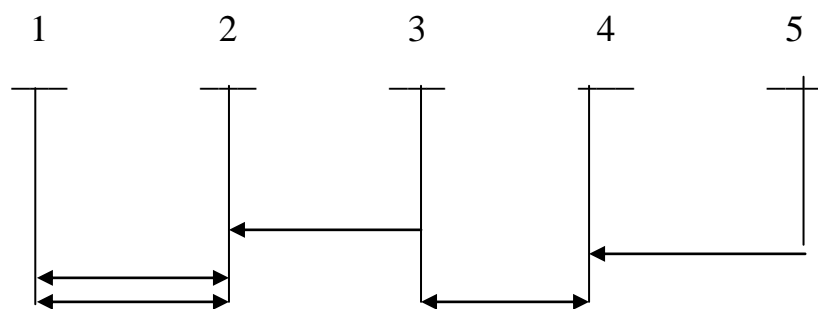
Can⁽²⁾ you¹ imagine² anybody³ **being**⁵ so⁴ stupid⁵? (RME 107)



NP₁ . NP₂ . NDP₁ . 1D . NDP₂

Can you imagine anybody *being* so stupid? → ...anybody *being* ...stupid.
→ anybody *is* stupid.

The⁽¹⁾ police¹ could⁽²⁾ prevent² others³ **entering**⁴ the⁽⁵⁾ square⁵. (GGQA 171)

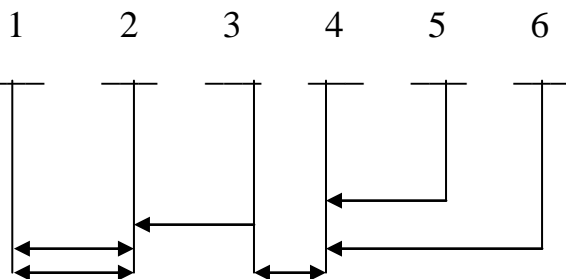


NP₁ . NP₂ . NDP₁ . NDP₂ . 1D

In this sentence the components *others – entering* are non-nuclear predicative components of the sentence. This means that there are in non-nuclear predicate relation between these two components of the sentence. Here we use the transformational method of linguistic experiment to prove it:

The police could prevent others *entering* the square. →
 ...others...*entering*... → others *entered*.

I¹ don't⁽²⁾ like² friends³ **calling**⁴ me⁵ at⁽⁶⁾ work⁶. (RME 116)



NP₁ .NP₂ .NDP₁ .NDP₂ . 1D

There is non-nuclear predicate relation between the components 3 and 4. Here we use the transformational method of linguistic experiment to prove it:

I don't like friends *calling* me at work. → ...friends calling... → friends call

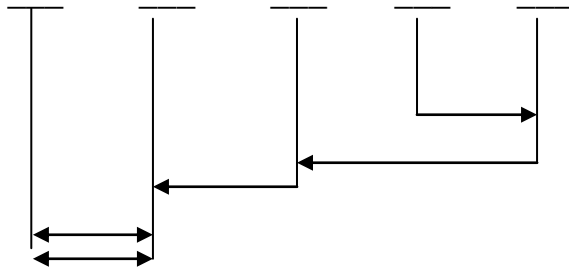
2.3. Subordinate and coordinate relation of the Gerund.

Subordinate relation always correlates one (dependent) component to another component of a sentence. Subordinate relation is the relation of secondary parts (object, attribute, adverbial modifier) with main parts (subject, predicative) in a sentence. As we mentioned above besides the functions of subject and predicative the Gerund can be used in the functions of object, attribute and adverbial modifier in a sentence. In these functions the Gerund is always a dependent part and expresses subordinate relation with other parts of a sentence. Now we'll syntactically analyze the following sentences in junction models.

In the following examples the Gerund is in the function of **object**:

We¹ have⁽²⁾ avoided² **using**³ technical⁴ terms⁵. (MED 80)

1 2 3 4 5



NP₁ . NP₂ . 1D . 2D . 3D

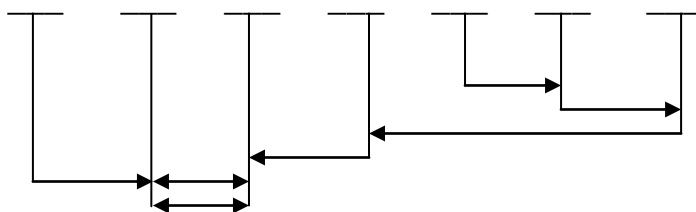
Here the Gerund *using* is a dependent part and it is correlated to component 2 (predicative) in subordinate relation. We use the method of omitting in linguistic experiments to prove:

We have avoided *using* technical terms. → We have avoided... technical terms. → We have avoided...

The result shows that leaving out the dependent parts doesn't influence the structural basis of the sentence

The⁽²⁾ little¹ boy² kept³ **tugging**⁴ on⁽⁷⁾ his⁵ mother's⁶ skirt⁷. (MED 1545)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

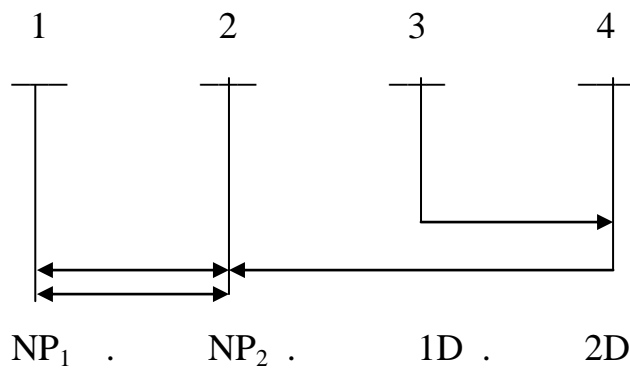


1D . NP₁ . NP₂ . 2D . 3D . 4D . 5D

Here the component 4 is the Gerund – *tugging* and this Gerund is dependent part in the function of an object, this component has subordinate relation with the component *kept*. We can prove it by the method of omitting:

The little boy kept *tugging* on his mother's skirt. → The little boy kept... on his mother's skirt.

Do⁽²⁾ you¹ do² much³ **cycling**⁴? (GHM 58)



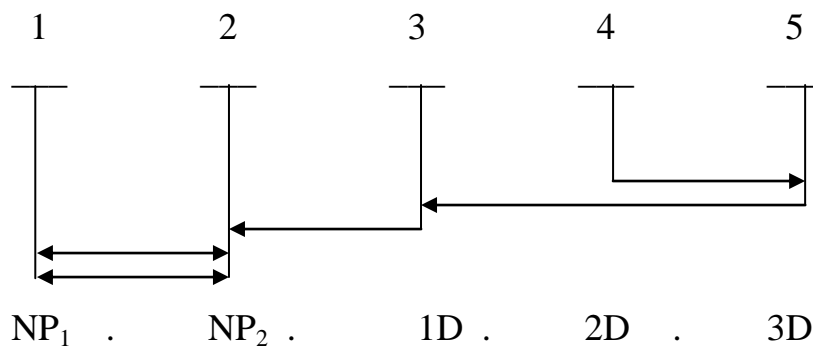
In this sentence the Gerund cycling is preceded by adverb much as we mentioned that the Gerund has both nominal and verbal characteristics. It is dependent part and subordinated to the component 2:

Do you do much *cycling*? → Do you do much...? → Do you do...?

Or we can prove it by the following transformational method of linguistic experiment:

Do you do much *cycling*? → Do you do *it*?

I¹ love² **crossing**³ the⁽⁴⁾ Thames⁴ at⁽⁵⁾ night⁵. (VDA 374)

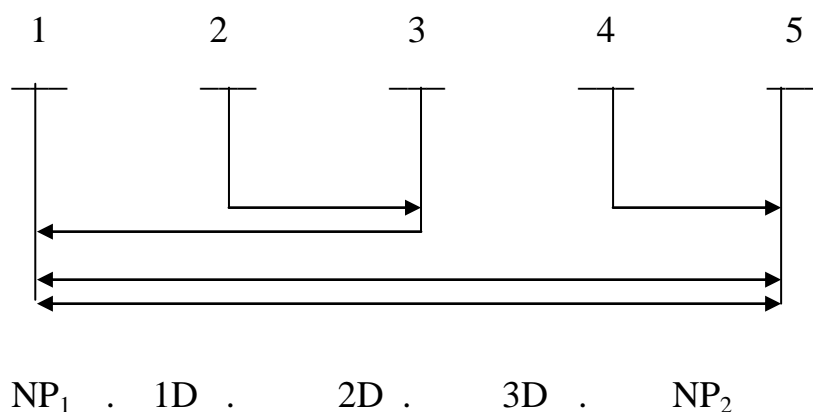


Here the component 3 is the Gerund – *crossing* and this Gerund is dependent part in the function of an object, this component has subordinate relation with the component *love*. We can prove it by the transformational method of linguistic experiment:

I love *crossing* the Thames at night. → I love *crossing* ... → I love *it*.

In the following examples the Gerund is in the function of **an attribute**. In this function the Gerund is always preceded by the preposition *of*.

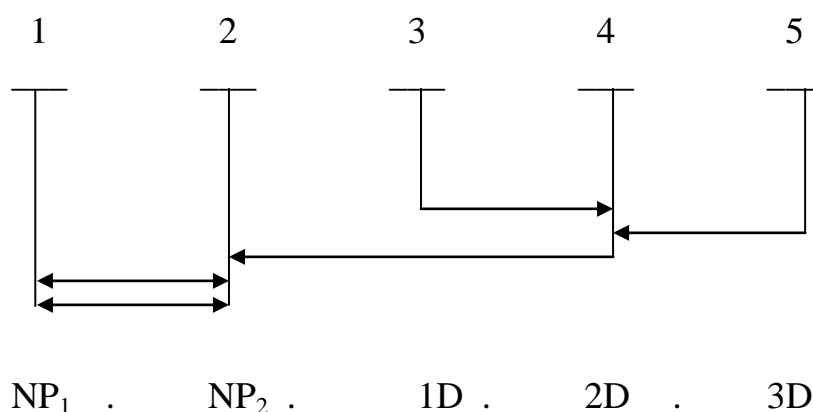
Some¹ of⁽³⁾ my² **suffering**³ is⁽⁵⁾ very⁴ acute⁵. (CHB 233)



Here the component 3 is the Gerund – *suffering* and it is preceded by possessive pronoun *my*. And this Gerund is dependent part in the function of an attribute. The component we are interested in has subordinate relation with the components 1 and 2. We'll find it out by the method of omitting:

Some of my *suffering* is very acute. → Some ... is very acute.

...there¹ is⁽¹⁾ no¹ chance² of⁽⁴⁾ their³ **getting**⁴ married⁴ for⁽⁵⁾ years⁵. (GMP 68)

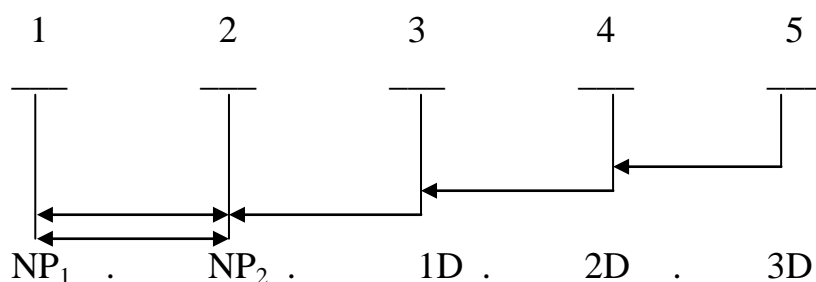


Here the component 4 is the Gerund – *getting* and it is preceded by possessive pronoun *their* and followed by adjective *married* as it is a link verb. And this Gerund is dependent part in the function of an attribute. The component

we are interested in has subordinate relation with the components 1 and 2. We'll find it out by the method of omitting:

...there is no chance of their *getting* married for years. → ...there is no chance...

He¹ was⁽²⁾ born² with³ the⁽³⁾ gift³ of⁽⁴⁾ **winning**⁴ hearts⁵. (EGM 122)



Here the component 4 is the Gerund – *winning* and this Gerund is dependent part in the function of an attribute, this component has subordinate relation with the component *the gift*. We can prove it by the method of omitting in the linguistic experiment:

He was born with the gift of *winning* hearts. → He was born with the gift of ...hearts.

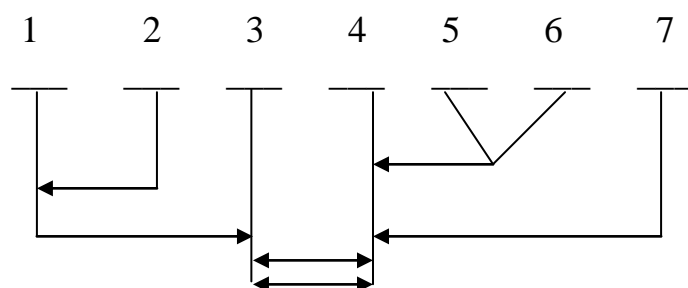
In the following examples the Gerund is in the function of an **adverbial modifier**:

In this function the Gerund is always preceded by a preposition. It is used in the function of an adverbial modifier of time, manner, attendant circumstances, cause, condition, purpose and concession; the most common functions are of adverbial modifiers of time, manner and attendant circumstances.

As an adverbial modifier of time the Gerund is preceded by the preposition *after, before, on (upon), in or at*.

On⁽¹⁾ **reaching**¹ Casterbridge² he³ left⁴ the⁽⁵⁾ horse⁵ and trap⁶ at⁽⁷⁾ an⁽⁷⁾ inn⁷.

(THT 182)



1D . 2D . NP₁. NP₂ . 3HD . 4HD . 5D

Here the component 1 is the Gerund – *reaching*. And this Gerund is dependent part in the function of an adverbial modifier of time. The component 1 we are interested in has subordinate relation with the components 3 and 4. We'll find it out by the method of omitting:

On *reaching* Casterbridge he left the horse and trap at an inn. →
 On...Casterbridge he left the horse and trap at an inn. → On *reaching* Casterbridge he left...

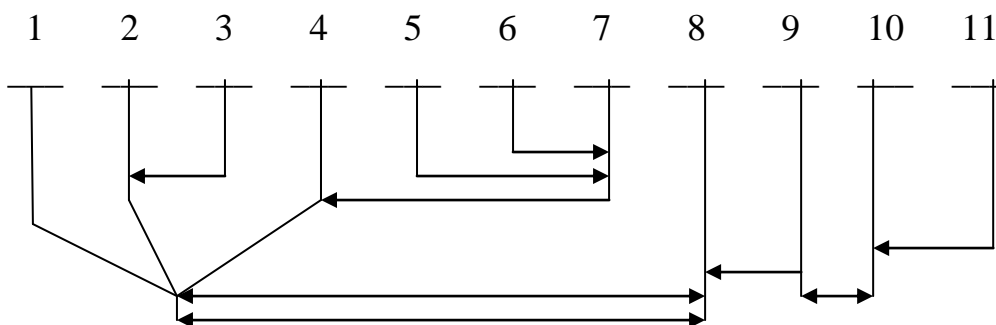
Besides that we can prove the Gerund to be in the function of an adverbial modifier of time by putting question:

On *reaching* Casterbridge he left the horse and trap at an inn. → When he left the horse and trap at an inn?

Coordinate relation is relation between homogeneous parts of a sentence which connects two or more homogeneous parts syntactically. These homogeneous parts, besides being in coordinate relation, can also be related with other components on the base of subordinate and nuclear-predicate relation in a sentence. This means that they may be dependent parts (object, attribute, adverbial modifier) and nuclear predicating (subject) and nuclear predicated (predicative) components in a sentence.

It should be noted that the Gerund can also be homogeneous or homogeneous dependant part in coordinate relation with each other. Here we give examples of it:

Playing¹ and **working**² outside³, and **eating**⁴ good⁵ Yorkshire⁶ food⁷, has⁽⁸⁾ made⁸ Mary⁹ feel¹⁰ strong¹¹. (VDA 374)



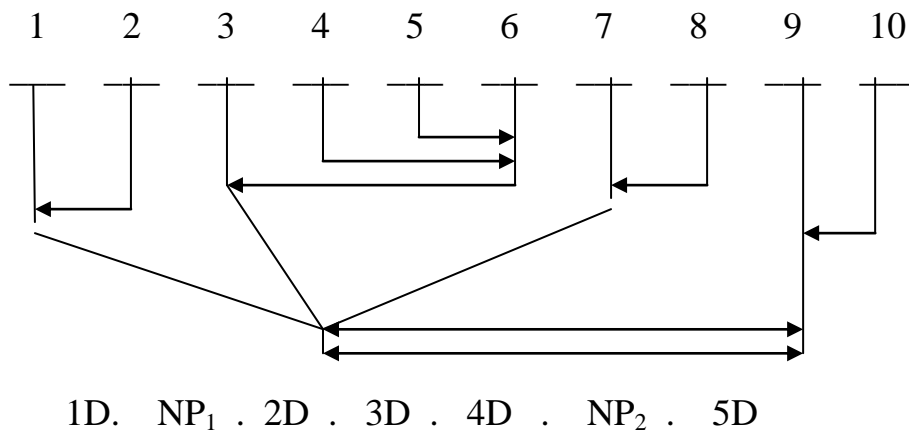
NP₁ . 1D . . 2D . 3D . 4D . NP₂ . NDP₁ . NDP₂ . 5D

In this sentence the elements *playing*, *working*, *eating* are in coordinate relation with each other, but in nuclear predicate relation with the element *has made* as we have seen in the junction model. We'll prove it by the method of omitting:

Playing and *working* outside, *eating* good Yorkshire food, has made Mary feel strong. → *Playing* ...has made Mary feel strong. → ...*working* outside, has made Mary feel strong. → ...*eating* good Yorkshire food, has made Mary feel strong.

The results show that the elements *playing*, *working*, *eating* are homogeneous parts which have the same function in a sentence and has coordinate relation with each other, and nuclear predicate relation with the element *has made*.

Driving¹ along², **doing**³ your⁴ own⁵ things⁶, **listening**⁷ to⁽⁸⁾ music⁸ is⁽⁹⁾ part⁹ of⁽¹⁰⁾ the⁽¹⁰⁾ fun¹⁰. (VDA 374)



In this sentence the elements *driving*, *doing*, *listening* are in coordinate relation with each other, but in nuclear predicate relation with the element *is part* as we have seen in the junction model. We'll prove it by the method of omitting:

Driving along, *doing* your own things, *listening* to music is part of the fun.
 → *Driving* along... is part of the fun. → ... *doing* your own things is part of the fun. → ...*listening* to music is part of the fun.

The results show that the elements *driving*, *doing*, *listening* are homogeneous parts which have the same function in a sentence and has coordinate relation with each other, and nuclear predicate relation with the element *is part*.

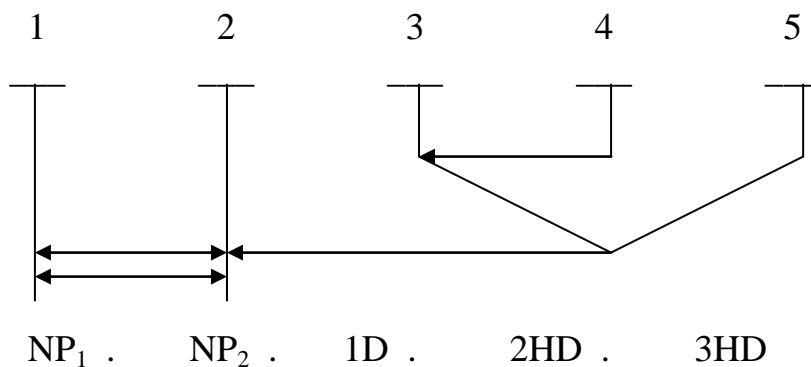
Besides that the elements *along*, *your own things*, *to music* are subordinated to these homogeneous parts as:

driving along

doing your own things

listening to music.

He¹ kept² on⁽²⁾ **smiling**³ at⁽⁴⁾ her⁴ and **speaking**⁵. (EGG 171)



In this sentence the elements *smiling* and *speaking* are in coordinate relation with each other, but in subordinate relation with the element *kept on* as we have seen in the junction model. This means that the Gerund is homogeneous dependent part in the sentence. We'll prove it by the method of omitting:

He kept on *smiling* at her and *speaking*. → He kept on *smiling* at her... → He kept on... *speaking*.

The results of the linguistic experiment show that the elements *smiling* and *speaking* are homogeneous parts which have the same function of an object in a sentence and has coordinate relation with each other, and subordinate relation with the element *kept on*.

Overview on chapter II

The gerund developed from the verbal noun, which in course of time became verbalized preserving at the same time its nominal character. The gerund is formed by adding the suffix *-ing* to the stem of the verb, and coincides in form with Participle I.

The gerund may be used in different syntactic functions . A single gerund occurs but seldom; in most cases we find a gerundial phrase or a gerundial construction.

1. The gerund as a subject.

Talking mends no holes.

Waiting for the Professor was a lame excuse for doing nothing.

My answer in the affirmative gave him great satisfaction.

2. The gerund as a predicative.

The only remedy for such a headache as mine is going to bed.

3. The gerund as part of a compound verbal predicate.

a) with verbs and verbal phrases denoting modality the gerund forms part of a compound verbal modal predicate.

We intend going to Switzerland, and climbing Mount Blanc.

Joseph could not help admiring the man.

b) With verbs denoting the beginning, duration, or the end of an action, the gerund forms part of a compound verbal aspect predicate.

She began sobbing and weeping.

In the night it started raining.

Bathsheba continued walking.

4. The gerund as an object.

The gerund may be used as a direct object and as a prepositional indirect object.

I simply love riding.

She enjoyed singing and playing to him.

Predicative Constructions with the gerund form a complex object as they consist of two distinct elements, nominal and verbal.

Perhaps, you wouldn't mind Richard's coming in.

5. The gerund as an attribute.

In this function the gerund is always preceded by a preposition.

Swithin protruded his pale round eyes with the effort of hearing.

He was born with the gift of winning hearts.

6. The gerund as an adverbial modifier.

In this function the gerund is always preceded by a preposition. It is used in the function of an adverbial modifier of time, manner, attendant circumstances, cause, condition, purpose and concession; the most common functions are those of adverbial modifier of time, manner, and attendant circumstances.

a) As an adverbial modifier of time the gerund is preceded by the prepositions after, before, on (upon), in, at.

After leaving her umbrella in the hall, she entered the living room.

He was born to have three days at home before going back to farm

The term "gerund" is a fudge. It is used as if it was a subcategory of verb, when in fact, of course, it is just a particular inflected form of a given verb.

Worse than this, this pseudo part of speech, in English at least, is actually 25% a part of speech and 50% a grammatical function label. The reason for this is that people who differentiate between "gerunds" and "participles" (meaning, with regard to English, "present participles") do so on the basis of the words' grammatical relations. So whenever this form of verb is the head of a clause used as a subject or object of a verb or the complement of a preposition, they deem it a gerund. Whenever it is the head of a clause used as a modifier or as the complement of the verb BE in a continuous construction, they deem it a participle. Of course this is to try and differentiate a different form of a verb according to its grammatical function and not its form.

Chapter III. Syntactic-semantic analyses of the Gerund in the structure of Modern English sentences.

Gerund differs from grammar construction in English because it is available to convert a verb into a noun by adding -ing at the end of the verb. At the same time, there is also a continuous tense form that adds -ing at the end of the verb. For students who start learning English will be confused with the form -ing that can be a noun and also a verb in the same sentence. In language learning, one of the language rules that has important role in communication is gerund. According to Wliting (1983:32), gerund has a force of a noun if the gerund has a substantive feature such as having an article in front of it and having a plural noun. When a gerund has a force of noun, it has substantive meaning. Substantive is a word that can function as a gerund, an infinitive, and a noun. The gerund has a force a verb if the gerund has a verbal feature such as having its own object and having change in the perfect and the passive. When a gerund becomes a hybrid because it has a noun form but it has a verbal meaning. In this study, the writer focuses on the -ing form as gerund. According to Swan(1995:27), gerund is a verbal that ends in -ing and functions as a noun. It is one of the oddest constructions in the English language, because it nominalises morpheme, turning a verb into a noun by adding -ing form to the end of the verb. At the same time, there is also continuous tense that adds -ing form to the end of the verb. For those who begins learn English can easily become confused by this -ing form that can become noun and also verb at the same sentence, such as: smoking addictionh as been killing millions of population over the last decade. As the continuous tense, the rule is clear, the verb with -ing form is placed after the subject. The analysis is focused on gerunds of subject, direct object, subject complement, and object of preposition.

Gerund is a word derived from a verb base which functions as or like a noun. George (1990:268) says that gerund is the -ing form of the verb used

as a noun, gerund has the same form as the present participle. However, it functions differently in the sentence, it is always can function in any noun position. Harper (2006:234) mentionsthat a gerund is a kind of verbal noun. It behaves as a verb within a clause (so that, for example, it may be modified by an adverb or have an object), but the clause as a whole (sometimes consisting only of one word, the gerund) acts as a nounwithin the larger sentence. Generally, gerund canoccupysome positions in a sentence that a noun ordinarily would, which are: subject, direct object, subject complement, and object of preposition.

Gerund as Subject

According to Harper (2006:234), the subject of a gerund usually donates a live being, but sometimes it designates a lifeless thing or an abstract idea. In the majority of gerund phrases, especially those functions as objects of verbs or preposition, the “subject” is either understood or is found in another part of the sentence.

Gerund as Direct Object

Harper (2006:234) also mentions that certain verbs in English are followed by verbals, either gerunds or infinitives, which are considered as the objects of these verbs. Most of these verbs denote mental activity or indirect speech and therefore require subjects that refer to human beings. Other have little semantic content outside of indicating aspect, the beginning, duration, end or repetition of an action; these verbs may or may not be used with subjects denoting persons. There is less agreement that a verbal following one of these aspects, denoting verbs is its objects; actually, there is some justification for considering a verb that expresses aspect as a quays,auxiliary rather than as a verb that takes an object.

Gerund as Subject Complement

Harper (2006:234) says that the form of an object in a gerund phrase may depend on what precedes the gerund. If the subject introduces the gerund, the object of the gerund is containing an of phrase. 2.1.4 Gerund as Object of

Preposition. Finally, Harper (2006:234) states that any verbs used as the object in a prepositional phrase takes the form of a gerund. Most gerund phrases after prepositions are subjectless, especially those in adverbial prepositional phrases.¹¹

3.1. The Gerund as a means of expressing Process Syntaxeme.

We learned syntactic relations of the Gerund in the surface structure of a sentence. Now we'll consider syntactic-semantic features of the Gerund in the deep structure of Modern English sentences according to a great Russian linguist A. M. Muxin's theory of syntaxeme analysis.

Syntaxeme – differing from the components of a sentence, is invariable unit expressed by the system of variants.

Syntaxeme – is the smallest indivisible meaningful unit. It is characterized by its different syntactic-semantic attributes, that is semantic attributes which indicated on the base of syntactic relations in the system of opposition or in paradigmatic plan.

Differing from syntactic attributes of components of a sentence, syntactic-semantic attributes of syntaxeme concerns with the inner side of a language.

According to prof. A. M. Muxin syntaxemes are divided into three main categories:

- 1) Substantial
- 2) Process
- 3) Qualificative

Substantial – syntactic-semantic attribute of substantial syntaxeme is expressed by a substance or a pronoun. It denotes a thing or a person.

¹¹ JURNAL JILP(Langue and P arole)Vol.1 No. 2 ISSN : 2579-5449 ‘‘AN ANALYSIS OF THE ENGLISH GERUND AS SUBJECT, DIRECT OBJECT, SUBJECT COMPLEMET, AND OBJECT OF PREPOSITION’’ Rafliis, Arozato Lase, Fakultas Sastra Universitas Ekasakti.

Process - syntactic-semantic attribute of process syntaxeme is expressed by a verb. It denotes an action or process.

Qualificative - syntactic-semantic attribute of qualificative syntaxeme is expressed by an adjective or by an adverb. It denotes property or quality of a substance.¹²

In syntaxeme analysis we'll discuss research in three approaches:

- a) according to the means of expressing language units;
- b) according to syntactic features of language units;
- c) according to syntactic position of language units.

The majority of language units expressed by the Gerund has syntactic-semantic attribute of process syntaxeme. The reason of this is the Gerund belongs to the category of a verb and as we mentioned above it has verbal character, so in most cases the Gerund denotes process or an action. Here are some examples:

She renders you incapable of *replying* to my question. (ACHS 25)

Bathing Sasha is such a wonderful game. (GHM 11)

I shall have much pleasure in *giving* you a character. (SBWF 258)

Controlling my temper has been one of my goals this year. (VDA 374)

I have always tired my hand at *writing* a novel. (MED 1543)

This frantic *rushing* to France was a mistake. (ACHS 97)

She tried *talking* about it to Steve. (MED 1543)

In all of the sentences the Gerund expresses the process and action. We can prove it by the transformational method of linguistic experiment:

Playing and *working* outside, and *eating* good Yorkshire food, has made Mary feel strong. (VDA 374) → Mary *played* and *worked* outside, and *ate* good Yorkshire food...

¹² С.Эгамбердиев "Синтаксический и синтаксико семантический характеристики сочетаний с предлогом under в современном английском языке.

She renders you incapable of *replying* to my question. (ACHS 25) → ...you are incapable of *replying* to my question. → ...you *can't reply* to my question.

I shall have much pleasure in *giving* you a character. (SBWF 258) → I shall ... *give* you a character.

Controlling my temper has been one of my goals this year. (VDA 374) → I *have controlled* my temper ... this year.

I have always tired my hand at *writing* a novel. (MED 1543) → I *have* always... *written* a novel.

Process object syntaxeme

The Gerund as a dependent part can be in the function of an object in a sentence. The Gerund in this function has the syntactic-semantic attribute of process object syntaxeme. Now we'll see it in the following examples:

She really enjoys *travelling* by train. (GHM 10)

They are talking about *taking* you to stay with them. (GHM 55)

I have just begun *watching* a movie on TV... (BSFE 254)

I would like to try *walking* round London in the daytime. (GHM 100)

David Rubin didn't much like *being* called Professor. (EGG 171)

I even considered *going* away. (EGG 171)

She and her husband had begun *choosing* "Handmaidens" for the church... (NFGS 17)

Finally he quit *trying* to grow tomatoes in his garden. (BSFE 265)

As we mentioned before the verbs such as *begin, try consider, quit, enjoy* and etc. usually requires the Gerund and this Gerund's function in a sentence is an object. This means that in these sentences the Gerund has syntactic-semantic attribute of process syntaxeme but syntactic-semantic attribute of object syntaxeme. We can prove the Gerund to be an object in a sentence by the method of omitting of the linguistic experiment:

She really enjoys *travelling* by train. (GHM 10) → She really enjoys *travelling* ... → she really enjoys ...

They are talking about *taking* you to stay with them. (GHM 55) → They are talking about *taking*... → They are talking about ...

I have just begun *watching* a movie on TV... (BSFE 254) → I have just begun *watching*... → I have just begun ...

I would like to try *walking* round London in the daytime. (GHM 100) → I would like to try *walking*... → I would like to try...

David Rubin didn't much like *being* called Professor. (EGG 171) → David Rubin didn't much like *being* called... → David Rubin didn't much like...

I even considered *going* away. (EGG 171) → I even considered...

She and her husband had begun *choosing* "Handmaidens" for the church... (NFGS 17) → She and her husband had begun *choosing*... → She and her husband had begun...

Finally he quit *trying* to grow tomatoes in his garden. (BSFE 265) → Finally he quit *trying*... → Finally he quit...

Process object stative syntaxeme

The Gerund as a dependent part can be in the function of an object in a sentence. The Gerund in this function has the syntactic-semantic attribute of process object syntaxeme. Besides that this Gerund may be expressed by a stative verb. In this case it also expresses syntactic-semantic attribute of stative syntaxeme and we call it process object stative syntaxeme. Now we'll see it in the following examples:

Deborah stopped *smiling*. (NFGS 29)

You are looking forward to *seeing* your fiancé again. (EGG 173)

I don't like *seeing* any of my children unhappy. (PAPT 335)

... you don't mind my *consulting* like this. (ACHS 173)

They had formed a cordon to prevent the crowd *increasing*. (GGQA 170)

He likes *living* in Berlin. (RME 116)

...he hadn't been so hasty about *leaving*. (LLMN 25)

I prefer *living* in the country. (RME 116)

As we mentioned before the verbs such as *begin, try consider, quit, enjoy, prefer, mind, like* and etc. usually requires the Gerund and this Gerund's function in a sentence is an object. This means that in these sentences the Gerund has syntactic-semantic attribute of process syntaxeme but syntactic-semantic attribute of object syntaxeme. And as this Gerund is expressed by a stative verb we can see syntactic-semantic attribute of stative syntaxeme. We'll prove it by the transformational method of linguistic experiment:

Deborah stopped *smiling*. (NFGS 29) → Deborah stopped in the state of *smiling*.

You are looking forward to *seeing* your fiancé again. (EGG 173) → You are looking forward to in the state of *seeing* your fiancé again.

I don't like *seeing* any of my children unhappy. (PAPT 335) → I don't like the state of *seeing* any of my children unhappy.

... you don't mind my *consulting* like this. (ACHS 173) → ... you don't mind my state of *consulting* like this.

They had formed a cordon to prevent the crowd *increasing*. (GGQA 170) → They had formed a cordon to prevent the crowd the state of *increasing*.

He likes *living* in Berlin. (RME 116) → He likes the state of *living* in Berlin.

...he hadn't been so hasty about *leaving*. (LLMN 25) → ...he hadn't been so hasty about the state of *leaving*.

I prefer *living* in the country. (RME 116) → I prefer the state of *living* in the country.

The results show that the Gerund can be process object stative syntaxeme in the deep structure of Modern English sentences.

Process object possessive syntaxeme

Besides having the syntactic-semantic attribute of process object syntaxeme the Gerund can be possessive syntaxeme only when it is preceded by possessive

pronoun or by the noun in the possessive case . Now we'll see it in the following examples:

Do you recall *Richard's doing* that? (EGG 136)

I appreciate *your coming* to my defense. (EGG 136)

He wanted his *father's blessing*. (NFGS 23)

He couldn't approve of *Guy's hiding* himself away. (EGG 173)

They liked my *brother's visiting* them. (GHM 198)

You shouldn't spoil *my cooking* with your presents. (GHM 52)

She doesn't like *Ellen's laughing* so much. (KMSS 106)

...his own job depended upon *his spending* the time at school... WEJ 7)

You don't *my coming* to see you. SMHM 216)

I wonder at *Jolyon's allowing* this engagement. (JGF 136)

He insisted upon the *woman's telling* him the whole story... (SBF 257)

She told me of my *aunt's coming* for the holidays. (MLW 181)

He was aware of *her feeling* of incompleteness.. (MLW 17)

Process object continuative syntaxeme

The Gerund has syntactic-semantic attribute of continuative syntaxeme when it is used such verbs as *keep, keep on, go on, persist, continue*

Roger went on *speaking* with energy, calculation and warmth. (EGG 171)

He kept on *shifting* his plate on the table... (NFGS 159)

Father Wilson continued *walking*, looking carefully at the muddy path... (NFGS 43)

She can't go on *living* like this. (RME 107)

Those girls are going to keep us *waiting*. (GHM 50)

He kept on *crawling* until... (GHM 7)

...I could have gone on *hating* him. (PAPTH 56)

...he persisted in *shaming* them... (BSA 98)

I returned with the idea of *continuing* the hunt of my own... (PAPT 73)

They went on *sending*...

Fieta was asking him to let them go on existing. (PAPTH 123)

Now we'll prove it by the transformational method of linguistic experiment:

Roger went on *speaking* with energy, calculation and warmth. (EGG 171) →

Roger was in the middle of *speaking* with energy, calculation and warmth

He kept on *shifting* his plate on the table... (NFGS 159) → He was in the middle of *shifting* his plate on the table...

Father Wilson was in the middle of *walking*, looking carefully at the muddy path... (NFGS 43) →

She can't go on *living* like this. (RME 107) → She can't be in the middle of *living* like this.

Those girls are going to keep us *waiting*. (GHM 50) → We are going to be in the middle of *waiting*.

He kept on *crawling* until... (GHM 7) → He was in the middle of *crawling* until...

...I could have gone on *hating* him. (PAPTH 56) → ...I could have been in the middle of *hating* him.

...he persisted in *shaming* them... (BSA 98) → ...he was in the middle of *shaming* them...

I returned with the idea of *continuing* the hunt of my own... (PAPT 73) → I returned with the idea of being in the middle of *continuing* the hunt of my own...

They went on *sending*... → They were in the middle of *sending*...

Fieta was asking him to let them go on *existing*. (PAPTH 123) → Fieta was asking him to let them be in the middle of *existing*

3.2. Process manner active instrumental syntaxeme

The Gerund with its syntactic-semantic attribute of process syntaxeme can be in the function of an adverbial modifier of manner in a sentence. With this

feature the Gerund can be process manner syntaxeme. This syntaxeme is expressed by the preposition *by* or *in* in the expression *by* V_g or *in* V_g.¹

You can improve your English *by reading* more. (RME 120)

The burglars got into the house *by breaking* a window and climbing in.
(RME 120)

You didn't solve anything *by running* away. (PAPTH 65)

By teaching them to read and write he could change their lot. (PAPTH 54)

...I won't pollute your ears *by more particularly describing*. (SBWF 256)

We made the room look nicer *by putting* some pictures on the wall. (RME 345)

Students practice written English *by writing* composition. (BSFE 263)

Alex caught my attention *by waving* his arms in the air. (BSFE 34)

You can destroy bacteria in meat *by boiling*. (BSFE 234)

I was able to reach the top shelf *by standing* on a chair. (RME 121)

Kevin got himself into financial trouble *by borrowing* too much. (RME 234)

We'll prove the Gerund to be manner syntaxeme by putting question:

You didn't solve anything *by running* away. (PAPTH 65) → How didn't you solve anything?

By teaching them to read and write he could change their lot. (PAPTH 54)
→ How could he change their lot?

...I won't pollute your ears *by more particularly describing*. (SBWF 256) →
How ... won't I pollute your ears?

We made the room look nicer *by putting* some pictures on the wall. (RME 345) → How did we make the room look nicer?

Students practice written English *by writing* composition. (BSFE 263) →
How do students practice written English?

Alex caught my attention *by waving* his arms in the air. (BSFE 34) → How did Alex catch my attention?

You can destroy bacteria in meat *by boiling*. (BSFE 234) → How can you destroy bacteria in meat?

I was able to reach the top shelf *by standing* on a chair. (RME 121) → How was I able to reach the top shelf?

Kevin got himself into financial trouble *by borrowing* too much. (RME 234) → How did Kevin get himself into financial trouble?

The results show that the Gerund has not only syntactic-semantic attribute of process manner syntaxeme but active and instrumental syntaxemes.

Process manner active negative comitative syntaxeme

Process manner active negative comitative syntaxeme is expressed by the form *without V_g*.¹ Now we'll see it in the following examples:

Without *checking* the speedometer, she knew it. (NFGS 2)

Can't you stand... without *bothering* the police...? (NFGS 16)

She needs to work without people *disturbing* her. (RME 120)

Without *asking* me Mr. French poured out... (NFGS 17)

But he could hardly open his mouth without *using* one of his tags... (SBWF 256)

As we proved the Gerund to be manner syntaxeme by putting questions before now we only prove it to be active negative syntaxeme by the transformational method of linguistic experiment:

Without *checking* the speedometer, she knew it. (NFGS 2) → ...she *didn't check* the speedometer...

Can't you stand... without *bothering* the police...? (NFGS 16) → ...you...*didn't bother* the police..

She needs to work without people *disturbing* her. (RME 120) → ...people *don't disturb* her.

Without *asking* me Mr. French poured out... (NFGS 17) → ...Mr. French *didn't ask* me.

But he could hardly open his mouth without *using* one of his tags... (SBWF 256) → ...he *couldn't use* one of his tags.

3.3. Qualificative stative syntaxeme

Besides having syntactic-semantic attributes of process syntaxeme the Gerund may be qualificative syntaxeme in the structure of Modern English sentences when it is expressed by the form *be + adjective*.¹ Here are some more examples:

I must get rid of this feeling of *being different*. (PAPTH 57)

Besides *being beautiful* the young woman was extremely clever. (BSFE 260)

Being angry won't help. (GHM 45)

Qualificative syntaxeme may be expressed by an adjective or an adverb. As the Gerund has verbal and nominal character its use with syntactic-semantic attribute of qualificative syntaxeme is very scarce in the structure of Modern English sentences. Besides that the Gerund in these sentences is stative syntaxeme. We can prove it by the transformational method of linguistic experiment:

I must get rid of this feeling of *being different*. (PAPTH 57) → I must get rid of this feeling in the state of *being different*.

Besides *being beautiful* the young woman was extremely clever. (BSFE 260)
→ Besides the state of *being beautiful* the young woman was extremely clever.

Being angry won't help. (GHM 45) → The state of *being angry* won't help.

Overview on chapter III

We learned syntactic relations of the Gerund in the surface structure of a sentence. Now we'll consider syntactic-semantic features of the Gerund in the deep structure of Modern English sentences according to a great Russian linguist A. M. Muxin's theory of syntaxeme analysis.

Syntaxeme – differing from the components of a sentence, is invariable unit expressed by the system of variants. Syntaxeme – is the smallest indivisible

meaningful unit. It is characterized by its different syntactic-semantic attributes, that is semantic attributes which indicated on the base of syntactic relations in the system of opposition or in paradigmatic plan. Differing from syntactic attributes of components of a sentence, syntactic-semantic attributes of syntaxeme concerns with the inner side of a language. According to prof. A. M. Muxin syntaxemes are divided into three main categories:

- 1) Substantial
- 2) Process
- 3) Qualificative

Substantial – syntactic-semantic attribute of substantial syntaxeme is expressed by a substance or a pronoun. It denotes a thing or a person. Process - syntactic-semantic attribute of process syntaxeme is expressed by a verb. It denotes an action or process. Qualificative - syntactic-semantic attribute of qualificative syntaxeme is expressed by an adjective or by an adverb. It denotes property or quality of a substance.

The Gerund as a dependent part can be in the function of an object in a sentence. The Gerund in this function has the syntactic-semantic attribute of process object syntaxeme. Now we'll see it in the following examples:

She really enjoys *travelling* by train. (GHM 10)

The Gerund as a dependent part can be in the function of an object in a sentence. The Gerund in this function has the syntactic-semantic attribute of process object syntaxeme. Besides that this Gerund may be expressed by a stative verb. In this case it also expresses syntactic-semantic attribute of stative syntaxeme and we call it process object stative syntaxeme. Now we'll see it in the following examples:

Deborah stopped *smiling*. (NFGS 29)

You are looking forward to *seeing* your fiancé again. (EGG 173)

Besides having the syntactic-semantic attribute of process object syntaxeme the Gerund can be possessive syntaxeme only when it is preceded by possessive

pronoun or by the noun in the possessive case . Now we'll see it in the following examples:

Do you recall *Richard's doing* that? (EGG 136)

I appreciate *your coming* to my defense. (EGG 136)

Conclusion:

In learning syntactic and syntactic semantic analysis of the Gerund in the structure of Modern English sentences we came to conclusion that the Gerund may be used in various syntactic functions in a sentence.

1. The Gerund can be used as a **subject**.

Talking mends no holes. (*proverb*)

Waiting for the Professor was a lame excuse for doing nothing. (*Heym*)

My **answering** in the affirmative gave him great satisfaction. (*Dickens*)

2. The Gerund may be used as a **predicative**.

The only remedy for such a headache as mine is **going to bed**. (*Collins*)

We intend **going** to Switzerland, and **climbing** Mount Blanc. (*Ch. Bronte*)

Joseph could not help **admiring** the man. (*Heym*)

She began **sobbing** and **weeping**. (*Dickens*)

3. The Gerund can be used as an **object**.

The Gerund may be used as a direct object and as a prepositional indirect object.

I simply love **riding**. (*Galsworthy*) (DIRECT OBJECT)

She enjoyed **singing** and **playing** to him. (*London*) (DIRECT OBJECT)

The times were good for building... (*Galsworthy*) (PREPOSITIONAL INDIRECT OBJECT)

Charlie did not succeed **in taking things easily**. (*Priestly*) (PREPOSITIONAL INDIRECT OBJECT)

4. The Gerund may be used as an **attribute**.

Swithin protruded his pale round eyes with the effort **of hearing**. (*Galsworthy*)

He was born with the gift **of winning hearts**. (*Gaskell*)

She had a feeling **of having been worsted**... (*Galsworthy*)

5. The Gerund can be used as an **adverbial modifier**.

After leaving her umbrella in the hall, she entered the living room. (*Cronin*)

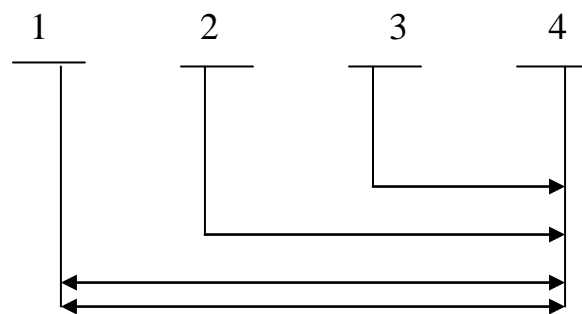
He was to have three days at home **before going back to farm.**

(Galsworthy)

On reaching Casterbridge he left the horse and trap at an inn. (Hardy)

Besides that the Gerund is connected with the parts of a sentence in the following relations: **Nuclear predicate relation**

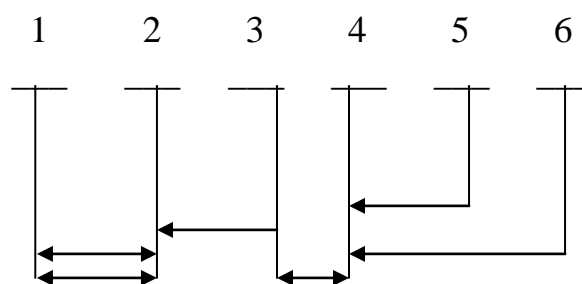
Bathing¹ is⁽⁴⁾ such² a⁽⁴⁾ wonderful³ game⁴. (GHM 11)



NP₁ . 1D . 2D . NP₂

Non-nuclear predicate relation

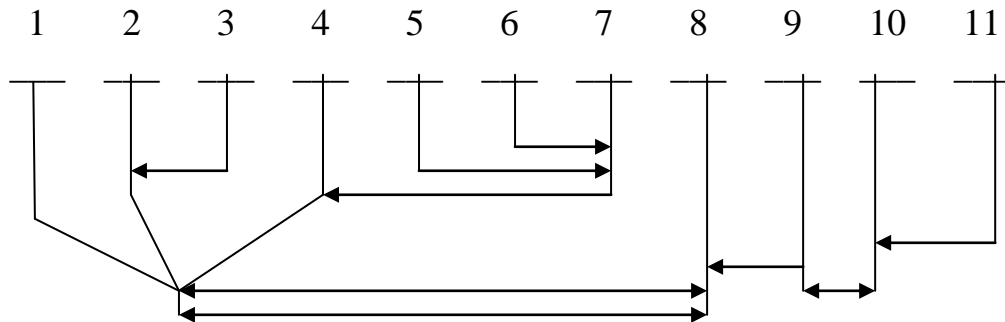
I¹ don't⁽²⁾ like² friends³ **calling**⁴ me⁵ at⁽⁶⁾ work⁶. (RME 116)



NP₁ .NP₂ .NDP₁ .NDP₂ . 1D

Coordinate relation

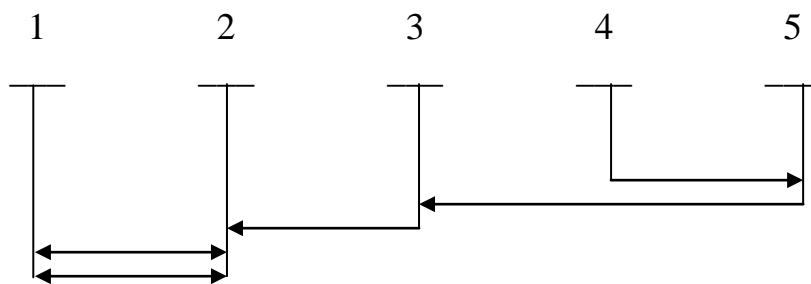
Playing¹ and **working**² outside³, and **eating**⁴ good⁵ Yorkshire⁶ food⁷, has⁽⁸⁾
made⁸ Mary⁹ feel¹⁰ strong¹¹. (VDA 374)



NP₁ . 1D . . 2D . 3D . 4D . NP₂ . NDP₁ . NDP₂ . 5D

Subordinate relation

I¹ love² **crossing**³ the⁽⁴⁾ Thames⁴ at⁽⁵⁾ night⁵. (VDA 374)



NP₁ . . NP₂ . . 1D . . 2D . . 3D

The results of our investigation show that the Gerund can have the following syntactic-semantic attributes in the deep structure of Modern English sentences:

Process syntaxeme.

She renders you incapable of *replying* to my question. (ACHS 25)

Bathing Sasha is such a wonderful game. (GHM 11)

I shall have much pleasure in *giving* you a character. (SBWF 258)

Controlling my temper has been one of my goals this year. (VDA 374)

I have always tired my hand at *writing* a novel. (MED 1543)

Process object syntaxeme

She really enjoys *travelling* by train. (GHM 10)

They are talking about *taking* you to stay with them. (GHM 55)

I have just begun *watching* a movie on TV... (BSFE 254)

I would like to try *walking* round London in the daytime. (GHM 100)

David Rubin didn't much like *being* called Professor. (EGG 171)

Process object stative syntaxeme

Deborah stopped *smiling*. (NFGS 29)

You are looking forward to *seeing* your fiancé again. (EGG 173)

I don't like *seeing* any of my children unhappy. (PAPT 335)

... you don't mind my *consulting* like this. (ACHS 173)

They had formed a cordon to prevent the crowd *increasing*. (GGQA 170)

Process object possessive syntaxeme

Do you recall *Richard's doing* that? (EGG 136)

I appreciate *your coming* to my defense. (EGG 136)

He wanted his *father's blessing*. (NFGS 23)

He couldn't approve of *Guy's hiding* himself away. (EGG 173)

They liked my *brother's visiting* them. (GHM 198)

Process object continuative syntaxeme

Roger went on *speaking* with energy, calculation and warmth. (EGG 171)

He kept on *shifting* his plate on the table... (NFGS 159)

Father Wilson continued *walking*, looking carefully at the muddy path...
(NFGS 43)

She can't go on *living* like this. (RME 107)

Those girls are going to keep us *waiting*. (GH)

Process manner active instrumental syntaxeme

You can improve your English *by reading* more. (RME 120)

The burglars got into the house *by breaking* a window and climbing in.
(RME 120)

You didn't solve anything *by running* away. (PAPTH 65)

By teaching them to read and write he could change their lot. (PAPTH 54)

...I won't pollute your ears *by* more particularly *describing*. (SBWF 256)

Process manner active negative comitative syntaxeme

Without *checking* the speedometer, she knew it. (NFGS 2)

Can't you stand... without *bothering* the police...? (NFGS 16)

She needs to work without people *disturbing* her. (RME 120)

Without *asking* me Mr. French poured out... (NFGS 17)

But he could hardly open his mouth without *using* one of his tags... (SBWF)

Qualificative stative syntaxeme

I must get rid of this feeling of *being different*. (PAPTH 57)

Besides *being beautiful* the young woman was extremely clever. (BSFE 260)

Being angry won't help. (GHM 45)

Learning the Gerund in the deep structure of Modern English sentences we came to conclusion that the Gerund can not only be process syntaxeme but qualificative syntaxeme in the deep structure of Modern English sentences. And it is mostly used as process object syntaxeme.

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5. G. B. Shaw “*Four Plays*” Foreign Languages Publishing School. Moscow 1952.
6. G. Eliot “*The Mill on the Floss*” Foreign Languages Publishing School. Moscow 1958.
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Appendix I. Syntaxemes and their variants expressed by the Gerund

Syntaxemes	Examples
<p style="text-align: center;">Process syntaxeme. Pr Ac</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">She renders you incapable of <i>replying</i> to my question. (ACHS 25)</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>Bathing</i> Sasha is such a wonderful game. (GHM 11)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">I shall have much pleasure in <i>giving</i> you a character. (SBWF 258)</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>Controlling</i> my temper has been one of my goals this year. (VDA 374)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">I have always tired my hand at <i>writing</i> a novel. (MED 1543)</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">Process object syntaxeme Pr Ob</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">She really enjoys <i>travelling</i> by train. (GHM 10)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">They are talking about <i>taking</i> you to stay with them. (GHM 55)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">I have just begun <i>watching</i> a movie on TV... (BSFE 254)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">I would like to try <i>walking</i> round London in the daytime. (GHM 100)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">David Rubin didn't much like <i>being</i> called Professor. (EGG 171)</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">Process object stative syntaxeme Pr Ob St</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Deborah stopped <i>smiling</i>. (NFGS 29)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">You are looking forward to <i>seeing</i> your fiancé again. (EGG 173)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">I don't like <i>seeing</i> any of my children unhappy. (PAPT 335)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">... you don't mind my <i>consulting</i> like this. (ACHS 173)</p>

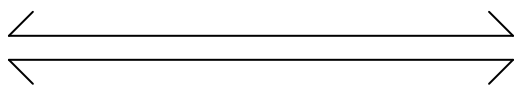
	They had formed a cordon to prevent the crowd <i>increasing</i> . (GGQA 170)
Process object continuative syntaxeme Pr Ob Cnt	Roger went on <i>speaking</i> with energy, calculation and warmth. (EGG 171) He kept on <i>shifting</i> his plate on the table... (NFGS 159) Father Wilson continued <i>walking</i> , looking carefully at the muddy path... (NFGS 43) She can't go on <i>living</i> like this. (RME 107) Those girls are going to keep us <i>waiting</i> . (GH
Process object possessive syntaxeme Pr Ob Pss	Do you recall <i>Richard's doing</i> that? (EGG 136) I appreciate <i>your coming</i> to my defense. (EGG 136) He wanted his <i>father's blessing</i> . (NFGS 23) He couldn't approve of <i>Guy's hiding</i> himself away. (EGG 173) They liked my <i>brother's visiting</i> them. (GHM 198)
Process manner active instrumental syntaxeme Pr Mn Ac Ins	You can improve your English <i>by reading</i> more. (RME 120) The burglars got into the house <i>by breaking</i> a window and climbing in. (RME 120) You didn't solve anything <i>by running</i> away. (PAPTH 65) <i>By teaching</i> them to read and write he could change their lot. (PAPTH 54) ...I won't pollute your ears <i>by more particularly describing</i> . (SBWF 256)
Process manner active	Without <i>checking</i> the speedometer, she knew it. (NFGS 2)

<p>negative comitative syntaxeme Pr Mn Ac Ng Cmt</p>	<p>Can't you stand... without <i>bothering</i> the police...? (NFGS 16)</p> <p>She needs to work without people <i>disturbing</i> her. (RME 120)</p> <p>Without <i>asking</i> me Mr. French poured out... (NFGS 17)</p> <p>But he could hardly open his mouth without <i>using</i> one of his tags... (SBWF)</p>
<p>Qualificative stative syntaxeme Qlf St</p>	<p>I must get rid of this feeling of <i>being different</i>. (PAPTH 57)</p> <p>Besides <i>being beautiful</i> the young woman was extremely clever. (BSFE 260)</p> <p><i>Being angry</i> won't help. (GHM 45)</p>

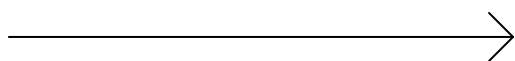
Appendix II. The list of abbreviations

- NFGS - N. Foxx "*Get some love*" Harper Collins Publishers. New York 2003.
- SMT - S. McMullen "*The Miocene Arrow*" A Tom Doherty Associates Book. New York 2003.
- GHM - G. Hanna "*Modernize your English*" Higher School Publishing House. Moscow 1989.
- CHDB -Ch. Dickens "*Bleak House*" Foreign Languages Publishing School. Moscow 1957.
- EGM - E. Gaskell "*Mary Barton*" Foreign Languages Publishing School. Moscow 1956.
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- THT - T. Hardy "*Tess of the D'Urbervilles*" Foreign Languages Publishing School. Moscow 1950.
- GBSH -G. B. Shaw "*Four Plays*" Foreign Languages Publishing School. Moscow 1952.
- JGT - J. Galsworthy "*The Man of Property*" Foreign Languages Publishing School. Moscow 1957.
- AHP - A. Huxley "*Point Counter Point*" Leipzig. 1937.
- RAD - R. Aldington "*Death of a Hero*" Foreign Languages Publishing House. Moscow 1958.
- AJC - A. J. Cronin "*The Stars Look Down*" London. 1937.

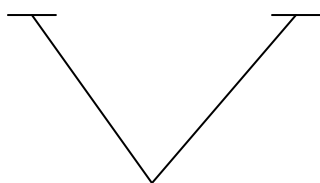
The list of marks of syntactic relations



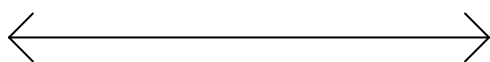
Nuclear predicate relation



Subordinate relation



Coordinate relation



Non-nuclear predicate relation