2015 HAWAII UNIVERSITY INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES
ARTS, HUMANITIES, SOCIAL SCIENCES & EDUCATION
JANUARY 03 - 06, 2015
ALA MOANA HOTEL, HONOLULU, HAWAII

MULTIDIRECTIONAL APPROACH TO THE SEMANTICS OF HAVE: SEEKING A UNIFIED WAY OF TEACHING ITS POLYSEMY TO THE EFL STUDENTS

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Synopsis:

Have is one of the most polysemous words. This workshop will discuss the semantics of have through three presentations and a discussion forum. The presentations will focus (i) on have in the causative constructions, (ii) on the "habitat segregation" of idioms using have, and (iii) on some constructions denoting location including constructions with have. In the discussion forum, we will discuss on the semantics of have and present an effective way of teaching the word to the EFL students.

Multidirectional Approach to the Semantics of *Have*: Seeking a Unified Way of Teaching Its Polysemy to the EFL Students

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Have is, with no doubt, one of the most polysemous words. *COBUILD* lists 28 meanings of the word, and *OALD* lists as many as 33 meanings and 20 idioms using *have*. Being polysemous, as these numbers of meanings show, even native speakers of English do not find it easy to distinguish various meanings and usages, let alone for non-native English speakers. *Readers English Japanese Dictionary* uses two full pages to explain the word, and *Gendai Eibunpou Kogi* [*Lectures on Modern English Grammar*], one of the most used English grammar books in Japan, uses 78 sections of the book to explain the various usages of *have*.

This workshop will discuss the semantics of *have* in the following four-fold manner in order to seek a useful way to explain the meaning of the word to the Japanese English learners. Firstly, we will make three presentations on *have* focusing (i) on *have* in the causative constructions, (ii) on the "habitat segregation" of idioms using *have*, and (iii) on three constructions denoting location including constructions with *have*. Having made the three presentations, we will clarify the meaning of *have* and present an effective way of teaching the word to the EFL students.

The first presentation will focus on *have* in the causative constructions. An English causative verb *have* can take three grammatical structures; <*have* + bare infinitive>, <*have* + present participle> and <*have* + past participle>. Among these structures, this paper will deal with the third structure and will argue that English is a "do-language" and Japanese is a "become-language" through a Japanese-English contrastive approach.

The second presentation will focus on the "habitat segregation" of the idioms denoting "having a child". It will focus on four verbs denoting "having a child", i.e., *get*, *beget*, *have* and *bear*, and will see how they segregate to each other.

The third presentation will characterize the *have* construction expressing some location (e.g. *John has a hat on his head*) in contrast to other three locational constructions, i.e., Descriptive sentence, *There is a hat on John's head*, locative inversion construction, *On John's head is a hat*, and Prepositional Subject Construction, *Under the bed is a cozy place to sleep*.

The discussion session will clarify the semantics of *have* with the results of the paper presented. In doing so, we will seek to answer the following questions: (1) Does the word *have* have a core meaning; (2) and if it does have a more meaning, what will that be?; (3) what is a useful way of teaching such a polysemous word to the EFL learners.

A Study on Causative *HAVE* and Passiveness through a Comparison between English and Japanese

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0. Introduction

An English causative verb *have* can take three grammatical structures; <*have* + bare infinitive>, <*have* + present participle> and <*have* + past participle>. Ando (2005) lists many meanings of these structures and describes the usages of causative *have* closely. However, he does not signify the difference between, for example, <POSESSION> and <CAUSATION>, and the core meaning of *have* itself. Also, teaching *have* according to the classification of Ando (2005) will force the students to memorize the usages, and will not be very helpful to the students.

In this paper, we will deal with all the sentences with *have* including these three structures and will reveal the following two points; (A) we will reveal the meaning of *have* itself and depict the schema of the sentences with *have,* which will be applied more effectively to TESL, (B) and through the analysis of (A), we will argue that English and Japanese have different causative devices and that English is a do-language while Japanese is a become-language through a Japanese-English contrastive approach.

1. The Semantics of *Have* in Causative Sentences

1. 1. Previous Studies on Causative *Have* and Their Shortcomings

Just as many studies on any polysemous structure, we can categorize previous studies of causative *have* into two big types that are further categorized into four sub-types; (i) Feature-based explanation: explaining the phenomenon with a combination of features, (ii-a) semantic studies 1: listing usages, (ii-b) semantic studies 2: explaining the polysemous structure using a net-work structure based on family resemblance (cf. Wittgenstein (1953), Lakoff (1987)), and (ii-c) semantic studies 3: explaining the polysemous structure with one core meaning. (cf. Ruhl (1989))

This chapter reviews each line of thought citing one previous study that is representative of each line. 1.1.1. reviews a feature-based study, 1.1.2. reviews a study that gives a list of the usages, 1.1.3. reviews a study that tries to explain the polysemous network of *have*, 1.1.4 reviews a study that tries to explain the core meaning of *have*. We will see that none of them are sufficient for understanding the meaning of *have*, and will argue for the need for an explanation based on the line of (ii-c) with the linguistic contextual cues that invite the interpretation of each usage.

1.1.1 Feature-Based Line of Thought: Wada and Tanaka (2011)

Wada and Tanaka (2011) can be cited as one example of the feature-based studies, i.e., trying to explain the phenomenon using features. They try to classify causative *have* by using the following four features; ±Animacy of the Subject, ±Controllability of the event by the Subject, ±Animacy of the Agent, and ±Controllability of the

event by the Agent. As they also argue that if the subject is not a human, it is impossible to use *have* as a causative verb, and the subject should have the feature of +Animacy to be interpreted as a causative. Therefore, eliminating this feature in determining sentence types, there are four possibilities of combination as regards to Animacy of Agent and Controllability by the Agent; (+A and +C), (–A and +C), (+A and –C), and (–A and –C). From this, they claim that there are four usages of the causative constructions, and they differ in the combinations of these features as is shown in Table 1;

Type A: I'll have my secretary call him tomorrow.
Type B: *Ralph had Sheila die.
Type C: The magician had the card disappear without lifting a finger.
Type D: *The confusion had Iraqis leave the country.

Constituent / Type	Subject		Agent		Type of Verb	Connotation
A	+A	+C	+A	+C	Active Verb	Assignment
B	+A	-C	+A	-C	Unintentional Verb	Ungrammatical
C	+A	+C	-A	-C	No Limit	Ability of Subject
D	-A	-C	—	—	—	Ungrammatical

TABLE 1: Four Features Distinguishing Causatives According to Wada and Tanaka (2011)

We can say they have neatly categorized causative sentences into some types, using a set of features. However, they do not explain why these features are involved with causative structures. In other words, they merely designate causative sentences as a few types and there should be no clear-cut explanation of causative *have* motivated by the basic meaning. In addition to this, they leave another causative structure, i.e., *have* + participle structure (e.g. *I had my bike stolen*.) aside. Thus, their explanation is not sufficient in terms of comprehensiveness of the explanation.

1.1.2 Semantic Line of Thought 1: Listing All the Usages; Ando (2005)

Ando (2005) is one of the most typical examples of listing method. He merely lists and categorizes the usages of causative *have* as follows;

(1) The Usages of *Have* According to Ando (2005)
  (i) HAVE + Bare Infinitive
    a. Make someone do something
      ① What would you have me do?
      ② I had John find me a house.
    b. Allow someone do something
      ③ I won't have you criticize my wife.
      ④ I won't have you tell me what to do.

c. Undergo something

⑤ I have had many scholars visit me from time to time.

⑥ John had a man steal his wallet from him.

d. Keep someone/thing being the state

⑦ I am glad to have my place look its best.

⑧ I like having you trust me.

(ii) HAVE + Present Participle

a. Undergo NP doing

⑨ Soon we had [the mist coming down on us].

⑩ I looked up and found we had [water dripping through the ceiling].

⑪ It's lovely to have [children playing in the garden again].

b. Make NP doing something

⑫ He had [us all laughing].

⑬ I'll have [you speaking English in three months].

c. Do not let NP do [with can't, won't]

⑭ We can't have [them forcing their views on everyone else].

⑮ I won't have [you saying such things about my mother].

⑯ I won't have [you flying away from me into the hearts of storms].

(iii) HAVE + Past Participle

a. NP is made to be done

⑰ I had [the letters translated] and they were all love letters from Nikolai Obrajensky to my grandmother.

⑱ I could call my servants and have [you arrested].

⑲ I won't have [my house turned into a hotel].

b. Someone undergo NP being done (as a damage)

⑳ John had [his watch stolen].

㉑ He had [his leg broken] in the accident.

㉒ My sister has had [some money stolen].

㉓ I've had [this given me].

c. Someone undergo NP being done (as a consequence)

㉔ I had [two sketches finished].

㉕ He had [his plan made].

Though Ando (2005) describes the usages of causative *have* closely, he does not signify the difference between, for example, <POSESSION> and <CAUSATION>. Also, teaching *have* according to the line of (ii-a) will force the students to memorize the usages, and will not be very helpful to the students; understanding the polysemous meanings as something related is much more effective than enumerating various meanings.

1.1.3 Studies on the Semantic Network of *Have*; Kuno and Takami (2005)

Kuno and Takami (2005) argues that in causative sentences, there are two types of interpretation. One is causation and the other is experience, and they are similar but different in one aspect, hence an explanation based on a semantic network.

(2) a. The teacher had his students write two papers. (<CAUSATION>)
b. The coach had the players run for another hour. (<CAUSATION>)
(3) a. I had someone pick my pocket on a jam-packed train yesterday. (<EXPERIENCE>)
b. For the first time ever in my life, I had someone threaten to kill me tonight. (<EXPERIENCE>)
(Kuno and Takami 2005:129)

Kuno and Takami (2005) explains that (2a) and (2b) can be construed as causations. That is, in (2a), the subject ("the teacher") ordered *the students* to write two papers, and in (2b), the subject ("the coach") ordered *the players* to run for another hour. In (3a), the subject ("I") noticed that someone had picked the pocket on a jam-packed train the day before. In (3b), the subject ("I") was threatened to be killed by someone in that night for the first time in his life unexpectedly.

Kuno and Takami (2005) explains this phenomenon as follows (4).

(4) If the subject of a sentence "has" the event "intentionally", then the sentence is interpreted as a causation and if not (i.e. "unintentionally"), then the sentence is interpreted as <EXPERIENCE>. (ibid: 129)

However, Kuno and Takami (2005) is not clear enough in what they mean by "having the events intentionally". That is, they do not specify where the intentionality comes from. The following sentences are good illustrations of their insufficiency of the argument. The sentences (5) and (6) require some contexts to distinguish whether the sentences denote intentionality or not.

(5) I had some CDs stolen. (COCA)
(6) John had half the students walk out of John's lecture. (Ritter and Rosen 1993: 525)

Namely, whether an event is a <CAUSATION> or an <EXPERIENCE> is not expressed grammatically in English. Ando (2005) says that native speakers of English distinguish causations and experiences by putting an accent on *have* or *past participle*. In Japanese, on the other hand, being a causation or an experience requires linguistic forms as in "*~saseru* (causation)", "*~sareru* (experience)", or "*~shitemorau* (a polite expression of causation)", which we will come back in 3. Though Kuno and Takami (2005) tries to divide the causation into two types and shows how they are related to each other, the differences rely heavily on the context, and it may be the case that the Japanese seem to regard them as different because of their Japanese translations, but they are not so different to the English speaking people because English speakers can distinguish them from the contextual information.

Moreover, this analysis lacks the explanation of how the <CAUSATION> and <EXPERIENCE> is related to simple possession. According to the notion of "iconicity" (Bolinger 1977) there must be some relation between those meanings of *have*.

In this paper, we strongly claim the need of an explanation that will coherently explain all the usages of *have*, i.e., <POSSESSION>, <CAUSATION>, and <EXPERIENCE> to list some few. That is, picking up and explaining just <POSSESSION> or <CAUSATION> is not sufficient for a whole account of *have*. We will present a strongly motivated account for *have* comprehending the whole part of the phenomena.

1.1.4 Studies Arguing for a Core Meaning; Fujiwara *et al* (2014)

Fujiwara *et al* (2014) defines the core meaning of *have* as (7) and depicts the core image-schema of *have* as Figure 1.

(7) X have Y: Y exists within the range of X. (the range can either be physical or mental.)

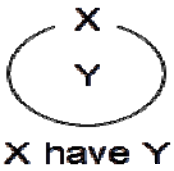

Figure 1 The Core Image-Schema of *Have* (Fujiwara *et al* 2014:7)

Fujiwara *et al* (2014) looks closely at the elements following *have* in the sentences and insists that the meanings of *have* derive from the combination of elements following *have*, depicting the schema of the sentences with *have* as Figure 2. The point is that they deal with not only causative *have* but also <POSSESSION> and <DYNAMIC> *have*.

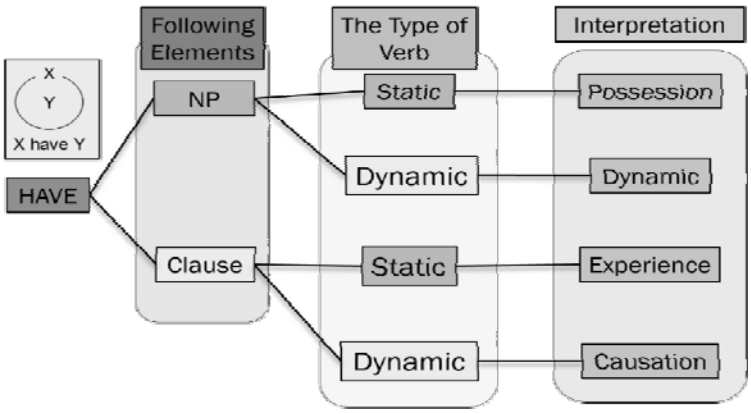

Figure 2 The Schema of the Sentences with Have (Fujiwara *et al* 2014:9)

Fujiwara *et al* (2014) explains how each interpretation can be determined through the schema of the sentences with *have*, showing the following sentences.

(8) I have two sisters. <POSSESSION>

(9) They had a long fight. <DYNAMIC>

(10)I had my bike stolen. <EXPERIENCE>

(11)I'll have him call you back. <CAUSATION> (Fujiwara *et al* 2014:7-8)

(8) is the simplest POSSESSION; *Two sisters* exist in the range of the subject, *I*. Also the state (having two sisters) is uncontrollable, which can be checked by the fact that it cannot co-occur with "deliberately," as in (8') *I have two sisters deliberately.

As in (9), if an "eventive object" (Quirk *et al.* 1985) follows *have* in a sentence, then we perceive that the event is not static but dynamic; In (9), the subject, *they*, fought against each other, doing various activities (Dynamic elements) such as kicking, punching, hitting, tackling and so on.

In (10), the subject, *I*, cannot change the situation which happened to him. Hence, the event is static.

Have in (11) is followed by a small clause which has a bare infinitive (*call*, i.e., dynamic). In such a situation, the sentence can be interpreted as a causative.

However, Fujiwara et al (2014) is not immune to criticism. Most of the sentences can be explained by Figure 2, however, some sentences remain un-explained. For instance, Figure 2 cannot determine the meaning of a causative as in (12).

(12)I had my hair cut by Mary. (Washio1993:46)

Washio (1993) says that (12) can be interpreted as having two senses; one is that the subject, *I*, ordered that Mary should cut the subject's hair (causative), and the other is that the subject did not intend for Mary to cut my hair but Mary cut my hair against my will (passive)[1].

From the observation above, the schema of the sentences with *have* Fujiwara *et al* suggests lacks some linguistic devices explaining the following elements.

1.1.5. Summary of the Review of Previous Studies

To sum up, all of the above cited previous studies fall short in the following two respects; (1) they lack a comprehensive explanation of *have*. None of the previous studies reviewed here, except the fourth line, try to give an explanation that could account for the causative *have* as well as the simple possession *have*. Also, we can say that those previous studies are not inclusive in that, in the line of feature-based study, it is not clear how the features are related to the phenomenon, and it leaves one usage of causative *have* aside. In line of listing, learners are compelled to memorize all of the usages and this kind of method is not helpful for beginners and it is far from being comprehensive; and (2) they do not give an account that pays good attention to the linguistic context that motivates the "online interpretation"(c.f. Tyler and Evans 2003)[2]. For example, in the third line, i.e., semantic network, some researchers give accounts on why the meanings derive from the intentionality. However, in this

1 Washio (1993) uses "passive" to indicate "experience." (hereinafter referred to as <PASSIVE>)

2 Tyler and Evans (2003) argues that the meaning of a sentence is calculated not only from the combinations of the words used in the sentence but also from the information that the interlocutors collect while they talk, hence "online interpretation".

explanation, we cannot exclude the vacillation between causative and experience. That is, the vacillation deeply relies on linguistic context. Though the fourth line is epoch-making in a sense of pointing out a parallelism in sentences with *have*, it still lacks accounts and illustrations of some linguistic devices which completely determine the meaning of causative sentences.

From the following chapter, we will try to give a closer look on sentences with *have* and make up for the shortcomings of Figure 2 suggested by Fujiwara *et al* (2014).

2 A New Schema of Sentences with *Have*

In the former chapter we reviewed the literature on causative *have* and pointed out their shortcomings. We have seen that following the line of (ii-c) is on the right track, but Fujiwara *et al* (2014) falls short in some linguistic components in the schema. In this chapter, we will reanalyze sentences with *have* more closely and reveal some linguistic components to modify the schema of sentences with *have.* These components can distinguish meanings of causative *have*, i.e., <CAUSATION> and <PASSIVE> more precisely and a new schema of sentences with *have* will serve learners needs well.

2.1 Reflective Elements

As we have seen above, Washio (1993) points out that (12) has two interpretations. If we look at the sentence closely, we notice that changing a word in the sentence, i.e, changing *my* to *his* as in (13), can determine the meaning of the event denoted;

(12)I_i had my_i hair cut by Mary. (Washio1993:46)

(13)I_i had $\boldsymbol{his}_j$ hair cut by Mary.

In (13), the event is interpreted as causative not passive. This is because the pronoun "*his*" cancels a passive reading. That is, if there is no entity which corresponds with the subject, the sentence cannot have a passive reading. In other words, we cannot regard a sentence as passive without reflective elements. If we say a sentence is passive, the influence of an action performed by entities in an event will affect the subject. Therefore, interpreting a sentence with no reflective elements as passive requires a rich, reasonable context.

From the argument above, it can be said that whether or not there is any reflective entity in a sentence with *have* can be utilized as a disambiguator of vacillation between causative and experience.

2.2 Bare Infinitive as a Disambiguator

Ando (2005) and Kuno and Takami (2005) illustrate that < *have* + bare infinitive > can be interpreted as both causative and passive. However, many native informants of English point out that < *have* + bare infinitive > always conceptualize causation. For example, the sentences described in the preceding chapter by Kuno and Takami (2005) are always construed as causation.

(14) a. The teacher had his students write two papers. (=2a)(<CAUSATION>)
b. The coach had the players run for another hour. (=2b)(<CAUSATION>)
(15) a. I had someone pick my pocket on a jam-packed train yesterday. (=3a)(<*CAUSATION*>)
b. For the first time ever in my life, I had someone threaten to kill me tonight. (=3b) (<*CAUSATION*>)
(Kuno and Takami 2005:129)

From this observation, we claim that the default meaning of < *have* + bare infinitive > is causative and it needs context to be interpreted as passive. In this regard, the analysis of Kuno and Takami (2005) contains a fatal flaw in the reasoning. Namely, it can be said that they just picked up examples which are convenient for their explanation and have a context which suits well a passive reading.

For that reason, a structure of < *have* + bare infinitive > denotes a causative reading as a default and if there is a reasonable context, then it can be construed as passive. Therefore, whether the verb in a small clause is bare infinitive or not can be used as a disambiguator.

2.3 Orientation of Focus Point

Washio (1993) points out that (12) has two interpretations; causative and passive. We will claim that (12) has two interpretations because the verb in (12), i.e., *had*, is past tense. If we add an auxiliary verb *will* to (12) as in (16) or make it into present tense as in (17), then we cannot take the sentence as passive. In other words, passive reading is allowable only in past tense.

(12)I had my hair cut by Mary. (Washio1993:46)
(16)I will have my hair cut by Mary.
(17)I have my hair cut by Mary.

Ikegami (1981) is supportive in accounting for this point. Ikegami (1981) argues that passive and causative, not passive and active voice, are inseparably related and defines that causative denotes the starting point, and passive the end point.

Ikegami (1981) argues that although the GB literature argues that passive is generated from active voice through “transformation”, such explanation falls short in, at least, the following two respects;

Firstly, there are active sentences which lack a “corresponding” passive, i.e., (18), and passive sentences which lack a “corresponding” active voice, i.e., (19).

(18)a. Private Smith deserted the army.
b. *The army was deserted by Private Smith. (Ikegami 1995[1991]:112)
(19)a. Ame-ni fu-RAREru
Rain-by fall-passive
(lit) I was caught in a shower.

b. *Ame-wa watashi-wo Furu.
Rain-nom me-acc fall
(lit) It rained me. (Hanazaki 2013)

Secondly, Ikegami (1981) argues that the passive and active differ in meanings.

(20)a. Taro-wa John-wo Nagu-tta kedo Nagu-RE na-katta.
Taro-nom John-acc hit-past but hit-can negative-past.
(lit) Taro hit John but he couldn't hit him.
b. *John-wa Nagu-RARE-ta kedo Nagu-RARE na-katta.
John-nom hit-passive-past but hit-passive negative-past.
(lit) John was hit by Taro but he couldn't hit him.

Having made clear that passive is not related to active voice, he argues that passive is related to causative. Ikegami (1981) also shows causative and passive conceptual formulas as follows.

(21)X GO/COME FROM Y[3]
(22)X GO/COME TO Y
(23)Y SEND X
(24)Y GET X
(25)Y CAUSE [S]
(26)Y GET [S] (Ikegami 1981:183-185)

That is, causative can be recognized as the action (starting point) and passive as the result (end point). As (20a, b) indicate Japanese active does not imply the result while passive implies the result. From these fact, Ikegami (1981) claims that active focuses on the action, while passive focuses on the result.

Following Ikegami (1981), we will argue that causative is the action focus and passive is the result focus. In this regard, with "past tense", (12) focuses the result of the event, i.e., only past tense can imply the result and is construed as passive. On the other hand, (16) and (17) focus the actions, i.e., an event which occurs in the future cannot connote passive and are construed as causative.

From the argument above, we will add "focus point" as another component of the new schema of sentences with *have.*

2.4 The New Schema of Sentences with *Have*

From the above analysis, we will add three disambiguators and argue that with *have* has the following schema. With the schema, we can identify all the meanings of sentences with *have*.

[3] X is Event
Y is Subject
S is Sentence(Caused Event)

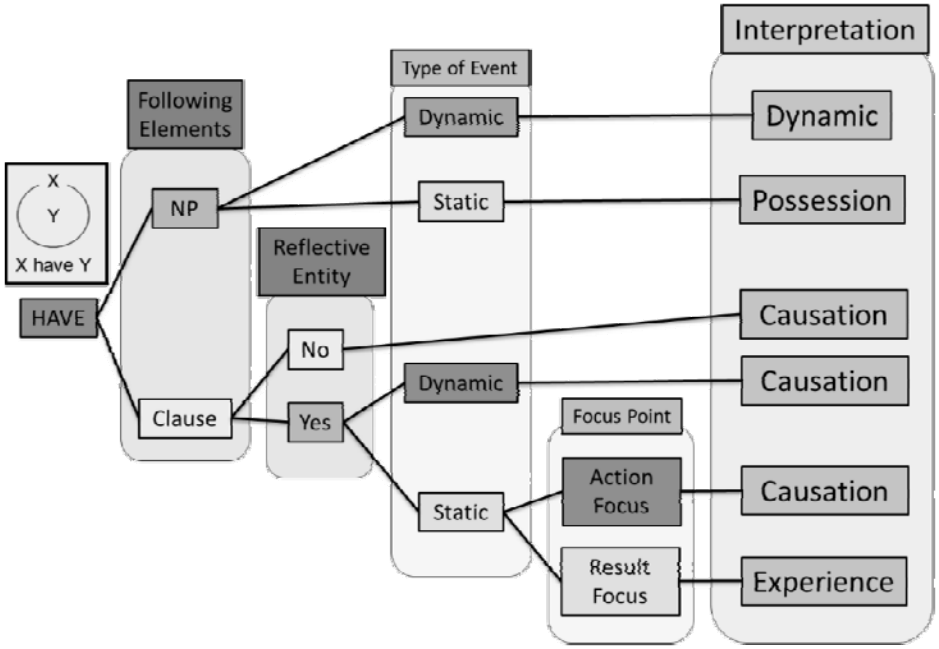

Figure 3: A New Schema of Sentences with *Have*

(27)They had a long fight. (=9)(Quirk *et al* 1985)

(28)I have two sisters. (=9)(COCA)

(29)I could call my servants and have you arrested. (Ando2005:239)

(30)I am glad to have my place look its best. (Ando2005:219)

(31)I will have my vision realized. (COCA)

(32)I had my wallet stolen. (COCA)

As we explained in the preceding chapter, (27) is <DYNAMIC>, which contains an eventive object and (28) is a simple <POSSESSION>. (29) has no reflective entity in it and is interpreted as Causation. (30) has a reflective entity, *my place* and a bare infinitive, so it is interpreted as <CAUSATION>. (31) has a reflective entity, *my vision* and the event is focused on future, *will have*, hence it is interpreted as <CAUSATION>. (32) has a reflective entity, *my wallet* and the event is end focus, *had* and, hence interpreted as <PASSIVE>.

The new schema of sentence with *have* can be utilized to help learners to determine the meanings of a sentence and can be a comprehensive account of *have.*

3. The differences between Japanese and English in causatives

In this chapter, we will argue that English is a do-language while Japanese is a become-language through a Japanese-English contrastive approach. When we see < *have* + past participle > sentences and their Japanese corresponding sentences, we see two interesting phenomena.

Firstly, a sentence indicated by <*have* + past participle> structure can have two interpretations in Japanese and needs to be translated with two separate forms. From this fact we can see that English and Japanese causatives put focus on different aspects of causatives. For example, as we have repeatedly seen, (12) *I had my hair cut by Mary*

(Washio 1993:46), can be interpreted into two senses; one is that the subject, *I*, ordered that Mary should cut the subject's hair (causative), and the other is that the subject did not intend for Mary to cut my hair but Mary cut my hair against my will (passive). If we try to translate these two interpretations into Japanese, we need to translate them into two different grammatical forms in Japanese; the former as "Watashi-wa Mary-ni kami-wo ki-RASE-ta (lit. *I made Mary cut my hair*,)" and the latter as "Watashi-wa Mary-ni kami-wo ki-RARE-ta (lit. *I was cut my hair by Mary.*)" Japanese "RASE" is a prototypical causative auxiliary verb, and "RARE" is a prototypical passive auxiliary verb. From this observation, we can claim that English and Japanese put focus differently in causatives.

Secondly, in Japanese, perfective is related to passiveness and this fact can be used to explain the different focuses of English and Japanese in causative constructions. For example, "Hanako-wa kaze-de boushi-wo toba-shite-shimat-ta" (shimatta=PERFECTIVE marker) (Nishimura and Noya 2013:120), has two English translations. One is that "Hanako has blown off her hat with the wind" (causative), and the other is that "Hanako had her hat blown off accidentally by the wind" (passive). Recalling the fact that we have seen in the previous paragraph, i.e., English causatives are translated into two forms in Japanese, this phenomenon seems to show the opposite, i.e., a Japanese causative sentence has two interpretations in English. However, if we closely look at this sentence, we notice one particular point; the Japanese sentence in question has perfective "shimat-ta" in it and omitting the perfective, i.e., "Hanako-wa kaze-de boushi-wo toba-shi-ta (lit. *Hanako blew off her hat with the wind*)," will make it difficult to interpret the sentence as passive. With this observation, we can see that the passive interpretation of the causative construction is related to perfective.

Once again, Ikegami (1995[1991]) is helpful in explaining this phenomenon. He argues that the English sentence, "*I burned it, but it didn't burn (Ikegami1995[1991]:143)," is unacceptable, while its Japanese counterpart, "Moyashi-ta kedo, Moe-nakat-ta," is acceptable. Ikegami (1995[1991]) explains that *burn* conceptualizes both the beginning of the burning process and the result of the outcome of the event. On the other hand, its Japanese counterpart, "moyasu" cannot conceptualize the result of the event. Ikegami (1981) defines that English, whose verbs normally depicts the whole event, is a do-language, while Japanese, whose verbs tend to depict only the action of the event, is a become-language.

Let us add one more interesting observation to Ikegami (1995[1991]). If we want to focus on the result of an event in Japanese, we must add a special form to it. For example, adding *shimat-ta* to the Japanese sentence in the previous paragraph as in "*Moyashite-SHIMAT-ta kedo, Moe-nakat-ta," makes the sentence unacceptable. In other words, in order to focus on the result, Japanese requires a special mechanism.

From the above observations, we will see a causative includes two construals, i.e., the action and the result of the event, and English can denote two senses in one form while Japanese requires a special form such as perfective to conceptualize two meanings. Namely, the English sentence, "*I had my hair cut by Mary*," denotes the whole event from the beginning of the action (cutting my hair) to the result of the event (the final state). In other words, a causative with *have* can include both causative and passive construals. Hence, we can say English is a do-language, which can conceptualize the whole event from the action to the result. On the other hand, the Japanese sentence, "Hanako-wa kaze-de boushi-wo toba-shi-ta," cannot conceptualize the whole event. That is, a Japanese causative construction, by itself, can only indicate the action of the event, and to conceptualize the details of the result of the event (whether causative or passive), Japanese requires other linguistic systems such as auxiliary verbs, i.e., RASE

(prototypical causative auxiliary verb), or RARE (prototypical passive auxiliary verb), or subsidiary verbs such as SHIMAT-ta (PERFECTIVE marker). Hence we can say Japanese is a become-language, which focuses only on one phase, either the beginning or, with the help of other devices, the result, of the event performed by the subject.

4 The Semantics of *Have*

In this section, we will analyze the meaning of *have* itself and will argue that *have* itself has a very wide range of meaning. In other words, *have* lost its specific meaning and gained a more comprehensive meaning, and *have* does not focus on a specific aspect of an event. On the other hand, some relatively strong causative verbs such as *make*, *get*, or *let* conceptualize a specific aspect of an event. We argue that the observation above explains the "habitat segregation"(Hanazaki 2007) of causative verbs; *make*, *have*, *get*, and *let*. Among these verbs, *make* has relatively strong meaning of causative. For example, *I make him go*, can be paraphrased as "I PRODUCE the event that he goes." And *let* has relatively strong meaning of passive. For instance, *He let his children play outside*, can be paraphrased as "He ALLOWED his children to play outside."[4] With this observation, we argue that *have* itself has no polarity between causative and passive because *have* has very comprehensive meaning and does not conceptualize a specific aspect (causative or passive) of an event.

5 Conclusion

In chapter 1 and 2, we reviewed the literature of causative *have* and reanalyzed the Schema of Sentences with *Have* (Fujiwara *et al* 2014). Through the reanalysis, we showed a new schema of sentences with *have* can differentiate the meanings of all the sentences with *have*. Moreover, applying the new schema of sentences with *have* to TESL, learners of English can grasp the meanings of sentences with *have* better.

In chapter 3, we revealed that English and Japanese differently put focuses in causative sentences. That is, English causative *have* denotes the whole event and implies two construals by one form; causative and passive, while the Japanese counterpart cannot denote the whole event of a sentence and focuses only on the beginning of the event and when referring to the result, Japanese requires special forms such as RASE, RARE, or SHIMAT-ta to express the detail of the event.

In chapter 4, we clarified the habitat segregation of English causative verbs; *make*, *have*, *get*, and *let*. These causative verbs except *have* has relatively strong meanings and *have* itself has a more comprehensive meaning. That is, *have* does not focus on a specific aspect of the event.

[4] Sometimes *let* expresses that though the subject is reluctant to allow the action, he/she allows the causee to do the action. (Wisdom English-Japanese Dictionary) In this sense, *let* has connotation of passiveness in its conceptual structure.

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A Study on the Habitat Segregation of the Four Verbs Indicating‘Procreation’; *Get, Beget, Bear and Have*

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Abstract

When we are to describe procreation, we can use many verbs such as, “I procreate a baby”, “I get a baby”, “I beget a baby”, “I bear a baby” and ”I have a baby”. Their meanings are almost the same. However considering the “iconicity”, these verbs do not indicate the same meanings, but must have different meanings. This paper shall clarify the difference in their meanings through seeing which process of “having a baby” each verb forcuses on. And finally we would like to reveal the “habibtat segregation” of the four verbs.

1. Preliminary

When we want to say that ‘I have a child’, not only *have*, but also other verbs *get, beget* or *bear* are also possible[5]. According to the FrameNet, these four verbs have common frame which is ‘giving birth’. Followings are the explanation of each verb in the FrameNet;

Verb[6]	Frame	LU[7] Status	Lexical Entry[8] Report	Annotation Report
have.v	Giving_birth	Finished_Initial	LE	Anno
get.v	Giving_birth	Created	LE	
beget.v	Giving_birth	Finished_Initial	LE	Anno
bear.v	Giving_birth	Finished_Initial	LE	Anno

Table1. Explanation of Each Verbs from FrameNet

As we can see in Table1, the four verbs are similar in meaning; FrameNet gives the four verbs a common frame of ‘giving birth'. However, according to the notion of “iconicity“(Bolinger 1977) there must be some differences between each verb. Also according to COCA (Corpus of Contemporary American English), verb *have* occurs much frequently than other verbs (*have*: 3610, *get*: 26, *beget*: 11 and *bear*: 92). In this paper, we would like to reveal the

[5] One more verb, *procreate*, may also be possible. For example, OED defines *beget* as the same as the verb *procreate* (s.v. beget 2.2). However, FrameNet does not give definition to the verb *procreate*, although it lists the noun *procreation*. Furthermore verb *procreate* occurs once in the Corpus of Contemporary American English. Hence, we will deal with only the four verbs listed.
[6] The FrameNet shows the word ‘Lexical Unit‘, but in this paper I use ‘Verb‘.
[7] For example, words that evoke this frame, such as *fry, bake, boil*, and *broil*, are called lexical units (LUs) of the Apply_heat frame.
[8] The lexical entry for each LU is derived from such annotations, and specifies the ways in which Frame Elements are realized in syntactic structures headed by the word.

differences between the four verbs through the following three steps; firstly, we will see their differences from historical point of view; secondly, we will see the differences in their grammatical subjects; finally, we will see their differences in grammar, i.e. *have* and *bear* can take the progressive form, while others cannot.

2. History

Firstly, we will see the differences among the verbs from a historical point of view. The following Table3 indicates the origin and their first appearances;

verb	origin	first appearance year
beget	Common Teutonic	1205
have	Common Teutonic	c 1000
get	Old Scandinavian[9]	c 1300
bear	Common Teutonic	971

Table3. The Origin and Their First Appearance

OED gives the following definition to verb *beget*; "to procreate, to generate: usually said of the father, but sometimes of both parents" (s.v. *beget* 2.2). On the other hand, as for verb *have* it gives as follows; "to hold or possess, in a weakened sense; the relation being other than that of property or tenancy, e.g. one of kindred, relative position, etc. The relation is often reciprocal: the father has a son, the son has a father; the king has subjects, his subjects have a king; the man has a wife, she has a husband; or it may be reciprocal to sense 1: a man has (sense 1) a house, the house has an owner or tenant." (s.v. *have* 2. a.B.I.2.a). Verb *get* is defined as "to beget, procreate (said of the male parent); now rare exc. of animals, esp. horses. Const. on, upon. † In early use occas. of both parents."(s.v. *get* III. 26.III.26). In early time it had the use to indicate both parents as subjects, but it obsoleted. Now it is used for father, but sometimes for both parents. Verb *Bear* is defined as "to bring forth, produce, give birth to (offspring)" (s.v. *bear* 43. a.IV.43.a).

From the above, we can attest the fact that first appearances of each verb are different year.

3. Grammatical Subject

Secondly, we will observe their grammatical subjects. Table 2 summarizes the observation.

Verb	Present subject	Subject in the past[10]
have	both parents	both parents
get	both parents	mother
beget	father	both parents
bear	both parents	mother

Table2. A Comparison between Subjects (COCA and OED)

[9] In the OED it is used Old Norse, but I shall use Old Scandinavian.
[10] According to the OED, *have* first appeared in *Gospels Luke* in circa 1000, *get* first appeared in c 1300 *Legend of Gregory* in circa 1300, *beget* first appeared in *Laȝamond's Brut* in 1205 and *bear* first appeared in *Blickling Homilies* in 971.

Table 2 lists the present subject according to COCA, and the first appearance according to OED. It is worth noting that, as we can see in Table2, verb *beget* cannot take women as its subject, while other verbs of *bear, have* and *get* can take both genders. Also looking at the verbs historically, *beget* took both parents as its subject (OED), hence we can say that their meanings have changed historically.

4. Grammatical Analysis

4.1. Test1: Progressive form

And finally, we will see the differences between each word through a grammatical analysis including whether they can take the progressive form, from which facts, we can see the "habitat segregation (cf. Hanazaki (2007))" of the four verbs, or in other words how each verb differ semantically. It is possible to classify the process of 'having a child' into three process, i.e., (i) from the point of pregnancy and carrying the baby in the womb, (ii) the action of giving birth to the baby, and (iii) the state in which the child exist.

As the first step in seeing the "habitat segregation" of the four verbs, we will check whether they can take progressive forms. The progressive forms are only available for actions, which means that only the verbs which denotes the (ii) stage can take the progressive forms. The following Table4 shows the verbs which are available for progressive form or not according to COCA;

Verb	Progressive form
have	○
get	×
beget	×
bear	○

Table4. The Verbs as Progressive Form (COCA)

COCA gives us much examples of *have* and *bear* in their progressive forms. On the other hand, *bear* as the progressive form occurs only three times, and this number being small and rare, we will not count it as a usual usage. Summarizing, Table 4 indicates that only *have* and *bear* can denote the action of giving birth. The results of Table 4 can be verified by checking whether the verbs co-occur with the phrase "and it took 3 hours", which results should tell us whether the verbs can denote the (ii) stage of "having a child".

(1) I had a baby and it took [x] hours .[11]
(2) *I got a baby and it took [x] hours.
(3) *I beget a baby and it took [x] hours.
(4) I bore a baby and it took [x] hours.

From the above two observations, we can safely say that only *have* and *bear* can indicate (ii) stage of "having a child".

[11] [x] indicates an arbitral number.

4.2. Test2: Its Grammatical Object

As the next step in analyzing the "habit segregation" of the four verbs, we will see if each verb can take the word *a boy* as its grammatical object. Only after being born that we can know for sure if the baby is a boy or a girl, hence being able to take *a boy* as its object will tell us that the verb can indicate the stages of (ii) and (iii) of "having a child". (1) through (4) shows the result by COCA.

(5) I have a boy.
(6) *I get a boy.
(7) *I beget a boy.
(8) I bear a boy. (COCA)

These results show that only *have* and *bear*, but neither *get* and *beget*[12], can indicate (ii) nor (iii). (7) seems to have the stage of (i), but we can see this very few number. This is a sentence example;

> But their religion does not promise a heaven to come, and although they believe in some form of life hereafter, death for them is an end from which the only salvation is continuity through posterity. What the Dinka fear the most is not death itself, but dying without male progeny, in whom the survival of their individual identities, their source of immortality, is vested. Relatives of a man who dies unmarried assume a moral obligation to marry a woman for him, to live with one of them and **beget children** to his name. Equally, a man who dies leaving behind a widow of childbearing age bestows a moral obligation on his kinsmen to have one of them cohabit with her to continue bearing children in his name. ... It is by respecting the dead that their identity and influence can continue through living memory. # To be sustained after death, (COCA)

From the above, we can see verb *beget* describes the stage of (ⅲ).

4.3. Test3: Denial of the Fact

As the last step, let us see if the verb occurs with the phrase *but he died at birth*, which shows whether the verbs can indicate (i). i.e., (1) I had a baby and it took [x] hours. If it co-occurs with the phrase, we can say it indicates (ⅱ).

(9) I had a baby, but [N] died at birth.
(10) *I got a baby, but [N] died at birth.
(11) * I beget a baby, but [N] died at birth.
(12) I bear a baby, but [N] died at birth. (COCA)

We can see from the above four sentences that verb *have* and *bear* indicates the process of 'giving birth', but

[12] Verb *beget* indicates only (iii), but I want to show that not available on (ii) and (iii) here.

verb *get* and *bear* does not include the action of ‘giving birth‘ as for (10) we can argue that verb *get* indicates ‘just the moment of pregnancy ‘. The moment perhaps maybe either the implantation or preimplantation. If the sperm does not become implanted, the baby is not going to be born, hence (10) becomes ungrammatical.

5. Conclusion

Summarizing, from the above observations, this paper will argue the “habitat segregation” (cf. Hanazaki 2007) of each verb as Table5;

	Pregnancy	Giving birth	Possession
have	⟶	⟶	⟶
get	●		
beget			⟷
bear	⟶	⟶	

Table5. “Habitat Segregation” of Four Verbs

Verbs of *have* and *bear* include the process of pregnancy. Verb *have* indicates all the process from pregnancy to after giving birth, so progressive form of *have* and *bear* are available. Verb *get* indicates the moment of pregnancy, for the progressive form of *get* is not possible. Verb *beget* covers the time after giving birth to present days, for the progressive form of *beget* is not possible. Verb *bear* indicates process of pregnancy to after giving birth, for not available for progressive form.

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The Continuous Relationship among Descriptive Sentence, Locative Inversion and Prepositional Subject Construction

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1. Introduction

In the literature, it is often argued that *there*, PP, and *have* are similar in meaning. For example, they can be used in existential sentences in English, i.e., *There*-Construction, Descriptive Sentence, Existential-*have* as exemplified in (1).

(1) a. There are some maps on the table.
b. Some maps are on the table.
c. The table has some maps on it. (Nakau&Nishimura 1998: 55)

These sentences describe the same situation but of course their meanings should not be the same according to the notion of "iconicity" (Bolinger 1977). Nakau & Nishimura(1998) characterizes the three constructions as follows:

(2) a. *There*-Construction indicates that some entity exists in the conceptual domain.
b. Descriptive Sentence indicates that some entity exists in the domain of eyesight.
c. Existential *have* indicates a sort of experience. (ibid.: 69) (translation mine)

They also differ in the grammar; (1b) and (1c) can be inverted as (3a) (3b) respectively, while we cannot make the inverted sentence from (1c) as can be seen in (3c).

(3) Locative Inversion (henceforth LI)
a. On the table there are some maps.
b. On the table are some maps. (ibid.: 55)
c. *On it has the table some maps[13].

(4) shows another difference between *have* and PP.

(4) Preposition Subject Sentence (henceforth PS Construction[14])
a. Under the bed is the place where we used to leave the keys for the boys.
(Huddleston and Pullum 2002: 647)
b. From my house to the station is a good walk. (Arimura 1987: 22)
c. *Under the bed has the place where we used to leave the keys for the boys.
d. *From my house to the station has a good walk.

[13] We could not find the sentences like (3c) in COCA (Corpus of Contemporary American English).
[14] (4c) and (4d) are judged as ungrammatical sentences based on COCA. COCA does not give example sentences such as (4c) and (4d).

Observing (1) (3) and (4), we can see the following two points; firstly, there are three kinds of expressions denoting location, i.e. Descriptive Sentences, LI, and PS Constructions; and secondly, the words that are used in these 3 constructions, i.e. *there*, *have*, and PP, behave differently. Looking closely at those two points, this paper will clarify the following two points; (A) the differences between LI and PS Constructions; and (B) the meaning of *have* through analyzing why it is unacceptable to use *have* in PS Constructions. And in conclusion, this paper argues, from syntactical, semantic, discourse, and historical perspectives, that the three constructions have their derivational relationships as following: (1) is the prototypical construction among the three, and (3) is derived from (1), and (4) is derived from (3).

2. Theoretical Assumption

In this chapter, we will clarify the theoretical assumption. We will review the previous studies on each construction in chapter 3.

There are two main streams to deal with what the construction is in generative approach (§2.1.1) and cognitive linguistics approach (§2.1.2).

2.1.1 Generative Approach

Generative Grammar argues that speakers generate sentences using the following production system portrayed as Diagram 1.

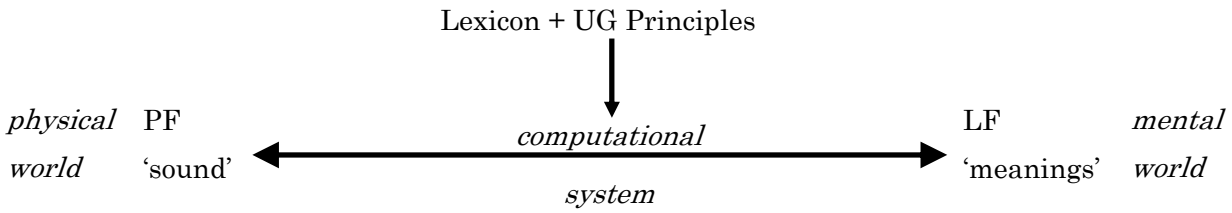

Diagram1: Computational System in Generative Grammar (Cook 2007: 9)

Cook(2007) proposes that "Principles and Parameters Theory captures the bridge between sound and meaning through the technical constructs Phonetic Form (PF), realized as sound sequences, and Logical Form (LF), representations of certain aspects of meaning, connected via the computational system" (ibid.: 7). Also he argues that "the lexicon is the key starting point for a sentence; the principles combine with the properties of the lexical items chosen to yield a representation that is capable of connecting with the sounds and meanings outside the computational systems"(ibid.: 9)

In short, according to this system, meaning is generated in LF, which is independent from grammar.

2.1.2 Cognitive Linguistics Approach

Cognitive linguistics claim, on the other hand, that constructions themselves have some meaning just like lexical items. Goldberg proposes Construction Grammar and argues that;

(5) since constructions are treated as the same basic data type as morphemes, that they should have polysemous senses like morphemes is expected. (ibid.: 32)

Cognitive Linguistics does not consider semantics and syntax as separate systems. For instance, Langacker (2008) characterizes the subject role integrating semantics with syntax. Subject has primary focal prominence and the subject position codes the head of a profiled action chain. Following this analysis, this paper takes the same position as theirs and argues that not only semantics but also even syntax are based on human cognition.

3. The Relations among the Three Constructions

In this chapter, we will argue that the three constructions (Descriptive Sentence, LI and PS Construction) form a continuum. We will support this argument by discourse (§3.1), semantic (§3.2), syntactic (§3.3), and historical (§3.4) approaches.

3.1 Discourse Approach

This section shows that these three constructions form a continuum on the basis of information status, that is, old information and new information. Prince (1981) argues, according to Ward&Birner (1993), that information status must be argued. Let us examine each construction from this perspective, i.e. whether the information is old or new.

3.1.1 Descriptive Sentence

Tomoshige (2009) based on Nakau and Nishimura (1998) characterizes the Descriptive Sentence as follows.

(6) a. A subject nominal is new information.
b. The described entity is either in our eyesight, or evoked vividly in the conceptualizer.
(Tomoshige 2009: 138)

His analysis falls short in two respects; firstly, not all the nominal are new information; secondly, his analysis is restricted to the subject. We must also analyze the following NP. Let us look at the following example;

(7) The door opens. It's Pablo, wanting to know what's up. We fill him in. He comes over the divan and we glance around, disconcerted. ***A boy is in the girl's bathroom***. (COCA)
(8) My hands are red with blood. ***The dog is in my arms***. (COCA)

In (7), the subject is new while PP is old, but in (8), both the nominal and PP are old.

We can conclude from these sentences that the subject NP can be old or new, but the following PP old only.

3.1.2 Locative Inversion

Birner (1995) characterizes the LI as (10) and gives (11) as an example.

(9) "the proposed constituent represents discourse-old information, while the postposed constituent represents discourse-new information…" (ibid: 237)

(10) We have complimentary soft drinks, coffee, Sanka, tea, and milk. ***Also complimentary is red and white wine***. (ibid: 237)

The bolded *Complimentary* is old information while *red and white wine* is new information. The following (11) and (12) serve as other examples;

(11) Now this is her, curbside at the airport in Frankfurt-am-Main. ***Behind her is a pile of eight oversized mismatched suitcases.*** (COCA)

(12) The view was spectacular, magical. From the left the river approached from the distant Pamir Mountains, out sight over the horizon. To the right were the city sports complex and the river promenade. ***Across the river were a few scattered buildings with the empty steppe looming beyond.*** (COCA)

Hence, we can see the validity of Birner (1995)'s arguments, and can argue that the head PPs are old information while the following NP is new information.

3.1.3 PS Constructions

No studies that I have come across analyze the information status of PS Constructions. We will analyze the following examples from this perspective;

(13) Dinner was a disaster. Few of the saurs could eat, and those who did ate very little. ***After dinner wasn't much better.*** No games. No music. No video. (COCA)

(14) The console itself is handsome, with all electronics arrayed conveniently. ***Under the console is a large stowage space that also gives access to the instrument***. (COCA)

Both subject PPs are old information while the following NPs are new information.]

3.1.4 Continuous Relationship among the Three

We can summarize §3.1.1 to §3.1.3 as Table 1 below;

	(i) Descriptive Sentence	(ii) Locative Inversion	(iii) PS Construction
head	NEW/OLD	OLD	OLD
following element	OLD	NEW	NEW

Table1: Information Status of Each Construction

Looking closely at the relationship between (i) and (ii), we can say (ii) is derived from (i) by inversion; when the head is new and the following element is old, (i) is inverted into (ii). As for the relationship between (ii) and (iii) we can argue that they do not differ in information status, hence another approach is needed to clarify the relationship which we will conduct in 3.2.

3.1 has shown that the two constructions, (i) and (ii), are continuous.

3.2 Syntactic Approach

This section investigates on the continuous relationship between the LI and PS Construction from a syntactic perspective. We will observe the subjecthood through the following 6 operations, namely, (I) tag question, (II) raising, (III) the subject function beyond the conjunction, (IV) auxiliary shorted form, (V) Subject Auxiliary Inversion, and (VI) number agreement.

3.2.1 Locative Inversion Sentence

Applying 6 tests for evaluating the subjecthood, (I) (II) (III) show that the PP has the subject character, while (IV) (V) (VI) show that PP has a filler character.

First, applying (I), i.e. making the tag question, we can see LI has the character of subject. the proforms of the NPs, *the garden* and *the ocean*, occur in the end of the sentences respectively, as seen in (15).

(15) a. In the garden is a beautiful statue, isn't **there**?
b. In the ocean are whales, aren't **there**? (Bowers 1976: 237)
c. *In the garden is a beautiful statue, isn't **it**? (Chan 2001: 125)

(15c) is ungrammatical in which the nominative proform is in the end of the LI. We will come back to the proform differences of *there* and *it* in 3.3.

Second, applying (II) i.e., raising, we see the PP in LI has the subjecthood. The NP in (16b) behaves the same function as the PP in (16a) in raising construction.

(16) a. A portrait of our founder$_i$ is likely to ____$_i$ be hung on this wall.
b. On this wall$_i$ is likely to ____$_i$ be hung a portrait of our founder.
(Bresnan 1994: 108)

Next, applying (III) we can see the head PP of LI works as the subject beyond the conjunction, hence PP has the subject aspect.

(17) a. [In that garden]$_i$ stands an elegant fountain and dwells an interesting dwarf _____$_i$.
b. *[In that garden]$_i$ stands an elegant fountain and an interesting dwarf dwells__$_i$.
(Chan 2001: 125)

Applying (I), (II) and (III) reveals that the head PP has the subject functions, however applying (IV), (V) and (VI) shows the head PP has the filler function.

(IV), i.e., the shorted form of auxiliaries may not occur with the PP in LI.

(18) *In San Joes's a great restaurant. (Kaisse 1985: 40)

Also, (V) i.e., the Subject Aux Inversion does not apply to LI as well.

(19) a. Do you remember? *Did on the wall hang a Mexican serape?
b. *Was among the ruins found a skeleton? (Bresnan 1994: 108)

Lastly, applying (VI) we can see that verbs do not agree with the head PP but with the following NP.

(20) a. Down through the hills and into the forest *flow/flows the little brook.
b. Under the bed and in the fireplace are/*is not the best combination of places to leave your toys. (Levine 1989: 1015)

The above tests from (IV) to (VI) show that the head PP of the LI does not only have the subject function but also the filler function.

3.2.2 PS Construction

The PS Constructions share some characteristics with the LI but not all. All the six tests give positive results, hence we can say the PP's in PS Construction has the subject characteristics. Specifically, all the operations apply to this construction. The following (21)-(26) are the results of applying the six tests to the PP's in PS construction.

(21) a. Under the bed is a good place to hide, isn't **it**?
b. On Wednesday and on Friday will be fine, won't **they**? (Iwasaki 2007: 111)
(22) Under the bed$_i$ seems to_____$_i$ be a good hiding place. (Chametzky1985: 31)
(23) Under the bed is a good hiding place and a good sleeping place.
(24) Under the rug's the safest spot. (Matsubara 2003: 137)
(25) Is under the bed a good place to hide? (Matsubara 2009: 137)
(26) Under the bed and under the table are (*is) good for sleeping. (Arimura 1987:22)

From the above, we can safely say that the head PP of PS Construction has only the subject function.

3.2.3 Summary of the Syntactic Characterizations of Locative Inversion and PS Construction

Syntactic Operations	Locative Inversion	PS Construction
Tag Question	○(*there*)	○(Nominative form)
Subject Raising	○	○
Beyond the Conjunction	○	○
Auxiliary shorted form	×	○
Subject-Auxiliary Inversion	×	○
Number Agreement	Following NP	Head PP

Table 2: Summary of Syntactic Behaviors of LI and PS

Table 2 shows that the head PP of LI has both of the functions of subject and filler, but the head of PS Construction has only the subject function from a syntactic perspective. In other words, the head PP of PS Constructions is more grammaticalized and the LI one is on the way of being grammaticalized.

3.3 Semantic Approach

This section will see that the LI and PS Construction are in the continuous relationship from a semantic approach using Izutsu (1999). Izutsu (1999) characterizes participant, location and setting as (27) to (29).

(27) Setting properties: (A) to be global region, (B) within which an event unfolds or a situation obtains, (C) to be inclusive region, and (D) to be stable.
Participant prototype is characterized by (G) participating in a relationship, (H) to be small, (I) to be mobile, (J) to interact with one another, and (K) to occupy portions of a setting (locations)...
A location prototype is characterized by two properties: (E) to be any portion or "fragment" of the setting and (F) to be occupied by a participant. (D) and (G) should also be counted as properties characteristic of the location prototype [sic.] (ibid..:14)

(28) PARTICIPANT (A) (B) (C) (D) (E) (F) (G) (H) (I) (J) (K)

(29) LOCATION (A) (B) (C) (D) (E) (F) (G) (H) (I) (J) (K)

Using this characterization, we can see whether the head PP of each construction is close to participant or location. Let us see (30) and (31) as sentence representative of LI and PS respectively.

(30) On the table are some maps. (= LI)

(31) John: I think under the bed is a favorite place for cats. But strangely enough your cat does not like the place.

Mary: Really? Under the bed pleased my cat two weeks ago. (= PS Constrcution)

(Iwasaki 2007: 114)

The PP's in both examples are stable, hence both has (D). we can also see (F) to be occupied by a participant and (G) participating in a place relationship of the two: *the table* and *some maps* in (30) and *the bed* and *the key* in (31). LI and PS both have the characteristics of (D), (F) and (G), but besides them, PS has another character. The verb in (31) is a transitive verb, which fact shows that the PP and the object, i.e., my cat, has a transitive relationship, hence (J).

We can summarize the difference as below. The circle with bold lines represents prototype and the circle with a solid line represents peripheral in participant role.

(32) Locative Inversion	(A)	(B)	**(D)**	(E)	**(G)**	(H)	(J)
(30)		(C)		**(F)**		(I)	(K)
(33) PS Construction	(A)	(B)	**(D)**	(E)	**(G)**	(H)	(J)
(31)		(C)		**(F)**		(I)	(K)

Comparing these two constructions, the LI only has the locative elements while the PS has locative and participant elements. From this observation, we can say these two constructions have a continuous relationship.

We can support the continuity of the two constructions using the difference of proform in the tag question. I will show the examples (15a) and (21a) again, this time as (34a) and (34b).

(34) a. In the garden is a beautiful statue, isn't **there**? (= 15a)

b. Under the bed is a good place to hide, isn't **it**? (= 21a)

The proform of the head PP is *there*, which represents location (34a), while the proform of the subject PP is *it* , which represents an entity (34b).

3.4 Historical Approach

A historical explanation supports our on-going argument. According to Visser (1963), first appearances of the 6 constructions we saw at the beginning in this paper can be shown in Table 3.

Form	First appearances
There are some maps on the table[15].	Middle English
Some maps are on the table[16].	Old English
The table has some maps on it.	Old English
On the table there are some maps.	Middle English
On the table are some maps[17].	N/A
From my house to the station is a good walk.	Present English

Table 3: First Appearance of Each Construction (According to Visser 1963)

From Table 3, we can be sure that (1) is the oldest compared to (3) and (4), hence argue that (1) is the origin of the derivation.

4. *Have*

We have so far clarified the continuous relationship among the three constructions.

(35) a. The table has the place to hide.
b. *On the table has the place to hide.

The table represents some location where *a book* is located in (36a). *On* changes an entity to location. *The table* itself can represent an entity or a location so *on* is not needed in (36b).

§3.2 to §3.3 reveal that the head PP of PS Constructions is grammaticalized and close to subject. According to this, *have* would be used in PS Constructions in the future.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, from the syntactic, semantic, discourse and historical analyses, this paper has discussed the difference of Descriptive Sentences, Locative Inversion Sentences, and PS Constructions, and revealed the relationship among them, and presented the meaning of *have* through analyzing why *have* does not appear in PS Constructions.

[15] The form of *there*-construction itself exists in OE. *There* functions as a deictic expression differently from it in the current *there*-construction because it did not get grammaticalized yet in OE.
[16] This form did not exist in OE but the same conception of "existence" was used as in Present English.
[17] The form of locative inversion itself exists in OE where case markers were used. But we could not find the inversion sentences having the same functions as in Present English.

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