

The Progressive Aspect in English

Marcela Haboňová

Bachelor Thesis
2014



Tomas Bata University in Zlín
Faculty of Humanities

Univerzita Tomáše Bati ve Zlíně

Fakulta humanitních studií

Ústav moderních jazyků a literatur

akademický rok: 2013/2014

ZADÁNÍ BAKALÁŘSKÉ PRÁCE

(PROJEKTU, UMĚLECKÉHO DÍLA, UMĚLECKÉHO VÝKONU)

Jméno a příjmení: **Marcela Haboňová**
Osobní číslo: **H11328**
Studijní program: **B7310 Filologie**
Studijní obor: **Anglický jazyk pro manažerskou praxi**
Forma studia: **prezenční**

Téma práce: **Průběhové tvary slovesné v angličtině**

Zásady pro vypracování:

Studium odborné literatury – čas, aspekt
Vysvětlení funkcí průběhového tvaru
Omezení v použití průběhového tvaru slovesa
Analýza korpusu a porovnání s teorií
Vyvození závěrů

Rozsah bakalářské práce:

Rozsah příloh:

Forma zpracování bakalářské práce: **tištěná/elektronická**

Seznam odborné literatury:

Biber, Douglas, Sting Johansson, Geoffrey Leech, Susan Conrad, and Edward Finegan. 1999. *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*. Harlow: Longman.
Comrie, Bernard. 1976. *Aspect: An Introduction to the Study of Verbal Aspect and Related Problems*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
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Quirk, Randolph, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, and Jan Svartvik. 1985. *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*. New York: Longman Inc.

Vedoucí bakalářské práce:

Mgr. Dagmar Machová

Ústav moderních jazyků a literatur

Datum zadání bakalářské práce:

29. listopadu 2013

Termín odevzdání bakalářské práce:

2. května 2014

Ve Zlíně dne 22. ledna 2014


doc. Ing. Anežka Lengalová, Ph.D.
děkanka




PhDr. Katarína Nemčoková, Ph.D.
ředitelka ústavu

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ABSTRAKT

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá analýzou průběhových tvarů slovesných v angličtině. Práce je nejprve zaměřena na vymezení základních pojmů jako čas, slovesný čas a vid. Cílem následující části je analýza výskytu průběhových časů stavových sloves v korpusech a srovnání výsledků s použitou literaturou. V této práci jsou také zmíněny rozdíly mezi britskou a americkou angličtinou.

Klíčová slova: čas, slovesný čas, slovesný vid, průběhový čas slovesný, stavové sloveso

ABSTRACT

This bachelor thesis deals with the analysis of the progressive aspect in English. At first, the thesis is focused on the definitions of the key concepts such as time, tense and aspect. The aim of the following part is an analysis of the stative verbs occurrences in progressive aspect in the corpora and a comparison of the results with the used literature. This bachelor thesis also gives a comment on the differences between British and American English

Keywords: time, tense, aspect, progressive aspect, stative verb

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisor Mgr. Dagmar Machová for her guidance, advice, help and willingness which contributed noticeably to this thesis. And I would also like to thank my family and primarily my parents for their encouragement and support throughout my studies and life.

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INTRODUCTION

English usually distinguishes two verbs categories – dynamic verbs and stative verbs. Many people may remember some basic rules that the verbs usually stative ones that cannot be used in the progressive aspect. On the other hand, it is generally known that dynamic verbs are commonly used in this aspect. However, many students of English may come across the question which stative verbs actually can be used in the progressive aspect and which not or if there might be a possible change of meaning.

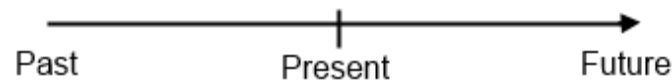
First of all, however, the thesis will deal with the terms tense and time and it will state the main distinction between them. Then it will continue with the aspect definition and division into perfective and progressive aspect. It will also demonstrate the variations of tense and aspect found in English as well as the cases in which the aspect is being found in the absence of tense. Afterwards, the thesis will deal with the main functions of progressive aspect. Since the emphasizing of duration is not the only feature and the meaning of some verbs can be change in such situations. Thereafter, it will describe the distinction between stative and dynamic verbs and divide the stative verbs into the categories which are connected by the meaning and grammar. Simultaneously, it will concretize which of these verbs can have the progressive aspect without the meaning change and on the contrary which verbs change the meaning.

Furthermore, the thesis will compare the grammar rules of progressive aspect, taken from the authors such as Huddleston and Pullum, Leech and Svartvik and Quirk and others, with the Corpus of Contemporary American English and British National Corpus. The thesis will also examine the differences between British English and American English. This analysis will provide an evidence of progressive form of stative verbs and their real use in English.

1 TENSE AND TIME

Tense can be described as the grammatical feature of a verb that refers to a certain point of time. It can also be defined as the **grammaticalised** expression of location in time. Generally, the **time** refers to the past, future or to what is happening right now, whereas the tense represents the grammatical influence – how we transfer time into our grammar. Comrie (1985, 2) defines time as a line, where future is located on the right, past on the left and present is the central point of this line.

Figure 1 Time line



Source: (Comrie 1985, 2)

Many grammar books state that the English verbs are inflected for only two tenses which are present and past. In case of present tense, its form is morphologically unmarked (*watch*). The only exception is the third person singular marked with suffix *-es* (*watches*). On the contrary, the past form of regular verbs remains unchanged in persons and numbers. This form is marked with suffix *-ed* (*watched*) (Biber et al. 1999, 453). The “future tense” holds its distinct form and remains arguable among the linguists due to the lack of inflection and insertion of modal verb “will” followed by bare infinitive (*will watch*).

1.1 Tense and Time

Tense and time are usually deeply connected and in many cases the tense refers to the correspondent point of time. These types are called simple tenses and as it is described by the following examples the simple present tense refers to the present time - *He wants a new car*, the simple past refers to the past time - *He worked in the factory* and the future tense corresponds to future time - *He will work in the factory*.

According to Comrie (1976, 2) the simple tenses (past, present, future), which are detailed described in this chapter are always dependent on the moment of speech, the time of utterance. Therefore, he calls such tenses ‘absolute tenses’. However, the English grammar also uses so called ‘relative tenses’ (relative time reference) in which the time does not relate to the moment of speech but to some other situation – to the time of the

main clause. Aarts and McMahon (2006, 220) place to this category future perfect with example (1) in which “the leaving event is represented as in the past relative to a point that is in the future relative to utterance time (the point at which the letter is read)”. Another possibility, according to them (2006, 224) is the past perfect because the speaker refers to the time which “either precedes or follows the time of the state of affairs” which is expressed by a sentence. They illustrate it by sentence (2) in which the reference time is the police arrival. Comrie (1985, 56) also states that the absolute adverbials are commonly used in absolute tenses as for example *today* (includes present moment), *tomorrow* (follows present moment) and *yesterday* (precedes present moment). The category of relative tenses also includes special adverbials such as *the same day*, *the day before*, *the day after*.

- (1) *I will have left by the time you read this letter.*
- (2) *The crowd had moved to the plaza when the police showed up.*

Comrie (1985, 56) also adds that the most finite clauses have the absolute time reference. On the other hand non-finite clauses hold the relative time reference. Despite the absence of tense in the clause, it still refers to the time stated in the main, absolute tense. In case of some infinitives (non-finite clauses) the aspect is being found in the absence of tense as in (3). Thereby, the infinitive refers to the time of main, finite clause – past. However, the infinitive issue is described in more detail in chapter 2.2.

- (3) *John pretended to have been working.*

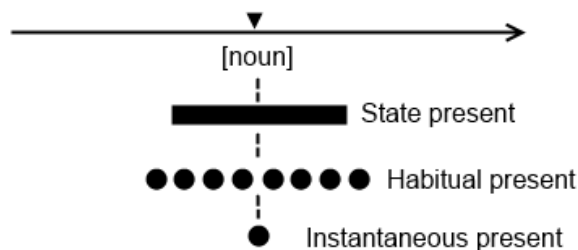
1.1.1 Present Tense

According to Quirk and others (1985, 179-180) simple present tenses which refer to present time can be subdivided into three groups – state, habitual and instantaneous present. They also illustrated these three groups in the following figure 2 which graphically demonstrates the differences between them.

1. State present –does not refer to a particular time and it is usually used with the stative verbs. The general truths, the statements and the timeless actions could be place into this category. For instance: *The Czech Republic shares its border with Germany.*

2. Habitual present - refers to the situation which happens repeatedly and usually contains the dynamic verbs. *I get up at 7 o'clock* - it is obvious that it may happen every day. However, some sentences require an additional adverbial. For instance, the statement *My family goes to Scotland* would be incomplete without the use of adverb. Therefore, in combination with the adverb we produce the correct interpretation *My family goes to Scotland every Christmas..*
3. Instantaneous present - while simple present tense with dynamic verbs is typical for the habitual present, more connected verbs of single action are necessary for the instantaneous present. These verbs demonstrate the action that both started and completed at the time of speech. It also implies that the action has no or little duration. According to Quirk and others there are several situations in which the instantaneous present can be used as for example the commentaries, demonstrations self-commentaries and performatives. Performatives are the verbs which express the act of speech – *advise, predict, request*, such as *I advise you not to do that.* (Quirk et al. 1985, 179-180)

Figure 2 Simple present tense



Source: (Quirk et al. 1985, 180)

1.1.2 Past Tense

As it is shown in the figure 1 the past situation is located on the left from the present moment – past precedes present. It refers to a particular time in past as in (4). There, we refer to the time and situation before *they* arrive. Past tense is usually used with the words which refer to past – e.g. *then, yesterday, last week, ten minutes ago, at that time*. Dušková (2003, 222-223) also points out that past action can be place into a specific time in past by adding the subordinate clause of time as it is demonstrated in the example (5), taken form Dušková (2003, 223). She also mentions that past is the basic narrative style as it can best

express the sequence of past events. In order to create the simple past form it is necessary to add the inflectional suffix *-ed*. Obviously, it is the rule for regular verbs only since the irregular verbs have their own fixed forms and cannot be derived according to any rules. These irregular verbs are for example *write*, *sleep*, *stand* and *see* for which past forms are *wrote*, *slept*, *stood* and *saw*.

- (4) *They had a pleasant journey.*
- (5) *That was when he was still a student, before I knew him.*
- (6) *Yesterday I played tennis.* – regular verb
- (7) *He wrote me 5 days ago.* – irregular verb

1.1.3 Future Tense

Future tense can be defined as the situation that is subsequent to the present moment and in the figure 1 it is situated on the right. Comrie (198, 43) claims that opposed to the past which describes what really happened the future is more speculative. This is because our predictions or future actions can be changed by any other action, intervention or even by “our own conscious intervention”. When being used in the sentences it usually refers to some plans, intentions, obligations or prediction.

The main form of future tense is *shall/will* + bare infinitive. Therefore future is modally marked in English. The form containing *will* is used to reveal an instant decision, promise, prediction, willingness or offer as well as to express uncertain future. *Shall* is used in English in the first person singular and plural (*I/we*) and it also expresses the offer or promise.

- (8) *It will rain.* – prediction
- (9) *Shall I help you?* – offer

1.2 Tense vs. Time

The descriptions of simple present, past and future tenses correspond with or refer to the same time – present tense to present time, past tense to past time and future tense to future time. Anyhow, not every sentence can apply such rule. English grammar also includes the utterances in which the tense does not refer to the same time.

The first possibility is present simple tense which can refer to future time. According to Leech (2004, 65) the simple present can be used in situations which are considered as

fact and also with events regarded as “immutable”. The most suitable examples are for instance the time tables or calendars. Furthermore, Leech (2004, 65) suggests that this category also comprises the plans or arrangements which are “regarded as unalterable”. In this case it would imply “decisive overtone” as in example (12), taken from Leech (2004, 65). If the progressive form was used instead, it would be seen as a present plan that can be changed.

- (10) *Tomorrow is Sunday.* – fact
- (11) *The bus leaves at 8:00.* – immutable situation
- (12) *We start for Istanbul tonight.*

Conditional clauses are other types in which the future time is represented by present tense. The change of reference time always occurs in subordinate clause. As you can see in the example (13) and (14), the modal *will* cannot be used in the *if*-clause, yet it is typical for the main clause. Both examples (13), (14) are futurate conditionals meaning they refer to the future even though the subordinate clause is in the present tense. Equally, the time clauses also do not include auxiliary *will* in future time and use present tense instead. The examples (15) and (16) depict the conjunctions *when* and *as soon as* which must comply with present tense. The same accounts for *till*, *until*, *whenever*, *while* and *before*.

- (13) *If I meet / *will meet her tomorrow, I will tell her about it.*
- (14) *If it does not / *will not rain tomorrow, I will come.*
- (15) *When I finish my homework, I will visit my grandma.*
- (16) *My sister will phone me as soon as she arrives.*

Another type of time and tense disagreement is the ‘historic present’. In this case the simple present tense refers to the past time. Biber, Conrad and Leech (2002, 152) claim that the historic present is commonly used in conversation (example 17). They also point out that it usually occurs with the verbs of verbs of speaking and directional movement (*come*, *go*). Moreover, the jokes are often told in this tense.

- (17) *She says, are you all right? She thought that I was sick.*

According to Leech (2004, 11-13) the historic present is frequently used in story telling where the past situation is described as it is happening right now. In addition to this he also states other situation in which it can be used. The first one is when we are talking about the work of an artist as in (18), taken from Leech (2004, 12). Such expression is possible since we assume the artist stays 'alive' through his work. However, the historic present cannot be used in the biographical context because it corresponds to artist himself and not to his work. The other example in which the historic present is preferable are the headlines in newspapers. Not only they report recent events, but they also make news more brief, vivid and dramatic. For instance "*Ex-champ dies*" is a verbal expression used by Leech to indicate that the person died.

(18) *Like Rubens, Watteau is able to convey an impression of warm, living flesh by the merest whiff of colour.*

(19) *A month ago he is going to the restaurant and he meets her.* – narration

(20) *Policeman attacked as he goes to restaurant* – news headline

2 ASPECT

According to Quirk and others (1985, 188) “the term aspect refers to a grammatical category which reflects the way in which the verb action is regarded or experienced with respect to time”. Whereas the tense reflects certain point of time – past, present or future, aspect consisting of verb *is/was* defines whether the action was completed or not – perfective or progressive. However, this explanation is not as simple as both aspect verbs can also be used in conjunction with other verb. In such case the above definition cannot be applied. Nevertheless, the difference between tense and aspect can be described as the latter does not reflect the time of utterance. (Quirk et al. 1985, 188-189)

The aspect in English can be either perfective or progressive. As it is mentioned in the above statement it may clarify whether the action was completed (perfective) or was in progress (progressive). In order to structure such sentence in perfective aspect it is necessary to combine the verb [Have] (depending on number and tense with the main verb in past participle form, as (1) for regular verbs and (2) for irregular verbs. On the other hand, the progressive form is created by the verb [BE] in conjunction with the *-ing* form of the main verb as shown in (3).

- (1) *I have played tennis.*
- (2) *He has written a letter.*
- (3) *My father is watching TV.*

2.1 Tense and Aspect Combinations

Aspect is also closely connected with tense and therefore they can interact with each other. (Quirk et al. 1985, 189) The following table 1 shows to what extent is each tense modified by aspect/s and also how it can be expressed in simple way. All of these are the examples of tense and not aspect. Table 1 also clearly demonstrates 12 variations of tense and aspect found in English.

The morphological change in these examples is quite visible. In regards to difference between tenses, table 1 shows that the bare infinitive is used for the verb in present tense with inflectional suffix *-s* being added in third person singular. The past tense contains the inflectional suffix *-ed* but only in the case of regular verbs. The irregular ones have their own fixed form. The final example of future tense consists of modal verb *will/shall*

followed by a bare infinitive. The morphology of aspect also depends on tense in which it is used. The progressive is formed by the verb *be* + verb in *-ing* form. The verb *be* requires the correct form (*is, are, was, were*) in compliance with the tense, person and number. The perfective aspect is formed by the verb *have* + past participle (*-ed*). In the same way the verb *have* also needs to be changed according to the tense, person and number (*has, have, had*). In case of future sentences *will* precedes other verbs under the circumstances in which the future is not expressed by present progressive or the phrase *be going to*.

Table 1 Tense and Aspect Combinations

	Present	Past	Future
Simple	<i>He watches TV.</i>	<i>He watched TV.</i>	<i>He will watch TV.</i>
Progressive	<i>He <u>is</u> <u>watching</u> TV.</i>	<i>He <u>was</u> <u>watching</u> TV.</i>	<i>He will <u>be</u> <u>watching</u> TV.</i>
Perfective	<i>He <u>has</u> <u>watched</u> TV.</i>	<i>He <u>had</u> <u>watched</u> TV.</i>	<i>He will <u>have</u> <u>watched</u> TV.</i>
Progressive + Perfective	<i>He <u>has been</u> <u>watching</u> TV.</i>	<i>He <u>had been</u> <u>watching</u> TV.</i>	<i>He will <u>have been</u> <u>watching</u> TV.</i>

2.2 Aspect without Tense

Providing that the aspect may be absent in past, present and future clauses, it can also work vice versa. In some clauses only aspect without tense is possible like for instance in the use of infinitives. They are applied in subordinate clauses with no reference to time or with some indication of past event. Infinitives can be divided into the categories which are shown in table 2. Since there are no aspects in infinitives as well as in simple tenses, this chapter is going to deal only with the perfect, continuous and perfect continuous infinitives.

Table 2 Infinitives

Infinitives	
simple	to work
perfect	to have worked
continuous	to be working
perfect continuous	to have been working

Biber and others (1999, 693) describe that the verbs which are followed by *to*-infinitives can be divided into several groups according to their semantic meaning which incorporates “speech act verbs (e.g. *ask, tell, warn*); other communication verbs (e.g. *show,*

prove); cognition verbs (e.g. *assume, consider, expect, find*)” as in example (4) and many others. Moreover, Biber and others (1999, 716) also note that *to*-infinitives can follow adjective predicates such as *easy, unlikely, important* and *keen* as in example (5).

(4) *We expect to work tomorrow.*

(5) *It is important to lock the door.*

However, in English grammar we can also find the verbs which are followed by the infinitive without *to*. These are for example *had better, would rather* and modal verbs (e.g. *should, may, must*). Modal verbs can be followed by perfective infinitive, but only in case of epistemic meaning (possibility, probability) and not the deontic one (obligation, necessity).

(6) *He must have been at home yesterday. His car was there.*

(7) **He must have been at home yesterday because he studied for the test.*

John Eastwood (2005, 134) defines the use of perfect infinitive as the event “that happened (or possibly happened) earlier”. Hence, the woman in (8) first won the medal and then she was pleased. The use of perfect infinitive in this subordinate clause indeed illustrates the past time, earlier event. He also comments on the use of continuous infinitive and claims that it is used in cases in which the event is happening “over a period”. As the example (9), taken from Eastwood (2005, 134), shows these two infinitives (perfect and continuous) can be used in one sentence.

(8) *The woman was pleased to have won the race.*

(9) *The man was unsteady on his feet. He appeared to have been drinking.*

According to Eastwood (2005, 134) when talking about the past event, the expressions such as *would like, would hate, would be nice/awful* enable us to use the perfect either in the first or second clause, or in both. Therefore all the following examples are possible in English. When compared to each other there is no change in their meaning. The use of aspect depends entirely on speaker’s preference.

- *He would like to **have been** at her party on Saturday.*
- *He would **have liked** to be at her party on Saturday.*
- *He would **have liked to have been** at her party on Saturday*

Infinitives are also used in raising structures which Crystal (2008, 401) defines as a shift which “moves a constituent to a higher position”. In case of object-raising the subject of the subordinate clause is moved to the higher position and become the object of the main clause. In the sentence *She claims that Edward is a liar* the subject of the subordinate clause *Edward* becomes object of the main clause – *She claims Edward to be a liar*. In a subject-raising the subject of the subordinate clause becomes the subject of the main clause as shown in this example: *It seems that the computer is broken* – *The computer seems to be broken*. In example (10) there is a change in subordinate clause which becomes the infinitive without any tense yet with the progressive aspect. The example (11) also shows the transfer into the infinitive, but still the sentence keeps its passive voice.

(10) *This article says that your company is losing money.*

Your company is said to be losing money.

(11) *People say that the diamond ring was stolen.*

The diamond ring is said to have been stolen.

2.3 Perfective Aspect

Comrie (1976, 52) describes the perfective aspect as “the continuing relevance of a previous situation”. The present perfect is often described as expressing past events that have some form of ‘current relevance.’ One way of thinking of this is to say that this form describes a present state resulting from a past event. The past perfect typically describes events in the past that are prior not only to the moment of speech, but also to some reference point that is itself in the past. In addition, there is also the future perfect tense which refers to the future situation in relation to the one that precedes it (Comrie 1976, 52-53).

(5) *I have played tennis.*

The present perfect can be odd in combination with past time-referential adverbials like *Yesterday* in (6). Comrie (1976, 54-55) points out that in his example (7) *five o'clock* does not refer to the event which happened during the specific time, instead there are other possible 'days' when it could happen. However, in some cases it is possible to add past time-referential adverbials as in (8).

(6) **I have seen the film yesterday.*

(7) *I have got up at five o'clock.*

(8) *I have seen this film, it was just yesterday.*

2.3.1 Types of Perfective Aspect

Perfective aspect does not always describe the same situation. Therefore this category can be further divided into groups according to the use. The main categories of perfect aspect describes Comrie (1976, 56) as "the perfect of result, the experiential perfect, the perfect of persistent situation, and the perfect of recent past"

1. Perfect of present situation- Leech (2004, 36-37) indicates that the 'stative verbs' are usually being used in this case which he defines as "state up to the present". The time span of this event has a beginning in the past and continues until present. The meaning of (9) is that I lived there in the past but I am living there also now. (Comrie 1976, 60)

(9) *I have lived in Zlín since I was young.*

2. Perfect of recent past- is used in the situations which have happened recently. Adverbials such as *recently*, *already* and *yet* represents this category, however more specific time cannot be used in this case. Therefore, *yesterday* in (10) as previously mentioned in the above chapter cannot be applied as it refers to a particular time. On the other hand it is possible to create the sentence in English like in (11). The adverbial *recently* shows that the time of seeing the film was close to the present yet it is not specified. (Comrie 1976, 60-61)

(10) **I have seen this film yesterday.*

(11) *I have seen this film recently.*

3. Perfect of result- refers to the past in which an event happened and is followed by “some continuing result”. (Comrie 1976, 56-57) This result can persist until the present situation as in the sentence *I have bought a puppy* – I bought him in past and now I have a puppy. However, the perfect of result does not have to have such obvious result as Leech (2004, 39) shows in the example “*I’ve had / taken a shower* (‘So I’m now clean’)”.
4. Experiential perfect- the meaning here is that something has already happened at least once. (Comrie 1976, 58) More times can be added if it is the case as in (12). (Leech 2004, 37)

(12) *I have seen this film ten times.*

Comrie (1976, 59) also emphasises the difference between the use of “*be* and *go*” with the perfective aspect. When *be* instead of *go* is used in perfective sentence, the meaning is changed. The sentence (13) including *gone* belongs under the category the perfect of result. The expression *Mary is in Europe* or *is on the way there* is a result of previous event. On the other hand, the sentence (14) consisting of *been* falls into the experiential perfect category. It happened at least once that Mary was in Europe but it does not imply she is there now.

(13) *Mary has gone to Europe.*

(14) *Mary has been to Europe.*

We can also distinguish the past and present perfect even though they both refer to the past. Their form is the same and differs only in the time – *has/have* or *had*. *We have seen the film. I had known her before she came here.* However, the meaning of these sentences is not identical. (Biber et al. 1999, 463) Since the meaning of the present perfect is discussed in the above article, we now examine it from the perspective of past perfect. This form is described by Quirk and others (1985, 195) as “past-in-the-past”. It refers to the event or situation which occurred before the present perfect or simple past. An example would be the sentence (15) in which our friend left before we came (past) to the restaurant, thus we could not actually meet.

(15) *When we came to the restaurant our friends had already left.*

2.4 Progressive Aspect

Progressive aspect expresses the **temporary** action or the process which is in progress. The attention is focused on the **duration** perceived by the speaker. Therefore the progressiveness is the issue of the subjective interpretation of speaker mostly applicable to the past and future progressive aspect. Biber and others (1999, 470) describe the progressive aspect as an indication of progress or duration of some event or state in the limited time. As it is stated above the aspects can be combined with the tenses. The following examples show that even if the tenses are the same (present) the meaning can be changed by an aspect:

(16) *Tony plays the piano really well.*

(17) *Tony is playing the piano really well.*

In the sentence (16) the meaning is that Tony can play really well but that is not something happening at the moment. It is only his ability. The sentence (17) indicates that we are listening to his playing right now and are considering it to be good. However, the sentences can be interpreted differently, if transferred to the past. The past simple (18) shows the event as a whole. It describes what begun and was completed in the past. The progressive aspect (19) indicates that playing took place in the past and lasted for a specific period of time. (Quirk et al. 1985, 197)

(18) *Tony played the piano really well.*

(19) *Tony was playing the piano really well.*

Quirk and others (185, 198) differentiate three elements of progressive meaning and as they acknowledge “not all of which need be present in a given instance”. The elements are following:

1. The event has DURATION
2. The event has LIMITED duration
3. The event is NOT NECESSARILY COMPLETE

The elements with the duration (1, 2) have the notion of temporariness. Due to its presence the ability of playing in the sentence (17) is considered to have a temporary and not a permanent state. It demonstrates (19) in which the event more likely occurs in a given period of time rather than being continuous.

According to Quirk and others (1985, 198) verbs can be spread into three categories on the basis of three senses – state, event and habit. These three categories can adopt the progressive meaning stated above. The event which has DURATION is typical for single i. events and LIMITED duration for ii. states and iii. habits. These situations are also described in more details below to concretize what is the difference between the sentences with the progressive aspect and without it. NOT NECESSARILY COMPLETE event is typical for the dynamic verbs which have the meaning of “conclusive”. When comparing (20) and (21) the main difference is that (20) express that the whole letter was written, whereas in (21) have no indication that the letter was finished.

(20) *I wrote a letter yesterday.*

(21) *I was writing a letter yesterday.*

i. Event progressive

The progressive of event indicates that the event or situation has some **duration**. At the same time it does not mean that the event or situation has finished yet - **incompleteness**. Although the simple present can be used to express the present event, the present progressive is preferable in the situations where the duration can be emphasized. Both cases can be used as show (22) and (23). The use of present simple in (22) indicates that the situation has a short duration. It corresponds with the commentary or appraisal of situation and not with a repeated event in which case it would apply to a habit. The example (23) shows that the event lasts for some period of time. The event progressive with *in this moment* is often used to highlight the duration as in (24). (Quirk et al. 1985, 199)

(22) *He shouts at her.*

(23) *He is shouting at her.*

(24) *He is writing a letter in this moment.*

ii. State progressive

As Quirk and others (1985, 198-199) state many stative verbs cannot be used in the progressive form including the verb *own* in (25). Still, the progressive can occur with some stative verbs. Such cases hold the notion of **temporariness** rather than permanence as in (26) and (27). However, this statement is not utterly ideal for all stative verbs which can be in progressive and therefore chapter 3 describes these verbs in more detail.

(25) *I own /*am owning a big amount of money.*

(26) *I live in a small flat.* – permanent situation

(27) *I am living in a small flat.* – indicates temporary situation

iii. Habitual progressive

Quirk and others (1985, 199) argue that the habitual progressive is closely connected with the habitual meaning. As the name suggests an event happens repeatedly, but in the term of progressive, in a limited period of time. As (28) shows the progressive form indicates that the situation repeats but only in the specific time span. On the other hand, the use of present simple in (29) indicates that it is a permanent habit. Furthermore, they suggest that by inserting the eventive predicates to the clause (e.g. time, position, frequency) the habitual progressive can also express the duration of event as (30).

(28) *The old woman is preparing the dinner while her daughter is ill.* – temporal habit

(29) *The old woman prepares the dinner.* – permanent habit

(30) *Whenever I see her son, he is writing his homework.*

2.4.1 Other Functions of Progressive Aspect

In addition, the progressive aspect does not only convey the duration, limited duration, or necessarily completed situation. It also serves other functions. In many cases the progressive aspect is used for expression of near future, politeness, agentive activity or emotive overtone. All these functions are described in this chapter.

2.4.1.1 Near Future

The use of progressive aspect and the present tense can also indicate that an event will happen in the near future. Leech and Svartvik (2002, 79) concretize that this near future is

bound with certain plan or arrangement as shown in (31). According to Quirk and others (1985, 215) the use of present progressive for the future is limited to human activities or events. As their example (32) shows it is not possible to use present progressive because the trees are not able to control this situation. However, the example (33) is correct. Here the death is already planned as for instance in case of death penalty.

(31) *He is going to Europe in a couple of days.*

(32) **The trees are losing their leaves soon.*

(33) *He is dying next week.*

2.4.1.2 Politeness

Another function of progressive is politeness or softening. Quirk and others (1985, 210) suggest that the progressive form can also be used “tentatively to a present wish or attitude” as in (34) and (35). The sentences without the progressive form would be less tentative and less polite. According to Ute Römer (2005, 97-98) in some cases the sentence could sound more aggressive in the absence of progressive form as in (36), taken from Römer (2005, 98). The most frequent adverbial which is used to make the sentence polite is *just*. Other relatively common adverbials are also (non-conditional) *if*, *whether* or *actually*. Another feature of this structure is that the *I* and in some cases *you* are usually being used in a subject position. Römer (2005, 98) also emphasizes that this function of progressive is used more in spoken than in written English.

(34) *I'm hoping to borrow some money.*

(35) *I was wondering if you could help me.*

(36) *I was just wondering how you'd be paid.*

2.4.1.3 Agentive Activity

The sentences which denote or describe the present behaviour belong under the category of agentive activity. As the following examples indicate the sentence (37) is stative and signifies the personal quality - *friendliness*. However, the sentence (38) can be considered as dynamic because it describes the present behaviour – “*He is behaving tactfully.*” (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 167)

(37) *He is friendly / silly / tactful.*

(38) *He is being friendly / silly / tactful.*

2.4.1.4 *Waxing and Waning Situations*

According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 167) another category which slightly changes the meaning of verbs is waxing or waning situation. Present simple *resemble* in example (39) indicates the fact about her appearance - state. While the sentence (40) expresses the increasing resemblance to her grandmother. The example (41) denotes the repeated event. However, the meaning of the sentence (42) is changed as it conveys the transformation, the situation that is not constant, but improving (waning). Comrie (1976, 37) describes it as “a developing process, in which the individual phases are essentially different from one another“. In case of the verb *resemble*, Leech (2004, 31) points out that the meaning of verb in (39) is interpreted as ‘to be like’ whereas in (40) as ‘to become like’.

(39) *She resembles her grandmother.*

(40) *She is resembling his grandmother more and more every year.*

(41) *She makes mistakes.*

(42) *She is making fewer and fewer mistakes.*

2.4.1.5 *Emotive Overtone of Disapproval*

Another case in which the meaning is changed by the progressive aspect is usually the emotive overtone of disapproval. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 166-167) concretize that it is not only affected by the progressive aspect but is also amplified by the adjuncts such as *always, forever, constantly* and *continually*. These adjuncts can be interpreted in two ways depending on tense in which they are being used. According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 166-167) the utterance *always* in the progressive sentence refers to “constantly” whereas in non-progressive it refers to “on all occasions”. See the example (43) *He uses my phone* that can for instance relate to the situation in which he left his own phone at home. On the other hand the use of progressive as in the example (44) draws attention to the constant occurrence of this situation that is usually unwanted or undesirable.

(43) *He always uses my phone.*

(44) *He is always using my phone.*

3 VERBS AND PROGRESSIVE ASPECT

This chapter deals with the verbs and their ability to create progressive aspect. Hence it is necessary to divide them into the categories in order to clarify which of verbs can form a progressive aspect and which not. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 118) subdivide the verbs into the categories that describe the situations expressed by the clause. Thus, “the interpretation and use of tense, aspect, and (to lesser extent) mood”. They mention for example occurrences, processes, achievements, activities and states. However, the basic division is states and occurrences which separate the stative verbs and dynamic verbs respectively.

According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 119) states and occurrences differ from each other in that “states exist or obtain, while occurrences happen, take place”. Furthermore, they suggest that the occurrences can go through some changes or have “internal temporal structure” whereas states do not have these properties. Another definition is given by Biber, Conrad and Leech (2002, 460) who describe stative verbs as “verbs that refer to mental states, attitudes/emotions, perceptions, or other states of existence” and dynamic verbs (Biber, Conrad, and Leech 2002, 456) as verbs which “express action or events”. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 119-120) also name other linguistic differences which separate states from occurrences. One of them is for example pseudo-cleft structures which can be easily used with occurrences but not with states as shown in (1) and (2), taken from Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 120).

- (1) **What she did next was know German.* – state
- (2) *What she did next was learn German.* – occurrence

Another distinction is that **states usually do not occur in progressive aspect** for which the dynamic verbs (occurrences) are freely as in (3) and (4). Biber, Conrad and Leech (2002, 163-164) even specify that some verbs (*bleed* and *starve*) are predominantly used in progressive aspect. On the other hand, they also note that both static and dynamic verbs can occur naturally in progressive aspect. The same applies to verbs which are not usually used in this aspect. Actually, some dynamic as well as stative verbs rarely assume this form. According to their research, the verbs for example *dissolve*, *arrest* and *shrug* which “occur less than 2 per cent of the time in the progressive aspect” despite their dynamic category.

- (3) **The diary is being purple.* – state
- (4) *Mary is playing the piano.* – occurrence

However, it would be somewhat incomplete if we categorized the verbs only into two groups (dynamic and stative). In order to recognize the constraint of the progressive aspect it is necessary, in particular, to divide stative verbs into more categories according to their meaning. Although it is generally said that the stative verbs are usually not being used with the progressive aspect, such statement may not be valid. As we observed in chapter 2, in some cases the meaning of the verb is changed by putting it into the progressive. It can express near the future or imply politeness, emotive overtone of disapproval or agentive activity.

The following subdivision consists of several groups including stative verbs. These groups are going to give the evidence of cases in which the progressive form is not possible, in which it is possible and the cases in which the meaning of the verbs or sentences is changed. Due to the fact that some verbs which are considered as stative can be used in some context as dynamic, it is necessary to start with the description of this category. Then the verb *have* is described in more detail because it can occur in several different situation. The subsequent division of is based on the study of Quirk and others (1985, 200-206) and deals with the groups of states which are divided according to the meaning. Although other studies such as Leech (2004, 25-27) provide the necessary material consisting of division of verbs not typical for the progressive aspect, the research of Quirk and others is somewhat more comprehensive. This is because they focus on stative verbs which imply quality, state and stance, and even further subdivide them into the categories which associated with the meaning and expression.

3.1 Verbs which Change the ‘Verbal Category’

Leech (2004, 25) describes that in special cases the verb can be transferred into a different “verbal category” which allows for the use of progressive form. He (2004, 29) mentions the verbs *think* and *suppose* as an evidence that usually occurs as states but in progressive form *think* may mean rather consideration or contemplation, or the synonym of *cogitate*, as opposed to *suppose* that holds “temporary assumption”. This category covers also other verbs which can be found in Chapter 3.3 such as for example *love* and *like*. The interpretation of *love* in (5) is rather *enjoy*. In case of *be loving* and *be liking* it means *be*

enjoying as Downing and Locke (2006, 373) show by example (6). In these unusual forms the verb transform into ‘activity verbs’. Under such circumstances, according to Swan (1996, 464-465) the verbs *think* as well as *measure* and *weight* reflect non-progressive form. Therefore *think* can be interpreted as having an opinion, whereas *measure* and *weight* as having some sort of scale.

(5) *I'm loving every scene of the film.*

(6) *How are you liking your visit to Disneyland? (= enjoying) Pat: Oh, I'm just loving it./ I'm enjoying it. Ben: Frankly, I'm hating it.*

According to British National Corpus (BNC) and Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) the verb *measure* is used quite regularly in progressive aspect, yet it is always an activity generated by people or machines. As in (7) it usually occurs in the situations when somebody or something is in active state. For instance, it can measure the distance, effectiveness, success, purity and so on. Its stative meaning is neither used British nor in American English (hereinafter only BrE and AmE). The verb *weigh* is more complex as the vast majority of examples in the COCA and BNC consist of *be + weighing* do not refer to the activity examining the weight but it is rather the synonym of *consider* as in (8).

The corpus shows very few examples of weighing as in (9) and (10) and thus this form is quite unusual and not commonly used. The state meaning of weigh (have a weigh) does not occur in the corpus with an exception of news statement that emphasizes the occurrence as in (11). However, as the talk continues, the author adds up a new phrase in present simple “Ferguson, who weighs 305 ...”, hereby supporting the notion that the progressive aspect does not happen/occur in this case..

(7) *This instrument is measuring 4, 000 galaxies at once.*

[COCA:2007:MAG:Astronomy]

(8) *The army still is weighing punishment for them.*

[COCA:2007:SPOK:PSB_Newshour]

(9) *She was so busy talking to another woman, who was weighing onions, that she never noticed what the fellow was doing.* [BNC:1989:Fict_prose]

(10) *Tomorrow morning you will be measuring and weighing yourself.*

[BNC:1990:W_misc]

(11) *I don't know what he's weighing now, but back then he was 330.*

[COCA:1996:NEWS:Atlanta]

3.2 Verb 'Have'

This chapter is going to deal with the verb *have* because it can be used in several situations which can imply different meaning. Also, each of these 'have' categories behave differently in sentences since they correspond with grammar. Therefore it is necessary to define which category of 'have' can actually be in progressive form and which cannot. Michael Swan (1995, 228-233) distinguishes the following categories: auxiliary; actions; possession, relationship and others; have to. The verb *have* stands as the **auxiliary** verb in the perfective aspect which is described above. It is called auxiliary as it creates the question or negation as in sentence (12) in which it replaces the auxiliary *do*. Swan (1995, 229) emphasizes that this category cannot create progressive form (13).

(12) *Have you seen this film? I haven't seen it yet.*

(13) **I'm not having seen it yet.*

Another category is described as the **actions**. In this group Swan (1995, 229) incorporates the expressions which consist of *have* + object. The meaning of these words usually applies to some action or experience. The expressions which belong here are for instance *have a drink*, *have a good time*, *have a bath*. Swan describes that these phrases have the same meaning as eat, drink, enjoy. Moreover, they all incorporate experience and are dependent on the noun that follows. In order to create the question and negation the insertion of auxiliary *do* is necessary for this category as in (14). The author however does not specify whether it is possible to create the progressive form yet, by thorough investigation of the BNC and COCA I came into conclusion that all these expressions can have progressive form as shown in (15).

(14) *Did you have a great time?*

(15) *Everyone was having a good time.* [COCA:2006:SPOK:CBS_48Hours]

The next category can be defined as **possession**, relationships and other states and can be replaced by *have got*, (16). Swan (1995, 230) links this meaning with the states of

“possession, relationships, illnesses, the characteristics of people and things, and similar ideas”. Quirk and others (1985, 131) claim that the use of the longer form (*have got*) holds rather informal construction as it is the alternative form for the stative meaning of *have*. According to Swan (1995, 231) the use of progressive form is not applicable in this ‘state’ category, therefore the sentence (17) is not being accepted in such use. After my research of corpora, I must admit that this expression is neither being used in BrE nor in AmE regardless of how well it may sound.

(16) *Do you have any sibling? or Have you got any sibling?*

(17) **I'm having a headache.*

The last category is the phrase *have to*. Quirk and others (1985, 145) argue that the meaning of *have to* is similar to *must*. It even replaces *must* in the past tense since this modal cannot create the deontic meaning (obligation, duty). In this case the verb *have* can stand as the main verb as well as the auxiliary. However, Quirk and others (1985, 145) point out that *have* as the main verb is being used in both AmE and BrE, whereas the auxiliary can only be seen in BrE. This is because of its somewhat old-fashioned form predominantly found in BrE. Swan (1995, 233) further suggests that the form can be extended to *have got to* which mainly occurs with the auxiliary form as in (18). This category can be also used in progressive form and according to Swan (1995, 233) it implies the “temporary continued obligation” as in example (19). According to the COCA and BNC, this form is used quite frequently and as shown in (20) and (21), the obligation lasts for some period of time. Therefore, the progressive form of *have to* may express the limited duration.

(18) *Why have you (got) to go home?*

(19) *She's having to write an essay at the moment.*

(20) *Deans, Head of Schools, Heads of Departments are having to think about the opportunities and problems...* [BNC:1990:W_misc]

(21) *At a time when ordinary people are having to make hard decisions ...*
[COCA:2009:SPOK:CNN_Cooper]

3.3 Qualities and States

Qualities and states belong to the category of stative verbs and usually are expressed by the verbs *be* and *have*. On the basis of the previous explanation qualities and states with *have* would belong to the category of possession, relationships and other states that implies stative meaning. According to Quirk and others (1985, 200) qualities are characteristics which belong to the subject which we refer to, and they are relatively permanent. Another type - state is less permanent. When we look at the examples (22) and (23) which refer to the quality they do not occur with the progressive form. However, when the verbs are used as states as well as in (24) and (25), the progressive form is possible, but the meaning of the sentence is changed. In the example (24) the present simple form indicates the personality but the progressive form expresses the present behaviour. The meaning of the progressive form of (25) is rather deliberate state. We could say that *John* is pretending the illness. (Quirk et al. 1985, 200) Leech and Svartvik (2002, 77) specify that the verb *be* can occur in progressive aspect when it is followed by the noun or adjective which refer to some personal behaviour or “to the role a person is adopting” – for instance *He is being a hero*.

(22) *John is / *is being Australian.* - Quality

(23) *John has /* is having brown eyes.* - Quality

(24) *John is / is being awkward.* - State

(25) *John has / is having a cold.* - State

The Quirk and others’ statement that qualities cannot be expressed by progressive form is also confirmed by the COCA and BNC because there is no such use. However, even though Quirk and others claim that it is possible to create sentence (24) and (25) I have found that these forms are used neither in British nor in American English. Here as we can notice is the clash between the grammatical rules and a real use of English expressions. However, the utterance *being kind* appears a few times in both BrE and AmE therefore it may depend on the popularity of the phrase.

3.4 Other States of ‘Having’ and ‘Being’

In this category Leech (2004, 27) includes the verbs such as *belong to*, *consist of*, *contain*, *depend*, *matter*, *own*, *resemble* etc. All these verbs include the notion of ‘having’ or ‘being’

in their meaning. He also states that these verbs can be paraphrased by the verbs *have* or *be*: *depend* = *is dependent on*, *resemble* = *is like*, *matter* = *is important*, *holds* = *has a capacity of*, *belong* = *is a member of*. It is necessary to emphasize that the verb ‘have’ which we are examining at the moment belongs to the category of possession, relationships and other states. These verbs are also characterized by the incompatibility with the progressive form. However, Quirk and others (1985, 205) point out that the progressive form of these verbs can be found in English and is being referred to as ‘process’ verbs, eg: “*How much was the tank containing when you last inspected it?*”

(26) *I own / *am owning this land.*

(27) *A sentence consists of / *is consisting of the clauses.*

According to general English grammar rules it is not possible to write a sentence which includes the verb *own* in progressive form. Based on the search of corpora, my findings support such statement but only to a certain extent. I was not able to find any examples of the verb *own* in progressive form in BrE, however in AmE it is possible. As the evidence would be the examples (28). The same applies for the form *be consisting of* for which I was able to find few references in AmE (not in BrE). One of the very few cases is the example (29), but this form is not frequent at all.

(28) *You will be owning this place; are you fully aware of the consequences?*

[COCA:2004:SPOK:PBS_Newshour]

(29) *In the G2 patients, the analgesic protocol was consisting of 25mg intravenous pethidine every six hours.* [COCA:2007:ACAD:ThoraicCardio]

The rules concerning other verbs in this category are not as straightforward. Some verbs in this form appear in corpus frequently or at least a few times (*own* - AmE, *contain* - AmE, *depend* - both) but some does not use this form neither in AmE nor in BrE (*matter*, *consist* – not used in BrE at all). Some of these verbs are quite frequently presented in the corpora or at least several times (*own* - AmE, *contain* - AmE, *depend* - both), but the other are absent in both AmE and BrE (*matter*, *consist* – not used in BrE at all). To summarize my findings, I suggest that despite the rare appearance of the mentioned verbs, their progressive form is more common in AmE than is in BrE.

3.5 ‘Private’ States

According to Quirk and others (1985, 202-203) private state is expressed by many stative verbs. As the name suggests they can be examined only subjectively as in case of attitude, hurt, perception and volition. For this reason they distinguish the intellectual states, states of emotion or attitude, states of perception and states of bodily sensation which are described in more detail below.

3.5.1 States of Emotion or Attitude and Intellectual States

This category covers wide range of verbs such as *agree, believe, fear, hope, know, like, realize, regret, suppose, think, understand, wish* and many more. Leech (2004, 26) describes them as the ‘inert’ verbs, as well as the verbs of perception, which means that they do not evince any effort or intention. Because they refer to the mental state, in present simple tense they are usually classified as ‘stative’. However, each of these verbs can appear in the progressive form.

(30) *I’m regretting I went there.*

(31) *He came just when I was thinking.*

(32) *He is forgetting that he promised to do it.*

(33) *I was wondering if you could do it.*

The sentences above represent few examples in which the use of progressive form is possible. The example (30) represents the category which implies the limited duration, the situation does not last long and the present moment is emphasised. The situation in (31) is described by Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 170) as “the progressive yields an activity reading”. In such case the verb *think* is interpreted as *cogitate* (change of verbal category). They also describe that the sentence (32) applies the feature of duration with the progressive and it “enable us to focus on what is going on”. The last in this set (33) express the element of tentativeness.

However, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 170) emphasize that the verb *know* can form progressive only in case of waning and waxing situation (*He is knowing more and more about our culture*). This verb is further analyzed by Leech (2004, 26). He recognizes the fact that the non-progressive *know* is usually followed by the verb in the progressive form as in the sentence *She absolutely doesn’t know what she is doing*. Even if the time-spans

are the same and we would expect the progressive form in both clauses, the use of the form **knowing* is not possible in this case. Therefore, in this category it depends on the each verb if it can have progressive form and if there is any change in meaning.

I have checked the corpora for preferences regarding the phrase *be + regretting* in BrE and AmE for. In both cases the message is the same – somebody is regretting something what was, is or will be done. When comparing this verb with the other examples such as *think, forget* and *wonder, regret* occurs in progressive form not so frequently. In BrE it is used mostly in prose (34), a few examples can be found in newspapers but it is not used in spoken language. On the other hand, in AmE this phrase can be found in the fiction, news and even in spoken language. The example (35) illustrates the use in the news which is concerning the voting. However, the most uses can be found in the fiction as in (36).

(34) *Already he was regretting it, but it was too late now...* [BNC:1987:W_fict_prose]

(35) *How many people who cast their votes too early are regretting it now...*

[COCA:2008:NEWS:Denver]

(36) *They might be regretting that decision now.*

[COCA:2008:FIC:Analog]

When using the verbs *think, forget* and *wonder* in progressive aspect it is apparent from my corpora finding that these verbs occur in greater number in AmE. For example *be + forgetting* appears in BrE mainly in fictive prose and sometimes in newspaper or conversation whereas in AmE it is widely used and it has about three times more examples than BrE. In case of *be + wondering* the number is eight times greater. In summary, in AmE is progressive aspect with these verbs more common than in BrE.

3.5.2 States of Perception

The verbs such as *see, hear, feel, smell, taste* belong to this group. However, Quirk and others (1985, 203) expand this category by including the appearance verbs *appear* and *seem*. Due to the fact that no other author covers the two verbs in this category, nor does mention any rules considering progressive form I had to investigate the COCA and BNC for the verb *appear*. In both BrE and AmE many progressive forms of the verb *appear* can be found yet with no meaning of appearance. The typical example would be (37) in which *appear* can be interpreted as to emerge or show up rather than *to look like*. In BrE I have found only one case including appearance meaning which is (38). Similarly, in AmE only

few examples considering the appearance are found as in (39). Based on the information in this sentence, we can assume that the verb *appear* should not be interpreted in the sense of having the appearance of being.

(37) *The craters are appearing in areas all over the world.*

[COCA:2007:FIC:Scholastic]

(38) *Tammuz had the feeling he must be appearing like a predatory beast at that moment, ...*

[BNC:1991:W_fict_prose]

(39) *My dear, you are appearing as devilishly delectable as always.*

[COCA:2012:FIC:Bk:MyLordVampire]

Because the verbs *see*, *hear*, *feel*, *smell*, *taste* can be used in quite different ways, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 169) further subdivide this category into the verbs of production, experience and acquisition. The following table 3 shows the use of these verbs in each category and also the change of the verbs of hearing and sight. In addition, Quirk and others (1985, 203) separate this group into the verbs with dynamic and stative meaning and then further into Percept at S, Perceiver at S, nonagentive and agentive.

Table 3 Verbs of Perception I

PRODUCTION	EXPERIENCE	ACQUISITION
<i>It <u>looked</u> square.</i>	<i>I could <u>see</u> it.</i>	<i>I <u>looked</u> at it</i>
<i>It <u>sounded</u> shrill.</i>	<i>I could <u>hear</u> it.</i>	<i>I <u>listened</u> to it.</i>
<i>It <u>felt</u> hard.</i>	<i>I could <u>feel</u> it.</i>	<i>I <u>felt</u> it.</i>
<i>It <u>smelt</u> horrible.</i>	<i>I could <u>smell</u> it.</i>	<i>I <u>smelt</u> it.</i>
<i>It <u>tasted</u> sweet.</i>	<i>I could <u>taste</u> it.</i>	<i>I <u>tasted</u> it.</i>

Source: (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 169)

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 169) describe the first category as a “production of the sensation by the stimulus for the experience” as in the example (40) or as the examples in the table above. In these situations the verbs have stative character and normally do not occur in progressive form. The exceptions are the waxing or waning situations (*It is smelling worse and worse every day*) and temporary state of the verbs *look* (*She is looking great*) and *sound* (*It is sounding great*). The category that Quirk and others (1985, 203-

204) name Percept at S corresponds with this type. In this case “percept (or ‘thing perceived’) is in subject position” as shown in the examples in table 3 or in (41) where *computer* is in the subject position. After the closer look it can be said that in this category the verbs are copula (linking) verbs because they are followed by a subject complement.

(40) *The fruit tasted sweet.*

(41) *The computer looks broken.*

The category of experience is recognized as the perception of the experiencer. This rather state category is usually used with the modal verb *can*. In this case it is obvious that the progressive form is not possible at all. However, in the absence of modal verb these verbs of perception are located somewhere between the stative and dynamic interpretation. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 169) show the following 4 examples to demonstrate the differences between stative and dynamic use of the verb. The forms in (42) and (43) are clearly distinguished as dynamic and stative. But the example (44) is more “state-like” and differs slightly from the last example (45). Quirk and others (1985, 203-204) call this category Perceiver at S because the perceiver is always placed in subject position.

(42) *I heard a plane pass overhead.* - dynamic

(43) *I could hear planes passing overhead.* - stative

(44) *I heard the tap dripping.* - state-like

(45) *I could hear the tap dripping.* - stative

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 169) point out that the present simple form usually sounds “more dramatic, suggesting a quasi-dynamic interpretation” as the example (46). The use of the progressive form is possible and usually refers to the sense organs quality (47) or to the hallucinatory (48).

(46) *I hear something horrible.*

(47) *My grandmother is not hearing very well now*

(48) *He is seeing strange things*

According to the COCA and BNC this form of *seeing things* (hallucinatory) appears in both BrE and AmE. Nevertheless, in BrE this form in most cases appears in fictive prose such the example (49). Similarly in AmE it is frequent phrase which is used mostly in fiction as in (50) but it also appears in spoken language as the example in which the crime was committed and the accused person wants to refute the testimony by saying (51). However, in BrE and AmE a few non-hallucinatory examples of seeing things can be also found as in (52) but not in such extent as the hallucinatory uses.

- (49) *...but sometimes Anna would stand and stare, as if she was seeing things that others couldn't see.* [BNC:1990:W_fict_prose]
- (50) *... telling himself he was a goddamned idiot, a freak who was seeing things that didn't exist.* [COCA:2010:FIC:Bk:Malice]
- (51) *The neighbor must have been seeing things.* [COCA:2008:SPOK:NBC_Dateline]
- (52) *Like already, we 're seeing things like Instagram that are mobile-only, or apps like Foursquare ...* [COCA:2011:SPOK:NPR_TalkNation]

The last category - acquisition is an intentional action which is done by the experiencer to get the particular sensation. In this point of view these verbs are freely used with the progressive aspect. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 169) presents the example “*Carry on – I’m listening*” and also suggest that the “*Carry on, I listen*” would not be used. Quirk and others (1985, 203-204) describe this category as agentive. For the better understanding of the Quirk and others’ subdivision see the following table 4. Here they also emphasize the reason, why the verbs *see* and *hear* do not occur in progressive aspect while the rest of these verbs do. It is due to the fact that *see* and *hear* can be replaced by the dynamic, agentive *look (at)* and *listen (to)*. The rest do not have such a substitution and therefore they can create progressive form though they act more like statives. The following examples answer the question: *What are you doing?* (Quirk et al. 1985, 204)

- (53) *I *am seeing / am looking at my son’s paintings.*
- (54) *I *am hearing / am listening to my favourite band.*
- (55) *I’m smelling the lily.*
- (56) *I’m tasting the new sauce.*

Table 4 Verbs of Perception II

STATIVE		DYNAMIC	
Percept at S	Perceiver at S	Nonagentive	Agentive
look	can/could see	see	look (at)
sound	can/could hear	hear	listen (to)
feel	can/could feel	feel	feel
smell	can/could smell	smell	smell
taste	can/could taste	taste	taste

Source: (Quirk et al. 1985, 205)

3.5.3 States of Bodily Sensation

According to Quirk and others (1985, 203) the verbs as *ache*, *hurt*, *itch*, *feel sick/well* and *tickle* belong under this category. If referring to the temporary state the use of progressive or non-progressive form is more or less free, because there is no apparent change in meaning and as in (57) and (58). Therefore, both forms are possible and the selection depends mainly on the speaker.

(57) *I felt / was feeling sick.*

(58) *My arm hurts / is hurting.*

However, after comparing it with the COCA and BNC it is evident that the non-progressive form is used more commonly. In case of *feel well/sick* the progressive form occurs but not to such extent. In BrE for instance *feel well* in progressive form occurs only in 9 examples whereas in non-progressive form in 78 examples. It is similar with the use of *feel good*. The non-progressive form is preferred in both AmE and BrE. But when comparing the use of *feel good* and *feel well* the first one predominate in both languages. Also the other verbs such as *hurt* or *ache* are usually accompanied by the non-progressive form. The sentences expressing headache with the verb *hurt* or *ache* (for instance *my head hurts*, *my head aches*) appear in progressive aspect in fact only few times (2 to 8 examples in AmE and BrE). However, the non-progressive form of 'head hurts' appears in more than 170 examples in AmE.

Quirk and others (1985, 203) describe that the verb *feel* does not belong only to this category. Due to its versatility it can be found in the categories, such as verbs of perception (*The surface feels hard*), inert cognition (*Do you also feel that this mach will ends in a*

draw?) and also attitude (*After the incident he felt really annoyed*). In case of attitudinal *feel* the phrase *be feeling happy* is not used in the corpora, instead *feel happy* is preferred in both AmE and BrE.

3.6 Stance Verbs

The category of stance verbs lies between the category of stative and dynamic verbs. The main verbs which belong to this category are *live*, *stand*, *sit* and *lie*. If the sentence refers to a permanent state, the non-progressive form is used but if it refers to a temporary state the use of the progressive form is more appropriate. (Quirk et al. 1985, 206)

Permanent situations:

- (59) *John lives in Europe.*
- (60) *The city lies in the middle of the country.*
- (61) *The most important building stands near the main road.*

Temporary situations:

- (62) *John is living in Europe.*
- (63) *People are lying near the beach.*
- (64) *She is standing at the bus stop.*

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 171) point out, that the progressive aspect which describes permanent position can be found in narration as for instance in “*We reached the knoll and the peak was standing majestically above the glacier*”. Here the progressive form expresses the experience of the narrator more likely than the state. The temporary situation can also be described by the non-progressive form *People lay near the beach, sunning themselves*. However the simple form is not generally used in the present situation. The answer to the question *Have you seen Tom?* would be *He is sitting in the living room* rather than *He sits in the living room*.

CONCLUSION

The aim of my bachelor thesis was to specify the verbs which can or cannot create the progressive aspect. The analysis focused mainly on the stative verbs since they are usually not associated with this aspect.

The important part was also the meaning and the function of the progressive aspect itself. Despite the main function – the duration emphasizing it can serve also as the expression of near future, politeness, agentive activity, waxing and waning situations or emotive overtone of disapproval. It is obvious that these functions somewhat change the interpretation of a sentence.

In order to specify the verbs which can be used in the progressive aspect this thesis used the subdivision based on the study of Quirk and others. The subdivision included verbs which belong to the category of quality, state and stance. However, to fulfil the aim of the bachelor thesis I also added two more categories. The first one is the verbs which change their verbal category. In such cases the stative verbs such as *think*, *measure* and *weight* can adopt the progressive form under the circumstances in which the verbs are interpreted as having an opinion and as having some sort of scale, respectively. Another category is the verb *have* as it has several functions. However, the progressive form can be used only with the action meaning and with the phrase *have to*.

I compared the authors' principles with the Corpus of Contemporary American English and British National Corpus. The situations in which the progressive aspect is not used are for instance the qualities which are expressed by the verbs *be* and *have* (*John *is being Australian /* is having brown eyes*). Then could be mentioned the expression *is having a cold* which is possible according to Quirk and others but not according to the corpora. The verb *own* also should not be used in progressive aspect but it is a common feature in AmE as well as the other verbs such as for example *contain*, *matter* and *consist*. These verbs are not being used in progressive aspect in BrE at all. The last example is the verb *know* which appear in progressive aspect only in case of waxing or waning situation. To summarize my corpora findings, I suggest that the stative verbs in progressive form are more common in AmE than in BrE.

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