Sentential Subject in English and Arabic

Lecturer Tayseer Flaiyih Hessan
University of Thi-Qar - College of Education for Humanities
Department of English

Abstract
   This study is a comparative one since it tackles one of the sentential functions in English and Arabic. This function is sentential subject. In both languages, the subject function is usually realized by a single word or phrase. Still, a clause may also realize that function.

   The study aims at finding out whether sentential subject (and henceforth SS) is restricted in both languages or not. Also, the role of predicate in this assumed restriction is being investigated. The procedure followed in English is explaining: the structure of SS, which complement clauses may realize it and which predicates may select these clauses to be a subject. In Arabic, the procedure includes presenting Arab grammarians' views on SS and the conditions under which it is allowed.

   It is concluded that SS in English is well acknowledged and less restricted in comparison with that of Arabic. Also, in both languages the predicate plays an essential role in allowing or non-allowing SS.

Sentential Subject in English and Arabic
1- Introduction
   In English, the subject is one of the main syntactic functions in the sentence. It is typically realized by a noun phrase or a pronoun. Other times, the subject may be realized by a clause due to a syntactic relation of dependency called subordination. Subordination is when a clause becomes dependent in a main (higher) clause if it is a constituent of that main clause. Thus, if such a dependent clause functions as the subject constituent, this will result in an SS. (Bussmann ,2006:1034,1063)

   Regarding Arabic, its subject is usually an explicit noun (اسمٌ صريح), a personal (ضميرٌ) or an interpreted original (مصدرٌ مؤول) or a sentence (جملةٌ) (Salih, 2001:101). It is this last type of subject realization which is considered in this research. [1]

2- Aims and Procedures
   This study has the aim of exploring SS in both languages. This includes the structure of SSs and its co-occurrence restrictions. The procedures followed are:
- regarding English, Dixon's (2005) *A Semantic Approach to English Grammar* has been chosen as a model, although other models have also been consulted for examples of SS.
- explaining the structure of clauses realizing SSs and the type of predicates with which they may occur.

- discussing the compatibility in meaning between these clauses and predicates.
- Regarding Arabic, Kebawa (1989) is the model chosen beside others.
- the different views of Arab grammarians on SSs have been explained.
- the conditions, under which SSs may be allowed, are detailed.

3- Sentential Subjects in English

Grammarians discuss SSs under different terms. Tallerman (1998:72) calls them "SENTNTIAL SUBJECTS OR CLAUSAL SUBJECTS". Murcia and Freeman (1999:66) label them as "clausal and phrasal" subjects.
Even more, Kearns (2000:40-41) uses the semantic term "sentential argument" to describe a subject argument realized by a clause. Semantically speaking, a proposition (the semantic equivalent of a clause) consists of a predicate and one or more arguments required by that predicate. A predicate is "the central semantic unit of a proposition". Verbs are not the only grammatical category functioning as predicates.
[1] All terms of Arabic grammar used in this study, like the above ones, are taken from El-Dahdah's (1993) *A Dictionary of Arabic Grammatical Nomenclature* .
Accordingly, adjectives, noun phrases and prepositional phrases may also be predicates. An argument is the "semantic unit required by a semantic predicate". Again, it could be realized by a noun phrase or a clause. (Jacobs,1995:14-16,363,366). The argument focused upon in this research is the subject argument, especially that realized by a clause.
Moreover, Bussmann (2006.:1063) describes this type of subject as sentential subject complement.
Since the subject function is typically realized by a noun phrase, clauses realizing subjects are traditionally described as nominal. More recently, Miller (2002:63) and Dixon (2005:36) call such subject-realizing clauses as complement clauses.

3-1 Sentential Subjects as Complement [2] Clauses

When a predicate like a verb, an adjective or a noun phrase accepts a clause as its subject argument to complete the meaning relationship associated with that predicate, that clause is termed a complement clause (Biber et al.,1999:658). Traditionally, clauses occupying subject slots (or object slots) are called nominal clauses since subject positions are typically filled by nouns. Recently, Vincent (1999:353) explains that

the term complementation "is generally limited to the study of clauses, finite or non-finite, which serve as arguments typically of verbs but by extension also of other categories such as noun, adjective, and preposition". As mentioned previously, the argument involved here is the subject argument.

SSs result from subordinating a complement clause into a main clause. That is, a clause might be a subject argument of a certain predicate if it was contained or subordinated within a larger clause.
- For Sharon's car to break down like that would be unfortunate.

                                                            Jacobs (ibid.:66-67)

It should be mentioned that complement clauses are one of the three major types of subordinate clauses. The other two are adverbial clauses and relative clauses whose function is mainly to modify. While the function of complement clauses is mainly to complete the verb. (Vincent, ibid.:352 and Miller, ibid.:69)

3-2 The Structure of Sentential Subjects

When a complement clause is subordinated as a subject for a certain predicate, such a clause will suffer from "desententialization". Huddleston (1999:337-338) assumes that desententialization accompanies the subordination of a clause. It means "the loss of features of ……. forms that are associated with a clause standing alone as a sentence".

[2] Traditionally, the term 'complement' refers to all obligatory features required to complete the predicate other than the verb like the object and the adverbial. (See Crystal, 1985:60)
- That you leave early is important.
- You leave early .
in the first example, the complement clause (That you leave early) is subordinated as a subject to complete the meaning of the predicate (is important).By this, subordination shows one aspect of desententialization, that is the introduction of the form (That). Contrastively, when the same clause is standing as main in the second example, no marker of desententialization is needed .

Huddleston (1999:337-338) mentions four general internal markers or indicators of desententialization when subordinating a complement clause for any function. These are:
1- The verb form may show inflections characteristics of subordinate clauses like the (-ing) especially in non-finite complement clauses:
- Galahad's having arrived late offended the king.
- For Galahad to have arrived late offended the king.

Jacobs (1995:83)

2- Certain elements might introduce the subordinated complement clause like (that) and (for) above or the wh- element below:
- Whether we can stay with my mother is another matter.

Swan(1995:620)

3-There might be some change in the structure or order of elements when subordinating a complement clause:
- How the return of a Labour government would affect the political calculations in Northern Ireland is difficult to foresee.
- How would the return of a Labour government affect the political calculations in Northern Ireland?

Biber et al. (1999:684)

4-There might be omission of certain elements when a complement clause is subordinated, although such elements might be necessary for the structure of the clause when it is main. An example is subject omission.
- Smoking cigarettes is bad for you.
- You are smoking cigarettes.

Swan (ibid.:293)

As it is obvious, these markers of desententialization are noted when subordinating a complement clause as an SS, thus they might lead to the types of complement clauses realizing these SSs.

  Grammarians discuss many different types of complement clauses but they agree that the main division of complement clauses is that of the finite and nonfinite. For example, Leech and Svartvik (1994:311) give five main types of these clauses: that-clauses, wh-interrogative, relative clauses, to-infinitive and -ing clauses. Biber et al. (ibid.:658) discuss them under four major types: that-clauses, wh-clauses, to-infinitive clauses and -ing clauses. Beside these, there are bare infinitive clauses and wh-+infinitive clauses. Moreover, Dixon (2005:52) gives seven types of complement clauses: That-, Wh-, ING, (for) To, Judgment To, Wh-To and From ING complement clauses. Dixon (ibid.) assumes that only the first four types may function as subject. Thus, the present study shall focus on them.
Further, it will be noted that these complement clauses differ in their internal structure and also in the introducing element or complementizer. These two differences or markers of desententialization will be discussed with regard to each complement clause type functioning as SS.

3-2-1 That- Complement Clause

When taking the structure of complement clauses into consideration, the finiteness notion will be imposing. Finiteness involves classifying verbs into finite and nonfinite forms. Usually, a verb is finite if it is generally showing differences in the grammatical categories of tense, modality, person and number. For example, the verb (play) can be marked respectively for these categories as (he plays everyday vs. he played yesterday), (he can play well vs. he should play well), (you play well vs. he plays well) and (you are playing well vs. he is playing well). (See: Tallerman,1998:64 and Tamm, 1999:146)

Huddleston (1999:338) explains that the terms finite and non-finite are first used to refer to verb forms ,then by derivation they are used to refer to clauses. Accordingly, Biber et al. (1999:193) claim that a clause is finite if it contains a verb (marked for tense or modality) and a subject. Regarding that-complement clauses, these are finite for always having a finite verb and a subject. Dixon (ibid.:40) describes a that-complement clause as displaying "the full structure of a main clause" except for the introducing element (that). Any element whose function is to "introduce a complement clause" is called a complementizer. Fromkin, Rodman and Hyams (2003:577) assume that "complementizer has the effect of turning a sentence into a clause".

Thus, a complementizer is one of the markers of desententialization as mentioned above. Accordingly, (that) is the complementizer in this type of complement clauses.

When a that-complement clause is realizing an SS, the complementizer (that) can never be dropped. But if it is occupies other slots like objects, a zero- that clause will be used. (Quirk and Greenbaum:1992:316-317)

- That she is still alive is a consolation.
- I knew he was wrong.

Moreover, when a that-complement clause is realizing an SS, no constituent of that clause is allowed to be moved out.(Bussmann ,2006:1063)

- [*Who did [that Caroline was going out with ----] bother you?]

                                      (Ibid.)

it could be thought that the above ungrammatical sentence is a variant of:

- [Did [that Caroline was going out with Tom] bother you?]

it also could be thought that this last variant is the interrogation of :

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-That Caroline was going out with Tom bothered you.

the first variant is ungrammatical since the word (who) is part of the SS and it is not allowed to leave the that-clause to make interrogation of the whole main sentence. Thus, the second variant of the interrogation is the correct one.

3-2-2 Wh-Complement Clause

Among complement clauses filling SSs are those introduced by an interrogative word like (what, when, how, if, whether,…). These words are the complementizers. It should be noted that these words may have other functions like introducing questions or relative clauses, except for (whether) which is the only form in English whose sole function is to introduce a complement clause (Dixon:2005:43).

Swan (1995:620) explains that when wh-complement clause is in subject function, the complementizer (whether) is preferred to (if):

- Whether we can stay with my mother is another matter.

Similarly, Dixon (ibid.:274) explains that the use of (if) is much restricted than the use of (whether) since complement clauses with (if) as complementizer cannot be a subject of larger clauses.

- Whether Iliescu resigns or not is of no concern to me.

- *If Iliescu resigns or not is of no concern to me.

As it is evident, wh-complement clauses are generally finite since the subject is always there beside a finite verb.

3-2-3 ING-Complement Clause

This complement clause consists mainly of a verb form ending in -ing

in addition to some modifiers and complements for this form. It may be described as a verbal noun since it may fulfill the functions which a noun is typically accustomed to. One of these functions is to fill the subject slot. Strumpf and Douglas (1999:164) call such verbal forms as "gerund".

- Knowing is half the battle.

Grammarians differ regarding the -ing form in such functions whether it is a phrase or a clause. Strumpf and Douglas (ibid.:165-166) describe it as a "gerund phrase" in which the -ing form is the head. The other words accompanying it are modifiers and complements.

- Eating quietly can be difficult.

- Her quick thinking saved us all a lot of trouble.

- Knowing your enemy is the best defense.

(Ibid.)

Similarly, Jacobs (1995:81-82) calls such constructions as "gerundives" and argues for their status as a phrase not a clause. This is because it has no complementizers like (that) or wh-word.

- Galahad's having arrived late offended the king.

Contrastingly, Murcia and Freeman (1999:642-643) consider the gerund phrase above as a clause "as if we have the basic structure of clauses with subjects". That is, (Galahad) is the subject of (having arrived late) and the possessive (s) may be considered as a type of complementizers just like (that) and wh-elements.

Regarding finiteness, a clause is nonfinite if its verb lacks the previous verbal contrasts of tense, mood, aspect or agreement in number and person with the subject (if there is one). As mentioned previously, Huddleston (1999:146,338) considers nonfiniteness as an important indicator of desententialization since nonfinite verbs are not allowed to be the only predicate in the sentence, "but they are reserved for other syntactic functions like…arguments (specifically the subject argument)".

- Being a cook is the best job I can imagine.
-*Being a cook.

The -ing complement clauses are nonfinite. As noticed above, the clause is not limited to a certain tense. In other words, the tense contrast is not showing. Besides, some elements like the subject are missing .Still when it comes to aspect, Miller (2002: 82) suggests that nonfinite subordinate clause, including -ing complement clauses, are like finite ones in showing the progressive aspect or the perfect as in:

- Having seen the albino gorillas is an honour and privilege.
- Having known her gives me great satisfaction.

Still, Huddleston (ibid.:339) considers these -ing complement clauses as nonfinite since they are "nontensed" clauses.

3-2-4 (for) To-Infinitive Complement Clause

This is another nonfinite clause basically consisting of the bare verb stem preceded by (to). It is nonfinite for generally not being limited or inflected for tense, mood or agreement in number and person. That is why Murcia and Freeman (ibid.:634) describe such infinitival construction as "tenseless clauses".

- To swim is my greatest love.

As with -ing clauses, some objections are raised for considering such constructions as phrases. But grammarians like Miller (2002: 81-82) assumes that there are good reasons for regarding them as clauses. Like finite clauses, these constructions have a verb that may take complements and modifiers .

- To make mistakes is easy.
- To get there took so long.

Besides, Miller (ibid.) claims that such constructions may be marked for aspect.

- To have won the award is a great honour.

<div align="right">Strumpf and Douglas (1999:176)</div>

It can be argued that to-infinitive complement clauses are nonfinite because they lack a subject. Still, Vincent (1999: 355) explains that the subject of a nonfinite form like -ing complement clauses can have its subject expressed by using "a special element whose only role is to license the expression of the subject". This element is the word (for) which functions as the complementizer.

- For John to leave now would be disastrous.

the word (John) is the subject of the verb (leave) though it is not expressed in the same way as that of finite complement clauses.

Regarding complementizers, Jacobs (1999:285) assumes that when (for) and (that) introduce complement clauses realizing SSs, they are called "overt complementizers". This is because their presence in the subject position must be expressed clearly. But this is unlike other functions, where these complementizers can be omitted or "covert".

- Sellars claims (that) Paramount will accept his offer.
- Sellars needs (for) Paramount to offer him a sizable advance.

3-3 Sentential Subjects and Predicate Types

The question is whether SSs freely occur with all predicates or not. It has been noticed that they frequently occur with a certain type of predicates more than the others. For example, Seuren (1999:145) assumes that some predicates are called "factive predicates" which take subordinated complement clauses , preferably that-clauses, as subject or object. Again in the present study, the focus is on the subject.

Similarly, Dixon (2005:96-97) argues that some verbs allow their subject to be a noun phrase or a complement clause, while others require their subject to be a noun phrase not a complement clause. In

this respect, Dixon (ibid.) assumes that verbs are either primary or secondary. The primary are "those directly referring to some activity or state, i.e., verbs which can make up a sentence by themselves". For example:
- They watched it.
On the other hand, there are secondary verbs which are "providing semantic modification of some other verb", for example:
- She tried to swim across the river.
semantically, the main verb is (swim) and the verb (tried) is only adding a shade of meaning to that main verb.
Dixon (2005:96-97.) claims SSs are allowed by certain verbs from both types beside certain adjectives. These will be illustrated below.

3-3-1 Sentential Subject with Primary Verbs
   Dixon (ibid.:96-97) explains that not all primary verbs allow SSs since some allow their subject to be a noun phrase not a complement clause. Such verbs are like (hit, give, put, surround, take, rain, present…. etc).
   Beside noun phrases, other primary verbs may alternatively allow their subject to be a complement clause. Dixon (ibid.) call these verbs the "annoying" verbs.
- That Anne was in conversation with Mr. Elliott <u>dismayed</u> Captain Wentworth .

                                                   Miller(2002:63)
Dixon (ibid.:164) comments on the semantics and the syntax of annoying verbs. It is assumed that these verbs have the semantic roles of an experiencer and a stimulus. Generally speaking, a semantic role is the role assigned by the predicate to its argument whether the latter is a phrase or a clause (Jacobs:1999:22, 367). An experiencer means the participant in the predicate which "has the emotional or psychological state or experience". The stimulus is the participant which "is the target of an experiencer's psychological response". (Kearns, 2000:190)

   In the case of annoying verbs, the SS is assigned the stimulus role while the object is given the experiencer role. That is, in the example above (That Anne was in conversation with Mr. Elliott) stimulates (Captain Wentworth) to get the feelings of being (dismayed). Thus, the SS is the stimulus and the object is the experirncer. Other examples are:
- To switch to baseball would <u>annoy</u> Fred .

- Playing golf <u>delights</u> me .

   Dixon (ibid.:164) gives other annoying verbs like: frighten, terrify, scare, shock, upset, surprise; offend; delight, please, satisfy, entertain, amuse, excite, inspire; impress, concern, trouble, worry, grieve, dismay, depress, sadden; madden, infuriate, annoy, anger, disappoint; confuse, bewilder, deceive, trick, perplex, puzzle; interest, distract, bore; attract; embarrass, disgust; tire, exhaust, bother.

   Now, the question is if the annoying verbs allow all the four complement clause types to realize their SSs. In this respect, Radford (2004:357) mentions a phenomenon described as "complement-selection" where the verb is said "to select (i.e. take or allow) the relevant type of complement". In support of this, Dixon (2005: 165) assumes that not all annoying verbs "occur freely equally with all kinds of complement". It is claimed that the choice of which complement clause is to be selected as an SS to complete a certain predicate has to do with the meaning of both the predicate and the complement clause. It should be mentioned that Dixon's model discusses many functions that complement clauses may take in the sentence. Still, the present study is related to the subject function. Accordingly, light should be shed on the meanings of the above complement clause types.

3-3-1-1 Meanings of complement Clauses and Compatibility
   Starting with that-clauses, Biber et al. (1999:660) explain that these generally refer to states, thoughts, attitudes, events or emotions.
- That they are already struggling troubles Graham Taylor.
- Your driving a car to New York in your condition disturbs me greatly.
                                                            Quirk et al. (1985:1064)
Second, Dixon (ibid.:238) claims that wh-complement clauses may denote interrogating a state or event and thus "referring to something about which clarification is needed".
- How we climb the mountain depends on what equipment John brings.

   Third, ing- complement clauses have the meaning of referring to activity or state with reference to its extension in time or its duration (ibid.:240).
-His daughter's having gained first class honours delighted Mr. Smith.

Finally, to-infinitive complement clause generally refers to "the potentiality of the subject's getting involved in some activity". The subject referred to here is the subject of the complement clause itself (ibid.:255).

- For John to be out so late worries Mary.

Relevantly, Dixon (ibid.:239) refers to the idea of "compatibility" between the meaning of the predicate and the meaning of the complement clause that functions as its subject. Bussmann (2006: 211) defines compatibility as that which "refers to the conditions of grammaticality that depends on specific semantic syntactic features between linguistic expressions found in particular syntactic positions". That is, a certain verb is allowed to take a certain complement clause type if their meanings are compatible or related. It can be said that this idea is somehow related to Radford's complement selection.

Similarly, Huddleston (1999:343) explains that "the choice of clause type (or complement clause type) in subordinate clauses is generally constrained by the governing verb, adjectives, nouns, or preposition". Dixon (2005:239) assumes that annoying verbs tend to take that-complement clause as their SS. That is, an annoying verb shows the attitudes of a certain experiencer towards a certain stimulating state or event. And this is compatible with the meaning of that-clauses which refer to state or event as mentioned previously.

- That Phil is dating Ann <u>surprises</u> me.
- That they have heard the news <u>astounds</u> me.

Strumpf and Douglas (1999:356) explain that the subject complement clause (SS) in the last example "names the thing that the writer or the speaker is writing or speaking about that which astounds the speaker".

Similarly, annoying verbs like (frighten, terrify, scare, shock) may refer to the feelings of a certain experiencer about a certain activity that is being carried on and about the potential state of a certain subject being involved in some activity or state. This is compatible with the meaning of ing- and to-infinitive complement clauses. Thus, these verbs permit their SS to be in the form of -ing and to-infinitive complement clauses respectively. (Dixon, ibid.:280-281)

- Fred's telling jokes all evening <u>entertained</u> us greatly.
- To have to carry a fifty-kilo pack on my back <u>exhausts</u> me.

But it is assumed that an annoying verb may not take wh-complement clause as its SS. This is because the meaning of such a clause expresses

a need for clarification or interrogation. This latter meaning is not related or compatible with the meaning of these verbs. (ibid.:239)

Similar to annoying verbs, Dixon (ibid.:283-284) gives other comparing and relating verbs. It is claimed that these too may have the option of taking an SS beside the noun phrase. Again, these verbs may select their complement clause subject according to the compatibility concept.
On the one hand, comparing verbs can refer to activity, people, things being compared. Thus, they may prefer an -ing complement clause that shows the possible involvement of the subject in a certain activity denoted by the verb. Examples of comparing verbs are: resemble, differ (from); compare, measure, cost.
- Being kissed by Zelig resembles being licked by an elephant.
On the other hand, Dixon (2005:283-284) claims that relating verbs "refer to some natural or logical relationship" between the states connected. They select their SS to be a that-, -ing or wh-complement clauses whose meanings are assumed to be compatible with the meaning of these verbs.
- Mr. Smith's being so rude to you relates the fact that she was friendly with my first wife.
- How we climb the mountain depends on what equipment John brings.
- That Arwon won the Melbourne cup relates to the fact that he is a horse of quality.
Examples of comparing verb are: depend on, relate to, imply, be due to.

3-3-2 Sentential Subject with Secondary Verbs

As mentioned earlier, a secondary verb is not the only verb in the sentence. There is another verb which the secondary verb modifies or adds a shade of meaning to.
- That Chris can't understand algebra does not matter to Karen.

Dixon (ibid.: 98, 101) states that the verb (understand) is the central or main verb from a semantic point of view and the verb (matter) is only secondary. This is because the "underlying event" is (Chris can't understand algebra). That is, the latter idea is central in communication. That is why (matter) is considered secondary. At the syntactic level, this latter verb is the main predicate in the sentence.

As the example shows, Dixon (ibid.:100,203) assumes that such verbs may add an optional role to the roles already needed by the modified verb. This role is called "Arbiter" usually introduced by (to). The phrase (to Karen) is the Arbiter. It is used for marking "who attaches importance to the happening".

Regarding SS, it is assumed that secondary verbs may allow their subject to be a complement clause. Two groups can be identified within these verbs. The first is the (seem) group which includes: seem, appear, happen, look etc.

The second is the (matter) group including matter, count etc.

Starting with (seem), it can be used as a copula with a following adjective or without being followed by an adjective. The first use will be discussed later in (3-3-3). In both uses, this verb has the meaning of "can be inferred" by me, someone or the speaker. Regarding compatibility, the verb may select a that-clause to infer a state or event expressed by that clause. (Dixon, ibid.:302)

- That John hit his grandmother <u>seems</u> out of character.

To-infinitive complement clauses may also be chosen as SS to refer to the inference of subject involvement of an activity.(Dixon,2005:269)

- For the captain to lead his team onto the field <u>seems</u> normal.

Also -ing complement clauses may be selected as SS to refer to an inferred durational activity.(ibid.)

- John's walking to work this morning <u>seems</u> strangely out of character.

The other secondary group has (matter) and (count). The first may express the fact that "the event or state referred to by the complement clause in subject relation is important to the Arbiter". That-, to- and wh- complement clauses are all acceptable by (matter).(ibid.:205)

- That John won doesn't <u>matter</u> one little bit to Fred.
- Whether or not we are allowed to compete <u>matters</u> a hell of a lot to me.
- John's voting Conservative doesn't <u>matter</u>.

The other verb (count) may relate to some event without referring to the possible involvement of the subject or a certain durational activity. Thus,

it is restricted to a that- and wh- complement clauses.(ibid.:206,270)

- That John was a churchgoer <u>counted</u> for a lot .

3-3-3 Sentential Subject with Adjectives

The predicate in a sentence need not be a verb only; rather it could be an adjective. Some adjectives may accept, as an alternative to nouns, a complement clause in subject function. Usually, an adjective is either a modifier preceding nouns, or a complement completing a verb to be (is, am, are, was, were, been) or a copula verb like (seem). As mentioned earlier, the verb (seem) may be followed by an adjective and this verb may allow an SS.

- That water is liquid is a proved fact.
- That John will win the prize is possible.
- That Mary found the body seems true.

Regarding complement clause selection, Dixon (ibid.:269) claims that "the complement clause possibilities are determined by the adjectives".

Thus, it is assumed that adjectives that may allow a complement clause as SSs are of the value, difficulty, volition and qualification types. Examples of these adjectives can be listed as the following:

- value, e.g. good, bad, lovely, atrocious, perfect; odd, strange, curious; necessary, crucial; important; lucky.
- difficulty, e.g. easy, difficult, tough, hard, simple.
- volition, e.g. deliberate, accidental, purposeful.
- qualification, e.g. definite, possible, usual, likely, sure, correct.

<div align="right">Dixon (2005:84)</div>

As far as compatibility is concerned, the meaning of these adjectives will be discussed in relation to the meaning of the appropriate complement clause these adjectives may select as their SS. For examples, value adjectives denote a judgment about events or durational activity and thus they take a that-clause or ing- clause as SSs.(ibid.:282)

- Helping blind people is good.
- That John likes Bach is curious.

Difficulty adjectives may "refer to some very general mode of behaivour"
and thus they require an -ing complement clause as an SS.(ibid.:283):
- Cooking scones is <u>easy</u> for some people.

Volition type generally tends to refer to events and may select an -ing clause as a subject (ibid.:86-87).
- John's spelling the milk was <u>accidental</u>.

Qualification types "focus on the subject potentiality to engineer some happening "(ibid.:84)
- That John will win the prize is <u>likely</u>.
- For the government to meet the full cost is <u>unlikely</u>.
                                                    Biber et al. (1999:716)
   In addition to these, there are   adjectives of human propensity like (stupid, clever, kind , cruel). These are "referring to ability or attitude towards social relationships with others". Accordingly, they take a that-clause or a to-clause as a subject.(Dixon, ibid.:85,89)
- That John came in without knocking was very <u>stupid </u>of him,
- For John to come in without knocking was very <u>stupid</u> of him.

Finally, Dixon (ibid.:85) describes similarity adjectives as one of those taking SSs. They are used for "comparing two things, states, or events". Examples are similar (to), different (from), equal (to/with), identical (to), analogous. They may accept an -ing clause as SS.
- Applying for a visa to enter Albania is <u>equal</u> to hitting your head against a brick wall.

3-3-4 Sentential Subject with Other Predicates
   While reading other models, it has been found that SSs might occur with predicates other than verbs and adjectives. Thus, they may occur with certain noun phrases and prepositional phrases. The noun phrases may include (important dimension, no concern, sheer luck, one thing, an honuor, privilege, great satisfaction, another matter, a consolation, the last straw … etc). Prepositional phrases include (out of the country), (out of the question), (of great importance) and others.

- For us to take part in the discussion would be <u>a conflict of interest</u>.
                                                    Quirk et al. (1985:1061)
- That she should forget me so quickly was <u>rather a shock</u>.
                                                    Swan (1995:586)
- Knowing your enemy is <u>the best defense</u>.
                                                    Strumpf and Douglas (1999:165-166)
- Myrtle's stealing a Mercedes was <u>the last straw</u>.

It is also found that other verbs like (paid, mean, took, requires, made, keep, give) can also take SSs.

- To wait for people who were late <u>made</u> him angry.
- Traveling to the desert <u>requires</u> careful preparation.
- To get there <u>took</u> so long.

Strumpf and Douglas (ibid.:65-166,173)

4- Sentential Subject in Arabic[3]

Generally, the agent in Arabic is either an explicit noun (اسم صريح), a personal (ضمير) (prominentظاهر or latentمستتر), interpreted as if it were explicit (مؤول بالصريح) or finally a sentence (جملة) (Salih, 2001:101). El-Dahdah (1993:474) shows this respectively in:

ـ غَضب المعلمُ.

- The professor was angry.

ـ أمرتُ.

- I have ordered.

ـ مَرِضُ. (هو)

- He was sick.

ـ بلغني أنّك مريضٌ.

- I am aware of how the competitors win.

ـ يتبينُ لي كيف يفوز المتسابقون.

[3] All terms of Arabic grammar used in this study are taken from El-Dahdah's (1993) *A Dictionary of Arabic Grammatical Nomenclature* .
In Arabic, the relationship between the agents and the verbs above is one of "reference" (الإسناد). The reference means affirming or negating some state of one thing to something else. The purpose behind this affirmation is to create a relation between the verb which is called "information"
(المسند) and the agent which is called "subject" (المسند إليه). (El-Dahdah, 1993:69)

By examining (كيف يفوز المتسابقون), it is clear that the state of (how the competitors win) is confirmed to (لي). Thus, the information is (يتبينُ) and the subject is (كيف يفوز المتسابقون). This last subject is sentential.

In addition, it should be noted that the reference relation may hold between the predicate (الخبر) and the primate (المبتدأ) (ibid.):

ـ زيدٌ قائمٌ.

 - Zaid is standing up.

the predicate (قائمٌ) is the information and the primate (زيدٌ) is the subject. It can be concluded that in Arabic the term subject is a cover

term for both the agent (الفاعـل) and the primate (المبتـدأ). For convenience, in this study the term subject will be used to refer to the agent of the sentence.

Another point is that the underlined subject in (بلغني أنّك مريضٌ ۝) is not sentential. It is interpreted or explained as if it were an explicit noun called "the interpreted original" (المصدر المؤول). It is formed from the letter of originality (حرف مصدري) that is (أن) and the nominal sentence following it.(El-Dahdah, ibid.:577)

4-1 Disagreement on Sentential Subject

In Arabic, there is no consensus about the subject being a sentence. Some grammarians completely deny it. Others allow it with certain restrictions. Others allow it unconditionally.
Kebawa (1989:159-163) assumes that most grammarians necessitate the subject to be a noun and disallow the subject as a sentence. They are Al-Farra', Al-A'kbari and Ibin Hisham. One example is the following holy verse:

(4) -(ثُمَّ بَدَا لَهُمْ مِنْ بَعْدِ مَا رَأَوُا الآيَاتِ لَيَسْجُنُنَّهُ حَتَّى حِينٍ)
Al-Qur'an, 012.035 (Yusuf [Joseph])

Al-Jiwary (1974:30-33) assumes that the subject of the verb (بَدَا) is the sentence (لَيَسْجُنُنَّهُ) . But those, who refuse SS, claim that the subject is an implicit noun (اسم مضمر). This implicit noun can be explained by (بدا لهم بداءٌ أي ظهر لهم رأيٌ لَيَسْجُنُنَّهُ) and the underlying meaning is (لَيَسْجُنُنَّهُ).
Thus, it is (بداءٌ) that is the subject and it is an implicit noun.
Still, Al-Jiwary (ibid.) refuses this explanation and tends to support the SS stand. That is, the verbal sentence (لَيَسْجُنُنَّهُ) can be considered the subject interpreted as (بَدَا لَهُمْ أن يسجنوه).
(4) Qura'n verses are taken from The Holy Qura'n viewer 2.931
Kebawa (1989:159-163) gives another example with an implicit
subject:

ـ ظهرَ لي أ قام زيدٌ أم عمرو.

Ibin Hisham (cited in Kebawa, ibid.) explains this example in the light of annexation (الإضـافة). That is, the subject of (ظهرَ) is an implicit noun and the supposed meaning (التقدير) is (ظهرَ لـي جوابُ أ قام زيدٌ أم عمر) . By this, the noun (جوابُ) is annexed (مضاف) to the sentence (أ قام زيدٌ أم عمر). The former noun is the implicit subject and the latter sentence is only interpreting this subject.
Similarly, Ibin Hisham (cited in Mustapha and Al-Rahhawii, 2009:261-262) discusses the following verse:

ـ (وَتَبَيَّنَ لَكُمْ كَيْفَ فَعَلْنَا بِهِمْ)

Al-Qur'an, 014.045 (Ibrahim [Abraham])

It is claimed that the subject of the verb (تَبَيَّنَ) is a latent personal (ضمير مستتر) and the supposed or underlying meaning is (تبينَ هو أي التبيّن). The sentence (كَيْفَ فَعَلْنَا بِهِمْ) is just explaining that implicit subject. By this view, this sentence can not be the subject. This is because sentences are indefinite and the subject can be either an explicit noun or personal and these are both definite.

In support of this, Ibin Ya'ysh (cited in ibid.) assumes that the subject is not allowed to be a sentence since it can be implicit or unexpressed and the sentence can not be so. In other words, the subject can be a latent personal like (هو) and the latter can be only definite (معرفة). However, the sentence can not be implicit since it is indefinite (نكرة). To conclude, when something is definite, it can be implicit.

Still, Kebawa (ibid.) assures that although sentences can not be implicit or hidden, this does not prevent them from being a subject. This is because many explicit nouns like conjunctive nouns (الأسماء الموصولة) like (الذي،التي) and demonstratives (أسماء الإشارة) like (هذا،هذه) can not be implicit and still they can be subjects:

ـ نجح الـذي اجتهد .
ـ قام هذا الرجل.

In conclusion, Kebawa (ibid.) considers all the previous examples as SSs.

A second group of grammarians allow SSs without conditions. Kebawa (ibid.:159) and Mustapha and Al-Rahhawii (ibid.:261) mention that Tha'lab and Hisham Al-Dhareer allow SSs unrestrictedly.

- يُعجبني قام زيدٌ.
- يُعجبني خرج زيدٌ.

In both sentences, the subject is the verbal sentence.

The third group allows SS with conditions. This will be elaborated in the following subsections.

4-2 Restricted Sentential Subject

Al-Radhay (cited in Kebawa,1989:160) claims that a subject can be a sentence if that sentence is narrative (حكاية) or interpreted by an original noun (مؤولـة بالمصـدر). These two conditions restrict SSs in Arabic.

4-2-1 Narrative Sentences as Sentential Subject

Generally, narrative is "a follower repeating the term already heard in its initial form without any changes" (El-Dahdah,1993:269). Al-Samara'y (1998: 232) presumes that the narrative is either of the isolated (مفرد) or of the sentence (جملـة). Example of the isolated is when the Arabs heard something like (هاتـان تمرتـان), they would say something like (دعنا من تمرتان). Although (تمرتان) in the second is preceded by (من), it is still showing regularity (الرفع) since it is narrated (reported) as it is first said. The other type of narration is that of the sentence. The narrative of a sentence is to say the sentence as it is first pronounced or written.

ـ إنّما وحّدَ قلوبَ الخوارج لا حُكمَ إلا لله .

(Kebawa, ibid.:161)

The sentence (لا حُكمَ إلا لله) is narrative and it is the subject of the verb (وحّدَ)

since (قلوبَ الخوارج) is the object. Thus, (لا حُكمَ إلا لله) is the SS.
Similarly, Mustapha and Al-Rahhawii (2009:262) give another
example of narrative sentence:

ـ أعجبني
أقيموا بني أمي صدور مَطيّكم   فإنّي الى قوم سواكم   لأميل
فقد حمت الحاجات و الليل مقمر   وشدت لطيات مطايا وأرحل

It is claimed that the two verses above constitute the subject of the verb (أعجبني).

4-2-1 Interpretation by Original

The second restriction on SS is that it should be explained or replaced by an interpreted original (المصـدر المـؤول). El-Dahdah (1993:577) defines an interpreted original as "a moral (معنـوي) original noun supposed (يُقدر) at the place of a verb of some root following a letter of originality (حـرف مصـدري)". For example, the interpreted original (صيامُكم) is melted from the root verb and the letter of originality (أنْ تصوموا).

Al-Disoqi (cited in Kebawa,ibid.) claims that it is an established rule in Arabic that the subject must be a noun or what interprets a noun .The latter is the interpreted original).

In order to be acceptable as an SS, a sentence must be explained by the interpreted original (which replaces a noun). This replacement is allowed if the verb of that subject is a suspended verb (فعل معلـق).
Suspension(التعليق) means if the verbs of affectivity (أفعـال القلـوب) are separated from their primate and predicate (المبتدأ والخبر) by terms having priority (مالـه صدر الكلام), then the action of openness (الفـتح) caused

by these verbs will be suspended (يُعلق) or prevented from performing its function (Kebawa,1989:169).

Generally, verbs of affectivity "cause the opening (الفتح) of two patients (مفعولين) which are initially primate and predicate" (ibid.:607). Other verbs of affectivity are (وجد ـ جعل- عدّ- رأى-علم- ظنّ- حسب- خال)

ـ ظنّ الغافلُ الحقَ ضائعا ۝ .

Al-A'kebawi (2006:104)

the verb of affectivity (ظنّ) is opening the two patients (الحقَ ضـائعاً). Before that verb, these two words were primate and predicate(الحقُ ضائعٌ).

The opening action of verbs of affectivity might be suspended or blocked

if they are followed by words of priority in speech like (أدوات الاستفهام

(لام الابتداء ـ كم الخبرية ـ همزة التسوية) . For example, in

ـ عَلِمْتُ لأخوك مجتهدٌ.

the two patients are no longer opened since the action of the verb (عَلِمْتُ)

is blocked by (لام الابتداء) in (لأخوك).

Regarding SS, Kebawa (ibid.:161) assumes it is possible for a sentence to be a subject after a suspended verb of affectivity. Examples of SSs with suspended verbs are given below. But as explained earlier, the verbs below are not verbs of affectivity. To illustrate this, El-Dahdah (1993:607) regards these verbs as being "attached" (ملحقة) to affectivity verbs assuming that the suspension in these verbs is done exclusively by (أدوات الاستفهام).

ـ (أَفَلَمْ يَهْدِ لَهُمْ كَمْ أَهْلَكْنَا قَبْلَهُمْ مِنَ الْقُرُونِ)

Al-Qur'an, 020.128 (TaHa)

ـ (وَتَبَيَّنَ لَكُمْ كَيْفَ فَعَلْنَا بِهِمْ)

Al-Qur'an, 014.045 (Ibrahim [Abraham])

Mustapha and Al-Rahhawii (ibid.)

That is, the verbal sentences (كَيْفَ فَعَلْنَا بِهِمْ) and (كَمْ أَهْلَكْنَا قَبْلَهُمْ) are the subjects of the suspended verbs of affectivity (يَهْدِ) and (تَبَـيَّنَ) respectively. The suspension is achieved by the interrogation words (كَمْ) and (كَيْفَ).

After achieving suspension, these verbal sentences may be considered as SSs since they can be explained or replaced by the interpreted original (إهلاكُنا) and (فِعْلُنا) respectively.

Kebawa (ibid.:162) and Mustapha and Al-Rahhawii (2009:261) give Other examples of sentential subjects are:

ـ ما ضرُّ تَغلِبَ وائل أ هجوتها   أم بُلتَ , حيث تناطح البحرانِ.

ـ أشتُّ عليك أيُّ الأمرِ تأتي   أتستخذي صديقكَ أم تُغيرُ
ـ وما راعني إلا ّ يسير بشرطةٍ وعهدي بهِ قَيناً ، يَفْشُّ بِكِيرِ

In these examples, Kebawa (ibid.) assumes that a suspended verb even not from the affectivity verbs can take a SS. The above verbs are suspended by (أي,أ) and (إلّا) respectively. Their respective interpreted originals are (سيرُه) and (إتيانُك), (هجاؤُك).

   It should be noted that the reference relation may also hold between the original (المصدر) and the subject. That is the subject of the original can also be. The original is similar to the verb in causing the subject regularity (رفع الفاعل). (see El-Dahdah,1993:474)

In this respect, Kebawa (ibid.) explains that the original (if it is suspended) may take a sentence as its subject. For example:

ـ سواءٌ علي أ قمتَ أم قعدتَ.

The SS is (أقمتَ أم قعدتَ) since the original (سواءٌ) is suspended by (أ) of interrogation and the supposed meaning is (سواءٌ علي قيامُك أو قعودُك).
Another example is:

ـ(إِنَّ الَّذِينَ كَفَرُوا سَوَاءٌ عَلَيْهِمْ أَأَنذرتهم أَمْ لَمْ تُنْذِرْهُمْ لا يُؤْمِنُونَ)
      Al-Qur'an, 002.006 (Al-Baqara [The Cow])

  Al-Samara'y (1998:231) explains that the sentence (أَأَنذرتهم أَمْ لَمْ تُنْذِرْهُمْ) represents the SS of the original (سَوَاءٌ). The supposed meaning of the above verse is (إنَّ الـذين كفروا مستو عليهم الإنـذارُ و عدمهُ).

4-2-3 Restricted Sentential with Annullers

   In addition to suspended verbs, Al-Jiwary (1974:31-32) claims that sentences might be subject to annuller verbs (النواسخ) that are satisfied (تكتفي) by showing its regular ending (حالة الرفع) on their subjects. Generally, El-Dahdah (1993:655) defines an annuller as that which" intervenes in the nominal sentence and provokes a change in declinational vowel (حركة إعراب) of the primate and the predicate".

ـ البردُ قارسٌ.
ـ كان البردُ قارسا ً.

 In the first version, the primate and the predicate are both showing regularity. After the annuller (كان), the primate is showing regularity and the predicate is showing openness. Examples of annullers are (كان وأخواتها) and (كاد وأخواتها).

Usually, these are deficient verbs (عال ناقصة) since their meaning will not be complete unless there is a predicate (El-Dahdah,1993:451). Thus, the reference requires both the primate and the predicate. Still, these anullers can also be complete (تامة). That is, their intended meaning is completed by linkage with their subject. The reference requires only the verb and the subject. (ibid.:451)

ـ قد كان الأمرُ.

Al-A'kebawi (2006:38) claims that (كان) here is a complete verb since it is satisfied by its regular subject (فاعله المرفوع) . Its intended meaning is (وقع الأمرُ و حلَّ). Moreover, Abu-Almakarim (2007:85) gives other meanings of complete (كان) like (حضَر ـ حدَثـ وجَد ـ ثبُت).

Back to SS, when these annullers are complete their subject could be a verbal sentence.

ـ (قُلْ عَسَى أَنْ يَكُونَ رَدِفَ لَكُمْ بَعْضُ الَّذِي تَسْتَعْجِلُونَ)

Al-Qur'an, 027.072 (An-Naml [The Ant])

Al-Jiwary (1974:31-32) explains that the annuller verb (يَكُونَ) is complete and thus takes the verbal sentence (رَدِفَ لَكُمْ) as its SS. Other similar examples are :

ـ (قَالُوا أَوَ لَمْ تَكُ تَأْتِيكُمْ رُسُلُكُمْ بِالْبَيِّنَاتِ قَالُوا بَلَى قَالُوا فَادْعُوا وَمَا دُعَاءُ الْكَافِرِينَ إلا فِي ضَلال)

Al-Qur'an, 040.050 (Al-Ghafir [The Forgiver [God]])

ـ (فَلَمْ يَكُ يَنْفَعُهُمْ إِيمَانُهُمْ لَمَّا رَأَوْا بَأْسَنَا سُنَّةَ اللَّهِ الَّتِي قَدْ خَلَتْ فِي عِبَادِهِ وَخَسِرَ هُنَالِكَ الْكَافِرُونَ)

Al-Qur'an, 040.085 (Al-Ghafir [The Forgiver [God]])

where the annuller verbs (تَكُ) and (يَكُ) respectively have the verbal sentences (يَنْفَعُهُمْ إِيمَانُهُمْ) and (تَأْتِيكُمْ رُسُلُكُمْ) as their SS.

Other annullers are verbs like (كَادَ). This verb is usually deficient. Still, it may be complete and be satisfied with its SS. (Al-Jiwary, ibid.)

ـ كادَ الفارسُ يضحكُ.

ـ(مِنْ بَعْدِ مَا كَادَ يَزِيغُ قُلُوبُ فَرِيقٍ مِنْهُمْ ثُمَّ تَابَ عَلَيْهِمْ إِنَّهُ بِهِمْ رَءُوفٌ رَحِيمٌ)

Al-Qur'an, 009.117 (At-Tawba [Repentance, Dispensation])

It should be mentioned that Al-Zamakhshari (cited in ibid.) states that the subject of the verb (كادَ) in the above verse is an implicit personal of consideration (ضمير الشأن). Al-Kozi (1991:180) defines the personal of consideration as the personal of the absent singular that does not refer to something mentioned previously. El-Dahdah (1993:348) explains that the meaning of personal of consideration is to symbolize the matter or the fact under discussion. The sentence following this personal has the job of explaining its meaning. This personal could be either prominent or latent.

ـ (يا موسى إنـهُ أَنا الله العزيزُ الحكيمُ)

ـ إنَّ زيدٌ بك مأخوذٌ .

(Al-Kurbasi:1983:39-41)

In the first sentence, the personal (ه) is that of consideration and it is prominent. While, in the second the personal of consideration is latent and the supposition is (إنّهُ بك زيدٌ مأخوذ).

By this view, Al-Zamakhshari claims that the subject of (كَاد) in the above verse is the deleted personal of consideration. But Al-Jiwary (ibid.:31-32) supports the SS view in the above verse of (كَاد). Al-Jiwary claims that generally the reference of the verb cannot be related to something deleted that has nothing to do with the supposition or paraphrase. It is claimed that if this verse were not from the Qur'an, the supposition would be related to what is present in the sentence that is the word (قلوبُ) as the subject of (كاد). And the meaning could be (من بعد ما كاد قلوبُ فريق منهم تزيغ).

5- Conclusions

1- In English, an SS is a clearly recognized phenomenon in syntax when compared with that of Arabic where no one-to-one agreement is found.

Most Arab grammarians refuse it. Others allow it unconditionally. And others allow it with conditions.

2- In both languages, SS is restricted or allowed under certain conditions; yet the occurrence of Arabic SS is much restricted than that of English.

3- In English, when SS is realized by complement clauses, these clauses are described as dependent. In Arabic, when sentences are taking the place of subject they are described as minimal (subordinate clauses).

4- In English, when complement clauses become dependent as SS, they will show aspects of desententialization like having complementizers and lacking some elements. In Arabic, the sentence shows no such aspects and it is usually a verbal sentence.

5- In English, the meaning of the verb should be compatible with the meaning of the complement clause functioning as its SS. Thus the verb has the property of complement selection. And this is the restriction in English.

6- While in Arabic, the verb or the original that replaces the verb has nothing to do with the meaning of the sentence functioning as SS. Still, the verb or the original have certain restrictions like the suspension by certain letters or the satisfaction (in the case of anullers) with their SS. This restriction is on the verb or what replaces the verb (the original). The sentence itself functioning as an SS should be either narrative or interpreted by an original noun. This is a further restriction on SSs.

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الفاعلُ جملةً بين الإنكليزية و العربية

م. تيسير فليح حسن

جامعة ذي قار/ كلية التربية للعلوم الإنسانية

قسم اللغة الإنكليزية

الملخص

يعد هذا البحث دراسة مقارنة تحاول مناقشة إحدى وظائف الجملة وذلك عندما تكون الجملة فاعلا في اللغتين الإنكليزية و العربية. ففي كلتا اللغتين إن وظيفة الفاعل عادة ما تنجز من خلال كلمة مفردة أو عبارة. مع ذلك فإن الجملة يمكن أن تنجز هذه الوظيفة أيضاً .

والهدف من هذه الدراسة هو معرفة وقوع الجملة فاعلا متحققة باللغتين بلا قيد أو شرط أو أن ورودها لتأدية وظيفة الفاعل محكوما ببعض الشروط. وكذلك إبراز أثر الفعل في هذا التقييد المفترض.

وأما الخطوات المتبعة في الجانب الإنكليزي من الدراسة تتمثل بتوضيح بنية الجملة حين تقع فاعلا وطبيعة أنواعها، وأي الأفعال يمكن أن تسمح بمجيء فاعلها جملة. أما الخطوات المتبعة في جانب اللغة العربية فتشمل استعراض آراء النحاة العرب في إمكان مجيء الفاعل جملة، والشروط التي وضعها النحاة لتجويز هذه الظاهرة.

وقد أُستنتج أنّ وقوع الجملة فاعلا في الإنكليزية حقيقة تفرض نفسها في الواقع اللغوي وهي ظاهرة جلية متفق عليها ولم تقيد بقيود كثيرة على العكس مما هو موجود في اللغة العربية. وللفعل أثر مهم في أمكان أو عدم أمكان مجيء الفاعل جملة.