Overview of the Different Complementation Patterns and Senses of the Verb *Intend* and its Inflected Forms *Intends*, *Intended* and *Intending* from the 18th Century to Today

Tämän sivuainetutkielman tarkoituksena oli tarkastella englannin kielen verbiä *intend*, sen eri komplementtimuotoja ja merkityksiä. Tutkimuksessa olivat mukana myös verbin taivutetut muodot *intends*, *intended* ja *intending*. Tarkoituksena oli selvittää, ovatko komplementtimuodot ja merkitykset muuttuneet tultaessa 1700-luvulta nykypäivään. Tutkimuksen perustana käytettiin kahta elektronista korpusta. Tutkimuksen historiallisen osuuden data kerättiin korpuksesta nimeltään Corpus of Late Modern English, joka tunnetaan myös nimellä Leuven Corpus. Se on jaoteltu kolmeen aikajaksoon 1710-1780, 1780-1850 ja 1850-1920. Tässä tutkimuksessa tarkastelun alla oli data ensimmäisestä ja viimeisestä aikajaksosta. Nykypäivän englantia tutkimuksessa edusti data, joka haettiin British National Corpus'ta käyttäen. Verbin eri merkityksien tutkimisessa käytettiin elektronista Oxford English Dictionarya.

Tutkimukseni alkuosassa esittelin komplementaation teoriaa ja komplementtien valintaan liittyviä muutoksia ja niihin johtaneita syitä. Esittelin myös eri grammaatikoiden teorioita komplementaatiosta ja niistä kriteereistä, joiden avulla kyetään erottamaan komplementit ja adjunktit toisistaan. Esittelin myös verbin *intend* etymologiaa sekä sen eri merkityksiä samoin kuin eri grammaatikkojen näkemyksiä *intend*-verbistä volitionaalisena, katenatiivisena ja mandatiivisena verbinä. Grammaatikkojen mukaan mahdollisia komplementtimuotoja voivat olla: *to*-infinitiivi, gerundi, prepositiolause, *that*-lause sekä substantiivilauseke yksinään tai preposition kanssa. *Intend* voi esiintyä myös kokonaan ilman komplementtia.

Tutkimukseni analyysiosassa tutkin erikseen sekä ensimmäistä että viimeistä aikajaksoa Leuven Corpuksesta. Molemmissa aikajaksoissa yleisin komplementtirakenne oli *to*-infinitiivirakenne, joka oli dominoivassa asemassa myös BNC -datassa. Muiden komplementtirakenteiden osalta kävi ilmi, että prepositiokomplementit katosivat tultaessa 1900-luvulle lukuunottamatta prepositiota *for*, joka ilmestyi uudeksi komplementtirakenteeksi yhdessä substantiivin kanssa (for+ substantiivilause).

Intend-verbin eri merkityksiä tutkittaessa kävi ilmi, että tultaessa 1700-luvulta 1900-luvun alkuvuosikymmenille merkitysten määrä väheni neljästätoista seitsemään. Nykyenglantia tutkittaessa merkitysten lukumäärä oli pudonnut edelleen, ollen enää kolme.

Analysoimani data todisti oikeaksi grammaatikoiden väitteen siitä, että *intend* on verbi, joka suosii *to*-infinitiivi komplementtirakennetta. Rohdenburgin esittämä 'Great Complement Shift'-teoria, jossa gerundi on nostanut suosiotaan komplementtirakenteena, ei näytä vaikuttaneen *intend*-verbiin.

Merkittävin muutos on kuitenkin nähtävissä *intend*-verbin merkitysten määrän rajuna vähenemisenä. Lieneekö siihen syynä nykypäivän informaatiotulva, jonka seurauksena lukijalla ei ole ajallisia resursseja miettiä sanojen merkityksiä erilaisissa lauserakenteissa.

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1. Introduction

The fast development of modern technology has made, among other benefits, the study of different complementation patterns with the aid of electronic corpora easier, faster and more popular. This is beneficial especially for non-native speakers since they very often lack the intuition native speakers have when it comes to choosing the right complementation pattern to express a certain sense of a verb.

Language undergoes constant change. It can grow in the number of its words as the societies that use it create new entities that have to be named. It can also die bit by bit as words grow obsolete and pass from use. Differences in vocabulary are important in describing the variation in space, also known as the descriptive approach to studying language. The other approach, diachronic, studies variation in time. Bolinger et al. (1981, 232) have stated that since change is not very often noticeable on the scale of a human lifetime, grammar is a good starting point here.

The aim of this second subject thesis is to give a diachronic analysis of the different complementation patterns of the verb *intend* and its inflected forms *intends*, *intended*, *intending* and of the different senses the verb can have. The research will be conducted with a corpus-based method using the following corpora; the Corpus of Late Modern English Texts (the CLMET), also known as the Leuven corpus and the British National Corpus (the BNC) which gives information about the today use of English language. The Leuven Corpus, on the other hand, gives the diachronic aspect to this second subject thesis. The CLMET covers a time sphere from 1710 to 1920 which, interestingly, has been the most neglected period in the history of the English Language. This fact makes writing this thesis even more interesting. The writer can, on her part, contribute to the study of the English language.

In chapter two complementation in general and especially the difference between complements and adjuncts will be discussed. It will also present the aspects involved in the change of the complement selection.

In chapter three the etymology of the verb *intend* will be discussed as well as the different meanings of the verb. The Oxford English Dictionary (the OED) will be consulted in order to find the different senses as well as the possible complementation patterns of the verb in discussion. Also a closer look will be taken at the verb *intend* with the help of several grammar books. The grammatical aspects of *intend* and the complementation patterns will also be discussed the focus being on complementation.

Chapter four introduces corpus linguistics as a discipline and the way it is used in this study. It also gives an overview of the corpora used in this paper.

Chapter five introduces the more empirical part of this thesis. The first and the last parts of the Leuven corpus will be discussed separately. Also several examples of the corpus data will be given in order to illustrate the use of different complementation patterns. A closer look will be taken at the different senses of the verb and the way they relate to the different complementation patterns.

The aim of this second subject thesis is to try to answer the following research questions: What kind of complementation patterns has the verb *intend* taken over the past centuries? Have those complementation patterns changed and if so, how and why? How many different senses can the verb *intend* have and can any diachronic variation be noted in the use of them?

2. Complementation

In this chapter complementation will be discussed in general terms with the help of various grammars. Before the concept of complementation can be discussed any further a few words should be said about verbs and especially transitivity and intransitivity in order to understand the aspect of complementation.

Verbs can be sub classified, as mentioned above, into transitive and intransitive. The most typical type of a core complement is an object. Depending on the nature of the verb, a clause may or may not contain an object. A transitive clause contains an object where an intransitive clause does not require one. Bolinger et al. (1981, 85) give the following examples: "John *needs.*" is not a sentence, but "John *needs* sympathy." is. (*Need* is a transitive verb.) On the other hand *"John *knelt* his body." is incorrect. (*To kneel* is intransitive.) A broader way of viewing transitivity is in terms of completeness. Does a verb in a given sense require a complement- no matter whether direct, indirect or prepositional?

Dirven (1989, 113) has approached the question of complementation from the point of view of language learning. He introduces eight different 'complementisers' in English ie. *to-*infinitives, *for…to-*infinitives, bare infinitives, present participles, gerunds, *that-*clauses, *whether/if-*clauses and *wh-*constructions. He states that

> "The use of the correct complementiser is mainly a question of matching the semantics of each complementiser with the semantics of the governing verb (...) in the main clause and with the type of verb or other elements in the complement."

How is it possible for a language learner to learn the correct use of the English complementisers there being thousands of verbs, noun and adjectives? Dirven (ibid.,116-119) has also discussed the meaning of each complementiser. The following table illustrates them. Also an example by Dirven will be given of each meaning.

Table 1. The meanings of different complementisers according to Dirven.

Complementiser	Meaning	Example
To-infinitive	A single occurrence of an event or a state, or a series of such single occasions. (Implies to a person acting)	It's easy to park your car here.
For…to-infinitive	One or a series of single occurrences of states or events, also a notion of hypothetical occurrence.	It's important for us to get there first.
Bare infinitive	A single occurrence or of a state or event (or a series of occurrences) and a contemporaneous occurrence of the event of the complement with that of the main clause.	I saw him enter the building.
Present participle construction	Denotes an event, seen as contemporaneous with the event of the main clause, but not seen as a whole; it may last longer than that, or it may be incomplete.	I saw him entering the building.
Gerund	Differs syntactically from present participle the following ways: 1) it does not have the infinitive alternative 2) it may have a possessive pronoun and 3) an of-adjunct 4) it requires no subject	I always enjoyed *him* singing that song. I always enjoyed *his* singing that song. I always enjoyed *his* singing of that song. I always enjoyed *singing that song*.
That-clause	Denotes a mental representation of events or states in the form of a proposition.	I saw that he entered the building.
Whether/if-clause	Denotes that one lacks information regarding a state of affairs and therefore it occurs with predicate forms denoting lack of information.	I don't know whether he entered the building.
Wh-construction	Denotes the one element in the information about a state of affairs is lacking.	I don't know who entered the building.

According to Quirk et al. (1972, 349) a complement is a noun phrase, an adjective phrase or a clause with nominal function. Complements follows either the subject, the verb phrase and if one is present the object. The form of the complement is determined by the lexical head. Pearsall (1998, 375) states that all the constituents of a sentence that are governed by a verb form the complement. A complement does not become subject through the passive transformation. The term 'complement' means something that is necessary to complete a grammatical construction. According to Quirk et al. (1985, 65) the term complementation is defined as

"the function of a part of a phrase or clause which follows a word, and completes the specification of a meaning relationship which that word implies."

Three types of complements can be distinguished: clause complements, adjective complements and prepositional complements. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 216) state that prototypically none-core complements have the form of prepositional phrases and core complements as noun phrases. This means that where NPs functioning as core complements are related directly to the verb, the PPs are related to the verb indirectly, via the preposition.

Herbst (2004, xxv-xxvi) adds his criteria to the form of complements. First, complements can be described in terms of phrases such as noun phrases, adjective phrases and prepositional phrases. Second, they can be described in terms of clauses such as *ing*-clauses (V-ing), *to*-infinitive clauses (*to*-inf), *that*-clauses (that-CL) and *wh*-clauses (wh-CL). The third criterion is the position of the complement. Unless special effects eg. topicalization are not taken into account, the order of the complements is rather fixed.

In addition to complements, there are adjuncts which are optional elements to the clause or phrase adding more information to it. This distinction between complements and adjuncts will be discussed in the following section.

2.1. Complements vs. adjuncts

According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 215), complements are more central to the grammar than adjuncts because complements are more closely related to the verb and more clearly differentiated by their syntactic properties. They also list different properties of complements; licensing, obligatoriness, anaphora and category. In her doctoral dissertation Bowen (2005) discusses the determination of complements with the help of a number of criteria which are obligatoriness, semantic restrictiveness, semantic predicates and theta roles, co-occurrence restrictions, preposition stranding, replaceability, cleft construction and mobility. The criteria

relevant to this thesis will be discussed more thoroughly in the following. That is licensing, obligatoriness, category and valency.

2.1.1. Licensing

Complements and their head verbs have a certain kind of dependence. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 219) call this sub categorisation which means that verbs are subcategorised according to the complementation they take. They state that

> "The most important property of complements in clause structure is that they require the presens of an appropriate verb that licences them."

Consider the following examples they give: 'She mentioned the letter'. This sentence is acceptable whereas the next one 'She alluded the letter.', is not. In this case the verb *mentioned* licences an object as a complement whereas *alluded* does not.

In the following section we will talk about another matter which distinguishes complements from adjuncts. That is obligatoriness. Licensing as stated above is a matter of a verb allowing a certain pattern of complementation; obligatoriness means a verb requiring a certain pattern of complementation.

2.1.2. Obligatoriness

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 219) state that complements are sometimes obligatory whereas adjuncts are always optional. They also state (ibid., 221) that "an element is obligatory if it can't be omitted without loss of grammaticality or an unsystematic change of meaning." Obligatory complements are needed to complete the structure headed by the verb. Compare the following examples given by Bowen (2005, 17):

[1] He put the book <u>on the shelf.</u> (Obligatory PP)
[2] I received two letters <u>from my cousin</u>. (Optional PP)

2.1.3. Category

According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 223), two main categories of complements can be distinguished. Those are complements which, in the simplest cases have the form on NPs, and adjuncts which have the form of adverbs or adverbial phrases. The characteristic function of an adverbial phrase is to modify the verb and in general they are adjuncts. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 224) show one exception. In the sentence 'They treated us <u>quite abominably</u>.' the underlined AdvP has the function of a complement of the verb *treat*. In phrases headed by a preposition, Huddleston and Pullum continue, a preposition prototypically have an NP as a complement. This kind of PPs can occur either as an adjunct or as a complement. Consider "I slept [<u>on</u> the floor]." where the PP is an adjunct and "I put it [<u>underneath</u> the mat."] where the PP is a complement. (Examples by Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 224).

2.1.4. Valency

The general classification based simply on the number of complements is called valency. Herbst (2004, xxiv) states that

> "the basic assumption of valency theory is that the verb occupies a central position in the sentence because the verb determines how many other elements have to occur in order to form a grammatical sentence."

He also continues that some verbs require only one element whereas others may require two or more. Somers (1987, 5) calls these elements actants. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 219) have named a verb monovalent if it takes only one complement (eg.die). A bivalent verb takes two complements and a trivalent verb three complements. According to Somers (1987, 5), the actants can vary from zero to three. Avalent verbs take no actants (ie. rain), monovalent verbs take on actant, divalent verbs take two and trivalent three actants.

Adjuncts, however, are not dependent on the valency of the governing verb. This distinction between complements and adjuncts is central in the valency theory. Herbst (2004, xxiv) states

that "adjuncts have two essential characteristics: (i) they can occur relatively freely and (ii) they are not determined in their form by the governing verb." Consider the following examples which illustrate the mobility of the sentence structure when an adjunct of time is involved:

[3] I received a letter from him <u>last week</u>.

[4] <u>Last week</u> I received a letter from him.

In the next section the discussion will turn into the changes noted in the complementation system and to the aspects involved in it.

2.2. Changes in the complementation system

A large amount of changes has been recorded in the complementation system of the English language over the past few centuries. This has been studied by e.g. Fanego, 1996, Rudanko, 2000, Rohdenburg, 2006 and Vosberg 2003. In this section the aspects involved in this change, also known as the 'Great Complement Shift', will be discussed: extraction, *horror aequi*-principle and structural discontinuity.

2.2.1. The Great Complement Shift

This change, referred to as the 'Great Complementation Shift' by Rohdenburg, can be described as a re-arrangement of the entire system of verb complementation. According to Vosberg, (2003, 197) and Rohdenburg, (2006, 144), it has taken place since the late seventeenth century involving the increase of the *ing*-form as a sentential complement causing the loss of finite clauses and *to*-infinitives. The *ing*-form originally evolved from a pure noun. It was formed by adding the suffix *–ing* to the verb stem and in the course of time this form has developed more verbal properties. Consider the following examples by Rohdenburg:

[5] She delighted to do it.   ->She delighted in doing it.
[6] She was used/accustomed to do it.   ->She was used/accustomed to doing it.
[7] She avoided/dreaded to go there.   ->She avoided/dreaded going there.

Rohdenburg states that these changes have reached the completion with the exception of *accustomed* and *dread*. *Accustomed* is a good example of verbs which, among other changes, has been affected by the Great Complement Shift. Rudanko, (2006, 46) has found out that the spread of *to -ing* complements at the expense of *to-* infinitives has affected the complement selection of eg. the verb *accustomed*.

2.2.2. Extraction

Vosberg (2003, 202) presents the following definition of extraction:

> "In the case of infinitival or complement options, the (perfect) infinitive will tend to be favoured in environments where the object of the dependent verb is extracted (…) from its original position and crosses clause boundaries."

This can be interpreted that if an object is extracted, it is moved away from its original position. Rohdenburg (2006, 152) illustrates this in his example:

> [8] This is a problem "which1" we don't know how to solve "Ø1".

In the example "which1" represents the object of the verb *solve*. If we compare this with his next example,

> [9] *This is a problem "which1" we don't know how I should/could/can/might/ solve "Ø1".

it can be seen that finite complements are more difficult to extract out of.

Both Vosberg and Rohdenburg have shown that extractions out of *to*-infinitival complements are preferred to those out of gerundial complements. Rudanko (2006, 41) suggests according to his investigations that "extraction is a factor favouring or 'protecting' *to-* infinitive complements in Present-day British English … and *to-ing* complements are not impossible with extraction."

Several types of extraction have been characterized eg. topicalization, relativization, clefting, comparativization and interrogation just to mention a few.

2.2.3. The horror aequi-principle

The principle of complement selection termed context-sensitive complement selection is treated in literature under the Latin name *horror aequi*. According to Rohdenburg (2003, 15), the principle "concerns the universal tendency to avoid the (near-)adjacency of identical grammatical structures". This means that native writers of English tend to choose one of the possible constructions (*to-* infinitives or *–ing* complements) and avoid the consecutive use of the same construction in one sentence. Rudanko (2004) has examined the *horror aequi*-principle and its specific application to *to-* infinitival and *–ing* complements in the eighteenth-century English. He presents the following hypothesis (ibid.,104):

Table 2. The hypothesis of the use of *to-* infinitival and *–ing* complements according to the *horror aequi*-principle.

Form of matrix verb		Form of complement
ing-form	prefers	*to-* infinitive
to-infinitive	prefers	*ing*-form

2.2.4. Structural Discontinuity

Structural discontinuity can be understood as a reverse process leading from infinitives to finite complements. The following example by Rohdenburg (2006, 148) presents structural discontinuity where the underlined comes between the matrix verb and the complement:

> [10] He promised <u>his friends when he was challenged about it</u> that he would return immediately/to return immediately.

Fanego (1996) has studied the historical changes affecting the complementation selection of matrix verbs. Her research demonstrates that "complements of certain types of verbs are seen to be affected first or more fully by historical change, while those of other types of verbs are

affected later or less fully." These aspects involved in the change of complement selection will be discussed in more detail with the authentic data studied in chapter 5 of this thesis.

3. The Verb *Intend*

This chapter first presents the origins of the verb *intend* after which the meaning of the verb will be discussed. The different senses of the verb will be given according to the Oxford English Dictionary (referred to in this study as the *OED*) and also background information from various grammarians and secondary literature will be presented about *intend* and its inflected forms.

3.1. Etymology

According to Partridge's Etymological Dictionary (1966, 704) the word *intend* stems from the Latin word <u>intendere</u> having the meanings of to *stretch into or towards, be directed at, to have purpose or pretension of, to plan*. According to the New Oxford English Dictionary of English *intend* originates also from Middle English <u>entend</u> (in the sense 'direct attention to') and from Old French <u>entendre</u>.

3.2. Meaning

According to Collins Cobuild Dictionary (1992, 1630) *intend* has the following meanings: (All examples from Collins Cobuild Dictionary)

1. If you *intend* (=mean) to do something, you have planned or decided to do it.

    [11] This is my job and I *intend* to do it.

2. If you *intend* (=mean) something to have a particular purpose, quality, or effect you have planned that it should have this purpose, quality or effect.

    [12] We never *intended* the guarantee scheme to be permanent…

3. When you *intend* a particular idea or feeling to be understood in something that you say or do, this is the idea or feeling that you are trying to express; often used with a negative to say what you did not mean to express.

    [13] I don't think he *intended* any disrespect.

4. Something that is *intended* (=be destined for) for a particular person or purpose has been planned or made for that person or purpose.

[14] The man had drunk what had been *intended* for me…)

Pearsall (1998, 949) gives *intend* the meaning "have a course of action as one's purpose or intention or plan" as in

[15] The company *intends* to cut about 4,500 jobs.

She continues that *intend* can also be understood as "a plan that something should be or do something" as in

[16]…a series or questions *intended* as a checklist…

The third meaning of *intend* she gives is "to design or destine someone or something for a particular purpose or end" as in

[17]…pigs *intended* for human consumption.

3.3. The different senses of *intend* according to the *OED*

The following table presents the different senses of *intend* described in the *OED*. It lists altogether 25 senses for *intend* under six subheadings. Table 3. illustrates the different senses relevant to this study ie. those that fall into the time sphere studied (1710-1920) even though some of them are marked as obsolete or archaic. Also an example of each relevant sense is given according to the *OED*.

Table 3. The different senses of *intend* taken from the *OED*, along with examples.

	Sense and example from the *OED*
I	**"To strech out, extend, expand, increase, intensify."** [A group of senses of late introduction, immediately from Latin.]
I/3.	*trans.* To stretch, strain, make tense; to expand, dilate. *lit* and *fig. Obs.* **1837** <u>SIR W. HAMILTON</u> *Metaph*. Xliii (1870) II. 472 When we *intend* the vital powers above the suitable degree we occasion a hindrance, a pain.
II	**"To strain or direct (the eyes, mind, thoughts, words, efforts, etc.)"**
II/5.	*trans.* To direct (the eyes, the mind, etc.) *to, into, towards* something. Now a conscious Latinism. **1711** <u>HEARNE</u> Collect. (O.H.S.) III. 181 He..blam'd himself that he could not *intend* his Mind in ye Prayers. **1877** <u>PATMORE</u> *Unknown Eros* (1890) 1 Intend thine eye Into the dim and undiscovered sky.

II/6.	*intr. and trans.* To direct one's course, make one's way: to preceed on (a journey, etc.) *obs. or arch.* **1744** <u>HARRIS</u> *Three Treat.* Wks. (1841) 47 As if.. a company of travellers, in some wide forest, were all *intending* for one city. **a1832** <u>CRABBE</u> *Birth Flattery* i, Guide him to Fairy-land, who now *intends* That way his flight.
II/6b.	*intr.* To start on a journey, to set out. (Sometimes app. ellipt. for 'intend to go or start', purpose a journey: cf. 18.) *Obs.* **1817** <u>BYRON</u> *Wks.* (1837-40) III. 356, I *intend* for England this spring, where I have some affairs to adjust.
II/7a.	*trans.* To direct, level, aim (something) against some one. **a1734** <u>NORTH</u> Life Francis North (1742) 215 Many Complaints were *intended* against him, and such as were thought well enough grounded.
III	**"To strain, direct, or bend the attention; to attend to; to attend."** [An obsolete group of senses from OF., ultimately from L. *intendere=intendere animum.*]
III/12.	*trans.* To turn one's thoughts to, fix the mind on (something); to attend to; to occupy onself with; to look after. *Obs* **1784** <u>COWPER</u>. 660 Too busy *to intend* a meaner care.
IV	**To apprehend, and kindred sense.** [An obsolete group of senses from OF.: also in med.L.]
IV/14.	*intr.* To have or come to an understanding; to agree together; to be in accord.[F. s'entendre.] **1509** <u>HAWES</u> *Past. Pleas.XIV.xiv.*, Musyke hath them so set in concorde, That all in one may right well *entende*.
IV/16.	*trans.* To understand as in the view or sense of the law; to construe, interpret, or hold legally. Cf. <u>INTENDMENT</u> 4. *Obs.* **1768** <u>BLACKSTONE</u> *Comm.* III. Xiii. 219 If such market or fair be on the same day with mine, it is *prime facie* a nu[i]sance to mine, and there needs no proof of it, but the law will *intend* it to be so.
V	**To bend the mind to something to be done; to purpose, design, mean**. [The chief current group of senses. From OF.]
V/18a.	*trans.* . To have in the mind as a fixed purpose; to purpose, design. (The chief current sense.) With inf. phr. or subord. clause. **1818** <u>CRUISE</u> Digest (ed.2) VI. 357 He *intended* his son should have it in remainder for his life only.
V/18b.	With *simple obj.*, alone or with complemental extension. **1875** <u>GLADSTONE</u> Glean. (1879) VI. 224We *intended* going to Rome.
V/18c.	With indirect passive. **1818** <u>BENTHAM</u> Ch. Eng.ii.159 Was it thus *intended* and commanded by him to be drunken?
V/19a.	*trans.*To design (a thing) for some purpose; to destine (a thing or person) to a fate or use; to purpose to bestow or give; to mean (a thing) to be or to do something. With prep. or conj. phr., or dative as compl. **1875** <u>JOWETT</u> Mod. (ed.2) I. 112 The second son is *intended* for the army, and the third for the bar.
V/19b.	With complemental obj. *Obs*. **1726** <u>AYLIFFE</u> *Parergon* 370 If the Person bearing the same protest that he does not thereby *intend* himself a Monk, 'tis otherwise.
V/19c.	With *inf*.

	1853 <u>RUSKIN</u> Stones Ven. II.vi This we suppose to be all the pleasure that architecture was ever *intended* to give us.
V/20a.	To design to express; to signify by one's words, to mean. *to intend at*, to mean for. **1857** <u>MAURICE</u> Ep. St.John i. 1 Do I understand something different by Ethics? No; I *intend* the same thing.
V/20b.	Of words, etc.: To mean; to signify; to indicate. *Obs*. **1847** <u>R.W.HAMILTON</u> *Sabbath* i. (1848) 12 The word..generally *intends* a sacred appropriation of a particular time.
VI	**Senses of uncertain position or origin;** mostly due to literalism of translation from L. or F.
VI/22.	To assert, maintain; to pretend; to claim. **1633** <u>T.ADAMS</u> *Exp.2.Peter* i. 20 Alchymists that labour to make gold by projection, *intend* that there is natural gold.
VI/25.	*trans.* To superintend, direct. Cf. <u>INTENDANT</u>. **1831** <u>E.IRVING</u> *Exp. Revelat*. I. 58 According to their several spheres of creation and providence which they occupy and *intend*.

The following complementation patterns can be drawn from the *OED* material. There are altogether 18 different senses relevant to this study. In nine cases the complement was a noun phrase, in one case an indirect passive, also in one case a *to*-infinitive or a gerund, in two cases a *that*-clause (in one case *that* was omitted) and in three cases a prepositional phrase (for, against). Sense 14. *to have or come to an understanding; to agree together; to be in accord* was a clear case of intransitivity where no object is needed. Table 4. illustrates these patterns:

Table 4. The possible complementation patterns of *intend* according to the *OED*.

Intend + noun phrase
Intend + indirect passive
Intend + *to*-infinitive
Intend + Ving (gerund or p.p)
Intend + *that*-clause

Intend + prepositional phrase
       Intend + for
       Intend + against

Intend + Ø

We will now turn to see what various grammarians have to say about the verb *intend* and its complementation patterns. At the end of the next section table 5. presents the possible complementation patterns found in them.

3.4. An Overview of the verb *Intend*

3.4.1. Intend as a volitional verb

Intend is a verb which describes or reports emotive behaviour especially volition, desideration and intention. Volition is described in the Collins Cobuild Dictionary (1992, 1630) as "the power to decide something for yourself". Five types of volition can be distinguished: willingness, wish, intention, insistence and determination. The verbs *intend, mean, plan* and *aim* (+ infinitive clause) express intention. Leech and Svartvik (2002, 170) give the following examples:

> [18] He *intends/plans/aims* to arrest them as they leave the building.
> [19] The remark was *meant/intended* to hurt her.

Rudanko (1989, 80; 1998, 30) presents Visser's class of volitional verbs (*intend, aim, mean, plan* where *intend* suggests itself as a prototypical verb of this class) where verb₁ expresses positive desideration and intention in addition to desideration which is not necessarily communicated.

Dirven (1989, 119) also states that *intend* belongs to a group of verbs denoting volition where "the predicates imply in their complement the potential occurrence of a new act, event or state and thus presuppose a single occurrence of them". With these verbs only the *to*-infinitive is possible. He continues, however, that the kind of volition which can be expressed as a desire that a new action should occur or denote the suggestion of such an action, which is much vaguer, then a gerund is required. Consider his examples:

> [20] I *intend* to go tomorrow. (=I want to; this is what I have decided.)

> [21] I *intend* going tomorrow. (= It's what I have vaguely planned.)

Quirk et al. (1985, 1193) state that

> "the infinitive complement is used to refer to an action or event which takes place after (and as a result of) the mental process denoted by the matrix verb has begun"

and thus involve future reference. The *ing*-construction then "refers to a preceding event or occasion coming to mind at the time indicated by the matrix verb" and the reference therefore being in the past.

The linguistic condition of 'infinitivitis' is described by Allerton (1988, 11) as "a frequent over-use of the infinitive, particularly in contexts in which unaffected speakers would use the gerund." He also continues that the speakers of British English tend to make a clear distinction between the usage of infinitive and gerund but amongst the foreign learners of English this distinction is either lost or less clear. An explanation to this can be found from the structure of other languages. Since they lack a true correlate of the gerund, foreign learners of English would more easily choose the infinitive form. Consider the following examples by Allerton (1988, 20):

> [22] There is the way to cook omelettes.
> [23] There are many ways of cooking omelettes.

Affected by infinitivitis, example [15] would be preferred over example [16].

3.4.2. Intend as a catenative verb

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 1225) present a classification of catenative verbs. They state that *intend* can take either a *to*-infinitive or a gerund-participial and that there is no discernible difference between the constructions. Consider their examples:

> [24] He *intends* to leave tomorrow.

> [25] He *intends* leaving tomorrow.

Huddleston and Pullum (ibid., 1177) describe the catenative complements being complements realised exclusively by non-finite clauses. The term 'catenative' applies to a large class of constructions where a verb has a non-finite complement. The name reflects the fact that the construction can be repeated recursively, yielding a concatenation ('chain') of verbs. *Intend* belongs to the class of catenative verbs in which the gerund-participial is posterior to the matrix time as in the following example: I *intended* [going to Sydney at Christmas.], where the time of

going is posterior to the time referred to in the *intend*-clause. They also give the following

example which shows the concatenation of verbs:

[26] She *intends* to try to persuade to help her redecorate her flat.

With a very small subset of catenative verbs it is possible to use the succession of gerund-

participles that Huddleston and Pullum call the 'doubl-*ing* constraint'. They also suggest that

intend be one of these verbs. It can be argued that this 'doubl-*ing* constraint' contradicts the

horror aequi-principle discussed above since according to the *horror aequi*-principle there is a

tendency to avoid the use of similar patterns in one sentence.

3.4.3. Intend as a mandative verb

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 995) characterize *intend* as a mandative verb. They distinguish

three types of mandative clauses; the subjunctive mandatives, the *should*-mandatives and the

covert mandatives where *intend* would fall into the category of *should*-mandatives. Consider the

following examples which exemplify the difference of the three types of mandative clauses

according to Huddleston and Pullum:

[27] They demand [that the park remain open.]   subjunctive mandative

[28] They demand [that the park should remain open.]*should*-mandative

[29] They demand [that the park remains open.]   covert mandative

The putative should is an alternative to the subjunctive and more common than the

subjunctive. Leech and Svartvik (1994, 379) state that "the subjunctive is used in rather formal

English after governing expressions which express will or volition. *Intend* is one of the verbs

which govern a subjunctive in the following *that*-clause." The use of the subjunctive is more

common in American English than in British English and also in written English than in spoken

English.

3.4.4. Intend and an object

According to Poutsma (1926, 37) *intend* belongs to a group of non-defective verbs expressing movement of the human will which can be understood as principals to which the following verb appears as a necessary complement. He continues (ibid., 247) that *intend* also belongs to a group of verbs where the following verb is distinctly in the object relation to it eg. 'He *intends* to leave the country.'

Pearsall (1998, 949) describes *intend* as a verb with an object or an infinitive and Palmer (1988, 212) continues this discussion by adding that *intend* is a verb which can not have an object. Consider his example which can not be understood as proper English.

[30] * I *intend* my arrival.

However, according to the *OED* the object is possible. Consider: 'I *intended* the same thing.'

3.4.5 Concluding remarks

As a conclusion to this section the following possible complementation patterns found in the grammar books will be presented. As the form of its complement *intend* can take either a *to*-infinitive or a gerund-participial (*-ing* form), a noun phrase or a prepositional phrase (against, at, for) or a *that*-clause with the putative *should* or with a subjunctive verb. The following table illustrates the possible complementation patterns of *intend*.

Table 5. The possible complementation patterns of *intend* found in grammar books.

Complemention pattern	Example
Intend + to -infinitive	He *intends* to leave tomorrow.
Intend + Ving	He *intends* leaving tomorrow.
Intend + NP	They *intended* no harm.
Intend + NP+ to-infinitive	They *intended* Kim to see it.
Intend + NP (prep+NP)	I *intended* it for Kim.
Intend + PP Intend + for..to	He *intended* for Jill to be interviewed.
Intend + that-clause	Pat *intended* that Liz should interview both candidates.
Intend+ Ø	

In the following chapter the method used in this thesis will be presented.

4. Method

The method used in this study is the corpus based approach. This approach provides a means of handling large amounts of language and keeping track of many aspects of language at the same time. As Biber et al. (2004, 5) have stated, it is also important to note that when using corpus based analysis it is essential to include qualitative, functional interpretations of the quantitative patterns. They continue (ibid., 9) that this approach can be seen as a complementary approach to more traditional approaches and that it can go beyond the quantitative patterns to propose functional interpretations explaining why certain patterns exist. This approach is also suited for analysing grammatical structures. McEnery and Wilson (2001, 2) state that corpus linguistics is a methodology that may be used in almost any area of linguistics, but it does not delimit an area of linguistics itself.

Corpus linguistics will be discussed further in the following section. Also definitions of corpus linguistics will be given by various grammarians and the corpus used in this study will be introduced.

4.1. Corpus linguistics

Before moving on to corpus linguistics, we should first discuss the meaning of a corpus. A corpus, defined by language Biber et al. (2004, 246) seeks to represent a language or some part of a. Being a collection of texts, it deals with natural, authentic language. A corpus can be used in different ways in order to validate, exemplify or build up a language theory. This kind of a collection of texts can be considered as a basis for linguistic analysis. A corpus is defined by Tognini-Bonelli (2001, 55) as

> "a computerised collection of authentic texts, amenable to automatic or semi-automatic processing or analysis. The texts are selected according to explicit criteria in order to capture the regularities of a language, a language variety or a sub-language."

Corpus can be studied today using a very fast tool, the computer.

McEnery and Wilson (2001, 1) define corpus linguistics as "the study of language based on examples of 'real life' language use." A corpus, being a collection of these examples, enables the linguist to make more objective statements of the usage of language. They continue (2001, 103) that without this kind of empirical data the statements would remain rather subjective and be based on the linguist's internalised cognitive perception of the language. However, collections of examples and texts are not sufficient by themselves. Johansson (1995, 19) states that

> "They [examples and texts] require the intelligent mind of the linguist who draws on knowledge of previous studies, on his or her intuition as well as on observation of texts."

The use of corpus data also makes it possible to study language varieties such as dialects or, as in this study, earlier periods of language.

McEnery and Wilson (2001, 109) also claim that grammatical studies have been the most frequent types of research which have used corpora. The main reasons for this are first, that when using corpora it is possible to represent quantifications of the grammar of a whole language variety and second, they enable the testing of hypotheses derived from grammatical theory.

When corpora are used for historical study of language it helps the researcher to understand the evolution of language and its varieties through time. As Johansson (1995, 21) stated, "proper use of corpora is a means of gaining new insight into the use and functioning of language." Next, the corpora used in this study will be introduced.

4.2. The Leuven Corpus

In order to understand the data discussed in this thesis it is worth noting some aspects of the corpora used. The Leuven Corpus, also known as the corpus of the Late Modern English Texts (CLMET) is a principled collection of texts drawn from the *Project Gutenberg* and *Oxford Text Archive* covering the period from 1710 to 1920. It is further subdivided into three periods covering a time period of 70 years each; 1710–1780; 1780–1850; and 1850–1920. This period,

the Late Modern English period, has been, according to De Smet, (2005, 69) the most neglected period in the history of the English language. In total, the CLMET consists of some ten million words which, according to Hendrik De Smet, the compiler of the corpus, (ibid., 78), is a clear advantage making it large enough for the study of relatively infrequent syntactic patterns such as grammaticalisation or lexico-grammatical patterning and providing empirical data on relatively rare linguistic phenomena.

De Smet (2005,69) also states that this kind of corpora is needed since it has become clear that historical change can be tracked over relatively short time spans in the form of shifting frequencies of use. On this notion it would be reasonable to expect visible changes in language from one part to another. De Smet (2005, 70-71) describes the following principles that were applied in compiling the corpus:

- The texts making up the corpus have all been written by British authors who are native speakers of English.
- The texts within each sub-period have been written by authors born within a correspondingly restricted sub-period.
- The number of texts per author varies, but no author contributes more than 200,000 words of text.
- The corpus texts are varied in terms of genre, ranging from personal letters to literary fiction to scientific writing and they are written by both men and women of varying social class (with, however, an inevitable emphasis on men belonging to the better-off classes of 18th and 19th century British society).

De Smet gives evidence for the need of this corpus with the following:

> "as pointed out above, the corpus lends itself best for the study of lexicogrammatical phenomena that are somewhat less frequent, and for which smaller corpora tend not to provide sufficient data. In this sense, the corpus could be seen as an electronic counterpart to the vast quotation databases used by the traditional grammarians of the early 20th century. It is hoped, in any case, that a more systematic use of Internet data could further the study of the allegedly most neglected period in the history of the English language." (De Smet, 2005, 80)

The following table presents the make-up of the Leuven Corpus. It shows the numbers of authors, texts and words from each sub-period. Also an extended version of the Leuven Corpus

is now available but it was not used here since the earlier version gave a sufficient amount of

tokens to study for this second subject thesis.

Table 6. Summary of the Leuven Corpus make-up.

Sub-period	Number of authors	Number of texts	Number of words
1710-1780	15	24	2,096,405
1780-1850	29	39	3,739,657
1850-1920	28	52	3,982,264
TOTAL	72	115	9,818,326

A complete list of the authors for each sub-period, the amount of text they contribute, the

specific works used and their date of publication is shown in Appendix 1.

4.3. The British National Corpus

For this study also data from The British National Corpus (hereafter the BNC) was collected in

order to examine the contemporary usage of different complementation patterns of the verb

intend. According to The BNC Handbook (1998, 5) the above mentioned corpus is a mixed

corpus containing both written texts and transcriptions of speech. It is designed to characterize

the state of contemporary British English in its various social and generic uses. The BNC

consists of about 100 million words.

5. The Data

The data for this thesis was collected from the Leuven Corpus and the British National Corpus (the BNC) in order to track down any diachronical changes in the complementation selection and the possible changes in the senses of the verb. The data was collected separately for each verb form *intend, intends, intended, intending* from the first and the last sub-period of the Leuven Corpus that is from 1710 to 1780 and form 1850 to 1920. This being a second subject thesis the data from the second part of the Leuven Corpus was excluded from the analysis. Since a tagged search was not possible, also a number of examples not relevant to this study were included in the raw data. The total amount of different verb forms of *intend* found in the Leuven Corpus was 699. Out of these 624 were relevant to this study. For example the word form *intended* included a large number of occurrences where it was used as an adjective in an attributive position as in the following example:

(Underlinings and italics by the author in all examples.)

> [31]…but our conversation was chiefly on the subject on her <u>*intended*</u> departure, which I begged her to delay… 1780-1850. Brontë. The Tenant of Wildfield Hall.

The following table presents the distribution of the relevant tokens from the Leuven Corpus.

Table 7. The distribution of the relevant tokens from the Leuven Corpus Parts I and III.

Verb Form	Leuven 1710-1780	Leuven 1850-1920	TOTAL
Intend	86/87	57/59	144/146
Intends	26/26	10/10	36/36
Intended	208/254	184/207	392/461
Intending	21/23	31/33	52/56
TOTAL	341/390	282/309	623/699

A query was conducted in the BNC separately for each verb form of *intend*. Altogether 2026 samples were found for the form *intend*, 1109 for *intends*, 616 for *intending* and 7509 for *intended*. A random sample of approximately 10 per cent was then taken of the forms *intends*

and *intending* which yielded 110 relevant samples for *intends* and 50 for *intending*. Out of those 50 only 43 were relevant to this study since in 7 cases the word *intending* was used as an adjective as in the following example:

> [32] However, *intending* investors are advised to study the risk factors outlined…CBW 2224

For the verb forms *intend* and *intended* a random sample of less than 10 per cent was taken since the number of tokens was considered to be sufficient for the second subject thesis. Also that way the number of tokens was approximately the same in every time period studied as can be seen from table 8.

Table 8. The total numbers of relevant tokens studied in this thesis.

Verb Form	Leuven 1710-1780	Leuven 1850-1920	The BNC	TOTAL
Intend	86	57	100	243
Intends	26	10	110	146
Intended	208	185	180	573
Intending	21	31	43	95
TOTAL	341	282	433	1056

The analysis of the relevant data will be conducted according to the following pattern in both parts of the Leuven Corpus as well as in the BNC. First, the complementation patterns found in the data will be presented along with illustrative examples. Second, the meaning or meanings of the verb will be discussed according to the *OED* senses and third, some discussion on the possible change in the choice of complements will be presented.

5.1. The Leuven Corpus Part I

The first part of the Leuven corpus contains data from 1710 to 1780. It yielded 341 relevant tokens. Several complementation patterns as well as various meanings could be found of the verb

in discussion. The complementation patterns found will be discussed first. The findings are presented in the following table.

Table 9. Frequencies of the different complementation patterns of the verb *intend* in the Leuven Corpus Part I (1710-1780).

PATTERN	INTEND		INTENDS		INTENDED		INTENDING		TOTAL	
Sentential										
***to*+ infinitive**	67	(77.9%)	15	(57.7%)	104	(50.0%)	15	(71.4%)	201	(58.9%)
***ing*-clause**	2	(2.3%)	1	(3.8%)	-		-		3	(0.9%)
***that*-clause**	7	(8.1%)	-		6	(2.9%)	2	(9.5%)	15	(4.4%)
Non-sentential										
NP	9	(10.5%)	8	(30.8%)	25	(12.0%)	4	(19.1%)	46	(13.5%)
For NP	-		-		18	(8.7%)	-		18	(5.3%)
NP for NP	-		-		4	(1.9%)	-		4	(1.2%)
To NP	-		-		3	(1.4%)	-		3	(0.9%)
PP against	-		-		3	(1.4%)	-		3	(0.9%)
no complement	1	(1.2%)	2	(7.7%)	45	(21.6%)	-		48	(14.0%)
TOTAL	86	(100%)	26	(100%)	208	(100%)	21	(100%)	341	(100%)

What catches the eye in the table above are the various non-sentential complement patterns which the verb form *intended* chooses. They will be discussed in more detail in section 5.1.2. Before that some discussion on the sentential complements will be given.

5.1.1. The sentential complements of *intend* in the Leuven Corpus Part I

Intend + to-infinitive

The complement patterns found were mostly sentential, that is, verbal complements, either *to*-infinitives or *ing*-patterns (59.8%). The *to*-infinitive complementation pattern dominates each inflected form with over 50 % of all tokens in the data. Subjectless infinitival clauses or *to*-clauses can, as mentioned in Quirk et al. (1985, 1187), work as direct object complements for the verb *intend*. The following examples illustrate the sentential complement forms with *to*-infinitive.

[33] And if you _intend_ to be merry to-night I am not the man that will prevent it. 1710-1780. Fielding. Amelia.

[34] _Intending_ to go to bed, I thought it was but just and decent that I should screen myself from the intrusion of his footmen,…1710-1780. Smollett. The Adventures of Peregrine Pickle.

Poutsma (1904, 624) points out that with _intend_ the infinitive construction is mostly preferred. Quirk et al. (1972, 836) state that the verb _intend_ belongs to the group of emotive verbs, which can take either _to_-infinitive or _–ing_ participle.

Intend + gerund

Interestingly, as one can notice from the table above, the _ing_-form is not very commonly used during the time period in question. Only 3 sentences of the use of the _ing_-pattern could be found.

[35] I _intend_ opening the campaign with the white and gold. 1710-1780 Goldsmith. She stoops to conquer.

[36] I just saw his letter to Mr. Hardcastle, in which he tells him he _intends_ setting out a few hours after his son. 1710-1780. Goldsmith. She stoops to conquer.

Also the third example was from the same author. The text was written in 1773, towards the end of the time period studied here. It will be interesting to see whether this construction becomes more popular during the last sub-period of the Leuven Corpus.

These findings verify Poutsma's statement above that with _intend_ the infinitive construction is mostly preferred. What is surprising is the large amount _that_-clauses with _intend_ and that of direct objects with _intended_ discussed in the following.

Intend + _that_ –clause

Leech et al. (2002, 395-396, 407) state that the verb may have a _that_-clause with a putative should or a subjunctive verb. The subjunctive is used after governing expressions which express will or volition. _Intend_ is one of these verbs. _That_ is rarely omitted in these constructions.

There were altogether 15 cases where *that*-clause was used as a complement. In six cases *that* was used with a putative should:

> [37] Meanwhile my parents treated me with great tenderness<u>, *intending* that Lord W—should</u> be settled in a house of his own, and accomodated with my fortune… 1710-1780. Smollett. The Adventures of Peregrine Pickle.

In five cases *that* was used with *shall:*

> [38] But, honest Friend, I hope you don't <u>*intend* that Macheath shall</u> be really executed. 1710-1780. Gay. The Beggar's Opera.

Although Leech et al. (ibid.) mention that *that* is rarely omitted in this kind of complement construction; four examples were found in the data where *that* was omitted. (In example 41 (*that*) is added by the author):

> [39] "I can't afford to keep prisoners at my own expense."" I <u>don't *intend* (*that*) it shall</u> be at your expense" cries the philosopher;…1710-1780. Fielding. Amelia.

Leech et al. (ibid.) continue that the use of the subjunctive is more common in American English and in written, formal English. Since no cases of the use of the subjunctive were found this statement would require more investigation. Rudanko, however, (1989, 80) states that *that* complements are not in general compatible with verbs which express intention in addition to desideration. Instead, they favour the *for to* -pattern which will be discussed in the following sections.

5.1.2. The non-sentential complements of *intend* in the Leuven Corpus Part I

Intend + noun phrase

Several non-sentential complements were found in the data. Of those, the noun phrase in a direct object position was the most common (13.5%). This was rather interesting since according to Palmer (1974, 177) there are many verbs that do not normally have objects yet are followed by

subordinate clauses with *to-* infinitives or *ing*-forms. *Intend* is one of them. Interestingly, several examples could be found in the Leuven corpus data where *intend* takes the direct object.

> [40] If he did not *intend* a parallel between ship-money and the present bill, to what purpose was his observation? Leuven 1710-1780. Johnson. Parliamentary debates.

> [41] Don't be angry with the good woman; she *intends* no harm. Leuven 1710-1780. Fielding. Tom Jones.

Intend + PP

There were various patterns where *intend* was complemented by a preposition used after the verb form *intended*. The patterns were *intended* + for NP, *intended* +NP for NP, *intended* + to NP and *intended* + against. The following examples illustrate these:

> [42] Was a Rope ever *intended* for this neck? 1710-1780. Gay. The Beggar's Opera.

> [43] Nature *intended* Jenkins for something very different from the resemblance betwixt them in many particulars. 1710-1780. Smollett. The Expedition of Humphrey Clinker.

> [44] Though he was not of an implacable temper, yet, as the injury was *intended* to one he sincerely loved, he found it much harder to forgive it,… 1710-1780. Fielding. The Governess.

> [45] Such, and such only, appears to be the tendency of the petition which has now been read; a petition, sir, very unskillfully drawn, if it was *intended* against the clause under our consideration,… 1710-1780. Johnson. Parliamentary Debates.

Intend + no complement

Several examples of *intend* without a complement were found. Two examples in the verb form *intend* and one example in the verb form *intends*.

> [46] But make haste to Newgate, Boy, and let my Friends know what I *intend*;…1710-1780. Gay. The Beggar's Opera.

> [47] What do you think my lady *intends*? Adieu! my dear Sir! Pray for peace.Walpole. Letters 1734-1748

5.1.3. The different senses of *intend* in relation to the complementation patterns

This second subject thesis also examines the different senses of the verb *intend* expressed by the *OED* found in the corpus data. The following table gives the big picture of this. The number in the second column from the left shows the amount of senses found in the data. The third column presents the possible complementation patterns that occur with each sense. Also an example of each sense is given:

Table 10. The different senses of *intend* in relation to the possible complementation patterns.

	Sense from the OED	No. of findings	Possible complement patterns	Example from the Leuven Corpus
I	**"To strech out, extend, expand, increase, intensify."** [A group of senses of late introduction, immediately from Latin.]	1	*to*-infinitive	You will wonder, my dear Hal, to find me on the road to Rome: why, *intend* I did to stay for a new popedom, …Walpole. Letters 1735-1748.**To extend.**
II/5	*trans.* To direct (the eyes, the mind, etc.) *to, into, towards* something. Now a conscious Latinism.	8	*to*-infinitive	Tired as he was, Mr. Bennet would not sit down till he had enquired for my lord, *intending* to go and pay his compliments. Fielding. Amelia. **To direct the mind towards.**
II/6	*intr. and trans.* To direct one's course, make one's way: to proceed on (a journey, etc.) *obs. or arch.*	6	*-ing*	I just saw his letter to Mr. Hardcastle, in which he tells him he *intends* setting out a few hours after his son. Goldsmith. She stoops to conquer. **To start on a journey.**
II/6b	*intr.* To start on a journey, to set out. (Sometimes app. ellipt. for 'intend to go or start', purpose a journey: cf. 18.) *Obs.*	4	*to*-infinitive	So, having hired horses to go twenty miles one way, when she *intended* to go twenty miles the other… Fielding. Tom Jones. **To set out.**

II/7a.	*trans.* To direct, level, aim (something) against some one.	7	NP *for* NP Ø NP *to*-infinitive NP against NP	…since I firmly believe the same ruin was *intended* for you at the same place;… <u>Fielding. Amelia</u>. …the virtue and perseverance of those against whom they were *intended*… <u>Fielding. The Governess.</u> You are perfectly innocent of having *intended* me any wrong… <u>Fielding. Tom Jones</u>. **To aim against someone**.
III	**"To strain, direct, or bend the attention; to attend to; to attend."** [An obsolete group of senses from OF., ultimately from L. *intendere=intendere animum*.]	1	*to* NP	…to speak the plain truth, the visit was *intended* to Amelia alone; nor did he expect, or perhaps desire, anything less…<u>Fielding. Amelia</u>. **To direct attention to.**
III/12.	*trans.* To turn one's thoughts to, fix the mind on (something); to attend to; to occupy onself with; to look after. *Obs*	1	NP	…which to me would seem indispensably necessary, and though we should both *intend* the preservation of the country… <u>Johnson. Parliamentary Debates</u>. **To look after.**
IV/14.	*intr.* To have or come to an understanding; to agree together; to be in accord.[F. s'entendre.]	1	*to*-infinitive	They seem to have *intended* to support spirited undertakings, for as such they considered them,…<u>Smith. Wealth of Nations.</u> **To have an understanding.**
IV/16.	*trans.* To understand as in the view or sense of the law; to construe, interpret, or hold legally. Cf. <u>INTENDMENT</u> 4. *Obs.*	2	NP Ø	By it no new imposition is *intended*, nor any thing more than the establishment of a practice which has continued for more than fifty years, and never, except on two occasions, been denied to be legal. <u>Johnson. Parliamentary Debates.</u> **To understand as in the view or sense of the law.**
V/18a.	*trans.* . To have in the mind as a fixed purpose; to purpose, design. (The chief current sense.) With inf.	170	*to*-infinitive NP *-ing*	Perhaps it might be some rogue that *intended* to rob the house… <u>Fielding. Amelia</u>. **To design**. …; he may, without *intending* it, reward a man…<u>Gibbon. Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire</u>.

	phr. or subord. clause.		*that*-clause	…But how do you *intend* behaving to the lady you are come down to visit… Goldsmith. She stoops to conquer. **To have in the mind as a fixed purpose.** I leave the choice of the route to you; but I do by no means *intend* that you should leave Rome after the jubilee,… Chesterfield. Letters to his Son on the Art… **To purpose.**
V/19a.	*trans.*To design (a thing) for some purpose; to destine (a thing or person) to a fate or use; to purpose to bestow or give; to mean (a thing) to be or to do something. With prep. or conj. phr., or dative as compl.	115	for NP NP *for* NP *that*-clause NP *to*-infinitive	As the young gentleman was *intended* for the church, … Fielding. Amelia. …I *intended* him for one of the learned professions. Goldsmith. The Vicar of Wakefield. **To destine a person to a fate.** …and the other courts, which I *intend* that you shall be better acquainted with,… Chesterfield. Letters to his Son on the Art…**To mean to do something.** …I sincerely believe you *intended* the same obligation… Fielding. Amelia. Our second child, a girl, I *intended* to call after her aunt… Goldsmith. The Vicar of Wakefield
V/20a.	To design to express; to signify by one's words, to mean. *to intend at*, to mean for.	13	Ø *to*-infinitive	…and may often be unjust to others by charging them with invectives which they never *intended*. Johnson. Parliamentary Debates. **To design to express.** …Sir, I am far from *intending* to oppose this proposal… Johnson. Parliamentary Debates.
V/20b.	Of words, etc.: To mean; to signify; to indicate. *Obs.*	11	NP	"Why sure," cries the landlady," her ladyship's honour can never *intend* it." Fielding. Tom Jones. **To indicate.**
VI/22.	To assert, maintain; to pretend; to claim.	1	NP	…by which they receive tenfold in acknowledgements for every obligation, I mean among those who really *intend* the service;…Fielding. Amelia. **To claim.**

As stated in the *OED*, sense V is the chief current group of senses. This statement can be verified by the findings from the data. In altogether 307 tokens the verb *intend* can be understood to have the sense of 'To bend the mind to something to be done; to purpose, design, mean.' The complementation patterns of this meaning were both sentential and non-sentential. Surprisingly many different senses could be found. It will be interesting to see if this is also the case in the last sub-section of the Leuven Corpus and in the BNC data.

5.2. The Leuven Corpus Part III

The third part of the Leuven corpus contains data from 1850 to 1920. It yielded 282 relevant tokens. Also here several complementation patterns as well as various meanings could be found of the verb in discussion. One new pattern (NP *to* -infinitive) also emerged. The complementation patterns found will be discussed first. The different senses will be discussed in section 5.2.3. The findings are presented in the following table.

Table 11. Frequencies of the different complementation patterns of the verb *intend* in the Leuven Corpus 1850-1920.

PATTERN	INTEND		INTENDS		INTENDED		INTENDING		TOTAL	
Sentential										
to+ infinitive	36	(63.1%)	7	(70%)	96	(52.2%)	21	(67.7%)	160	(56.7%)
ing-clause	3	(5.3%)	1	(10%)	4	(2.2%)	-		8	(2.8%)
that-clause	2	(3.5%)	-		7	(3.8%)	1	(3.2%)	10	(3.5%)
Non-sentential										
NP	11	(19.3%)	-		9	(4.9%)	7	(22.6%)	27	(9.6%)
NP to infinitive	1	(1.8%)	-		5	(2.7%)	-		6	(2.1%)
For NP	-		-		22	(12.0%)	-		22	(7.8%)
NP for NP	-		-		1	(0.5%)	-		1	(0.4%)
To NP	-		-		1	(0.5%)	-		1	(0.4%)
no complement	4	(7.0%)	2	(20%)	39	(21.2%)	2	(6.5%)	47	(16.7%)
TOTAL	57	(100%)	10	(100%)	184	(100%)	31	(100%)	282	(100%)

5.2.1. The sentential complements of *intend* in the Leuven Corpus Part III

Intend + *to*-infinitive and *intend* + gerund

In the last part of the Leuven Corpus material the *to*-infinitive pattern was still most frequently

used. (Over 56 % of the complementation patterns.) A slight increase of the *ing*-pattern can be

seen. There are 8 cases of *ing*- pattern in this part when there were only 3 in the first part.

>[49] It is not that Robina *intends* to mislead, but she has the artistic instinct.

>[50] I had *intended* concluding my diary last week;…1850-1920. Grossmith. The
>Diary of a Nobody.

One interesting example was again found in the data, where both the *ing*-complement and the *to*-

infinitive were used:

>[51] Dr. Bennett *intends* returning thither to continue his course of
>teaching…1850-1920. Yonge. The Caged Lion.

One other sentence, which included both forms was as follows
>[52] But we must *intend* to accomplish—not sit *intending* on a chair.

According to Rudanko (1989, 77), the *for to* –complement is also possible with *intend*. He states,

however, that though the construction was attested in older literature, it has been rare in the

nineteenth century. Rudanko continues (ibid.), that the construction occurs especially in

American English and is also spreading into British English and is subject to a great deal of

idiolect variation. He gives the following example (ibid., 80):

>[53] Jack *intended* for Sue to leave the party first.

The data from the Leuven corpus reinforces Rudanko's claim of this kind of construction not

being used in older literature. Not one example of this kind was found in the Leuven Corpus nor

in the BNC data studied.

Intend + that-clause

A slight decrease of *that*-clauses can be noted from 4.4% down to 3.5%. Altogether 10 *that*-clauses were found in the data. Out of those ten 7 were with putative should, in one case *that* was omitted, 2 with a subjunctive and 1 with a new form; can. Consider the following example:

> [54]…or that heredity is due to memory, if it is thereby *intended* that animals can only grow in virtue of being able to recollect. 1850-1920. Butler. Notebooks.

5.2.2. The non-sentential complements of *intend* in the Leuven Corpus Part III

Intend + noun phrase

The number of noun phrases has slightly decreased but instead, a new complementation form has appeared; the NP *to*-infinitive. Altogether 6 examples were found.

> [55] Did she *intend* them to fight? 1850-1920. Forster. Where Angels fear to Tread.

> [56] I for my part have never known an Irregular who was not also what Nature evidently *intended* him to be— 1850-1920. Abbott. Flatland.

Intend + PP

The prepositional complement *against* has disappeared completely. Also the patterns NP for NP and to NP have lost ground. Only the pattern for NP has gained ground increasing from 5.3% to 7.8%.

> [57] "I wait to be instructed," replied the Countess, in tones of freezing reproof, *intended* for Laura and me, … 1850-1920. Collins. The Woman in White.

Intend + no complement

Many of the sentences that at first glance seemed to have zero complement, were noted to be, at a closer look, in passive as in the following example

> [57] I do not believe that any satire was *intended*. 1850-1920. Butler. The Way of all Flesh.

Turned into an active sentence, the word 'satire' would become the object of *intend*. That is why those sentences should be treated as NP's not zero complement sentences.

5.2.3. The different senses of *intend* in relation to the complementation patterns

The different senses of the verb *intend* expressed by the *OED* found in the Leuven Corpus Part III are presented in the following table. The number in the second column from the left shows the amount of senses found in the data. The third column presents the possible complementation patterns that occur with each sense. Also an example of each sense is given:

Table 12. The different senses of *intend* in relation to the possible complementation patterns.

	Sense from the *OED*	No. of findings	Possible complement patterns	Example from the Leuven Corpus
II/5	*trans.* To direct (the eyes, the mind, etc.) *to, into, towards* something. Now a conscious Latinism.	10	*to*-infinitive -*ing* *that*-clause *for* NP	Fleetwood grinned civilly in his excitement; *intending* to yield patient hearing,…Meredith. The Amazing Marriage. **To direct the mind *towards* something.** Now, as it is good for those to tell who *intend* preserving their taste for romance… Meredith. The Amazing Marriage. He bid him good-bye, obviously *intending* that he should go no further with her,…Rutherford. Clara Hopgood. "I wait to be instructed" replied the Countess, in tones of freezing reproof, *intended* for Laura and me, …Collins. The Woman in White.
II/6	*intr. and trans.* To direct one's course, make one's way: to preceed on (a journey, etc.) *obs. or arch.*	1	*to*-infinitive	On the 28th the gunboat Zafir was steaming from the Atbara to Wad Hamed, *intending* thereafter to ascend the Shabluka Cataract. Churchill. The River. **To preceed on a journey, to make one's way.**
IV/14.	*intr.* To have or	1	*to*-infinitive	Turning now to the orkmen he

	come to an understanding; to agree together; to be in accord.[F. s'entendre.]			asserted that their interests must not be neglected, and that, if they *intended* to accept the Colour Bill…Abbott. Flatland. **To have or come to an understanding.**
V/18a.	*trans.* . To have in the mind as a fixed purpose; to purpose, design. (The chief current sense.) With inf. phr. or subord. clause.	207	*ing*-form *that*-clause *to*-infinitive Ø *for* NP NP	Among the additions I intended making…Butler. Unconscious Memory. It was *intended* that she should go home that day,…Rutherford. Catharine Furze. **To have in the mind as a fixed purpose.** To an invention, I suppose he *intends* to say. Meredith. The Amazing Marriage. …as a very considerable element in the new Nature Study Movement certainly intends…Wells. Mankind in the Making. It is not *intended* for your ears. Yonge. The Clever Woman of the Family. …Jorian *intended* an association or backbiters pledged to reveal all they knew…Meredith. The Adventures of Harry Richmond. To design.
V/19a.	*trans.*To design (a thing) for some purpose; to destine (a thing or person) to a fate or use; to purpose to bestow or give; to mean (a thing) to be or to do something. With prep. or conj. phr., or dative as compl.	53	*for* NP *to*-infinitive NP *that*-clause Ø NP *to*- infinitive	Is this the end that God *intended* for a man so proud and strong? Blackmore. Lorna Doone She did not *intend* to mate Catherine with a fool… Rutherford. Catharine Furze He did not *intend* this as blackmail. Forster. Howards End. Did she *intend* them to fight? Forster. Where Angels Fear to Tread. **To destine a person to a fate.**
V/20a.	To design to express; to signify by one's words, to mean. *to intend at*, to mean for.	10	*to*-infinitive *for* NP Ø	She kept in the last word for a moment, *intending* to imply that her refusal was finite,…Hardy. A Pair of Blue Eyes. **To signify by one's words.**
VI/25.	*trans*. To superintend,	1	*to*-infinitive	After breakfast she was cool and collected, quite herself in fact,

				and she rambled to the gate, *intending* to walk to another quarter of the farm, which she still personally superintended…<u>Hardy. Far from the Madding Crowd.</u>
	direct. Cf. <u>INTENDANT</u>.			

The verb *intending* in the last sense 'to superintend, direct' does not actually have the sense in the verb itself, rather it can be seen in the verb 'superintend'. That sentence was chosen as an example since it had the both verbs *intend* and *superintend*.

The number of different senses has decreased down to 7 when there were as many as 14 in the first part of the Leuven Corpus.

5.3. The British National Corpus

The British National Corpus contains contemporary data of English texts. It yielded 433 relevant tokens. Several complementation patterns but only a few meanings could be found of the verb in discussion. The number of non-sentential complementation patterns has come down to 4 from 7 different patterns in the third part of the Leuven Corpus. The different complementation patterns will be discussed first. They are presented in the following table.

Table 13. Frequencies of the different complementation patterns of the verb *intend* in the British National Corpus .

PATTERN	INTEND		INTENDS		INTENDED		INTENDING		TOTAL	
Sentential										
to+ infinitive	87	(87%)	90	(81.8%)	116	(64.4%)	39	(90.7%)	331	(76.4%)
ing-clause	3	(3%)	7	(6.4%)	4	(2.2%)	-		14	(3.2%)
that-clause	-		1	(0.9%)	5	(2.8%)	1	(2.3%)	7	(1.7%)
Non-sentential										
NP	1	(1%)	4	(3.6%)	15	(8.3%)	2	(4.7%)	23	(5.3%)
NP to infinitive	7	(7%)	6	(5.5%)	6	(3.3%)	-		19	(4.4%)
For NP	-		-		21	(11.7%)	-		21	(4.8%)
no complement	2	(2%)	2	(1.8%)	13	(7.3%)	1	(2.3%)	18	(4.2%)
TOTAL	100	(100%)	110	(100%)	180	(100%)	43	(100%)	433	(100%)

5.3.1. The sentential complements of the verb *intend* in the BNC

Intend + *to*-infinitive and *intend* + gerund

The number of sentential complements has increased noticeably. In the third part of the Leuven Corpus the *to*- infinitive complement yielded 56.6% of all tokens, in the BNC the percentage was as high as 76.2. Also the number of ing-complements has risen from 2.8% to 3.2%. Rudanko (1998, 346) has stated that Modern English verbs of positive volition prefer an infinitival complement whereas those of negative volition (ie. avoid) take the *ing*-pattern.

An interesting sentence was found where the intention was stressed by repeating the verb:

[58]…, if I don't find her,-- but I <u>*intend* to, David, I intend to find</u> her! JY0 3537.

Also the following sentence, which only appeared once in the data studied, was rather interesting having both the *to*- infinitive and the *–ing* form:

[59] …that Wickes had been trading on Sundays and <u>*intended* to continue doing so</u> in the future… FC6 145.

Denison (1988, 267) states that "there are some verbs which seem to have moved away from, rather than towards, complementation by *–ing*, such as *fail, intend, propose and purpose*." He does not agree with Visser (1963) who has, in Denison's opinion, exaggerated the success of *-ing* construction after *intend* and continues that *intend* still prefers the *to*-infinitive. This statement can be verified by the data studied.

Intend + catenative construction

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 1177) present the term 'catenative' which reflects the fact that the construction can be repeated recursively, yielding a concatenation ('chain') of verbs. They also give an example:

[60] She <u>*intends* to try to persuade to help</u> her redecorate her flat.

No examples of this kind of construction were found in the Leuven Corpus or in the random samples from the BNC. Being such an interesting pattern, an extra search was conducted in the BNC and the following example was found:

> [61] There is, however, one 'fun' idea which I *intend* to prepare now, to give me time to get it finished. (BNC CK3 498)

That extra search also yielded another interesting example where the *–ing* form is followed by another *–ing* form:

> [62]…cloakroom and what we were *intending* doing originally is turn it into… BNC, KBD.

This was the only case where the *horror aequi*-principle was not affecting the choice of the complementation pattern.

Intend + that-clause

The number of *that*-clauses has decreased from 3.5% to 1.7%. An example of the subjunctive mandative *that*-clause appeared, but only once, in the following example:

> [63] NQue *intends* that these two pieces appear simultaneously on retail…. CPU 116.

A new type of *that*-clause appeared as well, that is the *that would*-clause.

> [64] It was *intended* that the PCBCR would connect with this to the east…HHK 299.

5.3.2. The non-sentential complements of the verb *intend* in the BNC

The number of NP -complements and *for* NP -complements has decreased since the late nineteenth-early twentieth century. Instead, the new pattern that appeared then, the NP *to* infinitive, has gained a lot of ground from 6 examples to 19 in the BNC. Consider the following examples:

> [65] Did he *intend* everyone in the castle to know he did not want…HH1 5246.

[66] …because whatever the teacher *intends* the student to learn, she will learn…B33 1076.

Three types of prepositional complementation patterns have disappeared completely; NP *for* NP, preposition *to* NP and *into* NP.

5.3.3. The different senses of *intend* in relation to the complementation patterns

The different senses of *intend* have decreased from 14 in the first part of the Leuven Corpus to only 3 in the BNC. Table 14 exemplifies this.

Table 14. The different senses of *intend* in relation to the possible complementation patterns.

	Sense from the *OED*	No. of findings	Possible complement patterns	Example from the BNC
V/18a.	*trans.* . To have in the mind as a fixed purpose; to purpose, design. (The chief current sense.) With inf. phr. or subord. clause.	401	*to*-infinitive -*ing* NP NP *to* infinitive	The government is *intending* to scale down SERPS. CMK 1302. We *intend* looking at the situation again…AND 1172 They began (without *intending* it), slow dance of self recognition,…ADA 888 I don't *intend* anybody to represent me. EVP 1073 **To purpose. To design.**
V/19a.	*trans.*To design (a thing) for some purpose; to destine (a thing or person) to a fate or use; to purpose to bestow or give; to mean (a thing) to be or to do something. With prep. or conj. phr., or dative as compl.	30	*for* NP *that*-clause	Nor are cruise missiles *intended* for fighting nuclear was in Europe. B7N 711. It is *intended* that such timetables should be updated and agreed…HPH 159 **To design (a thing) for some purpose.**
V/20a.	To design to express; to signify by one's words, to mean. *to intend at*, to mean for.	2	*to*-infinitive NP	I must have been *intending* to explain to Mr Farraday how I would thus be…AR3 117 They buried it at the foot of the gallows, *intending* the burial as a final disgrace.

				BM6 1328. **To mean for.**

One interesting example was found where *intending* was used in a list of verbs:

[67] …,moods, perceptions, desires, thoughts, *intending*, deciding and so on. EVX 1450

The table above illustrates the loss of all other senses except sense V which, as already mentioned is the chief current sense for *intend*. There seems to be a tendency that sentential complementation patterns have the sense of 'To have in the mind as a fixed purpose, to purpose, to design'. This is also what the *OED* states about the matter. Also, the non-sentential patterns NP+ *to*-infinitive, *that*-clauses and especially *for* NP-clauses tend to have the sense 'To design (a thing) for some purpose; to destine (a thing or person) to a fate or use; to purpose to bestow or give; to mean (a thing) to be or to do something'.

6. Conclusion

The research questions for this second subject thesis were: What kind of complementation patterns has the verb *intend* taken over the past centuries? Have those complementation patterns changed and if so, how and why? How many different senses can the verb *intend* have and can any diachronic variation be noted in the use of them?

The findings show that there has been change in both complementation patterns and in the different senses of the verb *intend*. Some non-sentential complementation patterns have disappeared when new patterns have emerged. The grammarians' claims of *intend* preferring the *to*-infinitive as its complement are verified. No major changes in the choice of the complementation patterns have taken place; the *to*-infinitive has stayed the most common and the *ing*- pattern has not gained ground. Considering the verb in discussion, the Great Complement Shift has not affected it.

The use of this study to a language learner can be seen in the way different complementation patterns affect the sense of the verb. It is useful to know if the meaning of the verb changes when the complementation pattern is changed. A good example of this would be the choice between *to*-infinitive and gerund as in 'I *intend* to go tomorrow.' would have the sense of 'I want to; this is what I have decided. Instead, in 'I *intend* going tomorrow.' the sense would be 'It's what I have vaguely planned.'

Perhaps the most striking change has occurred in the loss of the different senses. During the time period 1710-1780 there were altogether 14 different senses to the verb *intend* but in contemporary English only three. One explanation to this could be the large number of information in people's everyday lives today and the lack of time to consider the different meanings of words in order to understand the message in them. Texts today have become more

informative and there is no space for colourful language in which the meaning or meanings of the words can be understood many different ways.

This study has shown that both complementation patterns and the senses of the verb *intend* have changed during the past three centuries. The aspects involved in this 'Great Complement Shift', that is extraction, *horror aequi*-principle and structural discontinuity, are affecting the choice of the complementation patterns. Further discussion involving the above mentioned aspects would work as a basis for a fuller thesis concerning the verb *intend*.

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