Infinitives and their Distribution in English in Comparison with German

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ABSTRAKT

Tato bakalářská práce je zaměřena na větné funkce infinitivu v angličtině v porovnání s němčinou. Důraz je kladen především na jeho formu, tzn. použití holého infinitivu ve srovnání s infinitivem s *to/zu*. První část se zabývá teoretickým popisem verbální fráze, finitní formou a infinitivy. Další kapitoly jsou zaměřeny na formu infinitivu v různých větných funkcích a rozdíly mezi použitím holého infinitivu a infinitivu s *to/zu*. Poslední kapitola se zabývá marginálními modály, která vykazují určité shodnosti mezi angličtinou a němčinou. Cílem této práce je porovnání a analýza infinitivů v těchto dvou jazycích.

Klíčová slova: infinitiv; verbální fráze; finitní forma; objekt; marginální modál; větná funkce

ABSTRACT

This bachelor thesis focuses on sentence functions of infinitives in English compared with German. The emphasis is primarily placed on its form, i.e., the usage of a bare infinitive in comparison with to/zu infinitive. The first part deals with a theoretical description of a verb phrase and finite and non-finite forms. Further chapters focus on various sentence functions of an infinitive, the difference between the usage of a bare infinitive and to/zu infinitive. The last chapter deals with marginal modals, which shows some similarities in both languages. The aim of this thesis is to compare and analyse of the infinitives in these two languages.

Keywords: infinitive; verb phrase; finite form; object; marginal modal; sentence function

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I hereby declare that the print version of my Bachelor's/Master's thesis and the electronic version of my thesis deposited in the IS/STAG system are identical.

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INTRODUCTION

This thesis focuses on the sentence functions of infinitives in English compared with German. The main emphasis is placed on the form of an infinitive, i.e., the use of a bare infinitive as compared with the infinitive with to/zu.

The first chapter includes an introduction to the verb phrase and its pre- and postmodification in both languages. Following chapters deal with finite and non-finite forms where many similarities can be observed. Among other grammatical phenomena this thesis focuses on, there are infinitives in various sentence functions, e.g., a subject, an object, an adverbial, or an object of P. The most discussed sentence function is an object and information related to it, e.g., the verbs connected with a bare infinitive or to/zu infinitive in the function of an object. The same analytical principle is applied to the German language in each chapter. This thesis also contains a chapter about verbs with two subcategorizations – where the sentence can but does not have to include two meanings.

The last part of the thesis is dedicated to marginal modals. As it is claimed in this chapter, a marginal modal is such a verb, which can be either a lexical verb or an auxiliary verb. The chapter deals, in particular, with the verbs *need* and *dare* in English and then with the German verb *brauchen*. The main aim of this thesis is to analyse similarities and selected differences in both languages.

1 VERB PHRASE

According to Randolph Quirk et al., the verb phrase can be considered as one of the most important phrasal categories. The verb phrase operates as the verb element in the clause, it is the most central and essential part of the clause (1985, 61).

As Andrew Radford claims, from the syntactic point of view, words are combined together in order to form phrases and sentences (2004, 57). In English, there are five types of phrases – Verb phrase (VP), Noun phrase (NP), Adjective phrase (AP), Prepositional phrase (PP), and Adverb phrase (Quirk et al. 1985, 60).

1.1 Pre- and Post- Modification of VP

VP can be complex, it means the head can be pre- and post- modified. Pre-modifiers precede the head, and post-modifiers follow it (Veselovská 2017, 3).

1.1.1 English VP

From the semantic point of view, modifiers add some information to the head, often more specific, e.g., *eat <u>healthily</u>, <u>quickly go</u>* (Quirk et al. 1985, 65). As Ludmila Veselovská claims, the forms of pre- or post- modification are particular for specific parts of speech. Differing types of modifiers can be more or less obligatory in a given phrasal type (2017, 3).

- (1) Bare VP (infinitive): It contains only the head, there is no pre- or post- modification. _{VP} [*smile*]
- (2) Pre- modified VP: Typically the modification concerns adjuncts (constituents that are not selected by the verb, i.e. those which are not included in subcategorization¹)
 VP [quickly go]
- (3) Post- modified VP: It can be usually modified by complements (right-hand sister of the head) (Veselovská 2017, 3), which are included in subcategorization.
 VP [send a letter], VP [meet my friend]
- (4) Pre- and Post- modified VP _{VP} [quickly **go** in the garden]

¹ Subcategorization expresses the semantic and syntactic requirements of a verb (Veselovská 2009, 12).

A verb can be combined with a range of constituents – NPs, PPs, VPs, and APs. If the combination is obligatory, verbs subcategorize for NPs, PPs, VPs, APs. The number of obligatory complements can range from 0 to 2, however, the VP can be larger if optional ones are also considered (Veselovská 2009, 13). For explanation, see the following examples demonstrating the phenomena.

(5) Lucy gave a present to John.

In (5), we can see that the verb *give* requires three arguments. If any of them is missing, the sentence is ungrammatical (6), (7), (8), (9) (Veselovská 2009, 14).

(6) *Lucy gave.

(7) *Lucy gave [John.]

(8) **Lucy* VP[gave a present.]

(9) $*_{VP}[gave \ a \ present \ to \ John.]$

Similar characteristics can be also observed in the example (14) in the German part of this chapter below. Having the English verb phrase explained, the German verb phrase is analysed further. The analysis focuses on the same characteristics that are included in the English part above.

1.1.2 German VP

According to Christa Dürscheid and her published book *Syntax: Grundlagen und Theorien*, in the German language, VP can also be complex – the head can be pre- and post-modified (2010, 88-89).

(10) Bare VP- infinitive

vp[**lach**] go-INF

(11) Pre- modified VP*vP*[schnell gehen]quickly go-INF

(12) Post- modified VP

VP[Geh in den Garten!]
go in-theAKK. garden
'Go to the garden! '

(13) Pre- and Post- modified VP

VP[Ich gehe heute schnell in den Garten]
I go-INF today quickly in-theAKK garden
'I go quickly to the garden today'

In German, verbs also influence the sentence structure and require arguments as the following examples (14), (15), (16) and (17) demonstrate.

(14)	Ich	gebe	dir	das	Geschenk.
	Ι	give-1sg.PRES	you-DAT	the	present.

'I give you the present.'

(15) *Ich gebe.

I give-1sg.PRES.

'I give.'

(16) *Ich gebe	das	Geschenk.
I give-1sg.PRES	the	present.
'I give the present.'		

(17) *Ich gebe	dir.
I give-1sg.PRES	you.
'I give you.'	

This chapter deals with the verb phrase, pre- and post- modification of the verb phrase, and also the subcategorization in both languages. In conclusion, based on comparing verb phrases in both languages, it is clear that the VPs influence the sentence structure of English and German and both, as examples (5) and (14) show, require arguments analysed in this chapter.

2 FINITE VS. NON-FINITE FORMS

VPs exist in finite (1) or non-finite (2) forms. A finite verb is tensed (past, present, future), agrees with its subject in person and number and is related to a subject. Finite verbs are predicates (Veselovská 2009, 122-23).

In contrast, non- finite forms do not have a primary tense (Huddleston and Pullum 2005, 204). They are not specified for present and past, they are not tensed and they do not have an agreement.

(1) She goes to school every day.

(2) <u>To go there</u> is dangerous.

2.1 Finite vs. Non-finite Forms in English

As far as finiteness in English is concerned, the agreement is visible only with 3rd person singular present (3).

- (3) *Lucy prepares dinner every day.*
- (4) Lucy prepared dinner every day.

Examples (3) and (4) show how the verb is modified for tense and has an agreement (3rd person singular present).

In contrast, (5) and (6) are the examples of a non-finite form.

- (5) [To prepareØ dinner every day] is boring.
- (6) Lucy must [prepareØ dinner every day.]

However, non-finite verbs can be combined with an aspect or a voice (7).

(7) Lucy must [be preparing dinner every day.]

In sentence (7), there is only an aspect – be+ing. There is no tense (past, present, future) and agreement (3rd person), therefore it is a non-finite form.

2.2 Finite vs. Non-finite forms in German

As far as finite and non-finite forms in German go, it is similar to English in this respect. Nevertheless, in German, in contrast to English, the finiteness is visible with the first, second, and third person singular (8), (9), (10), and all persons in plural (11), (12), (13) (Helbig and Buscha 2013, 29).

(8)	Ich	[geh e	ins	Kino.]
	Ι	go-1sg.PRES	in-theAKK	cinema.
	I go to the cinem	a.′		
(9)	Du	[geh st	ins	Kino.]
	You	go-2sg.PRES	in-theAKK	cinema.
	You go to the cir	iema.'		
(10)	Er	[geh t	ins	Kino.]
	Не	go-3sg.PRES	in-theAKK	cinema.
	He goes to the ci	nema.′		
(11)	Wir	[geh en	ins	Kino.]
()	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	18-11-1		1
	We	go-1pl.PRES	in-theAKK	cinema.
		go-1pl.PRES		-
	We We go to the cine	go-1pl.PRES		-
	We We go to the cine	go-1pl.PRES ema.'	in-theAKK	cinema.
(12)	We We go to the cine <i>Ihr</i>	go-1pl.PRES ema.' <i>[geht</i> go-2pl.PRES	in-theAKK ins	cinema. <i>Kino.]</i>
(12)	We We go to the cine <i>Ihr</i> You You go to the cin	go-1pl.PRES ema.' <i>[geht</i> go-2pl.PRES	in-theAKK ins	cinema. <i>Kino.]</i>
(12)	We We go to the cine <i>Ihr</i> You You go to the cin	go-1pl.PRES ema.' <i>[geht</i> go-2pl.PRES nema.'	in-theAKK ins in-theAKK ins	cinema. <i>Kino.]</i> cinema.

Infinitive forms are not specified for present and past, they are not tensed and they do not have an agreement (14) (Helbig and Buscha 2013, 30).

(14)	[Deutsch zu lernen]	ist	langweilig.	
	German to learn-INF	be-3sg.PRES	boring.	
'To learn German is boring.'				

3 TYPES OF NON-FINITE VPS IN ENGLISH

In English, there are three types of a VP: infinitive, an *-ing* infinitive and *to-* infinitive. Each of these VPs are non-finite. While finite VPs function as predicates in sentences, e.g., (1), non-finite VPs can appear in any sentence function, i.e., as a subject (2), an object (3), an adverbial (4), an attribute (5), or an object of preposition (6). (Veselovská, 2009, 126).

- (1) $I_{VP}[saw Lucy in the cinema].$
- (2) *VP*[*To read* so many books] must be boring.
- (3) I like *vp*[going to the cinema].
- (4) I went home, *vp*[having prepared my dinner].
- (5) Kind people _{VP}[to talk in pub] is hard to find.
- (6) I was talking about *VP*[studying abroad].

3.1 Bare Infinitive

According to Rodney Huddleston and Geoffrey K. Pullum, bare infinitival clauses occur only in minimal sets of functions. In contrast to *to*-infinitive, which has a wide range of uses, this type of infinitive hardly occurs except for as a complement of certain verbs (2005, 213).

- (7) She makes me [do it.] [complement of make, let, do, etc.]
- (8) All you ever did was [ask a silly question.] [complement of specifying be]
- (9) *He should* [*do it better.*] [complement of a modal auxiliary]

3.2 -Ing Infinitive

As Bas Aarts claims, an *-ing* infinitive can have the function of a subject (10), a direct object (11), an object of P (12), and an adverbial (13) (2011, 221).

(10) [Bringing your friend to this meeting] was a good idea.

(11) I remember [knocking the door.]

(12) The state prevented you from [teaching.] (Aarts 2011, 225)

(13) [*Having read the paper*], *I can't see why you care*. (Huddleston and Pullum 2005, 213)

3.3 To- infinitive

*T*o-infinitive in English can be in the function of a subject (14), an object (15), an attribute (16), or an adverbial (17) (Veselovská 2009, 126).

- (14) [To read books] is important.
- (15) I want [to go home.]
- (16) Kind people [to talk in pub] is hard to find.
- (17) She works hard [to have better life.]

This chapter introduces three different types of a non-finite VP. Namely, a bare infinitive (7), (8), (9), *-ing* infinitive (10), (11), (12), (13), and *to* infinitive (14), (15), (16), (17). They are introduced in various sentence functions, which are more thoroughly addressed in chapter 5.

4 TYPES OF NON-FINITE VPS IN GERMAN

In German, there are two types of VPs – a bare VP (1) and zu infinitive (2). Similarly to the English language, each of these VPs is non-finite. Finite VPs have the function of predicates, e.g., in the sentence (3), while non-finite VPs can appear in any sentence function such as a subject (4), an object (5), an attribute (6), a subject complement (7), and an adverbial (8) (Povejšil 1999, 66-67).

(1) <i>Ich</i>	muss	[es ma	achen.]			
Ι	must-1sg.PRES	it do	-INF.			
'I must d	o it.′					
(2) <i>Es</i>	beginnt	[<i>zu</i>	regnen.]			
It	begin-3sg.PRES	to	rain-INF.			
It begins	s to rain.'					
(3) <i>Ich</i>	[gehe	mit Lu	icy i	ns	I	Kino.]
Ι	go-1sg.PRES	with Lu	icy i	n-theAK	KK c	cinema.
'I go to tl	he cinema with Lucy	<i>y</i> .′				
(4) [Viel	Geld	d zu	haben]	ist		nötig.
[A lo	ot of mor	ney to	have-INF	be-	3sg.PRES	S necessary.
It is nec	essary to have a lot o	of money.	,			
(5) <i>Ich</i>	empfehle		dir	[D]	eutsch z	tu lernen .]
Ι	recommend-1sg	PRES.	you-D	AT [G	erman t	o learn-INF].
'I recom	mend you to learn G	erman.'				
(6) <i>Ich</i>	habe	2	k	eine	Zeit	[dich
zu besu	chen.]					
Ι	have	e-1sg.PRE	ES r	10	time	vp[you-AKK
to vi	sit-INF.]					
'I have n	o time to visit you.'					
(7) <i>Er</i>	scheint	[sich	wohl	zu	fühlen	e.]
Не	seem-3sg.PRES	[himself	f good	to	feel-IN	VF].
'He seem	is to feel good.'					
(8) <i>Er</i>	kam,	[um	uns	ZU	helfen	2.]
Не	came-3sg.PAST	in order	to us-AC	C. to	help-Iì	NF
He came	e in order to help us.	,				

4.1 Bare Infinitive

A bare infinitive in German is the infinitive without *zu*. As far as the bare infinitive is concerned, this category includes modal verbs (9), verbs expressing movement (10), verbs of sensory perception (11), and then the verbs *bleiben* 'stay', *lassen* 'let', *werden* 'will' (12) (Helbig and Buscha 2001, 97-98).

(9) <i>Ich</i>	kann	[es	nicht	sagen.]
Ι	can-1sg.PRES	it-ACC	not	say-INF.
'I cannot say it.'				
(10) <i>Er</i>	geht	[am	Donnersta	g schwimmen.]
Не	go-3sg.PRES	on-DAT	Thursday	swim-INF.
'He goes swimmi	ng on Thursday.'			
(11) <i>Ich</i>	höre	[sie	komi	nen.]
Ι	hear-1sg.PRES	her-ACC	come	e-INF.
'I hear her coming	g. ´			
(12) <i>Er</i>	wird	[uns	morgen	besuchen.]
He	will-3sg.PRES	us-ACC	tomorrow	visit-INF.
'He will visit us to	omorrow '			

'He will visit us tomorrow.'

This topic is further discussed in chapter 8.1. below.

4.2 Zu Infinitive

Zu infinitive is another type of a non-finite VP in German. As it is mentioned above, zu infinitive can be in various types of functions, e.g., a subject, an object, an adverbial, etc. The functions are discussed in detail in chapter 6. Furthermore, this type of infinitive is also thoroughly discussed in chapter 8.2.

The examples of zu infinitive are the following ones (13), (14).

(13) <i>Ich</i>	empfehle		dir	[Deutsch	zu	lernen.]
Ι	recommend-1sg.PRES		you-DAT	[German	to	learn-INF.]
'I recomi	mend you to learn Gern	nan.′				
(14) <i>Es</i>	beginnt	[zu	regnen.]			
It	begin-3sg.PRES	to	rain-INF.			
'It begins	s to rain.'					

While chapter 3 discusses three types of VPs in the English language, chapter 4 covers VPs in German. The comparison shows that *to* infinitive can have the same function as *zu* infinitive in German. The existence of a bare infinitive in German and English has been described and demonstrated and most of its functions are the same, e.g., modal verbs are in both languages connected with a bare infinitive as the comparison of chapters 3 and 4 shows. On the other hand, *-ing* infinitive does not exist in German.

5 SENTENCE FUNCTIONS IN ENGLISH REALIZED BY VPS

While previous chapters introduced VPs, this chapter provides structured information about sentence functions in which VPs occur; the most important ones are covered in following subchapters. The emphasis is put on a subject, an adverbial, an object, and the object of P.

5.1 Subject

In English, subject is an obligatory part of the sentence.² In the declarative sentence, the subject is located in front of the predicate (1) (Dušková 2003, 390).

(1) John goes there.

5.1.1 Subject as to-

According to Libuše Dušková, *to*- infinitive in the function of subject expresses the process which is connected with another process in the form of a predicate (37) (2003, 542). In this case, there is an implicit subject indicated by " \emptyset ", which can be interpreted as "people in general" (Aarts 2011, 204).

- (2) [Ø To go home] would be impolite.
- (3) [Ø To sing with her] was a pleasure.
- (4) [What Ø to do on Sunday] was a difficult question.

Notice that the to-infinitive in (4) can be also formed by a wh-phrase.

5.1.2 Subject as -ing

Subject as *-ing* is more frequent than *to*- infinitive (5) There can also occur cases where there can be either an *-ing* form or *to*- infinitive, e.g., in a general statement. However, these cases are quite rare - (6) and (7) (Dušková 2003, 571).

- (5) [Being happy] is her goal.
- (6) [Seeing] is [believing.]
- (7) [To see] is [to believe.]

5.2 Adverbial

The adverbial is a sentence function which modifies primarily the verb as is the case of the example (8) (Dušková 2003, 444).

² The sentence without any subject does not occur with the exception of an imperative.

(8) The temperature fell <u>rapidly</u>.

5.2.1 Adverbial as to-

The most common role of this function is the determination of purpose. The purpose can be explicitly expressed by *so as* (10) or *in order to* (11) (Dušková 2003, 561).

(9) She works hard [to have better life].

(10) I opened the door carefully [so as not to disturb her].

(11) [In order to have better job], I have to study hard.

5.2.2 Adverbial as -ing

This type is frequently used after the prepositions by (12) and *for* (13). Without these prepositions the meaning is only connected with movement (15) (Dušková 2003, 578).

(12) [By being careful about procrastination] I have a lot of time.

(13) *He was angry with me for [being in the way].*

(15) *He has gone* [*shopping*].

As the following examples (16), (17) show, *-ing* is also typical after *as* and *than* (Dušková 2003, 579).

(16) It would not take so long [as going by bus].

(17) *It is quicker* [*than going by bus*].

5.3 Object

Object in English can or does not have to be an obligatory part of the sentence as the transitivity of the verb is the decisive factor. (Dušková 2003, 550).

5.3.1 Object as to-

To- infinitive in the function of an object can follow after transitive verbs³ such as *manage*, *expect*, *want*, *promise*, *afford*, *deserve*, *offer*, *refuse*, *determine*, *etc*. as the examples (18), (19), and (20) demonstrate (Dušková 2003, 550).

(18) I expect [to be back on Monday.]

(19) *I expect [being back on Monday.]

(20) *She deserves* [to be happy.]

³ The term transitive applies to all verbs which require an object (Quirk et al. 1985, 54).

As Bas Aarts claims, there is also an option that *to*- infinitive is preceded by an indirect object (2011, 208). This group includes several verbs, e.g., *ask, expect, hire, instruct, invite, lead, order, teach, and want.*

(21) They told <u>them</u> [to go there].

(22) I want you [to go home].

(23) I expect you [to be here on Monday].

5.3.2 Object as -ing

Object as *-ing* and object as *to* share similar qualities because in some cases both options can be used; the topic is more described in chapter 6. Typical sentences for this type of an object are:

(25) I can't stand [talking with her.]

(26) I love [listening to music.] (Quirk et al. 1985, 1189)

(27) I saw her [lying on the beach.] (Quirk et al. 1985, 1206)

Typical verbs connected with an -ing object are discussed in chapter 7.2.

5.4 Object of Preposition

-*Ing* infinitive is frequently used after a preposition, e.g., the verbs such as *approve of, hear about, be disappointed at, provide against, be justified in, suspect sb. of, be interested in, write about,* or *cope with* (Dušková 2003, 575).

(28) I was disappointed at [failing the test.]

(29) I wrote about [visiting the cinema.]

(30) I am interested in [studying English.]

(31) *I am interested in [study English.]

This chapter demonstrates that in English there are various types of sentence functions. Apart from the object of P, every sentence function can be either with *-ing* infinitive or with *to-* infinitive. As it has been indicated, the object of P can be combined only with *-ing* infinitive because prepositions in English are always followed by an *-ing* form. VPs in the function of an object is further discussed in chapter 7.

6 SENTENCE FUNCTIONS IN GERMAN REALIZED BY VPS

Chapter 6 focuses on sentence functions in German and is interconnected with the previous one, chapter 5. Unlike in the English language with its *-ing* form, there is only *zu* infinitive in German and nothing similar or close in function and characteristics to *-ing* form. Subchapter 6.4 is concluded with a comparison between the English and German sentence functions.

6.1 Subject

In the German language, similarly to English, a subject is an obligatory part of the sentence.⁴ In a declarative sentence, the subject is located in front of the predicate (Helbig and Buscha 2013, 455) (Povejšil 1999, 272).

6.1.1 Subject as *zu*

Zu infinitive in German can also be in the first place in the sentence and have the function of a subject as following examples (1), (2), and (3) show. (Helbig and Buscha 2013, 106).

(1) [Deutsch zu lernen]	ist	langweilig.
German to learn-INF	be-3sg.PRES	boring.

'To learn German is boring.'

(2) [<i>Viel</i>	Geld	zu haben]	ist	nötig.	
A lot of	money	to have-INF	be-3sg.PRES	necessary.	
'It is necessary to	have a lot	of money.'			
(3) [Ein Buch	zu les	en] ist	toll.		
A book	to rea	d-INF be-3sg.PF	RES great.		
'It is great to read a book.'					

(1) Sie liest ein Buch.

She read-3sg.PRES a book

'She reads a book.'

(2) **Liest ein Buch.*

Read-3sg.PRES a book

'She reads a book.'

⁴ The sentence is ungrammatical without any subject (1), (2).

6.2 Object

An object can but does not have to be an obligatory part of the sentence. Whether or not it becomes obligatory depends on the transitivity of the verb.

6.2.1 Object as zu

Zu infinitive in the function of an object is one of the most frequent functions (Helbig and Buscha 2013, 44). As the examples below show, the object *zu* behaves similarly as the object *to*- in English.

(4) <i>Es</i>	beginnt	[z.u	regne	regnen].			
It	begin-3sg.PRES	to	rain-I	NF.			
'It begin	is to rain.'						
(5) <i>Sie</i>	liebt	es,	zu	tanze	n.		
She	love-3sg.PRES	it	to dance-INF.				
'She like	es to dance.'						
(6) Ich	empfehle		dir		[Deutsch	zu	lernen].
Ι	recommend-1sg.I	PRES	you	I-DAT	[German	to	learn-INF].
I recommend you to learn German.							

6.3 Adverbial

Another type of sentence function in German can also be an adverbial.

6.3.1 Adverbial as zu

An Adverbial with zu infinitive is formed by the construction um + zu+ infinitive. In this case, it has the same meaning as the English construction *in order to* (Štícha 2003, 726) (Baumbach 1997, 218).

(7)	Er	kam,	[um	uns	zu	helfen.]		
	He	came-3sg.PAST	in order to	us	to	help-INF		
'He came in order to help us.'								

(8) Wir beeilten uns, [um den Zug zu erreichen.]

We hurried up-1pl.PAST us-ACC. in order to the-ACC. train to catch-INF

'We hurried up, in order to catch the train.'

6.4 Object of Preposition

German grammars used for the research, e.g., *Deutsche Grammatik: Ein Handbuch für den Ausländerunterricht* (2007) and *Česko-německá srovnávací gramatika* (2015) do not mention anything similar to the function of object of P. Also other sources do not include such information at all so it can be concluded that this particular phenomenon, while existing in the English language, does not exist in German.

As is established in this chapter, in German there is not anything similar to *-ing* infinitive. These sentence functions are all realized by zu infinitive. The subject appears similar in both languages, especially when it comes to zu infinitive and to infinitive. As it is mentioned in subchapters 5.1. and 6.1., it is an essential sentence element in both languages. Adverbial also shows several similarities, the sentences (7) and (8) in German section works equally as in English translation. One of the major differences is the object of P. While in English there is an object of P connected with *-ing* infinitive, in German there is not any similar sentence function. It can be assumed that it is on the grounds of non-existing *-ing* form in German.

Zu infinitive in the function of an object in German and *to*- infinitive in the function of an object in English are the most frequent functions and as the listed examples above show they behave equally in most cases.

7 OBJECTS/VP COMPLEMENTS IN ENGLISH

This chapter deals with verbs requiring an object in the English language. The chapter is divided into three subchapters that concentrate on each type of infinitive. Every type of infinitive functions with a particular group of verbs. The verbs that require VP complementation may require a bare infinitive, an *-ing* infinitive or *to-* infinitive, as previous chapter parts of the research show. In many cases, the verbs have only one subcategorization.

7.1 Verbs Connected with to- Infinitive

There are many verbs that are connected with *to*- infinitive, e.g., *decide, learn, deserve, expect, ask, hope, afford, agree, appear, decide, hesitate, offer, plan, refuse, want, wish, etc.* and a condition with *would (would mind, would like, would prefer)* (Dušková 2003, 557), (Quirk et al. 1985, 1203). Among examples of such sentences and verbs there are e.g.,

- (1) I would like [to go away].
- (2) **I* would like [going away].
- (3) I couldn't afford [to buy the book].
- (4) I agreed [to help you].
- (5) *He appears [to be tired]*.
- (6) I hope [to see you again].
- (7) I decide [to go there].
- (8) I deserve [to be happy].

7.2 Verbs Connected with *–ing* Infinitive

There are four situations that revolve around the use of *-ing* infinitive.

1) The verbs preceded by a negative (Quirk et al. 1985, 1190).

The group of these verbs includes, e.g., *can't bear*, *can't stand*, *can't help*, *(not) mind*, etc., demonstated by the examples (9), (10), and (11).

- (9) I do not mind [waiting.]
- (10) I can't stand [talking with you.]
- (11) I can't stand [to talk with you.]
- The verbs expressing the process of thinking e.g., *consider, imagine, remember, suggest,* and *propose* (12) (Quirk et al. 1985, 1206).
- (12) I suggest [going to the cinema].

- Verbs that express a personal relation to the activity e.g., *like, love, enjoy, mind, hate, avoid,* and *prefer* (13), (14) (Quirk et al. 1985, 1206).
- (13) I enjoy [going to the cinema].
- (14) *I* hate [playing computer games].⁵
- Verbs that express the beginning, continuation, or the end of a process e.g., *start, finish, continue, stop,* and *go on* (15), (16) (Quirk et al. 1985, 1206).
- (15) I start reading the book.
- (16) I finish doing my homework.
- (17) *I finish to do my homework.

7.3 Verbs Connected with Bare Infinitive

The bare VP is subcategorized by modals – *should, must, may, might, can, shall, ought to, would* (19), by the verbs *do, make, let* (20), the verbs of sensory perception such as *see, notice, feel, hear, watch, observe,* and *witness* (21) or in some cases by the verb *be* (22) (Huddleston and Pullum 2005, 213) (Dušková 2003, 553).

- (18) **I cannot* [*to do that.*]
- (19) I cannot [do that.] Complement of modal auxiliary
- (20) My friend made me [do it.] Complement of make, let, do, etc.
- (21) They saw her [leave the house.] Complement of the verbs of sensory perception

(22) All you did was [ask a silly question.] Complement of specifying be in cleft sentences

Occasionally, the verb *help*⁶ belongs to this category as well. In American English, this category also takes into account the verbs of movement, e.g., *go* (23) (Dušková 1988, 554).

(23) *Let's go* [*eat.*]

- (1) I hate going to the cinema.
- (2) I hate to speak with you.

⁵ However, the verb *hate* can also be combined with *to*-infinitive. It then means that someone hates something only at this moment; with *-ing* it means that someone always hates something.

⁶ After the verb *help*, bare infinitive is typical in American English. In contrast, British English prefers *to*-infinitive.

8 OBJECTS/VP COMPLEMENTS IN GERMAN

In German, there are also verbs that require a bare infinitive or zu infinitive, which is regarded as a counterpart of *to* infinitive in the English language.

8.1 Verbs Connected with Bare Infinitive

A German infinitive is often connected with the particle zu. However, there are some verbs related to a bare infinitive, i.e., without zu (Baumbach 1997, 11). To elaborate, these are:

 Modal verbs – modals are always combined with a bare infinitive, e.g., *dürfen 'may'*, *können*, 'can' *müssen 'must'*, *sollen 'should'*, *wollen 'want to'*, *mögen 'may'* (Helbig and Buscha 2001, 97).

(1) L	ch i	muss	[es	machen.]
-------	------	------	-----	----------

I must-1sg.PRES it do-INF.

'I must do it.'

(2)	*Ich	kann	[es	nicht	zu	sagen.]
	Ι	can-1sg.PRES	it-ACC	not	to	say-INF.
′I ca	nnot say it.'					
(3)	Ich	kann	[es	nicht	sage	<i>n</i> .]
	Ι	can-1sg.PRES	it-ACC	not	say-]	INF.

'I cannot say it.'

2) Verbs expressing movement, e.g., *fahren* 'drive', *kommen* 'come', *gehen* 'go', *schicken* 'send' (Helbig and Buscha 2001, 98).

(4) <i>Er</i>	geht	[am	Donnerstag	schwimmen.]
Не	go-3sg.PRES	on-DAT	Thursday	swim-INF.

'He goes swimming on Thursday.'

(5)	*Er	geht	[am	Donnerstag	zu	schwimmen.]
	Не	go-3sg.PRES	on-DAT	Thursday	to	swim-INF.
Ήe	e goes s	wim on Thursday	.′			

(6)	Er	schickt	[die	Kinder	einkaufen.]
	He	send-3sg.PRES	the	children	shop-INF.

'He sends children for shopping.'

(7)	Er	fährt	mit	dem	Auto	einkaufen.
	He	go-3sg.PRES	with	the-DAT.	car	shop-INF.
Ήe	goes sł	nopping by car.'				

3)Verbs of sensory perception, e.g., *sehen 'see'*, *hören 'hear'*, *fühlen 'feel'*, *spüren 'feel'* (Helbig and Buscha 2001, 97).

(8)	Ich he	öre	[sie		kommen.]
	I he	ear-1sg.PRES	her-ACC		come-INF.
Ίh	ear her	coming.'			
(9)	*Ich	höre	[sie	zu	kommen.]
	Ι	hear-1sg.PRES	her-ACC	to	come-INF.
Ίh	ear her	coming.'			
(10)) Wir	sehen	[sie		tanzen.]
	We	see-1pl.PR	ES her-A	ACC	dance-INF.
'We see her dancing.'					

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4) The verbs bleiben 'stay', lassen 'let', werden 'will' (Helbig and Buscha 2001, 98).
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(11) Lass
                                      arbeiten.] / *zu arbeiten
                     [mich
     Let-IMP
                     me-ACC
                                      work-INF.
'Let me work!'
(12) Bleib
                           [sitzen]! / [*zu sitzen]
     Remain-IMP
                           sit-INF.
'Remain sitting!'
(13) Er
          wird
                           uns
                                      morgen
                                                 besuchen.]
     He
          will-3sg.PRES
                           us-ACC
                                      tomorrow visit-INF.
```

'He will visit us tomorrow.'

5) The verbs *helfen, lernen* and *lehren* can have a bare infinitive or *zu* infinitive (Helbig and Buscha 2001, 98). German determines this infinitive by the sentence, i.e., if the sentence is complex, *zu* infinitive occurs and if the sentence is simple then a bare infinitive follows. This phenomenon is addressed in chapter 10.

8.2 Verbs Connected with zu Infinitive

As it is mentioned in chapter 4.2., zu infinitive behaves similarly as *to*- infinitive in English. Except for above-mentioned examples of the bare infinitives in section 8.1., all objects in German that are dependent on another verb are connected with zu infinitive (Helbig and Buscha 2001, 96-97). Verbs such as *anfangen* 'begin', *beginnen* 'begin', *versprechen* 'promise', *aufhören* 'stop', *bestellen* 'order', *vergessen* 'forget', *versuchen* 'try', *gelingen* 'succeed', *vorhaben* 'intend', *sich lohnen* 'reward', *sich bemühen* 'try', *arbeiten* 'work' and many others are connected with *zu* infinitive (Helbig and Buscha 2001, 96-97). Examples (14), (15), (16), (17) demonstrate the phenomena.

(14) <i>Es</i>	beginnt	[<i>zu</i>	regnen.]			
It	begin-3sg.PRES	to	rain-INF.			
'It begins	s to rain.'					
(15) * <i>Es</i>	beginnt		regnen.			
It	begin-3sg.PF	RES	rain-INF.			
'It begins	s to rain.'					
(16) <i>Er</i>	vergisst	[imme	er die	Fenst	er	zu zu machen.]
He	forget-3sg.PRES	alway	vs the	windo)W	to close-INF.
'He alwa	iys forgets to close the	e windo	w.′			
(17) <i>Ich</i>	hoffe		[sie	bald	wider	zusehen.]
Ι	hope-1sg.PR	ES	her-ACC	soon	to see	again-INF.
'I hope to	o see her soon again.'					

Similarly to English, in German there are verbs requiring an object and that are linked to either *zu* infinitive or a bare infinitive. This chapter introduced certain characteristics of verbs that are connected with one of these infinitives. In English, infinitives are more diverse as there are some verbs which are connected with an *-ing* infinitive.

Verbs that require a bare infinitive are modals in both languages: the example (18) in English and the example (19) in German.

(18) I cannot [do that.]

(19) <i>Ich</i>	muss	[es	machen.]
Ι	must-1sg.PRES	it	do-INF.

'I must do it.'

Verbs of sensory perception are also connected with a bare infinitive in both languages – examples (20) and (21).

(20) They saw her [leave the house.]
(21) Wir sehen [sie tanzen.]
We see-1pl.PRES her-ACC dance-INF.

'We see her dancing.'

Interestingly, the verb *help* in English and *helfen* in German can be combined with a bare infinitive or with *to/zu* infinitive (22), (23) and (24), (25).

(22)I help you [do it.]						
(23) I help you [to do it.]						
(24) <i>Sie</i>	hilft	mir	[aufräumen.]			
She	help-3sg.PRES	me-DAT	tidy-INF.			
´She help	os me to tidy.'					
(25) <i>Sie</i>	hilft	mir, [das	Zimmer	auf zu räumen.]		
She	help-3sg.PRES	me-DAT	the room	tidy-INF		

'She helps me to tidy the room.'

In English, British or American English has to be taken into consideration as British English prefers *to*- infinitive, and American English a bare infinitive.

On the other hand, using of this type of infinitive in German depends on the sentence, i.e., if the sentence is complex, *zu* infinitive occurs and if the sentence is simple then a bare infinitive follows.

The other verb worth noticing is the verb *go* in English and *gehen* in German. In English, this verb is either with a bare infinitive (26) or with *to* infinitive (27), in German it is only with a bare infinitive (28). The sentences with *zu* infinitive are ungrammatical.

(26) Go [get some sweets.]

(27) <i>I</i> go [to sleep.]	
------------------------------	--

(28) Er geht [schwimmen]

He go-3sg.PRES swim-INF.

'He goes swimming on Thursday.'

9 VERBS WITH 2 SUBCATEGORIZATIONS OF OBJECT IN ENGLISH

As it is mentioned at the end of chapter 7.3., there are some cases where verbs have multiple subcategorizations. Moreover, some of these verbs can also show a difference in meaning.

There are three classes of verbs that can take both constructions (Quirk et al. 1985, 1192).

- 1) **Emotive verbs**, e.g., *love*, *hate*, *like*⁷, *prefer*, ... (1), (2)
- (1) Jack hated to live in the country.
- (2) Jack hated living in the country.

Sentence (1) means, that Jack could exercise the choice about where to live. In (2), he actually did live in the country, probably without any choice (Quirk et al. 1985, 1192).

- Aspectual verbs of beginning, continuing, and ending, e.g., *start, begin, continue, cease*, ... (3), (4)
- (3) Jack started to write a book.
- (4) Jack started writing a book.

There is no difference in meaning between (3) and (4).

3) **Retrospective verbs**, e.g., *forget, remember*, and *regret*.

There is a temporal difference between the two constructions. *To*- infinitive indicates that the action takes place after (and also as a result of) the mental process denoted by the verb. In contrast, *ing*- infinitive refers to a preceding event that comes to mind at the time indicated by the main verb (Quirk et al. 1985, 1193).

This is demonstrated by the following examples and their analyses:

- (5) I remembered to lock the door.
- (6) I remembered locking the door.

In (5), I remembered that I should have locked the door and I did so. While in (6) I remembered that I had locked the door.

⁷ But with *would like*, there is acceptable only *to* infinitive (Quirk et al. 1985, 1192).

⁽¹⁾ I would like to see you again.

(7) I forgot to go to school.

(8) I forgot (about) going to school.

In (7), I forgot that I was to go to school, and therefore did not do so. In (8), I forgot that I should have gone to school.

(9) I regret to tell you that you failed the test.

(10) I regret telling you that you failed the test.

In (9) I regret that I have to tell you that you failed the test in contrast to (10) where I regret that I have already told you that you failed the test.

As this chapter proves, subcategorization can have a significant influence on the meaning of sentences. The examples (5) and (6), (7) and (8), (9) and (10) show that it is necessary to know if the verb requires an *-ing* form or *to* infinitive. In English, there are many verbs with the difference in meaning as far as subcategorization goes. On the other hand, there are many verbs such as *start, begin, continue*, etc. where the *-ing* infinitive or *to*-infinitive is of no importance.

10 VERBS WITH 2 SUBCATEGORIZATIONS OF OBJECT IN GERMAN

Chapter 9 shows that in English there are many verbs with double subcategorizations. On the contrary, German has few verbs with this criterion, yet there are verbs whose subcategorization can be double.

Firstly, there are verbs which have been mentioned in chapter 8.1., i.e., *helfen, lehren* and *lernen*. These verbs can be combined either with a bare infinitive or with zu infinitive, depending on the sentence. If the sentence is complex, i.e. more developing constituents, the sentence is with zu infinitive and it is separated by a comma (2), (4), and (6). In the case of simple sentences, a bare infinitive is necessary (1), (3), and (5) (Baumbach, 1997, 12).

(1)	Sie	hilft	mir	[aufrä	umen.]			
	She	help-3sg.PRES	me-DAT	tidy-II	NF.			
She helps me to tidy.								
(2)	Sie	hilft	mir, [das	Zimme	er	auf zu r	äumen.]
	She	help-3sg.PRES	me-DAT	the roo	om	tidy-II	٧F	
She helps me to tidy the room.								
(3)	Er	lernt	[tanzen.]					
	Не	learn-3sg.PRES	dance-INF.					
'He lear	ns to	dance.'						
(4)	Er	lernt,	[den	neuen	Tanz	zu	tanzen	.]
	Не	learn-3sg.PRES	the-ACC	new	dance	to	dance	
'He lear	ns to	dance the new dance.						
(5)	Ich	lehre	[die Kind	ler	arbeite	en.]		
	Ι	teach-1sg.PRES	the child	ren	work-	INF.		
'I teach the children to work.'								
(6)	Ich	lehre, [die Kinde	r im		Garter	1	zu	arbeiten.]
	Ι	teach the childr	en in-the	DAT	garder	1	to	work.
'I teach the children to work in the garden.'								

The above mentioned verbs have in both cases the same meaning. Interestingly, in the German language there do not exist any verbs with multiple subcategorization that would be

related to the difference in the meaning but on the other hand, the difference lies in the complexity of the sentence.

11 MARGINAL MODALS

Every modal verb is called an auxiliary or "helping" verb. The category includes verbs such *as do, have, be* and modal verbs *can, may, will, might, shall, could, would, should* and *must* (Quirk et al. 1985, 120).

Quirk et al. provide these criteria for auxiliary verbs:

- 1) Operator in negation with not
- 2) Inversion of subject and operator
- 3) Operator in reduced clauses
- 4) Emphatic positive

(Quirk et al. 1985, 121-25).

Given this above mentioned criteria, there are some verbs, which can be either auxiliary or lexical verbs (main verbs) (Quirk et al. 1985, 138).

The main focus is on the verbs *need* and *dare*, which can be constructed as main verbs (with *to*- infinitive, *-s*, *-ing*, and past forms) or as modal auxiliaries (with the bare infinitive, without any mentioned forms) (Quirk et al. 1985, 138).

11.1 Need

As a modal verb, *need* takes a bare infinitive complement in negated structures or questions. It does not have the third person singular form (1). In contrast to (2), it is an agreement morphology (3rd person present) and *need* occurs in the function of a main verb (Quirk et al. 1985, 138).

- (1) *Needn't he* [see a dentist?] (non-affirmative contexts)
- (2) *Doesn't* he need [to see a dentist?]

As these examples show, the verb *need* can be combined either with *to* infinitive (2), (3) or with a bare infinitive (1), (4).

11.2 Dare

The verb *dare* behaves the same as the verb *need*. *Dare* is another verb that can be used with all the characteristics of an auxiliary, then it means "to have courage to do something". It is often followed by a bare infinitive, but it can also be subcategorized for *to*- infinitive (8), (9) (Quirk et al. 1985, 138).

- (6) He dare [not ask].
- (7) How dare you come here?]

Contrary, the verb *dare* can behave as a main verb and it can be connected with *to* infinitive but it is not necessary.

- (8) Does he dare [(to) stand up to her]?
- (9) She did not dare [(to) say anything].

The auxiliary construction with *need* and *dare* is more typical for American English rather than for British English, although the construction is quite rare in American English (Quirk et al. 1985, 138).

11.3 Brauchen

As far as the German language is concerned, the marginal modal *brauchen* has the same meaning as *need* in English. Noticeably, this verb behaves in the same way as *need* in view of the fact that it can be either the main verb or auxiliary modal.

From the semantic point of view, as an auxiliary modal, the verb *brauchen* has the meaning of *nicht müssen* which means the lack of necessity and it can be only in the negative sentence (Machová 2015, 141-142). This verb can also have a double subcategorization which means that it can be combined with zu infinitive (10) or with a bare infinitive (11).

(10) <i>Der</i>	Student	braucht	[die	Prüfung	nicht	zu
machen].						
А	student	need-3sg.PRES	the-ACC	exam	not	to
do-INF.						
'A student needn't do the exam.'						
(11) <i>Der</i>	Student	muss	[die	Prüfung	nicht	
machen].						
А	student	must-3sg.PRES	the-ACC	exam	not	
do-INF.						

'A student must not do the exam.'

In standard German the verb *brauchen* has a conjugation as the main verb. As the main verb, the verb *brauchen* has the meaning of *need* and it conjugates regularly, see the example (12).

As a modal auxiliary, *brauchen* has a non-agreeing present tense form *brauch* and it can be used in 1st and 3rd person singular. However, these forms are not yet accepted in standard

German (Machová 2015, 143).

(12) <i>Ich</i>	brauch e	einen	neuen	Computer	kaufen.		
Ι	need-1sg.PRES	a	new	computer	buy-INF.		
'I need to buy a new computer.'							

To conclude this chapter, the English and German languages show similarities regarding the marginal modals that can be combined with to/zu infinitive or a bare infinitive. In German, zu infinitive can only occur in the negative sentence. However, the verbs *need* in English and *brauchen* in German have, in both cases, the same meaning and the same range of uses as far as the modal and lexical verb is concerned.

CONCLUSION

The aim of this thesis was to compare the infinitive structures in English and German. In the first part I defined the non-finite VPs in both languages, and even there similarities between these two languages can be observed (infinitives are a part of the VP).

As the particular chapters demonstrate, in English, there are three types of VP - a bare infinitive, an *-ing* infinitive, and *to-* infinitive. However, in German, there are only two types of VPs - a bare infinitive and *zu* infinitive. These infinitives can appear in various types of functions. In this thesis I have discussed an object, an object of P, a subject and an adverbial. Firstly, I have proved that *to* infinitive occurs in similar sentence functions as *zu* infinitive, except for the object of P.

The other function discussed in this thesis was an object which is the most frequent sentence function in both languages. I have also shown that many verbs are subcategorized for an object and some of them can have multiple subcategorizations, these phenomena are separately discussed in chapters 9 and 10. Whereas in English many verbs with multiple subcategorization occur, even with the difference in meaning, German is quite limited in this regard. Verbs with multiple subcategorization appear only scarcely as chapter 10 shows, and there is no verb that would change its meaning because of subcategorization, which can be considered as a significant difference between these two languages (because English has many of these verbs, either with a difference in a meaning or without it).

Having mentioned the adverbial, it shows similar expression in the sentence, i.e., in English using *in order to*, in German using *um*.

The last chapter concentrated on marginal modals. It is obvious that English and German are interconnected even in this particular part of grammar. The verb *need* in English and *brauchen* in German show that they can be either lexical verbs or modal verbs with little difference in their meaning in both languages. On one hand, the form of the verb *brauchen* as a modal verb in German is not used in the standard German, on the other hand, the verb *need* is used as a modal verb quite often in English.

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