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**The Future in English: Distributional Differences between
Will and Be Going To.
A Corpus-Based Study.**
Diplomová práce

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ZÁSADY PRO VYPRACOVÁNÍ:

The purpose of this diploma thesis is to provide an overview of distributional differences between will and be going to and to examine the actual usage of will and be going to with respect to those differences in two corpora - BNC and COCA.

1. Introduction
2. Literature Overview
3. Methodology
4. Corpus Data
5. Results
6. Discussion
7. Conclusion
8. References

SEZNAM DOPORUČENÉ LITERATURY:

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Dušková, Libuše. 2006. Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny. 3rd ed. Prague: Academia.
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Quirk, Randolph et al. 1985. A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language. London: Longman.

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Prohlašuji, že jsem tuto diplomovou práci vypracovala samostatně a uvedla úplný seznam citované a použité literatury.

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Podpis

Děkuji vedoucí práce Mgr. Markétě Janebové, Ph.D. za odborné vedení, poskytnutí potřebné literatury a cenné rady při zpracování této práce.

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1 Introduction

The future tense in English is connected with many issues. First of all, there is a dispute among linguists whether there actually is any future tense, with the verb *will* receiving the most attention in this problem. There are two poles strongly arguing in favor of their own beliefs and approaches, one for purely futurate *will* and the other in favor of a modal analysis of the verb; and in the middle there are a few advocates of the middle ground, accepting a dual nature of *will*. What linguists seem to agree upon, though, is that the main means for referring to the future is the verb *will* and the phrase *be going to*. With these two options comes another area of disagreement and it lies in the specific usages for these variants. Of course, there exists a text book descriptive approach for the choice between *will* and *be going to*, each having its own contexts and restrictions for their use. Nevertheless, it is not always the case that what is prescribed by grammarians is actually followed by speakers of the language, which may be caused by diachronic changes in the usage or by the influence of the context and the users' intentions.

These issues are brought up by Haegeman (1989) in her article "*Be going to* and *will*: a pragmatic account" where she addresses pragmatic influences on the choice between these two means of expressing the future and other aspects which are related to it. She focuses on tense representation with respect to present and future orientation of the expressions and its consequences on their usage in conditional sentences, compatibility with time adverbs *already*, *ever*, and *now* and correspondence of *be going to* with present perfect tense.

The purpose of this diploma thesis is to give a theoretical overview of *will* and *be going to* with focus on the problematic areas, to provide an account of some of the issues mentioned in Haegeman (1989) and to practically verify her claims by using data in the British National Corpus and The Corpus of Contemporary American English, taking into consideration possible differences between the varieties of British and American English.

2 Expressing the Future in English

2.1 The Status of Future Tense

When speaking about tenses, it is important to distinguish between grammatical tenses and pragmatical reference to time. While time is generally divided into past, present, and future, grammatical tenses are defined by their morpho-syntactic properties and can refer to different times regardless their formal label, such as e.g. present tense. According to (Quirk et al. 1985, 175–177) present tense can refer to the pragmatical time of present (1), where the tense refers to the current day, which happens to be Monday; future (2), where the sentence states which day is going to follow after the current day; and to some extent it can also refer to the past in such examples as (3), where the sentence presents a current state, but this state was also true in the past and it most likely will be true in the future as well.

(1) *Today is Monday.* (Quirk et al. 1985, 177)

(2) *Tomorrow is Tuesday.* (Quirk et al. 1985, 177)

(3) *Paris stands on the River Seine.* (Quirk et al. 1985, 175)

The tenses in English most authors (e.g. Quirk et al. 1985, 176; Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 116; Biber 1999, 456) distinguish and agree upon are the present and past tenses. These two simple tenses are distinguished by and are subject to verb inflections. In the present tense the inflection is usually apparent only in the 3rd person singular¹ (4) and in the past tense the verbs show either regular, e.g. (5) a), or irregular, e.g. (5) b), inflection for the past.

(4) a) *I / you / we / they **play***
b) *he / she / it **plays***

(5) a) *helped / played / stayed*
b) *ran / stood / thought*

¹ The exception is the verb *to be*, which has three different forms – *am* for the 1st person singular, *is* for the 3rd person singular, and *are* for the other persons.

On the other hand, future time in English is not expressed by any verbs or phrases undergoing “special future inflection”. For this reason, some authors (e.g. Quirk et al. 1985, 176; Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 116; Biber 1999, 456) adopt the opinion that the English language does not have future tense. They do not deny though that it is possible to express the future by other ways. However, some authors (e.g. Dušková et al. 2012, 228; Kissine 2008, 2013; Salkie 2010) contradict this opinion and state that just because the way of expressing the future is done by different means than verb inflection; it does not imply the non-existence of the future tense. For example, Dušková (228) highlights the fact that while it is possible for all modal verbs to have future reference, only the modals *will* and *shall* can refer to the future without also preserving the modal part of the meaning.

2.2 Ways of Referring to the Future

The most common ways of referring to the future are with using the modal *will* (6) a) or *shall* (6) b), and then by using the semi-modal construction *be going to* (7) (Biber 1999, 456). These constructions will be dealt with thoroughly in the following sections.

- (6) a) *He will be here in half an hour.*
 b) *No doubt I shall see you next week.* (Quirk et al. 1985, 213)

- (7) a) *It's going to rain.*
 b) *She's going to have a baby.* (Quirk et al. 1985, 214)

Other possibilities to express future are by using the present tenses. The present continuous is mainly used to speak about planned actions in the near future (8) and the present simple is usually preferred when we talk about schedules (9) a) or about events which are fixed and cannot be influenced by people's actions (9) b) (Quirk et al. 1985, 215–216).

- (8) a) *The orchestra is playing a Mozart symphony after this.*
 b) *I'm taking the children to the zoo (on Saturday).*
 (Quirk et al. 1985, 215)

- (9) a) *School **finishes** on 21st March.*
b) *When **is** high tide?* (Quirk et al. 1985, 216)

While these four types are probably the most common, there are also other constructions which have the function of referring to the future. These are *be to + infinitive* (10) a) and *be about to + infinitive* (10) b) (Quirk et al. 1985, 217), but also *be on the point of* (10) c), or *be on the verge of* (Dušková et al. 2012, 230).

- (10) a) *Their daughter **is to** be married soon.* (Quirk et al. 1985, 217)
b) *The train **is about to** leave.* (Quirk et al. 1985, 217)
c) *I was **on the point of leaving** when the telephone rang.*
(Dušková et al. 2012, 230)

2.3 Will and Shall

Will and *shall* are central modals and as such, they both share typical properties of central modals: they can occur only in primary forms, infinitives and participles would result in ungrammaticality (11)²; they show no agreement on the verb (12)³; as a complement, they take only bare infinitives (13)⁴; they are obligatory in conditionals⁵ (14); and their preterite forms show remoteness, unlike preterites with semantically the same, but grammatically less restricted forms, such as “be able to” instead of “can.” In these cases (15), the sentence with the modal has a “modally remote non-past time meaning”, while the sentence with “be able to” is understood as one specific occurrence in the past. (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 106–107).

² The examples on the left are taken from Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 106) as cited, the examples on the right are my adaptations with *will*.

³ The examples in (12) are created based on the information by Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 107), the authors in fact do not provide any examples for this point of the properties of modals.

⁴ Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 107) present only the example *he must work*, the example in (13) b) is created based on the information provided by the authors and the examples on the left are adaptations for the verb *will*.

⁵ According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002), but there are authors who claim otherwise, as will be discussed in the following chapters.

- (11) a) * *I'd like to **can** swim.* / * *I'd like to **will** swim.*
 b) * *I will **can** swim soon.* / * *I may **will** swim soon.*
 c) * ***Can** swim by June!* / * ***Will** swim by June!*
 d) * *I regret not **canning** swim.* / * *I regret not **willing** swim.*
 e) * *I have **could** swim for six years.* / * *I have **would** swim for six years.*
- (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 106)

- (12) a) *He **will** be late.* / * *He **wills** be late.*
 b) *He **shall** call her.* / * *He **shalls** call her.*

- (13) a) *They **must** work.* / *They **will** work.*
 b) * *They **must** to work.* / * *They **will** to work.*

(Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 107)

- (14) a) *If you came tomorrow, you **could** help with the flowers.*
 a') * *If you came tomorrow, you **were** able to help with flowers.*

(Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 107)

- b) *If you pay by cash you **will** normally obtain a receipt as proof of payment.*
 b') * *If you pay by cash you **are** normally **going to** obtain receipt as proof of payment.*

(Leech 1971, 60)

- (15) a) ***Could** you move it?* / * ***Were** you able to move it?*
 b) *I wish you **could** move it.* / * *I wish you **were** able to move it.*

(Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 107)

Regarding their meaning, *will* and *shall* are generally considered to be able to refer to the future and, as modals, they express modality⁶. Different authors use different terminology to describe modal meaning, e. g. Biber (1999, 495–497) and Quirk (1985, 229–230) state that the verbs *will* and *shall* express volition and prediction, Huddleston

⁶ There are disputes among linguists, whether these two verbs, especially *will*, are only modals or only future expressions, or both. More on this topic will be in the following chapters.

and Pullum (2002, 194–196) divide their meanings into deontic and non-deontic. The meanings and usage of each of the verb will be dealt with in the following chapters.

2.3.1 *Will*

2.3.1.1 *Modal Meanings of Will*

Regarding *will*, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 188–194), except for deontic and epistemic modality, distinguish also dynamic modality. The deontic modality implies authority of the speaker to the actions of the addressee, i.e. it is used to require a completion of a task (16).

(16) *You will report back to duty on Friday morning.*

(Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 194)

Among the epistemic modality, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 188–192) include the “central epistemic use”, “futurity”, and “conditional consequence”. With the “central epistemic use, *will* is usually used only with the 2nd and 3rd persons and it expresses a certain assumption about a situation either in the present (17) a), or in the past (17) b), with the possibility of its conformation in the future.

(17) a) [*Knock on door*] *That will be the plumber.*

b) *They will have made the decision last week.*

(Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 188)

According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 189–190), the “future” use of *will* is the “default way of locating the situation in future time”. This use can vary with respect to the degree of modality involved in the utterance. Some meanings can be accompanied by only a minimal degree of modality (18) a), while in others this degree can be much greater, for example in predictions (18) b). Nevertheless, every future use of *will* is linked with modality because of the speakers’ limitation of the knowledge about the future, which basically makes every future statement a prediction. While some future utterances can be more factual than others, there are always potential events which can prevent the realization of the events of the utterance. On the other hand, there are authors who argue that *will* can be purely futurate without any additional modal meanings. These will be mentioned in the next subsection.

- (18) a) *He **will be** two tomorrow.*
b) *She **will beat** him in under an hour.*

(Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 190)

The third use of *will* in the epistemic modality is the “conditional consequence” use which occurs in conditional sentences and it can refer to the past (19) a), present (19) b) and future (19) c). It is used in the main clause of these constructions (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 191).

- (19) a) *If it rained last night the match **will** have been cancelled.*
b) *If he’s still in Bath, he’ll be at his mother’s.*
c) *If it rains tonight the match **will** be cancelled.*

(Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 191)

Dynamic modality, according to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 192–194) include those uses of *will*, where “dispositions or properties of the subject-referent are involved”. The authors give two categories, the category of “volition” and of “propensity”. “Volition” can embrace different situations, for example refusal (20) a), willingness (20) b), or intention (20) c). “Propensity” deals with characteristic behavior of living things (21) a) or of characteristic properties of inanimate things (21) b).

- (20) a) *Jill **won’t** sign the form.*
b) *They have found someone who **will** stand in for you while you’re away.*
c) *I **will** be back before six.*

(Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 192)

- (21) a) *He **will** lie in bed all day, reading trashy novels.*
b) *Oil **will** float on water.*

(Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 194)

2.3.1.2 *The Modal Will and the Future Will*

The question of the status of *will* in English, as it has been already pointed out, does not have a simple answer and many linguists cannot agree on it. Some of the authors strongly argue for *will* being only futurate, some of them hold the opposite view, and there are also linguists who try to find a middle ground, suggesting the possibility of a two-way approach to the analysis of *will*. Except for the already mentioned linguists and their opinions above (e.g. Quirk, Huddleston and Pullum, or Dušková), I will present an overview of a few approaches published after the year of 2000.

Among the linguists who support the “Future Will” analysis are Mikhail Kissine (2008, 2013) and Raphael Salkie (2010). Salkie (2010) examines arguments which linguists use to prove that *will* is not a future tense in English, for example its lack of inflection, the modal uses of *will*, or the existence of other ways of referring to the future, and he challenges their validity, arguing that these arguments are either not sufficient criteria for excluding *will* from the tense analysis (e.g. the lack of inflection), or that these arguments are wrong (according to Salkie, *will* does not have modal meanings⁷ and the modality of sentences with *will* is explainable by pragmatics). Further, he provides his own arguments why *will* should be interpreted as the future tense: 1) the future meaning is the most common, 2) similarity to languages which do have future tense (such as French), 3) typological comparison with other languages, where it is relatively high on a scale relating closeness to “ideal future tense” (Salkie, 2010, 187–199).

Similarly, Kissine (2008) in his paper “Why will is not a modal” provides a thorough linguistic analysis, where he disputes any modal meanings of *will*; in such cases, which are understood as modal uses of *will*, he argues for a “covert epistemic necessity”, which is not part of *will*. Kissine’s arguments, though, were challenged by Broekhuis and Verkuyl (2014), where they claim Kissine’s analysis is faulty and they argue in favor of the modal analysis, using as their base the theory of binary tense, i.e. that English operates on binary oppositions—the past and the present, synchronous and posterior, imperfect and perfect. The authors support their approach by comparing English with Dutch (Broekhuis and Verkuyl 2014). Kissine reacted to this challenge and in his short paper (2014) he defends his stance towards the analysis of *will* as only the future tense.

⁷ Salkie (2010) acknowledges the existence of volitional meaning of *will* and explains it as a “semantic relic” from its past meaning (190–195).

One of the authors, who supports the analysis of *will* as modal is Giannakidou (2014), who comments on the article by Broekhuis and Verkuyl (2014) and finds it extremely “rich in observations and ideas”, especially their Binary Tense approach (Giannakidou 2014, 1030). Nevertheless, Giannakidou highlights that the English *will* should not be directly compared to its Dutch equivalent—as Broekhuis and Verkuyl (2014) did—because of potential cross-linguistic differences.

Another supporter of the modal *will* analysis is Klinge (2005), who, similarly to Salkie (2010), provides arguments for the analysis of *will* both as a modal and as a future tense, but unlike Salkie (2010), Klinge (2005) comes to the opposite conclusion, i.e. that *will* is always connected to modality.

Lastly, Corches (2010) states that the future is, and always will be, partly modal and partly temporal. According to her views, this is caused by diachronic evolution and natural fluctuation between futurity and modality. Corches (2010, 195–196) presents three stages of these developments: firstly, there is a modal verb with the meanings of obligation, volition or intent, and because of semantic change, in the second stage future tense evolves out of this modal; and in the third stage the future gains modal coloration, which can eventually replace the future meaning altogether. Corches (2010, 196–204) claims this pattern to be applicable cross-linguistically and she provides examples from Latin and Romance languages.

2.4 Be Going To

Be going to is a semi-auxiliary (Quirk et al. 1985, 143), sometimes called idiomatic *be going to*, where *be* is fully inflected, e.g. (22) a) and b), except for the gerund participle (22) c) (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 210–211) and *be* also works as an operator in negation and questions (23) (Quirk et al. 1985, 143). The *going to* part of this idiom is “virtually inseparable” and it may be shortened into *gonna* (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 211).

- (22) a) *Brazil is going to win the World Cup.* (Quirk et al. 1985, 143)
b) *She had been going to tell me.* (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 211)
c) * *being going* (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 211)

- (23) a) *Brazil isn't going to win the World Cup.*
b) *Is Brazil going to win the World Cup?*

Regarding the usage of *be going to*, it is used to express the speaker's intentions (24) a) or to talk about future predictions based on present evidence, such as the presence of clouds in the sky in the example (24) (Dušková 2012, 229). This semi-auxiliary is thus considered to be focused on the present, unlike the verb *will*; more detailed description of the time orientation of both of these expressions is provided in the corresponding chapter.

- (24) a) *I'm not going to get angry because you called me stupid names.*
b) *It's going to rain.*

(Dušková 2012, 229)

Be going to evolved from the progressive form of the verb *go*, meaning that the speaker was actually on his way to perform a task and gradually it started to be used for intention and prediction as well as it started to be used with inanimate subjects and stative verbs. The development of *be going to* is studied for example by Budts and Petré (2016), who used historical corpora in order to observe the shifts in meaning. Tagliamonte et al. (2014) compare the historical stages with British dialects which are still showing the changes in the meaning of *be going to*.

According to Biber et al. (1999, 486–490, 495–496), the distribution of *be going to* is much frequent in spoken than in written language, in conversation it typically marks the future tense and personal volition, in academic prose it is more commonly used for predictions. With this might be connected the fact that the volitional use is much more common in general than the prediction. Biber et al. (1999, 488) also find that *be going to* is extensively more common in American English than in British English.

3 Distributional Differences Between Will and Be Going To

The differences in distribution between *will* and *be going to* can be purely in the meaning, Nicolle (1995, 355 – 356) gives the examples in (25) and (26), where the interpretation of each sentence changes depending on whether we choose *will* or *be going to*, while the grammatical environment stays the same.

(25) *Can somebody visit John tomorrow?*

a) *I'm going to visit him.*

b) *I'll visit him.*

(Nicolle 1995, 355)

Nicolle (1995, 355–356) explains that in (25) a) the interpretation of the sentence is that the speaker intended to visit John before the question was uttered, in b) the speaker decided for the visit as a consequence of the inquiry. Regarding the example (26), a) is considered to mean that the parcel would explode regardless if anyone went near it or not, in b) it is understood that the explosion depends on the presence of a person near the parcel.

(26) a) *Don't go near that parcel! It's going to explode!*

b) *Don't go near that parcel! It'll explode!*

(Nicolle 1995, 356)

These differences in the meaning are connected with the tense analysis of these expressions. Haegeman (1989, 296–298), for example, adopts the tense analysis from Reichenbach, but some authors find this analysis insufficient and add their own findings (e.g. Wada, 1996).

Be going to, except for being interpreted differently than *will* in the same syntactical environment, can be perceived more or less grammatical in various environments. Haegeman (1989) mentions that *be going to* is perfectly acceptable with some adverbs, e.g. *already*, but not very common with other adverbs, such as *ever*, which collocates rather with *will*; the adverb *now* can then be used equally with both of the future expressions. Conditional sentences constitute another area, where *be going to* is not very frequent; these structures are said to favor *will* (Leech 1971, 60).

In her article, Haegeman (1989) also draws a comparison between *be going to* and present perfect tense based on their shared “present orientation” and also because of their tendency to appear with the adverb *already*. In the following sections I will focus on these specificities of *be going to*, which will further provide the ground for my corpus research.

3.1 Tense Analysis of Be Going to and Will

Haegeman (1989, 296–298) presents tense analysis of *will* and *be going to* based on Reichenbach⁸ and his approach to tense interpretation. For this theory it is important to introduce three elements which then combine in order to establish the “temporal location” of a given tense or a specific proposition. The elements are given in (27) and they are: the moment of speech (S), the time of the event (E), and the reference point (R).

- (27) S – *the moment of speech*
 E – *the time of the event*
 R – *the reference point*

(Haegeman, 1989; 296)

There are tense analyses according to Reichenbach using the three elements S, E, and R; in (28) a) there is a representation for the past simple, in (28) b) for the present perfect, and in (28) c) and d) two options for future *will* or *shall*.

- (28) a) *Past simple* *John left.* E, R ——— S
 b) *Present perfect* *John has left.* E ——— R, S
 c) *Future will / shall* *Now I shall go.* S, R ——— E
 d) *Future will / shall* *I shall go tomorrow.* S ——— R, E

(Haegeman, 1989; 296–297)

According to Haegeman (1989, 297), Reichenbach’s reasons to give two different time interpretations for the future *will* or *shall* lies in the co-occurrence with both a present time adverb (*now*) as well as with a future time adverb (*tomorrow*).

⁸ Reichenbach introduced his tense interpretation in his work *Elements of symbolic logic* (1947) published in New York by The Free Press, but this publication is not used as a source in this thesis, only Haegeman’s account of Reichenbach’s theory.

form, i.e. *-ing* ending on the verb *go*. This according to Wada (1996, 177–179) means that *be going to* requires a non-stative I-situation (i.e. non-stative main verb, such as *play*) for it to be acceptable.

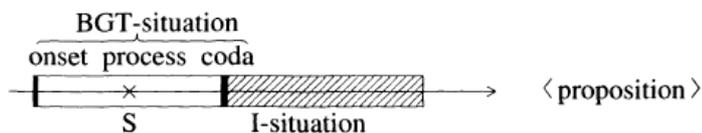
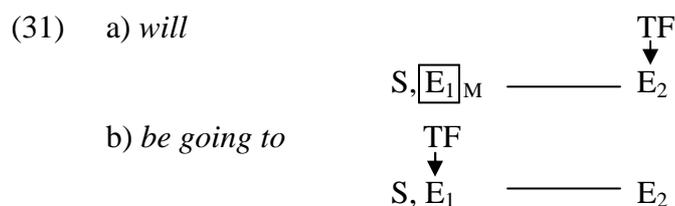


Figure 2 – Temporal Schema for *Be Going To* (Wada 1996, 178)

Nevertheless, Wada (1996, 179–180) finds these tense analyses insufficient to explain all syntactic and semantic differences between *will* and *be going to* and suggests adding a “temporal focus” (TF) into the temporal structures; TF is defined as follows:

Temporal focus is a focus that is situated on the time-point / period of situation on the time line to which a speaker pays special attention (Wada, 1997, 179).

Wada (1997, 179–180) stresses that TF differs from reference time (R) in that TF represents only part of the complex of R, namely the speaker’s focus, while R consists also of “a time from which a time of situation is evaluated.” The main difference from Reichenbach’s R is that TF presents only one part of R and TF together with time of orientation (O) form complete reference point. Wada (1997, 179–180) believes that the distinction of these two terms, especially the position of TF in the time structures, is crucial in order to properly demonstrate the differences between *be going to* and *will*. The author claims that TF is with *will* sentence “automatically” situated on E_2 , and following the logic that “different forms convey different meanings”, in *be going to* sentence, TF is situated on E_1 . The modified schemata are shown in (31).



(Wada 1997, 180)

Regardless the terminology or the tense structures used, both Haegeman (1989) and Wada (1997) seem to reach the same conclusion, which is that *will* is oriented towards the future while *be going to* reflects a focus to the present element.

3.2 Conditional Sentences

Conditional sentences (also called the conditionals), as the label indicates, are sentences which express actions or states dependent on certain conditions. A conditional sentence consists of two clauses, the condition clause and the consequent clause (Narayanan et al. 2009, 180–181). Usually, the general structure of conditional sentences is represented by (32) a) as in the example (32) b), but it is also possible to change the order of the two clauses as in (32) c) (Geis 1985, 133–134).

- (32) a) *If S1, then S2*
b) *If you leave, I'll leave.*
c) *I'll leave if you leave.*

(Geis 1985, 133–134)

The conditional sentence is introduced by a conditional adverb (Narayanan et al. (2009) uses the terminology “a conditional connective”), which, most commonly is *if* (Narayanan et al. 2009, 182; Geis 1985, 131), but there are other possible conditional adverbs, for example *unless*, *even if*, *only if*, *in case*, or *as long as* (Narayanan et al. 2009, 182–183). Dušková (2012, 246–247) states that conditional sentences consist of the forms *should* in the first person and *would* in the other persons, nevertheless, Leech (2006, 25–26) and Geis (1985) or Narayanan et al. (2009, 183), include the form *will* or present simple tense as other choices, depending on the type of the conditional.

Conditional sentences are a sub-category of adverbial sentences (Leech 2006, 25), 29; Geis 1985, 130) and there exist several types of their classification (Narayanan et al. 2009, 183). Leech (2006, 25–26) uses the term “unreal” to describe one type of conditional sentences (33), the opposite, though not stated by the author, is “real” conditional. The terminology real and unreal is also used by other linguists, for example Dušková (2012).

- (33) *If she knew about his behavior, she would never forgive him.*

(Leech 2006, 26)

The real conditional sentences express a situation which is theoretically possible to happen, although it does not have to be actually realized, while the unreal conditional sentences express situations which are not possible to happen, they are contradictory to the state of events in an actual world (Dušková 2012, 247).

Another division of conditionals is based on the tense pattern and there are four types of conditional sentences, each using a different grammatical tense. This division is used in grammar books. The types are: zero conditional (34) a), where both the clauses are in present tense; first conditional (34) b), where the condition is in the simple present tense and the consequence contains *will* + bare infinitive; second conditional (34) c), where the condition is in the past simple tense and the consequence contains *would* + bare infinitive; and third conditional (34) d) with the condition in past perfect and the consequence with *would* + present perfect (Narayanan et al. 2009, 183).

- (34) a) *If you heat water, it boils.*
b) *If the acceleration is good, I will buy it.*
c) *If the cell phone was robust, I would consider buying it.*
d) *If I had bought the a767, I would have hated it.*

(Narayanan et al. 2009, 183)

Geis (1985, 131) points out that it is important to distinguish between conditional sentences and conditional proposition. While the meaning of a conditional proposition can be realized by different syntactic means, conditional sentences are defined by their syntactical structure which is described above. Therefore, though having the same meaning, only sentence (35) a) is a conditional sentence, sentence (35) b) is a conditional proposition.

- (35) a) *If you kiss my dog, you'll get fleas.*
b) *Kiss my dog and you'll get fleas.*

(Geis 1985, 131)

3.2.1 *Be Going To in Conditional Sentences*

In the previous chapter, in all the examples there appeared *will* (or *would*) in the conditional sentences, *be going to*, as Leech (1971, 60) states, is “less appropriate” in

these types of sentences. Even Declerck (1984), who wrote an article concerning the rare usage of *will* in if-clauses and identifies nine different types, mentions *be going to* in conditionals only briefly. Leech (1971, 60) suggests that *be going to* can appear if there is a present condition rather than a future one, as in the examples in (36). However, Leech (1971, 60) adds that *will* could also be used in these sentences with only a little change in meaning.

(36) a) *We're going to find ourselves in difficulty if we go on like this.*

b) *If you're expecting Wales to win, you're going to be disappointed.*

(Leech 1971, 60)

Haegeman (1989, 299) comments on Leech, saying that according to his analysis, the sentence in (37) a) is completely acceptable, while the one in (37) b) is ungrammatical, as it lacks the present condition.

(37) a) *If you accept that job, you'll never regret it.*

b) * *If you accept that job, you're never going to regret it.*

(Haegeman 1989, 299)

Haegeman (1989, 299) further argues that given the right context, sentence (37) b) could as well be acceptable, but even if the situation lacked the present condition, she claims that even though inappropriate, the sentence in (37) b) would not be ungrammatical.

Nicolle (1997, 368–369) does not agree with the theory that the acceptability of *be going to* in conditionals lies in the present condition, but he argues that it is in the status of the situation. In other words, if the situation is not stated as existing, *be going to* would be inappropriate, while if the situation is stated as existing, *be going to* will be acceptable. Nicolle (1997, 369) provides the following generalization: “there exists a situation with the potential to bring about another situation”.

Further, Nicolle (1997, 369) objects to the division to the present and future context because if *be going to* is grammatical in the present context, then *will* should be grammatical only in the future context, but as it has been stated before, Leech (1971, 60) says that *will* is also acceptable in present conditions.

Wada (1997, 172) also points out that to distinguish between present and future orientation does not have to be clear, because in some sentences there can be references both to the present and future, as in the sentences in (38), where both *will* and *be going to* can be used.

(38) a) *Now we are going to have no money at the end of the month.*

(Haegeman 1989, 297)

b) *Now we will have no money at the end of the month.*

(Wada 1997, 172)⁹

From the literature it is clear that *will* is favored over *be going to* in conditional sentences, but *be going to* can also be used in the right contexts. Fehringer and Corrigan (2015) studied Tyneside English as a means to investigate grammaticalization of *be going to* and they observed a rise in frequency of *be going to* in speech, which they claim is almost “on a par with *will*”. They also found that *will* is slightly more frequent and preferred in conditionals, however in a source of older variety of Tyneside English there seemed to be “no significant effect” in the choice between *be going to* and *will*, and the authors conclude that the preference of *will* in conditional sentences is thus a recent phenomenon, probably caused by the speakers following a general pattern “if *p*, then...will *q*”.

3.3 Adverbs

Adverbs are a heterogenous category and they “characteristically modify verbs and other categories except nouns, especially adjectives and adverbs” (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 563). Regarding the semantics of adverbs, Biber et al. (1999, 552–560) use eight different types, which are: place (39) a), time (39) b), manner (39) c), degree (39) d), additive/restrictive (39) e), stance (39) f), linking (39) g), and other meanings (39) h). Some of these types include further sub-categorizations, which are beyond the scope of this thesis and in the following text, only adverbs of time will be examined into more details.

⁹ The original example is cited from Nakau, Minoru. 1994. *Ninchi-Imiron no Genri*. (Principles of Cognitive Semantics). Taishukan, Tokyo., which is not used in this thesis as a primary source.

- (39) a) *there, backward, far*
 b) *now, then, recently, always, already*
 c) *happily, quickly, well, fast*
 d) *slightly, almost, completely*
 e) *too, also, only, especially*
 f) *probably, definitely, kind of, unfortunately, frankly*
 g) *additionally, overall, namely, therefore, though, incidentally*
 h) *When there is a funeral, the body is washed symbolically as part of the service.*

(Biber et al. 1999, 552–560)

Time adverbs are further distinguished by Biber et al. (1999, 552–553) into time position (40) a), time frequency (40) b), time duration (40) c), and time relationship (40) d). The authors highlight that context plays an important role in assigning meaning to adverbs, as some of them can have both literal and metaphorical meanings. Concerning time adverbs, they can also convey more temporal meanings together, for example sentence (40) e) includes time position in the form of a point in the near past as well as a time relationship in the sense of more recent compared to other events.

- (40) a) *She doesn't say go away very much **now**.*
 b) *She **always** eats onions.*
 c) *She will remain a happy memory with us **always**.*
 d) *When they took the old one out it was **already** in seven separate pieces!*
 e) ***Recently** deserted by her husband she's found it hard enough to make ends meet in the past.*

(Biber et al. 1999, 552–553)

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 575–580) mention that linear positions of adverbs include front, central, and end, while a single adverb can appear in various positions based on the meaning or the speaker's choice. Some positions are more standard than others and some ungrammatical, but there still exists a choice where to put the adverb in a sentence. The sentence (41) shows examples of the positions of the time adverb *already*, where a question mark is used for less standard, but still acceptable positions, and the tick for a commonly preferred positions.

(41) ? *our guests ? are ✓ here ✓*

(Hudleston and Pullum 2002, 580)

3.3.1 *Adverbs with Future Expressions*

As it has been pointed out in one of the previous chapters, *be going to* tends to be present-oriented, while *will* seems to be future-oriented. This distinction might be put to contrast by using present or future time adverbs with the corresponding constructions. However, Haegeman (1989, 295–296) states that the “compatibility with time adverbs is not unproblematic”. For example, the present time adverb *now* can be used with both *be going to* and *will* (42).

- (42) a) *Now I'm going to have to take this dress to the cleaners again.*
b) *Now we'll have no money at the end of the month.*

(Haegeman 1989, 295)

Haegeman (1989, 295–296) explains that this co-occurrence of *now* with both future expressions is caused by the fact that *now* is not only a temporal adverb, but that it “suggests that the event expressed in the main proposition is the consequence of a prior event”. The author proposes that the adverb *already* is better for providing the present- and future-oriented distinction. *Already* is compatible with *be going to* rather than *will* (43) because it, in addition of being a time adverb, “relates an event to the other events in the immediate context” such as in (44) b), where it supports the interpretation that the secretary’s leaving preceded John’s arrival whereas in (44) a) these events could happen simultaneously.

- (43) a) *We **are already going to** have the kitchen redecorated, we cannot have the builders in too.*
b) ? *We **already will** have the kitchen redecorated, ...*

(Haegeman 1989, 296)

- (44) a) *The secretary had left when John arrived.*
b) *The secretary had already left when John arrived.*

(Haegeman 1989, 296)

Wada (1997, 187–188) agrees with Haegeman (1989) that *already* is more acceptable with *be going to* than with *will*. He explains that this is caused by *already* modifying a situation in the present, and since *be going to* is present-oriented, and *will* future-oriented, it is evident that the adverb *already* would be compatible with the first. The author further supports this claim by providing a tense analyses of sentences in (43), where *already* is realized as a separate temporal focus (TF; viz chapter 3.1) and the TF of *be going to* is parallel with the adverbial TF, and with *will* the two TFs do not correspond, resulting in the “oddness” of (43) b). The temporal analyses are provided in Figure 3 and Figure 4.

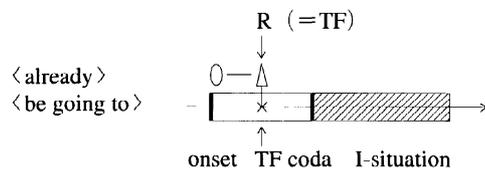


Figure 3 – Temporal Schema of *Be Going To* Sentence with *Already*

(Wada 1997, 188)

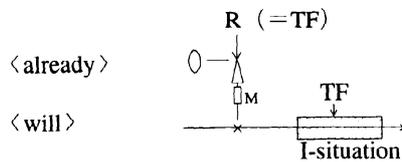


Figure 4 – Temporal Schema of *Will* Sentence with *Already*

(Wada 1997, 189)

On the other hand, Nicolle (1997, 366–368) does not agree with Haegeman (1989) and her analysis and he states that the adverb is compatible with either progressive or perfective aspect and since *be going to* as such is constructed in the progressive, while simple future with *will* is not, it results in the more common co-occurrence with this expression. He gives an example of *will* with the progressive aspect, which is easily as well acceptable with *already* as *be going to* (45).

- (45) a) *He's **already going to** visit John.*
 b) *? He'll **already visit** John.*
 c) *He'll **already be visiting** John.*

(Nicolle 1997, 367)

Haegeman (1989, 307–308) further mentions that *be going to* is also compatible with the expressions “I didn’t realize that” and “did you know that”, as in (46), while *will* is more likely to occur with the adverb *ever*, as it refers to the future. She provides the series of examples of conditional sentences in (47), where she explains that the best context is found in the example (47) b), which has *will*, while *be going to* in (47) a) is not very common. The example in (47) c) is made more acceptable, even though there is also *be going to*, by having a present context.

- (46) a) *I didn't realize that you **are going to** / ? **will** travel by boat.*
 b) *Did you know that Ann **is going to** / ? **will** get married?*

(Haegeman 1989, 308)

- (47) a) *You're going to be fired if you ever go near his computer.*
 b) *You'll be fired if you ever go near his computer.*
 c) *You're going to be fired if you go on like this.*

(Haegeman 1989, 307)

Nicolle (1997, 368–369) holds a different approach to the adverb *ever*. He claims that it does not necessarily refer to the future, but that it can be paraphrased as “at any time”, which can be future, present, or past. The author provides a further context for the sentence (48), claiming that it can be interpreted as follows:

The addressee could be fired if it comes to light that they have at any time gone near the computer, as well as if they are caught near the computer at a later date.

(Nicolle 1997, 368)

- (48) *I don't know if you make a habit of it, but you're going to be fired if you ever go near his computer.*

(Nicolle 1997, 368)

Nicolle (1997, 368–369) acknowledges that this sentence can still be perceived as odd by some speakers, but he argues that this is not caused by a temporal conflict but because the condition which could result in the situation “YOU BE FIRED” is not noted as existing.

Despite varying analyses, the authors seem to agree on the fact that there indeed exists a tendency to combine *already* with *be going to* more often than with *will* and the adverb *ever* with *will* rather than *be going to*.

3.4 Be Going To and Present Perfect Tense

Haegeman (1989) in her research paper draws a comparison between *be going to* and the present perfect tense. For this reason, a short overview of the present perfect tense and its relation to the expression *be going to* is also included in this thesis.

The perfective aspect is created with the auxiliary *have* and the main verb in the past participle form (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 139). According to Quirk et al. (1985, 189) perfective aspect is closely connected with tense and in some cases it is difficult to clearly separate the meanings of tense and aspect. In English, there are usually two distinct perfective tenses – the present perfect and the past perfect (49) (e.g. Quirk et al. 1985, 192–197), but the perfective *have* can appear also in other constructions (50).

(49) a) *John has lived in Paris for ten years.*

b) *The flight was cancelled after we had paid for the tickets.*

(Quirk et al. 1985, 189–190)

(50) a) *She may have eaten it.*

b) *She regrets having eaten it.*

(Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 111)

Generally, the perfective aspect has the meaning of “anterior time” (Quirk et al. 1985, 190), in other words, it can “designate events or states taking place during a period leading up to the specified time” (Biber et al. 1999, 460). As a result, present perfect tense can be used to talk about events which happened in an unspecified time in the past, which are still in some way relevant in the present (51) a) (Dušková 2012, 221)

or which are still extending to the present (51) b) (Biber et al. 1999, 460). It can also be used to tell news (51) c) (Dušková 2012, 221).

(51) a) *Have you got a piece of sticking-plaster? I've **cut** myself.*

(Dušková 2012, 221)

b) *But now she's **gone** on holiday for a whole month.*

(Biber et al. 1999, 460)

c) *John **has had** a motor accident.*

(Dušková 2012, 221)

When it comes to more formal distinctions in the meanings of present perfect, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 143–146) provide three classes: the experiential perfect (also called existential) (52) a), the resultative perfect (52) b), and the perfect of recent past (52) c). Mittwoch (2008, 325) states that there is no sharp line between the resultative and the experiential meaning of the present perfect and that the final interpretation can depend on various factors, including “sentence-internal clues”, prosody, or context.

Portner (2003) provides in his study an overview of the literature focused on the present perfect and states four different meanings, which are used in the examined literature. These are resultative and existential perfect listed separately, plus continuative perfect and “hot news” perfect. He also points out that to distinguish between the categories can sometimes be problematic.

(52) a) *His sister has been up Mont Blanc twice.*

b) *She has broken her leg.*

c) *She has recently / just been to Paris.*

(Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 143–145)

One of the characteristics of the present perfect tense is that it cannot be used with a past time adverb or a clause, which would mark a specific time in the past. In these cases, it is the past tense, which is used. However, there are some adverbials which are grammatical, even common, with the present perfect. These are *just*, *recently*, *before*, *already*, or *now*. The ungrammatical usage of time adverbials is shown in (53), the grammatical co-occurrence with the adverbs mentioned above is given in (54).

- (53) a) * *John has left his wife **yesterday**.*
b) * *John has left his wife **last year**.*
c) * *John has left his wife **some ten years ago**.*

(Klein 1992, 525)

- (54) a) *John has **just** arrived.*
b) *John has **recently** arrived.*
c) *John has been in Pontefract **before**.*

(Klein 1992, 525)

- d) *The bigger nations, for their part, have **already** developed systems of takeover supervision.*
e) *Turbojets have **now** been superseded by turbofans.*

(Biber et al. 1999, 468)

Klein (1992) tried to investigate why the present perfect tense is incompatible with the specific past time adverbials and also why the present perfect is not grammatical to use with a *When* question, especially since the corresponding perfective tenses allow these usages in other Germanic languages, such as German or Dutch, but they are also common for example in French, which does not belong to the Germanic language family. Nevertheless his research did not provide any answers to these issues.

Portner (2003, 493–498) on the other hand, claims to have an explanation to why the present perfect is not grammatical with past time adverbials. His conclusion stands on the grounds of “The Extended Now Theory”¹⁰ and he provides the two examples in (55) to demonstrate. In (55) a) the sentence is only ungrammatical with the past time adverbial, while (55) b) is odd even without it.

In the first example, when *yesterday* is mentioned explicitly, it “signals that the distinction between things that happened yesterday and those that happened today is relevant in the context” and thus it cannot be included in the “Extended Now”. On the other hand, if *yesterday* is not stated explicitly, the distinction is not relevant and the

¹⁰ In Portner (2003, 474) the “Extended Now” is defined as “an interval of time which begins in the past and includes the utterance time” and it is connected to the present time.

time period when the event occurred can be included in the “Extended Now” (Portner 2003, 496).

- (55) a) *Mary has read Middlemarch (* yesterday).*
b) ?? *Gutenberg has discovered the art of printing.*

(Portner 2003, 493–495)

The example (55) b) is perceived as odd, because the actual time, when Gutenberg had made his discovery happened in the remote past, which cannot be included in the “Extended Now” even without the mention of the specific time. Portner (2003, 497–498) then concludes that the incompatibility of past time adverbials with the present perfect follows from the pragmatic restriction of an “Extended Now presupposition tied to the present tense.”

Biber et al. (1999, 468) explain that the present perfect is compatible with adverbials, which express duration or a time period and which can be used to “mark the beginning point or the duration of the period of time” but which do not state the end of the event. Except for the adverbials mentioned above, it can also include adverbials with *since* (56). The adverb *now*, then, is used differently: according to Biber et al. (1999, 468) it contrasts the present situation with the past one.

- (56) a) *We’ve had it since last January.*
b) *Energy costs have risen in real money terms since the early 1970s.*

(Biber et al. 1999, 468)

Haegeman (1989, 298) states that both the present perfect tense and *be going to* are morphologically present tenses, which she contributes to their reference points which are in both cases with the time of speech (57). This may explain while both of these expressions are considered to be present-oriented, but they also seem to share other similarities, such as their compatibility with the adverbs *already* and *now*, as has been shown in the previous chapters. Further examination of these similarities will be part of the research questions of this thesis.

- (57) a) *John has left.* E ——— R, S
b) *I'm going to see John.* S, R ——— E

(Haegeman 1989, 296–297)

4 Research Questions and Methodology

4.1 Research Questions

Based on the overview of the literature provided in the above sections, I will study the distributional differences of *will* and *be going to* using corpus data. I will focus on the following research questions:

First, I will examine the distribution of *be going to* and *will* in conditional sentences, evaluating whether English speakers show a tendency to use the expression *be going to* with conditionals, despite the fact that *will* should be strongly preferred. Further, I will compare different text types in order to see whether there is a tendency to use *be going to* in conditionals more in spoken or written language.

Second, I will examine the collocability of *will* and *be going to* with adverbs *now*, *already*, and *ever*. According to Haegeman (1989), *now* should freely combine with all the three expressions, while *already* should prefer to collocate with *be going to* and *ever* with *will*.

Last, I will compare all the two research questions above with respect to British and American English, evaluating whether one phenomenon is preferred in one variety, or whether the tendency is the same.

4.2 Corpora

To acquire the data, I use the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) provided by Mark Davies, and the British National Corpus (BNC) created by Oxford University Press. Both corpora are accessible by Davies's interface.

BNC was created in the 1980s and early 1990s and contains 100 million words in various genres, such as spoken, fiction, magazines, newspaper, or academic prose. This corpora is no longer updated (Davies 2004).

COCA, on the other hand, undergoes regular updates, the last one being in December 2017 (Davies 2008). It contains over 560 million words from different types of texts, for example spoken, fiction, popular magazines, newspapers, and academic.

4.3 Searching Corpora

4.3.1 Conditional Sentences

In order to acquire reliable data, I describe the methodology of searching the corpora, starting with the formation of the search queries, following with the size of the sample and the criteria for eliminating the unsuitable results.

The search queries for the conditional sentences are shown in Figure 5. To find conditional sentences, I use the option for searching collocates, in the *Word/phrase* box I use a form of either *be going to* phrase or *will*, in the collocates box I always use *if*.

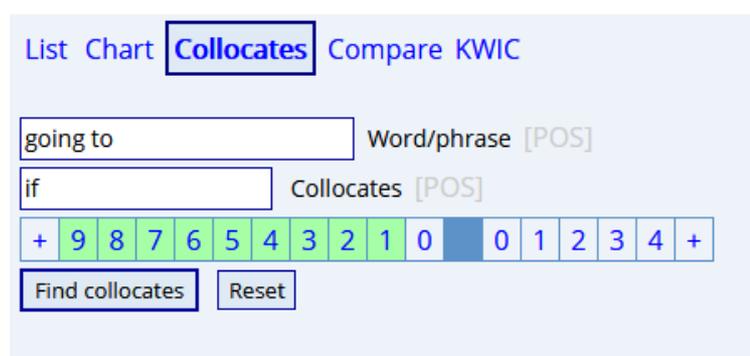


Figure 5 – Search Query for Conditional Sentences

Because both *be going to* and *will* can appear in various forms and various sentence types, such as affirmative, negative, or a question, I use several variations of the search query. For the phrase *be going to*, I use two types: 1) *going to*, which incorporates into the results all sentence types and all inflected forms of the verb *be* including the contracted forms (58); 2) the shortened form *gonna*, for the purpose of the search engine divided into “gon na”, which again includes all the variations as in the former case, e.g. (59).

- (58) a) ***If she is there I am going to burn the house down and burn her down too.***
(BNC: CBE W_newsp_other_report)
- b) ***if it hasn't happened already, it's going to happen any time now***
(BNC: FT8 W_pop_lore)
- c) ***if you don't boost it you're going to be in trouble***
(BNC: G4G S_speech_unscripted)

d) *if I screw up occasionally that's not **going to** sink my reputation*
(BNC: CKS W_non_ac_polit_law_edu)

e) *and if I do anger you, what are you **going to** do with me*
(BNC: EVG W_fict_prose)

(59) a) *if I sit here any Langer you're **gonna** have to chip me off*
(BNC: KBD S_conv)

b) *if he does fall asleep I'm not **gonna** wake him up*
(BNC: KCB S_conv)

c) *If I make some coffee, who's **gonna** have some?*
(BNC: KPV S_conv)

Regarding *will*, I use 3 types of search queries: 1) *will*, which accounts for all grammatical persons in affirmative sentences, questions, and non-contracted negatives (60); 2) *won't*¹¹ to include the contracted negatives (61); and 3) the contacted form – *'ll*, in the search query used without the apostrophe, an example is in (62).

(60) a) *If you smile, other people **will** smile back*
(BNC: FSN W_misc)

b) *If that happens **will** there be a spark left to impress members of the public?*
(BNC: HCU W_commerce)

c) *if she wants to attract new audiences this **will** not be achieved without a change of programming*
(BNC: APL W_pop_lore)

(61) *if you return the piece of machinery I **won't** be angry*
(BNC: HTY W_fict_prose)

(62) *If I ever find them, I'll junk them.*
(BNC: FP0 W_fict_prose)

¹¹ Because the corpora were, at the time of my research, experiencing technical issues while searching for the whole form “wo `nt” I had to search for only “wo” which provided mostly identical results.

Since there can be more sentence members of different length and complexity in one clause (e.g. Biber et al. 1999, 96), I decide to employ the option of the most number of words between the searched collocates, which is nine, as can be seen in Figure 5; and in order to include both combinations of the order of the two clauses, which make the conditional sentence, I always search for the left-hand and the right-hand collocates, e.g. (63).

- (63) a) *if he does nothing, he **will** be deemed to have opted for the summary statement*
 (BNC: GVG W_ac_polit_law_edu)
- b) *However, he **will** not run for office **if** he thinks he could lose*
 (BNC: ABJ W_pop_lore)
- c) *if we don't bring it in he's **going to** kill us*
 (BNC: KNC S_speech_unscripted)
- d) *he's **going to** die **if** we don't get help*
 (BNC: JY6 W_fict_prose)

The used sample for each of the query is 1,000 tokens; if there are more than 1,000 tokens, I use the option for a random sample (Figure 6), if there are less tokens, I include them all in the sample.

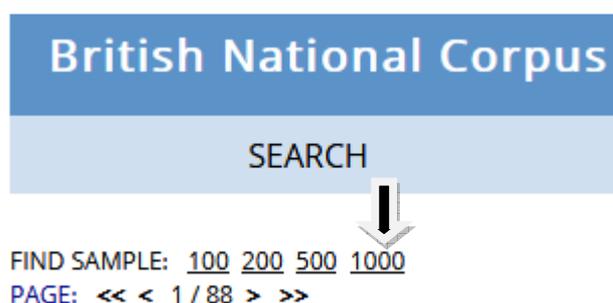


Figure 6 – Random Sample

Next step is to manually exclude all the unsuitable tokens included in the sample, which is caused by the wide search criteria. In case of *be going to* and the shortened form *gonna*, excluded tokens are those in which 1) *be going to* and *if* are not in the same sentence (64) a); 2) the verb *be* is in the past tense (64) b); 3) *be going to* and *if* are in the same sentence, but do not form a conditional sentence where *if* is in the

conditional clause and *be going to* in the consequence clause (64) c); 4) *going to* is not part of the *be going to* phrase, but an *-ing* form of the lexical verb *go* (64) d).

- (64) a) Now **if** we add it up. It's **going to** look a litter bit better.
(BNC: GYP S_classroom)
- b) **if** she marched out, it was **going to** turn into a major incident
(BNC: JY3 W_fict_prose)
- c) **if** you're not actually **going to** achieve your objectives
(BNC: KGM S_meeting)
- d) And **if** you're a good boy you're **going to** Jade's party
(BNC: KDV S_conv)

Regarding *will*, the criteria for excluding tokens are as follows: 1) *will* is not a verb, but a proper or a common noun (65) a); 2) *will* and *if* are not in the same sentence (65) b); 3) *will* and *if* are in the same sentence but do not form a conditional sentence where *if* is in the conditional clause and *will* in the consequence clause (65) c). Same criteria apply also for the forms *won't* and *'ll*.

- (65) a) **If** one wants something badly enough, the **will** to cling to it is very strong
(BNC: HGD W_fict_prose)
- b) **if** I go in search of him? I **will** send Janet to you
(BNC: H8X W_fict_prose)
- c) **If** she **will** not accept the gold, then tell her I will be back with a warrant
(BNC: BMN W_fict_prose)

4.3.2 Adverbs

The methodological process of searching the corpora for adverbs, which occur with *be going to* or *will* is similar as with the conditional sentences. For the query, again the collocates option is used to ensure that the adverb is in the word span of either *be going to* or *will*. The query is shown in Figure 7, in the *Word/phrase* box I alternate all the forms of *be going to* and *will* (as is explained in the previous section), in the collocates box I put one of the three adverbs – *now*, *ever*, and *already*.

List Chart **Collocates** Compare KWIC

going to Word/phrase [POS]

now Collocates [POS]

+ 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1 0 0 1 2 3 4 +

Find collocates Reset

Figure 7 – Search Query for Adverbs

Although adverbs, or adverbial phrases, usually favor one position within the clause, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 575–580) say that it might be possible for them to appear in other positions as well, plus other sentence members can be of various length (Biber et al. 1999, 96), for example as in (66), and for those reasons I choose to search for the longest word span the corpora allows, which is nine words between the searched phrases. I search both the left-hand and the right-hand combinations.

- (66) *Now students in the Middle East and Persion Gulf will be able to obtain*
 (COCA: 2017 ACAD ... Higher Education (subscription))

The size of the examined sample is 1,000 tokens, when the results are over 1,000 I use the option of a random sample (Figure 6) and when there are less than 1,000 tokens, all are included into the sample.

As with the conditional sentences, it is also necessary to exclude the unsuitable tokens with the adverbs. The token is excluded if one or both of the following criteria apply: 1) the adverb is not in the same sentence or clause as *be going to* or *will* (67) a) and b); 2) the adverb is not in the scope of *be going to* or *will* but modifies, or is in the scope of another sentence member (67) c). In case of the adverb *now*, if it is in the function of a discourse marker (67) d), it is also excluded.

- (67) a) *Stop talking from **now** on. The first thing you're **going to** do is put*
(BNC: KNY S_conv)
- b) *Do we really need him **now**, there's no way he's **going to** be as good as he used to be*
(BNC: J1J W_email)
- c) *if I don't get a cat I'm **going to** be lively for **ever**.*
(BNC: KBH S_conv)
- d) *Now, if you're **going to** er er er er want everything*
(BNC: J9B S_meeting)

5 Results

5.1 Conditional Sentences

Conditional sentences are traditionally realized with the verb *will* and its substitution by the phrase *be going to* is seen as an exception, requiring a special context (e.g. Leech (1971, 60). According to Biber et al. 1999, 488, *be going to* is extensively more common in American English than in British English, and for this reason it might be expected that conditional sentences with *be going to* would also be more frequent in American than in British English.

Spoken language tends to use more colloquial and less standard language, and in addition it can include more regional differences than written texts (Biber et al. 1999, 15–24). Biber et al. (1999, 488) also claim that *be going to* is more frequent in spoken language than in written, and therefore it may also contain more examples of *be going to* in conditional sentences than written English.

My hypotheses therefore are: 1) conditional sentences are still more common with *will* than *be going to*, though *be going to* in conditionals is also found; 2) *be going to* in conditionals is more common in spoken than in written language; and 3) *be going to* in conditional sentences is more common in American than in British English.

Table 1 and Table 2 show the results for conditional sentences in BNC, in the first column there is the variation of the search query – for each variation of *be going to* and *will*, the position of *if* indicates the linear order of the conditional and the consequence clause. The other columns, from left to right, show: the total number of tokens for the query in the corpus; the size of the examined sample (see methodology); the number of results after manual sorting; the relative frequency of the sample in percentages; extrapolated frequency, which is used to estimate the total number of occurrences of the type of conditionals, which have more than 1,000 of tokens in the corpus; and the estimated number of results based on the extrapolated frequency.

Table 3 and Table 4 then present the occurrence of *will* and *be going to* in COCA, the layout of the tables is the same as in Table 1 and Table 2.

BNC						
	total number of tokens	examined sample	sample after manual sorting	relative frequency of the sample	extrapolated frequency	absolute and extrapolated results
if - going to	2 272	1 000	82	8.2%	8.2% out of 2 272	186* ¹²
going to - if	864	864	161	18.63%	—	161
if - gonna	721	721	141	19.56%	—	141
gonna - if	397	397	92	23.17%	—	92
TOTAL	4 254	2 982	476	—	—	580 ¹³

Table 1 – Occurrence of *be going to* in conditional sentences in BNC in descending order by number of results

BNC						
	total number of tokens	examined sample	sample after manual sorting	relative frequency	extrapolated frequency	absolute and extrapolated results
if - will	7 715	1 000	616	61.6%	61.6% out of 7 715	4 752*
will - if	8 794	1 000	488	48.8%	48.8% out of 8 794	4 291*
if - won't	719	719	365	50.76%	—	365
won't - if	609	609	271	44.5%	—	271
if - ll	4	4	2	50%	—	2
ll - if	1	1	0	0%	—	0
TOTAL	17 842	3 333	1 742	—	—	9 679

Table 2 – Occurrence of *will* in conditional sentences in BNC in descending order by number of results

¹² Results marked with this symbol are based on extrapolated frequencies.

¹³ The total number of results includes figures based on extrapolated frequencies and it is therefore only indicative number. This applies for other tables where there are extrapolated values.

COCA						
	total number of tokens	examined sample	sample after manual sorting	relative frequency of the sample	extrapolated frequency	absolute and extrapolated results
if - going to	25 956	1 000	159	15.9%	15.9% out of 25 956	4 127*
going to - if	11 904	1 000	322	32.2%	32.2% out of 11 904	3 831*
if - gonna	1 362	1 000	283	28.3%	28.3% out of 1 362	385*
gonna - if	791	791	325	41.09%	—	325
TOTAL	40 013	3 791	1 089	—	—	8 668

Table 3 – Occurrence of *be going to* in conditional sentences in COCA in descending order by number of results

COCA						
	total number of tokens	examined sample	sample after manual sorting	relative frequency of the sample	extrapolated frequency	absolute and extrapolated results
if - will	36 462	1 000	574	57.4%	57.4% out of 36 462	20 894*
will - if	33 131	1 000	513	51.3%	51.3% out of 33 131	16 996*
if - won't	4 158	1 000	567	56.70%	56.7% out of 4 158	2 358*
won't - if	3 502	1 000	516	51.60%	51.6% out of 3 502	1 807*
if - ll	84	84	52	61.9%	—	52
ll - if	74	74	41	55.41%	—	41
TOTAL	77 411	4 158	2 263	—	—	41 428

Table 4 - Occurrence of *will* in conditional sentences in COCA in descending order by number of results

The comparison of the results for BNC and COCA is in Figure 8 for *be going to*, and in Figure 9 for *will*. Because of the different size of each corpora, the data are provided in relative frequencies per million words (pmw), which are counted from the

extrapolated frequencies; in case there are less than 1,000 tokens it is counted from the sorted sample. Therefore, the values based on the extrapolated frequencies are tentative, showing probable tendencies and cannot be taken as absolute results.

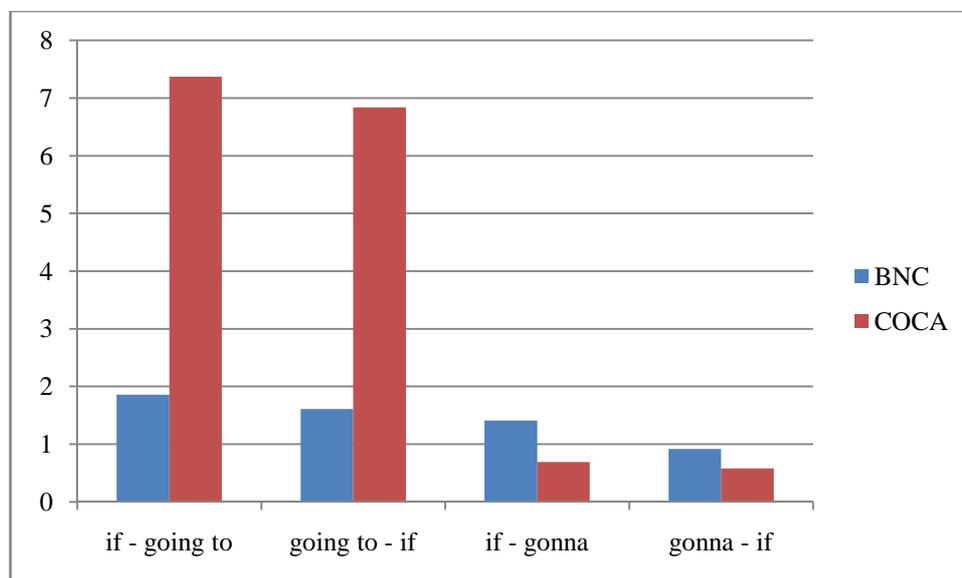


Figure 8 – Comparison of the occurrence of *be going to* in conditional sentences in BNC and COCA in descending order by BNC data

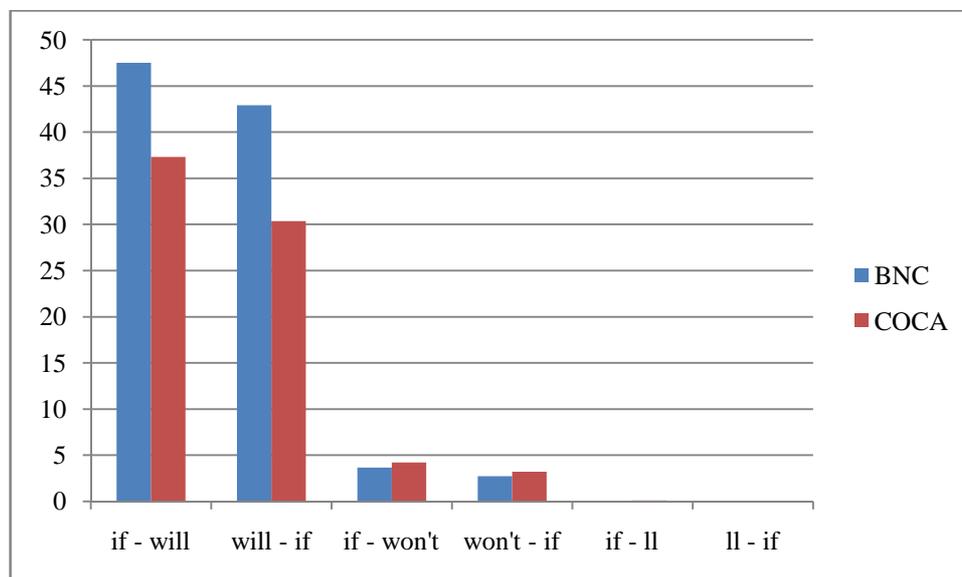


Figure 9 – Comparison of the occurrence of *will* in conditional sentences in BNC and COCA in descending order by BNC data

In order to establish how many of the occurrences of *be going to* in conditional sentences there are in spoken language, I further examine the data from the collected and manually sorted samples and list the number of tokens from spoken language,

fiction, and other written language except fiction, further referred to as “other”. Fiction is presented separately, as it often includes imitation of spoken language. To compare the occurrences of *be going to* with respect to different text types, I include the results for conditionals with *will* as well. The results in tokens and relative frequencies are shown in Table 5 and Table 6. The tokens from the search results exceeding 1,000 are extrapolated, which is marked by an asterisk.

BNC						
	total number of tokens	examined sample	sample after manual sorting	SPOKEN	FICTION	OTHER
if - going to	2 272	1 000	82	111* 59.76%	20* 10.98%	55* 29.27%
going to - if	864	864	161	57 35.4%	56 34.78%	48 29.81%
if - gonna	721	721	141	138 97.87%	1 0.71%	2 1.42%
gonna - if	397	397	92	87 94.57%	5 5.43%	0 0%

Table 5 – Occurrence of *be going to* in conditional sentences with respect to different text types in BNC

BNC						
	total number of tokens	examined sample	sample after manual sorting	SPOKEN	FICTION	OTHER
will - if	8 794	1 000	488	299* 6.97%	378* 8.81%	3 614* 84.22%
if - will	7 715	1 000	616	470* 9.9%	525* 11.04%	3 757* 79.06%
if - won't	719	719	365	128 35.07%	113 30.96%	124 33.97%
won't - if	609	609	271	74 27.31%	105 38.75%	92 33.95%
if - ll	4	4	2	0 0%	2 100%	0 0%
ll - if	1	0	0	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%

Table 6 – Occurrence of *will* in conditional sentences with respect to different text types in BNC

The results for American English are shown in Table 7 and Table 8 for *be going to* and *will* respectively, in number of tokens and relative frequencies. The extrapolated values are marked by an asterisk.

COCA						
	total number of tokens	examined sample	sample after manual sorting	SPOKEN	FICTION	OTHER
if - going to	25 956	1 000	159	2 440* 59.12%	467* 11.32%	1 219* 29.56%
going to - if	11 904	1 000	322	2 403* 62.73%	642* 16.77%	785* 20.5%
if - gonna	1 362	1 000	283	175* 45.58%	101* 26.15%	109* 28.27%
gonna - if	791	791	325	103 31.7%	169 52%	53 16.3%

Table 7 – Occurrence of *be going to* in conditional sentences with respect to different text types in COCA

COCA						
	total number of tokens	examined sample	sample after manual sorting	SPOKEN	FICTION	OTHER
if - will	36 462	1 000	574	6 224* 29.79%	3 458* 16.55%	11 211* 53.66%
will - if	33 131	1 000	513	4 341* 25.54%	1 989* 11.7%	10 668* 62.77%
if - won't	4 158	1 000	567	395* 16.75%	736* 31.22%	1 227* 52.03%
won't - if	3 502	1 000	516	284* 15.7%	578* 31.97%	946* 52.33%
if - ll	84	81	52	4 7.69%	12 23.08%	36 69.23%
ll - if	74	74	41	6 16.63%	13 31.71%	22 53.66%

Table 8 – Occurrence of *will* in conditional sentences with respect to different text types in COCA

In order to better compare the proportions of the text types with *be going to* and *will*, I add all the variations of either *be going to* or *will* for a specific text type to acquire the overall results. Figure 10 and Figure 11 show the ratios for BNC, Figure 12 and Figure 13 for COCA.

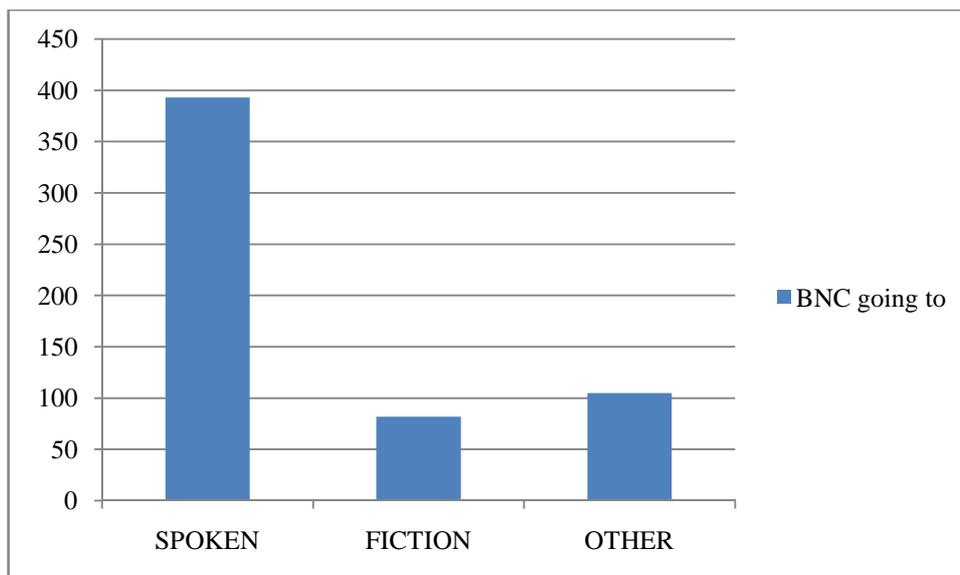


Figure 10 – Conditional sentences with *be going to* in different text types in BNC

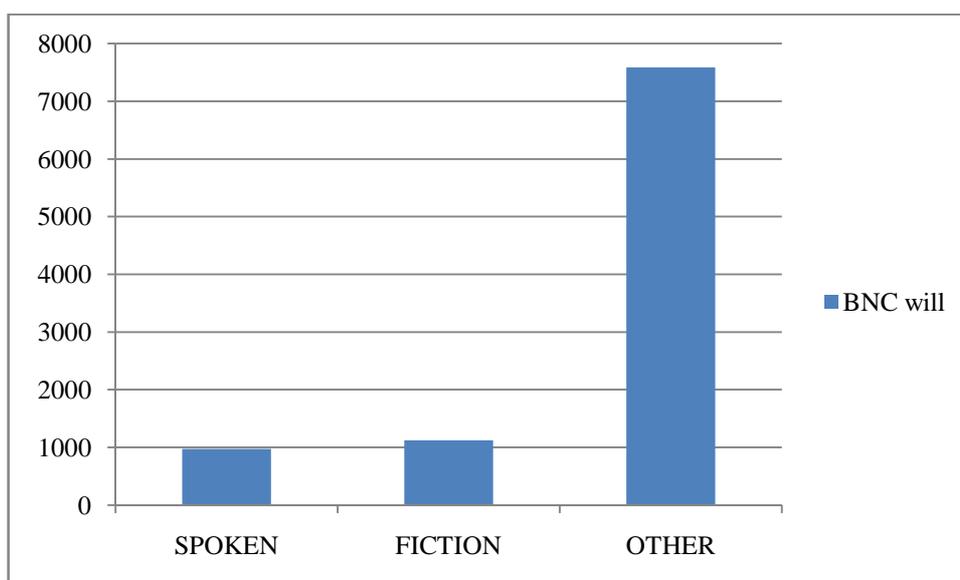


Figure 11 – Conditional sentences with *will* in different text types in BNC

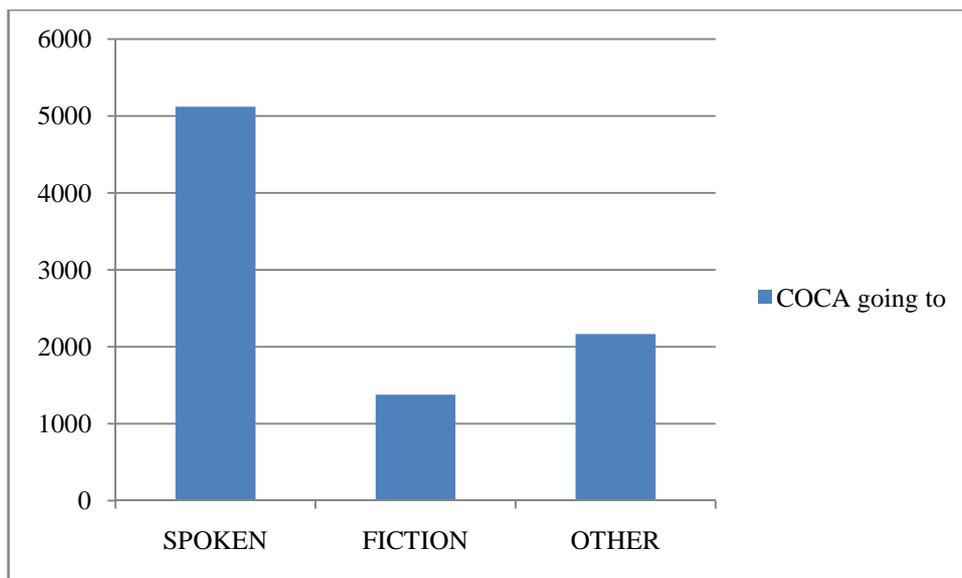


Figure 12 – Conditional sentences with *be going to* in different text types in COCA

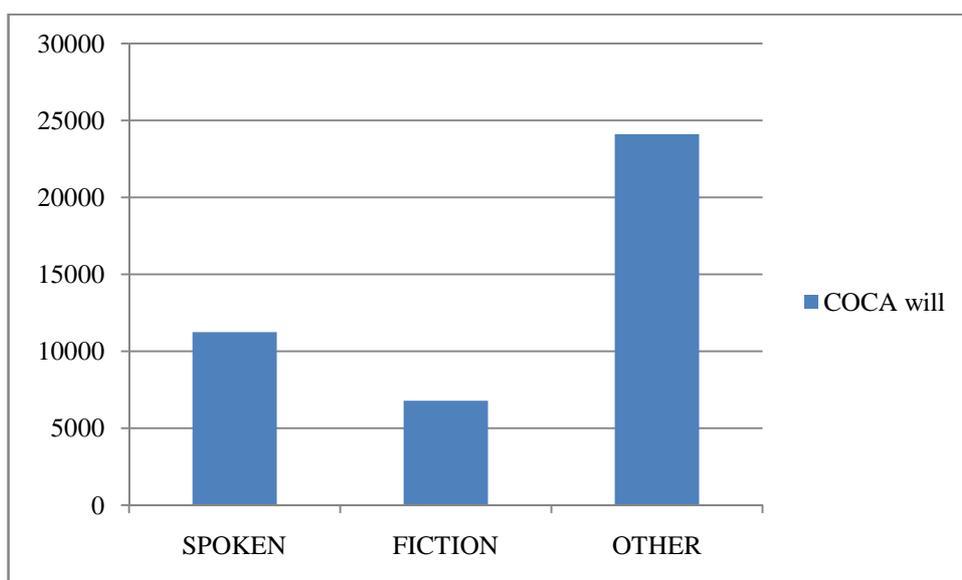


Figure 13 – Conditional sentences with *will* in different text types in COCA

The comparison of the occurrence of conditional sentences in different text types with respect to the variety of English is presented in Figure 14 for *be going to* and in Figure 15 for *will*.

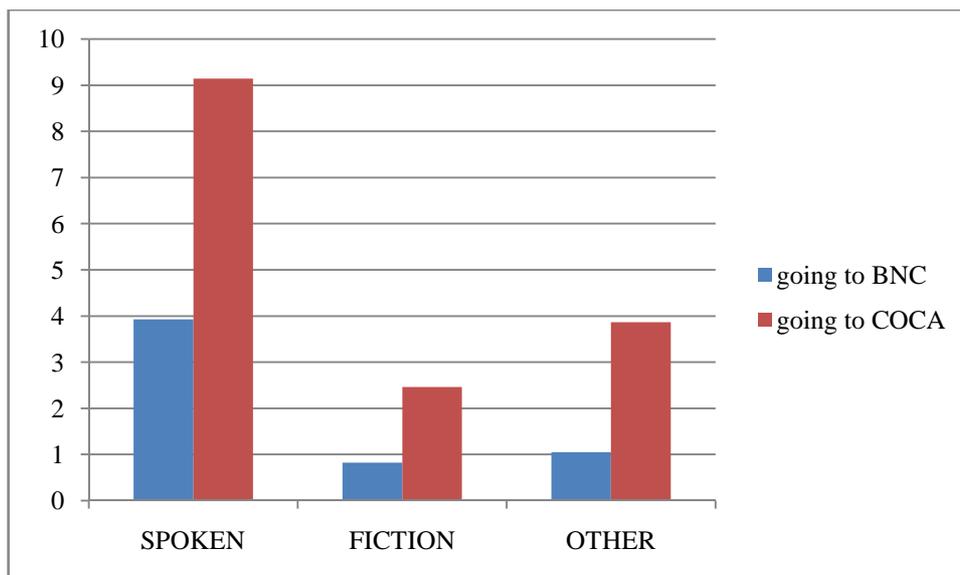


Figure 14 – Comparison of conditional sentences with *be going to* in different text types in BNC and COCA

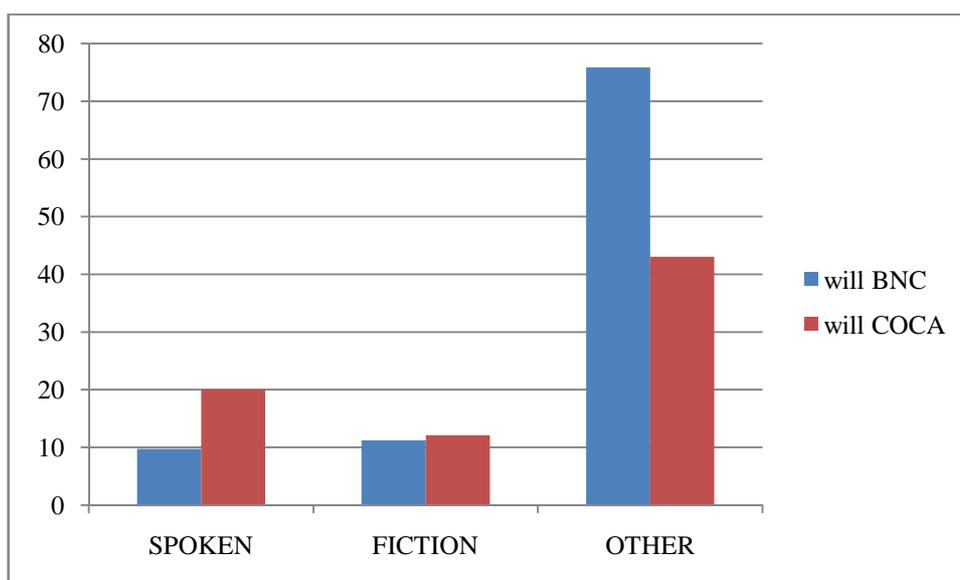


Figure 15 – Comparison of conditional sentences with *will* in different text types in BNC and COCA

5.2 Adverbs

Haegeman (1989) in her study states that some adverbs are more likely to occur with *will*, and others are more likely to occur with *be going to*. According to her beliefs described more thoroughly in the theoretical part, I state the following hypotheses: 1) the adverb *already* is more often combined with *be going to* than *will*; 2) the adverb *ever* is more often combined with *will* rather than *be going to*; and 3) the adverb *now* is common with both *will* and *be going to*.

Table 9 and Table 10 show the results for *already* occurring in combination with *be going to* and *will* in BNC. Each line presents a different variation of either *will* or *be going to* and the left- or right-hand collocation with *already*. The first column indicates the total results in the corpus, the second the size of the examined sample, the third the number of results after manual sorting, and the fourth column shows relative frequency of the samples in percentages. In Table 11 and Table 12 you can see the collocability of *already* with conditional sentences in COCA. Since there are more data in COCA and many of the results exceeded 1,000 tokens, there are included columns with extrapolated frequencies and the estimated number of results calculated using extrapolation. With BNC data extrapolation is necessary only in Table 18 where there are total numbers of tokens over 1,000.

BNC				
	total number of tokens	examined sample	sample after manual sorting	relative frequency of the sample
already - going to	74	74	5	6.76%
going to - already	52	52	3	5.77%
gonna - already	10	10	2	20.0%
already - gonna	20	20	0	0%
TOTAL	156	156	10	—

Table 9 – Occurrence of the adverb *already* with *be going to* in BNC in descending order by the number of results after manual sorting

BNC				
	total number of tokens	examined sample	sample after manual sorting	relative frequency of the sample
will - already	747	747	124	16.6%
won't - already	20	22	1	4.55%
already - will	722	722	0	0%
already - 'll	0	0	0	0%
ll - already	0	0	0	0%
already - won't	30	30	0	0%
TOTAL	1 519	1 519	125	—

Table 10 – Occurrence of the adverb *already* with *will* in BNC in descending order by the number of results after manual sorting

COCA						
	total number of tokens	examined sample	sample after manual sorting	relative frequency of the sample	extrapolated frequency	absolute and extrapolated results
already - going to	1 139	1 000	34	3.4%	3.4% out of 1 139	39*
going to - already	766	766	20	2.61%	—	20
gonna - already	46	46	4	8.7%	—	4
already - gonna	61	61	2	3.28%	—	2
TOTAL	2 012	1 873	60	—	—	65

Table 11 – Occurrence of the adverb *already* with *be going to* in COCA in descending order by number of results

COCA						
	total number of tokens	examined sample	sample after manual sorting	relative frequency of the sample	extrapolated frequency	absolute and extrapolated results
will - already	2 501	1 000	54	5.4%	5.4% out of 2 501	135*
already - will	2 485	1 000	11	1.1%	1.1% out of 2 485	27*
won't - already	175	175	3	1.71%	—	3
ll - already	3	3	1	33.34%	—	1
already - 'll	5	5	0	0%	—	0
already - won't	253	253	0	0%	—	0
TOTAL	5 422	2 436	69	—	—	166

Table 12 - Occurrence of the adverb *already* with *will* in COCA in descending order by number of results

Table 13 and Table 14 are structured in the same way as the previous tables and present the results for *ever* occurring with *will* and *be going to* in BNC, Table 15 and Table 16 in COCA. The next tables show the results for *now*; namely Table 17 and Table 18 in BNC; Table 19 and Table 20 in COCA.

BNC				
	total number of tokens	examined sample	sample after manual sorting	relative frequency of the sample
ever - going to	162	162	109	67.28%
ever - gonna	20	20	15	75.0%
going to - ever	83	83	13	15.66%
gonna - ever	5	5	1	20.0%
TOTAL	270	270	138	—

Table 13 – Occurrence of the adverb *ever* with *be going to* in BNC in descending order by number of results after manual sorting

BNC				
	total number of tokens	examined sample	sample after manual sorting	relative frequency of the sample
will - ever	936	936	544	58.12%
ever - will	385	385	74	19.22%
won't - ever	89	89	41	46.07%
ever - ll	1	1	0	0%
ll - ever	0	0	0	0%
ever - won't	32	32	0	0%
TOTAL	1 443	1 443	659	—

Table 14 – Occurrence of the adverb *ever* with *will* in BNC in descending order by number of results after manual sorting

COCA						
	total number of tokens	examined sample	sample after manual sorting	relative frequency of the sample	extrapolated frequency	absolute and extrapolated results
ever - going to	2 655	1 000	523	52.2%	52.2% out of 2 655	1 386*
going to - ever	931	931	127	13.64%	—	127
ever - gonna	210	210	120	57.14%	—	120
gonna - ever	83	83	12	14.46%	—	83
TOTAL	3 879	2 224	782	—	—	1 716

Table 15 - Occurrence of the adverb *ever* with *be going to* in COCA in descending order by number of results

COCA						
	total number of tokens	examined sample	sample after manual sorting	relative frequency of the sample	extrapolated frequency	absolute and extrapolated results
will - ever	7 035	1 000	695	69.5%	69.5% out of 7 035	4 889*
ever - will	2 764	1 000	216	21.6%	21.6% out of 2 764	597*
won't - ever	666	666	502	75.38%	—	502
ll - ever	15	15	10	66.67%	—	10
ever - ll	4	4	0	0%	—	0
ever - won't	222	222	0	0%	—	0
TOTAL	10 706	2 907	1423	—	—	5 998

Table 16 - Occurrence of the adverb *ever* with *will* in COCA in descending order by number of results

BNC				
	total number of tokens	examined sample	sample after manual sorting	relative frequency of the sample
now - going to	877	877	328	37.4%
going to - now	651	651	311	47.77%
gonna - now	261	261	191	73.18%
now - gonna	326	326	117	35.9%
TOTAL	2 115	2 115	947	—

Table 17 – Occurrence of the adverb *now* with *be going to* in BNC in descending order by the number of results after manual sorting

BNC						
	total number of tokens	examined sample	sample after manual sorting	relative frequency of the sample	extrapolated frequency	absolute and extrapolated results
will - now	2 845	1 000	635	63.5%	63.5% out of 2 845	1807*
now - will	2 618	1 000	171	17.1%	17.1% out of 2 618	448*
won't - now	269	269	139	51.67%	—	139
now - won't	320	320	59	18.44%	—	59
ll - now	2	2	1	50%	—	1
now - 'll	4	4	1	25%	—	1
TOTAL	6 058	2 595	1 006	—	—	2 455

Table 18 – Occurrence of the adverb *now* with *will* in BNC in descending order by number of results

COCA						
	total number of tokens	examined sample	sample after manual sorting	relative frequency of the sample	extrapolated frequency	absolute and extrapolated results
now - going to	12 304	1 000	414	41.4%	41.4% out of 12 304	5 094*
going to - now	8 266	1 000	423	42.3%	42.3% out of 8 266	3 497*
gonna - now	664	664	351	52.86%	—	351
now - gonna	804	804	332	41.3%	—	332
TOTAL	22 018	3 468	1 520	—	—	9 274

Table 19 - Occurrence of the adverb *now* with *be going to* in COCA in descending order by number of results

COCA						
	total number of tokens	examined sample	sample after manual sorting	relative frequency of the sample	extrapolated frequency	absolute and extrapolated result
will - now	12 158	1 000	387	38.7%	38.7% out of 12 158	4 705*
now - will	16 429	1 000	204	20.4%	20.4% out of 16 429	3 352*
won't - now	1 008	1 000	410	41%	41% out of 1 008	413*
now - won't	1 619	1 000	191	19.1%	19.1% out of 1 619	309*
ll - now	21	21	7	33.33%	—	7
now - ll	39	39	6	15.38%	—	6
TOTAL	31 274	4 060	1 205	—	—	8 792

Table 20 - Occurrence of the adverb *now* with *will* in COCA in descending order by number of results

The next four tables present a better comparison among the adverbs, where the occurrences of each adverb are added together for all the forms of either *will* or *be going to*, the left- and right-hand collocates are distinguished in order to see whether there might be a tendency of the adverbs to occur rather on the left or on the right side.

Table 21 shows the adverbs in collocation with the forms of *be going to*, Table 22 with *will*, both in BNC; Table 23 and Table 24 illustrate these collocations in COCA.

GOING TO (all forms) in BNC						
	LEFT			RIGHT		
	number of tokens in corpus	number of results	relative frequency	number of tokens in corpus	number of results	relative frequency
EVER	182	124	68.13%	88	14	15.91%
ALREADY	94	5	5.32%	62	5	8.06%
NOW	1 203	445	36.99%	912	502	55.04%
TOTAL	1 479	574	38.81%	1 062	521	49.06%

Table 21 – Occurrence of the adverbs *ever*, *already*, and *now* with all the forms of *be going to* in BNC

WILL (all forms) in BNC						
	LEFT			RIGHT		
	number of tokens in corpus	number of results ¹⁴	relative frequency	number of tokens in corpus	number of results	relative frequency
EVER	418	74	17.7%	1 025	585	57.07%
ALREADY	752	0	0%	769	125	16.25%
NOW	2 942	508	17.27%	3 116	1 947	62.48%
TOTAL	4 112	582	14.15%	4 910	2 657	54.11%

Table 22 – Occurrence of the adverbs *ever*, *already*, and *now* with all the forms of *will* in BNC

GOING TO (all forms) in COCA						
	LEFT			RIGHT		
	number of tokens in corpus	estimated ¹⁵ number of results	relative frequency	number of tokens in corpus	estimated number of results	relative frequency
EVER	2 865	1 506	52.57%	1 014	210	20.71%
ALREADY	1 200	41	3.42%	812	24	2.96%
NOW	13 108	5 426	41.39%	8 930	3 848	43.09%
TOTAL	17 173	6 973	40.60%	10 756	4 082	37.95%

Table 23 – Occurrence of the adverbs *ever*, *already*, and *now* with all the forms of *be going to* in COCA

¹⁴ The number of results for the adverb *now* is counted based on the extrapolated numbers, which were necessary to calculate with the combinations with *will*, where the number of tokens exceeded 1,000.

¹⁵ The results are only estimated because they are based on the extrapolated figures.

WILL (all forms) in COCA						
	LEFT			RIGHT		
	number of tokens in corpus	estimated number of results	relative frequency	number of tokens in corpus	estimated number of results	relative frequency
EVER	2 990	597	19.97%	7 716	5 401	70%
ALREADY	2 743	27	0.98%	2 679	139	5.19%
NOW	18 087	3 667	20.27%	13 187	5 125	38.86%
TOTAL	23 820	4 291	18.01%	23 582	10 665	45.23%

Table 24 – Occurrence of the adverbs *ever*, *already*, and *now* with all the forms of *will* in COCA

In order to compare the British and American varieties of English I present Figure 16, where you can see the results for the adverb *ever* in collocation with *be going to* and *will* in both BNC and COCA counted in relative frequencies pmw. Figure 17 shows the comparison for the adverb *already*, and Figure 18 for the adverb *now*. Since most of the data from COCA are extrapolated, the comparisons are only illustrative.

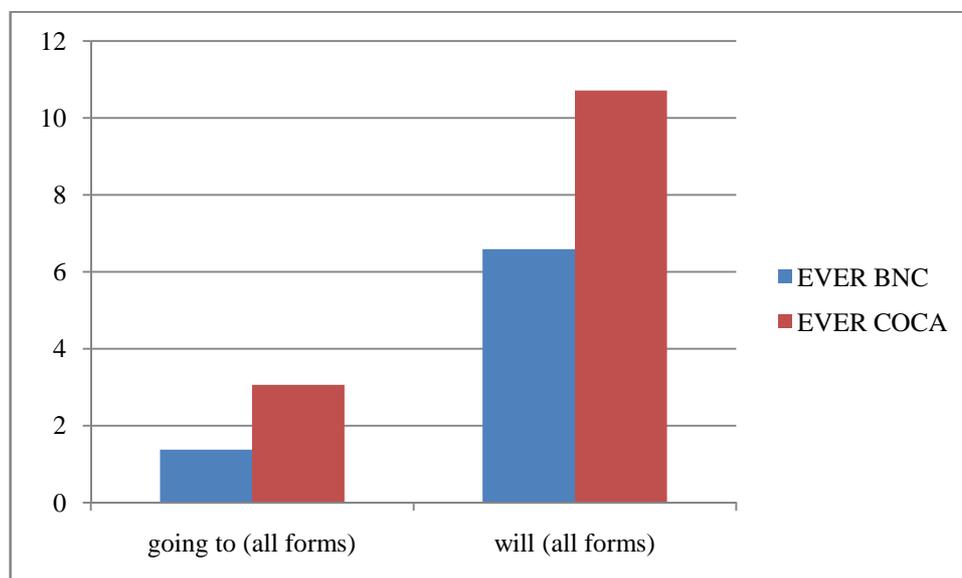


Figure 16 – Comparison of the occurrence of the adverb *ever* with *be going to* and *will* in BNC and COCA in frequencies pmw

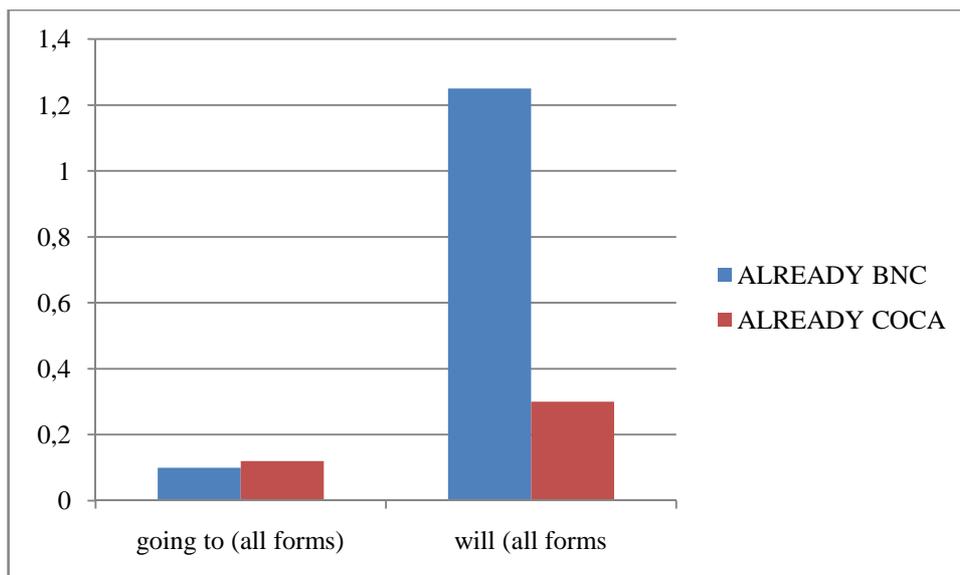


Figure 17 – Comparison of the occurrence of the adverb *already* with *be going to* and *will* in BNC and COCA in frequencies pmw

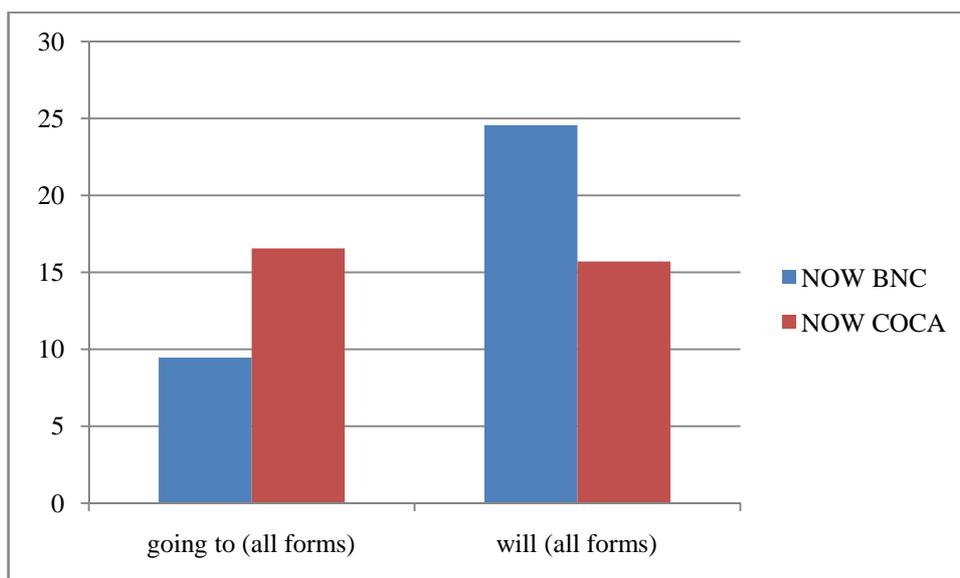


Figure 18 – Comparison of the occurrence of the adverb *now* with *be going to* and *will* in BNC and COCA in frequencies pmw

6 Discussion

6.1 Conditional Sentences in BNC

My hypothesis regarding the occurrence of conditional sentences states that though conditionals with *will* are preferred, conditionals with *be going to* are also found. And according to the results presented in Table 1 and Table 2 (p. 42), this is confirmed. The occurrence of conditionals with *will* reaches to thousands of tokens with the most frequent combinations with the full form of *will*, though it is important to point out that these numbers are extrapolated. Nevertheless, with the size of the data found in the corpus, a high number of occurrences can be expected. The other combinations with *will* are not as frequent, conditionals with *won't* occur in 636 tokens (left and right occurrences combined), and there are only 2 examples of conditionals with the contracted form *'ll*.

Regarding *be going to*, these conditionals are not as frequent, none of the combinations exceed 1,000 occurrences, in fact, they do not exceed 200. The contracted form *gonna*, though, seems to be more common than the contracted form of *will*. Together, there are 233 conditional sentences with *gonna*, and 347 conditionals with *going to* (results for the combination *if-going to* are extrapolated).

Haegeman (1989) in her study states, and other authors agree with this opinion (see chapter 3.2.1) that the usage of *be going to* in conditional sentences requires a present context. Though the corpus provides only limited context, there are tokens in which the present or non-present circumstances can be evaluated. For example, in sentences such as (68), it can be expected that the speakers indeed had a specific context which led them to utter the statements. In (68) a) the signs of the rope being weak and old probably were the reasons for the speaker to choose the form *be going to*, rather than *will*, because *be going to* is usually used for predictions into the future, which are based on present conditions (e.g. Dušková 2012, 229). The example (68) b) seems to parallel the examples provided by Leech (1971, 60), first mentioned in (36), repeated here in (69). The phrase *if we play like that* is a clear evidence for a present condition, suggesting that “playing like that” has been going on for at least some time at the time of the utterance.

- (68) a) *if something breaks it's **going to** be that weak old rope*
 (BNC: K7F S_classroom)
- b) *if we play like that we're **going to** beat sides aren't we*
 (BNC: KS7 S_brdcast_discussn)
- (69) a) *We're going to find ourselves in difficulty if we go on like this.*
 b) *If you're expecting Wales to win, you're going to be disappointed.*
 (Leech 1971, 60)

Then there are some occurrences of conditionals where the present condition does not seem to be as prototypical as in the above examples, e.g. (70). Any of the conditions in these examples do not seem to be already happening in the present time of the utterance. In case of (70) a) and b), the phrase *be going to* might be explained as the desire of the speakers to express future intentions either of their own (70) b) or of somebody else's (70) a), which is another situation in which *be going to* is normally used (e.g. Dušková 2012, 229). In case of (70) c) and d), it is rather questionable whether the speakers meant to express anybody's intentions, and whether *will* would not be considered more appropriate in these contexts. Although, as has already been mentioned, there is only limited amount of context available, and it may be possible that in the previous text there might have been reasons for the speakers to use *be going to* in these sentences.

- (70) a) ***IF** and I repeat **IF** we buy both Jobson and Bardsley who's **going to** go?*
 (BNC: J1G W_email)
- b) ***If** the game is poor, I'm not **going to** try to pull the wool over anyone's eyes*
 (BNC: CEP W_newsp_other_sports)
- c) ***if** it doesn't happen in February we're **going to** have to really reappraise the situation*
 (BNC: JA6 S_meeting)
- d) *But **if** that then goes wrong, who's **going to** be called upon to put that right?*
 (BNC: KRY S_meeting)

6.2 Conditional Sentences in COCA

In COCA, according to Table 3 and Table 4 (p. 43), the results are similar, but many of the individual results are extrapolated so the conclusions might not be as reliable as in the case of BNC. Conditionals with *will* outnumber those with *be going to*. This confirms my hypothesis for COCA as well. Conditional sentences with the full form *will* are by far the most common, followed by conditionals with the negative *won't* and then with the contraction *'ll*. In case of conditionals with *be going to*, variants with *going to* are more frequent, less frequent are the variants with the form *gonna*. As in BNC, in COCA the conditionals with the shortened form of *be going to* seem to be more common than conditionals with the shortened form of *will*.

There are again examples, where the present condition for the usage of *be going to* is quite clear, for example in (71). In the examples (71) a) and b), the present condition is achieved by using the word *continue*, which implies that the situations already exist. In (71) c), the present condition is suggested by using the present continuous tense, which again implies that the situation already exists or that there are steps taking place for it to happen.

- (71) a) *a lot of men are **going to** die **if** we have to continue prosecuting this war*
(COCA: 1991 SPOK ABC_Nightline)
- b) *this country is not **going to** work and work effectively for its people **if** we continue to have divided government*
(COCA: 1992 SPOK CBS_FaceNation)
- c) *It's **going to** be very attractive for gays, **if** the military's opening up to them*
(COCA: 1992 SPOK Ind_Limbaugh)

Examples, where the usage of *be going to* can be explained by its other meanings, such as intentions or predictions based on present events, are shown in (72). The sentences in (72) a) and b) are intentions and (72) c) and d) are predictions.

- (72) a) *in Turin, Italy, they're **going to** fine people **if** they put like funky clothes on their dogs*
(COCA: 2005 SPOK CNN_Daybreak)
- b) *he's not **going to** do this **if** he's elected?*
(COCA: 2016 SPOK NPR_ATC)

c) *there's **going to** be public scorn **if** they do that*

(COCA: 1997 NEWS USA_Today)

d) *You're **going to** fall into the pool **if** you take one more step.*

(COCA: 2014 FIC AntiochRev)

In (73) there are examples, which are, according to the literature, considered as cases, where *will* should be used. (73) a) seems to be an example of a rule-like statement typical for zero conditionals (e.g. Narayanan et al. 2009, 183) and the example b) is similar to the examples of Haegeman (1989, 22), repeated here in (74), where she expresses the opinions of Leech. According to Haegeman (1989), Leech believes that (74) b) is ungrammatical as it does not have the present conditions. Haegeman (1989, 299) comments that with previous present context this sentence might be completely acceptable. It is difficult to judge into what extent the sentence (73) b) has a wider present context because there no any immediate clues in the context provided by the corpus. Nevertheless, it seems that in the corpora there are examples of *be going to* in conditionals which are, at least by some authors, considered as inappropriate or even ungrammatical.

(73) a) *You are **going to** get punished **if** you do wrong.*

(COCA: 2006 NEWS Atlanta)

b) *you're **going to** lose a lot **if** you take that job*

(COCA: 2001 NEWS Fox_Sunday)

(74) a) *If you accept that job, you'll never regret it.*

b) * *If you accept that job, you're never going to regret it.*

(Haegeman 1989, 299)

6.3 Conditional Sentences in British and American English

Regarding the comparison between the occurrences of conditional sentences with *be going to* and *will* in British and American English, my hypothesis states that conditionals with *be going to* are more frequent in American English. Most of the results from COCA and some from BNC are extrapolated, so the conclusions cannot be

taken as absolute. Still, there are some tendencies in Figure 8 and Figure 9 (p. 44) which I will interpret.

My hypothesis seems to be correct for conditionals with the full form *going to*, where both left and right variants in American English extensively exceed those in British English. With the variants with *gonna*, the occurrences in British English are more frequent than in American English, but the differences are not as striking as in the case with the full form. This might be caused by relatively small input data in both BNC and COCA for the shortened form *gonna* and it might be possible that if there were as many tokens as for the full form, the results might show a different tendency.

The results for conditionals with *will* show that in British English conditional sentences with the full form *will* are more common than in American English, though the difference is not as extensive as with *be going to*. In case of the negative form *won't*, there are more occurrences in American English than in British, though the difference is almost negligible. For the shortened form *'ll* there are so few tokens that no exact conclusion can be made, though in the adapted Figure 19, we can see that the occurrences in American English seem to prevail.

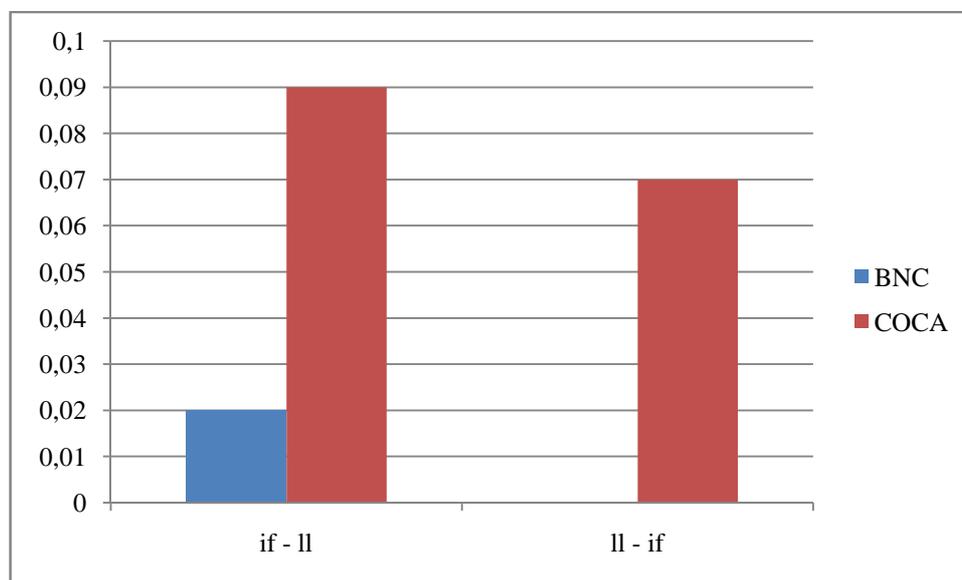


Figure 19 - Comparison of the occurrence of *'ll* in conditional sentences in BNC and COCA in descending order by BNC data

6.4 Conditional Sentences in Different Text Types

For the purpose of examining the occurrence of *be going to* and *will* in conditional sentences with respect to different text types, there are three categories—spoken, fiction, and other text types. My hypothesis states that conditionals with *be going to* are

more frequent in spoken than written languages. The category of fiction is examined separately, as it contains features of both spoken and written language. Before drawing any conclusions, it is again necessary to point out that some of the results are based on extrapolated data.

In Table 5 (p. 45) we can see that for all the varieties of *be going to*, the most common text type is spoken language, in case of *gonna*, it is in fact the majority of the tokens which are found in spoken language. This confirms my hypothesis. In Figure 10 (p. 48) we can see that the second most frequent text type is the category of “other”, and the third is the category of fiction, though the difference between these two is not very significant.

The individual types of conditionals with *will*, as we can see in Table 6 (p. 46), do not unequivocally favor one text type, but when we look at Figure 11 (p. 48), which shows the overall tendencies of the conditionals with *will*, we can see that the category of other text types is generally preferred; fiction and spoken language are considerably less frequent.

In COCA, the types of conditional sentences with *be going to* appear most frequently in spoken language, the only exception is the combination *gonna-if*. The second most frequent text types for the forms is the category of other text types, the least frequent is fiction. The overall data in Figure 12 (p. 49) confirm this and thus my hypothesis applies for the results in American English as well.

From the results in Table 8 (p. 47) and Figure 13 (p. 49) it is clear that the conditionals with *will* are most frequent in the category of other text types in COCA, which is the same as in BNC. The second most frequent is spoken language and the least number of occurrences is in the category of fiction.

To compare the occurrences of conditional sentences with *be going to* and *will* with respect to different text types in British and American English, there are Figure 14 and Figure 15 (p. 50). There we can see results, which to some extent correspond with the data from the comparison of the conditionals in the previous section. More specifically, conditionals with *be going to* are more frequent in American English across all the examined text types. The results with *will* show that these conditionals are more frequent in British English in the category of other texts, the conditionals in spoken language and fiction are more frequent in American English.

6.5 Adverb Already in BNC

Haegeman (1989, 296; 308) says that the adverb *already* is compatible with the phrase *be going to* for the reason that both of these expressions require present context. *Already* should therefore be more common with *be going to* than with *will*, which is my hypothesis. In Table 9 (p. 51) and Table 10 (p. 52) we can see that there are only few occurrences of this adverb in combination with *be going to* and *will* as well. With *be going to*, there are only 10 tokens in total, with *will* there are 125, but 124 are found in the combination *will-already* alone, and looking at the relative frequency it only presents 16.6% of the sample.

Examples of the adverb *already* occurring with *be going to* are in (75) and the interpretation of the sentences indeed indicate present context. The examples with *will* are in (76), where it is clear that even with the present-oriented meaning, *already* is combined with future *will*.

(75) a) *the angle's going to be at the centre already*

(BNC: FM4 S_classroom)

b) *I'm already not going to make it*

(BNC: JA6 S_meeting)

(76) a) *the ideal candidate will already have industrial experience*

(BNC: CJU W_advert)

b) *Some will already know Chris from his days at BTI.*

(BNC: CC1 W_misc)

Nicolle (1997, 366–368) does not agree with Haegeman's (1989, 296; 308) claims and states that it is in fact the progressive or perfective aspect that *already* combines with and not *be going to* as such. For this reason, tokens where *will* appears in the progressive or perfective aspect such as in (77) are excluded from the results.

(77) a) *he will already be thinking ahead*

(BNC: A9F W_news_brdsh_t_nat_commerce)

b) *the original carriers will already have died*

(BNC: CRM W_non_ac_nat_science)

It seems then that the adverb *already* is not very frequent with either of *be going to* or *will*, and the hypothesis based on Haegeman's (1989, 296; 308) assertions, is not confirmed. Though regarding *be going to*, it appears in more varieties of the phrase (*already-going to*, *going to-already*, *gonna-already*) and if there were more input data with *be going to*, it may be possible that the number of results would exceed those with *will*, where *already* occurred only in two of the six combinations with the forms of *will*, namely with *will-already* and *won't-already*.

6.6 Adverb Already in COCA

The results of *already* occurring in combination with *be going to* and *will* are similar in COCA, though some of the data are extrapolated and therefore not as reliable as those from BNC. The overall occurrence with both of the two expressions is again low; with *be going to* there are 65 tokens and with *will* there are 166, *already* with *will* thus seems to be more frequent than with *be going to*. But for every form of *be going to* there are at least some occurrences, while for the forms of *will* there are occurrences only in two out of the six varieties. In case of COCA, the hypothesis is again not confirmed.

6.7 Adverb Ever in BNC

The adverb *ever*, as Haegeman (1989, 397) states, refers to the future and for this reason it appears with *will*, rather than with *be going to*, which is present-oriented. My hypothesis therefore is that *ever* is more frequent with *will* than with *be going to*.

The occurrence of *ever* with *be going to* and *will* is presented in Table 13 (p. 53) and Table 14 (p.54). Based on the number of tokens from the sorted samples we can see that *ever* is indeed more frequent with *will*, which has 659 tokens in total and less frequent with *be going to* which has only 138 tokens. Regarding *will*, the most number of results is found in the combination *will-ever*, for example (78). The presented examples then correspond with Haegeman's (1989, 397) claim and all refer to the future. The results confirm my hypothesis.

- (78) a) *Nobody **will ever** know just how much of the oceans he had covered*
(BNC: K4K W_newsp_other_science)
- b) *the one source of long-term reference you **will ever** need*
(BNC: EX0 W_misc)
- c) *Nothing **will ever** feel as real as those times.*
(BNC: A6C W_misc)

There are still occurrences of *ever* in combinations with *be going to*, which do not seem to be in concord with Haegeman's (1989, 397) assertion. Some of the sentences are shown in (79) and thought some parts of the sentences, e.g. in (79) a), or b) are connected to the present, such as *do you suppose* or *I just don't think*, the clauses containing *be going to* and *ever* refer to the future. This might be explained by Nicolle's (1997, 368–369) view that the adverb *ever* does not refer to the future, but that it means at “any time” (see chapter 3.3.1), which might be the interpretations the speakers of the sentences in (79) had in mind.

- (79) a) *Do you suppose we're **ever going to** feel comfortable in these uniforms?*
 (BNC: CEH W_fict_prose)
- b) *I just don't think he's **ever going to** win that world championship*
 (BNC: KRT S_brdcast_news)
- c) *how are we **ever going to** know?*
 (BNC: EAK W_non_ac_nat_science)
- d) *Nothing is **ever going to** change their feeling toward me.*
 (BNC: CH1 W_newsp_tabloid)

6.8 Adverb Ever in COCA

The results for the occurrence of adverb *ever* with *be going to* and *will* in COCA are again similar to those in BNC. However, some of the final numbers are extrapolated and the conclusions are only based on these probable results. The number of tokens of *ever* with *be going to* is 1,716, while the number of tokens with *will* is 5,998 which confirms the hypothesis that *ever* is more frequent with *will*.

6.9 Adverb Now in BNC

Adverb *now*, according to Haegeman (1989, 295) can occur with *be going to* as well as with *will*, which is caused by the fact that it is not only temporal, but that “it suggests that the event expressed in the main proposition is the consequence of a prior event” as in the examples in (80). My hypothesis therefore is that the adverb *now* is frequent with both *be going to* and *will*.

- (80) a) *Now I'm going to have to take this dress to the cleaners again.*
 b) *Now we'll have no money at the end of the month.*

(Haegeman 1989, 295)

The results in Table 17 (p. 55) and Table 18 (p. 56) show that compared to *ever* and *already* especially, there are quite high numbers of occurrences with this adverb. For the phrase *be going to* it is 947 tokens, for *will* it is 2,455 tokens, though the result for the combination *will-now* is extrapolated. This confirms my hypothesis, although the occurrence with *will* is more common than with *be going to*. The sentences found in the corpus seem to resemble those provided by Haegeman in (80). Examples of *now* occurring with *be going to* are in (81) and examples with *will* are in (82).

- (81) a) *now I'm going to leave the parties*

(BNC: FMP S_pub_debate)

- b) *now the one we are going to talk about first of all*

(BNC: F8C S_demonstratn)

- c) *And now you're not even going to get the chance to stay overnight.*

(BNC: H8F W_fict_prose)

- (82) a) *Now they will face bigger council tax bills than anyone in the country.*

(BNC: CEN W_newsp_other_report)

- b) *Now these will have to be tackled.*

(BNC: CAL W_non_ac_polit_law_edu)

- c) *Now it will be easier to monitor them.*

(BNC: CML W_fict_prose)

There are also examples, where the adverb *now* does not appear sentence initially, as in the examples in (80), but takes another position in the clause, for example between the subject and the verb (83) a), b), immediately after *will* (83) c), after all the verbs (83) d), or at the end of the sentence (83) e).

- (83) a) *Well we **now** are **going to** change candidates.*
 (BNC: G5G S_meeting)
- b) *each pair of you **now will** get a job of doing this*
 (BNC: KP3 S_conv)
- c) *Troops **will now** be offered to the UN to aid mercy missions*
 (BNC: CH6 W_newsp_tabloid)
- d) *we're **going to** think **now** about intercommunion*
 (BNC: F86 S_meeting)
- e) *Mr Massingham **will** see you **now**.*
 (BNC: JY1 W_fict_prose)

6.10 Adverb Now in COCA

The results of the occurrence of *now* with *be going to* and *will* differ in COCA from the results in BNC. Most of the final numbers of tokens are however extrapolated, which might affect their reliability. Both *be going to* and *will* show high number of occurrences with the adverb *now*, which confirms my hypothesis. The number of tokens with *be going to* is 9,274, the number of tokens with *will* is 8,792. This means that in American English, the adverb *now* is more frequent with *be going to* than with *will*, which is the opposite tendency than in British English.

6.11 Comparison of Adverbs Already, Ever, and Now

In order to better compare the three adverbs, I present Table 21 (p. 57) and Table 22 (p. 58) for BNC, where the individual occurrences with the different forms of either *be going to* or *will* are added together, the left and right occurrences are distinguished to see, whether there might be a tendency of the adverbs to occur rather on the left or on the right of the verb phrase.

Regarding *be going to*, based on the total number of tokens there is a tendency of the adverbs to generally appear rather on the left. With *will* it is, on the other hand, the right side, which is preferred. With both *be going to* and *will*, the highest occurrence is with the adverb *now*, the second highest is *ever* and the least frequent is the adverb *already*.

For COCA, the results are shown in Table 23 (p. 58) and Table 24 (p. 59), the numbers of results are only estimated because they are based on extrapolated values. Nevertheless, as in BNC, the most frequent adverb is *now*, the second frequent is *ever*, and the least frequent is *already* for both *be going to* and *will*. Concerning the left and

right positions, with *be going to* it is the left side, which is preferred, while with *will* it is the right side, which corresponds to the findings in BNC.

6.12 Adverbs Already, Ever, and Now in British and American English

The results for the comparison of the three adverbs with respect to British and American variety of English are presented in Figure 16 (p. 59), Figure 17, and Figure 18 (p. 60). However, as was mentioned in the previous sections, most of the data of American English are based on extrapolated numbers, in case of BNC the only extrapolation was needed with the combination *will-now*.

The adverb *already* is slightly more frequent in American English with *be going to*, although the difference is almost negligible, while with *will* it is extensively more frequent in British English. It is important to mention, though, that the adverb *already* has the lowest number of tokens from the three adverbs, which do not exceed 200 tokens, and the results thus might not correspond to the actual tendencies in the language.

The adverb *ever* shows a similar tendency with both *be going to* and *will*, more specifically it is more frequent in American English than in British English. The adverb *now*, then, is more frequent in American English with forms of *be going to*, while with the forms of *will* it is more frequent in American English.

7 Conclusion

The purpose of this diploma thesis was to provide an overview of the characteristics of future expressions *be going to* and *will* with focus on their distributional differences and verification of Haegeman's (1989) theories regarding these issues in BNC and COCA.

Based on Haegeman's (1989) article and other sources, I focused on three areas of research—conditional sentences, compatibility of *be going to* and *will* with time adverbs, and comparison of the data with respect to British and American English. For every area I postulated several hypotheses.

Regarding conditional sentences, my hypothesis stated that conditional sentences would be more frequent with *will*, though there would also be occurrences with *be going to*. This hypothesis was confirmed, and after closer examination of the conditionals with *be going to*, it was found that many of the examples corresponded to Haegeman's theory that *be going to* in conditionals require present context, other could be explained by general meanings of *be going to*, such as personal intentions or predictions based on present events. However, there were some examples, where the usage of *be going to* did not easily conform to the previous reasoning. Same tendencies were found for both British and American English.

My second hypothesis related to conditional sentences stated that conditional sentences with *be going to* would be more frequent in American English. This hypothesis was also confirmed, conditionals with the full form of *be going to* in American English extensively exceeded those in British English. Conditionals with the contracted form *gonna* were slightly more frequent in British English, but these types of conditionals accounted for only small number of occurrences.

The third hypothesis concerning conditionals was that conditional sentences with *be going to* would be more frequent in spoken language than in written texts. In British and American English this hypothesis was confirmed. Most of the occurrences of conditional sentences with *be going to* appeared in spoken language; fiction and other types of texts were not as frequent. Conditionals with *will*, on the other hand, were preferred in written texts.

Next part of my thesis focused on collocability of *be going to* and *will* with time adverbs *already*, *ever*, and *now*. The following hypotheses were stated based on the claims of Haegeman (1989). The first hypothesis stated that the adverb *already* would be more frequent with *be going to*, as it requires present context. First of all, there were

only few tokens found both in BNC and COCA, so no conclusive tendencies could be stated. However, it seemed that the adverb *already* is combined with both future expressions; the most number of cases was found in the combination *will-already* in British as well as in American English. This hypothesis therefore was not confirmed.

The next hypothesis stated that the adverb *ever* would be more frequent with *will*, because it refers to the future. This hypothesis was confirmed, there were indeed more occurrences of *ever* with *will* in both British and American English. Nevertheless, there were also examples, where *ever* occurred with *be going to*, most frequently in the combination *ever-going to*. This might be caused by *ever* having a different meaning than only futurate (Nicolle 1997).

My last hypothesis stated that the adverb *now* would be frequent with both *be going to* and *will*, as it does not have to have only the meaning of a time adverb (Haegeman 1989). This hypothesis was confirmed. Though, the occurrences with the two future expressions were not completely identical, in British English *now* occurred more frequently with *will*, while in American English it was more frequent with *be going to*.

Regarding the distribution of these three adverbs with respect to British and American English, the adverb *ever* occurred more frequently in American English, while with the other two adverbs the occurrences differed based on the combinations with either *be going to* or *will*. *Already* was more frequent with *will* in British English, while with *be going to* it was slightly more frequent in American English. The adverb *now* occurred more frequently in American English with *be going to*, in combination with *will* it was more frequent in British English.

Overall, it seems that the usages of *be going to* and *will* found in the two corpora generally follow the tendencies mentioned by Haegeman (1989), the only exception being the adverb *already*. However, the occurrences were not always typical according to the theoretical background and there were some examples which contradicted some of the prescribed rules. This might be attributed to the individuality of every speaker's understanding of their language and to the specific contextual situation of every utterance. It therefore seems that Haegeman's (1989, 292–293) claim that the choice between *be going to* and *will* is based on a pragmatical, rather than grammatical, principle is confirmed by the findings in the corpora.

Resumé

Tato diplomová práce se zabývá tématem budoucího času v angličtině, konkrétně pak výrazy *be going to* a *will*. Volba mezi těmito dvěma způsoby vyjádření budoucnosti je závislá na gramatických pravidlech, nicméně existují případy, kdy je volba nejednoznačná, či dokonce sporná. Do velké míry rozhodnutí mluvčího také ovlivňují pragmatická hlediska, o čemž ve svém článku píše Haegemanová (1989) a od jejích tezí se odvíjí zkoumané oblasti a hypotézy této práce. Data, na kterých jsou hypotézy testovány, jsou získána ze dvou korpusů, z britského národního korpusu (BNC) a z korpusu současné americké angličtiny (COCA).

Teoretická část představuje základní aspekty problematiky budoucích časů v angličtině a dále se zaměřuje na rozdíly v užití výrazů *be going to* a *will*. Z prostudované literatury vyplývají dvě oblasti, které vzbuzují rozepře mezi lingvisty, a to použití *be going to* a *will* s podmínkovými větami (kondicionály) a kombinace těchto dvou výrazů s příslovci času *already*, *ever* a *now*. U těchto jevů se dále přihlíží k možným rozdílům mezi britskou a americkou angličtinou.

K výskytu *be going to* a *will* v podmínkových větách jsou stanoveny tři hypotézy. První hypotézou je předpoklad, že podmínkové věty jsou častější s *will*, ale výskyty s *be going to* se v korpusech objevují také. Tato hypotéza byla potvrzena jak pro britskou, tak pro americkou angličtinu. Podmínkové věty s *be going to* pak do značné míry odpovídaly předpokladům, že pro toto použití je potřeba přítomného kontextu, další výskyty se daly vysvětlit obecnými užitími pro *be going to*. V některých případech se ale nabízela otázka, zda by užití s *will* více neodpovídalo charakteru „klasických“ kondicionálů.

Druhá hypotéza stanovuje, že podmínkové věty s *be going to* jsou častější v americké angličtině a třetí hypotéza, že tyto věty jsou také častější v mluveném jazyce. Obě tyto hypotézy se potvrdily.

Výzkumná část zaměřena na výskyt *be going to* a *will* s příslovci času také stanovuje tři hypotézy: příslovce *already* je častější s *be going to* než s *will*, příslovce *ever* je častější s *will* než s *be going to*, a příslovce *now* se ve větší míře vyskytuje s oběma výrazy. Nejproblematictější se jeví kombinace s *already*, jelikož v korpusu je jen velmi málo výskytů, ať už s *be going to* nebo s *will*. Ze získaných výsledků se však dá dojít k závěru, že příslovce *already* se vyskytuje s oběma výrazy, častěji dokonce s *will*. Hypotézy pro další dvě příslovce se potvrdily pro obě varianty angličtiny.

Celkově se dá usoudit, že příklady z korpusů odpovídají tendencím zjištěným z literatury, zejména pak z článku Haegemanové (1989). Vždy se ale objevovaly i věty, které se daným tendencím vymykaly. To nasvědčuje tomu, že volba mluvčího pro variantu *be going to* nebo *will* vychází z kombinace více faktorů, z nichž velkou roli pravděpodobně hrají ty pragmatické, tedy role momentálního kontextu a také záměr mluvčího.

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Abbreviations List

BGT	be going to
BNC	British National Corpus
COCA	Corpus of Contemporary American English
E	time of the event
I	infinitive
M	modal, modalized
O	time of orientation
pmw	per million words
R	reference point
S	moment of speech
S1	sentence 1
S2	sentence 2
TF	temporal focus
W	will