Transformations of –ing Participles and Gerunds

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ABSTRAK

Tulisan ini mengkaji ihwal transformasi berkaitan dengan penggunaan **–ing participle** dan **gerund** ditinjau dari struktur luar, struktur dalam, dan proses transformasinya. Kajian ini termasuk studi sintaksis yang mendeskripsikan pertalian antarunsur dalam stuktur kalimat, khususnya menelusuri hubungan makna antara stuktur luar dan stuktur dalam melalui proses transformasi.

Penelitian ini menggunakan metode deskiptif. Sumber data adalah novel **The Shepherd** karangan Frederick Forsyth. Sedangkan, penentuan sample menggunakan teknik **purposive sampling**.

Analisis data menghasilkan temuan: (1) berdasarkan struktur luarnya, mayoritas **–ing participle** berfungsi sebagai **modifier** terhadap nomina guna menjelaskan tindakan yang ditunjukkan oleh verba dalam kalimat induk. Sementara itu, kebanyakan **gerund** berfungsi sebagai objek preposisi untuk melengkapi predikasi kalimat; (2) dalam kaitannya dengan struktur dalam**, -ing participle** pada umumnya ditransformasi dari klausa adjektiva dan klausa adverba yang memiliki subjek yang sama dengan subjek kalimat induk. Di lain pihak, **gerund** secara umum ditransformasi dari klausa bebas dan subjeknya terdapat di dalam klausa tersebut.

–ing participle dan **gerund** dalam novel **The Shepherd** ditujukan untuk menciptakan variasi kalimat sebagai pengganti kalimat majemuk bertingkat, sehingga dihasilkan gaya bahasa yang lebih menarik.

Kata Kunci: *-ing participle*, *gerund*, *transformasi, struktur luar, dan struktur dalam*

A. Introduction

English –ing form may be participial or gerundial in nature. Formally, both of the –ing participle and gerund are the same, that is, verb + suffix –ing. Even, the two kinds of –ing form may have the same distribution syntactically. They may come before and after noun or after verb *be*. The –ing participle and gerund; however, are transformed from different deep structures, so the two kinds of –ing form mean different things, too. For instance, the sentences *The walking stick is broken* and *The burning stick is broken* contain *walking* and *burning,* which are of the same distribution but of different kinds. Both *walking* and *burning* come before and modify the noun *stick*. The former is derived from (*the stick*) *for walking*, while the latter is transformed from (*the stick*) *which is burning.* Consequently, *walking* here is classified as a gerund and *burning* as a present participle. Likewise, in the sentences *The sleeping dog is*

obedient and *The sleeping bag is expensive,* the verb –ing *sleeping* fills the same position namely, before the nouns *dog* and *bag*. But, the deep structures from which *sleeping* is derived are quite distinct in the two syntactic constructions. *Sleeping* in *The sleeping dog is obedient* is derived from *(The dog) which is sleeping (is obedient)*. Meanwhile, *sleeping* in *The sleeping bag is expensive* is transformed from *(The bag) for sleeping (is expensive)*. Therefore, *sleeping* in the first sentence should be a participle and *sleeping* in the second sentence must be a gerund.

In the ambiguous sentence *Flying planes can be dangerous*, the phrase *flying planes* can be derived from different deep structures - *Planes which are flying (can be dangerous)* and *To fly planes (can be dangerous)*. Hence, the –ing form of the former deep structure belongs to a present participle, while the –ing form of the latter deep structure belongs to a gerund. To make the two kinds of –ing form clearer both structurally and semantically, the sentence above may be paraphrased (by removing the constituent *can*) as *Flying planes is dangerous,* in which the –ing form *flying* acts as verbal element with *planes* as its object and *Flying planes are dangerous*, where the –ing form *flying* serves as modifier with *planes* as its head.

Besides coming before a noun, a verb + ing of different kinds and functions may also follow a verb *be*. In the sentences *My hobby is swimming* and *My sister is swimming,* the verb + ing *swimming* fills the slot after the verb *is*. *Swimming* in the sentence *My hobby is swimming* is a gerund functioning as subjective complement, so the sentence may be paraphrased as *Swimming is my hobby. Swimming* in the sentence *My sister is swimming,* on the other hand, is a participle which, together with the verb *is,* acts as continuous tense former. Here, the sentence cannot be paraphrased as **Swimming is my sister.*

Furthermore, -ing form as gerund coming after a verb may be transformed from different deep structures, such as in *He likes tutoring* and *He needs tutoring. Tutoring* in *He likes tutoring* is derived from (*He likes*) *to tutor* (*someone*); *tutoring* in *He needs tutoring* is derived from (*He needs*) *to be tutored* (*by someone*). It can be said that *He likes tutoring* is a surface structure with *he likes* (*it*) and *he tutors* as its deep structures. The surface structure *He needs tutoring;* however, has *He needs* (*it*) and *He is tutored* as its deep structures.

B. Review of Related Literature
1. Syntax

Syntax, a study of words and their arrangements in forming syntactic constructions, is one of the four basic branches of linguistics. The other three are phonology, morphology, and semantics. Syntax is concerned with the way how words are arranged to construct phrases, clauses, and sentences. The statement is supported by Stevens and Kegel, saying that syntax is a basic branch of linguistic study concerned with the interrelationships of words. Syntactical analysis concentrates on the examination of phrasal and clausal patterns in a language. It is a major area of grammatical study (1966: 189). Besides, Crystal asserts that syntax is

the study of interrelationships between elements of sentence structure, and of the rules governing the arrangement of sentence in sequences (1980: 346). Furthermore, Fromkin and Rodman state that syntactic rules are rules in one's grammar that determine how morphemes and words must be combined to express a particular meaning (1983: 201). The opinions above indicate that syntax is a study of grammar and of the rules how words are arranged in order to form phrases, clauses, and sentences. In short, syntax is part of grammar that presents one's knowledge of syntactical constructions.

2. English Sentences

An English sentence, one of syntactical constructions, is composed of words conveying a complete thought. The words as parts of a sentence should consist of at least a subject and a predicate, in which the subject must be noun, pronoun, or noun equivalent, while the predicate is always a finite verb. It is in line with the opinion of Frank, asserting that sentence is a full predication containing a subject plus a predicate with a finite verb (1972: 220). It can be said that a sentence in English is a combination of words. It possesses its own subject and predicate, and it expresses certain meanings.

Based on the purpose of their usage, sentences may be declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory in nature. While, sentences in accordance with the number of full predication of which they are composed can be classified as simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex.

Concerning the analysis of English complex sentences, Frank comments as the following:

> "In modern grammar two approaches to the analysis of syntactic structures have contributed to an understanding of how such structures are used to build up sentences. Both are based on different conceptions of what the sentence is. According to one view, the sentence represents an expansion subject-verb-complement core. Thus, in the sentence **The boy's arrest for murder shocked his parents**, the subject **arrest** is expanded by the preceding modifier **the boy's** and the following modifier **for murder**. This kind of emphasis on physical arrangement of elements within a sentence is known as structural grammar.
>
> In the second view, the sentence represents a changed form of a simple, basic sentence, or a combination of such changed forms. According to this interpretation, the sentence **The boy's arrest for murder shocked his parents** consists of two simple sentences, the first of which – **The boy was arrested for murder** – has been changed so that it can become the subject of the second. This kind of grammar, which is concerned with the process by which basic sentences are changed to fit into larger sentences, is called transformational grammar" (1972: 231).

This study focuses its discussion on transformational grammar. While, structural grammar is used to support the former in the analysis.

3. Verbals

A verbal is also called a non-finite verb. It is a verb which is not governed by all grammatical properties, such as number, person, tense, etcetera. A verbal serves other functions than predicate in a sentence. The functional slots usually filled by a verbal include subject, object, complement, and modifier.

In terms of its form, a verbal may be a word or a phrase. As a single word, a verbal is in the form of verb+-ing (present participle and gerund), verb+-ed (past participle), and verb in basic form (infinitive with or without 'to'). A verbal phrase, on the other hand, is composed of a verbal and some other word(s) that complete(s) its meaning. In connection with verbal, Farbman states as follows:

> "A verbal is a verb form that has lost its power to act as the verb of a sentence. While, a verbal phrase is a group of words containing a verbal and any completers or modifiers that belong exclusively to the verbal." (1985: 95)

a. The –ing Participles

The term –ing participle is often used (in Michael Swan, for example) instead of present participle. It due to the fact that a present participle is always in the form of verb+-ing to differentiate it from a past participle, which is in the form of verb+-ed. As stated earlier, an –ing participle, either in the form of word or phrase, is a non-finite verb (phrase) which serves as other parts of speech. It may act as adjective and adverb. For example:

1) It seems surprising (Biber et al, 1999: 69).
2) She ran screaming out of the room (Swan, 2005: 379).

The –ing participle *surprising* in the sentence 1) is an adjective, which completes the predication of the linking verb *seems*. It describes the subject *it*. Meanwhile, the –ing participle *screaming* in the sentence 2) is an adverb modifying the verb *ran*.

Besides, an –ing participle is capable of functioning as complement , modifier, and continuous tense former. For instance:

3) Katherine felt a cold blast of air emanating from within (Brown, 2009: 44).
4) I love the noise of falling rain (Swan, 2005: 379).
5) His voice was irritating me (Biber et al, 1999: 69).

In the sentence 3) the –ing participle *emanating* acts as objective complement. It completes the direct object *a cold blast of air*, which is governed by the verb *felt*. Likewise, the –ing participle *falling* in the sentence 4) serves as modifier. It modifies the noun *rain*. Then, the –ing participle *irritating* in the sentence 5) functions as continuous tense former. Together with the verb *is*, it forms a past continuous tense.

Further, an –ing participle may also be used after *have + object*, *catch/find/leave* etc. + *object*, *see/hear/smell* etc. + *object*, and so forth. The following may clarify the discussion:

6) I won't have him cleaning his bike in the kitchen (Thomson and Martinet, 1986: 239).
7) I left him talking to Bob (Thomson and Martinet, 1986: 240).
8) I see him passing my house every day (Thomson and Martinet, 1986: 240).

The sentences above show that each of the –ing participles *cleaning, talking*, and *passing* follows certain patterns *have* + object (*him*), *left* + *object* (*him*), and *see* + *object* (*him*) respectively.

In addition, an –ing participle can replace *a relative pronoun + verb*, an independent/main clause, and a subordinate clause in complex sentences, such as clarified by the following sentences:

9) Many students studying at this university are from foreign countries (Oshima and Hogue, 1981: 198).

10) Holding the rope with one hand, he stretches out the other to the boy in the water. (Thomson and Martinet, 1986: 241).

11) Traveling in Europe , the president met many important political leaders (Oshima and Hogue, 1981: 208).

The –ing participle *studying* (*at this university*) in the sentence 9) is actually derived from or replaces a relative pronoun *who* and verb *are studying* (*at this university*). So, the real complex sentence from which the sentence 9) is transformed is *Many students who are studying at this university are from foreign countries* (1981: 198). Next, the –ing participle *holding* (*the rope with one hand*) in the sentence 10) is transformed from or replaces a main clause *He holds the rope with one hand*. Hence, the real one which the sentence 10) is derived from is *He holds the rope with one hand and stretches out the other to the boy in the water* (1986: 241). Likewise, the –ing participle *traveling in Europe* in the sentence 11) is transformed from or replaces a dependent clause *while the president was traveling in Europe*. Accordingly, the real complex structure from which the sentence 11) is derived is *While the president was traveling in Europe, he met many important political leaders* (1981: 208).

b. The Gerunds

Like an –ing participle, a gerund is always in the form of verb + -ing. In spite of their formal similarity, -ing participle and gerund serve different function in sentence constructions and are transformed from distinct deep structures, too. Moreover, unlike –ing participle which can have a force of an adjective and a verb, a gerund may possess a force of a noun and a verb. That's why, a gerund is regarded as a verb that can occupy the same position in a sentence that a noun ordinarily would, such as subject, object, complement, modifier, and appositive. Take a look at the following instances:

12) Playing tennis is fun (Azar, 1989: 150).

13) We have considered selling our home (Frank, 1972: 323).

14) Her hobby is painting (Thomson and Martinet, 1986: 228).

15) She needs a sleeping pill (Swan, 1996: 278).

16) My desire, traveling, may happen soon (Weinhold, 1979: 202).

The –ing forms *playing, selling, painting, sleeping,* and *traveling* in the sentences above are gerunds functioning as *subject, object, complement, modifier,* and *appositive* respectively. The gerund *playing* together with its object *tennis* acts as subject of the verb *is* in the sentence 12). Likewise, the gerund *selling* accompanied by *our home* as its object in the sentence 13) serves as direct object of the transitive verb *considered*.

Next, the gerund *painting* in the sentence 14) functions as subjective complement to complete the predication after the linking verb *is*. It refers to and identifies the subject *her hobby*. Then, the gerund *sleeping* in the sentence 15) fills the attributive position as modifier of the noun head *pill*. Meanwhile, the gerund *traveling* in the sentence 16) has a function as appositive to clarify or identify the noun *my desire*. In this case, both *my desire* and *traveling* refer to the same thing.

4. English Transformations

There are several different schools of grammar currently being discussed by linguists, such as Traditional Grammar, Structural Grammar, Transformational Generative Grammar, Systemic Functional Grammar, etcetera. Among them, Transformational Generative Grammar, as advocated by Noam Chomsky, is considered the one which is suitable for all natural languages. Transformational Generative Grammar, or more simply, Transformational Grammar, is sometimes abbreviated to TGG or TG. The discussions of Transformational (Generative) Grammar include transformation (comprising transformational rules, transformational operations, or transformational processes), deep and surface structures, phrase structure rules, competence and performance, and so forth.

Transformation is mainly concerned with deep and surface structures. Jacobs and Rosenbaum define transformations as those processes which convert deep structures into immediate and/or surface structures (1982: 23). The following examples may clarify the definition above:

17) Cheng kicked the ball (Boey, 1975: 59).
18) The ball was kicked by Cheng (Boey, 1975: 59).

It is evident that *Cheng kicked the ball* is an active sentence, while *The ball was kicked by Cheng* is a passive one. Although the two sentences have different surface structures, they mean the same thing. So, they are said to be the sentences of the same deep structure. The statement is supported by Boey, stating that TG regards passive sentences as being formed from the active ones (1975: 59). Moreover, he explains:

"the sort of changes which takes place in this transformation is that the subject (*Cheng*) and object (*the ball*) in 17) have changed places in 18) where *the ball* is the subject and *Cheng* is the agent preceded by *by*." (1975: 59)

The quotation above implies that there exists a semantic relationship between the active and passive sentences (namely, they have the same meaning or deep structure) and the changes that take place from the active into the passive are called a transformational process.

Besides, Boey adds:

"there are many other transformations, of course. If we take *Cheng kicked the ball* as our sample "kernel" sentence, we can list some of the possible transformations:

19) Cheng did not kick the ball. (Negative)
20) The ball was kicked by Cheng. (Passive)
21) The ball was not kicked by Cheng. (Negative-passive)
22) Did Cheng kick the ball? (Yes/No Question)

23) Didn't Cheng kick the ball? (Negative Question)
24) Was the ball kicked by Cheng? (Passive-question)
25) Wasn't the ball kicked by Cheng? (Negative-passive-question)
26) Who kicked the ball? (Wh-question)

All the above sentences are transformationally derived from the same "kernel"." (1975: 61)

In addition, transformation may also change two or more sentences into one. In other words, the sentences are joined together to construct a compound, complex, or compound-complex sentence. For example:

27) Mr. Lawson passed the bar examination (Oshima and Hogue, 1981: 172).
28) Mr. Lawson teaches political science (Oshima and Hogue, 1981: 172).
29) Mr, Lawson, who teaches political science, passed the bar examination (Oshima and Hogue, 1981: 172).

In this case, the sentences 27) and 28) are joined to form the sentence 29). To do it, the transformation inserts the sentence 28) into the sentence 27) directly after the noun *Mr. Lawson*. Then, the noun *Mr. Lawson* in the sentence 28) is substituted by a relative pronoun *who*. This transformation is possible only when the same noun (phrase), *Mr. Lawson* in the examples above, occurs in the two "kernel" sentences from which the sentence 29) is derived.

C. Methodology

Since it aims just to describe the data without generalizing the result of the analysis, this study may be classified as a descriptive research. Descriptive research, according to Surakhmad, is the way to solve the topical problem by collecting, arranging, classifying, and interpreting the data (1978: 132). Generally, the purpose of descriptive research is to describe systematically, factually, and accurately the facts, the nature, and the relation in which the phenomena are analyzed (1988: 99). Hence, the result of data analysis is applicable only for the object studied here. It cannot be generalized. In other words, the findings on the transformations of –ing participles and gerunds in Frederick Forsyth's *The Shepherd* may not represent those found in other objects.

The data of this research are English –ing participles and gerunds used in sentence constructions. The –ing participles and gerunds intended are in the form of words and phrases. They were obtained from Frederick Forsyth's *The Shepherd.* And, the sample which represents the data in the analysis was taken by the use of purposive sampling technique, in which the sample obtained represents the information, not the population, of the data.

In order to get accurate data, this study applied some compatible technique of data collecting, namely observation-documentation technique as proposed by Mahsun in *Metode Penelitian Bahasa: Tahapan Strategi, Metode, dan Tekniknya* (2005:112). It was conducted through an observation on the –ing participles and gerunds found within sentences in Frederick Forsyth's *The Shepherd***.** Then, those

sentences were documented in data cards. Next, they were classified on the basis of the kinds of surface structures of the –ing participles and gerunds.

The data of the research were analyzed by applying intra-lingual matching method. It is a method of analysis that connects-compares the elements which are lingual in nature, either within one language or in some languages. In this case, English –ing participles and gerunds are analyzed transformationally in order to find their deep structures and the transformational processes which they undergo.

The data analysis result was presented by making use of informal presentation method as offered by Sudaryanto (1993: 145). It was formulated in the form of words rather than symbols and codes.

D. Discussion
1. Transformation of –ing Participle (Phrases)

As it is known, transformation is mainly concerned with the process of changes from deep structures into surface structures. In relation to transformation, Veit asserts:

> "An important claim of transformational grammar is that sentences have a history: Surface sentences are the products of changes (or transformations) from more abstract underlying forms (or deep structures). Because deep structures are related to the concepts or ideas being communicated by sentences, transformational grammar is also more interested in meaning than is structural grammar" (1986: 251).

It can be said that deep structures represent idea or meaning realized in sentences, while surface structures represent what is actually spoken or written. Consequently, "We can consider the deep structure/surface structure distinction as the difference between the idea that we think (deep structure) and the words we actually say (surface structure) (1986: 110)."

Furthermore, Falk in his book entitled *Linguistics and Language* presents her opinion about transformation as follows:

> "Transformations do not operate directly on a deep structure to immediately produce a surface structure. Deep structures are generally so abstract that it requires a number of transformations to produce a grammatical surface structure. Thus, many transformations apply , not directly to a deep structure, but to immediate structures produced by other transformations.
>
> Since a number of transformations may apply in the generation of a surface structure from a deep structure, it is not surprising that some transformations must be ordered with respect to one another. That is, certain transformations must be applied before others to produce grammatical surface structures" (1973: 163).

In short, surface sentences are the result of complex processes which convert ideas or meanings into expressions spoken or written.

As a matter of fact, the –ing participles found in the novel are of various forms and functions. They are elaborated in the following discussion.

a.   The –ing Participle (Phrases) as Extraposed Noun Modifiers

Used as extraposed noun modifier, an –ing participle (phrase) can replace *a relative pronoun + verb* in a sentence. It is in line with the opinion of Ridout, saying:

> "Present participles can be used freely in the adjectival phrases following a noun. They are then practically equivalent to relative clauses, from which they differ only in the absence of the relative pronoun and the auxiliary verb (**a man who is wearing a top hat** = **a man wearing a top hat**)" (1972: 22).

Moreover, an –ing participle (phrase) formed from a subsidiary or embedded clause usually meets the following conditions, as stated by Ridout:

a) The embedded clause must modify a noun phrase.
b) The subject of the embedded clause must be identical with the noun phrase being modified.
c) The first verb in the embedded clause must be a form of BE.
   If the conditions are met, the embedded clause is changed into a participle phrase as follows:
d) The subject of the embedded clause and BE are deleted (1986: 221).

The discussion below may clarify the opinions above.

30)   For tonight there would be no wandering aviators to look down and check their bearings; tonight was Christmas Eve, in the year of grace 1957, and I was a young pilot ***trying*** *to get home to Blighty for his Christmas leave* (8).

The –ing participle phrase *trying to get home to Blighty for his Christmas leave* in the sentence 30) comes after and modifies the noun phrase *a young pilot*. Its subject is the noun phrase *a young pilot*, too. So, the –ing participle phrase *trying to get home to Blighty for his Christmas leave* here is equivalent to a relative clause *who was trying to get home to Blighty for his Christmas leave,* in which *who* in this case is a relative pronoun substituting for the noun phrase *a young pilot.* As a result, the complex sentence where the –ing participle phrase becomes its constituent part is *I was a young pilot who was trying to get home to Blighty for his Christmas leave.* It is clear that the deep structure from which the –ing participle phrase is transformed is *who was trying to get home to Blighty for his Christmas leave*, which is a relative clause. This analysis follows the statement of Liles: "For economy we often reduce relative clauses to more compact structures known as participial phrases; that is, instead of using full relative clauses , we can use participial phrases" (1979: 107).

b.   The –ing Participle (Phrases) as Fronted Noun Modifiers

Present participle phrases used fronted noun modifier may constitute adverbial clauses beginning with *as/since/because/when/while/although/* and etcetera + *verb*. The participle phrases made use in this way help to explain the action which follows in the main clause. It is true as indicated by Ridout:

"Participial phrases are often used to replace clauses stating when, why, or how the action of the main verb takes place. In this case they are always separated from the

rest of the sentence by commas" (1972: 24). The subject of the participle phrase is the same as that of the main clause. Take a look at the following:

> 31)   For a brief moment, *while **waiting for** the control tower to clear me for takeoff*, I glanced out through the Perspex cockpit canopy at the surrounding German countryside (1).

The –ing participle phrase above begins with subordinate conjunction *while* to explain the action showed by the verb *glanced out* in the main clause. As stated by Swan: "Normally, the subject of an adverbial participle clause is the same as the subject of the main clause in a sentence" (1996: 406), the subject of the –ing participle phrase in the sentence 31) is, of course, the subject of the main clause, namely the personal pronoun *I*. That's why, the deep structure from which the –ing participle phrase is converted is *while I was waiting for the control tower to clear me for takeoff*, the meaning of which is the same as that of the –ing participle phrase.

The other –ing participle phrase which begins with subordinate conjunction and is used as fronted noun modifier in the novel includes the datum numbered (147).

Since the subordinate conjunction which precedes the –ing participle phrase is optional in nature, it may be deleted in some other participle phrases, as shown below.

> **32)**   ***Being*** *only the two of us on station here, and no visitors to speak of*, we've each made two bedrooms into a sort of self-contained apartment where we live (137).

Actually, the –ing participle phrase *being only the two of us on station here, and no visitors to speak of* in the sentence 32) is introduced by a subordinate conjunction *because, since*, or *as* to explain the action expressed by the verb *have made* in the main clause. Because its subject is the same as that of the main clause, the –ing participle phrase is equivalent to adverb clause *because we were only the two of us on station here, and no visitors to speak of,* which is the deep structure from which the –ing participle phrase is derived.

It is also possible that two or more –ing participle phrases of this kind come one after the other in the same sentence.

> 33)   ***Pinpointing*** *his position precisely by crossed radio bacons*, ***knowing*** *this stretch of the coast by heart*, he'd taken a chance on finding his old airfield at Minton, even in thick fog (157).

In the sentence 33) the two –ing participle phrases *pinpointing his position precisely by crossed radio bacons* and *knowing this stretch of the coast by heart* come one after the other to explain the action indicated by the verb *had taken* in the main clause. The two –ing participle phrases are actually preceded by the same subordinate conjunction, namely *after*. And, the subject of the two –ing participle phrases is the same as the subject of the main clause. Hence, the adverb clauses whose meaning is the same as that of the –ing participle phrases are *after we pinpointed his position precisely by crossed radio bacons* and *after we knew this stretch of the coast by heart,* which are also the deep structures from which the two –ing participle phrases are transformed.

As fronted noun modifier, an –ing participle (phrase) may also be used attributively. This –ing form is usually called adjective-like –ing form (participle). An –ing participle (phrase) used attributively is equivalent to (*N*) + *who/which* + *verb*. The following may make the discussion clearer.

34)   We touched, we touched the *flaming* deck (**113**).

The attributively used –ing participle in the sentence 34) modifies the noun deck, which is also its subject. The noun phrase *the flaming deck* is equivalent to *the deck which was flaming.* Accordingly, the deep structure from which the –ing participle is converted is *which was flaming*.

c.   The –ing Participle (Phrases) as Subjective Complements

Filling a subjective complement slot, an –ing participle (phrase) follows a linking verb. In this kind of usage, an –ing participle (phrase) has the same subject as the linking verb does. The following may clarify the statement.

35)   He kept *turning;* so did I (83).

The –ing participle *turning* in the sentence 35) follows the linking verb *kept* directly. It refers back to the subject *He,* so the deep structure from which the –ing participle is derived is *He was turning.*

d.   The –ing Participle (Phrases) as Objective Complements

Besides filling subjective complement slot, an –ing participle (phrase) may also fill objective complement slot in a sentence. In this case, an –ing participle (phrase) commonly follows and refers to an object which governed by certain verbs of physical perception. Take a look at the following.

36)   There, if they only had the sense to switch on the airfield lights when they heard me *screaming at low level up and down the airfield*, I could land safely (49).

The construction when *they heard me screaming* in the sentence 36) contains *heard*, a verb of physical perception, as its predicate. The verb is followed by *me* and the objective complement *screaming*. The –ing participle *screaming* refers to the object *me*. Consequently, the deep structure from which the –ing participle is converted is I was *screaming*.

Besides following a verb of physical perception + object, an –ing participle (phrase) may also follow *make/find/leave* etcetera + *object* . Used in this way, the –ing participle (phrase) refers to the object it follows. In fact, there is only one datum of this kind of usage found in the novel.

37)   The moon was to my right, and my own shadow masked his shape and form; but even so, I could make out the shimmer of two propellers *whirling through the sky ahead of him* (88).

The –ing participle phrase *whirling through the sky ahead of him* in the sentence 37) follows the verb *make out* + the object *the* shimmer *of two propellers.* The object here is the subject of the –ing participle phrase. Accordingly, the deep structure from which the –ing participle phrase is transformed is *The shimmer of two propellers was whirling through the sky ahead of him.*

e.   The –ing Participle (Phrases) as Verb Modifiers

Used as a verb modifier, an –ing participle (phrase) follows certain verbs directly. Due to this kind of usage of –ing participle (phrase), Thomson and Martinet assert "When two activities by the same subject occur simultaneously, it is usually possible to express one of them by a present participle" (1986: 241). The following may make the discussion clearer.

38)   I sat ***holding*** *the telephone*, staring at it in disbelief (144).

In the sentence 38) above, both the actions *sitting* and *holding* take place at the same time and they have the same subject, that is, the first person singular pronoun *I*. So, it is clear that the deep structure from which the –ing participle phrase is derived is *I held the telephone*.

Moreover, Thomson and Martinet add that when the second action forms part of the first, or is a result of it, we can express the second action by a present participle (1986: 241)". Take a look at the following

39)   By the time the two headlights came ***groping*** *out of the mist,* I felt frozen (120).

The sentence 39) shows that the second action *groping* forms part of the first. They have the same subject. That's why, the deep structure from which the –ing participle phrase is converted is *The two headlights were groping out of the mist.*

f.   The –ing Participle (Phrases) as Reduced Independent Clauses

As a reduced independent clause, an –ing participle (phrase) may come before or after the main clause. In this case, the subject of the –ing participle (phrase) the same as that of the main clause.

40)   ***Swinging*** *over Celle airfield at 5,000 feet*, I straightened up and watched the needle on my compass settle happily down on a course of 265 degrees (25).

In the sentence 40) the action of *swinging* precedes those of *straightening up* and *watching*. According to Thomson and Martinet, "When one action is immediately followed by another by the same subject, the first action can often be expressed by a present participle. The present participle may be placed first" (1986: 241). In fact, the subject of the main clause is *I*, which is also the subject of the –ing participle phrase. Consequently, the deep structure from which the –ing participle phrase is transformed is an independent clause *I swung over Celle airfield at 5,000 feet.*

Furthermore, if the actions occur at the same time, the second action may be expressed by a present participle. In this case, the present participle is placed after the main clause.

41)   The controller's voice woke me from my reverie, ***sounding*** *in my*
       headphones as if he were with me in the tiny cockpit, ***shouting*** *in my ear.* (11)

The actions of waking, sounding, and shouting in the sentence 41) happen simultaneously. The subject of the –ing participle phrases is the same as that of the main clause, namely *the controller's voice*. Hence, the deep structures from which the –ing participle phrases are derived are independent clauses *The controller's voice*

sounded in my headphones as if he were with me in the tiny cockpit and *The controller's voice shouted in my ear.*

g. The–ing Participle (Phrases) as Parts of Absolute Construction

A unique use of –ing participle (phrase) is found in absolute construction. An –ing participle (phrase) as part of absolute construction is also known as absolute participial phrase. "An absolute construction consists of a noun phrase and a modifying participial phrase. It is separated from the rest of the sentence by a pause in speech and by a comma in writing" (Veit, 1986: 229). Further, Ridout states "An absolute participial phrase is a phrase which replaces a subsidiary clause and in which the subject – not identical with the subject of the main clause – is specially indicated" (1972: 30). In fact, the subject of absolute participial phrase is located in the absolute construction as stated by Liles: "An absolute construction consists of a subject and a participial phrase" (1979: 145). The discussion can bec   clearer through the following.

42) The other aircraft ***being*** below me, I kept turning, wing down, to keep it in sight (80).

The construction *the other aircraft being below me* is an absolute consisting of the noun phrase *the other aircraft* and the participle phrase *being below me.* It is separated from the main clause by a comma. The absolute construction is equivalent to adverb clause *because the other aircraft was below me.* It is in line with the opinion of Veit, asserting that an absolute is derived from an underlying sentence that is related to the main sentence by a subordinating conjunction such as *because* (1986: 229). Moreover, he adds that the sentences *The buses being unreliable, Warner drove his car to work* and *Because the buses were unreliable, Warner drove his car to work* are equivalent in meaning and both may be said to derive from the same deep structures (1986: 229). Consequently, it is evident that the –ing participle phrase *being below me* in the sentence 42) is transformed from *because (the other aircraft) was below me* as its deep structure.

2. Transformation of Gerund (Phrases)

Like –ing participle (phrases), gerund (phrases) found in the novel are also of great varieties and various forms. Their function in sentences, however, is very different from that of –ing participle (phrases). In relation to the difference between present participles and gerunds, Thomson and Martinet comment that present participles are adjective- like –ing forms and gerunds are noun-like –ing forms. The two structures do not have quite the same kind of meaning (1986: 278).

a. The Gerund (Phrases) as Subjects

Acting as subject, a gerund (phrase) may be in the form of reduced clause. To construct a gerund (phrase) from a clause involves the following transformations:

a) The verb is changed to the –ing form.
b) If the clause has unspecified subject, it is deleted.
c) If the embedded clause has a specified subject, it takes on the possessive form and is moved to precede the clause (Veit, 1986: 219).

The discussion may be clarified by the following.

43) *My own **muttering** into the oxygen mask* was smothered by the surrounding rubber (36).

The gerund phrase *my own muttering into the oxygen mask* in the sentence 43) has its specific subject, that is, *my*, the possessive form of *I*. The gerund phrase fills subjective slot in the sentence. So, the deep structure from which the gerund phrase is converted is

I muttered myself into the oxygen mask. It is in line with the opinion of Liles, saying that a gerund phrase is formed from a sentence. As gerund phrases are from sentences, it is not surprising that they contain the same elements that sentences do (1979: 129 – 130).

b. **The Gerund (Phrases) as Direct Objects**

A gerund phrase serving as a direct object in a sentence always follows a transitive verb, either directly or indirectly. The subject of the gerund phrase of this kind may be stated or implied, as told by Liles: "Whenever the subject of a gerund phrase names the same person or object that is mentioned in the main clause, it is deleted; it is only when it refers to someone else, that it remains" (1979: 131). Some evidence is as shown below.

44) Turn over head Celle airfield onto course 265 degrees, continue ***climbing to 27,000 feet***. (22)

The verb continue in the sentence 44) is transitive in nature, so the –ing form which follows it must be a gerund. The gerund phrase *climbing to 27,000 feet* has the same subject as the main clause does. The subject intended is understood in the context, namely *you*. It is true as indicated by Falk: "The subject of the sentence *Take this basket of cookies to Grandmother's house* is not expressed in the surface form, but every speaker of English knows that the subject is *you*" (1973: 158). Accordingly, the deep structure from which the gerund phrase is converted is *You climb to 27,000 feet.*

c. **The Gerund (Phrases) as Objects of Preposition**

Functioning as object of preposition, a gerund (phrase) usually follows a preposition in a sentence. The subject of the gerund (phrase) may be the same as that of the main clause. But, if the gerund (phrase) has its own subject, it is commonly in possessive form. In some cases, the subject of a gerund (phrase) which acts as object of preposition may be found elsewhere in a sentence or it is deleted, as supported by the opinion of Liles, saying "There are often sentences in which the subject of a gerund is deleted, namely when it refers to people or things in general, as expressed by such indefinite pronoun as one, someone, anyone, anything, and the like" (1979: 131). The following may clarify the discussion.

45) Within minutes of *my **going***, the lights would die out, *leaving* only the huddled hangars, seeming hunched against the bitter night, the shrouded fighter planes, the sleeping fuel-bowser trucks, and, above them all, the single flickering station light, brilliant red above the black-and-white airfield, beating out in Morse code the name of the station – CELLE- to an unheeding sky (7).

46) Probably the fog bank was only from the ground to one hundred feet up, but that was more than enough to prevent a plan from **landing** *without a GCA* (98).

47) There was no point in **going on** (31).

The gerund phrase *my going* following the preposition *of* in the sentence 45) has its own subject , that is, *my,* the possessive form of *I.* So, the deep structure from which it is derived is *I went.* Next, the gerund phrase *landing without a GCA* coming after the preposition *from* in the sentence 46) has its own subject, namely *a plane*, which is the object of the verb *to prevent.* Hence, the deep structure from which the gerund phrase is transformed is *A plane landed without a GCA.* Meanwhile, the gerund *going on* preceded by the preposition *in* in the sentence 47) has unspecified subject and it is deleted. Therefore, the deep structure from which it is converted is *Someone went on*.

d. **The Gerund (Phrases) as Objective Complements**

A gerund (phrase) used as objective complement follows and refers to an object as its own subject.

48) I remember him **saying** *to me once,* **standing** *right where you are*, before the fire: "Joe," he said, 'whenever there's one of them out there in the night, trying to get back, I'll go out and bring him home'" (123/15-19).

The gerund phrases *saying to me once* and *standing right where you are* follow and refer to the object *him*, which is also their subject. That's why, the deep structures from which they are derived are *He said to me once* and *He stood right where you are* respectively.

e. **The Gerund (Phrases) as Noun Modifiers**

An –ing form used as modifier before noun may be gerund or present participle. A gerund is used rather like noun, while a present participle is used rather like an adjective. The gerund in this case is identical with (N) + for + -ing form, and the present participle is equivalent to (N) + who/which + V + -ing form.

A gerund used as modifier of noun may have its subject in the sentence. However, the subject may also be deleted. The following may exemplify the discussion.

49) Finally, I did believe it, put on the **parking** brake and released the main brake (115).

The gerund *parking* in the sentence 49) precedes the noun *brake* it modifies. Its subject is the same as that of the main sentence. So, the deep structure from which the gerund is converted is *(I put on the brake) for parking*.

f. **The Gerund (Phrases) as Appositives**

A gerund (phrase) functioning as an appositive refers and is equivalent to the noun it follows in the sentence. Its subject is located somewhere in the sentence.

50) So he'd made a pile of money in the booming Fifties, probably bought himself a fine country house, and had enough left over to indulge his real passion – **flying** (155).

The gerund *flying* in the sentence 50) follows and is equivalent to the noun phrase *his real passion*. Its subject is the same as that of the sentence, namely *he.* As a result, the deep structure from which the gerund is transformed is *He flew*.

E.   CONCLUSION

The analysis on the data conducted previously shows some evidences that –ing participles and gerunds are effectively applied in the novel *The Shepherd*. The –ing participles which are mostly made use belong to the ones as noun modifiers to explain the actions stated by the verbs in the main sentences. As complements, they serve to complete the predications. In this case, -ing participles refer to the subjects or objects of the sentences. While, most of the gerunds act as objects of preposition and noun modifiers. On the other hand, the least frequently used –ing participles and gerunds are those which serve as verb modifiers and objective complements respectively.

Due to their deep structures, most of the –ing participles are transformed from relative clauses and adverb clauses whose subjects are the same as those of the main clauses. Likewise, most of the gerunds are derived from independent clauses, the subjects of which are situated somewhere in the sentences.

Actually, the use of –ing participles and gerunds in the novel is mainly aimed to create sentences of great variety. Instead of using so many dependent clauses, the writer applied –ing participles and gerunds in various ways. As a result, the sentences contained within the novel become more colorful and interesting.

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