

**“Hope the best”: A Diachronic Study of the Complementation of the  
Verb *Hope* in British English**

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Pro Gradu Thesis  
June 2016

Tampereen yliopisto

Kieli-, käännös- ja kirjallisuustieteiden yksikkö

Englannin kielen ja kirjallisuuden maisteriopinnot

VIITASALO, ANNE-MARI: "Hope the best": A Diachronic Study of the Complementation of the Verb *Hope* in British English

Pro gradu -tutkielma, 87 sivua

Kesäkuu 2016

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Tässä pro gradu -tutkielmassa tutkitaan englannin kielen verbin *hope* komplementaatiota 1700-luvun alusta nykypäivään. Komplementti on pakollinen lauseenjäsen, joka täydentää predikaatin merkitystä. Tutkielman tarkoituksena on selvittää, mitä komplementteja *hope* valitsee ja millaisia muutoksia *hope*-verbin komplementaatioissa on tapahtunut edellä mainittuna ajanjaksona. Lisäksi selvitetään mitkä syyt vaikuttavat komplementin valintaan, ja erityisesti mitkä syyt vaikuttavat komplementoijan säilyttämiseen tai poistamiseen *that*-lauseissa.

Tutkimuksen empiirisenä aineistona käytetään kahta elektronista korpusta. Historiallisen aineiston lähteenä on The Corpus of Late Modern English Texts -korpuksen alkuperäisen version kaikki kolme osaa. Nykypäivän kielen aineiston lähteenä on The British National Corpus -korpuksen kaunokirjallinen aineisto. Molempien korpusten aineisto on brittienglantia.

Tutkielman ensimmäisessä osassa selvitetään korpuslingvistiikan erityispiirteitä ja komplementaatioon liittyvää teoriaa ja ilmiöitä sekä selvitetään, mitä *hope*-verbistä ja sen komplementaatiosta on aiemmin todettu englannin keskeisissä sanakirjoissa ja kielioppiteoksissa. Tutkielman toisessa osassa analysoidaan *hope*-verbin komplementaatiota ja siinä tapahtuneita muutoksia empiirisen aineiston pohjalta.

Tutkimusaineistosta löydettiin yhteensä kymmenen *hope*-verbin kanssa esiintyvää komplementtityyppiä. Selvästi yleisempiä ovat lausekomplementit; *that*-lause on yleisin komplementti koko tarkastellun ajanjakson ajan eikä sen esiintymisessä tapahtunut juurikaan vaihtelua. Erilaisten prepositio- ja NP-lausekkeiden esiintymisessä havaittiin joitakin muutoksia; jotkin rakenteet eivät esiintyneet kaikilla ajanjaksoilla. Komplementin valintaan vaikuttavat syyt olivat joko semanttisia tai kommunikatiivisia. Komplementoijan säilyttämiseen tai poistamiseen *that*-lauseissa todettiin vaikuttavan ne tekijät jotka lisäävät tai vähentävät lauseen kompleksisuutta. Erityisesti lauseen keskellä olevilla erilaisilla lisäyksillä ja subjektien rakennetyypillä todettiin olevan vaikutusta. Pelkän NP-komplementin esiintyminen *hope*-verbin kanssa asetetaan tutkimustulosten myötä kyseenalaiseksi.

Avainsanat: komplementaatio, komplementoija, kompleksisuus, korpus, korpuslingvistiikka, *hope*

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## 1. Introduction

Consider sentences such as the following:

- 1) a. I *hope* that I'll see him again.
- b. I *hope* to see him again.

At a first glance, these sentences seem to be very similar. However, in sentence (a) *hope* is followed by a *that*-clause and in sentence (b) it is followed by a *to*-infinitive clause. Why are the constructions of these seemingly similar sentences different?

Let's consider another example:

- 2) c. I *hope* I'm not disturbing you.
- d. She *hoped* in vain that the awful noise wouldn't disturb the sleeping children.

Again, these two sentences are similar as they have the same higher and lower predicates, and the complement is a *that*-clause in both cases. However, in (c) the *that* of the *that*-clause has been retained, whereas in (d) it has been omitted. Why has this happened?

The four examples above raise interesting questions about the complementation of the verb *hope*. What kinds of complements are possible with *hope*? Which complements are especially common and which are not? Has there been any changes in the complementation of *hope*? Why is *that* sometimes omitted and sometimes retained in the case of a *that*-clause complement with *hope*? These considerations will be the topic of this thesis.

When the abovementioned considerations are crystallized, we arrive at the following research questions:

- i. What kind of complementation patterns can the verb *hope* have?
- ii. What kind of changes have happened regarding the complementation of *hope* during the time period in question?
- iii. How is the choice of the complement motivated?
- iv. What kind of factors affect the omission or retention of the complementizer that in *that*-clauses?

Thus, I will investigate the different complementation patterns that occur, or have occurred, together with *hope*. The investigation will be diachronic and will include the time period from the beginning of the 18<sup>th</sup> century until present day. The focus will be on written British English. The investigation of the complement patterns that occur, or have occurred, together with *hope* will be accompanied with a discussion on the reasons or motivation for choosing a certain complement over another. The two variants of the *that*-clause, the one where the complementizer has been retained and the one where it has been omitted, as demonstrated by examples (c) and (d), will also be examined. I will do this by analysing some factors that could possibly affect the retention or omission of the complementizer *that* in *that*-clauses.

These questions will be examined with the help of corpus data. The use of corpora in a study of this kind is beneficial as corpora provide an abundance of authentic examples of a language phenomenon in use. As the one of the intentions of this thesis is to study possible diachronic changes, the data from different time periods provided by corpora is invaluable for this kind of research. As regards to the study of complementation, corpus-based studies are a current and prevalent field of study in this area of linguistics. There have been studies on complementation where *hope* has been included among other verbs or groups of verbs behaving similarly, but the complementation of *hope* has not been studied this extensively before, and not with the data used in this thesis. Therefore, this study can be seen as beneficial to the study of linguistics as it can provide new and more specific information on this topic.

My thesis will consist of two parts: a theoretical background and a corpus analysis. The setting of the scene of the complementation of *hope* will be done by presenting four separate theoretical discussions. First, I will discuss corpus linguistics, its history, and methodology in general. After that there will be a discussion on complementation, especially the factors and phenomena that are vital to the analysis of complementation. The two final parts of theoretical discussion will focus on

*hope*: I will first discuss what has been said about *hope* in dictionaries, especially in the *Oxford English Dictionary (OED)*, followed by a discussion on what has been said about *hope* and the complementation of *hope* in grammars of English.

The second part of this thesis will be dedicated to the corpus analysis. In this part I will first explain the methodology of the analysis and present the corpora that were used. I will then proceed to the actual corpus analysis with a separate discussion on all of the four data sets analysed for this thesis. The corpus analysis will be completed by a discussion of findings where all of the data will be discussed as a whole and the different corpus sections will be compared to each other. My thesis will end with a conclusion on the findings based on the theoretical background and the corpus analysis.

## **2. On Corpus Linguistics**

In this chapter I will discuss corpus linguistics and its history in general, the concepts of *recall* and *precision*, and presenting frequencies by normalizing raw frequencies. The corpora and the methods that were used for the corpus analysis conducted in this study will be discussed later at the beginning of the corpus analysis section of this thesis.

### **2.1 Corpus linguistics in general**

As has been already mentioned, corpus linguistics is the method chosen for this study. Historically, corpus linguistics has been under some criticism among scholars and it has not always been seen as a reliable method for studies of linguistics. Chomsky (1957, 1965) especially criticised corpus linguistics. He argued that linguists should seek to analyse language based on their own introspection and not on their observations of the use of language. He claimed that actual use of language contains variables that come between grammaticality, such as hesitation or false starts, and therefore it is not a valid source for information on language. Leech (1968, 89-91) points out several problems that arise when using introspection as a linguistic method as suggested by Chomsky, two of these will be mentioned here. First there is the problem of objectivity: two native speakers might not deem the same sentence grammatical and could thus arrive at different conclusions. Leech argues that this is not a problem when using corpora and the focus should be on describing language in use, not on how it should be used. Second, a linguist's introspection might be distorted by the desire to verify the hypothesis under investigation. This does not happen with corpus data since corpus data cannot be falsified. Thus, with corpus data, it is not possible to misrepresent the results in favour of a specific result because of an existing bias. In addition to these remarks made by Leech, it should also be noted that since the purpose of this study is to describe possible diachronic changes in language use, introspection would not be useful for this purpose since no native speaker could provide information on past uses by using introspection only.

Leech (*ibid.*, 93-94) also discusses the problem of the variables that distort grammaticality in language use that were criticised by Chomsky, and points out that these kinds of phenomena can usually be quite easily recognised and discarded if needed, and thus they do not cause significant problems for researchers.

As for the place of corpus linguistics in the field of linguistic research, Lindquist (2009, 1) defines corpus linguistics as not a type of linguistics, but rather a methodology that can be used in any area of linguistics. In his view, corpus linguistic study builds on the underlying belief that grammar rules, and changes in these rules, are moulded by the users of language in interaction with each other. A corpus can thus be seen as a vessel that records and preserves the use of language for scholars and their studies.

Lindquist (*ibid.*, 9-10) also discusses the advantages of corpus linguistics. He gives a detailed list of the advantages of corpus linguistics based on Jan Svartvik's arguments. The features in Lindquist's list of corpus data that are especially relevant to the present study are: the objectivity of corpus data compared to introspection, the easy verification of the data, the frequencies of occurrences of a linguistic item that are obtained from corpus data, and the suitability for non-native speakers of language. Corpus data also provides illustrative examples of the linguistic phenomenon under investigation. Thus, corpus data provides authentic examples that are objective, verifiable, and can be easily counted and compared. This is especially beneficial for the current study as the aim is to find all instances of different complementation patterns and to describe the changes that have taken place during the years. In addition, as the writer of this thesis is a non-native speaker of English, the corpus data will be especially important as it has been produced by native English speakers.

Lindquist notes that some vigilance is also required when dealing with corpus data. He mentions that since corpora are limited in size, corpus data will never have all the instances that are used in language and thus it will never provide exhaustive results. Leech (1968, 94) also mentions

the problem of corpora being limited and never having all possible uses of a linguistic phenomenon. He argues that this does not diminish the importance of corpus data as aiming for complete verifiability when testing any scientific theory is often unrealistic. Hence, no theory can ever be completely, impermeably verified and we must not expect to answer the questions of this thesis completely and without dispute.

As already mentioned, corpora also include mistakes which will have to be manually analysed and discarded. These problems will have to be taken into account when analysing the data for this thesis; since the data cannot include all the possible instances of usage, the results of the analysis must be seen as indicative and cannot be interpreted as an exhaustive description of the topic at hand.

One of the issues of corpus data mentioned by Lindquist is that corpus data by itself will not be sufficient and theory will always be needed in order to describe and analyse the results. Hence, this study will be *corpus-based*, described by Lindquist (ibid., 25) as using “corpora and quantitative methods to investigate a problem which is formulated within a particular linguistic theory.” Regarding this thesis, this approach signifies that the starting point of the research will be on previous studies on complementation and the theoretical aspects regarding complementation and the predicate in question. The corpus data will be analysed based on certain theoretical predictions and claims which then may or may not be confirmed in the data. This signifies that theory and previous research will always be taken into consideration when analysing the data. However, the data will not be on the mercy of theory since it is possible for a phenomenon to occur in language even though it has not been discussed in previous studies.

## **2.2 Recall and precision**

The abundance of data received from corpora does not come without difficulties. Since electronic corpora are a computerized mechanism for text analysis, there is always a possibility for error when

composing the corpora, or when the using the corpora.

Salton (1989, 284) describes the terms *precision* and *recall* where precision is the proportion of retrieved material that is relevant, and recall is the proportion of relevant material that was retrieved. Ball (1994, 295) discusses these issues and notes that poor precision can be handled by manually removing the results that are not relevant. Thus when analysing the data for this thesis the tokens that are not relevant, e.g. nominal tokens, can be manually removed from the data.

The issue of recall is a more complex one as, also noted by Ball, it is impossible to know if something that should be included in the results is not in them, without manually going through the entire corpus. That something that would have been relevant is not included in the tokens that are analysed, is a possibility that must be taken into consideration when analysing the results. Thus, as mentioned previously, it must not be assumed that the result of a corpus analysis of this kind could ever be exhaustive and indisputable.

### **2.3 Normalized frequencies**

Biber et al. (1998, 263) discuss the importance of comparable counts in corpus linguistics. They state that in order to make the raw frequencies of corpus analysis comparable to each other, normalization should be conducted. This can be done by dividing the raw frequencies by the total number of words in the text, and then multiplying this number by the chosen basis for the norming. This process will result in a normalized frequency (NF).

For comparing the results from the different corpora, this method of normalizing frequencies will be used throughout this thesis. The common basis chosen is one million words as this seems to be common in many corpus based studies and fits the comparison of frequencies in this thesis well.

### 3. On complementation

In this chapter, I will first discuss the distinction between complements and adjuncts. After that, I will discuss four important factors that affect complementation: the *complexity principle*, *insertions*, *extractions*, and the *horror aequi principle*. The grammatical nature of *hope*, whether it is a subject control verb or an NP movement verb, will also be discussed in this chapter. I will then proceed to discuss aspects that are especially relevant to the research questions of this thesis: zero complements and complementizer omission or retention in *that*-clauses.

#### 3.1 Complements vs. adjuncts

Verbs can be followed by complements or adjuncts. In general, complements help complete the meaning of the sentence whereas adjuncts do not. This rule is not always that straightforward, but it can be used as a basic guideline. Huang (1997, 75) notes a further aspect of distinguishing complements and adjuncts from each other: “. . . predicates are classified on the basis of the *complements* they C-select, but not on the basis of the adjuncts that may occur with them.” He continues: “. . . almost all adjuncts can (optionally) occur with all verb types in addition to their complements.”

Huang (*ibid.*, 70) discusses *C-selection*, or category selection, which conveys that lexical items can be divided, or subcategorized, based on the possible categories that can occur as their complements. For instance, the verb *put* C-selects NPs and PPs as its complements. Huddleston & Pullum (2002, 219) use the term *license* in explaining this phenomenon from another perspective: a certain kind of a complement can only occur in a clause if an appropriate verb that licenses them is present in the clause. They illustrate this with an example:

- 3) a. She mentioned the letter.
- b. \*She alluded the letter.

Here, *mention* licenses an NP, *the letter*, as its object but *allude* does not. The complements that these verbs license are thus different. Certain kinds of verbs thus can take certain kinds of complements but they do not always necessarily have to have them.

Huddleston & Pullum (ibid., 221) also raise another, stronger criterion for distinguishing complements from adjuncts, the concept of *obligatoriness*. Obligatoriness signifies that a complement can be obligatory and that it cannot be excluded without losing the grammaticality of the construction or without a change in meaning. Adjuncts, on the other hand, are never obligatory. Huddleston & Pullum give the example: “She perused the report”, where “the report” is an obligatory complement and cannot be omitted. They then compare this with: “She left because she was ill.” Here, “because she was ill” could be omitted without any loss of grammaticality and is thus an optional adjunct.

### 3.2 The Complexity Principle

The essence of the *complexity principle*, also called the transparency principle, is that “[i]n the case of more or less explicit grammatical options the more explicit one(s) will tend to be favoured in cognitively more complex environments” (Rohdenburg 1996, 151). Hence, when there are grammatical options that are fairly close in meaning, the context where their expression appears, has an effect on which variant is chosen. According to Rohdenburg (ibid., 149) factors that make the environment more complex include discontinuous constructions, passives, and long subjects, objects and subordinate clauses. The more explicit variants are also considered to be more formal. A very common example is the choice between a finite clause and the non-finite alternative as in the example given by Rohdenburg (ibid., 151):

- 4) a. She promised (that) she would visit me (some time next year).
- b. She promised to visit me (next week).

Sentence (a) is more explicit as it shows more grammatical features; the tense is visible and the construction is also longer. It is also a *that*-clause and, according to sentential hierarchy, *that*-clauses are more sentential than *to*-infinitive clauses. This means that it is more sentential than the *to*-infinitival variant and is thus more explicit. The first sentence also presents common alternatives of a *that*-clause, where *that* can be present or it can be omitted. In this example the variant where *that* is omitted (a) is less explicit than the variant where *that* is retained.

Two important complexity factors, *insertions* and *extractions*, will be discussed further since they play a crucial role when analysing complements. Since one of the main foci of this thesis is to analyse the reasons for omitting or retaining the complementizer *that* in *that*-clauses, the factors that could motivate this choice will also be discussed in more detail.

### 3.2.1 Insertions

Insertions are an example of a discontinuous construction mentioned earlier. Insertion means that an element, one word or a longer construction, is inserted between the higher and lower clause. Vosberg (2003, 211) provides examples, the insertions have been underlined:

- 5) a. I recollect, as I passed by one of the pier-glasses, *that* I saw in it his clenched hand proffered in wrath to his forehead.
- b. I recollect  $\emptyset$  when I first joined, I used to write verses.

In (a) the insertion is before the complementizer *that* and in (b) it comes after it (here: after  $\emptyset$  *that*). Vosberg (ibid., 210) states: “Experience has shown that the more explicit variant (here: *that*) can increase the acceptability of a construction both before and after the complexity factor (here: the insertions).” This entails that we would expect to find more insertions in cases where *that* is retained and less where *that* is omitted. This is because in the case of insertions, the link between the higher and lower clause is weaker, hence the more sentential variants are preferred in order to make the link between the clauses stronger.

### 3.2.2 Extractions

*Extraction* essentially means that something has been moved from the basic sentence structure to another position. Extractions thus may change the word order of a sentence. They do not, however, change the underlying structure of the sentence and thus the complementation pattern also stays the same. Huang (1997, 125) discusses three important extraction constructions. The first form of extractions he mentions are *wh*-questions. There are two different types of *wh*-questions: *direct* and *indirect* questions. According to Huang the difference between these two is the following:

A direct question is a direct request for information, and the listener is expected to provide an answer to it . . . An indirect question does not request information from the addressee. Rather, it serves as an argument of a verb that s-selects it.

He gives examples with the verbs *wonder* and *know*:

- 6) a. I want to know what John is buying.  
b. I wonder who you talked to.

In these examples the *wh*-questions serve as complements for the higher verbs.

Another form of extraction Huang (*ibid.*, 129) mentions is *topicalization*. Here, a part of the sentence, usually a noun phrase, is moved to the beginning of the sentence as a topic. When a part is moved, it leaves a *trace* or a *gap* in its original place. In Huang's example "That he will rise among the best, I have never doubted." the object noun phrase (the *that*-clause) has been topicalized and it has left a gap after the verb *doubted*.

A third form of extraction Huang (*ibid.*, 131) mentions is the process called *relativization*. Relativization "moves the relative pronoun from its deep structure position into its surface position". This changes the surface structure of the sentence but it does not change the underlying structure and thus also the complementation pattern stays the same.

Collins (1991, 1) discusses clefts and pseudo-clefts. He illustrates these different types of clefted constructions with the following examples.

- 7) a. Tom offered Sue a sherry.

- b. What Tom offered Sue was a sherry.
- c. It was sherry that Tom offered Sue.

Here (a) is a non-cleft sentence, (b) a pseudo-cleft sentence and (c) a normal cleft sentence. Both of the clefted sentences have the same element “sherry” that they bring in focus or highlight. Collins (ibid., 29-34) also discusses different pseudo-clefts; the *wh*-clefts (and *th*-clefts) and *all*-clefts. The *all*-clefts are not mentioned by Huddleston & Pullum (2002, 1420) but they do discuss pseudo-clefts defining them as follows: “The pseudo-cleft has a fused relative construction defining a variable whose value is specified by the foregrounded element”. They give examples of a basic pseudo-cleft (a) and a reversed pseudo-cleft (b):

- 8) a. What I need is a long cool drink.
- b. A long cool drink is what I need.

As mentioned, Collins also discusses *all*-clefts. He (1991, 29-34) defends his inclusion of *all*-clefts as a pseudo-cleft with the following: “The criterion by which *all*-clefts can be claimed to represent a subclass of pseudo-clefts is the set of proportionate semantic relationships which obtains between corresponding *wh*-clefts, *th*-clefts, and *all*-clefts, non-clefts.” He illustrates this with the following examples:

- 9) a. What/The thing the car needs is a new battery.
- b. All the car needs is a new battery.
- c. The car needs a new battery.       - non cleft
- d. The car only needs a new battery.   - non cleft

He argues that sentences (b) and (d) imply the same thing, that they have the same “assertion of exclusiveness”.

As stated before, extractions are a complexity factor and hence may also affect the complement chosen in a particular environment. Therefore it is important to recognise their occurrences in data as they may result in divergent choices in complementation. This is realized in Vosberg’s (2003, 202) analysis of infinitival and *ing*-complements. He states the following:

In the case on infinitival or gerundial complement options, the (perfect) infinitive will tend to be favoured in environments where the object of the dependent verb is extracted (e.g. by topicalization, relativization, comparativization, or interrogation) from its original position

and crosses clause boundaries.

This is known as the *extraction principle*. It should be noted that although Vosberg only mentions extracting objects, it might also be possible to extract other elements.

### 3.2.3 Omission or retention of the complementizer *that*

As stated in the introduction, one of the aims of this thesis is to examine the causes for retaining or omitting the complementizer *that* in *that*-clauses. Biber et al. (1999, 681) discuss the discourse factors that favour the omission of *that* and state that there are three main factors affecting the omission: *think* or *say* as the verb in the main clause, co-referential subjects in the main clause and in the *that*-clause, and a personal pronoun subject in the *that*-clause as opposed to a noun-headed phrase. The example below includes all of the previously mentioned characteristics:

10) I said I bought them yesterday.

According to Biber et al., these are factors that are typical of *that*-clauses in general.

As for retaining the complementizer, Biber et al. (ibid., 682) state that atypical grammatical features of *that*-clauses in general favour the retention of the complementizer. They list the following characteristics: the use of coordinated *that*-clauses (a), passive voice in the main clause (b), and an intervening noun phrase between the main clause verb and the *that*-clause (c).

- 11) a. The major conclusion of both studies was that the nation and particularly the state of Florida must quickly reduce their large reliance on foreign oil [and] that conservation measures and increased reliance on the abundant national supply of coal were the major alternatives.
- b. I [was told] that both the new right and those who support the government's view had been excluded.
- c. They warn [him] that it's dangerous.

Rohdenburg (1996, 163) provides more reasons for retaining *that*: “The longer the objects become the more likely they are to require an explicit subordinator.” A longer object makes the link between the clauses weaker and therefore the retention of *that* helps link the clauses. He continues:

This brings us to the object clause itself. Here, the most important factor controlling the frequency of *that* concerns the complexity of the subject expression. In particular, there is a noticeable contrast between personal pronouns and full noun phrases, and in the expected direction: while noun phrases favour the retention of *that*, personal pronouns disfavour it.

Thus, one would expect to find more NP subjects in object clauses with *that*, and more personal pronoun subjects in object clauses with  $\emptyset$  *that*.

Elsness (1984, 531-2) has explored the differences between the *that*- and zero-variants and found that there are several factors that affect the retention or omission of *that* in object *that*-clauses. According to him, the characteristics that favour the zero variant are:

- i. informal style
- ii. lack of ambiguity: e.g. no adverbial between the main clause and the *that*-clause
- iii. lack of structural complexity: personal pronoun as the subject of the *that*-clause
- iv. no deviation from the most common weight-distributional pattern in English (light elements in the beginning of a sentence, heavy elements at the end)
- v. closeness of the clause juncture: e.g. coreferential subjects, definite (anaphoric) *that*-clause subject, subject(s) of either or both clauses are either 1<sup>st</sup> or 2<sup>nd</sup> person pronouns.

Based on the discussion on factors affecting complementizer omission and retention, and the discussion on factors affecting the complexity of a constructions, four factors are chosen to be analyzed when evaluating complementizer omission or retention in this thesis. These factors are: the occurrence of a modal in the *that*-clause, and insertion before or after the complementizer, the nature of the subject of the lower clause (whether it is pronominal or a full noun phrase), and coreferential subjects in the higher and lower clauses. Only the central modal auxiliary verbs are regarded as modals here. These are: can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would, and must.

### 3.3 The Horror Aequi Principle

Rohdenburg (2003, 236) defines the *horror aequi* principle as "... the widespread (and presumably universal) tendency to avoid the use of formally (near-) identical and (near-) adjacent (non-coordinate) grammatical elements or structures". As to complementation patterns, the *horror aequi* principle suggests that e.g. when using a *to*-infinitive it often precedes something else than a *to*-infinitive (e.g. a bare infinitive) because of the tendency to avoid repetition. Mair (2002, 125) presents an example with the verb *help*, which rarely occurs in the construction *to help to* but rather is more frequent as a construction of *to help* + bare infinitive. The reason for this is that the repetition of the *to*-infinitive is avoided.

### 3.4 Subject control vs. NP movement

Regarding subject control and NP movement, Davies & Dubinsky (2004, 7) give two examples:

- 12) a. Barnett seemed to understand the formula.
- b. Barnett tried to understand the formula.

They proceed to state the difference between the two constructions:

In the Raising construction in (1), the subject *Barnett* is semantically linked only to the embedded verb *understand*, while in (2) it is semantically linked to both the matrix verb *try* and the embedded verb. For this reason, the subject in (2) is said to "control" the reference of the subject of the embedded clause and the construction has come to be referred to as "Subject Control."

They also provide tests that can be applied in order to determine whether a predicate is a subject control predicate or an NP movement predicate. These tests are the weather *it*, the existential *there*, and the idiom chunk tests. When *hope* is inserted into these test constructions, the following sentences are produced:

- 13) \*It hopes to rain.
- \* There hopes to be a man under the table.
- \* Tabs hope to be kept on me.

None of these sentences can be considered grammatical and it can therefore be concluded that the verb *hope* is a subject control, also known as *Equi*, predicate.

### 3.5 About zero complements

In this thesis zero ( $\emptyset$ ) complements will be analysed as a separate complement pattern. Zero complements could also be excluded from the analysis as technically there is no complement to analyse. However, as will be evident from the corpus analysis part of this thesis, in many cases there are other possibilities for a choice of complement where zero complements occur. This thus suggests that a zero complement is also a choice by the language user.

Often when a zero complement is chosen, there is often a perception that something has been excluded. This is called *ellipsis*, “whereby elements of a sentence of which are predictable from context can be omitted” (Quirk et al. 1985, 82). There are several different types of ellipsis and these types are not always easily distinguished. There is an important feature of ellipsis however, emphasised by Quirk et al (ibid., 884): “... the principle of verbatim recoverability...that is, the actual word(s) whose meaning is understood or implied must be recoverable”. They consider this to be the most important feature of ellipsis but they (ibid., 885-886) also mention other features such as the grammatical defectiveness of the elliptical construction. This means that with ellipsis, the construction is grammatically incomplete or deficient. According to them, a sentence can regain its grammaticality if the omitted words are inserted back into the sentence.

Another type of a zero complement is *slifting*, which will be discussed in chapter 5 and therefore will not be explained here. In the case of slifting, although the complement will be analysed as  $\emptyset$  in this thesis, there could be an alternative possibility of analysis; cases of slifting could also be analysed as *that*-clause complements.

As can be seen from the cases of ellipsis and slifting, the exclusion of the zero complements could leave a gap in the analysis of complementation: the use of a  $\emptyset$  complement can be seen as a

deliberate choice as it could often have been replaced by another complement. This supports the inclusion of zero complements in the analysis of complement patterns.

#### **4. *Hope* in Dictionaries**

In this chapter I will discuss what has been said about the etymology of *hope* and what had been said about the verb in some dictionaries. The main focus will be on the Oxford English Dictionary, known for now on as the *OED*. In addition to the *OED*, some other dictionaries were also consulted. These are: the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English*, *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, the *Collins Cobuild Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, and Hendrik Poutsma's unpublished manuscript.

##### **4.1 Etymology**

According to the *OED*, the origins of the verb *hope* in modern English are in the Old English word *hopian* and the Middle English words *hopien* and *hopen*. According to the *Chambers Dictionary of Etymology* (2006) the verb *hopian* in Old English meant to “wish and expect, look forward to something”. According to both of the dictionaries the verb has cognates in Middle Low German, Middle Dutch, and modern Dutch in the form of *hopen*. *Chambers Dictionary of Etymology* adds Old Frisian *hopia* to this list. The word does not occur in Old High German. It appears in Middle High German in the form of *hoffen* (the same form is still used in modern German) but according to the *OED* the word was rare in Middle High German and not the standard word used for the meaning “to hope”. Thus, according to the *OED*, the word seems to have occurred first in the English and Saxon-Frankish domains and later spread to Germany and Scandinavia.

The online edition of the *OED* is currently being updated and especially the etymological descriptions will be expanded. This updating is happening gradually, and the entry for *hope* has not

yet been updated and thus there may be changes in the etymological description of the word in the coming years.

#### 4.2 *Hope* and its senses in the *OED* and some other dictionaries

The *Oxford English Dictionary* presents five different senses for the verb *hope*. The following table (Table 1) demonstrates these different senses. I will only concentrate on examples from modern English, therefore sense four and some subsections with examples only from Old or Middle English will be excluded. In the *OED*, the senses are illustrated with numerous examples from real texts and some of these examples are also presented in the table. These example sentences were chosen in order to illustrate all of the different complementation patterns that occur together with *hope* in the *OED*.

OED entries	Example(s)	Complement (s)
1. <i>intr.</i> To entertain expectation of something desired; to look (mentally) with expectation	1. Come, hope for the best, said I. (1726 W.R. Chetwood, <i>Voy. Capt. Boyle</i> ) 2. Hope could never hope too much, In watching thee from hour to hour. (1850 Tennyson, <i>In Memoriam</i> )	<i>for</i> + NP  zero
2. <i>intr.</i> To trust, have confidence.	1. Leave God to order all thy ways, And hope in Him whate'er betide. (1855 C. Winkworth, <i>tr. G. Neumarck in Lyra Germanica</i> )	<i>in</i> + NP
3. <i>trans.</i> To expect with desire, or to desire with expectation; to look forward to (something desired). a. with a simple object. (= hope for, sense 1) Now chiefly poetic.	1. With looks that asked yet dared not hope relief. (1792 S. Rogers, <i>Pleasures Mem.</i> ) 2. The conviction, that he had nothing to hope from his friend's fears. (1836 Dickens, <i>Pickwick Papers</i> )	NP  NP + <i>from</i> + NP

b. with obj. clause In mod. colloq. use often in weakened sense, expressing little more than a desire that the event may happen, or that the fact may turn out to be as stated.	3. We hoped that no repetition of the process would occur. (1860 J. Tyndall, <i>Glaciers of Alps</i> )	<i>that</i> -clause
c. with infinitive	4. When may we hope to see you again in London? (1738 Swift, <i>Compl. Coll. Genteel Conversat.</i> )	<i>to</i> -infinitive
d. Phr. to hope against hope: to hope where there are no reasonable grounds for doing so; to hope very much.	5. I had hoped against hope that he would have gone before she returned. (1955 G. Greene, <i>Quiet Amer.</i> )	<i>against + hope</i>
5. <i>trans.</i> to bring by hoping, <i>nonce-use</i>	1. Some hope themselves...into halter, but few into their Wishes. (1721 <i>Coll. Polit. Lett. London Jrnl.</i> )	NP + <i>into</i> + NP

Table 1. Summary of OED entries for *hope*.

As can be seen from the table, senses 1 and 3 are very similar in meaning although the first sense is stated as being the intransitive use and the third sense the transitive use. Senses 1 and 3.a have the same meaning, as is also stated by the *OED*.

Thus, the relevant complementation patterns provided by the *OED* are:

- a) *for* + NP
- b) zero
- c) *in* + NP
- d) NP
- e) NP + *from* + NP
- f) *that*-clause
- g) *to*-infinitive
- h) *against* + hope
- i) NP + *into* + NP

The *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* provides *so* and *not* as additional complements for *hope* with examples such as “I hope so.” and “I hope not.” They also mention that this pattern is mostly a property of spoken English and substitutes for an entire subordinate clause. Poutsma, the *Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary*, and the *Collins Cobuild Advanced Learner’s English Dictionary* also mention this pattern. Contrastingly, the *in* + NP and NP + *from* + NP –patterns are not

mentioned in the *Collins Cobuild* at all, thus it can be expected that these pattern are not frequent as complements for *hope*. Regarding the + NP pattern, Poutsma makes the following comment:

The construction with a non-prepositional object is said by the O.E.D. to be ‘now chiefly poetic’. It is, however far from infrequent also in ordinary prose.

Poutsma and the *OED* thus present alternative opinions on this pattern.

Poutsma adds another pattern: *to* + NP as in “I hope to God, it is” (E. Glyn 1912, *Halcyone*).

Two complementation patterns can thus be added to those mentioned by the *OED*:

- j) *so/not*
- k) *to* + NP

Based on the dictionaries, eleven different complementation patterns for *hope* were found.

As will be evident from the corpus analysis section later in this thesis, *hope* frequently collocates with *pray*; e.g. the *Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary* (CALD) lists the following example under *hope*: “We hope and pray (that) the operations will go well.” Huddleston & Pullum (2002: 1288) also list *hope and pray* among partially lexicalised coordinations. They mention that coordinates of this kind are often near-synonyms; thus in this thesis the pairing *hope and believe* will also be treated as a lexicalised unit, as this pair frequently co-occurs in the data and the words are close in meaning. Thus, any complement following the combinations *hope and pray* and *hope and believe*, will be analysed among the complements of *hope*, even though technically the complement directly follows the coordinating verb.

## 5. *Hope* in Grammars

In this chapter, *hope* will be discussed based on what has been said about the verb in grammar books. The focus will be on what has been said about the complementation of *hope*. For this purpose, three established grammars were consulted: the *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*, the *Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, and the *Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*. The observations that are made by these grammars, are supplemented by some articles that are relevant to the subject at hand.

### 5.1 Basic characteristics of *hope*

Huddleston & Pullum (2002, 170) categorise *hope* among stative verbs of cognition, emotion, and attitude. Similarly, Biber et al. (1999, 382) list *hope* among *mental verbs* that can have both intransitive and transitive uses.

Quirk et al. (1985, 1180-1181) list *hope* as a *factual verb* and, more specifically, under the subdivision of the *private* type of factual verbs (as opposed to the *public* type). The *private* type

. . . expresses intellectual states such as belief and intellectual acts such as discovery. These states and acts are ‘private’ in the sense that they are not observable . . .

Other verbs in this subdivision include verbs like *dream*, *know* or *realize*.

### 5.2 Complementation of *hope*

Quirk et al (1985, 1179) use *hope* as an example when talking about *that*-clauses as object complements. They give the example “I hope he arrives soon” and mention that in complement clauses of this type, *that* can be omitted except in the case of passive constructions. This omission is one of the main interests of this thesis, as was mentioned in the introduction.

Quirk et al. (ibid., 1181) also list *hope* among the verbs that can occur “in the active with a *to*-infinitive directly following” and which can have the pro-form *so* in place of a *that*-clause as its complement. When comparing the choice between an *-ing*-clause and a *to*-infinitival construction

Bolinger (1968, 127) compares the *-ing* and infinitival complements and states the following:

“Verbs such as *want, wish, hope, expect, command*, etc. apply to unrealized possibilities; the complement that goes normally with them is the infinitive.”

Quirk et al. (1985, 1187-1188) also list *hope* as a verb that can take subjectless infinitive clauses as its complement, which means that the *to*-infinitival subordinate clause can have the same understood subject as the superordinate clause. According to them some of the verbs of this kind also take subjectless *ing*-clauses or infinite clauses with a subject as their complement, but they state that this is not true in the case of *hope*. This is also mentioned by Biber et al. (1999, 755) who list *hope* as a verb “that can control *that*-clauses and *to*-clauses but not *ing*-clauses”. They (ibid, 668) also list *hope* among the verbs that are “notably common” in controlling *that*-clauses.

Smith & Escobedo (2001, 552) describe the *to*-infinitive with the idea of *directionality*, which encompasses the thought of reaching a *goal* through a *path*. They list *hope* among some other verbs which when used in conjunction with *to*:

. . . clearly highlight intentionality/or volitionality directed toward some purpose; the goals of *to* are processes . . . viewed as lying in the future relative to the desire, obligation, or intent expressed by the matrix predicates.

The dictionary chapter of this thesis already presented the possibility of *so/not* as complements for *hope*. Several grammars also mention *hope* as an example of a verb that can take *so/not* as complements. Quirk et al. (1985, 880) argue that *so* is frequently a pro-clause standing in place of an entire *that*-clause. They also indicate that when *I* is the subject, it increases the likelihood of *so* occurring in the complement position. Huddleston & Pullum (2002, 1536) call this use of *so* as the *anaphoric so*. They describe it as follows: “*So* here stands for a clause in complement function. We understand: I think so = I think they are putting the piece up.” According to Biber et al. (1999, 752) the co-occurrence of *hope* with *so* and *not* substituting for a post-predicate *that*-clause is frequent in the fields of conversation and fiction but not in the fields of newspaper and academic texts.

The case of *not* as a complement of *hope* is mentioned by Biber et al. (ibid, 753). They state that “only two verbs are moderately common with *not* – *hope* and *guess*.” It would thus appear that not only is *not* a possible complement for *hope*, but that *hope* is especially rare in that it allows *not* as its complement somewhat frequently compared to other verbs. As stated before, *so* and *not* are standing in place of a *that*-clause. Thus their role as a separate complement pattern could be seen as somewhat debatable. However, as *hope* is mentioned among one of the few verbs that are likely to accept *so* and *not* as its complement, this pattern can be considered to be unique and interesting, its frequency thus being of interest to the overall complementation of *hope*.

Huddleston & Pullum (2002, 1406-7) discuss the dummy *it* occurring as a subject with certain verbs or verbal idioms followed by a declarative content clause and or an infinitival, where these construction do not have an equivalent version where the subordinate clause appearing as a subject. *Hope* is mentioned among these verbs and it is mentioned that in the case of *hope* the relevant construction is in the passive. They illustrate this with the an example with the verb *decide* which in this regard behaves in a similar fashion to *hope*:

- 14) a. \* To short-list three of the candidates was decided.  
 b. It was decided to short-list three of the candidates.

Here example (a) is not an acceptable construction.

All of the dictionaries listed *hope* as taking the *for* + NP complement pattern. Radden (1985, 193) discusses the senses of verb + preposition constructions. In the case of *for* he states the following: “The point of destination may be viewed metaphorically as the goal of one’s aspiration, as in *to strive for*, and further on as the purpose, reason or cause of one’s action.” He emphasizes that where emotions are directed towards something the notion of *goal* can be used in this sense

In light of what has been said about *hope* in grammars, we can make some predictions about the data of this thesis. We can expect at least the following things: a relatively high portion of *that*-complement clauses, occurrence of *to*-infinitival complements, the absence of *ing*-clause complements, and the occurrence of *so/not* complements.

### 5.3 *Hope* as a Prepositional Verb

Huddleston & Pullum (2002, 278) characterize *hope* as a *prepositional verb*. This means that the verb and the preposition act as a syntactic unit as in the construction *hope for*. It thus takes the following structure: verb – [prep + O], where the object has to come after the preposition, the complementation structure thus being preposition + NP. Biber et al. (1999, 694) state that “verbs that are prepositional with a noun-headed phrase usually occur without these prepositions when they control a *to*-clause (as with *that*-clauses)”. One of the examples they give is the pattern for *hope for* + NP, which in some situations could thus be replaced with a *hope* + *to*-infinitive pattern.

### 5.4 *Hope*, parentheticals and *as*-clauses

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 895-896) discuss parentheticals which are “expressions which can be added parenthetically to an anchor clause but which also have a non-parenthetical use in which they take a declarative content clause as complement”. These different uses are represented in the example below.

- 15) a. I think it is quite safe. NON-PARENTHETICAL USE  
 b. It is quite safe, I think. PARENTHETICAL USE

They also mention that the parenthetical can “interrupt the anchor instead of following it”. One of the example they give is: “It is, I think, quite safe.”

Huddleston and Pullum argue “that the syntactic structure signals that the anchor is the communicatively most important part of the message, with the parenthetical supplement correspondingly backgrounded”.

Ross (1973, 133-6) discusses a special type of a parenthetical clause which he argues is a case of *slifting* (sentence lifting). He gives the following example:

- 16) Max is a Martian, I feel.

He argues that the superficial main clause “Max is a Martian” is in fact an embedded complement

of the verb *feel*. The underlying sentence in the example above would thus be: “I feel that Max is a martian.” He proposes a rule for the slifted sentences, which in brief goes as follows: A sentence final *that*-clause is removed from under the influence of the higher clause: it is moved left to the higher clause and the complementizer *that* is omitted. He lists *hope* as one of the verbs that allow their complements to be slifted.

It is demonstrated above that in parenthetical sentences the *that*-clause is a complement of the higher predicate. Huddleston and Pullum’s view is that despite this underlying structure, semantically the anchor (or the slifted clause) behaves more like a main clause. In the corpus analysis part of this thesis I will adopt this view and constructions like these will be treated as cases where the complement for *hope* is  $\emptyset$ . Cases where *slifting* has occurred will still be discussed and more examples will be provided.

*As*-clause constructions will also be analysed as  $\emptyset$  complements. The *as*-clauses here refer to what Huddleston & Pullum (2002, 1146-1147) call *adjuncts of comparison*. One of the examples they give is the following:

17) [As I have already observed \_ ,] no reason has yet been offered for this change.

According to them, the comparative clause (in square brackets) is “structurally incomplete” meaning that e.g. in the example above, the verb *observe* is missing its clausal complement. The missing complement can be deduced from the higher clause.

## 6. Corpus Analysis

As mentioned in the chapter 2, the present study is corpus-based. In this chapter I will discuss the methodology that was employed for the analysis in more detail. I will also introduce the corpora that I used for this study. I will then proceed to the actual corpus analysis of the complements occurring together with *hope* in the corpora chosen for this study. The findings from each corpus or

corpus subsection will be presented in their own sections.

## 6.1 Methodology and the corpora

The data for this thesis comes from corpora and the study combines both qualitative and quantitative methods of research. The quantitative method is used in order to be able to compare data from different time periods; the complementation patterns in the different data sets are counted and presented as frequencies and percentages and then compared with each other. The qualitative method is used since the analysis of the data that is retrieved requires the use of introspection. Introspection is used when analysing individual tokens and the reasons for the occurrence of specific tokens.

The data for this thesis was retrieved from two corpora: the original version of *The Corpus of Late Modern English Texts* (CLMET) and the *British National Corpus* (BNC). The CLMET was compiled by Hendrik De Smet and it contains about 10 million words. The texts are written by British authors and they were gathered from the *Project Gutenberg* and from the *Oxford Text Archive*. The corpus is comprised of three sub-periods which are divided into 70 year periods: The CLMET 1 is composed of the time period from 1710 to 1780, the CLMET 2 from 1780 to 1820, and the CLMET 3 from 1850 to 1920. The first part contains about 2 million words, the second part about 3.7 million words, and the third part just under 4 million words. All of the three sub-parts were utilized for this thesis. The original version of the CLMET corpus is not tagged, which entails that different parts of speech cannot be searched separately and that lemma searches are not possible. The search must thus be conducted by searching for all of the inflected forms separately and then categorising the parts of speech manually. In the case of *hope* the inflected forms that were searched were: *hope*, *hopes*, *hoped*, and *hoping*. The results of the searches of the different inflected forms were combined as, for the purpose of this study, there was no need to analyse them separately.

The second corpus used for this study is the BNC. According to the Reference Guide for the British National Corpora (2007), the BNC is comprised of approximately one hundred million words, and has data from both written and spoken texts. Only the written part, and more specifically the domain of imaginative prose was used for this thesis since the CLMET data also comes from written sources. The data in the BNC is from the late twentieth century, from 1960 to 1993, and is written by British writers who use modern British English. According to the Reference Guide for the British National Corpus (2007), the domain of imaginative prose in the BNC contains about 16.5 million words from 476 texts. Since the BNC is a tagged corpus (different parts of speech can be searched separately), only the verb *hope* was searched. This did still yield some nominal tokens but these were removed manually.

Throughout this thesis, the corpus search results will be presented by giving the raw frequencies and the normalized frequencies of the results. As previously mentioned, normalized frequencies are used in order to make it possible to compare the data sets that are of different sizes.

The overall size of each corpus, the raw frequencies of analysed tokens for *hope* and the normalized frequencies (NF) are presented in the table (Table 2) below. Note that the raw frequencies are samples of certain percentages, not the overall frequency of *hope* in the corpora.

	<b>No. of Words</b>	<b><i>hope</i> Freq</b>	<b><i>hope</i> NF</b>
<b>CLMET 1 1710-1780</b>	2,096,405	400	NF 381,6
<b>CLMET 2 1780-1850</b>	3,739,657	264	NF 351.6
<b>CLMET 3 1850-1920</b>	3,982,264	241	NF 242.1
<b>BNC imaginative prose</b>	16,496,408	249	NF 301.8

*Table 2. Summary of the composition of the corpora used and the frequency of the verb hope.*

As can be seen from the table, the normalized frequency is lower in the CLMET3. This might cause problems for the analysis.

Altogether 1154 tokens were analysed. The details of the precise searches will be discussed in

more detail at the beginning of each corpus section. The corpus results will be discussed in a chronological order, starting from the first subsection of the CLMET, followed by the two CLMET subsections, and finally the BNC.

## 6.2 *Hope* in the CLMET1

As mentioned previously, the CLMET corpus is comprised of three subsections. The first subsection of the CLMET contains the time period from 1710 to 1780. This section of the corpora will now be discussed in more detail.

### 6.2.1 Overview

The CLMET1 contains 2.096.405 words taken from 24 texts of 15 authors. The first part of the CLMET is thus relatively small compared to the second and third parts of the corpus. As mentioned before, the CLMET is not a tagged corpus and the tokens for the lexical forms *hoping*, *hopes*, *hope* and *hoped* were gathered separately. Since the size of this part of the corpus is relatively small, a 50 per cent sample was taken to provide a dataset of comparable size. This yielded 624 tokens. As previously mentioned, there is no need to analyse the different lexical forms separately, and thus these sets of different lexical forms were combined as one set. The nouns were then removed manually; 224 of the tokens were nominal as in (1):

- 1) ... sumed he. “Dry your tears, young Lad – you have lost your bridegroom. Yes, cruel fate! And I have lost the *hopes* of my race! But Conrad was not worthy of your beauty.” “How, my Lord!” said Isabella; “sure you do not s ... (Walpole 1764, *The Castle of Otranto*)

After the removal of the nominal tokens, 400 relevant tokens remain, the normalized frequency for this number being 381.6. The complements of these tokens were analysed. The frequencies and percentages of these complements are presented in the table (Table 3) below together with their normalised frequencies. Sentential complements are listed first, then the non-sentential complements followed by the zero complements. This order will be followed throughout this thesis.

<b>Complement pattern</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>	<b>NF/million</b>
<i>that</i> -clauses with <i>that</i> present	45	11.25	42.9
$\emptyset$ <i>that</i>	217	54.25	207
<i>that</i> -clauses in total	262	65.5	250
<i>to</i> -infinitive	56	14	53.4
<i>for</i> + NP	14	3.5	13.3
NP + <i>from</i> + NP	9	2.25	8.5
<i>in</i> + NP	4	1	3.8
NP	3	0.75	2.8
<i>so/not</i>	4	1	3.8
zero	48	12	45.8

Table 3. Complement patterns of the verb *hope* in the CLMET 1.

In order to provide a clearer depiction of the proportional relationships of the different complementation patterns, the patterns are also represented in a pie chart. For the purpose of clarity, the total number of *that*-clauses is included in the pie chart with all the other complement patterns, and the proportions of the two different variants of the *that*-clause, the *that* and  $\emptyset$  *that* –clauses, are represented in a separate diagram next to the pie chart. This practice will continue throughout the thesis. The proportions of the complements found in the CLMET1 are presented in the following chart (Chart 1).

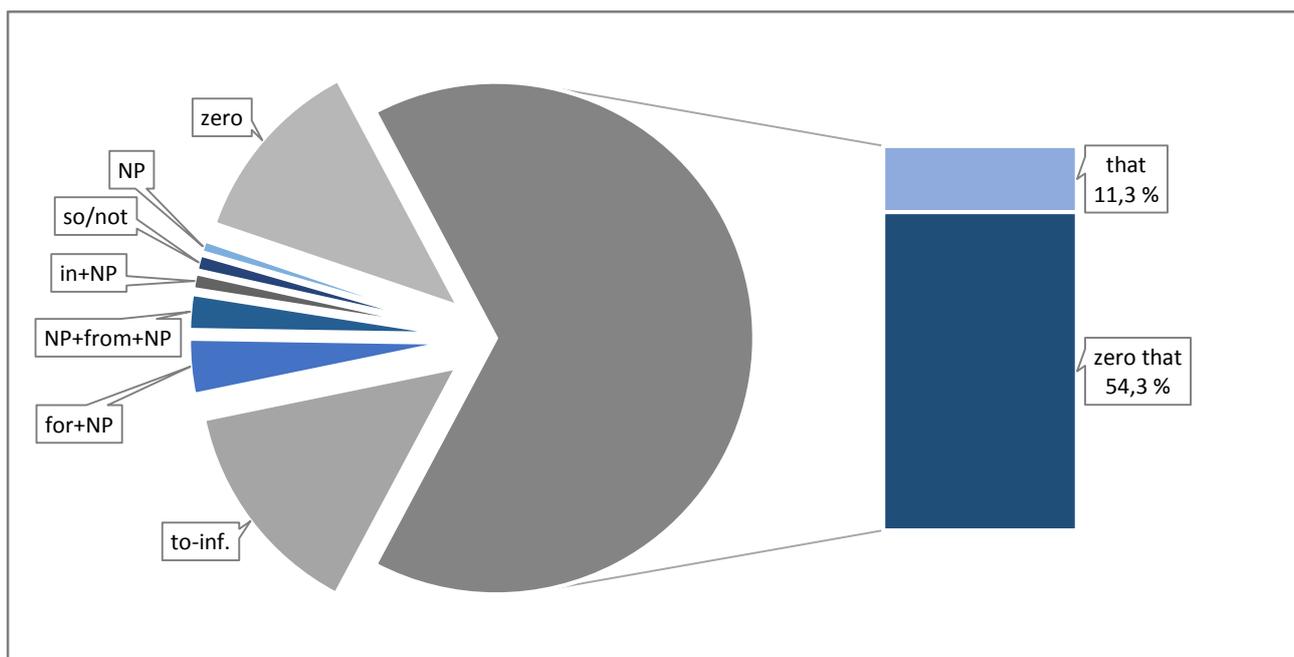


Chart 1. Complement patterns of the verb *hope* in the CLMET 1.

The complementation patterns will now be discussed in more detail. The sentential complements will be discussed first and the non-sentential complements second. The order will be the same in all of the four corpus sections of this thesis. All patterns and factors are illustrated with examples from the corpus. The number of examples is going to be the highest in this analysis chapter since the patterns and their features are discussed here for the first time. In the later corpus analysis chapters, fewer examples will be given since most features have been discussed in greater detail.

### 6.2.2 Sentential complements

Sentential complements amount for 79.5 per cent of the data from the CLMET1. Two different types of sentential complements were found following *hope*: *that*-clauses and *to*-infinitive -clauses. Since one of the aims of this thesis is to investigate the reasons for omitting or retaining the complementizer in *that*-clauses, the two variants of the *that*-clause will be discussed separately: first the *that*-clauses where the complementizer *that* has been retained, and then the *that*-clauses where

the complementizer has been omitted. Both of these sections will include an analysis of the possible factors affecting the retention or omission of the complementizer. These are: the occurrence of a modal in the *that*-clause, the occurrence of an insertion, a non-pronominal subject in the *that*-clause, and coreferential subjects in both clauses. The first three factors could increase complexity, and the last one, coreferential subjects, could decrease complexity. As the absence of a particular factor is also of interest in this analysis, two numbers are given for each factor: in how many cases the factor is present and in how many cases the factor is not present. The two variants of the *that*-clause, and the complexity increasing or decreasing factors, will be compared in the discussion chapter of this thesis.

After discussing the *that*-clauses, the *to*-infinitival complements will be discussed in more detail.

#### 6.2.2.1 *That*-clauses

In this set of data, *hope* is mostly followed by a *that*-clause. According to Ross' (2004, 351) sentential hierarchy, the *that*-clause is the most sentential of the complements. As was mentioned previously, the *OED* states that with *hope* the *that*-clause as an object is often used informally in a weakened sense, without a strong sense of desire. This is verified in the data, where *that*-clauses in general do not express strong desires or expectations but rather a want or a goal.

There are 262 *that*-clause complements in total, which is 65.5 per cent of the total number of tokens in this set of data. In most of these, in 217 tokens, the complementizer *that* has been omitted. In 45 cases *that* has been retained.

##### a. *That* retained

There were 45 tokens where the complementizer *that* has been retained. This is 11.25 per cent of the total number of tokens, and 17.18 per cent of the total number of *that*-clauses in the data. The factors that could affect the retention of *that* were analysed. The occurrences of these factors are

illustrated in the following table (Table 4). The plus (+) sign signifies that the factor is present and the minus (-) sign that it is not present.

<b>Factor:</b>	<b>Frequency +</b>	<b>Frequency -</b>
modal in <i>that</i> -clause	30	15
insertion	17	28
non-pronominal subject in <i>that</i> -clause	25	20
coreferential subjects	3	42

Table 4. Distribution of factors affecting the retention of the complementizer in *that*-clauses where *that* has been retained in the CLMET 1.

The factors will now be discussed in more detail with the help of illustrations from the data. This procedure will continue throughout this thesis.

Of the *that*-clauses where the complementizer was retained, 67 per cent, 30 tokens, had a modal in the *that*-clause, as in examples (2) and (3) below.

- 2) ...d, to escape the fury of her cruel pursuers: for she too well knew the merciless temper of her enemies, to *hope* that they would not pursue her with the utmost diligence, especially as she was accompanied by the young Pri... (Fielding 1749, *The Governess*)
- 3) ... s. I am, therefore, of opinion, that the honourable gentleman's argument is defective in all its parts, and *hope* that I shall not be charged with obstinacy or perverseness for dissenting from him. Mr. Howe spoke next, ... (Johnson 1766, *Parliamentary Debates*)

17 tokens had an insertion either before or after *that*. This is 38 per cent of the total number of *that*-clauses where *that* was retained. Thirteen of the insertions preceded *that* as in (4) and four followed *that*, as in (5). Both of these examples also include a modal in the *that*-clause.

- 4) ... practices of both sides in securing or getting new votes during the recess. Sir Robert is very sanguine: I *hope*, for his sake and for his honour and for the nations peace, that he will get better: but the moment he... (Walpole 1735-1748, *Letters*)
- 5) ... "Dii tibi dent annos, de te nam cetera sumes", was a pretty piece of poetical flattery, where it was said: I *hope* that, in time, it may be no flattery when said to you. But I assure you, that wherever I cannot apply the ... (Chesterfield 1774, *Letters to his son*)

In 25 cases, 56 per cent of the total number of *that*-clauses were *that* was retained, the subject of the *that*-clause was a non-pronominal, full noun phrase. Example (6) has a long full NP subject in the *that*-clause. This example also includes an insertion and a modal in the lower clause. In 20 cases, 44 per cent of the total number of *that*-clauses were *that* was retained, the subject of the *that*-clause was a pronoun. This is the case in (7), which also includes a modal verb.

- 6) ... at least instances of genius not being destroyed by attention or subjection to rules and science. I should *hope*, therefore, that the natural consequence likewise of what has been said would be to excite in you a desire ... (Reynolds 1769, *Seven Discourses on Art*)
- 7) ... This foolish, and often criminal complaisance flows from a foolish cause, the want of any other merit. I *hope* that you will hold your place in company by a nobler tenure, and that you will hold it (you can bear a quibb... (Chesterfield 1774, *Letters to his Son*)

Three of the tokens, 6.6 per cent, had the same subject in both the higher and the lower clause. One has already been presented above in (3) and the two others are presented below in (8) and (9). Both (8) and (9) also include a modal in the *that*-clause and (8) has an insertion following the complementizer.

- 8) ... bout you; and shall be exactly informed of everything that you do, and of almost everything that you say. I *hope* that, in consequence of those minute informations I may be able to say of you, what Velleius Paterculus sa ... (Chesterfield 1774, *Letters to his Son*)
- 9) ... number will be always discontented.” “The discontent,” said the Princess, “which is thus unreasonable, I *hope* that I shall always have spirit to despise and you power to repress.” “Discontent,” answered Rasselas ... (Johnson 1759, *Rasselas, Prince of Abyssinia*)

#### b. Ø *that*

In 217 cases the complementizer *that* was omitted. This is 82.8 per cent of the total number of *that*-clauses. The table (Table 5) of factors that could affect the omission of the complementizer is presented on the following page.

<b>Factor:</b>	<b>Frequency +</b>	<b>Frequency -</b>
modal in <i>that</i> -clause	131	86
insertion	32	185
non-pronominal subject in <i>that</i> -clause	61	156
coreferential subjects	27	190

Table 5. Distribution of factors affecting the retention of the complementizer in *that*-clauses where *that* has been omitted in the CLMET 1.

Modal verbs were frequent in this set of data: modals were present in 131 cases, which is 60.4 per cent of the total number of *that*-clauses where *that* was omitted. (10) and (11) are examples of such constructions.

- 10) ...sum? Alas! They fear a man will cost a plum. Wise Peter sees the world's respect for gold. And therefore *hopes* this nation may be sold: Glorious ambition! Peter, swell thy store, And be what Rome's great Didius was bef ... (Pope 1734, *An Essay of Man*)
- 11) ... reater than theirs; for mine are mixed with guilt and infamy.” “Have patience, my child,” cried I, “and I *hope* things will yet be better. Take some repose tonight, and tomorrow I'll carry ypu home to your mother and... (Goldsmith 1766, *The Vicar of Wakefield*)

There were 32 insertions, which is 14.7 per cent of the zero *that*-clauses. Many of these are cases where the insertion comments on, or refers to, the addressee as in (12). Some insertions give information about the speaker as in (13).

- 12) ...paleness sate upon her cheek. “I am glad to see thee, my dear,” cried I; “but why this dejection Livy? I *hope*, my love, you have too great a regard for me, to permit disappointment thus to undermine a life which I pri ... (Goldsmith 1766, *The Vicar of Wakefield*)
- 13) ... I had never less inclination to sleep; which hath the greater charms for you, the punch or the pillow?” “I *hope*, madam,” answered Booth, “you have a better opinion of me than to doubt my preferring Miss Matthews's conver ... (Fielding 1751, *Amelia*)

One of the insertions (14) was an adverbial phrase:

- 14) ...wait in my entry; and where is the mighty ridiculous matter, pray?” “None at all,” answered Booth; “and I *hope* the next time he will be ushered into your inner apartment.” Whys should he not sir?” replied she, “for, ... (Fielding 1751, *Amelia*)

In the  $\emptyset$  *that*-clauses most of the subjects were pronouns, 156 tokens which is 71.9 per cent of the total. In 61 cases, 28.1 per cent, the subject was a full noun phrase. Previous examples (12), (13) and (14) are cases where the subject of the lower clause is a pronoun. In cases where the subject of the lower clause was a full noun phrase, the phrases were relatively short as in (15), which could make them somewhat easier to process. Thus, it can be proposed that the short NPs do not have a great impact on the complexity of the sentence.

- 15) ... olitical writer, and goes by the of my Lord Potatoe. He wrote a pamphlet in vindication of a minister, *hoping his zeal* would be rewarded with some place or pension; but, finding himself neglected in the quarter, he wh ... (Smollett 1771, *The Expedition of Humphrey Clinker*)

There were 27 cases where the subjects of the higher and the lower clause were coreferential. This is 12.4 per cent of the total number of  $\emptyset$  *that*-clauses. All of these subjects were personal pronouns as in (16) and (17).

- 16) ... my fellow-creatures as Sir Edward Coke insulted one excellent individual (Sir Walter Raleigh) at the bar. I *hope* I am not ripe to pass sentence on the gravest public bodies, intrusted with magistracies of great authority ... (Burke 1775, *On Conciliation with America*)
- 17) ... ter hath overhauled the journal of my sins, and, by the observation he hath taken of the state of my soul, I *hope* I shall happily conclude my voyage, and be brought up in the latitude of heaven. Here has been a doctor tha... (Smollett 1751, *The Adventures of Peregrine Pickle*)

#### 6.2.2.2 *To*-infinitive clauses

There were 56 cases where the complement for *hope* was a *to*-infinitive clause. This is 14 per cent of the total number of tokens in this set of data. As has been stated previously in this thesis, the *to*-infinitival complement construction can often have a more hypothetical or more forward-looking meaning than other complement constructions. Such is the case in this set of data also. In the following examples what is hoped for is clearly at a later point in time than the act of hoping.

- 18) ...the more valuable you make it, the more thankful I shall be. That depends entirely upon you; and therefore I *hope* to be presented, every year, with a new edition of you, more correct than the former, and considerably enla... (Chesterfield 1774, *Letters to his Son*)
- 19) ...tend it shall be at your expense” cries the philosopher; “my wife is gone to raise money this morning; and I *hope* to pay you all I owe you at her arrival. But we intend to sup together tonight at your house; and; if you... (Fielding 1751, *Amelia*)
- 20) ... either pride or resentment lurking there. On the contrary, as my oppressor has been once my parishioner, I *hope* one day to present him up an unpolluted soul at the eternal tribunal. No, sir, I have no resentment now, and ... (Goldsmith 1766, *The Vicar of Wakefield*)

Although it is sometimes difficult to analyse the hypothetical or forward-looking nature of the complement clause with a verb such as *hope* which is inherently hypothetical and forward-looking, the temporal noun phrases (underlined) in the abovementioned examples make the analysis clearer.

### 6.2.3 Non-sentential complements

Altogether six non-sentential complement patterns were found in this set of data. These are: *for* + NP, NP + *from* + NP, *in* + NP, NP, *so/not*, and zero complement. These will now be discussed.

#### 6.2.3.1 *For* + NP

There were 14 tokens with the complement pattern *for* + NP. This is 3.5 per cent of the total amount. Four tokens involved extractions as in (21) and (22). In both of the examples *hope* occurs twice but only the one in italics has been taken into consideration here, as *hoped* was the lexical form that was searched for in the corpus.

- 21) ... ortunes, but the place to which I was going to remove. “This,” cried he, “happens more luckily than I *hoped* for, as I am going the same way myself, having been detained here two days by the floods, which I hope, by .... (Goldsmith 1766, *The Vicar of Wakefield*)
- 22) ... ight hope to establish a system or set of opinions, which if not true (for that, perhaps, is too much to be *hoped* for) might at least be satisfactory to the human mind, and might stand test of the most critical examina ... (Hume 1738, *Treatise of Human Nature*)

In these examples only the NP has been extracted and the preposition is left attached to the verb.

This may be because as a prepositional verb, *hope* is closely linked to the preposition *for* and thus their separation is less likely. The NP however, is not semantically as closely linked to *hope*, and is this more easily moved.

In ten cases the NP directly followed *for* as in examples (23) and (24) below:

- 23) ...ng for royal liberality has been for some years the duty of my station in the Academy; and these Discourses *hope* for your Majesty's acceptance as well-intended endeavours to incite that emulation which your notice has k ... (Reynolds 1769, *Seven Discourses on Art*)
- 24) ... to obey. "Divine creature!" cried he, seizing her hand, and pressing it to his lips, "it is from you alone I *hope* for that condescension, which would overwhelm me with the transports of celestial bliss. The sentiments of ... (Smollett 1751, *The Adventures of Peregrine Pickle*)

The *OED* examples of this pattern have NPs such as "the best" or "too much" but no NPs of this kind were found in this set of data. Although the semantic roles or their features will not be discussed in depth in this thesis, it is worth noting that example (23) is interesting because the subject "discourses" is inanimate, or [-HUMAN], which does not seem to be common with *hope* as the subject of *hope* usually seems to be animate, or [+HUMAN].

#### 6.2.3.2 NP + *from* + NP

There were nine cases where the complement pattern for *hope* was NP + *from* + NP. This is 2.25 per cent of the total number of tokens. This pattern was only found in this set of data. However, it is important to notice that the example for this pattern in the *OED* is from 1836. Thus, this pattern has occurred later even if it is not present in the other corpus sections of this thesis.

Notably, all of the NP + *from* + NP patterns occur in sentences with a non-canonical word order where the first NP does not directly follow *hope*. This is also the case with the example provided by the *OED*. It is also worth noting that seven of the nine instances with this pattern, are by the same author, Samuel Johnson. Four of the tokens with this pattern are presented below.

- 25) ... are bent upon obliging me to talk in a harsher manner than I intended. But as I have shewn you what may be *hoped* from my friendship, it may not be improper to represent what may be the consequences of my resentment. My at... (Goldsmith 1766, *The Vicar of Wakefield*)
- 26) ... on; but I, who know your delicacy, feared it might offend, and that you might think me ungenerous enough to *hope* from your distresses that happiness which I am resolved to owe to your free gift alone, when your good natur... (Fielding 1751, *Amelia*)
- 27) ... intrepid adherence to the public good, that has been shown in forming and defending it. But what can we *hope* from this, or any other law, if particular men, who cannot be convinced of its expedience, shall not only re... (Johnson 1766, *Parliamentary Debates I*)
- 28) ... They return to Cairo without Pekuah. There was nothing to be *hoped* from longer stay. They returned to Cairo, repenting of their curiosity, censuring the negligence of the ... (Johnson 1759, *Rasselas, Prince of Abyssinia*)

As mentioned before, all of these examples have non-canonical word orders, and more precisely, involve extractions.

### 6.2.3.3 *In* + NP

Of the four different sets of data, this is the only one where the pattern *hope* + *in* + NP was found.

The *OED* example is from 1855, and thus the pattern has not disappeared after 1710-1780 although it did not occur in the other corpus sections.

There were four instances of this pattern, which is 1 per cent of the whole data set. As these are the only examples that were found in all of the different corpus sets, all of these cases are presented below.

- 29) ...ell as of its guilt; such a conversion would only be thought prudential and political, but never sincere. I *hope* in God, and I verily believe, that you want no moral virtue. But the possession of all the moral virtues... (Chesterfield 1774, *Letters to his Son*)
- 30) ... finite delight, in particular, which has attended my sieges in my bowling-green, has arose within me, and I *hope* in the corporal too, from the consciousness we both had, that in carrying them on, we were answering the gre... (Sterne 1759, *The Life and Opinions of Tristram Shandy*)
- 31) ... mourning ran not in Trim's head, whatever it did in Susannah's. I hope, said Trim, explaining himself, I *hope* in God the news is not true. I heard the letter read with my

own ears, answered Obadiah; and we shall have ... (Sterne 1759, *Life and Opinions of Tristram Shandy*)

- 32) ... or buy such a thing, added the landlord, I would almost steal it for the poor gentleman, he is so ill. I *hope* in God he will still mend, continued he, we are all of us concerned for him. Thou art a good-natured sou... (Sterne 1759, *Life and Opinions of Tristram Shandy*)

In the *OED*, the sense for this construction is clearly different from the other senses of *hope* with the meaning “to trust, have confidence”. The first and second examples, in my opinion, somewhat clearly do have this meaning. However, with the next two examples, although both of them have the same NP (*God*) as the example in the *OED*, the sense is not as obvious. The *hope* + *in* + NP construction in these cases could either have the meaning “to trust, have confidence”, or the meaning could be closer to the more frequent sense of *hope*, expressing a desire that an event may happen.

All of the tokens have a construction where the *in* + NP construction is followed by a *that*-clause. The *in* + NP construction could thus also be interpreted as having more adjunct-like qualities; it might be possible that it is in fact the *that*-clause that carries more semantic weight than the prepositional construction.

It is certainly worth noting that three of the four cases are by the same author and from the same novel. It is thus possible that this author has a distinct way of using this construction. It is also worth noting that with three of the four instances the NP is *God*, which is also the NP found in the *OED* together with this construction.

#### 6.2.3.4 NP

The data contains three cases where the complement for *hope* is a single NP, without any prepositions. All of these cases are presented below.

- 33) ... ce evil spirits csn appear in what shapes they please.” “And pray, sir,” says the serjeant, “no offence, I *hope*; but pray what sort of a gentleman is the devil? For I have heard some of our officers say there is no such ... (Fielding 1749, *Tom Jones*)

- 34) ... ys to 'scape my censure, not expect my praise. And they not rich? What more can they pretend? Dare they to *hope a poet* for their friend? What Richeliu wanted, Louis scarce could gain, and what young Ammon wished, but w... (Pope 1734, *An Essay on Man*)
- 35) ... Il write you a more comfortable letter. I would have not written this, if it were a time to admit deceit. *Hope the best*, and fear as little as you would do if you were here in the danger. My best love to the Chutes ... (Walpole, *Letters*)

There is an alternative analysis for all of these patterns and therefore this pattern will be discussed in more detail in section 7.2 towards the end of this thesis.

#### 6.2.3.5 So/Not

In this set of data, *so* and *not* were not frequent complements of *hope*. There were only four cases, 1 per cent of the total, where *hope* was followed by *so* or *not*. *So* occurred only once:

- 36) ... etc., than in point of manners and address. But consider, he is very young; all this will come in time. I *hope so*; but that time must be when he is young, or it will never be at all; the right 'pli' must be taken young ... (Chesterfield 1774, *Letters to his Son*)

There were three cases where *not* is the complement of *hope*, as in (37):

- 37) ... if this opposition in the council hindered your intercession from taking place for the valet de chambre. I *hope not*! I could not bear his thwarting you! I am now going to write to your brother, to get you the overture... (Walpole, *Letters*)

In all of these four cases it could quite safely be argued that *so* and *not* are substituting a whole clause.

#### 6.2.3.6 Zero

There were 48 cases where *hope* was not followed by a complement. This is 12 per cent of the total.

Many of these are cases of ellipsis, where what has been omitted can be inferred from the context as in (38).

- 38) ... mankind. Of this kind I assert justice to be; and shall endeavour to defend this opinion by a short, and, I *hope*, convincing argument, before I examine the nature of the artifice, from which the sense of that virtue is d ... (Hume 1738, *Treatise of Human Nature*)

In the example above, *hope* can also be seen as being a part of an insertion itself.

In 22 cases the  $\emptyset$  complement was the result of slifting as in (39):

- 39) ...ate, you will be convinced of my candour, while you are informed of my indiscretion. You will be enabled, I *hope*, to perceive, that, howsoever my head may have erred, my heart hath always been uncorrupted, and that I hav... (Smollet 1751, *The Adventures of Peregrine Pickle*)

In one case *hope* was followed by an adjunct as in (40):

- 40) ... o perish, or a sparrow fall, Atoms or systems into ruin hurled, And now a bubble burst, and now a world. *Hope* humbly, then; with trembling pinions soar; Wait the great teacher Death; and God adore. What future bliss, ... (Pope 1734, *An Essay of Man*)

One of the constructions where *hope* does not have a complement, caused the writer of this thesis some difficulties. This example goes as follows:

- 41) ... o have nothing left to wish for; but we daily see thousands who by suicide shew us they have nothing left to *hope*. In this life then it appears that we cannot be entirely blest; but yet we may be completely miserable! ... (Goldsmith 1766 , *The Vicar of Wakefield*)

The underlying structure of the underlined part is not clear. It is here analysed as "... they have nothing left [to them] to *hope*" and is being treated as a zero complement. The alternative analysis for the construction in question would be to treat "nothing" as an extracted NP which, without the extraction, would result in the following sentence: "They have left to hope nothing". This would be a somewhat peculiar sentence and thus the construction is treated as a zero complement pattern.

#### 6.2.4 Conclusions on the CLMET1

The first part of the CLMET contains eight of the eleven complementation patterns of *hope* mentioned by the *OED* and Poutsma's manuscript. The sentential complements are the most frequent in this set and the *that*-clauses dominate the data.

Out of the nine non-sentential complement patterns, six were found in this set: *for* + NP, NP + *from* + NP, NP, *in* + NP , *so/not*, zero complements. Two of these patterns, NP + *from* +NP and *in* + NP, are the unique to this set.

When analysing the factors that could possibly affect the complexity of a construction, and

therefore motivate the omission or retention of the complementizer in the *that*-clauses, the nature of the subject of the *that*-clause and insertions were found to be the most prominent factors. The occurrence of modals does not seem to be a significant factor in including or excluding the complementizer in this set of data.

### 6.3 *Hope* in the CLMET2

The data for this chapter was gathered from the second part of the CLMET which contains the years from 1780 to 1850. This corpus subsection will be discussed in the same order as the previous subsection.

#### 6.3.1 Overview

The CLMET2 consists of 3,739,657 words taken from 39 texts of 29 authors. Again, as the corpus is not tagged, data for the lexical forms *hoping*, *hopes*, *hope* and *hoped* were gathered separately.

The data analysed here is a sample of twenty per cent, which yields 498 tokens in total. A large part of these, 234 tokens altogether, are nouns like (42) and were discarded.

42) ... ad the quantity of book at my disposal been greater; but they were now diminishing rapidly, and as I had no *hopes* of a fresh supply, I was almost tempted to be niggard of the few which remained. This agent was a Greek br... (Borrow, *Bible in Spain* 1842)

After the nominal tokens were removed, there were 264 verbal tokens in total. One of these is unclear (43) and will be left aside, leaving 263 relevant tokens to be analysed. The normalized frequency for this number is 351.6.

43) ... a sett of new people to you. –The Bradshaws; Greaves's, all belonging to one another; I *hope* the Pickfords. –Mrs Evelyn called very civilly on Sunday, to tell us that Mr Evelyn had seen Mr Philips ... (Austen, *Letters to her Sister* 1796-1817)

The frequencies and percentages of the complementation patterns found in the CLMET2 and their normalized frequencies per million are presented in the following table (Table 6).

Complement Pattern	Frequency	Percentage	NF/million
<i>that</i> -clauses with <i>that</i> present	31	11.8	41.4
$\emptyset$ <i>that</i>	122	46.4	163.1
<i>that</i> -clauses in total	153	58.2	204.6
<i>to</i> -infinitive	51	19.4	68.2
<i>for</i> + NP	10	3.8	13.4
<i>so/not</i>	11	4.2	14.7
zero	38	14.4	50.8

Table 6. Complement patterns of the verb *hope* in the CLMET 2.

Once again, the results are also represented in a pie chart (Chart 2) in order to depict the relative amounts of the different patterns.

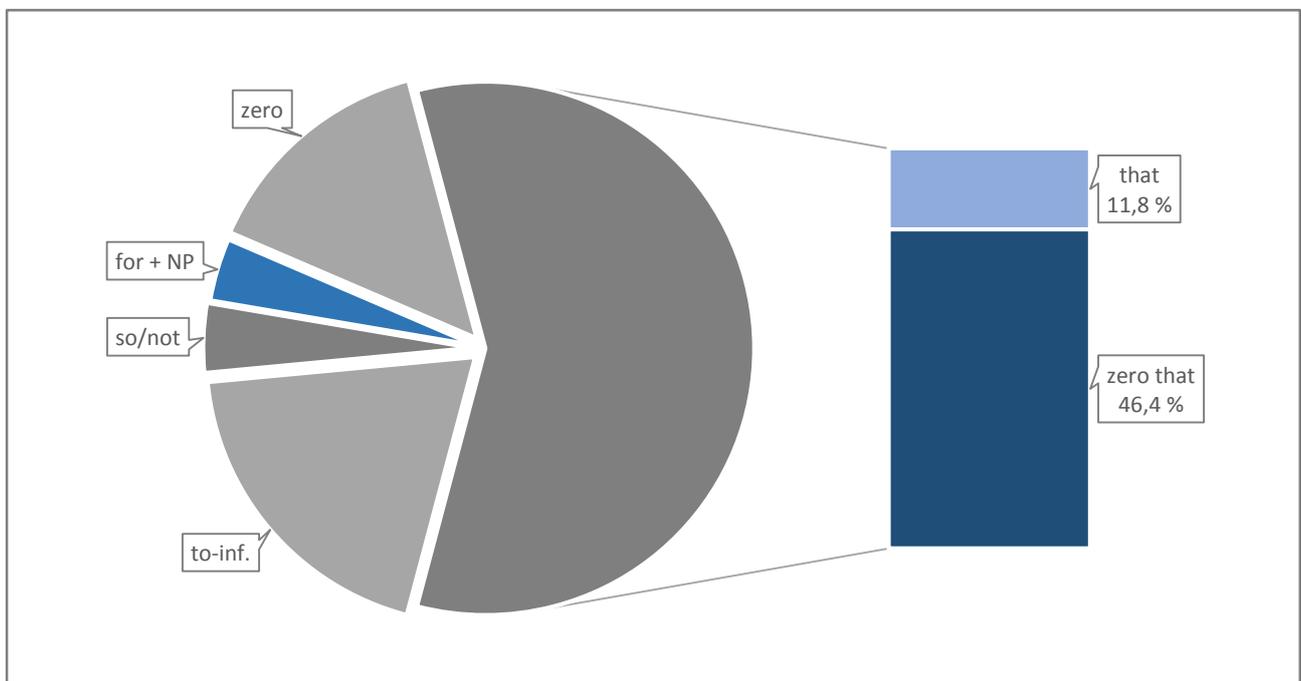


Chart 2. Complement patterns of the verb *hope* in the CLMET 2.

Sentential complements are again the most frequent type of complementation. The situation was the same in the CLMET1. Nevertheless, there are differences within the group of non-sentential complements: six non-sentential complement patterns were found in the CLMET1 but only three of these are present in the CLEMT2. The most frequent of these is the zero complement. *For* + NP and *so/not* occur in almost equal measures. What is missing from the patterns found in the first part of

the CLMET are the other variants of the NP complements: NP, *in* + NP, and NP + *from* + NP. These were not very frequent in the CLMET1 either but it is rather surprising that no instances of the + NP pattern were found since, as will be shown later, this pattern does occur in the data from the CLMET3 and from the BNC.

Each individual pattern found in the CLMET2 will be discussed in more detail in the following sections. The sections are divided into sentential and non-sentential complements.

### 6.3.2 Sentential complements

A majority, 77.2 per cent of the complements found in the data, are sentential. Most of the sentential complements are *that*-clauses and the rest are *to*-infinitival clauses.

#### 6.3.2.1 *That*-clauses

There were 153 *that*-clauses in the data. This is 58.2 per cent of the total number of tokens from the CLMET2. In 122 cases, 46.4 per cent of the total, the complementizer *that* has been omitted. In 31 cases, 11.8 per cent of the total, the complementizer *that* has been retained.

##### a. *That* retained

As mentioned before, the version of a *that*-clause where the complementizer has been retained, is the more explicit version. Thus, according to the *complexity principle*, there could be some complexity factors that motivate the retention of *that*. The factors possibly affecting complexity that were discussed in the previous chapter about the first part of the CLMET, were also analysed from the second part. The results are presented in the table following (Table 7).

Factor:	Frequency	Frequency
	+	-
modal in <i>that</i> -clause	21	10
insertion	10	21
non-pronominal subject in <i>that</i> -clause	21	10
coreferential subjects	2	29

Table 7. Distribution of factors affecting the retention of the complementizer in *that*-clauses where *that* has been retained in the CLMET 2.

Most of the tokens, 67.7 per cent, involved modals. The percentage in the CLMET1 was 67, thus the occurrence of modals in these two sets is almost the same.

In ten cases there was an insertion either before (44) or after (45) *that*. This is 32.2 per cent of the total number of *that*-clauses where *that* has been retained. The percentage for the CLMET1 was 38.

44) ... and sighed, and looked very grave; and those who had sons about his age, waxed wrathful and indignant, and *hoped*, for Virtue's sake, that he was dead. And the world went on turning round, as usual, for five years, con ... (Dickens 1841, *Barnaby Rudge*)

45) ... to favour anything calculated to give offence to the court of Rome, which they were anxious to conciliate, *hoping* that eventually it might be induced to recognise the young queen, not as the constitutional but as the abso ... (Borrow 1843, *Bible in Spain*)

The other factors suggested to influence the complexity of a sentence, a full NP subject instead of a personal pronoun subject in the object *that*-clause, and coreferential subjects in higher and lower clauses, were also present in the data. 67 per cent had a non-pronominal subject; this is a slightly higher proportion than in the CLMET1 where the percentage was 56. Example (46) has a non-pronominal subject, which in addition is very long and thus further increases the likelihood of the retention of the complementizer.

46) ... early days indeed to think of moderation in grief, either in him or his afflicted daughter, but soon we may *hope* that our dear Fanny's sense of duty to that beloved father will rouse her to exertion. For his sake, and as ... (Austen, *Letters to Her Sister*)

There were two instances where the subjects were coreferential. This is 6.4 per cent of the

total. This is again very close to the occurrences in the CLMET1, where the percentage for this factor was 6.6.

b.  $\emptyset$  *that*

As stated before, the  $\emptyset$  *that* variant was much more frequent than the variant where the complementizer has been retained: there were 122 cases in total in this set of data. The factors that could possibly affect complexity were once again analysed and the results are presented below (Table 8).

<b>Factor:</b>	<b>Frequency</b> +	<b>Frequency</b> -
modal in <i>that</i> -clause	71	51
insertion	13	109
non-pronominal subject in <i>that</i> -clause	33	89
coreferential subjects	12	110

Table 8. Distribution of factors affecting the retention of the complementizer in *that*-clauses where *that* has been omitted in the CLMET2.

Modal verbs occur in 71 cases, 58 per cent of the total amount. This is very close to the amount found in the CLMET1, where 60.4 per cent of the  $\emptyset$  *that*-clauses involved modals.

Of the 122  $\emptyset$  *that*-clauses that were found, 13 had an insertion. This is 10.6 per cent of the total, in the first part of the CLMET the percentage was 14.7

Non-pronominal subjects were less frequent than pronominal ones: 27 per cent of the tokens had full NP subjects in the lower clause. This is again very close to the percentage of the first part, in which 28.1 per cent of the lower clause subjects were full NPs. Example (47) demonstrates a pronominal subject in a  $\emptyset$  *that*-clause:

- 47) ... with a treasure, a mighty schatz which lies in the church of Saint James of Compostella, in Galicia." "I *hope you* do not intend to rob the church," said I; "if you do, however, I believe you will be disappointed. Mend ... (Borrow 1843, *Bible in Spain*)

The subjects of the higher and lower-clauses were coreferential in 12 cases which is 9.8 per

cent of the total. This is a slightly lower proportion than in the CLMET1 where 12.4 per cent of the  $\emptyset$  *that*-clauses has coreferential subjects. All of the subjects were pronouns, usually “I”, but in two cases the subject was “he” as in (48).

- 48) ...of living cannot be found for you, Come home with me.” She was silent for a minute, and he *hoped* he had gained his point. Then she said: “God bless you, Jem, for the words you have just s... (Gaskell 1848, *Mary Barton*)

### 6.3.2.2 *To*-infinitive clauses

There were 51 *to*-infinitival complements in the data, this is 19.4 per cent of the total. As mentioned before, the *to*-infinitive is thought to be more hypothetical and more forward looking. This does seem to get some validation in the data:

- 49) ... ve it executed in every point as this our mandate bears, before the twenty-fourth current, when in person We *hope* to applaud your faithfulness and zeal. Given at Mauchline this twentieth day of November, Anno Domini one ... (Burns 1790, *Letters*)
- 50) ... ildren, kneeling by baskets of vegetables and other provisions; which, by good Anthony's interposition, they *hoped* to sell advantageously in the course of the day. Beyond these, nearer the choir, and in a gloomier part of ... (Beckford 1783, *Dreams, Waking Thoughts, and Incidents*)

In both of the examples above, the hoping is happening at a certain point in time, and what is hoped for is in the future and more hypothetical. There are also lexical time references that indicate a future occurrence, these are underlined. However, it must once again be stated that in the case of a verb such as *hope*, the meaning is very frequently hypothetical and forward looking even without a *to*-infinitival construction. Thus the analysis of the future orientation of the *to*-infinitival construction following *hope* does not have much value.

### 6.3.3 Non-sentential complements

In this set of data, only three non-sentential complement patterns were found. These are the *for* + NP pattern with ten tokens, the *so/not* pattern with 11 tokens, and the most frequent one of these, the zero complement, with 38 tokens. Each of the three patterns will now be discussed individually.

### 6.3.3.1 *For* + NP

There were ten cases where the complement pattern for *hope* was *for* + NP as in the following examples:

51) . . . I have observed her to do before. I date the time of this improvement from the period when she ceased to *hope* and strive for Arthur's admiration. (Brontë 1848, *The Tenant of Wildfell Hall*)

52) . . . and both died, in a short time after, and now wholly friendless in her little exile, where she could only *hope* for toleration, not being known, she was contending with suspicion, rebuffs, disappointments, and various o . . . (Inchbald 1796, *Nature and Art*)

Example (51) has another verb *strive* between *hope* and *for* but the complement would be expected to be the same even if *strive* was removed. Two of the tokens with *for* + NP complements involve an extraction as in (53). In both cases the prepositions immediately follows *hope*, and the NP (underlined) has been preposed.

53) . . . e void sands that would seem to give such poor promise of food. I can hardly tell what prey they could be *hoping* for, unless it were that they might find now and then the carcass of some camel that had died on the journe . . . (Kinglake 1844, *Eothen*)

Two of the tokens had a construction identical to the example found in the *OED*, with a pattern *hope* + *for* + *the best*.

### 6.3.3.2 *So/Not*

Eleven tokens had *so* or *not* as the complement of *hope*. There were eight cases where the complement was *not*, as in:

54) . . . less so when the man asked me, with deep concern: "If I was serious in my intentions of going to Oxford? He *hoped* not, and that I would be better guided." I said my education wanted finishing; but he remarked the . . . (Hogg 1824, *Private Memoirs and Confessions of a Justified Sinner*)

In three cases the complement was *so*, as in:

55) . . . said her mistress; "and my brother gives him a high character: I hope he will do very well." "I'm sure I *hope* so too," observed Mrs. Pomfret; "but I can't say; for my part, I've no great notion of those low people. Th . . . (Edgeworth 1796, *The Parent's Assistant*)

In all of the cases where the complement for *hope* is *so* or *not*, the complement is likely to be substituting a whole *that*-clause, thus being *anaphoric*. The content of the substituted clause can be deduced from the previous statement or sentence.

### 6.3.3.3 Zero

In 38 cases, 14.4 per cent of the total, there was no complement following *hope*. In (56) *hope* occurs together with *trust* which is interesting since one of the possible senses for *hope* is “to trust, have confidence”.

56) . . . ich are so freely given to others, who neither ask them nor acknowledge them when received? May I not still *hope* and trust? I did hope and trust; for a while; but alas, alas! The time ebbed away; o . . .” (Brontë 1847, *Agnes Grey*)

In the theory part of this thesis, *pray* and *believe* were already mentioned as being frequent collocates of *hope*. The senses of the verbs that seem to frequently collocate with *hope* appear to fall under a distinct semantic class of inner perception. The features of these collocates would provide an interesting question for further study. However, since this question falls outside the present research questions, it will not be discussed further in this thesis.

In eleven cases the zero complement is a case of *slifting*. In (57) the whole *that* clause has been moved to a sentence initial position and in (58) the supposed main clause is in the middle of the lifted clause.

57) . . . God's death, knave! darest thou say so?” cried Henry furiously. “Why, I have said nothing treasonable, I *hope*?” rejoined Cutbeard, turning pale; “I only wish the king to be happy in his own way. And as he seems to del . . . (Ainsworth 1842, *Windsor Castle*)

58) . . . u, if you please. Walk on here, man, beside my horse, and you'll hear me. You have changed your opinion, I *hope*, about that bit of land – that corner at the end of my garden?” “As how, Mr. Case?” said the farmer. “A . . . (Edgeworth 1796, *The Parent's Assistant*)

There were also two *as* clauses (59) and (60). As mentioned previously, these complement patterns are analysed as zero complements in this thesis.

59) . . . etween Elinor's conduct and her own. She felt all the force of that comparison; but not as he sister had *hoped*, to urge her to exertion now; she felt it with all the pain of continual self-reproach, regretted most bitt . . . (Austen 1811, *Sense and Sensibility*)

60) . . . ains with regret, for we were obliged to imagine their nature and productions, Instead of standing, as we had *hoped*, on their summits. Besides the useless loss of time which an attempt to ascend the river and higher would ha . . . (Darwin 1839, *Voyage of the Beagle*)

In one instance *hope* was followed by an adjunct of time.

### 6.3.4 Conclusions on the CLMET 1780-1850

Out of the eleven complementation patterns found in the dictionaries, five were found in the data.

Sentential complements are clearly the most common type of complements found in this section of the CLMET. The most common pattern of complementation for *hope* in the data is the *that*-clause.

With most of these cases the complementizer has been omitted. Where *that* has been retained, there seems to be a factor increasing complexity in a majority of the cases. The second most common type of complementation in the data is the *to*-infinitival construction.

The zero complement is the third most common type in the data. Many of these are cases of *slifting*. Of the other non-sentential complements the *for* + NP and *so/not* constructions appear in almost equal numbers.

## 6.4 *Hope* in the CLMET3

The third section of the CLMET includes the time period from 1850 to 1920. This is the final subsection of the CLMET corpus.

### 6.4.1 Overview

The data for this section was gathered from the CLMET3. This part of the CLMET contains 3,982,264 words taken from 52 texts of 28 authors. Once again the data for the lexical forms *hoping*, *hopes*, *hope* and *hoped* were gathered separately. The data analyzed here is a sample of 25 per

cent, which produced 436 tokens. A large part of these, 195 tokens altogether, were nouns, which were discarded. 241 verbal tokens in total remain, one of these (61) is unclear and will be left aside.

61) ...ce before, Mrs. Povey,” said Maggie, “so I don’t know as I know how it ought for be done – not rightly. But I *hope* as you’ll accept of it, Mrs. Povey.” “Oh! Of course,” said Mrs. Povey, primly, just as if Maggie was not ... (Bennett, *The Old Wives’s tale*)

240 relevant tokens remain, the normalized frequency for this number is 242. The frequencies and percentages of the complementation patterns of the relevant tokens with their normalized frequencies are presented below (Table 9) followed by a chart (Chart 3) of the relative proportions.

Complement pattern	Frequency	Percentage	NF/million
<i>that</i> -clauses with <i>that</i> present	38	15.8	38.2
∅ <i>that</i>	91	37.9	
<i>that</i> -clauses in total	129	53.75	
<i>to</i> -infinitive	44	18.3	44.2
<i>for</i> + NP	27	11.3	27.1
<i>to</i> + NP	2	0.8	2
NP	5	2.0	4
<i>against</i> + <i>hope</i>	2	0.8	2
<i>so/not</i>	7	2.9	7
zero	24	10	

Table 9. Complement patterns of the verb *hope* in the CLMET 3.

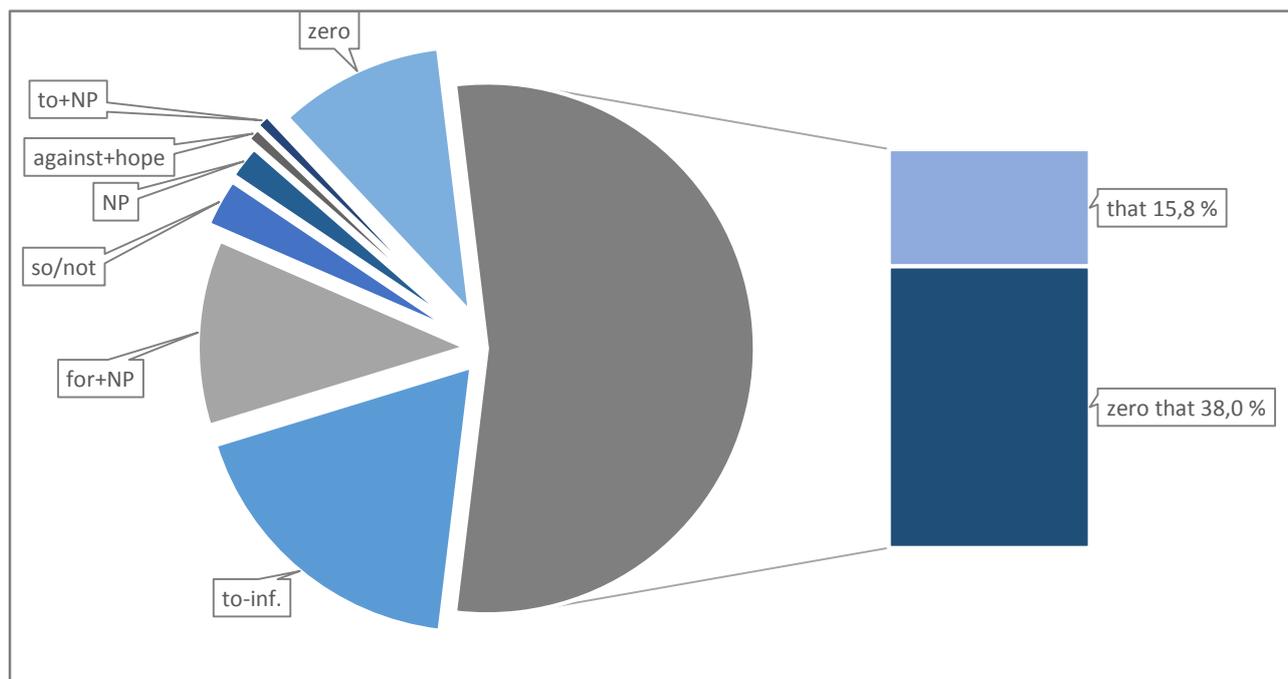


Chart 3. Complement patterns of the verb *hope* in the CLMET 3.

As can be seen from the table, there altogether eight complement patterns were found in the data. Two of these are sentential, the *that*-clause and the *to*-infinitive-clause, and six are non-sentential, the *for* + NP and the zero-complement patterns being the most prominent. *To* + NP, NP, *against* + *hope*, and *so/not* patterns occur in limited numbers.

### 6.4.2 Sentential complements

A majority of the patterns found in this part of the corpus are sentential, 71.6 per cent of the total amount. Most of these are *that*-clauses, 54.2 per cent of the total number of tokens and the rest are *to*-infinitival clauses, 18.3 per cent of the total amount.

#### 6.4.2.1 *That*-clauses

The complementizer has been omitted in 91 cases which is 38.3 of the total number of tokens and about 70 per cent of the 129 *that*-clauses. In 38 cases the complementizer has been retained. This is 15.8 per cent of the total number of tokens and about 30 per cent of the total number of *that*-clauses

in this set. As previously, the more explicit version of the *that*-clauses will be discussed first, followed by a discussion of the less explicit variant.

a. *That* retained

The previously mentioned factors that could possibly affect the complexity of a construction were once again analysed and the results of the analysis are represented below (Table 10).

<b>Factor:</b>	<b>Frequency</b> +	<b>Frequency</b> -
modal in <i>that</i> -clause	30	8
insertion	13	25
non-pronominal subject in <i>that</i> -clause	18	20
coreferential subjects	0	38

Table 10. Distribution of factors affecting the retention of the complementizer in *that*-clauses where *that* has been retained in the CLMET3.

Modals were present in 78.9 per cent of the tokens where *that* had been retained. This percentage is slightly higher than the percentages in the CLMET1 (67%) and in the CLMET2 (67.7%).

The number of insertions was very close to the numbers in the previous sections of the corpus, the percentage here was 34.2 whereas in the first part 38 per cent of the tokens and in the second part 32.2 per cent of the tokens involved insertions. Examples (62) and (63) below both have a somewhat long insertion. In (62) the insertion precedes the complementizer and in (63) it follows it.

- 62) ... ily housed, and as regularly fed as our criminal convicts—but that is not yet. Neither is it possible to *hope for many years to come* that human beings generally will be as well cared for as horses. Mr. Carlyle long ag... (Booth 1890, *In Darkest England and the Way Out*)

63) ... te detail in the daily life of Flatland must needs correspond to some other detail in Spaceland; and yet he *hopes* that, takes as a whole, his work may prove suggestive as well as amusing, to those Spacelanders of moderate ... (Abbot 1884, *Flatland*)

As for the subject of the lower clause, 18 tokens, or 47 per cent, had a non-pronominal subject in the complement clause. This percentage is clearly lower than in the second part of the CLMET (67%) and somewhat lower than in the first part (56%). It would thus seem that a full NP does not as strongly motivate the retention of the complementizer in this corpus subsection as with the other subsections. However, a closer look at the twenty tokens with a pronominal NP shows that all but one involve another complexity increasing factor in them.

None of the tokens had coreferential subjects whereas in the first and second parts the percentages were about 6.5 per cent in both subsections.

#### b. $\emptyset$ *that*

There were 91  $\emptyset$  *that*-clauses in the third subsection of the CLMET. Frequencies of factors affecting complexity are analysed below (Table 11).

<b>Factor:</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	
	<b>+</b>	<b>-</b>
modal in <i>that</i> -clause	53	38
insertion	2	89
non-pronominal subject in <i>that</i> -clause	12	79
coreferential subjects	9	82

*Table 11. Distribution of factors affecting the retention of the complementizer in that-clauses where that has been omitted in the CLMET3.*

In 53 cases the sentences involved a modal verb. This is 58.2 per cent of the total. This proportion is very similar to the proportions in the first two subsections of the CLMET.

Only two insertions were found. This is 2.2 per cent of the total. Compared to the CLMET1 proportion of about 15 per cent and to the CLMET2 proportion of around 11 per cent, the number of

insertions in this set is very low.

The proportion of the full NP subjects in *that*-clauses, as in (64), is also low compared to the previous sets. 12 cases, 13.2 per cent of the total, were found. This amount is notably lower than in the previous CLMET subsections.

- 64) ... e Bandar-log.” Then all would begin again till they grew tired of the city and went back to the tree-tops, *hoping* the Jungle-People would notice them. Mowgli, who had been trained under the Law of the Jungle, did not li ... (Kipling 1894, *The Jungle Book*)

The proportion of coreferential subjects is 9.9 per cent which is close to the proportions of the previous corpus sections.

#### 6.4.2.2 *To*-infinitive clauses

*To*-infinitival clauses are the second type of sentential complements found in the data, with 18.3 per cent of the total. The more hypothetical and more forward looking nature of the construction does seem to get some validation in the data. In examples (65) and (66) the time reference of the complement clause is at a later point in time than the time reference of the higher clause. The lexical indicators of the future time reference have been underlined.

- 65) ... oddly twisted – “you don’t know what a difference it makes to have a correspondent; it gives one courage. I *hope* to remain a long time in correspondence with you.” “I dare say you do,” thought Shelton grimly, with a cer ... (Galsworthy 1904, *The Island Pharisees*)
- 66) ... these personal details, as I give them to show that I have not been hasty in coming to a decision.” If he *hopes* finally to solve his great problem, it is by careful experiments in pigeon-fancying, and other sorts of arti ... (Bagehott 1867, *The English Constitution*)

When analyzing the nature of the *to*-infinitival construction, it must once again be noted that the nature of the verb *hope* makes the analysis difficult.

One of the tokens (67) has a *for to* construction discussed by Rudanko (1989, 77-78). As the instances of this pattern are very few in the data, the pattern is listed under to-infinitival complements in this thesis, even though it could be treated as a separate pattern.

67) ... y hunting him down. Might he not have been as much deceived in Mrs. Rawlins as herself? At any rate she *hoped* for time to face the subject, and kneeling on the ground so as to support little Lovedy's sinking head on h... (Yonge 1865, *The Clever Woman of the Family*)

Rudanko lists *hope* as one of the verbs accepting this pattern and notes that verbs that accept the *for* + NP pattern usually also take the *for to* -clause as their complement. He argues that this pattern is a fairly recent phenomena that has spread from American English to British English.

### 6.4.3 Non-sentential complements

There were six non-sentential patterns: *for* + NP, *to* + NP, NP, *against* + *hope*, and *so/not*. These will be discussed in the following.

#### 6.4.3.1 *For* + NP

11.3 per cent of the total number of tokens had the construction *for* + NP as the complement of *hope*. This pattern is much more frequent in this subsection of the corpus than in the two previous sections where the proportions of this pattern were both under 4 per cent.

Of the 27 instances found in the CLMET3, ten a cases of *preposition stranding* (Huddleston & Pullum 2002, 626) where the preposition has been stranded as the NP has been preposed. Example (68) has a construction like this, the preposed NP has been underlined.

68) ... bicycles should be mean, but it struck me that way at the time. It was not the particular steal I had been *hoping* for. "I wanted him wild; the hero of the book was ever in his college days a wild young man. Well, he wa .... (Jerome 1909, *They and I*)

Two of the *for* + NP constructions have NPs that are similar to the example provided by the OED (*hope for the best*):

- 69) ...e dishes and the strips of red carpet, that outwardly she might give Henry what was proper. But inwardly she *hoped* for something better than this blend of Sunday church and fox-hunting. If only some one had been upset! But... (Forster 1910, *Howards End*)

#### 6.4.3.2 *To* + NP

There were two tokens with a *to* + NP complement:

- 70) ... er so many more on ‘em, tulling up how they was arl gooin’ to be promoted, for kitching of Tom Faggus. “*Hope to God*,” says I o myzell, “poor Tom wun’t coom hre to-day: arl up with her, if’a doeth: and who be there... (Blackmore 1869, *Lorna Doone*)
- 71) ... ss. He paused, leant over the gate, and breathed a long breath. They heard low words come from him. “I *hope to God* she’ll come, or this night will be nothing but misery to me! Oh my darling, my darling, why do you... (Hardy 1874, *Far from the Madding Crowd*)

This is the first time that this pattern is found in the data; the CLMET1 and the CLMET2 samples did not have occurrences of this pattern. In both of the tokens with this pattern the NP is *God*, as was in the example provided by Poutsma. It is possible that *God* is the only NP found in this construction with *hope*. The Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (2008) gives a definition of this phrase under the idiom definitions of the word “God” stating the following:

hope/wish/swear to God INFORMAL used for emphasis:  
*I hope to God (that) he turns up.*

In the example provided by the dictionary the NP is followed by a *that*-clause, as are both of the sentences found in the CLMET3. In addition, the aspect of emphasizing is realized in both of the tokens. It is thus possible that “to God” has adjunctive-like qualities and the actual complement of the verb would be the *that*-clause. These are only speculations however, and this suggestion would need further investigation.

## 6.4.3.3 NP

In five cases the complement following *hope* was an NP. One of the tokens involves an extraction:

- 72) ... se all you have gained in these long years of work. Let me plan for you; do as I wish. You are to be *what* we *hoped* from the first. Take all the summer months. How long will it be before you can finish this short book? ... (Gissing 1897, *New Grub Street*)

At a first glance “the first” could be considered to be a noun phrase, and thus the pattern could be an NP + *from* + NP pattern, but a closer look at the novel and the text in its real context reveals that the phrase is used in the sense of “from the beginning” and is thus an adjunct. The NP in this case is the extracted *what*.

The remaining four tokens with a + NP pattern, are somewhat similar, either *better things* (occurs twice) or *all things*. Noun phrases of this kind are very common with the *for* + NP pattern, as noted before. One of the NPs was *nothing*. As mentioned before, this and the other NPs will be discussed in section 7.2.

6.4.3.4 *Hope + against + hope*

There were two tokens with the pattern *hope + against + hope*. As this is the first occurrence of this pattern in all of the corpora, both of these token are presented below.

- 73) ... imal had been it. It was stifled at once, and a girl staggered out of the hail. She had been *hoping* against hope for months, because some who have gone adrift in dories have been miraculously picked up by deep-sea sailin... (Kipling 1897, *Captains Courageous*)
- 74) ...orn and she died. Then it was that my last illness seized me, and I returned hither to die. But still I *hoped* against hope, and set myself to learn Arabic, with the intention, should I ever get better, of ... (Haggard 1887, *She*)

In both cases the meaning of the expression is clearly that which is described by the *OED*; the person is hoping for something that they know is not going to happen. In the *OED* the expression is followed by a *that*-clause but that is not the case here.

#### 6.4.3.5 *So/Not*

There were seven cases with *so* or *not* as the complement for *hope*. In all of these cases, it is clear from the context that the complement is substituting a whole clause and is therefore anaphoric. An example of such a construction in the data is presented below.

75) ... ressing. "The girl who was here before was a brute, so dull and so vulgar. I hope you will like me." "I *hope* so too." "It's dreadful here: so different to my mother's house in Devonshire. We have a large place th ... (Rutherford 1913, *Catherine Furze*)

#### 6.4.3.6 *Zero*

In 10 per cent of the tokens, 24 cases, the verb *hope* did not have a complement. In three of these *hope* was followed by an adjunct.

Eleven of the  $\emptyset$ -complements were cases of slifting. As mentioned before, cases like these are treated as zero complements in this thesis because the moved element feel semantically more like a main clause, not like a subordinate clause as in. This is the case in (76).

76) ... ove do a collop, John?' 'No, I should hope not,' I answered rashly; 'she is not a mere cook-maid I should *hope*.' 'She is not half so pretty as Sally Snowe; I will answer for that,' said Annie. 'She is ten thousa ... (Blackmore 1869, *Lorna Doone*)

In two cases *hope* was a part of an *as*-clause.

In one instance *hope* itself is part of a *bare comparative complement* (Huddleston & Pullum 2002, 1104) selected by the *comparative governor* "as" (bolded) in a comparison of equality (underlined). It should be noted that the first "as" is an adverb and the second "as" is a preposition.

77) ... s, no urgency of dance; but they would be real nymphs. The chauffeur could not travel as quickly as he had *hoped*, for the Great North Road was full of Easter traffic. But he went quite quick enough for Margaret, a poor-s ... (Forster 1910, *Howards End*)

### 6.4.4 Conclusions on the CLMET 1850-1920

Out of the eleven complement patterns found in the dictionaries, eight were found in the data from CLMET. A majority of the complements found in the data are sentential, mostly *that*-clauses. The

second most common complement type found is the *to*-infinitive clause. In most of the *that*-clauses the complementizer has been omitted.

All in all, some of the factors increasing or decreasing complexity occur in almost equal proportions in the CLMET3 and in the two previous subsections but there are also some notable differences. Full NP subjects seems to be much rarer with both variants of the *that*-clause compared to the findings in the previous sections. Where *that* has been retained, the numbers of pronominal and non-pronominal subjects are almost the same. However, almost all of the tokens with pronominal NPs still had a complexity increasing factor in them. Coreferential subjects are non-existent with this variant of the *that*-clause and the number of insertions in  $\emptyset$  *that*-clauses is much lower than in the CLMET1 and in the CLMET2.

As mentioned before, the size of this sample is lower when the normalized frequencies are compared. However, the raw frequencies of *that*-clauses where *that* has been retained are very close to each other: 45 in the CLMET1, 31 in the CLMET2, and 38 in the CLMET3. As for the  $\emptyset$  *that* variant, the raw frequencies are 217, 122, and 91. The problem of the limited size of the sample does not suffice in explaining the differences in numbers.

Of the non-sentential complements found in the data, the *for* + NP pattern is the most common type. This pattern is much more frequent in this subsection of the CLMET than in the two previous subsections. The zero complement also occurs somewhat frequently. Some cases of + NP and + *so/not* patterns were also found. The *against* + *hope* and *to* + NP –patterns, which do not occur in the previous subsections, were also found.

## 6.5 *Hope* in the BNC

The last set of corpus data comes from the BNC. The data for the BNC includes the time period from 1960 to 1993.

### 6.5.1 Overview

The data for the last corpus section is based on a sample from the BNC. Since the data for the CLMET comes from novels, the domain of imaginative prose under the written section of the thesis was used from the BNC. As the BNC is a tagged corpus, the search was conducted using the search string {hope}\_V. This search returned 4985 tokens, which was then thinned to 5 per cent in order to provide a dataset of comparable size to the previous sets. This yielded 249 tokens which has a normalized frequency of 301.8. The sample is a random and reproducible.

Four of the tokens were nouns as in (78) and one token was obscure (79).

78) *A hope* that was soon to be crushed, the chief inspector reflected, scrutinizing Swod's stern face. (G15 596)

79) I *hope* to the Lady Jahsaxa's instincts haven't been pricked by you, Tammuz," Roirbak continued. (AD9 2682)

These five tokens were excluded from the analysis thus leaving a total of 244 relevant tokens to be analysed. The following table (Table 12) presents the patterns and frequencies of the complement types found in the data.

Complement Pattern	Frequency	Percentage	NF/million
<i>that</i> -clauses with <i>that</i> present	39	16	47.3
$\emptyset$ <i>that</i>	129	52.9	
<i>that</i> -clauses in total	168	68.9	
<i>to</i> -infinitive	28	11.5	33.9
<i>for</i> + NP	14	5.7	16.9
<i>to</i> + NP	1	0.4	1.2
NP	2	0.8	2.4
<i>against</i> + <i>hope</i>	2	0.8	2.4
<i>so/not</i>	12	4.9	14.5
zero	17	7	20.6

Table 12. Complement patterns of the verb *hope* in the BNC.

Below, the proportions of the complement patterns found in the BNC are presented in a chart (Chart 4).

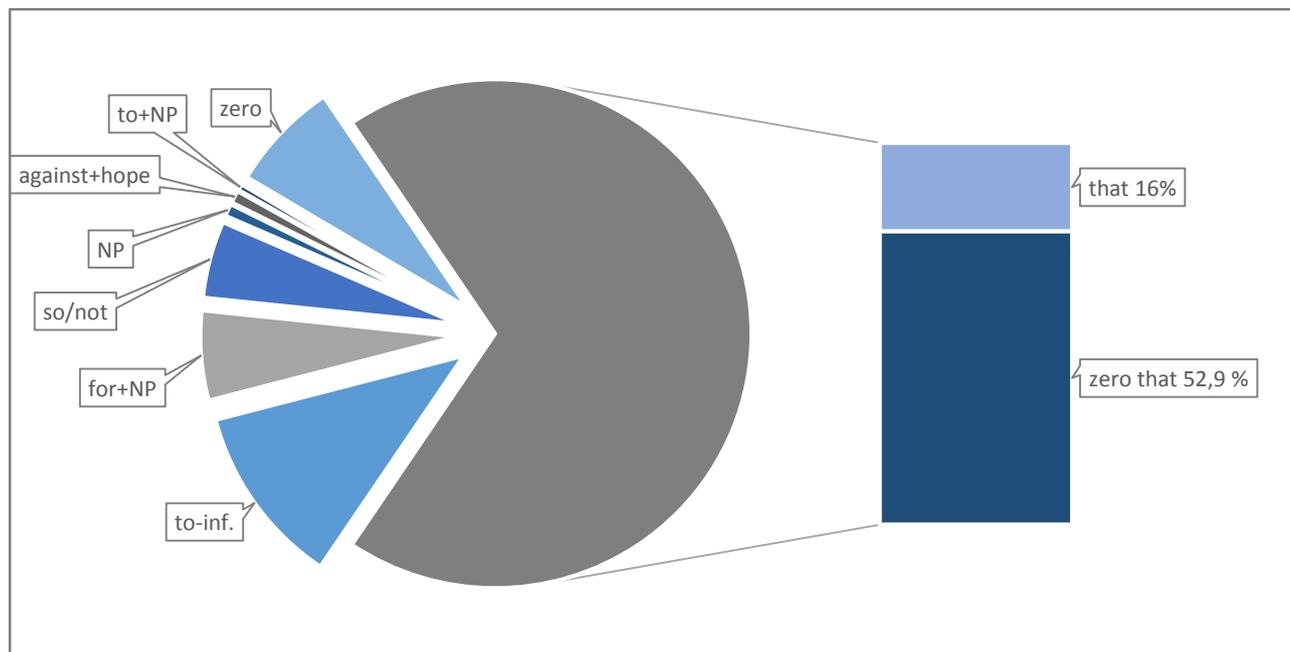


Chart 4. Complement patterns of the verb *hope* in the BNC.

Most, 68.9 per cent, of the complements found in the data are *that*-clauses,. These dominate the data. The second most frequent are the *to*-infinitive clauses, which account for 11.5 per cent of the data. The frequencies of *for* + NP, zero-complement and the total number of *so/not* complements are very close to each other. Two tokens with the + NP pattern and with the *against* + *hope* pattern were found and the *to* + NP pattern occurs once.

### 6.5.2 Sentential complements

As stated before, most of the complements found in the data were *that*-clauses. The second most frequent pattern were the *to*-infinitive clauses. Together these two complement patterns constitute 80.4% of the total number of patterns found in the data.

### 6.5.2.1 *That*-clauses

As with the other corpus sections, the most frequent complementation pattern in this set of data is the *that*-clause, either with *that* retained or with  $\emptyset$  *that*. As with the previous data sets, the more frequent variant is the one where *that* has been omitted.

The two versions of a *that*-clause will be discussed separately together with the previously mentioned possible complexity factors.

#### a. *That* retained

There were 39 *that*-clauses where *that* has been retained. The following table (Table 13) represents the frequencies of the possible complexity factors.

Factor:	Frequency	Frequency
	+	-
modal in <i>that</i> -clause	29	10
insertion	8	31
non-pronominal subject in <i>that</i> -clause	27	12
coreferential subjects	3	36

Table 13. Distribution of factors in *that*-clauses where *that* is retained.

A vast majority of the tokens where *that* has been retained, 29 tokens or 74.4%, have a modal verb in the subordinate *that*-clause, mostly *would* as in (80). This amount is somewhat similar to the results of the CLMET subsections.

80) Wayne was *hoping* that nobody else would get any ideas about joining them. (FYY 1612)

Eight instances with an insertion in the *that*-clause, as in (81), were found in the data. This is 20.5 per cent of the total number of *that*-clauses where *that* has been retained. This is a much smaller proportion than in the CLMET subsections where the percentages were all well above 30 per cent.

81) *I hope*, when Siward comes with his army, that you find the field as easy to quit as it has been to enter. (HRC 1230)

Out of the 39 *that*-clauses where *that* has been retained, 27 have a non-pronominal NP as the subject of the object clause as in (82). This is 69.2 per cent of the total. This is a much higher proportion than in the CMLET3 (47 per cent) and closer to the proportion found in the CLMET2 (67 per cent).

82) She *hoped* that the child to whom this home belonged would let her stay and watch him playing. (AC5 1031)

In a majority of the tokens in this section (36 of the 39), the subject on the main clause is different than the subject of the subordinate clause: 7.7 per cent have coreferential subjects. This amount is similar to that found in the first two subsections of the CLMET. As mentioned before, the CLMET3 did not have any occurrences of coreferential subjects in cases where *that* has been retained.

b.  $\emptyset$ -*that*

Altogether 129 tokens with a  $\emptyset$  *that* pattern were found. The following table (Table 14) present the frequencies of the different complexity factors mentioned before.

Factor:	Frequency	Frequency
	+	-
modal in <i>that</i> -clause	39	90
insertion	1	128
non-pronominal subject in <i>that</i> -clause	35	94
coreferential subjects	26	103

Table 14. Distribution of factors in *that*-clauses where *that* is omitted.

Here, modals were present in 39 cases. This is 30.2 per cent of the total. This percentage is much lower than in the three subsections of the CLMET where the percentages were all around 60.

Insertions were not frequent with this set of  $\emptyset$  *that*-clauses, only one example was found. This is under one per cent of the total whereas in the CLMET subsections the percentages were 14.7 in the CLMET1, 10.6 in the CLMET2, and 2.1 in the CLMET3.

In 35 cases the subject of the lower clause was a full NP. This is about 27 per cent of the total, which is very close to the percentages in the CLMET1 and in the CLMET2. Again, the CLMET3 differs from the other sets as the percentage of full NPs where *that* had been omitted is 9.9.

In 26 instances, the subjects are coreferential as in (83). This is 20.2 per cent of the total. This amount is much higher than in the CLMET subsection where the percentages were 12.4 in the first subsection, 9.8 in the second, and 7.3 in the third.

83) *I hoped I might turn the trick with that one.* (FAP 2434)

One further reason for omitting *that* could be the *horror aequi* –principle, which has not been systematically presented since it is not a very prominent phenomenon in the data. However, in this set of data it could be seen as a factor that influences the choice of a complement. In (84), (85), and (86) there is a *that*, functioning as the subject of the lower clause, right at the beginning of the  $\emptyset$  *that*-clause:

84) *Phew – Let's hope that gives enough support.* (JYB 2686)

85) *I hope that's ozone-friendly washing-up liquid they're using.* (ACK 1195)

86) *I hope that's OK.* (FP7 536)

The motivation for the  $\emptyset$  *that* construction in these could come from the need to avoid repeating *that* as it would make the construction redundant. However, besides the non-coreferential subjects, there are no more complexity increasing factors involved and thus the more explicit version of a *that*-clause would be somewhat unlikely anyway.

### 6.5.2.2 *To*-infinitive clauses

There were 28 *to*-infinitival complement clauses in the data. As mentioned previously, in the case of *hope* the meaning is always somewhat hypothetical, but the tokens with *to*-infinitival constructions are more clearly forward-looking in this set of data also. In (87) and (88) the *to*-infinitival construction is referring to something that will happen after the event or action in the main clause has been finished.

87) Jezrael dragged herself wearily up a nearby pinnacle, *hoping* to climb above the billowing mist so she could see something. (FP0 835)

88) When it's done I *hope* to interest the Church in a mission to the gipsies.' (HHC 2233)

### 6.5.3. Non-sentential complements

There were six complement patterns in the data that are not considered sentential. These will now be discussed.

#### 6.5.3.1 *For* + NP

There were 14 cases of the *for* + NP pattern in the data. The constructions in these tokens are quite similar in the sense that what is *hoped* is, or has been, the cause or purpose of the action.

89) You're supposed to be taking things easy, and I come home after a day's work and a beastly journey *hoping* for some restoration and some intelligent company. (H9G 1322)

90) Though she rarely drank, Charity drained her small bottle of wine, *hoping* for some small illusion of warmth from it. (JY6 1448)

There are also three cases with the idiom "hope for the best" as in (91) or a variation of this, as in (92).

91) His smile was tantamount to an unspoken 'We must hope for the best'. (GVP 3043)

92) I had hoped for better than this. (J13 3029)

### 6.5.3.2 *So* and *not*

There were ten cases with the + *so* pattern and two cases with the + *not* pattern. As stated before, *so* and *not* as complements are most common when the subject is *I*. This is actualized in the data:

93) 'I sincerely *hope not*.' (FR0 4314)

Of the 12 tokens with *so* or *not* complements, only two did not have *I* as their subject as in (94).

94) Lorton *hoped not*. (GUU 3236)

In this set of data, the anaphoric nature of *so* and *not* in this construction is yet again realized.

They are also substituting a whole clause as in each case there is a previous statement that the *so/not* are referring to.

The dictionaries that mention this pattern also mention that it is mostly used in spoken English. This gets some confirmation in the data as eight of the twelve tokens where the pattern was found were clearly quoted speech.

### 6.5.3.3 NP

Two tokens with an NP complement were found:

95) As if he had known this all along but had *hoped* something different. (EFJ 132)

96) That is what I *hope*. (JY7 1309)

In (95) it would feel quite natural to add *for* after *hope*. (96) is an inverted pseudo-cleft, and without the inversion and without the cleft, the sentence would probably be something like "I hope (that) that." Both of these examples will be discussed in more detail in section 7.2.

### 6.5.3.4 *Against* + *hope*

Two cases with a complementation pattern *against* + *hope* were found:

97) Somehow she'd still *hoped against hope* that Ace might have come to her after all. (HGM 3271)

98) *Hoping* against hope that she had not ducked out back to her own flat – not that she'd blame her! – Leith skirted the room until her eyes were drawn to a settee that had been pushed back to the side of the room. (JY1 92)

Both constructions are followed by a *that*-clause as in the example provided by the *OED*. In both cases the meaning of the expressions is also that which is described by the *OED*; the person is hoping for something that they know is not going to happen.

#### 6.5.3.5 *To* + NP

In the data, one token with the complementation pattern *to* + NP was found.

99) 'I *hope to God* she'll come!' he whispered. (FRE 1993)

Again, the phrase *hope to God* is the same that Poutsma used as an example when describing this pattern. As was the case in the *to* + NP patterns found in the CLEMT3, this token also has a construction where the prepositional complement pattern is followed by a *that*-clause that carries more semantic weight than the prepositional complement.

#### 6.5.3.6 Zero complement

There were 17 cases without a complement in the data. Six of these are cases of slifting and in two cases *hope* is followed by an adjunct as in (100). Ellipsis was also present in the data.

100) 'Go on,' said the Robemaker, and Fenella dared to *hope* again. (G1L 2351)

### 6.5.4 Conclusions on the BNC

Eight of the eleven patterns were found in the data. Two of these were sentential; *that*-clauses and *to*-infinitival clauses. Out of these two, *that*-clauses were clearly the most common pattern in the data. Most of these were constructions where *that* was omitted. The second most common pattern found was the *to*-infinitive complement.

The rest of the patterns were non-sentential; the most common ones were the *for* + NP, *so/not* and zero complements. *So* and *not* often stood in place of a longer construction. Zero-complements were mostly cases of ellipsis or slifting.

The rest, + NP, *against* + *hope* and *to* + NP were not frequent in the data. The pattern + NP was very similar in meaning to the *for* + NP pattern. Since *against* + *hope* is a phrase with a special meaning, its occurrence was expected to be somewhat limited.

## 7. Discussion of findings

In this chapter, all of the four sets of corpus data will be discussed as a whole in order to find answers to the research questions of this thesis. To remind the reader of the research questions, they are repeated below.

- i. What kind of complementation patterns does the verb *hope* have?
- ii. What kind of changes have happened regarding the complementation of *hope* during the time period in question?
- iii. How is the choice of the complement motivated?
- iv. What kind of factors affect the omission or retention of the complementizer *that* in *that*-clauses?

The research questions will now be discussed based on the findings.

### 7.1 Complementation patterns in the corpora

The first task of this thesis was to determine the complementation patterns that *hope* accepts. The complementation patterns occurring with *hope* in the different corpus sets are presented in the table (Table 15) below.

	<b>Complementation patterns</b>
<b>CLMET 1710-1780</b>	<b>Sentential:</b> <i>that</i> -clause, <i>to</i> -infinitive-clause <b>Non-sentential:</b> <i>for</i> + NP, NP + <i>from</i> + NP, <i>in</i> + NP, NP, <i>so/not</i> , zero
<b>CLMET 1780-1850</b>	<b>Sentential:</b> <i>that</i> -clause, <i>to</i> -infinitive-clause <b>Non-sentential:</b> <i>for</i> + NP, <i>so/not</i> , zero
<b>CLMET 1850-1920</b>	<b>Sentential:</b> <i>that</i> -clause, <i>to</i> -infinitive-clause <b>Non-sentential:</b> <i>for</i> + NP, <i>to</i> + NP, NP, <i>against</i> + <i>hope</i> , <i>so/not</i> , zero
<b>BNC</b>	<b>Sentential:</b> <i>that</i> -clause, <i>to</i> -infinitive-clause <b>Non-sentential:</b> <i>for</i> + NP, <i>to</i> + NP, NP, <i>against</i> + <i>hope</i> , <i>so/not</i> , zero

Table 15. Complementation patterns for *hope* from 1710 to present day.

As can be seen from the table, both of the sentential complements occurred during all of the time

periods in question.

Regarding the non-sentential complements, three of the complementation patterns occur in all of the corpora: *for* + NP, *so/not*, and zero complement. The complements that involve an NP together with a preposition vary between the datasets. The NP + *from* + NP pattern only occurs in the first subsection of the CLMET but, as stated before, the *OED* example for this pattern is from 1836 so it is possibly just a coincidence that the pattern was not found elsewhere in the data. Nevertheless, it is somewhat surprising that the other data sets did not have this pattern since there were nine instances in the first set.

The *in* + NP pattern also only occurs in the first set. The example in the *OED* comes from 1855 and again it is possibly just by chance that this pattern did not occur in the other corpus data sets. Out of curiosity, a search was performed in the BNC with the search string {hope} IN. The whole corpus was used. This search yielded only one relevant token. Thus, nothing conclusive can be said about the pattern's occurrence except that the token found in the BNC suggests that the pattern is not obsolete but just very rare. It must also be noted that in all of the examples in the data this pattern precedes a *that*-clause and semantically the *that*-clause could carry more weight than the non-sentential complement.

Continuing with the patterns involving an NP, the *to* + NP pattern was only found in the CLMET3 and in the BNC. This pattern is not present in the *OED* but the example from Poutsma's manuscript comes from 1912. It is thus possible that the occurrence of this pattern with *hope* is a newer phenomenon and was not present before the year 1850. The *against* + *hope* pattern also only occurs in these two corpus sets. The first example in the *OED* comes from 1813, thus this pattern could also be a later invention.

The bare + NP pattern occurs in all of the corpus sets except in the second subsection of the CLMET. This is somewhat surprising but since the pattern is not very frequent in the other sets either (none of the raw frequencies exceed five), this could be a coincidence. As mentioned before,

the existence of the *hope* + NP pattern could be contended. Because of this, the pattern will be discussed and analysed in more detail in the following section.

## 7.2 About the *hope* + NP construction

Throughout the corpus analysis part of this thesis *hope* + NP has been analyzed as a separate complement pattern. Ten instances of this pattern occurring together with *hope* were found in all of the corpora. However, as stated before, the analysis of this pattern as an NP complement is not necessarily that straightforward.

Let us first go back to the dictionary section of this thesis: the example with the +NP pattern provided by the *OED* is repeated below:

With looks that asked yet dared not hope relief. (1792 S. Rogers, *Pleasures Mem.*)

The *OED* states, that this construction equals the *hope* + *for* construction and is now “chiefly poetic”. It could thus be expected that in the corpus data analysed in this thesis, some of the cases where *hope* is followed by a simple object NP are in fact equivalent to the *for* + NP complement pattern. In order to better understand the nature of the NP complement pattern, all ten instances with this pattern that were found in the data will be explored in more detail.

In the corpus data, in five instances the NPs following *hope* are very similar: *the best*, *better things* (occurs twice), *all things*, and *something different*. These NPs are somewhat short and easily processed; it could be suggested that they are very familiar, formulaic units of the English language. In the *OED* two of these expressions occur with the preposition *for*: *Hope for the best* and *hope for better things*. *To hope for the best* is also listed as an idiom in the *OED* meaning “to hope for a favourable outcome or result, esp. in situations where it seems unlikely that one will occur”. The *Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary of Current English* (2010) also labels *hope for the best* as an

idiomatic expression. It could be suggested that since these expressions, and expressions that are variations of this, are formulaic and idiomatic sequences of the English language, the expressions are very familiar and easily understood and processed by speakers of English. This easy processing could thus allow for the deletion of the preposition without a loss of intelligibility. The original, underlying construction would have included the preposition before the NP.

There are also other kinds of NPs in the data. Example (34), in section 6.2.3.4, “Dare they to *hope* a poet for their friend?” could easily be regarded as a poetic expression as it is in fact a part of a poem. In addition, the *horror aequi* principle (here: avoiding the repetition of *for*) could have motivated the deletion of *for* after *hope* in the example mentioned.

In example (33) in section 6.2.3.4 the NP complement is “no offence”. In the *OED*, this phrase is defined as having the meaning “do not take offence; no offence is meant or taken”. In its examples, the *OED* uses “no offence” interchangeably with “without offence”. Example (33) could thus allow an interpretation that *hope* is accompanied by an adjunct. Another possibility is that the underlying meaning is something like “I hope that you take no offence”, where *hope* is followed by a *that*-clause. This, in my opinion, is the more likely of these two explanations.

In one of the tokens (101) the NP is *nothing*:

- 101) ... g to have a little trouble with my eyes.” She looked at him, startled. “With your eyes?” “Nothing, I *hope*; but well, I think I shall see an oculist. One doesn’t care to face a prospect of failing sight, perhaps o ... (Gissing 1897, *New Grub Street*)

This could be a case of slifting or ellipsis with the underlying construction “I hope that it is nothing” and the complement pattern could be analysed as a *that*-clause.

There are two other cases where the complement has been analysed as a noun phrase. One of them was already discussed in the corpus analysis section (example 72 in section 6.4.3.3) and thus only the relevant part of this sentence is repeated here: “You are to be what we *hoped* from the first.” It was previously concluded that the NP here is *what* since a closer look at the novel revealed that “from the first” has the meaning “from the beginning” in the text and is thus an adjunct.

The second remaining + NP complement construction, “That is what I *hope*” (example 96 in section 6.5.3.3) has also been discussed previously and it was concluded that it is an inverted pseudo-cleft. Even though *what* is an NP, and therefore has here been counted as an NP complement, in this construction, *what* is in fact a pro-form that is standing in place of a whole clause.

Brame (1980, 252-3) discusses the complementation of *hope* and blatantly states that “*hope* simply does not select NP objects”. Battistella (1983, 177-178) also discusses the complementation of *hope*. He mentions what he calls the *pseudocleft paradigm*. Even though the whole discussion on the paradigm will not be paraphrased here, one aspects of this discussion is worth noting as regards to the pseudo-cleft in question. Battistella compares strings “what did you hope” and “what did you hope for” and argues that *what* in the first string can only refer to a *that*-clause, whereas as in the second string *what* can be construed as a *for*-clause, *that*-clause, or an NP. He illustrates this with the following examples:

- a. I hoped the following: that John would win.
- b. ?? I hoped the following: For John to win.
- c. ?? I hoped the following: To win.

Only (a) seems natural and the other two are somewhat questionable constructions.

Considering these alternative interpretations for all of the + NP complements found in the data, it could be argued that the existence of a *hope* + NP complementation pattern is questionable. It seems that in the data of this thesis the poetic form is the only truly relevant case of a + NP complement pattern and the other occurrences are either ellipted *for* + NP patterns or cases where there are alternative interpretations as to what the complement pattern really is.

### **7.3 Changes in complementation of *hope* from 1710 to present day**

The second research question was to determine the diachronic changes that have occurred in the complementation of *hope*.

As mentioned in section 7.1, some complementation patterns occur during the whole time

period from 1710 to present day and some occur in some corpora only. In addition to this fluctuation there are differences in the relative proportions of the complementation patterns. The following chart (Chart 5) illustrates the changes in the relative proportions of the complementation patterns in all four corpora. The focus here is the portion of the sentential complements compared to the non-sentential ones, and thus the non-sentential complements are grouped together. The non-sentential complements will be presented in a separate diagram later.

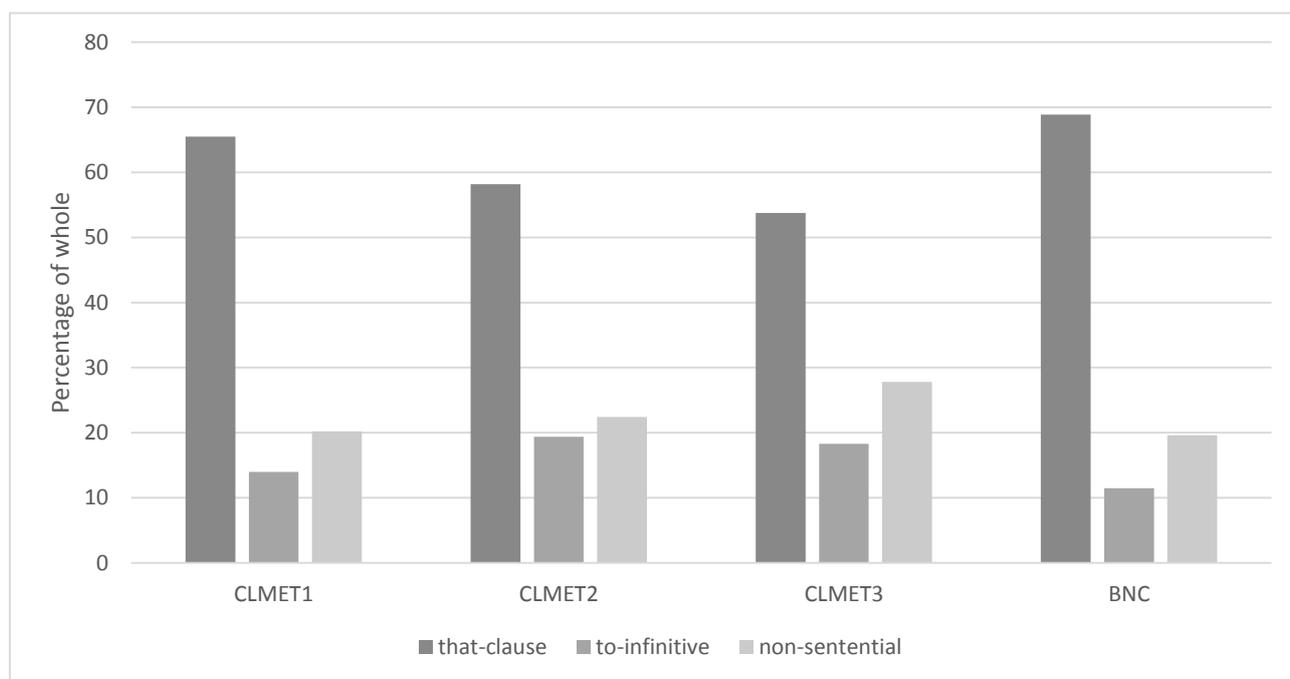


Chart 5. *The relative proportions of the complementation patterns of hope.*

As can be seen from the table, the proportion of *that*-clauses declines slightly in the first three corpus sections but then rises in the BNC to the highest proportion of all four datasets. Contrarily, the proportion of the non-sentential patterns increases slightly during the first three time periods and then drops closer to the proportion it had in the CLMET1. It seems that the proportion of *that*-clauses increases in part at the expense of the *to*-infinitive clause and in part at the expense of the non-sentential complements. In order to clarify this, a table (Table 16) of sentential versus non-sentential complements is given on the following page.

	Sentential	Non-sentential
<b>CLMET1</b>	79.5%	20.5%
<b>CLMET2</b>	77.6%	22.4%
<b>CLMET3</b>	72.05%	27.95%
<b>BNC</b>	80.4%	19.6%

Table 16. Division of sentential and non-sentential complements.

This table shows that the situations of CLMET1 and BNC are quite similar. The set that differs the most is the CLMET3. This might be because of the difference in the size of the sample or there might be some other explanatory factors.

As for the non-sentential complements, there has been some fluctuation as was mentioned previously. A chart (Chart 6) displaying the proportions of the non-sentential complements is presented below.

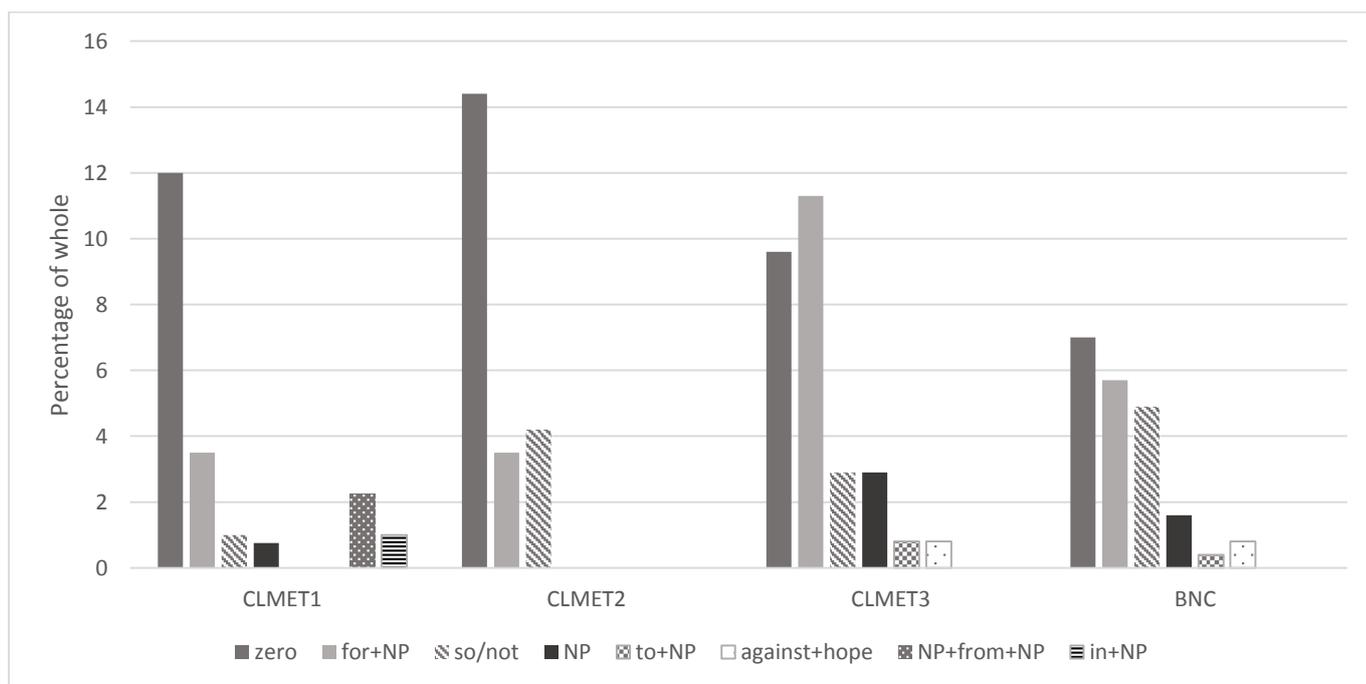


Chart 6. Relative proportions of the non-sentential complement patterns for hope.

One of the most noteworthy observations of this table is the proportion of the *for + NP* –pattern in the CLMET3. As noted previously, the sample from this corpus section is smaller compared to the other sections, but the proportion of this pattern is so substantial that the size of the sample is not

likely to be the only reason behind it. A closer look was given to these tokens in order to find if several uses of the same author or some other reason could explain the frequency of this pattern but no explanation was found.

*So* and *not* as complements of *hope* occur in all four sets of data. Their proportion seems to rise somewhat steadily. As this pattern has been stated to occur mostly in spoken language, it might be that it is also seen as somewhat informal. This might explain its increasing use. It must also be noted that the *so/not*-pattern usually, if not always, stands in place of a *that*-clause. However, analysing them as a separate complement pattern is still justified, in my opinion, since they are especially common complements of only a few verbs, *hope* being one of them.

The *to* + NP pattern only occurs in the CLMET3 and in the BNC. This pattern does not seem to be very frequent and only occurs with the NP *God* in the data. A search was performed in the BNC with a search string {hope} TO GOD. This yielded 30 hits. Thus, the pattern does not seem to be marginal but is not very frequent either. Also the *hope* + *against* + *hope* pattern occurs only in the CLMET3 and in the BNC.

The *in* + NP pattern only occurs in the CLMET1. As mentioned previously, the OED example is from 1855 and the pattern has not been extinct during that time. A BNC search was performed with the search string {hope/V} IN GOD. This yields only one result. This would suggest that this pattern might be close to being obsolete.

The NP + *from* + NP construction occurs only in the first subsection of the CLMET. A BNC search with a string {hope/V} FROM does yield some results. It is not useful to analyse all of these results here but it is worth mentioning that among the results is the following sentence:

102) There's nothing to *hope* from the Council (EV1 1664)

This sentence is very similar to the OED example. Thus even though this pattern was only found in the CLMET1 it is not obsolete.

It must be noted that the choices that were made in analysing the patterns have a great impact on the overall results: if the tokens that are cases of slifting had been analysed as *that*-clauses, the proportion of zero complements would be much smaller. This would raise the proportion of *that*-clauses even higher than it is now. This, in addition to the fact the *so* and *not* complements are in fact substituting a *that*-clause, makes the dominance of the *hope* + *that*-clause pattern indisputable.

#### **7.4. The motivation for choosing a certain complement**

The third research question of this thesis involved the motivation for choosing a specific complement. At the beginning of the introduction part of this thesis, I mentioned two semantically similar constructions that had different complementation patterns, a *that*-clause and a *to*-infinitive-clause. The analysis of the motivation for choosing one of these complements proved to be somewhat difficult. One of the most important dividing factors of these two patterns has been said to be the more forward-looking nature of the *to*-infinitival construction. However, the verb *hope* has an inherently forward-looking and hypothetical meaning in almost all of its senses, and thus it brings this semantic quality to most of the constructions it occurs in. Despite these preliminary difficulties, the adjuncts of time that occurred with the *to*-infinitive in the data, provide some indication that the *to*-infinitive could be somewhat more forward-looking than the *that*-clause. However, nothing definite can be said based on these speculations.

As for the non-sentential complementation patterns, some remarks can be made. As has been stated, the *so/not* pattern is usually standing in place of a *that*-clause. Thus this pattern could be chosen in order to avoid repetition or for other communicative purposes. As was mentioned, the *to* + NP and *in* + NP patterns act more like interjections or exclamations and thus they are possibly chosen in order to place more emphasis or stress on a statement. Two patterns, the *against* + *hope* and NP + *from* + NP constructions, have very specific meanings and thus the reason for choosing them as a complement seems to be purely semantical.

### 7.5 Complementizer omission and retention in *that*-clauses

The fourth research question aimed at determining the why in the case of *that*-clause complements the complementizer is sometimes omitted and sometimes retained. Four factors that could affect this choice were chosen to be analysed, three of them are complexity increasing factors and one is a complexity decreasing factor. The factors that could affect the complexity of a sentence, and thus the retention or omission of the complementizer, were presented with each corpus section analysis. Here the corpus sections will be compared to each other. Two tables are presented below: first the proportion of complexity factors where *that* has been retained (Table 17) and then where that has been omitted (Table 18). The results of the analysis are here presented as percentages.

<b>Factor:</b>	<b>CLMET1</b>	<b>CLMET2</b>	<b>CLMET3</b>	<b>BNC</b>
modal in <i>that</i> -clause	66.7%	67.7%	78.9%	74.4%
insertion	37.8%	32.3%	34.2%	20.5%
non-pronominal subject in <i>that</i> -clause	55.6%	67.7%	47.4%	69.2%
coreferential subjects	6.7%	6.5%	-	7.7%

Table 17. Presence of possible complexity factors in *that*-clauses where that has been retained.

<b>Factor:</b>	<b>CLMET1</b>	<b>CLMET2</b>	<b>CLMET3</b>	<b>BNC</b>
modal in <i>that</i> -clause	60.4%	58.2%	58.2%	30.2%
insertion	14.7%	10.7%	2.2%	0.8%
non-pronominal subject in <i>that</i> -clause	28.1%	27.0%	13.2%	27.1%
coreferential subjects	12.4%	9.8%	9.9%	20.2%

Table 18. Presence of possible complexity factors in *that*-clauses where that has been omitted.

Modal verbs seems to be common with both variants of the *that*-clause in all of the CLMET

subsections. They are somewhat more frequent in cases where *that* has been retained and thus it would seem that there is some evidence that modal verbs increase the complexity of a sentence, and thus constructions with modal verbs would favour the retention of *that*. What is notable however, is the drop in the occurrences of modal verbs with the variant where *that* has been omitted in the BNC. It seems that modal verbs in general are not that common in the BNC. There has been research about the frequency of modal verbs and some have come to the conclusion that the use of modals has been in the decline. There also seem to be differences among individual modals. Leech (2011, 558) has studied the frequency of modals from 1923 to 2006 and states the following:

...the decline has not taken place evenly across the membership of the modal class, but that a distinction can be broadly drawn between the most frequent modals, which in general have not been declining, and the less frequent modals, which have been undergoing marked decline.

He suggests that the reason for the declining use of modals could be the increased use of constructions such as *have to*, *be going to*, and *want to*. The overall decline in the use of modals could thus possibly explain the sudden drop in the BNC data. This could entail that, since they are becoming less frequent, modals could be a more prominent factor in retaining the *that* in *that*-clauses.

The presence of an insertion does seem to favour the retention of the complementizer in *that*-clauses. Since the proportion of insertions in the less explicit variant of the *that*-clause seems to be almost non-existent in the CLMET3 and in the BNC.

The nature of the lower clause subject also seems to have an impact on whether the complementizer is omitted or retained. In all four corpus sets, a full NP subject in the lower clause favours the retention of the complementizer. Thus, pronominal lower clause subjects would seem to decrease complexity which in many cases results in complementizer omission.

Coreferential subjects are not common with either variant but their occurrence is somewhat higher where the complementizer has been omitted. Coreferential subjects are most common in the BNC  $\emptyset$  *that*-clause data.

The problem with the comparison of complexity factors performed in this study is that each factor has been analysed separately from each other. This kind of analysis does not take into consideration the possibility that there might be several different factors in the same sentence as in example (113) taken from the CLMET2 data:

103) ...days composed for her, the world famous ca-ira. Yes; that will go: and then there will come? All men *hope*, even Marat hopes, that Patriotism will take muff and dirk. King Louis is not without hope: in the chap ... (Carlyle 1837, *The French Revolution*)

This example includes an insertion, a full NP lower clause subject, a modal verb in the lower clause, and different subjects in the higher and lower clause. All of these factors have been counted separately in this study, and thus all of these factors seem to increase the likelihood of retaining the complementizer. However, it is impossible to know if the presence of only one of the factors, e.g. the modal verb, would result in the more explicit variant of the *that*-clause. Thus, counting each factor individually can distort the results and present a factor as having more influence in complementizer omission or retention than is the actual reality.

Despite the problems of the study, some tendencies in complementizer omission or retention can be suggested. It would seem that modals, insertions, and non-pronominal subjects all increase complexity and favour the more explicit variant of the *that*-clause. However, nothing decisive can be said about modal verbs as they are common with both variants of the *that*-clause. Co-referential subjects would seem to favour complementizer omission.

## 8. Conclusions

The purpose of this thesis has been to study the complementation patterns of the verb *hope* in British English. The aim was to study the variation in complementation diachronically, from 1710 to present day. This was implemented by analyzing corpus data from the BNC and all of the three subsections of the original version of the CLMET.

The first research question was to find the complementation patterns that occur together with *hope*. Altogether 1154 tokens were analyzed. Out of the eleven patterns found in dictionaries, ten were found in the corpora that were investigated; the NP + *into* + NP that appears in the *OED* was not present in the data. An overwhelming majority of the complement patterns that were found were sentential, either *that*-clauses or *to*-infinitival clauses, in all of the corpora. Out of the two sentential complements, *that*-clauses were clearly more frequent during the whole time period and there was very little change in its occurrence. The proportion of the *to*-infinitive also stays the same during the whole time period. Out of the non-sentential complements, the zero and the *for* + NP patterns are the most frequent in all corpus sets but there is some fluctuation in their prevalence. The most noteworthy changes happen with the prepositional or NP complements; some of them do not occur in all of the corpus sections.

The second research question was to investigate the possible diachronic changes that have occurred in the complementation of *hope*. As already mentioned, both of the sentential complements occur in all of the corpus sections without significant changes. Regarding the non-sentential complementation patterns, some fluctuation was found: Three of the patterns occur in all the corpus sections: *for* + NP, *so/not*, and zero. The NP + *from* + NP and *in* + NP patterns only occur in the CLMET1 whereas the *to* + NP and *against* + *hope* patterns only occur in the CLMET3 and the BNC. The bare NP pattern was found in all but one (CLMET2) corpus sections.

In investigating the individual patterns, it was concluded that the position of the bare NP complement occurring as its own pattern with *hope* is somewhat questionable and this pattern could

generally be analysed as another complementation pattern. It could thus be suggested that the NP pattern is not a genuine complementation pattern of *hope*. As regards to the *in* + NP and *to* + NP patterns, a suggestion was made that the patterns act semantically more like insertions or exclamations when occurring together with *hope*, and thus would not be true complement patterns of *hope* either.

When analysing the final results of the corpus analysis of this thesis, it must be noted that the choices in the analysis have some effect on the results. Analysing instances of slifting as zero complements instead of *that*-clauses has an effect on the number of patterns that are counted as *that*-clauses. In addition to the slifted constructions, the *so* and *not* complements also have a link to *that*-clause complements: *So* and *not* as complements are usually, if not always, substituting a *that*-clause. As was already mentioned, the *in* + NP and *to* + NP patterns act semantically more like insertions than true complements in the data of this thesis and are also usually followed by a *that*-clause. These alternative interpretations raise the importance of the *that*-clause as a complement of *hope* significantly.

The third task of this thesis was to determine the reasons for choosing a specific complement. Semantically it is difficult to determine the difference between the *that*-clause and the *to*-infinitive if the latter is seen as being more future oriented or hypothetical. This is due to the inherent hypothetical nature of *hope*. However, there was some indication that the *to*-infinitive could be somewhat more future oriented than the *that*-clause when occurring as a complement of *hope*. As for the non-sentential complements, it was already mentioned that two of the patterns act semantically more like insertions, and that two of the patterns have very distinct meanings, which determines their use. It was also already mentioned that the *so/not* and the zero complements are often chosen instead of a *that*-clause for communicative purposes; in order to avoid repetition or to place the semantic weight of a construction elsewhere.

The fourth and final research question was to determine what factors affect the

complementizer omission or retention in *that*-clauses. Four factors were analysed: the occurrence of a modal in the lower clause, the occurrence of an insertion between the clauses, whether the subject of the lower clause is pronominal or not, and whether the subjects of the higher and lower clause are coreferential. The first three were presumed to be complexity increasing factors and the last one to be a complexity decreasing factor. The occurrence of a modal in the lower clause did not strongly favour either variant of the *that*-clause in the CLMET, but the results from the BNC suggest that the overall decline in the use of modals could increase their importance as a complexity increasing factor. As for the other factors that were analysed, the occurrence of an insertion between the clauses and a non-pronominal subject in the *that*-clause favoured the variant where that has been retained, whereas coreferential subjects in the higher and lower clauses favoured the variant where that has been omitted.

*Hope* chooses a variety of complements and its complementation is constantly changes with some patterns gaining more prominence and with some patterns disappearing. Nevertheless, the position of the *that*-clause as the most important complement for *hope* is undisputed. The two variants of the *that*-clause, in my opinion, are especially interesting and provide intriguing possibilities for future research.

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