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Verbal Idiom *Have Got*

BAKALÁŘSKÁ PRÁCE

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V Olomouci 10. května 2010

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ABBREVIATIONS

BNC2 – British National Corpus

(%) – expression not used by majority

***** - impossible/ungrammatical structure

i.e. – that means

e.g. – for example

AUX – auxiliary verb

LEX – lexical verb

NEG – negation

ADV – adverb

PRON – pronoun

ADV – adverb

VP – verbal phrase

AdvP – adverbial phrase

AdjP – adjectival phrase

PP – prepositional phrase

Sp – spoken texts

Wr – written texts

tzn. – to znamená

tzv. – tak zvaný

apod. – a podobně

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1 INTRODUCTION

In my work I am going to deal with the verbal idiom *have got* which represents a semantic parallel to the stative verb *have*.¹ What I mean is that the sentences in example (1) have relatively the same meaning, both constructions can be used more or less in similar contexts and many people prefer one variant over the other.

- (1) a. *He **has** two brothers.*
b. *He **has got** two brothers.*

However, my impression is that while the idiom *have got* illustrated in (1b) is fairly known to Czech students, it is not used at schools in its full verbal paradigm and it appears in its present simple form as in (1b).²

In this work, I intend to examine the usage of the idiom *have got* in Modern British English. More precisely, I will follow three main lines. First of all, I am going to look at the semantic side of the idiom where I will compare the idiom with the identical form *have got* representing, however, the present perfect of the verb *get* and expressing roughly ‘acquisition’, ‘movement’ or ‘change of a state’. I will also outline the typical meanings and collocations in which the idiom *have got* appears and, conversely, some semantic restrictions applied to the idiom. Second, I am going to analyse the structure of the idiom from the morphological and syntactic point of view and survey its properties in terms of auxiliary and lexical verb characteristics. Finally, I will investigate its usage not only in the present but also in past forms and compare its frequency to its alternative stative *have* and the so called archaic *have*³ searching in spoken and written language separately. Furthermore, I will go through some additional topics connected with the idiom, namely the reduced form *got* and *ain't got* construction, for which there was no space left in the previous chapters but I find it important to mention.

Generally, I have structured my work in the following way: the paper contains two sections - a theoretical part citing relevant literature and a practical part providing data from British National Corpus (BNC2) and their analysis. Following Meyer (2002:30-31), BNC(2) is comprised of approximately 100 million words. Out

¹ The term idiom is used for *have got* by Huddleston & Pullum (2000:111) and I adopt it also in my work. The general definition of an idiom is that the meaning of the idiom/idiomatic phrase as a whole is not derived from the meanings of its individual parts. The construction *have got* can also have an idiomatic meaning and then we differentiate the idiom *have got* expressing ‘possession’ in a general sense from the non-idiomatic form *have got* representing the present perfect of the verb *get*. Following this distinction I am going to use the term ‘perfective *have got*’ for the present perfect forms of *get* to contrast to the idiom *have got*. The main criteria which determine the idiom, i.e. the possessive form, will be discussed in part 2.

² I take into account my own experience as a student at grammar school. For example, the textbooks Doff, A. and Jones, Ch.: *English in Use. Pre-intermediate*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge 2000. and Doff, A. and Jones, Ch.: *English in Use. Intermediate*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge 2001. - both introduce *have got* only in present simple and when referring to past possession this is expressed by the semantic equivalent *had*.

³ I adopted the term archaic *have* from Veselovská (2005:128). It refers to an auxiliary-like construction *have* which is also used to express possession. More details about the archaic *have* will be given in section 3.1.2.

of it, 90 percent consists of various types of written Modern British English and the last 10 percent represents different types of spoken language. I will compare these two types of sources i.e. to confront the statements from linguistic and grammatical books with the data found in BNC2 and I will try to carry out some conclusions about the properties of the verbal idiom *have got*.

1.1 Methodology

For my research I used the language database BNC2. I mostly applied a software named SARA but when needed to, I used one called XAIRA. Compared to SARA, it contains some additional functions, however, the source background remains the same. I looked up phrases separately in the spoken and the written domain.⁴ Nonetheless, I did not deal with any other criteria including age, sex etc.⁵

It is essential to mention that when looking up verbs they do not comprise 3rd person singular forms automatically and these structures had to be filled in as a separate entry within one query. I mostly used the so called builder query⁶ to look up particular structures unless otherwise stated. The findings introduced in the tables are limited to noun phrases preceded by determiners *a*, *an/any* and *the* unless otherwise stated.

Generally, from the total number of findings to a query I chose a random set of 100 occurrences. Sometimes there were fewer than 100 so I downloaded all of them, which I went through and excluded the inappropriate constructions, i.e. ‘non-possessive’. The frequency of a particular finding is marked in the following way (unless otherwise stated): [x] contains the amount of findings to a particular query; figures in bold stand for a number of sentences with the idiom out of the random set of 100 (or fewer if not found so many examples) after I excluded the inappropriate structures; (x) refers to the number of findings, out of the same random set of 100, that cannot be unambiguously regarded as either the idiom or the perfective *have got*.

When I cite concrete examples from BNC2 I mark them with an alphanumerical code at the end of the line. I also use my own examples to illustrate certain properties and such instances have no identification. Examples by particular authors are recognised by their names at the end of a line.

⁴ The concrete form of a query will be introduced with particular constructions. The term query marks one individual search containing one word, phrase or, as in this case, a certain pattern of words that are required to be found.

⁵ Given the space and time reasons, I will not discuss this distribution but I find this topic interesting for future, more detailed, research.

⁶ One of possible types of query allowing a combined search.

2 DISTINGUISHING THE POSSESSIVE *HAVE GOT* FROM THE PERFECTIVE *HAVE GOT*

This chapter focuses primarily on the semantic properties of the verbal idiom *have got* and the distinction of the idiom from the perfective *have got*. I will also give a brief survey of typical contexts and meanings in which the idiom may occur, commenting on some limitations that appear with the use of the idiom.

2.1 Complementation

As mentioned before, *have got* can be referred to as a verbal idiom. The definition says that idioms are a group of words whose meaning as a whole is different from what the individual parts mean. In other words, despite the fact that we understand the individual words we cannot derive the actual meaning of the whole expression from them. Following this, the meaning of the idiom *have got* is not understood as ‘acquired’, ‘became’ or ‘moved’ (non-idiomatic meaning)⁷ but is synonymous with that of the stative verb *have* and covers possession in a general sense as in (2b).

- (2) a. *I have an excellent book at home.*
=
b. *I have got an excellent book at home.*

However, when we consider the form of the idiom *have got*, this is identical with a present perfect form of the verb *get*. The idiom in (2b) is formed in the same way as a standard present perfect illustrated in (3) using the verbs *buy* and *get*.

- (3) a. *I have bought an excellent book.* [have + past participle of *buy*]
b. *I have got an excellent book from my father.* [have + past participle of *get*]

Moreover, Huddleston & Pullum (2006:112) claim that the idiom *have got* in (2b) is originally derived from the present perfect construction in (3b). As such the instances like that in (4) cannot be identified so easily as either possessive (2b) or perfective (3b) and with no clear context can be interpreted as both ‘possession’ or ‘acquisition’.

- (4) *I have got an excellent book.*

Although (2b) and (3b) have identical forms, in Quirk et al. (1991:131) the authors say that *have got* meaning possession in (2b) may look perfectly in its form but is non-perfective in its meaning and (2b) in fact stands for a present tense form.

The fact that the idiom *have got* is formed as standard perfective forms raises a problem. In the following paragraphs I will try to set some criteria on how to recognise the idiom *have got* and the perfective *have got*. First of all, both constructions are transitive and need some complementation. The idiom *have got*

⁷ Following Leech & Svartvik (1975:242), the American speakers apply the construction *have gotten* for the present perfect of the verb *get* to make the distinction from the idiom.

requires the presence of a noun phrase direct object after the verbal predicate represented in (2b) by ‘an excellent book’. On the contrary, the perfective form in the meaning of ‘moved’ and ‘became’ can appear without such a noun phrase, as demonstrated in (5a/b).

- (5) a. *I have got inside/into the house.*
 b. *I have got angry.*

As such the syntactic pattern for the perfective *have got*, in the sense of ‘moved’ and ‘became’, is as follows:

- (6) *get* → *have got* V, [-AdjP/AdvP/PP]

As mentioned above, the idiom *have got* normally requires a direct object in the form of a noun phrase which is similar to its short variant *have*.⁸ The noun phrase object is, however, obligatory for the perfective *have got* in the meaning of ‘acquired’ as demonstrated in (3b).

- (7) a. *have* → *have got* V, [-NP]
 b. *get* → *have got* V, [-NP]

The noun phrase object is about to appear with the perfective *have got* as well as with the idiom, which does not enable us to distinguish one form from the other and the example, like that introduced in (4), may thus stand for either perfective form or the idiom at the same time.

However, by adding other elements after the direct object as shown in (8a/b) the different meaning can become clearer. The example (8a) illustrates the perfective *have got*, while that marked as (8b) comprises the verbal idiom *have got*.

- (8) a. *I have got an excellent book from my father.*
 b. *I have got an excellent book at home.*
 a'. *get* → *have got* V, [-NP - PP]
 b'. *have* → *have got* V, [-NP - PP]

The clarification of the meaning comes out from the PP following the noun phrase ‘an excellent book’. The usage of the PP *from my father* requires the interpretation of acquisition. The preposition *from* suggests some kind of movement from one person to another signifying ‘acquisition’. On the other hand, the PP *in the bookcase* excludes the perfective meaning marking the place where one has books and thus stands for possession. The inversed reading would most likely be semantic nonsense in both instances.

As such the distinction of the two sentences in (8), and of *have got* constructions in general, is mostly a matter of semantics rather than the syntax as the

⁸ In the text I am going to use the term ‘the short form *have*’ to mark the stative *have* which in fact represents a shorter possessive variant to the idiom *have got*.

syntactic structures are identical. I am going to cover this problem in the following paragraphs where I will give more examples of phrases which may complement the idiom and the perfective *have got*. In the examples below the expression in the right brackets give the verb presumably used – HAVE=idiom *have got*, GET= perfective *have got* – demonstrating that in many cases neither of them is unique and unambiguous in a given syntactic context. It must be pointed out here that the following paragraphs offer only some general assumptions and do not cover all kinds of possible complementation which can appear.

Phrases that may follow the direct object can be as follows:

(i) VPs

While the examples in (9a/b) are highly probable in the senses suggested below, the (9c/d) remain ambiguous. The latter ones are taken from Rundell (2002:655) where the author claims that both *have* and *have got* are used in such constructions.

- (9) a. *I **have got** a right to see my children.* (HAVE)
 b. *I **have got** the book to increase my knowledge.* (GET)
 c. *We need to **have (got)** everyone sitting down at the same table.* (HAVE)
 d. *She's **got** her hair tied up in a bun today.* (HAVE)

However, the author introduces the example in (c) only with *have*. Moreover, I think that in such cases like (9c/d) there is a strong feeling for the perfective *have got* rather than the idiom, as the examples seem to suggest, accomplishment of some action. Hence I find the *to*-infinitival VPs possible with the possessive *have got* while the usage of *-ing* and *-ed* VPs is fairly problematic.

(ii) Locative PPs and AdvPs

The examples in (10) demonstrate that most of the PPs are semantically unsuitable for both forms of *have got* and they exclude one or the other interpretation although the prepositions are identical.

- (10) a. *I **have got** a book in the bookcase/on the table/at home/...* (HAVE)
 b. *I **have got** a book in the State Library/at 5th Avenue/...* (GET)
 c. *I **have got** my handbag inside. Will you bring it?* (HAVE)
 d. *The terrorists **have got** the bomb inside unnoticed.* (GET)

To clarify the above statement, I can have the book in the bookcase as in (10a) indicating a place where I have my books but it is very improbable to have it in the State Library as in (10b). The PP *in the State Library* would require the interpretation of 'acquisition' which is caused by the use of a specific noun in the phrase representing an institution from which I can borrow books. Furthermore, I can have the book *on the table* rather than acquire it there etc. The examples in (10c/d) containing AdvP *inside* are recognisable by the following context.

(iii) **PPs, AdvPs and NPs of time**⁹

The PPs can be used as a diagnostic because when there is a certain time reference like in (11) in combination with the idiom the structure suggests a future event. Regarding the perfective form *have got*, it tends to refer to the past.

- (11) a. *I **have got** a lesson in the/this morning/at five o'clock/on Monday.* (HAVE)
b. *I **have got** the letter this morning/*on Monday/*at five o'clock.* (GET)

But time locations as *on Monday* etc. require the usage of a past form rather than the perfective one. There is only one exception. In Quirk et. al. (1991:245), the authors say that some speakers consider the NPs like *this morning* in (11b) to designate a period including the present moment and they also use them with the present perfect aspect. However, the sentence with *this morning* can be spoken only in the same morning. Given the facts above the PPs of time like those in (11) merely seem to combine with the idiom and refer to the future. Only the NPs like *this morning* are also possible with the perfective *have got*.

The PPs of time with *since* and *for* suggest a certain period of time but the perfective *have got* refers to a single event/accomplishment which excludes any duration.¹⁰

- (12) a. **I **have got** the book since my childhood/for months.* (HAVE)
b. **I **have got** letters since he has left/for months.* (GET)

Similarly, the possessive *have got* refers to a single situation, a current possession, and hence it should also be restricted in these cases although expressed by a perfective form. The perfective form *have had* is more likely to be applied. Given the arguments above, PPs like those in (12) are not supposed to be used with either of the *have got* forms.

The adverbs of time like *recently* or *already* are often bound with the perfective form. Unlike *recently*, the usage of *already* is semantically acceptable with the idiom.¹¹

- (13) a. *I **have got** the parcel recently.* (GET)
b. **I **have got** the book recently at home.* (HAVE)
c. *I **have** already **got** the CD at home.* (HAVE)

⁹ For the present perfect aspect in general and its combination with similar phrases as in (iii), I consulted Quirk (1991).

¹⁰ Such adverbials would be acceptable with the present perfect progressive form *have been getting* rather than with the present perfect simple form in (12b). The present perfect simple form could be possible but only in a negative sentence (*haven't got*).

¹¹ However, the idiom's past form *had got* is possible with *recently* in a sentence like *I had got the book at home recently but I have returned it to Peter*.

d. *I have already got the CD from him.* (GET)

As presented in the examples (13a/b), the salient feature of the AdvP of time *recently* is that it only combines with the perfective *have got* but not with the idiom in its present form as it is semantically incompatible.

(iv) PPs and AdvPs of manner

Adverbials of manner realized by either PPs or AdvPs are likely to be used with the constructions which perform some action to show the manner i.e. they are not possible with the stative *have got*.

(14) a. *??I have got the answer quickly/by mail.* (GET)

c. **I have got a book quickly at home/...* (HAVE)

As such the phrases expressing manner could theoretically be possible with the perfective *have got* but the past form of *get* is generally preferred.

We have seen that both *have got* forms (idiom and perfective) are likely to be accompanied by a wide range of complementation after the direct object. Nonetheless, **the perfective *have got* in the meaning of ‘moved’, ‘became’ (i.e. change of a state) does not require a direct object in the form of a noun phrase which the idiom *have got* demands.** Hence the examples in (5) exclude the interpretation of ‘have’.

On the contrary, **the idiom *have got* and the perfective *have got*, in the sense of ‘acquired’, both need the noun phrase direct object.** Moreover, **further complementation** with various phrases **is syntactically similar** e.g. (10a/b) **so it is the semantics, to the intend of sense, that represents the chief factor which makes the other meaning impossible** rather than the syntactic structure.

Nevertheless, I have demonstrated in this section that **there are some complementations which exclude the interpretation of one or the other meaning.** These are **the PPs of time (11a/b) which are compatible with the idiom *have got* and refer to the future but in the case of the perfective *have got* they suggest a concrete past moment which requires the past simple form. Only NPs like *this morning* are accepted when spoken in the same morning.** Other contrastive complementations are the AdvP *recently* demonstrated in (13a/b) which **co-occurs with the perfective form but not with the idiom in the present tense form.** AdvPs and PPs of manner in (14) are bound with some action not possible with the stative idiom but the use of the perfective *have got* is rather avoided and the past form *got* is used instead.

In the next section I will attempt to find the contexts which can help us to further distinguish the idiom from the perfective *have got* and introduce some standard cases in which the idiom *have got* appears to be substituting for the short form *have*.

2.2 Semantics

The following examples in (15) are taken from Alexander (1988). The author claims that they more or less involve a certain deal of possession, in which it is possible for the idiom *have got* to appear and may replace the short form *have*. In (15) I refer to the specific meanings only in an abbreviated form and I am not going

to examine the various senses in any detail here. For a more detailed discussion see Alexander (1988: 200-201).

(15)

a) 'own' or 'possess':

*I **have (got)** a new briefcase.*

b) 'be able to provide':

*Do you **have** any ink?/**Have** you **got** any ink?*

c) have (got) + number/quantity:

*I **have (got)** fourteen pencils.*

d) possession of physical characteristics:

*He **has (got)** big brown eyes.*

e) possession of mental and emotional qualities:

*She **has (got)** a quick temper.*

f) family relationships:

*I **have (got)** two sisters.*

g) contacts with other people:

*I **have (got)** a good dentist.*

h) in the sense of 'wear':

*That's a nice dress you **have (got)**.*

i) illnesses:

*The baby **has (got)** measles.*

j) arrangements :

*Sally **has (got)** an interview for a job today.*

k) opinions:

*I **have (got)** an idea!*

l) in the sense of 'there is':

*You **have (got)** a stain on your tie.*

It is obvious from the examples above that the idiom *have got* can substitute for the short form *have* in a variety of cases expressing possession in a general sense. **In (15d-e), (j) and (l) the semantics prefer the interpretation 'have' over 'acquire' even without any further complementation** in contrast to the example in (4) - e.g. in (15d) 'I have two sisters.' but not *'I received two sisters.'

However, some of the instances suggested by Alexander and presented here as possessive like **those in (15a-c), (15g-i) and (15k) face the similar problem as in (4) and could also mean 'acquired'**. Even the context of the surrounding sentences

does not have to help us to decide whether it is possessive or not. I think that the last instance in (k) is the most problematic in this way. But when we consider the usual collocation with the short form *have* in this particular case (*'I have an idea!'*) and the property of the idiom *have got* to replace *have*, then I suppose that *have got* means possession here as proposed by Alexander rather than acquisition.

Examples in (15) demonstrated typical cases in which the idiom *have got* may substitute the short form *have*. However, there are some more general semantic restrictions applied to the idiom's usage which can be stated in terms of dynamic and habitual context. I am going to look at these two meanings now.

2.2.1 *Stative versus dynamic context*

Lexical verbs, in general, can be divided into two groups – stative and dynamic. Some lexical verbs have more than one meaning some of which are stative and some dynamic. Regarding the verbs I am discussing in this study, the short form *have* has both a stative and a dynamic variant.

Dynamic *have* appears in the so called verbo-nominal constructions such as *have a shower, have fun* etc. Structures like these express action and following Quirk et al. (1991:132), the short form *have* can be semantically replaced by 'receive', 'take' or 'experience' in such a dynamic context.

On the other hand, when *have* is used in the sense of possession it has a **stative** meaning because the possessive meaning involves no action. As the idiom *have got* alternates the short form *have* in the possessive meaning, it comes under the category of stative verbs. Moreover, Alexander (1988:202) emphasizes that *have* can never be replaced by *have got* in the verbo-nominal structures. The usage of *have got* in the same constructions should thus change the meaning of the sentences into a pure possession. See the distinctions in (16).

- (16) a. *I have (got) a drink, thanks.* [i.e. I have it in my hand – stative]
 b. *I have a drink every evening before dinner.* [i.e. I drink – dynamic]

(Alexander 202)

Looking for support of the above generalisations, I consulted the BNC2 searching for the idiom *have got* in the dynamic context. I chose some of the best known verbo-nominal constructions listed in Swan (2003:229): *have a shower, have a bath, have a look, have a rest, have a sleep, have a dream, have a talk, have a (nice) day, have a cup of (tea)*. I tested these constructions with *have got*.¹² The examples below illustrate the results of the search.

¹² The queries were <have+has+had+'ve+'s> <got> <a> <cup of _>; <have+has+had+'ve+'s> <got> <a> <dream> etc. The underscore is used in BNC2 for any word. The following explanation of the preceding patterns can be applied as well for other queries later on. <have+has...> marks that these words were included in one (builder) query using content nodes arranged horizontally so that I was able to find examples which comprise not only *have* but also *has* and other words introduced in <>. The link between the content nodes arranged vertically, i.e. between <><>, is always the next and so < have+has+had+'ve+'s > are immediately followed by < got > then by a determiner < a >, if applied, and then e.g. *dream* follows immediately. As mentioned in the methodology section, the phrases were looked up separately in spoken and written language. After downloading all the examples (not 100 because there were fewer findings), I excluded the examples which meant 'possession'. The findings were: *shower* - sp [2] 0; wr [0]; *bath* - sp [0]; wr [0]; *look* - sp [1] 1; wr [1] 1; *sleep* - sp [0]; wr [0];

- (17) a. *And we went up there and we had just we'd, we took the labour rooms
and er of course we **had got a cup of tea** with them you know?* (GYU 715)
- b. *Well you have got, you've got a cup of tea. Yes. Like we're having a cup
of tea.* (KB6 269)
- c. *When they've got a bad day, I find they want love.* (B32 683)
- d. *'E's got a good look on it must be a bit o' good land.* (C98 1617)
- e. *Oh you've got a Look, look he's got his foot in the handle.* (KE3 8309)

The examples above demonstrate the rare cases in which some English speakers replaced *have* with *have got* even in a dynamic sense. However, given the very limited number of such examples we cannot say that the constructions with *have got* are commonly used.

Apart from overall semantics, there are two more formal characteristics which are typical for dynamic verbs, namely the fact that such verbs usually do not appear in a progressive aspect and imperative forms. Compare the instances in (18b/c) which are labelled stative with that of (a) in a verbo-nominal construction which proposes an activity and demonstrates the dynamic meaning.

- (18) a. *I **have** a shower every evening.* [dynamic]
- b. *I **have** a car in the garage.* [stative]
- c. *I **have got** a car in the garage.* [stative]

The examples in (19) show that only the dynamic verbs can appear in a progressive aspect.

- (19) a. *I **am having** a shower right now.* [dynamic]
- b. **I **am having** a car in the garage.* [stative]
- c. **I **am having got** a car in the garage.* [stative]

To prove or disprove the above generalisation, I used BNC2 to search for examples like (19c). However, I found no progressive forms of *have got* in BNC2.¹³ The absence of progressive forms further confirms the conclusion made above, i.e. that the idiom *have got* appears only in the stative context.

As mentioned above, the dynamic meaning is a condition also for imperative constructions. In Alexander (1988:199) the author claims that an imperative with *have* is rare and the idiom *have got* is not possible at all. He further states that the application of *have* in the imperative forces the interpretation of 'take', i.e. the

dream - sp [0]; wr [1] **0** ; *day* - sp [0]; wr [1] **1**; *talk* sp - [0]; wr [0]; *rest* - sp [0]; wr [0]; *cup* - sp [3] **2** (1); wr [0] **0**. The explanation of the numbers is given in methodology. Numbers in bold include, in this particular case, instances which are highly probable to have a dynamic meaning.

¹³ The query was <am+is+are+was+were> <having got>. The explanation of what these patterns mean is given in footnote 12. There appeared no findings.

dynamic one. As such the stative *have* and the idiom *have got* are not allowed in imperative formations and the cases in (20) are not possible.

- (20) a. ***Have** a book!
a'. ***Have got** a book!

The theoretical claim of the limitation of the idiom to mere stative context was confirmed with my search in BNC2 as no imperative forms with *have got*¹⁴ were found.

To conclude, **as a rule the idiom *have got* is used in stative context**. Although it very sporadically appeared in constructions which are referred to as dynamic, this usage is not generally preferred. Moreover, the occurrence of the idiom *have got* in stative meaning is further supported by the **complete lack of progressive aspect and imperative forms**.

2.2.2 *Habitual context*

Another grammatical phenomenon where *have got* is said to be rather limited in its use is the habitual context. Swan (2003:231) explains that when we are talking about repeated events, *have got* is less often used and it is substituted by the short form *have* which has been traditionally used in British English to express habit or repetition.¹⁵ In opposition, Huddleston & Pullum (2002:113) make the claim even sharper by stating that *have got* is never used in this context. Also in Quirk et al. (1991:132) the authors say that instances like those in (21a) could only be addressed to more than one person in a non-habitual sense.

- (21) a. **Do you have** bad headaches? [habitual] (Quirk, 1991:132)
Have you got a bad headache? [nonhabitual] (Quirk, 1991:132)
b. **I've got** toothache. [nonhabitual] (Swan 231)
I often have toothache. [habitual] (Swan 231)

Have got refers here to a concrete moment of 'now', a single situation, whereas the short form *have* expresses habit and repetition. It is obvious from the example (21b)

¹⁴ Regarding *have got* in imperative forms, I based the query on the fact that *have got* should take the initial sentence position. Therefore the query was <s> <have> <got>. The findings were: sp [12] **0**; wr [3] **0**. The explanation of what these patterns mean is given in footnote 12. 's' means sentence initial. Numbers in bold include, in this case, instances which are highly probable to stand for the idiom *have got* in imperative forms. However, such constructions were not found in the findings and there were only examples which did not include the idiom or with the idiom in its possessive/stative meaning in declarative sentences. Furthermore, when we take into account the form of the idiom which looks perfectly it is also impossible to appear in such contexts as none of the standard perfective forms produce such constructions (***Have bought** a book!, ***I am having bought** a book). The non-occurrence of *have got* in imperative and progressive constructions indicates the auxiliary function of *have*. This topic will be discussed in chapter 3.

¹⁵ Swan (2003:231) also points out that in Modern American English the short form *have* is not limited in this way and it serves for both habitual and non-habitual meaning.

that the repetition can be intensified by the addition of particular adverbials such as *often, usually*, etc. that make the repetitive actions more salient.

I used BNC2 to test the usage of the idiom *have got* in the habitual context. I included the adverbs of frequency into the queries to identify the repetition. I applied some of the adverbs of indefinite frequency listed in Swan (2003:22) namely: *never, always, usually, normally, ever, often*.

(22) **Table 1:** The occurrences of *have got* with adverbs of frequency¹⁶

<i>have got</i>	<i>always</i>	<i>usually</i>	<i>normally</i>	<i>often</i>	<i>never</i>	<i>ever</i>
spoken E.	[56] 31 (9)	[13] 9	[3] 2	[1] 0	[27] 8	[3] 1 (1)
written E.	[45] 21 (2)	[3] 2	[0]	[5] 1	[42] 1	[12] 0 (1)
in total	[101] 52 (11)	[16] 11	[3] 2	[6] 1	[69] 9	[15] 1 (2)

The following examples demonstrate the concrete usage of *have got* in the habitual context.

- (23) a. *I've normally got telly on in the evenings.* (KCX 2566)
 b. *She has never got much energy in the morning as you know.* (KDM 3345)
 c. *Well of course dictaphones have always got records on them, that's why they're called dictaphones.* (KP0 603)
 d. *But I've always got champagne in the fridge.* (HJ4 5138)

We can see that even the omission of the adverbs of repetition themselves would not change the meaning of some sentences into a single event as in (24a/b). In (a) the repetition element is actually involved in the plural of the noun which follow the verbal predicate and suggest the repetition of situation. In (b) it is signified by the clause at the end which suggest that the situation is known because it happens regularly. But not in all sentences is it possible to refer to the habit or repetition without the adverbs and the absence of them may turn the meaning into a single situation as in (c/d).

Given my corpus search summarised in Table 1 above, I claim that the idiom *have got* is **not strictly limited to mere non-habitual situations and has the ability to replace the short form *have* in repeated actions**. Some British speakers also use the idiom in the habitual meaning as the examples in (23) demonstrate. The claim made by Huddleston & Pullum is therefore too strict and Swan's statement has got empirical support.

¹⁶ The queries were <have+has+had+'ve+'s> <always> <got>; <have+has+had+'ve+'s> <usually> <got> etc. The explanation of what these patterns mean is given in footnote 12. I did not limit the queries with determiners so that I got more possible examples as the resulting numbers to the queries were low. For the explanation of numbers in the table see the methodology. Given the results of the search I downloaded all the examples and excluded structures I identified as perfective forms and *to*-infinitives marking semi-modal verb *have got to* and meaning 'necessity' as these are structures irrelevant for the discussion here.

It seems, from the examples in (15), that the short form *have* and the idiom *have got* are largely interchangeable in a range of meanings referring to general possession. In chapter **3** I will concentrate on the morphology and syntax of the two forms.

3 MORPHOSYNTACTIC CHARACTERISTICS OF *HAVE GOT*

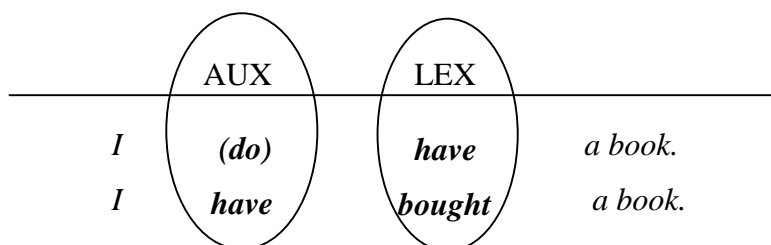
The previous chapter examined the verbal idiom *have got* mainly as far as the semantics is concerned. Now I am going to analyse the form of the idiom itself i.e. its morphological and syntactic properties. For the greatest part, I will follow Huddleston & Pullum (2002:92-115) as background for this topic. To support the theoretical claims I will use data from BNC2. The concrete number of the findings will be introduced in chapter 4, dealing with tense morphology and its frequency.

3.1 Lexical versus auxiliary verbs

It is generally known that English verbs can be divided into two different types: lexical and auxiliary verbs. Lexical verbs differ from auxiliary verbs in their morphological and syntactic properties. Auxiliary verbs have the ability to participate in syntactic processes¹⁷ while lexical verbs do not and generally require *do*-support (when already not preceded by any other auxiliary verb as in *have bought* in the scheme (24) below).

As for the verb *have*, it may have the status of either an auxiliary verb or that of a lexical one as demonstrated in (24). For comparison, the scheme gives the lexical short form *have* and the perfective form *have bought* with an auxiliary verb *have* suggesting *have*'s different syntactic functions in terms of lexical and auxiliary.

(24) **Scheme 1:** Different status of *have* using the terms auxiliary and lexical¹⁸



The schematic structure outlines different properties of the two types of verbs in general. Since the lexical verbs require the insertion of what Huddleston & Pullum (2008:51) call dummy auxiliary *do* (suggested by brackets) which participates in the syntactic processes, the auxiliary verbs undergo syntactic changes themselves.¹⁹

As already mentioned in the previous chapter, the idiom *have got* although non-perfective in meaning has in fact a perfective form. This would qualify *have* for an

¹⁷ A verbal predicate may convey more auxiliary verbs, then it is the first of them which undergoes the changes.

¹⁸ I was inspired with a scheme introduced in Veselovská (2005:129). However, the author uses the term VERB instead of LEX that I chose. I applied the labels AUX and LEX to demonstrate the contrastive qualities of auxiliary and lexical verbs in general. Auxiliary verbs themselves may be further divided into modal auxiliaries and non-modal auxiliaries (terms used by Huddleston & Pullum) but I am going to use here the general term auxiliaries marked as AUX to stand for both of them.

¹⁹ Exceptions to this general classification of English verbs concern the copular verb *be* and the so called archaic *have*. Although they are not preceded by any auxiliary verb they act as auxiliary verbs themselves and do not accept *do*-support. Archaic *have* will be discussed later on in 3.1.2.

auxiliary component. On the other hand, *have got* represents a semantic equivalent of the stative verb *have* which acts as a lexical verb. Would this semantic similarity between *have got* and *have* justify treating *have* in the idiom *have got* as a lexical verb?²⁰ In other words, is the idiom located as one unit or is it distributed between the two elements (AUX and LEX)? And if the latter is true, does *have* exhibit identical properties as the standard auxiliary *have* in *have bought* or rather shows some specifics?

Before we move to the main contrastive criteria between auxiliary and lexical verbs I would like to mention the general characteristics of verbs in a verbal predicate as illustrated in (24), with respect to the idiom *have got*. An important note must be carried out: the first phonetically realised verbal element reflects tense changes, except for the ‘defective’ properties of central modals in (25a), while the other (non-first) parts of the predicate remain unmarked for tense and agreement morphology. This property does not always contrast lexical and auxiliary verbs as illustrated in (25d). Here the lexical verb, preceded by no other verbal element, takes the inflection itself.

- (25) a. *He will(*s/ed) buy(*s/ed) a book.*²¹
 b. *He has/had bought(*s/ed) a book.*
 c. *He is/was buying(*s/ed) a book.*
 d. *He buys/bought a book.*

Following the rule concerning tense and agreement morphology, the examples in (26) show the theoretically predicted forms in which it is *have* in the idiom *have got* that is marked by the inflection while *got* remains uninflected.

- (26) a. **He have gots/gotted a book.*
 b. *He has/had got a book.*

To confirm the above criterion, I searched BNC2 and below I demonstrate some examples that illustrate the concrete usage of *have got* in the uninflected and also inflected positions.

- (27) a. *I have got a seriously black sense of humour.* (J1F 220)
 b. *He has got an angel’s face but devil’s brain.* (CBF 8339)
 c. *But we have got a meeting on Thursday, so perhaps we could make a point of er coming forward with some possible suggestions.* (FYB 93)
 d. *He has got curly hair.* (KDM 10194)
 e. *But then, I mean, it was quite common that the Prince of Wales had got*

²⁰ I was inspired in this matter by Haegeman & Guéron (1999:164).

²¹ Following Huddleston & Pullum (2002:107), they claim that the preterites of modal auxiliaries *could*, *should*, *would*, *might* are more common with the modal remoteness meaning than the past time meaning and especially *should* and *might* are no longer used with the past time meaning.

The examples in (27) confirm that **tense and agreement morphology always appears with *have***. As for *have* in the idiom *have got*, it accepts the agreement morphology but it does not show any specific properties similar to modal auxiliary verbs which remain uninflected. The morphology criterion, however, distinguishes only the first phonetically realized verbal component. As I demonstrated in (25d), the first element may be both auxiliary and lexical. Therefore I have to apply other diagnostics, namely contractions.

In English, besides its full form some verbs have the property to be contracted. This property is typical for auxiliaries and contractions do not usually appear with lexical verbs. However, this feature is not shared by all auxiliary verbs to the same extent.²²

- (28) a. *I'd like to have a book.* [would]
 b. *I'll have a book.* [will]
 c. *I'm going to have a book.* [be]
 d. *I've bought a book.* [auxiliary have]

Have in the idiom *have got* may occur in its contracted forms too. The examples below demonstrate the concrete usage.

- (29) a. *I know you think Caroline's got the perfect parents, her mum not working and [...]*²³ (BMS 966)
 b. *Marie's got a husband and a baby.* (A74 813)
 c. *I really must hurry along, I've got a busy day in front of me.* (HNJ 3454)
 d. *Well, she'd got a date with someone.* (H8Y 3437)

The examples above support, to a certain extent, the auxiliary function of *have* in the scheme (24). Below I propose syntactic structures which can be used to identify the characteristics of *have* in the idiom *have got* in terms of lexical and auxiliary more contrastively.²⁴

²² In addition, in Swan (2003:231) the author states that contracted forms are also possible with the short form *have* before determiners like *a/an, some* etc. A copula *be* may undergo contraction, too.

i. *I've a book.*
 ii. *I'm a teacher.*

²³ The square brackets mark my modification of the original text. In this particular case the sentence was too long.

²⁴ The criteria listed below are largely taken from Huddleston & Pullum (2002). The authors introduce four main constructions in which auxiliary verbs are distinguished from lexical verbs. These are included in the acronym NICE standing for negation, inversion, code and emphasis. In my list I did not add emphasis as there is no specific way to look up and recognise *have* in emphatic positions as the form in such constructions is identical with declarative forms. I can only make a claim here that given the data from BNC2, *have got* is not used with the emphatic *do* as seen with lexical verbs. The query was <do+does+did> <have> <got>. The explanation of what these patterns mean is given in

1. Insertion of (medial) adverbs
2. Negation formation
3. Question formation
4. Question tag formation

I intend to confront the idiom *have got* with the short form *have* in the first line of (24) as a representative of a lexical verb and a semantic equivalent to the idiom. I will also compare the idiom with *have bought* which is identical in form and which uses the perfective auxiliary *have*.

3.1.1 Insertion of (medial) adverbs

Following Huddleston & Pullum (2002:102) the authors say that there are differences between auxiliary and lexical verbs in their position relative to (medial) adverbs. While auxiliary verbs generally precede them, lexical verbs go after these adverbs. To be more concrete, in Quirk et al. (1991:493), the authors state that it is usually the first of the auxiliary group which appears in front of the adverbs. The theory based examples are given in (30).

- (30)
- a. *He will probably buy a book.*
 - b. *He will probably have bought a book.*
 - c. *He has probably bought a book.*
 - d. *He probably has bought a book.* (only emphatic)
 - e. *He probably buys a book.*

The table below gives the frequency count regarding the position of adverbs within the idiom *have got*.²⁵

(31) **Table 2:** Frequency of adverbs distribution within the idiom *have got*²⁶

footnote 12. There appeared no findings. The category of code comprises the phenomenon called stranding which can be exercised e.g. in short answers. However, I chose the criterion of question tags which some other authors, e.g. Swan (2003:230), mention together with short answers as a position where lexical verbs do not appear. Moreover, I think that question tags are very similar and can be regarded as code classification (see the definition of code in 3.1.4). In addition, it is easier to look up question tags in BNC2 than short answers. The phenomenon of adverb insertion is also introduced by Huddleston & Pullum (2002) as one of other criteria.

²⁵ Following Huddleston & Pullum (2002:102), I concentrated on frequency adverbs such as *always*, *usually*, *often*, *sometimes* etc. and modal adverbs such as *possibly*, *probably* etc. Then I also studied adverbs like *certainly*, *already* etc. mentioned by Swan (2003:22-26) to be medial adverbs.

²⁶ The queries were <have+has+had> <AVO> <got>; <AVO> <have+has+had> <got>; <have+has+had> <got> <AVO>. The explanation of what these patterns mean is given in footnote 12. The explanation of the numbers is given in methodology. I used XAIRA for this search which marks a general adverb with letters AVO. I did not limit the queries with determiners so that I got more possible examples. In addition, I did not apply the contracted forms because they would be impossible with the structures where adverbs immediately precede the idiom. The adverb would appear in the position which is already occupied by a noun or a pronoun. To treat all the constructions the same I did not seek the contracted forms in *have+ADV+got* and *have got+ADV* either.

After downloading the random set of 100, or fewer if not so many, I excluded constructions where *have got* was followed by *to*-infinitive marking a semi-modal *have got to* and expressing

	spoken E.	written E.
<i>have ADV got</i>	[145] 15 (3)	[439] 5 (1)
<i>ADV have got</i>	[95] 12 (5)	[123] 3 (3)
<i>have ADV got</i>	[116] 0	[392] 0

Derived from the findings in the table above, the adverbs are primarily placed between *have* and *got* (medial position) which signifies the auxiliary function of *have* in the idiom. The idiom copies the behaviour of *have bought* outlined in (30c). The following examples illustrate the concrete distribution of adverbs within the idiom *have got*.

- (32) a. *So that it's it **has certainly got** a lot of value an exercise like that, even with entirely good conditions.* (HEF 75)
- b. *As there has been very little traffic today, I just thought I would comment on somebody's statement that Leeds **have possibly got** the best squad in the premier league.* (J1E 1828)
- c. *But that's what, but The Sunday Times **has always got** a world news section at the back of it.* (KPV 5906)
- d. *For this is the beach club that **really has got** EVERYTHING for the family.* (AMW 206)

The option when the adverbs precede *have* is mostly with the adverb *really* which represents rather an emphatic use as in (30d) than a tendency to treat *have* in the idiom *have got* as a lexical verb.

Based on theoretical assumptions and the BNC2 search, Scheme 2 below demonstrates illustratively the contrastive behaviour of the idiom *have got* and the short form *have* after the insertion of an adverb.

- (33) **Scheme 2:** Standard distribution of adverbs with respect to the idiom and the short form *have*

	AUX	ADV	LEX	
I		<i>probably</i>	<i>have</i>	<i>a book.</i>
I	<i>have</i>	<i>probably</i>	<i>got</i>	<i>an excellent book at home.</i>

necessity, then structures that I identified as perfective. In cases where the adverb stood in front of the idiom I excluded constructions preceded by a modal auxiliary which influences the position of the adverb. Adverbs placed behind the idiom were mostly *back*, *away*, *there* etc. marking the perfective *have got*. When the idiom occurred it was followed by an adverb serving as an intensifier (such as *very*, *so*, *quite*) of the following NP which cannot be classified as a medial adverb.

Talking about the distribution of medial adverbs, *have* in the idiom *have got* shows the property of an auxiliary because *have* generally precedes the adverbs. The lexical position in the idiom *have got* is occupied by the element *got*.²⁷

3.1.2 Negation formation

A similar conclusion can be made when we consider the distribution of the negative particle *not*. In negative constructions it is the auxiliary verb (in first position) that precedes the negative particle *not* while the lexical verbs follow it. Moreover, only auxiliary verbs are capable of accepting *not* as a bound morpheme *n't*.

- (34) a. *I will not/won't buy a book.*
 b. *I have not/haven't bought a book.*
 c. *He is not/isn't buying a book.*
 d. *I *buy not/buyn't a book.*

When lexical verbs are not preceded by any auxiliary element, in contrast to (34b) where *bought* is preceded by *have*, they require *do*-support in negative statements (35b). On the other hand, auxiliary verbs as in (35a) resist *do*-support and take part in the negation formation process themselves as in (34a-c).²⁸

- (35) a. **I don't/do not have bought a book.*
 b. *I don't/do not buy a book.*

To demonstrate the above phenomenon I used BNC2. *Have* in the idiom *have got* follows the pattern of *have bought* in (34b) when it accepts the negative particle either as a free or a bound morpheme.²⁹

- (36) a. **I don't/do not have got an excellent book at home.*
 b. *I haven't/have not got an excellent book at home.*

The examples below show the concrete usage of the idiom *have got* in negative statements.

- (37) a. *We definitely have not got a problem.* (F7J 421)
 b. *She has not got bad skin.* (KBM 506)

²⁷ The lexical status of *got* is also evident from the occurrence of the reduced alternative *got* which can be also used for expressing possession. *Got* will be discussed in chapter 4.

²⁸ There are constructions with specific behaviour – the archaic *have* and the copula *be* which also do not accept *do*-support.

i. *I haven't/have not a book.*
 ii. *He isn't/is not a teacher.*

²⁹ The query was <do+does+did> <not+n't> <have> <got>. There appeared only one example with the perfective *have got*. The explanation of what these patterns mean is given in footnote 12.

- c. *Apart from her golf, she **hasn't got** many interests.* (GVP 968)
- d. *I **haven't got** an adventurous spirit, said Camille.* (G1D 1385)
- e. *She **hadn't got** a broken arm.* (KBB 10729)

Based on theoretical assumptions and the BNC2 search the scheme in (38) covers the insertion of the negative particle *not*. It describes different possibilities how to express possession in negative clauses.

(38) **Scheme 3:** *Have got* compared to the short form *have* and archaic *have* in negative clauses

	AUX	NEG	LEX	
<i>He</i>	<i>has/had</i>	<i>not/n't</i>	<i>got</i>	<i>an excellent book at home.</i>
<i>He</i>	<i>does/did</i>	<i>not/n't</i>	<i>have</i>	<i>a book.</i>
<i>He</i>	<i>%has/had</i>	<i>not/n't</i>		<i>a book.</i>

With the short form *have*, like with standard lexical verbs, the auxiliary *do* appears to accept the negation. On the other hand, it is *have* in the idiom *have got* which acts as an auxiliary verb. The archaic *have* contrasts to the short form *have* and behaves like an auxiliary. Thus we distinguish three different structures to express possession. Following Quirk & Greenbaum (2004:38), the idiom *have got* is typically British, the short form *have* is a dominant variant in Modern American English and is also used in Modern British English. The archaic *have* presents an exclusively British form which is now considered formal and old-fashioned.

To conclude, ***have* in the idiom *have got* meets the function of an auxiliary verb as it precedes the negative particle *not* and is capable of binding with the contracted form *n't*.**

3.1.3 Question formation

A standard way of creating questions is the inversion of an auxiliary. If there is more than one it is the first one that is inverted. The theory based examples are given in (39).

- (39) a. ***Will** you **buy** a book?*
- b. ***Will** you **have bought** a book?*
- c. ***Have** you **bought** a book?*

On the contrary, if a lexical verb is not preceded by any auxiliary verb it does not invert but requires *do*-support. The example in (40c) shows that the constructions

with auxiliaries never accept *do*-support given the ability of auxiliaries to invert themselves.³⁰

- (40) a. **Buy you a book?*
 b. *Do you buy a book?*
 c. **Do you have bought a book?*

To identify the behaviour of the idiom *have got* in questions I consulted BNC2. It proved that the only possible way for the idiom to build up questions is the inversion of *have*.³¹ A variant like (41b) is not acceptable and *have got* copies the pattern of *have bought* in (39c).

- (41) a. *Have you got an excellent book at home?*
 b. **Do you have got an excellent book at home?*

The examples introduced below represent the concrete usage of the idiom in questions as I found them in BNC2.

- (42) a. *Have you got your own teeth?* (HYP 154)
 b. *Yeah, but has she got any kids?* (KDG 1458)
 c. *Had he got time to get a cup of tea?* (JYF 445)
 d. *oh Jim have we got a meeting tomorrow?* (KBB 9414)
 e. *Have you got the stomach for that, or are you only brave when you're threatening a woman?* (G0P 3127)

Based on both theoretical assumptions and the data found in BNC2 I claim the following distribution of the idiom *have got* in questions compared to the short form *have* and the archaic *have*.

- (43) **Scheme 4:** *Have got* compared to the short form *have* and the archaic *have* in questions

AUX	PRON	LEX	
<i>Do/Did</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>have</i>	<i>a book?</i>
<i>Have/Had</i>	<i>you</i>	<i>got</i>	<i>an excellent book at home?</i>
<i>%Have/Had</i>	<i>you</i>		<i>a book?</i>

³⁰ The copula *be* and the archaic *have* behave specifically.

- i. *Are you a teacher?*
- ii. *Have you a book?*

³¹ I tried the query <do+does+did> <I+you+he+she+it+we+they> <have got> but there appeared only one example with the perfective *have got*. The explanation of what these patterns mean is given in footnote 12.

To conclude, *have* in ***have got*** shows the property of an auxiliary verb as it is inverted to form a question and there is no need of *do*-support.

3.1.4 Question tags

The criterion of code, where we can find auxiliary and lexical verbs contrasting, was covered in Huddleston & Pullum (2002:93) who called the phenomenon stranding. While auxiliary verbs can be stranded lexical verbs cannot. One way of stranding can be performed in short answers where one speaks in a ‘code’ i.e. that the verbal predicate is reduced to a mere auxiliary verb. However, the authors do not mention question tags which, I think, work under the same principle - ‘the semantic content being recoverable from the context’ of the previous clause. As such, auxiliary verbs are attributed to the property and occur in the question tags. On the contrary, lexical verbs are not repeated there and when they are not preceded by any other auxiliary element in the main clause, *do*-support is required instead. The theory based examples are given in (44).

- (44) a. *You will buy a book, won't you?*
 b. *You have bought a book, haven't/*boughtn't you?*
 c. *You buy a book, don't/*buyn't you?*

It can be seen in the examples above that an auxiliary verb is the only one which can be repeated in question tags and lexical verbs do not appear there. To search the above phenomenon in regard to the idiom *have got* I consulted BNC2. The survey showed that the idiom copies the behaviour of the perfective *have bought* in (44b) and does not require *do*-support because *have* appears in the question tag itself.

- (45) a. *You have got an excellent book at home, haven't you?*
 b. **You have got an excellent book at home, don't you?*

The following examples show the concrete distribution of *have got* in question tags found in BNC2.³²

- (46) a. *'So you've got problems, have you?* (EVC 2504)
 b. *Dot wanted to ask, He hasn't got a wooden leg has he?* (AC5 3119)
 c. *[...] I've got much bigger feet than you've got haven't I?* (KB8 10051)
 d. *We've g we've got five minutes haven't we?* (KLW 1444)

³² The queries were <have+has> <I+you+she+he+we+they> <?>: sp [1284] **5**, wr [354] **1** (2); <have+has> <not+n't> <you+she+he+we+they+I> <?>: sp [1132] **15** (7), wr [310] **11** (2). The explanation of what these patterns mean is given in footnote 12. The figures are explained in the methodology. After downloading the random set of 100, I excluded the examples which did not include the idiom *have got* in the preceding clause, i.e. present perfect forms of various verbs including the perfective *have got*.

From the suggestions made above we can outline the following distribution in question tags as regards expressing possession.

(47) **Scheme 5:** *Have got* compared to the short form *have* and archaic *have* in question tags

	AUX	LEX		AUX	
You	<i>(do)</i>	<i>have</i>	<i>a book,</i>	<i>don't</i>	<i>you?</i>
You	<i>have</i>	<i>got</i>	<i>an excellent</i>		
			<i>book at home,</i>	<i>haven't</i>	<i>you?</i>
You	<i>have</i>		<i>a book,</i>	<i>haven't</i>	<i>you?</i>

To conclude, we can **consider *have* in *have got* to be an auxiliary verb as it appears in question tags.** On the contrary, *got* behaves like a lexical verb as it is not repeated in these structures.

3.1.5 Other grammatical limitations and specifics of the idiom *have got*

To classify the behaviour of the idiom *have got* in more detail I introduced some other constructions. I followed Huddleston & Pullum (2002:106) in this matter. They divide inflectional forms into two categories – primary³³ and secondary. The latter includes infinitival and *to*-infinitival structures, *-ing* participle and past participle. These forms are not produced primarily by modal auxiliaries as demonstrated in (48). Non-modal auxiliaries like *be* and *have* usually have these forms. Only the auxiliary *have* is not used in the past participle. Examples in (48) are taken from Huddleston & Pullum (2002:106).

- (48)
- a. **I'd like to can swim.*
 - b. **I will can swim soon.*
 - c. **I regret not canning swim.*
 - d. **I have could swim for six years.*
 - a'. *I'd like to be able to swim.*
 - b'. *I will be able to swim soon.*
 - c'. *I regret not being able to swim.*
 - d'. *I have been able to swim for six years.*

However, Quirk et al. (1991:147) and other authors state that *have got* does not generally produce these forms and according to them we cannot say **to have got a headache* or **having got a brother* etc. In the following paragraphs I am going to examine the occurrence of the idiom *have got* in the structures mentioned above.

³³ Under the primary forms they span plain present tense, 3rd person singular and preterite which were discussed in the previous paragraphs.

3.1.5.1 Combination with modal auxiliaries

The characteristics of the idiom *have got* can be further clarified when we consider its distribution after modal auxiliaries like *will*, *must*, *may* etc. where a standard auxiliary *have* can appear as a part of the past infinitive.

(49) *He will/should/... have bought a book.*

If *have* in the idiom *have got* is like the (non-modal) auxiliary verb *have* in (48) it is then supposed to follow a modal auxiliary. But according to what was stated above, the usage of the idiom after modal auxiliaries is undesirable.

On the other side, Swan (2003: 230) claims that the infinitive form is sometimes possible after modal auxiliaries as in (50).

(50) *She must have got a new boyfriend.* (Swan 230)

However, the example (50) may well represent a combination of modal + past infinitive of *get* which is the structure irrelevant for the discussion here. Looking for more support of Swan's claim, I made a survey into BNC2. The following example in (51) demonstrates some of the occurrences in BNC2.³⁴

- (51) a. *Mind you I heard he could hear it in the background so he must have got a few kids.* (KDP 2450)
b. *The sink must have got a leak in.* (KC6 657)
c. *They must have got a piggy bank somewhere.* (KRL 382)

There appeared several cases of the idiom *have got* in the presence a **modal auxiliary *must* which seems to be the only acceptable.**³⁵ **The usage of other modal auxiliaries is rather limited** as the perfective form is preferred in such structures.

3.1.5.2 To-infinitives and -ing participles

To-infinitives and -ing participle clauses represent other constructions in which the standard auxiliary *have* usually appears.

- (52) a. *They seemed to have disappeared.* (Sinclair 187)
b. *Neither Rita nor I recalled ever having seen her.* (Sinclair 185)

³⁴ The queries were <will+must+can+may+could+should+would+might+shall> <have got> <a+an>: sp [24] **5** (5), wr [40] **3** (7); <will+must+can+may+could+should+would+might+shall> <have got> <the>: sp [12] **0** (6), wr [45] **1** (7). The explanation of what these patterns mean is given in footnote 12. After downloading the examples I excluded sentences I identified as perfective *have got* and also sentences which were fragmented such as *I have (got) a*.

³⁵ Such constructions have epistemic meaning.

Looking for more data in BNC2, the instances below demonstrate the concrete usage of *have got* in *-ing* participle clauses and *to*-infinitives.³⁶

- (53) a. *Having, **having got** the manifest content, what, what does Freud's theory of dreams tell us we need to do next?* (HUL 393)
- b. *But I would have liked **to have got** the napkins to match, but she said they don't come in with the napkins.* (KDA 7509)

It must be noted here that both constructions in (53) represent rather some kind of idiomatic phrases. Moreover, given the very limited data, the BNC2 search thus support the claim that the usage of the idiom *have got* in *-ing* participle clauses and *to*-infinitives is generally infelicitous.³⁷

To summarize, ***have in the idiom have got* exhibits the properties of an auxiliary verb** in the sense that it accepts the auxiliary function in (24) and thus **participates in the syntactic processes**. This property is shared by English modal and non-modal auxiliaries. However, one clear distinction between English modal and non-modal auxiliaries can be stated as a distinction in morphology: modals have a very restricted paradigm, while non-modal auxiliaries, usually have a full verbal paradigm as demonstrated in (48). It was shown that **the idiom is limited in its verbal paradigm. The progressive and imperative forms do not appear at all, other structures like *-ing* participle clauses together with *to*-infinitives are rather avoided**, which moves the idiom closer to the properties of modal auxiliaries.

However, it does not share one of the basic modal characteristics as *have in the idiom* accepts tense and agreement morphology contrary to modal auxiliary verbs as demonstrated in (27). The idiom also showed some indication of the possibility of being able to appear with the modal auxiliary verb *must* but the combination of two modal auxiliaries is impossible.

The secondary inflectional forms of *have got*'s paradigm seem to be greatly limited. Hence in chapter 4 I will look in more detail at the primary forms, concerning its frequency. I will also mention some equivalent forms of the idiom *have got* which may appear within this category.

³⁶ The queries were <having> <got>: sp [33] **1**, wr [99] **0** (7); <to have got>: sp [30] **1** (1), wr [164] (1). The explanation of what these patterns mean is given in footnote 12. What was excluded is clarified in footnote 34.

³⁷ Speaking about past participles these forms do not occur at all. The query was <have+has+'ve+'s> <had got> but there were no findings. The explanation of what these patterns mean is given in footnote 12.

4 TENSE PARADIGM OF THE IDIOM *HAVE GOT*

In this final chapter I will investigate the frequency of primary paradigmatic forms of the idiom *have got* in comparison with the short form *have* and the archaic *have* which all may express possession. I will concentrate on present and past tense including different forms discussed previously in chapter 3 i.e. the occurrence in positive, contracted, negative constructions and questions. I will also survey the frequency of the alternative forms *got* and *ain't got*.

Constructions were looked up in spoken and written language separately. The findings in the tables are limited to noun phrases preceded by determiners *a*, *an/any* and *the*. It must be pointed out here that the final numbers reported in the tables (i.e. those in bold and brackets) are not absolute. The criteria for the distinction of the idiom from the perfective *have got*, which were discussed in chapter 2, do not cover all possibilities which may appear and what mainly decides this distinction is semantics. Despite this fact I tried to locate the possessive *have got* as far as possible.

4.1 Present tense

In this part I am going to explore the frequency of *have got* as it appears in the present tense. The following chapter is divided into sections dealing with these aspects: positive declarative forms, negative sentences, questions and structures *got* and *ain't got*.

4.1.1 Present positive declarative forms

Alexander (1988:199) states that *have got* is the preferred alternative to the stative/possessive short form *have* in spoken, idiomatic Modern British English. As such *have got* appears mainly in the informal context. To prove or disprove the statement I searched BNC2. Table 3 shows the frequency of *have got* occurrence in present positive declarative forms in comparison to its short alternative *have*.

(54) **Table 3:** Frequency of *have* and *have got* in present positive declarative forms in BNC2³⁸

³⁸ The queries were <have+has> <got> <a+an>; <have+has> <got> <the>; <have+has> <a+an> <have+has> <the>. <have+has> marks that these words were included in one (builder) query using content nodes arranged horizontally so that the software was able to look for examples which comprise not only *have* but also *has*. The link between the content nodes arranged vertically, i.e. between <><>, is always the next and so <have+has> are immediately followed by <got> and then by determiners <a+an>. The figures in [] answer to the number of findings to a particular query; numbers in bold include constructions that are highly probable to mean possession in a general sense in the random set of 100, however, in some cases there were not as many as 100 findings to the query so I downloaded as many as possible; figures in () contain constructions out of the same random set of 100 that are not unambiguously possessive or perfective. These are especially constructions with no further complementation as in (4) where even the context of the surrounding sentences did not help. After downloading the examples I excluded structures I identified as the perfective *have got*. In the case of the short form *have* I excluded sentences comprising dynamic meaning, negative sentences and constructions which appeared in questions using declarative sentence. There also appeared incomplete, fragmented sentences such as *I have (got) a* which I excluded as well.

HAVE=*have* and *has*

<i>HAVE got</i>	spoken E	written E	<i>HAVE</i>	spoken E	written E
A/AN	[317] 52 (28)	[262] 67 (8)	A/AN	[11071] 60	[49039] 90
THE	[111] 57 (16)	[222] 24 (24)	THE	[2562] 65	[16626] 86
total	[428] 109 (44)	[484] 91 (36)	total	[13633] 125	[65665] 176

As presented in the tables above, *have got* is much less common than the short form *have* in both written and spoken language.³⁹ As such *have* seems to be a preferred choice in present positive declarative forms, even in speech. However, this does not correspond to the above statement made by Alexander, at least in positive declarative forms.

At the same time, the idiom itself is more frequently used in the spoken domain than in the written which emphasizes its informal usage. We should not forget that BNC2 includes only 10% spoken texts while the remaining 90% consists of written texts i.e. there is nine times as much written data. As such there has to be about nine times as many findings in written language to conclude that the frequency is more or less the same in both registers.

4.1.2 Contracted forms

The informal status of *have got* may be underlined by its occurrence in contracted forms *'s/ve got*. In Swan (2003:132), the author states that the contractions in general represent the pronunciation of informal speech and they are generally avoided in a formal style. To explore the phenomenon I used BNC2. Table 4 below gives the data of the contracted forms of the idiom.

(55) **Table 4:** The frequency of *have got* in contracted forms⁴⁰

'VE=*'ve* and *'s*

<i>'VE got</i>	spoken E	written E
A/AN	[4283] 57 (28)	[1910] 67 (26)
THE	[1494] 55 (17)	[569] 53 (20)
total number	[5777] 112 (45)	[2479] 120 (46)

Derived from the findings reported in the table above and compared to the numbers of full forms in (54), it is evident that **contractions 's and 've got are numerically stronger than the full forms**. Naturally, **the contractions appear primarily in spoken language**.

³⁹ Although the findings in the random set of 100 are about the same amount, the results to particular queries are much higher with the short form *have*. I restrained myself from bringing about the final numbers as I did not go through the rest of the findings but only the random set of 100.

⁴⁰ The queries were <'ve +'s> <got> <a+an>; <'ve +'s> <got> <the>. The explanation of what these patterns and numbers in the table mean is given in footnote 36. After downloading the random set of 100 I excluded structures I identified as the perfective *have got*. I also eliminated fragmented sentences (see footnote 38).

4.1.3 A comment on the reduced form *got*

Speaking about the informal use of the idiom *have got*, it can occur in its even more informal variant *got*. The auxiliary *have* in the idiom *have got* may be elided retaining mere *got*. Following Biber (1999:466), the instance (56) signifies a current possession rather than something that was acquired in the past.

(56) *Oh I got loads left.* (Biber 467)

Swan (2003:231) states that *got* constructions like (56) appear in very informal Modern American speech. In Quirk et al. (2004:132), the authors do not mention the distinction between Modern British and American English but agree on the fact that the omission of *have* is non-standard, especially in the written language. To support the phenomenon of *got* numerically, I searched BNC2. Table 5 reports the findings.

(57) **Table 5:** The occurrence of the reduced form *got* in BNC2⁴¹

Got=*got* VVD

<i>got</i>	spoken E.	written E.
A/AN	[1133] 34 (1)	[1495] 6 (2)
THE	[777] 7 (5)	[1258] 7 (7)
total number	[1910] 41 (6)	[2753] 13 (9)

The frequency count reported in Table 5 show that **the reduced form *got* is used particularly in speech.** Its occurrence in written language is much less common (see also the note in the last paragraph of the section 4.1.1). The examples below demonstrate the concrete usage of *got* forms in BNC2.

- (58) a. *got an advantage she got a fax at home* (JN6 952)
 b. *Yeah but you can go like that cos you got long arms.* (KCT 13287)
 c. *You got a clever old dad!* (KBF 3352)

A specific feature of the reduced form *got* is that it does not accept agreement morphology as can be seen in (58a). This is according to Veselovská (2008:4.3), the only way to express 3rd person singular. No such variant like in (59a') was found in BNC2.⁴²

- (59) a. *He buys a book.*

⁴¹ The queries were <got VVD> <a+an>; <got VVD> <the>. The explanation of what these patterns and numbers in the table mean is given in footnote 36. The marking VVD is used in BNC2 and refers to past tense forms. I chose to employ *got* marked as VVD to eliminate the structures which are preceded by *have*. After downloading the random set of 100 I excluded structures I identified as the past form of *get*. I also eliminated fragmented sentences (see footnote 38). Questions using declarative sentence were excluded as well.

⁴² I used a phrase query for this search to fill in *gots* but no findings resulted.

a'. **He got* an excellent book at home.⁴³

To demonstrate the above mentioned phenomenon I used BNC2. The instances introduced below in (60) show the concrete usage of *got* in the inflectional position.⁴⁴

- (60) a. *And she got a younger sister.* (KBU 884)
b. *She got a little boy.* (KB6 471)
c. *She got no light on her bike!* (KST 624)

In *have got* the negative marker is taken by an auxiliary verb *have*. Given the limited data from BNC2, negation with *got* seems to be formed mostly in the way that the negative particle *not* precedes *got*.⁴⁵ In one example *got* was accompanied by *do*-support.⁴⁶

- (61) a. *Not got a penny in his pocket.* (KBE 9035)
b. *You not got a mind of your own, do what you want to do* (KCP 6677)
c. *I don't got time cos he's so busy running these man management courses* (K6W 545)

Looking at the form of questions in (62) they can be made in two ways: either as standard questions with *have* but without the auxiliary verb⁴⁷ as in (a) or we can see the tendency to drop the pronoun as in (b).⁴⁸

⁴³ In addition, when we consider the form *got* as a past participle of *get* it is fairly improbable that it will be combined with subject-verb agreement as in **He boughts a book*.

⁴⁴ The queries were <she+he> <got-VVD> <a+an>: sp [151] **17**, wr [222] **1**; <he+she> <got-VVD> <the>: sp [78] **2** (1), wr [199] **5** (5). The explanation of what these patterns and numbers mean is given in footnote 38. For the clarification of VVD and for excluded structures see the footnote 41.

⁴⁵ The queries were <not+n't> <got-VVD>: sp [36] **6** (7); wr [5] **0**. The explanation of what these patterns and numbers mean is given in footnote 36. For the clarification of VVD see the footnote 39. After downloading all the examples I excluded structures which I identified as past form of *got*, also the constructions *ain't got* and *n't/not got to* marking the reduced semi-modal (*have*) *got to*. For the query <got-VVD> <not> there were no findings. I did not limit the query with determiners because the numbers were low.

⁴⁶ According to Veselovská (2009) *do*-support is possible although restricted. For more details see Veselovská (2009:4.3).

⁴⁷ This form may as well represent an question using declarative sentence.

⁴⁸ The queries were <I+you+he+she+we+they> <got-VVD> <a+any>: sp [833] **3** (4), wr [731] **2**; <I+you+he+she+we+they> <got-VVD> <the>: sp [609] **0** (2), wr [658] **0**. The explanation of what these patterns and numbers mean is given in footnote 38. For the clarification of VVD see the footnote 41. After downloading the random set of 100 I excluded cases which were not questions or represented past form of *get*. For the query <got-VVD> <you+she+he+we+they+I>: sp [201] **0**; wr [68] **0** all of the downloaded examples I excluded cases which were not questions or included the past form *get*. I tried the possibility where *got* appears in the first sentence position <s> <got> <a+any>: sp [319] **6** (4), wr [60] **20** (3); <s> <got> <the>: sp [80] **2** (4), wr [10] **2** (2). It was not necessary to specify *got* to VVD because *got* cannot be preceded by *have* in the sentence initial position. After downloading the examples I excluded sentences which were not questions or included the past form *get*. For the query <do+does+did> <you+she+he+we+they+I> <got-VVD>: sp [10] **0** (2), wr [1] **0**. In some cases I did not limit the queries with determiners because the numbers were low.

- (62) a. *You got any hobbies?* (J8F 130)
 b. *Got a wife?* (CD2 259)

Although the number of findings with *got* in the inflected position, negative statements and questions is rather low, the examples above indicate that *got* represents a structure with the auxiliary *have* literally omitted. What I mean is that the sentence structure remains the same as in the case with *have* i.e. *got* does not accept agreement morphology, negation is made by *not* preceding *got* while *do*-support is restricted. Also in questions *got* appears alone.

4.1.4 Negation

Turning back to the unreduced form, it was found out that the idiom *have got* is used fairly frequently in positive declarative sentences, especially in its contracted forms. Despite this, the short form *have* appears more often. Now I would like to examine the occurrence of the idiom in negative statements. In Dušková (1988:177) the author says that the idiom is particularly common in negative sentences and questions. The short form *have* requiring *do*-support is considered by Quirk & Greenbaum (2004:38) to be an American English variant which is now common in Modern British English. The option of *have* constructed as an auxiliary in the archaic *have* is rare according to Leech & Svartvik (1975:242).

Looking for more details I searched BNC2. The following tables in (63) show the frequency of the idiom, the short form *have* and the archaic *have* in negative statements.

(63) **Table 6:** Frequency of the idiom, short form *have* and the archaic *have* in negative sentences⁴⁹

NOT=*not* and *n't*; HAVE=*have* and *has*; DO=*do* and *does*

<i>have NOT got</i>	spoken E	written E
A/ANY	[806] 53 (30)	[308] 67 (22)
THE	[246] 67 (16)	[122] 54 (20)
total	[1052] 120 (46)	[330] 121 (42)

<i>do NOT have</i>	spoken E	written E
A/ANY	[336] 92	[1103] 97
THE	[117] 97	[721] 100
total	[453] 189	[1824] 197

<i>have NOT</i>	spoken E	written E
A/ANY	[74] 71	[208] 98
THE	[37] 33	[223] 92
total	[111] 104	[431] 190

⁴⁹ The queries were <have+has> <not+n't> <got> <a+any>; <have+has> <not+n't> <got> <the>; <do+does> <not+n't> <have> <a+any>; <do+does> <not+n't> <have> <the>; <have+has> <not+n't> <a+any>; <have+has> <not+n't> <the>. The explanation of what these patterns and numbers in tables mean is given in footnote 38. After downloading the random set of 100 I excluded sentences which included the perfective *have got*. In the case of the short form *have* and the archaic *have* I was forced to exclude also verbo-nominal constructions as these are structures not relevant for the discussion here. Fragmented sentences were eliminated as well (see footnote 38).

Regarding the negation **in written language, the forms *do + not/n't have* are a majority choice.** However, **the idiom *have + not/ n't got* seems to be a bit more common in spoken language than its equivalent short form *have*.** The findings reported in the tables above demonstrate **a tendency to adopt American forms with *do* to a large extent in Modern British English.** The archaic *have*, in contrast to the other two forms, represents **the least common option in speech, however, in written language it seems more acceptable than the idiom *have got*.** Below I propose some examples of the concrete usage of the archaic *have*.

- (64) a. *I **haven't** a chance in hell.* (KBF 4914)
 b. *I'd like some new ones but **haven't** a clue which to buy.* (C9X 745)

Generally, the archaic *have* seems to collocate preferably with abstract nouns, especially with *clue* as in (64b) when opened with an indefinite article. When a definite article follows it mostly collocates with a noun *idea* preceded by the superlatives *the faintest/the foggiest* and *the slightest*. This supports the tendencies which Biber (1999:162) mentions in his study.

4.1.4.1 Other forms of negation

The idiom *have got* has more negative forms than suggested above although the one with the negative particle *not* is the most frequent. Another less common possibility to express negative statements is the use of a negative element *no* which precedes the following noun phrase.

- (65) a. *And now here we are again with yet another wonder miracle drug, which they say **has got no** side effects and which is wonderful and is gonna make all these people really happy.* (HVL 27)
 b. *It's scandalous, scandalous, that means that people in this country **have got no** privacy at all.* (HE7 235)

There is also an option to combine both negative elements *not* and *no* within one clause. Double negation in (66) marks an intensification and does not change the final polarity here i.e. the polarity remains negative.⁵⁰

- (66) a. *I **haven't got no** brothers or sisters.* (ACB 567)
 b. *Only thing is, he **hasn't got nothing** on his head!* (KCA 1773)

Krejčová (2004:37) proposed in this matter that double negation sentences are not semantically different from standard sentences with a single negation because the second negative marker is only a copy of the original *not*. This copy was incorporated into the indefinites like *anyone, anything* etc. because they are sensitive

⁵⁰ This seems to be a rather substandard construction as Sinclair (1990:207) claims that the usage of two negative words is almost unacceptable.

elements for the negative particle. The table below demonstrates the frequency of double negation compared to mere *no*.

(67) **Table 7:** The frequency of negative constructions *have got no* and *haven't got no*⁵¹

HAVE=*have* and *has*; NO=*no, nothing, nobody, no-one*

	spoken E.	written E.
<i>have got NO</i>	[35] 20 (13)	[23] 16 (3)
<i>haven't got NO</i>	[30] 9 (17)	[7] 4 (3)

Double negation represents an influence from Modern American English. However, **negative statements with a mere *no* element seems to be preferred over double negation** in Modern British English. But **in contrast to *not* negation in (63) they are both marginally used.**

4.1.4.2 A comment on *ain't got*

Ain't got represents another substandard construction. In this construction *ain't* replaces *haven't*. Following Biber (1999:243), it originally represented the contracted form of *am not*. Later its usage was widened also for *are not, is not, have not* and *has not*.

(68) *I ain't got my bag.* (Alexander 200)

To demonstrate the above phenomenon numerically I used BNC2. Table 8 shows the results of the occurrence of *ain't got* in BNC2.

(69) **Table 8:** The occurrence of possessive *ain't got* in BNC2⁵²

NO=*no, nothing, nobody, no-one*

<i>ain't got</i>	spoken E.	written E.
A/ANY	[98] 43 (35)	[16] 8 (5)
THE	[38] 14 (13)	[11] 5 (4)
total	[136] 57 (48)	[27] 13 (9)

***Ain't got* is very informal and it predominantly appears in spoken registers.** The following examples demonstrate the concrete usage of *ain't got* as I found them in BNC2.

(70) a. *I suppose she comes here every night with her bags and things cos she*

⁵¹ The queries were <have+has> <got> <no+nothing+nobody+no-one>; <have+has> <not+n't> <got> <no+nothing+nobody+no-one>. The explanation of what these patterns and numbers in the table mean is given in footnote 38. After downloading the examples I excluded sentences which included the perfective *have got*.

⁵² The queries were <ain't> <got> <a+any>; <ain't> <got> <the>. The explanation of what these patterns and numbers in the table mean is given in footnote 38. After downloading the examples I excluded constructions which I identified as the perfective *ain't got*.

- ain't got a telly at home.* (A74 1791)
- b. *Looks like he ain't got any front feet.* (KBL 4221)
- c. *Miss, I ain't got a diary I've gotta buy a new one.* (KPG 4788)

Ain't got represents a unique construction suitable for all persons, i.e. it does not accept inflection in 3rd person singular as noticeable in (70a/b).

When *ain't* occurs in a clause it is then replaced by *have* in a question tag as demonstrated in (71a). Furthermore, *ain't* itself can appear in question tags (b/c).⁵³ Instances (71a/b) confirm that it is the auxiliary *have* + *n't* for which *ain't* stands. At the same time it demonstrates that *ain't* represents only a pronunciation variant rather than proper verb as there exists nothing like 'ai' that would appear in question tags or in positive statements in general.⁵⁴

- (71) a. *no we ain't got much time for pinting have you?* (KB2 2388)
- b. *I mean, he's got a very dubious past ain't he?* (KBC 2758)
- c. *He's looking good tonight, ain't he?* (CK4 1306)

As mentioned before, *ain't* can replace not only auxiliary *have*. Look at the example (71c) where *ain't* replaces *be* + *not/n't*.

Ain't got can also appear with another negative particle. To demonstrate the phenomenon I searched BNC2. Table 9 below gives the data.

(72) **Table 9:** The occurrence of possessive *ain't got* with another negative element⁵⁵

NO=*no, nothing, nobody, no-one*

	spoken E.	written E.
<i>ain't got NO</i>	[87] 52 (19)	[35] 27 (7)

Double negation is common with *ain't got* and it is more frequent than with *have* + *not/n't got* in (67), showing the scale from more standard to more colloquial form. The following examples illustrate the concrete usage of a such construction in BNC2.

⁵³ The query for this search was <have+has+'s+'ve> <got> <ain't> <I+you+she+he+we+they> <?>: sp [341] 5; wr [28] 0. The explanation of what these patterns mean is given in footnote 38. I applied this kind of query as the best way to locate the construction *ain't* in question tags. The link between <got> <ain't> is not the next but a 'one-way' marking that *have got* etc. precede *ain't* but not immediately. After downloading the examples I excluded those which did not involve the idiom in the clause which preceded the question tag i.e. those with the verb *be* etc. and with the perfective *have got*.

⁵⁴ The query was <ai>: sp [2292] 0, wr [1711] 0. After downloading the random set of 100 there appeared only sentences in which *ai* was a part of the *ain't* construction or represented an abbreviation 'AI' standing for an institution.

⁵⁵ The query was <ain't> <got> <no+nothing+nobody+no-one>. The explanation of what these patterns and numbers in the table mean is given in footnote 36. After downloading the examples I excluded constructions which I identified as the perfective *ain't got*.

- (73) a. *No yours is okay **ain't got no** playschool next week, have we?* (KD1 1518)
 b. *Limeys **ain't got no** sense of humour.* (ALL 2259)

We can notice that such sentences preserve the negative polarity.

4.1.5 Questions

As mentioned in the previous section the idiom *have got* is, according to Dušková (1988:177), also common in questions. We have mentioned that *do*-forms, i.e. the short form *have*, are considered as rather American structures and the auxiliary-like archaic *have* appears sporadically. To prove or disprove this phenomenon in questions I searched BNC2. The tables below show the frequency count of these particular forms in questions.

(74) **Table 10:** Frequency of the idiom in questions, compared to the short form *have* and the archaic *have*⁵⁶

HAVE=*have* and *has*; DO=*do* and *does*; PRON=*I, you, he, she, we, they*

<i>have PRON got</i>	spoken E.	written E.
A/ANY	[495] 50 (44)	[150] 64 (32)
THE	[123] 35 (59)	[34] 17 (15)
total	[618] 85 (103)	[184] 81 (47)

<i>do PRON have</i>	spoken E.	written E.
A/ANY	[176] 100	[337] 96
THE	[21] 21	[52] 41
total	[197] 121	[489] 137

<i>have PRON</i>	spoken E.	written E.
A/ANY	[90] 78	[254] 97
THE	[7] 4	[31] 26
total	[35] 32	[99] 91

As presented in the tables above, **questions with the idiom *have got* represents a majority choice regarding a spoken language.** On the other side, ***do*-forms are more common in the written registers. Both constructions are preferred over the archaic *have* in speech but written English seems to have more proportions of archaic phrases than idioms.** The following instances in (75) illustrate the concrete appliance of the archaic constructions.

- (75) a. ***Have you an alibi?*** (H97 2114)
 b. ***Er, just so that we can see which way we're working, John, can I just***

⁵⁶ The queries were <have+has> <I+you+she+he+we+they> <got> <a+any>; <have+has> <I+you+she+he+we+they> <got> <the>; <do+does> <I+you+she+he+we+they> <have> <a+any>; <do+does> <I+you+she+he+we+they> <have> <the>; <have+has> <I+you+she+he+we+they> <a+any>; <have+has> <I+you+she+he+we+they> <the>. The explanation of what these patterns and numbers in tables mean is given in footnote 38. After downloading the random set of 100 I excluded constructions which I identified as the perfective *have got*. In the case of the short form *have* and the archaic *have*, I was also forced to exclude verbo-nominal constructions as they are structures not relevant for the discussion here. There also appeared instances which were not questions and sentences which were fragmented (see footnote 38). I excluded these as well.

check out, **have you** the faintest idea what the hell she's talking about?

(JJ7 328)

The archaic *have* is consistent with a collocation choice in negative forms i.e. the abstract nouns *clue* and *idea* are considerably common.

4.2 Past tense

The BNC2 data showed that *have got* is fairly largely used in present tense forms. In the following chapter I will examine the use of *have got* in past tense structures. The chapter involves sections covering past positive declarative forms, contractions, negative structures and questions respectively.⁵⁷

4.2.1 Past positive declarative forms

Besides the occurrence of the idiom *have got* in the present tense, the form *had got* is possible when referring to the past possession. However, Huddleston & Pullum (2002:112) state that the past forms of the idiom are not common. Looking for support of the claim I searched BNC2. The following table introduces the frequency count regarding *had got* appearances.

(76) **Table 11:** Frequency of *had got* in comparison to *had*⁵⁸

<i>had got</i>	spoken E.	written E.	<i>had</i>	spoken E.	written E.
A/AN	[33] 22 (4)	[46] 9 (5)	A/AN	[5373] 80	[25530] 82
THE	[15] 3 (8)	[94] 10 (2)	THE	[1298] 79	[8576] 85
total	[48] 25 (12)	[140] 19 (7)	total	[6671] 159	[34106] 167

Comparing the data about *had got* given in the tables above with those in (54) the idiom *have got* primarily occurs in present tense constructions. **Although the past forms are possible, *had* on its own represents nearly an absolute option.**

4.2.2 Contracted past forms

Similar to present tense constructions, *had got* may appear in its contracted form *'d got*. The contraction *'d* is also used for the modal auxiliary *would* but it cannot be confused because in such a case *'d* is followed by an auxiliary *have* (to form past infinitive) or by a bare infinitive of a verb. As such (77a/b) mark *would* while (c) contains the idiom.

- (77) a. *would get* → *'d get*
 b. *would have got* → *'d have got*

⁵⁷ For the determination of the possessive *had got* I applied the same criteria as in present forms.

⁵⁸ The queries were <had> <got> <a+an>; <had> <got> <the>; <had> <a+an>; <had> <the>. The explanation of what these patterns and numbers in tables mean is given in footnote 38. After downloading the examples I excluded constructions which I identified as the perfective *had got*. In the case of the short form *had* and the archaic *had* I was forced to exclude also verbo-nominal constructions as they are structures not relevant for the discussion here. The short form *had* was in some cases preceded by *have* marking the present perfect form. These were also excluded.

c. *had got* → *'d got*

Table 12 illustrates the frequency of contracted past forms of the idiom *have got*.

(78) **Table 12:** Frequency of the contracted forms *'d got*⁵⁹

<i>'d got</i>	spoken E.	written E.
A/ANY	[148] 43 (12)	[63] 23 (16)
THE	[52] 10 (8)	[60] 12 (5)
total	[200] 53 (20)	[123] 35 (21)

It is obvious that the **contracted forms *'d got*** in Table 12 **are more frequent than the usage of the full forms** in (76). It copies the tendency in present tense proving that the idiom is rather informal construction.

4.2.3 *Negation in past tense*

Past positive declarative forms, in comparison to the short form *had*, are used minimally. Now I will look at the use of the idiom in past negative statements. *Had+n't/not got* constructions can be used as an alternative to *did+n't/not have*. Table 13 gives the relevant data from BNC2. It compares the frequency of the three possessive forms, namely the idiom *have got*, the short form *have* and the archaic *have* in past negation.

(79) **Table 13:** Frequency of the idiom *have got*, the short form *have* and the archaic *have* in past negative clauses⁶⁰

NOT=*not, n't*

<i>had NOT got</i>	spoken E.	written E.
A/ANY	[71] 37 (17)	[33] 12 (9)
THE	[30] 19 (7)	[21] 9 (4)
total	[101] 56 (24)	[54] 21 (15)

<i>did NOT have</i>	spoken E.	written E.
A/ANY	[303] 98	[647] 100
THE	[93] 93	[473] 100
total	[396] 191	[1120] 200

<i>had NOT</i>	spoken E.	written E.
A/ANY	[27] 27	[144] 100
THE	[10] 10	[217] 93
total	[37] 37	[261] 193

⁵⁹ The query was <'d> <a+an>; <'d> <the>. The explanation of what these patterns and numbers in the table mean is given in footnote 38. After downloading the examples I excluded constructions which I identified as the perfective ones.

⁶⁰ The queries were <had> <not+n't> <got> <a+any>; <had> <not+n't> <got> <the>; <did> <not+n't> <have> <a+any>; <did> <not+n't> <have> <the>; <had> <not+n't> <a+any>; <had> <not+n't> <the>. The explanation of what these patterns and numbers in tables mean is given in footnote 38. After downloading the examples I excluded constructions which I identified as perfective structures. In the case of *did +n't/not have* and the archaic *had+n't/not* I was forced to exclude also verbo-nominal constructions as they are structures not relevant for the discussion here.

We can see that **the short form *have* is more common** to the extent that the **negative past forms *had* + *not/n't got* are fairly low in frequency**. In addition, the **archaic construction *had* + *n't/not* represents a minimal choice in spoken language but in written registers it is more frequent than the idiom**. The examples in (80) introduce the concrete usage of the archaic *have*.

- (80) a. *I would have tried to contact you, but I **had't** a phone number.*(GUF 221)
 b. *I **hadn't** a clue about such things in those days.* (BN6 657)

Negative clauses with the idiom ***had got* + *no* and double negation are extremely rare** in comparison to the *have* + (*not/n't*) *got* + *no* in (67) and *ain't got* + *no* forms in (72). The table below gives the more concrete numbers.

- (81) **Table 14:** Frequency of *had got* with *no* and double negation⁶¹

NO=*no, nothing, nobody, no-one*

	spoken E.	written E.
<i>had got NO</i>	[4] 1 (1)	[2] 1
<i>hadn't got NO</i>	[4] 1 (3)	[21] 1

The instances in (82) show the idiom *had got* in negative forms with *no* element and double negation as I found them in BNC2.

- (82) a. *They **hadn't got no** kids, yelling and nagging at you the minute you get in, crawling all over you in the night because they're cutting their bloody teeth.* (A73 3027)
 b. *People **had got no** money you see having a load of kids and they keep always being in the family way [...]* (FXX 526)

4.2.4 Past questions

Had got forms turned out to be not common in positive declarative and negative statements. I next searched for the occurrence of the idiom in past questions. Its use is one of the possible options of how to ask about past possession. The following table demonstrates the occurrence. The table compares the frequency of the idiom *had got*, short form *had* and the archaic *had* in past questions.

- (83) **Table 15:** Frequency of *had got* in questions compared to the short form *had* and the archaic *had*⁶²

⁶¹ The queries were <had> <got> <no+nothing+nobody+no-one>; <had> <not+n't> <got> <no+nothing+nobody+no-one>. The explanation of what these patterns and numbers in the table mean is given in footnote 38. After downloading the examples I excluded constructions which I identified as the perfective *have got*.

⁶² The queries were <had> <I+you+she+he+we+they> <got>; <did> <I+you+she+he+we+they> <have>; <had> <I+you+she+he+we+they> <a+any>; <had> <I+you+she+he+we+they> <the>. The

PRON=*I, you, he, she, we, they*

	spoken E.	written E.
<i>had PRON got</i>	[12] 2 (4)	[61] 6 (8)
<i>did PRON have</i>	[649] 76	[492] 74

<i>had PRON</i>	spoken E.	written E.
A/AN	[4] 4	[17] 11
THE	[0]	[9] 1

The frequency count in the tables above demonstrates that there is a **general preference for the short form *had* in past questions**. The idiom ***had got* is marginal and the archaic *have* seems the same**.⁶³ The following examples show the concrete usage of the archaic *have* in past questions.

- (84) a. ***Had* he any problems, for example?** (HA2 1989)
 b. *Had* you any ***had*** you any clue at all that they were going to go back? (HMM 145)

To conclude, the idiom *have got* replaces the short form *have* in various contexts as proposed in section 2.2. Given the data from BNC2 the idiom *have got* appears predominantly in present tense while its application in past forms is fairly low compared to the short form *had*. In addition, when the idiom appears it is especially common in speech which supports its rather informal status suggested by cited authors.

explanation of what these patterns and numbers in tables mean is given in footnote 38. I did not specify the queries of *had got* with particular articles because the number of the findings was too low even without them and I was afraid that I would not get any examples with the idiom. As such I had to treat the short form *had* in the same way. But in the case of the archaic *had* the articles had to be used to identify this structure. After downloading the examples I excluded constructions which I identified as the perfective *had got*. In the case of the short form *had* there also appeared sentences with *to*-infinitival complement standing for the semi-auxiliary *had to* and expressing necessity and these were excluded. I also eliminated sentences which were fragmented (see footnote 38).

⁶³ We have seen that the appearance of the idiom *have got* after modal auxiliaries is fairly limited. *Will have got* constructions are avoided as there were no concrete findings in (51). Nevertheless, future can be expressed by adverbials of time. Because there is no effective way to look up such sentences, the example below is taken from the findings of present positive declarative forms.

- i. *Hugh and I have got a meeting at ten which will be clear by eleven.* (FUJ 2270)

5 CONCLUSION

I proposed here that the idiom *have got* represents a semantic equivalent to the stative/short form *have* and expresses possession in a general sense. It was also mentioned in chapter 2 that the idiom may look perfectively but its meaning is non-perfective. The agreement raises a problem because the form of the idiom is thus identical with the present perfect of the verb *get* whose meaning is roughly ‘acquired’, ‘became’ or ‘moved’. The two last meanings can be distinguished from the idiom *have got* in the way that contrary to the idiom *have got* they do not require a noun phrase object and follow the syntactic pattern demonstrated in (6).

(6) *get* → *have got* V, [-AdjP/AdvP/PP]

However, the noun phrase object is also compulsory for the perfective *have got* marking ‘acquisition’. As such the idiom *have got* and the perfective *have got* with this meaning share the pattern given in (7).

(7) *have got* [-NP]

These two expressions are therefore mostly difficult to recognise. The clarification of the two meanings can come out from complementation following the noun phrase object. There is salient feature in the application of PPs of time. They appear with the possessive *have got* although referring to the future but the perfective form excludes this type of complementation as these phrases suggest past events and thus require a simple past form. Only NPs like *this morning*, according to Quirk (1991:245), are accepted by some speakers if the utterance is spoken in the same morning. In addition, the AdvP of time *recently* traditionally co-occurs with perfective forms. It is possible with the idiom only in its past form. But generally, it is the semantics that make the interpretation of one or the other meaning unacceptable.

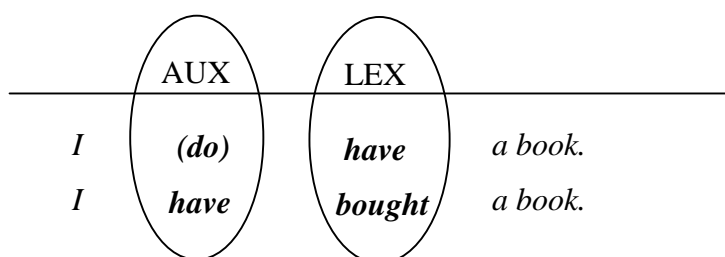
Furthermore, in (15) I demonstrated in the examples taken from Alexander (1988) that the idiom *have got* may cover a wide range of meanings attributed to the short form *have*. In some of these the semantics prefer the interpretation ‘have’ over ‘acquire’ even without any further complementation – e.g. ‘I have two sisters.’ but not *‘I received two sisters.’ However, not all cases are unambiguous and some of them could also mean ‘acquisition’ and they face the similar problem as proposed in (7) above.

Regarding the usage of the idiom, there are some general semantic restrictions applied to its usage i.e. a dynamic and habitual context. The BNC2 search revealed only a very limited number of examples in verbo-nominal constructions - a dynamic context. As such the verbo-nominal structures with *have got* represent a rare choice but not general acceptance. The rule that the idiom *have got* is limited to a mere stative meaning was further supported by the complete lack of two more formal characteristics - progressive and imperative forms. In habitual context, suggesting repetition, the idiom *have got* proved wider realization despite the fact that *have got* is said to refer to the current possession. The search in BNC2 confirmed Swan’s claim about the possibility of the idiom *have got* to replace the traditionally used

short form *have* in this context and disproved Alexander's too strict statement that the idiom is never used here.

The non-occurrence in imperative and progressive forms mentioned above outlined the topic of chapter 3. It was proposed that the impossibility of *have got* to produce imperative and progressive forms also emerged from its originally perfective form. In chapter 3, I dealt with the morphosyntactic properties of the idiom in more detail. What I mean is the analysis of the idiom in terms of auxiliary and lexical characteristics. I suggested that *have got* was originally derived from the perfective form. This would qualify *have* in *have got* as an auxiliary element. On the other hand it represents a semantic equivalent to the short form *have* which is a lexical verb. It is generally known that lexical and auxiliary verbs prove different properties in syntactic processes. The scheme in (24) indicates the different qualities of lexical and auxiliary verbs, illustrated here for *have* which can have the status of either a lexical or an auxiliary verb.

(24) **Scheme 1:** Different status of *have* using the terms of auxiliary and lexical



Since the lexical verbs need the supportive auxiliary *do* which participates in the syntactic processes (suggested by brackets), the auxiliary verbs undergo syntactic changes themselves. To demonstrate the properties of *have got* I used BNC2 which proved that *have* is treated as an auxiliary verb. First I demonstrated the ability of *have* in the idiom to be marked by tense and agreement morphology signalling its classification only as a first element in the verbal predicate. This criterion may be applied to both auxiliary verbs and lexical verbs in non-emphatic positions as I proved in (25d). Another criterion I introduced was the ability of the idiom to appear in its contracted forms *'ve/'s got*. It supported the auxiliary position of *have* more convincingly, however, this feature is not shared by all auxiliaries and even the short form *have* may be contracted. The BNC2 results further proved that *have* in the idiom *have got* precedes a negative particle and is capable of contracting with it without requiring *do*-support. In addition, *have* is inverted in questions and no *do*-support is allowed in this process. Both properties support the auxiliary function of *have* in the idiom. Moreover, the repetition of *have* in question tags also proves its auxiliary function. Another syntactic property related to auxiliary verbs and shared by the idiom *have got* is the distribution of medial adverbs after the auxiliary i.e. their insertion between *have* and *got*. Generally speaking, the idiom *have got* behaves differently from the short form *have* regarding syntax even though they represent semantic parallels.

But contrary to the standard auxiliary *have* or *be*, *have* in the idiom is rather limited in its verbal paradigm with respect to what Huddleston & Pullum (2002) call secondary forms. The usage of the idiom in *-ing* participle clauses and *to*-infinitives is rather avoided, which moves it rather closer to modal auxiliary properties.

However, the idiom does not share other modal characteristics as the co-occurrence with modal auxiliaries is not completely restricted and first of all, *have* in the idiom *have got* accepts tense and agreement morphology.

In chapter 4 I investigated more of the tense morphology of the idiom regarding the frequency. I compared the numbers with the frequency count of the short form *have* and the archaic *have*. Together they represent three possibilities in Modern British English for expressing possession in a general sense. However, *do*-forms with the short form *have* are said to be American constructions and the archaic *have* representing an auxiliary-like construction is considered old-fashioned. I searched BNC2 to prove or disprove the theoretical claims made about the frequency of the three forms, concentrating chiefly on the idiom *have got*. The conclusion is that, besides some semantic and paradigmatic limitations discussed in parts 2 and 3, the idiom *have got* also tends to be limited to some extent in its frequency in some cases. Given the data from BNC2, *have got* appears predominantly in present tense forms. In addition, it is especially common within the spoken registers, which supports its rather informal status proposed by the cited authors. However, compared to the short form *have*, its occurrence in present positive declarative forms is low in both spoken and written language. In past tense forms the difference is even sharper and the short form *have*, basically *had*, is preferred by the majority of speakers over the idiom which represents a minimal choice. Future forms of *have got* containing *will* seems to be generally avoided.

Nonetheless, in present tense negative clauses the findings show that *have got* is a preferred alternative in speech. In written registers the short form *have* is, however, more frequent. Similar tendencies are shown in questions. In both structures the archaic *have* represents the least common choice in speech but in written language it is about the same or even more frequent than the idiom *have got*. Generally, the archaic *have* seems to collocate preferably with abstract nouns, especially *clue* when opened with an indefinite article. When a definite article follows the archaic *have* mostly collocates with the noun *idea* preceded by the superlatives *the faintest/the foggiest* or *the slightest*.

BNC2 based research proved further that *have got* is considered rather informal and as such it is abundantly used in contractions. These are more frequent than the full forms in both present and past constructions. In addition, *have* can be omitted in very informal language and occurs in the *got* form. The reduced form *got* shows certain specifics as *got* is not marked for the agreement morphology in the 3rd person singular. *Got* also may appear alone in negative sentences and questions i.e. without *do*-support which is considerably restricted. *Got* preserves the position as in the non-reduced form *have got*. There are two other non-standard options in negative statements - double negation and *ain't got*. Both are dominant in spoken registers.

Overall, it is worth drawing attention to the fact that *do*-forms are widely adopted in Modern British English although they are considered American constructions.

SUMMARY

Cílem této bakalářské práce je prozkoumat užití slovesného idiomu *have got* ve významu „mít“ v moderní britské angličtině. Na gymnáziích je běžnou praxí, že se *have got* uvádí pouze v přítomném čase jako alternativní forma ke statickému a plnovýznamovému *have*, zatímco jeho používání v minulém čase se již nezmiňuje, nehledě na další slovesné tvary. Toto bylo jedním z důvodů, proč jsem se rozhodla danou tematiku prozkoumat. Nejprve jsem se zaměřila na sémantické hledisko, poté na morfologické a syntaktické vlastnosti idiomu a nakonec jsem se zabývala průzkumem frekvence idiomu v moderní britské angličtině v porovnání s plnovýznamovou krátkou formou *have* a také s tzv. archaickou formou *have*. Pro teoretický základ jsem zvolila příslušné lingvistické příručky, studie a gramatické texty, které uvádím v seznamu literatury. Praktická část představuje práci s Britským národním korpusem (BNC2), v němž jsem jednotlivé tvary *have got* vyhledávala. Ty jsou však omezeny určitým nebo neurčitým členem *the*, *a*, *an*, popřípadě *any* v otázkách a záporných větách. Analýzu dat pak konfrontuji s tím, co daní autoři tvrdí a dokládám názornými příklady.

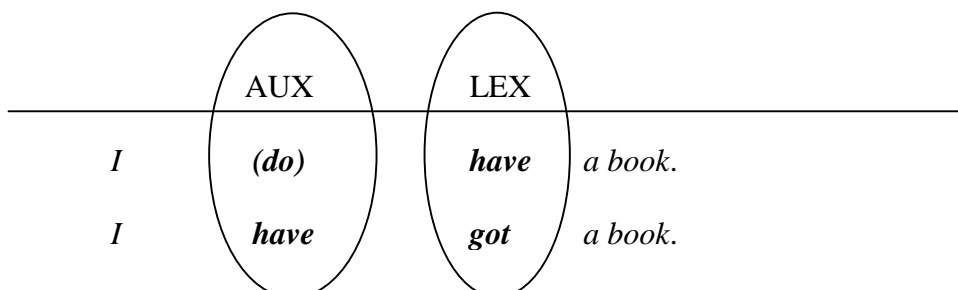
BNC2 obsahuje jak psané texty (90%) tak přepsané texty mluvené řeči (10%). Pro svou práci jsem hledala v mluvené a psané části BNC2 zvlášť. *Have got* je považováno za neformální vazbu a dá se proto předpokládat, že frekvence tohoto výrazu bude v obou částech BNC2 rozdílná.

Idiom *have got* svou formou nápadně připomíná perfektum slovesa *get*. Abych rozlišila tyto dva tvary, užívám v textu označení idiom *have got* a perfektivní *have got*. Perfektivní *have got* může mít více významů: dostal/získal/sehnal jsem, může vyjadřovat změnu stavu nebo určitý pohyb. Od posledních dvou zmíněných významů se dá idiom *have got* rozpoznat tím, že tyto dva výrazy nepotřebují přímý předmět, zatímco u idiomu *have got* je nutný. Zbývající významy však nelze rozlišit stejným způsobem, protože na sebe také vážou přímý předmět. Pokusila jsem se proto rozlišit tyto dva tvary podle toho, co by mohlo po daném předmětu následovat. Ukázalo se však, že obě vazby jsou si i v tomto ohledu podobné. Mnohdy nám může napovědět sémantika, tedy jestli věta při užití dané interpretace dává smysl, nebo ne. Tím je možno vyloučit druhou variantu. Jedno z omezení pro idiom *have got* představuje užití příslovce *recently*, které je ze sémantického hlediska vyloučeno. Naopak příslovecného určení času je v kombinaci s perfektivním *have got* neakceptovatelné a v tomto případě je nutno užít minulý tvar od slovesa *get*. Jedinou možnou temporální frází je *this morning* apod., avšak mluvčí ji musí pronést ještě téhož rána. Alexander (1999: 200–1) uvádí výčet situací, v nichž *have got* může alternovat krátkou formou *have*. I v některých těchto případech je však možná interpretace „dostal jsem“. V určitých kontextech je však ze sémantického hlediska naopak tato možnost vyloučena. Např. „mám hnědé oči“, „mám sestru“ atd., ne však „dostal jsem“.

Have se vedle statického významu „mít“ může objevit v tzv. verbo-nominálních konstrukcích, jako např. *have a shower* vyjadřující děj. *Have got* se tradičně užívá jako alternativa krátké formy *have*. Idiom *have got* se v BNC2 objevil i v již zmíněných verbo-nominálních vazbách, avšak jen velmi omezeně. *Have got* se ale neobjevuje v imperativu ani průběhovém tvaru, kde se dějová slovesa běžně vyskytují.

Have got se navzdory tvrzení některých autorů vyskytuje v obvyklých a ustálených situacích, které naznačují opakování. Opakovanost je vyjádřena pomocí adverbii *always*, *usually*, *normally* etc.

Následující schéma znázorňuje rozdílné funkce slovesa *have*. V prvním případě se objevuje *have* ve funkci plnovýznamového slovesa a roli pomocného slovesa zde přebírá *do*, které je v případě kladných tvarů sloves nevyjádřené, tak jako ve schématu (tato skutečnost je naznačena závorkami). V druhém případě vykonává *have* funkci pomocného slovesa a hraje roli ve větných procesech (tzn. tvorba otázek, záporů atd.).



Jakou funkci však vykonává *have* v idiomu *have got*? Při shodě podmětu s přísudkem přibírá *have* morfém *-s*. Tuto vlastnost však mají i plnovýznamová slovesa. Podobně jako některá pomocná slovesa, může mít *have* v idiomu *have got* staženou formu *'ve/'s/'d*. Tuto vlastnost ovšem nesdílejí všechna pomocná slovesa jak modální tak nemoální. I když *have got* představuje sémantický ekvivalent krátké formy *have*, netvoří záporné věty, otázky ani dovětky pomocí *do*, ale samotné *have* jedná jako pomocné sloveso, tzn. předchází zápornou částicí *not*, zejména staženou formu *n't*, invertuje v otázkách a vyskytuje se v dovětcích.

- a. *You have not got/haven't got an excellent book at home.*
- b. **You do not have got/don't have got an excellent book at home.*
- c. *Have you got an excellent book at home?*
- d. **Do you have got an excellent book at home?*
- e. *You have got an excellent book at home, haven't you?*
- f. **You have got an excellent book at home, don't you?*

V případě výskytu příslovcí se *have* v idiomu nachází před těmito příslovci, zatímco plnovýznamová slovesa je následující.

Have got lze užít i po modálních slovesech, konkrétně po modálním slovesu *must*, které se zdá být jediné akceptovatelné. Věty s *to*-infinitivem a přechodníky se téměř nevyskytují, v opačném případě představují spíše idiomatickou frázi.

Have got se nejčastěji používá v přítomném čase. Na rozdíl od svého protějšku, krátké formy *have*, je považován za neformální výraz a jako takový se vyskytuje především v mluvené řeči. I když se jedná o typicky britskou formu, v kladných větách přítomného času se krátký tvar *have* vyskytuje jak ve psané tak v mluvené části BNC2 mnohem častěji. Zkrácené tvary *'ve/'s/'d got* jsou běžnější než plné tvary, což svědčí o již zmíněném výskytu idiomu v neformálním jazyce. V neformální angličtině lze *'ve* rovněž vypustit a užít redukovanou formu *got*. *Got* se vyskytuje i po 3. osobě singuláru, ale nedochází zde ke shodě podmětu s přísudkem a *got* nese flektivní morfém *-s*. To je dáno jednak samotnou formou *got* představující minulé přičestí (morfém *-ed*) a tedy znemožňující přijmout další

morfém *-s*. I po vynechání *have* zachovává *got* nadále stejnou pozici ve větě, jako tomu bylo v případech s *have*. V kombinaci s pomocným slovesem *do* se redukovaná forma *got* objevila pouze jednou.

V záporných větách preferuje většina mluvčích v mluveném jazyce idiom *have got*. Naopak v psané angličtině je užití krátkého tvaru *have* frekventovanější, což podtrhuje jeho formálnější charakter. Vedle standardní negativní formy *haven't got* se vyskytují také vazby *have got no*, *haven't got no* či *ain't got*. I *ain't got* může být užito se zápornou částicí *no*, aniž by se změnila celková polarita věty. Podobné tendence jako v záporných větách se objevují i v otázkách. Zatímco v mluvené angličtině je běžnější *have got*, v psaném projevu opět převažuje krátká forma *have*. Archaické *have*, které se chová jako pomocné sloveso, se ze všech tří variant vyskytuje v mluvené formě nejméně, avšak v psaném stylu je častější než idiom *have got* jak v záporných tak tázacích větách. V minulém čase ve všech typech vět jednoznačně dominují tvary krátkého slovesa *have*. *Have got* i archaické *have* se užívají jen velmi omezeně.

Z výsledků hledání je patrné, že posesivní formy s *do* (tedy krátká forma *have*), i když představují americkou variantu, jsou v britské angličtině velmi časté, v mnoha případech dokonce preferované zvláště v psaném jazyce.

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ABSTRACT:

The main topic of this work is a verbal idiom *have got*. I intend to examine the usage of this construction in Modern British English. More precisely, I will study their formal properties including semantics, morphology and syntax and explore the frequency of its tense paradigm compared to the semantic parallels – stative *have* (the short form *have*) and the so called archaic *have* – as it appears in BNC2. I will also give a comment on the alternatives *got* and *ain't got*.

Key words: *have got*, stative verb, stative *have*, the short form *have*, archaic *have*, dynamic meaning, habitual meaning, auxiliary verb, lexical verb

ANOTACE:

Hlavním tématem této bakalářské práce je verbální idiom *have got*. Zabývám se jeho sémantickou, morfologickou a syntaktickou stránkou. Dále zkoumám frekvenci výskytu tohoto idiomu v různých slovesných časech v databázi BNC2 v porovnání se stavovým *have* (krátká forma *have*) a tzv. archaickým *have*. Zmiňuji se také o alternativních tvarech *got* and *ain't got*.

Klíčová slova: *have got*, stavové *have*, krátká forma *have*, archaické *have*, ustálené situace, dynamický kontext, pomocné sloveso, lexikální sloveso