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A Corpus Linguistics Study**

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Prohlašuji, že jsem práci zpracovala samostatně a použila jen uvedených pramenů a literatury.

Plzeň, duben 2012

.....

I would like to thank my supervisor Skyland Václav Kobylak for his constructive support and assistance.

PROLOGUE

This bachelor thesis is aimed at recent and ongoing changes in contemporary English. I chose this topic within my study in England, where I had the chance to become familiar with the history of English together with other languages that affected the evolution of English. Moreover, I gained knowledge of the linguistic and stylistic characteristics of emerging varieties of English as a whole and also in association with new information and communication technologies. Last but not least, the nowadays most discussed ongoing changes in English language were demonstrated to me. The subject area of changing English has appealed to me and therefore I decided to broaden my existing knowledge and explore further area not covered within my stay at Salford University. The fundamentals of this thesis are based on gained knowledge from my courses in England and appreciation of different resources available for research in this area. In that time I also had my first experience with Corpus Query Processor (hereinafter referred to as CQPweb) which became a very important source of my data collection for this thesis as well as with works of recent respected investigators. From those works I have got the brief overview of changes that are most recognizable as undergoing a change in 20th century English. The changes I chose for my thesis are the modal auxiliary verb *shall*, contractions of verb *be* and *have* and comparative and superlative marking of adjectives. Two of those changes were selected randomly (verb *shall* and superlative and comparative marking of adjectives) and the contractions were picked up because I was interested in this particular change itself.

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INTRODUCTION

This bachelor thesis deals with ongoing changes in 20th century English by employing corpus linguistics. The area of research is restricted to the grammatical changes, focusing on the modal auxiliary verb *shall*, contraction of verbs *be* and *have* and comparative and superlative marking of adjectives. This thesis consists of two main sections. The theoretical section describes the theoretical background of my research including information about corpus linguistics, all employed corpora, the CQPweb which was the source of my data collection and the general methodology. The second main section is the practical part where is presented my own research concerning the three selected changes. One of the aims is to explore some aspects of variation and changes in usage with the help of advanced technology, the computer corpora and consequently to report on grammatical changes in standard English. The difference between British English and American English will be also emphasized as these are the two main varieties of English. Next, an in-depth analysis will demonstrate the frequency in the use of chosen phenomena across genres in subcorpora that include categories such as Press, General Prose, Academic and Fiction category. This undergraduate thesis is aimed at non-native speakers who want to become familiar with the most recent changes that are going on in English. The contribution of this thesis is primarily the extensive research into the three aforesaid changes together with a description of factors promoting the changes.

1 THEORETICAL SECTION

This section covers answers why studying changes in contemporary English is significant, examples of important works concerning this subject area, employed approaches, basic information about the Corpora that originated in the 20th century and about the CQPweb, the computer corpus, which is the main source of the data. Furthermore, the general methodology of this research is introduced.

1.1 The importance of studying changes in Present-Day English.

By studying the changes in 20th century English, we can observe how the language is changing at the moment, which can be very beneficial for non-native speakers studying the English language. Getting the language right is a major issue and something which all of us should accomplish. As advanced students we need to be aware not only of the fact that the language is constantly changing but we also need to know the direction of these changes. Awareness of these changes increases the ability of responding to those changes appropriately and subsequently makes us more competent users of English. Another point why to study language changes is the fact that it can help us to understand the “evolution” of English language from Old English up to Present-Day English by having the real data for investigation at our disposal. Moreover, the study of changes in its structure and use is important as English has become the dominant language, used worldwide and taught worldwide. This investigation of current changes can ensure that English is taught accurately and efficiently.

1.2 Examples of linguistically important works

Among the works that are considered as significant for studying ongoing changes in English belong:

- *Linguistic Change in Present-Day English*;¹
- *The Changing English Language*;²
- *Changing English*.³

The importance of these works is emphasized as many recent investigators refer to them. Furthermore, *A comprehensive grammar of the English language*⁴ or *Language Change: Progress or Decay?*⁵ are worth noticing. There are, of course, more works concerning the development and changes of the English language. As far as the works covering corpus linguistics are concerned, the number is substantially lower. Since corpus linguistics is one of the latest sub-disciplines of linguistics there have not been published so many works concerning this subject area yet. Nevertheless, there are works requiring our attention as being contributory. Bauer's *Watching English Change*⁶ belongs among the first corpus-linguistics works worth noticing, followed by Mair's *Twentieth-Century English: History, Variation and Standardization*⁷ and Leech's *Change in Contemporary English: A grammatical study*⁸ focusing on recent history of standard English. Mair's study dealing with pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar demonstrates each of the major developments that have taken place, revealing some important changes which have not been previously documented.⁹ Leech's study covers rather grammatical topics, including subjunctive, passive, genitive and so on.¹⁰

¹ BARBER, Charles. *Linguistic change in present-day English*. Edinburgh: London: Oliver & Boyd. 1964.

² FOSTER, Brian. *The changing English language*. London: Macmillan 1968.

³ POTTER, Simeon. *Changing English*. London: Andre Deutsch, 1969.

⁴ QUIRK, Randolph, GREENBAUM Sidney, LEECH Geoffrey, SVARTVIK Jan. *A comprehensive grammar of the English language*. London: Longman. 1985.

⁵ AITCHISON, Jean. *Language change. Progress or Decay?*, 3rd edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2001.

⁶ BAUER, Laurie. *Watching English Change: an introduction to the study of linguistic change in standard Englishes in the twentieth century*. London: Longman, 1994.

⁷ MAIR, Christian. *Twentieth century English: History, Variation and Standardization*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2006.

⁸ LEECH, Geoffrey, HUNDT, Marianne, MAIR, Christian, SMITH, Nicholas. *Change in contemporary English: A grammatical study*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2009.

⁹ MAIR, quoted No. 7.

¹⁰ LEECH et al., quoted No. 8.

1.3 Corpus linguistics

For investigating ongoing changes in 20th century English there is employed so called corpus linguistics.

A corpus is a large collection of texts sampled to represent one or more varieties of a language in a specified period of time. It provides a unique access to authentic language use, notably to frequency information of a given word. Furthermore, it gives priority to the typical and everyday types of texts. Apart from that the language use can be studied across a range of social and contextual variables, for example, age, class and genre. On top of that, a corpus is formed from texts typical for a specific historical time period and by mutual comparison of quantitative and qualitative outcomes of linguistic items (frequency and behavior) in different corpora, a time sequence is created and consequently, it is allowed us to determine time changes within these items from corresponding period. It also allows us to track the spread of a change through a speech community. There are quite few spoken corpora that exist today, the relatively more well-known of which is the Diachronic Corpus of Present Day Spoken English (DCPSE) that is very much like the written Brown family corpora. It contains samples of British English since 1959 but is very small, expensive and there are also problems with obtaining permission to use this one.

Corpus linguistics represents a complementary approach to traditional ones and is based on a collection of texts assumed to be representative of a given language. Corpus linguistics, according to Leech, is now a mainstream paradigm in the study of language, and the study of English in particular has advanced immeasurably through the availability of increasingly rich and varied corpus resources.¹¹ It is estimated that this sub-discipline of linguistics has been in existence since the earlier 1960s. Recently, new computer technologies allow us to create and maintain

¹¹ LEECH et al., quoted No. 8, p. xix.

a language corpus in the form of computer database. When creating a computerized language corpus, the individual words are assigned with linguistic characteristics (part of speech, gender, number and so on) under which these words are found in the database. The retrieval itself is carried out by *Corpus Query Processor* (CQP) in accordance with the commands entered in a special programming language for databases, so-called *Corpus Query Language* (CQL). This corpus-based approach has become very popular as it uses the statistical computer-based methods and consequently provides identification and analysis of a larger database of natural language than could be dealt with by hand. Moreover, it can provide many additional kinds of information about language use and explore the importance of these findings for learning about the patterns of language use. Among the characteristics of corpus-based analyses belong:

- a) a utilization of a large and principled collection of natural texts, known as a 'corpus', as the basis for analysis;
- b) an empirical analysis of the actual patterns of use in natural texts;
- c) an employment of both quantitative and qualitative analytical techniques.¹²

Previously, there might have been used methods such as observation of people's comments on language, consulting dictionaries, grammar books from different periods or record of the speech. Nonetheless, as indicated above, to explore aspects of variation and changes in grammatical usage of contemporary English (both British and American English) this thesis uses computer corpora, one of the latest methods of studying recent changes.

¹² BIBER, Douglas, CONRAD, Susan and REPPEN Randi. *Corpus linguistics: investigating language structure and use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1998, p. 4–5.

1.4 The Brown family of Corpora

The research of this bachelor thesis is based on outcomes from the corpora called *the Brown family of corpora*. The Brown family of corpora consists of equivalent one-million word-samples of written British English (hereinafter referred to as BrE) and American English (hereinafter referred to as AmE). The milestone for the development of not only the Brown family corpora but also of the development of corpus linguistics in the contemporary sense was the creation of the Brown Corpus. The Brown Corpus – as its official title describes it – a *Standard Corpus of Present-Day Edited American English, for Use with Digital Computers* was compiled in the 1960s by the Czech linguist Henry Kučera and the American linguist W. Nelson Francis.¹³ Leech points out that in its early days, however, the Brown corpus was not seen as a landmark achievement and decades had passed before the Brown Corpus came to be cited as a source of evidence for serious mainstream research.¹⁴ Nevertheless, the Brown Corpus became an exact model for other corpora such as the Lancaster–Oslo/Bergen (LOB) Corpus, followed by Frown and F-LOB corpora with a difference in terms of time or region of provenance. The LOB corpus provides a matching database for BrE for the 1970s; F-LOB corpus was compiled in the 1990s as an update version of LOB corpus as well as the Frown corpus from the 1990s is an update version of the Brown corpus of AmE. There have been recently added three other corpora to the ‘Brown family’ investigating BrE and one corpus investigating AmE. First one was compiled between years 2005 and 2007 with the median sampling point in the year 2006, hence the title BE06. The next two corpora go to the past of BrE as well, specifically, to the 1930s with the corpus title B-LOB and to the 1900s, where originated the incomplete corpus called Lancaster 1901. The last corpus B-BROWN is being compiled for American English for the year 1931. The overview of

¹³ LEECH et al., quoted No. 8, p. 9.

¹⁴ LEECH et al., quoted No. 8, p. 25.

all these corpora which have been gradually added to the ‘Brown family’ is given in Table 2.2.1. This Table also indicates the two incomplete corpora Lanc-1901 for BrE and B-BROWN (1931) for AmE which are not included in the grey area. Table 2.2.1. gives a clear idea of the time-lag among individual corpora indicating the thirty years’ time-lag within BrE from the year 1901 up to the year 1991/2, followed by fifteen years’ time-lag between years 1991/2 and 2006. The similar structure is applied for the AmE with the difference of the starting year 1931 and the final year 1991/2.

The Brown family of corpora

	1901	1931	1961	1991/2	2006
BrE	Lanc-1901	B-LOB	LOB	FLOB	BE06
AmE		B-BROWN	BROWN	FROWN	

Table 2.2.1.: Individual corpora across BrE and AmE in the course of the 20th century

The strength of the Brown family of corpora is based on the comparability of two or more corpora where each corpus has been compiled on the same basis. Leech specifies the term *comparable* by saying that “whereas their composition and sampling design are the same, the corpora differ in respect of one variable, the comparative variable”.¹⁵

1.5 The CQPweb

In order to conduct a study of language which is corpus-based, it is necessary to gain access to a corpus – in this case to enter the Brown family of written corpora – and a program that analyses corpora and lists the results. For this thesis the CQPweb (Corpus Query Processor) is

¹⁵ LEECH et al., quoted No. 8, p. 28.

used, that was created by Andrew Hardie from the Lancaster University. The usage of CQPweb is mostly based on commands of CLAWS7 Tagset (described above) or on the improved version CLAWS Tagset C8. According to the explanation of Garside the CLAWS (Constituent-Likelihood Automatic Word-Tagging System) is “a system for tagging English-language texts: that is, for assigning to each word in a text an unambiguous indication of the grammatical class to which this word belongs in this context”.¹⁶ The CLAWS7 Tagset is listed in Appendix I. The tag labels consist of a sequence of two to five alphanumeric characters. Examples of CLAWS7 Tagset are *DD1* for a singular determiner (e. g. this, that, another) or *VM* for modal auxiliary (can, will, would, and so on). After putting the right query into the CQPweb, we get a number of different functions in return, e.g. *frequency breakdown* which helps us to see what is included under our query. As an example is the following query for modal auxiliary: *_VM*. This query returned 81,804 matches in 2,999 different texts, with the help of *frequency breakdown* we found 44 words (modal auxiliary verbs) “hidden” behind this query with the indication of no. of occurrences (the number of times that each word occurs in the corpus) and percentage (e.g. the verb *may* – 7,211 – 8.81 %, what means that the verb *may* was found 7.721 times within the corpus which is 8.81 per cent of total 81.804 matches of all modal auxiliary verbs). Thanks to the other function – *distribution* we get a new list with Broad genres (Fiction, General prose, Learned/Academic and Press category) and with subgroups of those genres, e.g. Press with three text categories: Reportage, Editorial and Reviews. Furthermore, this list offers data from particular corpora and the division of the British and American English. All this information is available in the form of a bar chart, as well. For my research I worked only with the Brown Family (extended) corpus, nevertheless the CQPweb offers much more.

¹⁶ GARSIDE, Roger. The CLAWS Word-tagging System. In Garside, Roger, Leech Geoffrey, Sampson, Geoffrey (eds), *The Computational Analysis of English: A Corpus-based Approach*. London: Longman, 1987, p. 30.

1.6 General methodology

The following section deals with the general methodology that will be used to explore the chosen grammatical changes in 20th century English.

First of all, there will be an introduction of the change together with a basic description covering this phenomenon.

Second of all, the analysis of grammatical changes will be carried out across the two most important varieties of English, namely British and American English. These analyses will be completed by the help of CQPweb and its functions e.g. *frequency breakdown, distribution*. For some changes, however, the Google website will be used. Despite the fact that results from this source may be arguable, it can still provide us with rough numbers indicating the number of hits for the searched expression. These results will serve as complementary findings only, giving the estimation of the words' current usage. Findings will be, furthermore, represented by different figures and tables. Figures that occur frequently present the overall development of chosen grammatical change across BrE and AmE. With the help of frequency per million words, these figures show results that can be objectively compared (for an example see Figure 3.1.1.1). Most frequently used tables demonstrate frequency across genres in subcorpora that include categories such as Press, General Prose, Academic and Fiction category (see Table 3.1.2.1.). The frequency comparison gives the indication that there might be a significant contrast between the frequency in different corpora or subcorpora worth investigating. The frequency per million words normalizes the frequency scores and therefore permits the exact comparison in the two corpora/subcorpora. And finally, the right-hand column of all tables shows the rate of change giving clear percentage results of how important the difference between the two corpora is.

Third of all, the described outcomes of the analyses will follow. On top of that, an overview will be presented of what is said about the individual change by the recent authors including the possible causes of the change. In summary, a written analysis will be provided as well as a statistical analysis of the change in the grammatical use of English. Finally, it is important to stress that the outcomes cannot be considered as fully reliable. Mair presents a number of respects why the frequencies may be misleading e.g. under-collection of relevant forms caused by possible ellipsis of subjects; forms with adverbs intervening between the pronoun and modal and so on.¹⁷

¹⁷ MAIR, quoted No. 7, p. 99.

2 PRACTICAL SECTION

The following practical part presents my own research concerning the modal auxiliary verb *shall*, contractions of verb forms *be* and *have* and forms used for comparative and superlative marking of adjectives, focusing on the disyllabic adjectives.

2.1 The modal auxiliary verb ‘shall’

One of the ongoing changes is among auxiliary verbs. Auxiliary verbs are used together with a main verb to give grammatical information and therefore add extra meaning to a sentence, except verbs *be*, *do*, and *have* which themselves can be used as main verbs. All the auxiliary verbs except *be*, *do* and *have* are called modals. Besides that, these modals are divided into two other groups, namely pure/core modals and semi-modals. Semi-modals have the same basic meaning and function as the modals, but they have a different form, for instance, *be going to* and *have to* are equivalents to core modals *will* and *must*. Core modals that are used to express an attitude or idea of prediction, possibility, permission, necessity, obligation or politeness are, for example, *can*, *could*, *shall*, *should*, *will*. According to the Figure 3.1.1. (published originally in Leech et al., 2009, p. 72), we can see that modals are struggling with slow decrease between years 1961 and 1991. This trend can be observed by all core modal verbs, except of the verb *can* which shows slight increase in the usage.

The modal auxiliaries

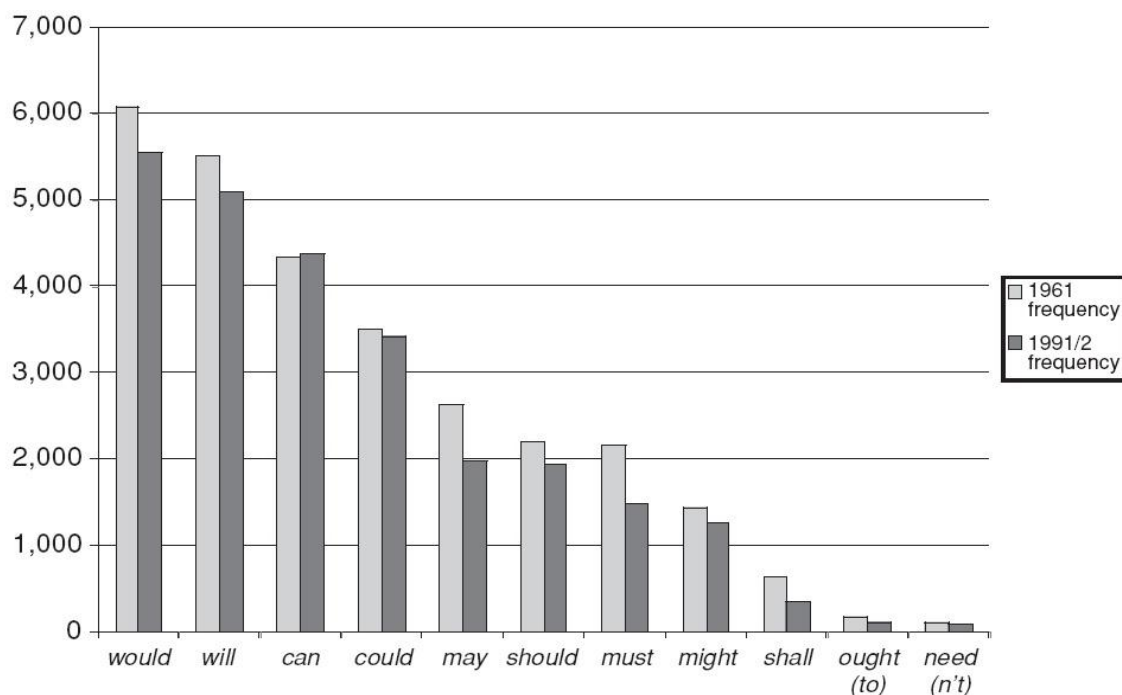


Figure 3.1.1.: Frequencies of modals in the four written corpora: comparing 1961 with 1991/2, (published originally in Leech et al., 2009, p. 72).

Strang stresses that English does not have pure tenses or pure moods, and that these kinds of meaning are always inseparably present in any given verbal form. For example, it is generally accepted that the modal verb *shall* has futurity as a dominant element, but on formal grounds this operator goes with modal verbs rather than with tense-operators.¹⁸ We can divide several different uses of *shall*. *Shall* is mainly used in the following meaning contexts:

- a) predictions, statements; e. g. *I shall miss my train if you don't hurry up;*
- b) suggestions; e. g. *Shall we go?;*
- c) promising, volunteering; e. g. *I shall be back before 11 o'clock!;*
- d) regulations, inevitability; e. g. *Teams shall consist of eleven players only.*

¹⁸ STRANG, Barbara. *Modern English structure*. London: Arnold. 1970, p. 167.

Nowadays, however, we can hardly hear sentences such as *I shall make the travel arrangements* (c) or *We shall overcome oppression* (d).¹⁹

The main area this section focuses on is the use of *shall* in statements (predictions) and suggestions with regards to the first person singular and plural. As is well known, *shall* suffers from limitations of person. Leach specifies that “with second-person subjects, *shall* scarcely occurs – and the few occurrences there are show signs of archaism such as the use of *thou* or *ye*, and/or come from quotation from earlier periods of the language (e.g. the Bible). With third-person subjects, *shall* has a special range of “stipulative” meaning that tends to be restricted to legal or legalistic English, or to a few other contexts where archaism appears to be at work as a means of stylistic heightening”.²⁰ The first person singular and plural are forms that still preserve in the language; nevertheless, both of those forms face their elimination.

Before the two different types of *shall* (*shall* in statements and *shall* in suggestions) are explored, Table 3.1.1. is added to get a concise overview of how the frequency use of the verb *shall* – in all its uses – has changed over the last century.

¹⁹ Shall [online]. Available from: <http://www.englishpage.com/modals/shall.html>. [Retrieved 4 January 2012].

²⁰ LEECH et al., quoted No. 8, p. 80.

Overview of the verb verb 'shall' in BrE and AmE

British English (Sampling Dates)	Frequency (hits)	Frequency per million words	Dispersion (no. of files with 1 or more hits)
B-LOB (1931)	472	405.9	199 out of 500
LOB (1961)	355	310.9	133 out of 500
FLOB (1991)	197	172.4	89 out of 500
BE2006 (2006)	118	102.9	49 out of 500
American English (Sampling Dates)			
Brown (1961)	266	231.6	107 out of 500
Frown (1992)	149	129.1	70 out of 500

Table 3.1.1.: Distribution of *shall* in British and American English 1930s – 2006.

This distribution of *shall* in British and American English from 1930s up to 2006 shows that in AmE the use of *shall* is not so frequent in comparison to the BrE. The Table above also indicates that the decline in frequency is the same for BrE and AmE between the years 1961 and 1991, since the rate of change has dropped with 44.6 per cent for BrE and with 44.3 per cent for AmE.

2.1.1 The verb 'shall' in statements

In this following section the modal verb *shall* in statements is analyzed. To find out the level of change I ran the query for CQPweb in the form of (I|WE) shall, which means all sentences with the first person singular or plural followed by the verb *shall*. The (I|WE) shall query returned 723 matches in 437 different texts with the frequency of 104.82 instances per million words within all corpora. By the help of *frequency breakdown* we can check the number of occurrences of *we shall* and *I shall*, which

could give us unexpected outcomes. The result is, however, 50.48 per cent for *we shall* and 49.52 per cent for *I shall*. Even when separating BrE and AmE, it was found out that in both varieties the usage level of *we shall* and *I shall* is nearly the same. Using *distribution* function, the massive decrease of the verb *shall* in statements in BrE between years 1991 and 2006 was found, see Table 3.1.1.1. The FLOB Corpus (BrE, 1991) contains frequency of 115 words while BE06 Corpus (BrE, 2006) contains only 30 words per one million words in this category. It is important to realize that this sharp frequency drop of 85 words happened only over the last 15 years whereas the decrease between years 1931, 1961 and 1991 that is within 30 years-gap, is much slower. As far as the AmE is concerned, the frequency fall of 20 words per million words between years 1961 and 1991 shown in the Figure 3.1.1.1. is negligible.

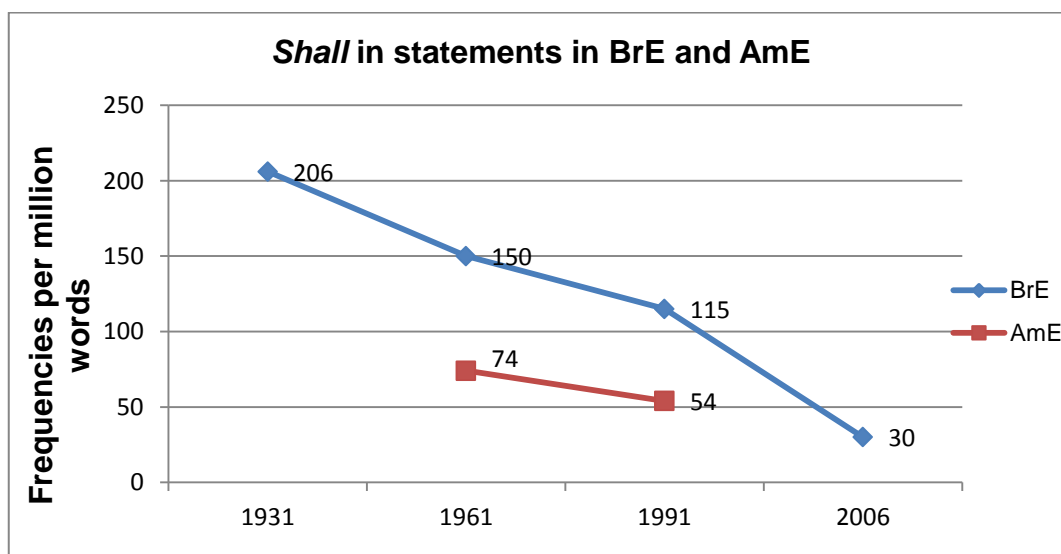


Figure 3.1.1.1: The decrease of *shall* in BrE and AmE

With the help of *distribution*, a function of CQPweb, the second query was about to find out in which subgenres the highest distribution of *shall* in statements can be found. This time, however, the query concerned only the years 1961 and 1991 in order to compare the change between BrE (see Table 3.1.1.1.) and AmE (see Table 3.1.1.2.). As was outlined in the Theoretical section (see Chapter 2.6), the raw frequency comparison of the different genre categories gives the indication that there might be

a significant contrast between the frequencies. In Table 3.1.1.1. this applies to Fiction category in LOB corpus, where the raw frequency is 67 and FLOB corpus with the frequency decline to 35. The right-hand column gives a measure of how significant the difference between the categories of the two corpora is. The last line in the right-hand column (in Table 3.1.1.1.) shows the total rate of change – a decline of 23.4 per cent between LOB and FLOB corpora.

Verb 'shall' occurrence in statements					
Genre category	LOB (1961)	LOB (1961)	FLOB (1991)	FLOB (1991)	rate of change [%]
	[raw freq.]	[per million wds]	[raw freq.]	[per million wds]	
Press	21	17	16	13	-23.8
Gen Prose	50	18	42	15	-16.0
Learned / Academic	33	30	38	35	+15.2
Fiction	67	37	35	20	-47.8
Total	171	25	131	19	-23.4

Table 3.1.1.1.: Rate of changes of the verb *shall* in statements in BrE between years 1961 and 1991

Moreover, Table 3.1.1.1. shows that categories such as Press, General Prose and Fiction in BrE are struggling with the falling tendency, where the Fiction category recorded the rate of change of almost 50 per cent between years 1961 and 1991. In contrast with this outcome there is an unexpected 15 per cent growth in the Academic category. Furthermore, this Table 3.1.1.1. indicates that in the year 1961 *shall* in statements was mostly within the Fiction category; an example sentence is from LOB corpus (BrE, 1961): *I don't suppose I **shall** go up the glen again while I'm here* (LOBL11), while in the year 1991 the highest occurrence was in the General Prose category with a sample sentence from FLOB corpus (BrE, 1991): *Consequently, we **shall** explore the integration of these roles* (FLOBF05).

While in BrE we could observe some increasing results, in the Table 3.1.1.2. for AmE is the overall outcome rather negative. In General Prose and Academic genres there is a fall in the use together with no monitored change within Press and Fiction Category. All in all, within years 1961

and 1991 the total rate of decrease is nearly the same; AmE (–27.1 per cent), BrE (–23.8 per cent).

Verb 'shall' occurrence in statements					
Genre category	Brown (1961)	Brown (1961)	Frown (1991)	Frown (1991)	rate of change
	[raw freq.]	[per million wds]	[raw freq.]	[per million wds]	[%]
Press	5	4	5	4	0.0
Gen Prose	44	16	28	10	–36.4
Learned / Academic	27	25	20	18	–25.9
Fiction	9	5	9	5	0.0
Total	85	12	62	9	–27.1

Table 3.1.1.2.: Rate of changes of the verb *shall* in statements in AmE between years 1961 and 1991

By closer examination of Table 3.1.1.2. can be noticed that *shall* in statements in AmE was used in the year 1961 as well as in the year 1991 predominantly in the General Prose category, an example from the Brown Corpus (AmE, 1961) can be stated: ... *I come up with the following ideas, which I **shall** express very briefly here and revert to in a later essay (BROWNG15).*

2.1.2 The verb 'shall' in suggestions

This upcoming section investigates the occurrence of the verb *shall* in suggestions. The query `shall(I|WE)` was stated to find out all cases, where *shall* is followed by either *I* or *WE*. This query returned 131 matches in 102 different texts out of 6 corpora with the frequency 18.99 instances per million words, which is noticeably lower than in the previous case. Also in the percentage between *shall we* (58.02 %) and *shall I* (41.98 %) we can see a greater difference. Interesting finding was that in both varieties the percentage differences were nearly the same: *shall we* in BrE (57.95 %) and in AmE (58.14 %); *shall I* in BrE (42.05 %) and in AmE (41.86 %).

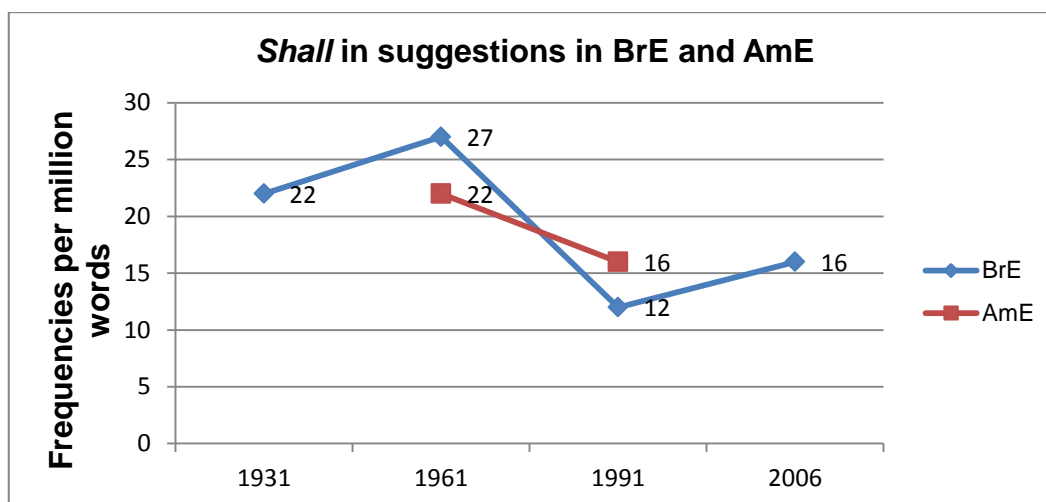


Figure 3.1.2.1.: *Shall* in suggestions in BrE and AmE

When looking at the above Figure 3.1.2.1. we can see interesting outcomes. As far as the BrE is concerned, we can observe an increasing and decreasing pattern. In the year 1961 the frequency per million words raised from 22 words to 27 words, followed by a drastic drop to 12 words in 1991. It could be expected that also in the following period the decreasing would be continuing, as is the general assumption; however, this figure is an evidence that such a presumption would be misleading, since over mere 15 years there is obvious a growth of 4 words. The usage of verb *shall* in suggestions in AmE is decreasing from 22 words per million to 16 words per million.

As for *shall* in statements the next query was about to find out in which subgenres the highest distribution of *shall* in suggestions is and the restricted years were again 1961 and 1991. In Table 3.1.2.1. is displayed the predominant occurrence of *shall* in suggestions that is in the Fiction category with an example sentence from the year 1961 (BrE, LOB corpus): *Charles said softly: "Shall we see the sunrise?"* (LOBP20). On the other hand, in AmE the highest occurrence is in the General Prose category, closely followed by the Fiction category, see Table 3.1.2.2. A sentence example is from the General Prose (AmE, 1961): *Or shall we permit early specialization in scientific and technological subjects?* (BROWNH30).

Verb 'shall' occurrence in suggestions					
Genre category	LOB (1961)	LOB (1961)	FLOB (1991)	FLOB (1991)	rate of change [%]
	[raw freq.]	[per million wds]	[raw freq.]	[per million wds]	
Press	1	1	1	1	0.0
Gen Prose	3	1	2	1	-33.3
Learned / Academic	1	1	0	0	-100.0
Fiction	26	15	11	6	-57.7
Total	31	4	14	2	-54.8

Table 3.1.2.1.: Rate of changes of the verb *shall* in suggestions in BrE between years 1961 and 1991

Verb 'shall' occurrence in suggestions					
Genre category	Brown (1961)	Brown (1961)	Frown (1991)	Frown (1991)	rate of change [%]
	[raw freq.]	[per million wds]	[raw freq.]	[per million wds]	
Press	1	1	0	0	-100.0
Gen Prose	11	4	9	3	-18.2
Learned / Academic	3	3	0	0	+100.0
Fiction	10	6	9	5	-10.0
Total	25	4	18	3	-28.0

Table 3.1.2.2.: Rate of changes of the verb *shall* in suggestions in AmE between years 1961 and 1991.

The above Tables (Table 3.1.2.1. and Table 3.1.2.2.) indicate that *shall* in suggestions in BrE has the total range of change –54.8 per cent and in AmE the total change is only –28.0 per cent, which means that *shall* in suggestions in BrE decreased twice so fast.

2.1.3 Factors promoting the change

After these analyses, the question of why the verb *shall* suffers from overall decline might appear. One of possible reasons are the counterparts such as *will*, *be going to*, *should*, *can*, *need to*, *should*. For example, the use of *will* is on the increase upon *shall* and the distinctions made between those two verbs are disappearing. Barber states the reasons for that: “in speech we very often say neither *wil* nor [æɪ], but just *I: I'll see you to-morrow; we'll meet you at the station*”.²¹ Barber is explaining that even though, the weak form cannot be used in all positions and even though whatever its historical origin may have been,

²¹ BARBER, quoted No. 1, p. 134.

we now use it indiscriminately as a weak form of either *shall* or *will*. There is often a doubt whether the speaker intended to say *shall* or *will* as well as there is often uncertainty which of those two is the appropriate form; and, it is *will* that is spreading at the expense of *shall*.²² Other possible reason is mentioned by Mair, when he says that “the chief reason for its decline seems to have been that its historical core use – expressing strong obligation – dissolved, with this function being redistributed to other modals (e.g., must, should) or modal idioms (be supposed to, be to)”.²³

2.1.4 Conclusion to research

To sum up, the use of verb *shall* is decreasing in both varieties and across almost all subgenres except the use of *shall* in statements in the Academic category with the growth of 15 per cent recorded between years 1961 and 1991 in BrE. Leech took a closer look at the ‘modals at the bottom of the frequency list’, where the verb *shall* is mentioned as well.²⁴ This suggests that even though my analysis was centered upon the verb *shall* in the two specific meanings the general outcome is similar. Furthermore, *shall* is, according to Leech, ranked among “the least common modals, which happen to be those that have declined most in percentage terms, show signs of diminishing functionality, and perhaps obsolescence”.²⁵ Nonetheless, the growth of *shall* in suggestions between years 1991 and 2006 in BrE (Figure 3.1.2.1.) can be considered as remarkable, even though we can only presuppose its further development as well as we can only assume the frequency development in AmE between 1991 and 2006. Mair believes that “the incidence of modal verbs, individually and as a class, is strongly dependent on discourse type and that *shall*, while receding, is not going to disappear completely

²² BARBER, quoted No. 1, p. 134.

²³ MAIR, quoted No. 7, p. 107.

²⁴ LEECH et al., quoted No. 8, p. 80.

²⁵ LEECH et al., quoted No. 8, p. 80.

because of its secure base in specific uses among the youngest age group”²⁶ and that *shall* “is likely to persist in questions and in a number of formulaic uses”.²⁷ From Tables indicating the rate of change, between years 1961 and 1991 only, can be concluded that the use of *shall* in statements (see Tables 3.1.1.1. and 3.1.1.2.) changed at a bit faster pace than *shall* in suggestions, see Tables 3.1.2.1. and 3.1.2.2. The analysis results show that *shall* is still relatively popular in the General Prose category (non-fiction category) in both AmE and BrE and that neither *shall I/we* or *I/we shall* are prevailing. Furthermore, it is also important to notice the numbers of words in the Figure 3.1.1.1. for *shall* in statements and Figure 3.1.2.1. for *shall* in suggestions, where the overall frequency is substantially lower. Consequently, we can say that the use of verb *shall* in suggestions in comparison to the use of *shall* in statements is very rare. I believe this rareness is caused by the preference of other verbs, as was stated above.

2.2 Contractions of verb forms ‘be’ and ‘have’

In the beginning of this part we start by explaining what exactly a contraction is. Next, the contractions of the two verbs *be* and *have* are analyzed. Contraction is a shortened form of a word or combination of words which is often used instead of the full form in spoken English.²⁸ There are two major classes of contraction in English: verb contraction (e.g. *I’m*) and not-contraction (e.g. *couldn’t come*). In this section the verb contraction of two verbs *be* and *have* is analyzed.

Generally speaking, contractions are strongly associated with the spoken language. As Figures 3.2.1. and 3.2.2. indicate, verb contractions are most likely to occur in conversation, but also occur frequently in written

²⁶ MAIR, quoted No. 7, p. 103.

²⁷ MAIR, quoted No. 7, p. 103.

²⁸ *Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary & Thesaurus* [online] © Cambridge University Press. Available from: <http://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/british/contraction?q=contraction>. [Retrieved 4 January 2012].

registers with a large admixture of spoken style, such as fiction writing.²⁹ The fact that verb contractions are very frequently used in fiction writing is demonstrated later in, for example, Figure 3.2.3.1. and Figure 3.2.3.2. Biber clarifies that “the common occurrence of contractions in fiction and (to a lesser extent) in news can be largely explained by the direct reporting of spoken discourse in those registers”.³⁰

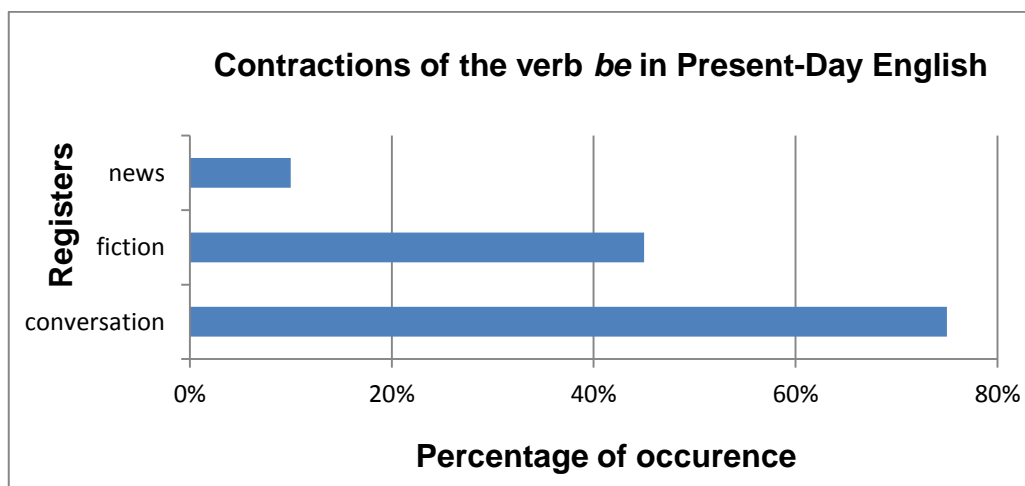


Figure 3.2.1.: Proportional use of the verb *be* as a contraction in Present-Day English (Source: Biber et al., 1999, p. 1129).

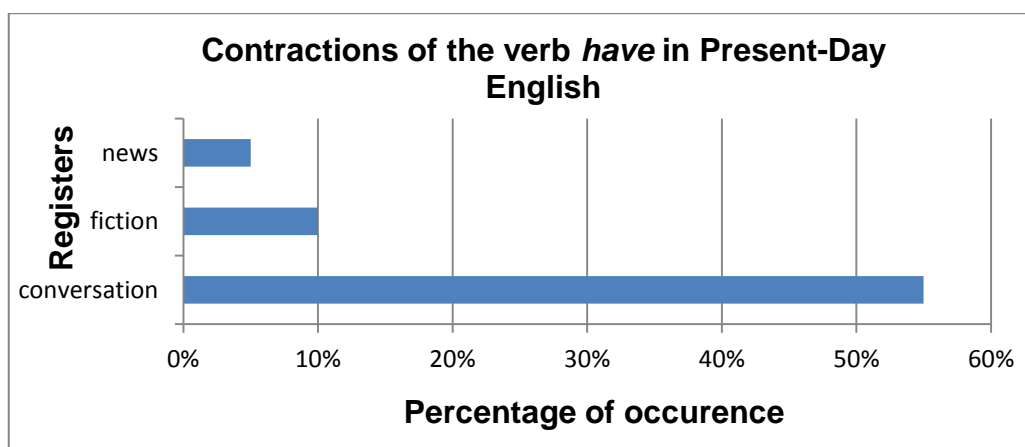


Figure 3.2.2.: Proportional use of the verb *have* as a contraction in Present-Day English (Source: Biber et al., 1999, p. 1129).

²⁹ BIBER, Douglas, JOHANSSON, Stig, LEECH, Geoffrey, CONRAD, Susan and FINEGAN, Edward. *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*. London: Longman, 1999, p. 1129.

³⁰ BIBER, quoted No. 29, p. 1129.

2.2.1 Contracted verbs 'be' and 'have' in British English

This section presents analysis of the verbs *be* and *have* with their contracted forms for British English only.

The first query was about the verb *be* in the form {*be/V*}, which means all forms of *be* as a verb. With the help of *frequency breakdown* and *distribution* function it was found out that the basic full forms *are* and *is* are overwhelming the contracted forms 're and 's, see Figure 3.2.1.1. and Figure 3.2.1.2.

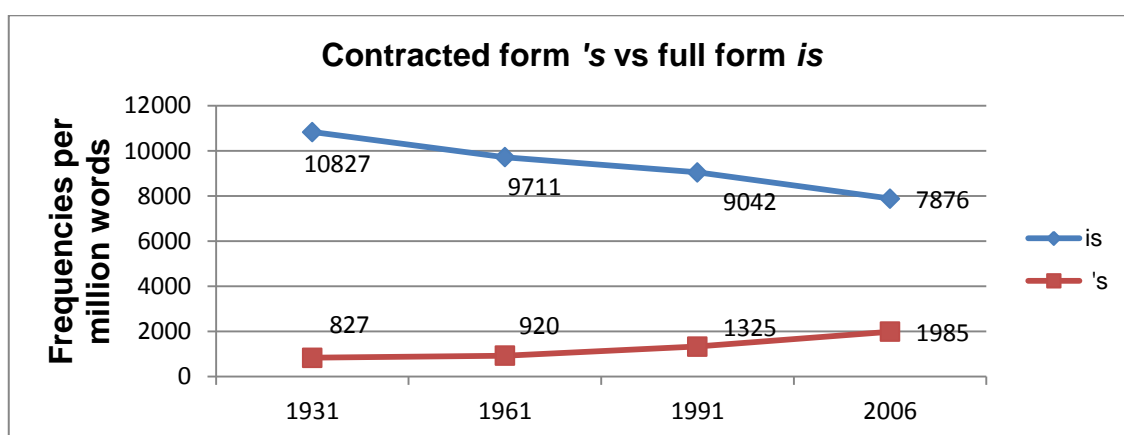


Figure 3.2.1.1.: Contraction 's and form *is* in BrE in the course of the 20th century

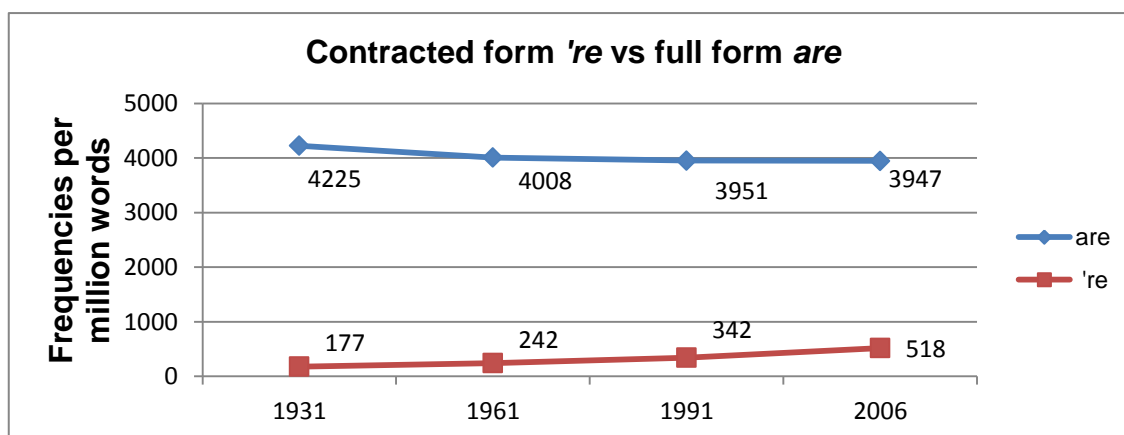


Figure 3.2.1.2.: Contraction 're and form *are* in BrE in the course of the 20th century

In comparison to these two forms it is really fascinating how the contracted form 'm has increased over the last forty years, see Figure 3.2.1.3. This outcome completely corresponds with Bybee's point of view that "the most common contraction is between *I* and *am*, and that is also

the most frequent sequence”.³¹ Nevertheless, it must be emphasized that ‘*m* contraction is proportionally the most common (compared to the full form); in sheer frequency terms, ‘*s* is more common.

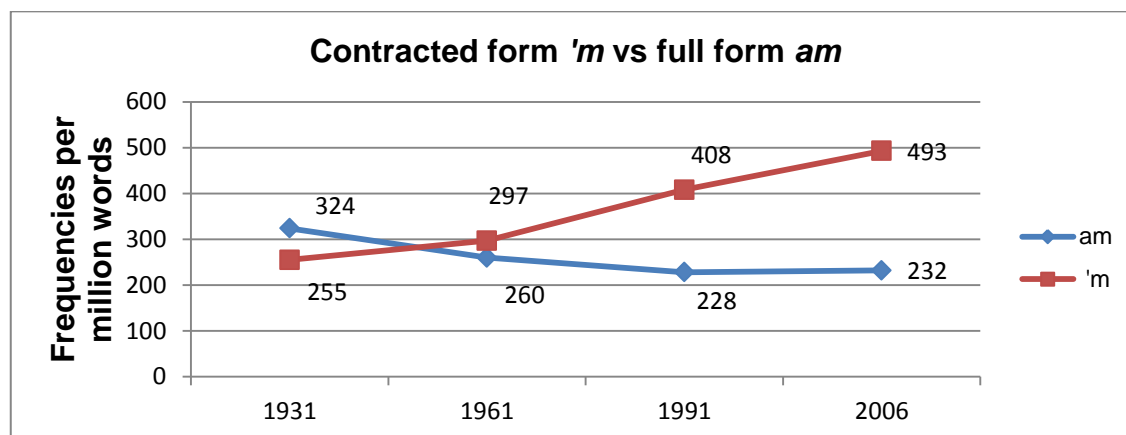


Figure 3.2.1.3.: Contraction ‘*m* and form *am* in BrE in the course of the 20th century

From the previous three figures can be concluded that all of these contractions are rising in their usage. From closer examination of Figure 3.2.1.1., regarding ‘*s* contraction, can be observed a growth of frequency from 1,325 words per million words in FLOB corpus (1991) to 1,985 words per million words in BE06 (2006) corpus. This increase over last fifteen years was the same in contrast to previous years, where was a time-lag of thirty years. Most likely, this rapid growth led to a reduction of the form *is*, with the loss of frequency usage of more than 2,951 words within last century.

Secondly, the similar query was put for the verb *have* (also only for British English) in the form of {*have*/V} and the response was the following: both full forms *have* and *has* are also overwhelming the contracted forms ‘*ve* and ‘*s* as can be seen from Figures 3.2.1.4 and 3.2.1.5.

³¹ BYBEE, Joan. *Frequency of Use and the Organization of Language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2007, p. 327.

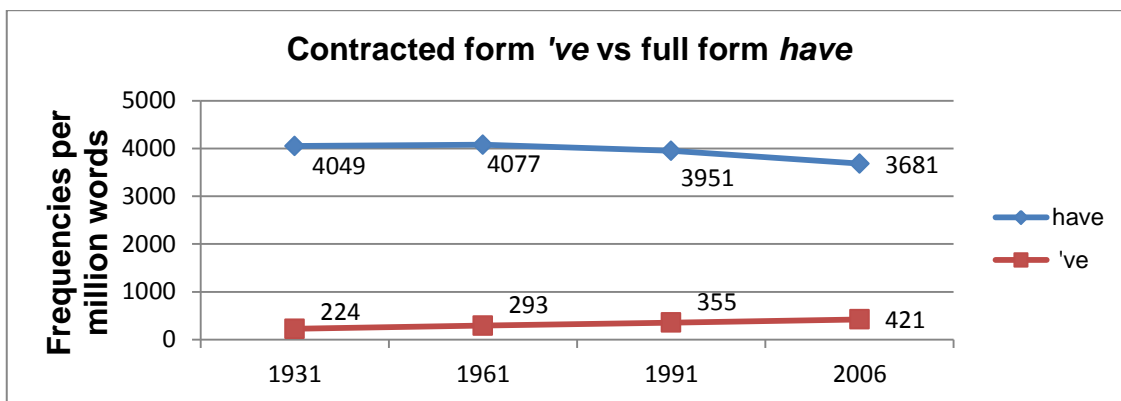


Figure 3.2.1.4.: Contraction 've and form *have* in BrE in the course of the 20th century

From the above Figure 3.2.1.4. dealing with contracted form 've is obvious that this contraction is also rising in its use as it was with the contractions of the verb *be*. On the other hand, the contraction 's from the verb *has*, as the only contraction, recorded a loss between the years 1991 and 2006 (see Figure 3.2.1.5.). When looking at the development of the 's contraction from the full form *has* we can see that its occurrence was negligible within the last century.

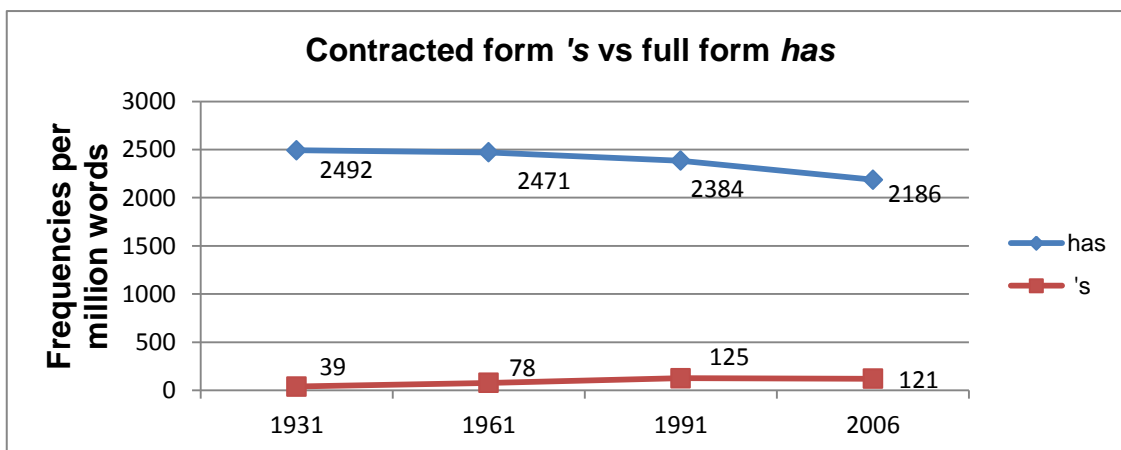


Figure 3.2.1.5.: Contraction 's and form *has* in BrE in the course of the 20th century

2.2.2 Contracted verbs 'be' and 'have' in American English

This following section, focusing on American English, presents shortened analysis of contracted forms and full forms of verbs *be* and *have* as in the figures there is no distinction between particular grammatical persons. The used queries were in forms of (am|is|are) for the full form and

('m|'s_VBZ|'re) for the contracted form of the verb *be* and (have|has) for the full form and ('ve|'s_VHZ) for the contracted form of the verb *have*. From Figures 3.2.2.1. and 3.2.2.2. it is obvious that for AmE can be applied the same patterns as for BrE. The full forms *be* and *have* prevail over the contracted forms and the usage frequency of contracted forms is increasing. In both figures it is recognizable that contracted forms doubled its frequency between years 1961 and 1991. In comparison to BrE in the year 1991 AmE has frequency of 'm, 's, 're forms of 2,614 words per million words while BrE has only 2,074 words per million words.

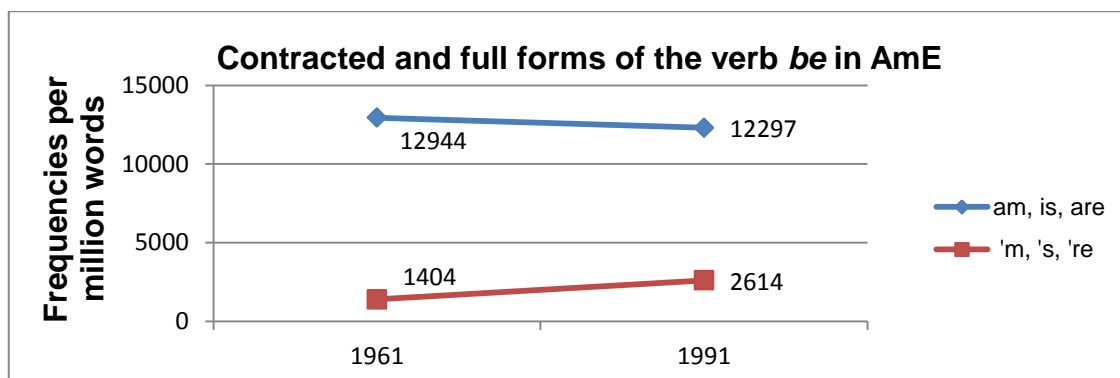


Figure 3.2.2.1.: Contractions 'm, 's, 're and forms *am, is, are* in AmE between years 1961 and 1991.

The occasions where contracted forms 've and 's were used are low-level. This suggests that as well as in BrE the usage of the form 's is rather insignificant, see Figure 3.2.2.2.

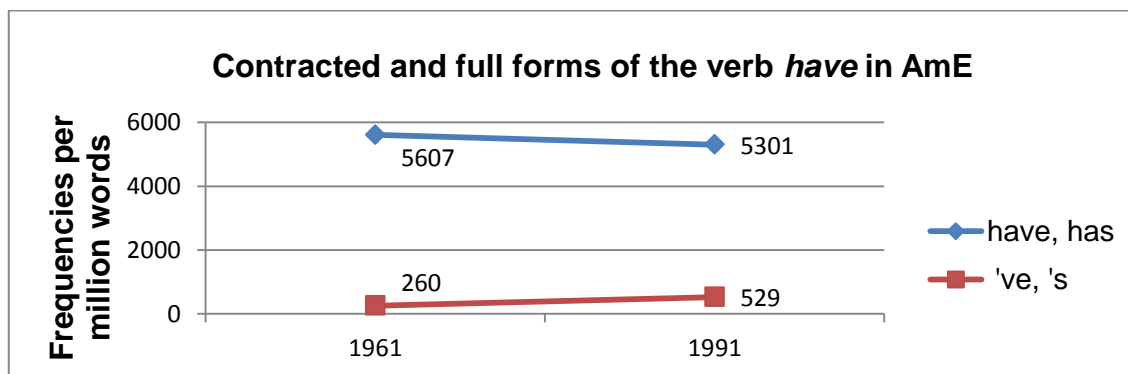


Figure 3.2.2.2.: Contractions 've, 's and forms *have, has* in AmE between years 1961 and 1991.

2.2.3 Contracted verb form 'be' in subcorpora

Next, the occurrence of contractions of the verb *be* in subcorpora in BrE is investigated. The following query was stated ('m|'s_VBZ|'re), which means all cases of either 'm, 're, or 's. Here it was necessary to use POS-tags to avoid covering the s-genitives or the verb contractions from the verb *have*. By the means of *distribution* function it was found out that most contractions of the verb *be* is in the Fiction category and the lowest distribution of the contracted forms is in the Learned category, from where the example sentence was picked up (BrE, 2006): *It's been two to three weeks and we don't know yet if it's an indicator of a broader slowdown...* (BE06_A22).

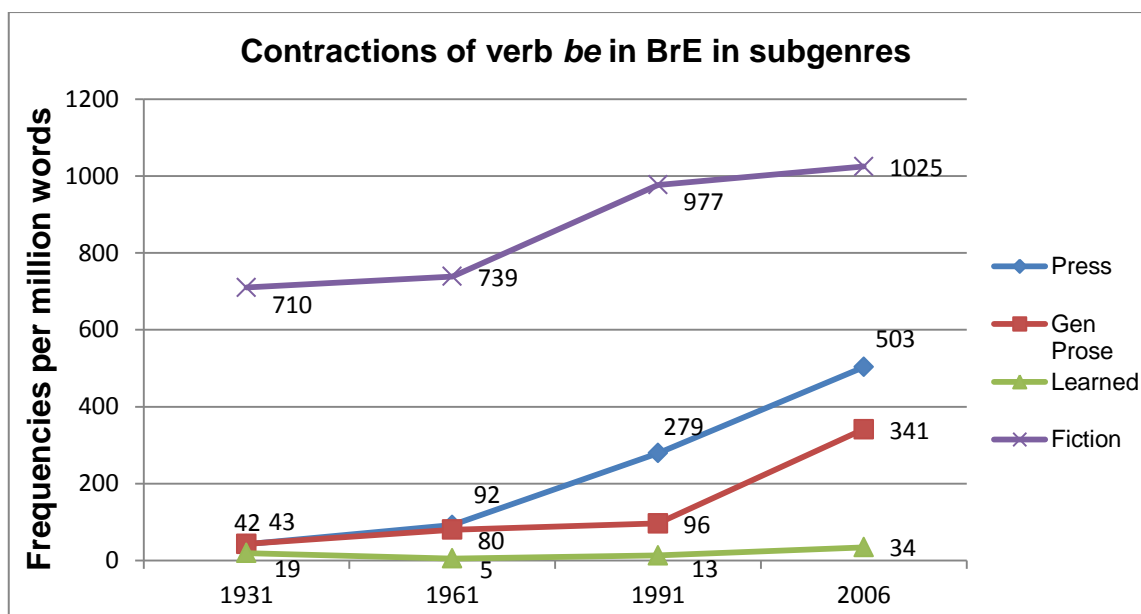


Figure 3.2.3.1.: Spread of the contracted forms *be* in BrE subcorpora

Furthermore, in Figure 3.2.3.1., it is shown that between years 1961 and 1991 there is an increasing tendency in using contracted forms in all genres. You can see more in Table 3.2.3.1. below. This increasing phase is slowing down after the year 1991 in the Fiction category, while in the General Prose category and the Press category there is a striking increase. We have to be mindful that the time-lag between 1991 and 2006 is only fifteen years and not thirty as among the years 1931, 1961 and 1991. As far as the Academic category is concerned, we can

conclude that occurrence of contracted forms of the verb *be* is insignificant. What more can be observed is that there were far more occasions in which these contractions appeared within the Academic category in the year 1931 than in years 1961 or 1991.

Contracted verb forms 'be' in BrE					
Genre category	LOB (1961)	LOB (1961)	FLOB (1991)	FLOB (1991)	rate of change
	[raw freq.]	[per million wds]	[raw freq.]	[per million wds]	[%]
Press	111	92	336	279	+202.7
Gen Prose	225	80	270	96	+20.0
Learned / Academic	5	5	14	13	+180.0
Fiction	1325	739	1751	977	+32.2
Total	1666	242	2371	344	+42.3

Table 3.2.3.1: Rate of changes of the contracted verb forms *be* in BrE between years 1961 and 1991

When comparing the development of contractions between BrE and AmE the query must be restricted to years 1961 and 1991 only. Consequently, we see that in the Fiction category the frequency per million words is slightly lower than in BrE, on the other hand, in the Press category the occurrence was twice so high in the year 1961 and in 1991 even higher, reaching the frequency 517 words per one million, see Figure 3.2.3.2. Interestingly for AmE, in the Academic category the level of frequency decreased. The example sentence is from BROWN corpus (AmE, 1961), Press category: *There'ss a lot of talk about the problem of education in America today* (BROWNA30).

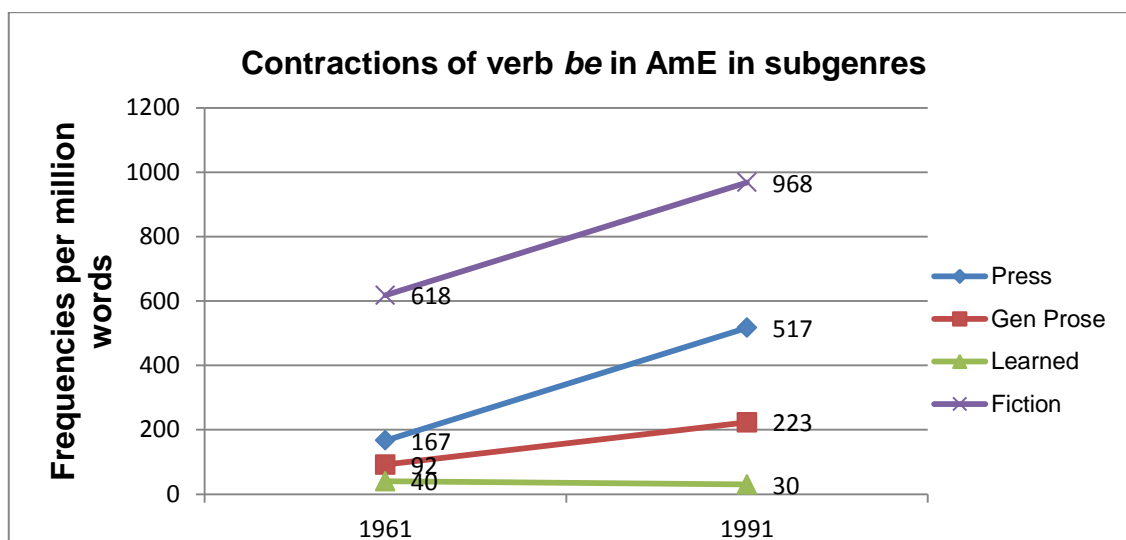


Figure 3.2.3.2.: Spread of the contracted forms *be* in AmE subcorpora

Judging by these analyses, we can summarise that contracted forms of the verb *be* have sharply increased over last century in both varieties. With regard to the subcorpora, it is important to somewhat separate the Academic/Learned category. From figures and tables, that show the development within the Learned category, we can see that usage of contracted forms is very low. This might be because academic writing is more conservative, more resistant to change. It is widely accepted that in academic writing we should avoid contractions; however, I believe that according to the slow frequency increase in the Learned category between years 1991 and 2006, in the Figure 3.2.3.1., can be assumed that the use of contracted forms of the verb *be* in academic writing will be growing in the next decades. Concerning the other genres, there is an obvious growth in the last years. Table 3.2.3.1. and Table 3.2.3.2. show striking rates of changes in BrE as well as in AmE. It is worth mentioning the Press category in BrE with the rate of change of +202.7 % (see Table 3.2.3.1) and the Press and the General Prose category in AmE with the rates of change of +210.4 % and +141.7 %, see Table 3.2.3.2.

Contracted verb forms 'be' in AmE					
Genre category	Brown (1961)	Brown (1961)	Frown (1991)	Frown (1991)	rate of change
	[raw freq.]	[per million wds]	[raw freq.]	[per million wds]	[%]
Press	201	167	624	517	+210.4
Gen Prose	259	92	626	223	+141.7
Learned / Academic	44	40	33	30	-25.0
Fiction	1108	618	1734	968	+56.5
Total	1612	234	3017	437	+87.2

Table 3.2.3.2.: Rate of changes of the contracted verb forms *be* in AmE between years 1961 and 1991

2.2.4 Contracted verb forms 'have' in subcorpora

Finally, the usage of contracted forms 's and 've in subcorpora are investigated. Here again, it was needed to use POS-tagging when making the query, this time in the form of ('ve | 's_VHZ).

As a first, the frequencies of contracted forms of the verb *have* in subcorpora of BrE were studied. As is apparent from Figure 3.2.4.1. the use of contractions predominates in Fiction category and the lowest frequencies are within Learned category, displaying a minimal growth between years 1961 and 2006. Startling fact is that in 1931 there was a frequency of 7 words per one million and the same frequency is also shown for the year 2006. The example sentence is picked up from BE06 corpus, Press category (BrE, 2006): "*If you come to our show and don't laugh, "says the band's singer, Mira," you've got no soul (BE06_C13).*" Another interesting development in the use of contractions refers to the Fiction category, where can be seen the striking decrease of frequency from 235 words (1991) to 178 words (2006) per one million in mere 15 years.

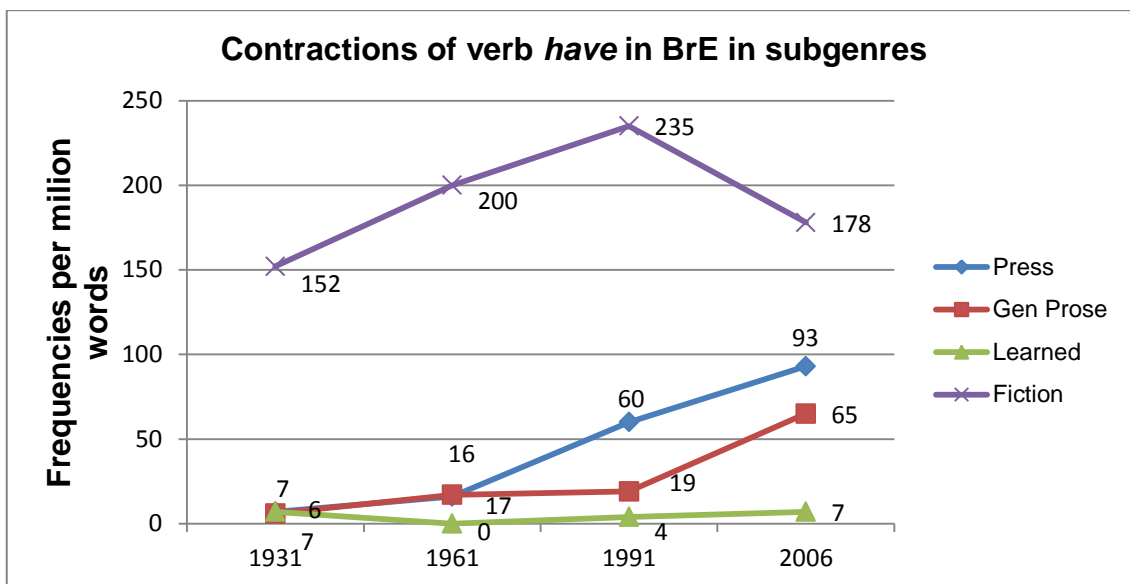


Figure 3.2.4.1.: Spread of contracted forms *have* in BrE subcorpora

The rate of change between years 1961 and 1991 is far the biggest in the Press category, approaching the percent limit of 280 %, see Table 3.2.4.1.

Contracted verb form 'have' in BrE					
Genre category	LOB (1961)	LOB (1961)	FLOB(1991)	FLOB (1991)	rate of change
	[raw freq.]	[per million wds]	[raw freq.]	[per million wds]	
Press	19	16	72	60	+278.9
Gen Prose	47	17	52	19	+10.6
Learned / Academic	0	0	0	0	0.0
Fiction	358	200	421	235	+17.6
Total	424	61	545	79	+28.5

Table 3.2.4.1.: Rates of change of the contracted verb forms *have* in BrE between years 1961 and 1991

As far as the contractions of the verb *have* in AmE subcorpora are concerned, the Fiction category prevails again with the highest number of frequencies per million words. However, the biggest growth between years 1961 and 1991 was in the General Prose category with the rate of change of 206.7 per cent, see more in Table 3.2.4.2. below. The following example sentence is from the General Prose category (AmE, 1991): *For as long as I've worked, which is since age 11, I've never liked the notion of anything ...* (FROWN15). The Press category is closely behind the

General Prose category, losing only 15 per cent. The Fiction category has rate of change 70.2 per cent.

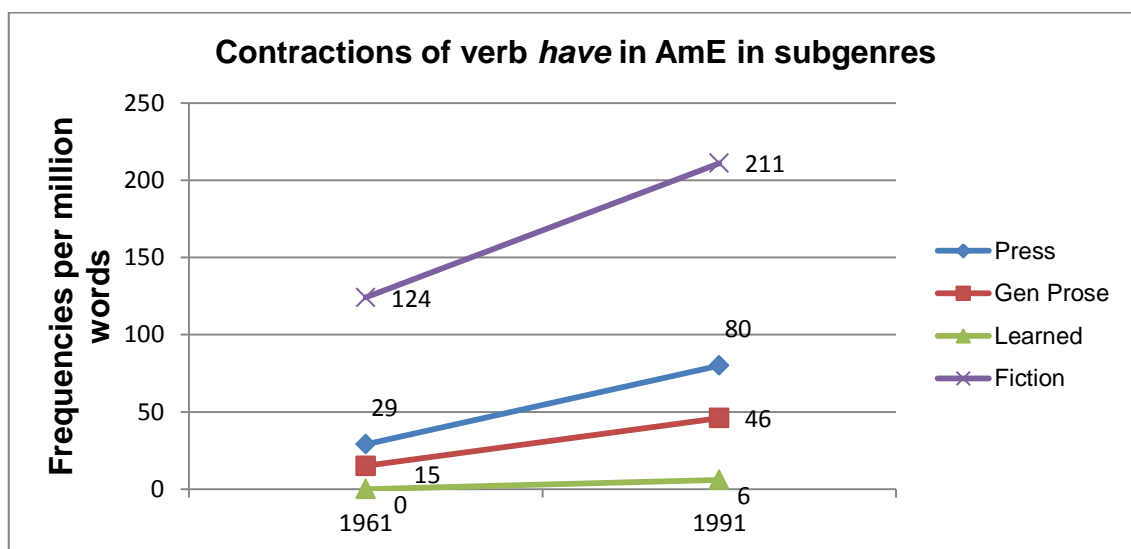


Figure 3.2.4.2.: Spread of contracted forms *have* in AmE subcorpora

Genre category	Brown (1961)	Brown (1961)	Frown (1991)	Frown (1991)	rate of change [%]
	[raw freq.]	[per million wds]	[raw freq.]	[per million wds]	
Press	29	24	80	66	+175.9
Gen Prose	15	5	46	16	+206.7
Learned / Academic	0	0	0	0	0.0
Fiction	124	69	211	118	+70.2
Total	168	24	337	49	+100.6

Table 3.2.4.2.: Rates of change of the contracted verb forms *have* in AmE between years 1961 and 1991

When comparing the rates of change between BrE and AmE, the Tables 3.2.4.1. and 3.2.4.2. indicate that contractions of the verb *have* are much stronger in AmE. The total rate of change for AmE is 104.2 per cent but only 29.5 per cent for BrE. This outcome is similar to the one comparing the use of contracted forms of the verb *be* in subgenres, see Chapter 3.2.3. Moreover, as for results concerning the Learned category in previous chapter, Chapter 3.2.3, the contractions of *have* display the same – very restricted usage in the course of the 20th century in BrE as well as in AmE.

2.2.5 Factors promoting the change

The factor promoting increasing usage of contracted forms is above all the influence of spoken language. Furthermore, BrE is under great pressure from AmE, what is called ‘Americanization’. All languages change constantly, and are enriched by the adoption of foreign terms, but AmE is more open and flexible to those changes than BrE. That is one of the reasons why in my analyses the contracted forms in AmE were and are used much more frequently. As Barber mentions “as far as America and Britain are concerned, it is obvious that the influence is almost wholly one of America on Britain, not vice versa; in this, as in other ways, the U.S. is a creditor nation”.³² The next reason for rising usage of contracted forms is simplification and colloquialization of AmE. Under the term simplification, I mean its reduction of “perfect formation” (e.g., *I did it* in AmE and *I have done it* in BrE), “pre-past formation” (e.g., *I was pleased to meet you* in AmE and *I was pleased to have met you* in BrE) or simplified forms of irregular verbs (e.g. dream/dreamed/dreamed). Among reasons why the contracted forms are spreading so fast is that nowadays, primarily the young generation is using a lot of instant messaging such as Facebook, email, Twitter and other social networks. The second reason is that writers want to strike a more accessible, informal, or colloquial note in their work in order to reduce social distance with addressee.

2.2.6 Conclusion to research

Considering my research on contractions we can see increasing popularity in using contracted verb forms in almost all genres. It is important to remember that all these results can be applied for written English only. Till today there is no similar source for spoken English, which we could use in the same way as the Brown family of corpora for written English. Maybe in the future, we will be able to analyze what type of speaker uses contracted forms and in which situation. The shift

³² BARBER, quoted No. 1, p. 21.

towards contracted forms is strongest in American English, which may in part be due to the fact that written AmE has become more “oral” at the level of textual macro-structure, and spellings such as *it is not* do not sit easily in passages of direct speech.³³ This fact can be very easily verified so that, in most situations when comparing BrE and AmE, the tables with AmE contains higher amount of frequency per million words. However, the shift is also strong in BrE. Mair and Leech point out that “it could be argued that writers are not entirely free in their choice of form but influenced by prescriptive recommendations or, in the case of journalists, by even stricter conventions of house-style. But even a change in house-style in this case would just be a belated reflection of actual change in community preferences, and support the argument for a growing tendency towards the colloquialization of written English”.³⁴ It is hard to predict the future; however, I believe that the popularity of contracted forms is going to rise further and faster.

2.3 Comparative and superlative marking

This section demonstrates that grammatical changes, which have taken place in the course of the twentieth century, were not only verbs but also other parts of speech. The following analysis puts spotlight on the adjective and its comparative and superlative formation. The goal of this section is to present two ways of how to compare adjectives with particular interest in disyllabic adjectives and their comparative and superlative formation.

³³ MAIR, quoted No. 7, p. 189.

³⁴ MAIR, Christian, LEECH, Geoffrey. “Current Changes in English Syntax.” *The Handbook of English Linguistic Arts*, Bas, and McMahon April (eds). Blackwell Publishing, 2006, p. 332.

2.3.1 Inflectional or analytical comparison of adjectives?

In English there are two ways of both comparative and superlative formation, namely, inflectional and analytical comparison of adjectives. Inflectional comparison of adjectives is formed by means of suffixation (*-er*, *-est*) and analytical comparison with the help of *more* and *most*. Generally, monosyllabic adjectives (except ones like *marked*, *prized* which are created from participles) add the affix *-er* for the comparative and *-est* for the superlative, e.g. *small*, *smaller*, *smallest*.³⁵ Adjectives with three or more syllables can only be compared with *more* and *most*, e.g. *beautiful*, *more beautiful*, *most beautiful*.³⁶ The adjectives with two syllables are divided, some usually being compared one way, the others the other way. Barber claims that “it is in this dissyllabic group that the change is most noticeable, adjectives formerly taking *-er* and *-est* tending to go over to *more* and *most*”.³⁷ It is known that Old English was more synthetic language and highly inflectional language in comparison to modern English which is an analytical language. In Present-Day English there can be still found remnants of the old inflected language, for example, the inflected form *whom*, forms of personal pronouns such as *it is I*, the ‘s *genitive* and the “suffixation” *-er*, *-est* for adjectives. Potter agrees with Barber’s words, that *-er* and *-est* are being replaced by forms with *more* and *most* and furthermore explains that the tendency towards increasing use of analytical forms “may be seen as another manifestation of the trend from synthesis to analysis, or from complex to simple forms, which has been going on for thousands of years in the history of our language from Indo-European to modern English”.³⁸ However, this point of view is not supported by Bauer who stresses that neither of these scholars (Barber or Potter) backs these assertions up

³⁵ BAUER, quoted No. 6, p. 51.

³⁶ QUIRK et al., quoted No. 4, p. 462.

³⁷ BARBER, quoted No. 1, p. 131.

³⁸ POTTER, Simeon. *Changing English*. In: BAUER, Laurie. *Watching English Change: an introduction to the study of linguistic change in standard Englishes in the twentieth century*. London: Longman, 2004, p. 52.

with anything other than impressions³⁹ or by Strang who believes that “we lack precise numerical information on the subject”.⁴⁰ As Mair states some “investigators go further and claim that the language is experiencing a (temporary?) revival of inflectional comparison”⁴¹ such as Kytö and Romaine. Altogether, there are several opinions about which forms are gaining ground; some are disputable, some are contradictory but all of them are from respected investigators.

According to Figure 3.3.1.1. (first published in Leech et al., 2009, p. 266) we can conclude that analytical marking has slightly increased in the use over last century; however, the growth is so small that we cannot draw any conclusion whether the analytical marking is undergoing a change in its use. The use of forms with *more* and *most* are more popular in AmE, reaching the limit of 30 per cent in the year 1991.

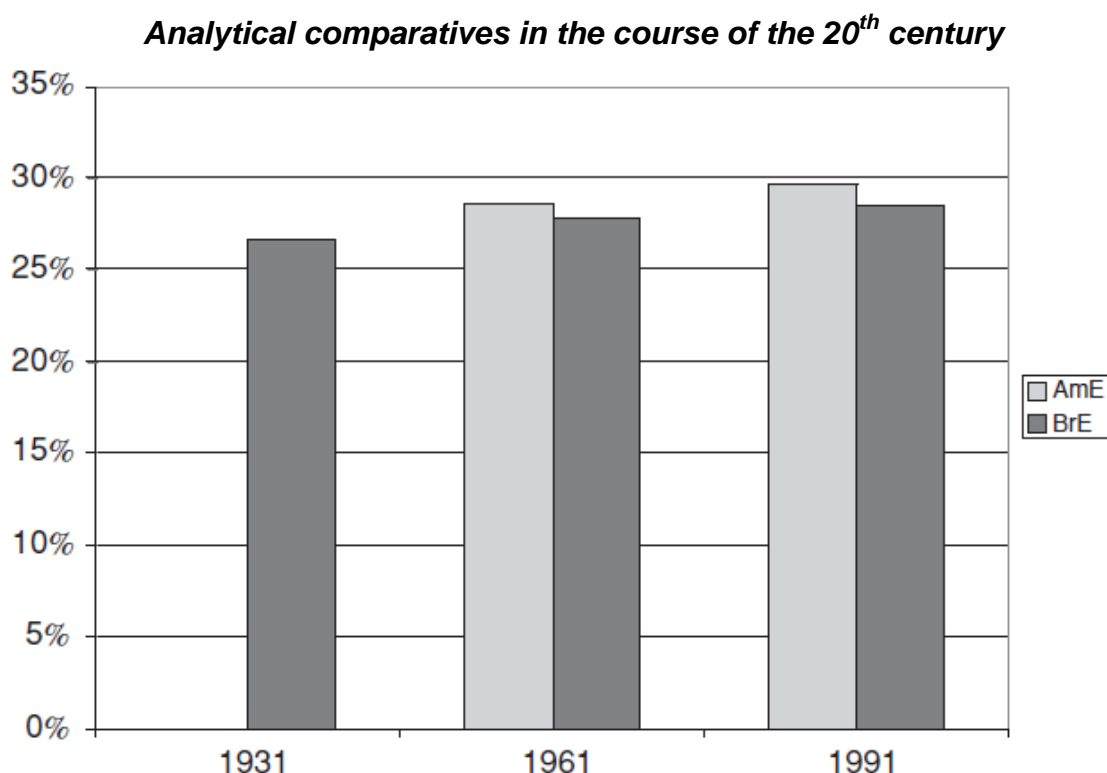


Figure 3.3.1.1.: Analytical comparatives as a percentage of all comparative forms (AmE: post-edited Frown, estimated Brown), (Source: Leech et al., 2009, p. 266).

³⁹ BAUER, quoted No. 6, p. 52.

⁴⁰ STRANG, quoted No. 18, p. 58.

⁴¹ MAIR, quoted No. 7, p. 150.

2.3.2 Comparative and superlative marking of dissyllabic adjectives

As was suggested above, it is the dissyllabic group, where the change towards analyticization is the strongest. That is why, in this following analysis some examples of dissyllabic words are presented with the goal of finding out which marking do they incline to. The analysis is applied to both varieties in the course of the 20th century.

2.3.2.1 The adjective 'common'

The first word that is analyzed is one of the most mentioned words by investigators focusing on this subject area, namely the adjective *common*.

First of all, the occurrence of *commoner* and *more common* is investigated. For this, the simple query `commoner` and `more common` was stated. The query for *commoner* returned 16 matches in 12 different texts which was the first indication that the occurrence of this form is very low. The example sentence is from BLOB corpus (BrE, 1931): ... *stresses the fact that exposure to cold increases the susceptibility to dermatitis and considers that the condition is **commoner** in winter* (BLOBJ17). Figure 3.3.2.1.1. shows that within BrE the use of this form is decreasing. On the other hand, a minute growth within AmE is recorded, the frequency per million words increased from 1 word in 1961 to 2 words per million words in 1991 reaching the same frequency as BrE, see Figure 3.3.2.1.1.

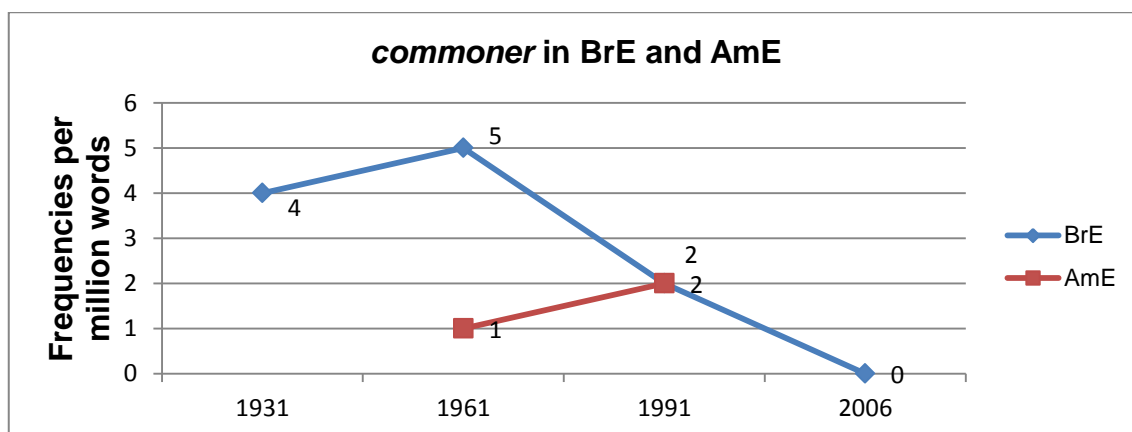


Figure 3.3.2.1.1.: Spread of *commoner* in BrE and AmE in the 20th century

The query concerning *more common* returned 31 matches in 29 different texts. From Figure 3.3.2.1.2. we can see an obvious frequency growth starting in the year 1961, for both BrE and AmE. The same Figure could be used as an assumption that also in the next years this analytical comparative marking form of the adjective *common* will be increasing in the use because the growth between 1991 and 2006 is twice as fast as between years 1961 and 1991, having regard the time-lag. An example sentence is from BE2006 corpus (BrE, 2006): *Cigarette smoking continues to be **more common** among adults aged 20 to 34 than among other age groups* (BE06_H01).

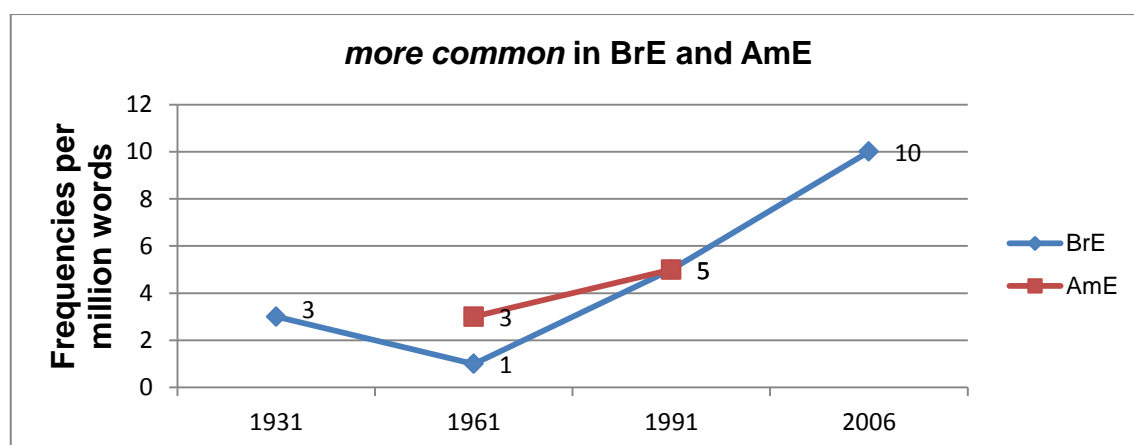


Figure 3.3.2.1.2.: Spread of *more common* in BrE and AmE in the 20th century

The next stated queries (*commonest* and *most common*) were about to find which form for superlative marking is predominating. And again the inflectional form *commonest* is slowly disappearing from BrE. Results regarding AmE show that the occurrence of *commonest* is negligible with zero occurrences in the year 1991, see Figure 3.3.2.1.3. The example sentence was picked up from BROWN corpus (AmE, 1961): *...three different times during our turbulent marriage strange girls, with the **commonest** of accents...* (BROWNR03).

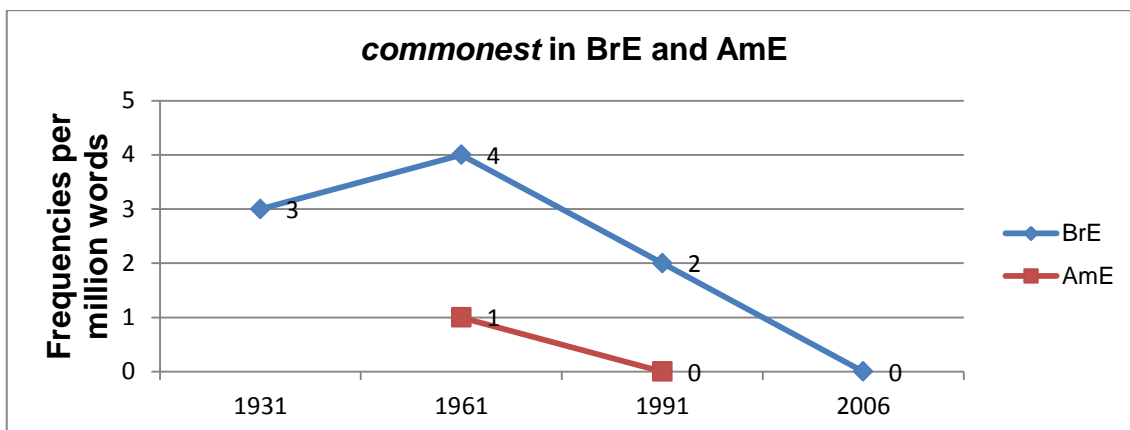


Figure 3.3.2.1.3.: Spread of *commonest* in BrE and AmE in the 20th century

The query *most common* showed the highest number of matches – 48 in 45 different texts, an example sentence is from BE06 corpus (BrE, 2006): *Joint pain is the **most common** syndrome of regional pain in older people...* (BE06_J35). When looking at Figure 3.3.2.1.4. the first thing that strikes us, is the shocking growth in BrE between years 1991 and 2006, with the frequency growth of 7 words per million words. As with the analytical comparative marking of the adjective *common*, the superlative marking *most common* is clearly gaining ground across BrE and AmE.

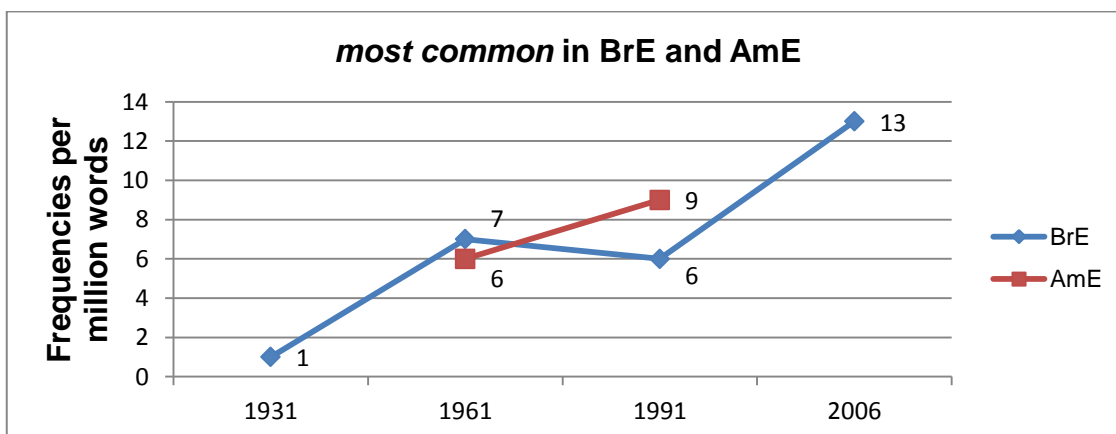


Figure 3.3.2.1.4.: Spread of *most common* in BrE and AmE in the 20th century

In summary, outcomes regarding the comparative and superlative forms of *common* correspond with Barber's words that "forms with *-er* and *-est* are being replaced by forms with *more* and *most*" and that "twenty or

thirty years ago, *commoner* and *commonest* were normal”⁴², having regard to the fact that the publication year of Barber’s book was 1964, thus she refers to the 1930s. And as can be seen from Figures 3.3.2.1.1. and 3.3.2.1.3., regarding to *commoner* and *commonest*, the frequencies within the years 1931 and 1961 are proportionally the highest. From the above results can be concluded that the dissyllabic adjective *common* has in the course of the century undergone a change from inflectional forms *commoner*, *commonest* to uninflectional, analytical forms *more common* and *most common*.

2.3.2.2 The adjective ‘polite’

The second word for my analysis is the adjective *polite*. This word was chosen because Quirk suggests that *polite* can occur as an inflectional form as well as uninflectional form.⁴³ This opinion is supported by Mair when he admits that *polite* can have inflectional and analytical comparison⁴⁴ and I wanted to find out which one of these forms is gaining ground.

The query of the inflectional form `politer` found no respond and for `politest` was found one match from LOB corpora (BrE, 1961): *Taking a deep breath and summoning my **politest** manner, I opened the car door...* (LOBG30). As far as the analytical comparison is concerned, three matches of the query `more polite` were returned, see Figure 3.3.2.2.1.; 2 from B-LOB corpora (BrE, 1931), for instance, *You’re **more polite** than my father was when I told him this afternoon.* (BLOBP11) and 1 from LOB corpora (BrE, 1961): *...if anything, he had merely become a little more reserved, and much **more polite*** (LOBK02). As this Figure indicates no matches were found for AmE.

⁴² BARBER, quoted No. 1, p. 131.

⁴³ QUIRK et al., quoted No. 4, p. 462.

⁴⁴ MAIR, quoted No. 7, p. 149.

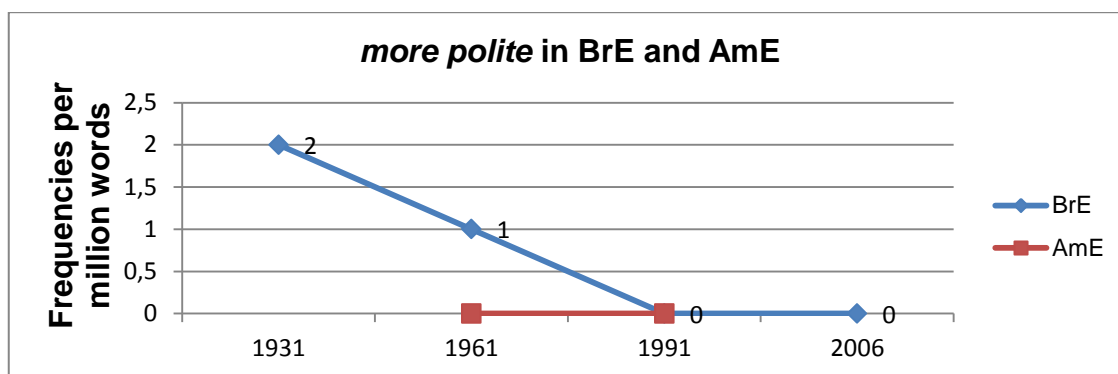


Figure 3.3.2.2.1.: Spread of *more politer* in BrE and AmE in the 20th century.

For analytical form in the query-form *most polite* were found no results. It is significant to remark that the fact that there were no results for *politer* or *most polite* does not mean that those forms are not in use at all. Leech acknowledges that the number of examples of adjectives exhibiting both inflectional and analytical comparison in the same corpus is admittedly small (on account of the size of the Brown family of corpora).⁴⁵ To verify that both forms are in use, it is enough to search these words on Google website and bear in mind that these results must be taken with caution. The form *politer* returned 241,000 hits and form *most polite* 1,730,000 hits.⁴⁶

From my analysis it is obvious that, as Quirk said, this adjective can occur in both forms.⁴⁷ By employing the Google website, a higher number of hits was returned for uninflected forms *more polite* (4,640,000 hits) and *most polite* (1,730,000 hits) than for inflected forms *politer* (243,000 hits) or *politest* (315,000 hits).⁴⁸ Those results suggest the tendency for analytical comparative and superlative marking of *polite*. This propensity towards analytical marking is also shared by Mair's claim that disyllabic adjectives have a dominant determinant for specifying which comparison marking is dominating. "Phonologically light second syllables seem to favor

⁴⁵ LEECH et al., quoted No. 8. p. 267.

⁴⁶ Google website. [online] Available from: www.google.com. [Retrieved December 2011 – February 2012]

⁴⁷ QUIRK et al., quoted No. 4, p. 462.

⁴⁸ Google website. [online] Available from: www.google.com. [Retrieved December 2011 – February 2012]

inflectional comparison, but the correlation between type of comparison and the phonological weight of the second syllable is far from perfect. Thus, adjectives ending in unstressed *-ful* or *-ous* never have inflectional comparison, whereas certain types of stressed second syllable (e.g., *sincere*, *polite*) still allow it⁴⁹ and therefore the high number of *more* and *most* forms and low frequency of inflectional forms.

2.3.2.3 The adjective 'simple'

The third word that is analyzed is the word *simple*. I chose this adjective, because I myself have been uncertain about the comparative and superlative forms.

The queries used were similar to those for the previous adjectives; for comparative marking – *simpler*, *more simple* and for superlative *simplest* and *most simple*. The query for *simpler* returned 72 matches in 62 different texts. Figure 3.3.2.3.1. shows that the highest frequency per million words was in the year 1961 for BrE, reaching 18 words per one million, as well as for AmE, reaching 15 words per one million. Also for *simpler* the example sentence is added, starting with one from LOB corpus (BrE, 1961): ... *it must be admitted that Einstein's special theory of relativity is simpler than Robb's alternative* (LOBJ51). Nevertheless, after 1961 there is a frequency loss.

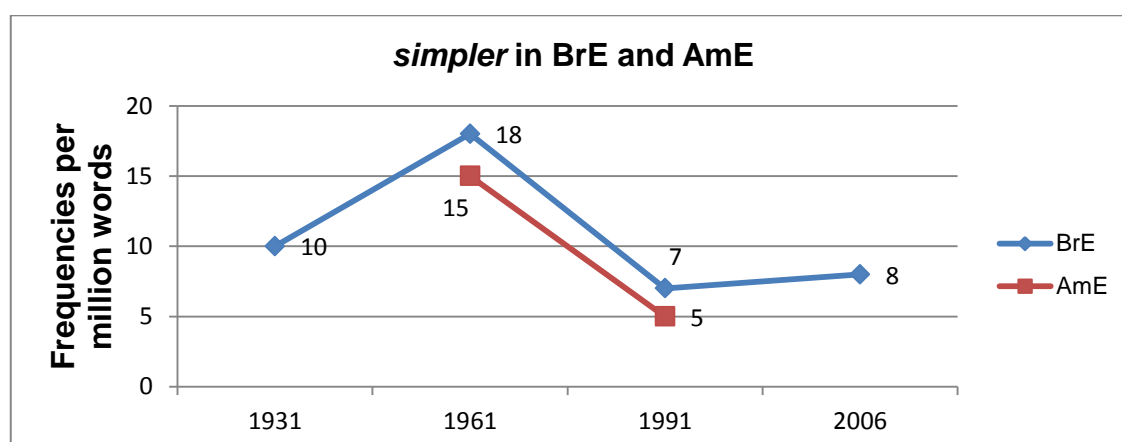


Figure 3.3.2.3.1.: Spread of *simpler* in BrE and AmE in the 20th century

⁴⁹ MAIR, quoted No. 7, p. 149.

When seeing such outcomes we would assume that *more simple* should reach higher frequency, especially after year 1991. However, this supposition would be a big mistake, since the analytical comparative form *more simple* is rare in the course of the 20th century. As can be seen from Figure 3.3.2.3.2. AmE shows zero occurrence and BrE had a frequency of 3 words per one million in the year 1931 and since then the frequency dropped to 1 word and year 2006 shows zero occurrence as AmE. The example sentence for the analytical form *more simple* is from FLOB corpus (BrE, 1991): ... *she has had the good sense to also make her stage act **more simple** and pure* (FLOBE11).

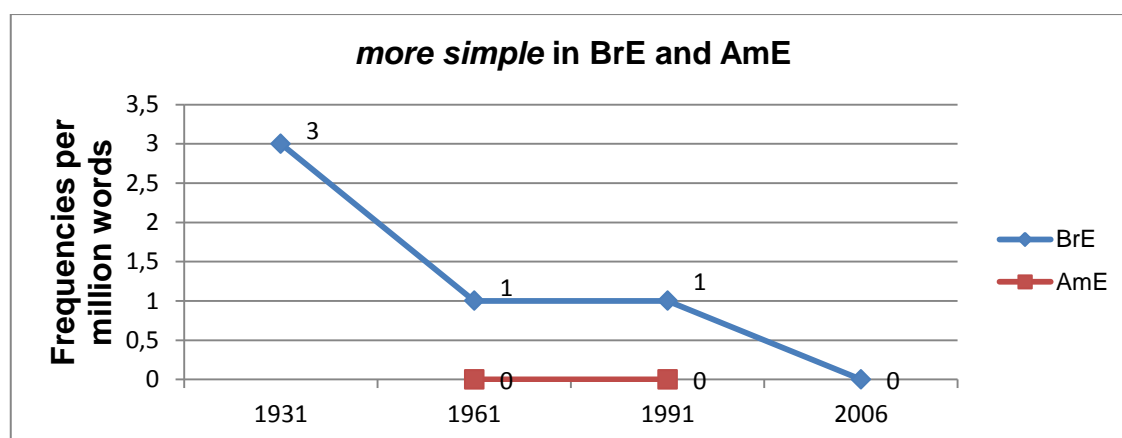


Figure 3.3.2.3.2.: Spread of *more simple* in BrE and AmE in the 20th century

When finding the information for the superlative forms of *simple* from CQPweb, the only result that was returned was for the inflectional form *simplest*. After putting the query in the form of `most simple` no results were found. But here again as with the adjective *polite*, the fact that no results for *most simple* were found and as there was zero occurrence of *more simple* in AmE does not imply no-existence of these words. Here, I used again the Google website and 19,200,000 hits for *most simple* were returned and 24,400,000 for *more simple*. Needless to say, this Google results are only rough indications.

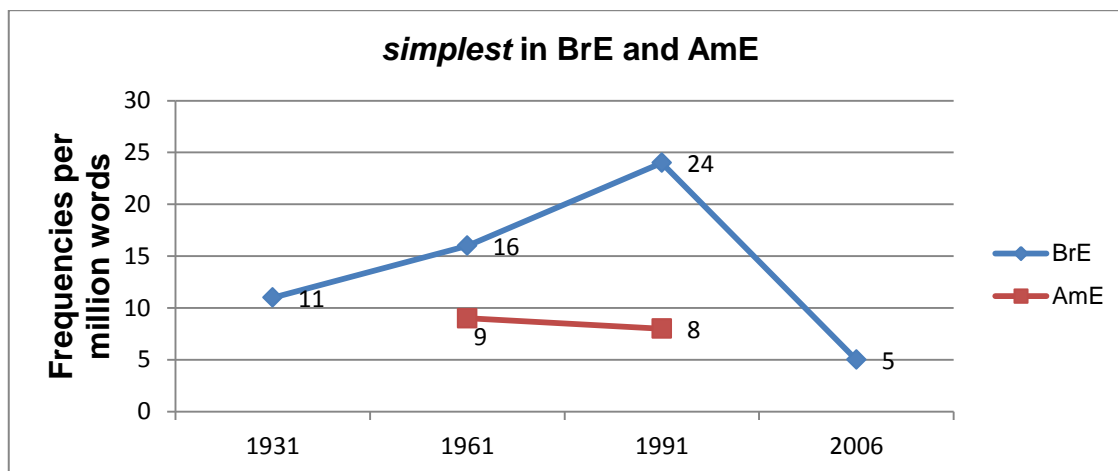


Figure 3.3.2.3.3.: Spread of *simplest* in BrE and AmE in the 20th century

From Figure 3.3.2.3.3. above, regarding the results of the query *simplest*, we can see a frequency growth between years 1931 and 1991, followed by a drastic drop between years 1991 and 2006 in BrE. The occurrence in AmE is rather constant. The example sentence is from FROWN corpus (AmE, 1991): *There was no doubt in my mind; it was the **simplest** and grimmest of facts* (FROWNK04). For *simplest* and *simpler* the Google website was used again so the comparison to the outcomes from analytical forms can be carried out. The query for *simpler* returned 80,900,000 hits and for *simplest* 79,200,000 hits. These numbers of hits are absolutely overwhelming the analytical forms results.

Interestingly, for the query *most simplest* was found one match. This is an example of double comparative which, according to Kenneth, is a taboo in Standard English. These double comparative intensify an adjective and can be compared to double negative – today an unacceptable construction. Kenneth explains the use of double comparative by Shakespeare and other Renaissance writers who used double comparison to add vigor, enthusiasm and emphasis. Nowadays, the double comparison is used by young children and other unwary speakers on Nonstandard English.⁵⁰ Surprisingly, the match, the CPQweb found, was from the year 2006 from British English (BE06 corpus): *This*

⁵⁰ KENNETH, G. Wilson. *The Columbia Guide to Standard American English*. Columbia University Press, 1993, p. 153.

may include (i) a complex non-linear finite element analysis, (ii) a simpler but still quite complicated push over analysis where a shear force is applied at ground level and the horizontal sway displacement at the top of the building estimated, (iii) a vertical pushover test or (iv) at the **most simplest** a classification of buildings according to some chosen indicators (BE06_J41). Another unexpected finding was, that the example sentence with *most simplest* was used in the Learned category, the category which strictly adheres to the rules and therefore makes this discovery remarkable.

In summary, the inflectional forms *simpler* and *simplest* are prevailing and from my analysis there is no indication that these could be replaced by forms with *more* and *most*. On the other hand, this might be considered as the sign of temporary revival of inflectional comparison as mentioned in Chapter 3.3.1.

2.3.3 Conclusion to research

My research concerning the inflectional and analytical marking of adjectives did not show a unanimous outcome. The statement provided by Barber that “forms with *-er* and *-est* are being replaced by forms with *more* and *most*”⁵¹ seems to be groundless. More convenient would be those following statements:

- there are some adjectives where the analyticization is clearly predominating, such as an adjective *common* that has settled down into the new paradigms in the course of the century;⁵²
- there are some adjective where the analytical forms *more* and *most* are slowly gaining ground, such as *polite*;
- there are some adjectives, where the inflectional forms are dominating, such as *simple*.

⁵¹ BARBER, quoted, No. 1, p. 131.

⁵² BAUER, quoted No. 6, p. 60.

Changes which might be going on in the language concern only particular examples of adjectives and therefore no generalization should be made. It seems that as Leech points out “this process of change which, to all appearances, has been taking place only marginally in recent decades”⁵³ corresponds with my findings. It is important to realize that all findings from the Brown family of corpora struggle with very low frequency occurrences, especially in comparison with previous chapters (Chapters 3.1 and 3.2). As far as the statements of investigators are concerned (see more in Chapter 3.3.1) I would say that for each point of view there is a bit of truth. Barber showed a couple of adjectives which were undergoing the change⁵⁴ – and they really did; however, on this bases cannot be drawn a conclusion for the whole class of adjectives. Kytö and Romaine presented the conclusion of a temporary revival of inflectional comparison⁵⁵ with additional statement that the overall rise in inflectional comparatives and superlatives is largely due to “the relatively great proportion of adjectives ending in -y/-ly in this category”.⁵⁶ Mair supports the idea of marginal shift in favor of analyticity and Bauer’s conclusion that “the change in the course of this century appears to have been only incidentally an increase in the use of periphrastic comparison. Rather, the change has been a regularization of a confused situation, so that it is becoming more predictable which form of comparison must be used”.^{57 58} Unlike the other analyzed changes in the language (Chapters 3.1 and 3.2) the further development of comparative and superlative marking of disyllabic adjectives is very hard to predict.

⁵³ LEECH et al., quoted No. 8, p. 264.

⁵⁴ BARBER, quoted No. 1, p. 131 -132.

⁵⁵ KYTÖ, Merja, ROMAINE, Suzanne. Adjective comparison and standardization processes in American and British English from 1620 to the present. In: MAIR, Christian. *Twentieth century English: History, Variation and Standardization*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2006, p. 149.

⁵⁶ KYTÖ, quoted No. 55, p. 149.

⁵⁷ MAIR, quoted No. 7, p. 267.

⁵⁸ BAUER, quoted No. 6, p. 60.

3 GENERAL CONCLUSION

There were three grammatical changes examined in this thesis. The analysis of verb *shall* brought the conclusion that both *shall* in statements and *shall* in suggestion are diminishing in their use. The decrease in the use was very strong towards the end of the 20th century. The frequency drop of *shall* in statements showed permanent decline in the use whereas the frequency for *shall* in suggestions displayed fluctuation in the popularity. The only growth of *shall* in suggestions was recorded between years 1991 and 2006 within BrE. At this point, it is vital to remark that the frequency of *shall* in statements was many times higher than of *shall* in suggestions. Because of the overall decline of *shall*, the use was also naturally reduced across almost all subgenres with one exception – *shall* in statements in the Academic category in BrE, where the growth of 15.2 per cent was recorded between years 1961 and 1991.

On the other hand, the contraction forms of verbs *be* and *have* were gaining ground towards the end of the 20th century. The shift towards contracted forms was strongest in American English. Except of the contraction form 's from the verb *have*, that displayed a slight decrease, all contractions were rising in their usage. The proportionally highest frequency growth showed the contraction form 'm. By and large, a conclusion can be drawn that the use of contractions in all categories of subcorpora underwent a significant growth, including the Learned category where contracted forms are generally unacceptable.

In comparison to the two above-stated results the conclusion referring to comparative and superlative marking of disyllabic adjective is not distinct. The adjective *common* evidently underwent a change in the formation of comparative and superlative marking; from the inflectional forms *commoner* and *commonest* to analytical forms *more common* and *most common*. For the adjective *polite* can be also applied the same

conclusion that this adjective underwent a change but this time very slowly and not so noticeably. Finally, the adjective *simple* stands in contrary to previous results showing that the inflectional forms *simpler* and *simplest* prevailed. On top of that, the analysis of the adjective *simple* brought an interesting finding; namely an example of a double comparative *most simplest* that occurred in the Learned category in 2006.

All things considered, the further development of the verb *shall* and contractions of verbs *be* and *have* can be easily foreseeable since the results to a great extent showed unified outcomes. In contrary, the development of the two ways for marking disyllabic adjective is hard to anticipate. This thesis successfully met the initial requirements to be a source for non-native speakers who want to be familiarised with the latest development in British and American English. Since “only” three changes were analysed, this bachelor thesis can be considered as a starting point for a more extensive research into grammatical changes in Present-Day-English with the help of the corpus linguistics.

4 REFLECTION

At the end of this thesis, I can conclude that the main goal to find aspects of variation and change in usage was accomplished, especially the changes concerning the verb *shall* and contraction of verbs *be* and *have* displayed changing habits in the use. The last explored change of comparative and superlative marking of disyllabic adjectives showed rather uncertain results whether this phenomenon underwent a change in the use or not. This might be the subject area that needs further investigation I could expand on in a further research. During my data collection from the CQPweb I struggled with finding the correct tag labels and with determining the right patterns. Nonetheless, I believe that after initial difficulties, an in-depth research into the phenomena was carried out and a good distinction between British and American variety of English was provided together with the way these changes varied with regard to the variety of English. In my personal opinion, a sufficient use of the resources that are available at present was made such as the data sampling from websites (Google website and CQPweb website) and from written sources. All things considered, I attempted to provide an extensive analysis of the corpus results, identifying variable rates of change for different phenomena. And by adding example sentences the results got a useful qualitative perspective. In summary, I believe that all my findings were well supported by what commentators said or indicated about these changes, except the change concerning the marking of disyllabic adjectives where different points of view were provided.

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ABSTRACT

The Bachelor's thesis is focused on changes in 20th century English. Grammatical changes are explored and analysed with the help of computer corpora. The goal of the thesis is to explore some aspects of variation, change in the use in British and American English and across genres in subcorpora. The theoretical part provides information about the theoretical background of the research including information about corpus linguistics, all employed corpora, the CQPweb, the main source of the data collection, and the general methodology. The practical part is devoted to the research itself. A frequency analysis is carried out for following grammatical phenomena: the modal verb *shall*, contracted forms of the verb *be* and *have* and comparative and superlative marking of disyllabic adjectives. The conclusion provides the summary of findings related to the three chosen changes. The contribution of this thesis is primarily the extensive research into the three aforesaid changes, the differentiation of the trends in British and American English together with a description of factors promoting the changes.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Diese Bakkalaureatsarbeit beschäftigt sich mit den grammatischen Veränderungen in englischer Sprache im letzten Jahrhundert. Das Ziel dieser Bakkalaureatsarbeit weist auf die Veränderungen hin und zeigt den Vergleich der Entwicklungsrichtungen zwischen britischem und amerikanischem English. Darüber hinaus ist die Nutzung in verschiedenen Textsorten in Subkorpora analysiert. Der theoretische Teil beschreibt die Korpuslinguistik, einzelne benutzte Korpora, CQPweb, das als eine Quelle für die Datensammlung dient und Methodologie. Der praktische Teil befasst sich mit der eigenen Forschung und nachfolgender Analyse der gewählten Veränderungen. Das Resümee fasst die einzelnen Ergebnisse zusammen. Der Beitrag dieser Arbeit ist die umfangreiche Forschung der grammatischen Themenbereiche und Beschreibung der Faktoren, die zu diesen Veränderungen beitragen.

RESUMÉ

Bakalářská práce se zabývá gramatickými změnami, které proběhly v anglickém jazyce ve dvacátém století. Cílem práce je kvantifikovat probíhající gramatické změny v anglickém jazyce a porovnat vývojové tendence v britské a americké angličtině a v žánrech uvedených v subkorpusu. Teoretická část popisuje korpusovou lingvistiku, jednotlivé použité korpusy, CQPweb, který je hlavním zdrojem dat pro sestavení analýz a metodologii postupu při analyzování získaných dat. Praktická část se zabývá frekvenční analýzou následujících gramatických jevů: modálního slovesa *shall*, zkrácených tvarů u sloves *be* a *have* a sklonných a nesklonných tvarů u stupňování dvojslabičných přídavných jmen. V závěru práce je uvedena rekapitulace zjištěných výsledků. Přínos práce lze spatřovat v rozsáhlém výzkumu daných gramatických jevů, ve zhodnocení zjištěných změn a v popsání faktorů, které k těmto změnám přispívají.

APPENDIX

UCREL CLAWS7 Tagset

APPGE	possessive pronoun, pre-nominal (e.g. my, your, our)
AT	article (e.g. the, no)
AT1	singular article (e.g. a, an, every)
BCL	before-clause marker (e.g. in order (that), in order (to))
CC	coordinating conjunction (e.g. and, or)
CCB	adversative coordinating conjunction (but)
CS	subordinating conjunction (e.g. if, because, unless, so, for)
CSA	as (as conjunction)
CSN	than (as conjunction)
CST	that (as conjunction)
CSW	whether (as conjunction)
DA	after-determiner or post-determiner capable of pronominal function (e.g. such, former, same)
DA1	singular after-determiner (e.g. little, much)
DA2	plural after-determiner (e.g. few, several, many)
DAR	comparative after-determiner (e.g. more, less, fewer)
DAT	superlative after-determiner (e.g. most, least, fewest)
DB	before determiner or pre-determiner capable of pronominal function (all, half)
DB2	plural before-determiner (both)
DD	determiner (capable of pronominal function) (e.g. any, some)
DD1	singular determiner (e.g. this, that, another)
DD2	plural determiner (these, those)
DDQ	wh-determiner (which, what)
DDQGE	wh-determiner, genitive (whose)
DDQV	wh-ever determiner, (whichever, whatever)
EX	existential there
FO	formula
FU	unclassified word
FW	foreign word
GE	germanic genitive marker – (' or's)
IF	for (as preposition)
II	general preposition
IO	of (as preposition)
IW	with, without (as prepositions)
JJ	general adjective
JJR	general comparative adjective (e.g. older, better, stronger)
JJT	general superlative adjective (e.g. oldest, best, strongest)

JK	catenative adjective (able in be able to, willing in be willing to)
MC	cardinal number, neutral for number (two, three..)
MC1	singular cardinal number (one)
MC2	plural cardinal number (e.g. sixes, sevens)
MCGE	genitive cardinal number, neutral for number (two's, 100's)
MCMC	hyphenated number (40–50, 1770–1827)
MD	ordinal number (e.g. first, second, next, last)
MF	fraction, neutral for number (e.g. quarters, two-thirds)
ND1	singular noun of direction (e.g. north, southeast)
NN	common noun, neutral for number (e.g. sheep, cod, headquarters)
NN1	singular common noun (e.g. book, girl)
NN2	plural common noun (e.g. books, girls)
NNA	following noun of title (e.g. M.A.)
NNB	preceding noun of title (e.g. Mr., Prof.)
NNL1	singular locative noun (e.g. Island, Street)
NNL2	plural locative noun (e.g. Islands, Streets)
NNO	numeral noun, neutral for number (e.g. dozen, hundred)
NNO2	numeral noun, plural (e.g. hundreds, thousands)
NNT1	temporal noun, singular (e.g. day, week, year)
NNT2	temporal noun, plural (e.g. days, weeks, years)
NNU	unit of measurement, neutral for number (e.g. in, cc)
NNU1	singular unit of measurement (e.g. inch, centimetre)
NNU2	plural unit of measurement (e.g. ins., feet)
NP	proper noun, neutral for number (e.g. IBM, Andes)
NP1	singular proper noun (e.g. London, Jane, Frederick)
NP2	plural proper noun (e.g. Browns, Reagans, Koreas)
NPD1	singular weekday noun (e.g. Sunday)
NPD2	plural weekday noun (e.g. Sundays)
NPM1	singular month noun (e.g. October)
NPM2	plural month noun (e.g. Octobers)
PN	indefinite pronoun, neutral for number (none)
PN1	indefinite pronoun, singular (e.g. anyone, everything, nobody, one)
PNQO	objective wh-pronoun (whom)
PNQS	subjective wh-pronoun (who)
PNQV	wh-ever pronoun (whoever)
PNX1	reflexive indefinite pronoun (oneself)
PPGE	nominal possessive personal pronoun (e.g. mine, yours)
PPH1	3rd person sing. neuter personal pronoun (it)
PPHO1	3rd person sing. objective personal pronoun (him, her)
PPHO2	3rd person plural objective personal pronoun (them)
PPHS1	3rd person sing. subjective personal pronoun (he, she)
PPHS2	3rd person plural subjective personal pronoun (they)
PPIO1	1st person sing. objective personal pronoun (me)

PPIO2	1st person plural objective personal pronoun (us)
PPIS1	1st person sing. subjective personal pronoun (I)
PPIS2	1st person plural subjective personal pronoun (we)
PPX1	singular reflexive personal pronoun (e.g. yourself, itself)
PPX2	plural reflexive personal pronoun (e.g. yourselves, themselves)
PPY	2nd person personal pronoun (you)
RA	adverb, after nominal head (e.g. else, galore)
REX	adverb introducing appositional constructions (namely, e.g.)
RG	degree adverb (very, so, too)
RGQ	wh- degree adverb (how)
RGQV	wh-ever degree adverb (however)
RGR	comparative degree adverb (more, less)
RGT	superlative degree adverb (most, least)
RL	locative adverb (e.g. alongside, forward)
RP	prep. adverb, particle (e.g. about, in)
RPK	prep. adv., catenative (about in be about to)
RR	general adverb
RRQ	wh- general adverb (where, when, why, how)
RRQV	wh-ever general adverb (wherever, whenever)
RRR	comparative general adverb (e.g. better, longer)
RRT	superlative general adverb (e.g. best, longest)
RT	quasi-nominal adverb of time (e.g. now, tomorrow)
TO	infinitive marker (to)
UH	interjection (e.g. oh, yes, um)
VB0	be, base form (finite i.e. imperative, subjunctive)
VBDR	were
VBDZ	was
VBG	being
VBI	be, infinitive (To be or not... It will be ..)
VBM	am
VBN	been
VBR	are
VBZ	is
VD0	do, base form (finite)
VDD	did
VDG	doing
VDI	do, infinitive (I may do... To do...)
VDN	done
VDZ	does
VH0	have, base form (finite)
VHD	had (past tense)
VHG	having
VHI	have, infinitive
VHN	had (past participle)

VHZ	has
VM	modal auxiliary (can, will, would, etc.)
VMK	modal catenative (ought, used)
VV0	base form of lexical verb (e.g. give, work)
VVD	past tense of lexical verb (e.g. gave, worked)
VVG	-ing participle of lexical verb (e.g. giving, working)
VVGK	-ing participle catenative (going in be going to)
VVI	infinitive (e.g. to give... It will work...)
VVN	past participle of lexical verb (e.g. given, worked)
VVNK	past participle catenative (e.g. bound in be bound to)
VVZ	-s form of lexical verb (e.g. gives, works)
XX	not, n't
ZZ1	singular letter of the alphabet (e.g. A,b)
ZZ2	plural letter of the alphabet (e.g. A's, b's).