"Glad To Be Gay!"

A Corpus-Based Study on the Complementation of the

Adjective *Glad* from 1710 to the Present Day

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Tämä pro gradu -tutkielma käsittelee englanninkielisen adjektiivin *glad* komplementaatiota vuodesta 1710 nykypäivään. Tutkielman tarkoitus on selvittää, millaisia muutoksia adjektiivin komplementtirakenteissa on tapahtunut vuosisatojen aikana ja millaisia komplementteja se sallii nykyenglannissa.

Tutkimus perustuu korpusaineistoon ja lähteenä käytetään kahta eri korpusta. Aineiston lähteenä vuosilta 1710–1920 on Extended Version of the Corpus of Late Modern English Texts (CLMETEV) ja nykykielen aineisto on peräisin the British National Corpus (BNC) -kokoelmasta. CLMETEV koostuu kaunokirjallisista britannianenglannin teksteistä ja se on jaettu tekstien julkaisuajankohdan mukaan kolmeen eri osaan: ensimmäinen osa CLMETEV1 sisältää tekstejä vuosilta 1710–1780, CLMETEV2 käsittää vuodet 1780–1850 ja viimeinen osa, CLMETEV3 kattaa vuodet 1850–1920. Nykyenglantiin keskittyvä BNC sisältää materiaalia vuosilta 1960–1993 ja se koostuu useista eri tekstilajeista. Jotta aineisto olisi tutkimusta varten vertailukelpoista, BNC:n aineistoksi rajattiin kaunokirjallisuus.

Tutkielma jakaantuu rakenteellisesti kahteen osaan: ensimmäisessä tarkastellaan korpuksen käyttöä tutkimuksessa sekä korpuslingvistiikkaa yleisesti, komplementaatiota ja siihen liittyviä teorioita. Lisäksi teoriaosiossa tarkastellaan tutkittavan adjektiivin ominaisuuksia, kuten merkitystä ja rakenteita, sana- ja kielioppikirjoja hyväksikäyttäen. Lähteenä tässä toimii mm. the Oxford English Dictionary (OED), joka on englannin kielen yksi laajimmista ja tunnetuimmista sanakirjoista. OED:n lisäksi käytetään neljää muuta sanakirjaa, joista kaksi on suunnattu edistyneille kielenopiskelijoille. Tämän teoreettisen johdannon jälkeen adjektiivin komplementaatiota tarkastellaan korpusaineiston avulla analyysiosiossa. Analyysi etenee kronologisesti neljän korpusosan (CLMETEV 1–3 sekä BNC) mukaisesti.

Tutkimuksessa havaittiin, että vuosina 1710–1920 adjektiivin yleisin komplementti oli *to*-infinitiivi mutta 1960-luvulle tultaessa tämän ohitti aiemmin toisena pysytellyt *that*-lauseke. Adjektiivi voi ottaa komplementiksi myös prepositiolausekkeen ja näissä tyypeissä onkin ollut vaihtelua eri aikakausina. Suurimpana prepositiolausekekomplementtina 1710-luvulta tähän päivään on kuitenkin pysytellyt *of* + nominilauseke (NP). Nykypäivänä *glad* ottaa komplementikseen aiemmin mainittujen *to*-infinitiivin, *that*-lausekkeen ja *of* + NP -komplementtien lisäksi myös *for* + NP sekä *about* + NP -lausekkeet. Tutkimuksessa pohditaan myös komplementin ja adjunktin eroja niin syntaktiselta kuin semanttiseltakin kannalta, sillä komplementittomana *glad*-adjektiivin kanssa ilmenee säännöllisesti *when*-lauseke, jota perinteisesti pidetään temporaalisena adjunktina komplementin sijaan.

Asiasanat: glad, komplementaatio, korpuslingvistiikka, korpus, adjektiivi

Contents

1. Introduction

The focus of this thesis is on the complementation patterns of the adjective *glad*. Consider the following examples drawn from the Extended Version of the Corpus of Late Modern English Texts and the British National Corpus:

(1)   (a) However, as our readers may likewise be *glad* to recover their spirits also, we shall here put an end to this chapter. (Fielding, *Amelia*, 1751)
(b) He was *glad* that the young men should pay her respect, and that others should admire her. (Thackeray, *Vanity Fair,* 1847-8)
(c) She had been away a long while; it was natural she should be home again, and she was *glad*. (Brebner, *The Brown Mask*, 1910)
(d) The women stood in silence, *glad* of each other's presence and without the need to say as much. (AEA 119)

The examples cover the three centuries the data for this study is drawn from and present a selection of the kinds of complement the adjective *glad* can take. The complementation and senses of the adjective are studied by researching several dictionaries and grammar books and by analyzing and comparing authentic data drawn from two corpora, the Extended Version of the Corpus of Late Modern English Texts (CLMETEV) and the British National Corpus (BNC).

Susan Hunston (2002, 173) has claimed that the use of patterns has importance at the levels of accuracy as well as fluency. Along with pronunciation, the use of correct patterns with predicates is an important indicator of a person's knowledge of a language, and presents the most persistent problem areas even among advanced learners (ibid.). As a non-native speaker I find such aspects important not only for my personal learning experience but also as a research topic. Expanding my earlier synchronic bachelor thesis on the same subject, I want to broaden the scope of the data to cover not only the second part of the CLMETEV but the whole corpus and, to be able to make diachronic comparisons, also introduce data from the contemporary BNC.

The word *glad* serves as a good item to place under scrutiny as there are no comprehensive earlier studies about it. It has an attributive use, often in fixed phrases, which are becoming less

frequent in the present day language use, but the word is still quite regularly used predicatively with several constructions.

The working hypothesis is that there have been changes in the distribution of the individual patterns from the 18th to the 21st century, especially concerning the increasing frequency of infinitival subordinate clauses over finite ones as suggested by Leech et al. (2009, 182), but that no new patterns have emerged or any of the older ones completely disappeared from use. Moreover, Vosberg (2009, 213) suggests that complements with *to*-infinitives are often replaced by ones in the *–ing* form, and that this applies to the majority of governing items, including adjectives, and not just verbs. Drawing from this theory of the Great Complement Shift, more of which in the following sections, we hypothesize that indeed the relative frequency of *–ing* type complements will have increased over time, but that in the case of *glad*, *to*-infinitives still serve a bigger portion as a complement over the *–ing* form type. Another aim of this study is to map the different types of complements found over centuries. In addition to this, it is investigated what kinds of complements are frequent in the modern usage of the adjective.

At the beginning of the thesis I will briefly introduce the field of corpus linguistics and argue for the use of corpora in linguistic research, as well as account for some issues one has to bear in mind when using corpora as research material, and introduce the corpora used for this study. Then I will go on to explain the basics of complementation and look at some theories concerning the issue as well as view some relevant factors that affect complement selection.

After identifying the patterns that occur with *glad* based on earlier literature and the dictionaries, authentic data will be analyzed to investigate whether the hypotheses presented are valid or if there have been unexpected changes in the complementation of this particular adjective.

2. On Corpora and Corpus Linguistics

For this thesis I have adopted Tognini-Bonelli's (2001, 2) definition of a *corpus* as "a collection of texts assumed to be representative of a given language put together so that it can be used for linguistic analysis." She presents the assumption that corpora should represent authentic, natural language that is ensured by compiling them according to certain criteria such as regard the purpose and representativeness of the corpus (ibid.). More on the design criteria of both corpora used in the thesis will be provided at a later point when introducing the corpora.

The debate about the role of corpus linguistics in linguistic research, whether it is a theory or merely a methodology, is ongoing, but Tognini-Bonelli (2001, 1) has argued that corpus linguistics is "a new philosophical approach to linguistic enquiry," and in this thesis the view of many is taken that the role of corpus linguistics exceeds that of a methodology. Halliday (2004, 156) goes on to claim that data gathering, which is an essential part of corpus linguistics, and theorizing are no longer separate and as corpus linguistics better enables quantitative research on language, our whole understanding of language and semiotic systems is likely to experience a qualitative change.

This study takes a corpus-based approach in that here the corpora are used to test hypotheses based on earlier theories about language. Another way to utilize corpora would be to take the corpus-driven approach in which one would arrive at an analysis inductively with as few preconceived ideas as possible (Lindquist 2009, 10).

This section on corpora is then dedicated to the discussion about corpus linguistics, what it is and why the use of corpora is useful in the study of language. There are some issues to bear in mind when using corpora for linguistic evidence that will be addressed, and the practice of normalizing frequencies in order to get comparable and comprehensive results will be briefly accounted for. The corpora used in the recent study are introduced at the end of this section.

2.1 On the Use of Corpora in Linguistic Research

According to Chomsky's generative linguistics, the study of language should focus on the mental grammar of an idealized speaker, that is to say, the linguistic competence of a native speaker instead of their linguistic performance (Lindquist 2009, 8). One of the arguments against the use of corpora is the fact that a sentence such as "I live in New York" can be found in corpora more frequently than "I live in Dayton, Ohio", which is unarguably true (Lindquist 2009, 9). This does not, however, mean that all corpora-based findings are trivial or irrelevant. Especially when examining constructions, such biases are less likely to occur. Jan Svartvik (1992, 8-10) has given a list of valid reasons why the use or corpora is acceptable when studying linguistic phenomena and disregards the native speaker introspection and elicitation favored by Chomskyan linguists as an inadequate means to examine issues as complex as linguistic competence and performance alone.

Furthermore, Tognini-Bonelli (2001, 2-4) argues that corpus work presents us with an empirical approach to language as the starting point is authentic data, and therefore the nature of language can be revealed through inductive reasoning by observing actual instances, and these hypotheses in turn tested and generalized when the patterns occur repeatedly. As for describing and analyzing language use in texts, corpus linguistics offers an organized and practical way to do this. In comparison to *text*, *corpus* enables gathering information to be generalized to the language as a whole, and as a result, provides insights into *langue*, as it were in a Saussurian terminology (ibid.)

This idea of generalizable information connected to the use of corpora allows, as Svartvik (1992, 8-10) puts it, for more objective statements about language than the subjective introspective observation permits. As linguistics is the scientific research in the field of language, verifiability is a standard mode of research procedure that cannot and should not be dismissed. In addition to the factors of adequacy, generalizability and verifiability explained above, with the use of corpora it is easier to provide the frequency of occurrence of the linguistic items under scrutiny. And finally, as in the case of

this particular study, introspection is not a valid method for non-native speakers, which makes corpus

linguistics all the more important in gathering linguistic data (ibid.).

2.2 Challenges and Issues in Using Corpora

Even with the arguments presented above in favor of the use of corpora, there are certain issues that

should be taken into account when using corpus data in research. The compiler of one of the corpora

used in this study, Hendrik De Smet (2005, 78) points out that although the corpus is large enough even

for a study of the more infrequent patterns, the CLMET(EV) is still biased sociolinguistically as well as

in terms of genre and register. This presents little problem in the current study as the focus is not on

sociolinguistic analysis. Another problem that is not a major issue for the study at hand is that it is often

unclear what the bibliographical history of the texts in the corpus is and how they might have been

edited during electronic publication (De Smet 2005, 79).

Svartvik (1992, 10) also mentions some potential challenges one might come across in

analyzing corpus data. One is the replacement of hands-on analysis by automatic processing in the

hopes of speeding up the process, but studying the semantic characteristics as well as the patterns, as is

the case in the current study, helps avoid this problem. Lindquist (2009, 9-11) sides with Svartvik in

that careful manual analysis is essential as figures alone are rarely enough. Lindquist also notes that

corpora will never be large enough to account for all the possible sentences known to a speaker of a

language because the number of possible sentences in language is (in theory) infinite[1]. Corpora, as any

man-made tool, also contain mistakes, such as speech errors, that need to be disregarded. Biber (1998,

262) adds that given the complexity of natural languages, mistagging is an issue with automatically

tagged corpora especially in certain ambiguous structures. The accuracy is still often reported ranging

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[1] This claim, although long-established, has been challenged by some. For more, see e.g. Paul Ziff. 1974. "The Number Of English Sentences" in *Foundations of Language,* Vol. 11, No. 4: 519-532. New York, NY: Springer. Rather than denying the syntactic possibility of rendering an infinite number of sentences (with infinite length), he rejects the idea of infinity in language based on reasons owing to challenges in intonation, semantics and social transmission.

from mid to high 90 percent, and especially concerning the current study is not expected to cause a major challenge.

In addition to the issues of compiling and analyzing, Ball (1994, 295 ff.) brings out the issues of retrieval effectiveness, recall and precision. Precision is the proportion of retrieved data that is relevant, and it can be relatively easily handled with manual analysis of the data. Recall poses a greater challenge to the effectiveness of a search, as it refers to the proportion of relevant information that was retrieved, and without analyzing the entire corpus it becomes practically impossible to know to what extent the relevant material has been retrieved. As errors in precision may lead the researcher to narrow their search, the recall is in danger of decreasing further. Blair and Maron (1985, 293) further note that in general users had high confidence in the system's performance when in reality less than half of the relevant information had been retrieved.

This confidence relates to a problem that Rissanen (1989, 16-17) calls the "God's truth fallacy" where the user has the fallacious impression that the corpus and the data retrieved accurately represent the language as a whole, even more so with historical corpora since the user does not have the intuitive awareness of its limitations as they would have with present-day language material. When the corpus is used for a variety of studies, awareness of the issue should be kept in mind. Furthermore, when presenting conclusions, information on the source material and its character is useful so that the conclusions can be kept within the scope of information offered by the sources (ibid.).

2.3 Normalizing Frequencies

For comparative studies of features, such as the thesis at hand, it is of high importance to make sure the counts are actually comparable. Raw figures are often misleading, especially when analyzing texts of different lengths, and while two texts might have the same number of instances of a feature, when the count is looked at in relation to the lengths of the text, it becomes clear that the numbers are not

comparable. To get comparable results, frequencies can be normalized, i.e. adjusted so that accurate comparisons are possible. This is done by dividing the number of instances of the feature being studied by the total number of words in the text. Biber et al. (1998, 263) give the example where there are 20 modals in a text of 750 words. The normalized frequency per thousand words is then counted as follows:

(20 modals / 750 words) x 1,000 = 27.5 modals per 1,000 words.[2]

The basis of norming can be changed based on the types of text used as a source (ibid.). To give appropriate frequencies of the complements of *glad*, the frequency of the complements in this thesis is normed to a basis of a million words, or *pmw*.

2.4 The Corpora Used in This Thesis

The thesis at hand is a diachronic study of the complements of *glad* for which it is necessary to have data that cover a longer period of time. The historical complements in this thesis are studied using data drawn from the Extended Version of the Corpus of Late Modern English Texts which is divided into three equally sized sections from 1710 to 1920, thus representing 70 years each. For the contemporary use, the British National Corpus serves as a source of data, and covers the latter part of the 20th century. The current research considers the complements in British English, and the material in both corpora is exclusively in British English.

2.4.1 The Corpus of Late Modern English Texts (Extended Version)

The source of the historical data in the thesis is the Extended Version of the *Corpus of Late Modern English Texts* compiled by Hendrik De Smet of University of Leuven. The basis for the corpus are texts drawn from the Project Gutenberg and the Oxford Text Archive, both of which are freely available on the World Wide Web. De Smet notes that the Late Modern English period is "the most

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[2] The figures are those given in Biber et al. However, the actual number of modals per 1,000 would be approximately 26.7 with the given values.

neglected period in the history of the English language", especially when it comes to linguistic research (De Smet 2005, 69-70). The period is, however, well-documented and rather easily accessible to the speaker of Present-Day English. The corpus is therefore compiled to help fill this gap in the linguistic research, and it covers the period from 1710 to 1920 in three sub-periods of 70 years each (ibid.).

The corpus has been compiled based on four principles. First, to create homogeneity within sub-periods and increase heterogeneity between different sub-periods, the texts within one sub-period are written by authors who were born within a restricted time-span. This way, no author can be represented in two subsequent sub-periods of the corpus, and because of this, historical trends should appear more clearly in the data (ibid.).

The second principle was to only include authors that are British and, furthermore, are native speakers of English. This principle was used to restrict the dialectal variation in the data. The choice of British English also helps the comparison between the data on the CLMET and corpora of Present-Day English, which are mostly of British English (ibid.).

To avoid the accumulation of the idiosyncrasies of individual authors, the amount of text from any one author was restricted to a maximum of 200,000 words each, which accounts for the third principle in the compilation of the corpus (ibid.).

And fourth, most of the texts on the *Project Gutenberg* and the *Oxford Text Archive* are literary, formal texts written by higher class male authors. To insure variation in the genres and authorial social backgrounds in the CLMET, De Smet (2005, 70-2) has purposefully favored non-literary texts and texts from lower registers, as well as made sure to include texts from women authors. In spite of this, there is bias towards literary texts by higher class men (ibid.).

In this thesis, the source of my data is the Extended Version of the Corpus of Late Modern English Texts (CLMETEV) which incorporates the original corpus, but was expanded to

include another 5 million words from the *Project Gutenberg*, the *Oxford Text Archive* and *Victorian Women Writers project*. The aforementioned principles have been followed when adding material and the extended version comprises some 15 million words in 176 texts from 120 authors (Ku Leuven website).

To be able to correctly calculate the normalized frequencies, we need to be aware of the number of words in each section. Because of the limitations in the scope of this thesis, a smaller sample of each section is taken, which is taken into account when normalizing the frequencies. The text and word counts of each section are shown in the table below, as they are given in the CLMETEV webpage:

Sub-period	Number of authors	Number of texts	Number of words
1710-1780	23	32	3,037,607
1780-1850	46	64	5,723,988
1850-1920	51	80	6,251,564
Total	120	176	14,970,622

Table 1. Texts in the CLMETEV

2.4.2 The British National Corpus

The British National Corpus (BNC) is a collection of 100 million words of both spoken and written texts in British English from a wide range of sources, and it represents the latter part of the 20th century. The greater part of written texts (over 90%) includes extracts from periodicals, journals, academic books as well as fiction, letters and essays. The corpus is encoded with automatic parts of speech tags and other structural properties, and the full classification that includes contextual and bibliographical information for each excerpt is represented in the TEI (Text Encoding Initiative) header. The corpus was compiled between 1991 and 1994 after which no new texts have been added

but some revisions have been made before the second edition in 2001 and the latest, third edition in 2007 (The British National Corpus online).

The corpus project is managed by the BNC Consortium, a consortium of industrial and academic operators led by the Oxford University Press and funded by commercial partners such as the Science and Engineering Council (now EPSCR) (ibid.).

The selection criteria for the written section were the domain, the time and the medium. The domain criterion stated that 75 % of the texts were to be chosen from informative writing of equal quantities on several fields, and the remaining 25 % from imaginative texts such as literary and creative pieces of writing. The medium was the form where the text was published. Most of the texts, 60 %, come from books, in 25 % the sources were periodicals, while the remaining 15 % consists of different kinds of material, both published and unpublished, such as advertising material, letters and written speeches. The time condition refers to the time of publication, and since the BNC is a synchronic corpus, all the texts are from roughly the same period with most of the texts dating back to no further than 1975 with a few exceptions in the imaginative works that date back to 1964 (The British National Corpus online).

For the current study, the section of written, imaginative prose is used to get results comparable to those in the CLMETEV, and it comprises 476 texts with a total of 16,496,420 words (BNC User Reference Guide)

3 On Complementation

As the main focus of the thesis is on the complementation of a lexeme, it is in order to first explain what is meant by the term complement, how to identify them and how their occurrence with certain lexemes is justified.

3.1 Complementation

The term "complement" refers to a lexical element that is necessary to complete a grammatical construction, and it usually comes after the verb, or the predicate. Complements often express a quality or attribute of the subject or object, and cannot normally be omitted. Because complements are thought of as completing the meaning of a sentence, omitting them frequently results in ungrammaticality (Leech and Svartvik, 2002, 271-2). As Haegeman (1991, 26-7) notes, the same information in a sentence can be displayed with several different paraphrases. This is because they are assumed to have the same underlying structure, and the constituents thereof can be freely moved (ibid.). Similarly, complements of a predicate may come in different shapes, and some of those differences mirror a difference in the underlying structure while others that are superficially different share the same underlying meaning.

Following Fillmore (1968, 373), the term *predicate* in this thesis is used for a lexical item that "identifies some property of an object or some relation between two or more objects," here *glad* along with the copular verb. The objects whose property or relation is identified by the predicate are called the *arguments* of that predicate, in turn (ibid.). The predicate dictates how many and what kinds of arguments it licenses, and while some linguists regard subject arguments as complements, they are not treated as such in the current study.

3.2 Complements vs. Adjuncts

There are roughly two kinds of arguments that appear in a sentence along with the predicate, namely complements and adjuncts. According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 219), "complements are more closely related to the verb than adjuncts." The main argument to support this is the fact that complements need an appropriate verb to license them, whereas adjuncts may be rather freely added or moved within a sentence. Licensing means that some words allow or require a complement while others strictly do not. Compare the following examples that Huddleston and Pullum (ibid.) give:

(1)   i a. She <u>mentioned</u> the letter.   b. *She <u>alluded</u> the letter.
        ii a. She <u>thought</u> him unreliable.   b. *She <u>said</u> him unreliable.

In [i], the verb *mention* licenses an object (*the letter*), but *allude* does not. Similarly in [ii], an object and a predicative complement object (*him unreliable*) are licensed by the verb *think*, but the verb *say* does not license them. Conversely, adjuncts such as *however, last week, for this reason,* etc. are not restricted by the choice of verb (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 219-20).

     Although complements must always be licensed by the verb, they are not necessarily obligatory (Herbst et al. 2004, xi). According to Herbst et al. (2004, xxx-ii), complements can be divided into obligatory, contextually optional and imperative ones. The obligatoriness arises from the necessity at the level of valency[3] when a governing item requires a certain complement. Obligatory complements cannot be deleted without changing the meaning of the head or leaving the sentence ungrammatical. Optional complements, on the other hand, can be left out if the governing verb is grammatical without it or when their referent can be identified from the context (ibid.). The contextually optional complements also include the imperative complement where the complement can be implicit as long as the referent can be identified from the context and the verb is used in an imperative form in an

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[3] However, although adjuncts are not valency-bound and therefore can be deleted without changing the grammatical acceptability, they are sometimes required out of communicative necessity, e.g. when answering certain *wh*-questions (Herbst et al. 2004, xxx)

instructive text. An example of this last type would be cookery books with their instructions (Herbst et al. 2004, xi).

There are several tests to distinguish between complements and adjuncts, one of which is the *do so* test. In the *do so* test, the verb *do* is used as a general pro-form for verbs and can substitute for other verbs, leading to reductions such as in the following example by Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 219):

(2)   i. *Jill keeps her car in the garage but Pam does so in the street.
        ii. Jill washes her car in the garage but Pam does so in the street.

According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 219-20), all the internal complements of the verb must be embraced by the *do so* construction. This means that in [i] *in the garage* is an obligatory complement, and *Pam does so* is equivalent to *Pam keep her car in the garage*. Because the complement of the verb is already embraced by the *do so* –construction, it cannot be followed by another complement without becoming ungrammatical. But in [ii] *Pam does so in the street* only includes *Pam washes her car*, which means that *in the garage* is an adjunct in that context and the *does so* construction can be followed by *in the street*.

Lakoff and Ross[4] (1966, II4-6) further explain that the *do so* pro-form substitutes for a verb phrase, more specifically, it substitutes for all the constituents in the verb phrase and nothing more. This means that all the elements that can occur after the pro-form are not constituents in the verb phrase, while conversely, the elements that cannot occur after it, have to be part of the verb phrase. Thus, adverbials of time or place, as in the examples above, can be a part of the verb phrase depending on the verb, while objects such as *her car* in (2), always are.

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[4] While Lakoff and Ross explain the pro-form in the framework current at the time, before the introduction of the X-Bar Theory, their argumentation about the substitution is still acceptable, and the *do so* test is a valid method which can be used to identify constituents of a verb phrase even in the current work.

Somers (1984, 509) notes that even though the complements are always valency-bound, the practical distinction between complements and adjuncts is not always straightforward and has to do with the different viewpoints regarding obligatoriness. Because the licensing theory focuses mainly on verbs instead of adjectives, it is noteworthy to include two more tests on the complement-adjunct distinction. Somers (1984, 509-11) introduces the *elimination test* and the *extraction method*, both of which are originally formed by preceding scholars.

The *elimination test*, as Somers quotes Helbig and Schenkel[5] (1973, 33 quoted in Somers, 1984, 509), concentrates on the grammaticality of the sentence when certain elements are omitted. When a syntactically obligatory element is omitted, what remains, is ungrammatical. Correspondingly, when the omitted element is not obligatory, the sentence remains grammatical. This test, of course, is only functional when testing for obligatory complements. The test is exemplified in Somers (1984, 509) (italics in the original):

(3)   a. *We* expect *him* next Sunday at 12 o'clock at the station.
        b. We expect him.
        c. *We expect next Sunday.
        d. *We expect at the station.
        e. *We expect at 12 o'clock.

The test shows that *him* in example (3) is an obligatory element which cannot be omitted, while the other elements are adjuncts, and therefore can be freely omitted as syntactically optional elements.

The *extraction method*, coined by Grebe (1966, quoted in Somers 1984, 509-10) does not discuss the matter of obligatoriness, but sets focus on "which elements are closely associated with the verb, that is, complement vs. adjunct" (Brinker 1972, 181 in Somers 1984, 510). In this method, all the "freely added elements" (Grebe 1966, 468 in Somers 1984, 509) can be disregarded, as in Grebe's examples in Somers (1984, 510):

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[5] All secondary references in Somers (Helbig and Schenkel 1973, Grebe 1966, and Brinker 1972) are due to the original language of the sources being German, which is beyond the current author's linguistic knowledge. For this thesis only sources in English are used, and therefore Somers is chosen to cover the information.

(4) a. Roses bloom ~~in our garden.~~
   b. The farmer ploughs his field ~~in the early morning.~~

And even though omitting *his field* in (4)b. would leave the sentence grammatical, it would change the meaning. Therefore it is possible to conclude that *his field* in (4)b. is closely associated with the verb *plough*, and hence a complement (ibid.).

  But not only does the complement need to be licensed by the verb or the predicative adjective, it also has to represent the relevant syntactic type. This type of selection is called C-selection or Category-selection because the lexical item following the verb (or the predicate including the adjective in this case) is chosen based on its lexical category. This is also commonly known as subcategorization, i.e. the verbs or adjectives are categorized according to the complementation they take. Note that subcategorization only deals with complements of verbs and adjectives and not with adjuncts, which do not need to be licensed (Huang 1997a, 68).

  Somers (1984, 508) points out that the complement or adjunct status of each individual element is always assigned in respect to the predicate. That means that the status of any given element may shift as the verb shifts, and in this thesis I will only investigate the complement status in regard to the predicative adjective *glad*.

  The categories for different patterns of complementation are then named according to how many complements the verb selects, for example 'intransitive' for a verb that allows no complements, 'monotransitive' for one that allows a single complement, etc. (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 220; Huang 1997a, 70-3).

  Finally, the subject argument is considered a complement by some linguists, but in this thesis the subject is not treated or analyzed as a complement.

3.3 Valency Theory

Valency theory is used to clarify the relationship between the predicative adjective and the other elements that are closely associated with the predicate, that is, complements and adjuncts (Somers 1984, 507-8). Both of these are elements that are considered to be in close relation with the predicate, but there are distinctions in these two that are essential to this thesis. Complements are used with the predicate to complete its meaning, whereas adjuncts are optional elements. Complements can be obligatory to make the sentence grammatical, or they can be optional, while adjuncts, on the other hand, are always optional. The number of complements that a given verb governs, is called *valency*. Different verbs can govern different types of complements, for instance noun phrases or prepositional phrases, and it is said that those elements are *valency-bound*. Adjuncts are not valency-bound in any way (ibid).

According to Leech and Svartvik (2002, 271-2), a complement is something that completes a grammatical construction, and it "often expresses a quality or attribute of the subject or object" (ibid., 272). They also note that adjectives, such as *glad*, can take *that*-clauses, *to*-infinitives and prepositional phrases as complements (ibid.).

3.4 Theta Criterion and Thematic Roles

The arguments of a predicate are subcategorized by their syntactic type and therefore perform distinct functions in a sentence, or have certain roles in it. Carnie (2002, 169) notes that linguists have a construct especially for this kind of roles that map one-to-one with arguments. This construct is called a theta role, or Ɵ role. Carnie further defines theta, or semantic, roles as "bundles of thematic relations that cluster on one argument" (ibid.). Theta roles can be viewed in relation to the argument structure of a verb. Haegeman (1991, 41) notes that predicates in general have a thematic structure and in realizing that structure the verb theta-marks its arguments. This is accounted for by the *theta theory* (ibid.).

Consider *give*, a ditransitive verb selecting three arguments, a subject who performs the action depicted by the verb, a direct object that represents the thing being given and an indirect object who receives the object. Take (1) as an example:

(1) John gave the book to Mary.

The arguments in the sentence along with their semantic, or theta roles, can be analyzed using a theta grid.

Agent	Theme	Goal/Recipient
Subject $_i$	Direct object $_j$	Indirect object $_k$

Table 2. The thematic grid of the verb *give*

The grid displays the roles necessary for the arguments in the given situation, and are applied in (1')

(1') John$_i$ gave the book$_j$ to Mary$_k$.

Note that variation in the number of arguments would yield ungrammatical sentences (adapted from Carnie 2002, 170):

(2) * Gave the book to Mary.
(3) * John gave the book.
(4) *John gave the book the pen to Mary.

As mentioned in the section on Valency theory, the number (and category) of complements is restricted by the verb, or other governing lexeme. Haegeman (1991, 38-9) exemplifies the number of arguments that are categorized by adjectives with the following two examples:

(5) Poirot is restless.
(6) Jeeves is envious of Bertie.

Example (5) shows a one-place predicate, the adjective *restless*, which only governs the subject NP, here *Poirot* and does not license any complements. Example (6), by contrast, has a two-place predicate, which in addition to the subject NP subcategorizes for a prepositional phrase complement, here *of* + NP. Adding more arguments than are licensed is not allowed, and because *restless* in (5) is a

one-place predicate, any arguments other than the subject would result in ungrammaticality, exemplified below:

(7) *Poirot is restless of the case.

However, quite conversely to most verbal arguments, the arguments of adjectives can often be implicit, compare the following two:

(8) *Jeeves envies.
(9) Jeeves is envious.

Although the object in (9) is implicit, we can infer that "Jeeves is envious of someone" (ibid.). Haegeman (1991, 39) further notes that the argument structure is not always uniquely fixed, and that a semantic difference may result when the lexeme is a two-place predicate instead of a one-place predicate, which she exemplifies with the adjective *conscious* as follows:

(10) Miss Marple is conscious of the problem.
(11) Sir Galahad is conscious.

While the meaning of *envious* remains unchanged regardless of the implicitness of its complement, the same cannot be said about *conscious*, and it would therefore be fallacious to claim the predicate has an implicit complement in (11). The two meanings of *conscious*, "to know, to be aware" in (10) and "to not be in coma" in (11) are distinctive, so we can assume that a different meaning of the predicate categorizes for a different argument structure (ibid.).

Similarly to a differing number of complements for a lexeme, there can be any number of adjuncts in a sentence, but unlike complements they are never considered arguments and therefore never appear in the theta grid (ibid., 171). As concerns the thematic roles that are assigned to the arguments of a predicate, Carnie distinguishes two different types of them: the *external theta role* is dedicated to the subject argument of the verb, while *the internal theta role* is assigned to the object and indirect object. Applied to example (1), "*John gave the book to Mary*", the Agent role of *John* is an external theta role, while the Theme *the book*, and the Recipient *Mary* are internal theta roles.

As the grid above demonstrates, each argument corresponds to one thematic role. This is due to a constraint to discard overgenerated, ungrammatical sentences such as (7). The constraint is called the *Theta Criterion*, which has the two following conditions (Carnie 2002, 171):

a) Each argument is assigned one and only one theta role.
b) Each theta role is assigned to one and only one argument.

This constraint ensures the one-to-one mapping between semantic roles and arguments since the conditions require that there cannot be more theta roles than there are arguments or vice versa. Because semantic roles represent relationships between the arguments, the arguments have to be of a certain semantic type to fill the role.

Haegeman (1991, 41) points out that the theory of semantic categories is still to be more strictly defined, as there is no agreement on how many of these categories exist and how they should be labeled despite the fact that the importance of thematic structures is agreed on by many linguists. This being the case, Fillmore, as early as in 1968 (382), raised his opinion that the relations between predicates and arguments can actually be categorized in relatively few types, based on some very elementary judgments about the world around us, including but not limited to who does something, who experiences something and where something happens, just to name a few (ibid.). More recently, Dowty (1991, 571-2) noted that distinguishing between specific roles may be problematic because they do not represent distinct categories but rather clusters of concepts and that the arguments may have differing degrees of membership as regards those clusters (ibid.). With this in mind, the following roles adopted from Carnie (2002, 168-9) are used in the analysis in this thesis:

Thematic role	Definition	Example (with the exemplified role in italics)
Agent	The initiator or doer of an action, capable of volition	*Brad* hit Andrew.
Experiencer	An argument that feels or perceives events	*Keziah* likes cookies. *Becki* saw the eclipse.
Theme	An entity that undergoes	Shelley kept *her syntax book.*

	actions, is moved, experienced or perceived	The arrow hit *Michael*. The syntactician hates *phonology*.
Goal	The entity towards which motion takes place	Millie went to *Chicago*.
Recipient	A goal where there is a change of possession	Julie gave *Jessica* the book.
Source	The entity from which a motion takes place	Stacy came directly *from sociolinguistics class*.
Location	The place where the action occurs	We're all *at school.*
Instrument	The object with which an action is performed	*This key* will open the door to the linguistics building.
Benefactive	The one for whose benefit an event took place	He bought these flowers for *Jason*.

Table 3. Thematic roles and their definitions used in this work from Carnie (2002, 168-9)

3.5 Control and Raising

Consider the two sentences adapted from Carnie (2002, 255) with a similar surface structure:

(1) Adam is eager to study.
(2) Adam is likely to study.

While similar on the surface, these two sentences actually attest two very different structures, those of

Control and Raising. In this section we will briefly discuss both constructions and end with a review on

how these relate to the adjective under scrutiny here.

3.5.1 Control

As was discussed in the previous section, the Theta Criterion demands that each argument has one and

only one thematic role assigned to it. However, consider example (1) again. There seem to be two

predicates that can assign a semantic role, *be eager* and *to study*. Moreover, these two would assign a

different role to their subject, Experiencer and Agent, respectively, and these both would seem to refer

to the subject NP in the matrix clause, *Adam*. The deep structure can therefore be illustrated as in (3):

(3) Adam$_1$ is eager [PRO$_1$ to study].

Now, here we can clearly see the implicit subject of the verb in the embedded clause, PRO for "null

pronoun" (Carnie 2002, 255). This resolves the issue of semantic roles, as the role of Experiencer is

assigned to the explicit subject in the matrix clause and the role Agent is reserved to the lower, implicit

subject PRO. The subscript is there to indicate that both *Adam* and *PRO* in fact refer to the same

subject. Because the subject has this semantic linking to both verbs, it is said that the higher subject

controls the reference of the subject in the embedded clause which gives the construction its name,

Subject Control. Earlier in the Generative Grammar, this same phenomenon was called *Equi-NP*

Deletion or *Equi* for short (Carnie 2002, 268; Postal 1970, 443). Similarly, the controller can be the

object in the lower clause, which is called Object Control, in turn.

3.5.2 Raising

Now, consider example (2), here repeated as (4) with the deep structure illustrated:

(4) Adam$_1$ is likely [t_1 to study].

A thematic role of Agent can be assigned to the subject in relation to the lower verb *study*. That is

because the subject of the matrix clause has a semantic link to the embedded verb but not to the verb in

the matrix clause, as *likely* identifies no property of Adam, unlike *study*. Therefore it is still to be

decided what semantic role *likely* assigns and what item it is assigned to. For that, the sentence can be

rephrased in two different ways that are truth-conditionally equal to (4):

(5) [That Adam studies] is likely.
(6) It is likely [that Adams studies].

Here we can see that in (5) the higher verb has a clausal subject, or a proposition (Carnie 2002, 256). In

(6) this clausal subject functions as a complement with an expletive in the subject position, or an

extraposition construction (ibid.). Expletives, being semantically empty elements, do not receive a

semantic role (Davies and Dubinsky 2004, 4). Therefore, the embedded verb *to study* assigns a

semantic role to the subject, *Adam*, while *is likely* is the proposition of that happening and assigns no

semantic role. This structure allows for three sentences: one with clausal subject as witnessed in (5), one with extraposition such as (6) and one with Raising, as exemplified in the original example (4) (Carnie 2002, 259). The name for this structure is due to the fact that the subject in the lower clause is raised to the matrix clause. This kind of raising is more specifically called Subject-to-Subject raising. In addition, there is Object-to-Subject raising where, as the name suggests, the object in the lower clause is raised to a subject position in the matrix clause. This, however, is not relevant in the thesis, as *glad* does not select ditransitive constructions.

3.5.3 Distinguishing between Control and Raising

Because these two constructions can be superficially similar despite their significant differences, we must be able to tell them apart. Carnie (2002, 262) observes that whether the construction is Raising or Control is completely dictated by the predicate in the main clause. He then notes two simple tests to make this distinction, namely using the predicate in an idiom or with an expletive. Take Carnie's (ibid.) example *the cat is out of the bag* that has an idiomatic meaning of a secret being known to others. However, the idiomatic reading is only possible when the idiom is not broken. If it is broken, only the literal interpretation can occur, namely that "the feline is out of the sack" (ibid.; Davies and Dubinsky 2004, 8). Compare the two:

(7) The cat is likely to be out of the bag.
(8) The cat is eager to be out of the bag.

In sentence (7), with a Raising predicate, the idiomatic reading is preserved. This is not true in the case of Control constructions, such as (8), where only the literal interpretation is possible. Similarly, the expletive construction is not possible with a Control predicate, see (9):

(9) *It is eager that Adam studies.

Conversely, as we saw in (6) above, there is nothing wrong with a sentence like "It is likely that Adam studies" (Carnie 2002, 263).

In addition to these two, Rosenbaum (1967, 59-61) suggests passivizing the complement clause to make a distinction between these two classes of verbs. Again, with Raising predicates, the truth value of a sentence is not changed when the complement clause is passivized:

(10)   a. Adam is likely to study the subject.
        b. The subject is likely to be studied by Adam.

Conversely, sentences with the Control construction cannot be passivized without changing the meaning:

(11)   a. Adam is eager to study the subject.
        b. *The subject is eager to be studied by Adam.

Not only is the passivized lower clause semantically different from the active one, passivizing sometimes leads to ungrammaticality, as is the case in (11)b (Davies and Dubinsky 2004, 5-6).

3.5.4 Raising and Control in Relation to *Glad*

In the previous subsections we introduced the differences between Raising and Control constructions as well as ways of identifying them, while in this subsection I will discuss whether *glad* involves Subject Control or Subject-to-Subject Raising. As an adjective, *glad* always[6] needs a copular verb to form the predicate in the sentence, which is of our interest when determining whether *glad* occurs in a Control or a Raising construction in cases with a sentential complement. The most common copular verb with which *glad* seems to occur in the higher clause is *be*, and it is also the understood copula if left implicit. This means that *glad* is usually found in a Subject Control construction. This claim is supported by the tests we discussed earlier:

(12) The cat is *glad* to be out of the bag.
(13) *It is *glad* to see you.
(14)   a. He was *glad* to offer her a hand.
        b. *A hand was *glad* to be offered (by him).

---

[6] In some cases, the copula may be implicit, but it is often interpretable from the context, see Herbst et al. 2004, xi and Quirk and Greenbaum 1973, 119-120

In (12) there is no ambiguity as the idiomatic interpretation is not possible. Sentence (13) is ungrammatical because the expletive *it* cannot occur in a Control construction, and in (14) we can see that passivizing the complement (14b.) leads to a semantically odd result. That is because *glad* assigns a semantic role to its subject, which is a feature of Control constructions and does not occur where Raising is concerned.

3.6 Factors Bearing on Complementation

Each head, a lexeme that licenses its complements, subcategorizes for a certain set of complements. However, their selection is not arbitrary but guided by certain tendencies. The next section in the thesis introduces theories, or principles, that affect where and which complementation pattern to use.

3.6.1 The Complexity Principle

There are several factors that affect the complementation patterns used, one of which is called the Complexity principle. According to the Complexity principle, or transparency principle, "in the case of more or less explicit grammatical options the more explicit one(s) will tend to be favored in cognitively more complex environments" (Rohdenburg 1996, 151). First, we need to distinguish between more and less explicit options. This is usually rather unproblematic, since the more explicit variant tends to be the bulkier element or construction. This can be presented as an optional grammatical signal, as in the example by Rohdenburg (1996, 151-2) below:

(1)   i I helped him to write the paper.
        ii I helped him write the paper.

Here we have the infinitive marker *to* in the bulkier construction. Another type is a choice between two function words, exemplified in (2), again by Rohdenburg (ibid.):

(2)   She was prevailed on/upon to write another letter.

In (2) the latter option *upon* is the bulkier option. There is also a tendency for the more explicit variants to be considered more formal than the less explicit ones, as is the case with (2) (ibid.).

The more explicit options tend to be used in cognitively more complex environments. There are several factors that count as such, including discontinuous constructions of various kinds, passive constructions, and the length of the subjects, objects and subordinate clauses (Rohdenburg 1996, 149). Vosberg (2003b, 210) has further touched on the subject of discontinuous constructions where there is material inserted between the higher and the lower clause. These insertions commonly occur between the matrix verb and the non-finite verb in the lower clause, or between the matrix verb and the subject of a lower finite clause. This sort of intervening material is assumed to create a cognitively more complex construction, which supports the choice of an explicit grammatical construction (ibid.).

3.6.2 The Extraction principle

The canonical sentence structure in English is SVO, so that the word order in unmarked sentences is subject, verb, and object. In Transformational Grammar, deviations from this canonical sentence structure are referred to as extractions. These different kinds of structures that involve extractions include e.g. topicalization, in which the declarative sentence takes "the form of a topic followed by a comment about the topic" (Huang 1997b, 129), clefting and relativization. Vosberg (2003b, 201) exemplifies topicalization with the following sentence:

> (3)… even her acquaintance with the Belfield's$_1$ she remembered
> [not ever having mentioned t_1] … (Fanny Burney, *Cecilia*¸ 1782)

In the example, co-reference is marked with a subscript and the original position of the extracted complement with a *t* for *trace*. Clefting is similar to topicalization with the difference that it is formed into a clause with the help of semantically empty subject *it* and the verb *be*, again example from Vosberg (ibid.):

(4) It was the bangle$_1$ that she remembered [having seen t_1 on Francie's wrist] (Edith Œnone Sommerville, *The Real Charlotte*. 1894)

When an argument is relativized, the extracted element is followed by a relative clause (ibid.):

(5) It is the worthy Spencer$_1$ whom I'm sure you remember [to have often heard [me mention t_1 in the relation of my private misfortunes]] (John Dauncey, *The English Lovers,* 1622)

Vosberg (2003a, 308) further states that in extraction contexts such as explained above, it is possible for the otherwise recessive infinitival complement to delay the establishment of the *–ing* form, and the same applies to prepositional *–ing* complements. Based on this notion, Vosberg (ibid.) has formulated the Extraction principle that claims that in environments where the object is extracted over clause boundaries, the infinitival complement tends to be favored over the gerundial one.

3.6.3 The *Horror Aequi* Principle

Rohdenburg (2003, 236) introduces the *horror aequi* principle, that is "the widespread (and presumably universal) tendency to avoid the use of formally (near-)identical and (near-)adjacent (non-coordinate) grammatical elements or structures". Sequences of (non-coordinated) *to*-infinitives tend to be avoided, especially when there is no intervening material to separate them, and there are many restrictions on the use of successive *–ing* forms. The *horror aequi* principle, then, suggests that sequential marked, or *to*-infinitives, should be eschewed in cases where the governing or superordinate expression has one, especially when it precedes immediately. There are generally two strategies to avoid such sequences, namely delaying the introduction of the *to*-infinitive, or simply choosing another verbal or prepositional alternative instead (ibid.).

3.6.4 The Great Complement Shift

Leech et al (2009, 181 ff.) provide a historical background on the ongoing changes in English, and point out that Present-Day English is rich in non-finite clauses, i.e. infinitival, gerundial and participial clauses, unlike the older varieties of English or even other European languages. They note as one of the

long-term developments occurring in the language the emergence of the infinitival subordinate clauses

at the expense of finite clauses (cf. Vosberg 2009, 212–14). This is demonstrated with the illustrations

below (adopted from Leech et al 2009, 182, italics theirs):

(6) China has been through a period of isolation. It needs people going in and telling it *what the world thinks*. [F-LOB Ao6]
(7) Lewis told him *what clothes he should bring along*, and enjoined him not to buy anything that he did not already own, they would do that in New York. [Brown G67]

Example (7) allows for an infinitival subordinate clause as a variant based on the fact that the object in

the matrix clause is co-referential with the subject of the *wh*-clause. This is not the case in (6). A

reduced variant of (7) can then be expressed as in (8):

(8) Lewis told him *what clothes to bring along*.

In the present-day use the reduced variant is the more normal one under certain semantic circumstances

(ibid.).

As regards the distribution of non-finite complements, Rohdenburg (2006, 143) notes that the

establishment of gerundial complements as a second type of non-finite complements may be one of the

most important changes over the past few centuries, as gerundial complements increase at the expense

of *to*-infinitives. This same establishment was evidenced by Fanego (1996, 46) when she found that

gerundial complements are now found with several verbs that earlier licensed only *to*-infinitives, and

later in 2004 that *–ing* complements are rapidly increasing with certain verbs in American English

(Fanego 2004, 49). Vosberg (2009, 226) has later confirmed that this process, termed the Great

Complement Shift, where infinitives are gradually replaced by the *–ing* construction, is occurring in

both American and British English, although at a varying speed. Since the mid 19th century, American

English (AmE) has favored the gerundial complement over the infinitival as compared to the often

more conservative British English (BrE) (Vosberg 2009, 213–4). While we have no comparable data in

American English in this thesis, this delay may be seen in the results as regards the choice of a

gerundial complement over an infinitival. The competition between the two non-finite varieties is not novel because the gerundial started to take over the unmarked infinitives with certain verbs as soon as the *to*-infinitive began to replace the *that*-clause as a complement in the Middle English period. However, since that period and as the gerund has become more frequent, it has increasingly started to compete with the marked *to*-infinitive as well as the unmarked (Vosberg 2009, 212–3). One reason for this may be that while the *to*-infinitive also expresses purpose and therefore future orientation, there was no temporal reference with the gerundial initially, which meant it could be utilized in environments where the *to*-infinitive did not serve the purpose (Vosberg 2003a, 306).

One factor to slow this process however, according to Rudanko (2006, 46), at least as regards the adjective *accustomed*, is the presence of extractions. In addition to extractions, Vosberg (2009, 227) lists that also *horror equi* contexts and different insertions or modifications are likely to have an effect in the development, either accelerating or delaying it depending on such factors as the form of the matrix verb (Vosberg 2003a, 305). Conversely, a higher frequency of occurrence seems to accelerate the completion of the process, and the AmE tendency to favor the non-finite complements partly explains why the Great Complement Shift is more complete in it than in BrE (Vosberg, 2009, 214–5).

What is interesting in connection to this thesis is that Leech et al. (2009, 183) mention the spread of infinitival *wh*-complements as being one that spans over centuries which made it hard for them to measure with such short period of time between the corpora they used. The data for the thesis at hand, however, covers the period of nearly 300 years, and some changes in the complementation patterns in this regard can be expected to arise when the British delay in the matter is considered.

4 *Glad* in the literature

In the following section I will take a brief look on the etymology of the word *glad* and then see how it has been defined in four major dictionaries and end the section with research on the subject in grammar books.

4.1 Etymology

The *Oxford Dictionary of English* (Stevenson 2010, 741) states that *glad* originates in the Old English period when it was transcribed *glæd* and had the sense 'bright, shining'. The word is of Germanic origin and it is related to similar words in Old Norse, German and Latin, with a difference in meaning. The original sense "smooth" that can be traced to Old High German is still retained in some modern Germanic languages such as in German *glatt* and Dutch *glad, glat* (*OED* online).

4.2 The Oxford English Dictionary online

The *Oxford English Dictionary* (OED) online version gives the following definitions and illustrations for the adjective *glad.* I have left out the uses that are marked obsolete and the ones that are used attributively. The relevant senses and their illustrations with the complementation patterns are identified in the table below (the *OED* online). For the archaic usage with *for* mentioned in the dictionary there was no illustration available, but it is included in the table with the appropriate complementation pattern identified.

Sense	Illustration	Complementation pattern
2a. Of persons: joyful, happy (arch.)	Often, *glad* no more, We wear a face of joy, because We have been glad of yore. (Wordsworth, *Fountain xii,* 1799)	Ø-complementation
3. Rejoiced, affected with pleasure by some particular		

cause. Now only *pred*.		
3a. simply. (With the cause indicated contextually).	We were *glad* at heart. (Tennyson, *Audley Court* in *Poems* (new ed.) II. 46, 1842)	Ø-complement
3b. with prep. glad *of*: 'glad to have or get'; 'joyful on account of, delighted or pleased by (an event, a state of things). Also const. *at* (an event, usually one affecting another person, esp. unfavourably), *for* (arch.)	I am so *glad* of seeing your sentiments, when I cannot hear them, that your letters are only less valuable to me than yourself. (F. Burney, *Diary* 22 Apr. (1842) II. 310, 1784)	*of* + ing
	Madam, Dinner's upon the Table…Faith, I'm *glad* of it. (Swift, *Compl. Coll. Genteel Conversat.* 119, 1738)	*of* + NP
	The Westminster boys were working an engine in the cloisters..D...said they were *glad* at the fire. (R. Southey, *Lett. from Eng.* III. 320, 1807)	*at* + NP
		for + NP
3c. With clause as compl.: glad that, etc. In later usage chiefly with omission of *that*.	I am very *glad* you like it. (J.H. Ewing, *Mary's Meadow (1886, 37),* 1884)	*that*-clause or Ø *that*-clause
3d. With infinitive: Happy, delighted, pleased *to* (do, be, etc.); also, well content *to* (do, have, etc. something in default of better). In mod. use freq. in the phrases *I am glad to hear*, *see* (etc.); also, *I should be glad to (hear, know*, etc.) with sarcastic force.	He was *glad* to turn away from the stage and to talk about publick affairs. (T.B. Macaulay, *Hist. Eng.* II. vii. 164, 1849)	*to*-infinitive

Table 3. *Glad* in the *OED* online with the senses and patterns

4.3 The Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary

The *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (the OALD) groups *glad* together with *pleased*, *delighted*, *thrilled* and *overjoyed*, and states that *glad* is not usually found before a noun. The definition for *glad* in the OALD is "happy about sth or grateful for it". There are four patterns for the word, which are

> [i] *that*-clause,
> [ii] *to*-infinitival,
> [iii] *for* + NP and
> [iv] *about* + NP.

There are no actual illustrations of these uses, however, there is a brief mention of a pattern that is not to be used: "You cannot be 'glad with sb': ~~The boss should be glad with you~~" (ibid.).

4.4 The Collins Cobuild Advanced Learners Dictionary

The *Collins Cobuild dictionary* (Sinclair, 2009) lists two senses and their patterns that are presented in the table below. All examples are from the dictionary.

Sense	Illustration	Patterns
1. To be happy and pleased about something, [__ + *that*], [__*to*-infinitive], [__ + *about*], [_ + *of*]	I'm *glad* I relented in the end. The people seem genuinely *glad* to see you. I ought to be *glad* about what happened.	*that*-clause or Ø *that*-clause *to*-infinitive *about* + *of* + NP
2. Willing and eager to do something (usually for someone else)	We should be *glad* to answer any questions.	*to*-infinitive

Table 4. *Glad* in the *Collins Cobuild Advanced Learners Dictionary* with the senses and patterns

Compared to the *OED*, the *Cobuild Collins dictionary* offers a more simplified distinction in the senses but embraces the essential senses of *being* happy about something and being willing to *do* something for someone else. They also offer a complementation pattern that is not found on the *OED*, that is,

about. They give an example of *about* that is accompanied by a *wh*-clause. They also list *of* as one of the prepositions that function as the head of the complement but fail to give an example of it. Comparing with what the other dictionaries and grammars say about the matter, it can be assumed that the pattern is, as presented in the table, *of* + NP.

4.5 The Merriam-Webster online dictionary

The *Merriam-Webster Dictionary* (the Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary) has four senses for *glad,* one of which is archaic. All of the senses have a similar idea of gratitude or joy brought on by something. The archaic use emphasizes an inner property of a happy nature. Contrary to the *OALD*, the *Merriam-Webster* gives examples in which *glad* is used attributively inside of a noun phrase directly followed by a noun, as in "a *glad* spring morning" (ibid.). This sort of use is the attributive type, though, and is not relevant to our discussion here. Of the four senses listed, only one is of the predicative type and relevant to this study, and is further given three sub-senses: "experiencing pleasure, joy, or delight**:** made happy", "made pleased, satisfied, or grateful —often used with *of"* and *"*very willing". Of the relevant senses, two examples were given*:*

> [i] We're *glad* you could come.
> [ii] I'll be *glad to answer* any questions you may have.

4.6 A Valency Dictionary of English

 Herbst et al.'s (2004) *A Valency Dictionary of English*, on the other hand, offers data on the complementation of several verbs and nouns as well as adjectives, including *glad*. Patterns listed in the *Valency Dictionary*, with the original examples, are as shown in table 5.

Complementation pattern	Example
To-inf / *To*	Ingrid was *glad* to see him go. If I can help you in any way, I'd be *glad* to. We'd be *glad* to.
That-clause	He was *glad* that she'd told him.
About + NP/V -ing / *about* wh-clause	Her husband and children and close relatives seem

	supportive, and I'm *glad* about that. I felt real *glad* about doing it. I ought to be *glad* about what happened.
At + NP/V –ing / *at* wh-clause	The solitary guard, a weary old man who, like the exhibit, had seen better days, seemed *glad* at the sight of what he took to be a friendly face. I am amazingly *glad* at what you tell me about Sam.
For + NP / *For* NP + *to*-inf	My wife had no friends here in the country, and no one came to visit. Frankly, I was *glad* for the solitude. I'm very *glad* for you, Nick. This sort of work was anonymous, and Hecht was *glad* for it to stay that way.
Of + NP	Mrs Masters might be *glad* of the extra money.
For + NP + *that*-clause	I'm *glad* for your father – and for Tony that they have that energy.

Table 5. Complementation patterns of *glad* in *A Valency Dictionary of English*

They also note that the *to*-infinitive/*to* pattern is a frequent structure as a complement of *glad*, although

they give no specific figures for this. The *that*-clause, according to them, occurs in over 30 per cent of

the cases. Additionally, they list three senses for the word:

1) That someone is pleased about a certain state of affairs
2) That something makes a person happy at a particular point in time.
3) To express a person's willingness to help, etc.

4.7 Grammars

Poutsma (MS) lists seven different complementation patterns for *glad*, as are shown in the table below.

Complementation pattern	Example
at + NP/S	He that is *glad at* calamities shall not be unpunished (*Bible*, Prov., XVII, 4. 2)
for + NP	They were only *glad for* a little breathing space until some sort of square could be formed (Rudy. Kipl., *Light that failed*, Ch. II, 25.)
for + (pro)noun + *to* + inf.	We shall be *glad for you to stoop* as long as you like. (Dick., *Cop*., Ch. XVII, 135b.)
of + NP	They were proud and *glad of* her success (Mrs. Gask., *Life of Ch. Brontë*, 319.)
of + ing	I am *glad of having* met you. (Bain, *Comp*., 170)
that-clause	I am very *glad* you like it. (Mrs. Ewing, *Mary's Meadow*, 37 (O.E.D., 3, c)

to + inf.	He was *glad to* turn away from the stage and to talk about the publick {sic} affairs. (*Mac., Hist.*, VII, II, 164 (O.E.D., 3, d)

Table 6. Complementation patterns of *glad* in Poutsma's *Dictionary of Constructions*

Biber et. al. (716-18, 980) give *glad* only two different complementation patterns, *to*-infinitives and *that*-clauses.

Quirk and Greenbaum (1973, 123–4) note that adjectives can be divided into attributive and predicative ones, the latter of which are wholly or practically entirely restricted to predicative position, and resemble verbs and adverbs and tend to refer to condition rather than characterize (ibid.) Although this is not entirely true of *glad*, it nevertheless belongs in this group of adjectives. As regards complementation, an adjective is often dependent on the presence of a verb, but this need not be the case at all times. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973, 119-120) also point out that an adjective can function as a verbless clause in reference to the subject or object of the sentence, in (1) and (2), the circumstance or condition of the superordinate clause (3), or in exclamations as a head of an adjective phrase or as its sole realization (4):

(1) *(By then) nervous*, the man opened the letter.
(2) She glanced with disgust the cat, *quiet (now) in her daughter's lap*.
(3) *Enthusiastic*, they make good students (= When enthusiastic,…)
(4) *How good of you! How wonderful! Excellent!*

4.8 A Summary of the Dictionaries and Grammars

Based on the material in the dictionaries and the grammars, the senses of *glad* can be roughly divided into three, each with a specified set of complements that accompany them. This summary is displayed in table 7 below with illustrations from *A Valency dictionary of English*, unless otherwise indicated. These senses will serve as a basis in the upcoming analysis.

Sense	Complement pattern	Illustration
1. To be happy and pleased about an event or state of	*To*-infinitive	Ingrid was *glad* <u>to see</u> him go.

affairs.	*That*-clause or Ø *that*-clause	He was *glad* <u>that she'd told him</u>.
	Of	
	• + NP	Mrs Master might be *glad* <u>of the extra money</u>.
	• + V -ing	I'm *glad* <u>of having</u> met you. (Poutstma: Bain, *Comp.,* 170)
	About	
	• + NP • + V –ing • + wh-clause	…and I'm *glad* <u>about that</u>. I felt real *glad* <u>about doing</u> it. I ought to be *glad* <u>about what happened</u>.
	At	
	• + NP • + V –ing • wh-clause	The solitary guard – seemed *glad* <u>at the sight</u>… I am amazingly *glad* <u>at what you tell me about Sam</u>.
	For	
	• + NP. • + NP + *to*-inf • + NP + *that*-clause	I was *glad* <u>for the solitude</u>. We shall be *glad* <u>for you to stoop</u> as long as you like (Poutsma: Dick., *Cop,* Ch. XVII, 135b.) I'm *glad* <u>for your father – and for Tony that they have that energy</u>.
	Ø-complement	We were *glad* at heart. (OED: Tennyson, *Audley Court* in *Poems* (new ed.) II. 46, 1842)
2. To be willing and eager to do something.	*To*-infinitive	We should be *glad* <u>to answer any questions</u>. (Collins Cobuild)
3. To be joyous in character (arch.)	Ø-complement	We wear a face of joy, because We have been *glad* of yore. (OED: Wordsworth, *Fountain xii,* 1799)

Table 7. A summary of the senses and patterns of *glad* in the literature

Although the *OALD* explicitly mentions *that* glad does not usually occur before a noun, or in an attributive use, the *OED* lists two main senses with this particular use where there are phrasal constructions with the adjective. Albeit not on the focus of this thesis, they are briefly summarized below as they may appear in the findings before the irrelevant tokens are discarded:

4. a. Of feelings, looks, actions, etc. Filled with, marked by, or expressive of joy or delight.

    (1) I was soon at the bottom..fairly out of danger, and full of *glad* vigour.
    (J. Tyndall, *Glaciers of Alps* i. xxii. 159, 1860)

    b. Of tidings, news, etc.: Full of, or bringing, joy.

    (2) You have given me the *gladdest* tidings, Johnstone, that I have heard for many days.
    (C. Gibbon, *For King* xxi, 1872)

    d. the glad eye: a look or movement of the eyes designed to attract a person of the opposite sex; hence glad-eye v. (trans.) to give (someone) the glad eye. colloq.

    e. glad hand (freq. used somewhat ironically): (the) hand of welcome; a cordial handshake or greeting; a welcome; esp. in phr. to give (someone) the glad hand

    f. glad rags (occas. glad clothes): (one's) best clothes; very smart or fancy clothes; *spec.* formal evening dress. *colloq.* (orig. *U.S.*).

5. a. Of inanimate nature or its conditions: Full of brightness or beauty; suggesting feelings of cheerfulness and delight.

    (3) What a living spring—what a warm, *glad* summer. (C. Brontë *Villette* I. iv. 71, 1853)

5 Corpus Analysis

5.1 Methodology

Although this study essentially utilizes a quantitative method in that frequencies and percentages are counted to describe language, it does include an element of a qualitative method, as suggested by Lindquist (2009, 25-6). This is because before making any notions of frequency one must have clarified the categories of what is counted, which inherently includes qualitative analysis, as has been done in the chapters above. Additionally, the frequencies and the reasons behind their varying distribution will be looked into, again requiring careful qualitative analysis (ibid.).

As the linguistic item being researched here is an adjective, there was no need to formulate particular search strings to reach all the possible forms, as is the case when studying verbal complementation. Instead a simple search for *glad* was conducted in both the CLMETEV and the BNC. Because the number of tokens retrieved was too high for a thesis of the current scope, a random reproducible sample was taken of all the sections, 50 % in the first, 25 % in the second, and 25 % in the third part of the CLMETEV, and 15 % in the BNC. In these samples, the irrelevant tokens, i.e. verbs and attributive adjectives, were first discarded. After that the complement patterns and relevant phenomena, such as insertions, were analyzed and counted. The semantic roles of the subjects in both the higher and lower clauses (where relevant) were also identified.

5.2 *Glad* in Part 1 of the CLMETEV

Part 1 of the CLMETEV is the smallest of the sections with 32 texts and approximately three million words. This part covers the years from 1710 to 1780. In the first part of the CLMETEV there are 338 tokens of the word *glad*. Of these, a random reproducible sample of 50 per cent was taken, which leaves us 169 tokens to be researched for the study at hand. 8 of these were irrelevant to the study as *glad* was either in an attributive use or a verb in them as in examples (1) and (2), respectively.

(1) …and I threw myself upon my knees at his feet, with a most sincere *glad* heart… (Richardson, *Pamela*, 1740)

(2) …that it should be his first and chiefest care to *glad* the gentle bosom of a fair disconsolate… (Fielding, *The Governess,* 1749)

When these eight are discarded, there are 161 tokens that are relevant for the study regarding the complementation of the adjective. In the following sections the complements are studied by each complement type, their frequencies are counted and a closer look is taken at their semantic and thematic features.

Illustration	Complementation pattern	Total (% of all relevant)	Normalized frequency (per million words)
We are all *glad* to see you, sir; you are the happiest man in the world in a daughter… (Richardson, *Pamela*, 1740)	*To*-infinitive	71 (44.1 %)	46.7

I am always *glad* that my Fortune can be serviceable to them. (Gay, *The Beggar's Opera,* 1728)	*That*-clause
	
	  of which Ø-*that*
		48 (29.8 %)
		
		  33 (20.5 %)
			31.6
			
			  21.7

…I was *glad* of this opportunity to know his person… (Smollett, *The Expedition of Humphrey Clinker*, 1771)	*Of* + NP	30 (18.6 %)	19.8
I told your brother Gal, who was *glad*. (Walpole, *Letters 1735-48,* 1735-48)	Ø complement	9 (5.6 %)	5.9
I shall be *glad* of seeing him any morning he pleases. (Fielding, *Amelia*, 1751)	*Of* + V -*ing*	2 (1.2 %)	1.3
I don't know who will be *glad* <u>of her coming</u>,	*Of* + Poss -*ing*	1 (0.6 %)	0.7

but Mr. Blighe and Amorevoli. (Walpole, *Letters 1735-48*, 1735-48)			
Total		161 (100 %)	106.0

Table 8. The complementation patterns in the CLMETEV1 in a descending order by frequency

5.2.1 *Of* + NP

With 30 tokens, or 18.6 per cent of all relevant, the *of* + NP construction is the most common non-sentential complement for *glad*. The subject in sentences with an *of* + NP complement takes the Experiencer role and has the semantic features +animate and +human. Most commonly the subject is *I*, but is sometimes another personal pronoun or even a common noun, underlined in (3):

> (3) …and as <u>the reader</u> may perhaps be at this season *glad* of the same favour we will here put an end to the eighth book of our history. (Fielding, *Tom Jones*, 1749)

The semantic role of the NP is invariably Theme, and is typically a reference to a matter or a situation discussed earlier, conveyed through the use of short pronouns *it* or *that*, which together account for 50 per cent of the NPs in this type of complement. An illustration of such is (4) below.

> (4) I am *glad* of that; for I have been a sad heathen lately, sore against my will! (Richardson, *Pamela*, 1740)

The noun phrase can, however, be anything from a short NP with just a determiner and a noun, such as in (5) to a longer NP with other postmodifying prepositional phrases or, indeed, *that*-clauses in them, as illustrated in (6).

> (5) …and while I behaved myself well, she should be very *glad* of my company. (Fielding, *The Governess*, 1749)
> (6) …having lost the use of her limbs, and would perhaps be *glad* of the visit of a person she had known so long. (Haywood, *The Fortunate Foundlings*, 1744)

Example (6) also serves to illustrate a case where the *horror aequi* principle is not applied with two adjacent constructions that are formally identical, that is, the prepositional phrase headed by *of*

followed by an *of*-genitive. The example above is not a unique token where the principle fails to be applied, as there are altogether three tokens where a similar situation occurred. Two of those are instances where the latter *of*-construction has a verb in the gerund form and could be paraphrased using a *to*-infinitive without changing the meaning. One of these is shown in (7):

(7) …because he in truth always was, *glad* of any opportunity of doing them good.
(Doddridge, *The Life of Col. James Gardiner*, 1750).

It is noteworthy, however, that both cases that could be paraphrased with an infinitive form come from the same author and piece of writing, so it could be a matter of a single author's idiosyncrasy.

The *of* + NP construction is no stranger to extractions either as two of the tokens witness relativization, and example (8) below illustrates how the referent of the relative pronoun can in fact be a clause:

(8) Seriously, I am told, that you are both very strong and very correct in history;
of which I am extremely *glad*. (*Chesterfield, Letter to His Son on the Art…*, 1746-71)

The sense in all the tokens with an *of* + NP complement is sense 1.

5.2.1.1 *Of* + V *-ing*

In the data, two tokens displayed a complement where *of* is followed by a verb in the *–ing* form. As the number of tokens is so small, and they both display interesting features, they are both discussed in detail here.

First, consider (9):

(9) …and in the mean time, I shall be *glad* of seeing him any morning he pleases.
(Fielding, *Amelia*, 1751)

The form of the complement or the preceding verb phrase are not of our particular interest here, as they offer nothing out of ordinary. Our interest here is in the sense interpreted with *glad*, especially as it

relates to the following verb, *see*. The initial interpretation of the verb would be that relating to senses, as found in the *OED* online,

> **1.a.** trans. To perceive (light, colour, external objects and their movements) with the eyes, or by the sense of which the eye is the specific organ,

which indeed is the most common sense of the verb and is in accordance with sense 1 of *glad*. In the context above, without any further contextual information, the verb *see* could be interpreted as explained in the *OED* online (all emphases mine):

> **12.a.** To be in the company of, *to meet and converse with (a person)*.

And to further emphasize the agent role,

> **12.c.** To receive as a visitor; *to admit to an interview*.

If the verb is to be interpreted in accordance to sense 1.a. above, the semantic role of the understood subject would be Experiencer and the sense would be the first one, "to be happy and pleased about something". However, given that the verb has that second, agentive sense of meeting or admitting to meet someone, the understood subject could be reinterpreted to have the semantic role of an Agent. As we will later note with *to*-infinitives, sense 2, "to be willing and eager to do something" complies well with the semantic role of Agent. Thus, either of these two senses could be assigned to *glad* in this instance depending on the interpretation. Looking at the sentence in a wider context reveals that sense 2 is assigned to *glad* here. This leads us to an interesting notion that the *of* + V –*ing* construction also allows for the agentive construction.

The second token of this complement type offers another feature worth pointing out. See the token below:

> (10) …but they are so miserable with the loss of their former two boys,
> that they seem *glad* now of not having any more to tremble for. (Walpole,
> *Letters 1735-48*, 1735-48)

The feature in the second token perhaps bears less importance than the one in the first, but it is still something worthy of a brief discussion here. As we remember, the semantic role of an argument is closely related, in fact strictly bound, to its predicate, that is, a verb. As we can remember from earlier discussion regarding Control and Raising, *seem* does not assign a thematic role to its (semantically empty) subject. Example (10) can be rephrased keeping the truth value identical to the original:

(10') …it seems that they are *glad* now of not having any more to tremble for.

The subject of *seem* here is *it*, and *they* is the subject of another predicate, here *be glad*. Therefore, *they* is assigned a semantic role of Experiencer.

5.2.1.2 *Of* + Poss *-ing*

With less than a per cent, the *of* + Poss *-ing* construction is by no means a frequent complement of *glad*. In the data, the following instance was the only token with this particular construction.

(11) I don't know who will be *glad* of her coming, but Mr. Blighe and Amorevoli. (Walpole, *Letters 1735-48*, 1735-48)

The semantic role of the subject of *glad* here is Experiencer and the sense, quite unsurprisingly, is sense 1.

5.2.2 *To*-infinitive

In the CLMETEV1 data, the *to*-infinitive is the most common complement type for *glad* with 44.1 per cent of the complements being of that type. According to the Extraction principle, an infinitival complement tends to be favored over a gerundial one in cases where the object is extracted over clause boundaries. This makes for a good case to discuss regarding the *to*-infinitives, and whether their grammatical environments seem to support this principle.

In the data, there are six cases that deviate from the customary SVO word order, although not all of these illustrate extractions. In (12) below, the reason for a changed word order is simply the fact that it is an interrogative sentence:

(12) Why would you be *glad* to continue with me always? (Haywood, *The Fortunate Foundlings,* 1744)

Although it can be argued that this deviation from the norm has affected the choice of the complement, as the same could be paraphrased with an *of* + V *–ing* construction with perhaps a minor change in meaning as in (12').

(12') Why would you be *glad* of continuing with me always?

According to the Extraction principle, with extractions over clause boundaries an infinitival complement is preferred over the gerundial one and in three instances (4.2 per cent of the *to*-infinitives) we can see extractions of arguments over clause boundaries, all of which relativized, as exemplified in (13)

(13) I saw at Florence two books that I should now be very *glad* to have, if you could get them tolerably reasonable… (Walpole, *Letters 1735-48,* 1735-48)

It therefore seems likely that in all three the choice of an infinitival complement over a gerundial one is due to the Extraction principle as the sentences involve extractions across clause boundaries.

Compared to extractions, the presence of a complexity factor is a bit more frequent, as 5 tokens (7 per cent) of the *to*-infinitive tokens had one. The insertions range from a single word to a clause.

(14) …when he collects goods for foreign markets, will always be *glad*, upon equal or nearly equal profits, to sell as great a part of them at home as he can. (Smith, *Wealth of Nations,* 1766)

Example (14) above illustrates this sort of longer intervening material, and further exemplifies a common feature where there is distance between the subject and predicate due to intervening material.

The copular verb is sometimes omitted with the governing adjective *glad*, when it occurs in a non-defining relative clause insertion, as in (15):

(15) …and Charlotta, *glad* to avoid all discourse on a subject she thought herself but ill prepared to answer, joined some ladies… (Haywood, *The Fortunate Foundlings,* 1744)

where the relative pronoun and its accompanying verb have also been omitted. In the data, this was the case in only two tokens, both of which in Haywood's *The Fortunate Foundlings*.

When it comes to the semantic roles in sentences containing *to*-infinitive complements, they can be roughly divided into two groups: one in which the role in the lower clause is of an agentive nature and another where it is an Experiencer or has an otherwise "passive" quality. In the higher clause, however, all the tokens have the thematic role of an Experiencer. In the lower clause, the dispersion is greater. While the proportion of the Experiencer role in the lower subject is smaller than in the higher subject at 39 tokens (54.9 %), there are as many as four different semantic roles to be found in them: Experiencer, Agent, Theme and Benefactive. Next we will discuss each type separately before moving on to study the senses of *glad* in this particular construction.

The least frequent in the data is the type where the higher subject has the role of Experiencer and the lower one the role of Benefactive, exemplified below.

(16) I saw at Florence two books that I should now be very *glad* to have…
(Walpole, *Letters 1735-48,* 1735-48)

Of this, there are 2 tokens in the data, with the marginal percentage of 2.8 out of all the *to*-infinitive complements. *Glad* in sentences of this type take sense 1.

The third most frequent is the type with an Experiencer as a higher subject and Theme as the lower, see (17) below for an illustration.

(17) I should be *glad*, said Yorick, to be made to comprehend this matter.
(Sterne, *Life and Opinions of Tristram Shandy,* 1759-67)

The quality of the role Theme is often acquired with a passive sentence, as 3 out of the 5 tokens with the role in a lower subject had a passive in the lower clause. These, too, have sense 1.

Slightly more than half of the tokens (39 tokens, 54.9 % of the *to*-infinitives) with the *to*-infinitive complement have Experiencer in both the higher and lower clause, which are readily interpreted as having sense 1, as illustrated in (18):

(18) I should be *glad* to hear half a dozen women of fashion say, 'Ou est donc le petit Stanhope? due ne vient-il?' (Chesterfield, *Letters to His Son On The Art...,* 1746-71)

The three roles discussed above form the group in which the subject is on a rather passive role. Even though in the role of Experiencer the subject is the perceiver and not the perceived, the roles do not carry an agentive, active connotation.

Conversely, the second group does just that. It only has sentences in which the subject of the lower clause takes the semantic role Agent, illustrated below.

(19) …Madame de L- would be *glad* to discharge her obligation.
(Sterne, *A Sentimental Journey through France and Italy,* 1768)

There are 28 complement tokens like this in the data, which account for 39.4 per cent of the *to*-infinitives. With the other semantic roles in the lower clause, the sense is invariably that of sense 1, and has the idea of someone being happy about the occurrence of something. With the Agent role in the lower clause, there is variation in the sense. The second sense, "to be willing and eager to do something (usually for someone else)" is more readily found in these sentences. The difficulty in interpreting the sense comes from the element in parenthesis in the explanation above, namely if sense 2 requires the sense of a favor, not simply the idea of doing something for oneself. In the analysis, this is assumed not to be the case so that sentences with sense 2 carry the idea of being eager to *do* something, although not necessarily for someone else's benefit. There are 25 tokens with this agentive sense, as in (20):

(20) …and people, instead of laughing at you, will be *glad* to instruct you.
(Chesterfield, *Letters to His Son on the Art...,* 1746-71)

In fact, only 3 tokens with the Agent role in the lower subject have sense 1 rather than sense 2. One of them has sense 1 due to the negative, past conditional as observed in (21):

(21) …and Louisa thought it so pleasant, that she would have been *glad* not
to have removed for some time longer. (Haywood, *The Fortunate Foundlings*, 1744)

The other two are borderline cases between senses 1 and 2 because of the verb *see*. As was discussed in

the section on the *of* + V -*ing* construction, in addition to the more common sense glossed in the *OED*

in the following way:

1.a. trans. To perceive (light, coulour, external objects and their movements) with the eyes, or
by the sense of which the eye is the specific organ,

there is a sense not relating to sensory activity, but agentive actions, as in the following two in the

OED:

12.a. To be in the company of, *to meet and converse with (a person).*
12.c. To receive as a visitor; *to admit to an interview.*

Without larger context, it is complicated to assign a correct sense to the following to examples in the
data:

(22) I must not let her know I am so *glad* to see this dear blessed John, to
be sure! (Richardson, *Pamela,* 1740)

(23) Otherwise I should be *glad* to see the poor gentleman; for, indeed, I
think him a good man… (Richardson, *Pamela,* 1740)

In both, the verb *see* could be interpreted as *having* someone in one's company (after a while), which

has the first sense, or to *admit* to a meeting, which is the second sense.

It seems relatively clear-cut, however, that what sense *glad* is assigned is closely related to the

subject in the lower clause in the case of *to*-infinitives. The subject in the sentences has the qualities

+animate and +human without an exception, and in 60 tokens, or 84.5 per cent, the subject is a personal

pronoun.

5.2.3 *That*-clause

That-clause is the second most common complement type in this part of the corpus with 29.8 per cent

of the tokens studied being of that type. However, *that*-clauses that are introduced by *that* are in the

minority, as only 29.1 per cent of the *that*-clauses had the explicit form in them. In the following, the

proportions and features of *that*-clauses are studied in two groups: *that*-clauses introduced by *that*, and *that*-clauses where *that* is omitted.

5.2.3.1 *That*-clause introduced by *that*

Of all the tokens with a *that*-clause complement, less than a third, or 15 tokens, has the explicit form of *that*. Interestingly, the reason for the explicit form does not seem to lie on extractions, as none of the 15 tokens had a word order deviating from the regular SVO order. What could cause the involvement of *that* may be a complexity factor, namely a discontinuity in the form of insertions, as 4 out of the 15 tokens, or 26.7 per cent of them, had an insertion in them. These insertions vary from one word between the word *glad* and the complement clause, as in (24):

> (24) I am *glad*, however, that no bone is broken or dislocated… (Chesterfield, *Letters to His Son,* 1746-71)

to longer insertions as in (25) where there is a postmodifying phrase and an addressing term between the main clause and the *that*-clause:

> (25) …and Mr. Williams said, I am *glad* at my heart, madam, that I was
> beforehand in my declarations to you… (Richardson, *Pamela,* 1740).

While the insertions do not seem to have a big role in the complexity of the sentence, there may be another tendency that adds complexity, that is, the subject of each clause. The data suggests that cognitive complexity increases when the subject of a clause changes within a sentence, and therefore triggers the use of the more explicit form, as 14 out of the 15 tokens (93.3 %) had a different subject in the main clause and the *that*-clause. In all 15 the subject of the higher clause was *I* and took the semantic role of Experiencer. In the lower clause, the subject could be +animate or -animate, but the most frequent subject in the lower clause was *you* with 8 tokens. A -animate lower subject and a lower clause with *you* as a subject are illustrated below in (26) and (27), respectively, with the lower subject underlined.

(26) I was very *glad*, that <u>the next part</u> was the prayer, and kneeling…"
(Richardson, *Pamela*, 1740)
(27) I am *glad* that <u>you</u> have resolved, and I congratulate you both.
(Reeve, *The Old English Baron*, 1777)

The sense of the word was systematically sense 1, "to be happy and pleased about something."

5.2.3.2 *That*-clause with *that* omitted

Among the *that*-clauses, the omission of *that* was more frequent than having it in the explicit form, as in 68.8 per cent of all *that*-clauses the introducing *that* was omitted. As was hypothesized in the previous section, the relation of the subjects in the main and *that*-clauses may have an effect on whether or not the lower clause is introduced by the explicit form *that*. However, it does not seem to be a significant factor when we take a closer look into the complements where *that* has been omitted, as only 5 tokens actually have the same subject in both the main and the *that*-clause. That means that even though 84.8 per cent of the Ø *that*-clauses have a different subject in the clauses, the introducing *that* is still omitted, and the relation of the subjects in the clauses does not have a strong influence in determining whether or not to omit the complementizer.

A more important role seems to lie on the complexity of the main clause because insertions in them are significantly less frequent in clauses where *that* was omitted. In fact, there was an insertion in only 1 token where *that* was omitted, which means that 97 % of the Ø *that* tokens were free of any complexity factors. Moreover, the insertion was an addressing term between the higher verb and the *that*-clause. Vosberg (2003b, 210) has stated that while single-word insertions can be considered complexity factors, in reality they are more easily processed than longer insertions, which seems plausible when looking at the data.

(28) "I am <u>very</u> *glad*, sir, you have chosen our regiment to be a volunteer in.…"
(Fielding, *Tom Jones,* 1749)

There is also one instance where the omission of *that* is probably due to the *horror aequi* principle as there are two coordinated *that*-clauses in the sentence, even though it was earlier stated that the principle may not apply when the identical constructions are coordinated.

> (29) I am *glad* you have received, and that you like the diamond buckles.
> (Chesterfield, Letters to His Son on the Art…, 1746-71)

The semantic role of the subject with *glad* offers no surprises, as the subject takes the role of Experiencer without an exception in this subtype as well as in the previous one. The most common subject with this complement type is *I*, with a few exceptions, but the subject has nonetheless +human quality, as exemplified in (30), with the subject underlined:

> (30) <u>The countess-mother</u> was *glad* my lord was not there-he was never
> satisfied with the eyes… (Walpole, *Letters 1735-48*, 1735-48)

5.2.4 Ø Complement

As was discussed in the theory part of the thesis, a complement may be obligatory or optional, and in the case of *glad*, it can be the latter. While it is more common for the adjective to take a complement, it does appear without one as well. In the first part of the CLMETEV, there were 9 instances with a zero complement, or in other words, no complement. This means that one in 20 tokens has no complement.

The subject in all of these takes the semantic role of Experiencer. The subject in each instance had the qualities +animate and +human, and was a personal pronoun in 55.5 per cent.

In the data, there is a token with a zero complement that raises questions regarding the sense of the adjective:

> (31) 'The humble shall hear thereof, and be *glad*.' (Doddridge, *The Life
> of Col. James Gardiner*, 1750)

The subject, *the humble,* takes the semantic role of Experiencer, but the sense assigned to *glad* here is debatable. Of the senses used in this thesis, the first one ("*happy and pleased about something*") would be best suited in the above, but none of the dictionary entries for such a sense really corresponds with

it. In the *OED*, however, there is a sense that is marked archaic, that would match this, which we have noted as sense 3 in the summary of the dictionary section:

2a. Of persons: joyful, happy (arch.)

Moreover, the complementation pattern given for this particular sense is zero complement. Considering the archaic, rather biblical quality of the sentence, and the fact that it is quoted in the work, it is fair to assume that in addition to the two senses found in the data this far, *glad* also occurs in this archaic sense, albeit rarely. In the other 8 tokens, *glad* occurred in the first sense, "to be happy and pleased about something."

With zero complements, it is not uncommon for there to be an adjunct in the form of a *wh-*clause, and this was the case in 3 tokens, which accounts for 33.3 per cent of the instances without a complement. We can use Grebe's extraction test to resolve whether the *wh*-clause changes the meaning of the verb phrase and, consequently, is a complement. Since we only have three cases with a *wh-*clause, we can here apply the test on all of them. First, see the original sentence in (32).

(32) We were always *glad*, said Lady Darnford, when he was here…
(Richardson, Pamela, 1740)

When the extraction test is applied, what follows is illustrated in (32')

(32') We were always glad, said Lady Darnford, ~~when he was here~~…

While the extracted sentence remains grammatical, there is a change in meaning. Compare senses 1 and 3 used in the analysis of this thesis:

1. To be happy and pleased about an event or state of affairs.
3. To be joyous in character (arch.)

This would suggest that the *wh*-clause is indeed closely related to the verb. The same is true for the second token, in (33) below:

(33) …I am sorry for their pain, and *glad* when they are pleased, and would be glad to do anything to oblige them. (Fielding, *The Governess*, 1749)

with the extraction test applied in (33').

> (33') I am sorry for their pain, and *glad* ~~when they are pleased~~, and would be glad to do anything to oblige them.

The repeating of *glad* in a different sense (sense 2) further emphasizes the changed meaning in the above. In the third token, there is also an extraction in the form of topicalization, as seen in (34):

> (34) And so they run on for half an hour more in my praises, as I was told; and *glad* was I, when I got out of the hearing of them. (Richardson, *Pamela,* 1740)

and similarly, with the *wh*-clause extracted:

> (34') …and *glad* was I, ~~when I got out of the hearing of them~~.

It can be argued, though, that the omission of the *wh*-clause changes the meaning because it is, not a complement, but an essential semantic part in the story in itself. And truly, a *wh*-clause is not a prototypical complement, as it can occur freely in terms of placement within the sentence or the licensing adjective as exemplified below:

> (35) I was glad when he left.
> (36) When he left, I was glad.
> (37) When he left, I was surprised.
> (38) I was sad when he left.

In spite of the relatively complement-like nature of *wh*-clauses, the lack of licensing and free mobility support the established idea that a *wh*-clause is not in fact a complement, but an adjunct, and therefore always optional.

But to look into this further, Cristiano Broccias (2010, 585) has argued that some *as*-clauses are understood as objects of perception as regards the verb *watch*, or complements of it, rather than being primarily temporal clauses, or adjuncts. In addition to an intonation break, when an *as*-clause functions as an adjunct, it can be moved to the front of a sentence, which he demonstrates with these two examples (ibid.):

> (39) The rector leant against the dresser and watched her as she fetched a vase and arranged the freesias. (ASE 1937)

(40) As she fetched a vase and arranged the freesias, the rector
watched her.

While (39) can be analyzed as either a complement (as an object of perception) or an adjunct (temporal clause), (40) allows only a reading where the *as*-clause is a temporal adjunct. Although Haspelmath's (2008, 5) economy principle establishes that the syntactically simplest pattern is the most frequent, this is only supported by the scarce occurrence of *wh*-clauses with *glad*. That their semantic bond is perhaps weaker than that of a prototypical complement is supported by Givón's (2001, 40) principle on iconicity (italics in the original):

The stronger the *semantic bond* between the two events, the more extensive will be the *syntactic integration* of the two clauses into a single though complex clause.

This, as Broccias (2010, 599) suggests, is partly correct since *as*-clauses (and *when*-clauses in this case) can also be used as adjuncts. However, he also notices that the differences between the *as*-clause complements and nonfinite clause complements appear to be minimal (ibid.).

This supports the idea that, similarly to the *as*-clause with a verb of perception, *watch*, the *when*-clause with *glad* may in fact be understood as a complement, especially when considering the changed meaning attested above.

5.2.5 Review of Part 1 of the CLMETEV

In the first part of the CLMETEV there were six different complement types, the majority of which *to*-infinitives. The *to*-infinitives can be roughly divided into two groups based on the agency of the lower clause, and the sense assigned to *glad* seems to follow this same division with almost all of the agentive ones taking sense 2, which emphasizes doing. The other groups, similarly to the other complement types, have sense 1, which relies on the perceived happiness of the subject as caused by an event or a thing. It was noted, however, that also an *–ing* form complement allows for sense 2 in addition to sense 1, as one instance with the *of* + V *–ing* construction had the agentive sense.

That-clauses account for a bit under a third of the tokens, with *that* omitted in two thirds of them. This seems to be because of the Complexity principle, as ca. 27 per cent of the tokens with the explicit form had a complexity factor, an insertion. Conversely, extractions or the relation between the subjects in the clauses did not seem to affect this tendency significantly. Non-sentential complements were in the minority in the data, as *of* + NP complements accounted for less than 20 per cent of the tokens. In 5.6 per cent *glad* did not take any complement, but was accompanied by a *wh*-clause adjunct in third of them. During the period complements with –*ing* forms were not common, as they formed less than 2 per cent of the material in a prepositional phrase headed by *of*.

5.3 *Glad* in Part 2 of the CLMETEV

The second part of the corpus covers the period 1780–1850, with circa 5.7 million words in 64 texts. There are 889 tokens of the adjective *glad* in the second part. For the purposes of this thesis, a random sample of 25 per cent was taken, which means there were 222 tokens to be investigated.

In the data, there are 13 instances where *glad* is used attributively as a modifier in a noun phrase.

> (1) Like the two leaders of the opposite parties, Pitt and Fox,
> he hailed with *glad* voice the dawn of French liberty. (Cary, *Lives of the English Poets,* 1846*)*

In cases where it is not used predicatively, it cannot take complements, and is therefore irrelevant to the current study. Among the attributive use, curiously, there was a phrasal construction mentioned in the dictionary section that occurred four times, and is exemplified below:

> (2) …missionaries from Great Britain are at this hour employed in spreading the *glad* tidings of the Gospel far and wide among heathen nations. (Southey, *Sir Thomas More*, 1829)

There was also one instance where *glad* is used as a verb with an NP complement:

> (3) Roll, roll thy hoop, and twirl thy tops, And buy, to *glad* thy smiling chops, Crisp parliament with lollypops, And fingers of the Lady. (Smith J. & Smith H., *Rejected Addresses*, 1812)

But since the topic of this thesis is the complementation patterns of the adjective *glad*, these uses will

be disregarded. That leaves us with 208 relevant matches in the data.

Illustration	Complementation pattern	Total (% of all)	Normalized frequency (per million words)
I was *glad* to escape from the uneasiness of my reflections. (Godwin, *The adventures of Caleb Williams*, 1794)	*To*-infinitive	125 (56.3%)	87.4
Mary was *glad* she was going out of the room. (Gaskell, *Mary Barton*, 1848)	T*hat*-clause of which Ø *that*-clause	36 (17.2%) 26 (11.7%)	25.2 18.2
We told him that we had not dined, and should be *glad* of some substantial refreshment. (Borrow, *Bible in Spain,* 1842)	*Of* + NP	22 (9.9%)	15.4
We should be grateful, we should be *glad*. (Disraeli, *Venetia*, 1837)	Ø-complement	21 (10.0%)	14.7
This lad was next the ladder, at which I was extremely *glad*, for, had he not been there, the world should not have induced me to wait the return of these two men. (Hogg, *Private Memoirs and Confessions of a Justified Sinner*, 1824)	*At* + NP	2 (1.0%)	1.4
My fellow lodger came home in the evening, and was *glad* at my coming. (Hogg, *Private Memoirs and Confessions of a Justified Sinner*, 1824)	*At* + *poss ing*	2 (1.0%)	1.4
Mrs. Phillips was very *glad* for his compliance, but could not wait for his reason. (Austen, *Pride and Prejudice*, 1813)	*For* + NP	1 (0.5%)	0.7
Total		209 (100.0 %)	146.1

Table 9. The complementation patterns in CLMETEV2 in a descending order by frequency

5.3.1 *For* + NP

The complementation pattern *for* + NP is mentioned in the *OED online* with the sense of being "joyful on account of, delighted or pleased by (an event, a state of things)," which is in accordance with the example found in the data. They also mention in the *OED* that the use of *for* as a head of a complement is archaic, and that claim seems accurate in the light that among the 208 tokens researched, there was only one example of the *for* + NP pattern despite the fact that the examples are from the 18th and 19th century literature. The semantic role of the subject is an Experiencer, see (4):

> (4) Mrs. Phillips was very *glad* for his compliance, but could not
> wait for his reason. (Austen, *Pride and Prejudice*, 1813)

5.3.2 *At* + NP

There were four examples of prepositional phrase complements headed by *at* found in the data with the adjective *glad*. Two of them were *at* + NP. All the tokens with *at* fall under sense 1 and have a semantic role of Experiencer for the subject.

> (5) …she was rather sorry than *glad* at the delay of an explanation …
> (Burney, *Cecilia,* 1782)

5.3.2.1 *At* + Poss *-ing*

Of the four tokens with *at*, half were ones where there was a genitive followed by an *–ing* form of a verb.

> (6) My fellow lodger came home in the evening, and was *glad* at my coming.
> (Hogg, *Private Memoirs and confessions of a justified sinner,* 1824)

In the second token with the construction, it was not a pronoun that was in the genitive, however, but a regular NP, (the head of the construction under scrutiny italicized):

(7) I am tolerably glad to hear that Edward's income is so good a one - as *glad* as I can be at anybody's being rich except you and me… (Austen, *Letters to Her Sister,* 1796-1817)

In quite the common manner, in both tokens the subject in the clause has the role of Experiencer and the adjective takes sense 1.

5.3.3 *Of* + NP

Of being perhaps one of the most prototypical prepositions in prepositional phrase complements for *glad*, there were 22 instances of the *of* + NP pattern in the data, and no examples of the *of* + V *-ing* pattern that is mentioned under the same sense as the previous in the *OED*. The instances with the pattern follow sense 1, as predicted by the illustration given in the dictionary, and it is illustrated here with a token from the data:

(8) "I can't help waking," replied William, "and I shall, therefore, be up with you." "Very well, I am always *glad* of your company." (Marryat, *Masterman Ready,* 1792)

As is common, the most frequent semantic role of the subject was Experiencer. In this set, there were also two tokens with a Raising construction, as the verb in the matrix clause was *seem*, illustrated in (9):

(9) "Well, but," said Cecilia, somewhat disappointed, "you don't seem *glad* of this?" (Burney, *Cecilia 1-2,* 1782)

5.3.4 *To*-infinitive

Based on the data, the *to*-infinitive is the most common complement for *glad* with over 50 per cent of all the tokens. In the case of *to*-infinitives, the *horror aequi* principle is relevant when analyzing the data. The *horror aequi* principle is the tendency to avoid grammatical elements or structures that are formally identical or adjacent or are close to identical. In the data, no such structures are found, and overall, it seems uncommon in the adjective complementation to have the copular verb in the infinitive

form. But there are in fact two tokens in the data where the copular verb is in the infinitive, both of which are with an *of* + NP complement:

> (10) You will have no competitor; and, if you had, you ought
> to be *glad* of it. (Byron, *Letters 1810-1813*, 1810-3)

This means that, in reality, a copular infinitive can occur with *glad*, albeit it is unlikely. It is then possible that the copular *to*-infinitive with the similarly structured complement is avoided due to the *horror aequi* principle.

An insertion, a factor in delaying the choice of a gerundial complement over the infinitive, was present in 9 tokens, or 7.2 per cent of the *to*-infinitives. 6 of them had the word *enough* as the intervening material between *glad* and the non-finite clause, and overall, the longest insertions were two words, which does not complicate the cognitive processing significantly.

There are four tokens where there is an extraction over clause boundaries, or where the Extraction principle is applicable. In three, the extraction is a relativization, as exemplified in (11):

> (11) …gave him a bony hand, and told him he was glad to see him – which Paul would have
> been very *glad* to have told him, if he could have done so with the least sincerity. (Dickens,
> *Dombey and Son,* 1848)

and in one, the object of the lower clause is topicalized over clause boundaries:

> (12) Such a woman as I am sure Fanny will be *glad* to know. (Austen, *Sense and
> Sensibility,* 1811)

Most of the sentences, or 87 tokens (69.9 %), with a *to*-infinitive complement fall under sense 1, such as:

> (13) "I am *glad* to hear it," cried he, with a vacant smile. (Burney, *Cecilia 1–2,* 1782)

All of the tokens have an Experiencer role in the higher subject. The vast majority, 42 tokens or 48.3 per cent of them, also had the Experiencer role in the lower clause (underlining in the original):

> (14) Instead of tiring yourself with <u>my</u> concerns, I should be *glad* to hear <u>your</u> plans of
> retirement. (Byron, *Letters 1810-1813,* 1810-3)

22 tokens with sense 1, 25.3 per cent, had an Agent role in the lower clause, as in (15):

> (15) "I'm *glad* to meet you. Don't be in haste to enter, for I have an explanation to ask and obtain." (Brontë, *Wuthering Heights,* 1847)

Close to this, the semantic role Theme was found in 21 tokens (24.1 %) in the lower clause.

> (16) The few shillings which he had in his pocket supplied him with food for a few days. At last he was *glad* to be employed by one of the peasants who came to Naples to load their asses with manure out of the streets… (Edgeworth, *The Parent's Assistant,* 1796-1801)

And two of the tokens, 2.3 per cent, had a Benefactive role in the lower clause (the relevant instance of

glad italicized in the example).

> (17) Tommy was glad the lecture was over, and more *glad* to get his turtle-soup… (Marryat, *Masterman Ready,* 1841)

There are 38 cases, 30.4 per cent of the *to*-infinitive complements, that take sense 2, to be

"happy, delighted, pleased *to* (do, be, etc.)," or what in *Merriam-Webster* is described as "very

willing" to do something:

> (18) I should have been *glad* to do so; but the claims made for him,
> even by himself, will not allow it. (Hunt, *Stories from the Italian Poets,* 1846)

> (19) By tea-time, however, the dose had been enough, and Mr. Bennet
> was *glad* to take his guest into the drawing-room again, and, when tea was over,
> glad to invite him to read aloud… (Austen, *Pride and Prejudice,* 1813)

Here, the variation in semantic roles is smaller, as all the tokens had the semantic role Agent in the

lower subject. In the higher clause, all of them also had an Experiencer role as was the case with sense

1. Overall, the distribution between the two senses seems in accordance with earlier findings.

5.3.5 *That*-clause

There were altogether 36 instances of *that*-clauses as complements in the data. 10 of them are the

explicit form where *that* is written out. According to the Complexity principle, sentences with this

more explicit structure should be present in environments that are cognitively more complex, such as

passive constructions or constructions with lengthy arguments, and conversely the implicit structure

should be found in cognitively less weighty environments. The sense of the adjective is sense 1 and all

the tokens have a semantic role of Experiencer.

That-clauses also display the adjective's affection to pronouns as only two tokens had a subject

other than a pronoun, and the majority of tokens with 86.1 per cent had *I* as the subject.

5.3.5.1 *That*-clause introduced by *that*

In the data there were 10 tokens with the explicit form. Of these, three tokens (30 per cent) have a

discontinuous structure where there is an insertion between *glad* and the *that*-clause.

> (20) For I was *glad*, at the moment, that I had vexed him.
> (Brontë, *The Tenant of Wildfell Hall,* 1848)

There was a sentence with a lengthy argument

> (21) I am very *glad* that the idea of returning with Frank occurred
> to me. (Austen, *Letters to her Sister,* 1796-1817)

where the subject within the *that*-clause takes the cognitively complex form of an *of*-genitive.

Coordination may also be a factor in explaining the presence of *that* as in (22) where there are

coordinated *that*-clause complements:

> (22) He was *glad* that the young men should pay her respect,
> and that others should admire her. (Thackeray, *Vanity Fair,* 1847-8)

It is also possible that several of these complexity factors co-occur, as in

> (23) …and *glad* both you and I must be that I did not, for, in that case, their plea had been
> plausible. (Byron, *Letters 1810-1813,* 1810-3)

where there is an extraction, a lengthy subject in the higher clause and a negation in the *that*-clause.

Different complexity factors considered, half of the tokens had complexity in them that could explain

the explicit form.

Another explanatory factor for these explicit forms may be the relation of the higher and lower

subjects, as they were different in 80 per cent of the tokens.

5.3.5.2 *That*-clause with *that* omitted

The majority of the *that*-clauses, 26 examples or approximately 70 % of all *that*-clauses, were of the

implicit nature, where the complementizer *that* is not explicitly spelled out. Sentences with these less

explicit constructions should then, in reference to the Complexity principle, be less cognitively

complex and the arguments in them should be rather short. The analysis shows that this, in fact, is the

case as none of the tokens had a complexity factor in them. The complements as well as other

arguments are short, a case in point below:

> (24) I am *glad* you are come, for there is such fun here! (Austen, *Pride
> and Prejudice,* 1813)

Curiously, the phrase "glad you are come" was found in three of the examples. The sentences with the

zero *that*-clause are all in present, past, and present perfect tense, with one case of the future

implication with the form *be + going to*. Perhaps noteworthy is also the fact that only seven tokens out

of the 26, or approximately 27 per cent, contain a negation.

> (25) "I'm glad old John didn't forget me," he thought. (Thackeray,
> *Vanity Fair,* 1847-8)

The hypothesis about the relation of the subjects in the sentence does not seem to play a major role

with implicit *that*-clauses as the vast majority, 92.3 per cent, of the tokens had a different subject in the

main and *that*-clause.

However, the *horror aequi* principle may be a factor in omitting *that* in four cases, two of which

even had a modifier inserted. Even when the second *that* is not a coordinated complementizer, but a

demonstrative pronoun or a demonstrative adjective, two of both, its presence may have the effect of

omitting the complementizer *that*, especially in close proximities such as exemplified in (25) where the

word *that* is a demonstrative pronoun:

> (26) "They thought of me, once, for Mortimer," continued Lady Honoria, "but
> I'm vastly *glad* that's over, for I never should have survived being shut up in this place; it's much
> fitter for Euphrasia (Burney, *Cecilia, 1-2*, 1782)

5.3.6 Ø Complement

In the data there were 20 instances where the adjective *glad* took no complement. The clearest case of this is as exemplified below:

> (27) Now let us think of her recovery. She is no longer in danger. We should be grateful, we should be *glad*. (Disraeli, *Venetia,* 1837)

As was the case with the zero complement construction in the first part, making the distinction between an adjunct and a complement is not straightforward here either. In sentences where the adjective licenses no complement, there is a recurring pattern of *wh*-clauses, *when*-clauses in particular, which are found in 31.6 per cent of the tokens. These *when*-clauses are complement-like by nature, for they often have the same subject as in the main clause (cf. "I was glad to learn"):

> (28) I was *glad* when I learnt that Milicent was so near us…
> (Brontë, *The Tenant of Wildfell Hall,* 1848)

But *when*-clause is not a prototypical complement of the adjective *glad* either, and much like adjuncts, can occur freely with different adjectives (examples mine).

> (29)   a. I was glad when I saw her leave.
>   b. I was sad when I saw her leave.
>   c. I was aghast when I saw her leave.

All of the examples are grammatical and semantically acceptable despite the changed adjective so it seems there is no such restriction to the *when*-clause as there is with complements.

The *do so* test introduced in section 3.2 is not applicable to adjectival complementation as such, but to make it more applicable to the topic, I have composed a *be so* –test to make appropriate comparisons (examples mine):

> (30)   a. I was *glad* when my friend arrived, but
>   b. my friend was so when he left.

According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 219-20), all the internal complements of the verb must be embraced by the *do so* construction, or by the modified *be so* construction in this case. Since another *when*-clause can follow the *be so* construction in (30)b. without making it ungrammatical, it can be argued that the *when*-clause is not, then, an internal complement but rather an adjunct. This approach is tentative at best, but can be used as a guideline in making the distinction between complements and adjuncts when used together with the other tests. Take example (31) from the data:

> (31) "I am tired of seeing nothing but the stems of cocoa-nut trees, and shall be *glad* when we are through the wood." (Marryat, *Masterman Ready,* 1841)

If we apply Helbig and Schenkel's elimination test, what follows is (31'):

> (31') I am tired of seeing nothing but the stems of cocoa-nut trees, and shall be *glad*.

The result is grammatical, which supports the idea that the *wh*-clause is an adjunct. However, based on Grebe's extraction method, when extracting the element, here the *wh*-clause, changes the sense of the predicate, it is likely a complement. In (31) *glad* has sense 1, "to be happy and pleased about an event or state of affairs," while in (31') it can be interpreted as having sense 3. With all this in mind, it will suffice to say that *wh*-clause is on the gray area on this matter, yet should be considered more of an adjunct than a complement.

In all tokens with no complement, the adjective takes sense 1. The semantic role of the subject in the clause is for the most part Experiencer with one exception. In (32) below, the role of the subject is in fact Theme:

> (32) …and everything lighted by its rays looked gay, *glad*, and blessed.
> (Borrow, *Bible in Spain*, 1842)

The reason for this is that the subject of *glad* is –animate and incapable of cognition that is required for an entity to feel or perceive.

5.3.7. Review of Part 2 of the CLMETEV

Although the adjective *glad* is not often used attributively anymore, which is recognized in most of the dictionaries as well, there are some cases, often set phrases, where it still occurs in a position where it modifies the noun in a noun phrase. Interestingly, *glad* can also be used verbally. Most often *glad* is, however, used predicatively in this period as well, with five different complementation patterns or with no complement.

The most common complement for the adjective *glad* in the British literature from 1780 to 1850 according to the data is the *to*-infitinive. As for the *horror aequi* principle, it has been especially designed to suit the need of analyzing verbal complementation and therefore seems less suitable for the analysis of adjectival complementation, but there may be some applicability to it with the *to*-infinitives. Because of the types of sentences in the data, there is no close proximity between similar or formally identical structures here, which may result from the fact that the principle is in fact being applied. The *to*-infinitive is the only complement type that allows for sense 2 in the data, and this sense occurs in less than a third of the tokens of this type.

That-clauses are the second most common complement, the majority of which are of the implicit type where *that* is not spelled out. In this respect, the Complexity principle seems to apply, and the sentences with zero *that*-clause are cognitively less complex than their more explicit counterparts, i.e. they abide by the canonical sentence structure and do not contain discontinuous structures and the arguments in them are relatively short.

The *of* + NP construction is among the most common patterns, with approximately every tenth sentence containing it. The typical NP in this construction is very short, either the pronoun *it* or a simple noun phrase with a determiner and a noun.

As mentioned in the *OED*, *glad* also licences *at* + NP and *for* + NP, but these were relatively rare in the data researched. Additionally, two tokens with an *at* + Poss *–ing* pattern were found. With

the *for* + NP construction the small frequency was somewhat expected because according to the *OED* the construction is now archaic. Poutsma also listed a construction *for* + (pro)noun + *to* + inf., which did not occur in the data once.

The question regarding *wh*-clauses and their role with *glad* arose in this part of the data as well as in the first one. There was one type in specific that brought this problem about, namely *when*-clauses. They are not a typical complement for the adjective, but making a black and white distinction proved problematic especially when considering the closeness of association. The *do so* test, as it were, is not fully applicable with adjective complementation either, but if modified into a so-called *be so* test, it can be used as a tentative tool in making the distinction between adjuncts and complements. The *be so* test together with the other tests supports the analysis that *when*-clauses in this context are, indeed, adjuncts.

In conclusion, the patterns identified in the dictionary entries were in accordance with the data, and the senses listed co-occurred with the patterns accordingly.

5.4 *Glad* in Part 3 of the CLMETEV

The third part presents the largest in the corpus with 80 texts and approximately 6.3 million words, and

covers the years from 1850 to 1920. In this part there were altogether 209 tokens to be studied, which

was a 25 per cent reproducible random sample out of all 838 tokens in the third part of the corpus.

There were 8 irrelevant tokens where *glad* has an attributive use and does not therefore license

complements. An example of such a use is below illustrated below:

(1) …a silver sword hung down beside him, and his beardless face and
beauty in it made it radiant as a *glad* spring day. (Blackwood, *The Extra Day,* 1915)

When these are discarded from the data, we have 201 relevant tokens for our study of

complementation. The distribution of the complement types in the data is shown in the table below.

Illustration	Complement pattern	Number of tokens (% of all relevant)	Normalized frequency (per million words)
"I'm *glad* to see you so happy, Lupin." (Grossmith, *The Diary of a Nodoby,* 1894)	*To*-infinitive	95 (47.3 %)	60.8

I am *glad* that such people should call Handel a thieving plagiarist. (Butler, *Notebooks,* 1912)	*That*-clauses
	
	    Of which Ø-*that*
		52 (25.9 %)
		
		    40 (20.0 %)
			33.3
			
			    25.6

She tried to be *glad*, and did not succeed. (Bennett, *The Old Wives' Tale*, 1908)	Ø complement	36 (17.9 %)	23.0
"Yes, we're always *glad* of a short story, if it's good." (Gissing, *New Grub Street,* 1891)	*Of* + NP	16 (8.0 %)	10.2
…and you know I can't help being proud and *glad* of belonging to him still… (Yonge, *The Clever Woman of the Family,* 1865)	*Of* + V -*ing*	1 (0.5 %)	0.6
I am so very *glad* about it, Henry dear…	*About* + NP	1 (0.5 %)	0.6

(Forster, *Howards End,* 1910)			
Total		201 (100.0 %)	128.6

Table 10. Complement types in Part 3 of the CLMETEV in a descending order by frequency

5.4.1 *About* + NP

The non-sentential prepositional complement *about* + NP is a newcomer in the third part of the

CLMETEV and only occurs once in the data making its share less than a half per cent of all the

relevant tokens. The *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* and the *Collins Cobuild Dictionary* give

this pattern, which hints at it being a relatively recent addition to the complements that *glad* licenses. In

fact, the single example of this pattern in the data is from the beginning of the 20th century.

> (2) Since I had to jump out of the motor, I'm thankful I lighted on my left
> hand. I am so very *glad* about it, Henry dear…. (Forster, *Howards End,* 1910).

Quite expectedly, the subject of the clause has the role of Experiencer and *glad* takes sense 1, of

someone being happy about something.

5.4.2 *Of* + NP

With the normalized frequency of 10.2, the non-sentential complement *of* + NP is not among the most

common ones in this part of the corpus, but still the most common prepositional complement. This

group seems pretty straightforward in their sentence structure, as none has a complexity factor in them.

There were no extractions either. In all examples the semantic role of the higher subject was an

Experiencer and *glad* took sense 1. All but one had a personal pronoun as a subject, the only exception

being one illustrated in (3):

> (3) …and the Scotch Whigs were *glad* of the change. (Yonge, *Young Folk's
> History of England,* 1873)

Nevertheless, all the subjects had the semantic qualities +animate and +human, while the opposite was true for the qualities of the NP in the complement. In the data there was one instance with the less common feature where the higher verb is in the *–ing* form, as in (4):

(4) 'You will do nothing of the sort,' I answered very shortly, being only too *glad* of a cause for having her in my arms again. (Blackmore, *Lorna Doone,* 1869)

There was also another instance that seems to occur especially with *to*-infinitives, where the subject is not repeated and the copula of *glad* is omitted, and can be interpreted as the verb *be*, illustrated below.

(5) She dressed hastily, *glad* of the cold, glad of the effort she had to make against the stiffness of her own young bones… (Ward, *Marcella 1,* 1894)

In this set of data, *of* + NP is the largest group of non-sentential prepositional complements, as there is only one individual token with a prepositional complement that differs from this.

5.4.3 *Of* + V *-ing*

The gerundial complement does not seem to become more frequent yet towards the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century, as in the data there is only one instance of gerundial complements in this prepositional complement headed by *of*. Moreover, the choice of the *–ing* form seems to be prompted by the coordinated adjective right before *glad*. Look at example (6) below:

(6) …and you know I can't help being proud and *glad* of belonging to him still… (Yonge, *The Clever Woman of the Family,* 1865)

Interestingly, the *horror aequi* principle is not applied here although there is a near-adjacent verb also in the *–ing* form due to the *can't help* V *-ing* –construction. With the coordinated adjectives, the principle cannot well be applied so that the complement would be one that is licensed by *proud* as well as *glad*. The adjective has sense 1 and the subject in the main clause has the semantic role of Experiencer.

5.4.4 *To*-infinitive

Following the trend in the previous two parts, the *to*-infinitive is the most common complement type of *glad* in the third part of the corpus, although its share has decreased compared to the previous part. Still, almost half (47.3 %) of the complements are of this type. 6 tokens, or 6.3 per cent, had intervening material between the matrix verb and the non-finite clause. Again, *enough* was a common intervening word, occurring in half of the tokens with an insertion, as in

(7) Naturally, they were *glad* enough to slip in at first. (Forster, *Howards End,* 1910)

but the intervening material could also be due to comparison, as in (8):

(8) …she answered him quite simply that she should always remember him, always be more *glad* than she could tell to hear of his success. (Jerome, *They and I,* 1909)

The higher subject in all tokens has the semantic role of Experiencer, and in two cases there was again the Raising construction because of the verb *seem*:

(9) Everyone seemed *glad* to see me, though I had never given them particular cause to be so… (Butler, *The Way of All Flesh,* 1903)

The dispersion is greater again in the lower clause where the subject could be either an Agent, an Experiencer or a Theme. Theme was the semantic role of the lower subject in 9 tokens, or in 9.5 per cent, of the tokens, exemplified in (10):

(10) "I am so *glad* to be let up to see you at last…" (Hughes, *Tom Brown's School Days,* 1857)

In all these, the adjective has sense 1, and all of them have a +human subject, 44.4 per cent of which a personal pronoun. The Experiencer role in the lower subject occurred in 42 tokens, or 44.2 per cent of the *to*-infinitives. All of them had sense 1 of the adjective, and the subject was +human. 6 of them had an implicit subject *I* and no verb. This was because 5 of them were written as spoken utterances in quotations and one was a line in a letter. An example of a spoken quote in (11):

(11) "That's right; *glad* to see you are able to come down," said Mr. Furze. (Rutherford, *Catherine Furze,* 1893)

The largest portion within *to*-infinitives was one where the lower subject is in the Agent role, and these accounted for 46.3 per cent of the infinitives. Here again the sense of the adjective varies between 1 and 2, although sense 1 is in minority with 20.5 per cent of the instances. None of them had complexity factors, and all had a +human subject, 77.8 per cent of which a personal pronoun. With the agentive sense 2, 74.3 per cent of the subjects were personal pronouns, while all of them still +human. Within those, there were two cases where the *to*-infinitive could be due to the *horror aequi* principle as the copular verb is in the *–ing* form. Not only due to *horror aequi*, the infinitival complement is probably prompted because of the future orientation of the clause (although the actual event has occurred in the past), especially as seen in (12):

> (12) After dinner, being only too[7] *glad* to escape from a house where pestilence was rife, we went out into Chicago. (Bird, *The Englishwoman in America,* 1856)

In the data, there were four tokens with an extraction over clause boundaries, three of which had relativization, illustrated in (13):

> (13) …half awake, while consciousness begins to return after a sound night's rest in a new place which we are *glad* to be in, following upon a day of unwonted excitement and exertion. (Hughes, *Tom Browns' School Days,* 1857)

The choice of the *to*-infinitive over a gerundial complement (headed by a preposition) may thus be due to the Extraction principle, but again another explaining factor could be the future orientation of the infinitival construction that is read in the context of (14):

> (14) …in my judgment it may quickly overrun the scent, and so miss what we should be *glad* to find. (Bagehot, *The English Constitution,* 1867)

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[7] Huddleston and Pullum (2992, 585) observe that the primary sense of *too* indicates a degree higher than the maximum that allows for the action to be continued, and that in this sense an infinitival clause or a *for* phrase is licensed by *too*. The complement can be understood instead of being overt, however. In example (12) the condition of being higher than maximum in order to continue the situation is not relevant, but rather *too* can be understood in the sense, common in informal usage, of "very" (ibid.). In the data, there are only two tokens where this reading of not continuing an action is possible, one of which ambiguously so, both in the CLMETEV2. The modifier *too* or *only too* does occur with *glad* in all sections of the data except for the CLMETEV1, altogether in 12 different occasions, 66.7 % of which in clauses with a *to*-infinitive complement.

Alternatively, having the infinitival complement may also be caused by the sense of the adjective, as in

(15) where it has the second sense of "being willing to do something" that prefers a *to*-infinitive

complement.

> (15) ...an order which the latter obeyed readily enough, and was *glad* to obey, for he could not in any way subdue his fear. (Haggard, *She*, 1887)

In addition to the three extractions with relativization, there was one with topicalization.

> (16) This, of course, I was only too *glad* to do. (Haggard, *She,* 1887)

Here the adjective also has the sense relating to willingness to do something, which may be a

contributing factor in choosing that particular complement. We must also note that both (15) and (16)

are from the same text by the same author, so we must not disregard the possibility of it being an

idiosyncrasy of an individual writer.

5.4.5 *That*-clause

The *that*-clause was the second most frequent complement type for *glad* in the third part of the

CLMETEV with approximately every fourth token being of that type. There were clauses that were

introduced by the complementizer as well as those that had the implicit form. The distribution between

those was ca. 25 % and 75 % so that the implicit form was the more frequent one.

5.4.5.1 *That*-clause introduced by *that*

That-clauses introduced by *that* are in the minority, as less than a quarter of the *that*-clauses had the

explicit form in this set of data. This cannot be explained by the complexity of the sentence alone as

only two tokens (16.7 per cent) had intervening material to add to the cognitive complexity and

furthermore, the unmarked word order SVO was only broken in two, one of which an indirect question

and the other an exclamatory extraction, in (17):

> (17) How *glad* I am that you will not have, for all her miserable money, that little dwarfish granddaughter… (Blackmore, *Lorna Doone,* 1869)

Even the later occurrence of *that* as a demonstrative adjective does not trigger the *horror aequi* principle to have the initial relative *that* omitted. The only reasoning for incorporating the explicit form would be the fact that in 75 per cent of the sentences the subject in the higher clause had a different referent than the subject in the lower clause. All the higher clauses had a +human subject, 75 of them a personal pronoun, one reciprocal pronoun and two proper nouns. They all had the semantic role Experiencer with sense 1 of *glad*.

5.4.5.2 *That*-clause with *that* omitted

The vast majority of *that*-clauses had omitted the complementizer and indeed, they did not exhibit much complexity, as none of the tokens had a complexity factor. In one the unmarked word order was broken with an exclamatory extraction, seen in (18).

(18) "Oh, how *glad* I am I came!" she exclaimed, thankfully, as she rose from her seat. (Hardy, *Far from the Madding Crowd,* 1874)

The omission of *that* cannot be imperatively ruled out based on the relation between the subjects in the higher and lower clause, as there was a significant share of tokens that did not share the same subject in the clauses. While the portion was smaller than with the explicit form, still well over half of the tokens, 65 per cent of them had a different subject in the main clause and the *that*-clause. It is, however, a feature that might have a slight effect in the matter.

5.4.6 Ø Complement

With less than fifth of the complements, 36 tokens in the data are ones that take no complement. In this set of data, the instances without a complement showed more variation than in the earlier ones in terms of semantic roles. While most of the subjects still had the role of Experiencer, there were 2 tokens where this was not the case. In both, the subject took the role of Theme. The role Theme is justified

because the grammatical subject in the clause lacks the ability for itself to perceive, see (19)

(underlining in the original):

> (19) …that kind of life would be powerful and healthy beyond words; it would not only be splendidly *glad* and prosperous and unassailable in itself, but it would inevitably infect all other nations… (Carpenter, *The Healing of Nations and the Hidden Sources of their Strife,* 1915)

While the copula of *glad* is often explicit, this is not always the case, especially when the adjective

itself functions as a complement in another construction. This is somewhat common with the verb

make, with the relevant sense in the *OED* as follows:

> **34.** a. trans. With adjective complement. To cause to be, render.

An example of such a construction (with an implicit copular of *glad*) in the data is illustrated in (20):

> (20) …no steadfast love to make life *glad* and the grey days golden…
> (Linton, *The Autobiography of Christopher Kirkland,* 1885)

The verb *make* belongs to a class of verbs of the order/permit type, a classification found in Sag and

Pollard (1991, 65), a group of verbs that take the object control construction. The verb assigns thematic

roles to both its subject and object arguments, here 'steadfast love' as the subject and 'life' as the

object, with an adjective complement in the form of *glad* (Sag & Pollard 1991, 66). With this

influencing type construction, it then means that the referent of the object (*life*) is influenced by the

referent of the subject (*steadfast love*) to perform an action (or in this case, is influenced to *feel*

something). Both of these arguments get their semantic roles (an Instrument and a Theme, respectively)

from the verb *make*, but the predicate *glad* still assigns a thematic role to its subject argument. Sentence

(20) can then be illustrated with the unexpressed subject and the implicit copula of *glad* as (20'), with

co-referentiality marked in subscript:

> (20') …no steadfast love to make $life_1$ [PRO_1 be *glad*]…

So, within an Object-Control construction, we can point out the semantic role of the understood

subject. Incidentally, it is one of the two cases with the role Theme, due to the –animate quality of the

subject. The role is not dependent on the construction of the verb *make*, however, as the following

example illustrates:

> (21) …that the peculiar property of fermented liquids, in virtue of which they "make *glad* the heart of man," seems to have been known in the remotest periods of which we have any record. (Huxley, *Discourses,* 1894)

Here, through metonymy, the role of the understood subject in connection to 'the heart of man' is

Experiencer.

In all but four tokens the referent of the subject in the clause was +human, and of those 87.5 per

cent had a personal pronoun as a referent. Three of the -human subjects were discussed above, one of

them had the role of Experiencer through metonymy, and two had the role of Theme. The fourth token

with a non-human subject, in the strictest sense, is illustrated below. It does, however, take the role of

Experiencer despite its quality –cognition.

> (23) She was not glad but her body itself was *glad*; her body had an existence of its own. (Bennett, *The Old Wives' Tale,* 1908)

Carnie's (2002, 168-9) description of an Experiencer argument is one that "feels or perceives events"

and while an argument such as the above is undoubtedly incapable of cognitive functioning in itself, it

can surely be read as one that *feels*, at least in the physical sense of the word.

In all 36 instances with zero complement, *glad* has sense 1, "to be happy or pleased about

something." A *wh*-clause again was a somewhat regular adjunct when there was no complement, and

16.7 per cent of the tokens had one.

5.4.7 Review of Part 3 of the CLMETEV

In the third part of the corpus, the *to*-infinitive was still the most common complement type with almost

half of the tokens. The *to*-infinitive is the only type that lends itself to both senses of *glad*, depending

on the semantic role of the lower subject. Sentential complements as a whole account for the majority

of the complements, as *that*-clauses are the second most common complementation pattern in the data.

That-omission remains the trend as three quarters of the *that*-clauses had an omission. This, however, cannot be fully explained with the Complexity principle, as complexities were not a common feature among the clauses that exhibited the explicit form either. Rather, it is suggested that the omission may be partly due to the cognitive simplicity caused by an unchanged subject in both main and the *that*-clause.

After the sentential complements, the third most common type was the zero complement. The data suggested that semantic roles other than Experiencer are possible even for the subject in the higher clause, although this is not customary. When *glad* has no complement, there is still a tendency for an adjunct in the form of a *wh*-clause to occur, which was the case in about 17 per cent of zero complement clauses.

The major type of non-sentential, prepositional complement is the *of* + NP construction, which still displayed a notable share in the data. While the subject in these clauses invariably had a +human quality, the noun phrase in the prepositional complement conversely lacked that particular property. At the turn of the 20th century, the gerundial complement still has not substantially increased, as there was only one instance with an *-ing* form, likewise headed with the preposition *of*.

Similarly, a new type of prepositional complement was seen in the data, with the single instance of *about* + NP complement. Whether this marks the emergence of a new type or a glimpse of a rare, yet possible construction remains to be seen when we look at the last section of data with the more contemporary 20th century material.

5.5 *Glad* in the BNC

In the *BNC* data there are 4 irrelevant tokens where *glad* is used attributively to modify a noun. Compared to the attributive *glad* in the *CLMETEV*, there is more variation in the use in the BNC as each of the four instances were modifying a different noun, among these a phrase that was identified in

the *OED*, g*lad rags*, which refers to "(one's) best clothes" or "formal formal evening dress" (OED online). This phrase is exemplified below in (1).

(1) She changed out of the *glad* rags, tugged on old jeans and a sweatshirt and drove out to his house (JYB 2783)

However, after discarding the four irrelevant tokens, there are 286 relevant ones to investigate that are presented in the table below with the patterns and their frequency breakdown along with an illustration.

Illustration	Pattern	Total (% of all relevant)	Normalized frequency (pmw)
As I removed my clothes I was *glad* that the light was so poor. (ADA 1996)	*That*-clause of which Ø-that	113 (39.5 %) 87 (30.4%)	45.7 35.2
I am *glad* to be free again. (FAJ 762)	*To*-infinitive	102 (35.7 %)	41.2
How *glad* I'd been in those first nights with him. (A0U 1402)	Ø-complement	37 (12.9%)	15.0
Two weeks in a safe house and I'd be there, *glad* of familiar accents and my dull wife. (FAS 273)	*Of* + NP	26 (9.0 %)	10.5
He becomes old, and would be *glad* for the chance to see the hills around Merkadale again before he dies. (GWF 1299)	*For* + NP	5 (1.7%)	2.0
I'm so *glad* about your TV play, isn't that splendid. (APM 2492)	*About* + NP	3 (1.0%)	1.2
Total		286 (100.0 %)	115.6

Table 11. The complementation patterns in the BNC in a descending order by frequency

5.5.1 *About* + NP

In the BNC data, the *about* + NP complement has raised its share from the previous section, as there are three instances (1.0 %) with *about* + NP, as illustrated by (2):

(2) I'm so *glad* about your TV play, isn't that splendid. (APM 2492)

All of the sentences with the pattern are unmarked, short sentences where both the subject and the object are lexically and cognitively very simple. The higher subject is a +human with the semantic role of Experiencer, while the noun phrase in the complement is –human, and the adjective has sense 1.

5.5.2 *For* + NP

After a single instance at the beginning of the 19th century, the *for* + NP has reappeared in the BNC data with a manifold count, as there are five tokens with the *for* + NP complement in the data. Semantically the sentences with *for* + NP complement can be divided into two classes, one where the subject is *glad* for something they personally have or something that happens to themselves as in:

(3) He becomes old, and would be *glad* for the chance to see the hills around Merkadale again before he dies. (GWF 1299)

Because there are only two instances with the pattern, it is hard to draw any reliable conclusions, and the distribution between simple and complex objects is one to one in the current data.

In the other semantic class the subject is glad for something that someone else has or that happens to someone else as illustrated in (4):

(4) I'm *glad* for you, my lord, but I expect that as you're so rich you could have had any woman you wanted. (EVC 1517)

In the latter class, in all three instances the complementing noun phrase is simple, a personal pronoun, although grammatically or semantically there is no reason it could not be any (animate) noun phrase. This is where the prepositional complement differs from the other prepositional complements that seem to license only –human noun phrases, as they do not convey the message of being glad *on behalf of* someone.

The sense of *glad* is the first one, and the higher subject has the role of Experiencer. One of the tokens also exhibits the (spoken) tendency to omit both the verb and the subject of the clause, illustrated in (5):

(5) *Glad* for the glasses, love lustre. (A0L 1170)

5.5.3 *Of* + NP

In the data there are 26 instances of the *of* + NP complement. Personal pronoun remains a common subject in a clause with *glad* as half of the tokens had a personal pronoun subject. The feature +human with a semantic role of Experiencer was common in all the tokens, and even the use of the indefinite pronoun *one* was introduced as a generalized subject, seen in (6)

(6) One might learn to be *glad* of cows if one began… (HRL 390)

which also illustrates a new feature where the NP in the complement can have the quality +animate. Not only does the data include the animate NP, but it also has a token where the NP has a +human quality, as in (7):

(7) But she thought that she would have been *glad* of someone to talk about her new plans with, all the same. (AD1 3253)

This is a feature not found in the CLMETEV. 7 tokens also displayed the tendency to omit the verb, as in (8):

(8) The women stood in silence, *glad* of each other's presence and without the need to say as much. (AEA 119)

5.5.4 *To*-infinitive

For the first time, the *to*-infinitive has lost its position as the most frequent complementation pattern for *glad* in the latter part of the 20th century and its share has decreased significantly since the turn of the century when it accounted for nearly half the tokens. With a total of 102 tokens in the data, *to*-infinitive now occurs in a bit more than third of the instances.

All the *to*-infinitives had an Experiencer role in the higher clause. As was seen in earlier sections, a Raising construction triggered by *seem* was also present in two tokens in this set, one illustrated in (11):

(11) And they too seemed *glad* to see him. (CCM 2137)

All the tokens with the *to*-infinitive complement can again be divided into two groups based on the agentivity of the lower subject. The first group comprises tokens with a lower subject role of Experiencer, Theme and Benefactive. The least common of these were Benefactive with only two tokens.

(12) She never made any comment on the notes, seemed neither upset nor *glad* to receive them. (GUM 2805)

The second most common among these was the lower role Theme, with 9 tokens, exemplified in (13):

(13) In fact the woman was fed up with the smell that the tomcat caused about the place and was *glad* to be shot of it. (EA5 1536)

The most common of these, and most common overall, is the type with a lower subject role of Experiencer, with 51 tokens and 50 per cent of all *to*-infinitive complements, illustrated in (14):

(14) He did not look at all *glad* to see me, however. (H9U 1454)

All *to*-infinitives of this less agentive type have sense 1.

The second group among *to*-infinitives is the one in which the lower subject takes the semantic role of Agent. These formed 38.2 per cent of all *to*-infinitive complements with 39 tokens. This group again divides in two, with roughly a 40/60 share. The smaller share, 43.6 per cent has sense 1, for example (15):

(15) "I'm *glad* to say he has made a full recovery, sir." (AR3 738)

The bigger portion, 56.4 per cent, had the sense of eagerness or willingness for the subject to do something, either for oneself or for somebody else, as in (16).

(16) "I'd have been *glad* to give a wee helping hand there myself, and I'm sure
one was needed." (AB9 2516)

In both subgroups, the higher subject was +human. With sense 1, in 88.2 per cent the subject was a

personal pronoun, while with sense 2, the share of personal pronouns was somewhat lower with 59.1

per cent.

In the BNC data, there were no extractions that crossed clause boundaries, so the Extraction

principle was not relevant to this section. There were no insertions either to justify for the choice of the

infinitive complement over the gerundial.

5.5.5 *That*-clause

For the first time in the data, in the 20th century the *that*-clause complement becomes more frequent

than the *to*-infinitive. In the BNC data, there are altogether 113 *that*-clause complements including both

those introduced by (the explicit) *that* and those where *that* is omitted. The majority of *that*-clauses are

ones where *that* is implicit with 76.3 % of *that*-clauses being the implicit type, all with sense 1. The

distribution of both types and relevant factors are considered in the following two subsections.

5.5.5.1 *That*-clause introduced by *that*

26 tokens, or 23 per cent of all *that*-clauses in the BNC, are the explicit type that are introduced by the

complementizer *that*. The most common feature in common with these was discontinuity in the clause

caused by insertions as in (17).

(17) "You poor things," murmured Tommaso's mother, looking *glad* however that the
Pittagoras suffered some misfortune. (GUX 103)

The insertions can vary from those with only one word inserted to lengthier constructions such as (18).

(18) I 'm really *glad*, in a way, that you took me to that place. (BP8 636)

The Complexity principle can be seen at play here, as insertions make sentences cognitively more

complex to process, and therefore support the use of the more explicit variant, in this case the explicit

that. A complexity factor was found in 42.3 per cent of the tokens. Insertion was a trigger in 6 instances or in 23.1 per cent of the *that*-clauses introduced by *that*.

Another factor that could trigger the use of the explicit variant is the changed word order caused by interrogation, illustrated below in (19).

(19) Aren't you *glad* that we're a noble family? (GW8 164)

In the example above there is also negation present, which seems to be a factor in triggering the explicit complement type. Interrogation was a factor in two of the instances introduced by *that*, but negation was a factor in three, including (20):

(20) Jenna was *glad* that Claudine had not come. (HGD 2227)

Not only for reasons of clarity, it seems that the explicit *that* can also be used for pragmatic purposes such as emphasis, as in (21):

(21) You, in particular, would never have happened. And I'm *glad* that you did. (HGS 2823)

While this kind of usage is not very common, there was only one token of the sort in the data, it is noteworthy to mention that language is always used in a certain situational context which may skew the norms to unexpected directions.

An interesting notion in the data was quite a bold violation of the *horror aequi* principle in the following sentence:

(22) For my part, I'm only *glad* that that's the last we've seen of him. (FU6 2165)

Following the *horror aequi* principle, the near-adjacency or adjacency of similar constructions or words is avoided, and although it is a tendency, not a strict rule, sentences such as the one above are noteworthy. Although the complementizers are not in the immediate proximity of each other, two adjacent *that*-clauses might have triggered the omission of *that* in either. This, however, did not occur, as exemplified in (23):

(23) "The first chapter was enough," snapped Mrs Frizzell indignantly, *glad* that
she did not have to explain that she did not give much time to reading. (CDN 1831)

Again, the question of the subject in the clauses as a factor can be raised briefly. The subject of

the main clause was clearly different from the one in the lower clause in 21 instances, or 77.8 per cent,

and in two more the lexical item is different although the actual referent is the same, as in (24):

(24) Paige was *glad*, then that she'd never allowed herself to believe they had a
future. (JY8 4014)

Both of these had intervening material, however, which might trigger the explicit form as well.

5.5.5.2 *That*-clause with *that* omitted

With a stable share of 77 per cent, still about three quarters of the *that*-clauses have omitted the

complementizer. The cognitive complexity seems a major player in this, as only 3.4 per cent of the

tokens had a complexity factor in them, either in the form of an interrogation, or because of a lengthy

subject, as in (25):

(25) The man who Went to War Dot was *glad* she'd been warned by the dancing
man because there was no warning from Gloria. (AC5 3071)

Similarly to earlier data, the subject in the main clause and *that*-clause was different in 65.5 per cent of

the tokens, and while this is not an indicator strong enough alone, it can lend itself to support the idea

that the explicit form of *that* tends to be more likely when the subjects in the clauses are different.

In this particular set, the *horror aequi* principle is more prevalent than in the previous ones.

There are five tokens where *that*-omission may be due to the principle. In in, there are two adjacent

that-clauses that support this, see (26) for an illustration:

(26) With a smile at Alice of real gratitude, neighbourliness, she said that she was *glad* Alice
was there, glad that decent people were in poor No. 43 at last. (EV1 617)

In the four others, the triggering *that* does not share the same function as would the complementizer, but could nonetheless be a factor causing the omission as it is formally identical, such as the defining relative pronoun in (27):

(27) He'll be so *glad* it's me that knows and it can only bring us closer together. (HJC 2489)

In two others, *that* has a demonstrative function, as a demonstrative pronoun and an adjective, illustrated below, respectively:

(28) I'm *glad* you're alert about that. (H9H 3290)
(29) I'm so *glad* we've got rid of that Christian guild rubbish. (HR8 2904)

All the subjects in the higher clause had the semantic role of Experiencer. The subjects had the qualities +animate and +human, with a 90.8 per cent share of personal pronouns. Five of them had an implicit subject *I*, as in (30), all written as spoken utterances.

(30) "Pleased to meet you," he said. "*Glad* you're joining us." (ABW 499)

Additionally, one had the understood subject *you* because of the imperative mood, exemplified below.

(31) "Be *glad* you aren't a lord, then, my buoyant mankin," said Googol. (CM4 1910)

5.5.6 Ø-complement

Since the end of the 18th century, the zero complement has been the third most common type for *glad*, although its portion has decreased since the early days of the 20th century, and is now at 12.9 per cent. This simple construction has a significant tendency to favor the personal pronoun as only 18.9 per cent had another type of noun as the subject. Moreover, in over half the tokens with a personal pronoun as a subject, the pronoun was *I*. In the data, there was one –human subject with personification, see (9):

(9) If it blew somewhere else the papers were *glad*. (HNX 37)

Although the subject does not have the quality of being human, or even an animate entity, *the papers* can be assigned the role of an Experiencer here in the lack of a better role in Carnie's (2002) system of

semantic roles. When so interpreted, all subjects in this type have the role of Experiencer, and again, *glad* has sense 1.

A *wh*-clause is still a common adjunct with this particular type, and appears in 37.8 per cent of the tokens, as in (10):

(10) All in all, she was *glad* when morning came. (JYF 434)

5.5.7 Review of the BNC

The material from the latter part of the 20th century brought with it some interesting changes compared to the data in the CLMETEV. For the first time, the *to*-infinitive lost its lead as the most common complement type with *glad*, and decreased its relative share substantially. Sense 2 among the type with a lower semantic role of Agent has also decreased since the turn of the 20th century and *glad* seems to have the sense of happiness and joy brought about by an event in an overwhelming majority of all complement types.

The *that*-clause has contrastively increased in share, and in the data it was the most frequent complement type. *That*-omission is still the prominent practice and is most likely influenced by the complexity of the sentence. Where the clause had an explicit form of *that*, 23 per cent had a complexity factor, whereas less than four per cent had one in clauses where *that* was omitted. The relation between the subject in the main and complement clause may play a minor role in the matter, but is not as prevalent as are other complicating factors. The *horror aequi* principle was also visible in the material and consistently results in the omission of the complementizer where applicaple.

Zero complement is still the third most frequent complement type, although its share has also decreased since the turn of the previous century. In the *of* + NP construction, a new quality has emerged where the NP in the complement can have the qualities +animate and +human, which was not seen in the earlier data. Along with the *of* + NP complement, two other prepositional complements

have increased their portion. The *for* + NP complement has reappeared for the first time in over 100 years and has multiplied in number and more than doubled its normalized frequency, from 0.7 tokens pmw in the CLMETEV to 2.0 tokens pmw in the BNC. The construction carries two meanings, where the NP stands for either the cause of happiness or a +human entity *on behalf of whom* the subject is glad. While the increase of the complement is manifold, it is still but a fraction of all the types with its percentage of less than two.

Another prepositional complement type that has increased its relative share since the last part of the CLMETEV where it made its first appearance, is the *about* + NP complement. Its frequency among the complements rose from 0.5 per cent to 1.0 per cent in the BNC, and similarly its normalized frequency increased from 0.6 tokens pmw in the CLMETEV3 to 1.2 tokens pmw in the BNC. However, the overall frequency is still too small to draw any conclusions. With three tokens in the data and the increase in the normalized frequency, however, it may be argued that it is an emerging complement rather than an odd pattern. It shares the same qualities as the *of* + NP construction did earlier on and only exhibits –animate entities in the noun phrase.

6 Summary and Concluding Remarks

In this thesis I have analyzed 857 tokens of British English where the adjective *glad* was used in a predicative position. These examples were from a period of just over 280 years. The focus was on the different complementation patterns found with the adjective, what kinds there are and how their relative proportions might have changed over time. In the introduction we hypothesized that the infinitival complement has emerged at the expense of finite clauses, which in the case of *glad* would be the *that*-clause. Another hypothesis, however, was that the relative frequency of the –*ing* form complement has increased with a negative effect on the frequency of the *to*-infinitive. It was further assumed that the proportion of the –*ing* form complement is still minor compared to the infinitival type. The fluctuation in the shares of different complement types was expected as the data cover several centuries, but it was still hypothesized that no complement type would have been completely lost over the time span, nor would there be a new type altogether emerging. Additionally, we will map what are the different types of complements the adjective is found with in the present day.

Table 12 below is used to first draw a conclusion on the different types of complements that occurred in the periods under scrutiny:

| Time period and the number of types	Complement types
CLMETEV1: 1710–1780 Sentential: 4 Non-sentential: 1 Zero complement	*To*-infinitive; *that*-clause; *Of* + V –*ing*; *Of* + Poss –*ing* *Of* + NP
CLMETEV2: 1780–1850 Sentential: 3 Non-sentential: 3 Zero complement	*To*-infinitive; *that*-clause; *at* + Poss –*ing* *Of* + NP; *at* + NP; *for* + NP
CLMETEV3: 1850–1920 Sentential: 3 Non-sentential: 2 Zero complement	*To*-infinitive; *that*-clause; *of* + V –*ing* *Of* + NP; *about* + NP
BNC: 1960–1994 Sentential: 2 Non-sentential: 3	*That*-clause; *to*-infinitive *Of* + NP; *for* + NP; *about* + NP

Zero complement	

Table 12. The complement types in each period

In the table we can see that there are two types of sentential complements that have remained throughout the time span, the *to*-infinitive and the *that*-clause. As was discovered in the analysis, the latest period, 1960–1994, was the first in which the *that*-clause became more frequent than the *to*-infinitive. Figure (1) below displays the development in the relative frequency between these two complement types.
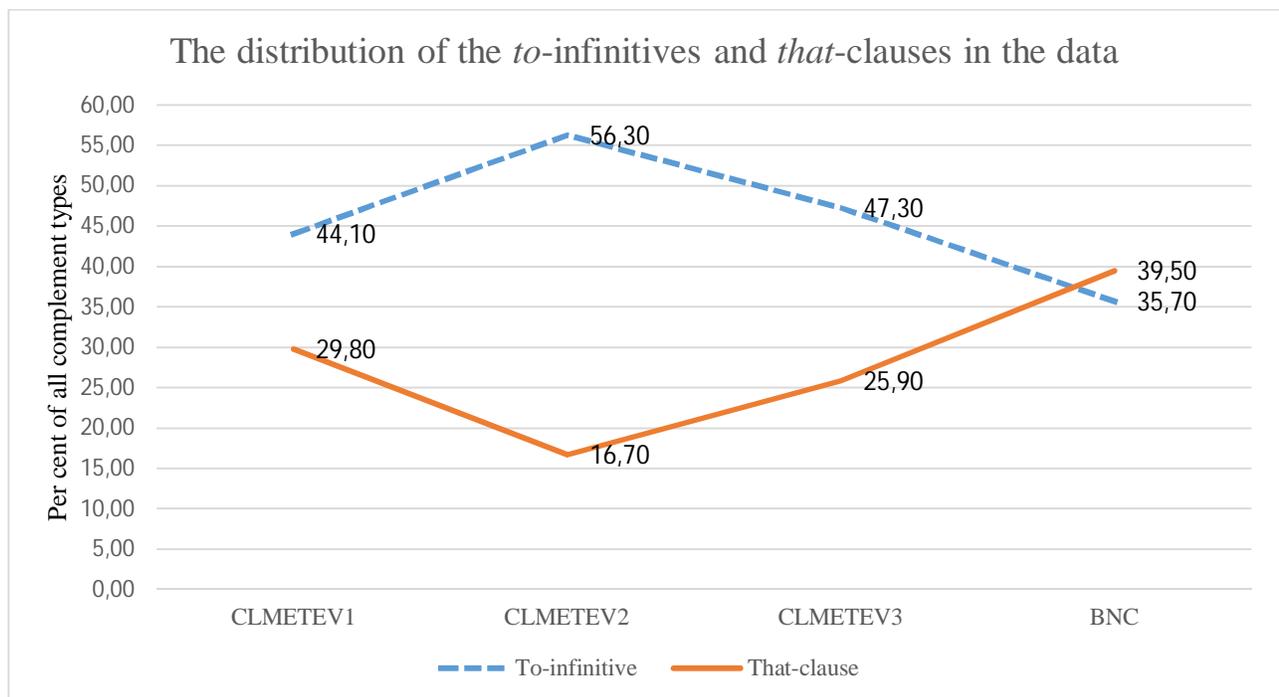
Figure 1. The development in the distribution of the *to*-infinitive and *that*-clause complements

Throughout the time span, sentential complements were more frequent than their non-sentential counterparts, and in figure (1), it is seen that during the period of CLMETEV2 (1780–1850), when the frequency of the *to*-infinitive was at its peak, it was consequently mirrored in the frequency of the *that*-clause, which during that same period reached its lowest point in frequency. Since that period, however, it has increased in frequency and finally during the latter part of the 20th century became the most frequent sentential type over the *to*-infinitive.

The CLMETEV2 was the period with the most diversity in the prepositional complement types, as there were 4 different prepositional complement types in that period. Their distribution is illustrated in figure (2):
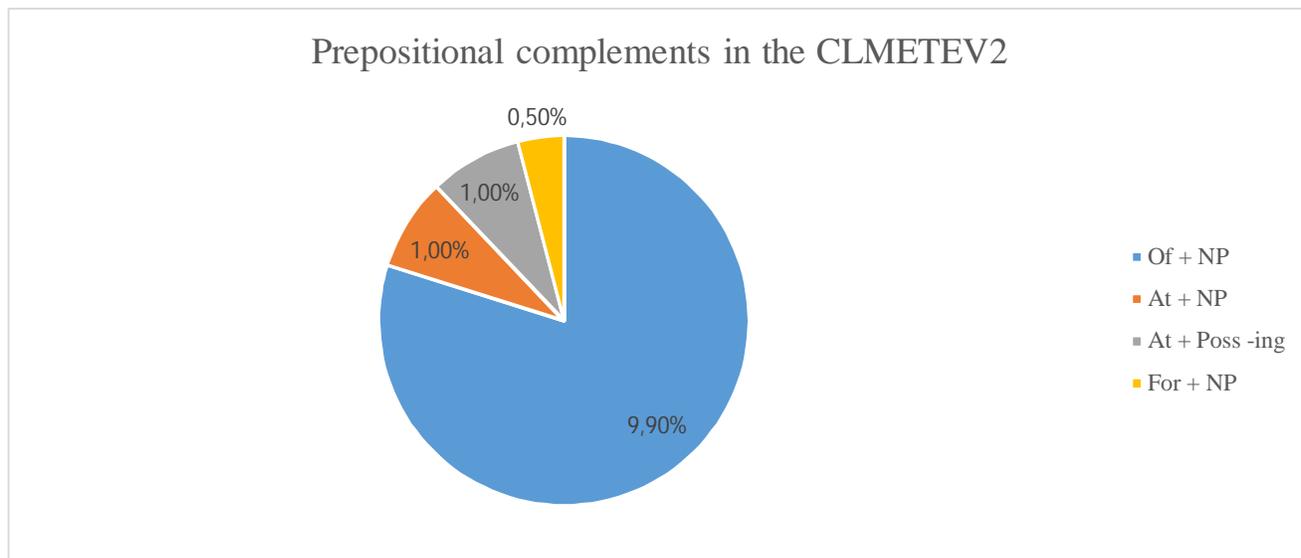
Figure 2. The share of the prepositional complements in the CLMETEV2

Overall, the prepositional complements are in the minority even in the CLMETEV2 where they account for 12.4 per cent of all complements. And while they exhibit the greatest dispersion in all the periods, it is notable that in practice it is one type that dominates this share, namely the *of* + NP construction. The three other types, *at* + NP, *at* + Poss –*ing* only occurred in two tokens and the *for* + NP construction in one.

Although the number of different prepositional complement types has remained stable over the periods, as four out of three periods witnessed three types of prepositional complements, these were not the same three types in each section. Figure (3) illustrates the different types in each period.
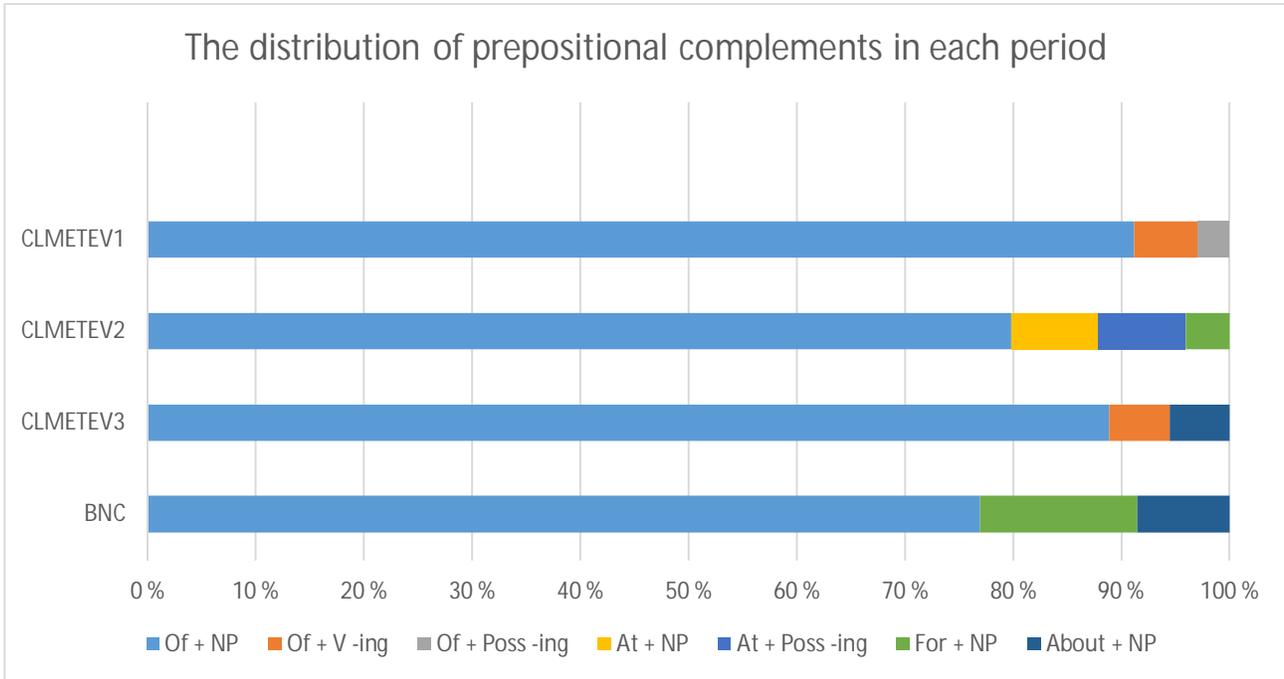
Figure 3. The distribution of the prepositional complement types in each period.

In figure (3), it is visible that the *of* + NP complement type is the most frequent prepositional complement across the periods. Similarly, we can see that the other two types in each period differ significantly and no two periods exhibit the same three prepositional complement types. The prepositional complements in the first part, the CLMETEV1, are all headed by the preposition *of*. While the *of* + NP construction is in the majority, the other two types only appear in small numbers. The *of* + V –*ing* construction has two instances and reappears only in the third part of the CLMETEV with a single occurrence. The *of* + Poss –*ing* construction only has a single instance in the CLMETEV1 and is not found again in the whole data after that.

Instead, the *of* + Poss –*ing* construction found in the CLMETEV1 is replaced with a similar one, but this time headed with the preposition *at*, as there were 2 instances of the *at* + Poss –*ing* construction in the CLMETEV2. Along with the Poss –*ing* construction, the *at* + NP complement emerges with two tokens. Neither of these is long-lived as their only occurrences are in the CLMETEV2. With these, another prepositional phrase complement is found, however, the *for* + NP

complement where the NP denotes the source of happiness, not a person on whose behalf someone is happy.

In the CLMETEV3 the *of* + V –*ing* construction re-emerges momentarily with a single instance. With the *of* + NP construction, another, novel preposition + NP construction is found in the period. *About* + NP first occurs in 1910 with a single example of it. This being the case, the *of* + NP construction is in the vast majority when it comes to prepositional complements in the CLMETEV3 period. Even so, the share of the prepositional complements is less than 10 per cent of all the complements.

The modern data in the BNC continues to witness the *about* + NP construction, and it has now tripled its occurrence in raw numbers, as it occurs in three examples. Similarly, the *for* + NP construction that was first encountered in the CLMETEV2 in a single instance, has now made its way into being a more frequent complement type with five examples in the BNC data.
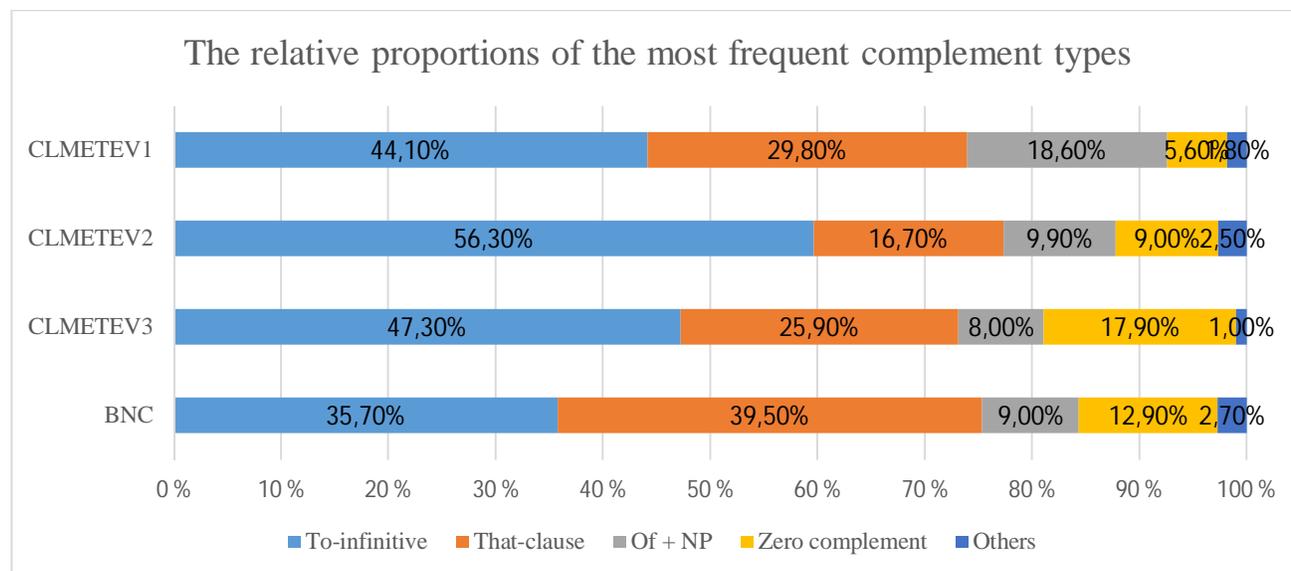
The emergence of the –*ing* form complement thus seems weak. We can review this visually in relation to the infinitival complements in figure (4):
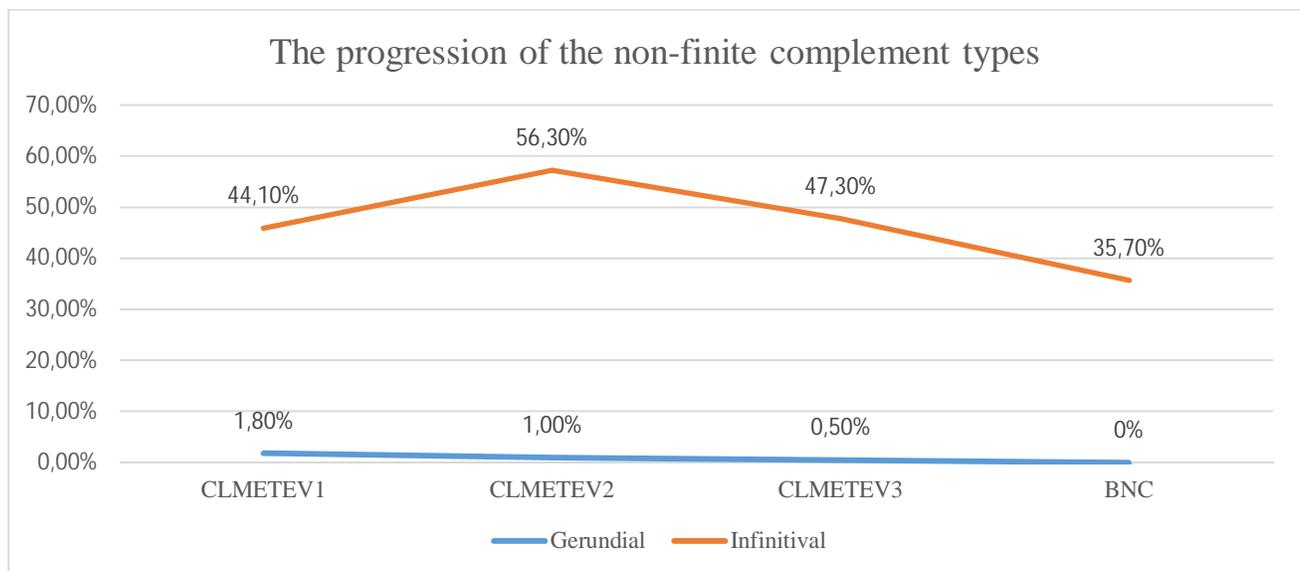
Figure 4. The progression of all gerundial complements in relation to the infinitival ones

In the gerundial complements in figure (4), all complements involving an *–ing* form are summed up: *of + V –ing*, *of + Poss –ing*, and *at + Poss –ing*. The figure shows that contrary to the usual tendency in the Great Complement Shift, the complementation of *glad* does not have an increasing proportion of *–ing* form complements at the expense of the infinitival ones. In fact, the proportion of the *–ing* from complements has steadily decreased over the centuries and in the modern usage they have become extinct altogether. Despite this, the infinitival pattern does exhibit a decrease in frequency as well.

There was greater fluctuation in the complementation than was originally expected and the hypothesis that no new patterns would emerge or older ones would die out, proved wrong. In reality, only three types survived throughout the periods: the *to*-infinitive, the *that*-clause and the *of + NP*. Their relative frequencies have changed over time, and only in the modern usage has the *that*-clause become more frequent than the *to*-infinitive. The three most frequent patterns and their changes over time are indicated in figure (5):

The relative proportions of the most frequent complement types

	To-infinitive	That-clause	Of + NP	Zero complement	Others
CLMETEV1	44,10%	29,80%	18,60%	5,60%	1,80%
CLMETEV2	56,30%	16,70%	9,90%	9,00%	2,50%
CLMETEV3	47,30%	25,90%	8,00%	17,90%	1,00%
BNC	35,70%	39,50%	9,00%	12,90%	2,70%

Figure 5. The most frequent complement types in each period.

The figure also shows the frequency of the zero complement, which has increased in frequency until the CLMETEV3 period. After that it has undergone a small decrease and is now at 12.9 per cent.

In the modern usage the complements of *glad* are thus the *that*-clause and the *to*-infinitive as sentential complements, and *for* + NP and *about* + NP as non-sentential ones. It also occurs frequently without a complement, often with a *when*-clause adjunct.

Of the three senses that were summarized at the end of the dictionary section, the first one was the most common in all periods. The first sense was worded as follows:

1. To be happy and pleased about an event or state of affairs.

It occurred with all the complement types throughout the periods. The second sense,

2. To be willing and eager to do something.

was the second most common and was mainly found with the *to*-infinitive, with only one exception in an *of* + V –*ing* construction. Moreover, only *to*-infinitives where the lower subject had the semantic role Agent had this agentive sense. Within the *to*-infinitives with a lower Agent role, the second sense was the dominant one. As the third sense,

3. To be joyous in character (arch.)

was marked archaic, it was not expected to occur in the data. However, in the CLMETEV1 there seemed to be one instance of this sense.

As mentioned above, the *to*-infinitive was one of the two constructions that allowed for sense 2, and all but one instances of sense 2 occurred with this pattern. The agentive sense, according to the data, is quite strictly bound to the form and semantic roles of the sentence. This can be explained by two different factors. First, as noted earlier in the thesis, Vosberg (2003a, 306) has observed that the *to*-infinitive has a sense of purpose and future orientation, both of which are important for sense 2 of *glad*. Secondly, the sense can only occur when the lower subject has the semantic role of Agent, which is due to the active nature of the sense. Conversely, sense 1 does not frequent in the construction with a lower Agent subject. With Vosberg's observation in mind, it is rare for sense 2 to occur with a gerundial construction, and it was only found in one token with an –*ing* form, a construction that was

very rare in the data overall. However, this finding might suggest that sense 2 is allowed with the *–ing* form complements as well as with the infinitival ones. But because of the scarcity of data for this, no conclusions can be drawn at this point.

As with *that*-omission in the *that*-clause complements, the Complexity principle seems plausible, as the tokens with the explicit form often had a complexity factor. This varied so that in the explicit clauses there was a complexity factor in approximately 23–42 per cent of the cases, while a maximum of under 4 per cent of the implicit constructions exhibited a complexity factor. Moreover, where the factor was an insertion, it was usually simple enough not to significantly increase the cognitive load of the sentence. The relation of the higher and lower subjects in *that*-clauses was suggested to affect whether the complementizer was explicit, but this turned out not to be a highly relevant factor.

The *horror aequi* principle was only a minor factor in the data, as it can only explain a few *that*-omissions. The matrix verb with *glad* is most often *be* and it is seldom in the infinitive in context, so a postulation of the *to*-infinitive on the grounds of *horror aequi* does not seem likely based on the data. Extractions overall were very few in the data, and as gerundial complements are in the scarce minority with the adjective even with the unmarked word order, it does not seem to play a major role in the complementation as regards *glad*.

The distinction between complements and adjuncts proved sometimes problematic, especially as regards *when*-clauses with the zero complement tokens. It is a frequent companion of the zero complement since as many as 37.8 per cent of the tokens (in the BNC) had one. Broccias (2010) has discussed elements that are normally regarded temporal adjuncts, namely *as-* and *while*-clauses, and their possibility of having complement-like qualities, which I referred to when first discussing zero complements in the CLMETEV1.

Finally, figure 6 displays the development in the overall frequency of the predicative *glad* over the centuries.

The occurrence of the predicative *glad* per million words
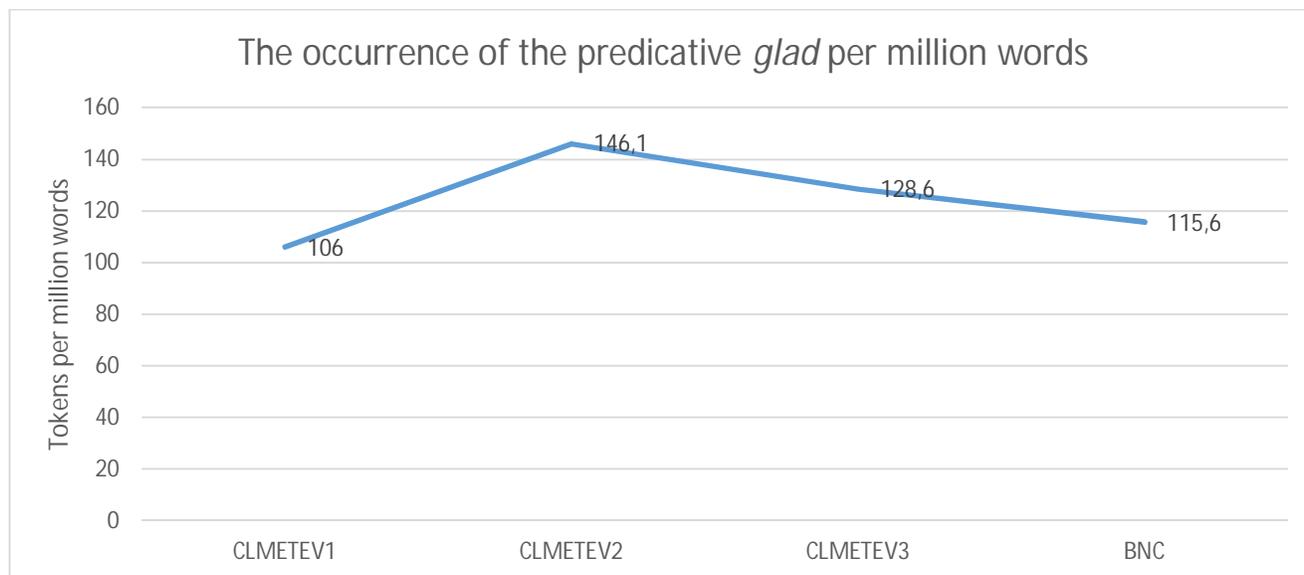
Figure 6. The development of the normalized frequency of *glad* over time

The data shows that the use of *glad* in its predicative form that allows complements was the most frequent during the CLMETEV2 period after which it has undergone a gradual decrease. Its modern frequency at 115.6 tokens per million words is still higher than it was during the CLMETEV1 period. If there is no unpredicted change in the use of language, it is expected that the downward trend in the occurrence of *glad* will continue in the future.

Overall, this thesis has accounted for the complementation of *glad* and discovered the changes that have occurred especially regarding the prepositional complements. It has also further aroused my interest in the complement-adjunct distinction in relation to elements traditionally thought of as temporal adjuncts, a phenomenon that might bring about some interesting future research.

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