

# Functions of the Verb “Have” in Present-day English

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## **ABSTRAKT**

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá možnými funkcemi a použitím slovesa “have” v současném anglickém jazyce. Hlavním cílem práce je popsat a porovnat dva typy konstrukcí, kdy se “have” chová buď jako sloveso pomocné nebo lexikální. V této práci jsou také zmíněny rozdíly mezi britskou a americkou angličtinou.

Klíčová slova: pomocné sloveso, lexikální sloveso, operator, *have got*, *have got to*, *had better*, dynamické sloveso, kauzativní sloveso, stavové sloveso, *have to*, *do-support*

## **ABSTRACT**

This bachelor thesis deals with possible functions and uses of the verb “have” in present-day English. The main aim of this work is to describe and compare two types of constructions, where “have” acts either as auxiliary or lexical verb. This bachelor thesis also gives a comment on the differences between British and American English.

Keywords: auxiliary, lexical verb, operator, *have got*, *have got to*, *had better*, dynamic verb, causative verb, stative verb, *have to*, *do-support*

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# CONTENTS

<b>INTRODUCTION</b> .....	<b>9</b>
<b>1 THE ETYMOLOGY OF THE VERB “HAVE”</b> .....	<b>11</b>
<b>2 VERBS</b> .....	<b>13</b>
2.1 Auxiliary Verbs .....	15
2.1.1 The Concept of OPERATOR .....	17
2.2 Lexical Verbs .....	20
<b>3 AUXILIARY VERB “HAVE”</b> .....	<b>22</b>
3.1 Perfective “have” .....	22
3.1.1 Adverb Position Phenomenon.....	27
3.2 On the Use of Auxiliary “have got” .....	28
3.3 On the Use of Auxiliary “have got to” .....	29
3.4 On the Use of Auxiliary “had better” .....	31
<b>4 LEXICAL VERB “HAVE”</b> .....	<b>34</b>
4.1 Dynamic “have” .....	34
4.1.1 Eventive “have” .....	34
4.1.2 Causative “have” .....	36
4.2 Stative “have” .....	37
4.3 “Have to” .....	40
4.3.1 “Have to” vs. “Have got to” .....	42
<b>CONCLUSION</b> .....	<b>44</b>
<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY</b> .....	<b>46</b>
<b>LIST OF ABBREVIATION</b> .....	<b>48</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES</b> .....	<b>49</b>
<b>LIST OF FIGURES</b> .....	<b>50</b>



## INTRODUCTION

It is widely accepted that the verb “*have*” belongs to the group of primary verbs, along with the verbs “*be*” and “*do*”. These three words are, according to the Word frequency and collocates data from the Corpus of Contemporary American English, the most frequently used verbs in English language. (COCA 1990-2012).

The verb “*have*” is said to acquire different functions and meanings in the particular context. One may also say that various interpretations of the primary verb “*have*” are determined by grammatical relations or circumstances in the sentence. Ritter and Rosen (Lingua 1997, 295) stated that “*have* lacks lexically specified semantic content” therefore, it must be determined post-lexically to gain specific meaning. To determine its meaning in the sentence we must mainly focus on the relation between subject and predicate.

In spite of the fact that the verb “*have*” is one of the most frequent verbs in English, the approaches towards its analysis vary in different linguistic sources and gives various interpretation of its usage and functions. Hence, the purpose of this bachelor thesis is to provide a comprehensive analysis including all possible functions and uses of the verb “*have*”. According to Quirk and others (2004, 129), the verb “*have*” belongs to the group of primary verbs and it can be divided by the properties, which it shows in the syntactic process. It can either act as an auxiliary or as a main lexical verb. Another division can be seen in The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 111), where “*have*” is divided into the Perfect, Dynamic, Stative and the idiom “*have got*”. In the pages that follow, it will be demonstrated that these two divisions are basically the same, although the titles are different. This thesis will be mainly organized according to Quirk’s basic division.

The etymological perspective of the verb “*have*” will be introduced in the first chapter. The auxiliary and lexical verbs will be firstly discussed in general, in order to give the basis for the interpretation of the verb “*have*”. Subsequently, it will continue on the examination of the auxiliary and lexical verb “*have*”. In each chapter there will be examples of different uses and functions of the verb “*have*”. In each section, there will be also determined the formations of negations, questions, question tags and contractions. Furthermore, there are some differences between British and American English use of the verb “*have*”. The examples of these differences will be included. This bachelor thesis is not divided into multiple parts, in order to provide the comprehensive analysis. The occurrence of the verb

“*have*” is described with respect to its syntactic function and semantic function explicitly in the theoretical part.

## 1 THE ETYMOLOGY OF THE VERB “HAVE”

This chapter will briefly introduce the verb *have* from the historical point of view. When discussing a verb, we should consider its history, development and correspondences with other allied words to clearly understand its behavior. It is important to bear in mind that human language is continuously changing and it is as well variable in anytime. Therefore the verb *have* was changing through the history to its contemporary form. As a consequence of the constant change I would like to stress the word contemporary. It is most likely that the verb *have* and its functions how we know them today, will continue to change with time.

According to Kleins's Comprehensive Etymological Dictionary of the English Language (1966) the verb *have* has Germanic origin. Germanic origin is supported by the fact that Old English, Old Saxon, Old Norse, Old Frisian, Old High German, Middle Low German and Gothic had semantically and morphologically similar forms of this verb. The table below illustrates historical correspondences of the verb *have* in previously stated languages.

Table 1.1 Historical correspondences of the verb "have"

<b>Old English</b>	habban
<b>Old Saxon</b>	hebbian
<b>Old Norse</b>	hafa
<b>Old Frisian</b>	hebba
<b>Old High German</b>	habên
<b>Middle Low German</b>	hebben
<b>Gothic</b>	haban

Source: (Klein 1966, have)

The gradual change of the form *habb-* to the form *hav-* was completed in the Middle English. (Klein 1966, have). However, as the language change takes time to occur at all levels of language the *habb-* form was still remaining in some colloquial and dialectal

varieties in the Middle English. (“have, v.” The Oxford English Dictionary. 2nd. ed. 1989)<sup>1</sup>. According to Labov’s (1972b, 178- 180) investigation we can consequently agree that this linguistic change from *habben* to *haven* in the Middle English was led from above, which means that the linguistic change firstly appeared in formal language and into the informal language was brought about consciously. From the semantic point of view the original sense of *have*, that time *habban*, stood for the meaning “to hold (in hand)” and thus it was merely the verb of action in the Old English. (Klein 1966, have) According to the Historical Thesaurus of the OED, lately the verb passed into the new meaning “possess” (to hold in possession), thus it extended to express the static relation between the possessor and possessed noun. Specifically, it stood for the static relation between subject and object. (“have, v.” The Oxford English Dictionary. 2nd. ed. 1989).

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<sup>1</sup> The letter “v” signify that “have” is a verb.

## 2 VERBS

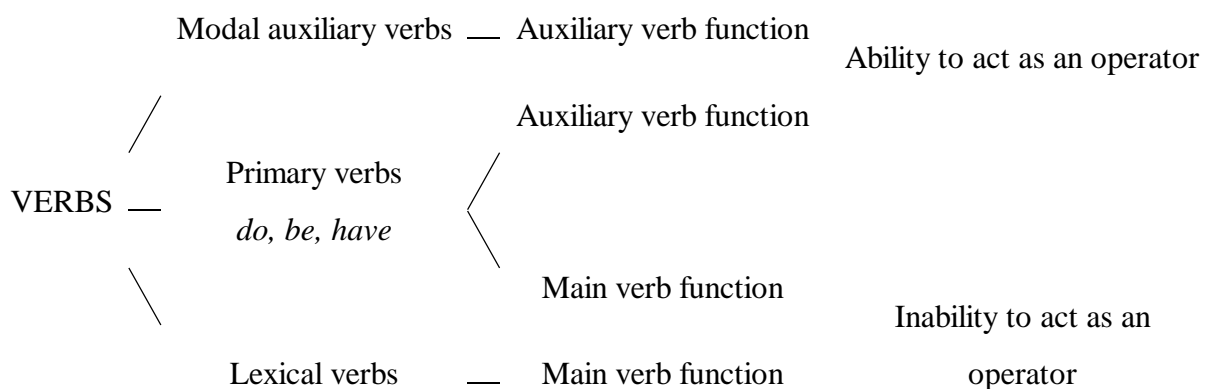
Throughout this thesis, the term “verb” is used repeatedly; therefore it is necessary to clarify exactly what is meant by it. Words are considered as the smallest units of syntax, while sentences as the largest. This can be illustrated by:

- i. *The knife is sharp.*
- ii. *I think the knife is sharp.*
- iii. *I think the knife is sharp, but this bread is too hard to cut.*

We can say that “*The knife is sharp*” is a sentence exclusively in [i.], but in [ii.] and [iii.] it is solely a part of a sentence in other words, clause. Generally speaking clause is a syntactic unit which comprises subject and predicate, where the verb is the element or one of the elements of predicate. In other words, predicate modifies the subject, since it contains the verb and combination of object, complement and adverbial. In view of this fact, verb is seen as the syntactically most important unit because it is the head of the verb phrase; which occurs in the predicate.

In this thesis I will follow the definition of the verb given by Quirk and others (2004, 96), who divides verbs as lexical verbs, primary verbs and auxiliary modals. The primary verbs *do*, *be* and *have* are special class, which can act function as an auxiliary or as a main verb. Therefore if the verb *have* is referred as an auxiliary, it means the primary verb in auxiliary verb function. On the other hand, if the verb *have* is referred as lexical, it means the primary verb in the main verb function. The following graph illustrates this point clearly:

Figure 2.1 Major verb classes



Source: (Quirk and others 2004, 96–135)

In another sense verb is also considered as a member of a word class. A relation between these two senses is demonstrated by Greenbaum and Quirk (1990, 24) as following: A verb phrase may be formed by one or more verbs; the verb phrase functions as the verb in a clause.<sup>2</sup> The examples bellow illustrates this relation.

- i. *believed; is pushing; has been made; has owned*
- ii.
  - a. *She **believed** in fairy tales.*
  - b. *John **is pushing** me away.*
  - c. *The result **has been made** available.*
  - d. *He **has owned** the restaurant.*

On the one hand, the figure [i] shows a VP consisting of one or more verbs as a member of a word class, generally called ‘parts of speech’, whereas the figure [ii-a. b. c. d.] illustrates the **verb** or the **VP** as the element of a predicate.

Quirk and others (2004, 96) divided verbs as members of a word class according to their function in the VP into three classes. These major verb classes are full verbs, which may also be found under the term lexical verbs; primary verbs and modal auxiliary verbs. The main difference between these classes is in their ability to function as a main or auxiliary verb. The primary verbs *do, be, have* are the only ones which can stand for both functions; either auxiliary or lexical verb function. Whereas modal auxiliaries occur only in auxiliary verb function, and lexical verbs function only as main verbs. Throughout the following chapters I will mainly discuss the structural aspects and uses of lexical and auxiliary verbs. This will form the basis for the subsequent interpretation of the primary verb *have*.

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<sup>2</sup> The abbreviation “VP” will be used to refer to “verb phrase” in the following chapters.

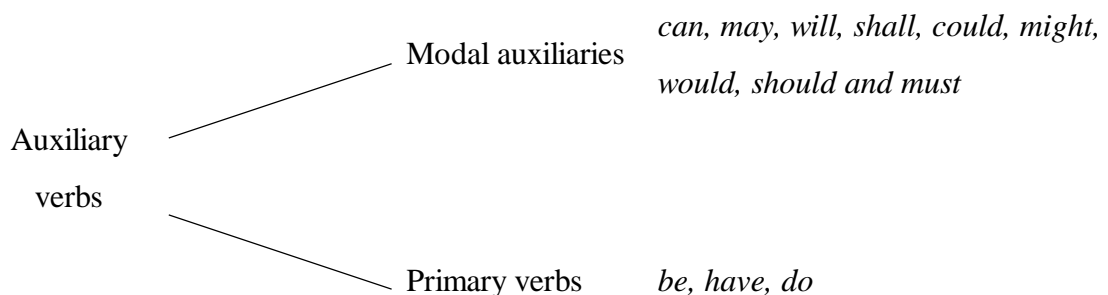
## 2.1 Auxiliary Verbs

In this chapter we will discuss verbs which are capable to act as auxiliaries. Auxiliary verbs belong to the group of closed classed verbs as they are not expected to change or increase in quantity. Auxiliary verbs are as well called “helping verbs”, since they occur in the VP before the lexical verb for the purpose of qualifying lexical verb meaning. In the following example, *have* and *been* are auxiliary verbs and *preparing* is the lexical verb.

- i. *I have been preparing myself to tell you my entire mind.*

In the sentence above, *have* has the function of finite operator because it is in the position of the first auxiliary verb; and *been* stands for the outgoing process (The position of operator is discussed further below). There are considerable differences between grammatical behavior of auxiliaries and lexical verbs. In addition, there are likewise differences among the group of auxiliary verbs. We can distinguish two major sub-classes; modal auxiliaries and primary verbs. The following graph gives examples of primary and modal auxiliaries that we have been discussing.

Figure 2.2 Auxiliary verbs



Source: (Quirk and others 2004, 120)

As the graph shows, there are only three non-modal primary verbs: *be*, *do* and *have*. These three verbs are, according to the Corpus of Contemporary American English, the most common verbs in English. (COCA 1990-2012). In spite of the fact that these three primary verbs can function both as main and as auxiliary verbs, they differ from each other according to their contributions to the verb phrase. Quirk and others (2004, 120) identifies different

contributions of primary verbs to the VP. The verb *be* contributes to the aspect and voice. On the other hand the verb *have* contributes only to the aspect. The helping verb *do* applies only to the use as an “empty” operator in negative imperative clauses, in questions with the requirement of subject-operator inversion, question tags, emphatic constructions and reduced clauses; where there is not the semantic requirement for any other operator to participate in clause. (Quirk and others 2004, 133-134) As previously mentioned, the fact that primary verbs can act both as lexical or auxiliary verb, makes them a separate class. For instance, see the different uses of all three primary verbs in the following examples.

- i. Primary verbs in **auxiliary** verb function.<sup>3</sup>
  - a. I **have** spoken to my mum about my brother.
  - b. Birds **were** flying above my head.
  - c. It **doesn't** sound right.
- ii. Primary verbs in **lexical (main)** verb function.
  - a. To be, or not to be, that is the question.
  - b. She **doesn't** have a broken leg.
  - c. I **could** do better.

Finally the modal auxiliary verbs, like *could*, *should*, *might*, etc.; can function only as first auxiliary verb in the sentence. This ability will be further discussed under the term operator. See the examples below:

- i. I **could** be wrong.
- ii. I **should** spend more time with you.
- iii. He **might** be in trouble.

They are called modal auxiliaries because of their contribution of meanings in the area known as modality, including such concepts as volition, probability and obligation (Quirk and others 2004, 120). In consequence of the fact that *have to* is used to express certainty, obligation and necessity, it might be in some sources grouped with modal auxiliary verbs for

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<sup>3</sup> The main verb is underlined.



convenience. Even that the semantic resemblance between *have to* and *must* is provable, the syntactic structure differs. This issue will be covered later in the chapter 3.2.

### 2.1.1 The Concept of OPERATOR

In this chapter we will discuss the syntactic property of auxiliary verbs called operator. As previously stated the function of auxiliary verbs differs in verb phrases, on the other hand there is one syntactic function that these auxiliary verbs share in common. All the auxiliary verbs are able to occur as operators. In the Longman Student Grammar of Spoken and Written English, Biber and others (2002, 238) defines the operator as a verb, which is used for forming a clause negation or interrogative clauses.<sup>4</sup> “In English the V position is to be divided into a ‘Mod/Aux + V<sub>Lex</sub>’ complex. In some sources we may as well find the definition ‘Ω position’ [omega position].” (Veselovská and Emonds 2011, 83). However, to keep this thesis clear I will use the expression **operator**. To form an interrogative clause/question [ii.] we use the subject-operator inversion, therefore the first verb of the VP will appear before the subject. To create a negative question [iii.], we place the particle *not* behind the operator. For example:

- i. *I **have** been told to calm down.*
- ii. ***Have** I been told to calm down?*
- iii. *I **have not** been told to calm down.*

A situation can appear where there is no operator in positive declarative sentence. In this case, when we want to create interrogative (question) or negative construction, the verb *do* is used. In this situation “the verb DO is introduced as a ‘dummy’ auxiliary to perform the function of operator.” (Quirk and others 2004, 80) This situation called do-support can be seen in following examples:

- i. Declarative sentences
  - a. *They like to know me.*
  - b. *He tried to point out the problem*

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<sup>4</sup> An interrogative clause is a sentence, which asks a question.

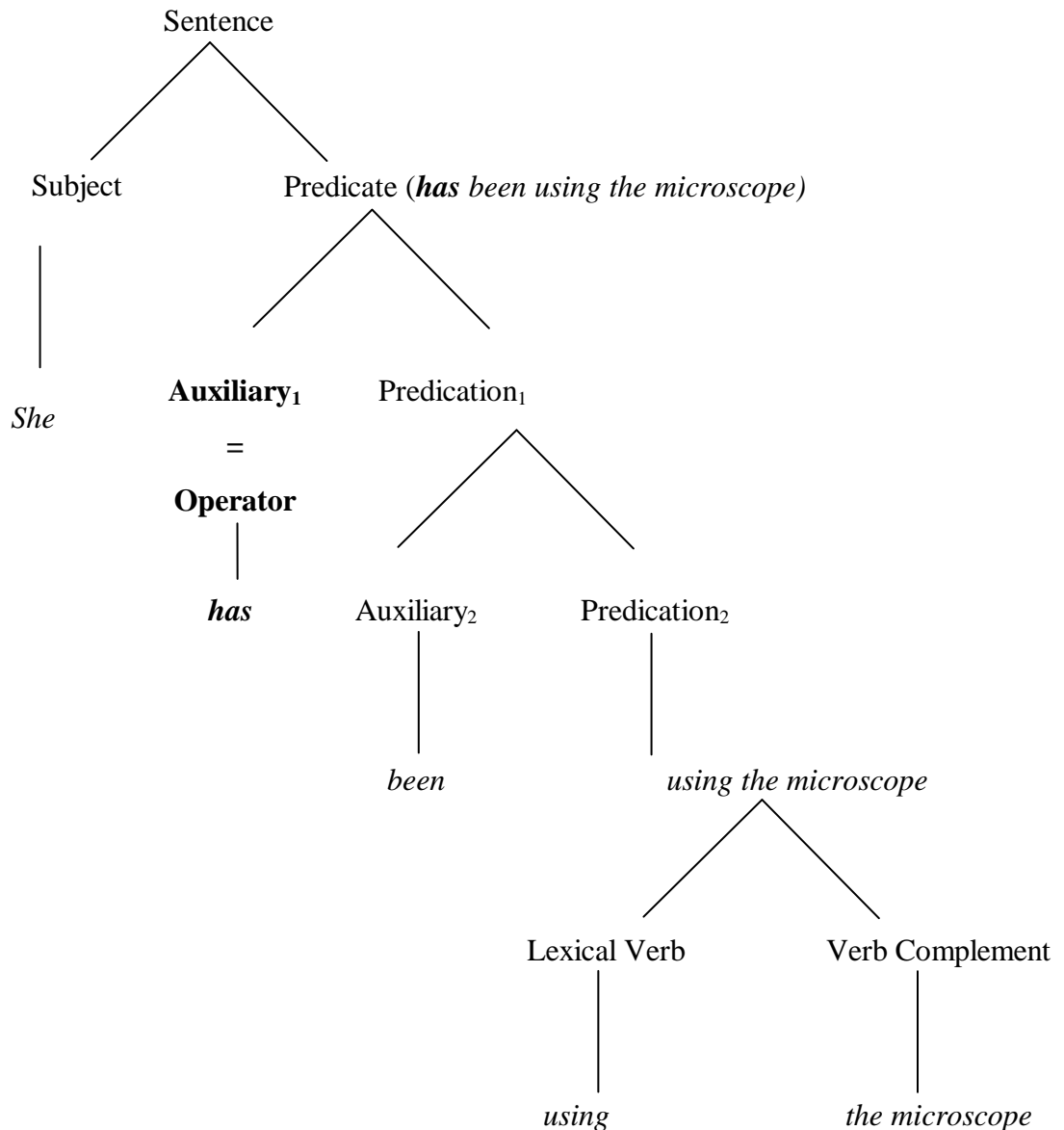
- c. His sister works as a nurse.
- ii. Negative sentences
- a. They **do not** like to know me.
- b. He **did not** try to point out the problem.
- c. His sister **does not** work as a nurse.
- iii. Interrogative sentences
- a. **Do** they like to know me?
- b. **Did** he try to point out the problem?
- c. **Does** his sister work as a nurse?

As can be seen from previous examples the operator *do* represents number, person and tense instead of the main verb. We already mentioned *do*, *be* and *have* may function as main verb. In the examples below the verb *be* occurs as a lexical verb [i.], however in negative sentences [ii.] and questions [iii.] it still function as an operator (Quirk and others 2004, 81):

- i. Declarative sentences
- a. Eric is an artist.
- b. Everyone is very tense.
- ii. Negative sentences
- a. Eric is not an artist.
- b. Everyone is not very tense.
- iii. Interrogative sentences
- a. Is Eric an artist?
- b. Is everyone very tense?

The following diagram will analyze the complex VP of *She has been using the microscope.*; in order to better understand the structure of sentence. In this example there can be seen a verb phrase consisting of first auxiliary, which function as an operator; second auxiliary verb; lexical verb, which function as a main verb and the complement of the main verb. The reason why *the microscope* is in this clause the verb complement is obvious, since the sentence would be grammatically incorrect without it. It is inspired by Quirk and others (2004, 121) analysis of the complex verb phrase.

Figure 2.3 Sentence analysis



Source: (Quirk and others 2004, 121)

It can be seen from the structure in Table 4 that the first auxiliary verb of the VP, is separated from the rest of predication. For the purpose of the following analysis of the verb *have*, it is important to note that “*be* and *have* also have this function [operator] as main verbs, the term operator will also be used for them...” (Quirk and others 2004, 120) The construction of the main verb *have* as an operator will be discussed in Chapter 3.2. The specific properties for the syntactic function of the operators have been summarized by

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 92) under the acronym NICE (NICCEE), which stands for: Negation, Inversion, Coda, (Contraction), Emphasis and (Ellipsis). Table 4 presents the specific properties of the first auxiliary verb position:

Table 2.1 Auxiliary/Operator Criteria

<b>AUXILIARY/OPERATOR CRITERIA</b>	<b>USE OF THE CRITERIA</b>	<b>EXAMPLE</b>
<b>Negation</b>	particle <i>not</i> is placed behind the operator	<i>They <b>have</b> <u>not</u> been sleeping the whole day.</i>
<b>Inversion</b>	operator inverts with subject to create a question	<i><b>Did</b> you go away?</i>
<b>Coda</b>	operator is used for question tags, or question of surprise as reaction	<i>Lucy <b>must</b> fill the papers, <b>mustn't</b> she? – <b>Must</b> she?</i>
<b>Contraction</b>	operator contracts	<i>have » 've, am » 'm, <b>mustn't</b>, <b>won't</b>, <b>haven't</b>, etc.</i>
<b>Emphasis</b>	operator carry the polarity to emphasize a finite clause (positive or negative)	<i><b>Won't</b> you try to speak to her? <b>Yes, I will</b> speak to her.</i>
<b>Ellipsis</b>	operator can function in reduced constructions	<i>He <b>doesn't</b> like my haircut, <b>but I do.</b> /like my haircut/</i>

Having briefly described the syntactic properties of the auxiliary in operator function, it is now possible to analyze these properties within the primary verb *have*.

## 2.2 Lexical Verbs

As we stated previously, language is continuously changing. This means that the group of lexical verbs is an open group, where new words enter the English language, while others disappear. As previously claimed, lexical verbs operate only as main verbs. Main verbs are able to stand alone as the complete verb phrase [i.], whereas auxiliary verbs appear together with some main verb to form a complete verb phrase [ii.]. (Biber 2007, 358). See the examples below:

- i. *He* [<sub>VP</sub> *runs* [<sub>PP</sub> *into* [<sub>NP</sub> *the cold water*]]].
- ii. *He* [<sub>VP</sub> **had run** [<sub>PP</sub> *into* [<sub>NP</sub> *the cold water*]]].

Since the lexical verbs are not able of syntactic changes they need a support of dummy auxiliary *do* (Huddleston and Pullum 2005, 38). According to Quirk and others (2004, 133-134), lexical verbs requires *do*-support in negations, questions, question tags, emphatic constructions and reduced clauses. Note that operator *do* takes the third person singular *-s* form instead the lexical verb. See the examples below:

- i. *He **doesn't run** into the cold water.*
- ii. ***Does he run** into the cold water?*
- iii. *He **runs** into the cold water, **doesn't** he?*
- iv. *He **does run** into the cold water.*
- v. *No one **runs** into the cold water, but he **does**.*

To have a complex verb phrase it is necessary that there is a lexical verb. The lexical verb might be preceded by auxiliary verbs, which add the additional meaning of mood, aspect, voice or form question, negation or emphasis.

On the morphology lexical verbs have different forms for forming person, tense, aspect and voice in the sentence. In English it is possible to distinguish between regular and irregular lexical verbs. According to (Biber 2007, 392) there are three possible suffixes, which can be added to the base of lexical verbs to create four morphological variants. These suffixes are: *-s* or *-es* suffix to create the third person singular present tense; *-ing* suffix to create the progressive aspect and *-ing* participle clauses; *-ed* or *-d* suffix to create the finite form of past tense and past participles. All regular lexical verbs have identical suffixes for creating the morphological variants.

The irregular lexical verbs differ in its morphology in past tense and/or past participle. Therefore the suffix of the past tense and/or past participle is rarely *-ed*.

### 3 AUXILIARY VERB “HAVE”

One of the possible use of the primary verb *have* is as the auxiliary verb. Several analyses were given by linguists, where the verb *have* was divided according to its functions and uses to the auxiliary verb and main (lexical) verb. For instance, Quirk and others (2004, 130) propose that the primary verb *have* can serve as both main verb and auxiliary verb. The identical approach share as well The Electronic Grammar of Contemporary English (Dušková, 2009). This integration brings several advantages while making efforts to understand the uses and functions of *have*, however there are some difficulties which should be considered and beware of. It is widely accepted that auxiliary *have* may or may not function as an operator in the sentence. For example if the auxiliary *have* is preceded by modal auxiliary, than the modal assume function of the operator. In the following chapters I attempt to list possible uses of auxiliary *have*, and introduce the differences between auxiliary and lexical *have*.

#### 3.1 Perfective “have”

There are several differences between the auxiliary *have* and lexical *have*, which should be considered while using this verb. Lexical *have* is not able to function as an operator, whereas *have* as the first auxiliary is; therefore the differences are mainly derived from this statement. In fact lexical *have* differs from auxiliary *have* in these respects:

Table 3.1 Differences between lexical and auxiliary “have”

Lexical <i>have</i>	Auxiliary <i>have</i>
Assigns semantic role <i>Peter <u>has</u> a brother.</i>	Does not assign semantic role <sup>5</sup> <i>Peter <b>has</b> learned how to ride a bike.</i>
Can occur in the VP alone <i>She [<sub>VP</sub> <u>has</u> [<sub>NP</sub> power]].</i>	Occurs together with lexical verb in the VP <i>I [<sub>VP</sub> <b>have</b> stolen [<sub>NP</sub> it]].</i>

<sup>5</sup> If we omit the lexical verb *has* in the first sentence, we will not know if *Peter has a brother* or he *hit, was, kill, etc. a brother*. On the other hand if we omit the auxiliary *had*, we will still understand the semantics of the sentence.

Cannot form the negative itself <i>Peter <b>doesn't</b> <u>have</u> a brother.</i> <i>*Peter has not a brother.</i>	<i>* I stolen it.</i> Forms the negative of a main verb <i>Peter <b>hasn't</b> learned how to ride a bike.</i>
Cannot invert with subject in question <i><b>Does</b> Peter <u>have</u> a brother?</i> <i>*<u>Has</u> Peter a brother?</i>	Inverts with subject in question <i><b>Has</b> Peter learned how to ride a bike?</i>
Cannot be used as coda <i>She <u>has</u> power, <b>doesn't</b> she?</i> <i>*She <u>has</u> power, <u>hasn't</u> she?</i>	Can be used as coda <i>I <b>have</b> stolen it, <b>haven't</b> I?</i>
Is not able to have contract form <i>*Peter'<u>s</u> a brother.<sup>6</sup></i>	Is able to contract in a sentence <i>Peter'<u>s</u> learned how to ride a bike.</i>
Cannot carry the polarity to emphasize a finite clause and function in reduced construction <i>Won't you try to <u>have</u> a baby?</i> <i>Yes, I will.</i> <i>*Yes, I <u>have</u>.</i>	Carry the polarity to emphasize a finite clause and can function in reduced construction <i><b>Have</b> you tried turning it off? Yes, I <b>have</b>.</i>
Cannot be followed by adverb but preceded. <i>Peter probably <u>has</u> a brother.</i>	As the first auxiliary/operator can be followed by an adverb or preceded when emphasize. <i>I <b>have</b> never <u>been</u> in Alaska.</i> <i>I never <b>have</b> <u>been</u> in Alaska.</i>

One difference which has been mentioned above is that *have* in auxiliary function has the ability to act as an operator. Therefore *have* in the function of an operator is able to perform in syntactic processes without the *do*-support. The auxiliary *have* changes in the syntactic process itself. The result of this fact is that questions, question tags and negations are formed without *do*. According to Quirk and others (2004, 130), the auxiliary verb *have* has the property to be contracted. This feature is typical of spoken discourse. Moreover another

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<sup>6</sup> Will be correct if it was the contracted form from *is*.

distinction between lexical and auxiliary verbs has been mentioned in *The Cambridge Grammar of Spoken and Written English* by Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 102), which is the position of auxiliary or lexical verbs in relation to medial adverbs. In order to identify the use and functions of auxiliary *have*, I intend to follow Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 92) criteria, which are known under the acronym NICE. Furthermore, the phenomenon of an adverb position will be discussed in relation to the auxiliary verb *have*.

In the *Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny* Dušková (2009) pointed out that auxiliary verb *have* is used as “helping verb” to make perfective verb forms. For this purpose *have* as an auxiliary is used with past participle.

It is claimed by Dušková (2009) that the perfective verb *have* is used to form:

i. Present perfective aspect and Present perfective progressive aspect

a. The present perfective aspect combines past and present in order to relate the past action to the present moment. For the present perfective aspect the auxiliary *have* appears in the operator position and it is followed by the past participle. According to Quirk and others (2004, 192), the perfective aspect occurs in constructions, which correspond to:

i. State leading up to the present

1. *The pencil **has been lost** for few days.(-but now it has been found)*

ii. Indefinite event(s) in a period leading up to the present

1. ***Have you been married?** (It is not asked for a definite time)*

iii. Habit in a period leading up to the present

1. *Peter **has performed** in this music band as guitarist since he was youth.*

b. The present perfective progressive aspect refers to the action or state, which originated in the past, proceeds to the present and it will most likely proceed into the future. For the present perfective progressive aspect the auxiliary verb *have/has* is in the function of the operator. The operator is followed by the second auxiliary verb *been* together with *-ing* form of lexical verb in the main function.

i. *John **has been searching** for a right woman for a long time.*

ii. *We **have been playing** this game for hours.*



ii. Past perfective aspect and Past perfective progressive aspect

a. According to Quirk and others (2004, 195) the past perfective aspect refers to the action or state anterior to a moment of orientation in the past. For the past perfective aspect the auxiliary verb *have/has* is in its past form *had* in the position of operator and it is followed by the past participle. In comparison with present perfect tense, the past perfect tense can as well occur in constructions, which correspond to:

i. State leading up to past

1. *When I tried to rewrite it, the pencil **had been lost** for few days.*

ii. Indefinite event(s) in a period leading up to past

1. *How long **had you been** married?*

iii. Habit in a period leading up to past

1. *It was unfair to fire him; Peter **had performed** in this music band as a guitarist since he was a youth.*

b. The past perfective progressive aspect refers to the past finished action in progress that preceded some other action in past. For the past perfective progressive aspect the auxiliary verb *have/has* is in its past form *had* in the function of the operator. The operator is followed by the second auxiliary verb *been*, which is used together with *-ing* form of lexical verb in the main function.

i. *When he placed an advertisement in a newspaper, John **had been searching** for a right woman for a long time.*

ii. *When the bell rung, we **had been playing** this game for hours.*

iii. Perfect infinitive and perfect continuous infinitive

a. The perfect infinitive is mostly used along with the 3<sup>rd</sup> conditional sentences. According to Dušková (2009) the perfect infinitive is formed by *to have* followed by past participle. The perfect continuous infinitive is formed by *to have* followed by auxiliary verb *been* and by *-ing* form of lexical verb in the main function.

i. Perfect infinitive

- i. *She would like to **have forgiven** him when he left.*
- ii. Perfect continuous infinitive

1. *My sister seemed to **have been running**.*

While the auxiliary *have* is used as a marker of a perfective aspect, it does not always have to appear in the position of the operator. Consider the following examples:

i. *The pencil<sub>[S]</sub> **has**<sub>[operator]</sub> **been**<sub>[1st AUX]</sub> **lost**<sub>[LEX]</sub> for a few days.*

a. *The pencil<sub>[S]</sub> **might/ could/ must/ may/ etc.**<sub>[operator]</sub> **have**<sub>[1st AUX]</sub> **been**<sub>[2nd AUX]</sub> **lost**<sub>[LEX]</sub> for a few days.<sup>7</sup>*

ii. *We<sub>[S]</sub> **have**<sub>[operator]</sub> **been**<sub>[AUX]</sub> **playing**<sub>[LEX]</sub> this game for hours.*

a. *We<sub>[S]</sub> **might/ could/ must/ may/ etc.**<sub>[operator]</sub> **have**<sub>[1st AUX]</sub> **been**<sub>[2nd AUX]</sub> **playing**<sub>[LEX]</sub> this game for hours.*

It is not necessary for the auxiliary *have* to always be in the position of the operator, particularly when it is preceded by modal auxiliary, for which is inherent to always appear in the position of operator. Regarding to the examples above, according to Greenbaum and Quirk (1990, 42), there is certain hierarchy in the position of different parts of the verb phrase, and consequently in the position of certain auxiliary verbs. This order can be summed up by following table:

Table 3.2 The position of auxiliary verbs

	<b>modal</b>	<b>perfect form of <i>have</i></b>	<b>progressive form of <i>be</i></b>	<b>passive form of <i>be</i></b>	<b>main verb</b>
example	<i>may, could, would, can must, etc.</i>	<i>have</i>	<i>been</i>	<i>being</i>	<i>misunderstood, written, spent, proved, etc.</i>

Source: (Greenbaum and Quirk 1990, 42)

Whereas modals, passives and perfective and progressive aspects are optional elements in the verb phrase, the main verb is obligatory.

### 3.1.1 Adverb Position Phenomenon

This chapter focuses on the phenomenon of adverb position in a verb phrase. Quirk and others (2004, 126) claim that “frequency subjuncts, like *always* or *never*, and disjuncts, like *certainly* or *probably*, typically, but not necessarily, follow auxiliaries as operators, whereas they precede main verbs.” However, they as well claim that it is to a certain extent possible that the position of an adverb precedes the first auxiliary verb when emphasize; but never follows the main verb. Compare:

Figure 3.1 Adverb position phenomenon

John	{	<p style="margin: 0;"><i>has never been searching</i></p> <p style="margin: 0;"><b><i>never</i></b> <i>has been searching</i></p> <p style="margin: 0;">* <i>has been searching never</i></p>	}	<i>for a right woman for a long time.</i>
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Source: (Quirk and others 2004, 126)

From the example above can be seen the adverb position phenomenon within the perfective *have*. In general we may assume that the adverb position phenomenon is an indicator of whether the verb is auxiliary or lexical.

The following three chapters focus on the use of idioms *have got*, *have got to* and *had better*; where *have* is an auxiliary, therefore may function as an operator. The reason for referring these forms as idioms is explained in the following chapter.

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<sup>7</sup> Modal verbs do not take the inflection of the 3rd person singular.

### 3.2 On the Use of Auxiliary “have got”

In this part I will focus on the different usage of auxiliary idiom *have got* and lexical possessive verb *have*. From the semantic perspective these two are alike. See the example below:

- i. They have a nice garden.
- ii. They **have got** a nice garden.

As the examples show, both of these constructions have relatively similar meaning. However if we look closely, we find out that there are two verbs in the second sentence *have* and *got*. In this point we have to note that *have got* is referred as an idiom. According to the definition from Swan (2005, 231), “idioms can be difficult to understand, because its meaning is different from the meanings of the separate words in expression”. In spite of that fact we have to keep in mind that the first verb is an operator, not the whole phrase. Therefore if we examine the idiom *have got* it has basically the same form as simple present perfect construction:

- i. They **have** eaten the entire cake.
  - a. *have* + past participle of *eat*
- ii. They **have got** the entire cake for themselves.
  - a. *have* + past participle of *get*

According to this fact in the expression with *have got*, *have* will be treated as an auxiliary/operator. On the contrary in the expression just with the verb *have*, *have* will be treated as the lexical verb:

Table 3.3 Differences between “*have*” and “*have got*”

	<i>Have</i>	<i>Have got</i>
Positive sentence	They <u>have</u> a garden.	They <b>have got</b> a garden
Negation	They <b>do not</b> <u>have</u> a garden.	They <b>have not got</b> a garden.
	They <b>don't</b> <u>have</u> a garden.	They <b>haven't got</b> a garden.

		<i>They've <u>not got</u> a garden.</i>
Question	<i>Do they <u>have</u> a garden?</i>	<i>Have they <u>got</u> a garden?</i>
	<i>Don't they <u>have</u> a garden?</i>	<i>Haven't they <u>got</u> a garden?</i>
Contracted Forms	* <i>They've a garden.</i>	<i>They've <u>got</u> a garden.</i>

To sum up this chapter, although that the construction *have got* is perfective in its form, it is as the idiom non-perfective in its meaning. (Quirk and others 2004, 131) Therefore, it might be used only as an alternative for possessive *have* or when talking about relations. The difference between the British English and American English in the preferred variety between semantically similar forms *have* and *have got* is explained in chapter 4.2.

### 3.3 On the Use of Auxiliary “have got to”

In this chapter I will focus on the functions and the uses of the idiom *have got to*. Further I will compare its usage with semantically similar lexical construction *have to* and modal auxiliary *must*. These three constructions, *have got to*, *have to* and *must*, can all express modality either epistemic or deontic. Huddleston and Pullum (2005, 54) describe the epistemic modality as a means to express “meanings relating primarily to what is necessary or possible given what we know (or believe)”. Moreover, they describe the deontic modality as a mean to express “meanings relating primarily to what is required or permitted.” (Huddleston and Pullum 2005, 54) See the examples of these types of modalities bellow:

- i. Epistemic modality
  - a. *She **has** got to be jealous.*
  - b. *She has to be jealous.*
  - c. *She **must** be jealous.*
- ii. Deontic modality
  - a. *I **have** got to leave this house.*
  - b. *I have to leave this house.*
  - c. *I **must** leave this house.*

Looking at the examples we can state that from the semantic point of view these three constructions appear to be relatively alike. On the other hand they differ in the syntactic and morphological level. The expression *must* is a clear modal auxiliary, *have to* owns the

properties of a lexical verb and *have got to* is an idiom, where *have* is the operator and *got to* stands for a lexical verb. See the different uses in the following figure:

Table 3.4 Differences between semantic equivalents: “*have got to*”, “*have to*” and “*must*”

	<i>have got to</i>	<i>have to</i>	<i>must</i>
Positive sentence	<i>I <b>have</b> got to leave.</i>	<i>I <b>have</b> to leave.</i>	<i>I <b>must</b> leave.</i>
Negation	<i>I <b>have</b> <u>not</u> got to leave. I <b>haven't</b> got to leave.</i>	<i>I <b>do</b> <u>not</u> have to leave. I <b>don't</b> have to leave.</i>	<i>I <b>must</b> <u>not</u> leave. I <b>mustn't</b> leave.</i>
Question	<i><b>Have</b> I got to leave? <b>Haven't</b> I got to leave?</i>	<i><b>Do</b> I have to leave? <b>Don't</b> I have to leave?</i>	<i><b>Must</b> I leave? <b>Mustn't</b> I leave?</i>
Contraction	<i>I've got to leave.</i>	<i>*I've to leave.</i>	
3 <sup>rd</sup> person singular -s form	<i>She <b>has</b> got to leave. She's got to leave.</i>	<i>She <b>has</b> to leave.</i>	<i>*She <b>musts</b> leave.</i>

Generally, *must* and *have* in the form of *have got to* performs as an operators, without the need of *do*-support; on the other hand *have* in the form of *have to* performs as a lexical verb, which requires *do*-support in negation and question. On the contracted forms, operator *have* in the *have got to* can be contracted, but *have* as a lexical verb in *have to* cannot be contracted. Both forms *have got to* and *have to* share in common the feature of need for -s suffix in the third person singular, which is not possible for *must*.

As stated above the form *have got to* has the contracted form ‘*ve got to*. Moreover, this contraction can expanded even further by dropping the operator *have*, while the *got* and *to* merged together and remain in the sentence as the informal and spoken form *gotta*. This phenomenon, where the operator is dropped, is called medial ellipsis. (Biber and others 2002, 442) The construction with compound *gotta* is considered as grammatically incorrect in the written language; however it may be used in casual conversations in the informal speech, or in very informal types of written language, for instance in chats. In the following examples, we shall look at the full construction *have got to*, the form *got to* with an omitted

operator *have* and the reduced construction *gotta*. Note that the forms *got to* and *gotta* should not appear in the negative constructions and questions without the operator *have*.

- i. *I **have** got to take this opportunity.*
  - a. *I **haven't** got to take this opportunity.*
  - b. ***Have** I got to take this opportunity?*
- ii. *I got to take this opportunity.*
- iii. *I gotta take this opportunity. / I've gotta take this opportunity.*

To point out the specific difference between the usage of the possessive form *have got* and the form of obligation and necessity *have got to* we can follow the definition from Huddleston (2002, 111). He stated that the possessive form of *have got* requires to be followed by direct object, whereas the form *have got to* requires to be followed by an infinitive. Compare:

- i. *They **have** got the opportunity.*
- ii. *They **have** got to take this opportunity.*

Unlike the form *have to* it is not possible to use the form *have got to* in perfect and progressive or in the infinitive due to the fact that it is an operator itself. (Eastwood 2005, 105) Compare:

- i. *Peter was having to go out daily.*
- ii. *\*Peter was having got to go out daily.*
- iii. *It is not a commitment to have to go away.*
- iv. *\*It is not a commitment to have got to go away.*

### 3.4 On the Use of Auxiliary “had better”

This chapter is focused on another idiomatic phrase *had better*. Semantically it can be compared to the modal *should*. The form *had better* is used primarily in order to express a practical, emotional or other reason for doing something and to warn somebody against something. The difference between the usage of a modal *should* and idiom *had better* is that *should* can be used to give advice for both general and particular situation, whereas *had*

*better* should be used for particular situation not to make general comments (Hewings 2002, 44):

- i. Particular situation
  - a. You **had** better fix it, before it falls down.
  - b. You **should** fix it, before it falls down
- ii. General situation
  - a. Teachers **should** teach children how to read.
  - b. \*Teachers had better teach children how to read.

As can be seen in the last sentence, the sentence with *had better* is incorrect, because it is used with the general reference.

According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 113) this idiom can be found in these forms:

- i. I **had** better tell them.
- ii. I **hadn't** better tell them.
- iii. **Had** I better tell them?
- iv. I'd better tell them.
- v. I better tell them.

These examples demonstrates that *had* functions as a clear operator since it occurs as a first auxiliary [i.], it takes the scope of negation [ii.], it inverts in the question [iii.] and it has the reduced form 'd [iv.]. As for the example v. the contraction can be pushed further where only *better* remains. It has been suggested by Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 113) that “this is so common that in non-standard speech (especially that of children) one sometimes hears examples like <sup>1</sup>*We better go in, bettern't we?*, with *better* reanalyzed as itself an auxiliary verb.”<sup>8</sup> This feature where the operator is omitted from the sentence is called medial ellipsis. (Biber and others 2002, 442) See the following examples:

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<sup>8</sup> The *better* cannot function as an operator itself; therefore the question tag form *bettern't* is not possible. The sentence is grammatically incorrect.



- i. You better go home.
- ii. You better come in tomorrow.

Although that the idiom *had better* contains the auxiliary *have* in its past form *had*, the tense do not respond to the actual meaning. We have to be reminded that the form *had better* + infinitive is used to give a strong advice about the present or about the future, not about the past.

## 4 LEXICAL VERB “HAVE”

The verb *have* may function not only as an auxiliary/operator in the sentence structure, but as well as a main lexical verb. To explain all possible ways how the lexical verb *have* functions in the sentence structure I will utilize the approach from Quirk and others (2004, 131). According to his approach, the lexical verb *have* can be divided on the basis of its meaning to the dynamic use of *have* and stative use of *have*. Even though these two uses are both said to be lexical, they differ in some syntactic variations when forming constructions, which requires presence of an operator. In some of these syntactic variations *have* combines with *do-support*; on the other hand it may also act as an operator itself. These differences will be discussed in following chapters. It is not possible to determine whether *have* is dynamic or stative only by looking on the verb itself. This is because *have* has no semantic content when it stands alone. Therefore we have to consider the relation between the subject and the predicate of the sentence to know whether *have* is dynamic or stative.

### 4.1 Dynamic “have”

This part is dedicated to the dynamic use of the lexical verb *have*. The dynamic use refers to cases, where the lexical verb *have* occurs with an eventive object in order to describe some action, event or experience. According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 111) dynamic *have* is a lexical verb in all varieties of English and it occurs in these two senses:

- i. *He had a discussion with teacher.*
- ii. *He had the job done.*

In the first example [i.] the lexical *have* gains the semantic content from the following noun phrase. This use, when the lexical *have* is used with noun phrase describing the action, will be further referred as the “eventive *have*”. In the second example the lexical *have* is used with the direct object and a past-participial complement. This use will be further referred as the “causative *have*”.

#### 4.1.1 Eventive “have”

In this sense lexical *have* refers to the event, which is indicated by the following noun phrase. According to *Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary* (1989, 573), the “eventive”

*have* is used in this respect: [i.] to perform the action for a limited period, [ii.] to consume something, [iii.] to undergo something, [iv.] to experience something and [v.] to give a birth to somebody or something. The examples are illustrated below:

- i. *have a bath/ a run/ a try, etc.*
- ii. *have a breakfast/ a drink/ a croissant, etc.*
- iii. *have an operation, a surgery, an examination, etc.*
- iv. *have a good time, some difficulties, a wonderful morning, etc.*
- v. *have a baby, six puppies, etc.*

To know whether the lexical *have* stands for an event, or for a state, we can easily find out by looking at the basic criteria. When lexical *have* is used as eventive to refer to some action it uses the *do*-support to create negatives [a.], questions [b.] and question tags, etc.; it can never be followed by *got* [c.]; it may appear in the progressive [d.] and in the imperative [e.]. (Thomson and Martinet 1986, 125)

- i. *have a bath/ a breakfast/ an operation/ a good time/ a baby*
  - a. Juliette **didn't** have a bath/ a breakfast/ an operation/ a good time/ a baby.
  - b. **Did** Juliette have a bath/ / a breakfast/ an operation/ a good time/ a baby?
  - c. \* Juliette usually has got a bath/ a breakfast/ an operation/ a good time/ a baby in the morning.
  - d. Juliette **is** having a bath/ a breakfast/ an operation/ a good time/ a baby.
  - e. **Have** a bath! / **Have** breakfast! / **Have** an operation! / **Have** a good time! /  
??**Have** a baby!

Moreover another feature adopted from Jackendoff (1983, 171) is the difference of use of a simple present tense in states and events. He claims that while in states the simple present tense is used commonly, in the events and actions we have to use the progressive aspect in order to express the present tense.<sup>9</sup> Compare:

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<sup>9</sup> It is possible to use simple present tense for events, but only in generic events, future and some less frequent types of speeches like newspaper headlines. (Jackendoff 1983, 171)

- i. Stative lexical *have*
  - a. Peter has a sister.
  - b. Peter has brown hair.
- ii. Dynamic lexical *have*
  - a. Peter is having a party / \* has a party.
  - b. Peter is having a bath / \* has a bath.

Jackendoff (1983, 172) furthermore argues that event expressions can be preceded by the phrase “*what happened was*” in the past tense. From this feature we can easily deduce that if the dynamic *have* is used after the phrase “*what happened was*” than it becomes its complement. This use is not possible with stative *have*. Compare:

- i. Stative lexical *have*
  - a. \**What happened was that Peter had a sister.*
  - b. \**What happened was that Peter had brown hair.*
- ii. Dynamic lexical *have*
  - a. *What happened was that Peter had a party.*
  - b. *What happened was that Peter had a bath.*

#### 4.1.2 Causative “have”

The lexical *have* in dynamic meaning can be also used when causing or allowing something to happen. According to Quirk and others (2004, 132), there are two possible construction with causative *have*. The causation can be either formed by [*i.*] lexical *have* followed by object + *-ed* participle in the sense of cause something to be done, or by [*ii.*] *have* followed by a bare infinitive in the sense of cause somebody to do something. The examples are illustrated below:

- i. Peter had the flat cleaned.
- ii. Peter had his daughter clean the flat.

The causative *have* can be as well used in sentences with other meaning than “cause something to be done”:

- i. *Peter had his nose broken.*
- ii. *Peter had his wallet stolen while he was in the subway.*
- iii. *Peter had his legs scratched while he was walking in the thorns.*

When the causative *have* is used in these types of sentences, the meaning is not that “Peter ordered or arranged for someone to break his nose”. These types of sentences are used when we want to say that someone suffers from the consequences of another person’s action. (OALD 1989, 573) Therefore, the meaning of the first sentence will be “*Peter’s nose was broken*”.

The syntactic criteria for causative *have* are comparable to those of eventive *have*. When lexical *have* is used as causative it uses *do*-support in negatives [*a.*], questions [*b.*], etc.; it is never followed by *got* [*c.*]; the progressive is used to express present tense [*d.*]; and it can be preceded by the phrase “*what happened was*” [*e.*].

- i. *Peter had the flat cleaned/ his daughter clean the flat/ his nose broken.*
  - a. *Peter **didn’t** have the flat cleaned/ his daughter clean the flat/ his nose broken.*
  - b. ***Did** Peter have the flat cleaned/ his daughter clean the flat/ his nose broken?*
  - c. *\* Peter usually has got the flat cleaned/ his daughter clean the flat/ his nose broken.*
  - d. *Peter **is** having the flat cleaned/ his daughter clean the flat/ his nose broken.*
  - e. *What happened was that Peter had the flat cleaned/ his daughter clean the flat/ his nose broken.*

## 4.2 Stative “have”

In this part we will discuss the stative use of the lexical verb *have*. Since the stative *have* expresses not the event but the state, it does not appear in the progressive aspect.

- i. Dynamic *have*
  - a. We **are** having a party.
- ii. Stative *have*
  - a. \* We are *having* a brother.
  - b. We have a brother.

When we are focusing on the use of the stative *have*, it is necessary to note that there are differences in the use between the British English and American English. Within the stative meaning it is possible to use the lexical *have* as both the operator and the lexical verb with *do*-support in questions and negative statements in British English. On the other hand only *do*-support is used in American English. Compare:

- i. *Have* functions as the operator in the construction
  - a. **Have** you a car?
  - b. We **haven't** a car.
- ii. *Do*-support is used in the construction
  - a. **Do** you have a car?
  - b. We **don't** have a car.

Moreover, it is more likely for *have* to combine with *do/did*-support in questions and negations in the past tense:

- i. They **had** a sport car.
- ii. They **didn't** have a sport car.
- iii. **Did** they have a sport car?

According to Quirk and others (2004, 131), the formal form *have* is somehow uncommon nowadays, even though it is considered as the traditional construction in British English. Therefore, it is usual to use the more preferred longer form *have got* in the British English, where *have* holds the function of the operator. In this case of stative meaning the longer *have got* is perfective in its form, however it is imperfective in its meaning. In the field of formality, the longer auxiliary form *have got* is less formal but still frequently preferred, while the shorter lexical form *have* is rather used in more formal styles.

On the other hand in American English the verb *have* is lexical, therefore it requires the *do*-support to be used in negative sentences and questions. According to OALD (2010, 714) the longer auxiliary form *have got* can be used in positive statements, when we want to put an emphasis on the fact that somebody has one thing rather than another:

- i. *Does your mother have blue eyes? No, she **has got** brown eyes.*

The example above shows the possibility of the form *have got* in American English for the positive statement of emphasize, where *have* is in the function of the operator. On the contrary in question there is the need of *do*-support. Both in American English and British English the negatives and questions are created with *do*-support when describing habit or routine. (OALD 2010, 714):

- i. *They **don't** often have time to listen.*  
 ii. ***Do** they usually have cornflakes for a breakfast?*

The table below summarizes the possible alternatives of *have* within the stative meaning:

Table 4.1 Stative “*have*” within BrE and AmE

	Positive Statement	Negative Statement	Interrogative Statement
BrE	Present	<i>We haven't got a car.</i>	<i>Have you got a car?</i>
		<i>We have no car.</i>	<i>Have you a car?</i>
		<i>We haven't a car.</i>	<i>Do you have a car?</i>
		<i>We don't have a car.</i>	
AmE	Past	<i>They didn't have a car.</i>	<i>Did they have a car?</i>
		<i>They have a car.</i>	
		<i>They don't have a car.</i>	<i>Do they have a car?</i>
		<i>They've got a car.</i>	

Source: (Quirk and others 2004, 131); (OALD 2010, 714)

Once we have discussed the differences between British and American English forms of stative *have*, we will continue to the situations where the stative *have* appears. According to Quirk and others (2004, 131), the most widely used expression in stative sense with *have* and direct object are when we talk about the possession, relationship and health condition. The possessive sense means that someone possesses and owns something, or it displays some mental or physical quality. The *have (got) + direct object* can as well appear in the meaning of experiencing or feeling something, or showing and displaying some quality derived from someone's behavior. Moreover, there are plenty of other meanings with stative *have* like accepting something or somebody, wearing something, etc. In these senses auxiliary form *have got* may be used as well, particularly in British English. However since *have got* do not fit to the category of lexical verbs it is written in brackets. Some of the stative uses with lexical *have* are illustrated below:

Figure 4.1 Overview of stative “*have*”

<i>Peter has (got) a car.</i>	Own something
<i>Peter has (got) courage.</i>	Mental quality
<i>Peter has (got) blue eyes.</i>	Physical feature
<i>Peter has (got) two brothers.</i>	Relationship
<i>Peter has (got) a migraine.</i>	Health condition
<i>Peter has (got) no doubt about the result.</i>	Experiencing / Feeling something
<i>Peter has (got) courage to go there alone.</i>	Showing quality derived from someone's behavior
<i>Peter has (got) a hat.</i>	Wearing something

### 4.3 “Have to”

This part of the thesis is dedicated to the special use of the verb idiom “*have to*”, which is followed by a verb in infinitive in order to express obligation. This form is considered as lexical since it requires the *do*-support. As mentioned previously in chapter 2.1 from the semantic point of view “*have to*” is similar to the modal auxiliary “*must*”. In spite of the semantic resemblance we cannot assign *have to* to the modal auxiliaries group. Compare:



Table 4.2 Difference between semantic equivalents “*must*” and “*have to*”

Modal Auxiliary	Lexical
i. <i>I must quit smoking.</i>	i. <i>I have to quit smoking.</i>
ii. * <i>I will must quit smoking.</i>	ii. <i>I will have to quit smoking</i>
iii. * <i>I am musting quit smoking.</i>	iii. <i>I am having to quit smoking.</i>
iv. * <i>I have often must quit smoking.</i>	iv. <i>I have often had to quit smoking.</i>

Source: (Huddleston and Pullum 2005, 39)

As the examples show, we can clearly see the distinction between modal auxiliary *must* and the lexical *have to*. Although they have similar meaning of obligation or certainty, it is not possible for a modal auxiliary to appear in the construction of a plain form, gerund-participle or past participle.

According to Biber (2007, 162) the usual way how to create questions and negations in clauses with *have to* is with the use *do*-support:

- i. *Do*-support is used in the construction
  - a. *Do I have to quit smoking?*
  - b. *I don't have to quit smoking.*

Yet despite this, there are two other possible ways, which will be discussed in chapter 4.3.1. Moreover in some varieties of English, especially in less formal spoken and very informal written American English, occurs the morphological compound of *have to*: *hafta*. The compound *hafta* takes the inflection in the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular. (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1616-1617) Compare:

- i. *I hafta go anyway.*
- ii. *She hasta go anyway.*

### 4.3.1 “Have to” vs. “Have got to”

In this chapter we will discuss the difference between the uses of lexical form *have to* and auxiliary form *have got to*. In spite of the fact that syntactically the auxiliary form *have got to* do not fit to this chapter, which discuss lexical forms; semantically it correspond with the lexical form *have to*, therefore we discuss this difference here. In order to classify the form *have to* and *have got to*, we have to look how these forms behave in questions and negations in British and American English (Swan 2005, 239):

i. British English

a. Habitual obligation

- i. *I usually have to clean the kitchen every day.*
- ii. *I **don't** usually have to clean the kitchen every day.*
- iii. ***Do** you usually have to clean the kitchen every day?*

b. Non-habitual obligation

- i. *I **have got to clean** the kitchen tomorrow.*
- ii. *I **haven't got to clean** the kitchen tomorrow.*
- iii. ***Have** you got to clean the kitchen tomorrow?*

ii. American English

a. Habitual and non-habitual obligation

- i. *I have to go to school tomorrow.*
- ii. *I **don't** have to go to school tomorrow.*
- iii. ***Do** you have to go to school tomorrow?*
- iv. *I always have to wash my hands before food.*
- v. *I **don't** always have to wash my hands before food.*
- vi. ***Do** you always have to wash your hands tomorrow?*

From the examples above we can see that the use of *have to* and *have got to* is quite comparable with the use of stative lexical *have*. In particular there is the difference between the shorter and longer form in British English. The shorter form *have to* is used to refer to repeated obligation, where the questions and negations require the *do*-support. On the other hand the longer form *have got to* is more likely to be used to refer to the particular obligation. In this form the *do*-support is not used, because here *have* functions as an

operator. As for the American English it does not differ between habitual or non-habitual obligation. The form without *got* are preferred, therefore the questions and negations requires the do-support since there is no operator.

## CONCLUSION

This bachelor thesis dealt with different types of the verb “*have*” across British and American English. The purpose of this bachelor thesis was to provide a comprehensive analysis of all possible functions and forms of the verb “*have*”.

At the beginning author has discussed the etymological approach towards the verb “*have*”. This part was followed by defining verbs in general; their division into auxiliary and lexical; and by discussing the concept of an operator.

It was found that generally the verb “*have*” can be divided according to properties, which it shows in the syntactic process, into the auxiliary or the lexical verb. It is widely accepted that the auxiliary “*have*” may function as an operator in the verb phrase, which means that it forms the negative of a main verb; inverts with subject in question; can be used as coda; is able to contract in a sentence; carry the polarity to emphasize a finite clause; can function in reduce constructions; and it can be either followed or preceded by an adverb. These criteria are known under the acronym NICE. Yet despite these criteria auxiliary “*have*” does not always function as the operator, specifically when it is preceded by modal. Looking at the given criteria following forms can be perceived as auxiliary: perfective “*have*”, “*have got*”, “*have got to*” and “*had better*”. Moreover, the construction “*have got to*” may appear without the operator “*have*” in the contracted form “*got to*” or spoken form “*gotta*”. This phenomenon, where the operator is dropped, is called medial ellipsis.

The suggested criteria for lexical “*have*” were that it cannot function as an operator in the sentence, thus it needs the *do*-support when forming negation, question, question tag, etc. To support or disprove this view author has divided the lexical “*have*” into the dynamic and stative. Regarding the dynamic use, it occurs in eventive “*have*” (e.g. *have a bath/ a drink/ an operation/ a good time*) and causative “*have*” (e.g., *Peter had the flat cleaned/ had his daughter clean the flat.*). Both eventive and causative forms uses the *do*-support to create negatives, questions, question tags, etc. This means that the dynamic use of “*have*” supports the suggestion that *do*-support is needed in above-mentioned constructions with lexical “*have*”. On the contrary, when concerning the stative use of the lexical verb “*have*” (e.g. *have a car/ courage/ blue eyes/ two brothers/ migraine/ no doubt about the result/ courage to go there alone/ a hat*), we have to note the differences between the British and American English. The American use also supports the suggestion, since the negations, questions, question tags, etc. are formed with *do*-support (e.g. *They don't have a car. ; Do they have*

*a car?*). The British English, on the other hand, showed the syntactic variation, where the stative “*have*” may functioned as an operator itself in above-mentioned constructions (e.g. *We haven't a car.* ; *Have you a car?*) in the past. However this form is not used anymore in present-day British English, since the *do*-form has been adopted. Furthermore the longer form “*have got*”, where “*have*” functions as the operator, is very usual in British English. In conclusion, it has been found that there are two possible forms within the stative “*have*” in present-day English. Another construction perceived as lexical is the construction “*have to*”. This form expresses the obligation. It may also occur as the compound “*hafta*”, or “*hasta*” in 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular; in less formal spoken or very informal written American English. The very last chapter dealt with the differences between semantically resembling forms: lexical “*have to*” and auxiliary “*have got to*”; within the British and American English. In conclusion the longer auxiliary forms “*have got*” and “*have got to*” are more usual in British English, whereas in American English is preferred to use the lexical “*have*”, with additional *do*-support in negations, questions, question tags, etc.

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**LIST OF ABBREVIATION**

*	Wrong example
AmE	American English
AUX	Auxiliary
BrE	British English
e.g.	Exempli gratia – for example
etc.	Etcetera
LEX	Lexical
MOD	Modal
NICE	Negation, Interrogation, Coda, Ellipsis
NP	Noun Phrase
PP	Prepositional Phrase
S	Subject
V	Verb
V <sub>Lex</sub>	Lexical Verb
VP	Verb Phrase
Ω	Omega



**LIST OF TABLES**

Table 1.1 Historical correspondences of the verb "have" .....	11
Table 2.1 Auxiliary/Operator Criteria .....	20
Table 3.1 Differences between lexical and auxiliary "have" .....	22
Table 3.2 The position of auxiliary verbs .....	26
Table 3.3 Differences between "have" and "have got" .....	28
Table 3.4 Differences between semantic equivalents: "have got to", "have to" and "must" .....	30
Table 4.1 Stative "have" within BrE and AmE .....	39
Table 4.2 Difference between semantic equivalents "must" and "have to" .....	41

**LIST OF FIGURES**

Figure 2.1 Major verb classes.....	13
Figure 2.2 Auxiliary verbs .....	15
Figure 2.3 Sentence analysis .....	19
Figure 3.1 Adverb position phenomenon.....	27
Figure 4.1 Overview of stative “ <i>have</i> ” .....	40