Verb Complementation in Bangladeshi English as Compared to Indian English: A Corpus-Based Study of Clausal Verb Complementational Preference
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Abstract

In present globalized world, different varieties of English are to be found among speakers of different geographical and cultural origins. That is why the term ‘World Englishes’ is often used to designate these various kinds of Englishes. Like many other parts of the world, different varieties of the English are also to be found in the South Asian countries as well. As such the label “South Asian Englishes” are sometimes used as an umbrella term to designate all the variations of English used in the South Asian countries – India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, and so on. Restoring to a web-derived newspaper corpus of South Asian Englishes, namely South Asian Varieties of English (SAVE) corpus compiled on the basis of newspaper articles from online editions of twelve printed daily newspapers from six South Asian countries between the years 2002 to 2007, the present study identifies the extent to which Bangladeshi English and Indian English differ in their preferences of the clausal verb complementational patterns. Based on the frequency and distributions of the clausal verb complementation types across the two varieties the present study zooms in on the similarities and differences existing between Bangladeshi English and Indian English. The frequency distributions suggest that there are both similarities as well as differences between Bangladeshi English and Indian English in their choices of the clausal verb complementation patterns.

Keywords: World Englishes, South Asian Englishes, clausal verb complementation, SAVE corpus, frequency distribution.

INTRODUCTION

Literature on ‘world Englishes’ provides testimony to the fact that regional varieties of English have developed specific structural features on a number of levels of linguistic organization – phonological, lexical, syntactic, and so on. Even when using established structural features of English, a certain type of preference is to be noticed among varieties of different geographical origins. That is to say a particular structural feature of English is found to be preferred over others in specific geographical situation, which differs markedly from the so-called ‘native variety’ and other regional varieties as well. Verb complementation is one of such important structural features in which different regional varieties of English exhibit considerable variations. Research record also suggests that there are statistically significant differences in the frequency of different complementation patterns between varieties of English. Schilk et al. [1] state that the study of the interface between lexis and grammar in general and verb-complementation patterns and preferences in particular offers new insights into the distinctive and so far largely neglected structures of varieties of English. Olavarria de Ersson and Shaw [2] state, “verb complementation is an all-pervading structural feature of language and thus likely to be more significant in giving a variety its character than, for example, lexis”. As a matter of fact, different categories of verb complementation (e.g., monotransitive, ditransitive, clausal verb complementation, etc.) have been issues of interest amongst researchers and linguists (see, for example, Mukherjee and Hoffmann [3], Leech et al. [4], Cuyckens et al. [5], Deshors and Gries [6]. Clausal verb complementation in English (i.e. the structures of the type [matrix verb + to-infinitive clause/gerundial -ing-clause/that-clause]) has also been studied both synchronically and diachronically by several researchers. Synchronic studies to date have looked into issues such as the constituent structures of different complement types [7], distribution of complement clauses over the various complement
taking predicates [8], the alternations of finite that-clause complements with non-finite to-infinitive and gerundial -ing-clause complements [5], and so on. Diachronic studies, on the other hand, have focused on the changes of and variations in the verb complementation patterns and preferences in different periods of the history of English [9-11]. All these studies of verb complementation, however, have been the point of focus in first language (L1) research for a long time [12], and the scholars have only recently started to explore how speakers of English other than the so-called ‘native speakers’ deal with the phenomenon of verb complementation in their use of the language [5]. Consequently, there is now a fast growing body of corpus-based studies on verb complementation in EFL (i.e. foreign varieties of English learned in countries where English is not institutionalized such as Taiwan, Bangladesh, South Korea, etc.) as well as in ESL (i.e. indigenized variety of English learned as a second language in countries such as India, Hong Kong, Singapore, etc. where English is institutionalized and learners have daily contact with English language) [13, 14].

The present study deals with the verb complementational preferences in Bangladeshi English (BDE) as compared to Indian English (IndE), in particular, the clausal verb complementation (i.e., the structure [matrix verb + to-infinitive clause/gerundial -ing-clause/that-clause]). Based on the South Asian Variety of English (SAVE) corpus [15] compiled on the basis of newspaper articles from online editions of twelve printed daily newspapers from six South Asian countries between the years 2002 to 2007, the study – synchronic in nature – intends to examine the clausal complementational preferences of the two varieties in that period. As Cuyckens et al. [5] observe that the synchronous matches between complement-taking predicates (matrix verbs) and complement clauses can be subject to change over time, probing into the patterns of preference of the clausal verb complementation in the varieties of the two neighbouring countries would then be a worthwhile task as the two countries (which were once together as a single unified-country) have become separated from each other for more than 70 years. Furthermore, apart from the spatio-temporal separation, the present-day status and functions of English in the two countries are marked both by common features as well as by clear differences. As a result, along with the recognized variations (e.g. in phonology and lexis), there might have been some variations as well in their preferences of particular syntactic pattern e.g., in the clausal verb complementation. The study hypothesized that the clausal complementational preference in BDE is different from that of the IndE. These differences in the choice of the clausal verb complementation patterns come into being as a result of having different historical and socio-linguistic situations in the two countries. Since it is expected that there are differences in the choice of verb complementation patterns in BDE and IndE, they are presumed to be separate varieties in spite of having a lot of shared characteristic features.

**Rationale**

An EFL variety, English language is widely used as a means of communication in different sectors of Bangladesh. Nevertheless, the status of English language used in Bangladesh is ambiguous in the context of South Asia. It is sometimes referred to as either one of the many sub-varieties of the “Standard Indian English” or a member of the linguistic sub-family of “South Asian English” which also includes Indian, Pakistani, Nepali, and Sri Lankan English [16]. However, the lebel Indian English to designate English language in Bangladesh is not tenable as there are obvious differences between Bangladeshi English and Indian English on a number of levels of linguistic organization. And the concept “South Asian English” often obscures distinctions between the individual varieties and variants of English in South Asia [17, and 16]. To account for these variations, it is therefore necessary to have a wide range of studies to be conducted on different structural aspects of English in Bangladesh in relation to the dominant variety of this region i.e. IndE. The present study, though smaller in scope and range, is an important enterprise on that direction. In addition, although there are quite a good number of studies on IndE, there has been no academic study to date on the linguistic aspects such as the features, status, or direction of use of English language in Bangladesh. This is also one of the reasons that leads me to undertake this study which, although addresses a very limited area of clausal complementational preference, is albeit an important one.

**Limitations**

Being a corpus-based study, the present work contains some drawbacks. One of the major drawbacks of the study is the size and the type of the data. Each national component of the South Asian Variety of English (SAVE) corpus [15] consisted of 3 million words which may not contain the proper representation of any syntactic pattern. The second drawback of the study is the genre-specificity of the data, i.e. the study is conducted on the newspaper-based corpus only. Schilk et al. [1] observe that newspaper may be seen as a relatively diverse collection of text types (e.g. editorials, comments, obituaries, etc.) covering a rich array of topics understandable by large audience of people, the language as it is used in this narrowly defined context cannot be regarded as representing a certain variety of English with regard to all written genres. In addition, in the absence of any spoken-corpus on Bangladeshi English, the present study cannot examine and compare the use of clausal complementation in spoken English in the two varieties.
Theoretical Overview

Complementation

In Oxford English Dictionary (OED) [33] the term ‘complement’ means “one or more words joined to another to complete the sense”. To be more specific, ‘complement’ refers to something (e.g. words, phrases, clauses) that syntactically and semantically completes a grammatical construction. Quirk et al. [18] define the term ‘complementation’ as “the function of a part of a phrase or clause which follows a word, and completes the specification of meaning relationship which that word implies”. Biber et al. [19] describe complement clause as “a type of dependent clause used to complete the meaning relationship of an associated verb or adjective in a higher clause”. In other words, complement completes the meaning of the verb or the adjective of the main clause.

Verb complementation

The term ‘verb complementation’ refers to those ‘items’ which are dependent on the verb and which are necessary for the sentence to be complete, both from the viewpoints of its structure and meaning. Complementation is intrinsically related to the verb’s basic categories: transitive and intransitive verbs, because these classes of verbs determine the number and type of other clause elements in a sentence. Therefore, depending on the nature of the verb as either being transitive or intransitive, a clause may or may not contain an object. A transitive clause contains an object whereas an intransitive clause does not require one.

Clausal verb complementation

Clausal verb complementation includes the biclausal syntactic constructions in which the predicate of one clause “entails reference to another proposition or state of affairs” [20], expressed in a second clause. For example, the English predicate start in the example sentence (1) below denotes a state of affair which is inherently directed at, and hence entails reference to, other state of affairs:

Police have started [checking all residential hotels in Khulna city as part of the ongoing drive to nab Islamic extremists] <Daily Star 2005–12–05>

Hamawand [21] defines clausal complementation as the process of embedding a clause (subordinate clause) as a complement in another clause (superordinate clause). The embedded clause is referred to as a complement clause. Biber et al. [19] divide the clausal complements into two categories: non-finite and finite clausal complements. The non-finite category consists of to-infinitives and -ing-clauses in which the verbs are not inflected for person, number or tense. On the other hand, finite clauses involving that- clauses and wh-clauses have verbs inflected for person, number and tense.

A Brief Historical Background of English in Bangladesh

English language initially entered into the subcontinent more than four centuries ago with the advent of British merchants, missionaries and settlers. However, the impact or scopes of use of English in the region was very limited during the first one hundred and fifty years of British involvement. English was used only as a means of communication in trading posts, where merchants from Britain negotiated business with local rulers and trade agents [22]. In 1757, the British colonial power defeated the then sovereign ruler of Bengal in the Battle of Plassey, which eventually led to “the beginning of British administration in India” [23]. In the following years, English acquired importance especially for those Indians who were working for the British administration [22]. This confirmed the presence of English language in the domains of administration and bureaucracy [24]. However, Krishnaswamy and Brude point to the fact that the English used by Indians around that time was largely “unstable English” (80), frequently marked by a “lack of clarity at the discourse level” (86). In the course of restructuring and expanding the bureaucracy of British India, more government departments and educational institutions were set up across the subcontinent, which resulted in the “further establishment of English in numerous domains of life that, to date, continues as a major domains of use for contemporary English of this region: bureaucracy, commerce, the print media, academic and literary writing and, at the heart of the matter, education[24]”.

When the British colonizers withdrawd from South Asia in 1947, the Indian subcontinent was divided into two separate nations – India and Pakistan – on the basis of religious affiliations. Pakistan was formed with two separate geographical areas – West Pakistan (at present Pakistan) and East Pakistan (presently known as Bangladesh), though the two regions are geographically over one thousand kilometres away from each other. The predominant language of West Pakistan was Urdu with some other minority languages. East Pakistan, on the other hand, was exclusively a land of Bengali speaking population. The state apparatus, which had to be set up overnight from nothing, could not bear the burden of having to start with a new official language. Therefore, the use of English was inevitable for system maintenance: the ruling elite were trained to do their official work in English. Thus English unavoidably continued to be the official language of Pakistan [25], the Pakistani state’s decision to adopt Urdu as the national language resulted in student-led civil discontent and a movement for the joint establishment of Bengali as the national language. During the student procession demanding Bengali to be the state language of East Pakistan, armed police fired on the procession and killed a number of student demonstrators. This shocking event provoked widespread civil unrest throughout the country. This incident of ‘language martyrdom’ is still commemorated in...
Bangladesh, and was the catalyst for a strong nationalist Bengali language movement which laid the foundation for the establishment of independent Bangladesh in 1971 [26].

The foundation of Bangladesh was based around the issues concerning language rights, and the intensity of feelings around the national language is reflected in the name of the country, which literally means ‘country of Bengali’ [26]. Therefore, it is perhaps not surprising that “Bangla-centric sentimentalities overshadowed any discussions about the role of English within the new nation” [27]. Bengali was firmly established as the medium of instruction at all levels of state educational institutions and government offices. However, since English had become established firmly in the domains of administration, bureaucracy, legal system, and education, it could not be replaced instantly. In addition, with the increasing demand of English in the global affairs and the role of internet and international media, people started showing positive attitudes towards English and learning it as a means achievement in career. Taking the increasing demand of English language into account, Bangladesh government reform the Education Policy in 2010 giving English the status of the most important foreign language which has to be taught from the very beginning to the highest level of education. As a result English in Bangladesh is very much alive today. The scope and range of use of English language is expanding rapidly. Along with the rapid expansion, English in Bangladesh has now undergone some structural shifts and acquired some characteristic features at different levels of linguistic organization, which varies from the other second language varieties of the region, such as Indian English, Pakistani English, Sri Lankan English, and so on.

**REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

Deshors and Gries [6] investigate verb complementation patterns with *to* and *ing* in native English (British and American English) as compared to three Asian Englishes (Hong Kong, Indian, and Singaporean English). They use data from the International Corpus of English (ICE) annotated for variables describing the matrix verb and the complement, and run two random forests analyses to determine where the Asian Englishes have developed complementation preferences different from the two native speaker varieties. The study applies a variant of the MuPDAR (Multifactorial Prediction and Deviation Analysis with Regressions) approach to the *to vs ing* alternation by bringing several strands and methodological aspects of research together. In their investigation of the infinitival and gerundial verb complementation in ESL, they conducted a rigorous corpus-based empirical analysis comparing native speakers and ESL speakers from three Asian Englishes, e.g. Hong Kong English, Indian English and Singaporean English. The results of their study show that SingE is most similar to native English, closely followed by HKE, with IndE deviating from native English more. The results of the study show that IndE differs most from native English in three semantic contexts:

- with action verbs in the matrix verb slot, IndE speakers are much more likely to use *to* than native speakers;
- with abstract verbs in that slot, IndE speakers are more likely to use *ing* than native speakers;
- With communication verbs, IndE speakers are a bit more likely to use *to* than native speakers.

One particularly illuminating study is Cuyckens et al. [5]. The study offers a corpus-based analysis of complement-clause variation (in particular, finite *that*-clauses alternating with non-finite gerundial *-ing*-clauses and *to*-infinitive clauses) with the complement-taking predicates *remember, regret,* and *deny* in Late Modern English. They investigate the complement patterns based on a wide range of language-internal and language-external factors (e.g. the meaning of the matrix verb, the meaning of the complement clause, type of subject in the complement clause, structural complexity of the complement clause, the type of subject in the main clause, the animacy of the subject in the complement clause, the voice in the complement clause, and others). Using a binary logistic regression approach with fixed effects, the authors pinpoint the factors that favour and to some degree characterise non-finite verb complements in native English. For instance, they find that main clauses with a first-, second- and third- person pronoun as well as a noun favour *to*-infinitive and gerundial *-ing* complements. Similarly, speakers tend to prefer non-finite clauses with more complex complement clauses (i.e. clauses including verbs with one argument/modifier, verbs with an argument + modifier, or two arguments, or two modifiers). Another factor that favours non-finite complements is the passive voice. Overall, the study shows that there has been a growth of non-finite complement clauses at the expense of finite ones.

Leech et al. [4] state that the non-finite verb forms, the infinitival and gerundial subordinate clauses, have emerged in the history of English as strengthen grammatical categories. They point to the fact that the infinitival subordinate clause spread at the expense of finite one, a phenomenon which, in one form or another, can be observed throughout the whole recorded history of English. The rise of the gerundial subordinate clause as complement is a more recent phenomenon, dating back to the seventeenth century when the deverbal nouns ending in *-ing* began to take on verbal and clausal properties. The gerund thus emerged as an additional competitor in the domain of clausal subordination and started spreading in its turn, both at the expense of finite clauses and infinitival ones.
Analyzing both BNC and OED quotations, they reveal that the gerundial complements clearly outnumber infinitival ones in the BNC, with 219 against 78 instances. Leech et al. further observe that corpus-based synchronic studies [19] and diachronic studies [10] have noted a tendency towards increasing use of gerunds in the recent past, which seems to continue a long-term general trend towards the use of more gerundial complements. Synchronic studies show that in present-day English, for example, among a number of catenative verbs such as begin, start, continue, go on, finish, cease and stop, stop and finish require a gerund and do not allow infinitives. Cease, by contrast, allows both types of complementation, as do go on, continue, start and begin. Studying the verb start and stop in the Diachronic Corpus of Present-Day Spoken English (DCPSE), they also reveal an overall increase of frequency in the non-finite infinitival and gerundial complements.

Mukherjee and Hoffmann [8] investigate the emergence of local norms in Indian English at the level of verb complementation. Their study measures the extent to which the frequency and distribution of complementation patterns of specific ditransitive verbs (e.g. give) differ between IndE and BrE. The study also evaluates the extent to which the basic ditransitive pattern with two object noun phrases (e.g. in He sent Mary his warmest wishes) is associated with different verbs in BrE and IndE. The study combines the use of balanced and representative subcorpora from the International Corpus of English (ICE) with the in-depth analysis of a much larger database that has been extracted from the Internet archives of the daily Indian newspaper The Statesman. They first compare the complementation patterns of the ditransitive verbs give and send in IndE and BrE on the basis of ICE-India and ICE-GB. Then they zoom in on the basic ditransitive pattern with two object noun phrases and discuss the range of verbs occurring in this pattern in IndE and BrE by using data from the Internet. Based on the data, they show that the verb-complementational profile of IndE differ from BrE and other native varieties both with regard to the distribution of the patterns of a given verb and the range of verbs which are used in a given pattern, for example, S V [O₁; NP] [O₂; PP₁].

Mukherjee and Schilk [28] extended the study of Mukherjee and Hoffmann (2006) to investigate the ‘transfer-caused-motion’ construction verb complementation of Indian English and British English. Specifically, they analyse some verbs such as convey, submit, and supply, which are typically associated with the ‘transfer-caused-motion construction’, and which they refer to them as ‘TCM-related verbs’. To describe the verb-complementational profile of the three ‘TCM-related verbs’, Mukherjee and Schilk have compiled a very large newspaper corpus of IndE, derived from the online archive of Times of India. As a reference corpus of BrE, they have used the periodical part of the British National Corpus (BNC). Their findings show that IndE displays some interesting deviations from the verb-complementational profile of BrE with regard to the ‘TCM-related verbs’. They show that there is an overall trend to use the pattern S V [O₁; NP] [O₂; PP₁] more frequently in Times of India than in the BNC periodicals after the ‘TCM-related verbs’ convey, submit, and supply. On the basis of their findings, they form a further hypothesis and consequently show that there is a higher transitivity of the ‘TCM-related’ verbs in IndE than in BrE.

Koch and Bernaisch [29] study the verb complementation in six South Asian Varieties of English, particularly “new” ditransitives [30], i.e. verbs which are attested in the ditransitive construction in New Englishes, but is not found in the present-day version of their historical input variety British English (e.g. to gift him a dream). Restoring to South Asian Varieties of English (SAVE) corpus and the newspaper section of British National Corpus (BNC) the study provides the first systematic analysis of “new” ditransitives across various South Asian Englishes with frequency-oriented perspectives on their range and use in newspaper language and on their occurrence in variety-specific online text material accessed via the Google Advanced Search Tool (GAST). With in-depth analyses of selected “new” ditransitives, the study traces the paths of structural evolution in South Asian English, which primarily manifest themselves in systematic structural differences of the respective South Asian varieties from their historical input variety British English. The results of the study shows that although there are differences in their variety-specific frequency of occurrence, the “new” ditransitives are productive structural phenomena in each of the South Asian Englishes concerned.

METHOD

Data: South Asian Varieties of English (SAVE) corpus

The study uses a web-derived corpus named South Asian Varieties of English (SAVE) corpus [15] as the source of data on both BDE as well as IndE. The SAVE corpus is a newspaper-based corpus compiled in the context of a project entitled “Verb Complementation in South Asian Englishes: A Study of Ditransitive Verbs in Web-derived Corpora” at Justus Liebig university, Giessen. The corpus is compiled based on online editions of twelve printed quality English newspapers from six South Asian countries – Bangladesh, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka. The SAVE corpus consists of a selection of 3 million words national components of each of the six South Asian countries. Each national component has two subcomponents consisting of about 1.5 million words, hence about 3 million words total per national component. Since the focus of the present study is to investigate and analyse the clausal complementational preferences between BDE and IndE, I have used only...
the national components of Bangladesh and India. The corpus materials used in the study is listed in the table

Table-1: The national components of SAVE, the newspaper archives used, the publication dates and the size of the data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Newspaper archives used</th>
<th>Publication date</th>
<th>Size of data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Bangladesh | Daily Star  
New Age | 2003 – 2006  
2005 – 2007 | 1522577  
1545268 |
| Indian   | The Statesman  
Times of India | 2002 – 2005 | 1535252  
1536165 |

The subcomponents of the national component of Bangladesh are based on two widely published English dailies, Daily Star and New Age. The text categories include business and finance, editorial and opinion, international news, national news, politics and sports. The time spans covered are between 2003-2006 for Daily Star and 2005-2007 for New Age. The subcomponents of the national component of India, on the other hand, are also based on two widely circulated daily newspapers – The Statesman and Times of India. The text categories are also of the same kinds as Bangladeshi components and the time span covered is between 2002 to 2005 for both The Statesman and Times of India. In the absence of balanced corpora on South Asian varieties of English, newspaper based corpus such as SAVE can be a very good option for comparative analysis of the lexico-grammar interface, as Hundt [31] cited in Koch and Bernaisch et al. [29] states that in settings where codification of the new standard is still under way (i.e. if grammars or dictionaries do not yet exists), newspaper language often fulfills the role of covert codification.

Data Extraction

For corpus data extraction, Leech et al. [4] proposes a very useful technique: “one useful way of identifying specific constructions involving non-finite complement clauses is through concordancing for specific superordinate (or ‘matrix’) verbs, such as, for example, begin, start, help, prevent or remember” (181-205). This strategy ensures high recall among the selected verbs, as no relevant instances are likely to be missed in the search. However, Leech et al. identifies two drawbacks of the strategy – it involves a lot of elimination of irrelevant data and, more importantly, it is bound to miss marginal but potentially very interesting patterns of complementation such as, for example, unorthodox uses of a pattern with matrix verbs with which it does not traditionally associate [34]. Following Leech et al. [4], at first I have randomly chosen five matrix verbs (start, prefer, intend, regret, enjoy) from Quirk et al.’s (1985: 1182-1184) list of verbs taking clausal complementation for searching the clausal complements in both BDE and IndE data. Initially I extracted all attestations of these matrix verbs’ concordances with complement clauses (including those with NP complements) with the help of Antconc_64 bit software tools for corpus analysis. The attestations of all the inflected forms of the matrix verbs (i.e. present, past, perfect, singular) were searched with the help of ‘wild card’ (*). Then, after manual pruning of all the false hits, the total number of tokens of the clausal verb complementation patterns are identified in the two varieties.

However, as it is observed from the results of the randomly selected matrix verbs’ concordances with clausal complementation types, only the verb start yields significant number of tokens in both varieties for statistical analysis. The other verbs yield relatively smaller number of tokens indicating no significant variations between BDE and IndE. Furthermore, the results of those verbs’ concordances with the complementation of particular types (presented in chapter six) do not indicate any significant differences in the preference patterns or in the direction of use of the clausal complements in the two varieties. Therefore, as a point of departure, I undertook a further search with a new set of verbs which fall under a particular category of verb that the verb start belongs to (i.e., the catenative or aspectual verbs) with a view to identifying certain patterns in the choice of the clausal complementation. Since the verb start, being a catenative verb, produces the highest number of -ing-clause and to-clause complements in both varieties, the other catenative verbs are assumed to yield significant number of tokens of the complement types. According to Leech et al. [4], present-day English has a number of catenative or aspectual verbs which may be used to indicate the beginning, continuation or end of an activity or state. The most important among them are start, begin, continue, go on, finish, cease and stop. Since I have already searched the concordances of the verb start with clausal complementation at the time of searching randomly selected matrix verbs’ concordances, I, therefore, move on to search the concordances of the remaining five catenative verbs as mentioned in Leech et al. [4] e.g. begin, continue, go on, cease and stop – in BDE and IndE data. The same technique of searching as used before is applied here as well to identify the concordances of these verbs with clausal complements. However, the tool ‘wild card’ (*) does not extract the attestations of all the inflected forms of the verbs begin and go on. I have, therefore, searched the base forms of the verbs begin and go on with the ‘wild card’ (*) and the past forms (began, went on) and past participle forms (begun, gone on) separately. For each verb, a quantitative analysis based

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on frequency counts of all the patterns with which the verb is associated is offered.

**ANALYSIS AND RESULTS**

**Frequencies of clausal complementation patterns with start, prefer, intend, enjoy and regret**

Table 5 below presents the frequency count of the clausal verb complements, i.e., the -ing-clause, to-infinitive clause and that-clause with the randomly selected matrix verbs start, prefer, regret, intend and enjoy across the two varieties under investigation. The frequency results of the clausal complement types with those verbs show no meaningful, systematic and absolute differences between the two samples. Although the frequency counts of the complement types with some verbs look different in some degree, the margins of the difference are not significantly high. Rather there are striking similarities in the frequencies of those complements with some other verbs between the two varieties. Moreover, there are no obvious cases where a construction type is highly frequent in one sample and infrequent in the other by contrast. Rather the construction types are found to be either present or absent in both varieties with almost similar proportions with the respective matrix verbs. Since each of the national components of the SAVE Corpus is of equal length, i.e. approximately 3 million words per national component, the frequency count shown here is not the normalized frequency (i.e. frequency per million words), rather the absolute one.

### Table-2: Frequency distributions of the clausal complementation with the matrix verbs start, prefer, intend, enjoy and regret across in BDE and IndE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bangladeshi English</th>
<th>Indian English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>ing-clause</strong></td>
<td><strong>to-infinitive clause</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>start</td>
<td>443 (76.51%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prefer</td>
<td>7 (10.45%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intend</td>
<td>506 (58.78%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enjoy</td>
<td>17 (85%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regret</td>
<td>5 (17.86%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>477</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>61.95%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be seen that the aggregate frequency of the gerundial -ing-clause complement shows up higher number of tokens in IndE with 568 tokens (69.27% of all clausal complementation) as compared to BDE in which it features 477 tokens (61.95% of all clausal complementation). In the case of the to-infinitive clause complements, the aggregate frequency, however, is a little higher in number in BDE with 270 tokens (35.06% of all clausal complementation) as compared to IndE in which it features 224 tokens (27.32% of all the clausal complementation). Interestingly, the aggregate frequencies of that-clause complements in both varieties look strikingly similar with 23 tokens (2.99% of all the clausal complementation in BDE) and 28 tokens (3.41% of all the clausal complementation in IndE). Besides, the frequencies of the clausal complementation types with individual matrix verbs show little variations in both varieties. Whereas the gerundial -ing-clause complements have the highest number of concordance with the verbs start and enjoy with 443 and 17 tokens respectively in Bangladeshi data and 515 and 24 tokens respectively in Indian data, the to-infinitive clause complements, on the contrary, have a higher share of concordance with prefer and intend, with 59 and 71 instances respectively in Bangladeshi data, and 115 and 107 instances respectively in Indian data. The that-clause complements in both varieties takes a greater share of concordance with the matrix verb regret, however, with a similar count of 22 tokens in BDE and 25 tokens in IndE.

Across the two varieties, there are some differences in the frequency of individual matrix verbs having concordance with particular clausal complementation types. The matrix verb start in concordance with the gerundial -ing-clause complements is found to be most frequent in IndE data with 515 instances as against BDE data which contains 443 instances. However, start in concordance with the to-infinitive clause complements is found to be more frequent in BDE data with 136 instances as compared to IndE data in which it appears in 86 instances. The matrix verb prefer and intend in concordance with the to-infinitive clause complement appear more frequent in BDE data having 115 and 107 tokens respectively as against BDE in which it appears in 59 and 71 instances respectively. However, the matrix verb enjoy in concordance with the gerundial -ing-clause and to-infinitive clause complements, interestingly, seem to have similar frequencies in both varieties, with 17 -ing-clause and 3 to-infinitive clause complements in BDE data and 24 -ing-clause and 4 to-infinitive clause complements in IndE data respectively. In addition to that, the matrix verb regret in concordance with that-clause complement also has similar share of appearance in both BDE with 22 token and IndE with 25 tokens respectively.

Overall, the frequency of the gerundial -ing-clause complements is found to be a relatively higher in IndE than in BDE with the randomly selected matrix verbs. On the other hand, the frequency of to-infinitive clause complements is relatively higher (although the difference is very small) in BDE data than in IndE data. The finite that-clause complements occur almost equally in both varieties. A comparison of the frequencies of the non-finite clauses (gerundial -ing
clause and to-infinitive clause) and the finite that-clause with the matrix verbs start, prefer, regret, intend, and enjoy between BDE and IndE English is given in figure 1.

As it is observed from the results above, the search with the randomly selected matrix verbs indicates that there are both similarities as well as differences between BDE and IndE in terms of their preferences of the clausal complementation types. However, the similarities are more profoundly found than differences. As a result, the findings with those set of verbs do not substantiate the hypothesis formed initially that BDE is different from IndE in terms of the clausal complementational preferences. Therefore, the study takes a point of departure by searching with a new set of catenative or aspectual verbs. As it is evident from Mair [10] that there is a choice among speakers of English between infinitives and gerunds in the cases of using complements of the aspectual (catenative) verbs begin and start, the search results with the catenative matrix verbs, which is presented in the following section, may provide us with some important insights into the patterns of preference in clausal complementation in the two varieties.

Frequencies of clausal complementation with catenative matrix verbs in BDE and IndE

The catenative verbs selected for searching the clausal complementation in BDE and IndE are start, begin, continue, go on, cease, and stop. At the time of searching with the randomly selected matrix verbs, one catenative verb start has already been chosen for searching the clausal complementation, the result of which is presented in the table 2 and the figure 1 above. What follows is then the frequency distributions of the clausal verb complementation with the remaining five catenative matrix verbs in BDE and IndE.

Table-3: Frequency distributions of the clausal complementation with the catenative matrix verbs in BDE and IndE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bangladeshi English</th>
<th>Indian English</th>
<th></th>
<th>Bangladeshi English</th>
<th>Indian English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>begin</td>
<td>78 (32.37%)</td>
<td>163 (67.63%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>98 (35.51%)</td>
<td>178 (64.49%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>continue</td>
<td>68 (15%)</td>
<td>384 (85%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>40 (7.49%)</td>
<td>494 (92.51%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>go on</td>
<td>23 (34.33)</td>
<td>44 (65.67%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>22 (25.89%)</td>
<td>63 (75.11%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cease</td>
<td>3 (17.65%)</td>
<td>14 (82.35%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3 (6.81%)</td>
<td>41 (93.19%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stop</td>
<td>156 (94%)</td>
<td>10 (6%)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>174 (94.07%)</td>
<td>15 (5.93%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>328</td>
<td>615</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>337</td>
<td>791</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34.78%</td>
<td>65.22%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>29.88%</td>
<td>70.12%</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The aggregate frequencies of the gerundial -ing-clause complement with the catenative verbs begin, continue, go on, cease and stop in BDE and IndE are not significantly different either. Rather they are strikingly similar, with BDE having 328 tokens (34.78% of all clausal complementation) as compared to IndE having 337 tokens (29.88% of all clausal complementation). However, the two varieties have some variations in the frequency of the gerundial -ing-clause complements with some individual catenative verbs. Very much like frequencies of the catenative verb start presented earlier, the gerundial -ing-clause...
complements with the catenative verbs *begin* and *stop* are found to be more frequent in IndE as compared to BDE. The gerundial *-ing-clause* complement with the verbs *begin* and *stop*, for example, feature 98 and 174 tokens respectively in IndE data as compared to 78 and 156 tokens respectively in BDE data. However, BDE more frequently uses the gerundial *-ing-clause* complement with the catenative verb *continue*. This case is recorded 68 times in BDE as against 40 times in IndE. Overall, although the margin of difference is pretty low, IndE has a relatively higher share of gerundial *-ing-clause* complement with the verb *begin* and *stop*. BDE, on the other hand, has a relatively higher share of the gerundial *-ing-clause* complement with the catenative verb *continue*. Both varieties, however, use the gerundial *-ing-clause* complement with the catenative verbs *cease* and *go on* in almost the same quantity, with IndE having 22 and 3 tokens and BDE 23 and 3 tokens respectively.

There is, however, marked variation between BDE and IndE in terms of the frequency of the *to-infinitive* clause complement after the catenative matrix verbs. IndE stands far ahead of BDE both in terms of the aggregate frequency of the *to-infinitive* clause complement as well as the frequencies of the complement with individual catenative matrix verbs. The total count of the *to-infinitive* clause complement with the catenative verbs in IndE data is found to be 791 tokens (with the tokens of the verb start added), whereas in BDE data the pattern appears 615 times (with the tokens of the verb start added). As it can be seen from the tables 2 and 3 above, except the catenative verb *start* with which BDE has relatively higher number of tokens of the *to-infinitive* clause complement, IndE has the higher share of the complementation patterns with the other catenative verb studied here. Besides, no attestation of the finite *that-clause* complement with the catenative verbs has been found in any of the national components of the SAVE corpus. A comparison of the frequency counts of the gerundial *-ing-clause* and *to-infinitive* clause complements with the catenative matrix verbs *begin*, *continue*, *go on*, *cease* and *stop* between BDE and IndE is presented in figure 2 below.

![Fig-2: Comparison of the frequency of gerundial -ing-clause and to-infinitive clause complements with catenative verbs between BDE and IndE](image)

As it can be observed from the results above, the preferences of the clausal verb complementation patterns, especially the gerundial *-ing-clause* and *to-infinitive* clause complements across BDE and IndE, are strikingly similar with some of the catenative matrix verbs, while with some others the two varieties are markedly different. Very much like the search results with the randomly selected matrix verbs, the results of the search with the catenative matrix verbs also suggest that there are both similarities and differences in the clausal verb complementational preferences between BDE and IndE.

**Discussions and Interpretations**

As it is observed in the SAVE corpus, the frequencies of the clausal complementation types in BDE and IndE do not allow for much variation either with the randomly selected matrix verbs or with the catenative matrix verbs. Above all, there are more similarities than differences between BDE and IndE in
their choices of the clausal verb complementation. The frequency distributions suggest that neither pattern of the complementation is used exclusively in one variety or in the other; rather all these complementation patterns are available in different degrees to speakers of both varieties. Since there are more similarities than differences between BDE and IndE in their choices of clausal complementation patterns and the margins of the differences are not so high, it would not be a substantial claim to make that there is imminent structural shift between BDE and IndE in terms of their choices of clausal complementation. The similarities in the choice of the clausal complementation can be explained by taking a number of factors into consideration. The most important of all is that the individual varieties of English in South Asia share essential characteristic features. Baumgardner [17] and Kachru [16], for example, observe that there is linguistic unity of the English language across the Indian subcontinent, which shows in a range of shared linguistic features and tendencies at virtually all linguistic levels. Furthermore, Schilk et al. [1] state that the geographically motivated category labels (e.g. IndE, SLE, BDE) are used not only to refer to an otherwise unrelated group of varieties that happen to exist in neighbouring countries, but also because these varieties are believed to share essential characteristic features. Secondly, most of the varieties of South Asian English share the same historical past of the British Raj and have their base in British English as the historical input variety. McArther [32], cited in Schilk et al. [1], uses the term “South Asian Standard(izing) English” to refer to all variants of English that share similar colonial roots, that have emerged in South Asian countries after their independence, that are still in the process of standardization and norm-development and that are, thus, linguistically similar to each other. Besides, since Ind E plays a particularly important role in the family of South Asian Englishes because of being the largest anglophone speech community of acrolectal standard Indian English [1], it is considered to be a potential “epicentre”, i.e. a model variety for South Asia [4]. Thus, the common structural features, the shared colonial root and historical input variety, the resulting South Asian identity and the potential epicentral role of IndE as a lead variety for South Asia may be considered reasons why the BDE and IndE shows similar patterns of preference in clausal verb complementation.

Nevertheless, the differences that are found in the corpus data (though nominal in quantity) between BDE and IndE in their choice of clausal verb complementation could be taken as a sign that BDE has its own characteristic pattern of preference. Schilk [1] states, “while there certainly is a high degree of unity across South Asian Englishes, it is obvious that there are also historical and functional differences between South Asian Englishes contributing to the manifestation of linguistic variation across varieties of English on the subcontinent”. This variety specific characteristic pattern of preference can also be accounted for by taking some other important factors into consideration. BDE and IndE have unique first language settings. While Bangladesh is a largely monolingual country with basically only one local language and English being an additional foreign language, India is a complex multilingual country with a great number of local languages with sizeable speech community and English being an official institutionalized second language. It is obvious that because of having these unique language settings, the two varieties will have different transfer effects, leading to different preference of syntactic structures. Moreover, the constitutional status of English may be another important reason behind the differences between BDE and IndE in their preferences of the complementation patterns. English language has played very different roles in the national language policies of Bangladesh and India. While in India English has been a (co-)official language of the union ever since the independence in 1947, there has never been any national language policy or constitutional status of English in Bangladesh with a focus on English as an international lingua franca. Hence, the differences in the choice of complementation patterns between BDE and IndE would be one of the outcomes of having different language settings, functions, roles and status of English as defined in the constitutions and national policies.

In reference to the initial hypothesis, BDE and IndE data derived from the SAVE corpus do not validate the expectation that BDE and IndE differ completely from each other as regard to the clausal verb complementational preferences. Although different socio-linguistic and historical factors functions differently, the two varieties show greater similarities than differences in their preferences of the clausal complementation. Even where differences exist, they are nominal in quantity.

CONCLUSION

The present study has provided an overview of clausal complementational preferences between Bangladeshi English and Indian English on the basis of frequency distributions as observed in the South Asian Variety of English (SAVE) corpus. The study reveals that both BDE and IndE display greater degrees of homogeneity as well as some variations in their preferences of the patterns of the clausal complementation, which testifies to the fact that there are variety-specific preferences patterns in the individual varieties of the South Asian English. Therefore, it is really difficult to give straight forward answer to the question of if BDE has developed a completely different trends in their preferences of clausal complementation than IndE on the basis of a study on the 3-million-word corpus (each national component) of newspaper English which is often too small and genre specific to predict variations in the syntactic structures between the two varieties which
share the same historical root. Besides, searching the frequency of the complementation patterns with a limited set of verbs and the absence of spoken corpus further make the issue more complicated. The study, therefore, recommends further study on a larger scale with some other set of matrix verbs, which would involve a larger corpus containing both written and spoken English data of the two countries, in order to get more clear and authentic insights about the patterns of verb complementational preferences in general and the clausal verb complementational preferences in particular between BDE and Ind E.

REFERENCES


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<th>No.</th>
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