

5. Aspect, Tense, and Viewpoint

Summary

The occurrence of a verb is the period of time over which it is operative. The occurrence of every verb is related to the occurrence of every other verb in a dialogue or narrative by its aspect. There are five aspects: general, stative, imperfective, perfective, and prospective. As described in Chapter 2., a general verb is one whose occurrence is not identified. A stative verb is one describing an unchanging state or condition.

The remaining aspects relate to a dynamic verb, which describes an action or process of change. An imperfective verb is one whose action is not completed. A perfective verb is a one which describes a completed action. An aorist verb is a perfective verb whose action does not have a continuing effect. A prospective verb is one whose action is about to occur.

Tense is a feature of a verb which describes the degree of detachment of the speaker of the sentence from its occurrence, whether past, present, or future. The speaker has a viewpoint which again is past, present, or future. Tense may be combined with an aspect but is distinct from it. An action in the present cannot be perfective. Languages generally express aspect, but not all languages express tense.

Verbs related by aspect include those in sentences connected by a conjunction, those in a relative clause, those represented by a gerund, and those represented by a participle. A conjunction and a gerund can express the concepts of condition, concession, cause, and purpose. A gerund is a verb whose subject is the same as that of another verb, and which is represented by a non-restrictive qualifier of the subject of that verb. The occurrence of a gerund is wider than that of the verb, and it expresses the state or condition of the subject at the time that the verb occurs.

A participle is an attribute formed from a verb, which expresses its aspect. It may be restrictive or non-restrictive. It may qualify any word in the sentence, relating it to the aspect of the verb that it represents. It may take adverbials, objects, or complements which are appropriate to its verb.

A participle is general, stative, recipient, possessive, imperfective, perfective, or prospective. A perfective participle expresses the state resulting from the action of the verb. Since a general participle refers to an activity without a specific occurrence, it is stative. General participles are of wide use, and may refer to an activity which the language expresses by means of a verbal noun or a role rather than a verb. In a possession relationship, a recipient participle describes the state of possessing and a possessive participle describes the state of being possessed.

Some languages do not possess a participle, and express its function by a relative clause. Other languages use a participle instead of a relative clause. Languages without other types of participle may nevertheless possess a general participle. Some languages with participles may use them as predicates, to express verbal aspect in conjunction with an auxiliary verb which expresses tense. Other languages do not permit participles to be predicates, and express aspect by other means.

Terms Defined or Introduced

Occurrence, aspect, dynamic, stative, perfective, imperfective, aorist, prospective, tense, gerund, participle.

Aspect

In Chapter 1., we described language as a sequence of sentences in a dialogue or narrative, which introduces and identifies concepts in the world, whether persons, things, actions, or states, and provides further information about them. This further information in turn introduces and identifies further

concepts, and so on. In Chapter 2., the distinction was made between an action or state which is general, that is for which no particular *occurrence* is identified, and a specific *occurrence*. This is expressed by a general and a specific verb:

“John was at work by 9.00 each day.” (general)
“John was hungry that morning.” (specific)

Chapter 2. also made a distinction between a state or condition that the subject is in and an action, which describes an action or process which the subject undergoes. This is expressed by a stative and a dynamic verb:

“John was hungry that morning.” (stative)
“John ate an apple.” (dynamic)

It is evident that the three sentences can be connected, in that the specific *occurrence* takes place during the general *occurrence*, and the *occurrence* of the dynamic verb takes place during that of a stative one:

“John was at work by 9.00 each day. He was hungry that morning, so he ate an apple.”

An additional distinction applies in most languages to a dynamic verb, between an action which is continuing and not completed (*imperfective*) and an action which is completed (*perfective*):

“John was eating the apple.” (imperfective)
“John read the newspaper.” (perfective)

If these two sentences are connected, we have:

“While John was eating his apple, he read the newspaper.”

This can result in a cascade of sentences, each of which has an occurrence within that of the previous one:

“John was at work by 9.00 each day. He was hungry that morning, so he ate an apple. While eating the apple, he read the newspaper.”

This relation of the occurrence of one verb to another is called *aspect*. Aspect is generally used in grammars to mean the relation between imperfective and perfective dynamic verbs. However, the above remarks suggest that the term can be widened to refer also to the relation between general and specific verbs, and between stative and dynamic verbs. The aspect of a sentence places its occurrence in context of the previous sentences of the narrative or dialogue. The imperfective aspect is often called conventionally the “imperfect tense”.

The general form of the verb in the above example was stative: “John likes fruit”. As mentioned in Chapter 2., a general form of the dynamic verb is also possible:

“John used to eat an apple every morning. / John eats an apple every morning.
While eating one, he read the newspaper.”

The perfective aspect of verbs can have two forms. In the above examples, the action is completed and has no subsequent effect: “John ate an apple.” However, English has a perfective form (called conventionally the “perfect tense”) which results in a state, during which a further action may occur:

“John has eaten the apple. He has gone back to work.”
“John had eaten the apple. He went back to work.”
“Having eaten the apple, John went back/has gone back to work.”

The distinction between these two perfective forms exists in some languages but not in others. Where it exists, we can call the perfective form without a resulting state the *aorist* and that with a resulting

state the *perfective*. In languages without the distinction, both forms are perfective. The term “aorist” is borrowed from its use in Ancient Greek.

By its nature, the imperfective/perfective distinction applies only to dynamic verbs. An imperfective form of a stative verb does not arise:

- *“Louis XIV was being king of France.”
- *“He was knowing who his friends are.”
- *“She was owning three motor cars.”

Where the subject of two sentences is the same, aspect can be represented by a device called a *gerund*, discussed below. Aspect applies equally if the subjects are different:

- “Mary was writing a letter when John came in.”
- “The weather having improved, Mary went out.”

The sentences do not need to be consecutive, or to be connected by a conjunction such as “so that” or “while”. Nevertheless, the aspect of a sentence does imply reference to the aspect of a previous or following sentence. “John was eating an apple” suggests that some event will take place while he eats it. “John has read the newspaper” suggests that some event will occur in consequence of his reading of it.

The perfective aspect can in most languages be refined further by implying that the action is only just completed:

- “Mary had just written the letter when John came in.”

The imperfective aspect may also be used to imply, not that action is or was going on, but that it is or was about to start. We can call this variation of the imperfective the *prospective* aspect. It also occurs in many languages:

- “Mary was about to write the letter when John came in.”

Some languages, for example in Western Europe, use the perfective participle and an auxiliary verb to express the perfective aspect. In French, if the verb is transitive, and its object is in front of it, the participle agrees with the object. If the verb is intransitive, the participle agrees with the subject:

- “Quels livres a-t-il apportés?” “What books (masculine plural) has he brought (masculine plural)?”
- “Les dames sont arrivées.” “The ladies have arrived.”
- [The ladies (feminine plural) are arrived (feminine plural).]

The perfective participle expresses the state after action of the verb. As Chapters 6. and 7. describe, it applies to the object of a transitive verb and the subject of an intransitive verb. The origin of these sentences is therefore stative, but they have been adapted to refer to the process which gives rise to the state, which we call perfective. For a transitive sentence, the agent or instrument is also expressed.

A similar construction occurs in transitive sentences in Hindi. In a perfective sentence, the verb is a participle which agrees with the object, and the agent is marked with the ergative postposition “-ne”. In an imperfective sentence, the verb is a participle which agrees with the subject, and the agent has no postposition. The imperfective aspect is expressed by the auxiliary “rahnā” (“remain”):

- “usne kitāb likhī” “He wrote the book.” [He-by book (feminine) wrote (feminine).]
- “vah kitāb likh rahā thā” “He was writing the book.”
- [He (masculine) book write remaining (masculine) was.]

The need to express the relative occurrence of sentences is so important to clear communication that most languages possess aspect. Irish constructs aspect in a similar way to English. Aorist aspects are expressed by a verb, others by an auxiliary verb and verbal noun:

- “D’fhiafraíos de cad a bhí uaidh.” “I asked him what he wanted.”

[I-asked of what that was from-him.]
 “Díolfad an bhó dhubh amàreach.” “I will sell the black cow tomorrow.”
 [I-will-sell the cow black tomorrow.]
 “Tá sé ag gearradh adhmaid.” “He is cutting wood.” [Is he at cutting of-wood.]
 “Tá an leabhar cailte ag an ngarsún.” “The boy has lost the book.”
 [Is the book lost at the boy.]
 “Táim tar éis teacht isteach.” “I have just come in.” [I-am after coming in.]
 “Táid ina luí ar an urlár.” “They are lying on the floor.” [They-are in-its lying on the floor.]

Indonesian also uses auxiliary verbs, including “sedang” (continuing action), “sudah” (completed action), “masih” (“still”), and “baru” (“just”):

“Ketika saya sampai di rumahnya Tom sedang makan.” (“sedang”)
 “When I arrived at his house Tom was eating.”
 [When I arrive at house-his Tom was eat.]
 “Ketika saya sampai di rumahnya Tom sudah bangun.” (“sudah”)
 “When I arrived at his house Tom had already got up.”
 [When I arrive at house-his Tom already get-up.]
 “Dia masih makan.” (“masih”)
 “Dia baru tiba.” (“baru”)
 “She is still eating.”
 “He has just arrived.”

Other languages such as Russian do not use auxiliaries to express aspect, but have two forms for every dynamic verb, an imperfective and perfective:

“Eto sluchaetsya ochen’ chasto.” “It happens (imperfective) very often.” (verb = “sluchat’sya”)
 “Eto sluchilos’ na proshloi nedele.” “It happened (perfective) last week.” (verb = “sluchit’sya”)
 “On vseгда govorit to, chto dumal.” (verb = “dumat”)
 “He always said what he thought (imperfective).”
 “Ya podumayu ob etom.” “I shall-think (perfective) about it.” (verb = “podumat”)

Russian verbs of motion provide a further distinction between general and specific verbs:

“On khodil tuda kazhdyi den’.” “He went (general) there every day.” (verb = “khodit”)
 “Kuda vy idëte?” “Where are you going (imperfective)?” (verb = “idti”)
 “Knigi nado nosit’ v portfele.” “One should carry books in a briefcase.”
 [Books it-is-necessary to-carry (general) in briefcase.]
 (verb = “nosit”)
 “Ya nesu eti knigi v biblioteku.” “I am-taking (imperfective) these books to the library.”
 (verb = “nesti”)

Every verb in Arabic possesses a perfective and imperfective form, which are conjugated differently:

“ʕaraftuhu ḥāfīzan li-kalimatihī” “I knew he was someone who kept his word.”
 [I-knew-him (perfective) keeper of word-his.]
 “ʕaʕrifu kaḥīran mina l-rijāli yubaʕḥirūna l-ʕamwāla”
 “I know many men who squander money.”
 [I-know (imperfective) many of the-men squander (imperfective) the-money.]

The Arabic perfective with “qad” forms the aorist:

“qad nāqaša l-majlisu ʕadadan mina l-mašārīʕi”
 “The Parliament discussed a number of plans.”
 [Discussed the-Parliament number of the-plans.]

The Hungarian verb which is not marked for aspect is imperfective. The aorist is expressed by a prefix, for example “meg-”:

“Anna tegnap csinálta a házi feladatát.” “Anna was doing her homework yesterday.”
 [Anna yesterday was-doing the homework-her.]

“Anna tegnap megcsinálta a házi feladatát.” “Anna completed her homework yesterday.”
 [Anna yesterday did the homework-her.]

The “meg-” formation also serves for the perfective. However, spoken Hungarian has also developed a construction with the verb “van” (“be”) and the gerund, which expresses the perfective. The gerund (see below) is here translated by the English “-ing”:

“A kenyér meg van sütvé.” “The bread is baked.” [The bread _(perfective) is baking.]
 “Az üzlet zárva van.” “The door is closed.” [The door closing is.]

Chinese verbs take a marker to indicate aspect, but not tense. Aspect markers include “le” (completed action), “guo” (completed action with a continuing result), “zài” (continuing action), and “zhe” (state resulting from an action):

“Wǒ zuótiān xiàle kè yǐhòu qù kàn diànyǐng.” (“le”)
 “Yesterday when I’d finished class, I went to see a film.”
 [I yesterday finish _(aorist) lesson after-that go see film.]
 “Wǒ hēguo máotáijiǔ.” “I have tried Maotai wine.” (“guo”)
 [I drink _(perfective) Maotai wine.]
 “Jiāoxiǎng yuètuán zài yǎnzòu Bèiduōfēn de yuèqǔ.” (“zài”)
 “The symphony orchestra is playing Beethoven’s music.”
 [Join-sound music-group _(imperfective) play Beethoven-of music-song.]
 “Mèimei chuānzhe yī tiáo bái qúnzi.” (“zhe”)
 “My younger sister is wearing a white skirt.”
 [Younger-sister wear _(stative) one unit white skirt.]

Japanese expresses aspect through a verbal noun which ends in “-te”, in combination with the existential verbs “iru” and “aru”. As the following section will show, in combination with a dynamic verb, the “-te” form is also a gerund. It expresses the state of the topic prior to or during the action of the following sentence. For a transitive verb, this state is interpreted as continuing action, for an intransitive or passive verb it is the state resulting from an action, and for a stative verb it is the present state:

“Sasaki-san wa sake o nonde iru.” (transitive/imperfective)
 “Mr Sasaki is drinking sake.”
 [Sasaki-Mr _(topic) sake _(object) drinking there-is.]
 “Bekku-san wa mō ie ni kaette imasu.” (intransitive/perfective)
 “Mr Beck has already returned home.”
 [Beck-Mr _(topic) already home-to returning there-is.]
 “Watashi wa Suzuki-san o shitte imasu.” “I know Miss Suzuki.”
 [I _(topic) Suzuki-Miss _(object) knowing there-is.] (stative/stative)
 “Mado ga akete aru.” “The window has been opened.” (passive/perfective)
 [Window _(subject) opening there-is.]
 “Mado ga aite iru.” “The window is open.” (stative/stative)
 [Window _(subject) being-open there-is.]

The last two sentences use respectively the transitive verb “akeru” (“open”) and the attributive verb “aku” (“be open”).

Swahili also distinguishes a full range of aspects, using the infixes “li” (past), “me” (perfective), and “ki” (simultaneous action):

“Nilisoma.” “I did read.”
 “Nimesoma.” “I have read.”
 “Nilikuwa nikisoma.” “I was reading.” [I-was I-reading.]
 “Nilikuwa nimesoma.” “I had read.” [I-was I-have-read.]

Tense

Aspect is used in languages to express the relative occurrences of connected sentences. Tense is used to express the degree of detachment of the speaker from the event described, whether past, present, or future. An action or state in the past cannot be rectified, but its consequences may still be present; an action or state in the present involves the speaker in some way; an action or state in the future is not yet real.

Similarly, tense can be relative to a speaker in the narrative, and can therefore express that speaker's degree of detachment from what is described. If the narrative describes a speaker in the past, the tenses are relative to his/her *viewpoint* in the past, in contrast to a speaker whose *viewpoint* is in the present. For a speaker in the future, the tenses are relative to his/her *viewpoint* in the future. For past or future speakers, a past action may be fully completed (aorist) or still have continuing effect (perfective). Since an aorist action has no continuing effect, it is usually considered to be independent of viewpoint.

The difference between aspect and tense is that aspect expresses the occurrence of the verb in relation to another verb, which may be in another sentence or a relative clause, or (as we shall see) in a participle. Tense expresses the detachment in time of the occurrence from the speaker. For example, "they will depart shortly" is the future tense, and conveys that their departure is imminent in the opinion of the narrator. "They are about to depart" is the prospective aspect, and conveys that their departure is imminent in the context of the narrative.

The verbs of a language may therefore exhibit every combination of aspect, viewpoint, and tense. Few languages do so completely, and they normally use for the purpose at least one auxiliary verb. For many languages, aspect is a more important tool to communicate meaning than tense. Others possess more tense forms than aspects. Some languages have a present and past but no future tense; in others, the future is used to express uncertainty. The following is the combination available in English:

	<u>aspect</u>	<u>viewpoint</u>	<u>tense</u> (relative to the viewpoint)
"had written"	perfective	past	past
"had been writing"	imperfective	past	past
"was writing"	imperfective	past	present
"had been about to write"	prospective	past	past
"was about to write"	prospective	past	present
"wrote"	aorist	-	past
"has written"	perfective	present	past
"has been writing"	imperfective	present	past
"is writing"	imperfective	present	present
"is about to write"	prospective	present	future
"will write"	aorist	-	future
"will have written"	perfective	future	past
"will have been writing"	imperfective	future	past
"will have been about to write"	prospective	future	past
"will be writing"	imperfective	future	present
"will be about to write"	prospective	future	future

A perfective action from a past viewpoint is sometimes called the "pluperfect tense", and a perfective action from a future viewpoint is sometimes called the "future perfect tense".

The present tense can only be imperfective, since a completed action can only occur in the past or be foreseen in the future. A present perfective or aorist therefore does not arise. The non-imperfective present "John eats fruit" is general. In Russian and other Slavonic languages, the imperfective present is present and the perfective present is future:

"Oni izuchayut russkii yazyk." "They are studying (imperfective) Russian [language]".
 "My vam pomozhem." "We shall help you." [We you help (perfective).]

French has only one imperfective verb form, the past imperfective ("was doing"). It possesses a past aorist ("did"), but in spoken language this is now replaced by the present perfective ("have done"). The other verb forms express tense, using perfective and aorist constructions. The aspect in brackets is that of the French construction:

“J’avais toujours fini avant midi.” “I had always finished before noon.”	(past perfective)
“Il parlais, pendant que je chantais.” “He was talking, while I sang.”	(past imperfective)
“Ils sont arrivés ce soir.” “They arrived this evening.”	
[They have arrived this evening.]	(present perfective)
“J’ai fini mon ouvrage.” “I have finished my work.”	(present perfective)
“Où allez-vous?” “Where are you going?” [Where go you?]	(present aorist)
“Ils viendront demain.” “They will come tomorrow.”	(future aorist)
“Il aura bientôt fini.” “He will soon have done.”	(future perfective)

French does not therefore possess explicit forms for the imperfective: “had been doing”, “has been doing”, “is doing”, “will have been doing”, and “will be doing”, for the aorist “did” (for which spoken French uses the perfective), and for the general “used to do” (for which it uses the imperfective).

The Italian verb has the same range of aspects as French, but in addition can express a present and past imperfective:

“Sto leggendo.” “I am reading.”
“Stavano dormendo.” “They were sleeping.”

Spanish has a similar range of aspects to English for dynamic verbs:

“No he visto a tu madre esta semana.”	(past perfective)
“I haven’t seen your mother this week.”	
“Yo volvía del cine cuando vi a Niso.”	(past imperfective)
“I was coming back from the cinema when I saw Niso.”	
“Ayer anduve más de quince kilómetros.”	(past aorist)
“Yesterday I walked more than 15 kilometers.”	
“Está haciendo sus cuentas.” “He’s doing his accounts.”	(present imperfective)
“Estarán comiendo a estas horas.”	(future imperfective)
“They’ll probably be eating at this time.”	
“Si llueve se aplazará el partido.”	(future aorist)
“If it rains, the match will be postponed.”	
[If it-rains itself will-postpone the match.]	

German does not have explicit imperfective verb forms. The distinction in meaning between past perfective and past aorist has also become blurred in spoken German. The verb form before the slash (/) is what is meant, that after the slash is the actual form :

“Sie hatten nicht bemerkt, daß keine Butter mehr da war.”	(past perfective/
“They hadn’t noticed that there was no butter left.”	past perfective)
[They had not noticed, that no butter more there was.]	
“Bertha hat die Wäsche im Hof aufgehängt.”	(past imperfective/
“Bertha was hanging out the washing in the yard.”	past perfective)
[Bertha has the washing in the yard out-hanged.]	
“I habe beobachtet, wie Rudolf auf sie zugelaufen ist.”	(past aorist/
“I observed how Rudolf ran up to her.”	past perfective)
[I have observed, how Rudolf up to her ran is.]	
“Sie arbeitet im Augenblick an einem neuen Projekt.”	(present imperfective/
“She is working at the moment on a new project.”	present aorist)
[She works at present on a new project.]	

Arabic can express the future by the prefix “sa-” or “sawfa” to the imperfective:

“sa-yuwāṣilu l-kitābata” “He will continue (imperfective) to write.”
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Additionally, “kāna” (“be”) is used as an auxiliary verb in combination with the verb in either aspect. The perfective of kāna is used to construct the past perfective and imperfective:

“fi l-ṣabāhi kāna l-maṭaru qad sakana” “In the morning the rain had calmed down.”

[In the-morning has-been the-rain calmed-down.]
“kāna l-ʔawlādu yatarākaḏūna” “The children were racing around.”
[Have-been the-children are-racing-around.]

The imperfective of kāna is used to construct the future perfective and imperfective:

“rubbamā yakūna qad qaraʔa mulaxxaṣān lahu” “Perhaps he will have read a summary of it.”
[Perhaps he-is he-read summary for-it.]
“maʿa ḥulūli l-ṣayfi sa-yakūnu yuʔaddī wājibahu bi-ntiẓam”
“By summer he will be performing his duties regularly.”
[By summer he-will-be he-is-performing duties-his regularly.]

Indonesian/Malay possesses tense markers to indicate the past and future aorist:

“Dia pernah belajar di Paris.” “He once studied in Paris.” (“pernah” = past aorist)
“Kami akan makan nanti.” “We will eat soon.” (“akan” = future aorist)

Conjunctions

A conjunction is a word which connects two or more sentences. Some conjunctions do not indicate aspect:

“Peter took the letter from the pile, opened it, and read it.”
“It will be cloudy or rainy today.”

However, the majority of conjunctions compare or contrast the sentences in some way, and also imply an aspectual relationship between them. Chapter 3. (Conditions) describes the condition conjunction “if”:

“If you were here, we could reach agreement.”

“While” indicates an aspectual relationship:

“While he was talking, she thought of her reply.”

“Although”, “but”, “even if”, “even though” and their equivalent adverbials “despite that”, “however”, and “nevertheless” contrast the sentences:

“Although he was talking, she thought of her reply.”
“He was talking, but she thought of her reply.”
“He was talking. However, she thought of her reply.”
“Even if he was talking, she could think of her reply.”

“Because” indicates that one sentence arises in consequence of the other:

“Because it was a fine day, they went for a walk.”
“Because the program had a bug, the system crashed.”
“Because she liked Italy, she went on holiday there every year.”

In these examples, the sentence not introduced by the conjunction lies within the occurrence of the sentence which is introduced by the conjunction, and accordingly conforms with the above definition of aspect. Either the sentence with the conjunction is imperfective and that without the conjunction is aorist, or the sentence with the conjunction is stative and that without the conjunction is general.

The Latin construction called “ablative absolute” enabled the sentence with the wider occurrence to be expressed as a noun and attribute in the ablative case, the meaning of the conjunction being inferred. The following are literary examples:

“Regibus exactis, consules creati sunt.” (Livy)

“Since kings had been abolished, consuls were elected.”
 [King abolished (ablative), consuls created were.]
 “Pereunte obsequio, imperium intercidit.” (Tacitus)
 “If obedience fails, government falls to pieces.”
 [Failing obedience (ablative), government collapses.]
 “Nil desperandum, Teucro duce.” (Horace)
 “There must be no despair, since Teucer is leader.”
 [Nothing should-be-despaired-of, Teucer leader (ablative).]

Similarly, Finnish and Japanese use the gerund form of the verb (see below) to relate the occurrences of two sentences, although the construction is not a gerund as we define it:

Finnish: “Pekan herätessä Liisa lähtee töihin.” “When Pekka wakes, Liisa goes to work.”
 [Pekka-by waking, Liisa goes to-work.]

Japanese:
 “Itō-sensei wa konshū byōki de, kawari ni Murata-sensei ga oshieta.”
 “Professor Ito was ill this week, and Professor Murata taught for him.”
 [Ito-Professor (topic) this-week ill being, exchange-in Murata-Professor (subject) taught.]

Arabic can use the conjunction “wa” (and”):

“yastaṭīʿu l-zurrāʿu wa-l-ḥālatu hādhihi ʾan yuqādū l-wizārata”
 “The farmers, while the situation is such, can sue the Ministry.”
 [Are-able the-farmers, and the situation this, that they-sue the-Ministry.]

Gerund

Sentences connected by a conjunction generally have different subjects. When they have the same subject, languages employ a construction in which only the subject of the verb with the narrower occurrence is stated. The verb with the wider occurrence (imperfective, stative, or general) is expressed not as a verb, but as a gerund or verbal adjective qualifying the subject. The gerund provides information on the state of the subject at the time that the sentence occurs. Because it is a concise way of expressing two sentences, it is not a restrictive qualifier (Chapter 2., Restrictive Qualifier).

A gerund in English can convey the sense of the conjunctions “while” and “because” and can combine with “although”. Words such as “being” or “acting” can be implied and omitted:

“Being very suspicious, she hesitated to open the door.” “She opened the door suspiciously.”
 “[Being] Full of regret, he apologised.”
 “He met his neighbour while walking the dog.”
 “She came running.”
 “When [they are] ripe, the apples should be picked before they fall.”
 “Although [he was] very young, he was elected to Parliament.”
 “[Acting] As your solicitor, I would say ‘Chance it’”.

This use of the term “gerund” is wider than that conventionally used, since it includes words which are often classed as adverbial. However, further consideration should indicate the difference. An adverb is a word which qualifies the action of a verb: “he spoke roughly”; “she replied calmly”; these could be paraphrased “his speech was rough”; “her reply was calm.” In contrast, “she opened the door suspiciously” does not mean “her opening of the door was suspicious”, but “she was suspicious when she opened the door.” Similarly, “full of regret, he apologised” is not the same as “he apologised regretfully”.

A gerund includes an adjective qualifying the subject at the time of the action of the verb, such as “when ripe” or “although very young”. It also includes the purpose in the mind of the agent when an action is performed:

“He went home to cook the dinner.”
 “She left the company in order to start her own business.”

A perfective gerund indicates the state of the subject arising from a completed action:

“Having read all the papers, he started his report.”
“Her suspicions aroused, she hesitated to open the door.”
“Filled with regret, he apologised.”

Russian forms imperfective gerunds from imperfective verbs, and perfective gerunds from perfective verbs:

“Chitaya, zapisyvayu neznakomye slova.” (“chitat” = “read” (imperfective))
“When reading, I make a note of words I do not know.”
[Reading, I note unfamiliar words.]
“Napisav pis'mo, on lëg spat'.” (“napisat” = “write” (perfective))
“Having written the letter, he went to bed.”
[Having-written letter, he lay to-sleep.]

In Spanish, like other Romance languages, the gerund is a form of the verb ending in “-ando” or “-iendo”. Its use covers all the purposes of a gerund in the above English examples, including the conjunctions “when”, “while”, “in order to”, “because”, “although” and “as if”:

“Se levantó dando por terminada la entrevista.”
“He got up, as he judged the interview to be at an end.”
[Himself he-rose, taking as ended the interview.]
“Le conocí siendo yo bombero.” “I met him while I was a fireman.”
[Him I-met, being I fireman.]
“Me escribió diciéndome que fuese a verle.” “He wrote telling me to come and see him.”
[To-me he-wrote telling-me that I-should-come to see him.]
“Siendo estudiante, tendrás derecho a una beca.”
“Since you're a student, you'll have the right to a grant.”
[Being student, you will have right to a grant.]
“Llegando tarde y todo, nos ayudó mucho.”
“Although he arrived late, he helped us a lot.” [Arriving late, us he-helped much.]
“Me miró como riéndose.” “He looked at me as though he were laughing.”
[Me he-looked as laughing.]

The Greek gerund is formed by adding “-οντας/-ωντας” to the stem of the imperfective verb:

“Περπατώντας προς το γραφείο του ο Νίκος συνάντησε ένα παλιό του φίλο.”
“While walking towards his office, Nikos met an old friend of his.”
[Walking towards office-his, the Nikos met an old his friend.] (“περπατώ” = “walk”)

Finnish forms gerunds by adding “-ssa”/“-ssä” to a form of the infinitive. The gerund takes a personal pronoun:

“Ajaessasi sinun pitää olla varovainen.” “When you drive, you must be careful.”
[Driving-you you must be careful.]
“Ihmiset nauttivat lähtiessään lomalle.” “People enjoy themselves when they go on holiday.”
[People enjoy, going-they holiday-on.]

Hungarian forms gerunds by adding “-va”/“-ve” to the verb:

“Mosolyogva lépett be a szobába.” “She entered the room smiling.”
[Smiling she-entered in the room-into.]

Turkish possesses gerunds in “-e” and “-erek” which are formed from verbs:

“Yürükler kona göçe yaylaya gittiler.” (“kon-” = “camp”)
“The nomads went to the plateau, camping and moving on.” (“göç-” = “move on”)
[Nomads camping moving-on plateau-to went.]

“İzlerini takibede ede yürüdük.” “We walked, following their tracks.” (“takib” = “pursuit”)
 [Tracks-their following walked-we.]
 “Gülerek cevap verdi.” “She replied laughingly.” (“gül-” = “laugh”)
 [Laughingly answer gave-she.]
 “Kapıyı açarak sokağa fırladı.” (“aç-” = “open”)
 “Opening the door, he rushed into the street.”
 [Door opening, street-to rushed-he.]

Every Arabic verb possesses an imperfective participle which can fulfil the purpose of gerund:

“yādara l-qāhirata ʔamsi mutawajjihan ʔila jībūtī”
 “He left Cairo yesterday heading for Djibouti.”
 “tahādā l-naʔšu maḥmūlan ʔalā l-ʔaʔnāqī”
 “The bier slowly moved off carried on their shoulders.”
 [Moved-off the-bier carried on the-shoulders.]
 “ḥumma nṣarafa wāʔidan ʔiyyāya bi-ziyāratī fī l-bayti”
 “Then he left, promising me to visit me at home.”
 [Then he-left promising to-me to-visit-me at the-home.]

An Arabic gerund can also be expressed by an imperfective verb:

“jalasa l-rajulu yataḥaddaḥu” “The man sat talking.” [Sat the-man he-was-talking.]
 “šaʔarat bi-qalbihā yuxfiq bi-šiddatin” “She felt her heart beating strongly.”
 [She-felt in heart-her it-was-beating in-strength.]

Arabic gerunds of purpose can also be expressed with a verbal noun:

“daxalat fī l-ḥilfī taʔzīzan li-qudratihā ʔalā muwājahati ʔayyi tahdīdan”
 “It entered into the alliance in order to strengthen its ability to face any threat.”
 [It-entered in the alliance strengthening for ability-its on facing any threat.]

or an imperfective verb:

“kanāt muqīmatan fī l-bayti tarʔā šuʔūnahu”
 “She was staying in the house to look after his affairs.”
 [She-was staying in the-house she-was-looking after affairs-his.]
 “tawāqqafū li-yastarīḥū” “They stopped in order to rest.”
 [They-stopped for they-rest (subjunctive)-.]

Hindi forms gerunds by adding “-kar” and “-ke” to verb stems:

“ham āgre jākar tāj mahl dekhe” “Let’s go to Agra and see the Taj Mahal.”
 [We Agra-to going Taj Mahal see (subjunctive)-.] (“jānā” = “go”)
 “vah backar bhāg gae” “He escaped safely.” [He being-safe fled.] (“bacnā” = “be safe”)
 “vahī baiḥkar bāte hoḡ” “We’ll sit there and have a talk.”
 [There sitting talk we-will.] (“baiḥnā” = “sit”)

Japanese forms gerunds by adding “-te” or “-de” to a verb or attribute:

“Watashi wa kōto o nuide hangā ni kaketa.” “Taking off my coat, I hung it on a hanger.”
 [I (topic) coat (object) taking-off, hanger-on hung.] (“nugu” = “take off”)
 “Wain o nomisugite atama ga itai.” “I’ve drunk too much wine and have a headache.”
 [Wine (object) excessive-drinking, head (subject) aches.] (“nomisugiru” = “drink to excess”)

The Swahili verb forms its tenses by infixes. Two are “-ki-”, which means simultaneous action, and “-ka-”, which means subsequent action. These can have the effect of a gerund:

“But having said that, perhaps we should rethink.”
[But after say that, perhaps should we rethink.]

Other languages possess both relative clause and participle constructions.

Since a participle is a verb in attributive form, it can fulfil any of the functions of a verb which the languages permits. It can have an object and be qualified by an adverbial. The larger the number of verbal functions given to a participle, the more complex the construction, and the more suitable a relative clause is as an alternative. Like other attributes and relative clauses, a participle can be either restrictive or non-restrictive.

Since a relative clause qualifies a noun which is the subject, object, or other noun linked to the predicate verb, its occurrence is expressed by the aspect of its verb in relation to the occurrence of the predicate verb. This is so whether the relative clause is restrictive or non-restrictive:

“John, who was hungry that morning, ate an apple.”
“Having eaten the apple, John returned to work.”
“The applicant whom I am planning to see today will arrive at 11.00.”
“The applicant who made an appointment yesterday will arrive at 11.00.”
“I borrowed the book from the library I always go to.”
“I borrowed the book from the library, which is the one I always go to.”

On the same argument, since the occurrence of a participle is essential to its meaning, all participles show aspect relative to the aspect of the verb. Those languages which possess participles generally distinguish up to five aspects: perfective, imperfective, stative, prospective, and general, each of which is discussed and illustrated below. The aspect of a participle is often confused in conventional grammars with tense. As shown above, the tense of a verb can only be understood in terms of its viewpoint. A participle does not have a viewpoint independent of the viewpoint of the verb of the sentence. In practice, the aspect of a participle adequately expresses its tense and is a clearer description of its purpose.

Some languages permit participles to be a predicate as well as a qualifier. As a predicate, they fulfil the function of a verb, including its aspect. Languages usually do this by combining the participle with an auxiliary verb which expresses tense. Other languages express the aspect of verbs by a different means (see above, under Aspect).

Perfective Participle

Any process involves change. Since in a perfective sentence the change is completed, it is possible for a perfective verb to form a *perfective participle*, to describe the state resulting from process:

“The hall has been built.” “The visitors have arrived.” “The tests are completed.”

The entity which has been changed differs between an active transitive verb (when it is the object of the verb) and a passive transitive or intransitive verb (when it is the subject), as is described in the next chapter. The term “perfective participle” is suggested here instead of “past participle”, which is often used, since the term “past” does not distinguish between imperfective and perfective actions.

Like other attributes, a perfective participle can be restrictive or non-restrictive:

“A book misplaced is a book lost.” “Goaded by his remarks, she had to interrupt.”

Perfective participles are derived from the verbs whose completed actions they refer to. Expressions which would be attached to a verb may also be attached to the participle:

“The letter, written by Mary to John, arrived the next morning.”
“Seated on a bench, Henry watched the birds on the lake.”

As the above examples illustrate, a perfective participle fulfils a number of functions in different languages:

- It may act as a gerund when it qualifies the subject of a sentence, expressing the state that the subject is in.
- It may act as a restrictive or non-restrictive qualifier.
- It may be used with a perfective auxiliary verb to express a process, which has resulted in the state described by the participle.
- It may be used with a stative auxiliary verb to express a state, without referring to the process by which the state came to be.
- It may be used with an imperfective auxiliary verb to express a process, which is expected to result in the state described by the participle.

Where the perfective and stative auxiliary verbs in a language are the same, an ambiguity may arise between whether the verb expressed is perfective or stative. For example, in English:

“The shop is closed.” (process) → “The shop is closed.” (state).

This is resolved in some instances by using an attribute which is not perfective but stative:

“The shop is opened.” (process) → “The shop is open.” (state).

In German, the ambiguity is resolved through using an imperfective auxiliary (“become”) for the perfective verb. However, as previously mentioned, this leaves no way of expressing the imperfective (“the shop is being opened”):

“Der Laden wird um 8 Uhr geöffnet.”	“The shop opens at 8 o’clock.”	(process)
	[The shop becomes at 8 o’clock open.]	
“Der Laden ist um 8 Uhr geöffnet.”	“The shop is open at 8 o’clock.”	(state)
	[The shop is at 8 o’clock open.]	

The following are examples of languages which form perfective participles from verbs:

French:	“fermer”	“close”	“fermé”	“closed”
	“battre”	“beat”	“battu”	“beaten”
	“écrire”	“write”	“écrit”	“written”

“Tenez les portes fermées.”	“Keep the doors closed.”
“Ils sont battus.”	“They have been beaten.”
“J’ai écrit la lettre.”	“I have written the letter.”

German:	“waschen”	“wash”	“gewaschen”	“washed”
	“kommen”	“come”	“gekommen”	“come”

“Die Strümpfe sind gewaschen.”	“The stockings are washed.”
“Die Strümpfe werden gewaschen.”	“The stockings are being washed.”
“Wir haben die Strümpfe gewaschen.”	
“We have washed the stockings.”	[We have the stockings washed.]

Finnish:	“pelastaa”	“rescue”	“pelastettu”	“rescued”
	“surra”	“grieve”	“surrut”	“grieved”

“Pelastetut merimiehet olivat hyvässä kunnossa.”	
“The rescued sailors were in good shape.”	[Rescued sailors were good shape-in.]

Greek:	“γράφω”	“write”	“γραμμένος”	“written”
	“σπάζω”	“break”	“σπασμένος”	“broken”

“Η τιμότητα του ήταν γραμμένη στο πρόσωπο του.”	
“His honesty was written on his face.”	[The honesty-his was written on-the face-his.]

Russian:	“napisat”	“write”	“napisan”	“written”
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“zakryt” “close” “zakryt” “closed”

“Roman “Voina i Mir” byl napisan Tolstym.”
 “[The] novel “War and Peace” was written by Tolstoy.”
 “Magaziny byli zakryty.” “[The] shops were closed.”

Persian: “kardan” “do” “karde” “done”
 “koštan” “kill” “košte” “killed”

“šah abbas in karevansarara bana karde ast” “Shah Abbas built this caravanserai.”
 [Shah Abbas this caravanserai (object) building done is.]
 “košte našodam” “I was not killed.” [Killed not-became-I.]

Hindi: “pahnnā” “put on” “pahnā” “put on”
 “rahnā” “reside” “rahtā” “resident”

“laṛkī ne sārī pahnī hai” “The girl has put on a sari.” [Girl-by sari wearing is.]

Every Arabic verb possesses a participle, and most have two, active and passive. They are mostly used as stative attributes and as the comment of a perception or communication (Chapter 8., The Perception and Communication Functions):

“al ṭabību l-mušrifu ʿalā l-ḡilāji” “the doctor supervising the treatment”
 “al-ʿasʿāru l-muʿlanatu mina l-sūqi” “the prices announced by the market.”
 “lā šakka ʿannaka bāliḡun ʿāyataka” “There is no doubt you will reach your objective.”
 [No doubt that-you reaching objective-your.]
 “raʿā ʿannahu kāna maʿrūḡan li-l-bayʿi” “He had a vision that he was offered for sale.”

As mentioned above, standard Turkish employs a perfective participle in place of a perfective relative clause. The participles are therefore able to take personal pronouns as agents:

“yapmak” “do” “yaptıḡ-” “done”
 “hazırlanmak” “prepare” “hazırlanmış” “prepared”

“dün yaptığım işler” “the jobs I did yesterday” [yesterday done-by-me jobs]
 “hazırlanmış plan” “the plan which has been prepared” [prepared plan]

Imperfective Participle

An *imperfective participle* expresses the idea that the noun which it qualifies is engaged in a activity in the course of which the action of the main verb takes place. In English, it ends in “-ing”:

“Students starting a new course should register at the office.”
 “He found his son digging the garden.”

The commonest use of an imperfective participle is as a gerund, as described above. However, a gerund is non-restrictive and only qualifies the subject of a sentence. The above examples show that an imperfective participle can also be restrictive and qualify an object.

In English, an imperfective participle is also used to form an imperfect verb, which may express tense:

“She is reading in the study.”
 “He was sitting in the garden.”
 “We will be working throughout the weekend.”
 “They had been drinking all night.”

Other languages, such as Finnish, Turkish, and Persian, possess an imperfective participle as an attribute or gerund but do not use it to form a verb.

Finnish: “Pihalla seisova auto on sininen.” (“seisoa” = “stand”)
 “The car standing in the yard is blue.” [Yard-in standing car is blue.]
 “hyvää musiikkia soittava yhtye” (“soittaa” = “play”)
 “a band playing good music” [good music playing band]

The Turkish imperfective participle acts as an imperfective relative clause; it cannot take a personal pronoun, but can be negative:

“bekliyen misafirler” “guests who are waiting” [waiting guests] (“beklemek” = “wait”)
 “oynamıyan çocuklar” “children who are not playing” [not-playing children]
 (“oynamak” = “play”)

Persian: “xahane salamatiye šoma hastam” “I am desirous of your well-being.”
 [Desiring-of health-of you I-am.]
 (“xastan” = “want”)
 “davan davan jelou amad” “He came forward running.” (“davidan” = “run”)
 [Running running forward he-came.]

The Romance languages also form the imperfective verb without use of a participle. As described above, these languages possess a form of the verb which is a gerund. In Italian and Spanish, the imperfective participle is a different form from the gerund, and does not occur with many verbs. In French, the imperfective participle and gerund have the same form:

French: “Je le trouvai riant comme un fou.” “I found him laughing like mad.”
 [I him found laughing like a madman.]
 Spanish: “una situación cambiante” “a changing situation” [a situation changing]

The German imperfective participle can also be used as a gerund and a qualifier, but not to form an imperfective verb. The following illustrates both functions:

“Auf einem Klappstuhl hockend, betrachtete Maria die im Schnee spielenden Kinder.”
 “Sitting on a folding-chair, Maria watched the children playing in the snow.”
 [On a folding-chair sitting, watched Maria the in-the snow playing children.]

Stative Participle

Perfective and imperfective participles are formed from dynamic verbs. A stative verb can also form a participle, such as “being” or “as”. It expresses the state of the subject (or object) at the time that the sentence occurs:

“Being very intelligent, she understood the problem at once.”
 “As Chairman, he called the meeting to order.”

Since the state of an attribute is usually adequately expressed by the attribute itself, in most contexts the stative participle of an attribute is not necessary. They occur as auxiliaries to express gerunds. The above examples are a general gerund and the following are an imperfective gerund (“being”) and a perfective gerund (“having”):

“While being interviewed, he broke down.” “Having finished her talk, she sat down.”

Arabic: “kāʾinan man kāna l-ẓālimu” “whoever the criminal may be”
 [being who was the-criminal]

Although Welsh does not distinguish a particular form for the stative participle, the verb “bod” (“be”) is used as a stative participle and can take a personal pronoun. In the following examples, it is translated “being”, and is subject to mutation. It is also used as an auxiliary to form an imperfective participle. The negative is “nad yw” (“not being”):

“Aeth ef allan heb got, er ei bod hi’n bwrw glaw.”
 “He went out without a coat, although it was raining.”

[Went-he out without coat, although its-being in strike rain.]
 “Eisteddais i wrth y tân am fy mod i’n oer.”
 “I sat by the fire because I was cold.”
 [Sat-I by the fire for my-being in cold.]
 “Yr wyf i’n gwisgo cot fawr am nad yw’r tywydd yn gynnes.”
 “I am wearing an overcoat because the weather is not warm.”
 [Am-I in coat great for not-being the weather in warm.]

Turkish requires a stative participle (“olan” = “being”) in place of a stative relative clause. The same word is also used as an auxiliary:

“meşgur olan memur” “the official who is busy” [busy-being official]

In Inuit, most stative relations are expressed by a verb rather than an adjective. To construct a qualifier, a stative participle is added to the verb in the form of the suffix “-suq”, here translated as “being”. In the following examples, “kusanar” means “be pretty”:

“Assut illutaat kusanaqaq.” “Really your new house is beautiful.”
 [Very house-new-your beautiful-very-it.]
 “ilimagisaatut kusanartigisuq” “as pretty as he had expected”
 [expected-his-as pretty-so-being]

Further examples of this construction are in Chapter 6. (Attributive Sentence and Verb).

Possessive and Recipient Participles

A second form of stative relation is a possession (Chapter 8., The Possession Function). This consists of two elements, the recipient and the possession, connected by a possession verb. The state of being possessed is expressed by a *possessive participle*, and the state of possessing by a *recipient participle*. Examples of a recipient participle are:

“Having a strong constitution, he lived to a good age.”
 “Knowing his abilities, I appointed him to the position.”
 “Seeing the train approaching, she stood back from the platform.”

A possessive participle expresses the state of possession:

“His abilities being known, he was appointed to the position.”
 “Seen from the platform, the train approached.”

Arabic: “huwa maʿrūfan min qibali l-nurwījīyyīna”
 “He [is] known by the Norwegians.”
 “ʿanā muṭālabun bi-sidādi 23 ʿalfa junayhin”
 “I [am] required to pay £23,000.”

Other examples of recipient and possessive participles occur with opinions (Chapter 8., The Opinion Function):

“We are confident in his leadership.”	“His leadership is trusted by us/trustworthy.”
“She was suspicious of his motives.”	“His motives were suspected by her/suspicious”
“He was envious of her success.”	“Her success was envied by him/enviable.”
“The company is hopeful of a return to profit.”	“The results are hoped for/hopeful for a return to profit.”
“She was doubtful whether they would be enough.”	“Whether they will be enough is doubted by her/doubtful.”
“We are reliant on his skills.”	“His skills are trustworthy.”

Languages such as Turkish and Arabic without a verb “have” cannot form the recipient participle “having”, and adopt a construction in which it is inferred:

Turkish: “parası olmayın bir genç” “a youth who has no money”
 [money-his-not-being a youth]
 “babası ölmüş olan çocuk” “the child whose father has died”
 [father-his died-being child]

Arabic: “ḥasanu l-raʿyi fī...” “having a good opinion of...” [good of-the-opinion on...]
 “marhūbu l-jānibi” “of fearsome aspect” [feared of-the-aspect]

The Inuit recipient participle can be expressed by the suffix “-lik” and the possessive participle by the suffix “-ga”:

“illu qarḥalik” “a peat-walled house” [house peatwall-having]
 “illugigaluara” “the house I used to have” [house-had-previously-my]

Beneficiary Participle

A third form of stative relation is a benefit or adversity (Chapter 10.). This is an advantage, opportunity, disadvantage, or misfortune which arises to a beneficiary of an action. In general, it describes something which is potentially available to a person rather than one which is possessed. A *beneficiary participle* describes the state of being available:

“His abilities being ascertainable, he was interviewed for the position.”
 “Visible from the platform, the train approached.”
 “The terms are acceptable to the contractor.”
 “The information is available on the Internet.”
 “You are entitled to a parking place.”
 “The arrangement is suitable for me.”
 “The facts are comprehensible on first reading.”

Prospective Participle

An *prospective participle* is formed from a dynamic verb in order to convey that an action is imminent. It is also used in some languages to mean that an action should be done. It can be restrictive or non-restrictive, and can be a gerund or can govern an object.

English does not possess a particular prospective participle, and uses the auxiliary construction “being about to”. Latin did possess an prospective participle:

“Morituri, te salutamus.” “We who are about to die, salute you.” (“mori” = “die”)
 [About-to-die, you we-salute.]

The Finnish prospective participle ends in “va”/“vä”:

“Minulla ei ole muuta sanottavaa.” “I have nothing else to say.” (“sanoa” = “say”)
 [At-me not is remaining to-be-said.]
 “Onko teillä tarvittava pääoma?” “Do you have the necessary capital.” (“tarvita” = “need”)
 [Is-query at-you to-be-needed capital?]

Turkish uses a prospective participle in place of a future relative clause. It ends in “-acak” (or its equivalent) and can take a personal pronoun:

“Gelecek olanların çoğu akrabamız.” “Of those about to come, most are our relatives.”
 [About-to-come of-those, most relatives-our.]
 (“gelmek” = “come”)
 “konuşacakları meseleler” “the problems which they are going to discuss”
 [about-to-discuss-their problems] (“konuşmak” = “discuss”)
 “Yiyicek bir şey alalım.” “Let us buy something to eat.” [About-to-eat a thing let-us-buy.]
 (“yemek” = “eat”)

The usual term for this attribute is “future participle”, but as these examples illustrate, its occurrence relates to the verb of the sentence and not to the viewpoint of the speaker. It therefore possesses aspect like other participles, and the different term “prospective participle” is more appropriate.

General Participle

Chapter 2. described a general verb as a dynamic verb without a specific occurrence. Its subject is engaged in an activity, but the particular actions are not described:

“She sings at the opera for a living.” “We eat beef on Sundays.”

The object of a non-negative general verb can only be definite or general. The object of a negative general verb can also be indefinable:

“He drives his wife’s car to go shopping.” “She does not like courgettes.”

Although the object of a general verb may appear to be indefinite, it is in fact general, as it does not refer to a specific entity. The sentence “They used to eat a peach after dinner” cannot refer to any particular peach. A general verb can often be expressed without either a general or a definite object:

“He helps in the lab on Saturdays.” “Can you hear?”

A *general participle* is the attribute of a general verb. It describes a noun which is engaged in the activity of a verb, but without specifying any particular action. The noun may be the agent of the activity or its instrument. Because it does not relate to any particular occurrence, it is stative. Like other participles, it can take the objects and adverbials which are appropriate to the verb to which it relates, and can be restrictive or non-restrictive.

In English, a general participle is often the clearest way to express a general verb. The following are examples of corresponding sentences: a specific one with a verb and a general one with a general participle:

“He created the design.”	“His work on the design was creative.”
“She congratulated the team for the work.”	“She made a congratulatory speech.”
“They explained the results to the analysts.”	“They gave an explanatory presentation.”
“The news surprised us.”	“The news was surprising.”
“The play delighted the audience.”	“The play was delightful.”
“The atmosphere oppressed the assembly.”	“The atmosphere was oppressive.”
“The regulation burdened the company with administration.”	“The regulation was burdensome.”
“The navy protected the country from attack.”	“The navy’s role was protective.”
“This policy places our investments at risk.”	“This is a risky policy.”
“Risk of deflation endangers our economic recovery.”	“There is a dangerous risk of deflation.”
“The book interested John.”	“The book was very interesting.”
“His explanation satisfied her.”	“His explanation was satisfactory.”
“The holiday pleased her.”	“She found the holiday pleasurable.”
“John helped Henry to prepare for the exam.”	“John was helpful to Henry.”
“The argument convinced Parliament to vote.”	“The argument was convincing.”
“The lie deceived us into trusting him.”	“His lie was very deceptive.”

The large number of examples are intended to show the range of the general participle, and the different ways in which it is formed. English uses the imperfective participle ending “-ing” as well “-ful”, and “-some”. Like other languages with access to Latin roots, it also employs “-ive”, “-atory”, and “-ous”. In each case, the general participle has the same purpose; it expresses the general action of the verb from which it is derived.

German general participles are formed with the ending “-end” which is used for imperfective participles, or with “-lich”:

“eine zufriedenstellende Note”	“a satisfactory mark”	(“zufriedenstellen” = “satisfy”)
“erläuternd fügte er hinzu.”	“he added in explanation”	(“erläutern” = “explain”)
	[explanatorily added he to]	
“jemandem behilflich sein”	“to help someone”	(“helfen” = “help”)
	[to-someone helpful to-be]	
“eine ärgerliche Tatsache”	“an annoying fact”	(“ärgern” = “annoy”)

Similarly, Italian general participles are formed from verbs with the ending “-ante”/“-ente”/“-iente”, and from verbs and nouns with the ending “-oso”:

“La mattina era sconvolgente.”	“The morning was upsetting.”	(“sconvolgere” = “upset”)
“La vista era impressionante.”	“The view was striking.”	(“impressionare” = “impress”)
“l’effetto era dannoso.”	“The effect was harmful.”	(“danno” = “damage”)
“Il chiasso era fastidioso.”	“The racket was annoying.”	(“infastidire” = “annoy”)

Greek forms general participles from verbs with the ending “-ικός”:

“Ἐχει πειστικό τρόπο.”	“She has [a] persuasive manner.”	(“πείθω” = “persuade”)
“ικανοποιητικά αποτελέσματα”	“satisfactory results”	(“ικανοποιώ” = “satisfy”)
“προκλητική παρατήρηση”	“[a] provocative remark”	(“προκαλώ” = “provoke”)

In Chapter 2., examples were given of the general form of the Turkish verb, conventionally called “aorist”. This forms a participle:

“su akar”	“water flows”	“akar su”	“flowing water”
“bu saat çalar”	“this clock strikes”	“bu çalar saat”	“this striking clock”.

Many Indonesian/Malay transitive verbs are formed from nouns or attributes by means of the prefix “men-” and the suffix “-kan”. Where these are expressed without an object, they may be considered as general:

“Kabar itu sangat menyedihkan.”	“The news was very saddening.”	
	[News-the very saddening.]	(“sedih” = “sad”)
“Keputusan itu sangat merepotkan.”	“The decision was very troublesome.”	
	[Decision-the very troublesome.]	(“repot” = “busy”)
“Kelakuannya memalukan bagi ibunya.”	“His behaviour was embarrassing for his mother.”	
	[Behaviour-his embarrassing for mother-his.]	(“malu” = “shame”)

The Finnish present participle usually uses the imperfective participle ending “-va”/“-vä”. Languages without an imperfective participle form general participles by various adjectival endings. In Russian, the imperfective participle in “-shchii” is a literary form of restricted use:

Finnish:	“ärsyttää”	“annoy”	“ärsyttävä”	“annoying”
	“miellyttää”	“please”	“miellyttävä”	“pleasing”
	“opettaa”	“instruct”	“opettavainen”	“instructive”
	“vaivata”	“trouble”	“vaivalloinen”	“troublesome”
Russian:	“opisyvat”	“describe”	“opisatel’nyi”	“descriptive”
	“tvorit”	“create”	“tvorcheskii”	“creative”
	“zarazhat”	“infect”	“zaraznyi”	“infectious”
Welsh:	“adeiladu”	“construct”	“adeiladol”	“constructive”
	“boddhau”	“satisfy”	“bodddhaol”	“satisfactory”
	“cuffroi”	“excite”	“cyffrous”	“exciting”

A general participle is any attribute which describes the general activity of an agent or instrument. There are activities for which a noun exists, but no verb. If a verb is needed, it is formed with an auxiliary verb and the noun:

<u>General Participle</u>	<u>Verb phrase</u>
victorious	achieving victory over
historic	making history of
historical	preparing the history of
domestic	making a home for
scientific	applying science to
secretive	keeping secrets from
soporific	causing sleep to
disastrous	causing disaster to

In other instances of a general participle, the language expresses the agent or instrument as a role (Chapter 12., Role). The activity is expressed by a verbal noun. A verb often exists but may be absent:

<u>General Participle</u>	<u>Role</u>	<u>Verb</u>	<u>Verbal Noun</u>
hospitable	host	host	hospitality
ministerial	minister	minister to	ministry
scientific	scientist	-	science
medical	doctor	treat	treatment
surgical	surgeon	operate	operation
maternal	mother	mother	motherhood
heroic	hero	-	heroism
villainous	villain	-	villainy
rebellious	rebel	rebel against	rebellion
warlike	warrior	wage war against	war
regal	king/queen	reign	reign
presidential	president	-	presidency
tyrannical	tyrant	tyrannise	tyranny.

In these instances, the role and the verbal noun or verb are examples of a class of verb which is directed towards an object without altering it. This category of verb, which we call "participation" is discussed in Chapter 7.

Conclusion

In Chapters 1., 2., and 3., we showed how a sentence conveys meaning through its role in discourse, by referring to a topic which has been identified in an earlier sentence and by supplying new information or making an enquiry or hypothesis concerning that topic, which can be referred to in a later sentence.

In this chapter, we have discussed how the role of a sentence in discourse includes also the relationship in time between the occurrence of the sentence and the occurrences of other sentences. This relationship in time, or aspect, can be general, stative, imperfective, perfective, or prospective. In actual discourse, sentences related by aspect are often combined in a compound sentence, in which one verb qualifies another.

This concludes our review of the discourse structure of sentences and the grammatical tools used to realise it. We shall defer to Chapters 13. and 14. the integration of these ideas into a single system. The next chapters are concerned with the study of sentences as a means of describing an action or state, which we shall broadly call their *function*.