

## Lectures 7&8

In today's lectures we will focus on some ideas that are considered highly important for you as English Literature students .

We will start with **Sentence Fragments**; Fragments are incomplete sentences. Usually, fragments are pieces of sentences that have become disconnected from the main clause. One of the easiest ways to correct them is to remove the period between the fragment and the main clause. Other kinds of punctuation may be needed for the newly combined sentence.

Below are some examples with the fragments shown in **yellow**. Punctuation and/or words added to make corrections are just highlighted. Notice that the fragment is frequently a dependent clause or long phrase that follows the main clause.

- **Fragment:** Purdue offers many majors in engineering. **Such as electrical, chemical, and industrial engineering.**  
**Possible Revision:** Purdue offers many majors in engineering, such as electrical, chemical, and industrial engineering.
- **Fragment:** Coach Dietz exemplified this behavior by walking off the field in the middle of a game. **Leaving her team at a time when we needed her.**  
**Possible Revision:** Coach Dietz exemplified this behavior by walking off the field in the middle of a game, leaving her team at a time when we needed her.

- **Fragment:** I need to find a new roommate. **Because the one I have now isn't working out too well.**

**Possible Revision:** I need to find a new roommate because the one I have now isn't working out too well.

- **Fragment:** The current city policy on housing is incomplete as it stands. **Which is why we believe the proposed amendments should be passed.**

**Possible Revision:** Because the current city policy on housing is incomplete as it stands, we believe the proposed amendments should be passed.

You may have noticed that newspaper and magazine journalists often use a dependent clause as a separate sentence when it follows clearly from the preceding main clause, as in the last example above. This is a conventional **journalistic** practice, often used for emphasis. For **academic** writing and other more formal writing situations, however, you should avoid such journalistic fragment sentences.

Some fragments are not clearly pieces of sentences that have been left unattached to the main clause; they are written as main clauses but lack a subject or main verb.

### **No main verb**

- **Fragment:** A story with deep thoughts and emotions.

**Possible Revisions:**

- *Direct object:* **She told** a story with deep thoughts and emotions.

- *Appositive*: **Gilman's "The Yellow Wallpaper,"** a story with deep thoughts and emotions, **has impressed critics for decades.**
- **Fragment: Toys of all kinds thrown everywhere.**  
Possible Revisions:
  - *Complete verb*: Toys of all kinds **were** thrown everywhere.
  - *Direct object*: **They found** toys of all kinds thrown everywhere.
- **Fragment: A record of accomplishment beginning when you were first hired.**  
Possible Revisions:
  - *Direct object*: **I've noticed** a record of accomplishment beginning when you were first hired
  - *Main verb*: A record of accomplishment **began** when you were first hired.

## No Subject

- **Fragment: With the ultimate effect of all advertising is to sell the product.**  
Possible Revisions:
  - *Remove preposition*: The ultimate effect of all advertising is to sell the product.
- **Fragment: By paying too much attention to polls can make a political leader unwilling to propose innovative**

**policies.**

**Possible Revisions:**

- *Remove preposition:* **Paying** too much attention to polls can make a political leader unwilling to propose innovative policies.
- **Fragment: For doing freelance work for a competitor got Phil fired.**

**Possible Revisions:**

- *Remove preposition:* **Doing** freelance work for a competitor got Phil fired.
- *Rearrange:* **Phil got fired** for doing freelance work for a competitor.

These last three examples of fragments with no subjects are also known as **mixed constructions**, that is, sentences constructed out of mixed parts. They start one way (often with a long prepositional phrase) but end with a regular predicate. Usually the object of the preposition (often a gerund, as in the last two examples) is intended as the subject of the sentence, so removing the preposition at the beginning is usually the easiest way to edit such errors.

Now let us move into another idea which is **dangling modifiers**

**What is a Dangling Modifier**

A dangling modifier is a phrase that does not modify the word that is intended to be modified. It may also refer to a word that doesn't appear in the entire sentence. It's, therefore, a grammatical error. Dangling modifiers are rectified by

adding noun phrases that can be logically described by that modifier or by making them part of the dependent clause. When a phrase appears in a sentence and there is no surety of what it may be referring to, there are high chances of it being a dangling modifier. The phrase that has nothing to modify in a sentence dangles without any function in that sentence hence the name dangling modifier. Mostly, dangling modifiers appear in nouns that are close to them. For instance, when a noun or a noun phrase is left out, there is always an intention of modifying it though the modifier may appear referring to something else. This may result in a hilarious and confusing phrase.

### **Types Of Dangling Modifiers**

Dangling modifiers are in different forms and types. For instance, a clause that does not relate to anything in a sentence is a type of dangling modifier. Here is an example;

- ‘While waiting for the wedding to begin, the cake caught his attention.’

Here, the question is, who was waiting for the wedding to begin? The sentence structure shows that the cake was waiting but in reality, it was a character that was not mentioned in that sentence and even if this character was mentioned in the previous sentence, it would still be a dangling modifier. It, therefore, requires the word to be modified to appear within the sentence.

In another instance, a modifier may be a word in a sentence that is not close to it. For example:

- After farming the whole day, the rains disappointed her.

In the above sentence, ‘after farming the whole day’ seems to refer to the rains but in the real sense, the writer meant ‘her’.

### **Correcting Dangling Modifiers**

Dangling modifiers are corrected by changing modifying clauses into subordinate clauses. This is achieved by adjusting phrases and making them include both a verb and a subject. For the wedding example above, a pronoun could just be added to make it more sensible as follows; ‘while he was waiting for the wedding to begin, the cake caught his attention.’

Alternatively, the rest of the sentence can be changed to correct a dangling modifier by making it closer to the word it modifies.

Using the example of ‘the rains’ above, the rest of the sentence can be changed as follows;

- After farming the whole day, she was disappointed by the rains. This makes it vivid that she was the one farming the whole day. In fixing dangling modifiers, it is important to explore how they should appear in a sentence that is grammatically correct. Here is the example;
- Having eaten all the food, it was important to cook another one. The above dangling modifier raises a question of ‘who ate all the food’ and for it to be corrected, there must be the mention of the person who did that action. Hence it should read as follows;
- Having eaten all the food, James had to cook another one. Many scholars tend to confuse dangling modifiers with phrases. See the example below;
- The very hungry girl ate fast.

It is clear that ‘hungry’ is an adjective modifying the girl and very is an adverb modifying the adjective. If the subject is omitted in the sentence the words would turn to a dangling modifier as outlined below;

- The very hungry ate fast.

As noted above, with phrases it is easier to form dangling modifiers unintentionally.

The phrase modifies the subject but when looked at closely it is also a dangling modifier at times.

Sentences with passive voice also contain dangling modifiers. For example;

- Hungry, the leftover food was devoured;  
The adjective ‘hungry’ is a dangling modifier because food can neither be hungry nor devour itself. Therefore the sentence needs a subject so that the description can be outlined by the modifier.

To conclude, a dangling modifier can also be used as a dangling participle that ends in –ing or –ed. This participle can act as an adjective and can be spotted by a mere look at the sentence.

Now we will move on to talk about another important thing that needs a great attention from you while doing any writing tasks which is “parallel structure”; Parallel structure means using the same pattern of words to show that two or more ideas have the same level of importance. This can happen at the word, phrase, or clause level.

The usual way to join parallel structures is with the use of coordinating **conjunctions** such as "and" or "or."

### **Words and Phrases With the -ing form (gerund) of words:**

#### **Parallel:**

Mary likes **hiking**, **swimming**, and **bicycling**.

#### **With infinitive phrases:**

#### **Parallel:**

Mary likes **to hike**, **to swim**, and **to ride** a bicycle.

OR

Mary likes to **hike**, **swim**, and **ride** a bicycle.

(Note: You can use "to" before all the verbs in a sentence or only before the first one.)

#### **Do not mix forms.**

#### **Example 1**

##### **Not Parallel:**

Mary likes **hiking**, **swimming**, and **to ride** a bicycle.

##### **Parallel:**

Mary likes **hiking**, **swimming**, and **riding** a bicycle.

#### **Example 2**

##### **Not Parallel:**

The production manager was asked to write his report **quickly**, **accurately**, and **in a detailed manner**.



**Parallel:**

The production manager was asked to write his report **quickly**, **accurately**, and **thoroughly**.

**Example 3****Not Parallel:**

The teacher said that he was a poor student because he **waited** until the last minute to study for the exam, **completed** his lab problems in a careless manner, and **his motivation was** low.

**Parallel:**

The teacher said that he was a poor student because he **waited** until the last minute to study for the exam, **completed** his lab problems in a careless manner, and **lacked** motivation.

**Clauses**

A parallel structure that begins with clauses must keep on with clauses. Changing to another pattern or changing the voice of the verb (from active to passive or vice versa) will break the parallelism.

**Example 1****Not Parallel:**

The coach told the players **that they should get** a lot of sleep, **that they should not eat** too much, and **to do** some warm-up exercises before the game.

**Parallel:**

The coach told the players **that they should get** a lot of sleep, **that they should not eat** too much, and **that they should do** some warm-up exercises before the game.

— or —

**Parallel:**

The coach told the players that they should **get** a lot of sleep, not **eat** too much, and **do** some warm-up exercises before the game.

**Example 2**

**Not Parallel:**

The salesman expected **that he would present** his product at the meeting, **that he would have time** to show his slide presentation, and **that questions would be asked** by prospective buyers. (passive)

**Parallel:**

The salesman expected **that he would present** his product at the meeting, **that he would have time** to show his slide presentation, and **that prospective buyers would ask** him questions.

**Lists After a Colon**

**Be sure to keep all the elements in a list in the same form.**

**Example 1**

**Not Parallel:**

The dictionary can be used to find these: **word meanings, pronunciations, correct spellings, and looking up irregular verbs.**

**Parallel:**

The dictionary can be used to find these: **word**

**meanings, pronunciations, correct spellings, and irregular verbs.**

Now our last focus will be on **Gerunds, Participles, and Infinitives.**

## **Gerunds**

A gerund is a verbal that ends in *-ing* and functions as a noun. The term *verbal* indicates that a gerund, like the other two kinds of verbals, is based on a verb and therefore expresses action or a state of being. However, since a gerund functions as a noun, it occupies some positions in a sentence that a noun ordinarily would, for example: subject, direct object, subject complement, and object of preposition.

### **Gerund as subject:**

- Traveling might satisfy your desire for new experiences. (**Traveling** is the gerund.)

### **Gerund as direct object:**

- They do not appreciate my singing. (The gerund is **singing**.)

### **Gerund as subject complement:**

- My cat's favorite activity is sleeping. (The gerund is **sleeping**.)

### **Gerund as object of preposition:**

- The police arrested him for speeding. (The gerund is **speeding**.)

- **A gerund phrase** is a group of words consisting of a gerund and the modifier(s) and/or (pro)noun(s) or noun phrase(s) that function as the direct object(s), indirect object(s), or complement(s) of the action or state expressed in the gerund, such as:

**The gerund phrase functions as the subject of the sentence.**

**Finding a needle in a haystack** would be easier than what we're trying to do.

**Finding** (gerund)

**a needle** (direct object of action expressed in gerund)

**in a haystack** (prepositional phrase as adverb)

**The gerund phrase functions as the direct object of the verb appreciate.**

I hope that you appreciate **my offering you this opportunity**.

**my** (possessive pronoun adjective form, modifying the gerund)

**offering** (gerund)

**you** (indirect object of action expressed in gerund)

**this opportunity** (direct object of action expressed in gerund)

**The gerund phrase functions as the subject complement.**

Tom's favorite tactic has been **jabbering away to his constituents**.

**jabbering away to** (gerund)

**his constituents** (direct object of action expressed in gerund)

**The gerund phrase functions as the object of the preposition for.**

You might get in trouble for **faking an illness to avoid work**.

**faking** (gerund)

**an illness** (direct object of action expressed in gerund)

**to avoid work** (infinitive phrase as adverb)

**The gerund phrase functions as the subject of the sentence.**

Being the boss made Jeff feel uneasy.

**Being** (gerund)

**the boss** (subject complement for Jeff, via state of being expressed in gerund)

## **Punctuation**

A gerund virtually never requires any punctuation with it.

### **Points to remember:**

1. A gerund is a verbal ending in -ing that is used as a noun.
2. A gerund phrase consists of a gerund plus modifier(s), object(s), and/or complement(s).
3. Gerunds and gerund phrases virtually never require punctuation.

## **Participles**

A participle is a verbal that is used as an **adjective** and most often ends in *-ing* or *-ed*. The term *verbal* indicates that a participle, like the other two kinds of verbals, is based on a verb and therefore expresses action or a state of being. However, since they function as adjectives, participles modify nouns or pronouns. There are two types of participles: present participles

and past participles. Present participles end in *-ing*. Past participles end in *-ed*, *-en*, *-d*, *-t*, *-n*, or *-ne* as in the words *asked*, *eaten*, *saved*, *dealt*, *seen*, and *gone*.

- 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.

A participial phrase is a group of words consisting of a participle and the modifier(s) and/or (pro)noun(s) or noun phrase(s) that function as the direct object(s), indirect object(s), or complement(s) of the action or state expressed in the participle, such as:

**Removing his coat**, Jack rushed to the river.

**The participial phrase functions as an adjective modifying *Jack*.**

**Removing** (participle)

**his coat** (direct object of action expressed in participle)

Delores noticed her cousin **walking along the shoreline**.

**The participial phrase functions as an adjective modifying *cousin*.**

**walking** (participle)

**along the shoreline** (prepositional phrase as adverb)

Children **interested in music early** develop strong intellectual skills.

**The participial phrase functions as an adjective modifying *children*.**

**interested (in)** (participle)

**music** (direct object of action expressed in participle)

**early** (adverb)

**Having been a gymnast**, Lynn knew the importance of exercise.

**The participial phrase functions as an adjective modifying *Lynn*.**

**Having been** (participle)

**a gymnast** (subject complement for Lynn, via state of being expressed in participle)

**Placement:** In order to prevent confusion, a participial phrase must be placed as close to the noun it modifies as possible, and the noun must be clearly stated.

- *Carrying a heavy pile of books*, his foot caught on a step. \*
- *Carrying a heavy pile of books*, he caught his foot on a step.

In the first sentence, there is no clear indication of who or what is performing the action expressed in the participle carrying. Certainly, foot can't be logically understood to function in this way. This situation is an example of a **dangling modifier** error, since the modifier (the participial phrase) is not modifying any specific noun in the sentence and is thus left "dangling." Since a person must be doing the carrying for the sentence to make sense, a noun or pronoun that refers to a person must be in the

place immediately after the participial phrase, as in the second sentence.

**Punctuation:** When a participial phrase begins a sentence, a comma should be placed after the phrase.

- *Arriving at the store*, I found that it was closed.
- *Washing and polishing the car*, Frank developed sore muscles.

If the participle or participial phrase comes in the middle of a sentence, it should be set off with commas only if the information is not essential to the meaning of the sentence.

- Sid, *watching an old movie*, drifted in and out of sleep.
- The church, *destroyed by a fire*, was never rebuilt.

Note that if the participial phrase is essential to the meaning of the sentence, no commas should be used:

- The student *earning the highest grade point average* will receive a special award.
- The guy *wearing the chicken costume* is my cousin.

If a participial phrase comes at the end of a sentence, a comma usually precedes the phrase if it modifies an earlier word in the sentence but not if the phrase directly follows the word it modifies.

- The local residents often saw Ken wandering through the streets.  
(The phrase modifies *Ken*, not *residents*.)



- Tom nervously watched the woman, alarmed by her silence.  
(The phrase modifies *Tom*, not *woman*.)

## Points to remember

1. A participle is a verbal ending in *-ing* (present) or *-ed*, *-en*, *-d*, *-t*, *-n*, or *-ne* (past) that functions as an adjective, modifying a noun or pronoun.
2. A participial phrase consists of a participle plus modifier(s), object(s), and/or complement(s).
3. Participles and participial phrases must be placed as close to the nouns or pronouns they modify as possible, and those nouns or pronouns must be clearly stated.
4. A participial phrase is set off with commas when it:
  - a) comes at the beginning of a sentence
  - b) interrupts a sentence as a nonessential element
  - c) comes at the end of a sentence and is separated from the word it modifies.

## Infinitives

An infinitive is a verbal consisting of the word *to* plus a verb (in its simplest "stem" form) and functioning as a noun, adjective, or adverb. The term *verbal* indicates that an infinitive, like the other two kinds of verbals, is based on a verb and therefore expresses action or a state of being. However, the infinitive may function as a subject, direct object, subject complement, adjective, or adverb in a sentence. Although an infinitive is easy

to locate because of the *to* + verb form, deciding what function it has in a sentence can sometimes be confusing.

- *To wait* seemed foolish when decisive action was required. (subject)
- Everyone wanted *to go*. (direct object)
- His ambition is *to fly*. (subject complement)
- He lacked the strength *to resist*. (adjective)
- We must study *to learn*. (adverb)

Be sure not to confuse an infinitive—a verbal consisting of *to* plus a verb—with a prepositional phrase beginning with *to*, which consists of *to* plus a noun or pronoun and any modifiers.

- **Infinitives:** *to fly, to draw, to become, to enter, to stand, to catch, to belong*
- **Prepositional Phrases:** *to him, to the committee, to my house, to the mountains, to us, to this address*

**An Infinitive Phrase** is a group of words consisting of an infinitive and the modifier(s) and/or (pro)noun(s) or noun phrase(s) that function as the actor(s), direct object(s), or complement(s) of the action or state expressed in the infinitive, such as:

We intended **to leave early**.

**The infinitive phrase functions as the direct object of the verb *intended*.**

**to leave** (infinitive)

**early** (adverb)

I have a paper **to write before class**.

**The infinitive phrase functions as an adjective modifying *paper*.**

**to write** (infinitive)

**before class** (prepositional phrase as adverb)

Phil agreed **to give me a ride**.

**The infinitive phrase functions as the direct object of the verb *agreed*.**

**to give** (infinitive)

**me** (indirect object of action expressed in infinitive)

**a ride** (direct object of action expressed in infinitive)

They asked **me to bring some food**.

**The infinitive phrase functions as the direct object of the verb *asked*.**

**me** (actor or "subject" of infinitive phrase)

**to bring** (infinitive)

**some food** (direct object of action expressed in infinitive)

Everyone wanted Carol to be the captain of the team.

**The infinitive phrase functions as the direct object of the verb *wanted*.**

**Carol** (actor or "subject" of infinitive phrase)

**to be** (infinitive)

**the captain** (subject complement for Carol, via state of being expressed in infinitive)

**of the team** (prepositional phrase as adjective)

**Actors:** In these last two examples the actor of the infinitive phrase could be roughly characterized as the "subject" of the action or state expressed in the infinitive. It is somewhat misleading to use the word *subject*, however, since an infinitive phrase is not a full clause with a subject and a finite verb. Also notice that when it is a pronoun, the actor appears in the objective case (*me*, not *I*, in the fourth example). Certain verbs, when they take an infinitive direct object, require an actor for the infinitive phrase; others can't have an actor. Still other verbs can go either way, as the charts below illustrate.

**Verbs that take infinitive objects without actors:**

agree	begin	continue	decide
fail	hesitate	hope	intend
learn	neglect	offer	plan
prefer	pretend	promise	refuse
remember	start	try	

**Examples:**

- Most students *plan* to study.
- We *began* to learn.
- They *offered* to pay.
- They *neglected* to pay.

- She *promised* to return.

In all of these examples no actor can come between the italicized main (finite) verb and the infinitive direct-object phrase.

### **Verbs that take infinitive objects with actors:**

advise	allow	convince	remind
encourage	force	hire	teach
instruct	invite	permit	tell
implore	incite	appoint	order

### **Examples:**

- He *reminded* me to buy milk.
- Their fathers *advise* them to study.
- She *forced* the defendant to admit the truth.
- You've *convinced* the director of the program to change her position.
- I *invite* you to consider the evidence.

In all of these examples an actor is required after the italicized main (finite) verb and before the infinitive direct-object phrase.

### **Verbs that use either pattern:**

ask	expect	(would) like	want	need
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## Examples:

- I *asked* to see the records.
- I *asked* him to show me the records.
- Trent *expected* his group to win.
- Trent *expected* to win.
- Brenda *likes* to drive fast.
- Brenda *likes* her friend to drive fast.

In all of these examples the italicized main verb can take an infinitive object with or without an actor.

**Punctuation:** If the infinitive is used as an adverb and is the beginning phrase in a sentence, it should be set off with a comma; otherwise, no punctuation is needed for an infinitive phrase.

- *To buy a basket of flowers*, John had to spend his last dollar.
- *To improve your writing*, you must consider your purpose and audience.

## Points to remember

1. An infinitive is a verbal consisting of the word to plus a verb; it may be used as a noun, adjective, or adverb.
2. An infinitive phrase consists of an infinitive plus modifier(s), object(s), complement(s), and/or actor(s).
3. An infinitive phrase requires a comma only if it is used as an adverb at the beginning of a sentence.

## Split infinitives

Split infinitives occur when additional words are included between *to* and the verb in an infinitive. Many readers find a single adverb splitting the infinitive to be acceptable, but this practice should be avoided in formal writing.

### Examples:

- I like *to* on a nice day *walk* in the woods. \* (unacceptable)  
On a nice day, I like *to walk* in the woods. (revised)
- I needed *to* quickly *gather* my personal possessions.  
(acceptable in informal contexts)  
I needed *to gather* my personal possessions quickly.  
(revised for formal contexts)

## Comparing Gerunds, Participles, and Infinitives

### Comparing Gerunds and Participles

Look at the pair of sentences below. In the first, the use of a gerund (functioning as a noun) allows the meaning to be expressed more precisely than in the second. In the first sentence, the interrupting, a specific behavior, is precisely indicated as the cause of the speaker's irritation. In the second, the cause of the irritation is identified less precisely as Bill, who just happens to have been interrupting. (In the second sentence, interrupting is actually a participle, not a gerund, since it functions as an adjective modifying Bill.)

I was irritated by Bill's constant interrupting.

I was irritated by Bill, constantly interrupting.

The same pattern is shown in these other example pairs below: in the first of each pair, a gerund (noun-function) is used; in the second, a participle (adjective-function). Notice the subtle change in meaning between the two sentences in each pair.

### **Examples:**

The guitarist's finger-picking was extraordinary.

(The *technique* was extraordinary.)

The guitarist, finger-picking, was extraordinary.

(The *person* was extraordinary, demonstrating the technique.)

He was not impressed with their competing.

(The *competing* did not impress him.)

He was not impressed with them competing.

(*They* did not impress him as they competed.)

Grandpa enjoyed his grandchildren's running and laughing.

Grandpa enjoyed his grandchildren, running and laughing.\*

(Ambiguous: who is running and laughing?)

### **Comparing Gerunds and Infinitives**

The difference in the form of gerunds and infinitives is quite clear just from comparing the following lists:

- **Gerunds:** swimming, hoping, telling, eating, dreaming
- **Infinitives:** to swim, to hope, to tell, to eat, to dream

Their functions, however, overlap. Gerunds always function as nouns, but infinitives often also serve as nouns. Deciding which



to use can be confusing in many situations, especially for people whose first language is not English.

Confusion between gerunds and infinitives occurs primarily in cases in which one or the other functions as the direct object in a sentence. In English, some verbs take gerunds as verbal direct objects exclusively while other verbs take only infinitives and still others can take either. Many such verbs are listed below, organized according to which kind of verbal direct object they take.

### **Verbs that take only infinitives as verbal direct objects**

agree	decide	expect	hesitate
learn	need	promise	neglect
hope	want	plan	attempt
propose	intend	pretend	

#### **Examples:**

I hope *to go* on a vacation soon.

(**not:** I hope *going* on a vacation soon.\*)

He promised *to go* on a diet.

(**not:** He promised *going* on a diet. \*)

They agreed *to sign* the treaty.

(**not:** They agreed *signing* the treaty.\*)

Because she was nervous, she hesitated *to speak*.

(**not:** Because she was nervous, she hesitated *speaking*.\*)

They will attempt *to resuscitate* the victim

(**not:** They will attempt *resuscitating* the victim.\*)

### **Verbs that take only gerunds as verbal direct objects**

deny	risk	delay	consider
can't help	keep	give up	be fond of
finish	quit	put off	practice
postpone	tolerate	suggest	stop (quit)
regret	enjoy	keep (on)	dislike
admit	avoid	recall	mind
miss	detest	appreciate	recommend
get/be through	get/be tired of	get/be accustomed to	get/be used to

### **Examples:**

They always avoid *drinking* before driving.

(**not:** They always avoid *to drink* before driving.\*)

I recall *asking* her that question.

(**not:** I recall *to ask* her that question.\*)

She put off *buying* a new jacket.  
(**not:** She put off *to buy* a new jacket.\*)

Mr. Allen enjoys *cooking*.  
(**not:** Mr. Allen enjoys *to cook*.)

Charles keeps *calling* her.  
(**not:** Charles keeps *to call* her.)

### **Verbs that take gerunds or infinitives as verbal direct objects**

start	begin	continue	hate
prefer	like	love	try
remember			

#### **Examples:**

She has continued *to work* at the store.  
She has continued *working* at the store.

They like *to go* to the movies.  
They like *going* to the movies.

Brent started *to walk* home.  
Brent started *walking* home.

### **Forget and remember**

These two verbs change meaning depending on whether a gerund or infinitive is used as the object.

#### **Examples:**

Jack forgets *to take* out the cat.

(He regularly forgets.)

Jack forgets *taking* out the cat.

(He did it, but he doesn't remember now.)

Jack forgot *to take* out the cat.

(He never did it.)

Jack forgot *taking* out the cat.

(He did it, but he didn't remember sometime later.)

Jack remembers *to take* out the cat.

(He regularly remembers.)

Jack remembers *taking out* the cat.

(He did it, and he remembers now.)

Jack remembered *to take* out the cat.

(He did it.)

Jack remembered *taking* out the cat.

(He did it, and he remembered sometime later.)

In the second of each pair of example sentences above, the past progressive gerund form having taken can be used in place of taking to avoid any possible confusion.

### **Sense verbs that take an object plus a gerund or a simple verb**

Certain sense verbs take an object followed by either a gerund or a simple verb (infinitive form minus the word *to*). With many of the verbs that follow the object, the use of the gerund indicates continuous action while the use of the simple verb indicates a one-time action. Still, sometimes the simple verb can indicate

continuous action if one-time action wouldn't make sense in the context.

feel	hear	notice	watch
see	smell	observe	

### Examples:

We watched him *playing* basketball. (continuous action)

We watched him *play* basketball. (continuous action)

I felt my heart *pumping* vigorously. (continuous action)

I felt my heart *pump* vigorously. (continuous action)

She saw them *jumping* on the bed. (continuous action)

She saw them *jump* on the bed. (one-time action)

Tom heard the victim *shouting* for help. (continuous action)

Tom heard the victim *shout* for help. (one-time action)

The detective noticed the suspect *biting* his nails. (continuous action)

The detective noticed the suspect *bite* his nails. (one-time action)

We could smell the pie *baking* in the kitchen. (continuous action)

We could smell the pie *bake* in the kitchen. (continuous action)

Sometimes the simple-verb version might seem unconventional, so it's safer in most cases to use the gerund version.

The End

