**The Classification of Verbs in English**

**Some Criteria**

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1. **Introduction:**

Some Definitions

The verb is a word or in case of the verb phrase, a word group, which asserts action or state of being with respect to some noun or pronoun Eckersley and Eckersley (1963: 39). According to this definition, some verb can only be action verb or state verb, as in:

1. I walk, (action verb)
2. He remained silent, (state verb)

There are some verbs in English can be both action and state verbs at the same time. This is what concerns us in this study because they have more than one use or meaning in more than one basic clause type. This point means that verbs like “turn” can be both action and state verbs as in:

3. He turned his head, (action verb)
4. He turned pale, (state verb)

In (3) “turn” is mono transitive verb which has the pattern (SVO), while in (4) it is intransitive verb which has the pattern (SVC), it is a linking verb.

The traditional verb is one of the parts of speech whose function in a sentence is prediction, which is as much as to say that it is a unit which is a part of bigger unit and which has certain correlations with other commensurable units. We can

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predict from this definition that there are some verbs the meaning of which depends on the arguments, type of verb complementation or type of noun.

Pollock and Rounds (1954:49) state that the verb tells or asks something about or commands the subject to do something agree with them and add that the verb expresses an action, but also it may express a condition or state of being.

Most of the previous definitions assign verb to the action or states, but there are certain verbs can show possession Thus, Romine et al], (1972:144)asserts that verb is a word asserting action, showing possession, or indicating state of being ‘Have’ in the following example shows possession:

Ex. He had it.

2. The Criteria Adopted:

1. Verb in English can be classified into various classes. Each classification is based on a definite criterion, one of these’ criteria classifies verbs into: lexical and auxiliary. The following diagram clarifies the criterion above:

Table1 The verb classes:

[Adapted From Ourik etal ,1972]
Primary Have
Auxiliary Be

Auxiliary Verb

Modal Auxiliary

Can Could
May Might
Shall Should
Will 'll would, d
Most
Ought to

Verb

Marginal Modal Auxiliary

Semi-Auxiliary Verbs

Have to, Be a bout to

Lexical verbs

Need, Used to,
Dare

Walk, Play,
Procrastinate
2. **Lexical Verbs**
Lexical Verbs are an open class of verbs which are all verbs except auxiliary verbs, in other words they show an action or state and can be added to with new verbs. Lexical verbs are used to show that the verb has vocabulary meaning rather just functioning as part of the grammar. Those are verbs that carry meaning. Most verbs in English are lexical. Consider the following example:
- He is working in the library.
- They are playing football in the garden.
The examples above show that every single verb carries a definite meaning, when it is used as lexical verb.
In other words, a lexical verb can sit on its own but an auxiliary verb requires a lexical verb so it makes sense:
- * She will in the garden.
- * She will sit in.

3. **Auxiliary Verbs:**
Auxiliary Verbs are used together with a main Verb to give grammatical information and therefore add extra meaning to a sentence in formation that is not given by the main Verb. They are used to form the passive Voice. They are used to form the continuous tense. They are used to form the perfect tense. They are as the name implies, ‘helping verbs’, they have no independent existence as verb phrases but only help to make up verb phrases, which consist of one or more other verbs, one of, which is a lexical verb. The
auxiliaries make different contributions to the verb phrase: ‘Do’ is only an empty carrier in certain sentence processes, whereas ‘Be’ and ‘Have’ contribute aspect, and the modal auxiliaries contribute modality (expressing such concepts as volition, probability and insistence).

3.1 **Primary Verbs:**

3.1.1 **Verb ‘Do’**: The auxiliary “does” not indicate tense or Voice. It is used only as an “operator” That is to say, is used to produce certain grammatical structures. In particular questions and negative statement for example:

The bed, are formed by using “do” as an operator. The other primary auxiliaries also have operator function. For example in: Is Harry going to bed soon ? The placement of the word “is” before the Subject indicates that the sentences is a questions and in: Harry has not gone to bed, the incretion of the particle “not” between the auxiliary and the main Verb indicates that the sentence is a negative notice that in the case of a sentences with more than one auxiliary, it is always the first auxiliary which acts as the operator.

As lexical verb (perform., etc.) and as pro-verb the full range of forms including the present participle “doing” and past participle “done” (Leech, 2001: 128).

What have you been doing today?

A. You said you would finish it.
B. I have done so
3.1.2 **Verb ‘Have’**
The auxiliary have” is used to form the compound Verb tense and is also used forming the passive Voice for example: Harry has not talked to Jane, the auxiliary “has” indicates that the Verb phrase is perfective. 
The auxiliary “have” has the following forms: 

**Table 2: forms of auxiliaries**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Forms</th>
<th>Non-Negative</th>
<th>Uncontracted Negative</th>
<th>Contracted Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>base Haven’t</td>
<td>Have, ve</td>
<td>Have not, ‘ve not</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s form hasn’t</td>
<td>has, ‘s</td>
<td>has not, ‘s not</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past hadn’t</td>
<td>had, ‘d</td>
<td>had not, ‘d not</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ing form</td>
<td>Having</td>
<td>not having</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ed participle</td>
<td>had</td>
<td>had (only as lexical verb)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

She has seen the film.
She hasn’t seen the film.
Has she seen the film?
When “have” is used as lexical, it carries the meaning of “receive, own, enjoy” consider the following:
I have got a new car.
Do you have a nice journey?
(Leech, et al.: 2001)

3.1.3 **Verb ‘Be’**: 
The lexical and auxiliary verb “be” is unique among English verbs in having eight different forms (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990:,37).

**Table 3: forms of Be**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Base</th>
<th>Be</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(not)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; person singular</td>
<td>am, ‘m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; person singular</td>
<td>is, ‘s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; person 1st and 3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; person</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present 1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; and 3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; person</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt; and 3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; Person singular</td>
<td>Was, ‘s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; Person 1st and 3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; Person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>were not</td>
<td>weren’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ing form</td>
<td>Being</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>participle</td>
<td>Been</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. **The Modal Auxiliaries:**

The modal auxiliaries are: can/could, will/would, shall/should, may/might, ought to, must. They differ from the other auxiliaries (do, be, have) in that they have no s-form, ing forms or participles. Furthermore, they so-called past forms of modals, sometimes express the same meaning as the present or simple forms. They also occur in statements which refer to future time. Thus we must remember that the form of a modal does not necessarily indicate the time reference of the sentence in which it is used.
In addition, verb phrases with negated modals do not always express the opposite of affirmative ones: questions asked with one modal sometimes require answers expressed with another. All in all, the meanings of modals are very complex indeed (Aziz, 1989: 77’).

Most of these words form contractions with not, the common ones being can’t, couldn’t, won’t, wouldn’t, shouldn’t, mightn’t, mustn’t, may ought, and shall are seldom contracted in American English, will and would also form contraction with subject pronouns. Contraction with will are listed in VI, 6a. Those with would are I’d, you’d, he’d, she’d, it’d, we’d, they’d, contractions with pronouns are never used in sentence final position (Aziz, 1989).

The modal auxiliaries are the following:

Table 4: The modal auxiliaries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-Negative</th>
<th>Unconstructed Negative</th>
<th>Contracted Negative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Can</td>
<td>Can not</td>
<td>Can’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could</td>
<td>Could not</td>
<td>Couldn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>May not</td>
<td>Mayn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Might</td>
<td>Might not</td>
<td>Mightn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shall</td>
<td>Shall not</td>
<td>Shan’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should</td>
<td>Should not</td>
<td>Shouldn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will, ‘11</td>
<td>Will not, ‘11 not</td>
<td>Won’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would</td>
<td>Would not, don’t</td>
<td>Wouldn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Must</td>
<td>Must not</td>
<td>Mustn’t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ought to</td>
<td>Ought to not</td>
<td>Oughtn’t to</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. The Marginal Modal Auxiliaries:
Dare, need, Ought to, used to share most of the characters of Model Verb but are marginal for Various reasons. Unlike the central Models ought and used are following by to and despite prescriptive objections often combine with do in negative and interrogative constructions, like full verb: especially in English, They didn’t ought to say that along side the more traditionally acceptable. They ought to say that; Did he used to play the Violin, along side the vary use he to play the Violin? used to also differs. Semantically from central modals, Since it Conveys aspect (habitual situation) an not modality. In negative and interrogative contexts, dare and me may be either modals (I daren’t object, Need I say more?) or full Verbs with preceding do and following to infinitive (I don’t dare) object or the blend without the to, I didn’t dare objects< Do I need to say more?) Else where they are full Verbs: I dare I dares object; I need to say more. There are

The marginal modal auxiliaries are: used to, dare, need, used always takes to-infinitive and occurs only in the past tense. It may take the do construction in which case the spelling didn’t used to and didn’t use to both occurs the interrogative construction, used he to is specially BrE, did he used to is preferred in both AmE and BrE.

Dare and need can be constructed either as modal auxiliaries (with bare infinitive and with no inflected -s form) or as lexical verbs (with to- infinitive and with inflected -s form).

The modal verb construction is restricted to nonassertive contexts, i.e. mainly negative and interrogative sentence, whereas the lexical verb construction can always be used and is’ in fact the more common. Dare and need as auxiliaries are probably rarer in AmE than in BrE (Greenbaum and Qurik, 1990:39).
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Table 5: The Marginal Auxiliaries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Modal Auxiliary Construction</th>
<th>Lexical Verb Construction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive Negative Interrogative</td>
<td>He needn’t go now.</td>
<td>He needs to go now.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Interrogative</td>
<td>Need he go now?</td>
<td>He doesn’t need to go now.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Needn’t he go now?</td>
<td>Does he need to go now?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Doesn’t he need to go now?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. **The Semi-Auxiliary:**

Semi-auxiliaries
Among the auxiliary Verbs, we distinguish a large number of multi-word Verbs, which are called SEMI-AUXILIARIES. These are two or three word Combinations, and they include the following:

- Get to
- Seem to
- Be about to
- Happen to
- Tend to
- Be going to
- Have to
- Turn out to
- Be likely to
- Mean to
- Used to
- Be supposed to

6.1 **As Lexical:**

Are like lexical verbs in that they do not take inversion or negative with not without Do-periphrasis; nor do they have so pro form without j. Consider the following examples:

- Did the boy happen to see the play?
- The boy didn’t expect to see the play.
- The boy happened to see the play and so did his parents.
- The boy expects to see the play and so did his parents.

6.2 **As auxiliary:**

on the other hand, are like auxiliaries in that they form a unit with the infinitive (i.e. their head) which is sufficiently close to
admit of the transformation from active to passive in the head (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990: 39).

*The play happened to be seen by the boy.*

Among the semi-auxiliaries we can distinguish two subclasses depending on whether they can appear in an equivalent cleft-sentence

\[
\text{The boy} \begin{cases} \text{tended} \\ \text{seemed} \end{cases} \text{to be late}
\]

\[
\sim \text{It} \begin{cases} *\text{tended} \\ \text{seemed} \end{cases} \text{that the boy was late}
\]

7. **Regular vs. Irregular:**

Regular Verb is any Verb whose Conjugation following the typical grammatical inflections of the language to which it belongs. A verb that can’t be conjugated like this irregular Verbs. All natural languages, to different extents have a number of irregular Verb auxiliary languages usually have a single regular Pattern for all Verbs as well as there parts of speach) as a matter of design Other constructed to look similar to natural ones.

The most simple form of regularity in verb a single class of Verbs, a single principal part (the roof or a conjugated form in a given person, number, tens, aspect, mood, etc.)

Set of unique rules to produce each form in the Verb Paradigm. More compels regular patterns may have several Verb classes (e.g. distinguished by their infinitive ending), more than one principal part (e.g. the infinitive and the first person singular, present, indicative mood) and more than one
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Some times it is highly Subjective to state whether a Verb is regular or not for example language has ten different conjugation patterns and two of them only comprise. Five or six Verbs each while the rest are much more populated , it is a matter of choice to call the Verbs in the smaller groups “irregular”

The concept of regular and irregular Verbs belongs mainly in the context & second language acquisition, where the defining of rules and listing of exceptions are important for foreign language learning. The concepts can also be useful psycholinguistics, where the ways in which the human mind process irregularities may be of interest.

7.1 Regular Verbs:

Regular lexical verbs have the following forms (Praniniskas: 1976.)

Table 6: The forms of Regular Verbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>V</th>
<th>Base</th>
<th>Calls</th>
<th>Like</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Try</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V-ing</td>
<td>-ing participle</td>
<td>Calling</td>
<td>Liking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trying</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V-s</td>
<td>-s form</td>
<td>Calls</td>
<td>Likes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tries</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V-ed</td>
<td>Pass/ -ed participle</td>
<td>Called’</td>
<td>Liked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tried</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These are regular in that we can predict the other forms if we know the base of each verb. This is a very powerful rule, since the base is the form listed in dictionaries and the majority
of English verbs belong to this regular class. Furthermore, all new verbs that are coined or borrowed from other languages adopt this pattern.

7.2 **Irregular Verbs:**

Irregular lexical verbs differ from regular verbs in the following ways:

(a) Irregular verbs either do not have a /d/ or III inflection (drink - drank ~ drunk) or break the rule for a voiced inflection (e.g.: bum - burnt /t/, beside the regular burned /d/).

(b) Irregular verbs typically, but not necessarily, have variation in their base vowel:

“find - found - found”  “write - wrote ~ written”

(c) Irregular verbs have a varying number of disforms, since the -s and -ing forms are predictable for regular and irregular verbs alike, the only forms that need be listed for irregular verbs are the base (V), the past (V-ed) and the past participle (V-ed₂). Most common form for the past and the -ed participle, but there is considerable variation in this respect, as the table shows:

8. **Finite Verb Phrases vs. Non-finite Verb Phrases:**

Table 7: The forms of Irregular

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alike</th>
<th>V-ed₁</th>
<th>V-ed₂</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cut</td>
<td>Cut</td>
<td>Cut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meet</td>
<td>Met</td>
<td>Met</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V-Ved₃</td>
<td>Came</td>
<td>Come</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The difference between a finite Verb and nonfinite Verb form is that a finite Verb is completely inflected. In English Verbs are inflected according to five aspects:
Person: first, second, or third.
Number is singular or plural
Tense: past, present, future, or any of the other tenses.
Mood: indicative, imperative or subjective.
Voice: active or passive.

8.1 Finite Verb Phrases:
A finite verb phrases is a verb phrase in which the first or only word is a finite verb, the rest of the verb phrase consisting of non-finite verbs. Finite verb phrases can be distinguished as follows:
(A) Finite verb phrases can occur as the verb phrases of independent clauses (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990: 41).
(B) Finite verb phrases have tense contrast, i.e. the distinction between present and past tenses.
(C) There is person concord and number concord between the subject of a clause and the finite verb phrase. Concord is particularly clear with the present tense of ‘be’.

\[
\begin{align*}
I \text{ am} & \quad \text{He/she/it is} \\
Here & \\
You \text{ are} & \quad \text{We/they/are}
\end{align*}
\]
But with most full verbs overt concord is restricted to be a contrast between 3rd person singular present and other persons or plural number.

\[
\begin{align*}
He/she/Jim \text{ reads}
\end{align*}
\]
The paper every morning

I/we/they read

With modal auxiliaries there is no overt concord at all:
I/you! she/we/they can play the cello.

(D) Finite verb phrases have mood which indicates the factual,,
nonfactual, or counter factual status of the prediction. It
contrast to
the “unmarked” indicative mood, we distinguish the
“marked” moods imperative (used to express commands and
other directive speech) and subjunctive (used to express a wish
recommendation).

A clause with a finite verb phrases as its V element is called a
“finite verb clause” or tersely a “finite clause”. Similarly, a
clause with a nonfinite verb phrase as its V element is called a
“nonfinite (verb) clause”.

8.2 Nonfinite Verb Phrases:
an infinitive is the uninflected or plain form of the Verb. In
English we usually use the particle “to” when talking or writing
about infinitive run to jump to see to think, to be.

A participle acts as an objective running shoes; broken uase,
lost child; uncold (book) or as the main Verb in a Verb phrase
(the last Verb in the sories of words that make up a Verb
phrase to have run, am walking, had bought, world thinking) a
participle can be either present tense or past tense, but will not
have any of the other four inflections find in finite Verbs.

Agerund is the ing form of a Verb used as a noun. The
gerund form of a Verb look acutely like the present participle,
but they function differently in a sentences.

The gerund will fill a noun Slot (Subject, direct or object
of preposition etc.)

But the participle will be either an adjective or part of a
Verbphrase.
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The infinitive ((to) call), the -in? participle (calling) and the -ed participle (called) are the nonfinite forms of the verbs. Nonfinite verb phrase, such phrases do not normally occur in the verb phrase of an independent clause (Greenbaum and Quirk: ibid.). Compare:
finite verb phrase Nonfinite verb phrase
He smokes To smoke like that must be dangerous.

9. Dynamic vs. Stative Verbs: 9.1 Dynamic Verbs:
A dynamic Verb is one that can be used in the progressive (Continuous) aspect, indicating unfinished action. Dynamic Verbs have duration, that is, they occur over time this time may or may not have a defined endpoint or may not yet have occurred. Dynamic verbs can used in the simple and perfect forms, for Example: plays, played, as well as the continuous or progressive forms: is playing, was playing has been playing,
had been playing.
(1) Activity verbs: abandon, ask, beg, call, drink, eat, help, learn, listen, look at, play, rain, read, say, slice, throw, whisper, work, write', etc.
(2) Process verbs: change, deteriorate, grow, mature, slowdown, widen, etc. Both activity and process verbs are frequently used in progressive aspect to indicate incomplete event in progress.
(3) Verbs of bodily sensation: (ache, feel, hurt, etc.) can have either simple or progressive aspect with little difference in meaning.
(4) Transitional event verbs: (arrive, die, full, lad, leave, lose, etc.) occur in progressive but with a change’ of meaning compared with simple aspect. The progressive implies inception, i.e. only the approach to the transition.
(5) Momentary verbs: (hit, jump, kick, knock, nod, tap, etc.) have little duration and thus the progressive aspect powerfully suggests repetition.
The progressive forms occur only with dynamic that is, with Verbs that shall qualities capable to change as opposed to stative Verbs, with show qualities not capable of change.

9.2 **Stative Verbs:**

The stative form don’t occur with dynamic Verbs, that is, with Verbs that don’t show qualities capable of change. These are stative Verbs, which show qualities not capable of change. For instance, we do not Say. "He is being tall" or He is resembling his mother?, or I am wanting spaghetti for dinner "or" It is belonging me. ‘we would Say, instead: “He is tall," "He resembles his mother " "I want spaghetti ", and "It belongs to me)" The best way to understand the difference between stative and then to build some sentences with them, trying out the progressive form to see if they work or not.

(1) Verbs of inert perception and cognition: abhor, adore, astonish,

believe, desire, detest, dislike, doubt, feel, forgive, guess, hate, hear,

imagine, impress, intend, know, like, love, mean, mind, perceive,

please, prefer, presuppose, realize, recall, recognize, regard

remember, satisfy, see, smell, suppose, taste, think, understand, want,

wish , etc. Some of these verbs may take other than a recipient

subject in which case they belong.

*I think you are right.*

*I am thinking of you all the time.*

(2) Relational verbs: apply of (every one) be, belong to, concern, consist

of, contain, cost, depend on, qual, fit, have, include, involve, lack, matter, need, owe, own, possess, remain, (a bachelor), require,

resemble, seem, sound, suffice, tend, etc.
10. The Extensive Transitive Verbs: 10.1 Monotransitive:

10.1 Noun Phrases as Direct Object:

Direct objects are typically noun phrases. It is usually possible for direct object of an active sentence to become the subject of a passive sentence, with the subject of the active sentence, as the prepositional complement in an optional by-phrase:

*The boy caught the ball - The ball was caught by the boy.*

It is however, usual to omit the by-phrase, often because it is irrelevant or unknown as in:
The Prime Minister was attacked last night during the debate, or because it is redundant in the context, as in:
Jack fought Michael last night and Jack was beaten.

\[
\text{John could see } \begin{cases} \text{Paul} \\ \text{himself} \end{cases} \text{ in the mirror} \]

\[
\text{Paul could be in the mirror} \begin{cases} \text{himself} \\ \text{himself} \end{cases} \]

10.1.2 Finite Clauses as Direct Object

Like finite clause as complementation of adjective phrases. Finite clauses as direct object, may have an indicative verb, putative should, or subjunctive verb, depending on the class of the subordinate verb:

(A) Factual subordinate verb, with indicative superordinate verb:
They agree that she is pretty,
(B) Emotive verb, with indicative verb or putative should:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{I regret that} & \quad \text{she should worry about it.} \\
& \quad \text{she worries about it.}
\end{align*}
\]

(C) Volitional verb, with subjunctive verb or should (not clearly differentiated between its putative and obligational uses:

\[
\begin{align*}
I \text{ proposed that he} & \quad \text{should admit all applicants.} \\
& \quad \text{admit all applicants.}
\end{align*}
\]

### 10.1.3 Nonfinite Clauses as Direct Object:

Among nonfinite clauses as direct object, we distinguish between those with a subject and those without a subject, and within each type between infinitive and participle clauses.

#### Table 8: The Realizations of O.d as Non finite clause

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Without subject</th>
<th>To-infinitive</th>
<th>He likes to talk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Ing participle</td>
<td>He like talking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With subject</td>
<td>Infinitive</td>
<td>To-infinitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Bare infinitive</td>
<td>He saw her come</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-ing participle</td>
<td>He saw her coming</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-ed participle</td>
<td>He found the seats taken</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 10.2 Complex Transitive:

#### 10.2.1 To-infinitive Clauses with Subject:

Two clauses of verbs have to be distinguished factual and nonfactual. Factual as in:
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John believes that stranger to be a policeman. Non-factual as in:
John intended that Mary should sing an aria.

10.2.2 -ing Participle Clauses with Subject:
Verbs taking an -ing participle clause fall into two clauses: those which permit the subordinate subject to be genitive (predominantly emotive verbs with personal nouns or pronouns).

I dislike him! She driving my car.

10.2.3 -ed Participle Clauses with Subject:
We can distinguish between three types of construction involving -ed participle with subject consative, volitional verb:
He got the watch repaired.
Factual verb expressing an event:
He saw the watch stolen.
Factual verb expressing a current state:
He found the watch stolen.

10.2.4 Verbless Clauses with Subject:
With complementation by verbless clauses, we can also see underlying "b" classes:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{that John is a good driver} \\
\text{John to be a good driver} \\
\text{John a good driver}
\end{align*}
\]

11. Ditransitive Complementation:
Ditransitive Verb is a Verb which takes a subject and two objects which refers. To a recipient and a theme. According to certain linguistic considerations, these objects may be called direct and indirect, or primary and secondary. This in contrast to monotransitive Verbs which take only one object, a direct object.
11.1 Noun Phrase as Both Indirect Object and Direct Object:
Ditransitive complementation involves two object that are not in intensive relationship indirect object (normally animate) which is positioned first, and direct object (normally concrete)

He gave the girl a doll.

11.2 Noun Phrases as Indirect Object + Finite Clauses as Direct Object:
With some verbs the indirect object is obligatory:
John convinced me that he was right.
- John convinced that he was right. With other verbs, it can be omitted:
John showed me that he was honest.
- John showed that he was honest

11.3 Noun Phrase as Indirect Object + Non Finite Clause as Direct Object:
There is superficial similarity between certain complex transitive and ditransitive, example:
He persuaded Mary to teach Bob.
The difference can be seen when the subordinate clause is made passive:
He wanted Bob to be taught by Mary.
He persuaded Bob to be taught by Mary.

12. Intensive Verbs:
Intensive Verb
Intensive verb are commonly know as liking Verb, or Coupler Verbs. They have the following structure : Subject liking Verb + Subject Complement. The Subject Complement can be a noun (ie a predicate nominal) an adjective (i.e predicate

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A verb has copular complementation when it is followed by a subject complement or a predication adjunct and when this element cannot be dropped without changing the meaning of the verb. Such verbs are copular verbs, the most common of which is the copular be.

Copular verbs fall into two main classes according to whether the subject complement has the role of current attribute or resulting attribute.

Current: The girl seemed very restless.
Resulting: The girl becomes very restless.

The most common copular verbs are listed below, those that are used only with objective phrases are followed.

12.2 Predicative Adjuncts:

The only copula that allows an adverbial as complementation is to be the adverbials, termed predicative adjuncts in this function are mainly place adjuncts.

*The children are at the zoo./............. Are outside.*

but time adjunct are also common with an eventive subject:

*The party will beat nine o‘clock./............. will be tonight.*

other types of predicative adjuncts:

*The eggs are for you.* (recipient adjunct)
*The drink are for journey,* (purpose adjunct)
*The increase in food prices this year was because of the drought,* (cause adjunct)
*Transport to the mainland is by ferry,* (mean adjunct)

(b) The subjunctive or putative should is used with adjectives expressing volition:

e.g. (anxious, eager, willing):

be

\[
\{ \text{be} \} \\
\{ \text{٦٦١} \}
\]
I am anxious that he should be permitted to resign

(c) The indicative or putative *should* is used with emotive adjectives (e.g.: angry, annoyed, glad, pleased, surprised). The indicative is chosen when the that-clause is intended to refer to an event as a established fact.

The following pairs illustrate the choice.

I (that) you have to leave so early

I am sorry (that) you should have been (so) unconvinc

13. **Simple vs. Multi-Word Verbs:**

13.1 **Simple (One Word) Verbs:**
Verbs in English can also be classified into simple vs. multi-word. This classification is also important because some verbs are composed of more than one item working as one unit:

*He went over his paper again*, (review)

Simple (one word) verbs are the most common type in English, while those multi-word are restricted in number, carrying different or the same meaning: e.g.

*He went over his paper*, (multi-word verb)

*He went over the hill*, (simple verb).

13.2 **Multi Word Verbs:**
Phrasal Verb are part of a large group of Verbs called “multi-words” phrasal Verbs and other multi- word Verbs are an part of the English language Multi- word Verb is a Verb like “pick up” turn important on or get on with for convenience, may people refer to all multi-word Verbs as. These Verbs consist of a basic Verb another word or words .The other word (s) can be
The two or three words that make up multi-word Verbs form a short “phrase” which is why these Verbs are often all called “phrasal Verbs”.

The two main categories of multi-word verbs consist of a lexical verb plus a particle, a neutral designation for the overlapping categories of adverb and preposition that are used in such combination. In phrasal verbs the particle is an adverb (e.g.: drink up, find out) and prepositional verbs. It is a preposition (e.g.: dispose of cope with).

In addition, there are phrasal-prepositional verbs with verbs with two particles, an adverb followed by a prepositional (e.g.: put up with), and types of multi-word verbs that do not consist of lexical verbs followed simply by particles (e.g.: cut short, put paid to) (Leech et al., 2001:392).

There is not a sharp boundary between multi-word verbs and free combination, where the parts have distinct meanings. Rather there is a gradience ranging from idiomatic and syntactically cohesive combinations to combinations that are loosely connected. Consider the following examples:

*He lives on rice these days*, (multi-word)

\[
\text{S} \quad \text{V} \quad 0
\]

*He lives on uninhabited island.* (simple)

\[
\text{S} \quad \text{V} \quad \text{A}
\]
14. Conclusions:

This research reflects the following points:

1. There are many criteria that can be adopted by grammarians to classify verbs in English.
2. Some of these criteria seem logical in classification verbs on the semantic point of view (finite vs. nonfinite). Other verbs might be tackled on the bases of their semantic implications (lexical vs. auxiliaries).
3. Morphologically speaking, verbs can be classified into regular vs. irregular.
4. Another criterion is classifying verbs into simple, i.e. one-word verbs or multi-word, i.e. phrasal, prepositional and phrasal prepositional verbs.
5. With reference to the complementation of the verb in English, the concept intensive vs. extensive is another important criterion.

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M.M. نشوة عبد الله جار الله

يهدف هذا البحث إلى اعتماد بعض المعايير لتصنيف الأفعال في اللغة الإنجليزية إذ يعتمد على مجموعة من التصنيفات المتعددة في تعليم وتدريس الأفعال في اللغة الإنجليزية، وبالتالي تمكن الباحث والتعلم والدارس من بناء جمل اللغة الإنجليزية بشكل صحيح، ولعل أبرز التصنيفات هي الأفعال الرئيسية والأفعال المساعدة.

أضاف إلى ذلك الأفعال الجامدة والحركية، والأفعال القياسية والأفعال الشاذة من ناحية أخرى، فيتناول البحث الأفعال ذات الكلمتين والتي تعرف بـ Multi – Word والتي تشكل عقبة أمام المتعلمين العراقيين للغة الإنجليزية في المرحلة الثانوية، والجامعية، ويعد البحث مسحاً بنوياً للفعل في اللغة الإنجليزية بالاعتماد على بعض المعايير الشائعة في تصنيف الأفعال.