# “Obviously Very Pleased With Herself”: On the Complementation of the Adjective *Pleased* in British English

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Tässä pro gradu –tutkielmassa tarkastellaan adjektiivin *pleased* yhteydessä esiintyviä komplementteja britannianenglannissa 1800-luvun puolivälistä 1900-luvun loppuun sekä kahdella eri osa-alueella: kaunokirjallisuudessa ja puhutussa kielessä. Tutkimuksen tarkoituksena on selvittää, miten *pleased*-adjektiivin komplementaatio on muuttunut ajan kuluessa ja käyttöalueen vaikutuksesta. Lisäksi tutkitaan, vaikuttavatko erilaiset komplementit *pleased* –sanan merkitykseen.

Tutkielman empiirinen aineisto koostuu kolmesta lähteestä jotka on kerätty kahdesta elektronisesta korpuksesta. Historiallinen aineisto on kerätty The Corpus of Late Modern English Texts –korpuksen kolmannesta osasta, joka sisältää kaunokirjallisisa tekstejä vuodesta 1850 vuoteen 1920. Nykyisen britannianenglannin aineisto on kerätty The British National Corpus –korpuksesta, jonka alaosioista tutkimuksessa käytetään kaunokirjallisuudesta sekä puheesta litteroiduista teksteistä koostuvaa osaa.

Tutkielman ensimmäisessä osassa selvitetään aluksi korpuslingvistiikan piirteitä ja tarkastellaan, millaisia ovat tutkimusaineiston tarjoavat korpukset. Seuraavassa luvussa tuodaan esille komplementaation liittyvää käsitteistöä ja komplementaatiovaihteluun mahdollisesti vaikuttavia teorioita. Lopuksi kartoitetaan, mitä *pleased* –adjektiivista tiedetään aiemman tutkimuksen perusteella. Tätä selvitetään tarkastelemalla lukuisia eri sanakirjoja sekä kielioppeja. Tutkielman toisessa osassa esitellään ja analysoidaan empiirinen aineisto kronologisessa järjestyksessä.

Yhteensä tutkimuksessa löydettiin *pleased* –adjektiivin kanssa käytössä viisitoista erilaista komplementaatiorakennetta, joista neljä ovat selvästi yleisempiä kuin loput, marginaalisemmat komplementit. Merkittävimpiä havaintoja ovat nk. nollakomplementin osuuden lasku sekä *that* –lauseiden osuuden nousu. *Pleased* –adjektiivilla havaittiin olevan kolme pääasiallista merkitystä. Merkityksistä kaksi esiintyy vain tiettyjen komplementaatiorakenteiden kanssa. Lisäksi todettiin, että komplementaatioon liittyvät teoriat, tärkeimpänä *Complexity Principle* –periaate, vaikuttavat jonkin verran siihen, millaisten komplementtien kanssa *pleased* –adjektiivi esiintyy.

Avainsanat: adjektiivi, komplementaatio, komplementti, korpus, korpuslingvistiikka, *pleased*

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## 1. Introduction

According to the *Oxford English Dictionary*, *pleased* is an adjective derived from the verb *please*. Judging from the citations given by the *Oxford English Dictionary* (henceforth the *OED*), *pleased* does not appear to take any complements, making a study on its complementation patterns seem like a fairly unpromising undertaking. However, if we look at these examples, taken from the *British National Corpus*, it is clear that there is much to study:

(1) 'You needn't look so *pleased* about it,' said Tom in a disgruntled manner. CAB 1904
(2) 'Don't snap at me like that, you saucy devil,' said the doctor, immensely *pleased* with himself. A73 2447
(3) As we shook hands the Frenchman said very slowly in French, 'Monsieur, we are very *pleased* to see you here in Normandy. A61 1040
(4) I am so *pleased* that we have solved the dilemma and we can feel morally superior! CC4 110

*Pleased* has a good amount of variation in its complementation. As can be seen from the examples, *pleased* can take as complements at least the preposition *about* followed by a noun phrase, the preposition *with* followed by a noun phrase, a *to*-infinitive clause and a *that*-clause.

The aim of this thesis is to study what patterns are permitted as complements of *pleased*, and what factors affect the variation in complementation. The data will come from the *Corpus of Late Modern English Texts* part 3, which includes texts from the years 1850-1920. This will be compared to data drawn from the imaginative prose section *British National Corpus*, which contains texts from roughly a hundred years later but quite closely matching those of the *Corpus of Late Modern English Texts* in register. The final set of data is collected from the spoken domain of the *British National Corpus*, which will be roughly contemporary to the data from the imaginative prose section, but differs in register. In other words, this thesis will investigate both diachronic and register variation. The research questions I have set for this thesis are:

1. What kinds of complements does the adjective *pleased* select at different periods in time?

2. What kinds of complements does the adjective *pleased* select in different registers?
3. What senses are related to *pleased* and its different complementation patterns?
4. How much do the changes in complementation interact with the theories bearing on complementation, outlined in the first half of this thesis?

There are several reasons for conducting research into complementation. Firstly, it can serve to clarify structural rules of the English language. Although the piece contributed towards that end by this research may be small, it can be of interest to many researchers whether from the field of general linguistics, neurolinguistics, or applied linguistics such as the field of second language acquisition. I am of the opinion that both the conducting and the reading of corpus-based studies of linguistics can facilitate understanding of language and language change. One of the reasons for conducting this research is simply to find out what else there is to study within this area of interest and also beyond it.

The thesis turns first to the field of corpus linguistics and the typical benefits and problems that are encountered in corpus studies. The following chapter focuses on the concept of complementation and different theories of complementation possibly relevant to the study of *pleased*. Next, previous work on *pleased* and on complementation will be presented and discussed. An overview of senses and patterns will be given, consulting several dictionaries and grammars to determine the semantics and functions of *pleased*. Once an adequate summary of the background has been provided, there will be the empirical part of the study, where I look at examples of complementation occurring with *pleased*, taken from the *Corpus of Late Modern English Texts* and two separate parts of the *British National Corpus*. The examination of the data is divided into the analysis of zero complements, non-sentential complements and sentential complements. Lastly, I summarize my findings and evaluate the possible answers I get for my research questions.

## 2. On corpora and corpus studies

The data for this study comes from two different collections of texts: The *Corpus of Late Modern English Texts* (abbreviated hereafter as the *CLMET*) and the *British National Corpus* (the *BNC*). The objective of this study is to determine whether there are any diachronic changes or differences between registers in the complementation of *pleased*. The historical data is obtained from the third part of the *CLMET*. The *BNC* provides two different datasets: one is comprised of recent imaginative prose, comparable in register to the texts from the *CLMET*, and the other consists of spoken texts, which provides us with the opportunity to compare different registers. This chapter will provide information on the corpora used in this study as well as delve more generally into the characteristics and some problematic aspects of corpora and corpus linguistics.

### 2.1 Characteristics of corpus-based studies

According to Biber (1998, 1), corpus studies originate from the study of language use. The study of language use, as opposed to the study of structure, aims to uncover typical patterns in language instead of making judgements of grammaticality. It also goes further into trying to explain the variation that is encountered in language use. In order to make judgements on how common a pattern is, a large amount of language needs to be collected and analyzed. Analyzing vast amounts of data can be time-consuming, and one is required to keep track of a host of different contextual factors. This is why the electronic corpus-based approach to the study of language use has proved so popular. Collections of texts were around in language studies long before computers, but progress has been exponential since the creation in the 1960s of the Brown Corpus, which can be seen as the first ever computer corpus (Meyer 2002, xii). Since then, remarkable progress has been made in corpus linguistics, "both in terms of quantity of material available for analysis and the sophistication of recording, storage, and retrieval techniques" (Mair 2000, 107). The study of

corpora can be useful, and is now available, to a variety of users from researchers to foreign language students.

A corpus is usually defined as "a collection of texts or parts of texts upon which some general linguistic analysis can be conducted" (Meyer 2002, xi) and today, a key element of a corpus is that it is in a computer-readable form. Corpora may be of different sizes and contain samples of full texts or only parts of them, texts from a single or different registers, and so on. What is important is for the analyst to know and be aware of these features in the corpus that is used, because they may affect the results that can be drawn from the data or comparisons of data.

**2.2 Problems in corpus-based studies**

The usefulness of corpora in determining possible and impossible constructions has sometimes been questioned, particularly in the early days of the development of electronic corpora. The most influential linguist to reject the relevance of corpus studies was Noam Chomsky. Stefanowitsch (2005, 295) characterizes Chomsky's views as anti-empirical and anti-quantitative. The main argument of Chomskyan generative grammar against corpora seems to have been the limited nature of corpora, therefore making them inadequate to represent the infinite nature of language or, in particular, to inform the researcher of what is *not* possible in the language. It is true that finiteness is a characteristic that should be kept in mind when utilizing corpus evidence, but relying solely on the acceptability judgements advocated by Chomsky does not compensate for corpus evidence either. Acceptability judgements (by native speakers) are based on intuition, and individual speakers are also always affected by their social and historical context. While many corpora may be biased towards, for example, male writers, these biases can be detected.

It was noted earlier that the study of language use is more about tendencies than strict judgements of grammaticality, and one should be careful of making determinations of grammaticality based on corpus evidence. Chomsky felt wary of what he called the observed-

frequency fallacy, where "observed frequencies of occurrence represent relevant facts for scientific analysis" (Stefanowitsch 2005, 296). Today most researchers will find that this is counteracted by an insight Stefanowitsch (ibid.) calls the expected-frequency epiphany, which basically denotes the understanding that observed frequencies are not relevant facts on their own, but must be evaluated against their expected frequencies to provide scientifically valuable information. An example by Chomsky of an observed-frequency fallacy is drawing any conclusions from the observation that the statement *I live in New York* is significantly more likely to occur in a corpus than *I live in Dayton, Ohio*. The observed-frequency fallacy is avoided here by the expectance of more occurrences of *I live in New York*, since there are more people living in New York than Dayton, Ohio. It should also be noted that corpus linguistics is not concerned with the frequency of individual sentences, but rather with the frequency of sentence patterns (ibid., 295).

Once the researcher has been made aware of the issues in corpus-based studies discussed above, they still need to give thought to the things that can affect the sample that is retrieved from the corpus. Ball (1994, 295) uses the term retrieval effectiveness to describe the reliability of a sample, and she identifies two ways to measure it: *precision* and *recall*. Precision refers to the number of retrieved tokens that are relevant, and recall to the number of relevant tokens that were retrieved. Since it is possible to observe all the retrieved tokens, determining the level of precision is relatively easy. Assessing recall is much more difficult, since it requires knowledge of the full material of the corpus. Otherwise, it cannot be determined if all relevant tokens ina corpus have been retrieved. Recall, however, is a bigger problem in pattern-based research projects. In head-based research projects, all the examples of a given word or phrase can be retrieved and dealt with manually to improve precision. If the corpus under study is tagged and the tagging is used in the retrieval of tokens, precision and recall can be dependent on the accuracy of the tagging in the corpus and the researcher's knowledge of the tagging system. According to Biber (1998, 262), tagger accuracy is often reported to be "in the mid to high 90 percent range; however, no automatic

tagger is 100 percent accurate". Difficulties in tagging for computers are likely to arise in the same areas as they do for humans: one of these difficult areas is ascertaining between verbal and adjectival participles. This can be relevant in the study of the adjective *pleased*.

### 2.2.1 Challenges of spoken language corpus data

While it is generally acknowledged that, in terms of occurrence in human societies, spoken language is primary and written language is secondary, corpora largely consist of written language. McCarthy (1998, 17) writes that the support and demand for collecting natural language data started to grow only with the advent of tape recorders, which significantly eases the collection process. However, written data still remains the norm and is much easier to collect than spoken data. Even today it seems overly ambitious to imagine a spoken corpus that holds more than a billion words, as some mega-corpora today do.

Spoken and written language are very different systems. Real spoken language contains stops and starts and faltering utterances and by nature includes many interactional features. These include, for example, turn-taking, discourse marking with such marker words as *well* and *so*, and information staging and context-boundness (ibid., 57) which are especially important as they tend to make utterances syntactically different from the corresponding written message. Information staging refers to the re-arrangement of the information encoded in text, for example, the foregrounding of entities (ibid., 60). Being bound to a certain context makes speech differ from written text in a number of ways, but one is that normally expected components of structure may be omitted if they can be retrieved from the immediate situation. McCarthy demonstrates this with an extract from the CANCODE spoken corpus:

> *[<S 01> is assembling things for her friend before they go out.]*
> *<S 01> Handbag is it, what else then?* (ibid., 64)

Spoken language also has variable lexical density. This means that speech situations that are extremely context-bound may feature a high proportion of function words, and a lower proportion of full vocabulary items (ibid., 65). In the case of some words, this may result in differences in frequency between written and spoken language. Whether studying spoken language can be related to studying written language has been called into question by such linguists as Mello and Raso (2014, 3) because of differences such as the ones raised here. Mello and Raso (ibid., 2) also find it worrisome that some sources of written language, such as chat interactions, may sometimes be used to represent spoken language, as these data are still written, not spoken. Since linguistic categories that are used today have been born from the long time study of written sources, Mello and Raso (ibid., 3) also point out that these linguistic categories, such as that of sentence, may only be functional for written modality and not applicable to spoken language. This is why the development of third generation spontaneous speech corpora, which are text-to-sound aligned, is under way now (ibid., 4).

A prominent reason for the marginality of spoken language corpora is that the assembly of such corpora is more demanding in terms of time and cost. As Adolphs (2008, 41) declares, "a transcript is always an analysed text to a certain degree". Transcription requires expertise and skill to notice things like repetition, overlapping speech turns and little discourse markers (McCarthy 1998, 12). In the compilation of a corpus, it must also be decided how and to what extent contextual information will be transcribed. Context may not have a great impact on the study of complementation but it is crucial for many other studies that are interested in spoken language. Before any of these problems, there is the one of data collection. Sound quality can still be a problem for recording speech, especially when researchers are interested in language that is as authentic as possible, since the best sound quality is achieved in studios where there are no excessive background noises and microphones can be situated close to the subjects that are recorded.

### 2.3 Normalised frequencies

For a project that studies variation across time or registers, it is important to make sure that the findings in the different corpora are comparable. For example, raw frequency counts of data from the *CLMET* part 3 is not comparable with data from the imaginative prose section of the *BNC*, since the imaginative prose section of the *BNC* is about four times as large as the *CLMET* part 3. The raw counts need to be adjusted according to a common base, which should be determined based on the typical text length in the corpus that is studied (Biber 1998, 264). In the case of this thesis, the common base that will be used is one million. This adjustment is called normalization, and the resulting number is the normalized frequency.

Normalized frequencies are counted by the following formula: raw frequency count is divided by the total number of words in the corpus or its relevant subsection and then multiplied by the common base (ibid., 263). The order of division and multiplication can of course also be reversed. In the case that only a certain percentage of available tokens is used for analysis, the formula needs to be adjusted accordingly, i.e. the number of words in the corpus or corpus sub-section should be reduced to the same percentage.

### 2.4 The *Corpus of Late Modern English Texts*

The *CLMET* provides historical data for the present study. Although the exact dates for the period of late modern English are vague, the make-up of the corpus follows along a generally accepted time-frame, from the beginning of the 18$^{th}$ to the beginning of the 20$^{th}$ century. The corpus consists of texts drawn from two online archiving projects: *Project Gutenberg* and *Oxford Text Archive*. It contains 9,818,326 words of text drawn from 115 different texts by 72 different authors. The amount of text per each author is limited to 200,000 words to avoid bias towards any single author's individual style. The corpus is divided into three sub-periods of seventy years, so part one contains the period from 1710 to 1780, part 2 the period from 1780 to 1850, and part 3 the period from 1850

to 1920. Part 3 is used for this study mainly for its suitable size. With 3,982,264 words, part 3 is the largest of the *CLMET* sub-sections. There are around 40 years between the last text in the *CLMET* part 3 and the first text in the *BNC*.

All authors in the *CLMET* are British native speakers of English. De Smet (2005, 72) notes that the corpus is biased to formal prose written by higher class male adults, although efforts were made during the compilation to favour non-literary and lower register texts as well as those written by women. The corpus is therefore not ideal from a sociolinguistic perspective, but its restricted register should not be a hindrance for a comparative study when the results are compared with the BNC imaginative prose section, for example, since these correspond well in terms of register. One of the advantages of the corpus is that it may continue to grow easily, with new texts added into the collection, and the *CLMET* has in fact been officially expanded twice. Special care has been taken in the more recent versions to try and balance the bias towards higher class males.

### 2.5 The *British National Corpus*

The *British National Corpus* is a general corpus. It contains texts from many different fields, registers and genres. The texts are both written and spoken. Considering how many texts are needed to adequately represent all these different domains, it is not surprising that the *BNC* is one of the bigger corpora out there. It contains 96,986,707 words, 90 percent of which is written and 10 percent spoken. 91.58 percent of the texts in the *BNC* have been published between 1985 and1993, but the earliest texts are from 1960. The only texts from before 1975 are imaginative texts, "reflecting their longer 'shelf-life'" (Burnard 2007).

The imaginative prose section of the *BNC* was chosen for this study because it most closely corresponds to the texts in the *CLMET*. In addition to texts being from the same genre, the *BNC* also

only includes texts by British authors. The sociolinguistic variation in the *BNC* is greater than in the *CLMET*, however. This section contains 16,496,408 words from 476 texts.

The spoken component of the *BNC* was chosen as the last sub-corpus from which to draw data. Variation between registers is an important aspect of study, and spoken language is usually first to feature new words and structures, so it is located in the foreground of language change. The spoken component consists of approximately 10 million words. The spoken component contains conversational English, compiled by sampling "a spread of language producers in terms of age, gender, social group, and region, and recording their language output over a set period of time" (ibid.). This left out certain spoken texts that are closely tied to certain contexts, and these were gathered separately to create the context-governed part of the spoken sub-corpus. This part includes lectures, business meetings, political speeches, sports commentaries and other texts which are more often monologues than dialogues. As a matter of fact, with 6,153,671 words the context-governed part of the spoken component is larger than the conversational language part, which has slightly over four million words. This leaves room for some criticism of this section of the corpus and its overall representativeness, but this is a much greater issue in the corpus-based studies of pragmatics and discourse, rather than complementation.

The BNC is a tagged with the CLAWS part-of-speech tagger software. Though there may be some errors in the tagging, it would be impractical not to use the tagging system when searching for any word that has a moderate to large frequency since the BNC is such a large corpus. This may lead to less than perfect recall, but errors are in no way likely to be statistically significant, either.

## 3. Theoretical background on complementation

This chapter will discuss the concept of complementation, explore what complements are, and present theoretical factors that influence complementation. Many of the examples given in the literature involve verbs as they are traditionally considered to be the prototypical predicates, but the theories laid out here also apply to predicative adjectives. Predicative adjectives are adjectives that modify the subject of a sentence through a predicative verb like *be* or *seem*. Later it will be analyzed whether these theories affect the selection of complement patterns for *pleased* and the variation between them.

### 3.1 Characteristics of complements

Complements are usually defined as phrasal elements that are needed to complete meaning. Different sources will give slightly different descriptions, for example Quirk et al. (1972, 801) define complements as "elements of clause structure that are obligatory for the completion of the verb meaning", whereas van Gelderen (2010, 40) writes that "some VPs include obligatory material, i.i. words or phrases that cannot easily be left out […]. These obligatory parts are called complements". Later on Gelderen goes on to say (ibid.,65) that the terms object and complement are sometimes equated, though "technically complement is a broader category". The central idea remains the same. Complements complete the meaning of another constituent.

Verbs are thought of as the prototypical complement-governing constituents because they have a central role in determining sentence structure. Valency theory is a field that is primarily interested in the complementation of verbs because of this central position verbs occupy. It is the verb that "determines how many other elements have to occur in order to form a grammatical sentence", as Herbst (2004, xxiv) explains. However, other constituents may also need complements to complete their meaning. Verbs may more often have complements that are obligatory. According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 542), adjectives usually take optional complements.

### 3.2 Complements and adjuncts

It is important for a study of complementation to note that not all elements governed by a head are complements. Complements are grammatically and semantically essential elements, while adjuncts can be seen as those elements that provide additional information not essential to making the sentence complete, like minor supporting characters in a play as described by Haegeman (1991, 63), or extras in movies; they add colour to the scene, but do not affect the plot. Adjuncts can appear in conjunction with complements or, in the case of *pleased,* by themselves, as *pleased* does not have any obligatory complements. There can be difficulty in making a distinction between complements and adjuncts considering that even the exact same construction can in some circumstances be a complement and in others an adjunct. This is demonstrated by Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 221) by examples of subordinate clauses:

(1) i. He doesn't know <u>whether or not she likes him</u>. [complement]
ii. I'm inviting him, <u>whether or not she likes him</u>. [adjunct]

Example (1i) is taken as a complement because the clause is more tied to the verb of the higher clause than it is in (1ii), and can in fact be seen to complete the meaning of the sentence here. For Huddleston and Pullum (ibid.), the closeness can be determined by way of licensing: a complement requires a certain kind of verb to license it (ibid., 219). The complement in (1i) requires a verb like *know* instead of a verb like *intend* (ibid., 221). Adjuncts however do not need any specific kind of verb to occur in a sentence (ibid., 219). Some complements can be more "adjunct-like" than others. Huddleston and Pullum (ibid., 222) take obligatory dependents, those that are required by the verb to make a sentence grammatical, to always be complements, while optional complements are more difficult to distinguish from adjuncts.

Typically, the expressions of place, manner, time, and reason are adjuncts, so long as they are not obligatory dependents, since they can follow all verb types. In *Introduction to Syntax* (1996, 75), Huang provides examples of a few common adjunct types:

(2) a. John died in Paris because he had a pneumonia.
b. John saw Bill here before Mary had arrived.
c. John told Bill the story yesterday because of my request.

Licensing is not a factor with adjuncts, because the underlined phrases could be added after any verb phrase without making the sentence ungrammatical, though possibly odd semantically.

### 3.3 Control and NP movement constructions

Matrix clauses that take infinitival complements can be divided into two groups on the basis of differences in the deep structure of the sentences. These differences are focused on the semantic properties of the subject of the matrix clause (Davies and Dubinsky, 2004, 3). In constructions involving subject control, the subject is semantically linked to both the higher and the lower predicate. In other words, the subject of the higher predicate is also the understood subject of the lower predicate. In NP movement constructions the subject is semantically linked only to the lower predicate, but raised into the higher clause to act as the syntactic subject (ibid.). This is why NP movement is also called raising. Davies and Dubinsky (ibid.) use the following examples:

(3) Barnett seemed to understand the formula.
(4) Barnett tried to understand the formula.

The first sentence exhibits NP movement and the second subject control. Davies and Dubinsky outline five ways to empirically distinguish between raising and control (ibid., 4).

Control and movement structures differ in the thematic roles they assign to the other constituents in a sentence. This can be inferred from the rule that in subject control, the subject is semantically linked to both of the predicates whereas in NP movement the subject is semantically linked only to the lower predicate. Therefore an NP movement predicate like *seem* in example (1) does not assign any theta role to the subject *Barnett.* A subject control predicate assigns a thematic role to the subject, as *Barnett* has agent role in (4) (ibid.,4).

The distinction between thematic structures may not be the easiest argument to use when determining which group a verb belongs to, but it is the basis on which the empirical tests rely.

Because control predicates assign a thematic role to their subject, they will also have properties including inability to combine with semantically empty subjects like weather *it* or existential *there*, and inability to retain an idiomatic interpretation when an idiom chunk is moved from the immediate environment of the full idiom. Next, empirical tests based on these properties will be used to determine whether *pleased* is a control or a movement predicate (ibid., 4-8).

The weather *it* refers to the dummy subject *it* that is predominantly used with verbs that refer to the weather. A sentence with weather *it* or existential *there* can be embedded under an NP movement predicate, but not under a subject control predicate.

(5) *It is pleased to rain in October.
(6) *There is pleased to be some milk in the fridge.

Since *pleased* produces ill-formed sentences with the dummy subjects, the conclusion is that *pleased* is a subject control predicate. It is therefore expected that *pleased* will not retain idiomatic meaning for idiom chunks, either.

(7) The cat is pleased to be out of the bag.

*The cat* in (7) clearly has only one interpretation, that of a particular feline, instead of the idiomatic meaning of a secret.

### 3.4 Theta theory

Predicates form semantic relationships with their arguments. Arguments are those constituents minimally required to produce a well-formed utterance, hence arguments are made up of complements and the subject of the predicate (Haegeman 1991, 36). Theta theory is concerned with these semantic relationships and the assignment of thematic roles to arguments (ibid., 41). Thematic roles describe the kind of semantic relationship arguments have with their predicate. What types of thematic roles a predicate assigns to its arguments is dependent on what Huang (1996, 66) calls S-selection properties: predicates have a certain set of thematic roles they assign for their arguments,

and these sets will vary between different predicates. Knowing the S-selection properties of a predicate will let us make evaluations of well-formedness on the basis of semantics.

Haegeman (1991, 41) provides a tentative list of the most commonly recognized thematic roles. These roles are agent, theme, experiencer, benefactive, goal, source and location. An agent, for example, is an initiator of an action or an event, hence by definition an animate entity (Huang 1996, 65). The following sentences from Huang (ibid., 66) contain a predicate that selects an agent role for its single argument:

(8) The baby cried.
(9) Sincerity cried.

The second sentence, while grammatically well-formed, is semantically odd, since the subject is inanimate and therefore violates the S-selection properties of *cry*, or as Haegeman calls it, the thematic grid of *cry* (Haegeman, 1991, 43).

In the case of *pleased* we can conclude that the adjective always assigns the role of experiencer to the subject. Consider these two sentences:

(10) He pleased her.
(11) She was pleased.

(10) contains the verb *please* and two arguments, a subject and an object. The subject *he* is here the initiator of the act of pleasing, and is therefore an agent. The object *her* is an experiencer, going through the experience of being pleased. Example (11) is a passive version of (10) with the agent omitted. An adjectival reading is also possible since we do not know whether *pleased* is more stative or active here. But *she* is still the object going through the experience of being pleased, keeping the experiencer role. An experiencer needs to be something capable of experiencing, which will usually mean something [+ human] but at the very least something [+ animate]. We can expect to see *pleased* used with a subject that is [+ animate] and fulfills the experiencer role.

### 3.5 Extra-semantic factors bearing on complementation

This section introduces linguistic phenomena that may influence complementation. These have been termed extra-semantic factors by Vosberg (2003b, 305) as they are beyond semantic considerations and instead look at syntactic and stylistic features. The principles introduced here are the Great Complement Shift, the Complexity Principle and the *horror aequi* principle.

#### 3.5.1 The Great Complement Shift

The Great Complement Shift is a term coined by Rohdenburg (2006, 143) to describe significant changes that the English system of sentential complementation has gone through over the past few centuries. The most important of these changes is the rise of the *–ing* form complement at the expense of the infinitival complement, as well as the *that*-clause complement. Vosberg (2009, 212) studied several predicates from the point of view of the Great Complement Shift and found that certain factors may accelerate or delay the progress of the *–ing* complement, among them different complexity factors and the *horror aequi* principle, which will be discussed in the following sections. Whether or not the complementation of *pleased* has been affected by the Great Complement Shift will be determined during the analysis of the data.

#### 3.5.2 The Complexity Principle

The complexity principle by Rohdenburg (1996, 151), asserts that in complex linguistic environments, the more explicit variant will be preferred over the less explicit one. Explicitness of variants is determined by their "bulkiness", or lengthiness. "Bulkier" variants will be those that contain additional bound or free morphemes, thereby providing more cues to construct the meaning of the sentence, for example the retention of *that* in *that*-clause complements will be bulkier than *that* being omitted. Another example is the difference in explicitness between finite and non-finite sentential complements. Finite clauses are more explicit since they carry tense whereas non-finite clauses do not. The complex environments that Rohdenburg found to commonly trigger the use of

more explicit variants include different kinds of discontinuous constructions, passive constructions, and "heavy", or lengthy, subjects, objects or subordinate clauses (ibid., 173).

It is likely that the complexity principle will influence complementation patterns on some level when there is a choice between NP complements introduced by different but semantically similar prepositions, or between finite and nonfinite clause complements, as mentioned above. The complexity principle may not always apply. Formal texts, for example, are more likely to use explicit variants on stylistic grounds, as explicitness is stylistically more formal than non-explicitness.

### 3.5.3 Extractions and insertions

Extractions and insertions are ways of producing discontinuous constructions, thereby increasing the cognitive complexity of the sentence structure. In extraction, the discontinuity comes from the removal of a linguistic unit from its original position (Vosberg 2003a, 201). There are different types of extraction, but what is common to all of them is the removal and repositioning of a unit from other units it is semantically tied to. When a unit is removed from its original position, it leaves behind a gap, an empty space where one would expect, according to subcategorisation frames, to have something. The following are examples of extraction from Postal (1994, 159), with [t] indicating the original position of the extracted constituent.

(12) Frank, who they adored [t], is dishonest.
(13) It was Frank who they hired [t].
(14) What Ellen wants [t] is a Mercedes-Benz.

If extraction is performed on a syntactic phrase that contains multiple constituents, either the whole phrase or only its complement are extracted. This usually applies to prepositional phrases, which are headed by a preposition and complemented by a noun phrase. The following illustration is from the *Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar* (2014, pied piping):

(15) a. Here's the book about which I was telling you.
b. Here's the book which I was telling you about.

The first type of extraction, where the full prepositional phrase has been extracted, is referred to as pied-piping.

Insertions add material to sentences. Therefore they do not remove anything from its place, but they create distance between units that belong together, creating discontinuity. Insertions may vary from one-word insertions such as adverbs to whole phrases (Vosberg 2003a, 210). The level of complexity usually rises with longer insertions. The following example of insertion is from Vosberg (ibid., 211).

(16) I recollect, as I passed by one of the pier-glasses, that I saw in it his clenched hand offered in wrath to his forehead. (Samuel Richardson, *Clarissa*, 1st ed., 1748)

### 3.5.4 The *horror aequi* effect

The *horror aequi* principle, defined by Rohdenburg (2007, 220) as the tendency to avoid the successive occurrence of identical or similar elements, is another extra-semantic factor that may influence the construction of sentences. Much of the work on the *horror aequi* principle has focused on the effect it has on sentential complements, specifically the choice between *to*-infinitive and *–ing* form complements. According to the *horror aequi* principle, successive marked infinitives and successive *–ing* constructions should be avoided. With adjectives and sentential complements, the copular verb and the lower predicate could be near enough in form for *horror aequi* to take effect. The principle, however, may apply to any elements similar enough to create an environment too complex or awkward for the speakers. To avoid this kind of environment, alternate constructions will be used instead.

## 4. *Pleased* in the literature

This chapter will explore earlier work that has touched upon the meaning and complementation of *pleased*. First, an assortment of dictionaries, primarily the *Oxford English Dictionary*, will be consulted to determine the sense of *pleased* and what kinds of complements it has been documented with. Second, the focus will be on grammars and what information they can provide.

### 4.1 The *Oxford English Dictionary*

According to the *Oxford English Dictionary* (henceforth referred to as the *OED*), *pleased* is an adjective made up of the verb *please* and the *-ed* suffix. The origin of the verb is in the Latin *placēre*, which translates to *pleasing* or *agreeable*. The *OED* entry for the adjective *pleased* is quite concise, and sense 1 is marked as obsolete, having quotations only from the 14th century, therefore the following table presents only sense 2.

Table 4.1. The senses of *pleased* according to the *OED*.

| OED entry | OED example(s) | Complementation pattern(s) |
|---|---|---|
| **2.** Affected by, or expressive of, feelings of satisfaction or pleasure; gratified, contented, in a good mood. Formerly also: †appeased (obs.). | **1873.** W.Black *Princess of Thule* vi, A pleased smile appeared on her face. | - , Premodifier |
| | **1752** C. Lennox *Female Quixote* I. xi, Since I am not allowed any will of my own,.. it matters not whether I am pleased or displeased. | Zero complement |

There is also special mention of the idiomatic expression *(as) pleased as Punch*, meaning extremely pleased, that is still in use in British English.

As the entry for *pleased* only includes an example of the zero complement pattern, the senses of the verb *please* are also studied because of the close connection between the adjective and the verb. The next table is an excerpt of relevant adjectival senses in the *OED* entry for *please*.

Table 4.2. Senses of passivized *please* according to the *OED*.

| **OED entries** | **OED example(s)** | **Complementation pattern(s)** |
|---|---|---|
| **I.** With a person as object: to satisfy, be agreeable to.<br><br>**4.** *trans*. (in *pass.*). | **1782** F. Burney *Cecilia* IV. I am not quite pleased with your looks. | *with* + NP |
| **a.** With prepositional phrase or *that*-clause as complement: to be gratified, delighted, or agreeably satisfied. | **1860** J.A. Symonds *Let*. 15 June (1967) I. 245, I am so glad you are pleased about the Newdigate. | *about* + NP |
| | **1954** H. Gaitskell in *N.Y. Times Mag.* 27 June, People in Britain are pleased that Sir Winston Churchill and Anthony Eden are meeting the President. | *that*-clause |
| **b.** With infinitive. Originally: to be gratified or satisfied. Subsequently: to have the will or desire; to have the inclination or disposition; (also) to think proper, choose, or be so obliging as to do something. Now freq. in **pleased to meet you**: a formula used in reply to an introduction. | **1759** R. Jackson *Hist. Rev. Pennsylvania* 268 The Governor is pleased to doubt our having such Letters as we mentioned. | *to*-infinitive |
| | **1916** "Taffrail" *Pincher Martin* vii. 102 Pleased ter meet yer, miss. | *to*-infinitive |
| | **2000** *New Scientist* 4 Nov. 85/2 (advt.) We are pleased to announce that an exciting opportunity at the Group Leader level has recently arisen. | *to*-infinitive |

The examples above can be interpreted to contain the adjective *pleased*, though the *OED* classifies them as passive forms of the verb. The distinction is more or less a matter of definition and will be discussed in greater detail in sub-section 4.3. If these entries are taken to contain the adjective *pleased*, than we have uncovered four different complementation patterns, in addition to the zero complement, and two different senses for the word *pleased* itself. This study will adopt the two

senses found in the *OED*: one of being gratified, contented, in a good mood, and one of having the will or desire to do something. Next, a few other dictionaries will be consulted to supplement the information gained from the *OED*.

**4.2 Other Dictionaries**

The *Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary*, the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, and the *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (henceforth referred to respectively as *COBUILD*, *OALD* and *CALD*) were consulted for additional insight. These dictionaries offer short usage samples, not extensive authentic examples like the *OED* does. Especially the learner's dictionaries aim to provide the most essential information in a concise and straightforward manner.

*COBUILD* offers five senses for *pleased*. The first two senses relate to being happy or satisfied with something: in the first sense, someone is satisfied with something, in the second, when *pleased* is negated, someone is annoyed or very dissatisfied with something. The conclusion that is drawn from these entries is that the meaning of *pleased* becomes more intense when negated. It does not merely refer to someone who is displeased; it refers to someone who is very displeased.

The third entry relays another meaning: "If you are *pleased* with yourself, you are happy about something that you have done and feel proud of yourself, perhaps in a way that other people find rather annoying or unpleasant". The sense of pride is added to that of happiness, often in a way that can be perceived in a negative light. This sense was not found in the *OED*, so it will be interesting to see whether it is found in the other dictionaries.

The fourth sense given by *COBUILD* corresponds to the "will or desire to do something" sense that was found in the *OED*: "If someone is or will be pleased to do something, they are very willing to do it". The examples given in *COBUILD* show the difference between the happiness and willingness senses: "*They will only be too pleased to let someone else take the risk… The local hospital will always be pleased to accept them*". Especially in the latter case the willingness sense is very strong as it is probably not the intention at all to speak of literal happiness when accepting

someone into a hospital. The subject *the local hospital* here is taken to denote the personnel of the hospital, as *pleased* is expected to take a [+ animate] subject. As can be seen from the definition of the willingness sense, the *to*-infinitive is associated with this meaning. *COBUILD* also mentions idiomatic expressions like *pleased to meet you* or *pleased to make your acquaintance* as the fifth sense of *pleased*, to be used in first meetings as a polite greeting.

There are two senses under the entry for *pleased* in the *OALD*, as well as a list of some fixed expressions. The first sense corresponds to the happiness sense and the complementation patterns found in the given examples are the zero complement, *with* + NP, *that*-clauses, and *to*-infinitives. The second sense given is "happy or willing to do something". The idioms listed include *(as) pleased as Punch* and *far from/none too pleased* as a way to denote *angry*. The last expression listed is "**pleased with yourself**: (often disapproving) too proud of sth you have done: *He was looking very pleased with himself*". This corresponds to the third sense given in *COBUILD*.

The *CALD* lists two senses for *pleased* as well as listing as idiomatic expressions *(as) pleased as Punch*, *pleased to meet you*, and *pleased with yourself*. The *with* + NP complement encountered in the *OALD* and *COBUILD* is defined through the happiness sense, and the pride meaning or negative connotations are not mentioned. The two senses are "to be happy or satisfied" and "to be very willing to do something". The willingness sense is once again illustrated solely with examples that have a *to*-infinitive complement, while the happiness sense includes *about* + NP, *that*-clause, *with*+ NP and *to*-infinitive complements.

After examining all four dictionaries, three predominant senses of *pleased*. Sense 1 is that of happiness and satisfaction, the most common of all senses and one that permits many different complementation patterns:

(1) She seemed very pleased that he had come. (*COBUILD*)
(2) I am so glad you are pleased about the Newdigate. (*OED*)

Sense 2 is different in that in addition to happiness, there is a sense of pride or arrogance, and perhaps also a tone of disapproval. The complementation pattern found with sense 2 is *with* + NP, where the noun phrase is a reflexive pronoun.

(3) He was looking very pleased with himself. (*OALD*)

Sense 3 is willingness or inclination, and can be found with the *to*-infinitival complement.

(4) A noble and powerful city, inhabited by rich, daring, and he is pleased to add faithless, citizens. (*OED*)
(5) The personnel manager will be pleased to advise you. (*CALD*)

The following table presents a list that combines the complementation patterns given by all four dictionaries with the three different senses.

Table 4.3. Senses and complementation patterns of *pleased* found in dictionaries.

| Dictionary | Sense 1 (happiness, satisfaction) | Sense 2 (pride) | Sense 3 (willingness, inclination) |
|---|---|---|---|
| *OED* | *about* + NP, *with* + NP, *that*-clause | | *to*-infinitive |
| *COBUILD* | *at* + NP, *with* + NP, *that*-clause, *to*-infinitive | *with* + NP (reflexive) | *to*-infinitive |
| *OALD* | *with* + NP, *that*-clause, *to*-infinitive | *with* + NP (reflexive) | *to*-infinitive |
| *CALD* | *about* + NP, *with* + NP, *that*- clause, *to*-infinitive | | *to*-infinitive |

### 4.3 Pleased in grammars

This section will introduce significant information on *pleased* and its syntactic properties. Other factors that may come up in investigating the complementation of *pleased* will be treated as well, beginning with discussion on ambiguous constructions. This is an important section, as the analysis of corpus data cannot fully begin before one can reliably distinguish between the verbal and adjectival uses of *pleased*.

### 4.3.1 Ambiguity between verbal and adjectival passives

*Pleased* is an adjective, but it is also identical in form with the past participle form of the verb *please*. As the purpose of this study is to examine the complementation of adjectival *pleased*, it is necessary to be able to distinguish between the adjectival *–ed* form and the past participial uses of *pleased*. Usually, the past participle form is identical to the past tense verb form, but in these cases the syntactic function of the past tense is enough to differentiate from the adjectival *–ed* form as the past tense form can be used on its own in a sentence, whereas the past participle form needs to combine with either *have* for perfect tense forms, or *be* to form the passive structure.

(1) The car was washed (by him). simple past in the passive voice

Structures in the passive voice will look much like the adjectival *–ed* forms because adjectival predicates are preceded by copular verbs, in most cases, *be*. Quirk et al. (1985, 1171) define copular verbs as those verbs that link a subject to a subject complement (e.g. *The girl is nice*). It should be noted here that if adjectival *pleased* can only be used with copular verbs, it also means that *pleased* will always be an attribute referring to the subject. Quirk et al. (ibid., 1172) go on to divide copular verbs into two classes – current and resulting copulas. The class of copular verbs is quite restricted. Quirk at al. (ibid.) provide a list of 21 verbs that are regularly used in constructions where the subject complement is an adjective phrase, including such verbs as *be, seem,* and *feel,* found in the dictionary entries for *pleased* that were discussed earlier. As we can see, distinguishing between adjectival *pleased* and most forms of the verb *please* is fairly straightforward. Problems are likely to arise with the past participle form in the passive construction.

As noted above, when past participles follow *be* it is a marker of passive voice (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, 540), not a copular verb, but the forms are identical. The traditional definition of participle is “a word formed from a verb base which functions as or like an adjective” (ibid., 78), so it is expected that adjectival *pleased* and participial *pleased* would also be fairly close in function and meaning. Huddleston and Pullum suggest two tests (ibid., 541) for determining the difference:

replacing *be* with another copular verb and modifying *pleased* with an adverb of degree like *very* or *too*. Both of these tests should only produce good results with adjectives. A third test suggested by Huddleston and Pullum (ibid., 541) relies on a difference in semantics between the forms, as for example between *The milk had been drunk* and *He had been drunk.* The third test is not as general as the first two and it does not work with *pleased*. According to the *OED,* the verb *please* needs a person as an object and as such it will have a person in the subject position when used in the passive.

The second test brings out a peculiar point about usage. Quirk et al. (1985, 414) also discuss ways to distinguish between the adjective and the participle. For them, the verbal force is explicit if the *–ed* form is followed by a *by*-agent phrase, and the adjectival force is explicit if the *-ed* form is premodified by the intensifier *very*. It would therefore be expected that these two constructions cannot co-occur without making a sentence unacceptable, but as Quirk et al. (ibid., 415) point out, this co-occurrence is accepted in apparently increasing numbers.

(2) ?The man was very *offended* by the policeman. (Quirk et al. 1985, 415, underlining added)

The status of the *–ed* form in this sentence is seen as indeterminate with both participle and adjective interpretations possible. The participle interpretation "focuses on the process, and the adjective interpretation focuses on the state resulting from the process" (ibid.). Huddleston and Pullum do provide a short list of adjectives that take prepositional phrase complements headed by the preposition *by* (*amused, distressed, hurt, unaffected, unperturbed*¸ and *worried*). All the examples provided by Huddleston and Pullum (e.g. *very distressed by these insinuations*) have adjectives premodified by adverbs of degree, making the interpretation more ambiguous on whether the word being dealt with is an adjective or a past participle (2002, 534). The ambiguity fades, however, when it is observed that not all *by*-phrases have anything to do with the passive: *by* can also express instrumentality, or means, or location (Cook 1990, 26). Cook proposes that passives should be tested by asking "by whom?" as in these examples from Cook (ibid.).

(3) The patches were faded by the sun.
- * The sun faded the patches.

(4) The house was situated by the sea.
- * The sea situated the house.

The dynamic, or verbal, passive is expected to have an agentive *by*-phrase wherein the noun phrase complement of *by* fills the agent role and is therefore prototypically something animate. It is however possible for the noun phrase complement to be inanimate, in which case Cook's proposed method of testing the passive does not function. The sentence "*Our house was destroyed by a hurricane.*" has a corresponding active construction, "*A hurricane destroyed our house*.", but the agent role is inanimate and cannot be questioned by asking "by whom?".

As Huddleston and Pullum later conclude (2002, 1439), *by* phrase complements can be found in both adjectival and verbal constructions, but their occurrence is much more restricted in adjectival constructions. It is also noted that adjectival passives, the term Huddleston and Pullum use for the constructions with adjectives that derive from the past participle forms of verbs, may contain a complement with a preposition different from *by*:

(5) i a. *She was pleased <u>at</u> these results.*
b. *She was pleased <u>by</u> these results.* (ibid.)

Huddleston and Pullum interpret example (a) as adjectival, and example (b) as possibly adjectival. This thesis will follow Huddleston and Pullum's interpretation in classifying ambiguous cases as possibly adjectival, and therefore eligible for analysis on complementation.

### 4.3.2 Characteristics of non-sentential complements in different grammars

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 542) commence their discussion on the complementation of adjectives by observing that adjectives rarely have obligatory complements. Therefore complements are mainly distinguished by virtue of being licensed by the adjective. Huddleston and Pullum provide brief sample lists of adjectives licensing different prepositional phrase complements.

According to them, *pleased* occurs with *about*, *at*, and *with*. *About* and *at* are seen as likely to alternate with each other, so there does not seem to be a substantial difference in meaning between them. Quirk et al. (1985, 1220) also find *pleased* complemented by the same three prepositions. They note that the lists only contain the most typical adjectives to co-occur with the given preposition, and that they do not provide lists for prepositions that are less common in adjective + preposition constructions, such as *for* and *towards* (ibid., 1222).

### 4.3.3 Characteristics of sentential complements in different grammars

Moving on to sentential complements, Quirk et al (ibid., 1223) have placed *pleased* with adjectives that give the theta role of experiencer to their subject and express emotion. These adjectives, when complemented by a *that*-clause, will have either an indicative verb or a putative *should* in the subordinate clause. If an indicative verb is used, the subordinate clause refers to an established truth, whereas the putative *should* occurs when there is possibility of the statement being or becoming factual, but it is not a certainty (ibid,. 1014). Quirk et al. (ibid.) also comment that there is a tendency to use the putative *should* in negative or nonassertive contexts. According to *The Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar* (Aarts 2014), the putative *should* is also known as the emotional *should* as rather than expressing obligation, it "emphasizes an emotional reaction to a possible or presumed fact". It is also noted that the putative *should* is an alternative to the subjunctive after expressions that trigger the subjunctive like suggesting or advising. As the subjunctive form of a verb often looks identical to the indicative form in Modern English, the putative *should* marks subjunctive more visibly.

The descriptive, corpus-based *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (1999, 660) by Biber et al. focuses on pattern frequencies and discourse functions of different constructions. According to them, *that*-clause complements that occur after their head are mostly used to report the speech, thoughts, attitudes, or emotions of humans, the type of reporting being determined by the predicate and the report following in the subordinate clause. Adjectives that for

Quirk et al express emotion, are in the *Longman Grammar* called adjectives of affective psychological states. *Pleased* is included in the list of relatively common adjectives that occur with the post-predicate *that*-clause (ibid,. 672). All in all, Biber et al. found adjectival predicates controlling *that*-clauses to be much less common than verbs controlling *that*-clauses, and that the domain where adjectival predicates most often control *that*-clauses is conversation. It should also be noted that both Quirk et al. and Biber et al. exclude *pleased* from predicates taking extraposed *that*-clauses.

Biber et al. (1999, 680) study the omission of the *that* complementizer in *that*-clause complements. Semantically there is no difference between the choices of keeping or omitting the *that* complementizer, therefore grammatical factors, along with register conventions, explain the variation. Biber et al. find that the grammatical factors favouring the omission of *that* are among the most common uses of *that*-clauses (e.g. the use of *think* or *use* in the main clause verb position, and the co-referentiality of the main and subordinate clause subjects), and that factors favouring the retention of *that* are grammatical factors not typical to *that*-clauses (e.g. the use of coordinated *that*-clauses, the use of the passive voice in the main clause). This difference is explained by Rohdenburg's Complexity Principle, since the most common constructions will be easier to process, whereas rare grammatical environments require the *that*-clause to be explicitly marked by *that* to facilitate processing. It is not surprising that Biber et al. found omission to be most common in conversation, and retention to be most common in academic prose (ibid., 680).

Quirk et al (1985, 1226) divide adjectives that take *to*-infinitive complements into seven types. *Pleased* belongs to type 3, in which the subject of the main clause is also the subject of the infinitive clause, the predicate is an emotive adjective and the infinitive clause expresses causation:

(6) *I'm sorry to have kept you waiting.* (Quirk et al 1985, 1228)

Biber et al. (1999, 716) make the same observations about the division of adjectival predicates, again basing their division on semantic grounds rather than grammatical patterns like Quirk et al.

For Biber et al., adjectives of personal affective stance like *pleased* present some emotion towards the proposition in the *to*-clause (ibid., 719). *Pleased* is not found to control extraposed *to*-clauses. Corpus studies show that when predicates can control both *that*-clauses and non-finite clauses like the *to*-infinitive, *that*-clauses are more likely to be used when the main clause and the complement clause do not have co-referential subjects, and when there is a modal verb in the complement clause (ibid., 756).

### 4.3.4 Indirect complements

A further point to think about are different expressions of comparison that involve one constituent being situated before the adjective and another constituent after the adjective, for example *more* + adjective + *than* or *as* + adjective + *as*, and how these constructions are to be evaluated from the point of view of complementation. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 547) classify the string coming after the adjective as a complement licensed by the first constituent in the string, not by the adjective. Huddleston and Pullum call these indirect complements. Besides comparative constructions, indirect complements can be licensed by other modifiers of the adjective. Huddleston and Pullum give these examples:

(7) They were [so small you could hadly see them].
(8) This is still [too hot to drink].

Direct complements may be found with indirect complements:

(9) They were so small in stature you could hardly see them.

*In stature* is a direct complement licensed by *small*. The *that*-clause complement licensed by *so* remains the same and should be disregarded if complementation of *small* was under investigation.

## 5. Corpus findings

This chapter presents the empirical part of the study. Findings from each sub-corpus are presented and analyzed, starting from the historical data of the *CLMET*, progressing to the recent literary English from the *BNC* imaginative prose section, and concluding with the data from the spoken section of the *BNC*. The process of analysis will follow the same pattern for each sub-corpus. First, the zero complement pattern will be discussed, albeit briefly as *pleased* really has no complement in this pattern, hence the name zero complement. The study will then move on to non-sentential complements and lastly to sentential complements. A review that examines the notable patterns and tendencies that were found will follow, and after all sub-corpora have been analyzed in this way, a final look will be taken at the ways in which the findings resemble or differ from one another.

### 5.1 The *CLMET* Part 3 (1850-1920)

This section presents and discusses the data gathered from the *CLMET* part 3, which covers the years 1850 to 1920. This part consists of 3,982,264 words. The *CLMET* is not a tagged corpus; hence the bare search string *pleased* came up with all tokens of this form. The poor precision was dealt with manually.

#### 5.1.1 Summary of findings

There are in all 339 tokens of *pleased* in the *CLMET* part 3. 90 tokens were excluded from further analysis as they were either verbal (80 tokens), or pre-modifiers (10 tokens). Examples of both cases include:

(1) …you really wish it," she replied with cheerful coolness. He seized her hand and kissed it. Once it had *pleased* her when he kissed her hand. But now she did not like it. (Bennett 1908, *The Old Wives' Tale*)
(2) …of his arm above the elbow, and, squeezing it, he grunted. Shelton had not received congratulations that I *pleased* him more; there was the spice of envy in them. (Galsworthy 1904, *The Island Pharisees*)

(3) …follow it as you say it.' 'That's nothing to what I could say if I chose,' the Duchess replied, in a *pleased* tone. 'Pray don't trouble yourself to say it any longer than that,' said Alice. (Carroll 1865, *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland*)
(4) …if you still care to trouble about country girls.' And so on. Marian read with a *pleased* smile, then acquainted her mother with the contents. (Gissing 1891, *New Grub Street*)

The remaining 249 tokens featured 10 different complementation patterns, although the status of the zero complement as a complementation pattern as such is questionable. The tokens are displayed in the table below grouped into complement types and order of frequency.

Table 5.1. Complements of *pleased* in the *CLMET* part 3.

| Complement type | Number of tokens | Percentage | NF/million |
|---|---|---|---|
| *to*-infinitive | 79 | 31.7 | 19.8 |
| *that*-clause | 7 | 2.8 | 1.8 |
| *at* + *-ing* | 4 | 1.6 | 1.0 |
| *at* + poss. + *-ing* | 2 | 0.8 | 0.5 |
| Sentential Complements | 92 | 36.9 | 23.1 |
| *with* + NP | 42 | 16.9 | 10.5 |
| *at* + NP | 8 | 3.2 | 2.0 |
| *by* + NP | 4 | 1.6 | 1.0 |
| *about* + NP | 1 | 0.4 | 0.3 |
| *in* + NP | 1 | 0.4 | 0.3 |
| Non-Sentential Complements | 56 | 22.5 | 14.1 |
| Zero complement | 101 | 40.6 | 25.4 |

The complementation of *pleased* in the *CLMET* part 3 is clearly dominated by three patterns: the zero complement, the *to*-infinitive, and *with* + NP. These patterns constitute 89,2 percent of all the tokens. The remaining tokens are also dispersed between seven different patterns. The three most common complementation patterns were extensively featured in dictionaries and literature on

*pleased*, but the seven others are either referenced in one of the works or not mentioned at all, with the exception of *that*-clauses. *That*-clauses as possible complements of *pleased* are mentioned in the *OED*, the *OALD*, and COBUILD, but there were only seven tokens of this complement type in the data.

In terms of semantics, it is interesting that the three common complement patterns neatly correspond to the three senses of *pleased*. While sense 1 of happiness and satisfaction may be found with any complement, the zero complement may be seen as the archetypal pattern here as it was the only one featured in the OED entry for the adjective *pleased*. According to dictionaries, the other two senses are only used with the patterns *with* + NP (sense 2: pride) and *to*-infinitive (sense 3: willingness, inclination). Since both are among the most common complements in the data, it is expected that both of these more infrequent senses will also be found.

### 5.1.2 Zero complement

The zero complement is the most common complementation pattern in the *CLMET* part 3. The high frequency of zero complements was somewhat expected, since *pleased* takes no obligatory complements and the *OED* entry for the adjective only includes examples of this one type of complementation pattern. The sense of *pleased* in the case of zero complements corresponds to sense 1, or the *OED* sense for the adjective *pleased*: "gratified, contented, in a good mood". *Pleased* is usually in a sentence-final position, coordinated, or followed by an adjunct of contingency that either expresses the reason for the state denoted by *pleased* or puts a condition on it.

(5) … Now you talk like a reasonable child,' said Humpty Dumpty, looking very much *pleased*. 'I meant by "impenetrability" that we've has enough of that subject. and it would be just as well if you'… (Carroll 1871, *Through the Looking Glass*)
(6) …and scented like new violets. With this I was so *pleased* and gay, and Ruth so glad to see me gay, that we quite forgot how the time went on… (Blackmore 1869, *Lorna Doone*)
(7) .."She'll have to mind her p's and q's." Sophia was *pleased* because he admired her, and because with her he dropped his bedside jocularities… (Bennett 1908, *The Old Wives' Tale*)

(8) …old magpie just when you used, though I have to come in from big-side for him, the old rip. He won't look *pleased* all I can do, and sticks his head first on one side and then on the other… (Hughes 1857, *Tom Brown's School Days*)

Example (8) presents more of a problem in terms of classification. *All I can do* appears to be a noun phrase that consists of the head *all* and the modifying relative clause (*that*) *I can do*, but both the literature and intuition assert that an adjectival *pleased* cannot have a direct noun phrase complement. Instead, the string resembles an insertion. It is evident from the excerpt of text that the language is colloquial, and it seems safe to assume that what is meant in the sentence can be rephrased as "He won't look pleased *despite* all I can do". Therefore, *pleased* is taken to have zero complement.

The following illustrations contain indirect complements, which are licensed by a premodifier of *pleased* instead of *pleased* itself. Therefore in these and similar cases, *pleased* is taken to have a zero complement.

(9) … I was a stout-hearted wench that has never cried out for fear; and then I was so *pleased*, that I never heeded the ugly sight any more. (Yonge 1870, *The Caged Lion*)

(10) … Last spring Winnie had the measles. When the doctor came on the fifth day he was as *pleased* as punch; he said it was the quickest cure he had ever known, and that really there was no reason… (Jerome 1909, *They and I*)

### 5.1.3 Non-sentential complements

*With* + NP is the only frequent non-sentential complement of *pleased* in the CLMET part 3. The noun phrase following the preposition is a reflexive pronoun in seven tokens. These seem to fit sense 2, pride, quite well and to reinforce the semantic definition given to the reflexive pronoun complement in the *OALD*: "Pleased with yourself. Too proud of sth you have done." The following two examples also exhibit the tone of disapproval.

(11) …He would pick out a girl a quarter of a mile off: always some haughty, well-dressed girl who was feeling *pleased* with herself. As we approached he would eye her with horror and astonishment… (Jerome 1909, *They and I*)

(12) …not thinking of Mowgli's friends at all. They had brought the boy to the Lost City, and were very much *pleased* with themselves for the time… (Kipling 1894, *The Jungle Book*)

The other NP complements are either simple noun phrases, genitive constructions, or noun phrases of a more complicated structure. Thirteen of the tokens are simple noun phrases, which I classify as noun phrases made up of a determiner and a noun, with no added elements to the phrase. Seven of these are [+ human], and six are [- human], [- animate].

(13) ...being in quandary, she arranged to see the servant, and both she and Sophia were very *pleased* with the girl – Rose Bennion by name. (Bennett 1908, *The Old Wives' Tale*)
(14) In Switzerland it is easy to be *pleased* with scenery. (Pater 1886, *Essays from 'The Guardian'*)

The only instances of insertions between *pleased* and its *with* + NP complement were found with the simple noun phrase complements. One of these instances is a marginal representation of the *with* + NP complement, as it could also be seen as a zero complement:

(15) …she would have preferred being his cicerone. She assured him that he must have been very much *pleased*, especially with the matron. "She is a handsome woman, and reminds me strongly… (Yonge 1865, *The Clever Woman of the family*)

What points towards the zero complement is the use of comma, as usually a complement is in the same clause as its head. The prepositional phrase *with the matron* is, however, licensed by *pleased*, which supports the view that the prepositional phrase is a complement.

The genitive constructions that follow *with* amount to 16 in total. Ten of them involve a personal possessive pronoun, two the addition of the possessive marker -'*s*, and four are formed with the prepositional *of* –construction. All of the noun phrase heads in the possessive constructions, except for one, refer to [+ abstract] things, such as *the prospect*, *receptiveness and reproductiveness*, *tone*, *condescension*. It seems that when the possessive pronoun is co-referential with the subject, the complement may be semantically closer to sense 2 than sense 1. Of the following examples, the first two have co-reference between the subject and the possessive pronoun, whereas the last example does not.

(16) …broken into forty pieces, as he fancied. When morning came he was very stiff, but well *pleased* with his doings. "Now I have Nagaina to settle with… (Kipling 1894, *The Jungle Book*)

(17) …or to withdraw the trust once given." "There is," said Ermine, much *pleased* with his whole part in the affair; "there has been full and real candour… (Yonge 1865, *The Clever Woman of the Family*)

(18) …to walk with her towards the village. I was *pleased* with her voice, her refinements, her dress, which was more delicate, and her manners, which were more easy,… (Gosse 1907, *Father and Son*)

There seems to be a closer connection to the pride reading in the first two. This is not altogether surprising, as these are also coreferential constructions, related to the reflexive pronouns that have been connected to sense 2 thus far.

The remaining six tokens in the *with* + NP pattern involve noun phrases where the noun has been relativized, making the noun phrases longer and more complex:

(19) …It was your business to know." But she was *pleased* with the way in which he had accepted her criticism, and the gesture with which he threw away the cigar-end… (Bennett 1908, *The Old Wives' Tale*)

(20) …She would have enjoyed telling it, and would have been *pleased* with the person listening. All this—which would have been the reward of subterfuge… (Jerome 1909, *They and I*)

Example (20) contains a reduced relative clause. *The person who was listening* has been shortened to *the person listening*.

The other non-sentential complements are infrequent compared to *with* + NP, amounting to fourteen tokens. The rarest and most unexpected finding is the single token with the complement *in* + NP. This pattern is not mentioned in the dictionaries and grammars that have been consulted for this study so far, nor was it encountered more than once in the data.

(21) … sitting at home, wept over her desolation, hating in her heart the beauty in which all men were *pleased*. And the king, supposing the gods were angry, inquired of the oracle Apollo, and Apollo… (Pater 1885, *Marius the Epicurian vol.1*)

The complement has been moved through relativization from its place after *pleased*. Pied-piping is in effect since both the preposition *in* and the following noun phrase *which* have been extracted. The antecedent of *which* is *beauty*, a [- human] noun. Whether this complement pattern has a distinguishable meaning of its own is problematic to determine based on one token. After some

searching, one dictionary was found that mentions *in* + NP. It is the fifth entry under *pleased* in Poutsma's (MS) unpublished, partly unfinished dictionary. Poutsma gives an example from the Bible: "*This is my beloved Son in whom I am well pleased*. Bible, Matth., III, 17; XVII, 5.". This sample and the token found in the *CLMET* data suggest that this pattern is rather archaic and I would not expect to find it in the more recent data.

The *by* + NP pattern occurs in the data four times. In two tokens, *pleased* is coordinated with *displeased*, making the adjectival nature of *pleased* evident in these cases as coordination is possible with two or more units of the same grammatical status (Quirk et al. 1985, 46). In these cases, since *displeased* is undoubtedly an adjective, therefore so is *pleased*.

(22) …instinct of devotion in the young Marius. A sense of conscious powers external to ourselves, *pleased* or displeased by the right or wrong conduct of every circumstance of daily life… (Pater 1885, *Marius the Epicurian vol.1*)

As for the other two tokens, it suffices to say that while they are ambiguous and could be interpreted as either verbal or adjectival, both accept intensifiers before *pleased* or the substitution of the verb *be* with another copular verb. The beginning of the sentence in (23) could be changed to *he felt very pleased*:

(23) … hand-grasp was very intimate and mutually comprehending. He was *pleased* by the quick responsiveness of her temperament, and the masterful vigour which occasionally flashed out… (Bennet 1908, *The Old Wives' Tale*)

The meaning associated with prepositional phrases containing *by* is related to the agentive *by*: the following noun phrase denotes the direct cause of the state of being *pleased*. The sense seems slightly reduced: *by* can conceivably be replaced by *with* in the tokens found in the data, but to do the same with prototypical passive sentences would not result in semantically identical or near-identical statements, for example *The carrot was eaten by the rabbit*. =/= *The carrot was eaten with the rabbit*.

The last non-sentential complements *at* + NP and *about* + NP are treated together as they, too, have meanings that are close to each other but can still be differentiated. There are eight tokens

of *at* + NP found in the data, and a single token of *about* + NP. Five of the noun phrases following *at* are possessive phrases, two are nouns preceded by a definite article and one is a pronoun. Many of the nouns denote a possibility of some kind: *prospect, promise*, (*near*) *chance*. While some tokens exhibit some complexity in the noun phrase complement, most are quite simple in form.

(24) Laura has had more than enough excitement and change of scene, and is *pleased* at the prospect of country tranquility and retirement which her husband's prudence provides for her. (Collins 1859-60, *The Woman in White*)

(25) t"… put in Lucy. "The Emersons won't hear, and they wouldn't mind if they did." Miss Lavish did not seem *pleased* at this. "Miss Honeychurch listening!" she said rather crossly. (Forster 1908, *A Room with a View*)

The one token of *about* + NP, however, contains an extraction:

(26) "He forgot to bring it in." "You wicked child!" said Robina severely. "It's nothing to be *pleased* about." "Yes, it is," explained Veronica. (Jerome 1909, *They and I*)

The NP *nothing* has been extracted from its sentence-final position to the start of the clause. While the use of different prepositions may be explained by the Complexity Principle, as *about* is a "bulkier" preposition than *at* and would therefore be expected in more complex environments, there is also reason to believe that change in form indicates a change in meaning as well. This is known as Bolinger's Principle. Bolinger's (1968, 127) assertion that a difference in form always spells a difference in meaning was largely based on studying the differences between infinitival and *–ing* complements, but this may apply to any constructions such as the choice between prepositions in prepositional complements.

Taylor (1993, 151) describes the primary function of prepositions as symbols of conceptualized spatial relations. This function has gone through semantic extension that allows prepositions to convey relations in more abstract domains as well, but these relations can be traced back to the primary function of spatial relation. As *at* and *about* in their spatial sense convey different meanings, the more abstract senses should differ as well. Dirven (1993, 74-75) characterizes the spatial meanings as follows: *at* denotes an orientation point in space, while *about* denotes movement in any direction, within an area. Dirven goes on to map out the extended

meanings of prepositions, arriving at the more remote sense of cause. According to the author, a causal *at* "denotes cause as a target at which one aims one's emotions" (ibid., 93), whereas with *about* the subject seems to move mentally around, or about, the cause of their emotion (ibid., 94). In an appendix of his 1970 grammar, Schibsbye examines the semantics of some prepositions and notes that *about* carries an association of vagueness (1970, 306). He observes that when *about* denotes causal relations, it could often be rephrased with *concerning* or *regarding* (ibid.). In fact, even the *OALD* entry for *about* reads: "on the subject of, in connection with sb/sth". While the two prepositions are similar and both, when used in connection with *pleased*, convey the reason for the state denoted by *pleased*, *at* implies a more direct attachment of the reason to the state while *about* is more indirect. This difference may produce situations where *at* is not interchangeable with *about* or vice versa, but it seems just as likely that the two could be freely used in the same context. It should also be determined whether a change in preposition, though grammatically possible, would result in a change in meaning. This is difficult to assess based on eight instances of *at* and only one instance of *about* in this data. In some of the tokens, it seems that the use of either preposition results in more or less the same reading. In the following example, the bolded element is the preposition found in the actual token, the other is there for comparison.

(27) This process was so congenial to his temper, and Arthur showed himself so *pleased* **at**/about the arrangement, that it was several weeks before Tom was ever in their study before supper. (Hughes 1857, *Tom Brown's School Days*)

In example (25), however, changing the preposition would change the meaning. *Pleased at this* refers to the earlier sentence but with *at*, what is referred to is the sentence as an utterance. The (dis)pleased state is caused by the interjection. If the text were to substitute *at* with *about*, the reference would be to the content of the previous sentence. (26) seems to be very resistant to having *about* replaced by *at*, but this may be more due to the complexity of the sentence than semantic differences. The semantics of prepositions will be studied more in the later sections of analysis.

### 5.1.4 Sentential complements

Sentential complements in the *CLMET* are dominated by the *to*-infinitive. After the zero complement, it is the most abundant complement pattern found in the data. All the non-sentential complement patterns put together amount to 56, which is 23 tokens fewer than there are tokens with the *to*-infinitive complement. The 79 *to*-infinitive complements contain 38 different lower predicates, most common of which are *see* with thirteen, *find* with six, and *call* with six tokens. The *to*-infinitive complements can be divided into three groups that are based on semantics, and some of the lower predicates clearly correspond to a group as well. The three groups are those tokens that undoubtedly represent sense 1, those tokens that undoubtedly represent sense 3, and those tokens which are more difficult to categorize as they could represent either sense. Senses 1 and 3 are nearly equally represented in the data, with 36 and 32 tokens each. This leaves nine tokens of an uncertain status. One token of each group is given in the following examples.

(28) According to his lights also, he administers what he is *pleased* to call spiritual consolation. (Butler 1903, *The Way of All Flesh*)
(29) At lunch he was almost cordial, and kept pressing Bosinney to eat. He was *pleased* to see the architect in such high spirits, and left him to spend the afternoon with Irene, while he stole… (Galsworthy 1906, *The Man of Property*)
(30) "Why did he?" I asked. "Because Princess Flavia said he grazed her cheek when he was graciously *pleased* to give her a cousinly kiss. Come though, we must ride." (Hope 1894, *The Prisoner of Zenda*)

The first two examples feature typical lower predicates that go with different meanings. Sense 1 is found with many of the lower predicates that are found more than once: *see*, *hear*, *find*. Here, *find* is used in the sense "to discover or perceive on inspection or consideration" (*OED*, sense 5a). Therefore it, like *see* and *hear*, is also a verb of perception, which seems to be the prototypical kind of a lower predicate to go with sense 1. The infinitival complements that represent sense 3 are more varied. One way to tell between the senses could be that only sense 3 seems to go with the imperative, for example:

(31) Now, Ernest, be *pleased* to tell me whether this appalling story is true or false?" (Butler 1903, *The Way of All Flesh*)

(32) "O ye children of Apollo! who in time past have stilled the waves of sorrow for many people, lighting up a lamp of safety before those who travel by sea and land, be *pleased*, in your great condescension, though ye be equal in glory with your elder brethren the Dioscuri, and your lot in immortal youth be as theirs, to accept this prayer, which in sleep and vision ye have inspired. (Pater 1885, *Marius the Epicurian*)

Example (32) also exhibits a great amount of complexity. Very long insertions separate both the subject *children of Apollo* from the predicate *be pleased*, and this predicate from its complement *to accept this prayer*. Intuitively, this is not a command to be happy about accepting a prayer so much as a command to be so obliging as to accept a prayer. Sense 3 is often found with infinitival complements that denote giving a name to something, such as *call* as in example (1), *denote*, and *term*. Another group that goes especially well with sense 3 is verbs denoting some kind of concession, like *grant* and *allow*.

(33) But if God be *pleased* to grant me this battle also, then, with His good pleasure, I shall not be forced to have such respect… (Yonge 1870, *The Caged Lion*)

There are few tokens of the *to*-infinitive complements with complexity factors in the data. Example (32) represents an extreme case of insertion, as only three other tokens were found with insertions and none of these is very long. The other inserted elements are *at the same time*, *(so)… as Master Tom*, and *though*. Three tokens have inverted word order either because *pleased* has been fronted for emphasis or for stylistic reasons, as in these examples:

(34) …straight along this road, looking neither to the right nor left, so *pleased* is he to walk. (Galsworthy 1904, *The Island Pharisees*)

(35) Children three that nestle near, Eager eye and willing ear,
*Pleased* a simple tale to hear - Long has paled that sunny sky…
(Carroll 1871, *Through the Looking Glass*)

There are eight instances of extraction among the *to*-infinitive complements. What seems remarkable is that all nine are found with *to*-infinitive complements that represent sense 3. Five tokens feature relativization and three topicalization.

(36) "And what may be the nature of the Figure which I am to shape out by this motion which you are *pleased* to denote by the word 'upward'? I presume it is describable in the language of Flatland." (Abbott 1884, *Flatland*)

(37) …to act according to my own conscience, and as consisted with the honour of a loyal gentleman – for so he was *pleased* to term me. (Blackmore 1869, *Lorna Doone*)

*Term* in (37) needs both a direct and an indirect object, which has been extracted to the beginning of the sentence.

The other sentential complements found are *that*-clauses, *at* + *-ing* and *at* + poss. + *-ing* complements, but all of these are rather marginal. *That*-clause complements are well-covered in the literature and importantly, are used when the subject of the lower clause is not co-referential with the subject of the higher clause, since the *to*-infinitive construction cannot perform like this. Indeed, none of the seven tokens of *that*-clause complements include co-reference between the higher and lower subjects. Four of them have the putative *should* in the lower clause. The putative *should* is used to express uncertainties and subjective statements. As sentences need to be finite in order to use *should*, these tokens cannot be rephrased with the *to*-infinitive without loss of meaning.

(38) …and upon this occasion he had been surprised beyond any ordinary surprise; lastly, he was not at all *pleased* that Nella should be observed in that strange predicament by a stranger. (Bennett 1902, *The Grand Babylon Hotel*)

The complementizer *that* is present in six tokens and absent in one. This one token is an interesting case in other aspects as well:

(39) "But how shall I leave him dreeft?" said poor Manuel. “What do you yourself if you find him so? Eh, wha-at’? We are in one good boy, and I am ever so *pleased* he come to be your son.” (Kipling 1897, *Captains Courageous*)

The character featured in this extract speaks in a dialect form of English that makes it harder to determine grammatical relations, but the only really sensible interpretation that can be arrived at here is that *pleased* is followed by a *that*-clause complement where the complementizer *that* has been omitted.

In one of the *that*-clause complements, the subordinate clause is passive:

(40) …who were having their town of Rochelle besieged. But the English were not *pleased* that the command of the army was given to the duke of Buckingham, his proud, insolent favourite. (Yonge 1873, *Young Folk’s History of England*)

The corresponding active would be *somebody gave the command of the army to the duke of Buckingham*. The passive construction highlights the direct object *the command of the army*.

Passive constructions are more complex than active ones, and therefore support the use of the complementizer *that*.

There are six gerundial sentential complements. All are headed by the preposition *at*. Two also contain a pronoun before the gerund, one in the possessive and one in an undetermined case, either possessive or accusative. The possessive form is used as a modifier to show the subject of doing when that subject is not coreferent with the higher subject.

(41) She was much *pleased* at being helped to do what she felt to be right and kind, though hitherto she had hardly known how to… (Yonge 1865, *The Clever Woman of the Family*)
(42) …and everyone who remembered old Mr and Mrs Pontifex spoke warmly of them and were *pleased* at their granddaughter's wishing to be laid near them. (Butler 1903, *The Way of All Flesh*)
(43) "Eighteen, dear John;" said Ruth, coming over with the empty bottle; and I was *pleased* at her calling me 'John', and had a great mind to kiss her. (Blackmore 1869, *Lorna Doone*)

The subject of the gerund can be in either the possessive or the accusative case. According to Quirk et al. (1985, 1064, 1194), the possessive case is preferred in some circumstances and avoided in others. Biber et al. (1999, 705) also mention that there has been a prescriptive tradition in favour of the possessive form with gerund clauses. The possessive also makes the interpretation of the gerundial clause more nominal because possessives are usually followed by noun phrases. In his *Nouniness Squish*, a continuum that contains different complements arranged according to their verbal or nominal nature, Ross (2004, 351) places *Acc Ing* complements just above *Poss Ing* complements in verbal quality. Gerundial complements with no overt subject are placed on the scale with the *Acc Ing* complements. (42) is a clear case of the *Poss Ing* complement, but (43) is ambiguous because *her* could be either accusative or possessive. Nunnally (1991, 361) discusses two types of gerunds: nominal-force gerunds and verbal-force gerunds. Nominal-force gerunds, when a gerund is strongly felt to be a noun, are more likely or even bound to be found with genitival subjects (ibid., 362). Verbal-force gerunds, on the other hand, are likely to have an accusative subject, but Nunnally does not feel that this is as mandatory as the choice of subject case

for nominal-force gerunds. Therefore, while we can recognize the gerund in (43) to have verbal force, it still cannot be determined whether the subject is accusative or possessive. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 1190) even say that the accusative gerundial form may be treated as a less formal variant of the possessive *–ing* form complement. Though ambiguous, the complement pattern in (43) is therefore classified here as *at* + poss. + *-ing*.

### 5.1.5 Review

This section presented an analysis of the data taken from the *CLMET* part 3. 249 tokens were included in the analysis and these were divided into ten groups according to their complementation pattern. The most frequent pattern was the zero complement, so named because there is actually nothing in the complement position. The zero complement is also a complementation choice, and is therefore included as its own category of complement. This category accounted for 40.6 percent of all analyzed tokens. The zero complement was found to go with sense 1 of *pleased*. The rest of the complementation patterns were divided in to groups based on sententiality. One dominant pattern emerged for both groups: for sentential complements, it was the *to*-infinitive, and for non-sentential complements, the *with* + NP pattern.

Non-sentential complements were divided into one extremely common pattern and a few rarer ones. All non-sentential complements are prepositional phrases, and the variation between them is really variation between different prepositions. The rarer non-sentential complements were *at* + NP, *by* + NP, *about* + NP and *in* + NP. Semantic differences between prepositions, especially *at* and *about*, were found and it was deemed possible that this may influence choice of complement, although the low number of complements representing these patterns made drawing any definite conclusions difficult. The *in* + NP pattern was not expected, and was only found among previous works in Poutsma's dictionary (MS) from the beginning of the 20$^{th}$ century. The most frequent pattern in the group corresponded to two senses of *pleased*. *With* + NP can be found with both the

basic sense 1 and sense 2. It was suggested in the analysis that while reflexive pronouns following *with* are the prototypical realization of sense 2, any noun phrase that is coreferential with the subject has the potential to have a meaning related to sense 2.

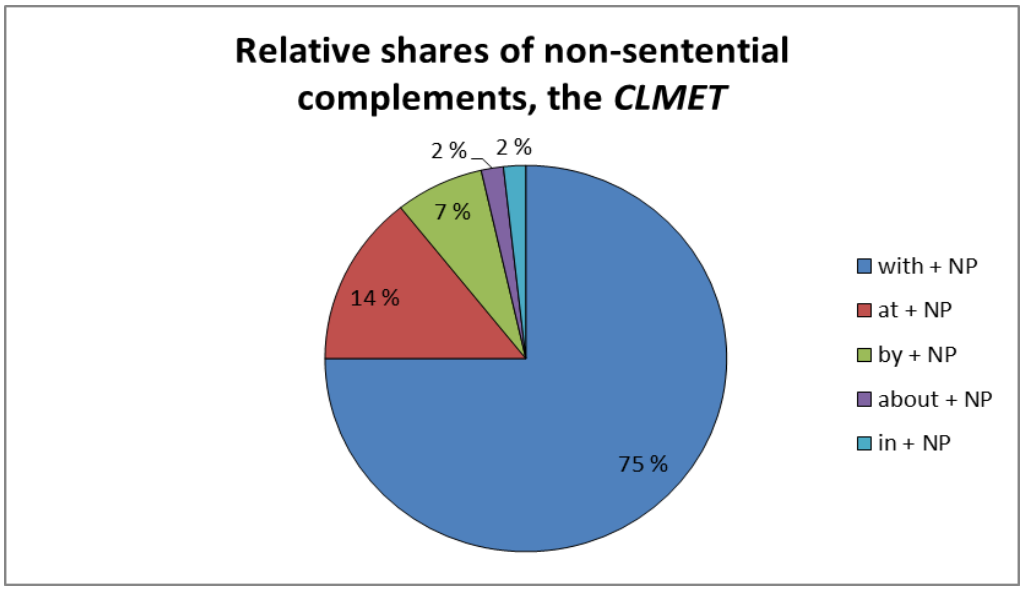


Figure 5.1. Relative shares of non-sentential complements of *pleased* in the *CLMET* part 3.

Four sentential complement patterns were found. Only thirteen sentential tokens other than the *to*-infinitive emerged, and these were either *that*-clauses or prepositional phrases containing a gerund. The amount of that-clauses was perhaps surprisingly low considering how widely it is recognized in the literature. Gerundial complements, on the other hand, were not anticipated by dictionaries or grammars but were found in the data. At least 32 tokens of the *to*-infinitive were found to match with the third, willingness, sense of *pleased*. The other sentential complements correspond to sense 1.

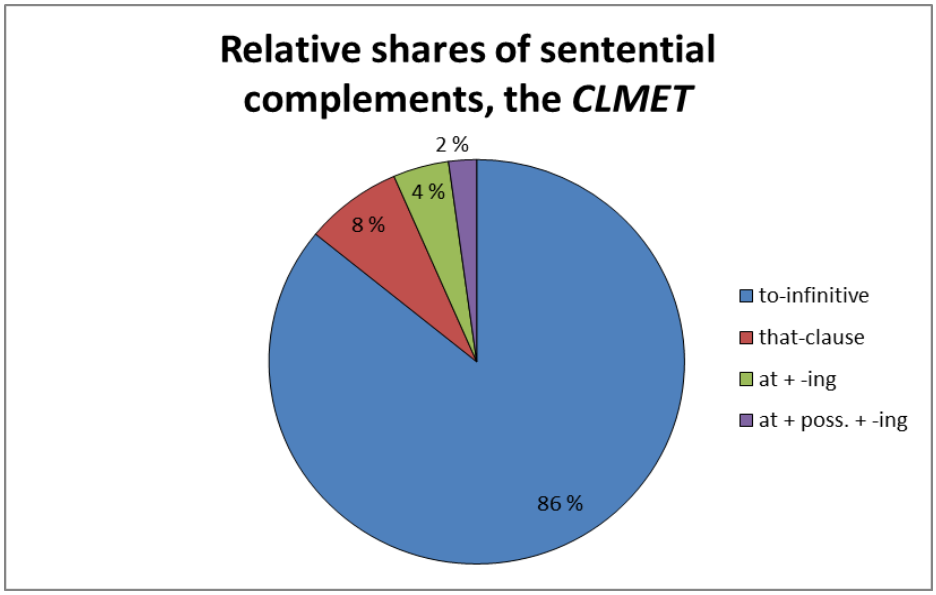


Figure 5.2. Relative shares of sentential complements of *pleased* in the *CLMET* part 3.

## 5.2 The *BNC*, imaginative prose

The data for this section was drawn from the *BNC* subsection *imaginative prose*, which contains 16,496,408 words. Search string *{pleased}_AJ**, which should come up with all the adjectival uses of *pleased*, was used in order to ease the processing of the data. This query returns 1618 hits; as a more restricted sample is sufficient for this study, the method *random selection* was used to further limit the tokens to a random twenty percent portion, totaling 323 tokens. This portion is reproducible with an identical search string.

### 5.2.1 Summary of findings

There were some tokens in the data that are for various reasons not relevant to the present study. These tokens are excluded from the deeper analysis of complementation patterns. They will however be briefly reviewed next. Some problematic cases will also be introduced.

Although the adjectival tag was used in the *BNC* query to eliminate the past participle form of the verb *please*, analysis of the data revealed five remaining tokens where *pleased* is clearly not adjectival but the verb *please* in past tense, examples including:

(44) Why should not people do as they pleased with their own bodies? AC6 1539
(45) He could see that this remark pleased Mandru. GW2 656

As this study concerns complementation, the analysis will be conducted on predicative adjectives and not attributive adjectives, since they occur within a noun phrase and do not have complements of their own. Therefore three query hits, such as *A pleased smile spread across David's face* (A0R 1168) will be excluded as well. Finally, six tokens in total are disqualified from analysis as they appear to be only fragments and not complete sentences ( *A harmless trick, and you'll be pleased*- HNP 252).

There are also two instances of the British English idiom *(as) pleased as Punch* in the data. The first *as* is omitted in both cases. This will not be listed as a complementation pattern, we will merely note that *as* only appears with one specific NP in the idiomatic expression *pleased as Punch*. In addition, two tokens involve comparative clauses (e.g. *I might be tempted to do it, and no one would be less pleased than you if I did.* K8S 424), which will also be omitted from a more detailed analysis. These four cases correspond to indirect complements discussed in section 4.3.4. As expressions with indirect complements are capable of taking a direct complement as well, these cases will be counted among the tokens with zero complement.

Another matter that is important for this study is determining how to treat tokens where *pleased* and its possible complements occur on their own, functioning like a clause:

(46) *Pleased*, they trailed outside, disappeared down the concrete road. AT4 1210
(47) The fat Major, *pleased* with such a scene of rural innocence, smiled happily, then, as he waited for his snack, dozed. CMP 936

Quirk et al call instances like these supplementive adjective clauses (1985, 424). The adjective phrase is the sole realization of a clause, and especially when it comes after the subject of the superordinate clause, it could be reformulated as a relative clause: "The fat Major, who was pleased with such a scene of rural innocence, smiled happily". A supplementive adjective clause refers to an attribute or state of the subject of the main clause (ibid., 425). It is often possible to formulate a counterpart for the verbless clause with the missing form of the verb *be* and the subject from the main clause (ibid., 996). Therefore, the supplementive adjective clauses in the data will be analyzed

in the same way as any other token, for example, (46) has a zero complement and (47) a *with* + NP complement. Supplementive adjective clauses are quite frequent in the data. One explanation for the frequency of the construction is that the source of the data is the imaginative prose domain of the *BNC*. Imaginative prose tends to be expressive and use more of the kind of complex structures like supplementive adjective clauses than would be used for example in conversation.

Eight tokens are followed by a prepositional phrase with the head *by*. As was seen earlier in section 2.2, these can be interpreted as passive sentences where the participle *pleased* is followed by a *by*-phrase denoting an agent, or as active sentences where the adjective *pleased* is followed by a *by + NP*.

(48) And it seemed to Tom, at any rate, that not everybody was best pleased by the election. ALS 43

By definition, an agent is something animate, therefore (48) is not commonly considered to have the verb *please* in the passive. The *OED Online* mentions *best pleased* under the entry for *best* and defines it as "*most pleased, particularly pleased*", *most* as the superlative premodifier and *particularly* as an intensifier suggest that *best*, in the manner of *very*, performs as an intensifier before an adjective. Nevertheless, *best* behaves differently from these intensifiers of adjectives, since it cannot modify archetypal adjectives (e.g. **best beautiful)* but rather premodifies past participle forms of verbs only (BNC search yields examples like *best enjoyed*, *best picked*, *best expressed* etc.). This gives rise to both adjective and participle interpretations. In (48), the copular *be* can also be replaced by another copular verb, for example *feel*: *And it seemed to Tom, at any rate, that not everybody felt best pleased by the election*. The adjectival interpretation seems more likely here and for the rest of the tokens of this type in the data, therefore they are analyzed among non-sentential complements and included in the table of complements, but the reader is advised to keep in mind the ambiguous nature of the construction.

After excluding the irrelevant tokens that have been surveyed above, 309 tokens are left for the study. These tokens are presented according to their complementation patterns, in order of frequency, in the following table.

Table 5.2. Complements of *pleased* in the *BNC* imaginative prose.

| Complement type | Number of tokens | Percentage | NF/million |
|---|---|---|---|
| *to*-infinitive | 96 | 31.1 | 29.1 |
| *that*-clause | 29 | 9.4 | 8.8 |
| *with* + *wh*-clause | 4 | 1.3 | 1.2 |
| *at* + *wh*-clause | 1 | 0.3 | 0.3 |
| Sentential Complements | 130 | 42.1 | 39.4 |
| *with* + NP | 60 | 19.4 | 18.2 |
| *about* + NP | 8 | 2.6 | 2.4 |
| *at* + NP | 8 | 2.6 | 2.4 |
| *by* + NP | 8 | 2.6 | 2.4 |
| *for* + NP | 3 | 1.0 | 0.9 |
| Non-Sentential Complements | 87 | 28.2 | 26.4 |
| Zero complement | 92 | 29.8 | 27.9 |

The most common complementation patterns found in the data are also patterns that had the most examples in dictionary entries. Patterns not mentioned in the literature are *for* + NP and *wh* –clauses introduced by a preposition, and they have a very low frequency. As discussed earlier, whether *by* + NP should be included as a complementation pattern or not is a somewhat problematic decision, but one reason for its inclusion that is immediately available before deeper analysis of the pattern is that the BNC search string is expected to have come up with adjectival instances of *pleased* only.

### 5.2.2 Zero complement

In the data, the zero complement pattern is only surpassed in number of tokens by the *to* –infinitive pattern. The high frequency of zero complements was somewhat expected, since *pleased* takes no obligatory complements and the *OED* entry for the adjective only includes examples of this one type of complementation pattern. The sense of *pleased* in the case of zero complements corresponds to sense 1, or the *OED* sense for the adjective *pleased*: "gratified, contented, in a good mood".

(49) Ranald was scarlet, but Luch could see he was *pleased*. APW 1499
(50) He had a way of stretching his long jaw forward when he was *pleased*. CEX 2533

As *pleased* was seen by all accounts to be an adjective expressing emotion, therefore assigning the role of experiencer to its subject, it is expected that all of the subjects found in the data would be animate. There is one token that seems anomalous to this expectation:

(51) Accounts would be *pleased*. CLD 2702

As the majority of the data collected from the *BNC*, in addition to the grammars consulted in section 2.2, points towards *pleased* needing an animate subject, it is assumed that *accounts* here denotes something animate and indeed, the *OED* lists as one sub-sense of *account* "a customer or client having an account with a firm". Another possible interpretation would be *the department of accounts*, denoting a group of people that constitute a department.

The zero complement pattern is, for the most part, easy to identify as *pleased* in these cases usually occurs in sentence-final position. When *pleased* is not the last word in a sentence, the word order is usually inverted because of a *wh* –word, or what follows is an adjunct:

(52) 'How *pleased* your uncle will be,' said Finn, loitering for hot shaving water. FRC 1189
(53) I could see he wasn't *pleased* at the door, but he asked us up. G07 1598
(54) At first I thought that Stapleton would be very *pleased* if his sister married Sir Henry. H7V 760

### 5.2.3 Non-sentential complements

*With* + NP is the most common non-sentential complement with *pleased*. This was expected, as *with* was featured with ample examples in each dictionary, and it may be used in both senses 1 (satisfaction) and 2 (pride). *With* + NP is also, according to dictionaries, the only complement pattern possible with sense 2. Out of the 60 tokens of *with* + NP, 25 include a reflexive as the dependent noun phrase. Every one of these instances have the sense of pride, however, the same can be said in the case of some NP complements other than the reflexives. A tone of disapproval, though possible, cannot be said to be common. What is striking about the items that contain the reflexive compared to the rest of the *with* + NP tokens is that they seem much more likely to have an adverb of degree as a modifier before *pleased*, especially *very*.

(55) I was pretty *pleased* with myself. A74 1094
(56) A few minutes later, Van entered, looking very *pleased* with himself. CDN 397
(57) Noah felt very *pleased* with himself, and looked forward to an easy life of crime in the capital. FRK 1742

The other *with* + NP complements are divided into those that include an animate entity NP, often a proper noun or a pronoun, and those that include an inanimate NP. The majority of these tokens have inanimate noun phrases. In many cases, they denote a *result of something (someone has been working towards)*, and *pleased* in these cases usually has both the senses of contentment and pride.

(58) Horatia was smiling to herself, *pleased* with the web of lies she was weaving. EVC 2292
(59) When she took it from the oven she was *pleased* with it, but later, placing it on the trestle table in the hall where refreshments were to be served, she saw that Sister Dew's was higher. HA4 755

According to the data from the *BNC*, *with* and *for* are the only prepositions that are followed by an animate NP.

*For* + NP is the rarest non-sentential complement pattern in the data. It corresponds to sense 1, *happiness or satisfaction*, but with *for* + NP it is always *happiness on behalf of someone*.

(60) He was *pleased* for his Dad, and things were better between them. ALJ 1964

Searching the full British National Corpus for *pleased for* yields 39 tokens, two of which are not instances of complementation. There are also five tokens where the complement, a *for* + NP + *to*-infinitive, is sentential rather than non-sentential and will be treated with the *to*-infinitive pattern. For all the remaining tokens, the noun phrase is realized by a pronoun or a proper name denoting an animate being.

It was noted in chapter 4 that Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 542) see the complementizers *at* and *about* as alternates with chiefly the same meaning. Therefore perhaps it can be expected that the choice between *at* and *about* will be influenced by the complexity principle. However, as discussed in the analysis of the CLMET data, it seems that the variation is not so straightforward. Both complement types are found in both simple and complex environments. There is one instance of extraction, which is a complexity factor because it makes a sentence discontinuous, and the longer preposition *about* is used in this instance, but it alone is not conclusive enough that we can say the Complexity Principle governs the choice between *at* and *about*.

(61) She sounded as if it was something he was going to be *pleased* about. ABX 804

It seems likely that there are at least some semantic or stylistic differences influencing the choice of prepositions. The noun phrases following *about* are less varied than the ones following *at*, and they are mostly pronouns that refer to something already mentioned, for example:

(62) 'He's started again and he's *pleased* about it,' Therese said. F9R 2728

Among the varied noun phrases found with *at*, the biggest group with similar characteristic consists of nouns that denote a result of a cognitive process: *idea, notion, thought*. The source that makes the subject pleased seems more immediate or current when paired with the preposition *at*. Since trying to substitute *about* with *at* and vice versa in some cases makes the sentence sound odd, I do not think the prepositions are quite as interchangeable as Huddleston and Pullum suggest. Consider for example the following cases, wherein I propose the difference is in the directness aspect that was discussed in the *CLMET* analysis:

(63) Everyone was *pleased* about the German two-seater, whose remains lay outside in the back of a lorry; but nobody was going to say so while Woolley was in the room. HRA 1503

(64) Lovat was *pleased* at her reaction and leaned forward to pat her hand. EVC 2769

The relation between the preposition and the string that comes after it is more direct and immediate in (64) than in (63). It also seems that *about* and *at* can be interchangeable with *by*. Most of the complements with the prepositions *at* and *about* would still be well-formed grammatically and semantically if replaced with the preposition *by*, though this does not apply in all cases, for example with (63), since it is not the German two-seater that pleases everyone but the apparent destruction of it. *About* is able to refer to the events pertaining to the German two-seater and not just the German two-seater itself.

The *by* + NP complements all involve an inanimate entity following *by*. This is a good indication towards the adjectival interpretation for *pleased*. Two tokens have *feel* before *pleased*, which makes the adjectival reading explicit. The rest of the *by* + NP tokens have no trouble taking on an intensifier *very* before *pleased* or changing the copular verb to *feel*, though some of them may do so better than others:

(65) He was pleased by the progress of the flotation: SUPPLYKITS was thriving; KITS had sacrificed its 1966 profit only to facilitate the other company's expansion. FPB 2024
> He felt very pleased by the progress of flotation…

(66) His assassins were dead, Philip would not be pleased by that; the dwarfs had carried out many an assassination on behalf of the French King and their skills and expertise would be solely missed. H9C 3080
> His assassins were dead, Philip would not feel very pleased by that…

In (66) the meaning may be interpreted to change a little, perhaps towards a slightly sarcastic reading, with the changes to the construction, but it is a perfectly possible sentence.

### 5.2.4 Sentential complements

There were three kinds of sentential complements in the data : *to*-infinitival clauses, *that*-clauses, and *wh*-clauses introduced by a preposition. The *to*-infinitive is the most common complement pattern with 96 tokens, which constitute almost one third of all the complement patterns. It is likely that one of the reasons for this high frequency is the idiomatic expression *pleased to meet you*, although *meet* was not the most common infinitival complement of *pleased*. The three most common lower predicates were *see* (34 tokens), *meet* (15 tokens), and *hear* (10 tokens). The remaining 37 *to* –infinitive complements involve 26 different verbs. These findings fit together with the characterization by Quirk et al (1985, 1226) that with emotive adjective predicates the infinitive clause expresses causation, ie. the subject is pleased because of something seen or heard, or because of an event like a meeting. Many of the sentences with the *to* –infinitive pattern occur in direct speech, especially when the lower predicate is *meet*, which occurs outside of direct speech only once. This highlights how prevalent the idiomatic expression of politeness is in conversation:

(67) ‘Pleased to meet you, Miss.’ A7J 1586
(68) ‘Pleased to meet you, I’m sure,’ she said, keeping her hands firmly clasped over her bombazine-covered girth. BP1 1423

As discussed earlier, the infinitival constructions involve subject control, which means that the complements refer to the action of the higher subject. The *for* + NP + *to*-infinitive subtype is a means to avoid this restriction as the understood subject of the subordinate clause is controlled by the noun phrase following *for*.

When senses of *pleased* were investigated, sense 3 was found with some tokens that had *to*-infinitive complements. Whereas in the *CLMET* part 3 the distinction between senses 1 and 3 was mostly clear and only nine tokens could not be definitively classified as representing one or the other sense, the *BNC imaginative prose* data provides very different results. Tokens that could not be classified by sense amounted to 17. The unambiguous *to*-infinitive complements in the *CLMET*

were found to be divided almost evenly between the two senses. Here, sense 1 is clearly more common with 70 tokens, leaving nine tokens that unquestionably express sense 3:

(69) He had smugly recognized in Patricia symptoms of what he was *pleased* to term an adolescent crush on himself. GVT 2894
(70) PAMELA: When your ladyship is *pleased* to speak intelligibly I shall know how to answer. FU4 1232
(71) Twoflower was only too *pleased* to allow this, since that enabled the little man to appear in his own pictures. HA3 946

The clearest case of these is (70), which is further removed from the underlying happiness sense than the other tokens. The meaning is fully focused on willingness and inclination. As in the *CLMET*, one group of lower predicates that was found to coincide with sense 3 was those that give a name to something, such as *term* or *call*. Cases that may be representatives of both sense 1 and 3 include:

(72) What is this game you are *pleased* to play with me? K8S 607
(73) You'll be *pleased* to see me, then? HTS 1509

Example (72) seems to include a sense of inclination, "what is this game you elect to play with me", though it is quite certain that the inclination is felt to be pleasing for the subject *you*. Though *see* as a lower predicate more commonly seems to match with sense 1, in (73) the future orientation and the enquiring tone of the sentence mean that it could fit both senses.

*That*-clauses are the other major sentential complement type. The BNC imaginative prose section included 29 tokens with *that*-clause complements, 17 of which retain the complementizer *that* and 12 of which omit it. It seems that some cases of retention can be explained by the Complexity Principle, although not all. The following are examples of the cases where complexity may play a role:

(74) After the first week I came to the reluctant conclusion that Charlie Trumper wasn't going to be *pleased* that I had sacrificed ten pounds of our money – six of his and four of mine – just to appease my female vanity. K8T 1719

(75) Athelstan was *pleased* then that the coroner had accompanied them. K95 2471

(74) contains several subordinate clauses and has a discontinuous construction, (75) only has the added *then* but that alone is enough to conceivably complicate the processing of the sentence were the complementizer omitted. Another factor that seems to play at least somewhat of a role in the choice of retaining or omitting *that* is whether the text is reported or direct speech. Direct speech is more likely to omit *that*:

(76) 'I'm especially *pleased* you have such a fondness for babies. BP1 1410
(77) I'm so *pleased* he's here.' FRS 2563
(78) BEATRIX: You should be *pleased* I think otherwise. G0N 2586

These results are in accordance with the findings presented in the *Longman Grammar*. *That* complementizers are most likely to be omitted in conversation. The Complexity Principle may of course influence this tendency, as conversation tends to contain common and simple constructions that do not require a high level of explicitness from constituents.

There are no cases where the subordinate clause has a putative *should*. In fact, in the entire BNC I have managed to find only one *that*-clause complement of *pleased* that has *should* in the subordinate clause. This differs from the CLMET, which had a low number of *that*-clause complements, but over half of them contained the putative *should*. This seems to indicate that the emotional or subjunctive use of *should* has declined markedly in the last hundred years.

As the *to*-infinitive pattern will always have a higher subject coreferent with the lower subject, it is expected that the subjects would not be coreferent in the *that*-clause pattern. There are four tokens in the data where this expectation is not met. The clearest case is:

(79) I'm *pleased* I've managed to get hold of you at last. HGM 2441

Here, the *that*-clause complement is perfectly interchangeable with the *to*-infinitive complement (e.g. *I'm pleased to have managed to get hold of you at last*.) but the choice of *that*-clause is more likely because of the *horror aequi* effect, since otherwise there will be two consecutive *to*-infinitives. The other three are different in that it seems the *that*-clause may actually be an indirect

complement licensed by *so*, an element preceding *pleased* in all three cases. This conclusion is drawn when we note that omitting *so* makes the sentences ill-formed.

(80) So *pleased* had Irving been that, in congratulation, he had shaken her foot… FPH 353

(81) He'd felt so *pleased*, victorious even, after leaving the depot, that he'd quite forgotten about dropping the form. H7F 1745

(82) I only came over because our strategy has succeeded with Lopez and I was so *pleased* I wanted to tell you about it. JYA 4415

In these sentences, the subordinate clause does not express the cause of the state that *pleased* denotes, as it does in all the other tokens of this pattern, but rather the result of that state. These three tokens could perhaps be better categorized as representatives of the zero complement pattern.

The last sentential pattern, preposition + *wh*-clause, was very few in numbers. The prepositions found with this pattern were *with* and *at*. The *wh* word used in each case is *what*. The prepositional complements found with this search are *at* (2 tokens), *by* (5 tokens) and *with* (26 tokens). The *wh*-clauses that follow *with* involve extraction where the object of the subordinate clause has been moved into the sentence-initial position, whereas the one *at* + *wh*-clause has *what* as a subject, so it appears not to have moved.

(83) He looked about him and was pleased with what he saw. J54 1745

(84) If you really care about my happiness, you will be pleased at what has happened. CEY 2926

Quirk et al. (1985, 1225) have noted that most adjectives that take *wh*-clause complements are intrinsically negative in meaning, which is clearly not the case with *pleased*, although the *with* + *wh*-clause arguments may at times be interpreted as exhibiting sense 2, pride and possibly smugness, which could be construed as a somewhat negative meaning. This could be the case with example (83), and is perhaps clearer with this token:

(85) I looked down at his body, and was pleased with what I had done. H8G 502

### 5.2.5 Review

This section presented an analysis of the data taken from the *BNC* imaginative prose section, which dates from roughly a hundred years later in time than the *CLMET*. 309 tokens were analysed and overall, ten complementation patterns emerged. The zero complement continued as one of the most common patterns, but the *to*-infinitive was even more common. The top three was again completed by the most frequent non-sentential complement, *with* + NP.

Though *with* + NP remained the most common non-sentential complement pattern, this category was divided more evenly than in the *CLMET*, if not by much. Slightly less than one third of non-sentential complements were represented by other patterns. Of these, *about* + NP, *at* + NP and *by* + NP had equal shares of tokens. With three tokens, *for* + NP was the least frequent pattern. Sense 1 was again concluded to be the common sense of *pleased*, but tokens of *with* + NP that included coreferential noun phrases were found to match sense 2.

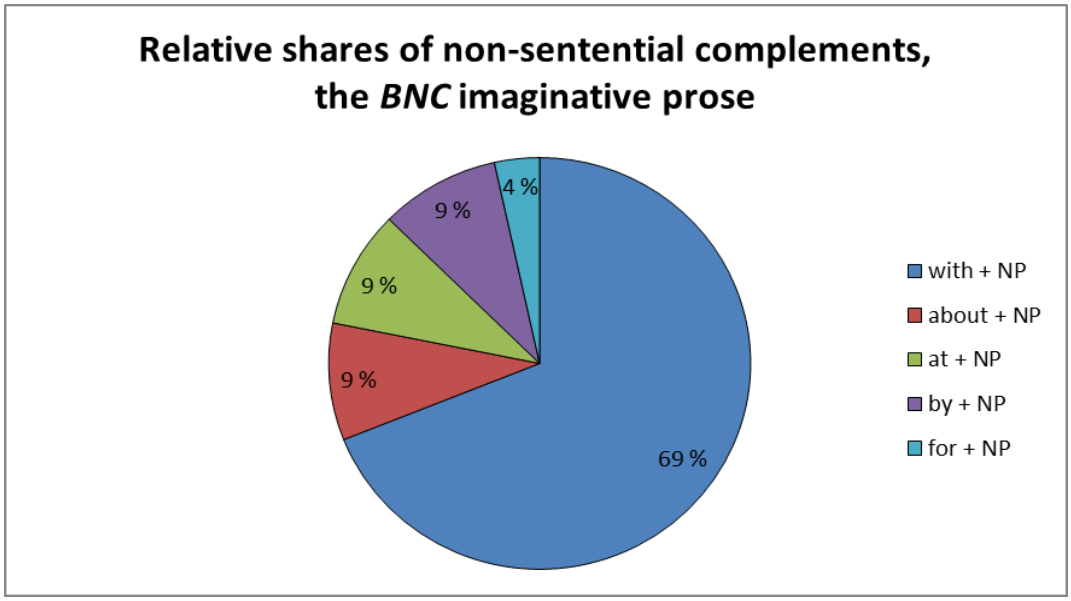


Figure 5.3. Relative shares of non-sentential complements of *pleased* in the *BNC* imaginative prose

The *to*-infinitive makes up approximately three quarters of sentential complements, continuing strong since the *CLMET*. The biggest change was in the number of *that*-clause complements, their normalized frequency rising from 2.8 per million in the *CLMET* data to 8.8 per

million in the *BNC* imaginative prose. The higher frequency made it possible to test whether retention of the complementizer *that* was influenced by some extra-semantic factors bearing on complementation, and both the Complexity Principle and the *horror aequi* principle were found to contribute to the choice. Rare sentential patterns included four *with* + *wh*-clauses and one *at* + *wh*-clause. No gerundial complements were found in the data. The number of tokens that express sense 3 was significantly lower than in the *CLMET* part 3. Only nine *to*-infinitive complements were felt to be clear representatives of sense 3, while 70 tokens were classified as realizing sense 1, and 17 tokens were too ambiguous to make a reliable distinction between one sense or the other.

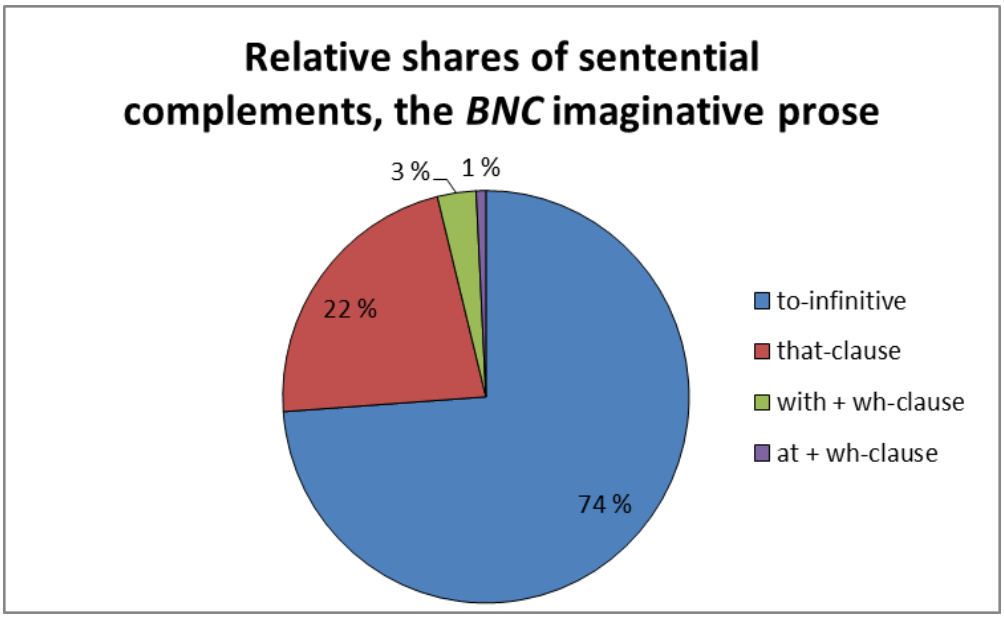


Figure 5.4. Relative shares of sentential complements of *pleased* in the *BNC* imaginative prose

### 5.3 The *BNC*, spoken domain

The spoken domain of the *BNC* consists of 10,409,858 words. The same search string as in the imaginative prose section, *{pleased}_AJ**, was used in order to raise the precision of the search. The search results in 571 hits, which is a little more than is needed for this study. Therefore, the number of tokens was reduced with the thinning option of the *BNC*, which produces a random and reproducible subset of hits. In this case, the results were thinned to sixty percent, resulting in 342 tokens. Three tokens of pleased show up in the data twice because of repetition, which can be explained by the mechanics of spoken language as it contains quite a lot of pauses and false stops, for example:

(86) Annoying when your not *pleased* with when you spent all your time doing it and then your not *pleased* with it. KCD 4894

Here, the sentence does not contain two separate instances of *pleased* each with their own complement, but rather a last-second insertion in the form of *when you spent all your time doing it*. Although *pleased* is twice in the finally produced sentence, there is clearly repetition and this token need only be counted once into the final data. The other tokens that are found twice in the data are *F71 13* and *JSA 62*. This brings the total number of tokens under analysis in this section to 339.

#### 5.3.1 Summary of findings

Out of the 339 tokens, 15 were discarded from further analysis. One instance was verbal and the remaining fourteen did not provide sufficient information for analysis on complementation as they were fragments. The spoken domain is prone to have more fragments than the written section, whether because of unclear recording or starts and stops that leave a complement unrealized. In many cases of fragmentary tokens, the complementation pattern could be determined through examining the wider context of the utterance on the *BNC*. If the instance could not be categorized based on complementation, it was defined as a fragment and set aside. The following examples contain the one verbal token and an example of a fragment:

(87) Yet, after all, my task was not an easy one [pause] often I would rather have *pleased* than teased him. K60 913
(88) Well, I know, I know, [unclear] *pleased*. JJ7 332

Some of the tokens were labeled as fragments because of ambiguity. Consider the following:

(89) And just last Two year ago I met one of the older kind and oh she wasn't *pleased* where they used to do their put their camps. G62 207

Omission of components is frequent in spoken language (McCarthy 1998, 76) as it usually does not affect comprehension. In example (89), the message of the utterance is clear but we cannot ascertain what preposition has been omitted before the *wh*-clause, or if anything has been omitted at all, though the rest of the data would seem to support that.

This section follows the other two analysis sections in classifying tokens with indirect complements according to their direct complements, which usually means a zero complement. There were four of such tokens in the data. Two of them had a zero complement and the other two had a *to*-infinitive complement.

(90) I could, I used to run it down [gap:name] and er, and that's the only reason me mother would let me, but they was *pleased* as punch when I stopped and went and worked for me dad again. G4R 215
(91) He will be as *pleased* as I to know that in Essex there are now sixty three secondary and fifty five primary schools operating with grant maintained status. JSH 297

Example (90) demonstrates a common feature of spoken language: omission of the initial element in a structure. In this case, the *as* that licenses the indirect complement *as punch* has been omitted. As these tokens are included in the analysis, the final number of tokens under study is 324.

Table 5.3. Complements of *pleased* in the *BNC* spoken domain

| Complement type | Number of tokens | Percentage | NF/million |
|---|---|---|---|
| *to*-infinitive | 114 | 35.2 | 18.3 |
| *that*-clause | 46 | 14.2 | 7.4 |
| *with* + *wh*-clause | 4 | 1.2 | 0.6 |
| *about* + acc. + *-ing* | 1 | 0.3 | 0.2 |
| *with* + acc. + *-ing* | 1 | 0.3 | 0.2 |
| Sentential Complements | 166 | 51.2 | 26.6 |
| *with* + NP | 66 | 20.4 | 10.6 |
| *about* + NP | 19 | 5.9 | 3.0 |
| *by* + NP | 4 | 1.2 | 0.6 |
| *at* + NP | 2 | 0.6 | 0.3 |
| *for* + NP | 2 | 0.6 | 0.3 |
| Non-Sentential Complements | 93 | 28.7 | 14.9 |
| Zero complement | 65 | 20.1 | 10.4 |

Although there has been variation in the complementation patterns that have been found in the data, the total number of complementation patterns amounts to ten or eleven for all sub-corpora. The *BNC* spoken domain contains five prominent patterns and six marginal ones. The most frequent pattern is the *to*-infinitive, but among sentential complements the number of *that*-clause complements is quite high as well, raising the total share of sentential complements higher than in the *CLMET* (36.9%) or the *BNC* imaginative prose (42.6%). *With* + NP continues as the dominant non-sentential complementation pattern, but with 19 tokens *about* + NP is strikingly more frequent than in the other two sub-corpora. The zero complement remains among the most frequent patterns as well.

### 5.3.2 Zero complement

The zero complement, while still a common pattern, is less frequent in the *BNC* spoken domain than the other sub-corpora. It has gone down from representing two fifths of all tokens in the *CLMET* part 3 to one fifth of all tokens. The subjects remain solely [+human] and the meaning of *pleased* corresponds to sense 1. Twenty tokens of the zero complement, almost one third of its full number and slightly more than in the previous sub-corpora, contain adjuncts. These are mostly adjuncts of time or contingency. The following examples demonstrate different kinds of adjuncts with the zero complement.

(92) Introduce Brenda who's going to speak to us on Make do and Mend and she's asked me to say that she'd be very *pleased* if people break in or erm some sort of form some sort of dialogue with her as she goes along. D8Y 1

(93) But at the same time she said, Well we're *pleased* because you know, he didn't suffer any pain or anything. G59 231

(94) I was quite *pleased* when I got appointments between Christmas and New Year. K6Y 621

(95) Oh, I feel quite *pleased* having cleaned everywhere and popped [unclear] I feel like I can embroider the rest of the day now [pause] KBW 15408

Example (95) may seem to have an *–ing* clause complement, but it is given an adjunct interpretation because the participle clause *having cleaned everywhere* that follows *pleased* behaves more like an adjunct than a complement. It expresses cause in the same way a *because* –clause would, and it could be added after many heads other than *pleased*. As there have been no instances of *–ing* clause complements in the data, this instance is treated as a zero complement followed by an adjunct. The following may also cause some difficulty in classification.

(96) So right enough Richard was *pleased* for Richard thought it was gonna be ten pound a week KDS 563

This is another token where *pleased* is followed by an adjunct. *For* is used here as a conjunction, which is defined in the *OED* as "introducing the ground or reason for something previously said: Seeing that, since". If *for* was used as a preposition, the second NP *Richard* would need to be replaced by a reflexive pronoun.

### 5.3.3 Non-sentential complements

*With* + NP continues as distinctly the most common non-sentential complementation pattern. There are some differences to be found in the NP complements. Only three noun phrases are realized by reflexive pronouns, and *it* and *that* are slightly more frequent than in the earlier sub-corpora with 16 and 7 instances of each. As the spoken domain is highly context-dependent, and *it* and *that* are deictic pronouns, their reasonably high frequency is expected. Compared to the 25 tokens of reflexive *with* + NP complements found in the *BNC* imaginative prose data, three tokens is a clear drop in frequency. Sense 2 continues to be associated with reflexive pronoun NP complements and, it seems, with all co-referent NP complements headed by *with*.

(97) In fact this has been a bit over ambitious, very *pleased* with ourselves weren't we, perhaps we haven't given ourselves enough? DCH 166
(98) But [pause] actually I'm com- quite [pause] quite *pleased* with my body at the moment, my legs are still a bit skinny but [pause] apart from that I'm doing okay I think? KCE 889

Most of the noun phrases following *with* are simple. In addition to deictic pronouns by themselves, many cases involve a deictic pronoun as a determiner, for example *this shot, that clock, that cupboard*. There are six tokens where the NP complement heads a relative clause. Three of these involve the NP *the way*, which easily lends itself to relativization. The following examples include one simple NP complement, and two tokens where the NP complement has been relativized:

(99) So er they're really quite *pleased* with you. G5L 25
(100) But erm we went into half time, and we were very *pleased* with the way things had gone, and it was just a case of trying to keep it going erm we stopped them from playing erm and then we came off the second half and everything just seemed to go wrong for us. KS7 374
(101) I am *pleased* with the targets that each department's [unclear] have achieved. J9D 548

*About* + NP is the second most frequent non-sentential pattern with 19 tokens. The frequency is notably higher than in the other sub-corpora, especially compared to the frequency of the *at* + NP complement, which is down to 2 tokens. The noun phrases in the *about* + NP complements can be divided into two groups: deictic pronouns, and noun phrases that involve

extractions. There are nine tokens that have the deictic pronoun *that* and five that have the deictic pronoun *it* following *about*. The remaining six tokens contain either relativization or, in the case of (104), topicalization.

(102) Er, I think Prince who, perhaps dealt with domestic politics, but one thing he has exposed is the green cause which I'm very *pleased* about because I don't think that the politicians in this country take these issues seriously enough! FLE 151
(103) So this was a very positive outcome which the teachers, not unexpectedly, were very *pleased* about, this improvement in the behaviour of pupils. KRG 576
(104) …UFAF is, is a, in fact UFAF I felt quite *pleased* about in a way because we'd, we'd analyzed Maggie [gap:name] and I had analyzed the documents and Jane and I and Graham and I had spoken about it as well, that they are principally interested in unemployed volunteers F7C 502

In example (102), the item that has been extracted through relativization is *the green cause*, and in (103), the noun phrase *a very positive outcome*. (103) has a highly complex structure, as it also includes the insertion *not unexpectedly*, and the final long noun phrase *this improvement in the behaviour of pupils* is in apposition with the relativized noun phrase. The noun phrase complement in (104), *UFAF*, has been extracted from its place after *about* to the beginning of the sentence with a different process, topicalization. This highlights *UFAF* as the topic of the sentence.

As mentioned earlier, there were two tokens with the *at* + NP complement. the noun phrases following *at* were *that* and *the way the trading profits of the operating companies are moving*. What follows *the way* is a relative clause where the relative pronoun *that* has been omitted. It seems that there is some semantic overlap and interchangeability between *about* and *at* as prepositions introducing complements, as the *at* + NP complements seem to quite readily accept the changing of the preposition to *about*. The *about* + NP complements seem in some cases more resistant to the change of preposition. As discussed in the previous sections, *at* seems to require a cause for the pleased state that is more direct and immediate than *about*. This is why, I would argue, examples (102) and (104) are more resistant to a change of preposition.

The two tokens that contain a *for* + NP complement are both quite simple and straightforward. Neither contains extractions or other complex structures, and the noun phrase complements are, as expected, [+ human].

There are four tokens that have the *by* + NP complement. These tokens are slightly ambiguous as they could be interpreted as verbal or adjectival, but here the more stative interpretation will be applied whenever possible.

(105) I hope she would be *pleased* by our efforts, in spite of the fact that we are still here and needed. JNF 356

(106) I don't know why I tell you this, but that I have been exceedingly moved and *pleased* by Jane Eyre. K60 225

### 5.3.4 Sentential complements

The *to*-infinitive is the most frequent complementation pattern in the data overall and accounts for more than one third of all tokens. While this pattern has remained the most frequent sentential complement throughout this study, it seems to be remarkably common in spoken language. There are 39 different lower verbs found with the *to*-infinitive complement. The verbs that occur at least five times in the data are *see* (19 tokens), *hear* (16 tokens), *say* (14 tokens), *be able to* (6 tokens), *know* (5 tokens), and *meet* (5 tokens). It is interesting that the well-known formulaic *pleased to meet you* that is used in conversation only came up five times whereas in the data from the *BNC* imaginative prose sub-corpus, it was found fifteen times. One reason for this could be that the recordings of the volunteers used in compiling the spoken text section of the *BNC* have simply not captured many first meetings between people, especially considering that the spoken text section only makes up one tenth of the corpus.

One explanation for the frequency of the most common lower verbs is that their use is highly formulaic. Many of these verbs are complemented by a *that*-clause or another *to*-infinitive:

(107) And you'll be *pleased* to know that Frank Dobson has agreed to meet us on the fourteenth of June and we will make sure, to the best of our effort, that that policy will be endorsed. HLU 613

(108) I am *pleased* to say we've taken the trading margin there from five percent to fourteen point two percent in the last four years. HUP 78
(109) Now I'm a governor of two schools and from this perspective in particular, I'm very *pleased* to see that as a result of the legacy of previous Conservative administration and the generous SSA proposals for this year, that the Conservative group have been able to put forward a budget… JWA 573
(110) Er With reference to I write to confirm we are very *pleased* to be able to contribute towards your forthcoming carol concert. FXR 1461

This function can be seen in the data with other lower verbs of smaller frequency that also fulfill a performative function, for example *announce*, *report*, and *tell*. These verbs may be semantically empty to a degree, as what really expresses the source of the state denoted by *pleased* is the clause that comes afterwards. The examples above could be reformulated by leaving out the *to*-infinitive complement, without resulting in major semantic changes to the utterance. According to Vosberg (2003a, 215), most of the *to*-infinitive complements of the verb *regret* serve as "more or less semantically empty hinge linking the matrix clause and the subsequent finite complement clause". In light of the data, I think this observation can be extended to *pleased* and some of its *to*-infinitive complements. I would also suggest that the subsequent clause does not need to be finite. Looking at example (110), the *to be able to* pattern introduces an infinitive verb that is nevertheless semantically linked to *pleased*. Most performative verbs do take *that*-clause complements, but it should be noted that some can take other kinds of sentential complements.

Extractions are quite rare with *to*-infinitives in the spoken data. Only two tokens with extraction were found, as well as one token that has a small insertion between *pleased* and its *to*-infinitive complement.

(111) …the bible tells us that Christ is the perfect image of God, it's in Colossians one fifteen and just er full verses further on in verse nineteen it says in him all the fullness of God, in Jesus, all the fullness of God was *pleased* to dwell [pause] and so in Christ God's son, God dealt with the problem of sin… KN6 13
(112) …and also to approve the set of objectives, which I particularly welcome, on page sixty-two and sixty-three, which will amount to a work programme, which I would have thought we were all very *pleased* to see. KS1 561
(113) [unclear] interesting as well as a er [pause] edible lunch [pause] er we're very *pleased* now to start away the afternoon session [pause]… JNF 385

The element that has been extracted in (111) is *in him* and the following prepositional phrase *in Jesus* being in apposition with it. This token contains a great deal of complexity and the extract is a very long one. The pauses in the speech, for example right where the gap left by extraction is located after *pleased*, function like sentence boundaries, helping to construct meaning. The extraction type in (111) is topicalization. (112) is an example of relativization, where *a work programme* is the extracted element. Although the insertion of *now* in (113) does not create considerable complexity, it is still a complexity factor.

Tokens of the *to*-infinitive that unambiguously represent either sense 1 or sense 3 are hard to find in the spoken domain data. Sense 1 is the basic sense of *pleased* that is also usually included in senses 2 and 3, so it is the more common sense. Most of the lower verbs that were found to have lost some of their semantic meaning over the course of formulaic use seem to retain some undertone of sense 1. They add a sense of happiness to the act of relating something to others, like saying or announcing something. Some tokens that apparently represent sense 3 were also found.

(114) I shall be *pleased* to meet you and your councilors to discuss and inspect any problem areas. H49 852

(115) Congress, with these points I am *pleased* to second the report. HLY 334

Judging by earlier findings and the findings in the *BNC* spoken domain data, sense 3 is likely to be found in more formal contexts and may be losing ground in current English.

Forty-six *that*-clause complements were found in the data. This pattern has been on the increase, starting with 2.8 percent of all tokens in the CLMET and subsequently 9.5 percent of all tokens in the BNC imaginative prose. In the spoken domain, the portion of *that*-clause complements is 14.2 percent. This increase was expected based on grammars, as it was mentioned in chapter 4 that the domain where adjectival predicates most often control *that*-clauses is conversation. Judging by the increase in frequency between the *CLMET* and the *BNC* imaginative prose, this tendency may slowly be transferring from the spoken to the written domain.

Thirty-two of the *that*-clause tokens retain the complementizer *that*, and fourteen omit it. The retention of the complementizer is common in cases where the text contains stops and starts, for example in the following:

(116) I think the [pause] I I'm *pleased* that [pause] that this is in the in B, because let 'em know how we feel about it. KGM 520

Retaining the complementizer *that* in environments like these supports comprehension. Pauses and false starts are considered here to be complexity factors unique to the spoken domain. While no definite complexity factors were found in the tokens that omitted the complementizer *that* except for one token, complexity elements were found in fourteen of the tokens where the complementizer was retained. This leaves eighteen tokens with a retained complementizer that do not exhibit complexity.

The complexity factors found with *that*-clause complements are usually either insertions or speech disfluencies of the kind discussed above.

(117) I am very *pleased* for instance that the [unclear] unit is to be opened at [gap:address] and I would like to know if there are any other places in mind for disabled problems. J43 139

(118) … to try out on other companies, perhaps, whose record is not as good, that think all of this is of the most enormous value, and as I said at the beginning, I feel very *pleased* myself, that I live in in a part of the country where we have an IBM presence, and and er, we we value that relationship. JNL 170

(119) The Prime Minister and every member of the government wants to hold fare increases down to reasonable levels and I'm *pleased* that er at six percent average, that's a reasonable contribution by the travelling passenger on British Rail… K6D 126

Usually complements are not separated from their head by a comma as in (118), but this seems to be influenced by the insertion *myself*. Insertions are quite frequent in spoken language and support the retention of the complementizer. Another type of token that I think supports retention is seen in example (119) and also below:

(120) … this dreadful merger [pause] decision that was hanging over the er [pause] the the two centres [pause] and I'm *pleased* that [pause] er this this er amendment, this er [pause] er erm [pause] this petition was brought forward today because… KGM 690

In these tokens, there is a pause right after the complementizer. Omitting the complementizer here could adversely affect the comprehension of the subsequent part. Perhaps it is more natural to retain the complementizer in spoken language, where often at the start of sentence the rest of it is still forming in the speaker's mind. This way, the listener knows to expect a finite clause that reports the cause of the pleased state. As was noted in the *Longman Grammar* (1999, 680), conversation is usually the most likely domain to omit complementizers. As long as conversation consists of smort and smooth speech turns, this seems to be the case.

The omission of the complementizer may be supported by the *horror aequi* principle in a few cases. However, there are just as many tokens that are in violation of the principle as well.

(121) I'm very glad you clarified that Mr [pause] [unclear] because certainly I [pause] not as I heard it er and I'm very *pleased* that was clarified and I think others would have felt likewise. KGX 350
(122) I'm *pleased* you think that because it gets me off the hook now. JP7 206
(123) I'm I'm *pleased* that that's been clarified and er we understand that better now. JAC 417

(121) features a good amount of complexity due to speech disfluency, but since the subject of the subordinate clause after *pleased* is the pronoun *that*, the complementizer *that* is more likely to be omitted. (122) does not contain complexity and there is therefore no need for the complementizer to be retained, but the choice may be further influenced by the pronoun *that* that functions as the object of the subordinate clause. (123), however, retains the complementizer despite the following pronoun *that*.

One of the *that*-clause complements was anomalous in that the subject of the lower clause is co-referential with the subject of the higher clause, which would usually promote the use of the *to*-infinitive complement.

(124) And I'm very *pleased* I'm gonna have a bit of a result this afternoon. FXT 419

The complementizer *that* has been omitted. The complement as a *to*-infinitive would be *pleased to be going to have a bit of a result*, which is distinctly more formal.

The remaining three sentential complementation patterns were very rare. The most frequent one of these with four tokens was *wh*-clause headed by the preposition *with*. One of the tokens features what looks like a bare *wh*-clause complement, but as this kind of pattern has not been encountered previously anywhere, and it is possible in spoken language to leave out constituents, the introducing preposition is taken to have been omitted. This introduces the problem of determining what preposition has been omitted. Most of the rare *wh*-clause complements are introduced by *with*, although there was one token with an *at* + *wh*-clause complement in the *BNC* imaginative prose. As all other tokens in the spoken data are introduced by *with* and *at* has been linked with a certain contextual immediacy, the token with an omitted preposition is placed in the *with* + *wh*-clause complements. This is the first token among the following examples:

(125) Well I'm ever so *pleased* what I bought you today. KCT 871
(126) I'm quite *pleased* with how I got on at work today [pause] with the amount of work I'd done [pause] that KE3 9084

Two gerundial complements were found in the spoken domain. These are the two tokens that involve the gerundial acc. + *-ing* complement, headed in both cases by a preposition:

(127) Me mother wasn't very *pleased* with me going to work there but I said well it's a start so I stopped F8P 15
(128) I am really *pleased* about my mum and dad helping me. KRT 5467

The sentential quality of this pattern is not as clear as it is with the other sentential complements, but nevertheless the gerunds here are both headed by a subject noun phrase and one is followed by a direct object. The subject noun phrase is in the accusative (also known as the objective) case, which is only observable with object pronouns, but the noun phrase in (128) could also be replaced with *them*, so it is also an acc. + *-ing* pattern. While no complementation patterns that involve a gerund were found in the *BNC* imaginative prose, there were four *at* + *-ing* complements and two *at* + poss. + *-ing* complements found in the *CLMET*. These are the only complementation patterns I have found that involve a gerund. It has not appeared in the dictionaries that were consulted in chapter 4.

Poutsma, however, in his dictionary (MS), did identify some preposition + *-ing* patterns selected by *pleased*, as well as the pattern *with* + (pro)noun + ger., with the following illustration:

(129) I thought you were *pleased* once with my being a little inexperienced and girlish. (1850. Charles Dickens, *David Copperfield*)

Although this is actually a prep. + poss. + *-ing* pattern, it is very close to the pattern with the accusative, as seen in the *CLMET* analysis section. Both poss. + *-ing* and acc. + *-ing* can be seen as subtypes of the gerundial complement pattern, needed to express a lower subject that is not coreferential with the higher subject.

### 5.3.5 Review

This section presented an analysis of the data taken from the *BNC* spoken domain. The data has been produced within the same time frame as the data in the *BNC* imaginative prose section, but the register is different. 324 tokens were divided based on found complementation patterns and analysed in more detail. Including the zero complement, eleven patterns emerged. The most frequent three patterns remained the same as in the earlier sections, but the relative shares changed again. By one token, the *with* + NP pattern overtook the zero complement, while the *to*-infinitive slightly increased its share of all complements.

The second most common non-sentential complement after *with* + NP was *about* + NP. *At* + NP was much rarer, though it was more common than *about* + NP in the *CLMET* and had just as many tokens as *about* + NP in the *BNC* imaginative prose. Keeping in mind the semantic differences of the prepositions, these relative shares in frequency may be a feature of spoken language. A few tokens with *by* + NP and *for* + NP were also found. Sense 2 was once more connected to the *with* + NP pattern.

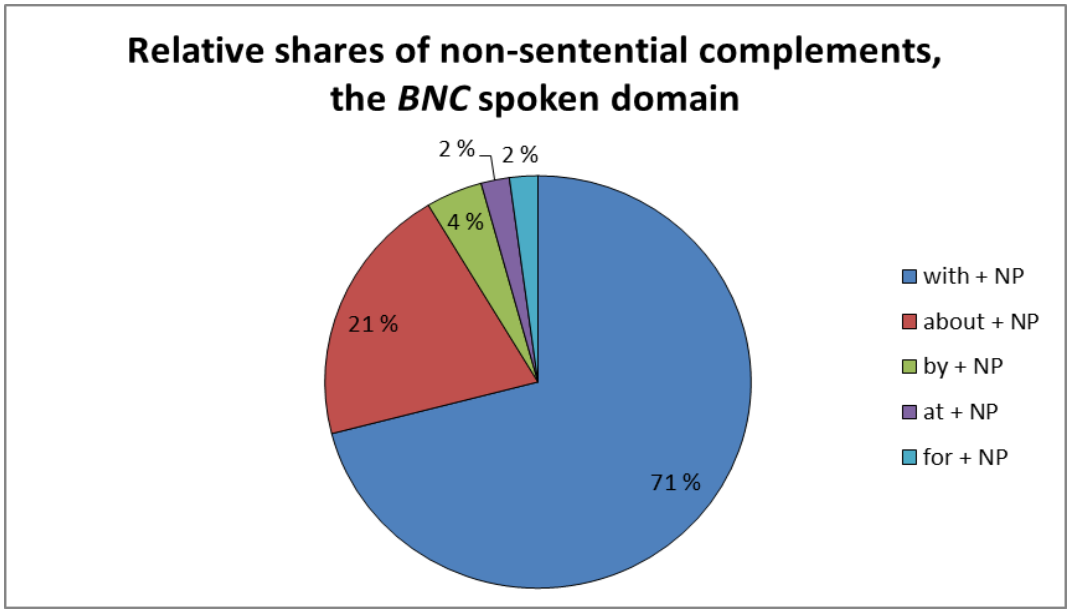


Figure 5.5. Relative shares of non-sentential complements of *pleased* in the *BNC* spoken domain.

For sentential complements, what stood out the most was their overall relative share of all complements, and the increased frequency of *that*-clause complements. The *to*-infinitive was clearly the most frequent complement, and its use was found to include quite a few instances of formulaic expressions, which would account for some of its popularity. The Complexity Principle was found to influence the use of the complementizer *that* in *that*-clause complements. The three remaining sentential complementation patterns were very rare. They included both *wh*-clauses headed by a preposition, as the *BNC* imaginative prose data did, and gerundial constructions, also found in the *CLMET* data. Sense 3 was found with the *to*-infinitive, chiefly among tokens that came from context-governed texts in the spoken domain, such as formal business or parliamentary meetings. As sense 3 was more difficult to find with certainty in the data, it was concluded that this sense may be losing ground to the primary sense of *pleased*.

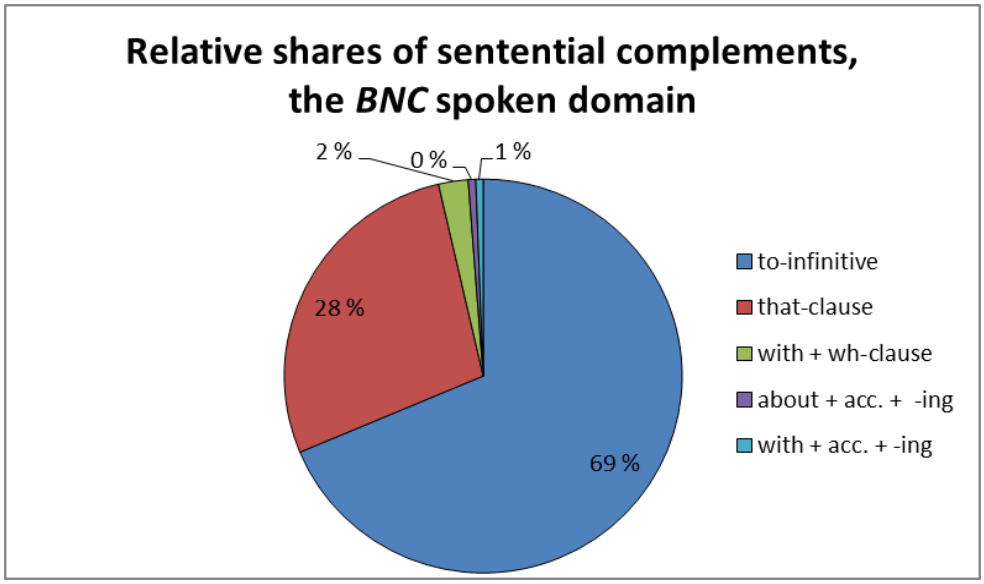


Figure 5.6. Relative shares of sentential complements of *pleased* in the *BNC* spoken domain.

## 6. Conclusion

This thesis has sought to shed light on some aspects of the complementation of *pleased*. Data from the *CLMET* part 3 and the *BNC* sub-sections imaginative prose and spoken domain were used to find answers for the research questions I set for this study in the introduction. In this conclusion, I will go through the research questions and what my findings reveal as answers.

The first research questions centered on the kinds of complements that could be found with *pleased* and whether any differences could be observed between different times or registers. Among the 882 tokens that were analyzed for this thesis, a total of fifteen different complements emerged. The most prominent complementation patterns were found in all the data with slightly differing frequencies. These patterns were the *to*-infinitive, *that*-clause, *with* + NP and the zero complement. Besides *with* + NP there were three non-sentential patterns that were found in all the sub-corpora at relatively low numbers: *about* + NP, *at* + NP and *by* + NP. The remaining eight patterns were found in one or two of the sub-corpora with less than five hits per corpora. The prominent complementation patterns coincide with complements given for *pleased* in dictionaries, while the only work I could find that mentions some of the rare patterns, like *in* + NP and gerund clauses, is Poutsma's unfinished manuscript.

The *BNC* spoken domain was chosen as one sub-corpus for this study because it represents a different register than the *CLMET* or the imaginative prose section of the *BNC*. I also believe that it may provide some insight into the diachronic study of complementation. While the imaginative prose section contains texts published from 1960 to 1993, the spoken texts in the corpus have all been recorded between 1985 and 1993. This means that the spoken domain contains more recent language on average. Spoken language is also where innovations generally enter the language, and changes may be pinpointed earlier in spoken than written language. Therefore, while some differences between the spoken domain and the other sub-corpora are due to register, some

differences may be due to diachronic variation. The next figure illustrates changes that have taken place in the relative shares of complementation pattern groups over time and possibly, register.

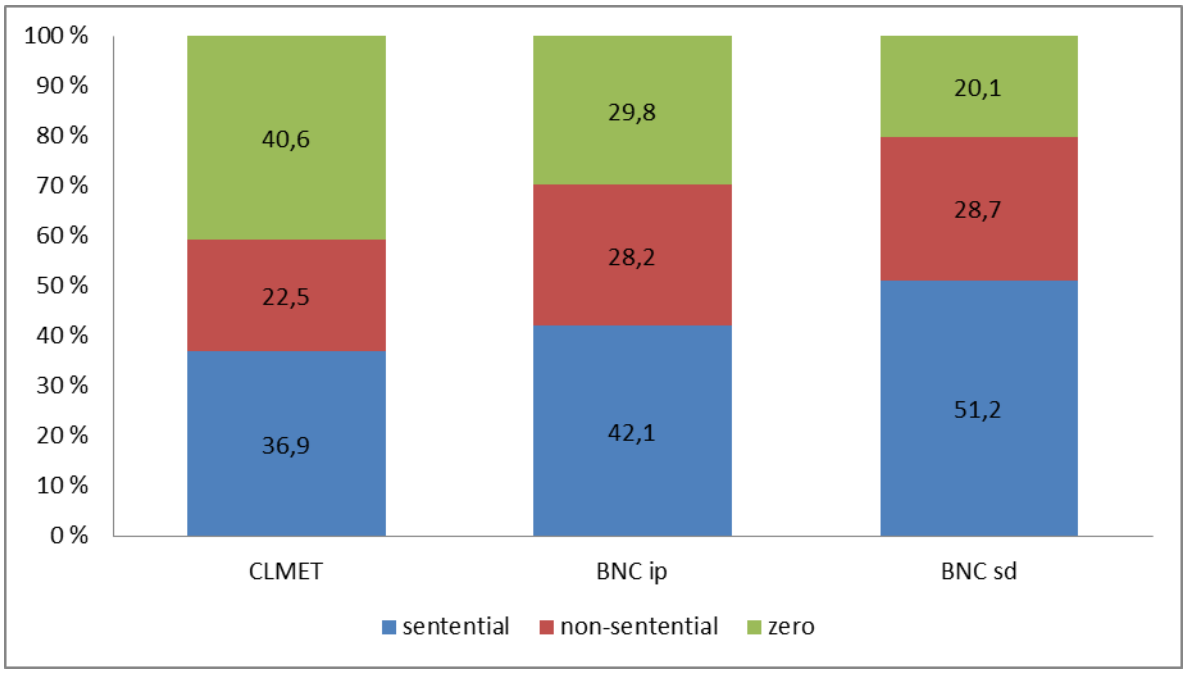


Figure 6.1. Relative shares of complementation patterns across the three sub-corpora

There are forty years between the last text included in the *CLMET* part 3 and the first text included in the *BNC* imaginative prose. Some changes in the complementation of *pleased* are discernible. The relative shares of sentential and non-sentential complements have both increased slightly, while the share of the zero complement has decreased more notably. Within sentential complementation patterns the *to*-infinitive maintained almost exactly the same share. What accounts for the increase is the rise of the number of *that*-clause complements in the *BNC* imaginative prose. Among non-sentential complements, both *about* + NP and *by* + NP as well as a slightly higher total of *with* + NP complements contribute to the increase.

The *BNC* spoken domain data seems to continue two trends: the decrease of the zero complement and the increase of sentential complements. Now the decreased share of the zero complement is not partly made up for by an increase among non-sentential complement: their share is almost the same as it is in the *BNC* imaginative prose section. Therefore, the share of sentential

complements now climbs to over half of all complements. The *to*-infinitive grows in number slightly, but again the pattern that accounts for the big increase in sentential complements is the *that*-clause. Though this seems to be a continuing trend, it was also recognized in grammars that the *that*-clauses are generally more frequent in spoken language. This may slowly be affecting written language and causing an increase in *that*-clause complements that is already discernible in the *BNC* imaginative prose data. The subjunctive or emotional *should* was common in the *CLMET* data but was not detected in the modern data.

An interesting find concerning the *to*-infinitive complements was that in many cases, the *to*-infinitive complement of *pleased* serves as a semantically empty hinge between the matrix clause and the complement clause following the first infinitival complement. These linking infinitives are performative verbs such as *say, announce,* and *tell,* and usually among the most common lower verbs in the data. A more formulaic use seems to coincide with a higher frequency of tokens.

While the total share of non-sentential complements does not change much between the *BNC* imaginative prose and spoken domain sections, the internal shares of different patterns go through some changes. *About* + NP increases in numbers quite significantly, going from one instance in the *CLMET* to eight in the *BNC* imaginative prose, to 19 in the *BNC* spoken domain. The other rarer non-sentential patterns decrease in the spoken language data.

I also set out to find what kinds of meanings are associated with *pleased* and its different complements. Upon consulting dictionaries, three senses emerged. The first one is the most common, prototypical sense of *pleased* meaning a state of happiness and satisfaction. This sense was universally recognized and found in the literature, while the other two proved more marginal, yet prominent enough to be listed here as additional senses. Sense 2 is *satisfied, proud* and this pride may often be regarded in a negative light. This sense is, according to dictionaries, found in the pattern *with* + reflexive pronoun. My findings suggest that any dependent NP that is coreferential with the subject may carry this meaning. This sense and the patterns it is found with are more

common in prose than in spoken language, at least in present-day use. The normalized frequency of these tokens in the *BNC* spoken domain was 0.4, while the normalized frequency in the *BNC* imaginative prose was 7.6. In the *CLMET*, the normalized frequency of tokens with sense 2 is 1.6, which means that there is a significant increase in sense 2 within the register of prose from the late 19th century to the late 20th century. This may be due to changing conventions in writing, as this pattern and sense are very rare in spoken language.

The third sense is connected to the *to*-infinitive and expresses willingness, inclination or being obliging to do something. It was noted that this sense can at times be difficult to differentiate from sense 1, especially in more recent data where the more obvious cases of sense 3, for example usage with the imperative, seem to have disappeared. Approximately 40 percent of all *to*-infinitive complements in the *CLMET* could be determined to represent sense 3, while the numbers dwindle to less than ten in the *BNC* imaginative prose and less than five in the *BNC* spoken domain. When this sense was found in the spoken domain, the context was invariably very formal. It seems that this sense is now little used in other contexts.

Finally, this study also aimed to explore what else besides meaning may impact on the decision of complements for *pleased*. It seems that pleased has so far defied the Great Complement Shift, as it has not experienced an increase in *–ing* complements. In fact, the greatest number of *–ing* complements was found in the earliest data set from the *CLMET*, which contained six gerundial complements. The Complexity Principle and the *horror aequi* principle were both found to have some bearing on complementation choices. The Complexity Principle affected the retention of complementizer *that* in *that*-clause complements and possibly also the choice of the preposition *about* over the preposition *at* in some cases, although there were found to be significant meaning differences between the two prepositions also. The *horror aequi* principle contributed to the choice of *that*-clause instead of *to*-infinitive complement in at least one case, and possible affected the use

of complementizer *that*, although some tokens were also found that were clearly in violation of the *horror aequi* principle.

Dictionaries and grammars, as they seek to condense vast amounts of information on their pages, tend to simplify the senses and complementation patterns that are found with *pleased*. The reality of language use is more versatile goes through changes. The two learner's dictionaries that were consulted for this thesis made the most extensive summaries of the use of *pleased*, which is good news for all language learners. This thesis is also still a quite general account of the adjective *pleased*. There were plenty of interesting results that could be researched further.

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