

BỘ GIÁO DỤC VÀ ĐÀO TẠO
TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC DÂN LẬP HẢI PHÒNG



ISO 9001 : 2008

KHÓA LUẬN TỐT NGHIỆP

NGÀNH: NGOẠI NGỮ

HẢI PHÒNG - 2010

HAIPHONG PRIVATE UNIVERSITY
FOREIGN LANGUAGES DEPARTMENT

GRADUATION PAPER

**A STUDY ON THE COMPLEMENTATION OF
ENGLISH TRANSITIVE VERBS**

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Class:

Na1001

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HAI PHONG - 2010

BỘ GIÁO DỤC VÀ ĐÀO TẠO
TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC DÂN LẬP HẢI PHÒNG

Nhiệm vụ đề tài tốt nghiệp

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(Điểm ghi bằng số và chữ)

Ngày..... tháng..... năm 2010

Người chấm phản biện

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First of all, I wish to send my sincere thanks to my supervisor Mrs. Nguyen Thi Thu Huong for her valuable guidance, helpful suggestions and critical feedback throughout the study.

Also, I would like to acknowledge my gratitude to all the lecturers in Foreign Language Department, Haiphong Private University for their useful lessons from which I have benefited a lot for the accomplishment of this study.

Last but not least, I would like to express my special thanks to my loving family, and my close friends who offered me their love, care, support and encouragement so that I could accomplish my study.

Hai Phong, June 2010

Bui Thi Duong

Symbols and abbreviations

S:	Subject
V:	Verb
C _o :	Object complement
O:	Object
NP:	Noun phrase
Pron:	Pronoun
AdjP:	Adjective phrase
PrepP:	Prepositional Phrase
Cl:	Clause
BrE:	British English
PrepO:	Prepositional Object
Monotrans:	Monotransitive verb
Ditrans:	Ditransitive verb
Complex-trans:	Complex transitive verb
Aux:	Auxiliary verb
Lex:	Lexical verb
Cur.A:	Current Attribute
Res.A:	Result Attribute
V _{prep} :	Prepositional verb
V _{phrasal-prep} :	Phrasal-prepositional verbs
<i>to</i> -inf:	<i>to</i> -infinitive
bare-inf:	bare-infinitive
*	Incorrect sentence
[1; 9]:	[number of the book in the reference; page].

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PART I: INTRODUCTION

1. Rationale

We all know that English is widely spoken all around the world draws the attention of many linguists. Therefore, becoming a fluent speaker of English is also one of the essential demands of most English learners. However, it is not easy to achieve this because English can sometimes cause them a lot of troubles with its grammar, structures, vocabularies, and pronunciation, etc in which English grammar has the great importance and the certain difficulty.

In English Grammar, the English verb has always been the element that causes much more trouble to learners than any other ones in the sentence because it provides the power of the sentence. When I could use it quite fluently, the next complexity set up. I began to be confused of its complementation. Therefore, I have decided to study on complementation of verbs in general, and the complementation of transitive verbs in particular.

With this study, I wish to have a deep knowledge of English transitive verbs as well as their complementation in order to help learners who are interested in English Grammar can distinguish clearly. That is the reason why I have chosen the topic “*The complementation of English transitive verbs*” for my graduation paper.

2. Aims of the study

The study is conducted to help readers understand the syntactic function of transitive complementation more clearly. With this trend, the study will serve three purposes:

- To present and classify English verbs according to their function, form, meaning, and complementation.
- To describe and analyze Monotransitive, Ditransitive and Complex transitive verbs and their complementation.

- To give common mistakes made by Vietnamese learners and suggest solutions for teachers and students in teaching and learning transitive verb complementation.

3. Scope of the study

Monotransitive, Ditransitive and Complex transitive verbs and their complementation are very complicated, so giving a full theory and description is impossible. Therefore, my study will concentrate on describing and analyzing the most common structures and patterns.

4. Methods of study

To achieve the aims, my strategies are used as follows:

- Reviewing the documents relating to Monotransitive, Ditransitive and Complex transitive verbs and their complementation.
- Giving and analyzing examples basing on the clause and sentence scale.
- Analyzing the learners' problems in using English transitive verbs and their complementation so that suggestions and solutions can be made.

5. Design of the study

The study begins with acknowledgements, table of contents, and symbols and abbreviations.

The main body of the study is divided into three parts:

- Part one is introduction including rationale, aims, scope, methods and design of the study.

- Part two is development, which consists of three chapters:

Chapter one discusses the theoretical background of English verb, object, object complement and adverbial.

Chapter two describes and analyzes the complementation of English transitive verbs.

Chapter three is about the common mistakes made by Vietnamese learners in using English transitive complementation and the suggested solutions.

- Part three is conclusion which presents the view of the study and references puts the end to it.

PART TWO: DEVELOPMENT

CHAPTER ONE: THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

1.1. Verbs in English

1.1.1. Definition of English verb

English always composes of units which can be referred to as parts of speech. They are article, pronoun, noun, adjective, adverb and verb, so on. Grammatically, the verb is the most complex. The classification of parts of speech depends on some factors including the type of meaning that words express, the type of affixes that they take and the types of structure in which they occur.

According to *L.G Alexander* (1988) “A verb is a word or a phrase which expresses the existence of a state or the doing of an action”.

[4; 159]

For example:

- Using a **verb** to express the existence of a state:

She **looks** tired

She **is** beautiful

- Expressing the doing of an action:

He **puts** sugar in my tea

They have **played** for hours

Another definition, *Sylvia Chalker* (1990) shared the view that: “Verbs are defined partly by position/function and partly by inflection”

[8;75]

To oversimplify greatly, we can say that any word that fulfils the following two conditions is a verb.

Position: Any single word that can fit into one or more of the following patterns and make a complete sentence (with no further word)

Inflection: Any word that has a set of inflection similar to the following:

work – worked – worked – works – working

Jack Richard (1985) gave the definition of the verb as follows: (In English) a word which, (a) occurs as part of the Predicate of a sentence. (b) carries markers of grammatical categories such as *tense, aspect, person, number, and mood*, and (c) refers to an action or state.

[9;305]

This definition of Jack Richard, it is probably the most detail one in the three definitions above. It seems to be the collection of many opinions about the verb.

For example:

- He **wrote** a letter
- I **wish** I would become a teacher

In these examples, we can see that verbs “**wrote**” and “**wish**” are (a) the beginning of the predicate of the sentences and:

+ The verb “**wrote**” (b) carries markers of past tense- simple aspect - 3rd person singular - indicative mood; (c) it is an action.

+ The verb “**wish**” (b) carries markers of present tense - simple aspect - 1st person singular - subjunctive mood; and (c) it is a state.

From the definitions of some linguists above, I can understand that a verb is generally a word that expresses action or state of being. They are an essential part of a complete sentence and it has markers of grammatical categories.

1.1.2. Classification of verb

There are many different classifications of an English verb depending on different criteria. However, verbs are classified according to four main characteristics as follows:

1.1.2.1. According to function of verb

According to their functions, there are two types of verbs. They are lexical verbs and auxiliary verbs.

a) Lexical verbs

Lexical verbs are those verbs that denote action or state.

Lexical verbs (eg: *run, eat, think*) function only as main verbs.

[2; 104]

Because lexical verb is the main verb of the sentence and all verbs include a lexical verb, there are hundreds of different lexical verbs.

For example:

- She **is** very beautiful (state)
- She **dislikes** apples (state)
- He **kicks** the ball (action)

There are two kinds of lexical verbs. They are full lexical verbs and catenative lexical verbs:

Full lexical verb	Catenative lexical verb
<p>They are the verbs referring to an activity and having a progressive form to indicate duration.</p> <p><i>For example:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It rained a lot last month • It has been raining a lot for 2 days 	<p>There are many verbs, which refer not to an activity but to a state or condition. The sense of duration is a part of the lexical meaning of the verb, and there is for this reason no need for a progressive form to indicate duration. This subgroup includes: <i>contain, belong, matter, own, consist, depend, deserve.</i></p> <p><i>For example:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It belongs to her • It contains butter

The different forms of lexical verbs. There are five forms judged by their uses in the verb phrase

V (base)	V-s (3 rd person)	V-ed ₁ (past)	V-ing V-ed ₂ (participles)
go	goes	went	going gone

work	works	worked	working	worked
be	am, is, are	was, were	being	been

b) Auxiliary verbs

Auxiliary verbs occur before a main verb and qualify the meaning of the main verb.

[2; 103]

On the other hand, auxiliary verbs are those that help complete the meaning of the verb phrase.

For example:

- She **can do** anything she likes

Aux Lex

- They **have got** married at this church

Aux Lex

Auxiliary verbs can be subdivided into primary and modal auxiliaries.

(i) Primary auxiliaries

Primary auxiliaries (*be, have, and do*) can function as both auxiliary and main verbs.

[2; 104]

For example:

Functions	Main verb	Auxiliary
Primary verbs		
Be	He is lazy	She is watering in the garden
Have	Everyone has freedom	Charlie has passed for 20 years
Do	They do nothing	What do you do in the evening?

(ii) Modal auxiliaries

Modal auxiliaries (*can, could, shall, should, will, would, may, might, must*) function only as auxiliary verbs.

[2; 104]

For example:

- You **should** take drugs immediately

In addition, there is a number of marginal auxiliaries (*dare, need, ought to, used to*) that shares some of the characteristics of the auxiliaries, and a large group of semi-auxiliaries (auxiliaries-like verbs) that conveys similar notions of time, aspect, and modality such as *be going to, have to, had to*.

For example:

- Children **used to** like sweet (1)
- We **have to** finish our work before 5 p.m (2)

“**Used to**” functions as only auxiliary in this sentence (1) and the semi-auxiliary “**have to**” in the example (2) used in the present simple tense to express a speaker’s duty.

1.1.2.2. According to form of verb

The verb forms operate in finite and non-finite verb phrases, which are distinguished as follows:

- a. Finite verb phrases have tense distinction

For example:

- We **study** at Haiphong Private University
- We **studied** at Haiphong Private University

- b. Finite verb phrases occur as the verb element of a clause. There is person and number concord between the subject and the finite verb. Concord is particularly overt with “*be*”:

I + am You/we/they + are He/she/it + is

With most lexical verb, concord is restricted to a contrast between 3rd and non-3rd person singular present.

For example:

- He **goes** to work every night

- They **go** to work every night

With the modal auxiliaries there is, however, no concord:

For example:

- I/you/we/they **can** play the piano

c. Finite verb phrases have mood. It contrast to the **unmarked** indicative mood, we distinguish the **marked** moods **imperative** and **subjunctive**.

d. The non-finite forms of the verb are the infinitive (**to work**). The *-ing* participle (**working**), and the *-ed* participle (**worked**). Non-finite verb phrases consist of one or more such items.

Finite verb phrases

He **work** very hard

He **is working**

He **had been punished** before

Non-finite verb phrases

To work hard is good

I saw him **working**

Having been punished before,
he was very afraid

1.1.2.3. According to meaning of verb

According to their meaning, the verbs are classified into two types. They are dynamic and stative verbs.

a) Dynamic verbs

According to *Alexander (1992)*, “Dynamic verbs, refer to actions which are deliberate or voluntary or they refer to changing situations that is to activities which have a beginning and an end. Dynamic verbs can be used in progressive as well as simple forms”.

[4;160]

For example:

- She **does** the homework everyday
- She is **doing** the homework now

b) Stative verbs

A group of verbs, which refer to the states of affairs (Eg: *be, belong, know, see*) are called stative verbs. They do not normally occur in the

progressive form (only in the simple form in all tenses). We can think of “states” in categories like:

- Feeling, emotions: *Like, love, admire, adore, hope, mean, dislike, doubt, envy, hate, etc*
- Thinking, believing: *Know, disbelieve, think, understand, wonder, believe, agree, find, imagine, etc*
- Wants, preferences: *Desire, fancy, need, prefer, require, want, wish, etc*
- Perception and senses: *catch (=understand), hear, notice, observe, perceive, see, smell, taste, etc*
- Being, seeming, having, owning: *appear, seem, belong, own, possess, sound (seem), etc*

For example:

- * They all **understand** my ideas
- * They are understanding my ideas

There are, however, verbs which can be either stative or dynamic. It can only be realized when they are in sentence.

For example:

- She **looks** tired (stative)
- She is **looking** at the picture (dynamic)

1.1.2.4. According to complementation of verb

Verbs complementation refers to the number and type of Objects and complements that follow particular verbs or classes of verbs, and the syntactic structures that verbs enter into. The term complement is used when referring to complementation in general. When capitalized, complement refers to specific elements of clause structure.

According to verb complementation, verbs are classified into intensive verbs and extensive verbs.

a) Intensive verbs

Intensive verbs are the ones which often denote intensive relationship. They can take a subject complements and an obligatory adverbial. So, its sentence types are SVC and SVA. Intensive verbs do not take any Object. It presents the relationship between the Subject and the Subject Complementation. The verbs in sentences with Subject Complement is a “copular” (or linking verb), which of itself has little meaning but functions as a link between the Complement and the Subject.

There are two subgroups:

- Current intensive includes *be, appear, smell, feel, remain, keep, look*.

For example:

- She **is** a good student

C_s

- A light **appeared** at the end of the tunnel

A (obligatory)

- Resulting intensive includes *come, grow, make, turn, get, go, become*.

For example:

- It is **turning** hot

C_s

- They **came** to a river

A (obligatory)

b) Extensive verbs

Extensive verbs are those that extent their meaning to a new entity, of which the present helps complete the meaning of the action or state.

For example:

- She only **recognized** me (state)
- Some people are **dancing** (action)

Extensive verbs may be intransitive and transitive

❖ **Intransitive verbs**

Verbs which do not take Objects or intensive complements are **intransitive**. Some are almost always intransitive (*snow, vanish*). Other

represent intransitive uses of basically transitive verbs (*eat, drive, read*). In some types there is corresponding transitive use; in others, not. Intransitive verbs take the sentence types SV.

For example:

- The child **cried**
- My mother is **cooking** in the kitchen

There are two subclasses of intransitive verbs:

- Common V_{intransitive}
 - Simple such as *come, go, work, die, etc*
 - Derived such as *return, retire, etc*
- Phrasal V_{intransitive} such as *go out, take off, give in, grow up, etc*

For example:

- They are **coming**
- A close friendship gradually **grew up** between them

❖ **Transitive verbs**

Verbs which take Objects or Complements are transitive.

Most of extensive verbs are transitive, and they can be Monotransitive, Ditransitive, or Complex transitive.

(i) **Monotransitive verbs**

Monotransitive verbs are the ones which have only a direct object and take the sentence types SVO.

+ Verbs used in monotransitive function require a Direct Object, which may be a noun phrase, a finite clause, or a non-finite clause. In addition to these categories, the verb may be a prepositional verb or phrasal prepositional verb, which for our present purposes will be treated as analogous to a verb with a Direct Object.

+ There are four subgroups of Monotransitive verbs:

- Simple V transitive such as *ask, speak, write, answer, build, etc*

For example:

- You have not yet **answered** my question

- Phrasal $V_{\text{monotrans}}$ such as *turn down, set up, give up, make up, etc*

For example:

- At last, he decided to **give up** his job

- Prepositional $V_{\text{monotrans}}$ such as *look after, think of, depend on, etc*

For example:

- Students mainly **depends on** their parents

➤ Phrasal-prepositional $V_{\text{monotrans}}$ such as *cut down on, get on with, live up to, look up to, look down on, catch up with, etc*

For example:

- I'm **looking forward to** the weekend
- I would still **end up with** a lot of money

(ii) Ditransitive verbs

Ditransitive verbs are the ones which a direct object and an indirect or benefactive object. Ditransitive verbs take the sentence type SVOO.

There are two subgroups of ditransitive verbs:

- Simple V_{ditrans} such as *take, buy, find, make, lend, pay, etc*

For example:

- He **gave** her the book

➤ Prepositional V_{ditrans} such as *accuse of, provide with, remind of, charge with, compare to, congratulate on, convince of, deprive of, inform of, introduce to, punish for, rob of, treat to, etc*

For example:

- He **reminds** me **of** the next plans

(iii) Complex transitive verbs

Complex transitive verbs are the ones which have one Object and one intensive Complement. The Direct Object generally represents a person or thing, and the Object complement adds the information about this entity from the standpoint of the Subject. This information can describe or identify the referent of the Direct Object by means of some attribute; or express a circumstance or situation in which the referent is said to be.

Complex transitive verbs take the sentence type SVOC and SVOA.

+ With **SVOC** type, the verbs which take this type are usually factual verbs, causative verbs, verbs of perception and other verbs.

- Factual verbs such as *imagine, like, find, think, keep, etc*

For example:

- He **keeps** the garden beautiful

O_d C_o

- Causative verbs such as *have, let, make, etc*

For example:

- His parents **make** him stay at home at night

O_d C_o

- Verbs of perception such as *watch, want, notice, observe, etc*

For example:

- Do you **want** the chicken hot or cold?

O_d C_o

- Other verbs such as *elect, consider, interpret, class, accept, etc*

For example:

- His colleagues **consider** him too old for the job

O_d C_o

- We **elected** Nam (as) the monitor

O_d C_o

+ With **SVOA** type, it normally includes *put, place, stand, hang, etc*

For example:

- They have **hanged** the picture on the wall

O_d C_o

1.2. Object

1.2.1. Definition of Object

According to Jack Richard in his “Longman Dictionary of Applied linguistics” give a definition of the Object as “the noun, noun phrase or clause

or pronoun in sentences with transitive verbs, which is traditionally described as being affected by the action of the verb”

For example:

- We all **learn** English
O=N
- Children also **learn** it
O=Pron
- They have **bought** a nice and wide house
O=NP
- I remember where it is
O=Cl

From definition and examples above, the Object, according me, functions as an element within the predicate which typically expresses an argument only with transitive verbs. The Object of a verb can be affected by the verb either direct or indirect.

1.2.2. Classification of Object

There are two kinds of Object. They are *Direct Object* and *Indirect Object*.

The Direct Object is the single Object in a transitive clause, not mediated by a preposition and having no prepositional paraphrase. In clauses with two Objects, it follows the Indirect Object. It can become Subject in a passive clause.

The Indirect Object is that clause constituent which immediately follows the Predicator in clauses with two Objects. It can become the Subject in a passive clause and have a prepositional paraphrase.

1.2.3. Realization of Object

❖ The Direct Object can be realized by:

(i) A nominal group

For example:

- She has made herself **an extraordinary fancy-dress in the shape of a balloon**

In this example, we can realize that “**extraordinary fancy-dress in the shape of a balloon**” is not a nominal clause but a nominal group. And it can become Subject in a passive clause “*An extraordinary fancy-dress in the shape of a balloon has made by her*”

(ii) A finite clause

For example:

- Most people recognized (*that*) **some forms of taxation is necessary**

In this sentence, the finite clause “(*that*) **some forms of taxation is necessary**” is an Object, it is normally to omit the conjunction “*that*” in informal use.

(iii) A non-finite clause

For example:

- + People in western countries prefer *to travel by public transportation* (1)
- + People in western countries prefer *travelling by public transportation* (2)

From two above examples, we can see that the verb “**prefer**” can be followed by two Objects *to*-infinitive and *-ing* participle.

The *to*-infinitive clause “*to travel by public transportation*” functions as Direct Object of the sentence (1)

The *-ing* participle clause “*travelling by public transportation*” functions as Direct Object of the sentence (2)

(iv) Anticipatory *it*+ finite clause

For example:

- I find *it* strange **that he refuses to go**

In this sentence, pronoun “*it*” is considered anticipatory and it is followed by finite clause “**that he refuses to go**” to become a Direct Object of a factual verb “*find*”

(v) A prepositional group of time or place

For example:

- Do not choose **by a swamp** for a picnic

“**By a swamp**” is not a person or anything causing the action “choose” but a prepositional group of place. It functions as a direct object.

❖ The Indirect Object is realized by Nominal groups and Nominal relative clauses.

For example:

+ I love **her** (1)

+ Officials have burned **a ton of illegal drug heroin** in the Shan area (2)

- I know **where she has been** (3)

In three examples, pronoun “**her**” in (1) and noun phrase “**a ton of illegal drug heroin**” in (2) are Nominal groups but the clause “**where she has been**” in (3) is Nominal relative clauses.

1.2.4. Position of Object

The Direct Object normally comes after the verb

For example:

- I paint **this picture**

O_d

However, in *wh*-questions and in nominal relative clause it is fronted

For example:

- **What kind of people** do you *like*? (1)
- **Which one** does she *buy*? (2)
- **How many books** did you *buy* last week? (3)
- I had to meet *the girl who I haven't seen for ten years from my school* (4)

As illustrated above, in three sentences (1), (2), (3) *wh*-questions are placed in front of the verbs “*like*”, “*buy*” as Direct Objects. And in nominal relative clause (4) “the girl” is the Direct Object fronted the verb “*seen*”.

The Direct Object normally follows the Subject and the Verb. A very important feature of the Object is that it assumes the status of the Subject by

the passive transformation. When we change an active sentence into a passive we change the Subject.

For example:

- I **paint** this picture
⇒ Passive: This picture **is painted** by me

If in active sentence “I” is the Subject and “this picture” is O_d , in the passive transformation “this picture” functions as Subject.

The Indirect Object often comes after the verb and before the Direct Object but in *wh*-question it is fronted. It is characteristically a noun referring to a person.

For example:

- She **teach** me English (1)
 O_i O_d
- You can **ask** me whatever you like (2)
 O_i O_d
- The public sector health service **buys** free private care for you (3)
 O_d O_i
- Who did Jane **tell** a funny story? (4)
 O_i O_d

With (1) and (2), it is easily to see O_i precedes O_d . However, O_i can generally paraphrased by a phrase introduced by “*to*” or “*for*” as (3). And the fourth example can be explained by the sentence:

“Jane **told** someone a funny story”

O_i O_d

1.3. Object Complement

1.3.1. Definition of Object Complement

An **object complement** follows and modifies or refers to a direct object. It can be a noun or adjective or any word acting as a noun or adjective.

[www.english-for-students.com]

For example:

- I **named** my dog Lulu

O C_o

The noun "Lulu" complements the object "my dog"

- The clown **got** the children too excited.

O C_o

The participle "*excited*" complements the object "the children."

On the other hand, object complement is the part of the sentence which can describe, clarify, re-name, or show completion of a process.

1.3.2. Position of object complement

The object complement, together with the other elements (S, V, O, C) constitute the elements of the sentence and clause structure. It always follows a verb and Direct Object. The sentence structure with the Object Complement is SVOC.

For example:

- The children **consider** him Santa Claus

O_d C

Nevertheless, the Direct Object may follow the object complement if the object is long, so the SVOC structure changes to the SVCO order.

For example:

- They will have to **make** clear unexpected figures, which I have no agreement with

In this example, "clear" precedes and modifies or refers to the Direct Object "unexpected figures"

1.4. Adverbial

Adverbial is a name of a constituent of a sentence or clause. Linguists suggested that the adverbial may be a word, a phrase or a clause, which are added to a clause or sentence to say something about the circumstances of an event or situation for example, when it happened, how it happened and where it happened.

Therefore, according to the view of three linguists Douglas Biber, Susan Conrad and Geoffrey Leech stated “*Adverbials are clause elements that serve three major functions: circumstance adverbials, stance adverbial and linking adverbials*”

[2;354]

For example:

- We have had dinner **in Chen restaurant** (1)
- **Fortunately**, he passed the final exam (2)
- United Kingdom is small compared with that in other countries and, **if I may say so**, here in Washington (3)

As we can see from the examples above, adverbial in the sentence (1) is circumstance because it tells the place where we have had dinner. It expresses a speaker’s feeling or comments in the sentence (2), so “Fortunately” is stance adverbial. And in the last one, the clause “if I may say so” is a linking adverbial because it links between two clauses which precede and follow it.

Also, from (1), (2) and (3), we can observe a number of different structures of Adverbial. They can be an adverb as (2), a prepositional phrase as (1) or finite clause with the subordinator ‘*if*’ as (3).

Besides, the other characteristic function of adverbial in sentence or clause structure is that there is often more than one adverb functioning adverbial in the same sentence.

For example:

- **Actually** you **probably** wouldn’t have enjoyed **here**

Adverbials can be optional constituents of the sentence or clause, in the sense that if they are omitted the sentence remains well-formed.

For example:

- Schoolboys **usually** play football **here**

If we omitted one of two adverbials “usually” or “here”, the sentence would remain well-form.

However, the adverbial in some cases certainly is obligatory element of the clause structure in the sense that it is required for the complementation of the verb. That is to say, the sentence will be incomplete if the adverbial is omitted.

For example:

- The ambulance took the injured people **to the hospital**

S V O_d A

We can not say by SVO: *The ambulance took the injured people*

In short, in this chapter, I have presented the broad overview of sentence elements including to Verb, Object (Direct and Indirect Object), Object Complement and Adverbial with examples for each. They are related in the sentence structures of transitive complementation. As follows, the complementation of transitive verbs will be presented more thoroughly in the Chapter two.

CHAPTER TWO

THE COMPLEMENTATION OF ENGLISH TRANSITIVE VERB

2.1. Monotransitive complementation

Monotransitive verbs require a direct object, which may be a noun phrase, a finite clause, or a non-finite clause (infinitive or participle clause).

[1;344]

2.1.1. Noun phrase as direct object

❖ With simple transitive verb

Direct objects are typically noun phrases. It is usually possible for the 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.

[3;358]

For example:

- Every one **understood** that problem
⇒ That problem **was understood** (by everyone)
- The children **have broken** the window
⇒ The window **has been broken** (by the children)
- He **won** the race
⇒ The race **was won** (by him)

However, when there are reflexive, reciprocal, or possessive pronoun in the noun phrase as object (co-reference between subject and object), the passive transformation is impossible.

For example:

- John **could see** himself in the mirror
*Himself **could be seen** in the mirror
- We **could hardly see** each other in the fog
*Each other **could hardly be seen** in the fog
- The other waitress **wiped** her hands
* Her hands **were wiped** by the other waitress

[3;359]

Some monotontransitive verbs can be used in the passive: *believe, break, bring, call, close, do, enjoy, feel, find, get, hear, help, keep, know, lose, love, make, need, receive, remember, see, take, use, win.*

On the contrary, a group of stative transitive verbs normally do not allow a passive transformation of the sentence: *have, fit, suit, resemble, equal, look, like, mean, contain, hold, comprise, lack.*

For example:

- ‘Oculist’ **means** ‘eye-doctor’
- My closet **contains** a lot of dresses

Notes:

- ✓ There are also monotontransitive phrasal verbs: *bring about, put off, etc* take a direct object and can be used in the passive.

[1;345]

For example:

- The Liberals **bring about** many changes in the electoral system
⇒ Many changes **are brought about** in the electoral system by the Liberals
- We will **set up** a new unit
⇒ A new unit **will be set up** (by us)

✓ A shift of meaning may be accompany shift of voice in verb phrases containing auxiliaries that have more than one meaning such as *shall, will, and can.*

[3;359]

For example:

- They **can do** it ⇒ “**can**” expresses ability
⇒ It **can be done** (by them) ⇒ “**can**” expresses possibility

❖ **With Prepositional V_{monotrans} and Phrasal-prepositional V_{monotrans}**

Two kinds of verb often take NP as Prepositional Object. However, the prepositional object of type “ V_{prep} + NP” and type “ V_{phrasal-prep} + NP”

resembles the direct object in accepting the passive and in being elicited by a pronoun in questions.

For example:

- Marry is **preparing for** her birthday party

V_{prep}

⇒ Passive: Her birthday party is being **prepared for** by Marry

⇒ *What* is Marry **preparing for**?

- She will **catch up with** the rest of the class.

$V_{\text{phrasal-prep}}$

⇒ Passive: The rest of the class will be caught up with by her

⇒ *Who(m)* will she catch up with?

Notes:

✓ To indicate the closeness of a prepositional object to a direct object, when a prepositional verb is followed by a *that*-clause or a *to*-infinitive clause, the prepositional verbs disappear.

For example:

- She **decided on** her marriage in the church

Or: She **decided on** marrying in the church

Or: She **decided** (*that*) she will marry in the church

Or: She **decided** *to* marry in the church

✓ However, the preposition that is omitted before *that*-clause can reappear in the corresponding passive. This is so even in extraposition, where the position immediately follows the passive verb phrase.

[1;345]

For example:

- *That* she will marry in the church **was decided (on)**

Or: It was **decided (on)** that she will marry in the church

2.1.2. Finite clause as direct object

- ❖ **That - clause as object**

The conjunction *that* in *that*-clauses functioning as object is optional, but when the clause is made the passive object, the conjunction is obligatory. The normal passive analogue has “*it*” and extraposition, “*that*” being again to some extent optional.

[1,346]

For example:

- They **thought** (*that*) he was a burglar
 - ⇒ Passive: That he was a burglar **was thought** (by them)
 - ⇒ Or: *It* was thought by them (*that*) he was a burglar

There are four types of verbs that appear in the *that*-clauses and are complemented by *that*-clauses: **FACTUAL**, **SUASIVE**, **EMOTIVE** and **HYPOTHESIS**.

(i) Factual verbs

+ Factual verbs are followed by a *that*-clause with an indicative subordinate verb

For example:

- He **admitted** that he was wrong

+ There are two subtypes of factual verbs:

➤ Public verbs consist of speech act verbs introducing indirect statements: *admit, agree, announce, argue, bet, clam, complain, confess, declare, deny, explain, guarantee, insist, mention, object, predict, promise, reply, report, say, state, suggest, swear, warn, write*.

➤ Private verbs express intellectual states and intellectual acts that are not observable: *believe, consider, decide, doubt, expect, fear, feel, forget, guess, hear, hope, know, notice, presume, realize, recognize, remember, see, suppose, think, understand*.

(ii) Suasive verbs

+ Suasive verbs are followed by a *that*-clause either with putative *should* or with the subjunctive. A third possibility, a *that*-clause with an indicative verb, occurs, though more commonly in BrE.

For example:

- I **recommend** that you *should* resign

Or: I **recommend** that you resign

+ Also, a common alternative to the *that*-clause for some suasive verbs is an infinitive clause.

For example:

- The committee **proposed** *that* new legislation (*should*) be drafted

Or: The committee **proposed** new legislation to be drafted

+ Some examples of suasive verbs: *agree, ask, command, decide, demand, insist, intend, move, order, prefer, propose, recommend, request, suggest, urge*.

Note: A verb may belong to more than one type of verbs that appear in the *that*-clauses such as *agree, suggest*

For example:

- He **suggested** that I went home early

When “**suggested**” is a factual verb, “I went home early” is a factual report

When “**suggested**” is a suasive verb, “I went home early” is a suggested action

(iii) Emotive and hypothesis verbs

+ Emotive verbs are followed by a *that*-clause with either the indicative or putative *should*:

For example:

I **regret** that she *should* worry about it

Or: I **regret** that she worries about it

Some examples of emotive verbs: *annoy, concern, marvel, rejoice, regret, surprise, wonder, worry*.

+ Hypothesis verbs comprise *wish*, *suppose* (in the imperative), and the modal idiom *would rather* or its contraction '*d rather*. They are followed by a *that*-clause with the hypothetical past or the *were*-subjunctive.

[1;347]

For example:

- I **wish** *(that)* I were rich
- She **would rather** *(that)* her parents had not criticized her
- ❖ **Complementation by an extraposed subject *that*-clause**

Another place where we part company with traditional grammar is in the context of so called “**extraposed subjects**”. These are said to occur primarily in clause that begin with an “introductory” or “anticipatory” it.

[6;156]

For example:

- It **seems** *(that)* they were unaware of the decision

That-clause “*that they were unaware of the decision*” in the example above is an “**extraposed subject**”, not an object of the verb, with the “It” is analyzed as a “dummy subject” or “formal subject”. In other word, “It” occupies the place typically occupied by a grammatical Subject but the *that*-clause contains the content of the Subject.

Like the *that*-clauses in the previous sections, the conjunction “*that*” is optional and the clause is obligatory. The verb in *that*-clause is indicative.

For example:

- It **appears** *(that)* she would keep her word
- It **turned out** *(that)* they had lost their way in the dark

Some examples in this pattern: *seem*, *appear*, *happen*, and the phrasal verbs “*come about*” (“happen”), *turn out* (“transpire”).

❖ **Wh-clause as object**

Many factual verbs which can take a *that*-clause as object can also take a *wh*-interrogative clause.

For example:

- I **understand** what they have explained
- I **know** how she satisfies her children

Factual verbs that are used to convey an indirect question are followed by clauses with “*whether*” or not (less commonly) “*if*”.

[3;360]

For example:

- She **wondered** if her husband could find the passport
- She didn’t **know** whether I remember her birthday
- Have you **heard** whether they are coming to visit us?

The *wh*-interrogative clause generally implies lack of knowledge on the part of the speaker. It is particularly common when subordinate clause is interrogative or negative. But when the verbs express uncertainty such as *doubt*, *ask*, without this nonassertive constraint.

Some examples of verbs taking the *wh*-interrogative clause: *ask*, *care*, *decide*, *depend*, *doubt*, *explain*, *forget*, *hear*, *know*, *mind*, *notice*, *prove*, *realize*, *remember*, *say*, *see*, *tell*, *think*, *wonder*.

Note: The list includes **prepositional verbs** where the preposition is optionally omitted before a *wh*-clause.

[1;347]

For example:

- He doesn’t **care (about)** *if* I like his present
- I **think (over)** *whether* they will accept my application.

2.1.3. Non-finite clause as direct object

There are two main types of non-finite clauses that function as direct object:

a) *To*-infinitive clause as direct object

Non-finite *to*-infinitive clauses are distinguished between with a subject and without a subject. With subjectless infinitive clause, the implied subject is normally the subject of the superordinate clause.

For example:

- I **promise** to wait (1)
to-inf
- They **want** us all to stay (2)
NP to-inf

As you can see, in the sentence (1) with subjectless infinitive clause, “to wait” is O_d and the implied subject is “I”. But in the sentence (2) with subject infinitive clause, noun phrase “us all” is implied the subject of the clause with *to*-infinitive.

The status of these clauses as direct object is confirmed when they are replaced by a co-referential pronoun “it” or “that” or the focus of a *pseudo-cleft sentence*.

[1;348]

These verbs usually include: *agree, appear, arrange, ask, expect, forget, claim, decide, demand, determine, learn, pretend, remember, threaten.*

For example:

- We **expect** to be warmer today = We **expect** it is warmer today
- I **promise** to wait = I **promise** that I will wait
- He **pretended** to be angry = He **pretended** that he was angry
- *What we expect* is to be warmer today

Some verbs in *to*-infinitive clause without subject such as *ask, dislike, forget, hate, help, hope, learn, like, love, need, offer, prefer, promise, refuse, remember, try, want, wish.*

Some verbs in *to*-infinitive clause with subject such as *(can't) bear, dislike, hate, like, love, prefer, want, wish.*

b) Non-finite *-ing* participle clauses as direct object

Non-finite *-ing* participle clauses as direct object are distinguished between with a subject and without a subject. With subjectless *-ing* participle clause, the implied subject is normally the subject of the superordinate clause.

For example:

- He doesn't **enjoy** driving a car (1)
-ing participle

- I **hate** them gossiping about my family (2)
NP -ing participle

These examples points out that, noun phrase “*them*” functions as the subject of the clause with -ing participle in the sentence (2).

Some verbs belongs to the construction with -ing participle such as *(can't) bear, dislike, enjoy, forget, hate, (can't) help, like, love, (not) mind, miss, refuse, remember, try, want, wish*.

Notes:

✓ Some factual verbs will permit as direct object a non-finite indirect question, but not of the *yes-no* type.

[3;363]

For example:

- We have **discovered** how to start the engine
- The teacher is **arranging** where to go camping

✓ Yet, some monotransitive verbs can take either *to*-infinitive or -ing participle such as: *cannot bear, delay, hate, intend, like, love, neglect, omit, plan, prefer, try*. The participle construction generally implies “fulfillment” and the infinitive construction “potentiality”.

For example:

- I **remembered** to fill out the form
=> I remembered that I was to fill out the form and then did so
- I **remembered** filling out the form
=> I remembered that I had fill out the form

[3;362]

- They **neglected** their children to stay at home
NP to-inf

=> They were about to neglect their children to stay at home

- They **neglected** their children staying at home

NP -ing participle

=> It is certainly that they had neglected their children staying at home

- ✓ Monotransitive **prepositional verbs** are found in all the types above.

For example:

- They couldn't **agree** (on) when to meet their partner

indirect *wh*-question with *to*-inf

- They couldn't **agree** to meet their partner

to-infinitive

- They couldn't **agree on** meeting their partner

-ing participle

- You can **rely on** me to keep your secret

NP *to*-inf

- I **rely on** you coming early

NP -ing participle

However, **phrasal verbs** and **phrasal-prepositional verbs** only occur in subjectless *-ing* participle clause and *-ing* participle clause with subject.

For example:

- She **took up** driving a bicycle

V_{phrasal} -ing participle

- She **got around to** driving a bicycle

V_{phrasal-prep} -ing participle

- I **put off** them seeing us

V_{phrasal} NP -ing participle

- I **look forward to** them seeing us

V_{phrasal-prep} NP -ing participle

✓ For the verbs: *deserve*, *need*, *require*, and less commonly *want*, the choice involves a difference in voice, the participle construction corresponding to a passive infinitive construction. However, the subject of the superordinate clause is not the implied subject of the participle clause, but rather than its implied direct object.

[3;363]

For example:

- The garden doesn't **need** watering
= The garden doesn't **need** to be watered

✓ The verb “*help*” can be followed by a construction with the *bare*-infinitive. Otherwise, the *bare*-infinitive is found only in a few set phrases: *make do*, *make believe*, *let live*, *let go*.

[3;263]

For example:

- He **help** me (to) do my exercise

2.2. Ditransitive complementation

Ditransitive verbs occur in types SVOO.

2.2.1. Noun phase as both indirect and direct object

a) **Ditransitive verbs with non-prepositional Object (SVO_iO_d)**

Ditransitive verbs are complemented in a number of ways and the most common pattern is the verb followed by two object noun phrases that are not in intensive relationship. They are an indirect object which is normally animate and positioned first, and a direct object, which is normally inanimate.

For example:

- Molly **gave** her dog a bone

O_i O_d

These are the verbs that are most commonly used in ditransitive pattern: *ask*, *bring*, *buy*, *call*, *consider*, *demonstrate*, *describe*, *give*, *hand*, *leave*, *lend*, *offer*, *pass*, *promise*, *provide*, *send*, *serve*, *show*, *suggest*, *teach*, *tell*.

[learning.cl3.ust.hk]

Ditransitive verbs group into two semantic classes defined by the nature of the transferred object: +Act of giving: *take, leave, steal, lend, give*
+Speech-act: *tell/say, tell/narrate*.

[hai.archives-ouvertes.fr]

The indirect object occurring only between the verb and the direct object also occurs only when the direct object is also represented in the clause. However, the indirect object can be omitted without affecting the semantic relationships of the remaining constituents of the clause.

For example:

- Our parents **gave** us everything

O_i O_d

- Our parents **gave** everything

O_d

Some verbs taking ditransitive complementation allow either object to be omitted: *ask, owe, pay, teach, tell, show*.

For example:

- He **owes** me money
- He **owes** me
- He **owes** money

Sentences with some ditransitive verbs have two passives. Of these two passives, the first is more common, the second is usually replaced by the corresponding prepositional phrase.

[3;371]

For example:

- My mother **bought** me a new bike
 - ⇒ I was bought a new bike (the first passive)
 - ⇒ A new bike was bought *for* me (the second passive)

b) **Ditransitive verbs with Prepositional Object**

There are various ditransitive verbs that take a prepositional object as the second object.

This pattern includes two main subtypes:

(i) $O_d [= NP_1] + Prep + O_i [= NP_2]$

With this construction, the indirect object must be introduced by a preposition. And the indirect object is normally “inanimate” or a person while Prepositional Object is “animate” or a thing.

The person who receives the action or benefits from it is placed immediately after the verb as an O_i or it can be placed after the O_d as an PrepO. The PrepO contains ‘to’ when the participant is recipient and ‘for’ when it is beneficiary.

+ Verbs which take recipient O_i and alternative “to PrepO” include *deny, give, lend, promise, grant, hand, offer, owe, read, send, show, teach, throw, write*, etc.

For example:

- He **teaches** medical students English

O_i O_d

Or: He **teaches** English to medical students

O_d Prep O_i

+ Verbs which take beneficiary O_i , with an alternative ‘for’ construction include *book, bring, buy, fetch, find, get, make, order, pour, save, spare, etc.*

For example:

- **Book** me a seat on the night plane

O_i O_d

Or: **Book** a seat on the night plane for me

O_d Prep O_i

[www.scribube.com]

Notes:

✓ The verb “*ask*” takes the preposition “*of*” to introduce a prepositional object that is equivalent to the indirect object.

[1;354]

For example:

- May I **ask** you a favor
=> May I **ask** a favor *of* you

✓ A few ditransitive prepositional verbs (*pay, serve, tell*) take one of two prepositions. In one the prepositional object is equivalent to the indirect object, in the other to the direct object.

[1;354]

For example:

- He **told** the news *to* everybody
=> He **told** everybody *about* the news
- Four waiters **served** food and drink *to* us
=> Four waiters **served** us (*with*) food and drink

✓ The verb “*give*” allows considerable flexibility: the direct object can be abstract and the indirect object inanimate, though in such cases the latter has no variant with a prepositional phrase.

For example:

- He **gave** his car a wash (He washed his car)
 O_i O_d

* He **gave** a wash *to* his car

- Our groomer **gave** the dog a bath (Our groomer bathed the dog)
 O_i O_d

* Our groomer **gave** a bath *to* the dog

(ii) O_i [= NP₁] + Prep + O_d [= NP₂]

With this construction, the direct object must be introduced by a preposition. And the indirect object is normally “inanimate” or a person while Prepositional Object is “animate” or a thing.

For example:

- They **charged** him *with* murder
 O_i PrepO

- I **congratulated** her *on* the good exam results

O_i Prep O

This construction also allows only one passive, with the indirect object as subject.

For example:

- He **was charged** *with* murder (by them)
- She **was congratulated** *on* the good exam results (by me)

Examples of ditransitive prepositional verbs such as: *accuse of, advise about, charge with, compare to, congratulate on, convince of, deprive of, excuse for, explain to, forgive for, inform of, interest in, introduce to, persuade of, prevent from, protect from, punish for, refer to, remind of, rob of, sentence to, suspect of, thank to, treat to.*

Notes:

✓ With “*explain to*”, ditransitive verb is normally expressed by the construction: NP₁ = O_d + *to* + O_i. = NP₂

For example:

- Parents **explained** the problem *to* the children

O_d Prep O_i

⇒ The problem **was explained** *to* the children

⇒ The children **were explained** the problem (rarely)

✓ Some verbs (*blame, provide, supply*) have changes in requiring another preposition for each noun phrase.

For example:

- She **blamed** him *for* the failure of their marriage

O_i Prep O_d

⇒ She **blamed** the failure of their marriage *on* him

O_d Prep O_i

- That company **supplies** consumers *with* heating oil

O_i Prep O_d

⇒ That company **supplies** heating oil *to* consumers

c) **Ditransitive and prepositional phrase idiom**

Some verbs form an idiomatic unit when combined with certain noun phrases followed by certain prepositions and in this respect resemble many prepositional verbs.

[3;372]

The verb and two phrases form a very close, idiomatic unit has two passive analogues since either of the NP can become the subject of a passive sentence.

For example:

- The owner had **made a mess of** the house
 - ⇒ A mess had been made of the house
 - ⇒ The house had been made a mess of (informal)

[www.scrutube.com]

In two passive analogues of this sentence, the former passive is often felt to be more formal.

However, in some cases, this former passive is unacceptable or rare.

For example:

- They hardly ever **made use of** this possibility
 - ⇒ This possibility was hardly ever made use of
 - ⇒ Use was hardly ever made of this possibility (unacceptable)

[www.scrutube.com]

The following list includes some idioms following the pattern S+V+NP+Prep: *Catch sight of, give place to, give way to, keep pace with, lose touch with, lose track of, lose sight of, make allowance for, make fun of, make a fuss over/about, make room for, make use of, pay attention to, put an end to, put a stop to, set fire to, take account of, take advantage of, take care of, take notice of, take note of.*

2.2.2. Noun phrase as indirect object and finite clause as direct object

- a) Noun phrase as indirect object and *that*-clause as direct object

Some ditransitive verbs take a *that*-clause as direct object and have only an acceptable passive.

For example:

- How can she **persuade** you (*that*) she is sincere?
⇒ How can you be **persuaded** (by her) (*that*) she is sincere?

With some verbs, the indirect object is obligatory while with other verbs, it can be omitted.

For example:

- She **convinced** me *that* I was mistake
- The police have **warned** *that* this street is dangerous

Some examples are listed to whether the indirect object is obligatory or optional:

+ Indirect object is obligatory: **advise, assure, convince, inform, persuade, remind, tell.**

+ Indirect object is optional: **ask** (+indirect question), **promise, show, teach, warn.**

[3;373]

In addition, in the formal cases, if the *that*-clause introduces an indirect statement, it contains an indicative verb. If it introduces an indirect directive, the verb may be indicative or subjunctive (often contains putative “*should*”) or another modal auxiliary.

[1;355]

For example:

- The doctor **advised** him *that* he takes a complete rest (*indicative*)

Or: The doctor **advised** him *that* he (should) take a complete rest (*subjunctive*)

Or: The doctor **advised** him *that* he must take a complete rest (*modal auxiliary*)

However, to avoid these formal cases, we can express the *that*-clause by infinitive construction.

For example:

- The doctor **advised** him to take a complete rest

Some examples of verbs that take an indirect object and:

- (i) A *that*-clause object as indirect statement: *advise, bet, convince, inform, persuade, promise, remind, show, teach, tell, warn, write.*
- (ii) A *that*-clause as indirect directive: *ask, beg, instruct, order, persuade, tell.*

[1;355]

b) Prepositional object as indirect object and *that*-clause as direct object

There are some ditransitive prepositional verbs take a prepositional phrase and a *that*-clause. They all allow the omission of the preposition phrase.

For example:

- John **confessed** (to his loyal) that he had murdered her
O_d
- They **propose** (to government) that petrol price need decrease
O_d

Especially, the verbs in ditransitive prepositional verbs allow the direct object (*that*-clause) to become subject of a corresponding passive clause, though normally there is extraposition.

For example:

- That he had murdered her was **confessed** (to his loyal) (by John)

Or: It was confessed (by John) *that* he had murdered her

Some common examples in this construction:

- (i) *that*-clause is a indirect statement: *admit, announce, complain, confess, explain, mention, point out, prove, remark, report, say, write(to).*
- (ii) *that*-clause as an indirect directive: *ask(of), propose, recommend, suggest.*

c) Noun phrase as indirect object and *wh*-clause object as direct object

The construction SVO_iO_d, the direct object may be expressed by a finite *wh*-clause.

For example:

- We **asked** him when he would get married to Mary

O_i *wh*-clause

- John didn't **tell** me whether my wife is coming

O_i *wh*-clause

The verbs listed in the pattern SVO_iO_{that-clause} are also used in the pattern SVO_iO_{wh-clause}. But unlike SVO_iO_{that-clause}, we can put a preposition preceding the *wh*-clause.

For example:

- I **reminded** her (*about*) how much the fare was

In addition, some of the verbs also take a *wh*-infinitive clause as the second object.

For example:

- They haven't **instructed** us where to go
- The instructor **taught** us how to land safely

[www.anglistik.uni-

kiel.de]

Also the prepositional verbs may appear in this pattern.

For example:

- She **whispered to** me how to persuade my mother

2.2.3. Noun phrase as indirect object and non- finite clause as direct object

The direct object as ditransitive complementation is also presented by a *non*-finite clause .

For example:

- His girlfriend **advised** him to confess
- They have **invited** me to attend the trade fair

The verbs in this type are speech-act verbs: *advise, allow, ask, beg, expect, invite, tell, persuade, urge...* The NP is both the object of the main verb and the implicit subject of the embedded *to*-infinitive clause. This NP behaves as if it were the object of the finite verb and can become subject in a passive clause. As with other verbs of this type, passives are common.

For example:

- They **persuaded** us to stay
⇒ We **were persuaded** to stay
- A television campaign is **advising** teenagers to keep off drugs
⇒ Teenagers **are being advised** to keep off drugs

[7;110]

On the other hand, the subject of the superordinate clause refers to the speaker of a speech-act, and the indirect object refers to the addressee. The implied subject of the infinitive clause is generally identified with the indirect object. Only the indirect object can be made subject of the corresponding passive construction.

[1;356]

Notes:

✓ With some superordinate verbs, the infinitive clause may be replaced in rather formal style by a *that*-clause containing a modal or a subjunctive.

[1;356]

The common verbs permit both constructions: *ask* (with *wh*-indirect question), *persuade, remind, teach, tell, warn*.

For example:

- The driver **reminded** travellers to take along malaria tablets
⇒ The driver **reminded** travellers *that* they should take along malaria tablets

✓ There are several verbs which permit the non-finite clause but which do not (or do not freely) admit the finite clause: *ask* (=“request”), *encourage*, *force*, *help*, *order*.

[3;374]

For example:

- The thief **forced** Jenny to hand over the money

* The thief **forced** Jenny *that* she should hand over the money

✓ The verb “*promise*” is exceptional in that the implied subject of the infinitive clause is the superordinate subject.

[1;357]

For example:

- She **promised** me to be punctual

=> She **promised** me *that* she would be punctual

2.3. Complex transitive complementation

Complex transitive complementation enables us to say something about the person or thing encoded as the direct object in a way that relates to the subject and to the action described by the verbs. What is said may be an attribute, or an identification of the direct object, or a circumstance, or the result of a causative action.

[5;94]

For example:

- I **imagined** him much older

O_d attribute

- They have **appointed** Mr Smith a new manager

O_d identifier

- She **found** your car parking in front of the movie theatre

O_d circumstance

In complex-transitive complementation, the two elements following the complex-transitive verbs have a subject-predicate relationship.

[1;349]

For example:

- They **call** their baby an angel

The two elements “*their baby*” and “*an angel*” are the same elements in the subordinate finite clause: They **call** *that their baby is an angel*.

2.3.1. Noun phrase as direct object and adjective phrase as object complement

When the object complement is an adjective, it may be a ‘current’ or a ‘resulting’ attribute.

+ The Object Complement can express a state or characteristic of the person or thing named by the Direct Object. This type of Attribute is sometimes called a ‘current attribute’.

[5;94]

‘Current Attribute’ is introduced by the following meanings:

- Causal verbs to remain in a certain state: *leave, hold, keep*.

For example:

- We always **keep** our house clean

O_d C_o= Cur.A

- Mental process verbs: *believe, think, imagine, judge, presume, hold*.

For example:

- I **believed** her truthful

O_d C_o

- Affection process verbs: *want, like, prefer*.

For example:

- Do you **want** a drink hot or cold?

O_d C_o

+ An Attribute also can express a state caused by the action of the verb. It is then called a ‘resulting attribute’.

They are the verbs:

- Presenting the processes of doing: *bake, drive, get, knock, make, paint, rub, send, serve, wipe.*

For example:

- Could you please **make** a cup of coffee weaker?

O_d C_o = Res.A

- Taking declaration of conferring an official status: *report, turn, certify.*

For example:

- They **reported** the bridge unsafe

O_d C_o

Some combinations of verbs and adjective resemble transitive phrasal verbs in that the adjective can precede or follow the noun phrase and (like the particle) cannot precede a personal pronoun.

[3;369]

For example:

- Police **set** road-blocks **upright** on routes leading out of the city
= Police **set up** road-blocks on routes leading out of the city
* Police **set upright** them on routes leading out of the city

Some examples in such combination: *make clear* (the reason), *make possible* (the meeting), *make plain* (the difference). Among adjectives, *open, loose, free,* and *clear* are particularly common: *push open, keep loose, shake free, leave clear.* In many cases, there is a close meaning relationship between verb and adjective: *cut short, wash clean, drain dry, pack tight.*

[3;369]

For example:

- She **made clear** her objections
- I cannot **push** the window **wide open**
- You **pack** this box as **tight** as possible

2.3.2. Noun phrase as both direct object and object complement

Like the adjective phrase, when the object complement is a noun phrase, the attribute role of the object complement may be 'current' or 'resulting'.

Most of the verbs taking adjective phrases as object complement will also admit noun phrases (exceptions *get, have, put*) as object complement. However, the noun phrase as current attribute is uncommon, but the noun phrase as resulting attribute is used freely.

For example:

- They **think** his mother a teacher (rather uncommon)

O_d C_o= Cur.A

- The committee has **elected** you its chairman

O_d C_o= Res.A

Prepositional verbs, mainly with the preposition 'as', a prepositional object complement, such as: *accept as, class as, describe as, intend as, interpret as, know as, mistake for, recognize as, regard as, take as/for, treat as, use as*.

For example:

- They **described** you as a mad man

O_d C_o

- My friend often **mistake** me for my twin sister

O_d C_o

Yet, the preposition may be optional if they are *choose(as), consider(as), elect(as), name(as), make(into)*.

Notes:

✓ Many verbs admit both adjective phrases and noun phrases as object complements. But the most common verbs for each construction as follows:

+ Only for adjective phrases: *find, get, like, prefer, think, want*.

+ Only for noun phrases: *appoint, believe, call, choose, consider, declare, elect*.

✓ The object is generally postposed by extraposition if it is a *that*-clause and an anticipatory ‘*it*’ then precedes the object complement (exceptions include *make sure, make certain* without anticipatory ‘*it*’).

[1;350]

For example:

- They **think** *it innocent that her children were*

C_o O_d

- **Make sure** *that twelve passengers were dead*

O_d

2.3.3. Noun phrase as direct object and adjunct

In the SVOA pattern, the complex-transitive verb is complemented by a direct object followed by a predication adjunct. The adjuncts are characteristically prepositional phrases of direction or metaphorical extensions of the notion of direction.

[1;350]

For example:

- The secretary **brought** *him into the room*

O_d A = PrepP

- A friend **put** *me on to this restaurant*

O_d A = PreP

In addition, some space position adjuncts are also used in this construction.

For example:

- Can you **keep** *your eyes on my suitcase* for a moment?

O_d A = PrepP

- They have **purchased** *a house out of the city*

O_d A = PrepP

2.3.4. Noun phrase as direct object and non- finite clause as object complement

a) Noun phrase as direct object and *to*-infinitive clause as object complement

To-infinitive clause as complex transitive complementation is followed by two types of verbs: *factual* and *non-factual*.

+ With *factual verbs*, the subordinate clause normally has a stative verb and (specially, when the subordinate verb is other than 'be') a finite construction is preferred in ordinary usage to the non-finite, except that the latter provides a convenient passive form. The attribute of 'be' in this construction is required to be 'current'.

[3;364]

For example:

- They **supposed** the beggar to be really a police officer in disguise
= They **supposed** *that* the beggar was really police officer in disguise
= The beggar **was supposed** to be really a police officer in disguise

On the other hand, while the non-finite clause is used in formal context, but the finite clause is preferred in normal usage. So, it is more popular to use its passive form.

For example:

- She **knows** the qualifications to be necessary (formal)
= She **knows** *that* the qualifications are necessary (informal)
= The qualifications **are known** to be necessary (informal)

Common factual verbs: *believe, consider, expect, feel, find, imagine, know, suppose, think*.

+ With *non-factual verbs*, the non-finite construction expresses a causative, volitional or attitudinal relationship with the subordinate clause. There is no restriction on the class of verbs in the non-finite clause and no stylistic restriction on its use.

[3,364]

For example:

- My father **intends** you to take over the business (intention)

- We **appointed** him to act secretary (causative)
- This diet **allows** me to drink one glass of wine a day (modality)
- Graduation paper **helps** us to understand the issue thoroughly (purpose)

Common non-factual verbs: *allow, appoint, cause, compel, condemn, dare, get, help, intend, mean, permit, require.*

Notes:

✓ With *factual* and *causative verbs*, when the subject of the subordinate clause is identical with the subject of the finite clause, the non-finite clause is possible with reflexive.

For example:

- She **believed** that she was right
= She **believed** herself to be right
*She **believed** to be right

✓ With *volitional* and *attitudinal verbs*, if there are co-referential subjects, the subordinate subject cannot be expressed in the non-finite clause.

For example:

- I **intend** that I should leave early
= I **intend** to leave early

✓ Prepositional verbs with ‘for’ use ‘for’ to introduce a *to*-infinitive clause as a direct object: *ask, call, long, plan, wait.*

For example:

- He **called** *for* her to make an appointment

O_d

✓ Examples of multi-word verbs in this pattern are the prepositional verbs *count on, depend on, rely on*; the phrasal verbs *make out*; and the phrasal-prepositional verbs *keep on at*.

[1;351]

For example:

- I **count on** salary to increase this year
- You don't **keep on at** me to be foolish

b) Noun phrase as direct object and *bare*-infinitive clause as object complement

Two small groups of verbs take this pattern of complex transitive complementation: three causative verbs (*have, let, make*) and some perceptive verbs of seeing and hearing (*feel, hear, notice, observe, overhear, see, watch*). In addition, *help* and *know* may occur with the bare infinitive or the *to*-infinitive.

[1;352]

For example:

- Mother won't **let** the children play football in the street
- Did you **notice** her go out this morning?
- Police **helped** the couple (to) find the burglar

In the passive, the bare infinitive is replaced by the *to*-infinitive.

For example:

- I was **made** to repeat the story
- She was **seen** to enter the building about the time the crime was committed

Notes:

✓ '*have*' and '*let*' have no passive with the *to*-infinitive, except for passive in "*let go*".

For example:

- The robber **let** the child *go*

✓ Only '*let*' has a passive of the infinitive clause. Yet, '*let*' is usually replaced by '*allow*'.

For example:

- Her parents **let** her *be taught* (by the tutor)
- Passengers are not **allowed** to smoke

✓ With the verbs of perception, there is a passive with '*being*' and with *-ed* participle if the verbs are '*have*' or maybe '*see*'.

For example:

- The students **watched** the operation *being performed* (by the surgeon)
- We **have** the roof *mended*
- The crowd **saw** two goals *scored*

c) Noun phrase as direct object and -ing participle clause as object complement

Unlike the monotransitive complementation pattern with *-ing* participle, the noun phrase following the superordinate verb cannot take the genitive case.

For example:

- She **likes** him *waiting in front of the shop*

V_{superordinate}

C_o

- *She **likes** his *waiting in front of the shop*

O_d (monotrans complementation)

As the subject of ordinate clause is also the object of the superordinate clause, it can be the subject in a passive clause. And when the superordinate and subordinate subjects are co-referential, the superordinate subject is expressed by the reflexive.

For example:

- I **caught** him *climbing* on your wall
 ⇒ He was **caught** *climbing* on your wall (by me)
- *She* **notices** *she* talking alone
 = She **notices** *herself* talking alone

Basing on the structural connection, the verbs taking *-ing* participle as complex-transitive complementation can be divided into three groups:

+ *-ing* participle only: **catch, discover, find, keep, leave, start, stop**

+ *-ing* participle or bare infinitive: **have** (causative) and **feel, hear, notice, observe, overhear, perceive, see, smell, watch** (perceptual)

+ *-ing* participle or *to*-infinitive: **get**

d) Noun phrase as direct object and -ed participle clause as object complement

The verbs taking *-ed* participle clause as complex transitive complementation can be divided into four groups:

- + The causative verbs: *get, have*
- + Volitional verbs: *want, need, like, prefer*
- + Verbs of perception: *see, hear, feel, watch*
- + Verbs of finding and leaving: *find, discover, leave*

[5;97]

For example:

- He couldn't **get** the car *started* this morning
- I **prefers** my cup of coffee *made* in advance
- We **watched** our team *beaten* easily
- Having gone home, she **discovered** her laptop *stolen*

Note: Some verbs such as *want, like* have the corresponding constructions with an infinitive copular, generally 'be'.

For example:

- We **want** our salary *sent* in our accounts
= We **want** our salary *to be sent* in our accounts

CHAPTR THREE

COMMON MISTAKES ARE MADE BY VIETNAM LEARNERS IN USING ENGLISH TRANSITIVE COMPLEMENTATION AND SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

In the previous chapters, transitive verbs and their complementation are clearly presented. This chapter, I am going to find and analyze some common mistakes which are made by Vietnamese learners in using English transitive complementation. And then, I suggest for teachers and students the solution for teaching and learning transitive complementation

As an English major, I realize that not only me but also a large number of students have difficulty in distinguishing transitive verbs in general and their complementation in particular. Therefore, learners often find it difficult to realize the right function of the elements which follow the verb. They are not sure if these elements Object, Indirect and Direct Object or one is Object and another is one Complement.

3.1. Common mistakes are made by Vietnamese learners in using English transitive complementation

3.1.1. Mistakes in distinguishing three identical structures (V+NP₁+to-V+NP₂) of Monotransitive, Ditransitive and Complex-transitive.

According to the constructions related to complementation of English transitive verbs above, we can easily to realize that the structures using *to*-infinitive (S+V+NP₁+*to*-V+NP₂) with all transitive verbs: monotransitive, ditransitive and complex-transitive. A question is that how to distinguish between them. I can analyze through the three following examples:

- We **like** the parents *to visit* the school (1)
S V NP₁ NP₂
- We **expected** Jim *to win* the race (2)
S V NP₁ NP₂
- We **asked** the students *to attend* the lecture (3)
S V NP₁ NP₂

c) Distinguish (1) from (2) and (3)

Firstly, substitute “*something*” for “**NP₁+ to-V+NP₂**” to paraphrase them:

For example:

• We **like** *something* (4)

*We **expected** *something* (5)

*We **asked** *something* (6)

Clearly, when we put “*something*” instead of “**NP₁+to-V+NP₂**”, meaning of the sentence (4) as the same as (1) but (5) differs from (2) and (6) differs from (3).

In addition, we can use the passive form with NP₁ as the subject.

*The parents **are liked** to visit the school (7)

• Jim **was expected** to win the race (8)

• The students **were asked** to attend the lecture (9)

The passive form of (7) is indivisible or impossible, other forms of (8) and (9) are acceptable.

So, from two methods for distinction between monotransitive, ditransitive and complex-transitive, it is demonstrated that “**NP₁+to-V+NP₂**” is a single constituent in sentence (1) following a monotransitive verb. In contrast, these tests demonstrate that NP₁ is one constituent and “**to-V NP₂**” is another constituent in sentence (2) and (3).

➤ We **like** the parents to visit the school

S V_{monotrans} O

d) Distinguish (2) from (3)

With the passive tests, it allows an object function interpretation of Subject, but the functions of “**to-V NP₂**” are not determined in the sentence (2) and (3).

We can consider substitution of “*something*” for “**to-V NP₂**” in (2) and (3).

• We **expected** Jim *something* (impossible) (10)

• We **asked** the students *something* (possible) (11)

In addition, we can consider a *what*- question or a pseudo-cleft sentence focusing on “*to-V NP₂*” for (2) and (3):

*What did we **expect** Jim? To win the race (12)

• What did we **ask** the students? To attend the lecture (13)

Or:

**What we expect Jim* was to win the race

• *What we ask the students* was to attend the lecture

These tests suggest a nominal function for “*to-V NP₂*” in sentence (3) => the verb in this sentence (3) is ditransitive and the “*to-V NP₂*” constituent is another Object, a Direct Object.

➤ We **asked** the students *to attend the lecture*

S V_{ditrans} O_i O_d

Finally, the constituent *to-V NP₂* in sentence (2) seems to function as an Object Complement because it is capable to join the subject Jim in an intensive structure with some form of the verb “*be*” => the verb in the sentence (2) is only complex-transitive.

➤ We **expected** Jim *to win the race*

S V_{complex-trans}O_d C_o

In conclusion, the distinction between some identical structures of transitive complementation easily results in these ways: substitution, passive voice corresponding sentence, pseudo-cleft corresponding sentence, and focus in *what*-questions that the decision about the exact transitive nature of each sentence is made.

3.1.2. Mistake in distinction between the structure of Ditransitive (O_i [= NP₁] + O_d [= NP₂]) and the structure of Complex transitive (O_d [= NP₁] + C_o [= NP₂])

It is confusion is easily made when both the Indirect Object and the Direct Object in Ditransitive complementation are noun phrases and Direct

Object and Object Complementation in Complex transitive complementation are noun phrases.

$O_i [= NP_1] + O_d [= NP_2]$	$O_d [= NP_1] + C_o [= NP_2]$
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She gave <u>me</u> <u>a doll</u> NP₁ O_d • He called <u>her</u> <u>a taxi</u> NP₁ O_d 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • We consider <u>him</u> <u>our brother</u> NP₁ C_o • He called <u>her</u> <u>an angel</u> NP₁ C_o

It seems that these are very closely similar but in fact if we judge them more cautiously we can make this differentiation: *me* and *a doll*, *her* and *a taxi* are more two different entities whereas *him* and *our brother*, *her* and *an angel* are one entity

However, we sometimes base on a context to distinguish the two identical patterns as follows:

- I will **call** you a porter

This sentence is the pattern $O_i [= NP_1] + O_d [= NP_2]$ if *you* and *a porter* are two entities

- I will **call** you a porter

This sentence is the pattern $O_d [= NP_1] + C_o [= NP_2]$ if *you* and *a porter* are only one entity

3.1.3. Mistake in distinction between the structure of Ditransitive ($O_i [= NP_1] + \text{prep} + O_d [= NP_2]$) and the structure of Complex transitive ($O [= NP] + A [= \text{PrepP}]$)

Since Prepositions appear in both structures of Ditransitive complementation and Complex transitive complementation, some learners get confused of them.

Let's consider the mistakes below:

	O_i [= NP₁] + prep + O_d [= NP₂]	O [= NP] + A [= PrepP]
Mistakes:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • We informed <u>her</u> of <u>the news</u> O_i Prep O_d * We informed <u>her</u> of <u>the news</u> O A • He excused <u>her</u> for <u>the late arrival</u> O_i Prep O_d * He excused <u>her</u> for <u>the late arrival</u> O A 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She took <u>him</u> down <u>the roof</u> O A * She took <u>him</u> down <u>the roof</u> O_i Prep O_d • We led <u>them</u> up <u>the stairs</u> O A * We led <u>them</u> up <u>the stairs</u> O_i Prep O_d
Distinction: - Using Wh-questions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What did you inform her of? • What did he accuse her for? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Where did she take him? • Where did you lead them
- Replacing the given preposition by a new one	It is impossible to get the meaning of sentences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • She took him <i>up</i> to the roof • We led them <i>down</i> the stairs

3.1.4. Mistakes in using wrong word in the structure “V + O_d+C [= NP]” of Complex transitive verb

Learners often add unnecessary words into the structure V + O_d+C [= NP].

- They **call** him John
- * They call him *name* John
- * They call him *is* John
- * They call him *be* John

This is a popular mistake of some learners who add the word “*name*”, “*is*”, “*be*” in this verb structure. The reason why they add these words is influence of mother tongue with the verb “*là*” in Vietnamese.

Moreover, learners also add “*go*” in the sentence “*I took the children go to the zoo last week*” because there is the word “*đi*” in the sentence: “*Chủ nhật trước tôi cho bọn trẻ đi công viên*”.

However, some of them drop the word “*to*” in the structure **V + O + to + Inf**

*My father **persuaded** me go to the doctor

Or, they add “*to*” into the structure **V + O + bare inf**

*She **made** me to do it again

This case can be understood that learners confused the structure **V + O + bare-Inf** with the structure **V + O + to-Inf**.

3.1.5. Mistakes in word order in the structure “**V + O + Adj**” of Complex transitive

Basing on function of Adjective, a great number of learners thought that Adjective is always placed before noun in the noun phrase. They also believed that Adjective should be placed after verb “to be”. That is why they made the mistakes as follows:

- They **paint** the house *white*
- *They paint white the house
- *They paint the white house
- He is **making** a cup of coffee *weaker*
- *He making a cup of coffee is weaker

3. 2. Suggested solutions

Study on English transitive verbs is a difficult job but how to use their complementation is a more complicated job. So, in learning process learners surely faced with many troubles. With the purpose of solving these problems, the following suggestions may be helpful for not only the teachers but also learners.

3.2.1. Suggested solutions for learners

- First of all, learners should collect the useful related material to grasp basic theory of Monotransitive, Ditransitive and Complex transitive verbs. Because it will be the background that helps learners become familiar with basic structures of these verbs and know when they could be appropriately used.

- Secondly, learners should not conceal knowledge as well as not be afraid of making mistakes. Learners can frankly raise the opinions and make questions to the teachers for what is ambiguous or what you are debating about. You may be making mistakes after a debate but not to be embarrassed because we learn on mistakes.

- Finally, to learn the complementation of transitive verbs effectively, learners should practice a lot because practice makes perfect. Practice is not only the written exercises but also spoken exercises.

These suggested solutions will certainly help learners master these verbs perfectly.

3.2.2. Suggested solutions for teachers

In order to have a good way of teaching the complementation of transitive verbs, I will give some ideas and strategies for teachers as follows:

- Firstly, teachers should not try to give student much theory about Monotransitive, Ditransitive and Complex transitive verbs because long lectures about these will make learners feel bored and troublesome.

- Secondly, as it is not easy to distinguish these three kinds of verbs and their complementation, teachers should give learners many examples and ask them to classify which one belong to which sentence type.

- Thirdly, teachers should collect many kinds of exercises to encourage learners practice more. In addition, the spoken exercises by making situations are also to help learners use these verbs in their speech.

- Fourthly, teachers should be aware of the differences between English and Vietnamese and give emphasis when teaching so that the learners can remember and avoid the mistakes from the beginning.

- Finally, teachers should draw out common mistakes and errors, which often cause troubles to learners and ask them note to remember.

I have suggested some solutions above to contribute to effective strategies of teaching as well as learning transitive verbs and their complementation.

PART THREE: CONCLUSION

The author has so far deal with the theory related to transitive verbs and their complementation in English as well as some mistakes made by Vietnamese learner in the learning process. In the study, the author has studied the following key points:

Firstly, general background of English verbs, which consists of definition defined by many different linguists, classification classified in terms of their functions, forms, meaning, and their complementation are presented.

Secondly, verb complementation including Direct Object, Indirect Object, Object Complement, Adverbial is described with definition and their position in the sentence.

Thirdly, transitive complementation including Monotransitive Complementation, Ditransitive Complementation and Complex transitive Complementation is realized in different structures and patterns. They are also raised with clear analysis and examples.

Fourthly, suggestions to each mistake and solutions to difficulties are presented with great attempt to help learners overcome their problems as well as to help teachers orientate toward their effective teaching.

Finally, the author would like to welcome comments and suggestions from professionals, teachers, other learners who are concerned since shortcomings are inevitable.

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