



To comprehensively define the concept of complement, it is used "to refer to a major constituent of sentence or clause structure, traditionally associated with 'completing' the action specified by the verb" (Crystal, 1997, 26). Hence the verb or a predicate comes as a core element within a clause. This in turn demands the completion of the expression using other elements. Thus, complement is a broad notion, which includes the mandatory characteristics of the predicate other instead of those of the verb, e.g. objects (e.g. She locked her cupboard) and adverbial (e.g. It is over the sky). The researcher assumes teaching students about verb complementation regardless of maintaining the semantic side, would be inappropriate. Yet, verb complementation heavily relies on meaning-driven. That is to say, verbs have specific semantic properties that assist us on the proper complementation to be chosen. Therefore, the pedagogical logic is occurred to emphasize the sematic features of verbs by noticing the dependent relations, which occur between them and the acceptable complementation structures. For instance, verbs such as *help*, *prevent*, *begin*, and *start*, which can represent the case of verb complementation. The use of verb complementation is not absolute of errors, which are common grammatical issues among EFL students on all educational levels. This paper examines the students' (the Iraqi EFL) ability to recognize to use English verb complementation. Using a formal rule may slightly help the students to make use of it to comprehend the rule theoretically and practically. However, for instance, to avoid structures like (*Layla avoids to make mistakes). It undoubtedly seems odd. Yet, many learners prefer it to be operated on the economic principle.

Keywords: Exploring, Iraqi, EFL, Recognition, Use, Verb, Complementation.

الملخص

لتعريف مفهوم المُكمِّل بشكل شامل، يتم استعماله "للإشارة إلى مكوّن رئيس للجملة أو بنية الجملة، المرتبطة تقليديًا ب" إكمال "الإجراء المحدَّد بواسطة الفعل" (Crystal)، Crystal). ومن ثم يأتي الفعل أو المُسند بوصفه عنصرًا أَساسيًا داخل الجملة، وهذا بدوره يتطلَّب إكمال التعبير باستعمال عناصر أُخرى، ومن ثُمَّ فإنَّ التكملة هي فكرة واسعة النطاق؛ إذ تشمل الخصائص الإلزاميَّة للمسند الآخر بدلاً من تلك الخاصة بالفعل، فعلى سبيل المثال: الأشياء (أُعلقت دولابها)، والظرف (إنَّها فوق السماء)، ويفترض على الباحث أن يُعلِّم الطلاب تكميل الفعل بصرف النظر عن الحفاظ على المثال: الأشياء (أُعلقت دولابها)، والظرف (إنَّها فوق السماء)، ويفترض على الباحث أن يُعلِّم الطلاب تكميل الفعل بصرف النظر عن الحفاظ على الجانب الدلاليّ، وسيكون غير مناسب، ومع ذلك فإنَّ تكملة الفعل تعتمد بشكل كبير على المعنى، وهذا يعني والوفاية، والنذر عن الحفاظ على الجانب الدلاليّ، وسيكون غير مناسب، ومع ذلك فإنَّ تكملة الفعل تعتمد بشكل كبير على المعنى، وهذا يعني والوفاية، والبده، التي عمل ملاطة العلاقات التبعية، التي تحدث بينها وبين الهياكل التكميلية المقبولة، وعلى سبيل المثال: الأفعال المساعدة، والوقاية، والبده، التي يمكن أن تمثل حالة تكملة الفعل، وأنَّ استعمال تكميل الفعل ليس مطلقًا للأخطاء، وهي قضايا نحويَّ شاعة بين طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية بوصفها لغة أُجنبية في جميع المستويات التعليميَّة.وتبحث هذه الورقة في قدرة طلاب (اللغة الإنجليزية بوصفها لغة أُجنبية) والوقاية، والبده، التي يمكن أن تمثل حالة تكملة الفعل، وأنَّ استعمال تكميل الفعل ليس مطلقًا للأخطاء، وهي قضايا نحويَّ شاعة بين طلاب والوقاية، والبده، التي يمكن أن تمثل حالة تكملة الفعل، وأنَّ استعمال تكميل الفعل ليس مطلقًا للأخطاء، وهي قضايا نحويَّ شاعة بين طلاب والوقاية، والبده، التي يمكن أن متل حالة تكملة الفعل، وأنَّ استعمال تكميل الفعل ليس مطلق اللأخطاء، وهي قضايا نحويًة شاعة بين طلاب والوقاية، والبده، التي يمكن أن متمل حالة مكمي الفعل وأن التعملييَّة.وتبحث هذه الورقة في قدرة طلاب (اللغة الإنجليزية بوصفها لغة أُجنبية) والوقاية، والبده، التعمال تكميل الفعل الإنجليزي، فقد يساعد استعمال قاعدة رسميَّة الطلاب قليلاً في الاستفادة منها؛ لفهم القاعدة نظريًا وعمليًا ولتحرف الولي علي المامان ألميان الوقوع في الأُخطاء)، فبلا

Introduction

Grammatical errors in English are somehow not easy to be located due to the matter is normally that of a form, a pattern or a complete grammatical structure that is used by being mainstream of speakers. These kinds of errors occur in the rate of use English language. This case is a typical when we talk about verb complementation. This means that their preference is the shorter forms, such as the to-infinitive or gerund, resulting in errors such as **Tom proposed them to stay*. A theory that is established by Austin (1962) by which Vendler (1967, 1972) is followed in which the linguistic belief can be distinguished as independently occurring form grammar that will be gone. Such a belief happens because of Vendler has created the meaning of categories based on speech act.

Definition of a Complement

Though scholars have differently viewed the notion 'complement', Quirk et al. (1985, 65), set his definition of 'complementation' as a "function of a part of a phrase or clause which *follows* a word, and completes the specification of a meaning relationship which that word implies". While Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 215), have much more comprehensively viewed the notion of complement as being regarded subject position elements as complements too, since "they have important affinities with the object and other complements". The approach of Quirk et al. (1985) can be described by extending the projection principle,





consistent with which all sentences have to have their own subjects irrespective of the verb itself. (Haegerhan 1994).

Methodology

The current study tries to figure out a kind of response concerning recognition and use of verb complementations that exist in forms of verbs theoretically along with an explanation of the impacts apparent in such verbs. Such a step is carried out using the traditional approach, in which the lexical matter is regarded, yet there are other approaches that can be used to describe verbal complementation. The syntactic side of verb complementation is described as well, and the other types of complements are considered according to their meaning-content linked with the linguistic types that come in the structures under study, (i.e. *to*-infinitive & gerund-participle). The lexical matter of the varied verbs is considered as well. All these variables along with the semantic value of the role carried out by the complement in association with the main verb.

Review of Literature

As a starting point, establishing the categories of commissives happen to predict that the tracking of these verbs will occur as they follow the infinitival complement (Vendler ,1972). He then has stated a class of expositives which occur with *'that-clause complements'*. The analysis offered by Vendler succeeds to express its focus, nevertheless, Vendler himself fails to track it through. An example for that, Vendler's ignorance to refer that commissives can occur with *'that-clause complements'* as shown below:

1. He (promises) to see his friend by next week.

This shows that Vendler's scheme is inadequate as he offers his understanding as why his expositives are associated with '*that-clause complement*' and the reason behind the commissives to be followed by infinitival complements. However, Vendler does not give a proper description by which his group of commissives comes both with the infinitival and *that-clause complements*. With this in mind, it might be wise to look at the meaning of the complements themselves and try to correlate them with the meaning of the higher verbs to see if some sort of an explanation can be found for why some complements occur with some verbs and not with others. Rosenbaum (1967:28) see the variation between the gerundive complement and the infinitival one occur as *-ing* of the complementizer is the progressive *-ing* justifying his claim in the following: (2) and (3).

- 2. She sensed a wire rope slide over her arm.
- **3.** She sensed a wire sliding over her arm.

These sentences well-exemplify the point discussed above. However, it is adequate for sentences that have a variation of in meaning between those of the infinitival complement as well as the gerundive one as in the following examples below: (4) through (5).

- **4.** I stopped going to the movies.
- 5. I stopped to go to the movies.

These abovementioned examples might have a reference to of the progressive found in the gerundive complement. Yet, it is obvious that there exists much bigger difference between what is meant by the gerundive complement and the infinitival one as compared with the progressive sign as for an *-ing*. Bolinger (1968) has established the difference between the position of some English verbs as some of them can be placed with the gerundive complement and others with the infinitival one. He states that,

"It seems to follow that the obligatory transformation by which *want* embeds an infinitive after it whereas relish embeds an -ing is actually a case of semantic compatibility. Verbs such as *want*, *wish*, *hope*, *expect*, *command*, etc. apply to unrealized possibilities; the complement that goes normally with them is the infinitive. Verbs such as *enjoy*, *visualize*, *detest*, *understand*, *deny*, *approve*, etc. usually apply to actualities or possibilities conceived as actualities – literally or metaphorically they reify the action; their normal complements are –ing. (p: 127).

In addition to Bolinger's explanation, Wood (1956) has commented that very contradictory viewpoint of Bolinger's sounds accepted, stating that:

"The gerund denotes something more general, the infinitive something more specific. Contrast I don't like writing the papers (expression of general dislike) and I don't like to write the papers (on a particular occasion or subject). It is true that a general sense may sometimes attach to the infinitive, but usually as a succession or a recurrence of a specified fact or situation." (p: 11).





According to Wood's analysis, the gerundive complement differs in meaning with the infinitival complement, which can represent a matter which is settled with some measure of agreement. It can also be said that some verbs can take the gerundive complement instead of the infinitival one, while others can take both types of complements (i.e. gerundive complement and infinitival complement).

It can be said that Bolinger's analysis can lead to the possible semantic explanation by which some of the verbs in the complement's structure can use double semantic characteristics that allow an exact description of the explicit meaning. This meaning can be applied to guess the existence of the gerundive complement and the infinitival one with these verbs. This article – by scope – will cover the set categories of verb complements:

(A) Verbs that have [+ IDENTITY] and [+ GERUNDIVE] due to occurrence of the gerundive complement. The subject in the complement part as well as the main part have to match:

6. She dislikes seeing the same place daily (she dislikes that) (She sees the same place daily) (B) Verbs that have [-IDENTITY] and [- GERUNDIVE] due to the occurrence of the gerundive complement do not allow matching subjects in the complement part and the main one as well:

7. He watched her coming back a day ago. (He watched that) (He comes back home a day ago). (C) Verbs that have [-IDENTITY] and [+ INFINITIVAL] as matching subjects are not allowed in the complement part and the main one, however the infinitival complement is not required. He encourages her to see the doctor. (He encourages that) (He goes to the doctor.)

Here, characteristics such as [* IDENTITY], [* INFINITIVAL] and (– GERUNDIVE) will be treated as variables. In an attempt taken to associate these characteristics with the basic underlying semantic features attached to verbs. These features are concluded from Rosenbaum (1967) and Frank (1975). It can be said that such features were recognized to associate the basic meaning-based structure of the verbs with their distribution with the complements mentioned-above.

(D) [*AFFIRMATIVE], this feature exists as it is found in Lakoff's study (1969:611) in the coming example below (i).

8. We advise her that, if she uses *some / any chemicals, we'll help her.

As proposed by Seuren (1972:253) verbs have "a negative connotation". This article as well aims to examine the recognition as well as the use to verb complements in which whether a verb is 'inherently negative' (signed by [- AFFIRMATIVE]), some/any flexibility may be found in the complement part. Therefore, verbs such as *neglect* would have features like [- AFFIRMATIVE] as it can have both '*some* and *any*' in the complement part, in which *neglect* occurs as the higher verb (i) and (j). At the same time, not to forget that in (l) and (m) would have features like [-AFFIRMATIVE] as '*some*' can only be found in complement part where '*remember*' can dominate it.

9. (23) He neglected to have any rest this morning.

- **10.** (24) He neglected to have some rest this morning.
- 11. (25) He remembered to have any rest this morning.
- **12.** (26) He remembered to have some rest this morning.

It can be said that, semantically negative verbs, that have [- AFFIRMATIVE]) do not act similar to verbs associated with ones that are syntactically marked negative with not. As a result, Hust has rightly agreed on disproving Lakoff's attempts to show that '*dissuade*' looks like '*persuade not*'.

Vendler (1972:35) carries on that this technique of grouping verbs together such as *decide*, *resolve*, *choose* and *elect* as a group of resolutive verbs, where complements with their verbs can be distributed. Moreover, some other rules can be associated with syntactic features to apprehend the consistencies of the current research. Features are applicable such as those of Weinreich's system that can be applied as follows: (1) a semantic calculator which scans feature matrices and (2) writes features onto feature matrices. These rules would assign features (Weinreich's "transfer features") to the matrices of the verbs to be related to the features that specify the nature of the complements.

Rules of Classifying Verbs:

1. Rule One

According to this rule, it is stated that whatever elements with the group of verbs can have a '*verbal complements*' and [+ CAUSATION] would be marked [- IDENTITY]. This is a signal that such verbs can have an object followed by a complement. Such verbs can have (+ OBSERVATIVE] to involve verbs like '*see, watch, hear*, and the like. This means that when the verb's action affects a person instead of affecting its subject, there has to be an object before the complement as in (14).





13. She told her friend to come to the shop.

This group of verbs has a general rule, by which verbs can have [- OBSERVATIVE], in which a subgroup has to exist to limit these verbs' acts in reference to this phenomenon. With these verbs, an object has to precede the complement. (15).

14. He saw her come to the mall.

Rule 2

It is the opposite of the previous rule, it is stated that by which verbs can affect the subject of the main verb, where a surface object is not required.

15. They stopped to come to the mall.

Regardless of what is stated in this rule, there exist some problems associated with the assignment of the feature [* CAUSATION]. Particularly speaking, some verbs, such as *hate* in (35), can come with or without the surface object as in (35).

16. a. he hates swimming in the sea.

b. He hates her swimming in the sea. I hate him going with another man's wife.

In this situation, it was decided to allocate verbs such as *hate* in (17. b) the feature [-CAUSATION]; which may be essential for varied characteristics to be allocated to these verbs and to be specified as with the verbs having [- OBSERVATIVE].

2. **Rule 3**

According to this rule, it is stated that verbs expressing an action that is not verified in sentences with, however it requires the infinitival complement as in (18).

17. I long to go to the beach in Florida.

Here, it can be noted that three verbs are found as exceptions to this rule. These verbs are *force, compel* and *coerce*. Also, their separation forms the other non-exceptional items by the context [- COERCION] and [- ACTUALITIJ].

18. I (compelled) her come but she didn't do it.

3. **Rule 4**

According to this rule, a certain phenomenon is linked with a number of dissimilar complement-taking verbs, which are those verbs that have [-AFFIRMATIVE] and require the gerundive complement though it believed to require the infinitival complement. In a much similar way, some verbs having [+ACTUALITY] and would require the gerundive complement and also having [-AFFIRMATIVE] and would require the gerundive complement as a like '*regret*, having [+ MEMORY], *stop from*, and *quit* having [+ INITIATION], *despise*, and *loathe*, having [-PATHOS], and *dislike* and *hate*, as having [+ PREFERENCE]. Yet, verbs such as *be afraid of* and *hate* can require the infinitival complement. See the example below: (20).

19. I (love) to go to the movies.

4. **Rule 5**

According to this rule, verbs that require the gerundive complement are assigned in this rule, which can be shown as follows: Firstly, this rule involves all verbs having [+ PATHOS] - *enjoy, appreciate, relish, despise, detest,* and *loathe.* Secondly, verbs having [+ OBSERVATIVE] are also included such as *see, watch, observe, hear,* and *look at.* Thirdly, the group of verbs having [- PREFERENCE], those that are also having [+ ACTUALITY] require the gerundive complement.

It is possible to say that all of the verbs within this group can similarly go in line with each other, however, the difference will be in their complements: (21).

20. a. He (dislikes) to see the forest on Saturday.

21. b. She (loves) him seeing the forest on Saturday. c. I (love) to see the forest on Saturday.

22. d. He (loves) her to see the forest on Saturday.

It seems that sentence (21.d) of the verb *love* is ungrammatical as it is lowly restricted. It can be wellexpressed like: *I would love for her to see the forest on Saturday*, which looks much acceptable as compared with the one lacking the *for-to*. Anyhow, to have the elements of the group come together along with the gerundive complement [- ACTUALITY] would look valid.

1. Complementation in English

Randolph Quirk et al,1972, in *Grammar of Contemporary English* have set the division of the predicate into four parts, namely, verb, complement, object and adverbial. These parts are marked as (V, C, O, and A) in addition to (S) the subject and they set up parts, which structure the sentence. For instance:



- a) Tom [S] cautiously [A] looked into [V] his store [O].
- b) That man [S] was [V] the lecturer [C] at the faculty [A].
- c) Her sister [S] became [V] sadder [C] slowly [A].
- d) The rain [S] fell [V] increasingly [A] during the week [A].
- e) She [S] has elected [V] her sister [O] a manger [O].
- f) He [S] chooses [S] her [O] a headmistress [C] yearly [A].

For the complement part, it has its division into subject and object complement. As for the subject complement, it can be shown as follows:

- g) He is nowadays a lecturer (Cs) at the new faculty.
- h) Her father got sadder (Cs) slowly.

The examples above that complements are directly related to their subjects within the same sentences. To clarity this point, in (g) the subject came as being *a man lecturer* as well as the subject in (h) *a sadder father*. While the object complement can be said to be directly related to the direct object, the subject complement has to a subject. This point can be clearly shown in (i).

i) He makes her a mistress (Co) yearly. There are three types of verbs which have no complementation. To distinguish between them as follows:

A. 'Pure' verbs that are intransitives, without an object: (j). Their classmates have come back. Verbs, that are either transitive or intransitive, that slightly differ in meaning or in subject-verb association: (k) She eats (apples) daily.

B. Verbs, which are either transitive or intransitive, however both meaning and subject-verb relationships are slightly different.

(l) She grew potatoes for living.

The Traditional Approach

Verb complementation can be explained by using three approaches. The first one takes into account the lexical side to lessen it to a question of collocation. This approach directly considers to recognize what a verb implies. Other considerations are to recognize the dependent relations that are found between a specific verb as well as the parts that complement it. This approach has a shortcoming in which there are almost 40 different admissible structures, which can be linked to different types of verb. Graver (1986, pp. 142-161) has offered his classification of verbs:

First Class: Verbs-gerund. (He stopped committing faults).

In this class, (63) other verbs are found, such as (*admit, avoid, enjoy*, etc.) and this class has two shortcomings. The first one is that many verbs are to be remembered. The second on is that many of the verbs could have a complementation as a *that-clause* (propose) plus a gerund.

Second Class: Verbs-to-infinitive, (He offered to visit).

This class includes (47) verbs, such as (*agree, decide, claim, offer*, etc.). In this class, why some verbs have complements in one way as compared with other ones, which is not explained.

Third Class: Verbs-noun + to-infinitive. (*He obliged her to approve*).

Within this class, (44) verbs there, which include verbs like (control) verbs, such as (*cause, instruct, force, oblige*, etc.) These verbs share one feature, which is all of them are: subject + verb + noun + infinitive, kind of pattern. Among these verbs are (*persuade* and *convince*) can have a *that-clause* formula, (*She persuaded him that the plane was taking off*).

This class has a shortcoming, which it is unable to see the unity found in it. It cannot assist the user to recognize the semantic meaning of a certain sentence, such as (*John obliged Tom to go up there*).

Fourth Class: Verbs-infinitive, with or without a noun before. (Everybody *assisted (her) to prepare the party)*. This class includes (12), however, many of them could have complementation of a *that-clause*. Though a user can now them, but they do not enable him/her to differentiate between sentences:

1) He dared to dive in the river.

2) He dared me to dive in the river.

Fifth Class: Verbs-gerund/infinitive, (I love to run/ running.)

Within this class, there exist (36) verbs. Yet, every one of these verbs co-occurs with only one of three infinitive possibilities: (i.e. infinitives with no noun before (*She refused to say her address*), (infinitives + a noun + infinitive (They let me use their bike), and (infinitives with no noun before, She hates (him) to mock Suzan). It can be said that, this class of verbs could have a complementation of a *that-clause*.





Sixth Class: Verbs + a noun + present participle/infinitive with no to, (*She watched the boys top* (*stopping*) a taxi. In this class (8) verbs are found, and are called as (perception verbs) such as (*feel, hear, notice, observe, perceive, see, sense, watch*). These verbs as well require an infinitive with no 'to', (She noticed me sit there) refers to a full action here, whereas the –ing participle (She noticed me sitting there) refers an action that is in progress.

Seventh Class: Verbs + **a that-clause** (*He distinguished that Paris is so luxurious place.* There are 32 such verbs, including assume, believe, declare, think, etc. Some that-clauses can be paraphrased with the 'accusative and infinitive' construction. e.g. They found his ideas to be very useful. The main point here is that learners face difficulty to master these types of verbs in regard to their complementations as mentioned earlier. It is apparent that the emphasis of teaching may limit to the verbs that are useful with a specified use. An emphasis on form tends to be careful and is restricted to a specific objective. It is frequently possible that verbs are affected by means of language awareness instead of the direct instruction. The problem firstly faced in a significant context is that verb form and role seen and that its significant characteristics to be emphasized on.

Verbs and Grammatical Shift

Greenbaum (1986, 6) stated that "[o]ver a period of fifty or so years, grammatical change manifests itself largely in the increased frequency of some variants over others, [...] and in differences in the grammatical treatment of individual words. These changes spread gradually across the whole speech community, sometimes taking several generations before they become conspicuous."

As a result, to examine a certain word as well as its use within period of several centuries, leads to the contribution to people's to comprehend how verbs are complemented with regard to linguistic shift over the years. Besides, shedding light on corpus linguistics to those find an interest in the idea of this study. To be added, searching in this area is worthy to be carried as it is very important to tackle future visions for an English language teacher. As for learners Liu and Jiang (2009, 61) have stated that "improved command of lexico-grammar, increased critical understanding of grammar, and enhanced discovery learning skills" when "integrating corpus and contextualized lexico-grammar in foreign and second language teaching". Hence, corpus linguistics can be a very beneficial association as pedagogical methods are implemented to an English language teacher.

Complements to be Distinguished from Adjuncts

For Somers (1984) a distinction between complements and adjuncts can be according to a number of principles and examinations to be considered in the distinction, which can be illustrated as follows:

A. Licensing

Huddleston and Pullum (2002) state that licensing is the principle of complements within a sentence. Complements – in general – in a sentence "require the presence of an appropriate verb that licenses them" (p, 219). Verbs according to this principle tends to select a specific kinds of complements, which are termed as *subcategorization*: the verb *subcategorizes for* or *selects* its own complement (Haegeman 1994, 42). For instance: (m) and (n) below from Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 219) show this situation as follows:

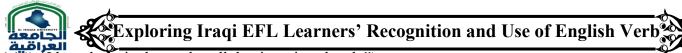
(m)a.Shementionedtheletter.b.*Shealludedtheletter.(n)a.She thought him unreliable.b.*She said him unreliableb.*She said him unreliable

Example (n), *'mention'* as a verb, licenses an object, but *allude in* (m) does not (Huddleston & Pullum 2002, 219). In (n), *'think'* licenses an object + 'predicative complement' (*unreliable*), whereas '*say'* in (n) does not (ibid.). According to the difference in the type of complement selected by the verb, verbs can have a division of various classes. However, an elementary division can be according to the basics of transitivity – (i.e. intransitive, monotransitive and ditransitive verbs) which require zero, one or two complements.

Obligatoriness

Huddleston and Pullum (2002) state that "obligatoriness distinguishes complements from adjuncts". (p: 221), This is so, since complements may come in a form of obligation, yet adjuncts always come in the form of an option. To make it clearer, to license means *allowing* a certain pattern, whereas obligate means *requiring* it (ibid.). Quirk et al. (1985, 52) somewhat differ in this point claiming that there are adverbials that can come if a form of obligation, such as *in the garden* in example (o) below (ibid.). Having argued that '*in the garden*' is "equivalent to adverbials in meaning" (ibid). for example, (to answer the question *Where*? though it is like to complements that act as an obligation coming after the verb *be*", which can be treated as an ungrammatical in (o) below.





(o) "a. I have been in the garden all the time since lunch."

'b. *I have been all the time since lunch.'

Herbst (2009, 55) has set the relation between complements and adjuncts as he points out that it is firmly speaking to realize the obligatory part instead of the complement in use. As a result, both complements and adjuncts can have their analysis according to their level of obligatoriness (Huddleston & Pullum 2002, 221): **Position**

To distinguish complements from adjuncts, it is recommended to experience the sequence of the sentence parts. For Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 225), complements are more restricted than adjuncts in terms of position within a sentence. They show this in the examples below:

(p) "a. We played tennis in the afternoon." "b. In the afternoon we played tennis."(q) "a. He gave the beer to Kim." "b. To Kim he gave the beer."

However, the sentences above are grammatically formed, in (p) it is uncommon as compared to (q) which is more limited with the given contexts. While the adjunct *in the afternoon* in (p) can be easily used in both of them. Therefore, it can sad that adjuncts are more mobile in a sentence when it comes to complements.

Types of Verb Complementation

Form all above, verbs can be classified according to the position by which a complementation can occur. These classes can be illustrated as follows:

- A. Intensive
- B. Monotransitive
- C. Ditransitive
- D. Complex transitive

In the coming part, the examples given below are for each type of complementation:

A. Intensive Complementation:

- A1. NP. Complement, (1) Jim was a clever student.
- A2. Adv. Complement, (2) She was a headmistress two years ago.
- Adj. Phrase Complement
- A3. Adjective Ph. Complement with no Post-modification: (3) Jim was (so) nice.
- A4. Adjective Ph. with Prep. Ph. post-modification: (4) She was excellent at English.
- A5. With finite clause Post-modification: (5) They were certain that she was there.
- A6. With to- infinitive Post-modification: (6) She was fine to go.

B. Monotransitive Complementation:

- B1. NP. Objects: (1) Girls took the food.
- B2. Prep. Objects: (2) She emphasized her voice.
- B3. Finite-Clause Objects: (3) He supposes that she shall be listening.
- B4. Non-Finite Clause Objects:
- A. *To*-infinitive with no Subject: (4) Suzan missed to do her tasks.
- B. -ing participle with not Subject: (5) Tony started laughing in the class.
- C. To-infinitive with Subject: (6) He informed her to visit a friend.
- D. Bare infinitive with Subject: (7) He knew her come.
- E. -ing participle with Subject: (8) She hates her looting things.
- F. -ed participle with Subject: (8) Police discovered the crime.

C. Ditransitive Complementation:

- C1. Indirect + direct noun phrase object: (1) She handed the boy s toy.
- C2. Direct + Prepositional object: (2) They We likened her with her sisters.
- C3. Noun phrase + finite clause object: (3) I persuade her she is right.

D. Complex Transitive Complementation:

- D1. Object + Noun phrase complement: (1) He treated him as a classmate.
- D2. Object + Preposition + Noun Phrase complement: (2) We knew her as an example.
- D3. Object + Adjective phrase complement: (3) He dyed the room red.
- D4. Object + Prepositional adjective phrase complement: (4) I gave her a gift.

Test and Participants

For the current research, the details of the test and participants will be as follows:





The test involved two parts, the first one was as follows: '*Choose the correct alternative from the following sentences*'. It also involved (TEN) items of MCQ questions in order to check students' ability to recognize the targeted verbs and their complementations. While the second question was as follows: '*Fill in the blanks with suitable complements*'. This same question involved (TEN) items to check students' ability to use the proper complementation that suits the targeted verbs.

Once again, the first question dealt with the cases where complementation occurs, in which (4) forms of complementations were identified, which:

Q1: Choose the correct alternative from the following sentences:

(A) Intensive, this form of verb has the following sentence:

Mark carefully looked into -----. (a. her house. b. store. c. up)

(B) Monotransitive, has the following sentence:

This lady is a ----- in the hospital. (a. nurse. b. important. c. working).

(*C*) Ditransitive, to have this sentence:

His mother becomes ------ gradually. (a. happier. b. in. c. there).

(D) Complex transitive with the following sentence:

Dad goes ------ to Baghdad. (a. many time. b. never. c. not).

While the rest of verbs have their own description and examples as shown below as well as Appendix (1).

- *He has chosen ----- a director. (a. her. b. here. c. there).*
- She elects me a ----- every year. (a. back. b. year. c. headmaster).
- Her manager has ----- (a. is. b. car. c. noisy).
- *He eats ----- a day. (a. an apple. b. coffee. c. house).*
- I grow ------ for sale. (a. tomatoes. b. living. c. down).
- *My grandfather was ----- in the army. (a. technician. b. import. c. easily).*

Followed by the second question that is concerned with the cases where complementation occurs, which:

Q2: Fill in the blanks with suitable complements.

- 1) Marry the nurse cared for -----.
- 2) That old man grows -----.
- 3) *Her friend is ----- slowly.*
- 4) David goes ----- to the UK.
- 5) They have been elected -----.
- 6) *He chooses you as a ----- yearly.*
- 7) The headmistress was ------ already.
- 8) I have a green ----- daily.
- 9) Tom grew ----- for hearing good news. sale.
- 10) Sally is ----- in the art team.

The descriptions and details of the types of complementations presented in the above-mentioned examples are well-illustrated in the literature as well as Appendix (1).

Participants

Participants in the current study are UG students, (Fourth Stage) Department of English Language, College of Arts - University of Mosul for the Academic Year 2021-2022. The number of these participants are (40) male and females – Morning Studies in the above-said department. The research has distributed the test to answered using google link format in order to easily reach them and to save time. The test includes (20) sentences to be answered, which are divided between two separate question. The first question focuses on the recognition of the suitable verb complementation, while the second one focuses on the use of suitable verb complementation.

A total number of (35) participants answered to the questions included in the link posted for them. Whereas the rest (5) participants did not answer at all.

Discussion

It appears from the number of students who have answered the posted questions and those who have not done so that these students faced difficulty, which has differed among them depending on their previous knowledge concerning forms of verbs and their complementations.



The way these participants have answered the set questions largely depended on their way of translating the sentences as well as the MCQs in the first questions. The same procedure has been carried out concerning the second question; in which they have translated the sentences first to have the ability to remember the suitable verb to be used in the blank. This is shown in Table (1) in which the number of the participants as well as number of the answered questions and those that are ignored.

Test	Ν	Mean	Std. Dev.	Test Value	Т	Sig.	%
Total	۳0	13,7011	5,77177	1.	٨,٣٤٢	• , • • •	%79,78
Α	۳0	٨,٤٢٨٦	۲,۳۲۹۹۳	0	٨,٧٠٦	• , • • •	1.12,71
В	۳٥	0,7712	2,21202	0	•,٨١•	•, ٤٢٤	%0٣,٧١

Table (1) Number of the Participants and the Answered Questions

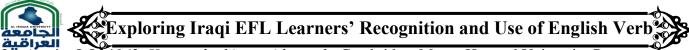
Conclusions

Verbs in English are variedly complemented, however, complementation does not always occur randomly. It is restricted to the semantic properties of the verb. Thus, a semantic categorization of verbs complementation sounds to be logically certain and useful for an EFL learner. Studies in the field of interlanguage have shown verb complementation and establishing complement types in the English language. Such studies reveal that verb complementation cannot be recognized as a matter of shifting form one place to another. It appears that verb complementations happen to occur within the target language. No matter what causes this issue, verbal complementation is still significant in the area of EFL learners. This article considers viewing language awareness, which can raise learners' awareness of varied forms of verbs along with their linked syntactic complementation forms. It may also help them to reform their developing interlanguage. This article as well suggested that meaning plays a key role in determining sentence structure. As a result, teaching requires rationality as it emphasizes meaning prior to emphasizing form. Append

Q1: Choose the correct alternative from the following sentences:					
1. Mark carefully looked into (a. her house. b. store. c. up)					
2. This lady is a in the hospital. (a. nurse. b. important. c. working).					
3. His mother becomes gradually. (a. happier. b. in. c. there).					
4. Dad goes to Baghdad. (a. many time. b. never. c. not).					
5. He has chosen a director. (a. her. b. here. c. there).					
6. She elects me a every year. (a. back. b. year. c. headmaster).					
7. Her manager has (a. is. b. car. c. noisy).					
8. He eats a day. (a. an apple. b. coffee. c. house).					
9. I grow for sale. (a. tomatoes. b. living. c. down).					
10. My grandfather was in the army. (a. technician. b. import. c.					
easily).					
Q2: Fill in the blanks with suitable complements.					
1. Marry the nurse cared for					
2. That old man grows					
3. Her friend is slowly.					
4. David goes to the UK.					
5. They have been elected					
6. <i>He chooses you as a yearly.</i>					
7. The headmistress was already.					
8. I have a green daily.					
9. Tom grew for hearing good news.					
10. Sally is in the art team.					
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