On the Features of *there* Constructions
Used by Japanese Speakers of English

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1．Introduction

1-1．Background

The rapid spread of English as an international language has no doubt stimulated interesting and provocative discussions. Non-mother tongue users of English all over the world have developed unique varieties of English reflecting their own culture and society. At the same time the idea of "World Englishes" has been recognized among native speakers and non-native speakers of English alike. The conceptualization of World Englishes within a sociolinguistic framework goes back to 1965, when Braj. B. Kachru wrote his initial work, "The Indianness in Indian English" (Kachru, 1965). However, serious academic discussions on the concept and its formal and functional implications were not initiated until 1983, when Larry E. Smith clearly proposed the following idea；

> English belongs to the world and every nation which uses it does so with different tone, colour, and quality. English is an international... language. It is yours (no matter who you are) as much as it is mine (no matter who I am). We may use it for different purposes and different lengths of time on different occasions, but nonetheless it belongs to all of us. English is one of the languages of Japan, Korea, Micronesia, and the Philippines. It is one of the languages of the Republic of China, Thailand, and the United States. No one needs to become more like Americans, the British, the Australians, the Canadians or any other English speaker in order to lay claim on the language (L. E. Smith, 1983, p. 2).

In short, the concept of World Englishes describes the premise that all English speakers have the right to use English in their own ways, and that non-native Englishes with differing structural and functional features should also be treated equally to the native Englishes. This idea should allow Japanese speakers to internalize English, use it as their own additional lan-

guage and to express their own identity. Suenobu (1990) also defines Japanese English as 'the English which internalizes a Japanese language system and a living system of the Japanese and which grows with Japanese culture.' (p. 258) Theoretically, they have already had the chance to manage "Japanese English" as one of the varieties of World Englishes. In Japan, however, the concept does not seem to be adequately recognized. As many of Japanese speakers cannot recognize their English as one of the varieties of non-native Englishes, the word "Japanese English" has a strong negative connotation and hinders their ability to identify themselves with the language. Honna (2009) explains the unwelcoming situation in Japan as follows;

> Teachers and students in Japan invariably characterize Japanese English as full of errors, and this evaluation seems to be a common denominator among many corrective books (Petersen, 1988, 1990). Actually, as represented by Takefuta (1982) and Suenobu (2002), most "scientific" studies of Japanese English attempt to discover how deviant Japanese patters are from American or British standards. When statistically examined, however, utterances that Japanese users of English produce tend to contain fewer grammatical mistakes than widely believed. In a quantitative study of sentences collected from English-language websites created for personal purposes, Miyake (2002) found that the rate of misuse of articles was 4.47 percent, while that of tenses was 2 percent, and those of word order and subject-predicate agreement only 1 percent. (p. 122)

Though many Japanese think that Japanese English is inferior and that it should be avoided, the reason is only due to its differences to native English. The negative stigma of Japanese English exists as a result of perceived "mutual unintelligibility" among speakers of different Englishes.

When examining English sentences produced by Japanese, it is possible to find that some of them are grammatically correct but seldom used by native speakers. For example, Japanese tend to say "We went to Kyoto by car yesterday" instead of "We drove to Kyoto yesterday" which Americans prefer to say (D. Smith, 2003). When a friend fails to turn up at a designated place and time for an appointment, a Japanese would say, "I went there. Why didn't you come?" while an American would say, "I was there. Where were you?" Honna (2009, p. 123) claimed that the difference reflects some epistemological differences. However, as a lot of research is inclined to focus on errors Japanese speakers make, available data are still sparse regarding the English expressions which are grammatically correct, but not normally used by native speakers. The general purposes of the present study were to collect such grammatically cor-

rect Japanese English expressions which are not preferred to be used by native speakers, and to analyze why those differences emerge between Japanese English and native English.

The present study specifically focused on the use of *there* constructions by Japanese and native speakers of English. The reason for choosing this sentence construction as the focus of the study was the following. The *there* construction is among the basic English sentence structures, which is introduced at an early stage of English curriculum (i.e., normally within two years from the start of English instruction at middle high schools in Japan). Accordingly, the Japanese students normally acquire at least the basic structural property of the construction (i.e., "*there* + be + a logical subject noun phrase") at a relatively early phase of English learning. However, the authors' observations in English classes at the level of university have shown that the students often produce *there* constructions which are grammatically correct but not preferred by native speakers in terms of their usage in particular linguistic features and contexts. It was assumed that the focus on *there* constructions would make it possible to obtain data on the differential preferences on the use of English sentences between Japanese and native speakers.

1−2．**Review of Literature**

In the *there* construction, the grammatical subject *there* is a pronoun, and is always unstressed. It functions differently from the adverbial *there* (e.g., I used to go there very often; Sasaki, 1991). The following is the typical *there* constructions produced by native speakers of English.

there + { be + (premodifier) + logical subject + post-subject element
{ or other
{ verb

{ adverbial locative
{ relative clause
{ to-infinitive
{ participle
{ etc.

(Sasaki, 1991, p. 157)

This structure had been called an "existential construction" for a long time because the sentences usually show that something "exists". Some, however, do not imply existence, and the term has changed into more neutral one, "nonreferential (NR) *there*" (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1983, p. 183, cited in Sasaki, 1991, p. 158).

A great deal of research has been conducted on syntactic and semantic restrictions on the use of *there* constructions (e.g., Imamichi & Ishikawa, 2006; Takami & Kuno, 2002; Uchida, 2011). First, the previous research has shown that the logical subject in a *there* construction must be an indefinite noun phrase, or in Milsark's (1977) terms, a weak noun phrase (i.e., *some*, *few*, bare plurals (*seats*, *voters*), mass nouns (*cheese*), etc.[1]. These constraints are termed "definiteness restrictions"[2]. Second, it has been pointed out that the predicate in *there* constructions must be "stage-level" (Bolinger, 1977). It must represent a temporary property and avoid individual-level adjectives such as *tall*, *beautiful*, and *intelligent*.

(1) a. There were several flies eating my soup.

b. *There were several flies unusually brave. (a - b., Hagstrom, 2009, p. 3)

c. There are salesmen knocking on the door.

d. *There are salesmen intelligent. (c - d., Abbott, 2004, p. 15)

Third, previous research has provided data on preferred structural properties of *there* constructions and on preferred semantic characteristics of logical subject noun phrases (logical subject NP, henceforth) in *there* constructions. Loyed-Jones (1987), for example, analyzed an American English corpus composed of about 200,000 words. It was found that (a) the most frequent logical subject NPs are those denoting abstract things; (b) nearly 50% of the logical subject NPs were preceded by some kind of quantifier; and (c) the most frequent syntactic category was "*there* + be + logical subject NP + adjectival modifier (s).

One of the unique properties of *there* constructions, which has been pointed out by many researchers, is that the construction can be rephrased without *there* as described in (2)b.

(2) a. There is a big tree on the hill.

b. A big tree is on the hill.

There are some suggestions in the literature regarding the native speakers' preferences about these two types of sentence structure (e.g., Thomson & Martinet, 1986). First, according to Thompson & Martinet (1986), native speakers prefer to use *there* constructions when the logical subject NP denotes an indefinite being or thing (i.e., (2)a over (2)b). Second, they prefer to use *there* constructions when the speaker provides the listener with new information that something exists at some place. Third, they strongly prefer to use *there* constructions when the be-verb denotes occurrence of some event (Thompson & Martinet, 1986). Thus, (3)b below is

least acceptable to native speakers.

（3）a. Do you know there was a traffic accident in downtown last night？

　　b. *Do you know a traffic accident was in downtown last night？

It is recognized that the use of *there* constructions serves two important structural and discourse functions. First, it can avoid a "heavy" subject such that a logical subject NP with a number of modifying phrases can be placed after a be-verb. Second, it can place new information toward the end of a sentence.

Given these complex factors affecting the use of *there* constructions among native speakers, it appears understandable that non-native speakers find it difficult to learn the appropriate linguistic contexts in which to use *there* constructions[3]. The authors' observations show that their use of *there* constructions is influenced by the process of language transfer from いる (*iru*) and ある (*aru*) in Japanese to *there* constructions in English. いる (*iru*) and ある (*aru*), endings in Japanese sentences mean "to be" (in a certain place or time) or "to exist". Generally, *iru* is used for people and animals, and *aru* for everything else.

（4）部屋に一匹の猫が<u>いる (*iru*)</u>　／*ある (*aru*) 。

　　a. A cat is in the room.

　　b. There is a cat in the room.

（5）テーブルの上に一冊の本が<u>ある (*aru*)</u>　／*いる (*iru*) 。

　　a. A book is on the table.

　　b. There is a book on the table.　　　　　　　　　　（edited Uchida, 2011）

In schools, Japanese students learn that sentence-endings *iru* and *aru* can be translated into *there* constructions in English, and thus a lot of them prefer using (4)b and (5)b to (4)a and (5)a when they want to imply existence. In most cases, however, they are not taught about the usage of the constructions in terms of linguistic and non-linguistic contexts (i.e., the syntactic, semantic and discourse factors).

Previous research on L2 learning of *there* construction has provided some data related to the preferential use of the construction between the Japanese and native speakers of English (Miki, 2010). Miki (2010), for example, compared Japanese and native speakers on the use of a number of English sentence structures and expressions in English. The study used a parallel corpus analysis using Nagoya Interlanguage Corpus of English (NICE), which contains a large

collection of essays written by adult Japanese speakers of English and native speakers of English. Along with the sentences written by Japanese speakers, the corpus also contains corresponding sentences corrected, if necessary, by a native speaker of English. The study found that Japanese speakers (JPN) tend to overuse *there* constructions in contexts where native speakers (NTV) prefer some other sentence constructions, as exemplified below.

(6) JPN: I believe there are many reasons why parents make their children to learn English even they are young, but...

　　NTV: Parents may have many reasons for making their children learn English even when they are young, but...

(Miki, 2010, p. 56)

The findings clearly showed that some of the Japanese speakers' grammatical *there* constructions are not acceptable to or preferred by native speakers for some linguistic reasons. It remained unclear, however, what kind of linguistic factors were critical in determining the acceptability or preferences.

1-3. Rationale of the Study

　　To the best of the author's knowledge, no study has comprehensively examined the linguistic (syntactic, semantic and discourse) characteristics of *there* constructions produced by Japanese speakers as compared with those of native speakers, and how they are related to native speakers' acceptability or preferences. The present study attempted to fill in the gap by providing new data on this issue. Following Miki (2010), the study used a corpus of essays (i.e., NICE) written by Japanese and native speakers. As described above, the corpus also contained the sentences written by Japanese speakers and their corresponding sentences corrected by a native speaker. The corrected sentences provided data regarding the native speakers' acceptability of the constructions.

　　The present paper reports the results of preliminary analyses of the data, which focused on several syntactic features of *there* constructions and a semantic feature of logical subject NPs. The features included tense, plurality of the logical subject NP, adjectival modifiers of the logical subject NP, adverbial modifiers of a be-verb and semantic categories of the logical subject NP. These features were analyzed in a total of 613 *there* constructions extracted from the essays. Second, the study also examined whether the linguistic features significantly differed between advanced and less advanced learners of English. Third, it compared the linguistic fea-

tures of corrected and uncorrected *there* constructions, in an attempt to examine whether the features were relevant to native speakers' acceptability. Finally, it examined how *there* constructions were corrected and changed in terms of their sentence structure, in order to obtain information on native speakers' preferences on the constructions.

2．Method

2-1．Corpus

In order to investigate linguistic characteristics of English *there* constructions used by monolingual Japanese speakers, the Nagoya Interlanguage Corpus of English (NICE, henceforth) was used. The corpus is made up of essays written by adult Japanese speakers (N = 342). Before writing the essays, they were given instructions regarding some basic organization of English essays (e.g., introduction, main body and conclusion). They were asked to choose among eleven topics on social issues (e.g., crime, death penalty; to be described in more detail), and wrote an essay on a single topic for 60 minutes without consulting a dictionary. A unique feature of NICE is that, along with the sentences written by Japanese speakers, a part of the corpus (N = 201) also contains corresponding sentences which were corrected, if necessary, by a native speaker of English ("corrected" sentences, henceforth). This made it possible to evaluate whether *there* constructions used by Japanese speakers were appropriately used, or replaced with different constructions due to some linguistic reasons. NICE also consists of essays (N = 200) on the same topics written by native speakers of English. The present analyses were based on essays of Japanese speakers which also included "corrected" sentences (N = 201) and those of native speakers of English (N = 200).

2-2．Description of the Participants who Wrote the Essays

The Japanese speakers (Male: N = 58, Female: N = 142) [4] consisted of 145 undergraduate students (freshmen: N = 60, sophomores: N = 15, juniors: N = 15, seniors: N = 25) and 53 graduate students (master's program: N = 45, doctoral program: N = 8), with an average age of 21.9 (SD = 4.48) [5]. As indicators of the English ability, they provided one or more of the following data; a level of *Eiken* (the Society of Testing English Proficiency), a score of TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication: Educational Testing Service) or a score of TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language: Educational Testing Service). Approximately 75% of the students (N = 145) provided data on *Eiken* (Pre-1st level: N = 16, 2nd level: N = 76, Pre-2nd level: N = 25, 3rd level: N = 27, 4th level: N = 1), while about 57% (N = 114) provided data on

TOEIC (M = 678.9; SD = 166.9) [6]. Overall, the English ability among the students can be categorized as intermediate or upper-intermediate.

The native speakers of English (Male: N = 20, Female: N = 9) consisted of speakers of American English (N = 19), British English (N = 6), Australian English (N = 3) and Canadian English (N = 1), with an average age of 32.3 (SD = 12.1) [7]. The educational degrees they possessed were BA (N = 20), MA (N = 6) and PhD (N = 3).

2-3. Description of the Essays

The essays of the Japanese speakers had a total of 5,299 sentences, 4,121 word types and 68,730 word tokens, while those of native speakers of English had a total of 6,255 sentences, 9,376 word types and 122,949 word tokens. Table 1 shows the number of essays and topics in two groups. The Japanese speakers especially preferred sports and school education. This was probably because these topics were most familiar to university students. As each of the native speakers wrote several essays, they did not show any particular preferences[8].

Table 1 *The Frequency of Essays as a Function of Topics in the Japanese and Native Speaker Group*

		Japanese	Native
Topic	crime	8	16
	death penalty	13	19
	divorce	8	19
	money	19	18
	recycling	13	18
	school education	49	20
	sports	56	18
	suicide	10	19
	teenagers	5	18
	violence on TV	14	18
	water pollution	5	17
	part time job	1	0
		201	200

3. Results

3-1. Comparison between the Japanese and Native Speakers

3-1-1. Frequency of occurrence in the use of *there* constructions

Among all the essays analyzed, the Japanese and native speakers produced 245 and 368 *there* constructions, respectively. First, the proportion of essays which contained at least one

there construction was compared between the Japanese and native speakers. It was found that the Japanese speakers had 111 essays (55.2%), while the native speakers had 154 essays (77.0 %). The chi-square test found a highly significant association between the frequency in the use of *there* construction and the speaker group (Japanese, native), χ^2 (1, N = 401) = 21.2, p = .000. The next analysis compared the frequency of occurrence of *there* constructions per sentence. The construction occurred approximately every 22 sentences in the Japanese speaker group and 17 sentences in the native speaker group. The chi-square test found that the frequency of occurrence was significantly higher for the latter group than the former, χ^2 (1, N = 11,564) = 8.69, p = .003. The overall results showed that the native speakers used *there* constructions more frequently than the Japanese speakers when writing essays on social topics.

3–1–2．Tense

The proportion in the use of tenses was compared among all the *there* constructions produced by the Japanese and native speakers (N = 245 and N = 368, respectively). Table 2 shows the frequency of occurrence in the use of different tenses across the speaker group (i.e., Japanese and native speakers). It was found that the Japanese speakers used the present tense in approximately 90% of all *there* constructions produced, while the proportions of the other tenses were relatively small. The native speakers, on the other hand, produced a smaller proportion of the present tense and a greater proportion of the past tense and the present perfect tense than the Japanese speakers. Without statistical testing, the results support the conclusion that, relative to the native speakers, Japanese speakers strongly preferred to use *there* constructions in the present tense.

Table 2　*The Frequency of Occurrence in the Use of Tenses in there Constructions as a Function of the Speaker Group*

		present	past	future	present perfect	past perfect	subjunctive	Total
Japanese	Count	219	15	9	2	0	0	245
	Expected Count	191.4	38.0	6.8	7.2	.4	1.2	245.0
	% within Japanese	89.4	6.1	3.7	.8	.0	.0	100.0
	% within Tense	45.7	15.8	52.9	11.1	.0	.0	40.0
Native	Count	260	80	8	16	1	3	368
	Expected Count	287.6	57.0	10.2	10.8	.6	1.8	368.0
	% within Native	70.7	21.7	2.2	4.3	.3	.8	100.0
	% within Tense	54.3	84.2	47.1	88.9	100.0	100.0	60.0
Total	Count	479	95	17	18	1	3	613

(Header spanning "Tense" over present, past, future, present perfect, past perfect, subjunctive)

3–1–3．Plurality of the logical subject NP

　　The next analysis compared the plurality of the logical subject NPs in *there* constructions between the Japanese and native speakers. As shown in Table 3, approximately 70％ of the logical subject NPs were plural in the Japanese speakers, as compared with less than half in the native speakers. Without statistical testing, the result showed that the Japanese speakers preferred to use plural logical subject NPs in *there* constructions.

Table 3　*The Frequency of Occurrence in the Use of Plurality of Logical Subject NP, Quantifiers, Adjectives, Prepositional Phrases that Modify a be-verb and Adverbs as a Function of the Speaker Group*

	Japanese		Native	
	N	%	N	%
Plurality (Plural)	168	68.6	168	45.7
Quantifier	159	64.9	200	54.2
Adjective	35	14.3	118	35
Prepositional phrases that modify a be-verb	47	19.2	98	26.6
Adverb	16	6.5	76	20.6
Total N	245		368	

3–1–4．Adjectival modifiers of the logical subject NP

　　As was described above in the introduction, *there* constructions are used to avoid a "heavy" subject before the verb. The next series of analyses examined differences between the Japanese and native speakers in the use of adjectival phrases or clauses that modify the logical subject NPs.

3–1–4–1．Quantifiers

　　"Quantifier" in the present study is defined as any lexical or phrasal expression that indicates a quantity of the logical subject NP in a *there* construction. The examples included *many*, *a lot of*, *some*, *very few*, *no*, and *a certain degree of*. As Table 3 shows, the proportion of *there* constructions that contained at least one quantifier was somewhat higher within the Japanese speakers than within the native speakers. The chi-square test found the difference statistically significant, χ^2 (1, N = 614) = 6.94, p = .008. Three most often used "quantifiers" were *many* (N = 57), *a lot of* (N = 20) and *some* (N = 16) in the Japanese speakers, and *no* (N = 44), *many* (N = 28) and *some* (N = 13) in the native speakers. The results indicated that, as compared with native speakers, Japanese speakers prefer to use quantifiers, especially, *many*, in *there* constructions.

3−1−4−2．Adjectives

As Table 3 shows, the proportion of *there* constructions which contained at least one adjective that modified a logical subject NP (e.g., a *good* reason) was much lower within the Japanese speakers than the native speakers. Without statistical testing, the result showed that the native speakers used adjectives significantly more often than the Japanese speakers. Two most often used adjectives were *good* (N = 8) and *big* (N = 3) in the Japanese speakers, and *other* (N = 8) and *different* (N = 6) in the native speakers.

3−1−4−3．Relative, infinitive and participle clauses

A logical subject NP can be modified by a relative clause, an infinitive clause or a participle clause, as exemplified below.

a. There are many people *who are opposed to death penalty*.

b. There is always something *to live for*.

c. There were also TV shows *intended for children*.

The frequency of occurrence in the use of these types of modifiers were compared between the Japanese and native speakers. Table 4 shows the frequency of occurrence in the use of these types of modifiers across the types of modifiers and the speaker group. In both groups, the proportion of relative clauses was the largest among the three types. Japanese speakers, however, showed a higher within-group proportion than the native speakers. The chi-square test showed that the frequency of occurrence in the use of relative clauses was significantly different between the two groups, χ^2 (1, N = 613) = 5.84, p = .016. The most frequent category of the relative clause in Japanese speakers was "who+verb" (e.g., "There are many people *who agree* with death penalty."). The results showed that Japanese speakers had a strong tendency

Table 4 *The Frequency of Occurrence in the Use of Relative, Infinitive and Participle Clauses as a Function of the Speaker Group*

		relative	infinitive	participle	others	Total
			Clause types			
Japanese	Count	95	18	15	116	244
	Expected Count	81.2	19.9	15.5	127.4	244.0
	% within Japanese	38.9	7.4	6.1	47.5	100.0
	% within Clause types	46.6	36.0	38.5	36.3	39.8
Native	Count	109	32	24	204	369
	Expected Count	122.8	30.1	23.5	192.6	369.0
	% within Native	29.5	8.7	6.5	55.3	100.0
	% within Clause types	53.4	64.0	61.5	63.8	60.2
Total	Count	204	50	39	320	613

to use a relative clause as a modifier of the logical subject NP in *there* constructions.

3-1-5. Adverbial modifiers of a be-verb

There constructions can include adverbial phrases that modify a be-verb. In most cases, they typically occur in a post-verb position (e.g., "There are many people *in the stadium.*"), but can also occur to the left of *there* (e.g., *Last night* there was a big meeting to discuss the issue of water pollution). They typically denote the location of a physical object or a being, and the time of an event (e.g., "There was a meeting *last night.*").

There constructions can also include an adverb between a be-verb and the subject (e.g., "There are *always* many people at the station."). These adverbs typically denote a degree of frequency (e.g., *always*, *often*, *hardly*). The following analyses compared the use of the adverbial modifiers between the Japanese and native speakers.

3-1-5-1. Prepositional phrases that modify a be-verb

As is shown in Table 3, the proportion of *there* constructions that contained at least one adverbial phrase was somewhat lower within the Japanese speakers than the native speakers. The chi-square test found that the difference was significant, χ^2 (1, N = 613) = 5.84, p = .035, indicating that the native speakers are more likely to use the adverbial phrases than the Japanese speakers. The proportion of adverbial phrases that denoted "location" was 42.3% within the Japanese speakers and 52.3% within the native speakers. This finding indicated that the Japanese speakers do not overuse the adverbial phrases denoting "location", which are generally considered to be a typical usage of *there* constructions.

3-1-5-2. Adverbs

As Table 3 shows, the proportion in the use of adverbs in *there* constructions was much lower within the Japanese speakers than the native speakers. The most frequently used adverbs by the native speakers were, *always* (N = 12), *also* (N = 11) and *only* (N = 7). Other than these, they used a variety of adverbs, including *simply, hardly, certainly, relatively* and so on. The most frequently used adverbs by the Japanese speakers, on the other hand, were *always* (N = 5), *also* (N = 3) and *still* (N = 2). Without statistical testing, the results showed that Japanese speakers had a tendency to underuse adverbs that denote frequency of occurrence as compared with native speakers.

3-1-6. Noun categories

Based on Loyd-Jones (1987), logical subject NPs were classified into four categories.

a. NPs denoting abstraction (abstract)

b. NPs denoting beings (being)

c. NPs denoting concrete objects or physical things existing in the universe (concrete)

d. NPs denoting events or activities (event, activity)

The most frequent noun type was "abstract" in both groups accounting for a little more than half of all the nouns. The proportion of "being" within the Japanese speakers was higher (24.7％) than that of the native speakers (13.6％), while the relation was reversed for the proportion of "concrete" (7.4％ vs. 15.2％). The most frequent nouns in the Japanese speakers include *people* (N＝28), *problem* (N＝18), *thing* (N＝16), *reason* (N＝14) and *way* (N＝8), while those of the native speakers include *people* (N＝18), *reason* (N＝18), *case* (N＝13), *violence* (N＝13) and *way* (N＝10). The results suggested that Japanese speakers are more likely to use NPs denoting beings and less likely to use NPs denoting concrete objects in the subject position of *there* constructions as compared with native speakers.

3−1−7．Analyses on combinations of the linguistic features

The analyses so far focused on a single linguistic feature, and compared the frequency of occurrence in *there* constructions between the two speaker groups. They have revealed a number of significant differences between the two groups. The features, however, can co-occur in a single *there* construction. For instance, the adverb, the quantifier and the relative clause can co-occur in such a sentence as, "There are *certainly many* reasons *which* we should not neglect." The following analyses compared the combined use of the linguistic features between the Japanese and native speakers.

3−1−7−1．The number of pre-logical-subject modifiers

Pre-logical-subject modifiers include adverbs (e.g., *always*), quantifiers (e.g., *many*), adjectives (e.g., *good*), and prepositional phrases that immediately precedes the subject (e.g., *cases of*, *types of*). As is shown in Table 5, the proportion of the number of pre-logical-subject modifiers equal and above 2 was 13.1％ within the Japanese speakers, as compared with 28.8％ within the native speakers. The chi-square test found a significant relation between the number of pre-NP modifiers and the speaker group, χ^2 (4, N＝614) ＝22.9, p＝.000. The results indicated that, as expected, native speakers are more likely to produce pre-logical-subject modifiers in *there* constructions than Japanese speakers.

3−1−7−2．The number of post-logical-subject modifiers

Post-logical-subject modifiers include prepositional phrases that immediately follow the subject (e.g., issues *of politics*), adverbial phrases (e.g., *in the world*), relative clauses (e.g., people *who voted against death penalty*), infinitive clauses (e.g., nothing *to worry about*), participle clauses (e.g., many requests *turned down by the company*). As Table 6 shows, the proportion of the post-logical-subject modifiers equal and above 2 was 10.2％ within the Japanese speakers but 22.7％ within the native speakers. The chi-square test found a significant association be-

Table 5 *The Frequency of Occurrence in the Number of Pre-logical-subject Modifiers as a Function of the Speaker Group*

		Sum of the number of pre-subject					
		0	1	2	3	4	Total
Japanese	Count	60	153	32	0	0	245
	Expected Count	53.9	136.1	51.5	3.2	0.1	245.0
	% within Japanese	24.5	62.4	13.1	0.0	0.0	100.0
	% within Sum of the number of pre-subject modifiers	44.4	44.9	24.8	0.0	0.0	39.9
Native	Count	75	188	97	8	1	369
	Expected Count	81.1	204.9	77.5	4.8	.6	369.0
	% within Native	20.3	50.9	26.3	2.2	0.3	100.0
	% within Sum of the number of pre-subject modifiers	55.6	55.1	75.2	100.0	100.0	60.1
Total	Count	135	341	129	8	1	614

Table 6 *The Frequency of Occurrence in the Number of Post-logical-subject Modifiers as a Function of the Speaker Group*

		Sum of the number of post-NP					
		0	1	2	3	4	Total
Japanese	Count	45	175	21	4	0	245
	Expected Count	36.3	165.2	34.3	8.4	.8	245.0
	% within Japanese	18.4	71.4	8.6	1.6	.0	100.0
	% within Sum of the number of post-NP	49.5	42.3	24.4	19.0	.0	39.9
Native	Count	46	239	65	17	2	369
	Expected Count	54.7	248.8	51.7	12.6	1.2	369.0
	% within Native	12.5	64.8	17.6	4.6	.5	100.0
	% within Sum of the number of post-NP	50.5	57.7	75.6	81.0	100.0	60.1
Total	Count	91	414	86	21	2	614

tween the number of post-logical-subject modifiers and the speaker group, χ^2 (4, N = 614) = 18.2, p = .001. It was indicated that native speakers tend to produce more post-logical-subject modifiers in *there* constructions than Japanese speakers.

3-1-8. Summary

The analyses found that the Japanese speakers preferred to use the following linguistic features as compared with the native speakers; 1) the present tense; 2) plural logical subject NPs; 3) quantifiers (e.g., *many*) that modified the subject; 4) a relative clause (e.g., people *who*)

as a modifier of the subject; 5) nouns which denote "beings" (e.g., *people*) in the subject position. As compared with the Japanese speakers, the native speakers showed a more frequent use of 1) the past and present perfect tense; 2) singular logical subject NPs; 3) adjectives; 4) infinitive and participle clauses; 5) prepositional phrases that modify a be-verb; 6) adverbs; 7) nouns which denote "concrete things" and "events". They also showed a tendency to use a greater number of the pre-logical-subject and post-logical-subject modifiers than the Japanese speakers.

3−2. Effects of English Ability on the Use of *there* Constructions

3−2−1. Introduction

The analyses summarized just above showed that the Japanese and native speakers significantly differed in the use of *there* constructions in a number of linguistic aspects. The following analyses examined whether the use of *there* constructions significantly differed due to English abilities among the Japanese speakers. They were divided into two groups (i.e., advanced and basic) according to their TOEIC scores and *Eiken* levels. If they provided information on TOEIC scores, the Japanese speakers were classified as "advanced" when their TOEIC score was equal and above 680, and were classified as "basic" otherwise. Those who did not provide information the TOEIC scores were classified based on *Eiken*. They were classified as "advanced" when their *Eiken* level was equal and above level 2, and were classified as "basic" otherwise. The advanced and basic group consisted of 101 and 86 Japanese speakers, respectively. The other 14 speakers did not provide information on either of the two tests, and were excluded from the analyses. The analyses found that the two groups did not significantly differ in the use of *there* constructions except for only the following limited set of the linguistic features. The results of the analyses on these features are reported below.

3−2−2. Frequency of occurrence in the use of *there* constructions

A comparison of the Japanese and the native speakers above revealed that the latter group showed a more frequent use of *there* constructions. When the advanced and basic group were compared, the former showed a higher proportion of essays which had at least one *there* construction (N = 71; 70.3%) than the basic group (N = 36; 42.4%). The proportion in the advanced group was actually close to that of the native speakers (77%). The results suggested that the Japanese speakers are more likely to use *there* constructions as they become advanced in their English ability.

3−2−3. Plurality of a logical subject NP

The analyses presented above showed that the Japanese speakers showed a strong tendency to use plural nouns (68.6%), as compared with the native speakers (45.7%). The pro-

portion in the use of plural nouns, however, was much lower within the basic group (N = 45; 52.3%) than the advanced group (N = 119; 77.8%), showing the proportion close to that of the native speakers (45.7%). The results found that the advanced Japanese speakers, but not the basic ones, had an especially high preference to use plural nouns in *there* constructions.

3−2−4．Quantifiers

As presented above, the Japanese speakers show a strong preference to use quantifiers (e.g., *many, a lot of*) to modify a logical subject NP. The proportion in the use of quantifiers, however, was lower within the basic group (N = 47; 54.7%) than the advanced group (N = 107; 69.9%), and close to that of the native speakers (54.2%). The chi-square test with the speaker group (advanced, basic) and the presence/absence of quantifiers in *there* constructions showed a significant relation between the two factors, χ^2 (1, N = 239) = 5.61, p = .018. The results indicated that the strong tendency to use quantifiers is limited to the advanced group. The increase in the proportion between the basic and advanced group might be due to improvements to use *there* constructions in writing essays. On the other hand, the lower proportion in the native speaker group than the advanced group might be because of the latter group's overuse of *there* constructions.

3−2−5．The sum of the number of pre-logical-subject modifiers

The previous analyses showed that the native speakers produced a larger number of pre-logical-subject modifiers than the Japanese speakers, as expected. A comparison of the advanced and basic group found that the former group produced pre-logical-subject modifiers somewhat more frequently than the latter group. The proportion of *there* constructions containing no pre-logical-subject modifier was higher within the basic group (N = 29; 33.7%) than the advanced group (N = 31; 20.3%), while that of the constructions containing one pre-logical-subject modifier was lower within the basic group (N = 98; 64.1%) than the advanced group. A chi-square test showed a significant relation between the group (advanced, basic) and the frequency of occurrence in pre-logical-subject modifiers, χ^2 (2, N = 239) = 6.70, p = .035. The results indicated that the advanced speakers produce a larger number of pre-logical-subject modifiers.

3−2−6．Summary

It was found that the advanced and basic group did not differ significantly in the use of the linguistic features in *there* constructions except for only a couple of features (i.e., plurality of a logical subject NP and quantifier) among the eight features examined. For the features which showed significant differences, the basic group was more similar to the native-speaker group than the advanced group. The overall results indicated that, all in all, the use of the linguistic

features was not influenced by general English ability among the Japanese speakers, and that Japanese speakers with relatively high English abilities have peculiar tendency to use plural nouns in subject positions and use quantifiers (e.g., *There are many people*).

3−3．Comparison between "Corrected" and "Uncorrected" Sentences

As described in the procedure section above, the corpus included not just sentences the Japanese speakers produced, but their corresponding sentences corrected by a native speaker. The following analyses examined whether there were significant differences in the linguistic features used in "corrected" and "uncorrected" sentences. The rationale for this analysis was that these differences would provide important information on how the linguistic features influence native speakers' acceptability of *there* constructions. Among 245 *there* constructions produced by the Japanese speakers, 102 sentences were corrected, while 143 sentences remained uncorrected. The two sets of sentences were compared in terms of the same linguistic features used for the analyses so far.

The results showed that all of the linguistic features showed very similar proportions in the frequency of occurrence between corrected and uncorrected sentences. Chi-square tests revealed no significant association between the frequency of occurrence in each of these features and whether the sentences were corrected or uncorrected. The finding suggested that none of these features were critical in differentiating *there* constructions that are acceptable or unacceptable to native speakers of English.

3−4．Patterns of Structural Changes in Sentence Structure between Original and Corrected Sentences

The next analyses investigated how *there* constructions produced by the Japanese speakers were corrected by a native speaker. They specifically examined changes in sentence structure between the original and corrected sentences. The examination of the data found that, in many cases, the logical subject NP in a *there* construction is moved forward to the subject of a sentence with a different sentence construction. The following four major categories were identified according to the position of the noun which was moved in the original sentence and to the type of a verb (i.e., a be-verb or a non-be verb) in the corrected sentence. The change patterns that did not fit into any of the four categories were categorized as "others."

a）"*there* + be + logical subject (LS) " is changed to "LS + be" (Type A)

　　Original：There are so many people like me.

　　Corrected：So many people are like me.

b）"*there* + be + LS" is changed to "LS + verb" (Type B)

　　Original：There are so many reasons for this.

　　Corrected：So many reasons support this.

c）"*there* + be + LS + relative clause" is changed to "LS + verb" (Type C)

　　Original：There are so many people who support this.

　　Corrected：So many people support this.

d）"*there* + be + LS" is changed to "LS + passive" (Type D)

　　Original：There are many traffic accidents because of too many cars.

　　Corrected：Many traffic accidents are caused by too many cars.

　　Among the 102 corrected sentences, the proportion in the frequency of occurrence was highest for Type B (N = 41; 40.2%), followed by Type C (N = 28; 27.5%), Type A (N = 12; 11.8%) and Type D (N = 7; 6.9%). That of "others" was 13.7% (N = 14). The results showed that, in a majority of cases (86.3%), the subject in the original *there* construction was moved to the subject position in different sentence constructions. Among the 41 sentences of Type B, 16 corrected sentences used verbs that denote possession (e.g., *have*, *contain*, *be of*).

e）Original：There are many reasons for my support of death penalty.

　　Corrected：I *have* many reasons to support death penalty.

　　Among them, 8 corrected sentences used verbs that denote existence or causal relations (e.g., *exist*, *cause*, *lead*, *produce*).

f）Original：Without this right, there can't be many arts.

　　Corrected：Without this right, many arts cannot *exist*.

g）Original：There are problems like these in Japan because of the reduction of basic education.

　　Corrected：Reducing basic education has *caused* serious problems in Japan.

4．Discussion

4−1．Summary of the Results

　　A lot of research on Japanese English has tended to focus on errors Japanese speakers of English make, and has not paid much attention to expressions which are grammatically correct but are not preferred to be used by native speakers. The general purposes of the present study were to collect the raw data on such grammatically correct Japanese English expressions and find linguistic differences between Japanese English and native English. The present study demonstrated some quantitative and qualitative differences in the use of *there* constructions

through corpus analysis.

First, the frequency of occurrence in the use of *there* constructions was compared between the Japanese and native speakers. The results showed that the native speakers used *there* constructions more frequently than the Japanese speakers when writing essays on social topics. Regarding the syntactic and semantic features, the results found that Japanese speakers preferred to use *there* constructions with the present tense, plural logical subject NPs, quantifiers, a relative clause, and logical subject NPs denoting "beings", as compared with the native speakers.

Second, the study investigated the effects of English ability on the use of *there* constructions, to examine whether the use of *there* constructions differed due to English abilities among the Japanese speakers. It was found that both the advanced and basic group showed a similar use of the linguistic features in *there* constructions except for a couple of features. Even for the features which showed significant differences, the basic group was more similar to the native-speaker group than to the advanced group. The results clearly indicated that general English ability was not an important factor that influenced the use of *there* sentences among the Japanese speakers.

The next analysis compared "corrected" and "uncorrected" sentences to find out how the linguistic features influenced native speakers' acceptability of *there* constructions. It was shown that almost half of all *there* sentences produced by the Japanese speakers were corrected by a native speaker. Interestingly, the results did not find any significant association between the frequency of occurrence in each of these linguistic features and whether the sentences were corrected or uncorrected. The results indicated that none of these linguistic features may be critical for acceptability of *there* constructions by native speakers of English.

Finally, patterns of structural changes in sentence structure between original and corrected sentences were explored. Four major categories were identified; Type A) "*there* +be + logical subject (LS)" → "LS + be", Type B) "*there* + be + LS" → "LS + verb", Type C) "*there* + be + LS + relative clause" → "LS + verb", and Type D) "*there* + be + LS" → "LS + passive". These types showed that the logical subject in the original *there* construction was almost always moved to the subject position in different sentence constructions when corrected.

4‒2. **Possible Accounts of the Results**

As described above, *there* constructions produced by Japanese and those by native speakers have different syntactic features. The typical *there* constructions produced by Japanese are as follows;

Typical Construction： *there* +present tense verb + quantifier + being noun + plural + relative clause + verb...

Typical Sentence： *there are many people who...*

Examples from NICE：

JPN072： I think that *there are many people who* work for money.

JPN138： However, indeed, *there are many people who* commit a suicide.

JPN153： However, *there are many people who* have not play sports at all for several years.

According to Miki (2010), one of the possible factors underlying the Japanese speakers' frequent use of the construction, *there are many people who...*, may be transfer, the carry over of linguistic patterns from Japanese to English (p. 57). Japanese speakers of English prefer using *there* constructions to imply existential expression *toiu hito* (*bito*) *-ga takusan iru* (there are many people who [lit.]) in Japanese language, whereas native speakers of English use *have* as well as *there* constructions. Besides, other possible reasons to use the construction, *there are many people who...,* might be that Japanese people highly value harmony and collectivism (Hofstede, 1980). They are often concerned about what people collectively think or do.

As compared to Japanese, native speakers of English prefer using a great number of pre- and post-logical-subject modifiers when writing *there* constructions. One obvious reason may be that, in general, they possess the ability to produce a relatively large number of phrases in one sentence. Another reason might be that they are based on the concept of "low context" (Hall, 1976). In low context culture, abstract explanations are avoided, and most of the information must be in the transmitted message to compensate the missing information in the context.

As described above, a comparison of original and corrected sentences found striking differences in the sentence structure. It was found that, in a majority of cases, the logical subject in the original *there* sentence was transferred to the subject position in different sentence constructions. The following are some examples drawn from the corpus.

Type A "*there* + be + logical subject (LS) " is changed to "LS + be"

JPN039： There is (a) reason in my heart.

NTV： The reason is in my heart.

Type B "*there* + be + LS" is changed to "LS + verb"

JPN001： There are so many reasons for this.

NTV： So many reasons support this.

Type C "*there* + be + LS + relative clause" is changed to "LS + verb"

JPN073：There are a lot of people who like to watch sports.

NTV：Many people like to watch sports.

Type D　"*there* + be + LS" is changed to "LS + passive"

JPN014：And there are many places or opportunities found around you.

NTV：Many places or opportunities can be found around you.

It was found that not all of the original sentences with the same sentence structure are corrected by the native speaker (see 3–3). For example, some sentences with "*there* + be + LS" were changed to sentences without *there* as observed in Type A, while others were left unchanged. The same thing can be said for Types B, C, and D. This finding indicated that the sentence structures themselves were not critical in determining whether corrections were called for by the native speaker. However, qualitative analyses might shed light on some possible reasons why the native speaker revised the sentences. The following is a list of possible factors that might have influenced the native speaker's decisions.

(a) A noun phrase in the adverbial phrase has old information (i.e., this internationalization of sumo), and can be used as the subject of a sentence without a *there* construction.

JPN024：There are both positive aspect and negative aspect in this internationalization of sumo.

NTV：This internationalization of sumo has both positive and negative aspects.

(b) Some change of state (i.e., more and more fat people) is described by *there* construction.

JPN028：Recently there are more and more fat people and it became one of the heaviest problems in the world.

NTV：Lately, the number of overweight people is increasing and this has become one of the most serious problems in the world.

(c) A logical subject is not modified at all, and can be the subject.

JPN028：There are many illnesses because of too fat body and makes us dead.

NTV：Many illnesses can be caused by excessive weight and can kill us.

(d) A *there* construction is in the subordinate clause and the subject of the main clause can be used as its subject.

JPN033：They explain that there are too many stresses.

NTV：They say that they have too much stress.

(e) A sentence is too long, and can be shorten using a different sentence structure.

JPN175：During Olympic there are many TV programs which not only broadcast the results of the games but also introduce backgrounds, personalities and even parents of the play-

ers.

NTV: During the Olympics, many TV programs introduced the athletes and their parents in addition to broadcasting the events.

4−3. Implications for Teaching

The present results have shown some unique features of *there* constructions produced by Japanese speakers of English. Although about 50% of *there* constructions produced by Japanese were corrected by the native speaker, it was not because the basic sentence structures were incorrect, but because the native speaker judged the sentences were not appropriately used in particular linguistic contexts. Then how can we make use of the results for English teaching in Japan?

In English classes, teachers can show the features of *there* constructions produced by Japanese speakers, and then compare them with those of native speakers. Students should learn the features not as "errors" which should be avoided, but as one of the expressions Japanese users of English prefer. Some learners may try to fill in the gaps between the use of *there* by Japanese and that of native speakers, and others may keep the features as their own English expressions. It is a great chance for learners to study both features, and know they can "choose" the expressions depending on the context. Though the traditional goal of English education in Japan is to produce native-like speakers of English, "it is NOT FEASIBLE and NOT DESIREBLE to expect to produce American English speakers in the Japanese public education system." (Honna & Takeshita, 1998, p. 126). Encouraging students to recognize the differences is desirable in this age when English is said to be an international language.

4−4. Conclusion

The following are some of the limitations of the present study. Firstly, though the corpus itself is large, the number of *there* constructions produced by the Japanese speakers might not be large enough to examine the factors relevant to the native speaker's correction of the sentences. The results using chi-square tests found that none of linguistic features were critical in differentiating *there* constructions that are acceptable or unacceptable to native speakers of English. However, it could have been possible to find some significant factors if the number of *there* constructions had been larger. Secondly, the English ability of the Japanese speakers was relatively high as a whole. The analyses found that the advanced group and basic groups did not significantly differ in the use of *there* constructions, but some interesting results might have been found if their English ability had been more varied. Thirdly, the topics of the essays only

concerned social issues, which might have prevented the Japanese speakers from fully expressing their own opinions freely. Finally, only one native speaker of English corrected the sentences in the corpus. Obviously the results might have been affected by his/her idiosyncratic preferences. It would be desirable to add further data from some more native speakers to provide more reliable and generalizable data.

The present corpus-based study on the use of *there* constructions is still at its primary stage. Future research should be directed at examining additional factors that determine the preferential use of *there* constructions. Some factors, implicated in 4-2, include the type of information (new/old) carried by the logical subject NP or other NPs, sentence length and the semantic content of the sentence (i.e., whether the sentence describes a change or state). Further investigation is also needed on the issue of acceptability by native speakers of English. It is believed that continued research will make it possible to identify the "Japaneseness" and "nativeness" among *there* constructions.

Notes

1） A strong noun phrase includes *the*, *all*, *most*, *each*, *every*, demonstratives (*this*, *that*), possessives (*my*, *his*), personal pronouns (*I*, *you*), proper names (*Norm*, *Al*).

2） The previous research has shown that the definiteness restriction has a number of exceptions (cf. Kuno & Takami, 2004 ; Rando & Napoli, 1978).

3） A great deal of research has been conducted on learning of *there* constructions among L2 learners of English in a framework of syntactic and semantic theories (cf. Oshita, 2004) and of language typology in terms of informational structure (e.g., Sasaki, 1990 ; Shibata, 2006).

4） Information on sex was missing from one speaker.

5） Information on their educational background was missing from three speakers, and that of age was missing from one speaker.

6） Both data were provided by 73 students, while 15 did not provide any data.

7） The number of native speakers was 29 because each speaker provided more than one essay on several different topics.

8） It is an empirical question as to whether the difference in the distribution of topics between the two groups of essays had any significant effects on the analyses of comparing *there* constructions. Nevertheless, it was decided to proceed with the analyses assuming that such effects were negligible.

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