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Tämän korpuspohjaisen pro gradu-tutkimuksen tarkoitus on tarkastella verbin *fear* käyttöä 1700-luvulta nykypäivään. Tarkastelun kohteena ovat mahdolliset muutokset verbin käytössä ja sen komplementaatiossa.

Tutkimuksen keskeinen aineisto on kerätty kahdesta elektronisesta korpuksesta, jotka ovat: Corpus of Late Modern English Texts, CLMET, ja British National Corpus, BNC. CLMET on historiallinen korpus sisältäen tekstejä vuosilta 1710-1920 ja se on jaettu kolmeen 70 vuoden ajanjaksoon, joista tutkimuksessani käytän ensimmäistä 1710-1780 ja kolmatta 1850-1920. BNC on on laaja nykybrittienglannin korpus, josta *Imaginative Prose*-tekstilaji valittiin mahdollisimman suuren vertailtavuuden takaamiseksi.

Tutkimuksen alkuosassa luon katsauksen komplementaatioon yleisesti sekä erityisesti siihen mitä verbin *fear* komplementaatiosta sanotaan keskeisissä kieliopeissa ja muussa aikaisemmassa tutkimuksessa. Alkuosassa myös tutustutaan siihen mitä *Oxford English Dictionary* ja eräät muut sanakirjat sanovat verbin *fear* merkityksestä ja komplementaatiosta.

Korpusaineiston pohjalta analyysiosassa vertailen verbin *fear* käytön ja komplementaation muutoksia. Saamieni tulosten mukaan verbi *fear* on nykyenglannissa selvästi harvinaisempi, eikä sen käyttö ole yhtä moninaista kuin mitä se oli 1700 -ja 1800-luvuilla. Rohdenburgin esittelemä The Great Complement Shift, joka tarkoittaa *to*-lauseiden korvautumista *ing*-lauseilla, ei toteudu verbin *fear* käytössä. Jostain syystä verbiä *fear* ei kovin helposti seuraa *ing*-muoto, mutta aineiston kaikista osista löytyi esimerkkejä *ing*-lauseista, vaikka eräät kieliopit ja sanakirjat pitivät sitä mahdottomana tai ainakin kyseenalaisena.

Verbin *fear* merkitys on myös kaventunut jonkin verran; CLMETn aineistossa verbillä on kahdeksan eri merkitystä ja BNCssä enää seitsemän. *The Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary*n verkkoversiossa kaikkia verbin *fear* merkityksiä pidettiin vanhoina, virallisina tai humoristisina. BNCn aineistossa *fear* suurelta osin esiintyy virallisessa yhteydessä, mutta selkeästi se on kuitenkin edelleen käytössä myös jokapäiväisessä kielessä, vaikkakin sen käyttö on vähentynyt huomattavasti.

avainsanat: korpuslingvistiikka, komplementaatio

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## 1. Introduction

The aim in this thesis is to examine the meanings and the complementation of the verb *fear* during the last three centuries. The aim is to distinguish the different meanings and the kind of complements the verb *fear* takes and see whether there have been any changes in the meaning or the complementation of the verb *fear*. Special attention is given to the factors affecting sentential complement selection and specifically the selection between *to*-infinitives and *ing*-forms.

Corpus data has been chosen as the source for the material to be used. Corpus data is today used very widely in linguistic study and it is a clear choice in research with a historic perspective. The corpora used are the Corpus of Late Modern English texts, henceforward the CLMET, which is a corpus of nearly ten million words and the British National Corpus, henceforward the BNC. The CLMET covers the period from 1710 to 1920 and is divided into three sub-categories i.e 1710-1780, 1780-1850 and 1850-1920. The BNC is a general corpus of 100 million words covering the late 20<sup>th</sup> century. *The Oxford English Dictionary*, henceforward the OED, also provides a valuable basis for this research.

The data was retrieved in the following manner, from the first and the third part of the CLMET, all tokens with either *fear*, *fears*, *feared* and *fearing* were chosen so that all the inflectional forms of *fear* were retrieved. From the BNC, not all the tokens of *fear* were retrieved due to the considerably larger size of the corpus. The genre *Imaginative Prose* is chosen due to its similarity with the CLMET corpora. From the genre *Imaginative Prose* a search was done to texts that were published between the years 1985-1993.

After this general introduction to the study, chapter two deals with corpus linguistics in general, but also introduces the two corpora and the method used. Complementation and differencies between a complement and an adjunct, as well as tests for distinguishing them, are introduced in chapter three. Chapter four introduces the verb *fear* in the OED and some other dictionaries. Chapter five gives a summary on what dictionaries, grammars and grammarians have

said about the verb *fear*. Chapter six is dedicated to the data from the first part of the CLMET, chapter seven to the data from the third part of the CLMET and chapter eight to the data from the BNC. Chapter nine includes conclusions made from the analysis of the material.

# 2. Corpus linguistics

This chapter concentrates on corpus linguistics, and especially computer corpus linguistics, by introducing some definitions and concepts of corpus linguistics. Also a closer look at the two corpora used in the study is taken and the method used in the study is explained.

# 2.1. Corpus Linguistics in General

According to Leech (Leech 1968, 88-95), when we want to make some statements about a language, we have three sources of data available a) 'corpus data', b) 'informant data' c) 'analyst's intuition'. 'Analyst's intuition' refers to introspections of a native speaker, intuition on what can be said and what cannot. 'Informant data', on the other hand, refers to data collected from a group of native speakers on their intuition and reactions of the language. 'Corpus data' is data retrieved from corpora of either utterances or texts.

Hund and Mair (1999, 221-223) point out that in the study of linguistic change, when longer periods of time are looked at, due to the lack of native speakers for the older periods, corpus data gained popularity quite rapidly, but that with the research on Present-Day English, corpus data was slower to be accepted.

Aarts (2007) divides linguistic data differently than Leech. In his opinion linguistic data is firstly divided into intuitive and non-intuitive data. Intuitive data is again divided into 'linguistic introspection' equalling to Leech's 'analyst's intuition' and 'informant data', just as with Leech. Aarts divides non-intuitive data to corpus and anecdotal data. The difference between them is that anecdotal data is collected unsystematically whereas corpus data is collected in a systematic manner. Gries (2006, 3) points out that during the past few decades corpus linguistics has 'become an autonomous methodological paradigm within linguistics'.

What then is a corpus and corpus linguistics? With the term corpus linguistics people normally refer to computer corpus linguistics, which dates back to 1960's and started gaining recognition at the end of the 1970's. Gries (2006, 4) states that a corpus is a body of 'naturally-occurring language, which is made 'machine-readable', so that retrieval of data is computerized'. Gries (ibid.) continues by saying that a corpus is always compiled with the intention of it being a balanced representation of what is aimed at, i.e there are numerous different kinds of corpora, corpora on speech or written texts, corpora on different periods of time or different registers or varieties etc. Many critics of corpus data base their arguments to the way the corpus is compiled, claiming that the texts or speech do not give a truthful picture of the language being used due to the fact that only certain kinds of texts are chosen or are available.

Gries (ibid.) also lists central criteria for corpus linguistics. In addition to the fact that in corpus linguistics a corpus serves as a source of data, corpus linguistics aims at being 'systematic and exhaustive' meaning that all tokens are taken into consideration. Corpus linguistics does not only concentrate on what is acceptable and what is not, but it produces 'statistical data' e.g on frequencies of different constructions.

Aarts (2007) quotes Tognini-Bonelli who distinguishes two approaches to corpus data, the corpus-based approach, which relates corpus data to existing theories by extending them with corpus 'evidence' and corpus-driven approach that works from the corpus trying to define categories and different theories. Aarts (ibid.) also distinguishes two purposes for which only corpus data can be used and those two are; examination of language variety and testing of hypothesis about the language. The language varieties refer, of course, to studying, for example, linguistic change through time, mentioned already earlier but also, differences between, for example, British and American English.

# 2.2. The Corpus of Late Modern English Texts, the CLMET

As mentioned in the introduction, the CLMET is a corpus of about ten million words; 9,818,326 words to be exact. The corpus is divided into three sub-periods; 1710-1780 with 2,096,405 words, 1780-1850 with 3,736,657 words and 1850-1920 with 3,982,264 words. The CLMET is compiled of the texts from the *Project Gutenberg* and *Oxford Text Archives*. De Smet (2005, 70-73) lists four principles of compiling the CLMET.

Firstly, texts chosen for the CLMET have to be written by authors whose production fits in the same time-span as their birth i.e if the author's production is concentrated between the years 1780-1850, he has to be born after the year 1750 etc. Secondly, all authors have to be British, native English speakers. Thirdly, each author can contribute the maximum of 200,000 words. Fourthly, the selection of authors has been done with the insuring of variation of text types in mind. As we saw in section 2, criticism on the make-up of corpora has been given, often concentrating on the fact that corpora material does not necessarily give a very varied, overall picture of language use.

In the CLMET (De Smet 2005, 71-72) the variation of the text types is attempted to achieve by choosing 'non-literary texts over literary texts', 'lower register texts over higher register texts' and 'women authors' over male authors. De Smet (ibid.) points out that, even after these attempts, the make-up of the corpus favours 'literary texts written by higher class male adults'. This is quite often the case, and of course it has to be taken into consideration when examining corpus data.

# 2.3. The British National Corpus, the BNC

The British National Corpus, the BNC, is a 100 million word collection of both written and spoken language. (This section is based on information that can be found from <a href="www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk">www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk</a>.) The work on compiling the BNC started in 1991 and was completed in 1994. The slightly revised second edition, the BNC World, was released in 2001 and the latest, the third edition, the BNC

XML Edition was released in 2007. Some material from the BNC has been released in two sub-corpora, the BNC Sampler, which contains two million words of which one million are written and one million are spoken, the BNC Baby has four one million word samples from four different genres.

The BNC is a general corpus, aiming at representing a wide variety of current British English. The BNC is also synchronic; all the samples are from the late 20<sup>th</sup> century. The division between the written and the spoken samples is the following; 90% of the samples are written and the remaining 10% are spoken.

The written part includes, among others, extracts from newspapers, periodicals and journals from different fields, it also contains samples from academic books and popular fiction, as well as, letters, memoranda and school and university papers. The spoken part consists, for example, of extracts from formal business or government meetings, phone-ins and radio shows.

About 45% of the spoken part contains transcriptions of informal, impromptu conversation by volunteers representing different age groups, regions and social classes.

For the users of the BNC, detailed contextual and bibliographical information about the extracts is included. All 100 million words are classified, grammatically tagged, meaning that each word is labelled according to its grammatical class or part of speech.

#### 2.4. Data and Method

For the most part, this study is of quantitative nature, it aims to analyse and draw conclusions on the complementation of the verb *fear* during the last three centuries by using a larger set of data. Also, the method used is corpus-based, that is, the study starts with an extensive study on what dictionaries, researchers and grammarians have said about the verb *fear* and its complementation and the main focus in this study is on finding out whether the information given on the verb *fear* can be validated when examining the corpus data.

The total number of tokens examined for this study is 2327. As already mentioned, two corpora were used in this study; the CLMET and the BNC. From the CLMET, two subcorpora out of three were chosen, more precisely the first sub-corpus representing the period 1710-1780 and the third sub-corpus representing the period 1850-1920. Due to the smaller size of the corpus, it was possible to draw all the tokens with fear from these two sub-corpora. The larger size of the BNC made it impossible to choose all tokens with the verb *fear* for the purposes of this study. From the BNC, only written texts and the genre *Imaginative Prose* were chosen because as a text type, *Imaginative Prose*, is the closest to the texts in the CLMET. In the BNC, there is a choice between the publication dates; the texts are organised into three sub-periods, namely, 1960-1974, 1975-1984 and 1985-1993. Only the most recent texts (1985-1993) were chosen for this study.

A tagged search for *fear* as a verb from the selected texts in the BNC gave 980 tokens in all. From the 980 tokens only 650 tokens were randomly chosen in order to have a set of data more comparable to the data from the CLMET. In the following table, the make-up of the data used in this study is illustrated:

Corpus	number of tokens	number of tokens	number of tokens	normalized
		excluded from	included in the	frequency per one
		the study	study	million words
CLMET first	552	288	264	125.92
subcorpus				
CLMET third	1125	608	517	129.82
subcorpus				
BNC Imaginative	650	107	543	58.09
Prose 1985-1993				
total.	2327	1003	1324	85.83

The program used to collect tokens from the CLMET does not make it possible to collect just the tokens with the verb *fear*, but the search will give all tokens with the word *fear* and its inflectional forms *fears*, *feared* and *fearing*. This explains the much higher number of tokens excluded from the CLMET when compared with the BNC, with which collecting only the verbal forms of *fear* is possible. It must be said that even though there is the possibility of retrieving only the verbal forms from the BNC, among the tokens excluded most of them were nouns. So, the most of the tokens excluded, on the whole, were tokens where *fear* was a noun and therefore not of interest to this study, for example ...*Indeed*, *dear Billy*, *I laugh at the <u>fears</u> you formerly raised in me*..(Fielding 1751: *Amelie*).

With the tokens that had exactly the same content, meaning that the same part of the text was represented in two different tokens, only one of these tokens was included in the study. In addition, there were a couple of instances where *fear* or its inflectional forms function as an adjective and therefore is not of interest to this study and is excluded. Here an example of this:

...whatever Roughborough man might be, he was sure to make everyone feel that he was a God-fearing earnest Christian...(Butler 1903 – The Way of All Flesh).

Due to the different sizes of the corpora used in this study, in order to gain comparable information, *normalized frequencies* are used for accuracy. Normalized frequencies are formed by the following formula (Biber et.al. 1998, 265): **frequency per** *n* **words** is the number of tokens divided by the number of words time *n* words. *N* in the formula represents the number used as the basis of norming and can be chosen according to the convenience to the study. Since it has become quite standard in linguistics to norm frequencies per one million words, this tradition is followed in this study.

# 3. Complementation

In this chapter some essential definitions concerned with complementation and specifically with sentential complementation are explained.

# 3.1. Complementation in General

A complement and an adjunct are basic terms of valency theory (Herbst et al. 2004, xiii-xxxiii) a theory, which concentrates on the complementation patterns of English verbs, nouns and adjectives. Lucien Tesnière is considered to be the forerunner to the valency theory with his notions on dependency. Herbst et al.(ibid.) continues by saying that the leading thought in valency theory is the central position of the verb in a sentence since it 'determines how many other elements have to occur in order to form a grammatical sentence' Here an example from Huddleston(1984, 177):

1) Unfortunately, my uncle was using an electric drill at that very moment

According to valency theory the verb, in this case, *using* is the centre of the phrase. Speakers of English will intuitively consider *my uncle*, *was using* and *an electric drill* as the centre or the core of the sentence. *Unfortunately* and *at that very moment* are elements which add further information on the core of the sentence, but are not central themselves.

Tesnière already distinguished the central, core role of the verb and the distinction between the core elements, which he called 'actants' and the non-core elements, which he called 'circumstantials'. Valency theory today does not agree with all of Tesnière's thoughts, but his general ideas are strongly reflected in it. The core elements in the sentence that Tesnière called 'actants' are now called complements and the elements giving further information, that he called

'circonstancials' are now called adjuncts. Somers (1984, 508) defines the difference between complements and adjuncts as follows:

Complements [...] are those elements which may be said to be expected to accompany a given verb or to complete its meaning, while adjuncts are essentially optional elements which can be said to complete the meaning of the central predication as a whole

In valency theory (Herbst et al. 2004, xiii-xxxiii), verbs have different number of valencies ranging from zero to three. Valency of a verb is the number of complements that it takes. An example of a zero valency verb could be meteorological verbs like *snow* and *rain*, whose subject is purely formal and so they do not need any other elements to complete a sentence. A monovalent verb needs one element and most intransitive verbs are monovalent, the verb *fall* for example in the sentence *He fell* needs no other element other than the subject *he*. A divalent verb requires two elements and most transitive verbs are of this nature. For example the verb *kill* needs two elements to form a grammatical sentence; *He killed* is not enough to form a grammatical sentence, we need to have the object of killing, for example *He killed the husband*. Tesniére's own example of trivalent verbs, verbs needing three elements, is the verb *give*; 'you give something to somebody'.

## 3.2. Complement versus Adjunct

A complement and an adjunct have some central differencies which for example, Huddleston (1984, 178-179) has listed.

### Licencing

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 219-220) argue that the matrix verb has a close relationship to its complements whereas adjuncts are much more free in their use. This means that verbs licence certain complements and others they do not. Huddleston and Pullum (ibid.) give the following example:

- 2) She thought him unreliable
- 3) \*She said him unreliable

# Obligatoriness

According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 221-222) complements can sometimes be obligatory, but adjuncts are always optional. This results in there being obligatory complements, optional complements and optional adjuncts. There are two ways we can see the obligatoriness; firstly, eliminating an obligatory element results in ungrammaticality and secondly it may lead to 'an unsystematic change in meaning'.

# Anaphora

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 222-223) point out that the verb and the complement are more closely related than the verb and the adjunct and that this fact can be seen in 'anaphoric expressions' like *do so*. 'Anaphoric expressions' are expressions whose interpretation derives from an antecedent. An example from Huddleston and Pullum(ibid.) clarifies this:

- 4) \*She rode her bicycle and she <u>did so</u> to school.
- 5) She performed all the tasks and she <u>did so</u> remarkably well.

# Category

According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 224-225) noun phrases are quite often complements whereas adverbs and adverbial phrases are generally adjuncts. Prepositional phrases are not that easy to classify since they can easily occur both as complements and adjuncts. In some cases the preposition is specified by the verb and then, of course, we are talking about a complement. Huddleston and Pullum (ibid.) also point out that finite subordinate clauses are normally complements, but that non-finite clauses are more evenly divided between complements and adjuncts.

## Position

As we have already discovered complements are more closely related to the matrix verb than adjuncts and this is reflected in the position of complements and adjuncts in a sentence. The position of adjuncts is normally less restricted than that of complements. According to Huddleston

and Pullum (2002, 225) external complements, subjects are normally situated before the matrix verb and the internal complements generally come after it. Usually complements are situated closer to the matrix verb than adjuncts and adjuncts are more mobile than complements. Of course exceptions to the unmarked order can be found and for example in some cases a complement can be placed at the end of the sentence in order to put more emphasis on it.

Worth noting though is what Huddleston (1984, 180) says about the boundary between the complement and the adjunct not being a sharp one. According to him (ibid.) different grammars give 'different weightings' to the points mentioned here.

Huddleston and Pullum (2002) in their *The Cambridge Grammar of the English*Language in their discussion on the complementation take a slightly different view on complementation than most grammars. In many grammars 'complement' is understood as being a non-subject element, but Huddleston and Pullum include subjects as possible complements.

Huddleston and Pullum justify their view by saying 'that although subjects have special properties, they also have important affinities with the object and other complements'. They also distinguish between 'core and non-core complements'. Normally core-complements are NPs and non-core complements are in the form of PPs. Huddleston and Pullum give the following example:

- 6) Kim gave Pat the key
- 7) Kim gave the key to Pat

In the example sentences the core complements are underlined and we can see a difference between the two sentences, in 6) we have three core complements and in 7) we have only two. A NP functioning as a core complement is always directly linked to the verb, but a NP functioning within a PP is only indirectly related to the verb through the preposition and it is not considered as being a core complement.

Huddleton and Pullum (ibid.) also make the distinction between external and internal complements. As we have seen already, they consider subjects as possible complements but they do

distinguish the subject as syntactically being very much apart from other clause elements due to the fact that when a canonical sentence is divided into constituents, the first division is between the subject and the predicate. The predicate is normally realised by a VP. So, it is clear that subject is not a constituent of VP and therefore it is external to the VP. Following this logic, internal complements are constituents of the VP and therefore subjects can never be internal complements. In the previous example sentences *Kim* is an external complement and the other complements are internal, related to the VP. Huddleston and Pullum's suggestion about subjects as being possible complements has some attraction to it, but for the purposes of this study, the external subject complements are disregarded and the attention is given to the internal complements.

## 3.3. Tests for Distinguishing Complements and Adjuncts

Somers (1987, 4-29) in his book has gathered together a number of tests that can be used in distinguishing complements from adjuncts. The 'elimination test' by Helbig and Schenkel means that an element is eliminated from the sentence and the remaining sentence is observed on the basis of whether it is still grammatical. If the sentence is still grammatical after the elimination, it is clear that the element deleted is not obligatory and if the sentence becomes ungrammatical, then the eliminated element is syntactically obligatory in the sentence. Somers (1987, 12) gives the following examples:

- 8) I visit him in Berlin
- 9) I visit him
- 10) \*I visit in Berlin
- 11) \*I visit

From the examples it can be seen that we can only delete *in Berlin* without a loss of grammaticality. This test can tell only whether an element is an obligatory complement or an optional element, either an optional complement or an adjunct. Also the 'extraction method' by Grebe has to do with

deleting elements from the sentence, but in this test the sentence after deletion is looked at from the semantic point of view; does the deleted sentence still have the same semantic value? Somers (1987,13) uses the following examples:

- 12) The farmer ploughs his field
- 13) The farmer ploughs

The reason for not deleting *his field* is because it forms a 'meaning unit' together with *ploughs* and the deletion of one element would result in a change in the meaning of the whole sentence. Somers (ibid.) introduces Brinker's criticism of this test by stating that the whole notion of 'meaning unit' is 'undefined' and 'entirely intuitive'.

The next test introduced by Somers (1987, 14) is the 'backformation test' by Helbig and Schenkel. This test is based on the idea that a complement is attached to the predicate of the sentence whereas the adjunct is attached to the whole sentence. In the test an element in a sentence is reformulated as a relative clause. Again Somers's example:

- 14) He visited her in Berlin
- 15) He visited her, when he/she stayed in Berlin
- 16) My friend lives in Dresden
- 17) \*My friend lives, when he is in Dresden

The test shows that if an element in a sentence can be backformed without a loss of grammaticality, that element is an adjunct. This test has also been criticised due to the difficulty in choosing the appropriate form of the backformation and the fact that also some complement elements can be backformed.

In Anderson's 'substitution test' (Somers, 1987, 15) one replaces the verb in a sentence with 'another quasi-synonym'. Somers (ibid.) gives the following example:

- 18) I have been waiting for my friend for two hours
- 19) \*I have been expecting for my friend for two hours

# 20) I have been expecting my friend for two hours

This test is based on the notion that the verb in a sentence governs certain cases or prepositions. If a verb can be replaced by a quasi-synonym, we have an adjunct and if it cannot be replaced, it is a complement. With this test one can say that *for+NP* is a complement of the verb *to wait*. This test can also be criticised due to the fact sometimes the quasi-synonym chosen for the substitution of the verb can govern the same preposition and some verbs can have a multiple number of valency patterns.

Next Somers (1987, 16) introduces a feature that can be used in distinguishing complements and adjuncts prepositional phrases and that is the fact that they cannot be conjoined. Somers gives the following examples:

- 21) \*He was waiting for his friend and (for) hours
- 22) \*He looked over the document and my shoulder
- Somers (1987, 17) finishes with his own 'do so' test. His example (ibid.) is the following.
  - 23) Harry went to Reading and Bev went to Reading.

Harry went to Reading and Bev did so too.

According to this test an element that can be replaced by *do so* is a complement and if the replacement is not possible, it would be a case of an adjunct.

Most grammarians agree on the binary complement-adjunct distinction, there may be some disagreement on whether some element should be classified as a complement or an adjunct, but most see that it has to be either of those two. But for example, Somers (1987, 23-28) suggests that this binary distinction does not work and suggests some middle terms but at the same time Somers wishes to state that breaking out of the binary distinction between complement and adjunct does not devalue any previous work done in the field of valency. Somers (ibid.) presents 'six distinct degrees of valency binding':

1) integral complements 2)'obligatory' complements 3) optional complements 4) middles 5)adjuncts and 6) extra-peripherals

Somers (ibid.) calls idioms such *keep pace* and *have a chance* integral complements since they are lexically determined, elements cannot be substituted by any close synonyms and they cannot be omitted and they do not enter any syntagmatic substitution paradigms. Obligatory complements differ from integral ones in that they are not lexically determined, but they are restricted to a general semantic class. Middle elements are elements that behave inconsistently in distinction tests since they have properties of both complements and adjuncts. The extra-peripherals are the outermost elements in the sentence, they modify the whole proposition, even the adjunct. According to Somers the extra-peripherals are often 'logical or discursive modifiers like *usually* or *as you know*'.

Although we would choose to stick to the binary complement-adjunct distinction, Somers's 'six degrees of valency binding' should be kept in mind, especially if any difficulty is faced in determining whether some element is a complement or an adjunct.

## 3.4. Some Definitions Explained

The Great Complement Shift

Vosberg (2009, 212-213), among others, has talked about the Great Complement Shift, a term originally introduced by Rohdenburg (2006), which describes the reorganization of the sentential complementation. Some verbs that had only taken the finite *that*-complement in Old English, began to be used increasingly with the *to*-infinitive in Middle English and since the late Middle English, the emerging *ing*-form started to gain ground from the *to*-infinitive.

Horror Aequi

The *horror aequi* principle, defined by Rohdenburg(2003, 236) states that 'the *horror aequi*' principle involves the widespread(and presumably universal) tendency to avoid the use of formally

(near-) identical and (near-) adjacent (non-coordinate) grammatical elements or structures'. So, according to this principle, in a complex sentence one would expect not to have the matrix verb and the dependent verb both in the infinitive or both of them in the *ing*-form. Vosberg (2003, 322) also mentions that although two adjacent *to*-infinitives are not recommended, 'two successive *-ing* forms are even worse'.

Rohdenburg (1995, 366-378) has listed some factors that are in conflict with the *horror aequi* principle. According to him(ibid.) the 'negation of the subordinate clause' or his 'complexity principle' can cause contradiction to the *horror aequi* principle. 'Complexity principle' is introduced in the following paragraph

# Complexity principle

Rohdenburg's (2006, 147) 'complexity principle' is defined as follows: 'in the case of more or less explicit constructional options the more explicit one(s) will tend to be preferred in cognitively more complex environments'. According to this principle we can assume, that in complex environments, for example with insertions between the verb and its complements, *to*-infinitives would be favoured over *ing*-forms. Vosberg (2003, 217) also says that 'finite clauses are more explicit than non-finite ones', with the zero-marked finite clause being far less explicit than the correspondingly marked one(introduced by the complementizer *that*). So in complex environments *to*-clause and *that*-clause are normally chosen instead of *ing*-clause and also the optional *that* in a *that*-clause is used in order to help processing the sentence.

#### Extraction

Apart from the *horror aequi* principle and the 'complexity principle', when thinking about the distribution of non-finite complements there is also another extra-semantic factor worth looking at i.e extractions. In extraction, something in a sentence is taken from its original position and moved

to a new position, normally an element is fronted; extraction is possible within a clause, or between the main and the subordinate clause and this latter is of interest when thinking about the distribution of *to*-infinitive and *ing*-form. The extraction principle (Vosberg 2003, 308) states that

'in the case of infinitival or gerundial complement options, the infinitive will tend to be favoured in environments where a complement of the subordinate clause is extracted(by topicalization, relativization, comparativization or interrogation etc.) from its original position and crosses clause boundaries.'

According to the extraction principle we should not find extraction in our corpora in tokens with an *ing*-form, but with *to*-infinitives we would expect to find at least some examples.

Important types of extraction in this study are relativization, topicalization, interrogation and clefting. In relativization, there is 'an initial NP followed by a clause introduced by a relative pronoun'. Here is an example from Vosberg (2003, 307)

24) ...the worthy Spencer *whom* I'm sure you remember to have often heard me mention \_\_\_\_\_\_

Interrogation contains a question in word or phrase in initial position and a gap elsewhere in the

25) Who did Sydney expect Mary Lou to invite \_\_\_\_\_?

sentence. Here is an example from Perlmutter and Soames (1979, 251):

In topicalization, there is 'an extra NP in initial position'. Here is an example from Vosberg (ibid.):

26)...her acquaintance with the Belfield's she remembered not ever mentioning

In clefting, the sentence is divided into two parts, both with their own verb. The most common types of clefting are the *it*-cleft and the *wh*-cleft. Here an example of each from Biber et al. (1999, 155)

27) It was a fibre tip refil that I was trying to get

# 28) What I want is a country of real opportunity

# Other Complex Environments

Vosberg (2003, 210-111) explains that in structural discontinuity, there is an insertion of an adjunct between the main verb and the lower clause, which makes the sentence more complex and the complexity principle (discussed in 3.4.3) should apply; we should find the more explicit complements in sentences with insertions. Here an example from the first sub-period of the CLMET:

29) ...I [ fear ] *in this interval*, I must have made some slight efforts towards a closer compression of her hand... (Sterne 1758: *A Sentimental Journey Through France and Italy*)

Biber et al. (1999, 155) consider also passive constructions as complex environments due to the fronting of the object of the sentence and this complexity normally would demand a more explicit complement. Here an example from the BNC:

30) ...His brand of police work soon became **feared** ... (G0L 1113)

# 4. The Verb Fear in the Oxford English Dictionary and Some Other Dictionaries

In this chapter, a more detailed discussion is given on the definition of the verb *fear* and its complementation in the OED and some other dictionaries.

# 4.1. The Meanings of the Verb *Fear* in the OED

Not all of the meanings of *fear* from the OED are taken into consideration in this study; only the meanings that are still in use today and the meanings that have been in use during the past three centuries were taken into account. The following meanings for the verb *fear* in the OED were included in this study:

- 1. .1 trans. 'To inspire with fear; to frighten. Obs. exc. arc. or vulgar. 1801 MACNEILL Poet Wks.(1844) If thy slumber's sweet...no dangers can fear me. 1872 LEVER Ld. Kilgobbin xviii, Devil fear her!
- 2. † 1.b *it fears me*= I am afraid. *Obs.* 1813 HOGG *Queen's Wake* 67 It fearis me muckil ye haif seen Quhat good man never knew.
- 3. To feel fear, to regard with fear *refl*.(Cf.Ib.) To be afraid. † Formerly const. *of* .Now only *arch*. in phrase *I fear me*. 1859 TENNYSON *Lancelot & Elaine* 966 A flash, I fear me, that will strike my blossom dead.
- 4. 4.bwith dependent clause: To feel alarmed or uneasy *lest* (something should happen). 1823 F. CLISSOLD *Asc. Mt. Blanc* 20, I...feared lest I should drop down.
- 5. 4c. **Phrase** (colloq.), *never fear*:='there's no danger of that'. 1888 MRS. PARR *Runaways in Long. Mag.* Apr. 640 I'm not going to blab on myself—never fear.
- 6. 5.trans. To regard with fear, be afraid of (a person or a thing as a source of danger, an anticipated event or state of things as painful or evil). 1885 CLODD Myths & Dr. II 155 What man cannot understand he fears.
- 7. 5.b with *inf*. as object: To hesitate (*to* do something) through fear of the consequences. 1794 MRS. RADCLIFFE *Myst.Udolpho* xiv Dorothee...feared to obey. 1799 tr. *Diderot's Natural Sin* ii 26 You feared disturbing our tranquillity.

- 8. 6. **To regard with reverence and awe: to revere. Now only with** *God* **as obj.; formerly in wider sense.** 1611 BIBLE *Ps. ciii* 13 The Lord pitieth them that feare him. 1827 POLLOCK *Course T.* IV 135 Who ... feared nought but God.
- 9. 7. **To have an uneasy sense of the probability of (some unwelcome occurrence in the future); to apprehend. Opposed to** *hope for.* 1861 m. PATTISON *Ess.* (1889) I. 47 London had ceased to fear a foreign foe.
- 10.7b. with *subordinate clause*. To be afraid *that* (something will be or is the case). In negative sentences the clause may be introduced by *but* or *but that*= that ...not. Also with direct object and *to be* or simple complement; rarely with *inf.* as *obj.* Also parenthetically. 1848 MACAULAY *Hist. Eng. II* 225 He might do so without fearing that the Five Mile Act would be enforced. 1863 FR. A. KEMBLE *Resid. in Georgia* 16 The account...will hardly, I fear, render my letters very interesting.
- 11. 8a. trans **To be apprehensive about, to fear something happening to.** 8b. **in same sense** *intr.* **; const.** *for.* 1695 PRIOR *Ode death Q. Mary* 47 So much she fears for William's life.
- 12. 8c. In the 18<sup>th</sup> c., when the vb. was conjugated negatively, a following negative was often illogically omitted, so that the vb. seems to mean: To apprehend the non-occurrence of (some event) 1771 T: HULL Sir. W. Harrington (1797) IV. 211 If I apply for it, I don't fear it being granted.
- 13. † 9. **To regard with distrust; to doubt.** 1607 TOPSELL *Serpents* (1653) 681 If a bird it tast...It dies assured death, none need it fear. 1730-6 BAILEY (folio) *Fear...*to doubt or question.

Here is a table illustrating the complements in the examples for the verb *fear* in the OED.

Type of	Number of
complement	tokens
that-clause	9
NP	8
no	
complement	4
for+NP	2
ing-form	1
to-inf.	1
wh-clause	1
tot.	26

As we can see *that*-clauses and NPs are the most common complements in the OED. The fact that we get one occurrence of *wh*-clause, *ing*-form and *to*-infinitive does not necessarily tell us very much about the frequency of these constructions, apart from it being probably lower than with NPs

and *that*-clause. It probably tells more about the ambition of the dictionary compilers to demonstrate all the possible constructions with the verb *fear*. But on the basis of the OED one could form the careful assumption that the verb *fear* is quite often complemented by a NP or a *that*-clause.

#### 4.2. The Verb *Fear* in Some Other Dictionaries

Collins Cobuilt English Dictionary lists one additional meaning for the verb fear that is not found in the OED and that is 'if you say that you fear that something is the case, you mean that you are sorry or distressed that it is the case, a formal use when you want to be polite.

The *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* online version gives the verb *fear* two different meanings:

- 1. **to be frightened of something or someone unpleasant** Most older employees *fear* unemployment
- 2. **to be worried or frightened that something bad might happen or might have happened.**Police *fear* (**that**) the couple may have drowned, *Fearing* to go herself, she sent her son to find out the news.

The Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary online version adds to the definition of fear by saying that the meaning of the verb in both cases is 'not continuous' and that the use is formal. In meaning 2, it is stated that fear can take both that-clauses and to-infinitives as complements, ingclauses are not mentioned at all. The Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary online version gives I fear, fear for sb/sth, fear not and never fear definitions of their own;

- 3. I fear 'to give someone news of something bad that has happened or might happen. I fear (that) she's already left.
- 4. fear for sb/sth to be worried about something or to be worried that someone is in danger. Her parents fear for her safety.
- 5. fear not and never fear; do not worry. Never fear, I'll take good care of him.

It is stated for the *I fear* and *fear for sb/sth* that again, it is a question of a formal use and for *fear not* and *never fear* that it is an 'old' or 'humorous' use. The *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* online version does not mention the OED senses 1, 2, 4, 8, 12 or 13. For the OED senses 1 and 2 that is clearly understandable since the OED states that sense 1 is archaic or vulgar and that sense 2 has gone out of use. Sense 8 in the OED states that *fear* with this meaning has been used more extensively in the past, but that nowadays only the use *fear God* is in use, since the *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* online version does not mention it, nor does it mention senses 4, 12 and 13, it is interesting to see whether those uses have vanished from present day English.

In order to get the full picture, also the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* online version was looked into. Just as the *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* online version, the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* online version gave two main definitions to the verb *fear:* 

- 1. **to be frightened of somebody/something or frightened of doing something.** All his employees *fear* him. She *feared* to tell him the truth. She *feared* going out at night.
- 2. **to feel that something bad might have happened or might happen in the future.** She *feared* (that) he might be dead.

Under sense 2 the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary online version has the constructions never fear/fear not and I fear and the phrasal verb fear for as its own entry. The definitions are quite similar to those in the Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary online version, but there are a few differences worth noting; the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary online version does mention fear getting an -ing- form as its complement, which was not the case in the Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary online version. In the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary online version the degree of formality is slightly different form the Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary online version. In the Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary online version all the uses and meanings of fear as a verb were seen either formal, old or humorous, the Oxford Advanced

Learner's Dictionary online version lists as formal only fear + to-infinitive, fear + ing-form and the I fear construction.

# 4.3. A Summary of the Senses of the Verb Fear

Summarising the senses and the complements from the OED, the *Oxford Advanced Learner's*Dictionary online version, the Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary online version and the

Collins Cobuilt English Dictionary, we get the following 11 senses and complements:

Sense of the verb fear	Complements	
1 'to inspire with fear, to frighten'	V + NP	
	it fears me + that	
2 'to be afraid of someone or something that	V + NP	
might happen or has happened to oneself or to	V + that	
someone else'	V + reflexive + NP	
	V + for + NP	
	I fear me + that	
	V + wh-	
3 'to be afraid that something will be or is the case'	V + that	
4 'to hesitate to do something through fear of the	V + to	
consequences'	V + ing	
5 in a phrase <i>never fear</i> or <i>fear not</i> 'there is no	$never fear + \emptyset$	
danger of that, do not worry'	$fear not + \emptyset$	
6 'to regard with reverence and awe'	V + NP	
7 'to regard with distrust, to doubt'	V + that	
8 'to be sorry or distressed about something'	V + that	
9 'to apprehend the non-occurrence of some	V + NP + ing	
event' (when the main verb in negative, the following negative omitted)		
10 'to feel alarmed or uneasy <i>lest</i> , in case,	V + lest	
something should happen'		
11 'to have an uneasy sense of the probability of	V + that	

some unwelcome occurrence in the future'	V + NP

# 5. About the Verb Fear and Its Complementation

In this chapter a summary is given on what some grammarians and other linguists have said about the verb *fear* and its complementation. Special attention is given to research done on the choice between the *to*-infinitive and the *ing*-form.

#### 5.1. About the Verb Fear

Huddleston and Pullum (2002,170) state that *fear* is a stative verb expressing emotion and therefore it normally occurs in the simple with an imperfective meaning *I fear you've made a mistake*. Declerck (1991, 167-168) categorizes *fear* as a verb of cognition, referring to a state, not to an action and due to this characteristic, *fear* with other cognition verbs, resists the use of the progressive form. Huddleston and Pullum (ibid.) point out that the progressive, the –ing form is not impossible, but that it normally adds to the meaning. It can, for example, suggest a limited duration, an element of tentativeness or politeness.

# 5.2. About the Complementation of the Verb Fear

As to the complementation of *fear*, Herbst et al. (2004, 305-306) give the most exhaustive account of the possible complements. According to them, *fear* as a verb can take as its complements either NP, *to*-infinitive, *ing*-form, *that*-clause or *for*+NP. Also *fear* +*so/not* is possible, Declerck (1991, 269-270) points out that the use of *so/not* as 'anaphoric pronoun' is used to substitute a *that*-clause. Among their examples are:

NP He has just as much reason to fear me.

To-inf Old ladies fear to set foot out of doors.

*Ing*-form We may fear being bitten by a dangerous dog.

that-clause Do you fear that this may happen to you?

for+NP He now feared for his life.

so/not Is anything left at all? I fear not

Since they note that in active *fear* needs two 'valency complements', two arguments, 'somebody fears someone or something', one would expect *fear* with no complement to be out of the question, but apparently it is not, since according to Herbst et al.(2004, 305) zero valent is also possible.

The grammars or the dictionaries do not say very much about the frequencies of the complements, but according to Herbst et al. (2004,305-306) *that*-clause is the most frequent of the complements.

Contrary to Herbst et al. (2004) Declerck (1991, 469-470, 504) in her discussion on *fear* states that *fear* does not allow the *ing*-form, instead, as a sentential complement it only allows either a *that*-clause or a *to*-infinitive.

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 1228-1229) also have some hesitation as to whether *fear* can be complemented by both the *to*-infinitive, the infinitival, and the *ing*-form or as they call it, the gerund-participial, (p.1228) they list *fear* among the verbs like *attempt* and *neglect* that do take both the *to*-infinitive and the gerund-participial, but they do add a question mark next to *fear* showing that they consider it questionable.

They also (2002, 1229) list *fear* among verbs like *accept* and *assume*, verbs that in complex constructions only take the to-infinitive, (an example from Huddleston and Pullum) *I* assumed there to be a mistake in the instructions. So, all in all, there seems to be some controversy over the issue of ing-forms with the verb *fear*.

Both Jespersen (1929, VII, 259) and Poutsma (1904, II, 831) discuss the phrase *I fear* me which at first glance would seem to be fear + NP, meaning that somebody is afraid of him/herself, but instead of that, the phrase simple means I fear. Jespersen (ibid.) calls this extra me 'a kind of redundant or emotional object', the use of which according to Poutsma (ibid.) was a common practise in Old English. The OED in its meaning 3 states that today this usage is considered archaic and with the verb fear only the phrase I fear me has survived.

The OED mentions that with a *that-*clause, the verb *fear* can also be used parenthetically. Huddleston and Pullum (2004, 175) illustrate a parenthetical (the parenthetical is

underlined) with the following example: *He is, <u>I think</u>, almost bankrupt*. They also say (2004, 175,1359) that 'parentheticals are relatable to subordinate constructions' and 'can have the form of the main clause' and because of this, *He is, <u>I think</u>, almost bankrupt* can also be expressed in *I think he is almost bankrupt*.

## 5.3. Research Done on *Fear* and the Choice Between the *To*-infinitive and the *Ing*-form

Fanego (1996) in her article investigates the development of gerunds as objects of subject-control verbs, such as *fear*. As her material, she uses corpus material and the earlier research done by Frederick Visser (1963-1973). The corpus material used in her study covers years from 1400 to 1760, so that it should give quite a nice picture of the development of the situation between the *to*-infinitive and the *-ing*-form in the case of the verb *fear* before the period that we are examining. Fanego (1996) points out the general trend of *ing*-forms developing later than the *to*-infinitives, according to her (Fanego 1996, 32) the first *ing*-forms were 'abstract verbal nouns' as in her example *I love learning* which actually represents the construction *fear*+NP. Little by little starting from the Middle English, this originally noun construction, acquires properties characterizing verbs.

What have important grammarians said about the difference in meaning between the *to*-infinitive and the *ing*-form in Present-day English? Quirk et al. (1985, 1193) talk about the 'retrospective verbs', such as *forget* and *remember*. According to them (ibid.) 'the infinitive construction indicates that the action or event takes place after (and as a result of) the mental process denoted by the verb has begun, while the reverse is true for the participle construction, which refers to a preceding event or occasion coming to mind at the time indicated by the main verb'. A good pair of sentences would be e.g *He remembered to call/He remembered calling* (my own examples)

The verb *fear* of course, does not belong to these 'retrospective verbs' as it is an 'emotive verb' like *hate* or *love*, so it is not self-evident that what Quirk et al. say can be applied to *fear*.

Fanego (1996, 31) points out, though, that many grammarians have interpreted the semantic difference between these two constructions in a more general way to mean that the infinitive refers to potentiality and the *ing*-form towards performance. Quirk et al. (1985, 1192) say about the emotive verbs that the *to*-infinitive is used in 'hypothetical and nonfactual contexts' whereas the ing-form is used when something definite has happened or happens. Poutsma (1904, 622,625) has contributed to this discussion by saying that the *to*-infinitive is preferred when a 'particular occasion' is referred to and the *ing*-form describes more of a general habit. Allerton (1988, 21) has contributed to this discussion by compiling a summary of features distinguishing the *to*-infinitive and the *-ing*-form:

INFINITIVE	GERUND
infrequent activity	regular activity
intermittent activity	continuous activity
interrupted activity	continuing activity
uncompleted activity	completed activity
contingent /possible event	event presented factually
particular time and place	neutral time and place
specific subject	non-specific subject
more verbal character	more nominal character

Fanego (1996, 46,56), on the basis of her data, claims that, in general, the frequency of *ing*-forms increases in the course of time, some verbs allowing it more readily than others, of course. She

(1996, 46) refers to Karttunen (1971) when talking about 'negative implicative' verbs (eg. *escape*, *avoid*) that were more apt to take on the *ing*-form and when the construction became established with these verbs, it also spread to 'implicative and non-implicative' verbs. The development of the ing-form with the verb *fear* in Fanego's (1996) data is the following;

1400-1570 no ing-form,

very frequent with the infinitive/2 gerunds

1640-1710 10 infinitives/1 gerund

1710 and beyond 2 infinitives/ 3gerunds

Of course, Fanego's (1996) data is not very extensive, but on the basis of the development in her data we can see a general increase of ing-forms and in the data for 1710 and beyond, we actually see more *ing*-forms than *to*-infinitives Fanego (ibid.) also suggests that the verb *be* might promote the use of the *ing*-form.

Worth noting is also what Allerton (1988, 11) says about the 'infinitivitis'. He defines the 'infinitivitis' as the 'frequent over-use of the infinitive, particularly in contexts in which unaffected speakers would use the gerund' According to Allerton (ibid.) the 'infinitivitis' affects mainly British English speakers in a formal context or in the written medium. This of course is very relevant to this study since both the corpora used in this study are compiled on British English and although the BNC has also spoken parts, they are not used in this study, in order to gain as good a comparability as possible between the two corpora.

# 6. The Verb Fear in the First Sub-Period of the CLMET

In this chapter we will first have a look at the distribution of the complementation of the verb *fear* and then the different senses of the verb found in the data from the first sub-period of the CLMET.

# 6.1. Complementation of the Verb Fear in the First Sub-Period of the CLMET

As mentioned already, in the first sub-period of the CLMET, there were 661 tokens of the verb *fear* and its inflectional forms *fears*, *fearing* and *feared*. Out of these 661 tokens, only 264 were included in this study. Most of the tokens excluded were nouns:

1) ...The [ fear ] of a rescue from the faithful Germans of the imperial Guards, shortened their tortures... (Gibbon 1776: *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire 1*)

Also one token was discarded because the meaning of the verb *fear* and its complement did not become clear from the passage. In this example we would seem to have a very simple, common V + NP, but the meaning of the sentence is difficult to understand; it seems unlikely that someone would be afraid of their own hair or they would frighten their own hair (the other main sense in the OED, discussed in 4.1)

2) ...want the circumstances," interrupted Manfred. "Since his Highess will have it so, proceed; but be brief." "Lord! your Highness thwarts one so!" replied Bianca; "I [ fear ] my hair--I am sure I never in my life --well! as I was telling your Greatness, I was going by his Highness's order to my Lady Isabella's chamber; she lies in the watch... (Walpole 1764: *The Castle of Otranto* )

The distribution of the verb forms and the patterns of the 264 tokens from the first sub-period of the CLMET included in this study is presented in the table below. The complements are arranged in the following manner; first, the NP complements, followed by the finite complement clauses, in the order of frequency, then the non-finite complement clauses in the order of frequency, followed by the *wh*-clauses, prepositional forms and zero complements.

	fear	fears	feared	fearing	total	normalized
					number	frequency
V+ NP	59	7	24	3	93	44.36
V+ that	92	5	26	7	130	62.01
V + lest	2				2	0.95
V + wh-			1	1	2	0.95
V + to	4	1	3	5	13	6.20
V +ing	1		1		2	0.95
V + for+ NP	2	1	2		5	2.39
$V + \emptyset$	17				17	8.11
total	177	14	57	16	264	125.92

## A NP complement

The NP complement is the second most common complement; of all the complements, 35.2 % were NPs. It is a common complement to the verb *fear*, mentioned in the OED and all the other dictionaries and grammars consulted for this study. Next two examples from the data (italics added):

- 3) ...That he had long suffered the greatest anxiety on my account; that he knew not whether he had most [ feared ] *my death* or wished it... (Fielding 1749: *The History of Tom Jones, a Foundling*)
- 4) ...he [fears] neither man nor devils... (Smollett 1771: The Expedition of Humphrey Clinker)

About 45 % of the NP complement sentences included some kind of movement or insertion. The most frequent were passive (28 %), also among the frequent ones, were relativization (23 %) and topicalization (23 %). The gap and the italics are added to indicate the central elements.

5) ...surrounded by great ones, *he* will neither be [ feared ] \_\_\_\_\_ nor courted... ( Chesterfield 1746-71 : *Letters to His Son on the Art* )

- 6) ...the workmen were retained, they could not but imagine that either some mighty attempt was designed, or some formidable enemy dreaded, and as they know not *whom* they had to [ fear ] \_\_\_\_\_ ( Johnson 1740-41: *Parliamentary Debates 1* )
- 7) ...As his *brains* I can't [ fear ], so his fortune I'll use... (Walpole 1735-1748: *Letters 1735-1748*)

There were also some cases of structural discontinuity (9 %), and questions (6 %).

- 8) ...you will make enemies by it forever; and even those who laugh with you then, will, upon reflection, [ fear ] *and consequently hate* you... ( Chesterfield 1746-71 : *Letters to His Son on the Art* )
- 9) ... What is it you [fear] \_\_\_\_? ... (Fielding 1751: Amelie)

Some of the sentences had two different types of movement, illustrated by the following sentence:

10) ...It was observed also, sir, that *some troops*, *which* were once courted and [ feared ] \_\_\_\_ by *all the neighbouring potentates* ( Johnson 1740-41: *Parliamentary Debates* 1 line )

In example 10 we find both passivization and relativization. In all the complex sentences, it is an object of the sentence that is being extracted

#### A *That*-clause Complement

A *that*-clause is clearly the most frequent complement for the verb *fear*; 132 tokens (50 %) out of the total 264 tokens had a *that*-clause as their complement. Here are two examples:

- 11) ..Miss Jenny Peace, [ fearing ] *she would say something less mild than she wished*, gave her a nod... ( Fielding 1749: *The Governess* )
- 12) ...I really think it is more to be [ feared ] *that* the people will be exhausted... ( Burke 1775 : *On Conciliation with America* )

In about 75 % of *that*-clause complements, the *that* complementizer is omitted. About 37 % of the tokens where the *that*-complementizer is not omitted are found in complex sentences, either with extraposition or insertion. Here a few examples:

- 13) ...It is to be [ feared ] *that* a history of the interpretation of the Apocalypse would not give a very favourable view either of the wisdom or the charity of the successive ages of Christianity... (Gibbon 1776: *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*)
- 14) ... I said, that way, and [fearing] moreover that he might set out with something which might make a bad thing worse... (Sterne 1759-67: Life and Opinions of Tristam Shandy)

15) ....I foresaw nothing but continual persecution from my husband and [ feared ] *that* <u>once the</u> <u>keener transports of our reconciliation should be over,</u> his affection would sink under the severity of its trial... (Smollett 1751: *The Adventures of Peregrine Pickle*)

In example 13) we have passivization, in examples 14) and 15), we have insertions. The first example of insertion is a short one word insertion, but the second example of insertion has a complete clause inserted and probably to insure the processing of the sentence, the *that*-clause is divided so that, *that* is located right after the main verb and the rest of the *that*-complement after the long insertion. All these examples would seem to support Vosberg's theory (discussed in 3.4.3) that suggests that the more explicit *that*-clause (marked *that*-clause) is favoured in complex environments

Both Herbst et al. and Declerck mention the use of *so* to substitute a *that*-clause and one token of this is found in the data of the first sub-period. Here is the token:

16) ...that what with the roguelaure, and what with the weather, 'twill be enough to give your honour death, and bring on your honour's torment in your groin. I [ fear ] *so...* (Sterne 1759-1767: *Life and Opinions of Tristam Shandy*)

In the first sub-period of the CLMET, among the *that*-clause complements, there are 21 tokens (16 %) where the verb *fear* is used parenthetically. Here some examples:

- 17) ... We cannot, I [ fear ], falsify the pedigree of this fierce people... (Burke 1775: *On Conciliation with America*)
- 18) ...I put my purse into my pocket -buttoned it- set myself a little more upon my centre, and advanced up gravely to him; there was something, I [ fear ], forbidding in my look... (Sterne 1768: *The Sentimental Journey Through France and Italy*)

In 19 tokens out of 21 (90%), the parenthetical is I fear, and the other type of a parenthetical is he feared (10 %).

In the data from the first sub-period, there is one token that seems to violate Rohdenburg's *horror aequi* principle (discussed in 3.4.2):

19) ...It was [ feared ], after that, that Platinianus would avail himself of the power which he still possess... (Gibbon 1776: *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*)

According to *horror aequi* principle, we would not expect to have two consecutive *that*-forms. Here, of course *that* is seen in different functions, which explains their use.

### A *to*-infinitive complement

Non-finite clause complements are not very common with the verb *fear* in the first sub-period, but clearly the most frequent of the non-finite clause complements in the first sub-period is the *to*-infinitive. 4.9 % of all the cmplements were *to*-infinitives. *To*-infinitives were commonly mentioned as a complement to the verb *fear*, for example in the OED, the three other dictionaries, as well as in Herbst et al. Here are two examples:

- 20) ...but she kept up such a dignity and authority, by her steady behaviour, that the girls greatly [feared] *to incur* her displeasure by disobeying her commands... (Fielding 1749: *The Governess*)
- 21) ...nor shall I [ fear ] *to repeat* without doors what I said here... (Johnson 1740-41: *Parliamentary Debates I* )

To-infinitives in complex structures are found in 30 % of all the tokens with to-infinitive, which is not surprising when thinking about Rohdenburg's complexity principle and what Vosberg has said about it. This was discussed in more detail in 3.4.3, but in short, according to the complexity principle, in complex environments, more explicit constructional options are favoured; the marked that-clause being the most explicit, followed by the zero marked that-clause, the non-finite complements being less explicit and of the non-finite complements, the to-infinitives being more explicit than the least explicit ing-forms.

There are three examples of the *to*-infinitive in complex sentences (30 %), there is one case of passivization and two cases of relativization. Here are the examples mentioned:

- 22) ... That not for fame, but virtue's better end, He stood the furious foe, the timid friend, The damning critic, half approving wit, The coxcomb hit, or [ fearing ] to be hit; Laughed at the loss of friends he never had... ( Pope 1733-34: An Essay on Man )
- 23) ... His son too, whom you [ feared ] to face \_\_\_\_ as a man... ( Goldsmith 1766: The Vicar of Wakefield )

24) ..."But the Being", said Nekayah, "whom I [ fear ] to name \_\_\_\_...(Johnson 1759: Rasselas, Prince of Abyssinia)

The two latter examples illustrate Vosberg's definition of extraction (discussed in 3.4.) of the object from the lower clause to the higher clause.

With to-infinitive we can also see Rohdenburg's horror aequi principle (discussed in 3.4.) in action, we do not have examples with the main verb in to-infinitive when the complement is a to-infinitive. Interestingly, 5 (38 %) out of all the to-infinitives occur with the main verb in the -ing form, which is a high number also because there are only 16 tokens of the verb fear in the -ing-form, so it would seem that the main verb in the -ing form would more easily take the to-infinitive as opposed to other inflectional forms of the verb fear as the main verb. The horror aequi principle with regards to the -ing-form and the to-infinitive only states that two similar, consecutive forms are avoided, but here it would also seem that the ing-form invites the use of the to-infinitive.

At least in 8 examples out of 13, the use of *to*-infinitive can be explained by the syntactic environment; there is either complexity in the sentence or the main verb is in the *ing*-form. As mentioned in 5.2, the *ing*-form is normally seen to refer to either performance, activity that has taken place in the past, a definite action or a general habit. In examples 21), 22), 23) and 24) the meaning of the verb seem to refer to something definite and factual, and therefore we would expect to see rather an *ing*-form than a *to*-infinitive, but the syntactic environment seems to have a stronger influence than the meaning of the verb. The *to*-infinitive in example 22) is also explained by the *horror aequi* principle, as is the case in the 5 other examples with the main verb in the *ing*-form found in the data from the first sub-period of the CLMET. If we look at example 20) more closely, we can observe that the meaning of the verb is something 'general' or 'regular' and so we would expect to have rather an *ing*-form than a *to*-infinitive, but we have an *ing*-form later in the sentence, so that we could say that the use of the *to*-infinitive in example 20) is also explained by the *horror aequi* principle.

Four of the tokens with the *to*-infinitive have clearly the meaning of some 'potential or hypothetical activity' or 'an activity in the future' (discussed in 5.2). Next we have two examples of this:

- 25) ...that with an army so mixed, he should think himself sufficiently enabled to meet any forces of the same number, and *should* not [ fear ] *to acquit* himself successfully either in attacking or defending... (Johnson1740-41: *Parliamentary Debates*)
- 26) ... I shall always speak what I think, and in what manner it shall appear to me most proper, nor *shall* I [ fear ] *to repeat* without doors what I say here... (Johnson 1740-1: *Parliamentary Debates*)

In the preceding examples, the first one, with *should*, clearly refers to something being potential or possible and the second one, with *shall*, on the other hand, refers to something happening in the future.

## An *ing*-form complement

In the data of the first sub-period of the CLMET, only two examples of ing-form (0.76 %), as the complement to the verb fear and its inflectional forms, were found; here they are:

- 27) ...Booth, he might shortly have an opportunity, for that there was to be a very strong petition to the board the next time they sat. Murphy said that he need not [ fear ] *having* his money for that, to his certain knowledge, the captain had several things of great value... (Fielding 1751: *Amelia*)
- 28) ...Princess of Buckingham is dead or dying: she has sent for Mr. Anstis, and settled the ceremonial of her burial. On Saturday she was so ill that she [ feared ] *dying* before all the pomp was come home... (Walpole 1735-48: *Letters 1735-1748*)

The OED, the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* online version and Herbst et al. mention the *ing*-form as a complement to the verb *fear*, but The *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* online version and Declerck do not mention the *-ing*-form complement at all and Huddleston and Pullum are not sure about this complement.

With these *ing*-form complements we find no structural discontinuity and no movement of any sort, which is what one would expect on the basis of Vosberg's extraction principle and what he has said about structural discontinuity.

In example 28) *dying* is not something potential, possible or hypothetical, it is something definite and factual, the sentence starts by 'the princess of Buckingham is dead or dying', here it is not a question of whether she will die in 20 years time, but whether she will die that same day or the following week perhaps.

#### Rarer complements of fear: V + lest, V + wh-clause and V + for + NP

One of the rarer complements was V + lest, only 0.76 % of the examples had a *lest*-clause as their complement, here the two clauses:

- 29) ...she had overheard Mrs. Honour inform him that they were going to Gloucester, she began to [ fear ] *lest* her father might, by this fellow's means, be able to trace her to that city... (Fielding 1749: *The History of Tom Jones, a Foundling*)
- 30) ...At last he began to [fear] *lest* they should be discovered, and proposed to fix a day for their departure... (Johnson 1759: *Rasselas, prince of Abyssinia*)

The OED is the only source to mention the *lest*-clause complement.

V + wh -clause (0.76 %) is just as rare as the *lest*-clause complement, here the two examples:

- 31) ...I [ feared ] *what* a wicked and voluptuous man, resolved to sacrifice everything to the gratification of a sensual appetite with the most delicious repast, might attempt... (Fielding 1751: *Amelia* )
- 32) ...and his wife, [fearing] *what* her husband's nice regard to his honour might have occasioned, contented herself to preserving her virtue... (Fielding 1749: *The History of Tom Jones, a Foundling*)

The OED and Herbst et al. (2004) mention the *wh*-clause as one of the complements to the verb *fear*. None of the complements with either *wh*-clause or the *lest*-clause have structural discontinuity, or any movement creating complex environments.

The last of the rarer complements, for + NP construction is little more common than the other complements introduced here, with 1.89 %. For + NP complement is mentioned in all the sources used in this study There is also one example of structural discontinuity with for + NP, as we can see from the following example:

33) ...your welfare, your character, your knowledge, and your morals, employ my thoughts more than anything that can happen to me, or that I can [ fear ] *or hope* for myself... (Chesterfield 1746-51: *Letters to His Son on the Art*)

## A zero complement

The verb with zero complement is the third most common complement for the verb *fear*, there are 17 examples of it (6.44 %) in the data. Next a few examples of *fear* with zero complement:

- 34) ... and never had anybody those opportunities of knowledge and improvement which you have had, and still have, I hope, I wish, I doubt, and [ fear ] alternately... ( Chesterfield 1746-51: *Letters to His Son on Art* )
- 35) ... An' please your honour, *never* [ *fear* ], replied Trim, chearily... ( Sterne 1759-67: *Life and Opinions of Tristam Shandy* )
- 36) ... *Don't [ fear ]* from Carteret's silence to you; he never writes... (Walpole 1735-1748 : *Letters 1735-1748* line )
- 37) ...sent him an order to meet me, which he answered, not in person, but by dispatching four of his domestics to seize me. I wounded one who first assaulted me, and I [ fear ] desperately, but the rest made me their prisoner... ( Goldsmith 1766: *The Vicar of Wakefield* line )

At first, the idea of the verb *fear* with zero complement seems rather odd, since one would expect there to be an object of fear, something or someone; and semantically one does need someone or something to fear, but syntactically it is possible to form a grammatical sentence with zero complement.

In the data, there were two (12 %) examples of both *never fear* and *fear not*, which are both phrases mentioned by most of the dictionaries and other sources (the OED, The *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* online version, Herbst et al. among others). It will be interesting to see whether there will be examples with *never fear* or *fear not* in the third sub-period and the BNC since these phrases are seen by some of the sources to be either archaic, humorous or formal.

Example 36)...'Don't [ fear ] from Carteret's silence to you.'.. would at the first glance seem to be of construction: V + from + NP + to NP, but a closer look reveals that both from + NP and the to + NP are adjuncts and in the example we have a zero complement followed by two adjuncts.

## 6.2. The senses of the verb *fear* in the First Sub-Period in the CLMET

There were 264 tokens in the first sub-period of the CLMET included in the study and for 255 of them a sense could be determined. The ones excluded were uses of the verb *fear* with no complement and where the sense of the verb could not be determined by the surrounding text. In section 4.3 a summary of the senses of the verb *fear* was made and the numbers here refer to that summary. In the following table there are the different senses, number of tokens of these senses, the complements that are found with each sense in the reference literature and example(s) of the verb *fear* with these complements if they are found in the data.

Sense of the verb fear	Number of tokens found	Complements	Examples from the data
1 'to inspire with fear, to frighten'	not found	V + NP it fears me + that	not found
2 'to be afraid of someone or something that might happen or has happened to oneself or to someone else'	125	V + NP	he had most <i>feared</i> <b>my death</b> (Fielding 1749: <i>Tom Jones</i> )
		V + that	the boatmen began to fear that the tide would fail(Smollett 1771:The Expedition of Humphrey Clinker)
		V + reflexive + NP V + for + NP	not foundsheonly feared for her safety (Fielding 1749: The Governess
		I fear me + that	not found
		V + wh-	his wife, fearing what her husband's nice regard to his honour might have occasioned (Fielding 1749: Tom

			Jones)
3 'to be afraid that something will be or is the	104	V + that	I <i>fear</i> <b>that</b> you are greatly deficient.
case'			(Chesterfield 1746- 51: <i>Letters to His Son</i>
			on the Art)
4 'to hesitate to do	15	V + to	the girls greatly
something through fear of the consequences'			feared to incur her displeasure by
the consequences			disobeying her
			commands. (Fielding
			1749: The Governess)
		V + ing	Murphy said further
			that he need not fear
			having his money
			(Fielding 1751: <i>Amelia</i> )
5 in a phrase <i>never fear</i> or	3	$never fear + \emptyset$	with the sweetest
fear not 'there is no danger		July 20 July 20	accent of most
of that, do not worry'			respectful
			encouragement, bid
			his honour 'never fear'
			(Sterne 1759-67: <i>Life</i> and Opinions of
			Tristam Shandy)
		fear not $+ \emptyset$	Poor, patient, quiet,
			honest people! fear
			not (Sterne 1768: A
			Sentimental Journey through France)
6 'to regard with reverence	1	V + NP	"Twas no inconsistent
and awe'		V 1 1VI	part of my uncle
			Toby's characterthat
			he feared God and
			reverenced religion
			(Sterne 1759-67: <i>Life</i>
			and Opinions of Tristam Shandy)
7 'to regard with distrust,	3	V + that	he had already
to doubt'			received too many
			obligations at her
			hands, and more than
			ever he should be
			able, he <i>feared</i> , to
			repay. (Fielding 1751: <i>Amelia</i> )
8 'to be sorry or distressed	1	V + that	If the blisters which I
about something'			shall now order her,

			should not relieve her, I fear we can do no more (Fielding 1751: Amelia)
9 'to apprehend the non- occurrence of some event' (when the main verb in negative, the following negative omitted)	not found	V + NP + ing	not found
10 'to feel alarmed or uneasy <i>lest</i> , in case, something should happen'	2	V + lest	At last he began to fear lest they should be discovered and proposed to fix a day for their departure (Johnson 1759: Rasselas, Prince of Abyssinia)
11 'to have an uneasy sense of the probability of some unwelcome occurrence in the future'	6	V + that V + NP	a minister should be removed who fears the people (Jphnsom 1740-41: Parliamentary Debates I)

Most of the senses listed in the summary in 4.3 are found in the first sub-period of the CLMET; the ones not found were senses 1 'to inspire with fear, to frighten' and 9 'to apprehend the non-occurrence of some event'. Sense 9 is not found although the OED says that this meaning was in use in the 18th century.

Only a very few instances of senses 5, 6, 7, 8, 10 and 11 are found and sense 6 only in relation with God, the OED does mention that this use has been wider in the past, but that nowadays it is restricted to only to God. There are 15 instances of sense 4, all of the tokens of syntactic pattern V + to-infinitive and V + ing-form.

Clearly the most common senses in the first sub-period of the CLMET are 2 'to be afraid of someone or something that might happen or has happened to oneself or to someone else' and 3 'to be afraid that something will be or is the case', they make up nearly 90 % of all the tokens.

There are some complements connected to these senses mentioned in the reference literature that are not found among the tokens from the first sub-period of the CLMET, i.e V + reflexive + NP and I fear me + that. Both of these complements are mentioned in section 5.2, the OED stated that I fear me + that is considered archaic and Quirk et al. mentioned that the structure V + reflexive + NP is of formal use.

## 7. The Verb Fear in the Third Part of the CLMET

In this chapter we will first have a look at the distribution of the complementation of the verb *fear* and then the different senses of the verb found in the data from the third sub-period of the CLMET.

## 7.1. Complementation of the Verb *Fear* in the Third Sub-Period of the CLMET

In the third sub-period of the CLMET, the total number of tokens with *fear*, *fears*, *feared* and *fearing* was 1125. Only 517 tokens were included in this study, the excluded tokens were, for the most part, nouns, but there were also 2 examples where it was not a case of a verb nor a noun, but an adjective. Here we have examples of both of these cases:

- 1) ...No one said anything, for [ fear ] of rousing Mrs. Halcombe... (Collins 1859-60: *The Woman in White* )
- 2) ...he was a God- [fearing] earnest Christian and a Liberal... (Butler 1903: *The Way of All Flesh*)

The distribution of the verb forms and the patterns of the 517 tokens from the third sub-period of the CLMET included in this study is presented in the table below. The complements are arranged in the following manner; first, the NP complements, followed by the finite complement clauses, in the order of frequency, then the non-finite complement clauses in the order of frequency, prepositional forms and zero complements. New patterns are added to the end after the zero complements.

	fear	fears	feared	fearing	total	normalized
					number	frequency
V + NP	63	6	71	18	158	39.68
V + that	122	1	93	14	230	57.75
V + lest	3	2	9	6	20	5.02
$\mathbf{V} + wh$ -	1		2		3	0.75
V+ to	15	3	28	8	54	13.56
V+ing		1	3		4	1.00
V+for	3		5	2	10	2.51
<b>V</b> + Ø	28		6		34	8.54

<b>V</b> +	1		1		2	0.50
V+NP+that	2				2	0.50
total	237	13	218	48	517	129.83

When comparing the frequencies of the verb *fear* in the first sub-period and in the third sub-period, it is clear that there have been no great changes in the frequency of this verb. In the first sub-period, the frequency of the verb *fear* was 125.95 and in the second sub-period the frequency was only very slightly higher, being 129.83

#### A NP complement

As in the first sub-period, the NP complement is in the third sub-period the second most common complement. The percentage of NP complements of all the complements has gone down slightly; in the first sub-period 35.2 % of complements were NP complements, whereas, in the third sub-period the percentage is 30.6 %.

The use of NP complements in complex sentences has diminished; only 27 % of NP complements in the third sub-period are found in complex sentences, when the corresponding percentage in the first sub-period was 45. Out of the sentences with different kinds of movement and insertions, passives (42 %) and topicalizations (35 %) were the most frequent ones, but also insertions (14 %), relativization (7 %) were found. Next an example of each of these complex environments:

- 3) ...and since then no word has passed as to the state of Constance's heart. In the great peril to be [ feared ] from Mr. Scales, Constance's heart had been put aside...(Bennett 1908: *The Old Wives' Tale* )
- 4) ...The principles she had avowed, directly traceable as it seemed to her friendship with the *militant women* in Chelsea, he disliked and [ feared ] \_\_\_\_\_; but the conduct he fully believed to be above reproach... (Gissing 1893: *The Odd Woman*)
- 5) ...If there was one institution more than another *which*, at this early stage of my history, I loathed and [ feared ] \_\_\_\_ (Gosse 1907: *Father and Son, A Study of Two Temperaments* )
- 6) ...We had been buffeted by fate sorely, but now I [ feared ] *yet* another blow... (Hope1898: *Rupert of Hentzau*)

Clearly the most common NP complement was *nothing*. There were 19 tokens (12 %), either in the form of *fear nothing* or *to have nothing to fear*. Next examples for both of these:

- 7) ...There is *nothing* in this world to [ fear ], nothing to revere, nothing to trust... (Blackmore 1869: *Lorna Doone, A Romance of Exmoor*)
- 8) ...But a constitutional king need [ fear ] *nothing...* (Bagehott 1867: *The English Constitution*)

### A *That*-clause Complement

In the third sub-period of the CLMET, a *that*-clause complement is still clearly the most common complement for the verb *fear*, although it is not as frequent as it was in the data from the first sub-period; in the first sub-period of the CLMET, 50 % of all the complements were *that*-clause complements, in the third sub-period, the percentage was 42.5 %.

The percentage of examples with parentheticals was 11.7, which was slightly lower than in the first sub-period of the CLMET (16%). Here are some examples with parentheticals:

- 9) ...Dear grandfather will not come home, I [ fear ], until long after you are gone... (Blackmore 1869: *Lorna Doone, A Romance of Exmoor*)
- 10) ...every house licensed to send forth the black streams of bitter death were closed, and closed for ever. But this will not be, we [ fear ], for the present at least...(Booth 1890: *In the Darkest England and Way Out*)

I fear is still clearly the most frequent parenthetical, but there is also three examples of he feared, which was also found in the first sub-period. In addition to I fear and he feared there was also two examples of she feared, one we fear and one as I had feared.

### A *to*-infinitive complement

In the third sub-period of the CLMET we can observe a rise in the use of the *to*-infinitive complement; in the first sub-period, less than 5 % of the tokens were *to*-infinitives, whereas in the third sub-period more than 10 % of all the tokens are *to*-infinitive complements. Here is one example:

11) ... No intuitionist, therefore, [ fears ] *to speak* of the conscience of his prehistoric ancestor as imperfect... (Bagehott 1869: *Physics and Politics* )

24 % of sentences with a *to*-infinitive complement have some kind of movement or insertion in them. In the first sub-period there were no examples of insertion with the *to*-infinitive complement, but in the third sub-period, insertions are the most common type of complex environment (31 %). The insertions are quite short, for example: *yet*, *at every step*.

There are three tokens of passivization (23 %) and also three tokens of topicalization (23 %) and relativization can be found in two cases (15 %)

- 12) ...It was almost as if *hands and hearts* [ feared ] *to be asked* for something... (Galsworthy 1904: *The Island Pharisees*)
- 13) ...Papa will be angry, I suppose? 'Better not *tell him*, miss', said Unity. I do [ fear ] *to* \_\_\_\_ ... (Hardy 1873 : *A Pair of Blue Eyes*)
- 14) ... There could be no one in the building now *whom* she need [ fear ] *to meet...* (Gissing 1893: *The Odd Woman*)

In addition to complex sentences, there are also other environments that explain the use of the *to*-infinitive instead of the *ing*-form. This can be seen in the following examples:

- 15) ...when they wanted to keep him quiet; but his father had [feared ] *to speak* of it to him, **being** a man of piety ... (Blackmore 1869: *Lorna Doone, A romance of Exmoor*)
- 16) ...interested in any woman or girl who is known, or [feared ] to be, **living** in immorality, or in danger of coming under the control... (Booth 1890: *In Darkest England and the Way Out*)

In example 14) we have a complex sentence, but in the examples above, we also have the presence of an *ing*-form in the proximity of the main verb and its complement. The use of the *to*-infinitive instead of the *ing*-form would seem to confirm the *horror aequi* principle by Rohdenburg (discussed in 3.4.).

The third sub-period of the CLMET had no violations of the *horror aequi* principle with the *to*-infinitive complementing the verb form *fearing*. Here an example:

17) ...Neither did he dare go back up the way he came, [fearing ] to face Black Barrow Down...(Blackmore 1869: Lorna Doone, A Romance of Exmoor)

In the first sub-period, almost half of the *to*-infinitives were complementing the verb form *fearing*, but in the third sub-period the *to*-infinitive most commonly complements the verb form *feared*. But it is difficult to compare these numbers as such, since, in the third sub-period, there were 218 tokens of *feared* and only 48 tokens of *fearing*. But if we look at the distribution of the different complements within the different inflectional forms of the verb *fear* in the third sub-period, we can see that the *to*-infinitive is the most common with the verbal form *fearing* (16.67 %), and second most common with the verbal form *feared* (12.84 %). The connection between the verbal form *fearing* and the *to*-infinitive still seems to be strong, although it does not seem as strong as it was in the first sub-period.

There are also other semantic factors favouring the use of the *to*-infinitive. As in the first sub-period of the CLMET, in the third sub-period of the CLMET, there are *to*-infinitives that refer to potential and possible activity (discussed in 5.2). Here some examples of them:

- 18) ...He lacked his father's ability in business, and so had an ever higher regard for money; unless he *could* inherit plenty, he [feared ] *to leave* his children poor... (Forster 1910: *Howards End*)
- 19) ...And you will not [fear ] to tell your aunt... (Yonge 1865: The Clever Woman of the Family)
- 20) ...It would be wiser if you were to, I think. You have played the part of mentor to me many times and I don't see why you *should* [ fear ] *to do* it now...(Hardy 1874: *Far from the Madding Crowd*)

In the examples above, we have *could* and *should* referring to something being potential or possible and *will* referring to something happening in the future. In addition to these examples, there were *would* (twice), *perhaps* and *it seemed as though* referring to potential or possible activity.

Among the tokens, we find one that seems to violate Rohdenburg's *horror aequi* principle (discussed in 3.4.). Here is that token:

21) ... Chewing his gum, he seemed to [ fear ] *to take* the liberty of sitting down... (Galsworthy 1904: *The Island Pharisees* )

According to the *horror aequi* principle, we would not expect to have both the main verb and its complement in *to*-infinitive, as it is the case here. Instead of "<u>to [fear]to take</u>" we would expect either *to fear taking* or *fearing to take*.

If we look at the sentence in example 21) more closely, we can see that there are already two *ing*-forms in the sentence: *chewing* and *sitting*. Saying *to fear taking* would raise the number of *ing*-forms to three as opposed to only one *to*-infinitive. So actually, it might be said, just as easily, that this example does not violate the *horror aequi* principle, but actually confirms it.

Also the fact that *to*-infinitive is seen as being more explicit than the *ing*-form, it is understandable that in a sentence where there are as many verbal forms as in example 19), the more explicit, the *to*-infinitive is chosen.

### An *ing*-form complement

In the third sub-period of the CLMET, the verb *fear* has four tokens with the *ing*-form complement. Here are the tokens with the *ing*-complement:

- 22) ...his renewed timidity on his part was so different from the impudence with which he had walked into the sea, that I felt vaguely comforted. I fancied, perhaps, that he [ feared ] confronting Arthur more than I knew... (Chesterton 1914: The Wisdom of Father Brown)
- 23) ...it is doubtful, however, whether Bishara would have retreated, if he had not [ feared ] being cut off... (Churchill 1899: *The River War, An Account of the Reconquest of the Sudan*)
- 24) ... I left word for the other fellows to join us at the hostel by the gate, and tarried for them till I [ feared ] *being* here after the gates were fast; then set out without them... (Yonge 1870: *The Caged Lion*)
- 25) ...because Government, which is that horrid Admiralty, [fears] *pitching* and *tossing* for post-captains' wives... (Meredith 1870: *The Adventures of Harry Richmond*)

In example 23) there first seems to two examples of *fear* + *ing*-form complements; firstly, *fear pitching* and secondly *fear tossing*, but 'to pitch and toss' is a fixed expression than cannot be divided into two separate parts.

As a whole, the use of the *-ing*-form complement has not changed when compared with the first sub-period; the *ing*-form complement is still very rare, less than 1 % of all the complements. The *ing*-form is not seen in any complex environments, which confirms the *horror aequi* principle and extraction principle, but contrarily, it does not follow with the tendency of the Great Complement Shift (discussed in 3.4.1).

If we look at the four tokens with the *ing*-form as their complement, it is interesting to see that in two of the four tokens (examples 23) and 24)), it is the verb *be* in the *ing*-form. This would confirm what Fanego said about the verb *be* promoting the use of the *ing*-form (mentioned in 5.3).

The meaning of the *ing*-form in example 25) would clearly seem to refer to something general, it is the captain's wives, in general, that are being referred to, not a singular or specific incident, this seems to confirm what has been said about the general difference in meaning between the *to*-infinitive and the *ing*-form. Example 22), on the other hand, would seem to speak against this general difference between the two different forms. In this example, a possible activity is described, *perhaps...he feared*, meaning that is normally expressed with the *to*-infinitive.

### Rarer finite complement clauses: V + lest and V + wh-clauses

The frequency of the V + wh-clause in the third sub-period of the CLMET is only 0.58 %, which is only slightly less than in the first sub-period (0.76 %). The frequency of the V + lest clause has gone up from 0.76 %, in the first sub-period, to 4.89 %, in the third sub-period. Half of the tokens with lest-clause are from only three authors, but there are altogether 10 authors using the expression, so the rise in the use of the lest-clause is not only explained by these three authors, who use lest-clause more extensively. Here examples of both the V + wh-clause and the lest-clause:

26) ...I [ feared ] in my heart what was coming on, and felt truly sorry for poor mother... (Blackmore 1869: Lorna Doone, A Romance of Exmoor)

- 27) ...He [ feared ] <u>much, too, lest Master Tom should fall back into the hands of Charity and women (Hughes 1857: *Tom Brown's School Days*)</u>
- 28) ...I often [ fear ] *lest*, <u>if such-and-such a trial were to befall me</u>, I should miserably fail... (Rutherford 1896 : *Clara Hopgood*)

In the first sub-period, neither V + wh- nor V + lest were found in complex environments, but in the third sub-period, both of them are found with insertions. The insertions that they have are quite long, descending the stairs hastily, beyond all things else, very greatly and the ones from examples 26) and 27) in my heart, and much, too. In example 28) a complete clause is inserted, but the lest-clause is divided; lest is situated right after the main verb, and is followed by the inserted element before the rest of the lest-clause.

### A NP + ing-complement, for + NP complement and I fear me + that-clause

The third sub-period of the CLMET has two examples of V + NP + ing-form, a complement that was not found in the first sub-period:

- 29) ..."No, if you were my son, I would not interfere" he added gravely. "I only [ feared ] <u>your</u> not *knowing* what you were about... ( Yonge 1865: *The Clever Woman of the Family* )
- 30) ... "Dear Ermine," he said, gently, "you need not [ fear ] <u>my</u> not *trusting* him to the utmost... (Yonge 1865: *The Clever Woman of the Family* )

Normally the verb *fear* is a subject-control verb; the subject of the main clause is also the understood subject of the lower clause. But here we have a construction where the subject of the main clause is different from the subject of the lower clause, and it is expressed in genitive ...**your** not *knowing*... and ....**my** not *trusting*...Grammarians do find this use of genitive acceptable, but Quirk et al.(1985, 1194) state that the genitive is a form used in formal English and that in everyday English the preferred form is the accusative. Worth noting here is the fact that both of these examples are by the same author, it seems that the use of this construction is not really widespread among authors in the third sub-period.

In the third sub-period of the CLMET, we find 10 tokens of the for+ NP complement. The frequency of the for+ NP complement (1.93 %) has not changed compared with the frequency in the first sub-period (1,89 %)

31) ... I had grown so accustomed to the worldly view of my position that I was [ fearing ] *for* its stability ... ( Meredith 1870: *The Adventures of Harry Richmond* )

In the third sub-period of the CMLET, there are two tokens with I fear me + that-clause, which did not appear in the first sub-period. Here are the two examples:

- 32) ...But what are you longing to ask, Malcolm? Is it for your kinsman Patrick? I [ fear ] me *that* there is little chance of your hearing by name of him... (Yonge 1870: *The Caged Lion*)
- 33) ...he sank back, breathless and unresisting, like one who had by no means regained perfect health, while his handsome features looked worn and pale. "I [ fear ] me", said James, as the two cousins silently shook hands, "that you have moved over soon... (Yonge 1870: The Caged Lion line)

Of the sources consulted for this study, the OED, Jespersen and Poutsma (discussed in 4.1) mention the phrase I fear me, according to them I fear me is an archaic phrase meaning 'to feel fear', 'to regard with fear' or 'to be afraid'. Worth noting here is the fact that both examples of I fear me + that-clause are from one and only author.

#### A zero complement

With the verb *fear*, the frequency of the zero complement has not changed from the first sub-period to the third; about 6.5 % of all the complements in both sub-periods have a zero complement. In the first sub-period, the zero complement was the third most common complement, but in the third sub-period, the zero complement is the fourth most common complement.

In the first sub-period there were two cases with the phrase *never fear* (11.75 %), but in the third sub-period the number of the phrase *never fear* is clearly higher, 26 % of all the zero complements are *never fear* phrases. Here a few examples from different authors:

34) ...be gracious to him, and the king will take his copy of the letter from him! Oh, Richenheim shall have an audience of King Rudolf, in the castle of Zenda, *never* [fear ]...(Hope 1898: *Rupert of Hentzau* )

35) ... "Sit still", he repeated. "*Never* [ fear ], I'll get you home... (Galsworthy1906: *The Man of Property*)

### 7.2. The Senses of the Verb *Fear* in the Third-Sub-Period in the CLMET

There were 517 tokens in the third sub-period of the CLMET included in the study and for 499 of them a sense could be determined. The ones excluded were some uses of the verb *fear* with no complement where the sense of the verb could not be determined from the surrounding text. In section 4.3 a summary of the senses of the verb *fear* was made and the numbers here refer to that summary. In the following table there are the different senses, number of tokens of these senses, the complements that are found with each sense in the reference literature and example(s) of the verb *fear* with these complements if they are found in the data.

Sense of the verb fear	Number of tokens found	Complements	Example(s) from the data
1 'to inspire with fear, to frighten'	not found	V + NP it fears me + that	not found
2 'to be afraid of someone or something that might happen or has happened to oneself or to someone else'	254	V + NP	there is nothing that the Black Snake fears except me. (Kipling 1894: The Jungle Book)
		V + that	Edward IV had always feared this youth might rise against him(Yonge 1874: Young Folk's History of England)
		V + reflexive + NP	I only feared your not knowing what you were about. (Yonge 1865: The Clever Woman of the Family)
		V + for + NP	I was <i>fearing</i> <b>for</b> its stability. (Meredith 1870: <i>The</i>

		I fear me + that $V + wh$	Adventures of Harry Richmond) I fear me, she will never forgive you. (Yonge 1870: The Caged Lion)  I feared in my heart what was coming on(Blackmore 1869: Lorna Doone)
3 'to be afraid that something will be or is the case'	123	V + that	she <i>feared</i> he was flattering her(Butler 1903: <i>The Way of All Flesh</i> )
4 'to hesitate to do something through fear of the consequences'	58	V + to	No intuitionist, therefore, fears to speak of the conscience of his pre-historic ancestor as imperfect. (Bagehott 1869: Physics and Politics)
		V + ing	he feared confronting Arthur more than I knew. (Chesterton 1914: The Wisdom of Father Brown)
5 in a phrase <i>never fear</i> or <i>fear not</i> 'there is no danger of that, do not worry'	15	$never fear + \emptyset$	"Never fear, I'll get you home!" (Galsworthy 1906: The Man of Property)
		fear not $+ \emptyset$	"Fear not, my son," he answered, "vengeance shall be taken on them (Haggard 1887: She)
6 'to regard with reverence and awe'	4	V + NP	But Abdullah feared neither <b>God</b> nor man. (Churchill 1899: The River War)

7 'to regard with distrust, to doubt'	not found	V + that	not found
8 'to be sorry or distressed about something'	18	V + that	"Then I fear I can be of no use" said the hostess (Gissing 1893: The Odd Woman)
9 'to apprehend the non- occurrence of some event' (when the main verb in negative, the following negative omitted)	not found	V + NP + ing	not found
10 'to feel alarmed or uneasy <i>lest</i> , in case, something should happen'	20	V + lest	Wad Bishara fears lest they may attack the faithful who hold Firket. (Churchill 1899: The River War)
11 'to have an uneasy sense of the probability of some unwelcome occurrence in the future'	7	V + that	"It would be a perfect paradise for a bank clerk." Exactly!" said Sir Harry excitedly. "That is exactly what I fear(Forster 1908: A Room with a View)
		V + NP	who seemed to fear a conflict between her sister and Jasper (Gissing 1891: New Grub Street)

Most of the senses listed in the summary in 4.3 are found in the third sub-period of the CLMET; the ones not found are senses 1 'to inspire with fear, to frighten', 7 'to regard with distrust, to doubt' and 9 'to apprehend the non-occurrence of some event', senses 1 and 9 were absent already in the first sub-period of the CLMET and there were only three tokens found with the sense 7 in the first sub-period of the CLMET.

The number of tokens with the sense 8 'to be sorry or distressed about something' that was found only three times in the first sub-period of the CLMET, goes up quite considerably. Sense 10 has also become more common when compared with the first sub-period of the CLMET.

Sense 6 is found four times and only in relation with God, as in the first sub-period of the CLMET. The most common senses in the third sub-period of the CLMET are the same as in the first sub-period of the CLMET; 2 'to be afraid of someone or something that might happen or has happened to oneself or to someone else' and 3 'to be afraid that something will be or is the case'. Sense 2 covers around half of all the tokens, as it did in the first sub-period of the CLMET, but sense 3 has gone down from around 40 % to only 25 %. In addition to senses 8 and 10 already mentioned, sense 4 has also become noticeably more common, its percentage has doubled from nearly six percentage in the first sub-period to around 12 in the third sub-period of the CLMET.

There were two complements with sense 2 i.e V + reflexive + NP and I fear me + that that were not found in the data from the first sub-period of the CLMET, but surprisingly both of them were found in the data from the third sub-period of the CLMET.

### 8. The Verb Fear in the BNC

In this chapter we will first have a look at the distribution of the complementation of the verb *fear* and then the different senses of the verb found in the data from the BNC.

## 8.1. Complementation of the Verb Fear in the BNC

In the BNC genre *Imaginative Prose*, publication dates between the years 1985 and 1993, there were 980 tokens of the verb *fear* and its inflectional forms. This data was thinned for the purposes of this study and a random sample of 650 tokens was taken. Although the tokens in the BNC are tagged, there were quite a large number of tokens that were nouns. 107 tokens were excluded due to the fact that they were either nouns (101) or that the meaning of *fear* remained unclear (6). Here are two examples:

- 1) Couples stay together for any number of reasons other than happiness: questions of money, children, accomodation or idleness, depression, habit, **fears** above all, fear of what the neighbours will say... (HGJ 1480)
- 2) Oliver asked with what Rain <u>feared</u> sounded like suspicion. (GV2 1448)

After excluding 107 tokens, there were 543 tokens that were included in this study. The distribution of the verb forms and the patterns of the 543 tokens from the BNC included in this study is presented in the table below. The complements are arranged in the following manner; first, the NP complements, followed by the finite complement clauses, in the order of frequency, then the non-finite complement clauses in the order of frequency, followed by the prepositional forms and zero complements.

	fear	fears	feared	fearing	total	normalized
					number	frequency
V + NP	86	9	89	18	202	21.61
V + that	108	5	118	25	256	27.39
$\mathbf{V} + wh$ -	2		3	1	6	0.64

$\mathbf{V} + to$	2		10	3	15	1.60
V + -ing	1		3	1	5	0.53
V +NP +ing	1		1		2	0.21
V + for + NP	14	2	12	3	31	3.32
$\mathbf{V} + \emptyset$	22	1	2	1	26	2.78
Total	236	17	238	52	543	58.09

The frequency of the verb fear in the data from the first sub-period of the CLMET was 125.95 and it was very slightly higher in the data from the third sub-period of the CLMET, and in the data from the BNC the frequency was 58.09, so we notice a dramatic decrease in the frequency of the verb fear as we come to the present-day English.

### A NP complement

A NP complement is in the data from the BNC the second most common complement for the verb fear, as it was also in the first and the third sub-period of the CLMET. In the third sub-period of the CLMET the percentage of the NP complement (30.6 %) had slightly come down from the frequency in the first sub-period (35.2), but in the BNC the NP complement (37.1 %) has become as frequent as it was in the first sub-period.

The decline of the use of the NP complement in complex sentences that was observed in the third sub-period of the CLMET, seems to continue in the data from the BNC. Only 12.2 % of the NP complements are found in complex environments. Here some examples of the NP complement in the BNC that occur in complex sentences:

- 3) In the grip of winter's ice, *the same hill* was **feared** \_\_\_\_\_by riders, drivers and those on foot. (ASE 8)
- 4) Reminding himself that there was *nothing* to **fear** he set off... ACV 2708)
- 5) ...he had been afraid to tell her, <u>fearing</u> *exactly* the reaction he had now received (CEY 1712)
- 6) Todd likes it in the clubroom, but there is a man here *whom* he hates and <u>fears</u>...(FYV 274)
- 7) It was *the nights* I **feared** \_\_\_\_\_. (BIX 709)

8) What more have I to **fear** \_\_\_\_\_? (HGV 5810)

In addition to topicalization (35 %), the NP complement was found also in sentences with passivization (30 %), relativization (15 %), interrogatives (5 %) clefting (5 %) and insertion (10 %). As in the data from the CLMET, *nothing* was the most common NP complement in the BNC. 14.9 % of the NP complements are either *fear nothing* or *to have nothing to fear*.

#### A *that*-clause complement

In the data from the BNC, there were 256 that-clause complements. As in the data from the CLMET, the *that*-clause is the most common complement for the verb *fear* in the BNC. In the third sub-period of the CLMET, *that*-clause complement (42.5 %) was less frequent than in the first sub-period (50 %), but in the data from the BNC the frequency of the *that*-clause complement (47.2 %) is closer to the frequency of the first sub-period.

The percentage of *that*-clause complements with zero complementizer (74.2 %) has not changed very much. What has changed is the percentage of the marked *that*-clause complement in complex sentences; in the first sub-period of the CLMET nearly 37 % of marked *that*-clause complements were in complex sentences, but in the data from the BNC the equivalent percentage is only around 18 %. Complex environments found in the BNC are insertions. Here an example of an insertion:

9) It is <u>feared</u> in some quarters that the television destroys family life, but with us it's the Opposite way around (ACK 2320)

The percentage of parentheticals in the data from the BNC is 13.3 %, slightly lower than in the first sub-period of the CLMET (16 %), but higher than in the data from the third sub-period of the CLMET (11.7 %). There is a difference in the BNC in the use of the parentheticals; in the first sub-period of the CLMET the only forms used were *I fear* and *he feared*, but in the BNC there are many other, although *I fear* and *he feared* are the most common. Here some examples of the parentheticals in the BNC:

- 10) ... where their partner, they fear, is having too good of a time (HGJ 1114)
- 11) The hands were not, as Fenella had **feared**, frightening. (G1L 2497)

Other parentheticals found in the data from the BNC were as he had feared, she feared, one fears, she now feared, the Duke feared, or so she feared deep inside.

#### Rarer finite complement clause V + wh-clause

In the data from the BNC, the *wh*-clause complement is as rare as it was in the first and the third sub-period of the CLMET, only about 1 % of the complements for the verb *fear* are *wh*-clauses. Here two examples from the BNC:

- 12) But you do not, and so you only **fear** what you suspect my nature may be. (G17 170)
- 13) She most <u>feared</u> what people thought of her, and imagined that they talked constantly about her behind her back. (GW8 699)

## A to-infinitive complement

The change in the frequency of the *to*-infinitive in the data from the first sub-period to the third sub-period of the CLMET illustrated the change in the complementation in general called the Great Complement Shift (discussed in 3.4.1), the percentage of *to*-infinitives went up from 4.2 % in the first sub-period to 10.4 % in the third sub-period. If the tendency of the Great Complement Shift continues in the data form the BNC, we would expect a decrease in the number of *to*-infinitives. In the data from the BNC, this decrease is observed, a surprisingly large decrease, since only 2.76 % of the complements with the verb *fear* are *to*-infinitives. Here is one example:

14) he had a feeling that she was deliberately avoiding him -that she **feared** to be alone with him. (B1X 709)

26.66 % of the *to*-complements are in complex sentences, there is clefting, topicalization, relativization and interrogation:

15) ... I felt a huge emptiness in which I **feared** to be dissolved...(FAT 2051)

- 16) What her reception would be she **feared** to imagine \_\_\_\_... (HHB 124)
- 17) Deem's eyes were soft, and did not rest long in one place, as if they sought *something* they **feared** *to find* \_\_\_\_\_ /HA0 3453)
- 18) What does he **fear** to disturb? (G10 1733)

In addition to the four tokens with complexity factors, there are three tokens where the *horror aequi* principle explains the choice of the *to*-infinitive over the *ing*-form. Here is one example:

19) I have always held back, from being too ardent, **fearing** to frighten you (HGE 2825)

Example 14) would also seem to have the *horror aequi* principle, there is an *ing*-form *avoiding* quite close to the *to*-infinitive. In all, eight tokens out of 15 have a syntactic environment that favours the *to*-infinitive. In the rest of the *to*-infinitive tokens the meaning of the token is quite often different than what one would expect; there are tokens that express activity that is 'factual' and in many cases 'regular', normally thought as preferring an *ing*-form. Here are two examples of this:

- 20) The Pack had soon learned that Jill <u>never</u> <u>feared</u> to speak her mind...( B0B 1513)
- 21) He <u>always</u> **feared** to inherit the Khanate (FSE 2340)

# An ing-form complement

The frequency of the *ing*-form complement in the data from the BNC (1.1 %) is about the same as it was in the data form the first and the third sub-period. According to the Great Complement Shift we would have expected to find more *ing*-forms, especially since there was a drop in the frequency of the *to*-infinitive, but it seems that non-finite clause complements in general has become less frequent. Here are the five tokens with the *ing*-form:

22) ...He had hardly <u>feared</u> *being* presented with the usual artistic creation swimming in a pool of sauce...(C8T 1283)

- 23) ...Jaq <u>feared</u> *being* marked as a heretic; but that was not the reason why he was being specially scrutinized... (CM4 2530)
- 24) ...one part of her welcoming a kiss from Dr Neil, whom she loved, a kiss which she knew would be passionate, the other part hating and <u>fearing</u> being held or touched by any man... (HGE 2119)
- 25) ...It was not because she **feared** drawing his attention to her presence...(HGK 3576)
- 26) ...It is not death, I <u>fear</u>, but *dying*, and the hallucinations I will have in its wake... (HGL 105)

In three tokens out of five, the verb in the *ing*-form is *be*. A tendency that was seen already in the third sub-period of the CLMET seems to continue.

In example 24) we have a violation of the *horror aequi* principle; there is the main verb and also the complement, both in the *ing*-form, which according to Vosberg,(2003) is the most difficult type of the combination of the main verb and the complement to process (discussed in 3.4.) and therefore not recommended. In addition to this, in example 24), there is also a third *ing*-form *hating*, which makes the processing of the sentence even harder. Is the verb *be* so inclined to take the *ing*-form that it does so, even in complex environments?

For the first time in the data for this study, we have an insertion with the *ing*-form complement; a one word insertion in example 26). Example 14) is the only example in the whole data where the verb *be* is in the *to*-infinitive.

### A NP + ing-complement

As in the data from the third sub-period of the CLMET, also in the data from the BNC, there are two tokens with the NP + ing-form complement. Here are the two tokens:

- 27) Caught in an eddy of storm, she had <u>feared herself falling</u>; and then between her and the ground below there had been a stillness. (A6J 1136)
- 28) ...'there's no need for you to <u>fear him coming</u> to the cottage... (CKF 2273)

In example 25) we have the subject of the lower clause, different from the subject of the main clause, expressed in accusative ...**him** *coming*, accusative being the preferred form in everyday English(discussed in 6).

Normally the verb *fear* is a subject-control verb; the subject of the main clause is also the understood subject of the lower clause. But in example 27) we have the same subject in the lower and the main clause, but also the subject of the lower clause is expressed ....*she* had feared *herself* falling.

# A for + NP complement

In the first and the third sub-period of the CLMET, the for +NP complement was quite a rare complement (approximately 2 %). In the BNC we can observe an increase in the frequency of this complement, in the data from the BNC, there are 31 tokens (5.70 %) of for + NP complement. Here are two of them:

- 29) I <u>fear</u> greatly *for* their safety -God grant they will retain their lives if not their liberty! (CCD 1243)
- 30) It was this detail of organization that made Trent <u>fear</u> for the Belpan Republic. (AMU 956)

In the data from the CLMET, for + NP complement was never found in complex sentences. In the BNC, there were five tokens with one word insertion, three tokens with greatly and also only and terribly.

### A zero complement

A zero complement is the fourth most common complement in the data from the BNC, just as it was in the data from the third sub-period of the CLMET. The percentage of the zero complement in the BNC (4.78 %) is slightly lower than in the data from the CLMET. The phrases *never fear* (26.92 %) and *fear not* (15.38 %) are common among the zero complements. The *Cambridge Advanced*Learner's Dictionary online version claimed the use of these phrases being 'old or humorous'

(discussed in 4.2). From the tokens in the data it is difficult to whether the use is humorous or old, but in the following examples this would seem to be the case:

- 31) Never **fear**, I'll bolt and bar and lock to secure thee. (FU4 617)
- 32) Never <u>fear</u>, sir, never fear, Durkin <u>laughed</u>. (B1X 758)

### 8.2. The Senses of the Verb Fear in the BNC

543 tokens from the BNC were included in this study and for 529 of them a sense could be determined. In section 4.3 a summary of the senses of the verb *fear* was made and the numbers here refer to that summary. In the following table there are the different senses, number of tokens of these senses, the complements that are found with each sense in the reference literature and example(s) of the verb *fear* with these complements if they are found in the data.

Sense of the verb fear	Number of tokens found	Complements	Example(s) from the data
1 'to inspire with fear, to frighten'	not found	V + NP it fears me + that	not found
2 'to be afraid of someone or something that might happen or has happened to oneself or to someone else'	315	V + NP	Sharpe suddenly feared the loss of Lucille (CMP 2359)
		V + that	It is <i>feared</i> in some quarters <b>that</b> television destroys family life (ACK 2320)
		V + reflexive + NP	
		V + for + NP	he <i>feared</i> terribly <b>for</b> his son's life GOS 696)
		I fear me + that	not found
		V + wh-	But now she <i>feared</i> what he might do.(G01 2397)

3 'to be afraid that something will be or is the case'	139	V + that	"I fear it was Artai's doing, " he said. (G17 2797)
4 'to hesitate to do something through fear of the consequences'	19	V + to $V + ing$	she feared to go out in the streets at all (H0R 2296) Jaq feared being marked as a heretic (CM4 2530)
5 in a phrase <i>never fear</i> or <i>fear not</i> 'there is no danger of that, do not worry'	15	$never fear + \emptyset$ $fear not + \emptyset$	Never fear, my friend, I am in this as anxiously and earnestly as you. (FP1 34)
6 'to regard with reverence and awe'	2	V + NP	All of us who fear God and seek salvation trough His Son (FP1 104)
7 'to regard with distrust, to doubt'	not found	V + that	not found
8 'to be sorry or distressed about something'	14	V + that	I fear that I may have wasted your valuable time. (ANL 1377)
9 'to apprehend the non- occurrence of some event' (when the main verb in negative, the following negative omitted)	not found	V + NP + ing	not found
10 'to feel alarmed or uneasy <i>lest</i> , in case, something should happen'	not found	V + lest	not found
11 'to have an uneasy sense of the probability of some unwelcome occurrence in the future'	25	V + that	he feared they must take Fernando to Rome(ADS 1395)
		V + NP	not found

Most of the senses listed in the summary in 4.3 are found in the BNC; the ones not found are senses 1 'to inspire with fear, to frighten', 7. 'to regard with distrust, to doubt', 9 'to apprehend the non-

occurrence of some event' (when the main verb in negative, the following negative omitted) and 10 'to feel alarmed or uneasy *lest*, in case, something should happen'. It is interesting that no tokens with the sense 10 are found after the considerable increase of this sense from the first sub-period of the CLMET to the third sub-period of the CLMET.

Sense 6 is found only two times and only in relation with God, as in the first and the third sub-period of the CLMET. The most common senses of the verb *fear* in the BNC are the same as in the data from the CLMET; 2 'to be afraid of someone or something that might happen or has happened to oneself or to someone else' and 3 'to be afraid that something will be or is the case'. Sense 2 has gained even more ground, now making up for nearly 60 % of all the tokens, the percentage for sense 3 is around the same as it was in the third sub-period of the CLMET. In addition to the disappearance of sense 10, senses 4 and 8, which became more common in the third sub-period of the CLMET, lose their ground and sense 4 becomes even less frequent than what it was in the first sub-period of the CLMET.

The Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary online version claimed that in present day English all the uses and meanings of fear as a verb are either formal, old or humorous. For the most part, the use of the verb fear in the data from the BNC is formal, but the following examples would suggest that fear is still used in every day language:

- 33) ...I <u>feared</u> the little bastards would destroy the place but Benjamin was always good with children... (HH5 227)
- 34) ...On page four, as he had **feared**, was a bad picture of Tristram under the headline 'Singing star on US Drugs Charge (AB9 256)
- 35) An dey **fear** both of dem...(F9M 778)

## 9. Conclusion

According to the data of this study, the verb *fear* has become less frequent in present-day English than what it was in the 18th and the 19th century. The use of the verb *fear* has, also, changed through time, but in some respect, certain changes that one would have expected to see, were not observed.

The verb *fear* has at least seven complements in all the corpora examined i.e NP, *that*-clause, *wh*-clause, *to*-infinitive, *ing*-form, for + NP and the zero complement. The third sub-period of the CLMET has the largest number of different complements; in addition to the seven mentioned already, we find V + NP + ing, **I fear me** + *that* and V + lest.

The NP +*ing* form complement was not found in the first sub-period of the CLMET, but it was found in both the third sub-period of the CLMET and the BNC, a very rare complement in both of them. **I fear me** *that* was found only in the third sub-period of the CLMET and only by one author.

The *lest*-clause complement was quite rare in the data from the first sub-period of the CLMET (less than 1 %), in the data from the third sub-period, this complement was definitely more common (nearly 4 %), but interestingly, in the BNC, there are no tokens with the *lest*-clause complement with the verb *fear* and its inflectional forms, it seems to have gone out of use.

In all the corpora used, the most common complement for the verb *fear* is the *that*-clause and the second most common, the NP. After the two most common complements, there is some variation between frequencies of the other complements between the corpora used. The zero complement was the third most common complement in the first sub-period of the CLMET, but loses ground steadily in the two other corpora, but still remains the fourth most common complement in them.

The third most common complement in the third sub-period in the CLMET is the *to*-infinitive, which is not surprising, the fact that *to*-infinitive is getting more common follows the general tendency described as the Great Complement Shift (discussed in 3.4.1) and this is also in line with the results from earlier research done by Théresa Fanego (discussed in 5.2). On the other hand, the use of the verb *fear* does not follow the tendency of the Great Complement Shift; the frequency of the *to*-infinitive does get lower as is expected, but it is not the *ing*-form that would be getting more frequent. It seems that non-finite clause complements in general have become less frequent with the verb *fear* in present day English

Some of the sources consulted for this thesis were quite doubtful whether the verb *fear* can actually take the *ing*-complement at all (discussed in 5.2). The *ing*-form complement was found in all the corpora, but it remained a really rare complement to the verb *fear*, a fact that goes against the tendency in the Great Complement Shift. It seems also that the fact that the *ing*-form does not gain ground is not explained by 'infinitivis' by Allerton (discussed in 5.3) Fanego's (discussed in 5.3) suggestion that the verb *be* would more easily take the *ing*-form gets confirmation, but it seems clear that for some reason, that is not evident, the verb *fear* does not very easily take an *ing*-form as its complement.

A general tendency in the use of the verb *fear* is that it is used less and in less complex sentences. Some senses in the OED were considered having gone out of use already before the 18th century and some, that the OED claims to have still been in use during the last three centuries, are not found in the data for this study. And in the *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* online version all the uses and meanings of *fear* as a verb were seen either formal, old or humorous. This claim made in the *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* online version doesn't seem to get full confirmation, there are cases where the use is formal, old or humorous, but the verb *fear* is used also in everyday language in all the data from all the corpora.

It did become clear when comparing the data for this study that the use of verb *fear* is the most varied in the third sub-period of the CLMET. In the data from the third sub-period of the CLMET we found the largest number of different syntactic environments for the verb *fear* and also the distribution between different meanings of the verb is more equal in this part of the data. As already mentioned, the data for this study does not fully agree with the statements made in the *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* online version, but it is clear that *fear* as a verb has become less frequent in present-day English, maybe other verbs, for example *to be afraid of*, have partly replaced *fear* as the contemporary way of expressing having fear.

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