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- In the case of the nominal direct object complement, we will have two nominals; the direct object and the direct object complement, which are similar to the two objects in the sentences that contain ditransitive verbs followed by direct and indirect object. It is necessary to distinguish between these two cases and to show the difference.
- The difference between transitive and intransitive verbs is that the latter do not need objects, as the meaning is complete and understandable within these verbs themselves. Even with verbs that have both a transitive and an intransitive function, this depends on whether the emphasis is on the activity (as in intransitive verbs) or on the object of the sentence.
- Semantically, there is a difference between using adjectives in their regular positions before the nouns and making them into adjective DOCs by placing them after the nouns.
- DOCs are really either combined forms of two smaller sentences or they are reduced forms from longer sentences into shorter single sentences. This feature enables language users to be more economical in producing various types of sentences.
- When the object complement is a base verb phrase, which is called as the bare infinitive, it is more complicated than other types because the base verb phrase can be used to represent more than one tense.
- On the control aspect of subject complements in language, the constituent which, follows such kind of intransitive verbs is more problematic because it needs a kind of interpretation to understand such combination.
- This paper differentiated between the cases of subject and object control in language, which occurs with specific verbs, and its effect on understanding the meaning of a sentence.

Resources

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orientation) and SOA-arg (here the SOA towards which the experiencer is oriented). To explain this point, see the following example:

49) John expected Tom to finish his study early.

In the above example, John (EXPERIENCER) made his expectation or mental orientation toward the action of Tom's finishing of the study.

Another term was used by Bresnan (1982:372) is "controlled clause" which is applied to the clause whose subject is controlled. To illustrate this point, see the following examples:

50) a. At the moment, the goal of the police is to try to prevent a riot.

b. At the moment, the goal is to try to prevent a riot.

In (a), the unexpressed subject of "try" is controlled by the police, and the unexpressed subject of "prevent" is controlled by the (unexpressed) subject of "try". In (b), the unexpressed subject of "try" lacks an antecedent, but this is often viewed as a degenerate control relation, called "arbitrary control".

4. Conclusion

This paper briefly presented a clear distinction between subject and object complement, and illustrated the ways by which one can define the subject of the verb in predicative complements, and to enable the language users or learners to control the use of complements within sentences. Moreover, this paper had shed light on many issues that could be a problematic for English language users or learners, these issues can be summarized in the following points:

- In the subject complement, although there should be an agreement between the subject and its complement, gender or number agreement, there are several common exceptions to number agreement.
- When the subject complement merely specifies the category to which people or things belong, the noun phrase is not marked with one or plural suffix.

promise-types verbs which take subject control, and (3) the want/expect-type verbs which take subject control. Moreover, they ascribe each type to different semantics. The semantics of the order/permit-class involves a state of affair (SOA) whose relation is of influence type, e.g.,

46) Kim persuaded Sandy to leave.

In the above sentence, the participant (the referent of the object: Sandy) is influenced by another participant (the referent of the subject: Kim) to perform an action (characterized in terms of the SOA denoted by the VP complement). Thus, the semantics of all verbs in this class thus involves an SOA whose relation is of the INFLUENCE type.

The semantics of the promise-class verbs involves a state of affair (SOA) which contains a relation of “commitment”. Commitments involve a typically animate participant which we may identify as “committor”, and an SOA-argument (in this case the action which the committor commits to performing or to NOT performing), e.g.,

47) Kim promised Sandy to leave.

In the above example, the committor “Kim” commits himself to do an action (argument). Some commitment-type relations also allow a third role, as in the above example, which we may refer to as COMMISSEE, the individual to whom the commitment is made, e.g., “Sandy”.

In the case of verbs like “refuse” or “decline”, the committor commits to NOT performing the action (argument), e.g.,

48) Tom refuse to leave the place early.

In the above example, “Tom” commits not to do the action of leaving the place early.

The semantics of the want/expect-class verbs involves a state of affair (SOA) whose relation is an orientation type. This class of verbs involves desire, expectation, or similar mental orientation toward a given SOA. Sag and Pollard (1991:66) refer to these as ORIENTATION relations, and they characterize their associated roles as EXPERIENCER (the participant who experiences the appropriate

Firsten and Killian (2002) show that the past participle is used in this type of DOC because it represents the remnants of phrase that contains the passive voice. To explain this point, we can imagine that sentence (42) comes from two sentences (in 43) and one of them is in the passive voice, such as:

- 44) a. I saw the president. He was interviewed by CNN.
b. I saw the president interviewed by CNN.

So, after we combine these two sentences in (a), we will get (b) which is a past participle phrase DOC.

3. Complement control in language

Control, for Bresnan (1982:372), refers to a relation of referential dependence between an unexpressed subject (the controlled element) and an expressed or unexpressed constituent (the controller); the referential properties of the controlled element, including possibly the property of having no reference at all, are determined by those of the controller.

Crystal (2008:113) defines the word “control” as a term used in one of the (sub-) theories of government-binding theory (control theory), which determines the potential for reference of the abstract pronominal element PRO, for example:

- 45) a. We *promised* Jane to go.
b. We *persuaded* Jane to go.

The pronoun, which is the subject of an embedded infinitive clause, is said to be under the ‘control’ of the main-clause subject (its controller), after a verb like *promise* but, after a verb like *persuade*, it is controlled by the object of that verb (it is ‘non-subject controlled’). In (a) the subject of the infinitive clause (to go) is identified with the subject of the main clause (we), thus, it is a (subject control). In (b) the subject of the infinitive clause (to go) is identified with the object of the main clause (object control). Thus, complement control occurs with verbs that take a state of affairs (SOA) argument and in which identification of an argument of the predicate with an argument of the embedded predicate takes place.

Sag and Pollard (1991:65) classify verb control into three types: (1) the order/permit-type verbs which take object control, (2) the

As we saw from the above diagram Fig. (5), the tense of every sentence can be known by looking at the time of the first verb each sentence.

To know the function of this type and how it is used, it is necessary to compare it with the –ing verb phrase DOC. Let us take these examples:

- 42) a. I saw the president **proclaiming** the war against terrorist
 b. I see the president **will proclaim** the war against terrorist.
 c. I heard the president **proclaim** the war against terrorist.

Firsten and Killian (2002:304) show the difference between them in that the –ing DOC in the first statement (a) represents that the speaker made it clear that he witnessed the action in progress. We can figure this out because the –ing DOC represents the progressive verb form, so the action was in progress at the moment that the speaker was referring to. In the second statement, the base verb DOC represents that the speaker made it clear he witnessed the completion of the action. Again, we can figure this out because the base verb DOC represents the simple past, which is always used for finished actions, so the speaker knows that the action was finished during the time he was referring to. Even this type of DOC was used with future as in (b), the base verb DOC represents that the speaker will witness the completion of the action in the future. The same with the timeless tense, as in (c) the base verb DOC represents that the speaker simply witnessed the completion of the action from start to finish. Examples of the verbs that are used with that type of DOC are: *feel, notice, observe, overhear* and *spot*.

6- Past participle phrase as DOC

The sixth type of object complement is the past participle phrase. In this type, the direct object is followed by a complement starting with past participle, as in the following example which is explained in Fig. (6).

- 43) I saw the president interviewed by CNN.

Subject	Verb	Direct object	past participle phrase
I	saw	the president	interviewed by CNN

Fig (6). Past participle phrase as DOC

35) I saw the boy. The boy was playing with his friends.

The verbs which need the –ing verb phrase as direct object complement are divided into two groups by Firsten and Killian (2002). The first group contains the verbs that require the –ing DOC and the second group contains the verbs that use the –ing DOC optionally. Examples of the verbs of the first group are: catch, discover, find, keep, leave, smell, start and stop, e.g.,

36) The mother left her baby sleeping on its bed.

37) They kept me waiting for almost an hour.

Examples of the second group are: feel, get, hear, notice, observe, overhear, see, and watch, (Ibid., p. 297), e.g.,

38) I have heard him **singing/sing** in the garden.

39) I felt someone **staring/stare** at me.

5- Base verb phrase DOC

The fifth type of object complement is the base verb phrase which is called also as the bare infinitive. In this type, the object is followed by a complement starting with a base verb, as in the following example which is explained in Fig. (4):

40) I heard the president proclaim the war against terrorist.

Subject	Verb	Direct object	base verb phrase
I	Heard	the president	proclaim the war against terrorist

Fig (4). Base verb phrase DOC

This type of complement is more complicated than other types because the base verb phrase can be used to represent more than one tense. Thus, one surface form (the base verb) represents three verb forms (the past, the future, and the timeless) exhibiting one commonality, non-progressive aspect, (Ibid., p. 302), as in the following diagram:

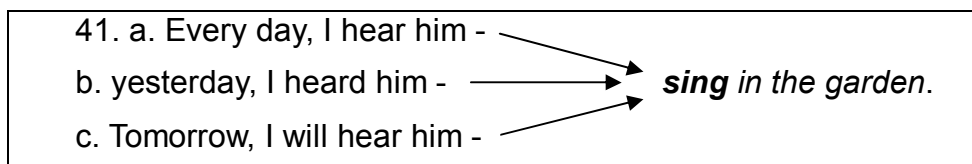


Fig (5). Base verb phrase DOC with (past, future, and timeless)

33) They believe him to be a spy.

Subject	Verb	Direct object	infinitive phrase
I	Want	him	to bring me some water

Fig (2). Infinitive verb phrase as DOC

Firsten and Killian (2002:291) show that there is a group of verbs that prompt this particular pattern such as: allow, appoint, believe, cause, consider, compel, feel, find, force, get, know, help, intend, like, mean...etc.

Some of these verbs have alternative; they can drop the infinitive part of the DOC and then be left with a noun, an adjective, a prepositional phrase, or adverb, which will then become the DOC. Firsten and Killian (2002:291). In other words, it can be said that sentence (33) has two shapes, one with the infinitive to be and another without, as in the following:

They believe him to be a spy. \longrightarrow They believe him a spy.

Other verbs which have the same ability to be alternative are: appoint, believe, cause, consider, feel, find, get, like...etc. (Ibid., p. 291)

4- -ing verb phrase DOC

This is the fourth type of direct object companion. In this type, the object is followed by a complement starting with a verb in the -ing form, as in (34) which can be shown in Fig. (3):

34) I saw the boy *playing with his friends*.

Subject	Verb	Direct object	-ing verb phrase
I	saw	the boy	playing with his friends

Fig (3). The -ing verb phrase DOC

Firsten and Killian (2002) maintain that the sentences containing -ing and base verb phrase DOCs are really either combined forms of two smaller sentences or they are reduced forms from longer, single sentences. To explain this point, it can be said that a sentence like (34) may come from two sentences (in 35) and it was combined in one, such as:

on the whole item. In (b), it seems that the verb is dropped from this sentence with object complements:

26) I like coffee (to be) black.

Another way to look at these special adjectives of DOC sentences is to realize that they usually may be answers to such questions "how do you like -----?" or "how do you prefer-----?" or "how do you want-----?" for example:

27) a. How do you like your steak?

b. I like it medium rare.

Firsten and Killian (2002) show that this adjective DOC pattern comes only with certain verbs such as; dislike, have, keep, like, love, need and prefer, some examples are:

28) My father dislikes his tea cold.

29) The surgeon needs her instruments ready at all times.

As concerning with the direct object complement showed in (23), "*We painted the house peach*", Firsten and Killian (2002:284) state that in the four basic elements of the direct object complement (as in Fig 2.) are immovable, but additional words can be placed between some of these elements (for example, we can use a frequency adverb between "I" and "find" and place an intensifier like "very" before "pretty" to make the following sentence:

30) I **always** find the colour peach **very** pretty for houses.

Moreover, (Ibid, 2002) mention that the adjective phrase of direct object combination can appear in the comparative or superlative form as the following two examples show respectively:

31) a. I find peach prettier than pink.

b. I find colour peach the prettiest.

3- Infinitive verb phrase as DOC

The third type of direct object companion is the infinitive phrase. In this kind of sentences, the direct object is followed by a clause starting with infinitive (to+base), as in the following example which can be shown in Fig. (2):

32) I want him to bring me some water.

23) We painted the house peach.

Subject	Verb	Direct object	Adjective phrase
We	Painted	the house	peach

Fig (1). The four basic elements of DOC

One may ask what is the function of the adjective (peach) to come after the noun (house)? To explain this matter, we will examine these two sentences in order to find difference in the relationship between the verbs and the adjective phrase DOCs:

24) a. He painted the house peach.

b. He considers the colour tropical.

In (a), the speaker is describing the result of what he did and how the house (the direct object) was affected. The verb being used is one that's brought about change, so the adjective phrase DOC has a **resulting condition**.

In sentence (b), the speaker considers the colour topical and he is describing his perception or opinion of that colour. The kind of the verb being used doesn't bring about change, so the nature of this kind of adjective phrase DOC is that it's a **pre-existing condition**. (Firsten and Killian, 2002: 285)

Semantically, there is a difference between using adjectives like *rare*, *black*, *raw*, and *plain* in their regular positions before the nouns and making them into adjective DOCs by placing them after the nouns. To explain this point, let's examine the two following sentences to show the difference;

25) a. I like **black** coffee.

b. I like coffee **black**.

The difference between these sentences is a matter of focusing. In (a) the speaker is focusing on an entire item and not on any particular condition of that item; it is not just coffee and it is not just something black, it is black coffee. But, in (b) the speaker is saying that he likes coffee, but when it is black (that is, without cream or sugar). The speaker is focusing on a condition of the item rather than

But, sometimes the direct object complement is a nominal and not introduced by prepositions 'as' or 'for'. Thus, we will have two nominals; the direct object and the direct object complement which are similar to the two objects in the sentences that contain ditransitive verbs followed by direct and indirect object. It is necessary to distinguish between these two cases and to show the difference, let's examine these two sentences:

20) a. He gave his wife a rose.

b. He called his wife a rose.

In sentence (a), the ditransitive verb "gave" needs two objects; "rose" as a direct object and "wife" as an indirect object. Semantically, these two nouns in the first sentence are two objects because first; the verb *gave* demands two different objects and there is an effect such as, movement, that falls on both of them. Second: The two objects are related to two different things; *wife* and *a rose*.

In sentence (b), the two nouns are not two objects but an object with its complement because semantically, the transitive verb "called" needs one object only which is the noun "wife". The other reason is that the word "rose" in the second sentence is related to the direct object "wife" because it renames it only. Syntactically, the first sentence is different from the second sentence because the construction of (a) is (S+V+indO+dO) while the construction of (b) is (S+V+O+C). For more explanation, let's take another example:

21) They chose John a leader of the team.

"John" and "leader" in sentence (21) relate to the same person and thus, the word "a leader" is not an object but an object complement. In the above sentence, "John" is the object of the transitive verb "chose".

2- Adjective phrase as DOC

The adjective phrase is another type of object complements. As it is known, the adjective in a sentence comes before the noun such as in:

22) "The big box" and not "the box big".

Sentence (22) is normal in English but, the adjective sometimes comes in a sentence after the noun, for example:

2.2. Object complement

As we explained early, verbs in English can be classified into transitive and intransitive verbs. Transitive verbs need objects while intransitive verbs don't need objects as the meaning is complete and understandable within these verbs themselves. Many verbs have both a transitive and an intransitive function, depending on whether the emphasis is on the activity (as in intransitive verbs) or on the object of the sentence (the receiver of the action or activity). Transitive verbs can be also subdivided into two kinds; verbs which take one object only and verbs which take two objects, as the following examples:

17) "He **cut** a rose." (One direct object)

18) "He **sent** his wife a letter." (Two objects, direct and indirect object)

As the second sentence shows, transitive verbs need two objects and these are called, direct object and indirect object. The direct object is the receiver of action within a sentence. The indirect object identifies to or "for whom" or "what the action of the verb is performed with. Object complements normally follow objects of transitive verbs listed in dictionaries.

Firsten and Killian (2002:278) classify direct object complementation into seven distinct types: Noun phrase, Adjective phrase, Base verb phrase, Infinitive verb phrase, -ing verb phrase, Past participle phrases and Prepositional phrases. These types will be explained in the following few sections.

1- Noun phrase as DOC

Firsten and Killian (2002) show that this kind of complement is most overlapping with direct objects because it is too similar to direct object in the sentences that contain two objects; direct and indirect. Downing, and Locke (1992) show that in such type of complement, the nominals are sometimes, but not always, introduced by prepositions 'as' or 'for' which sometimes are analysed as 'oblique' object complements because the relationship between the noun and the verb is not direct due to mediation of the preposition. For more explanation consider the following:

19) The team members regard him (as) the best player.

meaning. Semantic criteria may also be relevant in explaining the use of 'a nuisance' in (10.b) since abstraction such as this is equally applicable to singular or plural subjects. The third type is exemplified by expressions such as 'wool' 'cotton... etc., as in (10.c) which can be paraphrased by a prepositional phrase PP with *of* (*of wool, of cotton ...etc.*) or (*of the same height*) as in (10.d) which formerly had greater currency.

Thus, copular or link verbs (i.e., *is, was*) predict the meaning, which describes or identifies the subject referent in which the subject complement completes the predicate by providing information about the subject.

2.1.2. Subject complement as a noun phrase

Notional subjects, as Rzayev et al. (2007:45) state, are usually expressed with nouns (noun phrases NPs) or their equivalents. A noun complement is called a 'contentive', because it normally specifies the content referred to as 'the news'. See the example:

11) Susan is my oldest friend.

12) John is a very good teacher.

When the subject complement merely specifies the category to which people or things belong, the noun phrase is not marked with one or plural suffix:

13) I am {a} *student*.

14) All the rest are noel{s}.

Subject complement can be an adjective as in (15):

15) His eyes are *green*.

Subject complement can be a prepositional phrase as in the following example:

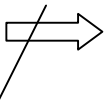
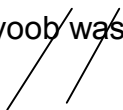
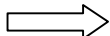
16) Everything is *for you*.

Suppose someone asks, 'who is there?' the answer will be 'it is me' or 'it is I'. The correct response is 'it is I' because the verb expresses a state of being. A sentence with that type of verb has a subject complement, not an object. Therefore, the pronoun needed is a subject pronoun and to place an object pronoun there, it is incorrect in Standard English (Wiley, 2010:182).

Some intransitive verbs which don't need an object can be followed by constituents which can be considered as a subject complement. On the control aspect of such subject complements in language, the constituent which follows such kind of intransitive verbs is more problematic because it needs a kind of interpretation to understand such combination. To explain this point, see the following example:

7) Ayoob was born **a prince**.

It is plausible to consider such a constituent as constituent on the strength of the possible paraphrase containing *be*. So we can imagine that the above sentence in (8) come from the following complex sentence.

When Ayoob was born, he was a prince  When Ayoob was born, he was a prince. 
 Ayoob was born a prince.

The same way can be used for more same examples as in (8):

8) a. He returned **happy**.  When he returned, he was **happy**'

b. He died **young**.  When he died, he was young.

One more feature related to the subject complement is that there is an agreement between the subject and its complement, gender or number agreement such as:

9) 'Yasmin isn't herself today'.

There are, however, several common exceptions to number agreement as you can see in (10) below:

10) a. Ibrahim and Fatima make **a good couple**.

b. My friend's dogs are **a nuisance**.

c. Are these socks wool? No, they're **cotton**.

d. The brothers are **the same height**.

The complement of the type 'a good couple' in (10.a) are explicable on semantic grounds that 'couple' is inherently plural in

The types of subject complements will be discussed in the next section.

2.1.1. Types of Subject Complements

The term subject complement refers to the word or phrase that comes after the verb (to be or linking verbs) to describe the subject. The subject complement may be noun, adjective, gerunds nouns or infinitives as they are explained in the following examples:

- 4) a. It is I. (pronoun)
- b. He is *a student*. (Noun)
- c. He is *happy*. (Adjective)
- d. His wish is *to pass the exam*. (Infinitive clause)
- e. His aim is *reading the whole book*. (-ing verb clause)

Predicate noun complement is formed when the noun follows the verb as the complement of the grammatical subject of a sentence. When a subject complement is considered a predicate a noun, it is preceded by a linking verb to rename or identify the subject as in the following construction:

- 5) Mary Johns is the classroom teacher.

When a predicate adjective comes as a subject complement, it completes the meaning of the subject. Such a type of adjectives comes after the linking verb to describe the noun as in (6) below:

- 6) Harry was excited about swimming in the pool.

The difference between predicate-adjective and predicate-nominal is simply grammatical function based on their individual roles as parts of speech. The former is an adjective, and the other is a noun.

As well as linking verbs, the subject can be linked to its complement by many other verbs, such as the verbs of transition (*become, get, go, grow, turn*) and the verbs of perception (*sound, smell, look*). The constituents following such verbs will be considered 'Subject Complements' if (1) the verb can be replaced by the linking verb 'be' without a change in meaning and (2) the verb cannot stand alone, as it is illustrated in example (3).

the focus of the present study is to identify complement control which lies under either the subject or the object control, the study will now try to present detailed description about the two types of complements, subject complement and object complement as a preliminary step for understanding the main topic of this paper.

2.1. Subject Complement

The subject complement is a word or a phrase which follows a linking verb and describe the subject of the sentence. Consider the following examples in (2):

- 2) a. John was *great*.
- b. She became *a nurse*.
- c. It is *he* who broke the window.

The subject complement, unlike the object, adds more information about subject referent, thus it differs from the object in that it can be realised not only by a nominal group, like object, but also by an adjectival group as explained in the previous examples in (2).

As one can observe from examples in (2), apart from copula or linking verb, many other verbs can be used to link a subject to its complement, such as the verbs of transition (i.e., *become, get go, grow, turn*) and verbs of perception (i.e., *sound, smell, look*). As Huddleston (1984) argues, the constituent that follows these verbs is considered as a subject complement within two conditions; (1) if we could replace the verb by the linking verb 'be' without a change in meaning and (2) if the verb cannot stand alone, for example:

- 3) a. Your idea sounds perfect. (=Your idea is perfect), but not (Your idea sounds).
- b. Your idea becomes clear. (=Your idea is clear), but not (Your idea becomes).

As we saw from examples in (2) and (3), a complement of a subject can be a noun or an adjective. In all the cases, a complement of a subject refers to an equality (valence) between the subject and its complement, as Bussmann (1996:213), shows that a constituent X is a complement of a constituent Y if X is valence-dependent on Y.

1. Introduction

Various scholars, such as Radford (2004), assert that complement behaves as a facilitator adding information/meaning within the syntactic constituents it operates. Quirk et al. (1985) show that although, traditional grammarians restrict their complement analysis to the verb complementation that deals with the object as well as adjective complementation, recent postulation by the functionalist grammarians explores functioning of complementation in subject constituent dubbed as 'subject complement. The phenomenon of control has been a central topic to all major theories of language. For several decades, however, the study of control phenomena has been confined to a few languages, mainly English. Control, as the term is generally understood in syntax, concerns the interpretation of non-finite clauses such as infinitival or gerunds.

In such kinds of sentences, defining subject and the object of sentences requires more recognition. In such case and other cases, learners of English may confuse between the object of a sentence and the object complement as both of these components can be nominal. This confusion may lead to misunderstanding of the sentence meaning, which may affect the main aim of language that is communication. The study takes on this issue and many other issues in the discussion to be followed. The study adopts extensive use of examples enhanced with clear analysis for explaining the mentioned cases and for making the use of complementation in language unproblematic.

2. Subject and object complements

Complement control occurs with verbs that take a state of affairs (SOA) argument, for example:

- 1) a. Kim **promised** Sandy {to leave} the work early.
- b. Kim **persuaded** Sandy {to leave} the work early.

The above two sentences look the same from the first sight, but actually they have great difference. Although the subject of the main verbs in the two sentences is the same, the subjects of the verb in the two infinitive clauses are different. This is what meant by complement control which occurs with verbs that take a state of affairs (SOA) argument. Before introducing the main topic and since

Abstract:-

Understanding the meaning of the sentence is related too much to understanding all its components such as: the subject, the object, and the complement. These components are related to the main verb according to which one can define the subject and the object of the sentence. In some kinds of sentences, such as subjectless verbal or predicative complements, defining subject and the object of sentences needs more recognition. In other cases, learners of English may confuse the object of a sentence and the object complement as both of these components can be nominal. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to present a clear distinction between the direct object and object complement, and to illustrate the ways by which one can define the subject of the verb in predicative complements. Moreover, this paper aims at differentiating between the cases of subject and object control in language, which occurs with specific verbs, and its effect on understanding the meaning of a sentence. This paper is designed to survey some studies and to analyse a wide range of examples to show the way by which one can recognise the position of the subject and the object in different kinds of sentence complements, on the first hand, and to enable the learners to control the use of complements in sentences, on the other hand. The study is designed to include two main sections plus an introduction and a conclusion. The first section will deal with the two types of complements; Subject and object complements with their types in language, as a preliminary step for the next section which will deal in detail with the main issue 'complement control in language'.

Keywords: Subject complement, Object complement, and Complement control.

المخلص:-

يرتبط فهم معنى الجملة كثيراً بفهم جميع مكوناتها مثل؛ الفاعل، المفعول به، وتكملة الجملة. وترتبط هذه المكونات جميعها مع الفعل الرئيسي الذي يمكن بواسطته تحديد فاعل ومفعول الجملة. إلا أن في بعض أنواع الجمل، مثل المكملات الفعلية أو الخبرية التي لا تحتوي على فاعل، يحتاج تحديد فاعل ومفعول الجملة إلى المزيد من التركيز والدقة. وكذلك في حالات أخرى، يخلط متعلموا اللغة الإنجليزية بين المفعول به في الجملة وتكملة المفعول به لأن كلاهما يمكن أن يكونا اسمين في الجملة. لذلك كان غرض هذه الورقة البحثية هو تقديم تمييز واضح لتكملة الفاعل والمفعول به، وتوضيح الطرق التي يمكن من خلالها تحديد فاعل الفعل في المكملات الخبرية. علاوة على ذلك، تهدف هذه الورقة البحثية إلى التمييز بين حالات التحكم في الفاعل والمفعول به في اللغة، والتي تحدث عن طريق استخدام أفعال محددة، وتأثيرها على فهم معنى الجملة. تم تصميم هذه الورقة البحثية لسح بعض الدراسات وتحليل مجموعة واسعة من الأمثلة لإظهار الطريقة التي يمكن من خلالها التعرف على موقع الفاعل والمفعول به في أنواع مختلفة من مكملات الجملة، من جهة، وتمكين المتعلمين لاتقان استخدام المكملات في الجمل، من جهة أخرى. صممت الدراسة لتشمل قسمين رئيسيين بالإضافة إلى المقدمة والخاتمة. القسم الأول سيتناول نوعي المكملات للفاعل والمفعول به بأنواعها في اللغة الإنجليزية كخطوة تحضيرية للقسم الثاني الذي سيتناول بالتفصيل القضية الرئيسية "تحكم المكملات الجمل اللغوية".

الكلمات المفتاحية: تكملة الفاعل، تكملة المفعول به، والتحكم بالمكملات.

Subject and Object in Complement Control in Language

Lect. Dr.

Ayad Enad Khalaf Al-Luhaibi

The Directorate of Religious Education and Islamic Studies - Baghdad
dr.ayadenad@gmail.com

الفاعل والمفعول به في تحكم مكملات الجمل اللغوية

المدرس الدكتور

أياد عناد خلف

دائرة التعليم الديني والدراسات الإسلامية - بغداد