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THE PURPOSEFULNESS OF GOING:
A corpus-linguistic study

1. Introduction

There would seem to be an obvious role for corpus linguistics in cognitive linguistics, given the importance generally assigned to actual usage, as opposed to abstract theorizing, as a basis for claims about linguistic structure. Langacker (1987: 62) regards the grammar of a language as "a characterization of established linguistic convention", where convention is understood as something "shared … by a substantial number of individuals". This kind of goal for grammar suggests a corpus linguistic methodology, at least as one relevant methodology. Despite the availability of large-scale electronic corpora for some years now, reliance on corpora in support of cognitive linguistic claims has not been especially widespread. This would appear to be a contradictory aspect in the practice of cognitive linguistics (cf. Schönefeld 1999: 165), though the collections of papers in Barlow and Kemmer (2000) and Gries and Stefanowitsch (to appear) show the increasing extent to which corpora are being relied upon in cognitive linguistic approaches. In this paper we turn our attention to some lesser-studied properties of GO[1] in English, relying on corpus-based data to make observations about the degree to which the purposefulness associated with GO is conventionally encoded as part of the sentence or utterance.

2. GO in Cognitive Linguistics

Verbs of motion, and particularly GO, have been favoured topics for study in cognitive linguistics. They present an opportunity to investigate aspects of

[1] We use small caps, as in GO, to indicate the lemma and we use italics, as in *go, goes, gone* etc. to indicate particular word forms.

'concrete' motion of a three-dimensional object through space and time as well as 'abstract' or metaphorical kinds of motion (see, for example, Lichtenberk 1991, Radden 1996, and Shen 1996). It is not surprising that GO should be an object of special interest when it comes to studying motion verbs in English. After all, GO is the most frequent motion verb in English, outranking even the other very frequent verb COME, as can be appreciated through examining the tables provided in Biber et al. (1999: 373–379), based on the Longman Spoken and Written English corpus (LSWE). GO ranks third overall, in terms of frequency of lexical verbs in the LSWE corpus, after SAY and GET, and it is especially common in conversation and fiction. It is not surprising that the most frequent motion verb of English should have received detailed attention.

A well-known representation of English GO is shown in Figure 1, adapted from a representation in Langacker (1991: 6). The diagram captures a number of the key points to be made about verb semantics in Langacker's approach, e.g., the distinction between trajectory (TR) and landmark (LM), with the trajector showing increasing physical distance from the deictic region of the landmark (represented by the eclipse around LM). Heavy lines in this, as in other such diagrams in Langacker (1991), indicate a profiling, or foregrounding, of entities and relations. In this case, the profile is the evolution of a relation between the trajectory and the landmark, through time. As simple as the diagram might appear, it has proved a useful starting point for discussions of both concrete and abstract motion. Variants of Figure 1, with appropriate profiling choices, are relevant to representing the semantics of the past participle *gone* (requiring a representation similar to Figure 1, but only the end stage is profiled) and the adverb *away* (where only the information visible at the end stage of Figure 1 is present and profiled).

Figure 1, though it captures some key elements of the semantics of GO, does not express everything that could or should be said about this verb. This should not come as a surprise, since there are typically multiple dimensions relevant to the semantics of a morpheme. Langacker's approach makes explicit provision for such multiple dimensions, or domains, as part of the representation of the semantics of a morpheme (cf. Langacker 1987: 147–182). He uses the term "complex matrix" for the collection of relevant information drawn from different domains (Langacker 1991: 4–5). So, for example, the complex matrix for the noun *knife* includes references to the typical shape of a *knife*, a "cutlery frame" consisting of a certain typical arrangement of a knife, a fork, and spoon, and a "cutting" frame conveying the notion of the typical action associated with *knife* when used as an instrument. Just as there is a complex matrix associated with *knife*, so we may also recognize a complex matrix associated with GO. GO is very underspecified semantically and one may think that there is nothing much more to say about the verb in this case.

However, there is one key aspect about GO when used with animate subjects: GO is purposeful motion, not random or robotic, and a fuller semantic representation of its semantics, as in a complex matrix, should acknowledge this dimension. We need to recognize a mental domain in which properties of a mental state of a participant involved in an event may be represented. In this case, we would be indicating that the person encoded as the subject of GO is typically participating in the motion with a purpose to this motion in mind.

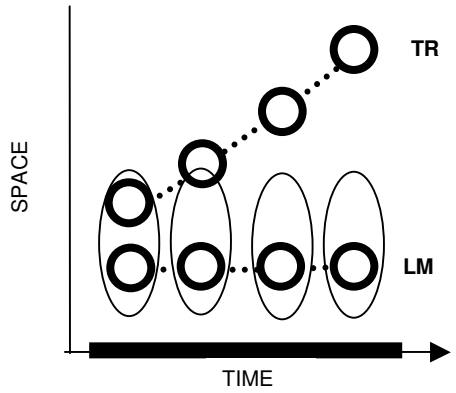

Fig. 1. Representation of GO, adapted from Langacker (19916)

It should be pointed out that there are numerous verbs in English (and other languages) where purposefulness is present. Ordinary, human experiential reality is a reality characterized for the most part by purposeful human behaviour. We do not live our lives as mindless, zombie-like creatures roaming the countryside without having purpose behind our movement through space. It is the human condition to engage in purposeful activities. A linguistic counterpart of this larger aspect of experiential reality is that most verbs of language, when used with human subjects, refer to purposeful human activity. "Agency" is sometimes used to describe a common property of such verbs, though this term subsumes a constellation of properties relating to an "agent", such as the exercise of control, the execution of an act, as well as the property of purposeful behaviour. The focus in this paper is on the purposefulness associated with agency, rather than assorted other properties, but we recognize that purposefulness is one component of this more inclusive concept. Sometimes, of course, we experience events which are unintended, unforeseen, unplanned, beyond our control, etc.

For example, we may trip over something, slip on a wet surface, cough uncontrollably, sneeze, etc. Purposefulness defines the dominant, everyday reality of human existence, even if we also experience events which are not part of our purposes. Or, to express this in linguistic terms, there will be many verbs in a language that typically refer to purposeful events, even if some verbs do not. GO, in English, is not unique in the way in which a human trajector in its clause structure is typically purposeful, but it is worthy of special attention since it is a highly frequent verb in terms of usage. It is also of interest as a verb which is often discussed in the cognitive linguistics literature, though it is usually discussed with a focus on the spatio-temporal domain (as illustrated in Figure 1) rather than the mental domain.[2]

There is another consideration motivating our interest in the purposefulness associated with GO, namely, the extension of a 'go' verb to purposive marking as a possible path of grammaticalization. Heine and Kuteva (2002: 163–165) provide a number of examples from different language families of a change of a 'go to' verb to 'purpose' marking. Their 'purpose' label covers a variety of senses and morpheme types relating to a purpose, e.g., a 'purpose clause marker' in Tepo (Niger-Congo), a 'subordinating conjunction of goal, purpose etc.' in Rama (Amerind), etc. Heine and Kuteva (2002) is a summary of observed, completed historical changes drawn from a sampling of languages and is of great interest to cognitive linguists in terms of understanding the cognitive processes which might have lead to such changes. Heine and Kuteva (2002) should also be of interest to corpus linguists of any language, since a corpus provides a unique and intriguing opportunity to discover supporting data. In the case of a corpus, we might be able to observe collocational tendencies linking words or phrases, which in other languages, are linked through completed grammaticalization paths.[3] Newman and Rice (2004) have demonstrated the effectiveness of this methodology by showing how the collocational data associated with SIT, STAND, and LIE in the British National Corpus mirror, to some extent, the categorical, completed grammaticalizations of these verbs found in other languages. Our interest in the corpus data concerning GO in English is in part motivated by the interest we have in comparing our results with Heine and Kuteva's observations about grammaticalizations and how the former might contribute to a better understanding of the latter.

[2] Possibly, the near-ubiquity of purposeful activity in our lives is part of the reason why the purposefulness associated with verbs has not received more attention.

[3] Manning (2003: 316) makes the same point in terms of *hard* and *soft* constraints: "The same categorical phenomena that are attributed to hard grammatical constraints in some languages continue to show up as soft constraints in other languages."

3. A corpus study of GO

We set out to investigate the extent to which the purpose associated with English GO was encoded in the same clause or utterance (a more appropriate unit when it comes to the study of conversation). The underlying idea behind this approach is that the co-occurrence of words/phrases x and y within a clause or utterance establishes an "association" between x and y. Such an association may provide synchronic arguments supporting the feasibility of a diachronic change from x to y or from y to x. Admittedly, a co-occurrence relationship is not the only kind of relationship which might be of interest to linguists, but it is a fairly basic one and underlies the interest in collocational studies in corpus linguistics. A study of simple co-occurrences with respect to English SIT, STAND, and LIE by Newman and Rice (2004) illustrates the kind of insights which can be achieved despite the apparent simplicity of such an approach. In the case of that particular study, the authors paid special attention to the co-occurrence of the three posture verbs with other verbs in conjoined structures of the type *sit down and* V, *sitting and* V-*ing* etc. The co-occurring verbs in these structures display certain semantic properties, or prosodies, which mirror in many ways the categorical grammaticalizations which SIT, STAND, and LIE have undergone in some other languages, e.g., the development of posture verbs to aspect markers. In the present study, we identify co-occurrences of GO and encodings of the purpose of going in order to see whether one can claim any special, close relationship between these concepts. A close relationship of this sort could be seen as a synchronic, syntagmatic tendency reminiscent of the diachronic relationship documented for other languages.

We proceeded by selecting 100 randomly chosen examples of the use of (literal) GO in the conversation sub-corpus of the British National Corpus (BNC) and examining in some detail each example. We decided on the conversation sub-corpus (described as "spoken demographic" in the categorization scheme employed in the BNC) because of the more spontaneous nature of conversation, compared with the written BNC. Furthermore, the conversational genre is more likely to be a genre in which grammaticalizing tendencies first appear and so would appear the genre most relevant if we are to seek commonalities with known grammaticalization trends. While a sample of 100 utterances of conversation is extremely modest in size, there are two good reasons for this. Firstly, the identification of the linguistic form which expresses the purpose of an event can require subtle judgments and therefore a close reading of each example utterance. There is, in our way of approaching the problem, no straightforward, form-based way of identifying the purpose component of an utterance. Secondly,

we foresaw the need to make comparisons between GO and other verbs in order to fully appreciate the significance of the GO results, and we therefore wanted a comparable amount of data for each verb to be examined. This consideration made it desirable to work with a modest amount of data for each verb, while accumulating data for a number of verbs. We worked only with examples of GO exhibiting a physical motion sense, excluding abstract motion (*He went crazy*, *The story goes like this* etc.). This meant that we initially chose more than 100 random examples of GO, to ensure that we still had 100 examples of literal GO after the non-literal examples were eliminated. We relied on the in-built randomization option of BNC examples through the BNCWeb interface.

An immediate challenge in this study was to decide on how the expression of purpose was to be identified and quantified. We did not make any *a priori* assumptions as to exactly what form the expression of purpose might take. The sequence *in order to* comes to mind as one of the most explicit ways to signal purpose in English, but we did not wish to assume that any particular form had to be present in an utterance to count as an expression of purpose. In the following discussion, we identify different kinds of purpose expressions in the GO examples, discussing in turn how each constitutes a kind of purpose. The full set of GO examples in which an expression of purpose was identified are listed in KWIC format in Appendix 1, categorized by the various forms that the expression of purpose can take.

The single largest category consists of variations of the GO *and* V construction, where the coordinated clause following GO expresses the purpose, e.g., *Go and get her*, *They want me to go and do my shopping*, *You could go to the bank and ask for a loan*. In this construction, the semantic contribution of GO is variable. While movement away from a deictic centre is present in all the examples listed, the GO sense can be relatively weak, compared with the informational salience of the purpose clause. In the example *So you're gonna have to ... go and make me a cup of tea!*, it is the preparation of the cup of tea which feels weightier, in terms of relative importance. The request to make a cup of tea already implies an initial motion phase, whereas motion away does not imply the making of the cup of tea. A second category consists of variations of the GO *to* V construction, e.g., *I mustn't go to see William, When they first went up there to live*.[4] Again, the infinitival purpose clause often feels the more significant in terms of the communicative value of this construction. The use of the *going to* form as a semi-auxiliary verb of intention or futurity, lacking any requirement that there be physical motion, was excluded from our examples

[4] There were no instances of GO with the *in order to* V construction. *In order to* V may be the most unambiguous expression of purpose in English, but it is by no means the most frequent.

since we restricted ourselves to uses of GO where physical motion was a necessary component of the meaning, even if physical motion was not particularly salient.

We considered certain reason clauses to express purpose. Purpose and reason *can* be differentiated: 'purpose' requires some intentionality whereas the 'reason' for something happening may be completely devoid of any human intentionality. For example, rain constitutes a *reason* why the ground may be wet, but we would not say that the *purpose* of rain is to make the ground wet. However, when there *is* intentionality present, such a distinction is much more difficult to draw. Consider the example *I'm very ... happy that we're going to Sarah's because quite honestly ... I've gotta get out of that ... house*. One could say that my need to get out of the house is either the 'reason' *or* the 'purpose' in my leaving the house. Whether one speaks of 'reason' or 'purpose' here seems more a matter of subtle construal preferences: if one construes the later event of leaving the house as the main focus, then the prior need to leave is a 'reason'; if one construes the existing need to leave the house as the main focus of attention, then the subsequent event of leaving the house is a 'purpose'. We included *because*/*'cos* clauses where the presence of human intentionality allowed the clauses to be considered as either reason or purpose. Similarly, we included *for* prepositional phrases as in *When she goes out for a meal, she's got a problem*.

Our last category of purpose expressions is the least obvious one. We took the use of some nouns which refer to destinations to involve, as well, conventionalized purposes. The relevant phrases are listed in Table 1.

Table 1. The use of GO expressions with conventionalized purpose

go to (a) school
go to bed
go to nursery
go to work
go to the bank
go to the library
going on a nice train journey
going to the shop
going up the pub
went home
went into hospital
went up the club
going to the reception

The destination words/phrases in Table 1, such as *school*, *bed*, *nursery*, *work*, *bank* etc., do refer to places where the motion leads to and are rightly called 'goals'. Described in this way, we are focusing attention on the spatio-temporal domain. But associated with such places there is a common, shared understanding of the practices and protocols, ('frames') implicit in being at such places. Going to school, for example, is a matter of intended motion to a place which serves a particular purpose (instruction, teaching/learning, routines of sitting, listening, talking etc.). Going to school is done for the purpose of participating in these routines. The place word is associated through a kind of metonymy with conventional purposes. We therefore included such cases as yet another kind of expression of purpose.

Table 2 summarizes the types of purpose expressions appearing with GO in our 100 examples. Just on 50 = 50% of the examples in our database occur with an expression of purpose.

Table 2. Types and frequency (in 100 examples) of expression of purpose with GO

GO *and* V	18
GO (*to*) V	10
GO *because*	5
GO *for*	8
GO for some conventionally understood purpose	15
Sub-total of occurrences of purposes	53
Overlapping purposes (e.g., *go to the bank and* V)	3
Total no. of examples where purpose is expressed	**50**

4. A corpus study of other selected verbs

The fact that 50% of the GO sample has some indication of purpose within the utterance demonstrates an association of some sort between GO and purpose. But to appreciate the significance of this result, we need to compare this result with results for other verbs in English. It may be, for example, that most verbs have this degree of association with indications of purpose, in which case one shouldn't attach special significance to the result for GO. Ideally, one would like to have results for many verbs of English, along the lines of what we have found for GO, so that one may better evaluate the results for GO. Unfortunately, the lack of a purely form-based search technique for this problem makes a comprehensive

study of the purposefulnesss of many verbs a daunting task. Nevertheless, we needed to have some comparative data for us to have any real sense of how to evaluate the results in Table 2. To this end, we carried out the same kind of sampling (100 examples of conversation from the BNC) for three other verbs: RUN, WALK, and WAIT. We chose RUN and WALK in order to compare GO with other common motion verbs. We chose WAIT as an example of a verb with a more 'stationary' meaning, though one which seemed intuitively to have an interesting association with purposefulness.

Since the methodology employed to investigate RUN and WALK is identical to that introduced above for GO, it is not necessary to explain each of the categories as we did above. Tables 3 and 4 summarize the results for RUN and WALK respectively. We decided to include the two utterances *Just grabbed her bag and ran off with it* and *He grabs it of you and go run away with it*, since the larger utterance clearly refers to a familiar frame of running off/away with something. In this frame, a thief snatches some object and runs away to avoid capture. The use of the verb GRAB in both cases is also indicative of the thief-stealing-something frame. In the case of RUN, we found that 23 example sentences (= 23% of the sample) contained an indication of the purpose of running; in the case of WALK, we found just 14 example sentences (= 14% of the sample) with such an indication. RUN, therefore, seems somewhat more prone to occur with indications of purpose than does WALK. Intuitively, this makes sense since the additional effort and speed associated with running seems to correlate with heightened purpose compared with walking. In neither case, though, is purposefulness, as operationalized in our methodology, anywhere as frequent as with GO, where we found that 50% of examples contain some indication of purpose. Compared with these other (also frequent) motion verbs of English, GO appears to be relatively purposeful.

Table 3. Types and frequency (in 100 examples) of expression of purpose with RUN

RUN *and* V	7
RUN *because/'cos/that's why*	5
RUN (*to*) V	4
RUN *for*	2
RUN for some conventionally understood purpose	7
Sub-total of occurrences of purposes	25
Overlapping purposes (e.g., *run home and* V)	2
Total no. of examples where purpose is expressed	**23**

Table 4. Types and frequency (in 100 examples) of expression of purpose with WALK

WALK (*and*) V	7
WALK (*to*) V	2
WALK for some conventionally understood purpose	7
Sub-total of occurrences of purposes	16
Overlapping purposes (e.g., *walk up to the bar and* V)	2
Total no. of examples where purpose is expressed	**14**

We also obtained results for WAIT, using the same methodology. As mentioned above, WAIT contrasts with GO, RUN, and WALK since it refers, typically, to a more stationary kind of event.[5] Might it be the case that verbs referring to more stationary kinds of activities occur with less expression of purpose? Again, we adopted a relatively inclusive approach to the task of identifying the expression of purpose. We found not only the categories that presented themselves for the motion verbs but also a number of additional formal categories. One of these additional categories involved *until/till* clauses. Such clauses are not necessarily purpose clauses, but we believe that the examples we counted are correctly interpreted as indicating purpose. Some examples are: *You'll have to wait until he goes away*, *Wait till I show you this*, *Your dad'll wait until you come back*, *I'll wait till Maggie finishes her danish*. Indeed, *until/till* clauses constituted the single largest category, in formal terms, of the expression of purpose with WAIT (15/100). The next largest category (13/100) involved WAIT with a *for ... to* Infinitive construction: *You put your hand up and wait for me to ask you*, *Just waiting for your boy friend to come in*. There is in fact considerable diversity in the way in which purpose is expressed with WAIT, as summarized in Table 5. Clearly, WAIT has a strong association with the expression of purpose, in spite of it being relatively stationary compared with motion verbs and actually has the strongest association of the verbs considered here.

[5] Clearly, WAIT can involve some motion (one can drive around a parking lot waiting for parking space to become available). It would be more correct to say that motion is not a criterial component of WAIT.

Table 5. Types and frequency (in 100 examples) of expression of purpose with WAIT

WAIT *until/till*	15
WAIT *for* someone/something *to* V	13
WAIT *for/on*	11
WAIT *to* V	10
WAIT *for* someone/something V-*ing*	4
WAIT for some conventionally understood purpose	3
WAIT *and* V	3
WAIT *cos*	1
WAIT miscellaneous	4
Sub-total of occurrences of purposes	64
Overlapping purposes	0
Total no. of examples where purpose is expressed	**64**

5. Discussion

The first main result from our study concerns the relatively high degree of expression of purpose with GO (50%), compared with RUN (23%) and WALK (14%). Of the three motion verbs, as used with animate subjects, GO is the most 'purposeful' (as operationalized in our methodology). This is just the kind of synchronic, corpus-based association that we were interested in discovering. It is a synchronic piece of evidence in support of a special relationship between GO and purposefulness which has been found in grammaticalization studies of other languages (cf. Section 2 above).

Our result about the purposefulness of GO does not, of course, explain *why* there should be greater expression of purpose with GO than with the other motion verbs. A key consideration in attempting to explain this result would appear to be the relative schematicity, or lack of semantic specificity, of GO, compared with the more specific WALK and RUN which encapsulate aspects of the manner of movement lacking with GO. The relative non-specificity or 'lightness' of GO facilitates, we claim, the inclusion of more informational detail within the rest of the utterance. Underlying this mode of argumentation is the idea that there is an optimal amount of new information that is conveyed within an utterance (or clause). The less there is of new information being conveyed about the nature of the motion, the more information can be conveyed about the purpose,

motivation, destination etc. Admittedly, this is no more than speculative at this point, though it is consistent with the kind of reasoning which has been offered in connection with some other phenomena. A comparable form of argumentation concerning certain syntactic properties of SAY is appealed to in Radden and Panther (2004: 12–14). The authors argue that it is the lack of semantic specificity of SAY, compared with INSIST, PROCLAIM, ANNOUNCE, INDICATE etc., that helps to motivate a shift of the informational load to a following subordinate clause. The difference in the semantic weight of the verb explains certain syntactic phenomena which depend on how easily the pragmatic focus of the sentence can be associated with the subordinate clause. Our position with respect to the purposefulness of GO is comparable: the relative lack of semantic content with GO invites a greater elaboration of the associated purpose of the motion.

Our second main result concerns the frequency with which purpose is expressed with WAIT (64%). This result demonstrates the need for verb-specific studies of purposefulness. While, in general, motion towards some goal might seem more purposeful than non-motion, there can be specific instances of non-motion verbs, like WAIT, which are relatively purposeful. Indeed WAIT would appear to be an *intrinsically* purposeful kind of activity: one doesn't wait without some purpose to the waiting. Purposefulness is clearly not a property restricted to motion verbs. A further question which arises is why we do not see WAIT grammaticalizing to 'purpose' markers just like GO does. At least in the overview provided by Heine and Kuteva (2002), GO is a source morpheme for 'purpose' whereas WAIT is not. A number of considerations may be relevant to understanding this difference in the behaviour of GO and WAIT. One consideration is that the purposefulness associated with GO is of a different, and more intense, kind than that associated with WAIT. The purposefulness attaching to controlled, human motion to a place seems more obvious and effectual than that associated with the more passive (often stationary) activity of waiting. GO, therefore, may present a more vivid kind of source image than WAIT as a source for purposefulness. Also, GO is highly schematic and for this reason may be more amenable to extension to other meanings.

6. Conclusion

We have shown how the purposefulness of English GO can be identified and quantified through a corpus-based approach and were able to show empirically the relative high degree of purposefulness of GO compared with RUN and WALK. We adopted a relatively inclusive approach to identifying the expression of

purpose. One could opt for a more conservative approach to operationalizing the expression of purpose. One could, for example, restrict the expression of purpose just to co-occurring (*in order*) *to* V clauses (considering these as the most direct expression of purpose). Results would not have been that much different had we adopted such an approach: GO occurs 10% of the time with such clauses, RUN 4%, WALK 2%. GO still occurs with purpose expressions more than twice as frequently as happens with RUN and WALK. Adopting a more inclusive approach to expression of purpose yields larger percentages overall, with more certainty to their significance.

This study has also demonstrated the potential insights that a corpus-linguistic approach can offer cognitive linguists interested in grammaticalization. Grammaticalization paths can sometimes appear puzzling and their original motivation may no longer be transparent to us. The corpus-based methodology proposed here provides one way in which some of the conceptual associations underlying grammaticalizations can be understood. Obviously, studying an English corpus as we have done can not shed light on the actual diachronic details of grammaticalizations in languages such as Tepo or Rama. What a study such as ours can do, though, is to add further evidence for the naturalness of the conceptual relationships which are evident in completed grammaticalizations.

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APPENDIX 1. Corpus results for GO

GO *and* V (18/100)

	Go	to nursery and school and work and do different
	Go	and get her.
Thought want me to	**go**	and do my shopping.
You can always	**go**	and get them out, if you want to.
Well	**go**	and hit one .
so you're gonna have to ma ,	**go**	and make me a cup of tea!
I'd	**go**	and see him regularly because he did it really
Oh I better	**go**	and see if there's any erm if my Christmas
one hairdresser there called Paul, whom I'd	**go**	and see regularly .
Now I'll	**go**	and sort out what we want.
oh got out of assembly because I had to	**go**	and speak to this maths teacher who's dead
Yeah you	**go**	and stand in a corner in a minute.
Go on Andrew,	**go**	and wash your hands, you can't possibly eat with
I thought Clare would	**go**	out and play with her new racket, she's not really
You could	**go**	to the bank and ask for a loan.
he can't leave him alone he sits there and he	**goes**	or something like that and jumps on him and
Bloody	**gone**	out and bought one fourteen quid
she said oh I'd like them, but Sue said she	**went**	sort of a bit earlier and see how they got on and

GO *(to)* V (10/100)

I mustn't	**go**	to see William.
Just go in for the day till their parents	**go**	to work I think.
Are you	**going**	to work?
Yeah nanny's	**gone**	look.
cos she had erm, some mice problems so dad	**went**	in there to have a look round, seeing the
The bear	**went**	over the mountain, to see what
so lo and behold those two	**went**	to see Phantom of the Opera.
I once	**went**	to get the buggy out and I'd accidentally left
Well, can I tell you the first one we went to we	**went**	to get food and there was none left!
you know they, when they first	**went**	up there to live, they er, had quite a problem,

GO *because* (5/100)

Well we've got to	**go**	round there if we're out to because erm we've
while it's quieter, the man keeps them for me, I	**go**	straight across the leisure centre to soft clay
I, I am friendly with them you know I, I	**go**	every Wednesday there, for er, well when I can,
They	**go**	because they need to cover some sort of guilt,
I'm very ha happy that we're	**going**	to Sarah's because quite honestly I go I've gotta

GO *for* (8/100)

a good jumper to wear in the evenings when we	**go**	for our evening walks by the sea.
Used to	**go**	in for your model paints and coloured marbles
you don't	**go**	on a motorway for driving lessons
I admitted that, but I mean just to	**go**	out for an evening.
let's, or we can	**go**	to brewery for another five grand, we'll do the
when she	**goes**	out for a meal she's got a problem, now if that
I'm	**going**	in there for one,
We're	**going**	for a meal on Friday aren't we?

GO for some conventionally understood purpose (15/100)

you know that he had to	**go**	to a **school** in Northumberland,
If you don't, you	**go**	to **bed**.
	Go	to **nursery** and **school** and **work** and do different
You could	**go**	to the **bank** and ask for a loan. (overlap with GO
I wanted to	**go**	, go to the **library** but I thought I'd start in
all these children that like to	**go**	to the **library**.
Oh she's alright, she	**goes**	to **school**.
I love	**going**	on a **nice train journey**!
	Going	to the **shop** please?
You're gonna have to go a long then, cos I'm	**going**	up the **pub**, ha, ha.
And heart to heart, having sat through two, I	**went**	**home** it was heavy.
it was all weighed up and finished a before we	**went**	**home**, all done.
comes round with her sometimes she's er she	**went**	into **hospital** on Tuesday er er Monday that's
after funeral you know my husband we	**went**	to erm, like the **reception** bury, you know
it feels like, I	**went**	up the **club** last week and there, cos er, we

Total = 53- 3 overlaps = 50/100 where some indication of purpose is given.

Keywords: cognitive grammar, motion verb, purpose, grammaticalization, corpus, frequency, complex matrix, schematic verb