

Overview of Adjectives Complemented by *At* in the Expression of Emotions or Properties

University of Tampere

Department of English

Pro Gradu Thesis

Autumn 2005

Paula Antikainen

TIIVISTELMÄ

Englannin kielessä adjektiiveilla on usein jäljessään prepositioilla alkavia lausekkeita, jotka täsmentävät adjektiivin merkitystä rakenteessa. Tämän tutkielman aiheena ovat adjektiivit, jotka esiintyvät *at* – preposition kanssa. Nämä adjektiivit voidaan jakaa kahteen ryhmään: tunnetta ilmaiseviin ja ominaisuutta jollain alueella ilmaiseviin adjektiiveihin.

Tutkielma on tehty korpuksen avulla. Pääasiallisesti on käytetty Bank of English - korpuksen Collins Cobuild Corpus osan alakategorioita UK Books ja US Books, joiden teksti on peräisin Amerikan ja Britannian englannin kirjallisuudesta. Lisäksi on käytetty 1960-luvun englantia sisältäviä LOB ja Brown korpuksia. Kaikissa käytetyissä korpuksissa tekstit on jaettu Amerikan ja Britannian englantiin. Adjektiiveja tarkastellaan siten maantieteellisen variantin mukaan. Tutkielmassa otetaan myös huomioon muut prepositiot, jotka esiintyvät tutkittujen adjektiivien kanssa ja havainnollistetaan erilaisia prepositioiden jäljessä olevia komplementtityyppejä esimerkein korpuksesta.

Tutkielman alussa esitellään lyhyesti tutkimusaihe ja tutkimussuuntaus, korpuslingvistiikka. Lisäksi kerrotaan kuinka metodia on sovellettu tässä tutkielmassa. Keskeiset käsitteet kuten adjektiivi ja *at* – prepositio esitellään. Komplementaatiota esitellään eri lähteisiin pohjautuen ja komplementin ja adjunktin eroja käydään läpi Bowenin (2003) tohtorintutkielmaan perustuen.

Tutkielman empiirisessä osassa adjektiivit jaotellaan kahteen pääryhmään Huddlestoniin ja Pullumiin (2002) perustuen. Tunnetta ilmaisevat adjektiivit jaotellaan lisäksi tunteen laadun mukaan positiivista tai negatiivista tunnetta tai yllättymistä ilmaiseviin adjektiiveihin. Ominaisuutta jollain alueella ilmaisevat adjektiivit jaotellaan positiivista ja toisaalta negatiivista ominaisuutta ilmaiseviin adjektiiveihin. Jaottelussa otetaan huomioon argumenttien semanttiset roolit, joita esitellään lyhyesti.

Tutkielman loppupuolella seitsemäntoista adjektiivia (*angry, furious, indignant, aghast, alarmed, annoyed, mad, pleased, delighted, amazed, astonished, surprised, good, adept, successful, bad, hopeless*) käsitellään yksityiskohtaisesti korpuksen pohjautuen. Adjektiivin merkitys tutkitussa rakenteessa täsmennetään *The Oxford English Dictionary*-sanakirjan avulla. Adjektiivien käytöstä annetaan esimerkkejä *at* – preposition ja muiden prepositioiden kanssa. Prepositiota seuraava komplementti analysoidaan ominaisuuksiensa perusteella elolliseksi tai elottomaksi substantiivilausekkeeksi, *-ing* lausekkeeksi tai *wh*-lausekkeeksi.

Tutkielma esittelee kattavasti adjektiivien käyttöä *at* – preposition kanssa. Aineiston perusteella negatiivista tunnetta ilmaisevien adjektiivien joukosta *mad* ja *angry* ovat huomattavasti yleisempiä Amerikan englannissa *at* – preposition kanssa. Toisaalta adjektiivit *alarmed* ja *annoyed* ovat yleisempiä Britannian englannissa kyseisessä rakenteessa. Muiden tunnetta ilmaisevien adjektiivien käytössä ei havaittu merkittäviä eroja kielen varianttien mukaan *at* – preposition käytön perusteella. Ominaisuutta ilmaisevista adjektiiveista *adept* on huomattavasti yleisempi Amerikan englannissa *at* – preposition kanssa kun taas *hopeless* esiintyy ainoastaan Britannian englannissa kyseisessä rakenteessa. Prepositioiden komplementaatiossa havaittiin joitakin eroja variantin mukaan. Keskeisimpänä mainittakoon Amerikan englannin ominaisuus käyttää prepositiota *at*, kun tunteen kohde on henkilö, kun Britannian englannissa käytetään tällöin prepositiota *with*.

Table of Contents

1. Introduction.....	5
2. Corpus linguistics	7
2.1. Collins Cobuild corpus	8
2.2. Additional corpora: LOB and Brown	10
3. Method	11
4. Adjectives	13
5. The Preposition <i>At</i>	16
5.1. Etymology.....	16
5.2. Meaning and function	16
6. Complementation.....	19
6.1. Overview of complementation.....	19
6.2. Complementation of adjective phrase.....	21
6.3. Complements vs. adjuncts	23
6.3.1. <i>Obligatoriness</i>	24
6.3.2. <i>Co-occurrence restrictions</i>	25
6.3.3. <i>Preposition stranding</i>	26
6.3.4. <i>Proximity of complement to head</i>	27
6.3.5. <i>The cleft construction</i>	28
6.3.6. <i>Mobility</i>	28
6.3.7. <i>Constituent structure: proform substitution</i>	29
7. Adjectives complemented by <i>at</i>	31
7.1. Adjectives denoting emotive reaction.....	33
7.2. Adjectives denoting a property in the domain of the <i>at</i> -clause	33
7.3. Case roles	34
8. Adjective + <i>at</i> and their complements	38
8.1. Adjectives expressing emotive reactions	38
8.1.1. Negative feelings	38
8.1.1.1. Angry	39
8.1.1.2. Furious	44
8.1.1.3. Indignant	47
8.1.1.4. Aghast	49
8.1.1.5. Alarmed	50
8.1.1.6. Annoyed.....	53
8.1.1.7. Mad	55
8.1.2. Positive feelings	57
8.1.2.1 Pleased	57
8.1.2.2. Delighted.....	60
8.1.3. Expressing surprise	63
8.1.3.1. Amazed	63
8.1.3.2. Astonished	65
8.1.3.3. Surprised	67
8.2. Adjectives expressing a property in the domain of the <i>at</i> -clause	69
8.2.1. Expressing a positive property.....	69
8.2.1.1. Good.....	70
8.2.1.2. Adept.....	73

8.2.1.3. Successful	75
8.2.2. Expressing a negative property	77
8.2.2.1. Hopeless	77
8.2.2.2. Bad	78
9. Conclusion	80
References:.....	83
Appendices.....	85
Complement type frequencies with the studied adjectives.....	85
Adjectives complemented by <i>at</i> in the Collins Cobuild Corpus.....	86
Data: Adjective + <i>at</i> in ukbooks and usbooks:	88

1. Introduction

Adjectives can be complemented by *that*-clauses, *to*-infinitives, and prepositional phrases. The main aim of this thesis is to investigate the last mentioned type and more specifically certain adjectives that are complemented by the preposition *at*. The research was conducted with a corpus-based method utilizing the Collins Cobuild Corpus of present English and the smaller LOB and Brown corpora featuring English from the 1960s. On the other hand several grammars were used for creating sufficient background knowledge about adjective complementation.

The adjectives provided for analysis are grouped semantically in two major groups: to those expressing emotion of Experiencer towards Stimulus or Object and to those expressing a property of Object or Theme in some domain expressed by the *at*-clause. These groupings are largely based on Huddleston and Pullum (2002) which is one of the main sources of this paper. The detailed discussion includes seventeen adjectives of which twelve express emotion of the Experiencer towards Stimulus, e.g. *I was angry at myself*; and five express a property of Object in the domain expressed by the *at*-clause, e.g. *I was good at avoiding responsibility*.

It is noted that there are more adjectives that are complemented by *at* in the English language. As the adjectives were derived from the corpus a total of thirty-nine adjectives complemented by *at* were found appearing at least once in the corpora used. The research is, however, restricted to seventeen adjectives for a number of reasons. From a linguistic point of view these adjectives provided enough examples for analysis or on the other hand were grammatically of specific interest. In addition the scope of a thesis must be limited according to space and time.

The first five chapters serve as a general introduction to the topic of this paper. Firstly corpus linguistics as a discipline and as used in this work is described.

Then the basic elements and grammatical phenomena of this study are described with the help of several grammars. The notion of adjective and the preposition *at* are characterized rather briefly whereas complementation is discussed at greater length.

Chapter seven and eight constitute the more empirical part of this thesis. In the first place adjectives from the corpus are divided into semantic groups. Semantic roles are needed to specify these. Then single adjectives are discussed in terms of their complementation with the help of *The Oxford English Dictionary*. Examples from the corpus data are given to illustrate the use of different patterns.

Algeo (1988, 12) states that “[p]repositions have a large number of differences between British and American, in both form and use”. The data of the thesis at hand is divided into British and American English and thus offers a good starting point to investigating whether differences according to variety exist in adjective complementation of this specific kind. It has been proved that phenomena like ‘Colloquialization’ and ‘Americanization’ are affecting English in that the changes in language originate from spoken American English (Leech 2003, 236). The diachronic perspective to this paper attempts to find out any possible trends and shifts in usage of the adjective + *at* pattern in American and British English of different decades.

2. Corpus linguistics

A corpus is defined by Tognini-Bonelli (2001, 55) as

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

Tognini-Bonelli (2001, 3) notes that in contrast to coherent texts that are read for learning new information, e.g. a book or an article, a corpus being fragmented is read for discovering formal patterning and repeated elements in language. Corpus linguistics is thus essentially study of language use. Tognini-Bonelli (2001, 65) uses the term *corpus-based*¹ approach “to refer to a methodology that avails itself of the corpus mainly to expound, test or exemplify theories and descriptions that were formulated before large corpora became available”. In this paper a corpus-based approach is adopted.

Biber et al (1998, 4) list four important characteristics of corpus-based analysis which can make the linguistic analysis considerably reliable and exhaustive in scope:

- it is empirical, analyzing the actual patterns of use in natural texts,
- it utilizes a large and principled collection of natural texts, known as a “corpus,” as the basis for analysis;
- it makes extensive use of computers for analysis, using both automatic and interactive techniques;
- it depends on both quantitative and qualitative analytical techniques.

With a corpus-based method it is thus possible to investigate and analyze natural language use fairly effortlessly with the help of a computer and suitable software. A corpus-based approach to the analysis of language endeavours at uncovering typical patterns of language use rather than judging the grammar of texts (Biber et al 1998, 3).

¹ In contrast a *corpus-driven* approach is inductive and does not take account of preset rules but derives the rules from particular language facts from a corpus (Tognini-Bonelli, 2001, 44).

In addition, Mair (1996, 197) claims that a corpus-based method is highly useful when investigating real grammatical change especially of frequent occurring phenomena that can already be seen in the written language apart from the spoken language which is the starting point of language change.

For the paper at hand a corpus-based approach to investigating the use of adjectives appearing with the preposition *at* enables description and comparison of real language patterns and the views of some central grammarians about the subject.

2.1. Collins Cobuild corpus

The primary source of data for this paper is the Collins Cobuild Corpus which is part of the larger Bank of English Corpus. The Bank of English contains altogether 56 million words of English language. In the different corpora one can find data from different text types such as the language of newspapers or literature, or even ephemera. The fact that the texts in the corpora are divided into British and American English (BrE and AmE respectively) enables a comparison according to this criterion. In this paper the examples are taken from the subcorpora US books (5 626 436 words) and UK books (5 354 262 words) (henceforth *usbooks* and *ukbooks* respectively). Thus the texts analyzed in this paper are derived from recent British and American books. As a consequence the scope of this paper is restricted to written language. The different subcorpora of Collins Cobuild Corpus with word amounts can be seen in the table below:

Subcorpus	Abbreviation	Number of words
US National Public Radio broadcasts	npr	3129222
UK Today newspaper	today	5248302
UK Times newspaper	times	5763761
US books; fiction & non-fiction	usbooks	5626436
Australian newspapers	oznews	5337528
BBC World Service radio broadcasts	bbc	2609869
US ephemera (leaflets, adverts, etc)	usephem	1224710
UK magazines	ukmags	4901990
UK Sun newspaper	sunnw	5824476
UK transcribed informal speech	ukspok	9272579
UK books; fiction & non-fiction	ukbooks	5354262
UK ephemera (leaflets, adverts, etc)	ukephem	3124354
Total		57 417 489

Table 1. Subcorpora of the Collins Cobuild Corpus

As can be seen from the table above the subcorpus usbooks has more words than the subcorpus ukbooks. To make the subcorpora comparable normed frequency counts per million words are included in the tables of individual adjectives in the empirical part of the paper in chapter eight.

2.2. Additional corpora: LOB and Brown

To add a diachronic perspective to the study at hand LOB and Brown corpora were included as additional data of British and American English.

Johansson (1978) describes the Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen Corpus (LOB) and the Brown University Corpus of American English (Brown) in the LOB manual that is found in the internet (<http://khnt.hit.uib.no/icame/manuals/lob/INDEX.HTM#lob5>).

Both corpora were published 1961 and contain 500 printed texts with 2,000 words each, thus about a million words altogether. The texts are written English from e.g. newspapers, books of different genres, scientific writings etc.

It is noted that the size of these additional corpora is much smaller than the size of the Collins Cobuild Corpora. Collins Cobuild Corpus is, however, preferred to the comparable smaller FLOB and Frown corpora from the 1990s, because it offers more extensive data and better possibilities for the purposes of this study. LOB and Brown are closed corpora i.e. no more words are added to them. Thus, they offer a valuable possibility to compare older texts from the 1960s to the present day English of Collins Cobuild Corpus. In the detailed description of the studied adjectives (ch. 8) the numbers of occurrences of the given adjective + *at* are given in LOB and Brown and examples provided if they have additional information value to the topic.

3. Method

The central principle of data collection in this paper was to derive the adjectives for study from a corpus rather than from grammar books. The adjectives appearing with *at* were derived from the Collins Cobuild Corpus. The corpus is tagged for parts of speech and thus it is possible to perform searches for example for any adjective + *at* with symbols JJ + *at*. Searches like this were performed in the two subcorpora of the Collins Cobuild Corpus (ukbooks and usbooks) and adjectives appearing with *at* were listed. Then individual adjectives were searched for (e.g. *angry* + *at*) and after editing out irrelevant examples, like adverbs e.g. *at all*, lists of adjectives were provided for analysis. Other possible prepositions appearing with any adjective were also searched for, for example *angry* + IN, IN standing for any preposition. As a result different prepositions appearing with *angry* were listed, e.g. *about*, *with*, *at*, and relevant information was stored. Thus all the examples in this paper are authentic data and describe the English usage today encoded in the Collins Cobuild Corpora.

It has to be noted, though, that due to the form of searches used, some information is left unnoticed. Patterns that have elements between the adjective and its complement are excluded, e.g. ‘they were angry, with no reason, at him’. However, examples like this are marginal and therefore this restriction is not considered to be a serious obstacle for the study.

In Brown and LOB searches were performed with the adjectives that were earlier found from the Collins Cobuild Corpora. The searches were conducted with the adjective as the search word and afterwards irrelevant examples were excluded.

The searches were performed in November 2004 and February 2005. The example sentences derived from the corpus are numbered separately in each chapter. The place where the examples were taken from is specified after each sentence in

parentheses, for example '(ukbooks)' signals that the sentence is taken from the subcorpora ukbooks. With the examples from LOB and Brown the line number of the example sentence is added to the end of the sentence. The data of the studied adjectives + *at* from ukbooks and usbooks can be found in the appendix in the end of the paper.

4. Adjectives

According to David Crystal (2003, 211) adjectives are words which express characteristics and features of nouns and pronouns. Leech (1989, 13) defines adjectives as words which “describe qualities of people, things, places etc.” Biber et al (1999, 508) divide adjectives to ‘descriptors’ and ‘classifiers’ on semantic basis. Descriptors are prototypical and usually gradable adjectives denoting characteristics like colour, size, weight, chronology and age, as well as emotion whereas classifiers are typically non-gradable and function primarily “to delimit or restrict a noun’s referent, by placing it in a category in relation to other referents” (examples: *additional*, *average*) (Biber et al 1999, 508). In this paper only descriptors are dealt with and more precisely their subclass of “**evaluative/emotive** – denoting judgements, affect, emphasis (bad, beautiful, best [. . .])” (Biber et al 1999, 509).

The main syntactic functions of adjective are attributive (*my new job*), predicative complement (*this is new*) and postpositive (*something important*) (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 528)². Generally it is thought that the structure of an adjective phrase is relatively simple with only two category levels: adjective phrase and adjective (H&P 2002, 57) although in transformational grammar an intermediate level, i.e. A-bar (discussed in 6.3.7. see e.g. Radford, 1988), is also recognized. Adjective phrases contain an adjective as a head with optional modifiers like words, phrases, or clauses (Biber et al 1999, 101). The complements of adjectives are generally prepositional phrases or subordinate clauses often in post-head position. Adjective phrases can have four different syntactic roles (Biber et al 1999, 101):

² Henceforth ‘H&P’ denotes the reference to Huddleston and Pullum.

i) Premodifier of noun (attributive function):

The Louisiana city is known, of course, for its **fine** food, **good** music and its **colorful** hospitality (Brown, Line 4373)

ii) Subject predicative

[H]e is **angry** about this but doesn't feel he can afford to show it (usbooks)

iii) Postmodifier of a noun

Diana was ready to tell the other three people **present** (example from Biber et al 1999, 101)

iiii) Object predicative

The Americans say Germany is having it **too good** and is not paying for the past or for the present (Lob, Line 125)

Of these syntactic roles the first two are the most common.

Adjectives are generally taken to be words that modify nouns and usually they have a distinct form from other parts of speech. However, according to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 540) many adjectives have the same form as the gerund-participle and past-participle of verbs. In the data investigated for this paper seven such adjectives emerged (*alarmed, amazed, annoyed, astonished, delighted, pleased, and surprised*). The difference between verbal and adjectival interpretation of these words is, according to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 540), that the “gerund-participle and past participle forms of verbs follow *be* as a marker of progressive aspect and passive voice respectively, whereas adjectives follow *be* as a copula.” Examples from Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 540) with the past-participle form and *ed*-adjective illustrate the uses:

VERB

He was **killed**. [passive]

ADJECTIVE

He was very **distressed**.

One can test the adjectival status of words. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 541) give examples of these tests. *Be* can be replaced by other complex-intransitive verbs like *seem* and *become* in the case of adjectival interpretation, thus *He seemed/became very distressed* but not **He seemed/became killed*. The adjective, but not the verb, can be modified by *very* or *too* as in the example with *very distressed* above. It can also be noted that the past-participle form of the verb highlights the process denoted by the verb whereas the adjectival interpretation concentrates on the state resulting from the process (Quirk et al 1985, 415). Thus in the Huddleston and Pullum's (2002, 540-541) example above "*distressed* denotes a state resulting from being distressed in the passive verbal sense."

5. The Preposition *At*

Quirk et al (1985, 695) state that “fields of prepositional meaning are notoriously difficult to classify”. This statement is verified by the preposition *at* which seems to be used in numerous different situations. According to the Oxford English Dictionary *at* as a word is hard to define for it is “used to denote relations of so many kinds, and some of these so remote from its primary local sense, that a classification of its uses is very difficult”. In this section I will briefly discuss the origins of the word *at* in English. I will also discuss the meaning and function of the word in current English as far as relevant for the topic of my thesis.

5.1. Etymology

According to Partridge’s Etymological Dictionary the word *at* stems from the Old English word *æt* (Partridge 1966, 30). According to the Oxford English Dictionary it is a cognate with Old Saxon *at*, Old Frisian *et*, Old Norse *at*, Old High German *az*, Gothic *at*, and Latin *ad* as well as Sanskrit *adhu*. The main function of *at* in Old English according to the Oxford English Dictionary was to govern the dative.

5.2. Meaning and function

The Oxford English Dictionary (the OED) lists 41 senses of the word *at* under seven subheadings:

- I Local position (senses 1-14)
- II Of action position, state, condition, manner (senses 15-24),
- III Of relative position in a series or scale, degree, rate, value (senses 25-28),
- IV Of time, order, occasion, cause, object (senses 29-37),
- V In many idiomatic phrases arising out of the preceding senses (sense 38),
- VI With the infinitive mood (sense 39)
- VII Before other prepositions or adverbs (senses 40-41).

At is thus used to describe many kinds of relations. The most relevant senses of the OED for this essay are (numbering from the OED): “18. Connecting adjectives of occupation and proficiency, or their substantives, with a thing or action” e.g. “1855 [. . .] Diligent at his lessons; readiness at replying” , “35. Introducing the occasion or cause of an emotion: e.g. *astonished, dismayed, delighted, grieved at; to rejoice, mourn at; joy, surprise at, etc*” e.g. “1853 [. . .] Impatient at the delays”, “36. Introducing what is at once the exciting cause and the object of active emotions: e.g. *envy, hate, wrath*. Uniting the senses of 13b and 35” e.g. “1742 [. . .] He brought it to me himself, and was angry at me”.

In this paper the main interest is in the combination of adjective + *at*. These combinations are often idiomatic constructions and, as said in the Oxford English Dictionary, have to be looked up under the individual words appearing with *at*, e.g. *angry*.

The primary use of *at* according to the Oxford English Dictionary is its local sense. This general local meaning of *at* is not very essential in this paper. However, I consulted some grammarians about it. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 654) point out that “the core lexical meaning of *at* expresses location in a specific geographical position conceived as a point in the plane”. Similarly according to Leech and Svartvik (1994, 91) ‘*at*-type’ prepositions refer to a point in space. This is different from ‘*on*-type’ or ‘*in*-type’ prepositions which indicate either a line or a surface, or an area or a volume respectively. Thus the point indicated by *at* is seen rather generally whereas in the case of *on* or *in* factors like length, width, or height must be taken into account (Leech and Svartvik 1994, 91).

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 654) note that whereas “*at* is only marginally a grammaticised preposition” it is, however, “grammatically selected in the

complements of certain verbs, nouns and adjectives”. This is illustrated in the examples extracted from Huddleston and Pullum:

- (i) Complement of verb: *she laughed at me*
- (ii) Complement of noun: *her attempt at a compromise*
- (iii) Complement of adjective: *delighted at the news* (H&P 2002, 654).

The first two examples illustrate cases where other prepositions are not at all accepted and the change of the preposition yields an unacceptable sentence, an example from Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 654) **laughed on me*. In the last example the preposition could be changed: *delighted with the news*. In this paper I am interested in complements of adjectives headed by *at*. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 543) list twenty-four adjectives that are complemented by *at*: *aghast, adept, alarmed, amazed, amused, angry, astonished, bad, brilliant, clever, delighted, disgusted, gifted, good, hopeless, indignant, mad, marvellous, pleased, puzzled, skilled, superb, talented, and terrible*. On the other hand Quirk et al (1985, 1221) list only twelve adjectives that are complemented by *at* but mention that these include only a small part of the total number of adjectives complemented by *at*. In this paper the studied adjectives are derived from the Collins Cobuild Corpus (see chapter 7 and 8).

6. Complementation

In this section I will briefly discuss complementation in general terms. In addition I will discuss adjective complementation more specifically with special attention to prepositional complements. The difference between complements and adjuncts and ways of discerning the two from each other will also be discussed in this chapter with the help of a doctoral dissertation (Bowen 2003).

6.1. Overview of complementation

A syntactic structure consists of a head and its selected dependents. According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 24) these dependents are classified according to their relationship to the head into complements, modifiers and determiners.

Complements are either obligatory or optional elements in the clause structure and they can be divided into two groups according to their relationship to the head. Huddleston and Pullum call these core and non-core complements (H&P 2002, 216). Noun phrases functioning as core complements are in direct relation with the verb whereas noun phrases functioning as non-core complements are related to the verb indirectly i.e. via the preposition (H&P 2002, 216). Huddleston and Pullum give an example sentence where the core complements are underlined:

1) Kim gave the key to Pat" (H&P 2002, 216).

An example from the data of this essay illustrates a copula + adjective as a head followed by a non-core complement prepositional phrase (PP) *at this man* and preceded by the core complement *I*:

2) I was furious at this man (ukbooks)

The predicative adjective *furios* is also underlined as it can be taken to be a core complement of the copular verb *be*. Non-core complements are often optional and can be left out:

3) I was furios (my example)

The term complement can mean various things in different grammars. The sentence can be seen to consist of a subject, a verb and its complements, but also of a head and its selected pre-head and post-head complements as above in the example extracted from Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 216). Biber et al (1999, 658) define complement clause as “a type of dependent clause used to complete the meaning relationship of an associated verb or adjective in a higher clause.” There is a relationship of control between the head and its complement(s) i.e. the head selects certain types of complements, e.g. *laugh at something*. The head of a complement clause can be a verb or a copula + adjective, for which Biber et al (1999, 658) use the term predicate; the head can also be a noun but a consideration of noun complementation is, however, not included in this paper.

In this paper I will adopt Bowen’s (2003, 3) usage of the term complement which refers to “prototypically post-head elements which together with the head, form a constituent”. The head selects the form of the complement and there is a relationship of dependency or control between the two (Bowen 2003, 3). The topic of this paper restricts the discussion to adjectives complemented by *at* and thus I will spend most of the space discussing adjective phrase constituents (in bold): e.g. *Ordinary citizens were no less **angry at big government*** (usbooks).

6.2. Complementation of adjective phrase

Adjective complements fall into three categories: *that*-clauses, *to*-infinitives and prepositional phrases (Leech and Svartvik 1994, 260). In this presentation only the last mentioned type is of relevance and thus I will concentrate on prepositional phrase complements in my discussion.

According to Leech and Svartvik (2002, 227) one should use a dictionary to find out which preposition the adjective requires. Furthermore they (Leech and Svartvik 2002, 227) note that adjectives that take prepositions are often *-ed* adjectives. Indeed in the data of this essay seven adjectives out of the total seventeen are *-ed* adjectives.

When an adjective is followed by a prepositional complement there are three alternatives (Leech and Svartvik 1994, 260): The complement of the preposition can be:

- 1) a noun phrase (NP): Sementsev was rather good at **the tango** (ukbooks)
- 2) a *wh*-clause: He's good at **what he does** (ukbooks)
- 3) or an *-ing* clause: He was quite good at **looking after himself** (ukbooks)

Leech and Svartvik (2002, 272-273) note that in this case there are two complements – firstly there is the adjective (*good*) that is complemented by the prepositional phrase (*at what he does*), and secondly the prepositional phrase contains the preposition (*at*) and its complement (*what he does*). In this sentence (number 2 above) it is noted that there is also a clause complement, and more specifically an adjective phrase (AdjP) .

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 542) mention that in adjective phrase structure complements are usually optional elements that are licensed by their heads. A complement is considered obligatory only “when its omission results in an unsystematic

change in the meaning of the head”, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 542) give an example with *fraught*:

a) They were [fraught with danger].

b) They were [fraught].

where the meaning of the adjective is different: in a) “full (of), charged, accompanied (by)” while in b) “anxious, distressed, causing anxiety/distress” (H&P 2002, 542). With the preposition *at* Huddleston & Pullum identify six adjectives with “wholly or virtually” obligatory complements in the given sense of the adjective in non-attributive constructions: *aghast at sth*, *indignant at sth*, *pleased at sth*, *adept at sth*, *good at sth*, *hopeless at sth* (H&P 2002, 543). These adjectives will be discussed in detail in chapter eight.

Quirk et al (1985, 1221) state that with adjectives forming a lexical unit with the following preposition “the lexical bond is strongest with adjectives for which, in a given sense, the complementation is obligatory: *Max is averse to games* ≠ *Max is averse*.” They (Quirk et al, 1985, 1221) list no adjectives accompanied by the preposition *at* with obligatory complements contradictory to Huddleston and Pullum’s (2002, 543) view discussed above.

In the following detailed discussion of the adjectives in chapter eight I will note what kind of complements the prepositions (mainly *at*) appearing after the adjectives take, i.e. whether the complement is a noun phrase (NP), a *wh*-clause, or an *-ing* clause. In addition I will distinguish inanimate (not living) and animate (living) noun phrases because this division can give insight to possible differences of adjective complementation in the two major varieties of English.

6.3. Complements vs. adjuncts

Although it is quite clear that the adjectives discussed in this paper select complements because they form an adjective phrase constituent with the following PP, it is, however useful and enlightening to go through some of the differences between complements and adjuncts.

Rhonwen Bowen (2003, 15-28) has a clear presentation of adjunct vs. complement criteria in her dissertation about noun complementation. She (Bowen 2003, 4) notes that “there are restrictions which determine what types of elements can occur as complements” whereas adjuncts are always optional elements in clause structure that do not function as complements and can occur in any phrase with any head (Bowen 2003, 14). However, it can often be hard to draw the line between complement and adjunct categories for the two can often have similar forms. Here I will go through some of the tests for defining complements that are described in Bowen’s dissertation. I will apply the criteria to adjective complementation and give examples from my data where possible. Some of Bowen’s criteria are left out for they are not suitable for adjective complementation by prepositional phrases (e.g. ‘semantic restrictiveness’ which deals with nouns complemented by *that*-clauses and *to*-infinitival clauses and ‘semantic predicates and theta roles’ which concerns mainly deverbal and de-adjectival nouns (Bowen 2003, 16-18))

6.3.1. *Obligatoriness*

According to Bowen (2003, 15) obligatoriness is a typical, but not a necessary property of complements whereas adjuncts are always optional. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 542) state that a general criterion of an obligatory complement is that its omission will result “in an unsystematic change in the meaning of the head.” In adjective phrase (AdjP) structure elements that qualify as complements do so by “virtue of being licensed by the head rather than being obligatory” (H&P 2002, 542). Obligatoriness is thus all but exhaustive criterion for determining complements in AdjP structure.

However, according to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 542), some adjectives do take syntactically obligatory complements when they are functioning non-attributively. In the following examples from Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 542) the first one illustrates the more typical case of optional complement that is licensed by its head whereas the second is an example of an adjective with obligatory complementation:

- 1) a) He was [afraid of dogs]. b) He was [afraid].
 2) a) They are [mindful of the danger]. b) *They are [mindful].

Aghast is one of the adjectives that is listed with “wholly or virtually” obligatory complementation with *at* in the given sense of the adjective in non-attributive constructions in Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 543). *At* links the complement i.e. the stimulus and object of the amazement or horror to the adjective:

- 3) She looked [aghost at my directness]. What an extraordinary thing to say. (ukbooks)

The complement of the preposition cannot be left out without a change in meaning.

When the preposition *with* is used the complement is not obligatory and can be left out.

With indicates association:

- 4) I'd just time to see Richard Snailham's bearded face [aghast with horror]
as he held on for dear life. (ukbooks)

6.3.2. Co-occurrence restrictions

Bowen (2003, 18) describes this criterion with Borsley's words: "Particular words co-occur with particular complements, whereas an adjunct of a particular type is generally possible in any phrase of a particular kind whatever its head is" (Borsley 1999, 67). Co-occurrence restrictions apply to prepositional phrases and nouns but can be extended to include adjectives and prepositional phrases. Bowen (2003, 19) gives examples from Radford (1988, 192) with an *of*-complement and a *with*-adjunct:

- 1) a) a student of physics b) *a boy of physics
2) a) a student with long hair b) a boy with long hair (Bowen 2003, 19)

Similarly particular adjectives occur with particular kinds of complements whereas adjuncts can occur with any kind of adjective head:

- 3) a) [. . .] good at quiet but b) ?[. . .] interesting at quiet but
stubborn insistence (ukbooks) stubborn insistence
4) a) good in a strange way b) interesting in a strange way
(my examples)

Many adjectives occur with particular prepositions, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 543-545) have a good list of these. The prepositions can, however, often be interchangeable. This is the case with *at* and *about* which are often found alternating as in the following examples where the stimulus of the emotion is similar:

- 5) [. . .]or to feel angry **about the event**, asking questions about whose
fault it was (ukbooks)
6) Such work can take the form of crying at a sad loss, feeling angry **at a
traumatic event**, making amends for something [. . .] (ukbooks)

This is not the case with all adjectives e.g. *mad* where the meaning of the adjective changes radically along with the preposition.

- 7) He was mad **at** me, not taking its number (ukbooks)
- 8) I was mad **about** you even then, but I didn't know how to do anything but pull hair (ukbooks)

6.3.3. *Preposition stranding*

Bowen (2003, 19) uses this test to differentiate complement PPs from adjunct PPs. The noun phrase following the preposition is moved to the beginning of the sentence and the sentence is turned into a question. The examples are from Radford (1988, 191):

- 1) a) [What branch of physics] are you a student of?
- b) *What kind of hair are you a student with?

The preposition can be in the end of the sentence when the PP is a complement (a) but when it is an adjunct (b) preposition stranding yields an ungrammatical sentence. The test can be performed with a copula + adjective + PP structure as well.

- 2) a) Who were they angry at? (ukbooks)
- b) *What was he angry before? (He was angry before lunch) (my example)

When the sentence has both a complement and an adjunct PP, preposition stranding is possible with the complement but not with the adjunct:

- 3) He was quite angry at me for coming to his house (ukbooks)
- a) Who was he quite angry at for coming to his house?
- b) ?What was he quite angry at me for? (my examples)

The examples are rather awkward and it would be very simple to ask about the adjunct with *why*: *Why was he quite angry at me*. However, they show the difference between complement and adjunct PPs.

6.3.4. *Proximity of complement to head*

In the unmarked sentence structure complements are generally more closely linked to the head than adjuncts when both are present (Bowen 2003, 20). In marked structure when some elements of the sentence are highlighted or given focus there can be deviation from the unmarked linear order of head + complement, see examples where the complement is in bold (Bowen 2003, 20):

- 1)
 - a) There is a review **of my book** in the paper.
 - b) There is a review in the paper **of my book**.

Radford (1988, 244) gives an example with an adjective phrase that confirms the normal word-order for the complement and adjunct PPs:

- 2)
 - a) fond [of Mary] [in some ways]
 - b) ??fond [in some ways] [of Mary] (Radford 1988, 244)

The order of the PP complement and PP adjunct is thus fixed and PP complement typically follows the head adjective immediately. A further example from my data illustrates this:

- 3)
 - a) furious [with herself] [for such a blatant lapse in judgement] (ukbooks)
 - b) ??furious [for such a blatant lapse in judgement] [with herself]

In the data collection of this paper it was assumed that the prepositional phrase complement follows the adjective immediately. Thus, even if there were examples to the contrary in the Collins Cobuild Corpus, they are not included in the data of this essay.

6.3.5. *The cleft construction*

Complement PPs can be differentiated from adjunct PPs by placing them into cleft construction. According to Bowen (2003, 24) PP complements tend to admit movement into a cleft construction more freely than PP adjuncts. Bowen (2003, 24) uses Radford's (1988, 176) examples to illustrate:

- 1)
 - a) It is of physics (and not of chemistry) that she is a student of.
 - b) *It is with long hair that she is a student. (Bowen 2003, 24)

The example sentence from ukbooks can be converted likewise:

- 2) She nodded, furious with herself for such a blatant lapse in judgement (ukbooks)
 - a) It is with herself that she is furious for such a blatant lapse in judgement
 - b) ?It is for such a blatant lapse in judgement that she is furious with herself

Here I would not mark the sentence in b) with an asterisk. I think both sentences are equally acceptable and therefore this criteria cannot be taken as reliable proof for complementhood which is mentioned also in Bowen (2003, 24).

6.3.6. *Mobility*

The mobility test shows that adjuncts can be put to the front of the sentence more easily than complements (Bowen 2003, 24). Bowen (2003, 25) argues that "elements that can be fronted freely are not to be regarded as prototypical complements." The examples used in Bowen (2003, 24) are an infinitival complement clause and an infinitival adjunct clause that follow the same head. I will try the test with an example from my data:

1) And do not be angry with me for what I write (ukbooks)

a) For what I write, do not be angry with me

b) *With me do not be angry for what I write

Adjunct PP can be fronted as can be seen from a) above. With a complement PP this is not possible, see example b) above.

6.3.7. Constituent structure: proform substitution

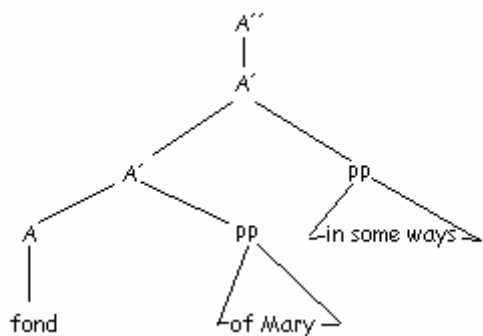
Bowen (2003, 25) notes that “in a structural analysis of complementation, the head and the complement form a primary constituent together”. An adjective phrase is a constituent consisting of an adjective as a head and e.g. a prepositional phrase complement. The following examples illustrate an AdjP containing a complement and functioning as a subjective predicative:

1) And do not be [angry with me] for what I write (ukbooks)

2) Despite this, local priests recognized him and fearing he was [angry with them], put him under another god's spell (ukbooks)

The constituent structure of complements and adjuncts is different. Bowen (2003, 25) cites Borsley (1999, 67) about this: “[I]t is assumed that complements combine with a word level category to form a related intermediate phrasal category, whereas adjuncts combine with an intermediate category to form the same intermediate category”.

Radford (1988, 243) characterizes the difference as follows: “[. . .] there are two types of Postmodifier, namely (i) *Complements* which expand X into X-bar, and (ii) *Adjuncts* which expand X-bar into X-bar”. Radford (1988, 244) gives an example of an Adjective phrase with a PP complement (*of Mary*) and a PP adjunct (*in some ways*) to illustrate how the complement is in the same constituent structure level with the head whereas the adjunct is not although it is a part of the A-bar:



Picture 1. (Radford 1988, 244)

Proform substitution can be used to show the structural distinctions between similar looking but different constituents. The proform used with A-bar constituents is *so* (Radford 1988, 243):

3) John used to be very [_{A'} *fond of Mary*] but now he is much less *so*.

(Radford 1988, 243)

In the following example one can see how the complement PP, but not the the adjunct PP, is proformed by *so*:

4) John is [_{A'} *very* [_{A'} [_{A'} *fond of Mary*] *in some ways*]], but is [_{A'} *less* [_{A'} [_{A'} *so*] *in other ways*]] (Radford 1988, 244).

This proves that a complement PP is in a closer contact with the head in the A-bar whereas the adjunct PP is in a higher A-bar and not so closely related with the head adjective.

7. Adjectives complemented by *at*

In the detailed description of the adjectives following later in chapter eight I have decided to consider only those adjectives that were interesting on the point of view of the topic of the paper or appeared ten times or more in the whole data including both the American and British parts of the Collins Cobuild Corpus (usbooks and ukbooks). In the following classification there are, however, more adjectives that can all be complemented by *at*. The adjectives in the following classification were derived from the Collins Cobuild Corpus in November 2004 and appeared there more than once with the preposition *at* in the ukbooks and usbooks subcorpora. The frequencies of these are presented in the appendix (see p. 86-87).

For the semantic classification of these adjectives found with *at* I used the criteria of Huddleston & Pullum (2002, 543). They state that adjectives appearing with prepositional phrase complement headed by *at* fall into two groups on semantic basis (H&P 2002, 543).

In the first group “(*aghast, indignant, etc.*) the adjective denotes a psychological reaction to the phenomenon expressed in the complement of *at*: here *at* is generally replicable by *about*” (H&P 2002, 543). Quirk et al mention that in this use of *at*, the preposition “signals the relation between the emotive reaction and its stimulus” (Quirk et al 1985, 712). They (Quirk et al 1985, 712) note that “the relationship between an event, an emotional reaction, and the person who undergoes the reaction” can be expressed in three different ways:

- 1) Their rejection of the offer surprised me.
- 2) I was surprised by their rejection of the offer.
- 3) I was surprised at their rejection of the offer. (Quirk et al 1985, 712)

In 1) we have the usual subject-verb-object construction, in 2) a passive construction, and in 3) a “passive with the preposition *at* replacing the agentive preposition *by*”, *surprised* being a participial adjective. The difference between the participle interpretation (2) and the adjective interpretation (3) is explained by Quirk et al (1985, 415) by noting that the former has the focus on the process and the latter on the state resulting from the process as noted already before in chapter four. In the case of non-participial adjective, like *angry*, the examples would be:

- 4) Their rejection of the offer made me angry.
- 5) I was made angry by their rejection of the offer.
- 6) I was angry at their rejection of the offer. (my examples)

In the second group of Huddleston and Pullum “(*adept, good, etc.*) the adjective denotes a property, capacity, or failing and the *at* phrase indicates its domain” (H&P 2002, 543). Here Quirk et al (1985, 711) note that *at* is used to describe the particular “respect in which the adjective is appropriate to the subject” and thus the meaning of the gradable adjective is made more accurate:

He’s *good/clever/brilliant/an expert at organizing things*

He’s *bad/ better/terrible/no good at games* (Quirk et al, 1985, 711).

In this essay I will employ a classification quite similar to Huddleston and Pullum's dividing the adjectives to those expressing the emotional or psychological reaction of the Experiencer to the phenomenon expressed in the complement, and on the other hand to those expressing the quality and thus the property, capacity or failing of the Object in the domain expressed by the *at*-phrase. Semantic roles or case roles, e.g. ‘Experiencer’, will be discussed briefly in the end of this chapter.

I added some additional remarks indicating the positive/negative value of the adjective to the classification.

7.1. Adjectives denoting emotive reaction

From the Collins Cobuild Corpora and more specifically the subcorpora ukbooks and usbooks twenty-four adjectives complemented by *at* and indicating the emotional or psychological reaction of the Experiencer to the phenomenon expressed in the complement were found. These adjectives could be further divided to the kind of emotion or psychological reaction they denote, this could be positive, negative, or a reaction expressing surprise or nervousness:

- Adjectives expressing **negative** feelings: *aghast, angry, furious, indignant, unhappy, resentful, alarmed, disgusted, annoyed, mad, dismayed, grieved, aggrieved.*
- Adjectives expressing **positive** feelings: *amused, delighted, glad, pleased.*
- Adjectives expressing **surprise, bewilderment, nervousness**: *nervous, uneasy, amazed, astonished, impatient, surprised, puzzled.*

7.2. Adjectives denoting a property in the domain of the *at*-clause

Fifteen adjectives were found expressing the quality, thus the property, capacity or failing of the Object in the domain of the *at*-clause. The adjectives were divided further into positive and negative qualities:

- Adjectives expressing a **positive property or capacity** in the domain expressed by the complement headed by *at*: *adept, good, skilled, skillful, successful, clever, competent, efficient, expert, proficient, effective, excellent.*
- Adjectives expressing a **negative property** in the domain expressed by the complement headed by *at*: *bad, unskilled, hopeless.*

7.3. Case roles

In the semantic classification of adjectives complemented by *at* above in sections 7.1. and 7.2. concepts like 'Experiencer' and 'Object' were referred to. Thus a semantic point needs to be discussed to clarify these notions. Semantic roles or case roles operate on a deeper structural level below the surface structure of the sentence and apply "to the deep structure semantic relationships" (Cook 1989, 4). Case roles are introduced by Fillmore, who presents a "conceptual framework interpretation of case systems [. . .] with a clear understanding of the difference between deep and surface structure" (Fillmore 1968, 21).

In the surface structure syntactic elements are labeled as 'subjects', 'predicates', 'direct and indirect objects' etc. In the deep structure more comprehensive concepts are required. Fillmore defines the basic sentence consisting of "a verb and one or more noun phrases, each associated with the verb in a particular case relationship" (Fillmore 1968, 2). Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 226) refer to "the propositional meaning of a clause" that "can be described in terms of the semantic predicate together with one or more arguments." Normally the semantic predicate corresponds to the verb or the syntactic predicator while the arguments correspond to complements, which are assigned different roles depending on the semantic properties of the verb (H&P 2002, 226-227). Adjuncts, in turn, are not considered as arguments because they express "circumstances of the situation" and are not involved in the predication as such (H&P 2002, 226).

Thus, there is a difference between deep and surface structures and in the deeper level case roles can be recognized and named. In the refined model of 1971 Fillmore recognizes nine cases in the system: Agent, Experiencer, Instrument, Object, Source, Goal, Location, Time, and Benefactive (Cook 1989, 39). Huddleston and

Pullum (2002, 230-233) have a slightly different list of roles. From their list the roles of Stimulus and Theme are of interest to this paper.

The cases relevant to the structures in this paper are, as regards the first group 7.1. above, Experiencer and Object. The former is defined by Fillmore as "the experiencer of a psychological event" (Cook 1989, 39). Object in turn is "the most neutral case, the 'wastebasket' case" (Cook 1989, 41). It expresses "the 'content' of the experience with psychological predicates [. . .] when it occurs in direct object position" (Cook 1989, 41). Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 231-232) list the roles of Experiencer and Stimulus which appear together "in situations of emotional feeling or sensory perception" and field of cognition. The internal state of the Experiencer is not normally controlled by this "animate or animate-like being" (H&P 2002, 232). An example from the data illustrates the cases of Experiencer and Object / Stimulus:

1) **He** was quite angry at **me** for coming to his house (ukbooks)

E

O

Cook (1989, 34) notes that Fillmore abandons categorial notions like animacy in his later work on case roles as confusing with the relational notions, i.e. cases. Thus, categorial notions like animacy do not affect to labeling of elements in the deep structure. It is, however, interesting to consider what kind of Objects different prepositions take. In the example 1) above *at* is complemented by an animate and human Object but the Object could also be inanimate or an event as in the next example from the data:

1) [. . .]**a woman** whom she had cured of sickness became angry at

E

having her advances refused [. . .] (ukbooks)

O

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 230) maintain that it is possible for an argument to have more than one role in contrast to the traditional view which claims that ‘no case category appears more than once in a given case frame’ (Cook 1989, 43). According to Huddleston and Pullum’s view when the emotion is controlled the Experiencer features the Agent role as well (H&P 2002, 232). They give an example with the predicate *hear* where the understood subject has the Agent role as well: “*Hear what I have to say before making up your mind*” (H&P 2002, 232)

The second group 7.2. above has the cases Object and Location. Object being the most neutral case also denotes "the entity which moves or undergoes change" (Cook 1989, 41). Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 232) name this role Theme and among other features extend it to include “entities that change or have properties”. On the other hand Location case "is restricted to stative locatives" and is "frequently a modal case, an optional complement of essentially any predicator" (Cook 1989, 42). Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 233) identify similarly ‘location’ role, along with ‘path’, ‘source’, and ‘goal’, which “occur in situations involving the theme role”. An example from the data with Object / Theme and Location cases:

4) **Marcus** was so good at **quiet but stubborn insistence** (ukbooks)

O

L

Here the Location denotes the domain in which the Object is characterized, i.e. judged good, bad, or even hopeless.

In the following chapter I will discuss single adjectives complemented by *at*. In the discussion I will refer to case roles when it is relevant. Elements appearing in Object / Stimulus and Location roles as complements of prepositions will be

characterized with grammatical notions as noun phrases, *-wh* clauses etc. In addition noun phrases will be characterized as animate or inanimate.

8. Adjective + *at* and their complements

In this chapter some central adjectives of English that appear with *at* will be discussed more closely with special attention to complements. The adjectives are dealt to those expressing emotive reactions of the Experiencer and on the other hand to those describing a property, capacity, or failing of the Object / Theme in the domain expressed in the *at*-clause.

8.1. Adjectives expressing emotive reactions

Quirk et al (1985, 702) claim that there is alternation between British and American English in the use of prepositions after adjectives expressing emotive reactions according to different types of stimulus. In British English there is a tendency to use *with* rather than *at* “when the stimulus is a person or object rather than an event” whereas in the American English *at* is quite usual in these cases (Quirk et al 1985, 702). When the stimulus is an abstract noun *at* is accepted in both varieties. In addition when talking about inanimate things Quirk et al (1985, 702) state that “*at* has a common alternative in *about*” as does Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 543). In the following I will consider my data in terms of these statements among others.

8.1.1. Negative feelings

Here I will discuss adjectives expressing negative emotive reactions. The following adjectives with negative meaning are included in the studied data: *angry*, *furious*, *indignant*, *aghast*, *alarmed*, *annoyed*, and *mad*. The number of adjectives expressing negative feelings was considerably higher than those expressing positive feelings – seven to two – but, of course, only adjectives complemented by *at* are discussed here.

8.1.1.1. Angry

The OED lists ten senses for the adjective *angry*. The sense relevant for this paper is defined by the OED as follows:

3. a. Of persons: actively affected against the agent or cause of trouble; feeling or showing resentment; enraged, wrathful, irate.[. . .]
 b. Const. (*of, for, upon, obs.*) *at, about*, the occasion; *at* a person when the subjective feeling is denoted, *with* a person when the anger is manifested; but the tendency is to use *with* for both.”

Examples from the OED with different prepositions (my boldface):

- i) 1599 [. . .] I should be angry **with** you.
 ii) 1607 [. . .] I'me angry **at** him.
 iii) 1875 [. . .] Major Porter is so awfully angry **about** it.

It is of some interest to investigate how often each of the prepositions, *at*, *about*, or *with*, is used and whether one can find any differences between American and British English in the target or stimulus of the emotion. Leech (1989, 18) states that “there is a difference between *angry with* and *angry about*: you are *angry with* a person, but you are *angry at* or *about* an action or event”. In the data there is indeed a tendency in British English to use *angry with* more readily with persons than *angry at* but in American English one is more often *angry at* a person than *with* him/her. Leech and Svartvik have a slightly different aspect when discussing the difference between *at* and *with*; they state that an emotive reaction can be expressed by *at*, but in British English *at* is often replaced by *with* when the cause of the emotive reaction is a person or object (Leech and Svartvik 1994, 156). Thus in British English the tendency is to use the preposition *with* more often than *at* in connection with persons as also stated in the OED definition above. In addition the OED associates the use of *with* to occasions where “the anger is manifested” whereas *at* is used “when the subjective feeling is denoted”. In addition Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 543) state that when the adjective is expressing a psychological reaction to the phenomenon expressed in the complement of *at* the

preposition can usually be replaced with *about*. They (2002, 543, 545) combine *angry* with prepositions *at*, *with*, and *about* accordingly with other grammarians.

In LOB *angry* was complemented only by *with* and the stimulus was an animate noun phrase in each of the four cases, e.g.:

- 1) Miss Alexander, who wears a long skirt, is also [[angry]] with the tailors who supply uniforms. (LOB, Line 5398)

In Brown *angry + at* appeared four times with an animate NP as a stimulus, *angry + with* appeared two times; once with an animate NP and once with an inanimate NP, which I illustrate here because it deviates from the unmarked usage of *angry + with + animate stimulus*:

- 2) If because of this incident they become [[angry]] with Earth, I will not be permitted to go there at all. (Brown, Line 700)

The example above can also be a personification of an (in)animate object.

The frequencies of LOB and Brown correspond to the views presented by different grammarians discussed above. In British English there is a tendency to use *angry + with* and in American English *angry + at*. This is the situation also in the Collins Cobuild Corpus as the frequencies of *angry + at*, *with*, and *about* with different complement types show below in the tables of the both subcorpora.

UKBOOKS										
<i>angry</i>	raw counts					normed per million words				
complement type	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	- <i>ing</i>	Total	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	- <i>ing</i>	Total
<i>at</i>	9	8	1	2	20	1.7	1.5	0.2	0.4	3.8
<i>with</i>	38	5	-	-	43	7.1	0.9	-	-	8.0
<i>about</i>	-	8	1	1	10	-	1.5	0.2	0.2	1.9
Total	47	21	2	3	73	8.8	3.9	0.4	0.6	13.7

Table 2.³

USBOOKS										
<i>angry</i>	raw counts					normed per million words				
complement type	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	- <i>ing</i>	Total	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	- <i>ing</i>	Total
<i>at</i>	29	9	2	1	41	5.2	1.6	0.4	0.2	7.4
<i>with</i>	22	-	-	-	22	3.9	-	-	-	3.9
<i>about</i>	-	6	1	1	8	-	1.1	0.2	0.2	1.5
Total	51	16	3	2	71	9.1	2.7	0.6	0.4	12.8

Table 3.

In ukbooks *angry* appeared once with *towards* and *against*:

3) [. . .] because self-destruction disturbs most people, making them feel angry **towards** the attempted suicide rather than understanding (ukbooks)

4) He was angry **against** me and against himself and everything in the world. (ukbooks)

The more usual alternative for *towards* in 3) would be *at* or *about* and for *against* in 4) *with* or *at*. In usbooks *angry* appeared once with *over* which could be replaced with *about*:

5) Men who are angry **over** their partners' lack of orgasms are usually frustrated [. . .] (usbooks)

³ In tables features 'animate' and 'inanimate' are henceforth abbreviated to +a and -a respectively.

The examples above are deviations from the unmarked usage. They could be seen to illustrate the direction of anger more specifically than the unmarked prepositions.

I consulted two native speakers, an American and a Briton, for this study. In the following I will give examples from the data of *angry* + PP with different prepositions and discuss their views on them.

Firstly in British English one can be *angry at* a person, here the complement of *at* is an NP:

6) I know, Originee. I'm not angry at him, not really (ukbooks)

or *at* an action or event, the complement is sometimes a *wh*-clause in this case:

7) Shtasu was very angry at what he had just seen (ukbooks)

One is more often *angry with* a person:

8) Petula, aged 32, became extremely angry with her male therapist during a therapy session (ukbooks)

than *with* an action or event though examples of this were found from the data:

9) His soul was angry with the injustice of it all (ukbooks)

One is never *angry about* a person – this combination is used only with events or actions:

10) You will probably feel justifiably angry about being cheated, lied to or used (ukbooks)

Here the complement of *about* is an *-ing* clause. Native informants agreed with all of the cases above except examples 6) and 9). According to the British informant 6) would be better with *with*, thus: '*I know, Originee. I'm not angry **with** him, not really*'. Both informants thought that 9) would be better with *at* indicating a reaction to the event, thus: '*His soul was angry **at** the injustice of it all*'.

In American English one is *angry at* a person:

11) `I'm angry at Mrs. Marcos - not the people (usbooks)

and *at* an action or event:

12) Cheney, though angry at the Israeli's insolence, suppressed the urge to accuse him of ingratitude (usbooks)

One can also *angry with* a person:

13) My dear Nora, you mustn't be angry with me either (usbooks)

About is used only in connection with actions and events:

14) Family members are often angry about having been manipulated and neglected by you (usbooks)

Native informants considered all these sentences acceptable except in 11) the British English speaker suggests that if *with* had been used 'some kind of relationship' would have been assumed while when *at* is used the structure seems to refer to something the person has done.

American English seems to be using the adjective + *at* combination somewhat differently from the ways suggested in Leech (1989, 18) and Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 543) at least with respect to *angry*. AmE uses the combination *angry + at* generally more often than *angry + with*. Huddleston & Pullum's statement (2002, 543) of replacing *at* with *about* does not apply when the complement is a person and Huddleston and Pullum are indeed talking about phenomena. The inappropriateness of replacing *at* with *about* when talking about persons becomes clear when the preposition is changed in the following sentence:

15) Then she in turn would be angry at him. Why couldn't he join her?
(usbooks)

is accurate but

16) *Then she in turn would be angry about him'

is awkward or at least draws attention to the deeds of the Object. When talking about events and actions the replacement of *at* with *about* is usually acceptable:

17) Paul's mother was very angry at the intrusion (usbooks)

equals

18) 'Paul's mother was very angry about the intrusion',

although the British English speaker consulted for this study considered the structure with *about* possibly 'more retrospective'.

Generally the choice of the preposition is thus dependent on both the head e.g. *angry* and the complement of the preposition and stimulus of the emotion e.g. *him*. The stimulus determines which of the prepositions *at*, *with*, or *about* is chosen and sometimes they are interchangeable. Some nuances or subtleties of meaning can be detected when the preposition is changed.

8.1.1.2. Furious

The OED gives five senses for the adjective *furious*. Of these the first one is relevant for this paper:

1. a. Of a person, an animal, etc.: Full of fury or fierce passion; mad with anger, zeal, or the like; raging, frantic. Also of actions, attributes, utterances: Proceeding from or exhibiting fury; fierce, raging, destructively or menacingly violent.

In the example sentences of the OED two prepositions complementing *furious* can be found: *against* and *at*: "1853 [. . .] Furious against every one whose words make them tremble at their own insecurity", "1855 [. . .] The King, already enraged, was furious at the presentation of this petition". Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 543) do not mention *furious* in their list of adjectives complemented by a prepositional phrase headed by *at*, instead they do mention *furious* in the list of adjective + *with* (H&P 2002, 545). Thus, one can assume that *furious* would appear more often with the preposition *with* than with *at* in the data.

In the data from LOB and Brown *furious* appeared only four times altogether with a prepositional phrase complement. In LOB two instances of *furious* + *with* were found: one with an animate NP stimulus and the other with an inanimate NP stimulus. The two instances of Brown featured *at* and *with*: *at* was complemented by an inanimate NP and *with* by an animate NP.

In the data from the Collins Cobuild Corpora *furious* appeared with more prepositions. The figures of the prepositions in the two subcorpora can be seen from the tables below.

UKBOOKS										
<i>furious</i>	raw counts					normed per million words				
complement type	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	- <i>ing</i>	Total	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	- <i>ing</i>	Total
<i>at</i>	2	4	-	2	8	0.4	0.8	-	0.4	1.6
<i>with</i>	15	-	-	-	15	2.8	-	-	-	2.8
<i>about</i>	-	1	-	-	1	-	0.2	-	-	0.2
Total	17	5	-	2	24	3.2	1.0	-	0.4	4.6

Table 4.

USBOOKS										
<i>furious</i>	raw counts					normed per million words				
complement type	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	- <i>ing</i>	Total	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	- <i>ing</i>	Total
<i>at</i>	4	6	-	1	11	0.7	1.1	-	0.2	2.0
<i>with</i>	5	4	-	-	9	0.9	0.7	-	-	1.6
<i>about</i>	-	1	1	-	2	-	0.2	0.2	-	0.4
<i>over</i>	-	2	-	-	2	-	0.4	-	-	0.4
Total	9	13	1	1	23	1.6	2.4	0.2	0.2	4.4

Table 5.

As with *angry* the tendency in British English, on the basis of my data, is to use *furious* + *with* with persons (all 15 instances of animate NPs), e.g.:

1) And I let you see me post the card, because I was so furious with you about – about everything. (ukbooks)

At, in turn, is used in British English with actions and events as well as with persons, and with things and objects. Examples of these types follow:

2) Kitchener, furious at being circumvented, never forgave French.
(ukbooks)

3) I was furious at this man who was having a tug-of-war with me.
(ukbooks)

4) Others were furious at the very idea. (ukbooks)

In American English the difference between the two prepositions is not so clear: *with* can be used with persons, e.g.:

5) It's been a horrible experience, and everyone in the family is furious with me. (usbooks)

However, *with* can also be used with actions and events and things and objects, e.g.:

6) One day, when Bertrand was making a movie, someone on the set became furious with his directing (usbooks)

7) [. . .] pressing with his elbow on the stand beside the bed. It was in his way and hurt him, he grew furious with it, pressed on it still harder, and upset it (usbooks)

In American English, on the basis of my data, *at* can be used with persons, actions and events, and with things and objects, e.g.:

8) She decided right there and then that she was furious at Brenda
(usbooks)

9) Ray was furious at being pulled from Task Force Shepherd, where he had been scheduled to lead the regimental attack Monday morning (usbooks)

10) I don't really care," Robyn said, furious at the smug expression on her mother's face (usbooks)

Furious was also complemented with the prepositions *about* and *over* but the number of examples is low compared to *at* and *with*. E.g.:

11) He was furious about `the state of muddle and confusion existing at Roberts" (ukbooks)

12) Hitler was furious over the news of this development, and that same day he promised to brew [. . .] (usbooks)

To sum up, it seems that the tendency to use *with* to express the stimulus of the emotion in British English is also true with the adjective *furious*. *At* is used as well, mainly to refer to inanimate entities. In American English the situation is not as clear as with the adjective *angry*; the normed frequency of *furious* with *at* being 2.0 per million words whereas with *with* it is 1.6.

8.1.1.3. Indignant

The Oxford English Dictionary defines *indignant* as follows:

Affected with indignation; provoked to wrath by something regarded as unworthy, unjust, or ungrateful; moved by an emotion of anger mingled with scorn or contempt; ‘inflamed at once with anger and disdain’ (J). Said of persons, their feelings, etc.; also *fig.* of things.

Sense b. with an example from the OED gives further information about usage:

“b. Const. *at*; *with* (a person); *of* (a thing).” e.g. “1858 [. . .] The clergy, indignant at such proceedings, murmured and even threatened.”

Thus, the OED gives the prepositions *at* and *with* to be used with *indignant* and when

the stimulus of the emotion is a person *with* is preferred. In my data from both the Collins Cobuild Corpus and LOB and Brown corpora all the examples but one (ex. (5) below) had an inanimate stimulus. All in all there were only a few examples of *indignant* with a prepositional phrase complement: it appeared four times in LOB, once in Brown, and thrice in ukbooks as well as in usbooks. The adjective is included in the discussion, however, because it is in the list of adjectives complemented by *at* and taking obligatory complements in the given sense of the adjective (H&P 2002, 543).

In ukbooks and usbooks *indignant+ at* appeared only twice altogether and was complemented by an *-ing* clause and an inanimate NP:

1) At this point the baby, indignant at having ceased to be the centre of her minder's attention, threw up over the clothes in which only moments before she had been dressed (ukbooks)

2) He noted that just about everyone, with few exceptions, `is highly indignant at the treacherous and brutal Japanese attack - so much so that for the present at least, everyone seems to have forgotten about the broader questions and issues [. . .] (usbooks)

Indignant was complemented by *with* and *over* as well as illustrated in the examples below:

3) He still appeared furiously indignant with everything or nothing (ukbooks)

4) Ivan Ilych was staring with glittering eyes straight before him, evidently indignant with them (usbooks)

5) Him and Yraen both, they get so indignant over their wretched hire! (ukbooks)

6) [. . .] to yell at them once more, to be indignant over their sloth [. . .]
(usbooks)

The two examples of *indignant* + *with* illustrate its use with things (4) and persons (5).

8.1.1.4. Aghast

The Oxford English Dictionary defines the adjective *aghast* as follows:

1. Affrighted, frightened, terrified. *esp.* in mod. usage, Seized with the visible or physical signs of terror or horror; struck with amazement. This change of meaning is due to misunderstanding the nature of the word, as if it were *a-ghast*, like *a-sleep*, *a-float*. Const. *at* (*of* obs.) the object, *with* (*for* obs.) the emotion. Rare and obs. with *inf.* and *lest*.

An example from the OED illustrates the use of the adjective with the preposition *at*:

“1866 [. . .] The Bishop fell on his knees, aghast at the terrible decree.” The *at*-phrase after the adjective indicates the reason or stimulus, or Object, of the horror. *Aghast* is included in the Huddleston and Pullum’s (2002, 543) list of “wholly or virtually” obligatory complements with *at* in the given sense.

In LOB and Brown *aghast* + *at* appeared thrice altogether as also in the Collins Cobuild Corpora:

1) "Oh, no Jimmy ...**" ^She was [[aghast]] at this. (LOB, Line 3415)

2) He rose from his breakfast-nook bench and came into the M01 68 livingroom, where Heather and Steve stood [[aghast]] at his entrance.
(LOB, Line 68)

3) "Don't be afraid, Violet"! he shouted, and was [[aghast]] at the echoes.
(Brown, Line 1296)

4) She looked aghast at my directness. <p> What an extraordinary thing to say. (ukbooks)

5) Breathing hard, Ellel goes on by, back past the toilets and the galley into the living space, stopping aghast at the sight of her own door open.
(ukbooks)

6) Actually <f> add <f> one to the garden that I'd spent the entire summer trying to render rock-free? I was aghast at the idea. (usbooks)

In the examples above the complement of the preposition is an inanimate noun phrase in each case. In addition, *aghast* was on one occasion complemented by *with* in the data (my boldface):

7) I'd just time to see Richard Snailham's bearded face aghast **with** horror as he held on for dear life. (ukbooks)

Here the preposition indicates 'association' – horror that is seen in the face – and not stimulus as with the preposition *at* and the complement is optional.

On the basis of the information obtained from the corpora one could suggest that *aghast* could be slightly more common in British English, the normed frequency in ukbooks being 0.4 per million words whereas in usbooks only 0.2. The adjective was as common in Brown and LOB as in the Collins Cobuild Corpus which seems to indicate that the word was more widely used in the 1960s taking account of the size difference of the corpora.

8.1.1.5. Alarmed

The OED lists two senses for the adjective *alarmed* of which the second is relevant for this paper: “2. Disturbed, excited by the prospect of danger”. No examples with a prepositional complement were found in the OED. An example from the OED illustrates the use: “1722 [. . .] Deceivers fed their fears and kept them alarmed”.

Alarmed is an *ed*-adjective and has the same form as the past-participle of the verb *alarm*. Its adjectival status can be verified by premodification with the words *very* and

too, or by the replacement of *be* with other verbs e.g. *seem* and *appear*. These tests were referred to in chapter 5 (H&P 2002, 541).

The adjective was present with a prepositional phrase four times in LOB with the prepositions *at*, *about*, and *for*; and two times in Brown with the prepositions *at* and *by*. It was complemented by an NP in all of these cases.

In the Collins Cobuild Corpus *alarmed* appeared with the prepositions *at*, *by*, *with*, *about*, and *over*. The frequencies of both subcorpora are displayed in the tables below.

UKBOOKS						
<i>alarmed</i>	raw counts			normed per million words		
complement type	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	Total	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	Total
<i>at</i>	8	1	9	1.5	0.2	1.7
<i>by</i>	9	1	10	1.7	0.2	1.9
<i>about</i>	2	-	2	0.4	-	0.4
<i>with</i>	1	-	1	0.2	-	0.2
Total	20	2	22	3.8	0.4	4.2

Table 6.

USBOOKS						
<i>alarmed</i>	raw counts			normed per million words		
complement type	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	Total	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	Total
<i>at</i>	2	-	2	0.4	-	0.4
<i>by</i>	4	-	4	0.7	-	0.7
<i>about</i>	1	-	1	0.2	-	0.2
<i>with</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-
<i>over</i>	-	1	1	-	0.2	0.2
Total	7	1	8	1.3	0.2	1.5

Table 7.

Thus, *alarmed* was complemented by six different prepositions in the whole data. Examples follow (my boldface):

- 1) Jay came running, alarmed **at** the noise (ukbooks)
- 2) Then Prithri Narayan Shah, the ruler of Gorkha, one of these states, became alarmed **by** the spread of British influence and power throughout India (ukbooks)
- 3) [A]s a conservative investor you shouldn't become overly alarmed **about** a drop in bond prices (usbooks)
- 4) They were alarmed **with** the political complexion of a handful of them including Mr Brian (ukbooks)
- 5) If the man becomes alarmed **over** what he labels as sexual failure, he not only becomes anxious but [. . .] (usbooks)
- 6) He was alarmed **for** Bill's safety (LOB, Line 484)

The complementation after the preposition was predominantly inanimate NP, thirty-three out of the total thirty-six examples studied. There were two *wh*-clauses as well as illustrated above in the example 5) and below in the example 7):

- 7) [. . .] and Edward Knapp-Fisher, former Bishop of Pretoria, South Africa, were alarmed at how sick and feeble Paul appeared (ukbooks)

Alarmed was more often found with a prepositional phrase complement in the British English part of the data (4.2 per million words) than in the American English data (1.5 per million words) in the Collins Cobuild Corpus. These figures correlate with the numbers from LOB (4 instances) and Brown (2 instances). The lexical bundle *alarmed at the/this prospect* occurred four times in ukbooks and once in usbooks.

8.1.1.6. Annoyed

The OED defines the participial adjective *annoyed* as follows: “1. Disturbed by what one dislikes; troubled, vexed, offended.” There are no examples with a prepositional complement in the OED and only one rather old example where *annoyed* is in predicative position: “1300 [. . .] Y am aschamed And sore anoyed, and agramed.”

In LOB *annoyed* + PP appeared thrice: two times with *at* + *-ing* complement and once with *with* + an animate NP complement. In Brown the pattern *annoyed* + PP was present altogether four times with a noun phrase complement: with *by* two instances of inanimate NPs appeared, in the instances with *at* and similarly with *with* the preposition was complemented by an animate NP.

The frequencies of *annoyed* with different prepositions and complement types in the two subcorpora of the Collins Cobuild Corpus are illustrated in the tables below.

UKBOOKS										
<i>annoyed</i>	raw counts					normed per million words				
complement type	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	- <i>ing</i>	Total	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	- <i>ing</i>	Total
<i>at</i>	2	5	-	2	9	0.4	0.9	-	0.4	1.7
<i>with</i>	11	2	1	-	14	2.1	0.4	0.2	-	2.7
<i>by</i>	-	4	-	-	4	-	0.8	-	-	0.8
Total	13	11	1	2	27	2.5	2.1	0.2	0.4	5.2

Table 8.

USBOOKS										
<i>annoyed</i>	raw counts					normed per million words				
complement type	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	- <i>ing</i>	Total	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	- <i>ing</i>	Total
<i>at</i>	-	1	-	-	1	-	0.2	-	-	0.2
<i>with</i>	3	2	-	-	5	0.5	0.4	-	-	0.9
<i>by</i>	1	5	1	-	7	0.2	0.9	0.2	-	1.3
<i>about</i>	-	1	-	-	1	-	0.2	-	-	0.2
Total	8	5	1	-	14	0.7	1.7	0.2	-	2.6

Table 9.

In the following, examples of usage are given from the corpora with different prepositions and complement types (my boldface):

- 1) [. . .] but naturally I feel annoyed **at** the lost opportunity (ukbooks)
- 2) [. . .] a desert rat hopped out- clearly annoyed **at** having his feast disturbed (ukbooks)
- 3) I was beginning to feel annoyed **with** him (ukbooks)
- 4) [. . .] the group became annoyed **with** what they saw as a dismissal
[. . .] (ukbooks)
- 5) I was puzzled and a little annoyed **by** his request (usbooks)
- 6) He was personally annoyed **by** what he saw as the assertion of [. . .]
(usbooks)
- 7) [...] my parents were annoyed **about** the shingle incident (usbooks)

Annoyed was, thus, complemented by four different prepositions in the data. *With* was most often complemented by an animate NP (ex. 3), *by* and *at* by an inanimate NP (ex. 1 and 5) which agrees with general tendency of adjectives expressing emotion. Two examples of an *-ing* clause complement were found with *at* in ukbooks (ex. 2) and one

example of *wh*-clause complement was found in ukbooks with *with* (ex. 4) and another in usbooks with *by* (ex. 6). *About* was used once with *annoyed* in usbooks (ex. 7).

On the basis of my data there is a significant difference between American and British English as regards the adjective *annoyed*. When it is complemented by a prepositional phrase the frequency per million words in American English is 2.6 whereas in British English the figure reads 5.2. On the other hand in the earlier corpora *annoyed* + PP was found more often in the American English Brown than in the British English LOB. Interestingly the preposition *by* is used more often in usbooks than in ukbooks although the overall figures of the latter are greater with other prepositions.

8.1.1.7. Mad

There are fourteen senses of *mad* in the OED. Sense six is the most relevant for this paper:

6. a. Of a person: beside oneself with anger; moved to uncontrollable rage; furious. b. Angry, irate, cross. Also, in weakened sense: annoyed, exasperated (with *against*, *at*, *with*, etc.). Now *colloq.* (chiefly *N. Amer.*) and *Brit. regional*.

The OED has examples of *mad* complemented with prepositions *at* and *with*: “1956 [. . .] Are you mad at me? Simpson asked.” and “1992 [. . .] He has hardly any friends and the ones he has beat him up because they get mad with him.”

In the OED definition above is stated that *mad* is used colloquially chiefly in American English in the given sense. Thus, one would assume that from the data of this paper the American English Brown and usbooks would have the greatest numbers of *mad* + *at* combinations.

In the data *mad* + *at* appeared five times in Brown and two times in LOB. In the Collins Cobuild Corpus thirty-eight instances were found in usbooks whereas ukbooks provided only eight examples of *mad* + *at*. The figures per million words are

thus 6.8 in usbooks and 1.5 in ukbooks. It is indeed clear that *mad* in the sense of angry is much more common in American English when complemented by the preposition *at*.

In American English *mad + at* was very often complemented by a personal pronoun (29 of 40 examples), e.g.:

1) Molly - that business about being mad at me (usbooks)

The example features conversational language accordingly to the OED definition above.

The complements of *mad + at* were all noun phrases in the data, and most of them animate, however, both ukbooks and usbooks had two examples of inanimate NP complements denoting abstract noun stimuli, in which case both British English and American English accept *at* (Quirk et al 1985, 702). Two of these are illustrated below:

2) He's mad at the world, Ma says. (ukbooks)

3) And when I don't like it, you'll know it I don't get mad at people, I get mad at principles, at things that don't happen (usbooks)

One instance of *mad* in the sense of angry was found complemented by the preposition *with*, in this example the anger is clearly manifested:

4) `Then I hit Gil. He wasn't expecting it. I was mad with them. No; not personally mad. Don't you know what I mean? (usbooks)

The preposition *with* is listed in the OED's sixth sense of *mad* expressing anger but the preposition *about* is considered to denote a different kind of relationship, see sense 3. a. below:

3. a. Of a person: carried away by or filled with enthusiasm or desire; wildly excited; infatuated. With *about, after, for, of, on* (chiefly *Brit.*), *over, upon, with*.

There were three cases of *mad + about* which seem to deviate from the normal usage expressing enthusiasm and desire. These examples express anger, the preposition *about* links the stimulus to the adjective:

5) We must take a look. ` Hold on," Bob said. `That Joshua Evans was awful mad about me being on his land yesterday. Maybe we better wait for Captain [. . .] (ukbooks)

6) But you can say the words now. Nobody gets mad about them now. People only fell asleep over words that made them angry. (ukbooks)

7) [. . .] include kids who can wait out the war in college. You have every right to be mad about that," acknowledged a leaflet addressed to gis in the fall of 1968. (usbooks)

A broader context would be required to interpret the examples more thoroughly but at least example 5) could be an example of regional and colloquial usage.

8.1.2. Positive feelings

Adjectives complemented by *at* expressing positive feelings are discussed here. Only two such adjectives were found from the data: namely *pleased* and *delighted*.

8.1.2.1 Pleased

The definition of the adjective according to the OED is as follows: "Affected by feelings of satisfaction or pleasure; contented, gratified, in good humour; †appeased."

There was only one example of a prepositional complement in the OED and there the preposition used was *with*: "1782 [. . .] I am not quite pleased with your looks."

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 543) list the combination *pleased* + *at* with obligatory complementation in the given sense of the adjective. In Brown all eleven prepositional complements were headed by *with*. There was more variation in LOB where the complements expressing the stimulus of pleasure were headed by *with* (4 instances), *about* (2), and *at* (2). In the Collins Cobuild Corpus, even though *with* was significantly the most common preposition used with *pleased*, eight instances of *pleased* + *at* were also found (3 in ukbooks; 5 in usbooks).

The frequencies of *pleased* in the different subcorpora with different prepositional complements are illustrated in the following tables.

UKBOOKS										
<i>pleased</i>	raw counts					normed per million words				
complement type	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	- <i>ing</i>	Total	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	- <i>ing</i>	Total
<i>at</i>	-	1	-	2	3	-	0.2	-	0.4	0.6
<i>with</i>	14	33	2	-	49	2.6	6.2	0.4	-	9.2
<i>about</i>	-	3	-	-	3	-	0.6	-	-	0.6
<i>by</i>	-	1	-	-	1	-	0.2	-	-	0.2
Total	14	38	2	2	56	2.6	7.2	0.4	0.4	10.6

Table 10.

USBOOKS										
<i>pleased</i>	raw counts					normed per million words				
complement type	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	- <i>ing</i>	Total	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	- <i>ing</i>	Total
<i>at</i>	-	4	1	-	5	-	0.7	0.2	-	0.9
<i>with</i>	5	35	1	-	41	0.9	6.2	0.2	-	7.3
<i>about</i>	-	2	-	-	2	-	0.4	-	-	0.4
<i>by</i>	-	7	1	-	8	-	1.2	0.2	-	1.4
Total	5	48	3	-	56	0.9	8.5	0.6	-	10.0

Table 11.

The combination *pleased* + *with* was most often complemented by an inanimate noun phrase. Examples from both varieties are below:

- 1) Henry looked pleased with the suggestion. (ukbooks)
- 2) First, most patients are pleased with the results even more so than the surgeons! (usbooks)

In addition, *pleased* + *with* was complemented by an animate NP and by a *wh*-clause.

Examples from both types follow:

3) But I didn't feel pleased with myself and my progress any more.

(ukbooks)

4) Lyman begins quietly, his voice low but very pleased with what is

coming. (usbooks)

In ukbooks *pleased+ at* was complemented by an inanimate NP on one occasion and by an *-ing* clause on two occasions. In usbooks four inanimate NP complements and one *wh*-clause were found but no *-ing* clauses. Examples of each type are below:

5) Arnold Friend was pleased at her laughter and looked up at her.

(usbooks)

6) I was very pleased at discovering that. (ukbooks)

7) I'm also pleased at how much more open you are at previewing

upcoming developmental skills [. . .] (usbooks)

No examples of *pleased + at* with an animate stimulus were found. The American English tendency to use *at* also with animate stimulus in adjective phrases expressing emotion is not seen here. When *pleased* is complemented by *at* the reaction seems to be more immediate and caused by a current occurrence than when the adjective is complemented with other prepositions.

Pleased was also complemented by *about* and *by*. The complements following *about* and *by* were all inanimate noun phrases with the exception of one *wh*-clause complement following *by* in usbooks:

8) The ultimate sign of a serviced society is a professional saying, 'I'm so

pleased by what you've done." (usbooks)

According to Quirk et al (1985, 414) the difference between the adjective and the participle is not clear cut. They note that for the *-ed* form the verbal force is explicit "when a *by*-agent phrase with a personal agent is present, indicating the

correspondence to the active form of the sentence” (Quirk et al, 1985, 414). They give an example: "*The man was **offended** by the policeman*" (Quirk et al, 1985, 414).

Pleased is a participial adjective and in the data there were examples of it complemented by *by* but no personal agents were found. The combination *pleased + by* was more common in usbooks (1.4 instances per million words) than in ukbooks (0.2 instances per million words). An example with two participial adjectives from the data (my boldface):

9) It's not something we read into nature. We discover it; we are **surprised** by it; we are **pleased** by it. It's an awesome and beautiful wholeness and unity of a mathematical character. (usbooks).

As noted before in this paper the participle interpretation of an adjective draws attention to the process whereas the adjective interpretation concentrates on the state resulting from the process (Quirk et al 1985, 415). Quirk et al note that “premodification by the intensifier *very* is an explicit indication that the forms have achieved adjective status” (1985, 414). The examples in 5) above can be rendered as follows: ‘[. . .] we are very surprised by it; we are very pleased by it [. . .]’. The preposition *at* could also be used to indicate the stimulus of the emotional reaction in some cases:

10) He was pleased by the thought of how his wife and daughter, who shared his taste in this matter, would be impressed by it. [. . .] (usbooks)
could be converted to ‘he was pleased at the thought of how his wife and daughter, who [. . .].’

8.1.2.2. Delighted

The adjective *delighted* is defined by the OED as follows: “1. Filled with delight, highly pleased or gratified.” No examples with prepositional complements are given.

This adjective has very similar although a little stronger meaning than *pleased* that was discussed above.

Similarly as with the adjective *pleased* LOB showed more variation in the choice of the preposition with *delighted*. In Brown *delighted* + PP occurred three times the preposition being *with* in each case whereas in LOB three instances of *delighted* + *with* and *delighted* + *by* were found. Again similarly with *pleased*, *delighted* was complemented most often by *with* in the Collins Cobuild data. The frequencies of both subcorpora are displayed in the following tables.

UKBOOKS										
<i>delighted</i>	raw counts					normed per million words				
complement type	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	wh-clause	-ing	Total	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	wh-clause	-ing	Total
<i>at</i>	-	7	1	1	9	-	1.3	0.2	0.2	1.7
<i>with</i>	4	18	1	-	23	0.8	3.2	0.2	-	4.2
<i>by</i>	-	4	-	-	4	-	0.8	-	-	0.8
Total	4	29	2	1	36	0.8	5.3	0.4	0.2	6.7

Table 12.

USBOOKS										
<i>delighted</i>	raw counts					normed per million words				
complement type	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	wh-clause	-ing	Total	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	wh-clause	-ing	Total
<i>at</i>	-	2	-	1	3	-	0.4	-	0.2	0.6
<i>with</i>	2	15	1	-	18	0.4	2.7	0.2	-	3.3
<i>about</i>	-	1	-	-	1	-	0.2	-	-	0.2
<i>by</i>	-	4	-	-	4	-	0.7	-	-	0.7
Total	2	22	1	1	26	0.4	4.0	0.2	0.2	4.8

Table 13.

The complementation of the preposition was most often an inanimate NP. An example of the use follows:

- 1) I'd already warned Mrs Buchan, who'd been delighted at my threat of dozens of voracious appetites. (ukbooks)

In ukbooks four and in usbooks two animate NP complements were found with the preposition *with*. E.g.:

- 2) [. . .] it only being some 30 minutes since the attempt Ted was singing and delighted with himself by the time I met him. (ukbooks)

-ing clauses only appeared once in both varieties and *wh*-clauses twice in ukbooks and once in usbooks. Examples of the use of these patterns follow:

- 3) Though Haig was annoyed with the French reluctance to attack he was delighted at being able to put into effect what he termed `our plan".
(ukbooks)

- 4) Dwight was delighted with what he readily conceded was a `tasteless, crude, wholly [. . .]

Only one example of *delighted* + *about* was found. It appeared in usbooks with an inanimate NP complement:

- 5) He reported that he had not found `one Egyptian who wasn't delighted about the canal seizure (usbooks)

The usage of the adjectives *pleased* and *delighted* is quite similar. There seems to be no significant difference in use according to the variety although both adjectives are slightly more common in British English on the basis of the studied examples.

8.1.3. Expressing surprise

There were three adjectives expressing surprise in the data which are discussed in the following sections. The adjectives are: *amazed*, *astonished*, and *surprised*. These are all *-ed* adjectives i.e. participial adjectives which take prepositional complements headed by *at* or *by*. Quirk et al (1985, 701) call the noun phrase expressing the stimulus of the emotion and following *at* ‘a semi-agent’. The agentive force is not as strong as with a *by*-agent with which the verbal force is explicit in the case of a personal agent (Quirk et al 1985, 414).

8.1.3.1. Amazed

The OED lists three obsolete senses (senses 1-3) for the adjective *amazed* but the fourth and last sense is in current usage: “4. Lost in wonder or astonishment.” There are two example sentences where the adjective is complemented by *at*: “1590 [. . .] I am amazed at your passionate words” and “1855 [. . .] We are utterly amazed at the offices which have been performed..by the animalcula.”

The adjective *amazed* was more common in the British English LOB than in the American English Brown. In LOB six instances of *amazed* + *at* were found, in Brown only two. In addition LOB had one instance of *amazed* + *by*. The complement of the preposition was an inanimate noun phrase in each case.

The difference between American and British English that was present in LOB and Brown is not found in the Collins Cobuild Corpus where *amazed* + PP appeared twenty-two times in ukbooks and twenty-four times in usbooks.

Amazed was complemented by two prepositions - namely *at* and *by*. The figures of both in the two subcorpora can be seen in the tables below.

UKBOOKS								
<i>amazed</i>	raw counts				normed per million words			
complement type	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> - clause	Total	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> - clause	Total
<i>at</i>	2	8	7	17	0.4	1.5	1.3	3.2
<i>by</i>	-	5	-	5	-	0.9	-	0.9
Total	2	13	7	22	0.4	2.4	1.3	4.1

Table 14.

USBOOKS								
<i>amazed</i>	raw counts				normed per million words			
complement type	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> - clause	Total	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> - clause	Total
<i>at</i>	-	6	11	17	-	1.1	2.0	3.1
<i>by</i>	1	6	-	7	0.2	1.1	-	1.3
Total	1	12	11	24	0.2	2.2	2.0	4.4

Table 15.

As can be seen from the figures presented above a *wh*-clause is a frequent complement of *amazed* + *at*. The question word *how* introduced the clause in all but one instance (usbooks: *what*, ex. 6) below). Thus wondering at something and indicating the stimulus of the wonder is often expressed by the word *how*. Examples of different types of complementation with the prepositions *at* and *by* in both variants is given below:

- 1) You'll be amazed at how well it works. Guys love a challenge.
(ukbooks)
- 2) He slapped his knee amazed at his own forgetfulness. (ukbooks)
- 3) You can't be too careful these days," Marlette said. `You'd be amazed at the types who come knocking at my door. (ukbooks)
- 4) Michelle Flight into Illness <f> seemed rather amazed by the use of words such as satisfying or freedom [. . .] (ukbooks)

- 5) He was amazed at the distance separating him from his room and could not understand how [. . .] (usbooks)
- 6) I was simply thrilled and amazed at what you did tonight. (usbooks)
- 7) Sometimes I'm so amazed by her. She's ingenious. (usbooks)
- 8) His Tibetan companions were quite amazed by this performance (usbooks)

In example 7) there is a personal agent following the preposition *by*. According to Quirk et al (1985, 414) the verbal force of the participle should be explicit here but the case is not clear-cut. Premodification by the intensifier *very* is taken to be “an explicit indication that the forms have achieved adjective status” (Quirk et al 1985, 414). In 7) the adjective is premodified with *so* which could be replaced by *very*: ‘[. . .] I’m very amazed by her’. Quirk et al (1985, 415) state that “there appears to be divided usage, with increasing acceptance of the cooccurrence of *very* with a *by*-agent phrase containing a personal agent”.

8.1.3.2. Astonished

Astonished is synonymous with *amazed* and defined by the OED as follows: “4. Amazed, full of surprised wonder.” No examples of prepositional complements were found in the OED. Prepositional complements can be assumed to be headed with the prepositions *at* and *by* as with *amazed* above.

In Brown no examples of *astonished* with a prepositional complement were found. In LOB two examples with *by* + inanimate noun phrase were noted.

In the Collins Cobuild Corpus in ukbooks and usbooks the figures of *astonished* were smaller than those of *amazed* discussed in the last section. *Astonished* was complemented by the prepositions *at* and *by*, the frequencies of which with different complement types in the two subcorpora are displayed in the tables below.

UKBOOKS								
<i>astonished</i>	raw counts				normed per million words			
complement type	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> - clause	Total	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> - clause	Total
<i>at</i>	1	9	1	11	0.2	1.7	0.2	2.1
<i>by</i>	-	4	-	4	-	0.8	-	0.8
Total	1	13	1	15	0.2	2.5	0.2	2.9

Table 16.

USBOOKS								
<i>astonished</i>	raw counts				normed per million words			
complement type	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> - clause	Total	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> - clause	Total
<i>at</i>	-	7	-	7	-	1.2	-	1.2
<i>by</i>	-	7	-	7	-	1.2	-	1.2
Total	-	14	-	14	-	2.4	-	2.4

Table 17.

The complements of prepositions were all inanimate noun phrases except one animate noun phrase (example 2) below) and one *wh*-clause (example 3) below).

Examples of use are given in the following:

- 1) Anthony was astonished at the sheer beauty of Germany. (ukbooks)
- 2) Europeans unaccustomed to hunger were astonished at the Africans who appeared to sit in circles around the pile of soon- [. . .] (ukbooks)
- 3) `I am astonished at what you say re the loan to General F I am afraid the trustees have [. . .] (ukbooks)
- 4) I was also pleasantly astonished by the number of scientific discoveries. (ukbooks)
- 5) Committee attached to the Council of Ministers (1955 61), I was still astonished at the backwardness of our country at the time (usbooks)

The stimulus of participial adjectives can be expressed by the prepositions *at* and *by*. These seem to be interchangeable, e.g. example 1) above could be converted into: ‘Anthony was astonished **by** the sheer beauty of Germany’ but here the process of becoming astonished is highlighted.

8.1.3.3. Surprised

The OED defines *surprised* as follows: “2. Excited to wonder by something unexpected; affected or characterized by surprise.” No examples of prepositional complements were found in the OED but, as with the participial adjectives expressing surprise discussed in previous sections, it can be assumed that the complements of the adjective begin with the prepositions *at* or *by*. As stated in the Quirk et al (1985, 415) the agentive preposition *by* draws more attention to the process of becoming surprised than the preposition *at* that draws more attention to the state of being surprised and merely links the stimulus of the reaction to the Experiencer.

Surprised + PP appeared seven times in LOB and eight in Brown. In the former the preposition *at* appeared six times complemented by an inanimate noun phrase (3 instances), a *wh*-clause (2), an animate noun phrase (1), whereas the preposition *by* appeared only once and was complemented by an inanimate noun phrase. In Brown there were five instances of *at* which all took inanimate noun phrase complements and three instances of *by* of which two had inanimate noun phrase complements and one a *wh*-clause complement.

In the Collins Cobuild Corpus *surprised* + PP appeared sixty-three times in ukbooks and sixty times in usbooks. The complementation patterns respond somewhat to those of LOB and Brown. In ukbooks the complementation of *at* was varied whereas *by* was complemented only by one pattern. In usbooks both *at* and *by*

were complemented with various patterns. The results of both subcorpora can be seen in the tables below.

UKBOOKS										
<i>surprised</i>	raw counts					normed per million words				
complement type	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	- <i>ing</i>	Total	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	- <i>ing</i>	Total
<i>at</i>	4	23	11	1	39	0.8	4.3	2.1	0.2	7.4
<i>by</i>	-	24	-	-	24	-	4.5	-	-	4.5
Total	4	47	11	1	63	0.8	8.8	2.1	0.2	11.9

Table 18.

USBOOKS										
<i>surprised</i>	raw counts					normed per million words				
complement type	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	- <i>ing</i>	Total	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	- <i>ing</i>	Total
<i>at</i>	4	12	14	-	30	0.7	2.1	2.5	-	5.3
<i>by</i>	2	25	3	-	30	0.4	4.4	0.5	-	5.3
Total	6	37	17	-	60	1.1	6.5	3.0	-	10.6

Table 19.

Examples from both corpora illustrate the use of *surprised* with different complementation patterns:

- 1) I'm surprised at you, Marianne," she had said. (ukbooks)
- 2) As shown in the graph, you may be pleasantly surprised at the results.
(usbooks)
- 3) You'd be surprised at what people have done to these rooms (ukbooks)
- 4) `I think this gentleman was most surprised at finding himself free.
(ukbooks)
- 5) Listen, you are going to be surprised by him, but I want you to take a
look at a young actor named Gerard (usbooks)

- 6) [. . .] they'd smile and chat and were not disapproving or surprised by the smell and the mess. (ukbooks)
- 7) I was surprised by how interested they were as I divulged my despair of earlier days. (usbooks)

In the example 5) there is a personal agent *him* following the preposition *by*. In this case the process of becoming surprised is anticipated and it can be inferred that the agent will cause the surprise by his actions.

8.2. Adjectives expressing a property in the domain of the *at*-clause

In this chapter five adjectives (*good, adept, successful, hopeless, bad*) expressing a property, capacity, or failing in the domain of the *at*-clause are discussed. There is some alternation between different prepositions appearing after the adjectives discussed in this chapter. Common prepositions found in the data include *at, in, and with*.

Biber et al (1999, 749) have counted frequencies of common adjectival predicates with an *-ing* clause in a post-predicate position. The most common adjectival predicate with this structure is *capable of* but *bad about/at, good at, and successful at* are also listed (Biber et al 1999, 749). These adjectival predicates are also often complemented by noun phrases as noted in Biber (1999, 749) and proved in the discussion of data later in this chapter.

8.2.1. Expressing a positive property

Here I will discuss those adjectives that appeared with *at* and express a positive property in the domain expressed in the *at*-clause. In the data three such adjectives were found: *good, adept, and successful*.

The adjectives *good* and *adept* are quite similar in meaning, denoting the quality of action or performance expressed in the prepositional phrase. Huddleston and

Pullum (2002, 543) mention these adjectives with “wholly or virtually” obligatory complementation by *at* in the given sense of the adjective in non-attributive constructions. As they are, however, both used with the preposition *in* as well, I will attempt to find out whether differences in meaning result when the preposition is changed. Two native speakers were consulted about the usage of *good* and *adept* with different prepositions. Their views are summed up in the appropriate sections.

The adjective *successful* is included here as well as it is used with the preposition *at* to denote the good and intended result in some domain indicated by the *at*-phrase.

8.2.1.1. Good

The Oxford English Dictionary defines the adjective *good* in the sense 15. as follows: “Chiefly of persons: Having the characteristics or aptitudes required or becoming in a specified or implied capacity or relationship.” Sense 15c lists the prepositions used “Competent, skilful, clever *at* or *in* (formerly also *for*, *of*, to) a certain action or pursuit. Sometimes used simply. So of a ship: *good under* or *with sail*.” An example from the OED illustrates the use of *good* + *at*: “1849 [. . .] I am not good at descriptions of female beauty”.

In the following I will count the frequencies of *at* and *in* when used as a complement of *good*. In the definition of the Oxford English Dictionary cited above it is not stated which of the prepositions is more common with *good*. The intuition of a non-native speaker of English would suggest that *at* be the more common variant and indeed from the corpus data one can clearly see that *at* is definitely more widely used.

The adjective *good* was searched in LOB and Brown with meagre results of PP complements. In both corpora only two examples of *good* + *at* appeared and in

these the complements of the preposition were inanimate noun phrases. Other prepositions were not found.

The combination *good* + *at* was clearly more often used than *good* + *in* in British English as well as in American English in my data from the Collins Cobuild Corpus. The frequencies of both with different complement types in the two subcorpora are shown in the following tables.

UKBOOKS								
<i>good</i>	raw counts				normed per million words			
complement type	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	<i>-ing</i>	Total	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	<i>-ing</i>	Total
<i>at</i>	34	6	29	69	6.4	1.1	5.4	12.9
<i>in</i>	3	-	2	5	0.6	-	0.4	1.0
Total	37	6	31	74	7.0	1.1	5.8	13.9

Table 20.

USBOOKS								
<i>good</i>	raw counts				normed per million words			
complement type	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	<i>-ing</i>	Total	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	<i>-ing</i>	Total
<i>at</i>	37	3	35	75	6.6	0.5	6.2	13.3
<i>in</i>	1	-	-	1	0.2	-	-	0.2
Total	38	3	35	75	6.8	0.5	6.2	13.5

Table 21.

There is no clear difference in the frequencies of the two prepositions according to the variety. However, in British English *good* + *in* is used more often than in American English. Two native English speakers were consulted about the prepositions *at* and *in* appearing with *good*. They were presented sentences from the corpora with both prepositions and asked to select the more appropriate alternative with possible reasons for their choice. In the following I will give examples from the corpus data and refer to the information obtained from the native informants.

- 1) I'm very good at watching out for myself. (ukbooks)
- 2) Told you, I'm no good at details. (ukbooks)
- 3) [. . .] I'm pretty good at calling a spade a spade. (usbooks)
- 4) The Indians were evidently very good at the game. (usbooks)

Here we have examples of *-ing* clause and noun phrase complements from both varieties. The American and British English speakers both preferred *at* in these cases. In 4) the change of the preposition would result a difference in meaning; from generic reference with *at* to a specific reference with *in* – a particular game. In the latter case the constituent is an adjunct and could be left out without a considerable difference in meaning. This was noted by the British English speaker.

All the examples with a *wh*-complement, total of nine in both subcorpora, were cases where *good* was complemented by the preposition *at*:

- 5) The people who are practically smart are people who know what they're good at. (ukbooks)
- 6) Perhaps Walker was almost too good at what he did. (usbooks)

The following sentences below illustrate the use of *good + in* in the corpus data:

- 7) They were really good in helping me sort myself out and then I worked it out with my daughter [. . .] (ukbooks)
- 8) [. . .] but the point is, you're usually so explicit and good in your explanations that it makes one rather mystified why this is one [. . .] (ukbooks)
- 9) To Leroy, this sounds intimidating. 'I never was any good in English,' he says. (usbooks)

In 7) the choice of the preposition spells out a difference in meaning: ‘it was good or nice of them to help me’. When used with *at* the good quality of helping would be the reference: ‘they were really good at helping me’. This was noted by both the American and British informant. In 8), according to the view of the British English informant, the change of the preposition to *at* would turn the sentence more general and make the use of the possessive determiner in front of the noun inaccurate. In example 9) the school subject English is denoted and the change of the preposition would change the meaning: ‘I was good *at* English – at speaking English’.

On the basis of the data and the information obtained from the native informants one can see that *good + at* is the unmarked and normal usage when referring to a situation where someone is skilled in something. The complementation denotes the domain in which one is skilled and is therefore obligatory in this sense of the adjective *good* (H&P 2002, 543).

In all of the examples above the element in the Object case is animate. It is also possible to have an inanimate noun in the role of Object that is characterized in some respect. In the data one example appeared, here the preposition used with *good* is *for*:

10) My mother replied, ‘Cold is so very good for keeping the more highly-strung tropical blooms fresh.’ (ukbooks)

8.2.1.2. Adept

The definition of the adjective *adept* in the Oxford English Dictionary is following:

“completely versed (*in*); thoroughly proficient; well-skilled” (sense A). There were two examples of *adept* with a prepositional complement headed by *in* in the OED, the more recent is cited here: “1782 [. . .] Beaus adept in ev'rything profound, Die of disdain”.

Thus, *in* is the only preposition mentioned in the definition of the OED but *adept* is used with the preposition *at* as well.

Adept was searched in Brown and LOB but only a few examples of prepositional complements were found: in LOB one example of *adept + at + -ing* clause; and in Brown three examples *adept + at*, two times with an *-ing* clause and once with an inanimate noun phrase. *Adept + in* appeared once in Brown with an inanimate noun phrase.

The frequencies of *adept* with different complement types in the two subcorpora of Collins Cobuild Corpus are shown in the tables below. No examples of *wh*-clause complements were found after the preposition.

UKBOOKS						
<i>adept</i>	raw counts			normed per million words		
complement type	NP (-a)	<i>-ing</i>	Total	NP (-a)	<i>-ing</i>	Total
<i>at</i>	2	12	14	0.4	2.2	2.6
<i>in</i>	2	1	3	0.4	0.2	0.6
Total	4	13	17	0.8	2.4	3.2

Table 22.

USBOOKS						
<i>adept</i>	raw counts			normed per million words		
complement type	NP (-a)	<i>-ing</i>	Total	NP (-a)	<i>-ing</i>	Total
<i>at</i>	3	28	31	0.5	5.0	5.5
<i>in</i>	2	2	4	0.4	0.4	0.8
Total	6	30	38	0.9	5.4	6.3

Table 23.

The adjective was used twice as often in the American part of data compared to the British English data. In the dictionary definition cited above the preposition *at* was not mentioned. However, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 543) list *adept* to those adjectives

which are ‘wholly or virtually’ obligatorily complemented with *at* in the given sense of the adjective. In the data *adept* + *at* was clearly the more common combination. The adjective was most often complemented by an *-ing* clause. Following examples illustrate the use of the adjective with both *at* and *in*:

- 1) Turned him inward, made him adept at hiding things (ukbooks)
- 2) He is extremely adept in dealing with financial matters (ukbooks)
- 3) Willie Keeler, was especially adept at this method of getting on base.
(usbooks)
- 4) He is also particularly adept in PR work, teaching and any job which involves selling. (ukbooks)

The information from the British and American English speaker confirms that the combination *adept* + *at* is preferred to *adept* + *in*.

8.2.1.3. Successful

Successful is defined by the OED as follows: “ 1. Of persons: That succeeds or achieves success, *esp.* (in recent use), that attains to wealth or position, that ‘gets on’ [...] b. transf. of things”. An example with a prepositional phrase from the OED: “1805 [...] If I have been at all successful in the paths of literary pursuit.” Here the domain in which one is successful is expressed by the preposition *in*.

Successful was more common in LOB than in Brown in the given sense of the adjective with a prepositional complement. LOB had nine instances of *successful* + *in* (four inanimate NPs and five *-ing* clauses) whereas Brown had only four instances of *successful* (two inanimate NPs and two *-ing* clauses).

In the Collins Cobuild Corpus *successful* was complemented six times by *at* in both subcorpora. More examples of *successful* + *in* were found as can be seen in the following tables of the two subcorpora.

UKBOOKS								
<i>successful</i>	raw counts				normed per million words			
complement type	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	<i>-ing</i>	Total	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	<i>-ing</i>	Total
<i>at</i>	3	2	1	6	0.6	0.4	0.2	1.2
<i>in</i>	21	-	23	44	3.9	-	4.3	8.2
<i>on</i>	1	-	-	1	0.2	-	-	0.2
Total	25	2	24	51	4.7	0.4	4.5	9.6

Table 24.

USBOOKS								
<i>successful</i>	raw counts				normed per million words			
complement type	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	<i>-ing</i>	Total	NP (-a)	<i>wh</i> -clause	<i>-ing</i>	Total
<i>at</i>	3	-	3	6	0.5	-	0.5	1.0
<i>in</i>	7	-	12	19	1.2	-	2.1	3.3
Total	10	-	15	25	1.7	-	2.6	4.3

Table 25.

The frequencies of LOB and Brown correlate with those of the Collins Cobuild Corpus.

It seems, thus, that the adjective *successful* is more common in British English at least with a prepositional complement headed by the preposition *in*. Examples illustrate the use of different patterns:

- 1) [. . .] that lack of education and lack of opportunity mean that we can't be successful at <f> anything. (ukbooks)
- 2) In order to be successful at what you want to do, you need to have a goal or vision. (ukbooks)
- 3) To the extent that I'm successful at self-forgetting, I just bop along in life. (usbooks)
- 4) I must be perfectly competent and successful in everything I set out to do. (ukbooks)

5) Neither Weygold nor Assmann were any more successful in gaining their commanding admiral's ear than Pfeiffer (usbooks)

6) to explain how John's decision-making process worked and why he was more successful on certain projects than others (ukbooks)

In ukbooks successful appeared recurrently with certain words relating to the world of finance, work, and competition. *Successful in obtaining a new position/job* appeared seven times and *successful in financial/money matters* appeared six times to mention a few examples.

8.2.2. Expressing a negative property

In this section adjectives expressing a negative property in the domain of the *at*-clause are discussed. There are only two adjectives in this group: *hopeless* and *bad*.

8.2.2.1. Hopeless

In the Oxford English Dictionary the adjective *hopeless* is defined in the following way (sense 2): “Of or concerning which there is no hope; despaired of, desperate. Also in weakened use: ineffectual, inadequate, unable to stand up for oneself; incompetent, stupid.” No examples of *hopeless* with a prepositional complements were found in the OED. The following example from the OED illustrates the use of the adjective in the sense of ‘incompetent’: “1967 [. . .] *I'm hopeless,*’ she went on. *I made a teapot once. It looked dinky. Only it wouldn't pour, don't you see.*”

In LOB and Brown no examples of *hopeless* with a prepositional complement relevant for this paper were found. In the Collins Cobuild data the combination *hopeless + at* was present four times in ukbooks (three inanimate NP complements; one *-ing* clause) but not at all in usbooks. The meaning of *hopeless at* is close to *bad at*, and the adjective is included in Huddleston and Pullum’s (2002, 543) list of those adjectives that require obligatory complements in the given sense of the

adjective. Examples from data illustrate the use of *hopeless at* with its' both complement types:

- 1) In fact they were as hopeless at sanctity as we are. (ukbooks)
- 2) And do offer to help with something that you're sure you're qualified to tackle - if you're hopeless at keeping accounts, for instance, don't be pushed into filling the vacant post of treasurer! (ukbooks)

In addition to *at hopeless* appeared with *with*, *for*, and *in* in the data:

- 3) Still trying to fit two days into one, Lovejoy? Still hopeless **with** women, **with** money? (ukbooks)
- 4) Who could translate them Azambai the Turkestani was away on a scouting mission; Zelikov was hopeless **for** anything more than simple interpreting. (ukbooks)
- 5) We were hopeless **in** our impotence and in that of the whole world, and we felt an overpowering need to rebel. (ukbooks)

In these examples the meaning of the adjective differs from examples 1) and 2). In 4), however, the preposition *for* could be changed to *at* with no considerable change in the meaning of the sentence.

8.2.2.2. Bad

Of the eight senses of the adjective *bad* in the OED the first one describes the usage found in the data of this essay: "I. In a privative sense: Not good. 1. a. Of defective quality or worth, 'of no good'; below par, poor, worthless, 'wretched,' 'miserable'; that one does not *think much* (or anything) of." No examples of prepositional complements were found in the OED. The following example, however, illustrates the attributive usage of the adjective in the sense of evaluating somebody as not good in some domain:

“1873 [...] Sometimes they sent him a letter; but he was a bad correspondent.” The sentence could be paraphrased ‘[...] but he was bad at correspondence’.

In LOB and Brown no examples of *bad* with a prepositional complement, indicating the domain in which one is unskilled, appeared. Also in the Collins Cobuild Corpus the number of instances of *bad* + *at* is low: in ukbooks seven instances (1.3 per million words) whereas in usbooks only three instances (0.5 per million words) emerged. In ukbooks five inanimate noun phrases and two *-ing* clauses were found as complement of *at*; in usbooks two inanimate noun phrases and one *-ing* clause complemented the preposition *at*. Examples of both complement types:

1) Joan, Ellen, and Jo who would be desperate to hear how I'd got on. `I'm even bad at hindsight." (ukbooks)

2) `She always said I was bad at sharing my pleasures with others," he said. (usbooks)

The figures of *bad* + *at* being very low in the different corpora in contrast to the great overall figures of the adjective in the English language indicate that the use of *bad* with an *at*-phrase expressing the domain in which one is characterized is not very central compared to the other uses of the adjective.

9. Conclusion

In this thesis adjectives complemented by *at* are divided into two main semantic groups expressing either emotion of the Experiencer towards the Stimulus or a property of the Object in the domain expressed by the *at*-clause.

Considering the first group in terms of geographical variety two adjectives stand out as being very familiar in American English with the preposition *at*; *angry* and *mad* were used over twice as often in American English than in British English in this pattern. The complement of the preposition *at* was mostly animate. The results of the older corpora, LOB and Brown, support this. In contrast the adjectives *alarmed* and *annoyed* were significantly more common in British English with the preposition *at*. There were no striking differences according to variety in adjectives expressing positive emotion or surprise.

From the second group of adjectives *adept* was significantly, whereas *good* only slightly, more common in American English with the preposition *at*. *Hopeless* appeared only in British English in the studied pattern.

In terms of complementation of the preposition *at* the most common complement in British English after adjectives expressing negative emotion was inanimate noun phrase (51%) whereas in American English animate noun phrases were clearly most common in this position (73%). The difference is explained by the British tendency to use the preposition *with* with animate Stimulus whereas American English prefers *at* and, on the other hand, by the colloquial American use of the adjective *mad* in the sense of angry.

Inanimate noun phrases were the most common complements following *at* after adjectives expressing positive emotion. In British English adjectives expressing

surprise were most often complemented by inanimate noun phrases but often also by *wh*-clauses. In American English *wh*-clauses and inanimate noun phrases were equally common in this group.

With adjectives expressing a property of the Object inanimate noun phrase complements were generally common after *at*. However with adjectives expressing a positive property *-ing*-clauses were the most common complement type.

The adjectives that were studied in this thesis were chosen because they are all complemented by the preposition *at*. However, one cannot overlook the fact that many of them appear frequently with other prepositions as well.

Adjectives expressing emotion of the Experiencer often selected the prepositions *with* and *about* in addition to *at*. A good example of this is the British English use of the adjective *angry* which selects *with* when the Object of the emotion is a person, but *at* or *about* when the Object is an event or action. Participial adjectives expressing negative emotions, e.g. *alarmed*, often took complements headed by *by* whereas those expressing positive emotions, e.g. *pleased*, were most often complemented by *with*. Adjectives expressing surprise were often followed by *by* in addition to *at* which was the most frequent preposition with them.

Some adjectives expressing a property of Object in the domain of the complement clause were often found with the preposition *in* as well. *Successful* was most often complemented by *in* whereas other adjectives expressing a property of the Object were most often complemented by *at* although there were also a few instances of prepositional phrases headed by *in*. With *good* and *adept* the meaning of the adjective is dependent on the preposition and thus the complementation by *at* is considered obligatory in the given sense of the adjective. *Hopeless*, in turn, seems to be used in the

sense of incompetent or bad in British English only and in this case the preposition has to be *at*.

All in all it seems that the first group of adjectives, i.e. adjectives expressing emotion of the Experiencer allow more variation in the choice of preposition than the second group, i.e. adjectives expressing property of the Object in the domain expressed by the *at*-clause. The choice is made by the speaker and can be affected by his native language variety. Thus, it seems that the differences are mostly stylistic and carry no very significant semantic content with them. But there is evidence to the contrary as well, e.g. with *mad* and *good*. However, these have to be discussed with the adjectives in question and no assumptions can be made on the basis of the complementation of the one adjective to the other.

Bolinger (1968, 119) refers to “a transformational component consisting of obligatory and stylistic rules”. The former rules can be seen to operate in a more abstract and deeper level and to produce structures with different semantic content. The choice of the preposition with the adjective *mad*, for example, produces such structures. Stylistic rules, in turn, concern structures with minimal differences (Bolinger 1968, 119). For instance, different prepositions as options for the complementation of the adjective *angry* according to the speaker’s choice produce merely stylistic differences with no significant semantic content. However, Bolinger (1968, 127) also argues that different syntactic forms always differ in meaning as well and “that there are no identical structures in surface grammar, but only likenesses in varying degrees”. Thus, following this thread, one is bound to think that the speaker’s choice of a preposition to complement an adjective is always meaningful however subtle the nuances of meaning are. Further research and analysis of native English speakers would be required to uncover such fine semantic components.

References:

- Algeo, John. 1988. British and American Grammatical Differences. *International Journal of Lexicography*, Vol. 1, No. 1. Oxford University Press. 1-31.
- Biber, Douglas & al. 1999. *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Biber, Douglas & Conrad, Susan & Reppen, Randi. 1998. *Corpus Linguistics – Investigating Language Structure and Use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bolinger, Dwight. 1968. Entailment and the Meaning of Structures. in *Glossa* 2:2 1968. 119-127.
- Bowen, Rhonwen. 2003. *Noun Complementation in English: a corpus-based study of structural types and patterns*. Doctoral Dissertation. University of Gothenburg.
- Cook, Walter A. S.J. 1989. *Case Grammar Theory*. Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press.
- Crystal, David. 2003. *The English Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Fillmore, Charles, J. 1968. The case for case. *Universals in Linguistic Theory*. Emmon Bach and Robert Harms, eds. New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston. 1-88.
- Huddleston, Rodney & Pullum, Geoffrey K. 2002. *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Johansson, S. (1978) *Manual of information to accompany The Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen Corpus of British English, for use with digital computers*.
<http://khnt.hit.uib.no/icame/manuals/lob/INDEX.HTM> (11.4.2005)
- Leech, Geoffrey. 2003. Modality in the move: the English modal auxiliaries 1961-1992. *Modality in Contemporary English*. Roberta Facchinetti, Manfred Krug and Frank Palmer, eds. Berlin New York: Mouton de Gruyter. 223-240.
- Leech, Geoffrey. 1989. *An A-Z of English Grammar and Usage*. London: Hodder and Stoughton Limited.
- Leech, Geoffrey and Svartvik, Jan. 1994. *A Communicative Grammar of English*. Essex: Pearson Education Limited.
- Leech, Geoffrey and Svartvik, Jan. 2002. *A Communicative Grammar of English*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.

- Mair, Christian. 1996. *Parallel Corpora: A Real-Time Approach to the Study of Language Change in Progress*. *Corpus-based Studies in English: Papers from the seventeenth International Conference on English Language Research on Computerized Corpora (ICAME 17)*, ed. by Magnus Ljung, Amsterdam: Rodopi. 195-209.
- Partridge, Eric. 1966. *Origins – A short etymological dictionary of Modern English*. London and Henley: Routledge & Kegan Paul Ltd.
- Quirk, Randolph & al. 1985. *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*. Essex: Longman Group Limited.
- Radford, Andrew. 1988. *Transformational Grammar: A First Course*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- The Oxford English Dictionary*. Electronic version: <http://www.oed.com>. Accessed in the spring 2005
- Tognini-Bonelli, Elena. 2001. *Corpus Linguistics at Work*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Co.

Electronic Corpora

- The Collins Cobuild Corpus*. Part of the Bank of English Corpus. Accessed in the internet Nov/04 and Feb/05. Available at <http://titan.collins.co.uk>. Password required.
- LOB*. The Lancaster-Oslo/Bergen Corpus of written British English.
- Brown*. The Brown Corpus of written American English.

Appendices

Complement type frequencies with the studied adjectives

Adjective	Ukbooks					Usbooks				
	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	- <i>wh</i> clause	- ing	Total	NP (+a)	NP (-a)	- <i>wh</i> clause	- ing	Total
<i>Angry</i>	9	8	1	2	20	29	9	2	1	41
<i>Furious</i>	2	4	-	2	8	4	6	-	1	11
<i>Indignant</i>	-	-	-	1	1	-	1	-	-	1
<i>Aghast</i>	-	2	-	-	2	-	1	-	-	1
<i>Alarmed</i>	-	8	1	-	9	-	2	-	-	2
<i>Annoyed</i>	2	5	-	2	9	-	1	-	-	1
<i>Mad</i>	6	2	-	-	8	36	2	-	-	38
<i>Pleased</i>	-	1	-	2	3	-	4	1	-	5
<i>Delighted</i>	-	7	1	1	9	-	2	-	1	3
<i>Amazed</i>	2	8	7	-	17	-	6	11	-	17
<i>Astonished</i>	1	9	1	-	11	-	7	-	-	7
<i>Surprised</i>	4	23	11	1	39	4	12	14	-	30
<i>Good</i>	-	34	6	29	69	-	37	3	35	75
<i>Adept</i>	-	2	-	12	14	-	3	-	28	31
<i>Successful</i>	-	3	2	1	6	-	3	-	3	6
<i>Hopeless</i>	-	3	-	1	4	-	-	-	-	-
<i>Bad</i>	-	5	-	2	7	-	2	-	1	3
Total	26	124	30	56	236	73	99	31	70	273

Table 1. Examined adjective + *at* combinations with different complement types in ukbooks and usbooks.

Adjectives complemented by *at* in the Collins Cobuild Corpus

Adjective	Ukbooks	Usbooks	Total
<i>Adept</i>	14	31	45
<i>Aggrieved</i>	2	-	2
<i>Aghast</i>	2	1	3
<i>Alarmed</i>	9	2	11
<i>Amazed</i>	17	17	34
<i>Amused</i>	1	7	8
<i>Angry</i>	20	41	61
<i>Annoyed</i>	9	1	10
<i>Astonished</i>	11	7	18
<i>Bad</i>	7	3	10
<i>Clever</i>	2	1	3
<i>Competent</i>	2	1	3
<i>Delighted</i>	9	3	12
<i>Disgusted</i>	2	-	2
<i>Dismayed</i>	3	2	5
<i>Effective</i>	5	-	5
<i>Efficient</i>	3	5	8
<i>Excellent</i>	3	-	3
<i>Expert</i>	2	6	8
<i>Furious</i>	8	11	19
<i>Glad</i>	1	1	2
<i>Good</i>	69	75	144
<i>Grieved</i>	1	1	2
<i>Hopeless</i>	4	-	4
<i>Impatient</i>	2	1	3
<i>Indignant</i>	1	1	2
<i>Mad</i>	8	38	46
<i>Nervous</i>	2	1	3
<i>Pleased</i>	3	5	8
<i>Proficient</i>	3	2	5

<i>Puzzled</i>	3	3	6
<i>Resentful</i>	1	2	3
<i>Skilled</i>	4	5	9
<i>Skillful</i>	-	4	4
<i>Successful</i>	6	6	12
<i>Surprised</i>	39	30	69
<i>Uneasy</i>	-	2	2
<i>Unhappy</i>	3	1	4
<i>Unskilled</i>	1	2	3
Total	282	320	602

Table 2. Adjectives appearing with *at* found in the Collins Cobuild Corpus (ukbooks and usbooks)

Data: Adjective + at in ukbooks and usbooks:

Angry

ukbooks:

Why were they angry? Who were they angry at? As she turned to leave a man pushed him away, feeling guilty, and angry at her own softness. Was she going Autumn sat upright in the bath, angry at the pettiness of the Osbornes Zijk the hunter: and Shtasu was very angry at what he had just seen. <p> He getting upset, frustrated and angry at delays, incompetence and `acts whom she had cured of sickness became angry at having her advances refused, and fears are irrational and are often angry at themselves for their limitations form of crying at a sad loss, feeling angry at a traumatic event, making amends Gandolfi, the jeweller. He was quite angry at me for coming to his house the Chur-chill family, frustrated and angry at being unable under the law to and, as a Member of Parliament, angry at the unjust treatment of the partner is much more likely to be angry at your failure to speak out about something." Orphan felt unaccountably angry at this, for it made no sense. `He he's a bastard," said Oracle. `He's angry at me for preventing his getting at me for preventing his getting at you, angry at you for being out of reach, and at you for being out of reach, and angry at Hero for telling him what would could do! It confused him, making him angry at her, at himself. Sometimes there I know. I know, Originee. I'm not angry at him, not really. But if there's the old deserted farm. Cermit may be angry at Abasio, but he doesn't want the this process began to abate she felt angry at the extent to which she had had

usbooks:

have made in the past. Instead, get angry at the abuser and at a shameful sensitive about the Philippines. `I'm angry at Mrs. Marcos - not the people." feel better about myself (or I'll be angry at you <p> The parent believes that terrifying. He senses that someone so angry at him may not meet his nurturing So a generation of kids grew up angry at this denial of their real your drug, you may feel so hurt and angry at being wrongfully accused that Write a letter to the person you're angry at or the person you feel abandoned fiction. He went home angry that day, angry at Claire for being a compromising of mildew. Then she in turn would be angry at him. Why couldn't he join her? that part of the reason he'd been angry at Lainey for coming home early was was strident, she was ready to be angry at anyone who crossed her. The tightened. `There's no point getting angry at Randall," she said quickly. <p> tenderness. And it wasn't that he was angry at Randall or blamed him. In so in weeks, years, except to get angry at him for messing something up or other hand, maybe we were really only angry at my father for leaving us, <f> Of course she would, he thought, angry at himself for having such a me, though. It was as if he'd gotten angry at the liquor. He stood up from his us that we conclude God must be angry at us. Contrite, wanting to win Schwarzkopf cut him off. He had been angry at the Army almost from the onset a major general's uniform." And Neal, angry at what he took to be Moore's cold destroyed.' Cheney, though angry at the Israeli's insolence,

intrusions. She was also feeling angry at the milieu of cinema, and at for sex with his partner because he's angry at her for some completely fall. Ordinary citizens were no less angry at big government, but the she's really hungry she can get very angry at me." <p> I asked Barbara how she Also, I know now that I'm not really angry at Teddie or Clark and shouldn't from my parents. I was really angry at the move, and I just broke away her. I don't hate her, though I'm angry at her. She thinks I hate her for you concerned about sometimes being angry at Patrick?" <p> Deirdre shook her <p> Deirdre shook her head. `I do get angry at him. I love Patrick, but of the East Hampton Star, became angry at Dwight for what they felt was an tacks." He shook his head, still angry at himself. `By the time I got to said the same thing and was very angry at the old man in Naples, and he one moment? Paul's mother was very angry at the intrusion, but on second get here, he's arguing, and he seems angry at you. I think it's just that MDNM MDUL/frightened of Ben and angry at him.MDNM MDUL MDNM md1 MDNM/ Don' it? md1 MDNM MDUL/Biff .MDNM MDUL/now angry at Willy for not crediting his capitalized on anger. Punks were angry at the Establishment, and they were and they were especially angry at yesterday's rebels who had tell Lyman. I don't trust him and I'm angry at how he's forced her to his will.

Furious

ukbooks:

sake." I was suddenly, irrationally furious at a world that allowed people to My first reaction was anger. I was furious at this man who was having a tug-hungry and disappointed, he was furious at those who had ordered the to the Prime Minister. Kitchener, furious at being circumvented, never Labour Party. Bevan's followers were furious at this change, George Thomas dressed in a sailor suit and furious at having been disturbed. Ah, you Giorgio was more disconsolate than furious at this betrayal. By 5 June 1923 can be set aside.l Others were furious at the very idea. Cardinal Siri

usbooks:

right there and then that she was furious at Brenda. `I love him. He is this, and yet I buy it and then I'm furious at myself. <p> I also get facials I don't really care," Robyn said, furious at the smug expression on her of this." You should be." I am furious at Erik." Hide it for a while. Planners in the Black Hole were furious at their intelligence of Washington football team. Ray was furious at being pulled from Task Force met at work. Samantha was absolutely furious at this revelation, but had no to step out of line. Mostly, she is furious at the potential for his But now I also had grown furious--at a child. I tried to hold case scriptures come up short. I get furious at the absence. So mad that I who had really won the election, was furious at our endorsement of Noriega's

Indignant

ukbooks:

so hard.' At this point the baby, indignant at having ceased to be the centre

usbooks:

with few exceptions, `is highly indignant at the treacherous and brutal

Aghast

ukbooks:

pink cornflowers on it. She looked aghast at my directness. <p> What an
into the living space, stopping aghast at the sight of her own door open.

usbooks:

trying to render rock-free? I was aghast at the idea. But my Scottish

Alarmed

ukbooks:

but with no very clear plan beyond holding this wretched Bavai position". Alarmed at
this prospect, he `pointed out to Sir John that if we halted for a day
could, if appropriate, shift his attentions eastward.¹⁸ Robertson was alarmed at the way
the Prime Minister had been led astray by the effervescent
the Americans (who had declared war on 6 April) arrived in force. Haig was alarmed at
this prospect, as he indicated to Robertson the next day: `The
the Entente. Lloyd George nevertheless took the German `offer" seriously. Alarmed at
the recent inactivity of the Russians, Italians and French, he asked
against Gough, in order to exploit the success so far gained.³¹ Haig was alarmed at the
prospect of the British and French becoming separated, with the
away in every direction with one sweep of the arm. Jay came running, alarmed at the
noise. I can't draw! I can't do anything!" was all Joni could
his motto: In nomine Domini (In the name of the Lord). Hume, slightly alarmed at the
prospect of speaking Italian, was reassured when the Pope said: `
and Edward Knapp-Fisher, former Bishop of Pretoria, South Africa, were alarmed at
how sick and feeble Paul appeared. He seemed unable to concentrate for
her past with herself and then with Barry. By doing so, however, she became alarmed at
the terrible gulf between her real life, both past and present, and

usbooks:

of the Ministeramt in the Reichswehr Ministry, Kurt von Schleicher, was alarmed at
signs that the NSDAP was winning recruits among the workers and junior
Stiner hinted at moving his own headquarters from Florida to Saudi Arabia. Alarmed at
the prospect of another four-star bulling into his theater,

Annoyed

ukbooks:

smoking. They stood alert, obviously annoyed at the presence of this young without being impolite, doubtless annoyed at having to break off his story. we may do so, but naturally I feel annoyed at the lost opportunity. It was an at the decisive moment". Though annoyed at the French obstinacy, he was at your judgement. As you become more annoyed at yourself you find you have this trait we still may be more annoyed at ourselves than at them. We also a desert rat hopped out- clearly annoyed at having his feast disturbed. At herself in the basket as though annoyed at this unscheduled stop. `Go s advice immediately. <55> re was annoyed at her interference but eventually

usbooks:

you're discussing them with seems annoyed at your inquisitiveness, it would

Mad

ukbooks:

run you down when I told him. He was mad at me, not taking its number." <p> But I never knew her to get so mad at Jack. What was it about, do you tells me anything." <p> Was Spitt mad at the salespeople this morning, a little. `Douglas would get so mad at him. He would shout and rave at reactions. `No, <pg> 118 </pg> I'm not mad at them. They just did what they Orphan, curious despite herself. He's mad at the world, Ma says. It won't lie itself to his uses, so he's mad at it. Since it does no good to beat t give her much of a chance to get mad at you.' Is there some way I could

usbooks:

That letter, yeah. Sounds like you're mad at them." <p> The girl had struck a t you think, that it's Mrs. Marcos I'm mad at? And by the way, it doesn't sound <p> Molly - that business about being mad at me." <p> His face taut with the lawn. `Besides - " <p> You're not mad at me?" <p> No. But I do resent ever been a maid. I'm still a little mad at you, Frank, for not telling me Because I'm terrified that you'll get mad at me, that you'll leave me." <p> you to stop following her." <p> You're mad at me for that. I promise I won't do <p> No, Mel, it's not you I'm mad at. It's more like I'm disappointed had gone back up North, dear. I was so mad at that sucker for waiting so long of our marriage, and I'm so mad at people saying they have this rage he liked me around." <p> You must be mad at me, Shaerl, for what I said the or to retaliate against someone you're mad at Look what you made me do As with said Mary Ann. <p> I hope they aren't mad at you." <p> Who?" <p> The station. ask <f> the Party for it <p> I ain't mad at you," Sarah stormed. `I'm mad at ain't mad at you," Sarah stormed. `I'm mad at them! There's something fishy win if I decide. Either way you'll be mad at me. If I say yes and tell you, then sighed. `Look, if you're mad at me, I'm sorry. I was just Lenny muttered. `No, Pamela, I'm not mad at you. I just wish you weren't Why did she want to see him? Was she mad at him for breaking the news? Was advised his subordinates: `I never get mad at you personally. I wear my heart t like it, you'll know it I don't get mad at people, I get mad at principles,

it I don't get mad at people, I get mad at principles, at things that don't
 to kill two thousand people you're not mad at.' Without question the Americans
 God punishing him. So whenever he got mad at Firebug, he'd take him over to
 I love you, remember? How could I be mad at'chu?" She leaned against him, her
 I took a chance. Hey, I know they're mad at me, but I know my parents. They'
 he cares about is his own ass. I was mad at him. I felt like you was his
 As awful as he can be, you cannot stay mad at him, because he is always so
 Lydia protested <p> Maybe he's still mad at your mother," the officer
 Well," she said, `I know that A.J. is mad at me. We've barely spoken since My
 something like fear but she wasn't mad at her. This was Maggie's portion.
 daughters? All the times when she got mad at me, was she really thinking about
 at Meg. <f> Oh, I know, you're mad at me 'cause I stayed out all night
 I did. <f> Lenny: No, we're--we're not mad at you. We're just depressed <f> She
 a little while ago looking like he was mad at the world. <f> Seth: <f> I don't
 I spiked your tonic. Don't get mad at me. It's on the house." But she
 weren't you drowned?" And because I am mad at her for making up that stupid
 wondering if Congress is going to be mad at them for doing it." He buzzed for

Pleased

ukbooks:

finished fake antique had already gone from Duncan's workshop. I was very pleased at
 discovering that. <p> I've heard about your wee snacks," Elaine
 the old man said that it would weigh a little over a pound. He was quite pleased at
 having caught it, but no more excited than if he had picked up a
 explain this in private), but made it abundantly evident that we were very pleased at his
 election and that we would pray and work for the unity we all

usbooks:

instead of the blighters in the south, the British commander was less pleased at the
 prospect of parading his division past thousands of heavily armed
 I expressed some surprise, saying that I would have thought she would be pleased at her
 infant's progress, Deirdre shrugged. `Wasn't he involved last
 precursory behavior; and sitting alone is yet another achievement. I'm also pleased at
 how much more open you are at previewing upcoming developmental skills
 past twelve, to the minute, he arrived at the forks of the creek. He was pleased at the
 speed he had made. If he kept it up, he would certainly be with
 DONE BY CRAZY WOMAN DRIVER. Connie had to laugh at that. Arnold Friend
 was pleased at her laughter and looked up at her. `Around the other side's a lot

Delighted

ukbooks:

more before daylight." <p> Yes." I'd already warned Mrs Buchan, who'd been delighted
 at my threat of dozens of voracious appetites. `Then?" <p> We'll run to
 beasts, these murdering Afghan savages, perfectly," breathed Sementsev delighted at the
 picture and revelling in the distinguished company he was now
 the Save the Children Fund and the Riding for the Disabled Association are delighted at
 the honour the Queen has bestowed on their President. To them it's a

hand. Though Haig was annoyed with the French reluctance to attack he was delighted at being able to put into effect what he termed "our plan". It was your last moment." Nichiren replied, "You don't understand. You should be delighted at this great good fortune to be able to give one's life for the Robert Kennedy and David Frost". Feeling the way I did about him, I was delighted at how many stations chose to broadcast the programme. On Monday 9 June in the House of Commons. They met on 9th May. Hastings Banda was obviously delighted at the quick response and sent a letter giving the details of what he to extricate themselves. Walkers, the animals told one another eagerly, delighted at the knowledge, could not swim. Still, there were bears who did not an international conference since the Congress of Vienna in 1815. Paul was delighted at this return to the international scene for which he had worked so

usbooks:

with keeping the briefings on schedule. In November, Schwarzkopf had been delighted at George Bush's announcement that VII Corps was being dispatched to bombing the outskirts of Cairo. One might have thought he would be delighted at being on the spot with such news breaking. However, his fresh glass of champagne. You speak a rather pure Spanish," she observed. Delighted at any excuse to get away from my mishap, I launched into a description

Amazed

ukbooks:

at the meeting?" Just the usual thing … No!" He slapped his knee amazed at his own forgetfulness. "No, something astonishing. You remember we door open, pulled Karen from the car, and hoisted her in his arms. He was amazed at how light she was. He carried her limp body into the room and laid her ourselves as living in an aggressive society I sometimes think we should be amazed at how so many very different people can live in such close proximity with who were working with middle-aged housewives from Berkshire, and been amazed at the universality of all of our experiences, whatever our origins, sex to compare with after you have been exercising for a few weeks you'll be amazed at the difference. Assessing your flexibility can be carried out in a perfect back-stroke. We had a coffee together after the swim and I was amazed at the change in her appearance. Gone was the negativity of a short time they didn't dare to talk to him that much. He was most easy-going. I was amazed at how easy-going, and of course for a young bloke like me I hung on every surprised at how much traction the Cosworth had on different surfaces and amazed at how much grip the Metro had. He just got better and better at it. I Show 'em that they have to put some effort into it. 14 You'll be amazed at how well it works. Guys love a challenge." She winked. "Free advice government departments which have yielded up papers. Throughout I have been amazed at the readiness with which people have responded with helpful invited the Christian Wives' Fellowship to meet in Speaker's House and was amazed at how many came. When they had a distinguished speaker, such as the or even a girl he had loved as a boy and not seen since? Nelda was often amazed at the sentimentality of men. They gutted other men all day, then wept lay down and put his muzzle on his paws. "Coyote here sometime. Sleep now." Amazed at himself for doing so, Abasio lay down beside the Bear. If Grandpa could

progressed to sketching with soft charcoal pencils on drawing paper and was amazed at her own success. She found a way to express her creativity which she as well as techniques literally to freeze brain substance. Again I was amazed at his knowledge of my work.² White found Paul `a happy person, in spite firm and slim. You are thrilled with your reflection in the mirror you are amazed at how much healthier and more energetic you feel and how much more you after her. You can't be too careful these days," Marlette said. `You'd be amazed at the types who come knocking at my door.' I can well imagine," Pruitt

usbooks:

fraternity years ago. Some of the words he had forgotten, but he was amazed at how much he did remember. Though she smiled, Mrs. Dambar did not seem is an extreme. However, I've interviewed hundreds of women and I'm always amazed at how many of them, even older women with dry skin, have had a breakout up his portable kitchen and gets dinner preparations under way. You'll be amazed at the culinary creations possible in a Dutch oven - lasagna and chicken people, holding their drinks self-consciously, watching the others. He was amazed at how uneasy Gladys was in the presence of whites. <p> Look, buck up." He herself gain weight since David left; she'd stopped wearing makeup. She was amazed at how quickly and easily she'd given up the idea of herself as possibly you said that all of this New Age stuff was garbage," Robyn said. She was amazed at how cold her voice sounded. Jeff blushed again. `Well, I told you I'd A very nasal `Hi" was all she managed. She's gonna crash," Miguel said, amazed at how well Cristalena seemed to be taking it. Join the party, man.' Naah, a Greek statue she might've seen in a textbook. She touched him slowly, amazed at how soft he was, something boyish and tender and hard and manlike all How come I'm not a Latin American?' Her eyes widened like she was amazed at his stupidity. `Hispanic is too much Spain. Latin American means Latin real well. There's always gonna be work for him." The two of them were amazed at how little they felt for Firebug, as if realizing how much more without having to resort to therapy. 1. Communicate clearly. We are amazed at how often this simple edict is ignored by otherwise intelligent, move beyond what we might call the `body's prerogatives." But you would be amazed at how quickly they begin to assert themselves and gain control over their the dance floor toward her, with arms wide open. `I was simply thrilled and amazed at what you did tonight." <p> You were?" Lydia hoped he was being sincere. the river to Philip's crew. When I was in the canoe, I could not but be amazed at the numerous crew of pagans that were on the bank on the other side. completed the turn-round he began at once to crawl straight back. He was amazed at the distance separating him from his room and could not understand how scene of the accident, and did not even know there had been one. He stood amazed at Josephine's piercing cry; at Richards' quick motion to screen him from near to second your attempt, and he shall fall between us. Come, stand not amazed at it, but go along with me. I will show you such a necessity in his death

Astonished

ukbooks:

said Anthony, happily. It was a beautiful spring day. <o> Anthony was astonished at the sheer beauty of Germany. He had expected dourness, a grey, side are you for?" asked Anthony. <p> Me?" said the Norwegian, looking astonished at the ques tion, `Why, for Franco -- and civilization. It had broken <p> I just don't know how to thank you, Mr mcmoffatt," Blake began, astonished at this offer from a virtual stranger. <p> Bring your rich friends. That' at a time when prudence dictated a consolidation of the defence. Haig was astonished at the way soldiers on both sides reacted to this extraordinary war. On with glee when he announced that the War Cabinet was on his side. Astonished at this revelation, Haig replied that `it would be madness to place the wall; Foch, Petain and even Pershing, were bent on retribution. Haig was astonished at Petain's proposal for `a huge indemnity, so large that she will never s problems in meeting the payments. See HTH: 9 December 1903: `I am astonished at what you say re the loan to General F I am afraid the trustees have Who gave you permission to defile this sacred place?" The six Samurai, astonished at such courage, quickly lost their resolve. One by one they dropped to remarkable than the hunt itself. Europeans unaccustomed to hunger were astonished at the Africans who appeared to sit in circles around the pile of soon- the crisis were surprised and indignant not to trace any of them. I was astonished at their naivety. Did they really suppose the Communists would stay on 1962, his statement was reported in full in the South Wales Echo: I am astonished at the speed with which the local authority have moved to condemn houses

usbooks:

Committee attached to the Council of Ministers (1955 61), I was still astonished at the backwardness of our country at the time; I could not reconcile Waller, despite his experience in working with Schwarzkopf. He was astonished at the extent to which even senior generals were intimidated by the that Glosson would be ordered from the theater for impertinence. Deptula, astonished at the CINC's tirade, began calculating the chaos that would result from Ralph Manheim, his old associate and translator for Politics, was also astonished at Dwight's enthusiastic support of Truman's police action. When Manheim often arrived at his office rather disheveled, looked it up. He was astonished at Dwight's easily verified reputation. When Dwight's half-page obituary find typical families from their case loads. Initially I was pleasantly astonished at the overwhelming response. After several interviews, it became clear ice particles. He did not expose his fingers more than a minute, and was astonished at the swift numbness that smote them. It certainly was cold. He pulled

Surprised

ukbooks:

the last to know." <p> He seemed surprised at Brand's booming laugh. `Leo, I
<p> She thought for a moment, surprised at his question. `I know of only
Otto Viertel's good hand and was surprised at the firmness of its grip. `I'm
his niece, should you have been surprised at his reaction?" Wolfe asked.
I think this gentleman was most surprised at finding himself free." <p>
by the Jackal." <p> He looked surprised at my knowledge, then his glance
to where she sat with Bob Proctor, surprised at the disappointment he felt.
<p> The director looked up at him, surprised at the intensity of the Mirza's
a natural gesture that Bardi though surprised at himself, took it. <p>
he is the Son of Man. Do not be surprised at that; the time is coming, when
he had achieved his mission, but surprised at what had been said. He made a
Russian brooch was pinned. <p> I'm surprised at you, Marianne," she had said. `
to man," Highsmith said. `You'd be surprised at what people have done to these
and enjoyment. `You would be surprised at how quickly the time passes
first impression: `You would be surprised at the amount of baggage and
years in the Army, he was never surprised at his accomplishments. It is
Press well in hand, you would be surprised at how popular I would be But
verbal attack. She was genuinely surprised at the vitality we demonstrated
remembers Senna saying `he was very surprised at how much traction the Cosworth
valuing child rearing, must not be surprised at the cruel results. Fifthly, a
this earth, you know." Rhodry was surprised at how pleased he was to hear her
the noble-born. Jill was honestly surprised at how easily the Gel da'Thae and
you the truth, Rhoddo, I'm rather surprised at myself for believing what
a dolt and a lackwit," she said, surprised at how quiet her voice sounded. `
mouthed. She choked back tears, surprised at how strongly the memories
in there, Sharon," she said. I'm surprised at you for acting like that." I
are perfectly normal - but you'd be surprised at some of the weird answers I
it was smooth and warm. She was surprised at the softness; she had become
a day. But I must say that I was surprised at the money it fetched: Meurig
bench When you sit down you will be surprised at how comfortable it is and then
become word-conscious, you will be surprised at your progress. Here are a few
necessary. He could be pleasantly surprised at the difference this could make
his time well, he will be surprised at just how much he can
for himself or his home. He will be surprised at how much he can accumulate in
he feels necessary - he could be surprised at the difference this makes! The
then I suppose I shouldn't be that surprised at your reluctance to get

usbooks:

if no doctor in Tibet could set a dislocated bone, they seemed to be much surprised at
my improbable question … So going to the wounded boy I easily
Lama, he instantly prostrated himself and bowed low again and again. I was surprised at
his entire change of manner; but as I believe that, in every country,
The fact is that over the long haul, most investors would be pleasantly surprised at just
how much can be earned by putting their money into good, sound,
point or two to your return. As shown in the graph, you may be pleasantly surprised at
the results. <p> Sophisticated investors learned long ago to

by the judgment of a loved one or the whistle of a stranger. Susan is surprised at how quickly a wave of self-consciousness can wash over her when herself pregnant." <p> Brenda!" <p> They were hugging each other, Gretchen surprised at the ache in her heart that didn't seem to quite match the happiness and give you feedback about how convincing your no is. You'll be surprised at how much role-playing will help. When you are on the spot, you won't front. It was throbbing now, but the pain was tolerable. He stood up, surprised at how quickly his leg muscles had stiffened. A mockingbird flew out of mckee's voice was grim. He gripped her arm and lifted her to her feet, surprised at how light she seemed. The box of crackers was on the rock where he wasn't blanked out by the terrain. He found Captain Largo suitably surprised at the Adams woman's aim of visiting the Tso hogan. <p> You want me to assured him. And only the best colored folks are buried there. You'd be surprised at how well they keep those graves. Why, in the summertime, it's like a He grabbed Hilton by the collar, and yanked him toward the bed. He was surprised at how light the man was. Hilton, in his fear, offered little trying to be anyone other than himself. He sat up straight. <p> Walker was surprised at how many trees he remembered as individuals. Some were gone - the <p> Pick out a book to read - with Walker?" <p> Claire decided not to act surprised at the mention of Walker's name. Why play games? She passed him his were embracing, crushing one another tight, then breaking apart as if surprised at what they'd done. <p> Look at you." She touched his cheek as if it and they'd scour the place thoroughly, for the last time. Walker had been surprised at how little Snoot resisted the idea of moving, then amazed on the smoky room, the raucous knots of voices - nervous, like him - but he was surprised at the color of his hands as he held to the edge of the stage, at the working days energetically blowing things apart because he was good at it, surprised at himself for not hating the falsehood of how he conducted his life. trying to make sense of them together. <p> Lainey," he said. And was surprised at the tenderness in his tone. He couldn't remember when he'd spoken to almost as red as her hair. "I don't need this." She reached for her bag. Surprised at himself, Jeff grabbed her hand. You do need this," he told her. "We s silence had done was certainly, clearly, done forever. I was a little surprised at how Winters had changed since I'd worked for him. He was a harried been directed at her brother Heinrich, a Dominican friar himself you are surprised at the masculine way in which this book is written? I wonder why that we start. Friday." Nelo's voice was stern and cold. Miguel stared at him, surprised at the determination on his face. I'll get my stuff out by then." Miguel s forelock, he threw up his head and nearly got away. Somehow, John was surprised at this, and hurt. His anger spent, he had worlds of patience now. "Get blushed. "Yes," was all she could think of, though. She was thoroughly surprised at herself. She hadn't talked to Axel much lately, but only, she whipped him over the obstacles. Teddy came home heaving, and mother was surprised at how out of shape he was for this late in the summer. "But clothed. Once again, the point of experimenting is discovery. You may be surprised at how simple changes produce new or different feelings. Women with to continued peace and intimacy with baby Kim. <p> session 4 <p> I was surprised at how somber Kim somehow appeared today, until Barbara explained that what I was thinking and so it seemed to me he had no right to say it. I'm surprised at Sonny, though," he went on--he had a funny way of talking, he looked

I came seeking glory. <f> Woman: <f> To kill me? You can say it. You'll be surprised at how little I blanch. As if you'd said, "I came for a bowl of rice,"

Good

ukbooks:

a compromise because Marcus was so good at quiet but stubborn insistence. let them talk on. Mrs Weston was very good at talking on - covering over, she for a long time." <p> I never was any good at mathematics." <p> You don't need to smash it to bits. Told you, I'm no good at details. Then I thought that man are not, at the best of times, very good at saying no. <p> This fact that he no. <p> This fact that he was not good at saying no, that he suffered under Paul went out for lunch. He was quite good at looking after himself generally, Although I suspect you're rather good at persuading people to reveal box." <p> Don't worry, Leo. I'm very good at watching out for myself. Well, his mug of tea. "I'm getting rather good at being bombed," he thought. <p> them and long practice made them good at it, but the habit sometimes the driver's face. It was what he was good at. The car lurched onto Divis of you to say so, major. I always was good at amateur theatricals … How dancing." <p> Sementsev was rather good at the tango and foxtrot: the latest at the injustice of the system. I was good at it, as well. It wasn't long cricketer <p> You were no good at cricket, though, were you? The counts, Marianne. Ann has become very good at bottling her feelings and sooner family. As he put it, "I'm never very good at standing up in public and from them. "What they have to be good at is chatting to people and making what you find is that they're usually good at something but it may be just one are people who know what they're good at. They know what they're not good good at. They know what they're not good at. And they capitalize on or make it appears that those who are good at analytical, rational thinking, do handing out the prize are not very good at it. These are the sorts of unharmed. But racoons are pretty good at avoiding traps, and nothing Folklore has it that some people are good at maths, others bad, and there is it will say to itself: "Ah, I'm no good at this. Let me find something else or character that prevents it being good at maths. It will then never learn. a flame. Now, you have a man who's good at fielding confessions Sergeant?" stone, wearing a large beard who was good at shouting. The possibility did not that his brother was "never very good at games", a critical failing in an believed himself to be exceptionally good at and right about everything and are long gone. She's likely to be good at her job, well-respected in the too many women accept that they're no good at managing money or doing household of similar backgrounds and ideas, men good at their jobs formed a tight little he is just a good racing driver: he's good at whatever he does. He is a man who he'd take six. I mean, he was fairly good at making sure he got what he wanted lot in the guy and why the guy is so good at his job. I only really thought and selection Most people claim to be good at recruiting and selecting. that two people on a project are not good at researching information, it is system worked (or maybe I was just no good at rugby), and I was able to turn support privately. George Thomas was good at this and had high hopes of he'd had to fake it, and he wasn't as good at that as he used to be. This be Sally, the housekeeper, and very good at making heavy-duty orange tea. I'm

worry," she assured him. "I'm pretty good at dodging bullets. Only ever been it's just that we are not very good at talking to each other about our a naval officer he would be rather good at this. John Fletcher and Colin a Naval officer, you're bound to be good at croc skinning." So my helmsman that the British were particularly good at organizing, and went on: We have display of surprise. teclar was good at that. Nobody had any idea how she But then, Anders were notoriously good at inference. She did not dignify care for toddlers well. Some are good at educating older children. To not that a woman could ever be very good at it His colleague stared into the beginning he was a good pupil--he was good at Sunday school too, like his boy; but they all said he was very good at school and in chapel. He did not will he find anyone else as good at writing letters or drafting regret. He is also not particularly good at keeping secrets. The Horse has friends with remarkable ease. He is good at spotting opportunities but does of the Monkey is that he is extremely good at solving problems and has a happy and the Metal Rooster is usually good at planning ahead - he will then be but I kept quiet and watched. I'm good at that too, and I wasn't going to sat on the sand to watch. He was as good at watching as playing. Sannasamma tell the truth. And weren't kids so good at that at all the wrong times? No," hire a psychopath like Jayson.' He's good at what he does, as you'll find out Marlette as a merc. The guy was good at what he did. Too damn good. How van Horn replied. "And you're damn good at it as well. You're a specialist neatly folded (by Jelly: Jelly was good at folding: Angelica was not), were she was wonderfully practical: good at emergencies; never dithered: nor iron out as she goes along. She is good at Edwin's signature, has Rice

usbooks:

something the prime minister was very good at doing. He ran a secret police time. The Indians were evidently very good at the game. 1779 <p> Sprint races, I'd never be pretty, so I'd better be good at other things. I was just not at all secretive, and I'm pretty good at calling a spade a spade. I guess years. Perhaps Walker was almost too good at what he did. Mark Cane, one of was obvious. And no boy that age was good at it. Leaphorn had found that somebody to help him." <p> You're good at this, aren't you," Susanne said. find the Navajo boy. Baker would be good at it, smart, fast, always thinking. Leaphorn would wait and think. He was good at both. <p> The thunderhead that exchanged for clothes". We were not good at inventing new productive forms of of friends on weekends. He was so good at it that one grateful hostess gave blowing things apart because he was good at it, surprised at himself for not I ever passed well was labor. I was good at having babies." <p> She watched in the ghetto - he was trying to get good at blues guitar - and he'd bought it about it," Mary said. "I mean, I'm no good at it, but when we were doing obscenities. In the end he'd gotten good at bargaining them down, making them He shook his head. "I was no good at living on that scale. Everything, tonight?" he asks. They've gotten so good at pleasing each other, even when is more a matter of creating someone good at small and limited things. To many fourth period P.E he'd gotten pretty good at forging his mother's handwriting, people, you know how he is. And he's good at it too." But I think this is sure. He seems to, but he's pretty good at that. This doesn't seem like a about that. "I have gotten pretty good at those things, you know. I've

to Robyn Chantry. He'd never been good at talking to girls, especially the to being convinced. Aquarians are good at both poetry and electronics." He awkward, and was clearly not very good at expressing his feelings or as the politician. `Colin is damned good at what he does, but he's really different. I argued with guys. I was good at math. I was on the debating team. t. And so he wasn't allowed to be good at his craft. Sooner or later, they' weren't there. Miguel was never very good at taking hints. He tugged on about me, an' I think maybe you'd be good at all this psychotherapy shit.' that Gerard was average in math, good at drawing, and his handwriting was was making progress. And he was good at reciting poems in front of the the side pieces. He said, You're very good at that." I've had lots of that `I won't be abandoned if I'm good at seduction.' Most treatment occur. Teenagers are not particularly good at risk assessment. TEENAGE MOTHERS Is she scared?' I'm getting pretty good at figuring out what she wants, too. she moves backward. She's not so good at going forward yet, though." <p> shook her head, insisting, `I'm not good at imagining things like that." to show him my emotions. I'm pretty good at getting angry, but the softer shook her head. `I'm just not very good at imagining stuff," she said. When toys gathered there. `He's getting good at doing small stuff - his and insight. Dwight was `so good at describing things and people and himself for what he was, what he was good at, what he had achieved. He was for instance, often males are good at instrumental tasks related to young children are not particularly good at answering questions, observation the first few weeks, he gets quite good at meeting your eyes in a mutual boys with this body type tend to be good at sports, the early developing boy in a student who was particularly good at figuring out what the professor are many girls and women who are good at this type of task, and many boys of guinea pigs. But they are not yet good at deductive logic, which requires The concrete operations child is good at dealing with things he knows or in the real world, but are not good at doing this in memory. So search quality. Some of us may be very good at meeting the needs of an infant, separate, rather like a list: `I'm good at running I don't like to play with than most other kids," or `not as good at baseball as my friends" (Ruble, enough or coordinated enough to be good at sports will have lower self-skill so highly. Similarly, being good at something, like singing, playing long to figure out whether I am any good at it or not. Comparative self-concept includes the idea `I am good at math" (or, even more potently, `I and toddlers are already quite good at discriminating and understanding and strategies, they are also not as good at generalizing a learned concept or control. Two-year-olds are pretty good at doing; they are lousy at not category. When the children are good at looking, saying, and deciding, to take risks at things they are not good at, such as drawing and spelling, if day of school they had gotten quite good at figuring out words of four or he could then but he's still not very good at it and, frankly, I don't know best I can do for you. I'm just no good at it." That's all right, bub," the approaching. Mr. Summers was very good at all this; in his clean white and not very deep, but I was always good at climbing and managed to get up how to put it! I'm usually pretty good at expressing things, but--This is up except to register that he is now good at yet another thing. Lyman has motion. Which is maybe why he is so good at dancing. The more people who

possible. A physician who was really good at this did not even need to see or on the Amazon have claimed to be very good at it. I have no reason to

Adept

ukbooks:

in the subject yet again - though, adept at killing two birds with one stone Turned him inward, made him adept at hiding things." <p> He looked at the routine problems of a head porter adept at dealing with the demands of Once trained, the pigeons are very adept at discriminating objects and or so it is said. Politicians are adept at politics; soldiers seldom are. which Charteris incidentally was adept at providing) unfortunately had People who are instinctively adept at making it start out with a leader, showing himself to be more adept at both tactics and strategy. And to be most enjoyable company and very adept at making Joni feel at ease. She easily talks about. They become adept at covering up. Nello Vian, layman the centre of attention. He is very adept at attracting publicity, both for very outgoing and is particularly adept at attracting attention and of confidence and authority. He is adept at handling financial matters and, revival. Indians are particularly adept at dreaming the past. Great glories

usbooks:

team, especially players John mcgraw and `Wee" Willie Keeler, was especially adept at this method of getting on base. <p> This year's national college most popular form of cosmetic surgery performed today. <p> Surgeons seem as adept at publicizing their operations as at performing them. `Nature makes to dinner. The phone conversation that morning had been awkward. He was not adept at telling white lies. `Gretchen has come down with a touch of the flu," in Colorado. This is where Chervin's world joins Jensen's. Chervin is adept at understanding how his familiar set of equations, his model, will behave to meet their needs. By the time they were adults they had become very adept at projecting themselves into the world of make-believe and all but lost them this natural order. Leaphorn knew from experience that he was unusually adept at this. As a policeman, he found it to be talent which saved him a great substantively closer to Eisenman's than to Jencks's. Although not nearly as adept at manipulating language to provide camouflage as is Eisenman, he the spring and summer of 1934, but Raeder was persistent; he was also quite adept at tailoring his arguments to meet Hitler's own predilections. In June between inaction and bravado, particularly since the Iraqis soon proved adept at `DF-ing" downed pilots--using direction-finding antennae to home in on cheese sauce. He dared to hum. How could he be so puerile, so playful, so adept at invading her? She wanted to scream about how hard she had worked to sex with a partner; another relevant point is that many women are more adept at stimulating themselves than their partners are at stimulating them.) now--how about jumping into bed In addition, many of these men are not very adept at identifying their own feelings, and when it comes to verbalizing the and misunderstandings that have arisen in their relationships and become adept at providing enough support and encouragement for the spouses to help get extramarital partners are usually doomed to short-lived affairs; men who are adept at reading their partners' emotional requirements and providing them with

itself becomes the very source of guilt. In America, women have become adept at blaming themselves for feeling good, as many feminist writers have both dyadic members as episodic memories (Stern, 1989). The mother will be adept at forming episodic memories; she will generally group these memories even disrupted. A key word here is may. Suddenly, a mother who was highly adept at predicting outcomes becomes confused, her new anxiety attributable to in detecting these impaired responses, they also have <p> become more adept at recognizing subtle variations on these conditions (Harper, 1991; orientation in the infant, previewing then enables the infant to become adept at welcoming and predicting upcoming change. <p> Observing the Patient <p> and responsive to the infant's imminent developmental progress? By becoming adept at recognizing all of these qualities, the therapist begins first to to question her about her sense of time. For example, as Tiffany became more adept at previewing her infant's development, her ability to evaluate her caught her interest: a toy, a shadow, or a stranger's face. Barbara seemed adept at holding her infant and responding to her visual and vocal cues. <p> transitions from one state to another. In addition, Barbara was particularly adept at previewing: encouraging her infant to experience the sensation of yes, I think she recognizes you now," Barbara agreed. `She's getting very adept at recognizing people we see frequently." Barbara spontaneously reported that she was a skilled interpreter of her daughter's skills. `You are very adept at sensing new accomplishments - previewing - and rehearsing these skills at her arm. One of his emerging traits is that he's become prematurely adept at forecasting the conflicts erupting around him. I reminded Laura that as I played with Patrick, she described our activity. Deirdre was very adept at saying what Patrick wanted. She noted several times that at home she Unlike Hitler, Roosevelt and other modern demagogues, Wallace is not adept at manipulating physical crowds." It was this sort of thing that made the families with a different set of developmental demands. A family that is adept at handling the day-to-day practical tasks of a long-term, stable illness <p> Because of gender socialization women and men often feel especially adept at different facets of coping. The psychosocial demands of a disorder can acumen of feminists. Women's organizations such as NOW were becoming adept at lobbying Congress. By 1978, NOW's membership had risen to 125,000, with

Successful

ukbooks

<f> need <f> to be like that to be successful at your job. <p> Quickly reading opportunity mean that we can't be successful at <f> anything. <f> Our life rebuke. He would have been more successful at many points in his life if he right and wrong: a person may be successful at stealing and derive great IS VISUALIZATION In order to be successful at what you want to do, you need you free to enjoy your life be successful at what you want to achieve and

usbooks:

Japanese may not be conspicuously successful at English (largely because it is chapter: To the extent that I'm successful at self-forgetting, I just bop at him, showing that he has been successful at engaging her at last. Deirdre first line has been phenomenally successful at speeds of 168 miles an hour. A

and moreover, he had never been successful at making any Negro friends. He to apply the skills that make you successful at work to your life at home. If

Hopeless

ukbooks:

made it. In fact they were as hopeless at sanctity as we are. Sadly, it
 <p> Me? No way, Keith." <p> I'm hopeless at time. I could be there all day
 re qualified to tackle - if you're hopeless at keeping accounts, for instance,
 between 0 and 10, 0 being 'I'm hopeless at it' and 10 'I'm brilliant at

usbooks:

-

Bad

ukbooks:

to hear how I'd got on. 'I'm even bad at hindsight.'" <p> Next month to the
 figure away. 'She always said I was bad at sharing my pleasures with
 walk from your hotel, but you are very bad at map reading. It takes you an hour
 Take, for example, the child who is bad at mathematics. Folklore has it that
 usually happens to the child who is bad at maths is that it will say to
 one he could find; he was notoriously bad at the personal touch. 'But your
 thick ooze. Underwater visibility was bad at the best of times and became non-
 said, 'Gosh, your English men are so bad at important things like wooing.

usbooks:

steadying, breaking the news, but bad at this. 'It was an accident!"
 where he lives, or what he is good or bad at doing, rather than more enduring,
 <f> Helmer: And I'm told he's not bad at his job, either. But we knew each