

UNIVERSITY of BABYLON

**Investigating the Performance of Iraqi
EFL University Students in Using
the Semantic Roles of the Object**

A Thesis

**Submitted to
the Council of the College of Basic Education,
University of Babylon
in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Master of Education
in Methods of Teaching English
as a Foreign Language**

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جامعة بابل

تقصي أداء الطلبة العراقيين دارسي اللغة الانجليزية لغة أجنبية في

استعمال الأدوار الدلالية للمفعول

مرسالت

تقدمت بها إلى مجلس كلية التربية الأساسية في جامعة بابل

جزءاً من متطلبات نيل درجة ماجستير تربية في

طرائق تدريس اللغة الانجليزية لغة أجنبية

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Abstract

The study chiefly deals with the semantic roles of the object as one of the essential elements of the English sentence of transitive verb which form a problematic area for EFL learners.

This study investigates the Iraqi EFL university students' performance in recognizing and producing the semantic roles of the object. Accordingly, it is hypothesized that:

1. Most of EFL students classify most of the semantic roles of the direct object as affected and most of the indirect object as recipient.
- 2- Such subjects face difficulties in distinguishing between affected and effected direct objects.
- 3- Most subjects face difficulties in identifying the semantic roles of the prepositional object.
- 4-Subjects' achievement at the production level is expected to be worse than their achievement at the recognition one.

To validate the hypotheses a diagnostic test has been designed and applied to a sample of 100 Iraqi EFL university learners at their fourth stage from the Department of English, College of Education, University of Babylon(2007-2008). Linguistic analysis of the subjects' responses to the items of the test has yielded the following conclusions :

1. Iraqi EFL university students have failed to recognize the semantic roles of direct and indirect objects. These confusions have led them to produce (27.8%) of the total number of incorrect responses.
2. The majority of Iraqi EFL university students confuse between affected and effected direct object since the rate of their incorrect responses is (22.2%) at both levels.
- 3.The erroneous responses that can be attributed to the complexity in semantic identification of the prepositional object are(8.24%) of the total number of the incorrect responses .

4. The subjects' performance in the whole test has indicated that EFL university students encounter more difficulties in recognizing and producing the semantic roles of the object, but they face more difficulties at the production level than that of the recognition one as the rate of their correct responses (33.7%) is lower than that at the recognition one (39.2%).

5- The subjects' errors have been found to be attributed to the following factors:

I. *Intralingual transfer* where the rate of their errors constitutes (59.7%).

II. *Communication strategies* where the rate of their errors forms (25%) .

III. *The context of learning* where the rate of their errors represents (13.6%).

IV. *Interlingual interference* where the rate of their errors is (1.7%).

This study comprises five chapters, the first of which is devoted to the discussion of the problem, aims, hypotheses, procedures, limits, value of the study, and definitions of basic terms. Chapter Two introduces a theoretical survey of the syntactic and semantic roles of the object. Chapter Three describes the test: its objectives, design, material selection, validity, reliability, subjects, as well as the scoring scheme adopted. Chapter Four summarizes the results of the test, the subjects' errors, and causes of their errors. Finally, Chapter Five comprises the general conclusions, pedagogical implications , and some suggestions for further studies.

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A list of Abbreviations

Symbol	Description
-ed	ed participle form
-ing	ing participle form
N _(s)	Noun(s)
NC _(s)	nominal clause(s)
NP _(s)	noun phrase(s)
O _(s)	object(s)
Od _(s)	direct object(s)
Oi _(s)	indirect object(s)
Op _(s)	prepositional object(s)
Subj.	subject
SV	subject + verb
SVC	subject + verb + complement
SVO	subject + verb + object
SVOO	subject + verb + object + object
V _(s)	verb(s)

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الملخص

تتعلق الدراسة الحالية بالتعامل مع الأدوار الدلالية للمفعول بوصفه أحد العناصر الضرورية للفعل المتعدي في الجملة الإنجليزية الذي يواجه طلبة اللغة الإنجليزية صعوبة في تعلمه.

تتحرى الدراسة أداء طلبة الجامعة العراقيين دارسي اللغة الانجليزية - بوصفها لغة أجنبية - على تمييز و إنتاج الأدوار الدلالية للمفاعيل. وعلى هذا الأساس قدمت الدراسة الفرضيات الآتية:

1. غالباً ما لا يميز طلبة الجامعة العراقيون الدارسين للغة الانجليزية لغة أجنبية الأدوار الدلالية للمفعول المباشر وغير مباشر.
2. أكثر المتعلمين لا يفرقون بين المفعول المباشر المتأثر و المفعول المباشر المُنجَز.
3. يواجه مثل هؤلاء الطلبة صعوبات في معرفة الأدوار الدلالية للمفعول المجرور.
4. يتوقع أن يكون أداء الطلبة على مستوى التمييز أفضل من أداءهم على مستوى الإنتاج.

وللتحقق من الفرضيات أجرت الباحثة اختبار تشخيصي على عينة مؤلفة من مائة طالب من طلبة الجامعة العراقيين الدارسين للغة الانجليزية لغة أجنبية من الصف الرابع في قسم اللغة الانجليزية كلية التربية جامعة بابل للعام الدراسي (2007-2008). وقد أظهر تحليل الأخطاء النتائج الآتية:

1. فشَل طلبة الجامعة العراقيون دارسو اللغة الانجليزية بوصفها لغة أجنبية في تمييز الأدوار الدلالية للمفعول المباشر وغير المباشر إذ بلغت نسبة إجاباتهم المخطوءة (%27.8) من المجموع الكلي للأجوبة المخطوءة (%63.6)
2. معظم طلبة الجامعة العراقيين يخلطون بين المفعول المباشر المتأثر و المفعول المباشر المُنجَز إذ إن نسبة إجاباتهم المخطوءة (%22.2) على مستويي التمييز والإنتاج.
3. تمثل الأجوبة المخطوءة التي يُمكنُ أن تُنسَبَ إلى الصعوبة في تمييز الأدوار الدلالية للمفعول المجرور (%18.24) من العدد الكلي للأجوبة المخطوءة (%63.6).

4. يواجه هؤلاء طلبة صعوبات في تمييز وإنتاج الأدوار الدلالية للمفاعيل، لكنهم يواجهون صعوبات أكثر على مستوى الإنتاج حيث بلغت نسبة إجاباتهم الصحيحة (33.7%) وهي نسبة أقل بكثير من مثيلتها على مستوى التمييز (39.2%).

تعزى أخطاء الطلبة إلى العوامل الآتية:

أ. تأثير اللغة الأم إذ كانت نسبة الأخطاء بسبب هذا العامل هي (1.7%).

ب. تأثير استراتيجيات التعلم حيث شملت نسبة أخطائهم (59.7%).

ج. تأثير سياق التعليم حيث شملت نسبة أخطائهم (13.6%).

د. استراتيجيات الاتصال إذ كانت نسبة الأخطاء بسبب هذا العامل هي (25%).

شملت هذه الدراسة خمسة فصول كُرس الفصل الأول منها لمناقشة مشكلة الدراسة والأهداف والفرضيات و الإجراءات المتبعة وحدود البحث و الفائدة من هذه الدراسة و تعاريف المصطلحات الرئيسية. يتضمن الفصل الثاني عرضاً نظرياً للأدوار النحوية والدلالية للمفاعيل. ويتناول الفصل الثالث وصفاً للاختبار الذي أجرته الباحثة على طلبة الصف الرابع في قسم اللغة الإنجليزية كلية التربية جامعة بابل . ويتضمن هذا الوصف أهداف الاختبار وتصميمه واختيار المادة وصلاحيته وثقته و عينه البحث وأيضاً خطة حساب الدرجة المعتمدة. يلخص الفصل الرابع نتائج الاختبار و أخطاء الطلبة وأسباب أخطائهم. أما الفصل الأخير فيلخص النتائج التي توصلت إليها الدراسة و المقترحات و المضامين التي لها علاقة بالجانب التعليمي .

بِسْمِ اللّٰهِ الرَّحْمٰنِ الرَّحِیْمِ

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رَبِّنَا لَمَفْعُولًا ﴿١٠٨﴾

صدق الله العظيم

(سورة الإسراء / الآية ١٠٨)

We certify that we have read this thesis, entitled “**Investigating the Performance of Iraqi EFL University Students in Using the Semantic Roles of the Object**”, and as examining committee, examined the student **Nisreen Abbas Khudhair** in its content, and that in our opinion it is adequate as a thesis for the degree of Master of Education in Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Problem

In English, the element in the sentence that the subject has an effect on is called the object. There are three central types of object: direct, indirect, and prepositional object. They denote somebody or something involved in the subject's performance of the transitive verbs.

Typically, the direct object is *affected* by the action described by the verb :

1. Mother cut *the pie*. (Jespersen, 1933:75)

Less typical examples of direct objects are those involving more abstract concepts which are not necessarily affected by the verb, but relate to it in some other way (ibid.:76):

2. We walked *the streets*. (locative)

3. The architect built *a house*. (Effected)

4. Mowgli laughed a little short ugly *laugh*. (Cognate)
(ibid.)

5. The baby's having *a path*. (Eventive)

6. Jane rolled *the ball* into a ditch. (Theme)

(Erteschik-Shir and Rapoport, 2005:83)

7. Jane flashed *the light*. (Instrumental)

(ibid.:72)

On the other hand, the person or animate who receives the direct object is called an *indirect object*. The most typical role of it is that of *recipient* and *beneficiary*:

8. I gave *Lou* the kazoo.

9. Quark handed *Morn* a drink . (Noonan,1994:14)

Furthermore, the indirect object infrequently takes an *affected* role:

10. She gave *me* a push. (Quirk et al., 1985:753)

The *prepositional object* has certain semantic roles:

11. She left a note *for her husband*. (Beneficiary)

(Downing and Locke, 2006: 55)

12. The farm is situated *in a valley*. (Locative)

13. We flew *to New York*. (Goal)

14. We flew *from London*. (Source)

(ibid.:72)

Most Iraqi EFL university students face difficulties in distinguishing between semantic roles of direct and indirect object. In addition to that they face fastidiousnesses in identifying the prepositional object and its role

Furthermore, with an agentive subject and an affected object, one always pay attention to the meaning of a clause by saying 'x did something to y'; but this does not refer to an *effected* object whose referent exists only as a result of the activity indicated by the verb. Hence, most Iraqi EFL university students face difficulties in distinguishing between *affected* and *effected* objects.

Therefore, the present study attempts to shed light on the semantic roles of the objects and the difficulties encountered by EFL university students in pinpointing and producing them.

To the best of our knowledge, no study has been conducted for analyzing students' errors in this topic. So it might be an attempt to fill part of the gap in this respect.

1.2 Aims of the Study

The present study aims to:

1. Presenting materials about the semantic roles of the objects which can be of help to distinguish those semantic roles.
- 2- Identifying the Iraqi EFL university subjects' performance in recognizing and producing the semantic roles of object.
- 3- Finding out the subjects' errors and their sources which can be of help to provide some solutions that enable the learners to overcome the problems and difficulties they encounter in using such roles.

1.3 Hypotheses

In view of the preceding aims, it is hypothesized that:

1. Most of Iraqi EFL subjects classify most of the semantic roles of the direct object as affected and most of the indirect object as recipient.
- 2- Such subjects face difficulties in distinguishing between affected and effected direct objects.
- 3- Most subjects face difficulties in identifying the semantic roles of the prepositional object.
- 4-Subjects' achievement at the production level is expected to be worse than their achievement at the recognition one.

1.4 Procedures

The following steps will be followed in the course of fulfilling the aims of this study:

- 1- Presenting, as much as possible, a full material about semantic roles of objects including their different types and uses.
- 2- Selecting a sample of one hundred Iraqi EFL university students as subjects for conducting a test to investigate their performance in using the semantic roles of the object and to evaluate the extent to which they realize such roles.
- 3- Identifying learners' errors and making an analysis to classify these errors according to their sources on the bases of which conclusions and pedagogical recommendations will be given.

1.5 Scope

1. This study is limited to the following semantic roles of objects: *affected, locative, effected, eventive, cognate, instrumental, recipient, , goal.*
2. The present study is limited to the investigation of the use of the semantic roles of the objects by Iraqi EFL fourth year subjects at the College of Education in Babylon University.

1.6 Value

The findings of the present study are hoped to shed some useful light upon:

1. The theoretical aspect since the study is useful for researchers to cover the way for further investigation on this topic.

2. The practical aspect as this study can prove to be beneficial to both syllabus designers and language teachers in better understanding the learners' difficulties, and in designing affective remedial programmes in this respect.

1.7 Definitions of Basic Terms

All the definitions below are used as procedural ones:

1. *EFL University Students*: EFL is an abbreviation for English as a Foreign Language. Such subjects study English in Iraqi Universities.

2. *A semantic role* is the semantic relation which a participant may bear in the sentence, (A Dictionary of Grammatical Terms in Linguistics, 1993: v. s. semantic role).

3. *An object*: It is the part of a sentence which is acted upon or affected by the action of the verb (Dykes, 2007:205).

Affected : The undergoer of the action or event indicated by the verb.

***Effected*:** The entity which exists by the asset of the action of the verb.

***Goal*:** The location or entity in the direction of which something moves.

***Instrument*:** The medium by which the action or event denoted by the predicate is carried out.

***Locative*:** Place in which something is situated or takes place.

***Recipient*:** Entity receiving some entity(Aarts, 2001: 94).

***Eventive*:** It usually refers to an element which expresses an action (A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics, 2003: v. s. eventive).

***Cognate*:** It is one which has the same derivation as the verb which governs it (A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics, 2003: v. s. cognate).

CHAPTER TWO

SYNTACTIC AND SEMANTIC ROLES OF OBJECTS

2.1 SYNTACTIC ROLE OF OBJECT

2.1.1 Introduction

A theoretical survey of the syntactical construction of objects, their definitions along with the forms, positions, and functions is offered.

In many English sentences, the subject and the verb cannot express a complete idea. The idea only becomes whole with the help of other words. However, a transitive verb may take direct object, indirect object and/or prepositional object to complete this idea (DeCapua, 2008: 133). The object is very closely tied to the predicator in terms of meaning, and typically denotes the person or thing most intimately affected by the action or state denoted by the predicator (Biber et al., 2000:76).

15. I asked *a question*. (direct object)
 16. I asked *John* a question. (indirect object)
 17. Write to *me* when he gets home. (prepositional object)
- (Swan, 2002:584)

2.1.2 The Concept of Object

The word 'object' (O) is from Latin "*ob*" meaning 'against' or 'at', and "*ject*" meaning 'thrown', (Dykes, 2007:97).

Generally, the O is a part of the predicate. In this sentence,:

18. *Fritz hit the ball.*

Fritz is the subject (Subj.), and *hit the ball* is the predicate; the predicate then can be analyzed as consisting of the verb (V) *hit* and the noun phrase (NP) O *the ball* (Williams, 2005:57).

Traditional grammarians classify the O into direct object (Od) and indirect object (Oi). They distinguish between them by a contrast using of prepositions and word order. And they consider the difference between Od and Oi as a syntactic difference with no reference to semantics, (A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics, 2003: v. s. object).

Traditional grammar considers *Lisa* in the following example:

19. a I gave *Lisa* the book. and
 b I gave the book to *Lisa*

As an Oi in both sentences, whilst many contemporary analysts identify that *Lisa* is an Oi only in 19.a, but it is a prepositional object, Oblique Object is another term, (Op) in 19.b. Others hold that *Lisa* is an Oi only in the 19.b, but an Od in 19.a. Still others keep to up that English has no Oi at all, only Od and Op, (A Dictionary of Grammatical Terms in Linguistics, 1993: v. s. indirect object).

Curme (1947:135) adds another type of O which is called ‘O of adjective’. The O treated above as the O of a V, alternatively, an adjective usually takes Od or Op:

20. He is like *his father*.

21. He sat opposite (to) *me*.

On the other hand, structuralists consider a word to be an O whenever it fills the slot of the O in a sentence where a number of structural grammarians like Fries (1961:183), Roberts (1968:39-40) and Stageberg (1971:184) agree that the O is a major constituent of a sentence that occurs obligatorily after transitive V_s to complete the sentence.

Roberts (1956:300) argues that the O must be defined in terms of its functions within the sentence. He (1968:40) adds that a NP following a transitive V in a kernel sentence functions as the O of the V, and the objective forms of personal pronouns are used when the pronouns function as O_s of V_s , just as they are when they function as Op_s :

22. Tom sent *me* an email. (Downing and Locke, 2006:36)

23. She takes after *her mother*. (ibid.: 57)

In (22) *me* is the O of the transitive V *sent*, while in (23) *her mother* is the O of the prepositional verb *takes after*.

As far as transformational grammar is concerned, Chomsky (1965:70) attempts to define O on the basis of phrase structure. Thus, the Od is defined as a NP which is an immediate constituent of the VP.

Another group of grammarians including Quirk et al. (1985:726), Huddleston (1988:181), and Downing and Locke (2006:50) treat the O as a syntactic and semantic feature of the sentence. They add that Od is a NP or NC that usually follows the VP and refers to person or thing *affected*

by the action of the V, while an Oi is typically code the *recipient* participant of a ditransitive verb.

According to Quirk et al. (1985:1155-6) and Biber et al. (2000:130), Op is a NP or NC that usually follows the prepositional VP and it may express many of the same semantic roles as Od and Oi :

24. I have sent *the invitations* (Od).

(Downing and Locke, 2006:51)

25. I have sent *everyone* (Oi) *an invitation* (Od).

26. Look at *these pictures*. (Op) (Quirk et al.,1985:1155)

In fact, whenever one talks about the O, there is no escape from transitive V. Thus, it seems wise to deal with this type of V_s in the following subsection.

2.1.3 Transitive Verbs in English

Generally, a transitive V requires a NP or a nominal clause (NC) to complete the sentence. The element being required by the transitive V is called the ‘O’ which is obligatory since its deletion deviates the sentence syntactically and semantically (Thomas, 1965:121).

Traditionally, transitive is defined as a term referring to V_s that can take an O or more. This general statement also applies to those verbs that are used with Op (Zandvoort, 1957:199).

In any case, Op, like Od and Oi, completes the sense of the V and differs from other sorts of O_s only in that it must be realized as prepositional phrases (Noonan, 1994:11).

A number of transformational grammarians as Lyons (1979:350), Noonan (1994:4-5) and Radford (2004a:128) classify English transitive V_s in terms of the number of NP with which they occur in sentences. They call a transitive V that occurs with one O "a two-place verb", as in:

27. *John killed Bill.* (Lyons,1979:350)

The first NP (*John*) is the Subj. and the other NP (*Bill*) is the O.

They also call a transitive V with two O_s : a 'three-place verb', since it occurs with three NP_s , as in:

28. *John gave Bill the book.* (ibid.)

where the first NP (*John*) is a S and the other two are O_i (*Bill*) and O_d (*book*).

Transitive V_s may also be called 'reflexive transitive verbs', since they sometimes occur with reflexive pronouns as their object noun phrases. A reflexive construction is one in which the S and O refer to the same person or thing (Greenbaum, 1996:205), as in:

29. *I'm shaving myself.*

On the other hand, Quirk et al. (1985:58-9) and Biber et al. (2000:380-2) treat transitivity as a syntactic and semantic feature of the sentence containing the V rather than the V itself. They describe transitivity as a name given to a group of V-systems originated in the sentence. However, transitive V_s fall into three categories depending upon what completes them. These categories are monotransitive, ditransitive, and complex- transitive.

2.1.3.1 Monotransative Verbs

Many V_s describe events that must, in addition to the S , involve someone or something else. They occur in type SVO:

30. The man *stole* a coat. (Eastwood, 2002:8)

In the example above, the V '*stole*' is followed by the NP 'coat' which functions as Od that receives the action.

Many English V_s can be followed by prepositions and they are called, *monotransitive prepositional V_s* which have only one O where the prepositional complement serves as the Op of the V (Greenbaum, 1996:283), as in:

31. Did you *apply for* anything in the final year?

2.1.3.2 Ditransitive Verbs

A type of transitive V_s that is followed by two NP_s function as two O_s . The NP that immediately follows the V is the Oi and the one that comes later is the Od. The basic and normal word order for ditransitive sentences is (S V Oi Od), (Cobuild, 1992:161):

32. Dad gave *me the car*.
S V Oi Od

Ditransitive prepositional V_s have been nominated ditransitive since they require two objects to complete their meaning. The former that comes after the lexical V is the Oi and the latter is the Op inserted after the preposition (Quirk et al.,1985: 1158):

33. She must not *put him through* that agony again.
S V Oi Op
(Greenbaum, 1996:283)

Some ditransitive verbs along with the Od and preposition form idiomatic units such as:

34. I think it's a great shame that the Tories have never actually said to the British people we're sorry, we *made a mess of* it, and now we're going to try and do better. (ibid.)

2.1.3.3. Complex Transitive Verbs

According to Swan (2002:605), Complex transitive V_s occur in type SVOC, SVOA in which SVOC (NP) is the most common pattern. Complex transitive V_s need to be distinguished from another set of V_s which take two complements. There is a predicative relationship between the Od and the O predicative. Thus, we can show this by inserting a copula V 'to be' between the Od and the O predicative, as in:

35. They (S) called (V) *it* (O) *freelance teaching* (P).
 36. *It* (S) *was* (V) *freelance teaching* (P).

2.1.4 Types of Object

While there can be only one S per sentence, there can be more than one O. Od, Oi, and Op are referred to collectively as OBJECTS (Noonan, 1994:7).

2.1.4.1 Direct Object

Generally, the Od is a NP or a NC with the grammatical meaning of 'undergoer of the action', that normally follows the transitive V, unless it is an interrogative or nominal preceded by an interrogative (Jespersen, 1933:108) :

37. She eats *an apple* every morning.
 38. *What* did she eat?

Traditionally, it is said that the Od names the O of the immediate goal or receiver of the action of the V_s (ibid.:109).

The Od usually answers the question 'what', 'who (m)', 'which', 'how much\many' (Bing, 1989:36).

The Od is obligatory after certain V_s like *do, enjoy, make, etc.* while it is optional after others like *eat, read, write, drive, etc.* :

39. a John has *eaten* his sandwich.

b John has *eaten*. (Kroeger, 2005:71)

2.1.4.2. Indirect Object

It has already been shown that some V_s never take an O and others always do. There are also some V_s that frequently have two O_s, one is Oi and the other is Od. The Oi is affected by the action of the V but in less immediate way (Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, 2002: v. s. object).

The Oi conveys the animate entity to or for whom an action is performed or addressed. Occasionally, Oi can be inanimate, especially in idiomatic expressions like (Noonan, 1994:11):

40. We gave *the house* a new coat of paint.

In addition to what has been discussed, Miller (2002:96) believes that the Oi usually has an alternative prepositional phrase, with the status of Op without main differ in total meaning of the structure:

41.a Lucy sent *Isadore* a letter.

b. Lucy sent a letter to *Isadore*.

In fact, the Oi is identified and explained differently by grammarians such as Fries (1961:185), Schuster (1965:376), Stageberg (1971:84), Noonan (1994:226) and DeCapua (2008:136). Yet, a close observation of the examples given so far reveals the following points:

- 1-The Oi appears in sentences only if there is a Od.
- 2- It normally intermediates the ditransitive V and the Od.
- 3-The referent of the Od is different from that of the Oi.
- 4-The Oi might be changed into a prepositional phrase without a major change in the total meaning.

2.1.4.3 Prepositional Object

Op is argument of predicator that takes the form of prepositional phrase:

42. Her parents are optimistic *about her future*.

(Ellsworth and Higgins, 2002:9)

Op can (like other O_s) be questioned by *whom* or *what* after the preposition, it differs from Od and Oi in that a preposition introduces it, as in:

43. a Her parents are optimistic *about her future*.

b *About what?* (ibid.)

A preposition can sometimes be separated from its O (Brown and Miller, 1980:262-3).

44. The knife which he cut the salami *with*. (ibid.)

Herndon (1976:61) mentions that prepositions are words such as *above, by, for, in,* and *at* for example 'at the door'. There are two-word

prepositions such as *across from*, *out from* and *out of* for instance 'across from you'. In addition, three-word prepositions such as *on top of* and *in front of* as 'in front of the bank'.

According to Curme (1947:137), the Op is frequently used after transitive V_s in association with Od and it is also the normal complement of many adjectives and intransitive V_s :

45. He threw a stone at *me*. (ibid.)

46. She arrived before *him*. (Strumpf and Douglas, 1999:230)

2.1.5 Types of Direct Object

A. Simple Direct Object

The Od may consist of a simple word:

47. I bought *a raincoat*. (Alexander, 2002:3)

48. The child helped *the teacher*. (Aarts and McMahon, 2006:176)

B. Compound Direct Object

A direct object may be a compound. In this case there are two or more answers to the (What) or (Whom) Question (ibid.: 201), as in the following example:

49 a. We invited *the manager and several staff members*.

b. We invited *the manager*.

c. We invited *several staff members*.

The coordination in (49.a) functions as object of *invited* since each coordinate can occur on its own with that function, as in (49.b–c).

C. Complex Direct Object

The O may consist of more than two NP_s (i.e. substantives) which are used as O of the V:

50. I was thinking *how nice you are, what a good actor, and what a nice man.* (Biber et al., 2000:683)

2.1.6 Syntactic Identification of Direct Object

Quirk et al. (1985:726) and Biber et al.(2000:125-9) discuss the O from two different points: syntactically (form, position, function) and semantically (the semantic criterion will be explained in detail in the next section). Their identification will be charged on in this study since they are the most comprehensive ones.

2.1.6.1 Form

The Od can be realized by many forms.

2.1.6.1.1 Noun Phrase

A NP may have a wide range of syntactic roles. Typically it can function as S , O , and complement of preposition (Alexander, 2002:34).

A NP consists of a noun as a head either alone or combined by determiners and modifiers, as in: *a house, their house, her gold watch* (Biber et al., 2000:97).

Beside common nouns, a NP may be headed by proper nouns, pronouns, and enumerators.

51. We left *London*. (proper noun)
(Jespersen, 1933:109)
52. I like *them*. (pronoun)
(Alexander, 2002:79)
53. The greedy will take *all three*. (enumerator)
(Leech et al., 1982:61)

2.1.6.1.2 Finite clause

The main types of the finite NP whose V_s are marked for tense, person and number which fulfill the functions of Subj., O and complement in clause structure are the *that*-clause, the *wh*-nominal relative clause, and the dependent *wh*-interrogative clause yes-no and alternative interrogative clauses. The dependent exclamative is a further type of *wh*-clause (Miller, 2002:60).

2.1.6.1.2.1 That-Clause

That-clauses form the largest group of finite clause complements and they are controlled by transitive V_s . The V_s that take a that-clause in O position fall into three major semantic domains: mental V_s (think, know), speech V_s (say, tell), and other communication V_s that do not necessarily involve speech (show, prove, suggest) (Downing and Locke, 2006:100).

Biber et al. (ibid.:662) describe that there are three structural patterns for V_s taking a that-clause in Od position:

Pattern (1): verb + that-clause:

54. I did not agree *that he should be compelled to do singing*.

Pattern (2): verb + NP + that-clause

55. I persuaded myself *that something awful might happen.*

Pattern (3): verb + to NP + that-clause

56. I suggest to Miss Kerrison *that she sit down on the chair and wait.*

Biber et al. (2000:662) add a few V_s that can occur with all three patterns such as: write, cable, wire:

57. I wrote *that I could be satisfied with any old freighter.*

a. I wrote him *that I could be satisfied with any old freighter.*

b. I wrote to him *that I could be satisfied with any old freighter.*

There are a few verbs of 'affect' which are used in the pattern "verb + it + that-clause" where the pronoun *it* and *that-clause* are co-referential:

58. He does not like *it that she poses as a catholic.* (ibid.)

That is usually obligatory in extended sentences, especially when the *that-clause*, as O, is separated from the V, and when there is more than one subordinate clause (Close, 1978:43), as in:

59. Everyone could see, I believe, *that he was terrified.*

That-clause may precede the clause it depends on, and here *that* is obligatory:

60. *That George was really afraid*, I can not believe. (ibid.)

2.1.6.1.2.2 Zero That-Clause

According to Bing (1989:37) Zero that-clause is just like that-clause, except that *that* itself is omitted. Conversely the sentence is obvious and complete without subordinating conjunction. Hence one can test the zero-that clause by adding subordinating conjunction *that* at the beginning of the clause:

61. a I told Jake *the earth is round*.
 b I told Jake *that the earth is round*.

(Leech et al., 1982:96)

According to Noonan (1994: 103-4), the omission of *that* is favoured by the following causes:

(a) When *think* or *say* is the main verb:

62. I *think* it's nice.
 63. Tim *says* it's easy.

(b) When the S refers to the same entity in the main clause and in *that*-clause:

64. Tim *promised he'd do it*.

(c) When there is a pronoun rather than a noun head in *that*-clause:

65. She knew *he would do it*.

2.1.6.1.2.3 Nominal Interrogative Clause

The subordinate interrogative clause which begins with wh-element may function as Od. Semantically, it is similar to wh-question by leaving a gap of indefinite information (Quirk et al., 1985:1050).

66. I cannot imagine *what they want with your address*.

According to Biber et al. (2000:683), there are two important grammatical patterns available for wh- interrogative clause as O_s:

Pattern (1): V + wh-clause

67. I do not know *what they are*.

Pattern (2): V + NP + wh-clause

68. I did not tell you *what Emma thought*.

2.1.6.1.2.4 Yes-No and Alternative Interrogative Clauses

A subordinate yes-no interrogative clause introduced by the subordinators '*whether*' or '*if*' may function as Od; moreover, the dependent alternative question *if/whether ...or* can also function as Od (Close, 1978:49):

69. Please tell me *whether or not you agree*. (ibid.)

70. Do you know *if/whether* the banks are opened.

(Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973:318)

2.1.6.1.2.5 Nominal Relative Clause

Biber et al. (2000:193) state that wh-clause can be either a dependent interrogative clause or a nominal relative clause with the same set of wh-words, but a nominal relative clause can be paraphrased by a general head noun modified by the wh-clause functioning as a relative clause:

71. He explained *who would be in charge of the investigation*.

72. They finally decided *where they will send their child to school*.

73. He knows *what she means*. (Alexander, 2002:19)

2.1.6.1.2.6 Exclamative Clause

A less common type of wh-clause has an exclamative function. A subordinate exclamative clause functions as Od (Aarts and McMahon, 2006:180):

74. I realize *how sensible she is*. (ibid.)

75. He still remembers *how wonderful it had been*.

(Biber et al., 2000:683)

2.1.6.1.3 Non-Finite clause

According to Chalker (1989:199), non-finite clauses are not marked for tense and modality . They frequently lack an explicit S and subordinator. Nonfinite Od clause can be realized by all four types of nonfinite clause: to-infinitive clauses, bare infinitive clauses, -ing participle clauses and -ed participle clauses (see also Aarts, 2001:77).

2.1.6.1.3.1 To-Infinitive Clause

The most common position of infinitive clause is after a main verb. When the infinitive clauses follow verbs, they are function as objects (Close, 1978:96):

76. He agreed *to come* on holiday with us.

The to-infinitive clause can replace that-clause in examples such as the following:

77.a I hope *that I will be able to come*.

b. I hope *to be able to come*. (ibid.)

To-infinitive clause can replace noun:

78. a I like *cornflakes* for breakfast. (Noun as O)

b. I like *to have cornflakes* for breakfast.(Infinitive clause as O)

(Swan, 2005:280)

2.1.6.1.3.1 Bare-Infinitive Clause

Bare-infinitive clauses evoke an event in which an end-point is included. Relatively few verbs occur in this pattern. They include three V_s of coercion (eat, make, have), a few V_s of perception and the V *help* (Jespersen: 1933:331).

79. I helped repaint the kitchen. (Aart and McMahon, 2006:215)

80. He saw her *come*. (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973:361)

2.1.6.1.3.3 ing-Clause

Verbal noun -ing clauses that have the function of a noun and which at the same time shows the verbal features of tense and voice may function as O:

81. I enjoy *sitting* here in the sun. (Close, 1978:96)

Dependent –ing clause can be constructed with or without Subj.

82.He saw her *coming*.

83. He likes *talking*. (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973:361)

2.1.6.1.3.4 ed-Clause

A nominal –ed participle clause may function as Od.

84. Two-years-old Constantine will have *his cleft palate repaired*.

(Biber et al., 2000:200)

2.1.6.1.4 Verbless Clause

A verbless Clause is special in that it does not contain a verb, but can be said to contain an implicit V "be". It is also called "small clause":

85. Martin considers *Tim a creep*.

86. Phil deems *Henry foolish*. (Aarts, 2001:56)

2.1.6.2 Position

Normally, the Od is placed immediately after the Subj. and V, and follows an Oi if there is one (Downing and Locke, 2006:51):

87. I have sent *the invitations* (Od).

88. I have sent *everyone* (Oi) *an invitation* (Od).

It can generally take the position of the S in the corresponding passive form:

89. Active: The secretary typed *the report*.

Passive: *The report* was typed (by the secretary).

(Eastwood, 2002:130)

Eastwood (ibid.) adds that an O can sometimes be put in the first position, especially when it makes a link or a contrast with what has gone before:

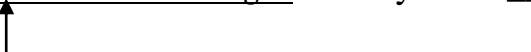
90. *Dogs* I love, but *cats* I can't stand.

Aarts (2001:195) mentions that there are different syntactic structures which involve movement of the Od from its normal position to a clause-initial position. This movement process is called 'extraposition' or 'topicalisation'.

Topicalisation can involve complex phrases as the following sentence shows (ibid.):


91.a Nobody liked the *books about New York that she bought*.

b. *The books about New York that she bought* nobody liked



There is also a process of moving a V with its Od where it is moved from a position at the end of the second clause to the beginning of that clause:

92. Sally says that she will return my book, and *return my book* she will



(ibid.: 196)

According to Quirk et al. (1985:1393), the Od can undergo extraposition when it is an ing-clause, a to-infinitive clause or a that-clause in SVOC and SVOA:

93. SVOC { *You must find it exciting working here*
You must find working here exciting.

94. SVOA { *Something put it into head that she was a spy.*
Something put the idea of her being a spy into his head.

Quirk et al. (ibid.:1395) remark that a long complex O can be delayed into final placement for end focus in SVOC and SVOA clause pattern:

95. They pronounced guilty *every one of the accused*.

96. I confessed to him *all my worst defects*.

2.1.6.3 Function

The Od has certain syntactic functions which identify and recognize it such as omission, concord and passivization (Quirk et al., 1985:726-7).

A) Omission

Leech et al. (1982:117) and Teschner and Evans (2007:221) define the omission of the elements of the sentence as the existence of ghost elements which do not occur in a given sentence, but they are on the other hand understood as a part of that sentence:

97. Perhaps you could show *me* (how to do it).

(Downing and Locke, 2006:56)

Downing and Locke (ibid.) add that the Od may be unexpressed with some V_s such as (*show, tell, teach, etc.*):

98. Who told you (*the answer*)?

99. He's teaching immigrant children (*maths*).

Borg (2004:121) states that ellipsis can only be understood by reference to fuller forms, which can be covered contextually.

100. a Has Bloggs cleaned out his office?

b He hasn't.

instead of 'He hasn't *cleaned out his office*' (Matthews, 1981:40).

Quirk et al. (1985:723) distinguish between different sorts of omission of O_s :

1) A specific O can be dropped when the referent can be identified from the linguistic context:

101. a: Show me your essay.

b: I'll show you later.

2) A specific O might be understood from the situational context:

102. Keep off [sign on grass].

103. Watch!

3) A specific reflexive O is understood when the V allows such an O:

104. I'm shaving.

4) A nonspecific O is semantically entailed:

105. He teaches.

106. I can't come now, because I'm cleaning.

B) Concord

According to Brown and Miller (1980:279), concord means formal agreement in person, number, or gender (or more than one of these combined) between two or more parts of a sentence.

There is a concord between the Subj. and the Od only when the latter is a reflexive pronoun or reciprocal pronoun. The reflexive pronoun can be used to make it clear that the O of a V is the same person or thing as the Subj. of the V (Greenbaum, 1996:179).

Cobuild (1992:33) states that, in this case, there is concord of number, gender, and person.

Concord of number refers to the reflexive pronoun of O which follows the Subj. in singularity and plurality:

107. *We* got out of the water and dried *ourselves*.
(Swan, 2002: 471)

108. *John* washed *himself*.
(Erteschik-Shir and Rapoport, 2005:106)

Concord of gender proposes to the reflexive pronoun of O which depends on the Subj. in being a male or a female:

109. *She* stretched *herself* out flat on the sofa.

110. *He* forced *himself* to lie absolutely still.
(Cobuild, 1992: 33)

Concord of person signals the reflexive pronoun of O which follows the Subj. in being first, second, or third person:

111. The garden extended *itself* deliberately.
(Sybesma et al., 2004:96)

112. All of us shook hands and introduced *ourselves*.
(Cobuild, 1992:33)

On the other hand, the reciprocal pronouns such as *each other* and the less frequent *one another* are similar to the reflexives, they co-refer with a NP; but dissimilar the reflexives, since they co-refer only with NP_s that are plural in form or meaning:

113. Oh I suppose it's a question *lots of people ask each other*.
(Greenbaum, 1996:184)

Furthermore, Downing and Locke (2006:67) believe that the O is very closely tied to the predicator in terms of meaning, and typically there is number agreement between the Od and the nominal group realizing the O complement, as in:

114. Circumstances have made *the brothers* (Od) *enemies* (C).
(ibid.)

C) Passivization

Active voice is contrasted with passive voice. Voice applies only to transitive verbs. An active sentence generally takes the order subject-verb-object (or probably two objects). The corresponding passive sentence has the active object as S, the active verb phrase is turned into a passive phrase by the introduction of the auxiliary *be* followed by the *-ed* participle of the main verb, and the active subject introduced by the optional preposition *by* (Gleason, 1965:305):

115. a Farmers grow *food*.
 b. *Food* is grown by farmers.

Downing and Locke(2006:53) state that both *that*-clauses and *wh*-clauses at Od can sometimes become S in a passive clause and then extraposed:

- 116.a They fear *that there may be no survivors*.
(*that*-clause)
 b. It is feared *that there may be no survivors*.
(extraposed clause)

Palmer (1966:66), Quirk et al. (1985:736-7) and Sawm (2002:407) exclude the middle V_s which do not occur in passive forms, such as *have*, *resemble*, *fit*, *lack*, *suit*, *contain*, *become*, *equal*.

117. He resembles *his father*.
 **His father* is resembled by him.

118. He has *lots of money*.
 * *Lots of money* are had by him. (Palmer,1966:66)

Quirk et al. (1985:1177) believe that the NP_s which follow the V_s of measurement like '*weigh*' and '*cost*' are not S to passivization. They are

said to be expressions indicating quantity, e.g. how much, such as *10 dinars*, *1 ton*, *5 Kg*. Furthermore, Palmer (1966:68) argues that such V_s are intransitive though they have transitive functions:

119. That car weighs *two tons*.

**Two tons* are weighed by that car.

120. Arthur measures *six feet*.

**Six feet* are measured by Arthur. (Miller, 2002: 94)

Quirk et al. (1985:164) identify another class of O_s which indicate coreferentiality with the $Subj_s$ of the same sentence which block passivization. They include reciprocal, possessive and reflexive pronouns. This is shown in the following sentences respectively:

121. John could see $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Paul} \\ \\ \textit{himself} \end{array} \right)$ in the mirror.

$\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Paul} \\ \\ *\textit{Himself} \end{array} \right)$ could be seen in the mirror.

122. We could hardly see each other in the fog.

*Each other could hardly be seen in the fog.

123. The women shook $\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{my hand.} \\ \\ \textit{her hand.} \end{array} \right)$

$$\left(\begin{array}{l} \text{My hand} \\ \text{?*Her hand} \end{array} \right) \text{ was shaken by the women.}$$

2.1.7 Types of Indirect Object

A. Simple

The Oi may consist of a single noun, pronoun, or NP where the Oi refers to the person receiving something (Eastwood, 2002:10), as in:

124. You give *the customs officer* the form.

125. I can reserve *you* a seat.

B. Compound

A compound Oi consists of two nouns or pronouns that appear with an Od and name the people or things that something is done for or given to (Johanson, 2006:191). This can be seen in the following examples:

126. Has Terri shown *Jeanne and Barbara* her new ring?

127. I bought *Ila and Jeff* two big pieces of cake.

C. Complex

Oi can also be complex, consisting of three or more phrases which are tied by *and* or *or* :

128. The mechanic gave *the chain, sprocket, and axles* a coat of oil.

(ibid.)

2.1.8 Syntactic Identification of Indirect Object

2.1.8.1 Form

Indirect objects are very restricted in their realisation. More often they are NP_s. Rarely are they nominal wh-clauses, non-finite-ing clauses ,or nominal relative clauses.

2.1.8.1.1 Noun Phrase

Oi_s are normally realized by noun, pronoun, or a NP:

129. Dana persuaded *Pat* to open the window. (Noun)
(Valin, 2004:53)

130. The child gave *me* the toy. (Pronoun)
(Aarts and McMahon, 2006:170)

131. The teacher gave *the child* some books. (Noun Phrase)

2.1.8.1.2 Nominal Interrogative Clause

Oi_s are very rarely realized by a finite wh-clause:

132. The security-guards gave *whoever entered the bank* a penetrating look. (Aarts and Aarts, 1988:139)

133. Sean told *whoever wanted to hear it* his story.
(Aarts, 2001:79)

2.1.8.1.3 Nominal Relative Clause

Nominal relative that-clause may function as Oi_s. It is slightly acceptable and infrequent:

134. They would not give *that she passed her examination with distinction* any consideration in determining her story.

(Quirk et al.,1985:1050)

2.1.8.1.4 Non-Finite -ing Clause

More slightly, Oi can be realised by a non-finite *-ing* clause.

135. I'm giving *reading magazines* less importance lately.

(Downing and Locke, 2006:56)

2.1.8.2 Position

According to Eastwood (2002:10) an Oi always precedes the direct object whenever there are two objects (in type S V Oi Od). The Oi is more central in being closer to the V:

136. The man bought *the woman* a diamond ring.

In English new information usually comes at the end of the clause. So when the Oi is new information and the Od is not, the Oi is put at the end of the clause (Cobuild, 1992:154).

With a few ditransitive verbs the Oi may be held alone without the Oi, as in:

137. Bob is teaching *the older children*.

138. You can pay *me* instead. (Quirk et al., 1985:727)

According to Aarts and Aarts (1988:139), the word order can be changed so that the Oi can be altered into the Op.

139.a The firm offered *Jim* the job.

b The firm offered the job *to Jim*.

But with other small group of transitive verbs, the Oi cannot be replaced by to-phrase.

140. The judge *fined* him \$5.

141. You can *spare* yourself the trouble. (ibid.)

2.1.8.3 Function

A) Omission

In fact ,the occurrence of the Oi is obligatory with some verbs, while it is optional with others that Oi can be omitted without affecting the meaning or function of the sentence.

The V_s that require an obligatory Oi include: advise, inform, convince, assume, persuade (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973:373).

142.a John convinced *me* that he was right.

b. *John convinced that he was right.

In (142.b) the sentence is ungrammatical since the verb *convince* requires an Oi beside the direct one.

On the other hand, those that require an optional Oi include: ask, show, warn, teach.

143. a John showed *me* that he was honest.

b. John showed that he was honest. (ibid.)

B) Concord

Oi_s of reflexive pronouns determine number, person and gender concord with their subjects:

144. Why don't *you* give *yourself* a treat?

(Downing and Locke, 2006:44)

145. *Rose* bought *herself* a piece of cheese for lunch.

146. *He* cooked *himself* an omelette. (Cobuild, 1992:161)

C) Passivization

Most verbs in English are ditransitive, which means that they can take two O_s. The Oi is the first recipient of the action of a V which can be converted into Subj. in passive form:

147. *Marsha* was given a ring by John.

(Teschner and Evans, 2007:96-7)

Noonan (1994:55) states that in passive counterparts the *recipient* Oi corresponds to the Subj.. By contrast, most beneficiary O_s do not easily become Subj. in a passive clause, although this restriction is not absolute, at least for some speakers:

Recipient Oi

148. She has lent *me* a few CDs.

Recipient as Subj.

149. *I* have been lent a few CDs.

Beneficiary Oi

150. I'll buy *you* a drink.

Beneficiary as Subj.

151. **you'll* be bought a drink.

2.1.9 Types of Prepositional Object

A. Simple

Prepositional V_s often take a NP or pronouns that come after the preposition.

152. He's looking at *her*. (Swan, 2002:453)

B. Compound

A compound Op consists of two N_s, pronouns or NC_s.

153. Both methods rely *on accurate determination of temperature and pressure of the gas*. (Biber et al., 2000:98)

C. Complex

Op can moreover be complex, consisting of more than two O_s:

154. The plan provides for *integrating and coordinating their efforts and contributions with those of the notional*. (ibid.: 129)

2.1.10 Syntactic Identification of Prepositional Object

2.1.10.1 Form

2.1.10.1.1 Noun Phrase

A typical prepositional phrase consists of a preposition and a NP, as well as common nouns. NP may be headed by proper nouns, and pronouns:

155. He almost ran over *a rabbit* on a country road last night.

(Downing and Locke, 2006:60)

156. I can't possibly account for *it*.

(Greenbaum, 1996:283)

2.1.10.1.2. Interrogative Clause

Subordinate interrogative clauses begin with a *wh*-word and may function as Op. The prepositions can be put at the end of the sentence:

157. *Who(m)* are you going with?

158. *What* are you looking for? (Alexander, 2002:263)

In very formal English, prepositions can precede question words:

159. *To whom* should I apply for more information?

160. I strongly object *to what you are insinuating*.

(Downing and Locke, 2006:60)

Question words are followed by prepositions in short questions (Alexander, 2002:263):

161. I'm going out this evening.

with *whom*?

2.1.10.1.3 Nominal Relative Clause

Wh-clause can also be nominal relative clauses with the same establish of *wh*-word. To refer to a person *whom* can be used immediately after a preposition. In this case, *whom* cannot be omitted or reduced to *who* or replaced by *that* (Alexander, 2002:20).

162. He is the man *to whom* I gave the money.

Alexander (ibid.) adds that the preposition can be moved to the end position. In this case, *whom* is reduced to *who*, and it is possible to replace *who(m)* by *that*.

163. She is the woman *who* (*whom or that*) I gave the money *to*.

164. *Whom* did you give it *to*? (Noonan, 1994:189)

For things and animals, *which* can be used immediately after a preposition. In this case, *which* cannot be omitted or replaced by *that*, as in:

165. This is the pen in *which* I boiled the milk. (ibid.)

As with *whom*, the preposition can be moved to the end position:

166. The knife *which* he cut the salami with.

(Brown and Miller, 1980: 262)

It is also possible to replace *which* by *that*:

167. This is the pen which (*that*) I boiled the milk in.

(Alexander, 2002:20)

However, the relative is usually dropped altogether when the preposition is in the end position, but only in defining clauses:

168. These are the cats I gave the milk *to*.

169. There's hardly anybody he's afraid *of*. (ibid.: 21)

2.1.10.1.4 Non-Finite-ing Clause

A gerund frequently functions as Op:

170. They prevented us from *finishing* it. (Hudson, 2007:198)

In the negative form *not* precedes a gerund, as in:

171. We *talked about not going* to the meeting, but finally decided we should go. (Azar,1999:298)

2.1.10.1.5 To-Infinitive Clause

According to Jespersen (1933:272), nominal **to-infinitive** clauses can act as nouns. Thus, they may function as Op. The only preposition that is used regularly before a *to*-infinitive is *about*:

172. He was about *to retire*.

2.1.10.1.6 Bare-Infinitive Clause

A bare infinitive clause may function as Op after prepositions of exception:

173. She did everything but *make her bed*.

(Greenbaum and Quirk, 1991: 313)

2.1.10.2. Position

Normally, a Op is placed immediately after the subject and transitive phrasal verbs. Monotransitive prepositional V_s have only one O. The prepositional complement assigns as the O of the V, this pattern contains a two-place prepositional V:

174. It just looks like *the barrel*. (Biber et al., 2000:413)

Downing and Locke (2006:95) add to this that the doubly transitive prepositional verbs have two O_s . The first object is a O_d and the second is an Op, introduced by a preposition; this pattern is characterized by the use of a three-place prepositional V.

175. No-one will *blame you for* a genuine mistake.

(Greenbaum, 1996: 283)

According to Quirk et al.(1985:1159), it is sometimes acceptable to place the Op in front of a complicated Od:

- 176.a He had been known to *reduce* movie-stars *to* tears.
 b. He had been known to *reduce to* tears some of the most seasoned and idolized movie-stars in Hollywood.

Greenbaum (1996:301) mentions certain cases in which the Op is fronted:

A. Wh-questions

177. *What* did you have it *on*?

B. Relative clauses

178. Uhm <, , > had an exhibition *which* I forgot to invite you *to*.

Quirk et al. (1985:1208-9) identify two main positions for Op_s:

Direct object +prepositional object

179. We addressed our remarks to the children.

Indirect object +prepositional object

180. We reminded him of the agreement.

2.1.10.3 Function

A) Omission

Biber et al. (2000,150:403) explain that the preposition plus Op cannot be omitted without injuring the structure and meaning of the clause. Prepositional V_s usually represent single semantic units that cannot be derived from the individual meanings of the two parts, as:

'carry out means perform', 'find out means discover', 'look at means observe'.

Noonan (1994:192) states that just as the direct and indirect objects of verbs can be ellipped, consequently the Op can, as the sentences below show:

181. Gertrude ran $\left(\begin{array}{l} \textit{in(to) the barn.} \\ \textit{in.} \end{array} \right)$

182. Erwin went $\left(\begin{array}{l} \textit{up the stairs.} \\ \textit{up.} \end{array} \right)$

Greenbaum (1996:300-1) denotes that in certain constructions, the preposition is left by itself, without Op. Thus, the O is absent in three cases:

A. Where a prepositional V is in the passive form, the Subj. matches to what would be the prepositional object in the active:

183. All she meant, I feel, is that McQueen popularized the term, for it is generally held to be a negro phrase and was *talked about* before the film star came on the scene. ('People talked *about that*)

B. The Subj. of the complex clause is the equivalent as the implied prepositional object in an infinitive clause:

184. Buses are well lit, *easy to see into* from outside, and pick up and set down passengers at regular intervals, reducing the chances of violence or robbery. ('It is easy to see *into buses*')

C. The Subj. of the multitude clause is the same as the implied Op in an –ing participle clause:

185. Well *the swimming pool's* not worth talking about. ('It's not worth talking *about the swimming pool*').

B) Concord

There is a concord between the Subj. and the Op only when the latter is a reflexive pronoun. Reflexive pronouns can occur after prepositions, consider the following examples:

186. *He* looked at *himself* in the glass. (Jespersen, 1933:78)

187. I'm going to tell *her* a few facts about *herself*. (Swan, 2002:471)

But if the preposition has a purely local meaning, the simple forms without *self* are used:

188. Shut the door behind *you*! (Jespersen, 1933:79)

A reciprocal pronouns can also occur after prepositions, usually 'with' used in front of 'each other' or 'one another':

189. *His visitors* agreed with *one another* to proceed to the coffee-house. (Cobuild, 1992:158)

190. *They* talk to *each other*. (Swan, 2002:471)

C) Passivization

In addition to the ordinary passive alternation involving transitive verbs, English allows 'prepositional passive', where the Subj. in the

passive structure corresponds to the Op in the related active structure (Greenbaum, 1996:282).

Most of the ditransitive prepositional V_s allow a passive with the Od as Subj. :

191. They were *accused of* wasting public money and encouraging idlers. (ibid.)

A few idiomatic ditransitive prepositional V_s normally have passives with the Od as Subj., but may also allow the Op as passive Subj.:

192. *Insufficient attention was paid to* uh dictionary compilation. (ibid.: 284)

Swan (2002:454) believes that, in passive form, the prepositions go with their V_s:

193. I hate being *laughed at*.

Cobuild (1992:158) eliminates the reflexive and reciprocal pronouns, like other O_s, which do not occur in the passive forms:

194. *Third world countries* are competing with *each other* for a restricted market.

195. *I* was thoroughly ashamed of *myself*. (ibid.: 34)

2.2 The Semantic Identification of Object

2.2.1 Introduction

One can observe the *roles* which the words fulfill within the situation described by a sentence, rather than thinking of the words as containers of meaning, (Yule, 1996:116).

A semantic role is the actual role a participant plays in some real or imagined situation. A common view of semantic roles is that each NP of a predicate is assigned only one semantic role; moreover, a given semantic role is assigned to only one NP. It is the underlying relationship that a participant has with the main V in a clause (Kako: 2006:2).

This section sheds light on some schools' perspectives . In addition, it presents a survey of the semantic roles of the objects and their definitions along with the explanation of each one.

2.2.2 Some Schools' Perspectives

The semantic component is dealt with from different points of view. Hence, it may be wise to shed light on the following schools:

2.2.2.1 Traditional Grammar

Traditional semantic roles theory is concerned with interpretation of NP_s according to their grammatical characteristics, particularly their position in the sentence (Kearns, 1988:189).

Traditional grammarians discuss the different meanings tied to a NP. For example, Charles E. Bennett, in his *New Latin Grammar* 1918, describes the Latin nouns in terms of six cases (cited in Cook,1989:3); these traditional cases are as follows:

1. *Nominative*. In traditional grammar, the nominative case is used for the syntactic positions of subject, predicate noun, and appositive. Since the subject nominative is used with many different meanings, nothing is said about the semantic roles of the Subj. (ibid.):

196. *The table* is very big.

(Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, 2002: v. s. nominative case)

2. *Genitive*. The form of a noun which usually shows that it is in a possessive relation with another N or NP in a sentence. It is described in various terms, such as genitive of origin, possession, material, as well as subjective and objective genitive (Cook,1989:3):

197. The house of *the mayor*.

198. *The mayor's house*.

(Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, 2002: v. s. genitive case)

3. *Dative*. Syntactically, its function is that of Oi. The semantic roles of the dative are described as dative of agency, possession, purpose, and direction (Cook,1989:3):

199. She gave *the cat* a dish (of) milk.

(Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, 2002: v. s. dative case)

4. *Accusative*. Traditionally, it is the syntactic function of Od. It is used to refer to the person or thing affected or the result produced; it is also used for duration of time and space:

200. Ursula bought *a new table*.

(Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, 2002: v. s. accusative case)

5. *Ablative*. This case consists of three sub-cases:

A. The ablative (or *from* case) which may refer to source, agent, and answer the question "from what place?".

B. The instrumental (or *with* case) which includes ablatives of means, cause, manner, instrument, quality, and price, which answer the question "With what?":

201. He cuts the bread with *a knife*. (Booij, 2005:105)

C. The locative (or *where* case) which may denote the place and time within place (Cook, 1989:3).

202. Irene put the magazines *on the table*.

(Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, 2002: v. s. locative case)

6. *Vocative*. It indicates the addressee (Lyons, 1979:290).

As for Jespersen (1924:157-8), he distinguishes such types of roles of O as *result*, *instrumental*, and *cognate* in addition to the typical *affected* O. He further notes that a V may have more than one semantic type of the O associated with it.

203. She lights *the lamp/ a fire*.

204. We picked flowers/ a quarrel.

(Jespersen, 1933:76)

Curme (1947:134) sheds light on the remarkable type of O which is called *metonymic O* as being indicating not the real O but something which stands in close relation to it. Distinguish the following:

205. He wiped off *the dust*. (Real O)

206. He wiped off *the table*. (Metonymic O)

2.2.2.2 Transformational Generative Grammar

Away from structuralists who preferred not to deal with semantics or rely on it at all, transformational generative grammarians do not deal with semantic roles in an explicit way although they rely heavily on meaning in deep structures (Todd, 1987:79).

Chomsky (1957:101) argues that although grammar is independent of meaning in the sense that their originalization are not defined in semantic terms, there are remarkable correspondences between the structure and the specific semantic functions. He adds that to argue that syntactic originals are not defined semantically is not to deny the connection between form and meaning.

Chomsky provides a very limited contact to anything that might be called a grammar of case in his book (*Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* 1965), that it does not contain direct account of a semantic case. Moreover, there is indeed only one indexed mention of 'case' in his book (1965: 221) in which he states that:

"Case is usually determined by the position of the Noun in surface structure rather than in deep structure, although the surface structures given by stylistic inversions do not affect case."

As noticed above, the earliest work in generative grammar noted explicitly that grammatical relations expressed in deep structure do not correspond to significant semantic properties. Within the framework of standard theory (or proposed extension), the rules are formulated to determining the semantic relations that hold of items in the deep structure, on the basis of the grammatical relations of the deep structure and specific properties of the lexical items themselves (Chomsky, 1980:170).

Jackendoff (1990:157) believes that a grammar should have independent 'deep syntax' and 'semantic components', and that in the semantic interpretation of a sentence both deep and surface structure should play apart.

2.2.2.3 Case Grammar

The study of semantic roles entered a new phase at the hands of Charles Fillmore in his article "*The case for case*" 1968.

Fillmore's model (1968:21) is based upon a clear distinction between case form and case use. A case use belongs to the deep structure and case form belongs to the surface structure. Case uses are the meanings that the case forms are used to convey and are universal across languages.

Fillmore (ibid.:23) characterizes the deep structure of case grammar by the following features:

A. The sentence is initially separated into a proposition (a tenseless set of relationships involving verbs and nouns) and modality (which includes negation, tense, mood, and aspect).

B. The proposition consists of a verb and a series of cases ordered from right-to-left.

C. Propositions or case markers occur in deep structure.

The list of cases proposed by Fillmore (ibid.:46) includes: *Agentive*, *Instrumental*, *Dative*, *Factive*, *Locative*, and *Objective*.

Later on, he (1977a:176) suggests appending other cases. Therefore, he adds the *Benefactive*, *Comitative*, and *Time* cases.

According to Fillmore (1977b:213), cases are universal in languages and they are sufficient to explain the relationships between V_s and nouns. In addition, every sentence must have at least one case noun and the cases occur in a case frame only once .

Cook (1989:22) explains those case roles which are sometimes not appear in the surface structure, in spite of its presence in the deep structure. They are optional to the surface structure even though they are necessary for the verb. He illustrates deletable case roles in the context of verbs with deletable objects:

207. Susan / is cooking / the potatoes.

Subj. V O

208. Susan / is cooking / (something).

Subj. V (O-delete)

Prepositions in English are selected on the basis which determines particular case forms in a language (Fillmore, 1968:36).

Thus, the rules for English prepositions may look something like: the *Agentive* preposition is *by*; the *Instrumental* preposition is *by* if there is no *Agentive*, otherwise it is *with*; the *Objective* and *Factitive* prepositions are typically *zero*; the *Benefactive* preposition is *for*; the *Dative* preposition is usually *to*; the *Locative* and *Time* prepositions are either semantically nonempty, or they are selected by the particular associated noun [*on the street*, *at the corner* (=intersection of two streets), *in the corner*(of a room); *on Monday*, *at noon*, *in the afternoon*] (ibid:54).

Case grammar is a semantic valence system in which the number and kind of cases are dependent upon the meaning of the V (Cook, 1989:162).

As a final point, posttransformational grammarians' identification of the semantic roles, as Quirk et al. in his book '*A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language (1985) PP:740-753*' and Biber et al. '*Grammar of Spoken and Written English (2000) PP:125-131*' are the most well-organized identification as they distinguish each role respectively by identifying , defining , giving details and examples to each role separately. Accordingly, their representation is taken on in this study.

2.2.3 Semantic Roles of Direct Object

Generally, the Od has a wide range of semantic roles, such as:

2.2.3.1 Affected

Typical O in terms of semantic criteria expresses an entity that has undergone a change of a state brought about by another entity. It is also called patient (Jespersen, 1933:75). Consequently, this term usually is used to an entity animate or inanimate which does not cause the happening denoted by the verb, but is directly involved in some other way (Levin, 1999:2), as in:

209. The engineer cracked *the bridge*. (ibid.)

210. John is eating *oranges*. (Thakur, 2001:70)

Brown and Miller (1980:294) point out that the *affected object* can typically be questioned or tested with: What did X do to Y.

where (X) is an agent and (Y) is an affected.

Thus,

211. What did John do to *the knife*?

212. John sharpened *the knife*.

2.2.3.2 Theme

Theme is the semantic role of the entity that undergoes a change of location as a result of an external force. Theme objects are less object like than affected objects since they are less affected than *affected* objects (Ackema et al., 2006:207).

Jackendoff (1990:29) defines *theme* as a NP which undergoes movement in sentences with the verbs of motion and verbs of location.

213. John rolled *the rock* from the dump to the house.

214. Herman kept *the book* on the shelf.

The *theme* can also be human:

215. The boy kicked *himself*. (Yule,1996:117)

Radford (1988:373) and Finch (2000:120) treat *affected* and *theme* as different names for the same role whereas other grammarians as Saeed (2000:141), Katamba (1993:256), and Cook and Newson (1997:172) treat them differently. The latter argue that *Affected* is kept for entities acted upon and changed their states by the verb's action while *Theme* describes an entity moved by the action of the verb without constitutionally change. Therefore, the NP *the rock* would be *Affected* in (216) but a *Theme* in (217) below:

216. Fred shattered the rock.

217. Fred threw the rock. (Saeed, 2000:141)

Erteschik-Shir and Rapoport (2005:235) summarize two points:

- I. The *Theme* argument is usually identified if a path is predicated of it.
- II. Generally, the *affected* argument is expressed if a change of state is predicated of it.

Pin (1991:98) introduces a good test or question to differentiate between the *Affected* and *Theme* objects:

218. a. What did X do to Y?
 b. How far was Y moved?

Now consider the following:

219 a. John broke *the window*.

b. John moved *the rock* down the hill. (ibid.)

Thus 'the window' in (219. a) can be characterized as *affected*, while in (219. b) 'the rock' as *theme*.

Goals, locations, recipients and *sources* co-occur with *themes*, for the reason that the *Theme* role refers to the entity which is positioned, possessed or undergoing a change of location or possession. They typically do not co-occur with *patients* (Valin, 2004:24).

2.2.3.3 Effected

Quirk et al. (1985:749) define the *Effected* object as the entity which exists only by virtue of the action expressed by the V. Other terms used for *effected* object are 'object of result' and 'resultant object'. It is also called *Factitive* (Palmer, 1984:146). Traditionally it is called '*effectum*' (Fillmore, 1968:4).

The case of *effected* O_s occurs with what Jespersen (1965:18) and Kearns (1988:246) call 'verbs of making'. These V_s include 'make', 'produce', 'create', 'build', 'draw', 'compose', 'write', etc:

220. John drew a picture.

221. He *wrote* his name. (Fillmore, 1977b:205)

However, *effected* O_s may appear with V_s other than those V_s of making noted above. They may occur with V_s that may take *Affected* O_s in other contexts (Quirk et al., 1985:750).

222. I dig *the ground*. (Affected)

223. I dig *a grave*. (Effected)

Dig the ground is affected by the action of the V, while dig a grave exists by the action of the verb. Therefore, it may be argued that the verb dig having two different meanings. It is the semantics of the verb dig which establishes the semantic type of the O chosen (see also Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, 2002: v. s. object of result).

Finally, it is interesting to refer to some sentences which are ambiguous between *affected* and *effected* readings, whether the activity creates or recreates the referent (Quirk et al., 1985:750).

224. John told me a joke.

If the entity is realized as the Od which exists prior to the action, it has the *affected* semantic role; if, on the other hand, it exists only by virtue of the action, it has the *effected* role (ibid.).

2.2.3.4 Cognate

Fillmore (1977a:172) points out that the *cognate* O_s are constructions in which there is a high selectivity between a specific V, usually intransitive, and an O where *Cognate* O_s repeat and explain more fully the idea expressed by the V. Furthermore, they are derived from the same root:

225. John dreamed a *dream* about Mary.

Fillmore (1968:116) considers them as subtypes of the *Effected* O_s. He explains the difference between them that while the former continues to exist after the action designated by the V has finished, the latter ceases to exist. This means that the *cognate* O is only a very marginal instance of O both syntactically and semantically.

Probably this is why Curme (1947:133) considers cognate objects complement of intransitive verbs, since they may appear with such intransitive verbs as **live, sleep, and sing**, as in:

226. Live a sad and lonely *life*.

2.2.3.5 Eventive

Unlike the construction with Cognate O_s, where the V and Cognate O support each other, the Eventive O occurs with semantically light V_s, typically (do, have, make, or take), as in:

227. Take *a walk* down some of these tracks down here.

(Biber et al.,2000:127)

Quirk et al. (1985:751) remark that the following are features of the Eventive O:

A. Some heads in eventive O_s are not derived from V_s, as in:

228. I'm making an effort.

B. In some cases, the V may not be used intransitively:

229. I made a mistake.

C. In other cases, the combination of the eventive O and V does not cover the same meaning as the V alone:

230. Make love (to).

2.2.3.6 Locative

Locative is a semantic role which identifies the location or spatial orientation of a state or action in which something is situated or takes place (Radford, 2004b:174).

According to Anderson (2006:129) *locative* O_s may occur in monotransitive structures.

231. The ferry occupied *that path*.

Quirk et al. (1985:749) point out that locative objects may occur with such verbs as **walk, swim, pass, jump, turn, leave, reach, surround, cross, climb**, as in:

232. We walked *the streets*.

Quirk et al. add that the locative object may also occur after the verb *visit*, in BrE.

233. They are visiting *Amsterdam*. (ibid.)

According to Kroeger (2005:55), location is the spatial reference point of the event (source, goal) and path roles are often considered to be sub-types of location where path is the trajectory or pathway of a motion.

234. Desperately thirsting for black blood, without which it could not live, the dragon swam *the Ohio* at will. (swam *across* the Ohio.) (Biber et al., 2000:127)

2.2.3.7 Instrumental

As the name suggests, the instrumental case is used to show an instrument or means with which an action denoted by the verb is

performed. Typically, it denotes an inanimate entity used by an agent to perform some action (Jespersen, 1933:76).

235. They threw *stones*.

Miller (2002:127) states that the typical instrument in this world is a tool such as a saw, hammer, screwdriver, or a machine, with unplanned tools, such as lengths of wood or stones, on the periphery of the set. It is possible to imagine situations in which human beings are used as instruments:

236. He took a walk about the streets, kicking *his feet* in the sea of dry leaves on the pavement.

(Biber et al., 2000:127)

2.2.4 Semantic Roles of Indirect Object

This subsection deals with the semantic roles of arguments which occupy the immediate postverbal position in double O ditransitive constructions.

2.2.4.1 Recipient

According to Booij (2005:191), *recipient* O refers to the one who receives the goods or information from an agent. Moreover, it is a central participant in three-participant processes such as *give*, *send*, *lend*, *charge*, *pay*, *offer* and *owe*. It coaches the one who receives the transferred material:

237. Terry gave *me* the cake.

(Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, 2002: v. s. object)

Hence, in passive counterparts the *recipient* corresponds to the subject. In addition, it may be converted into an optional prepositional paraphrase, which functions as an Op with preposition *to* (Booij, 2005:191).

Semantically, *recipient* O_s are typically animate and human, but rarely an inanimate recipient takes place.

238. We'll give *the unemployment question* priority. (ibid.)

2.2.4.2 Beneficiary

According to Downing and Locke (2006:126), the beneficiary role stands for an entity on behalf of which an action is done. It is usually human, and the S in the sentences with beneficiary semantic role is the person who does the action instead of the beneficiary. There is no particular class with which the beneficiary occurs. Oi with beneficiary semantic role are paraphraseable by *for*.

239. Terry baked *me* the cake.

(Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, 2002: v. s. object)

Most Beneficiary O_s do not easily become Subj. in a passive clause, although this limitation is not absolute, at least for some speakers:

240. *We were got the tickets. (Downing and Locke, 2006:55)

2.2.4.3 Affected

According to Biber et al. (2000:129), the Oi normally takes the role of *recipient*. But it occasionally takes an *affected* role with the

semantically light verb *give* and an Eventive Od, equivalent to the Od of a simple V.

241. Give *it* a good shake thought. (ibid.)

242. I gave Helen a nudge. (Quirk et al., 1985:753)

2.2.5. Semantic Roles of Prepositional Object.

Prepositional O are used generally to express temporary states. Even more normally, they occur after V_s of position or movement to specify place or direction.

2.2.5.1 Recipient

It is a special kind of goal associated with V_s expressing a change in ownership, possession. Typically it is presented by the preposition *to* (Downing and Locke, 2006:55). As in the following sentence:

243. He is teaching math *to the first-year students*.

2.2.5.2 Beneficiary

According to Jackendoff (2001:183), it is the entity for whose benefit of the action belongs. Typically it is denoted by the preposition *for*.

244. Bill sings a song *for Mary*.

Here the Subj. (Bill) intends to perform the action for the benefit of the O (*Mary*).

The occurrence of a *beneficiary* is restricted to control predications.

245. John *cut down* the tree *for my sake*.

246. *The tree *fell down for my sake*. (Dik, 1979:36)

2.2.5.3 Instrumental

The instrumental is the role of, generally, inanimate O causally involved in the state or action identified by the V. It is used by a controlling *Agent* to carry out the process. It is strongly associated with the prepositions *with and by* (Miller, 2002:123):

247. The thief smashed the window *with a hammer*.

The Instrument role is played by inanimate O_s such as *hammers* and *saws*, but it could be played by an animate being in unusual situations:

248. Bond smashed the window *with his opponent*.

(ibid.)

As for Dik (1979:36), the occurrence of *an instrument* is, just as prepositional beneficiary, restricted to control predications.

249. John *cut down* the tree *with an axe*.

250. *The tree *fell down with an axe*.

2.2.5.4 Locative

Locative prepositional objects may take place in spatial references which are represented by a few transitive V_s such as *put* and *place* (Downing and Locke, 2006:37):

251. John put a coat *in the closet*. (Fillmore:1969:7)

252. *Place* the dish *in the microwave*.

(Downing and Locke, 2006:37)

Without this locative element, the clause is syntactically and semantically incomplete:

253. **Put the dish*. (ibid.)

As a result, it has the status of a central clause element. A locative element is also expected by many motion V_s :

254. She *ran/twirled/hopped/danced/slid/scooted/skated* over the ice. (Tyler and Evans, 2003:73)

2.2.5.5 Goal

Goal entity represents the target of some other entities or marks an end-point (Miller, 2002:122).

255. Mr Knightley rode to *Kingston*.

In the sentence above *Kingston* has the role of Goal in that it refers to the goal of Mr. Knightley's journey, usually it contains the preposition *to*.

To hold the view above, Valin (2004:24) states that the Goal may also describe the movement of a possession to its owner as well as the movement of a person or vehicle to a destination, but different interpretations will result from the different lexical verbs and lexical nouns:

256. Kim sent the package *to Philadelphia*.

257. Beth ran *into the room*.

In an occurrence of running (257), it is normally the case that there is a runner (agent), and the runner starts from a specific place (source), moves through some area (path), and ends up in a specific place (goal).

2.2.5.6 Source

Source is the origin or starting point of motion. It refers primarily to the place from which the motion begins. It is applied to earlier location with motion V_s , to earlier states with change of state V_s , and to earlier time with time V_s . This role is presented with the motion prepositions such as from, away from, out of, off of (Downing and Locke, 2006:549):

258. We went *from the bus-stop, along the street to* the stadium.
(ibid.)

259. An oak tree grew *from the acorn*. (Kearns, 1988:250)

From in (258) is a source which indicates the starting point. In (259) it is a source which indicates the origin.

CHAPTER THREE

THE TEST

3.1 Introduction

The present chapter is devoted to the practical part of the study. It describes the test design and the procedures followed in its application. Throughout this chapter, an account of this test is presented including its objectives, design, material selection, and the subjects to whom the test has been applied. Validity and reliability of the test are also defined. What is more, this chapter describes the pilot and the main administration of the test along with the scoring scheme adopted.

3.2 Test Objectives

A diagnostic test is designed to investigate the learners' knowledge of a particular linguistic area. The data, which are going to be obtained, will help to identify the points of weakness and difficulty and to suggest an appropriate remedial programme for overcoming such area of difficulty.

The present test is constructed to Investigate the Performance of Iraqi EFL University Students in Using the Semantic Roles of the Object, and to find out the problems which encounter the testees during their answers.

3.3 Selection of Material

The items of the test have been selected from some of the grammar books cited in Chapter Two. The items cover the types of object and their various roles.

Moreover, the selection of the test items has been approved by a jury committee of eight experienced university experts.*

3.4 Test Design

The test consists of four questions,(see appendix III). The second and third questions are designed to measure the subjects' responses at the recognition level.

*The jury members include:

1. Prof. Hashim A. Al-Muradi (Ph.D. in Methods of Teaching English as a Foreign Language), College of Education/ University of Al Qadisiya.
2. Prof. Mohammed Jasim Betti (Ph.D. in Methodology of English Drama), College of Education/ University of Thi-Qar.
3. Asst. Prof. Riyadh Tariq Al-Ameedi, (Ph.D. in Linguistics and Translation), College of Education, University of Babylon.
4. Asst. Prof. Abbas D. Darweesh (Ph.D. in Linguistics and Translation), College of Education/ University of Babylon.
5. Asst. Prof. Fareed H. Al-Hindawi (Ph.D. in English Language and Linguistics), College of Education/ University of Babylon.
6. Asst. Prof. Hameed Hasoon (Ph.D. in Linguistics and Translation), College of Education/ University of Babylon.
7. Asst. Prof. Dunya A. Al-Jazrawi (Ph.D. in English Language and Linguistics), College of Arts/ University of Baghdad.
8. Asst. Prof. Razzaq N. Mukheef (M.A. in English Language and Linguistics), College of Education / University of Babylon.

The second question consists of sixteen items which is deliberated to measure the subjects' ability to specify the different roles of the given objects. The subjects are provided with a list of semantic roles of the object. They are requested to write the letters of the appropriate roles. Some sentences have two objects and the intended objects have been written with bold to be recognized.

In the third question, the subjects are supplied with nine items and asked to underline the requested object in each item. The subjects' responses to this question will reflect the extent to which they can distinguish the intended objects; especially the sentences consisting of two objects which are direct constituents of the main clause.

The other questions are designed to measure the subjects' responses at the production level. Although the first question is at the production level it is presented at first so that its answers cannot be taken from the other questions.

It contains nine items intended to examine the student's ability to construct sentences which contains the proposed semantic roles of object.

Finally, the fourth question involves sixteen items designed to test the subjects' ability in supplying the suitable O showing the semantic roles required in brackets.

3.5 Test Virtues

Good quality tests must have the features of validity, reliability, and scorability since they are the most important aspects of accuracy. These points are discussed in the following sections.

3.5.1 Validity

Validity has been defined by many linguists such as Lado (1961:76), Wier (1990:22), and Mousavi (1996:156). They agree that a test to be valid it has to test what a researcher supposes it to test, in that case the test is considered to be valid for the purpose that it is built for.

In order to achieve the test surface credibility or public acceptability, the present test has been exposed to some experts who have shown their approval of the test as a whole.

For Heaton (1988: 159), to achieve the validity of the test, it must meet two criteria: *face* validity and *content* validity.

According to Heaton (ibid.), a test has a content validity if its questions are those which the learners have been taught to answer or perform in the course of their study.

Face validity refers to making common sense, and being persuasive and seeming right to the readers (Lado,1961:76).

Thus, the items of the present test are assumed to be valid as they are constructed to satisfy the aims of the test (**see section 3.2**). The test has also been submitted to a jury of experts (**see section 3.3**) in order to assess its face and content validity. The jury has judged the test as being valid to measure the purposes for which it is designed. They offered some suggestions which have been taken into consideration; accordingly certain instructions have been modified and some sentences have been replaced by others.

3.5.2 Reliability

A test is said to be reliable if it gives the same results when it is given on different occasions or when it is used by different people (Madson, 1983:179).

Heaton (1988:163-4) mentions that there are different methods for estimating the reliability of a test such as: *test-retest, two equivalent forms, split-half, and Kurder-Richardson Method*.

The method adopted to estimate the reliability of the present test is Kurder-Richardson at which the following formula can be considered:

$$r = \frac{N}{N-1} \left(1 - \frac{m(N-m)}{NX^2} \right)$$

where

r = reliability.

n = the number of items in the test.

m = the mean of the test scores.

x = the standard deviation of the test scores. (ibid.)

The computation of this formula has yielded that the reliability coefficient of the present test is **0.93** which is a highly positive correlation.

3.6 Subjects

The sample of the study consists of one hundred subjects of the fourth year students of the Department of English at the College of Education, University of Babylon for the year (2007–2008).

The fourth year students are preferred to apply the test because the topic under investigation has been taught in their fourth year of study at the university. The textbook adopted is *A University Grammar of English* by Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) and *The Study of Language* by George Yule (1996). Moreover, they are the most advanced learners of English on the university level before graduation.

3.7 Pilot Test

A pilot test was performed on February 7th, 2008 to a random sample of ten students from the fourth year at the Department of English, College of Education University of Babylon. This trial was carried out to affirm many things, such as: the time required for answering the test, knowing whether the directions and the items of the test are obvious to the subjects, checking which of the items needs explanation and modification, finally analyzing the items to diagnose their answers.

The results of the pilot test have pointed out that the time required to answer the whole items of the test ranges between (45-50) minutes. There is no serious ambiguity in the instructions of the test. All the results obtained from the pilot application of this test have been integrated to the final version of the test.

3.7.1 Item Analysis

Item analysis is “a means of estimating how much information each single item in a test contributes to the information provided by the test as a whole” (Davies, 1968:192). The aim of such analysis is to examine the test items in terms of two criteria: (i) whether they are of suitable level of

difficulty, and (ii) whether they discriminate between good and weak students. The index of difficulty (or facility value) of an item means “how easy or difficult the particular item proved in the test” (Heaton, 1988:178). It is calculated by using the following formula:

$$FV = R/N$$

where

FV = facility value.

R = the number of correct answers.

N = the number of the students taking the test.

The following formula has been used to find out the item discrimination power:

$$D = \frac{\text{Correct U} - \text{Correct L}}{N} \quad (\text{Heaton, 1988:180})$$

where

D = discrimination index.

U = upper half.

L = lower half.

N = the number of the students taking the test in one group.

After the computation of this formula, it has been found that the discrimination power ranges between **0.20–0.80**.

Good classroom test items have indices of discrimination of 0.30 or more. Some of the items which show low indices of discrimination, however, have been included in the final version of the test because they are necessary to measure certain aspects of the students' performance.

Table (1)
The Facility Value and the Discrimination Index
of the Test Items

No. of Question	No. of Item	FV	D	No. of Question	No. of Item	FV	D
Q 1	1	0.11	0.18	Q 3	1	0.53	0.26
	2	0.26	0.24		2	0.65	0.14
	3	0.36	0.28		3	0.66	0.24
	4	0.14	0.24		4	0.73	0.2
	5	0.53	0.34		5	0.54	0.28
	6	0.17	0.22		6	0.64	0.12
	7	0.35	0.3		7	0.65	0.38
	8	0.42	0.4		8	0.54	0.36
	9	0.18	0.2		9	0.43	0.3
Q 2	1	0.2	0.24	Q 4	1	0.23	0.3
	2	0.39	0.14		2	0.9	0.14
	3	0.22	0.2		3	0.56	0.32
	4	0.15	0.18		4	0.18	0.2
	5	0.43	0.34		5	0.25	0.22
	6	0.21	0.26		6	0.29	0.22
	7	0.26	0.18		7	0.51	0.3
	8	0.36	0.36		8	0.45	0.3
	9	0.55	0.34		9	0.44	0.4
	10	0.16	0.24		10	0.51	0.3
	11	0.26	0.24		11	0.49	0.18
	12	0.33	0.3		12	0.56	0.28
	13	0.27	0.16		13	0.44	0.32
	14	0.19	0.3		14	0.28	0.24
	15	0.22	0.28		15	0.38	0.2
	16	0.22	0.18		16	0.24	0.2

3.8 Final Administration

The main test was administrated on the second of March/2008. The time allowed for answering the test ranged between (45-50) minutes. The instructions for each question were given to the subjects. They were instructed to answer the first question alone at first. Then, they were instructed to answer the other questions on the same sheets to save time and effort.

The process of marking the test has been carried out by the researcher using the scoring scheme in the following section.

3.9 The Scoring Scheme

A particular scoring scheme has been adopted so as to achieve the objectivity and reliability of the test.

The test as a whole was scored out of (100) and the scores were distributed in such a way as to give two scores for each correct answer and zero for the incorrect one. The items neglected or left by the subjects with no answers have also been given zero since they indicate that the subjects have failed to give any answer.

The scoring scheme adopted for the test can be illustrated in the following table:

Table (2)
Distribution of the Scores of the Test

No. of Question	No. of items	scores	percentage
1	9	18	18 %
2	16	32	32 %
3	9	18	18 %
4	16	32	32 %
Total	50	100	100 %

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSING RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter is concerned with the presentation and discussion of the results of the test. The linguistic errors that the subjects made in using semantic roles of the object have been identified and shown statistically. In addition, attempts have been made to determine the reasonable sources of these errors in order to approach into the nature of the difficulties that Iraqi EFL university students come upon in this area.

4.2 Discussion of Results

This section presents the results of the subjects' performance on each question of the test in particular and on the whole test in general in terms of the recognition and production levels. The extent to which the subjects master the semantic roles of the object is firmed by their correct responses which are essential to verify or refute the hypotheses anticipated in the first chapter of this study.

4.2.1 Subjects' Performance of the Second Question

The second question, as mentioned earlier in (3.4), is constructed to measure the subjects' responses at the recognition level. The results

obtained after analyzing their performance on each item in this question are presented in the following table:

Table (3)
Subjects' Performance at the Recognition Level
in Question (2)

No. of Item	No. of Correct Responses	%	No. of Incorrect Responses	%
1	20	20	80	80
2	39	39	61	61
3	22	22	78	78
4	15	15	85	85
5	43	43	57	57
6	21	21	79	79
7	26	26	74	74
8	36	36	64	64
9	55	55	45	45
10	16	16	84	84
11	26	26	74	74
12	33	33	67	67
13	27	27	73	73
14	19	19	81	81
15	22	22	78	78
16	22	22	78	78
Total	442	27.6%	1158	72.4%

As shown in Table (3), the total number of correct responses is (442, 27.6%), whereas that of incorrect responses (*including avoided ones*) is (1158, 72.4%). The rate of incorrect responses exposes the

subjects' incompetence in distinguishing the semantic roles of object. This reflects their lack of knowledge about O's semantic roles.

4.2.2 Subjects' Performance of the Third Question

The third question is constructed to measure the subjects' performance to underline the correct object at each sentence which contains two objects that Table (4) displays:

Table (4)
Subjects' Performance at the Recognition Level
in Question (3)

No. of Item	No. of Correct Responses	%	No. of Incorrect Responses	%
1	53	53	47	47
2	65	65	35	35
3	66	66	34	34
4	73	73	27	27
5	54	54	46	46
6	64	64	36	36
7	65	65	35	35
8	54	54	46	46
9	43	43	57	57
Total	537	59.7%	363	40.3%

It is clear from Table (4) that the total number of the correct responses is (537, 59.7%), while that of the incorrect responses is (363,

40.3%). Although the results denote that the total number of the correct responses is more than that of the incorrect ones, it is not hopeful. It points out that considerable number of subjects have failed to identify the correct O in sentences of pattern (SVOO). This indicates that a considerable number of them have faced difficulty in recognizing the correct responses from only two options functioning as requested O or not.

The subjects' total performance of the second and third questions can be reviewed in the following table:

Table (5)
Subjects' Total Performance at the Recognition Level
in Questions (2) and (3)

Level	No. of Question	No. of Correct Responses	%	No. of Incorrect Responses	%
Recognition	Q2	442	27.6%	1158	72.4%
	Q3	537	59.7%	363	40.3%
Total		979	39.2%	1521	60.8%

4.2.3 Subjects' Performance of the First Question

The first question is constructed to measure the subjects' responses at the production level, i.e., it measures the subjects' ability to construct grammatical sentences by using the demanded semantic roles of O_s. Table (6) shows the subjects' responses to each item in Q1.

Table (6)
Subjects' Performance at the Production Level
in Question (1)

No. of Item	No. of Correct Responses	%	No. of Incorrect Responses	%
1	11	11	89	89
2	26	26	74	74
3	36	36	64	64
4	14	14	86	86
5	53	53	47	47
6	17	17	83	83
7	35	35	65	65
8	42	42	58	58
9	18	18	82	82
Total	252	28%	648	72%

It is obvious from Table (6) that most of the subjects have failed to give the correct responses to this question, that the number of correct responses is (252, 28%) and the number of incorrect ones is (648, 72%).

This indicates that most of the subjects face serious difficulties in forming sentences of requested O_s .

4.2.4 Subjects' Performance of the Fourth Question

The last question is constructed to measure the subjects' ability to complete each sentence with the appropriate O at the production level. Table (7) shows the subjects' responses to each item in Q 4:

Table (7)
Subjects' Performance at the Production Level
in Question (4)

No. of Item	No. of Correct Responses	%	No. of Incorrect Responses	%
1	23	23	77	77
2	9	9	91	91
3	56	56	44	44
4	18	18	82	82
5	25	25	75	75
6	29	29	71	71
7	51	51	49	49
8	45	45	55	55
9	44	44	56	56
10	51	51	49	49
11	49	49	51	51
12	56	56	44	44
13	44	44	56	56
14	28	28	72	72
15	38	38	62	62
16	24	24	76	76
Total	590	36.9%	1010	63.1%

It can be concluded from the results presented in the above table that most of the subjects are incompetent in inserting the suitable role of

the O since the total number of their incorrect responses (1010, 63.1%) is higher than that of their correct ones (590, 36.9%).

The following table recaps the subjects' total performance of the first and fourth questions:

Table (8)
Subjects' Total Performance at the Production Level
in Questions (1) and (4)

Level	No. of Question	No. of Correct Responses	%	No. of Incorrect Responses	%
Production	Q1	252	28%	648	72%
	Q4	590	36.9%	1010	63.1%
Total		842	33.7%	1658	66.3%

The subjects' non-mastery to produce the suitable role of the O is obvious from the number of their incorrect responses as compared with that of the correct ones.

4.3.3 Subjects' Performance in the Whole Test

The results of the whole test are indicated in Table (9), with regard to the recognition and production levels:

Table (9)
Subjects' Performance at the Recognition
and Production Levels

Level	No. of Correct Responses	%	No. of Incorrect Responses	%
Recognition	979	39.2%	1521	60.8%
Production	842	33.7%	1658	66.3%
Total	1821	36.4%	3179	63.6%

The number and the rate of incorrect responses (3179, 63.6%) reveals that Iraqi EFL university students face difficulty in mastering the semantic roles of the O_s at both levels, but they face more difficulty at the production level since the total number of their correct responses which is (842, 33.7%) is lower than their correct responses at the recognition level which is (979, 39.2%).

This would verify the fourth hypothesis of this study which reads that *The subjects' achievement at the production level is expected to be worse than their achievement at the recognition one.*

4.4 Error Analysis

Error analysis enables a researcher to find out the sources of errors and take pedagogical precautions towards them. Thus, the analysis of learner language has become an essential need to overcome some questions and suggests solutions concerning different aspects. This study

concerns the error analysis and its contribution to English language teaching at both linguistic and methodological levels.

4.4.1 Sources of Errors

Sources of errors can be categorized into four types: *interlingual transfer*, *intralingual transfer*, *communicative strategies* and *context of learning* (Keshavarz, 2004:56). Each of these categories is discussed independently in the next four subsections.

4.4.1.1 Interlingual Transfer

Interlingual transfer takes place when the foreign language learners try to make use of the system of their native language in learning the system of the target language (Saville-Troike, 2006: 39).

Some of the errors at the production level give evidence of the influence of the mother tongue. Below are some examples of the subjects' responses which may clarify such errors in question (1):

Item 2- Recipient

* They pushed to me all the money. دفعوا لي كل النقود.

Item 3- Cognate

* He dreamed with me a good dream. حَلَمَ بيِّ حلم حسن (سعيد).

* John dreams with the trip a dream. يَحْلُمُ جون بالسفرة حلم.

Item 8- Locative

* We decided go to the home. قرّرنا نذهب إلى البيت.

It seems that the subjects have depended on translation to realize the semantic features of those items in the same way as in their mother tongue (i.e. Arabic). In item (2) the interference between Arabic and English is represented in the use of the verb *push* (دفعوا) which, in English, is used with concrete things instead of *pay* which is used with abstract things. In item (3) the subjects have depended on literal translation by using the prepositional verb *dream with* (يحلم بـ) in place of *dream of*. As Turton and Heaton mention in their book "*Longman Dictionary of Common Errors*" (2006:106) that one of the common errors is the replacement of 'dream of' by 'dream with' or 'dream to'. Similarly, in English we cannot say *decided go* (قررنا نذهب). It needs to add *to* between the two verbs *decided* and *go*. There are (54) responses which can be classified as such errors which represent (1.7%) of the total number of the subjects' errors.

4.4.1.2 Intralingual Transfer

Interferences from the students' own language is not the only reason for committing errors. Intralingual errors are another reason which result from faulty or partial learning of the target language. They may be caused by the influence of one target language item upon another. For example, learners attempt to use two tense markers at the same time in one sentence since they have not mastered the language yet. When they say: *"He is comes", it is because the singularity of the third person requires "is" in the present continuous, and "-s" at the end of a verb in the simple present tense (Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, 2002: v. s. interlingual error).

Errors ascribed to intralingual transfer may be due to one of the following factors: *Overgeneralization, Incomplete rule applications, The ignorance of rule restrictions, False concept hypothesized*

Intralingual errors constitute the most common source of the subjects' errors at both recognition and production levels.

At the recognition level, the reason behind the high rate of erroneous responses to the items (4), (5), (9), (10), (12), (15), and (16) in Question 2 may be ascribed to **overgeneralization** which is defined as the incorrect application of previously learned foreign language material to a present foreign language context (Littlewood, 1998: 23).

Item 4- He gave me a push.	Affected
*- He gave me a push.	Recipient
Item 5- She crossed the bridge.	Locative
* - She crossed the bridge.	Affected
Item 9- He used an axe to chop down the tree.	Instrumental
* - He used an axe to chop down the tree.	Affected
Item 10-I draw him a circle.	Effected
* -I draw him a circle.	Affected
Item 12- They turned the corner.	Locative
* - They turned the corner.	Affected
Item 15-He died a miserable death.	Cognate
*-He died a miserable death.	Affected

Item 16-Judith paid me a visit.	Affected
* -Judith paid me a visit.	Recipient

The general knowledge about the semantic role of Od is that it is broadly used as *affected* one and Oi as *recipient* one. This may encourage the subjects to realize above O_s as these. Therefore, there are (476) responses which generalize the semantic roles of Od as *affected* role and Oi as *recipient* one regardless of the fact that the V is a central element in a sentence which may determine the role of O_s. These results confirm the validity of the first hypothesis that:

Most of EFL students classify most of the semantic roles of the direct object as Affected and most of the indirect object as Recipient.

On the other hand, at the production level, **overgeneralization** is clearly observed in items (4), (6), (7), (8) in Question 1:

Item 4- Eventive.

*The concert is on Monday.

Item 6- Affected indirect object.

* I have found you a place.

Item 7- Instrumental.

*The key opened the door.

Item 8- Locative.

*The bus holds forty people.

In item 4, 7, 8, a lot of the subjects generalize the rule of the role of S rather than the role of O regardless of the difference of function and position of these two forms. In addition, in item 6, they construct

sentences which have the semantic role of *recipient* Oi instead of *affected* one. These confusions have led them to produce overgeneralizations. The total number of such errors is (885) which represent (27.8%) of the total number of incorrect responses.

The second cause that leads to commit the errors is **the ignorance of rule restriction** which result from the learners producing simpler linguistic rules and failing to learn more complex types of structure. So, the learner may apply rules to context to which they do not apply (Chuan-Li, 2005: 24). It is evident in items (8), (9) Question 1, and (13), (16) in Question 4:

Item 8- Locative

- * The book is on the table.
- * She is in the garden.

Item 9- Goal

- * He studied hard to success.
- * He reads story in order to get benefit.

The responses to item (8) imply that the subjects are unaware of the O which should be preceded by a transitive V since they used SVA rather than SVO.

Moreover, their responses to item (9) cannot be considered as a prepositional object of *goal* since the subjects do not use the correct construction. They use the subordinators (*to* and *in order to*) of purpose instead of the preposition *to* of the goal role. Such responses reveal that the subjects wrongly consider the *to* of purpose convey the *to* of goal.

According to Quirk et al. (1985:1107), the subordinator *to* can be used to introduce the clause of purpose and join two sentences as in:

260. I left early *to* catch the train.

261. I left Paul a dollar *to* get home. (ibid.: 1108)

The number of such errors is (262, 8.24%) of the total number of incorrect responses. their responses certify the third hypothesis which reads:

Most subject face difficulties in identifying the semantic roles of the prepositional object.

The third factor that guides to commit such errors is the **incomplete rule applications** which result from analogy and failure to observe the restriction of existing structure(ibid.). Such errors can be detected at the production level, i.e. Question 1 particularly in items (1), and (3), in addition to items (2), (6), (10),(11), and (15) in Question 4:

Item 1-Effectuated

*John opened the door.

Item 3- Cognate

*She sings beautiful.

Item 2- They are digging ----- (Effectuated)

*They are digging the ground.

Item 6-I am thinking a terrible ----- (Cognate)

*I am thinking a terrible idea.

Item 10- Marry lights----- (Effectuated)

* Marry lights the light.

Item 11-I dreamed ----- (Cognate)

* I dreamed at the night.

Item 15-I dig ----- (Affected)

*I dig a hole.

The responses to item (1) in Question 1, and items (2), (10), (15) in Question 4 imply that the subjects ignore the V's role which may verify the role of its objects.

Seeing that Aarts and McMahon (2006:158) specify the role of the V in determining the meaning of its O as in:

262. The child *altered* the poem.

263. The child *wrote* the poem.

264. The child *climbed* the mountain,

In the above examples, the verbs *altered*, *wrote*, and *climbed* respectively give their objects "affected", "effected", and "locative" meaning.

A significant number of the subjects have confused between the *affected* role and the *effected* one. Their responses validate the second hypothesis which says that:

Such subjects face difficulties in distinguishing between affected and effected object.

The total number of such errors is (348) which represent (10.9%) of the total number of incorrect responses

Furthermore, the responses to item (3) in Question 1, and item (6), (11) in Question 4 cannot be considered as a cognate role of O since the subjects do not derive the O from its V(sing= a song, think= a thought, dream= a dream). The total number of such errors is (509) which represent (16%) of the total number of incorrect responses

The fourth aspect of the subjects' incorrect responses can be owed to **false concepts hypothesized** errors which result from learners' faulty comprehension of distinctions in the target language (ibid.). As in item (9) Question 1, item (7) Question 2, and item (8) Question 3.

Item 9- Goal

*Ali borrowed a book from Ahmed.

Item 7- Everyone liked her dance. (Eventive)

*Everyone liked her dance. (Recipient)

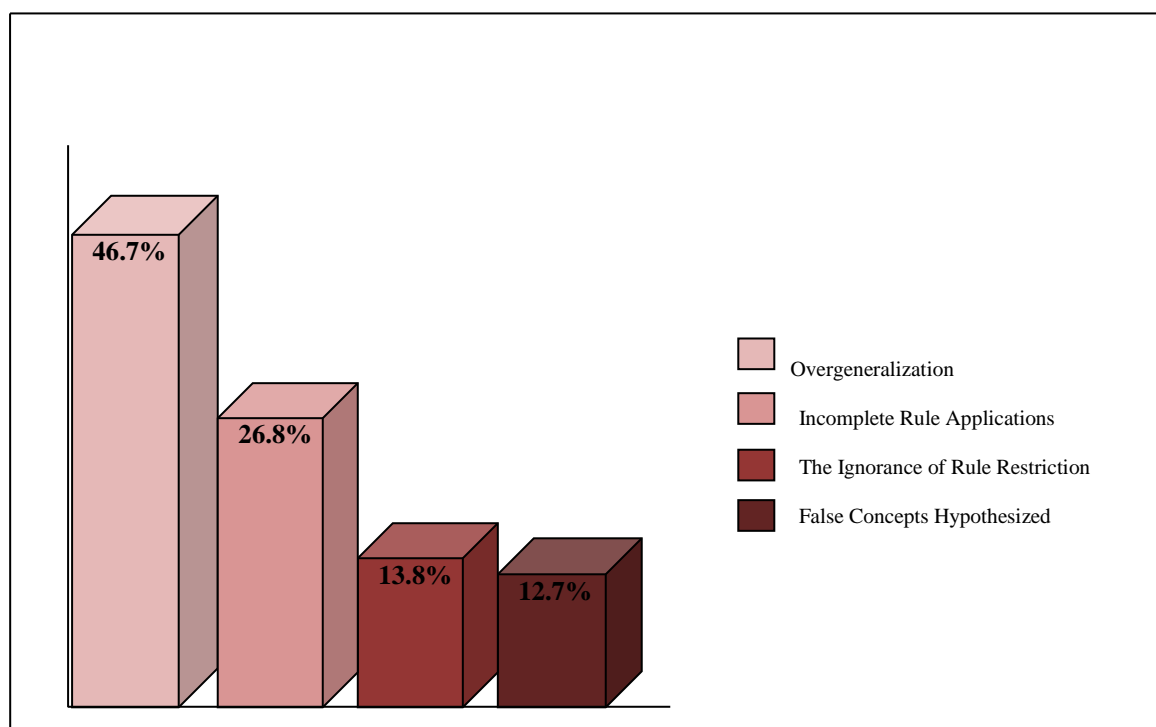
Item 8- Bill led from New York to Timbuktu. (Goal)

*Bill led from New York to Timbuktu.

Both of the responses to items (9) and (8) convey a *source* rather than a *goal*. Such responses reveal that the subjects wrongly consider *source* to convey a *goal*. The response to item (7) expresses a *recipient* role instead of an *eventive* one. This response presupposes that the subjects wrongly believe that the possessive pronoun (her) perform the role of *recipient*. The number and rate of the responses that hand on such confusions are (241, 7.9%).

The total number and rate of erroneous responses that can possibly be attributed to intralingual transfer are (1897, 59.7%) of the total number of the subjects' errors, as shown in the following graph:

Graph (1)
Percentages of Intralingual Errors



4.4.1.3 Context of Learning

This error source refers to the negative influence of elements of the learning situation, such as the classroom, the misleading explanation by the teacher, or the textbook writer who according to his own beliefs and experiences, gives emphasis to some sides of the target language and neglects others. All these factors may lead the learner to make faulty hypotheses about the language (Gass and Selinker, 1994:310).

It is worth observing that **semantic roles of object** have received little consideration not only in the grammar books given as courses on grammar, but also in the other grammar books.

The influence of context of learning reveals that a considerable number of the subjects are unfamiliar with presentation of two semantic roles of O_s at same time, as in item (1), (2), (3), (5), (6), and (9) in Question 3 :

1- He reported to the police that there had been a robbery. (Recipient)

*He reported to the police that there had been a robbery.

2- We sent a single with a mirror. (Instrumental)

*We sent a single with a mirror.

3- Chris will sing a song for us. (Cognate)

*Chris will sing a song for us.

5- We gave the baby a bath. (Eventive)

*We gave the baby a bath.

6- She wants to repair the tile over the bathroom. (Locative)

*She wants to repair the tile over the bathroom.

9- I baked the cake for you. (Effected)

*I baked the cake for you.

There are (317) responses which reveal that the subjects are incapable to select the correct object from two semantic roles of O_s. The rate of errors that may be attributed to the context of learning is (433, 13.6%). This implies that the subjects are not familiar with such semantic uses.

4.4.1.4 Communicative Strategies

Foreign language learners tend to employ particular strategies to overcome the difficulties that they may face throughout the process of learning.

According to Ellis (2003:286-7), strategies can be seen as devices exploited to overcome communication problems related to the interlanguage deficiencies such as **approximation**, i.e. using a word or an expression that may share the same semantic features with the word that the learner supposes to use, **Guessing**, i.e. using clues that may or may not be based on language. And **avoidance**, i.e. this strategy means that the subjects understand the message but they are unable of expressing themselves accordingly [see also (Ellis,2003:51) and (Littlewood, 1998:83-4)].

Some responses to items (6) in Question (4) can be explained as **approximation**:

Item 6- I am thinking a terrible -----, (Cognate)
 * I am thinking terrible ideas.

In such item, it seems that the subjects have used the word "ideas" instead of "thoughts" disregard the fact that the O in this case must be derived from its V.

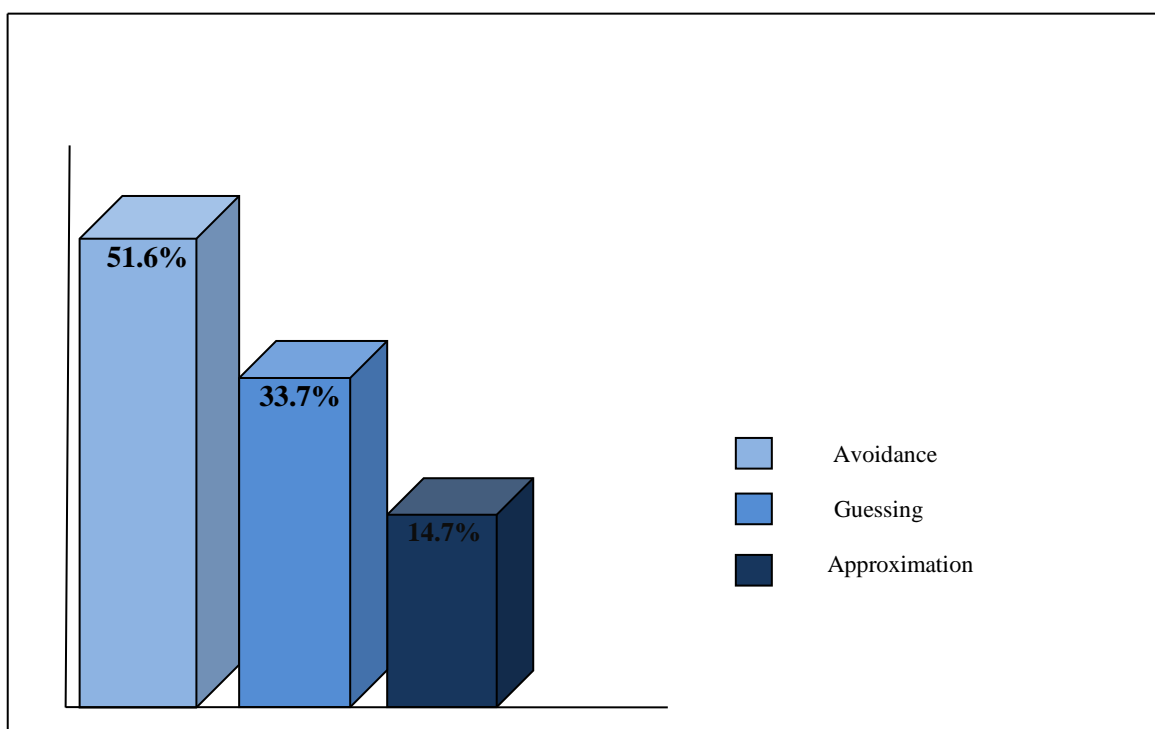
Some responses to items (1), (2), (8), and (13) in Question (2) can be ascribed to **Guessing**:

1- Harry sprayed **paint** on the wall. Instrumental
 * Harry sprayed **paint** on the wall. Locative

2-The man has hit the dog.	Affected
* The man has hit the dog.	Effected
8- To whom did you send the money?	Recipient
* To whom did you send the money?	Affected
13-They are having an argument.	Eventive
*They are having an argument.	Effected

Finally, the avoidance strategy has also been used and represented by the items that were left by the subjects with no answers. The total number of errors that might be related to use such strategies is (795, 25%) of the total number of the subjects' errors. Such errors can be reviewed in the following graph:

Graph (2)
Percentages of Communicative Strategies Errors



The concluding results of error sources are presented in Table (10) below:

Table (10)

Results of Error Source

Error Source	No. of Incorrect Answers	Percentage
Interlingual Transfer	54	1.7%
Intralingual Transfer	1897	59.7%
Context of Learning	433	13.6%
Communication Strategies	795	25%
Total	3179	100

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter summarizes the main conclusions obtained through the results of the test. In addition, some pedagogical recommendations and suggestions for further investigations in the area of semantic roles of the object is mentioned.

5.2 Conclusions

5.2.1 Practical Conclusions

The empirical work of the study has come up with the following conclusions :

1- The subjects' performance in the whole test has revealed that EFL college students encounter more difficulties in recognizing and producing semantic roles of the Os but they face difficulties at the production level more than at the recognition one as the rate of their correct responses (33.7%) is lower than that at the recognition one (39.2%). This validates the last hypothesis of the study:

Subjects achievement at the production level is expected to be worse than their achievement at the recognition one.

2. The students' errors in using the semantic roles of objects may be marked out to the following possible reasons:

I- The main reason for the students' errors in using the semantic roles of the objects is the *intraligual* transfer in view of the fact that it represents (1897) which represents (59.7%) of the total errors. *Overgeneralization* is the most essential source of making such errors. A significant number of the students *generalize* most of the semantic roles of the Od as *affected* and most of the Oi as *recipient*. This would verify the first hypothesis of this study which reads:

Most of EFL subjects classify most of the semantic roles of the direct object as affected and most of the indirect object as recipient.

Incomplete rule application is the second source of making *intraligual transfer* that there are (509, 16%) incorrect responses which can be ascribed to this factor. A considerable number of the subjects have confused between *Affected* role and *Effected* one. Their responses validate the second hypothesis:

Such subjects face difficulties in distinguishing between affected object and effected object.

The third cause that leads to commit such errors is the *ignorance of rule restriction* where there are (262, 18.24%) such erroneous responses of the total number of incorrect responses. This would verify the third hypothesis of this study which reads:

Most students may face difficulties in identifying the semantic roles of the prepositional object

The fourth aspect of the subjects' incorrect responses owes to *false concepts hypothesized* that the number and rate of the responses that convey such confusions are (241, 7.9%).

II- The second highest rate of errors is due to *communicative strategies* (695, 21.8%). Some subjects used such errors to overcome the difficulties which they may face, such as: *approximation* , *guessing*, in addition to *avoidance*.

III- *Context of learning* is the third cause behind (533.16.8%) of the incorrect responses. It has been found out that semantic role of O has been given little consideration in English grammar books and by the teachers.

IV- The lowermost rate of errors can be ascribed to *interlingual transfer* (54,1.7%) whereby the subjects use the rules of their native language in the production of semantic roles of the objects.

5.3 Recommendations

In the light of the findings arrived at through the present study, some reconditions that may be of value to the teachers and text-book writers of English as a foreign language are worth observing:

1. *In teaching the syntax of O_s*: the teachers and the text-book writers have to draw a distinction among the formal classes that may function or occur as Od, Oi, or Op. Thus the learner must be made aware of the differences and similarities in recognizing and producing O_s. List of verbs requiring Od, Oi, and Op should be included in an appendix at the end of the text-books, together with those which range over all.

2. *In teaching the semantics of O_s*: the semantic roles of O_s are supposed to be taught in the earlier stages of the college of education to enable the learners to be more familiar with such roles. In addition, the teachers and syllabus designers should provide appropriate material and intensive practices to clear out the different roles the O_s express or employ.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Research

The following suggestions are found to be suitable for further investigation:

1. A study can be conducted to investigate the semantic roles of subject or object complement in the performance of EFL learners.
2. Investigating the performance of Iraqi EFL university students in using the lexical semantics of verbs.

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Appendix I

A Letter to the Jury Members

University of Babylon
College of Basic Education
Department of English
Postgraduate Studies, Methods of Teaching EFL, M.A.
January, 2008

Dear sir\madam

The researcher attempts to conduct an M.A. study under the title:
*"Investigating the Performance of Iraqi EFL University Students in
Using the Semantic Roles of Object"*.

This test is designed for this purpose. It contains four questions: the first and fourth questions aim at measuring the students' ability at the production level .The second and third questions aim at discovering the students' ability at the recognition level. This test is designed for the fourth year students of the Department of English /College of Education/ University of Babylon.

I would be grateful if you could advise me on the validity of the test to achieve the aim. Your notes and comments will be highly considered.

Thank you very much for your kind cooperation

Appendix II

Test Before Modification

Q.1

Read the following sentences carefully indicating the types of the following roles by writing the letters of the suitable roles in the blanks:

A. theme	B. effected	C. locative	D. recipient	E. affected
F. cognate	G. instrumental	J. eventive	H. beneficiary	I. goal

(30 marks)

- | | |
|--|-------|
| 1- We sprayed paint on the wall. | ----- |
| 2-He used his foot to hit it. | ----- |
| 3-John cut down the tree for my sake . | ----- |
| 4-the man has hit the dog . | ----- |
| 5-John want home . | ----- |
| 6-He gave me a push. | ----- |
| 7-The carpenter made a chair . | ----- |
| 8-I dig the ground . | ----- |
| 9-We left London . | ----- |
| 10-I draw him a circle . | ----- |
| 11-I will break his head for her. | ----- |
| 12-We criticized that leader yesterday. | ----- |
| 13-She painted a picture . | ----- |
| 14-everyone liked her dance . | ----- |
| 15-He died a miserable death . | ----- |

Q.2

Read the following sentences carefully and then underline the object of the following roles: (20marks)

- | | |
|--|----------------|
| 1- John gave the book to the Bill. | (theme) |
| 2- John shot an arrow at the apple. | (Instrumental) |
| 3- He lives a sad and lonely life. | (cognate) |
| 4- Fetch me a paper, will you, Jack? | (beneficiary) |
| 5- We gave the baby a bath. | (Eventive) |
| 6- She wants to repair the tile over the bathroom. | (locative) |
| 7- I should gave the car a wash. | (affected) |
| 8- we made him some tea. | (recipient) |
| 9- I baked the cake for you. | (effected) |
| 10-Pat told the joke to his friends | (goal) |

Q.3

Add an appropriate Object showing the semantic role required in brackets: (30marks)

- | | |
|--|----------------|
| 1-She is frying ----- for me. | (affected) |
| 2- They are digging-----. | (effected) |
| 3-Anderw gave ----- the flowers. | (recipient) |
| 4-John swam -----. | (locative) |
| 5-I took ----- earlier. | (eventive) |
| 6-He used ----- to chop down the tree. | (instrumental) |
| 7- Peter gave Lily -----. | (theme) |
| 8-I am thinking a terrible -----. | (cognate) |
| 9-I found a seat -----. | (beneficiary) |

- 10-John will give Marry----- (theme)
 11-I dreamed ----- (cognate)
 12- use your----- (instrumental)
 12- she made scarf----- (beneficiary)
 14- I had----- (eventive)
 15-Pat told the joke----- (goal)

Q.4

For each of the following semantic roles of objects below, construct an English sentence. (20marks)

- 1-Effective role.
- 2-Recipient role.
- 3-Cognate role.
- 4-Eventive role.
- 5-Affactive role.
- 6-Benificery role.
- 7-Locative role.
- 8-Instrumental role.
- 9-Theme role.
- 10-Affected indirect object.

Appendix III

Test After Modification

Q 1

Construct an English sentence for each of the following semantic roles of the objects:

- 1- Effected.
- 2- Recipient.
- 3- Cognate.
- 4- Eventive.
- 5- Affected direct object.
- 6- Affected indirect object.
- 7- Instrumental.
- 8- Locative.
- 9-Goal.

Q 2

Read the following sentences carefully and write the letter of the correct choice of the roles of objects. Select your answer from the following list:

A. effected	B. locative	C. recipient	D. affected
E. cognate	F. instrumental	G. eventive	

- 1- Harry sprayed **paint** on the wall. -----
- 2-The man has hit the dog. -----
- 3-I would like to go to the dance with **her**. -----
- 4- He gave **me** a push. -----
- 5- She crossed the bridge. -----
- 6- He lives a sad and lonely life. -----
- 7- Everyone liked her dance. -----
- 8- To **whom** did you send the money? -----
- 9- He used **an axe** to chop down the tree. -----
- 10-I draw him **a circle**. -----
- 11- I cleaned the window. -----
- 12- They turned the corner. -----
- 13-They are having an argument. -----
- 14- The carpenter made a chair. -----
- 15-He died a miserable death. -----
- 16-Judith paid **me** a visit. -----

Q 3

Underline the object in the following sentences according to the semantic role mentioned in brackets:

- 1- He reported to the police that there had been a robbery. (Recipient)
- 2- We sent a single with a mirror. (Instrumental)
- 3- Chris will sing a song for us. (Cognate)
- 4- We pushed the ball down the hill. (Affected)
- 5- We gave the baby a bath. (Eventive)
- 6- She wants to repair the tile over the bathroom. (Locative)
- 7- I should give the car a wash. (Affected)
- 8- Bill led from New York to Timbuktu. (Goal)
- 9- I baked the cake for you. (Effectuated)

Q 4

Add an appropriate object which shows the semantic role required in brackets:

- 1- She is frying ----- for me. (Affected)
- 2- They are digging ----- (Effectuated)
- 3- Andrew gave ----- the flowers. (Recipient)
- 4- Derek owes ----- a treat. (Affected)
- 5- I took ----- earlier. (Eventive)
- 6- I am thinking a terrible ----- . (Cognate)
- 7- He throws ----- at me. (Instrumental)
- 8- I gave ----- a nudge. (Affected)
- 9- I have found ----- a place. (Recipient)
- 10- Marry lights ----- . (Effectuated)

- | | |
|---------------------------|----------------|
| 11-I dreamed -----. | (Cognate) |
| 12- Use your----- | (Instrumental) |
| 13-He loves -----. | (Locative) |
| 14-They had a long -----. | (Eventive) |
| 15-I dig -----. | (Affected) |
| 16-John looked at -----. | (Locative) |

Appendix IV

The Test Possible Answers

Q.1

1. She painted *a picture*.
2. We paid *them* the money.
3. They fought *a long fight*.
4. I am making *an effort*.
5. He broke *a twig*.
6. Give *the car* a push.
7. She is playing *the piano*.
8. John put the book on *the shelf*.
9. Frank threw himself onto *the sofa*.

Q2

1. f

2. d

3. c

4. d

5. b

6. g

7. e

8. c

9. f

10. a

11. d

12. b

13. g

14. a

15. e

16. d

Q3

1. the police
2. a mirror
3. a song
4. the ball
5. a bath
6. the bathroom
7. the car
8. Timbuktu
9. the cake

Q.4

1. an egg
2. a grave
3. her
4. Bristol
5. a shower
6. thought
7. a stone
8. Helen

9. you

10. a light

11. a dream

12. brain

13. India

14. fight

15. the ground

16. London