# Polarity and 'Illogical Negation' 

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## 1 Introduction

As the title shows, this paper discusses two topics. In the first part I offer new arguments in favor of a semantic (as opposed to a syntactic) approach to polarity items. The approach is essentially that of Ladusaw (1979), but with some mathematical refinements. Moreover, it is shown that Ladusaw's generalizations concerning affirmative polarity items (APIs) are not altogether correct, and that these items fit the general pattern better than Ladusaw himself thought.

The second part of the paper discusses the topic of paratactic negation, a kind of 'illogical' negation occurring in the scope of various kinds of lexical elements and constructions. The semantic approach to polarity phenomena turns out to cover these data as well, which makes it again superior to syntactic alternatives.

## 2 On the Distribution of Polarity Items

### 2.1 The Fine-Structure of Negative Polarity

### 2.1.1 Observations concerning Negative Polarity Items

The Dutch sentences in (1) contain negative polarity items (NPIs) in the scope ${ }^{1}$ of sentence negation niet. The complex verbal expression

[^0]kunnen uitstaan 'can stand', the complex indefinite ook maar iets 'anything', and the idiomatic adjectival expression mals all yield perfectly grammatical results.
(1) a. De kinderen kunnen de schoolmeester niet uitstaan The children can the schoolmaster not stand 'The children can't stand the teacher'
b. Ik denk niet, dat de kinderen ook maar iets zullen bereiken I think not, that the children anything will reach 'I don't think that the children will reach anything'
c. Zijn oordeel was niet mals His judgement was not tender 'He was very harsh in his judgement'

The situation changes as soon as negation is incorporated in the subject noun phrase, as is demonstrated in (2): kunnen uitstaan and ook maar iets are still fine in these sentences, but the sentence containing mals is ungrammatical. ${ }^{2}$
(2) a. Geen kind kan de schoolmeester uitstaan No child can the schoolmaster stand 'No child can stand the teacher'
b. Geen kind zal ook maar iets bereiken No child will anything reach 'No child will reach anything'
c. *Geen oordeel was mals No judgement was tender

The picture is different again if the negative quantifier geen 'no' is replaced by weinig 'few', as in (3): sentence (3a) containing kunnen uitstaan is the only grammatical one left.
(3) a. Weinig kinderen kunnen de schoolmeester uitstaan Few children can the schoolmaster stand 'Few children can stand the teacher'
b. *Weinig kinderen zullen ook maar iets bereiken Few children will anything reach
c. *Weinig oordelen waren mals Few judgements were tender

[^1]The findings with respect to Dutch NPIs are summarized in Table 1.
Table 1
kunnen uitstaan ook maar iets mals
weinig

| $\sqrt{ }$ | $*$ | $*$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\sqrt{ }$ | $*$ | $*$ |
| $\sqrt{ }$ | $\sqrt{ }$ | $\sqrt{ }$ |

The reader is warned not to view the state of affairs summarized in this table as just one more of the many idiosyncracies of Dutch, for the following sentences show that a parallel situation exists in English:
(4) a. Chomsky wasn't a bit happy about these facts
b. Chomsky didn't talk about these facts yet
c. Chomsky didn't talk about any of these facts
(5) a. *No one was a bit happy about these facts
b. No one has talked about these facts yet
c. No one talked about any of these facts
(6) a. * At most three linguists were $a$ bit happy about these facts
b. * At most three linguists have talked about these facts yet
c. At most three linguists have talked about any of these facts

For convenience of the reader, we list the findings with respect to the distribution of English NPIs in Table 2. ${ }^{3}$

Table 2

| Table 2 |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| any | yet | a bit |  |
| at most three | $\sqrt{ }$ | $*$ | $*$ |
| no one | $\sqrt{ }$ | $\sqrt{ }$ | $*$ |
| not | $\sqrt{ }$ | $\sqrt{ }$ | $\sqrt{ }$ |

[^2]
### 2.1.2 Syntactic Approaches to the Distribution of NPIs

How can we explain the distributional patterns shown in the tables in the last section? Abstracting away from details of implementation, the various syntactic approaches to the distribution of negative polarity items (as exemplified by Klima (1964), Linebarger (1980), Seuren (1985), Progovac (1988), Zanuttini (1991), Seuren (1991)) claim that, in the normal case, NPIs occur in the scope of a negative operator only. Sentences that fail to show an overt negative operator but that allow NPIs nonetheless, such as comparative constructions, relative clauses and sentences containing the adverb hardly (7), are allegedly derived from deep structures containing a negative operator.
(7) a. Susan is lovelier than anyone expected her to be ${ }^{4}$
b. Anyone who budged an inch was shot ${ }^{5}$
c. There was hardly any money, and hardly any hope ${ }^{6}$

This reasoning, however, is circular: a cluster of phenomena is explained by postulating an underlying negative element. No independent motivation for the existence of this underlying element is given, apart from parallelism with cases where the same phenomenon occurs in the scope of a visible negative element, and the occurrence of the phenomenon to be explained.

Moreover, the claim meets empirical problems. Reconsider the sentences in (6). In order to account for the well-formedness of sentence (6c), containing the NPI any, an underlying negation must be postulated. If such an underlying negation is present in (6c), it will be, according to this line of reasoning, present in (6a) and (6b) as well. These sentences, containing the NPIs either and yet, respectively, are nonetheless ungrammatical. Comparable problems arise in the sentences of (5): no one pretty much looks like a negative operator, but whereas the negative polarity items any and yet are fine in its scope, the NPI either is not.

### 2.1.3 A Typology of Monotone Decreasing Contexts

In the seminal work of Ladusaw (1979), elaborating on work by Gilles Fauconnier, a semantic factor instead of negation was claimed to be the crucial factor that triggers polarity, viz. 'downward entailment', also known as 'polarity reversal' or the property of being 'monotone

[^3]decreasing'. Along these lines, Frans Zwarts has designed a typology of monotone decreasing operators within the theory of Generalized Quantifiers (Barwise and Cooper 1981) that is a refinement of this work (Zwarts 1986). The relevant categories and their definitions are given below. ${ }^{7}$

Monotone Decreasing (MD) operators are closed under subsets; Downward Entailment is not restricted to one syntactic category, nor is it the case that if one element of a category has this property, all do.
(8) A functor $f$ is monotone decreasing (downward entailing) iff $\forall$ sets P and $\mathrm{Q}, \mathrm{Q} \leq \mathrm{P} \rightarrow f(\mathrm{P}) \leq f(\mathrm{Q})$

This is equivalent to ${ }^{8}$
(9) A functor $f$ is monotone decreasing (downward entailing) iff $f(\mathrm{X}$ or Y$) \rightarrow f(\mathrm{X})$ and $f(\mathrm{Y})$

The following examples demonstrate that few children and at most three children are monotone decreasing noun phrases, but many children is not; to doubt is a MD verb, without is a MD preposition, and hardly is a MD adverb:
(10) a. Few children like vegetables $\rightarrow$ few children like spinach
b. At most three children sing a song $\rightarrow$ at most three children sing a song by Bob Dylan
c. Few children sing or dance $\rightarrow$ few children sing and few children dance
(11) a. Many children like vegetables $\nrightarrow$ many children like spinach

[^4]b. Many children sing a song $\nrightarrow$ many children sing a song by Bob Dylan
c. Many children sing or dance $\nrightarrow$ many children sing and many children dance
a. John doubts that Mary sings or dances $\rightarrow$ John doubts that Mary sings and John doubts that Mary dances
b. The king arrived without any knight or baronet $\rightarrow$ the king arrived without any knight and the king arrived without any baronet
c. There was hardly money or hope $\rightarrow$ There was hardly money and there was hardly hope

Anti-additive operators form a proper subset of the monotone decreasing operators. They preserve the Boolean operation of union, that is, anti-additive operators are operators that map unions into their opposites, intersections (Hoeksema 1983).
(13) A functor $f$ is anti-additive iff $f(\mathrm{X}$ or Y$) \leftrightarrow f(\mathrm{X})$ and $f(\mathrm{Y})$

Again, anti-additivity is not an exclusive property of one syntactic category (15), nor is it the case that all elements of a certain category possess this property: no children is anti-additive, but few children is not ( 14 a vs. 14b), although both noun phrases are monotone decreasing. Note that sentences (15d) and (15e) demonstrate that some comparative constructions ${ }^{9}$ and some relative clauses (Zwarts 1986) are anti-additive contexts as well.
(14) a. No children sing or dance $\leftrightarrow$ no children sing and no children dance
b. Few children sing or dance $\nleftarrow$ few children sing and few children dance
(15) a. John doubts that Mary sings or Bill dances $\leftrightarrow$ John doubts that Mary sings and John doubts that Bill dances
b. There was hardly money or hope $\leftrightarrow$ There was hardly money and there was hardly hope
c. The king arrived without any knight or baronet $\leftrightarrow$ The king arrived without any knight and the king arrived without any baronet

[^5]d. He is faster than I would expect from a librarian or a philosopher $\leftrightarrow H e$ is faster than I would expect from a librarian and he is faster than I would expect from a philosopher
e. Anyone who budges an inch or lifts a finger will be shot $\leftrightarrow$ Anyone who budges an inch will be shot and anyone who lifts a finger will be shot

Antimorphic operators are a subset of the anti-additive operators; they obey the complete set of De Morgan Laws.
(16) A functor $f$ is antimorphic iff $f(\mathrm{X})$ and $f(\mathrm{Y}) \leftrightarrow f(\mathrm{X}$ or Y$)$ and $f(\mathrm{X})$ or $f(\mathrm{Y}) \leftrightarrow f(\mathrm{X}$ and Y$)$
The examples demonstrate that the negation not belongs to the class of antimorphic operators, whereas the negative quantifier no children doesn't.
(17) a. Not sing and not dance $\leftrightarrow$ not (sing or dance)
b. Not sing or not dance $\leftrightarrow$ not (sing and dance)

No children sing and dance $\nrightarrow$ no children sing or no children dance

Note that it is not the case that (sentence) negation is the only antimorphic operator: in Dutch, adverbs such as allerminst 'not at all' (an API itself) and allesbehalve 'anything but' show exactly the same behavior:
a. De schoolmeester is allesbehalve gelukkig of tevreden $\leftrightarrow \mathrm{De}$ schoolmeester is allesbehalve gelukkig en de schoolmeester is allesbehalve tevreden
'The teacher is anything but happy or satisfied'
b. De schoolmeester is allesbehalve gelukkig en tevreden $\leftrightarrow \mathrm{De}$ schoolmeester is allesbehalve gelukkig of de schoolmeester is allesbehalve tevreden

Apart from anti-morphic adverbs, such as not, one finds anti-morphic noun phrases such as not Frege and not the philosopher:
(20) Not Frege sings and dances $\leftrightarrow$ not Frege sings or not Frege dances

Expressions of the form Not the $X$ and Not Propername, i.e., the complements of unique descriptions, are the only anti-morphic noun phrases, apart from the trivial quantifiers $\emptyset$ and $\mathrm{P}_{W}(\mathrm{E}) .{ }^{10}$

[^6]
### 2.1.4 Application of the Typology: Some Generalizations

On the basis of the data discussed so far, the following generalizations may be stated. ${ }^{11}$

- Weak Negative Polarity Items, such as kunnen uitstaan in Dutch and any in English, may (apart from other restrictions) occur in all Monotone Decreasing contexts.
- Negative Polarity Items of medium strength, such as ook maar iets in Dutch and yet in English, may (apart from other restrictions) occur in all Anti-additive contexts.
- Strong Negative Polarity Items, such as mals in Dutch, may (apart from other restrictions) occur in all Anti-morphic contexts.

Note that it is the semantics of the MD operator that licenses the NPIs: operators from other syntactic categories that are comparable to the ones given earlier with respect to Polarity Reversal yield the same result:
(21) a. De klas kan rustig zijn zonder dat de kinderen de meester kunnen uitstaan
'The class can be quiet without that the children can stand the teacher'
b. Without being completely healthy yet, the patient is no longer in critical condition
c. The teacher doubts that the children have learned anything
d. Zijn commentaar was allerminst mals
'He was pretty harsh in his judgement'
e. The prime minister is not at all safe either

To sum up the results of this section, we can collapse and formalize the tables we gave before:

[^7]Table 3

|  | any <br> kunnen uitstaan | yet <br> ook maar iets | a bit <br> mals |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| monotone decreasing | $\sqrt{ }$ | $*$ | $*$ |
| anti-additive | $\sqrt{ }$ | $\sqrt{ }$ | $*$ |
| anti-morphic | $\sqrt{ }$ | $\sqrt{ }$ | $\sqrt{ }$ |

These results offer, among other things, an alternative explanation for the fact that NPIs show up in (certain) comparative constructions, (certain) relative clauses, and sentences involving hardly (sentences (7)). We no longer need to postulate an underlying negative element in these cases: the semantic properties of these constructions, which are testable independently by way of the various inference patterns, constitute the crucial factor that licenses the occurrence of negative polarity items.

### 2.2 The Fine-structure of Affirmative Polarity

### 2.2.1 Observations Concerning APIs

Affirmative Polarity Items (APIs) are usually defined as lexical items that are not combinable with negation (given normal intonation). ${ }^{12}$ APIs have received much less attention in the literature than NPIs, because it was thought that they are simple to deal with. E.g. von Bergen and von Bergen (1993, 11-12), following Ladusaw (1979, 135), think that the distribution of APIs may be described in a relatively easy way: they allegedly do not occur in the scope of an explicit negation. The following Dutch examples (after van der Wouden (1988)), however, show that these elements exhibit a fine-structure that is similar to the one just demonstrated for NPIs (van der Wouden 1989).
(22) a. *De schoolmeester is niet allerminst gelukkig The teacher is not not-at-all happy
b. *De schoolmeester is niet een beetje gelukkig The teacher is not a bit happy
c. *De schoolmeester is niet al gelukkig The teacher is not already happy
a. *Geen van de schoolmeesters is allerminst gelukkig None of the teachers is not-at-all happy
b. *Geen van de schoolmeesters is een beetje gelukkig None of the teachers is a bit happy

[^8]c. Geen van de schoolmeesters is al gelukkig None of the teachers is already happy
a. *Weinig schoolmeesters zijn allerminst gelukkig Few teachers are not-at-all happy
b. Weinig schoolmeesters zijn een beetje gelukkig Few teachers are a bit happy
c. Weinig schoolmeesters zijn al gelukkig Few teachers are already happy

Lexical items such as allerminst 'not at all', een beetje 'a bit' and al 'already' are APIs, as they all yield ungrammaticality in the scope of sentence negation niet (22). However, not all affirmative polarity items are equal, as things start to change as soon as sentence negation is replaced by a negative quantifier in subject position. Consider (23): the sentences with allerminst and een beetje are still unacceptable, but the one with al is flawless. If, finally, the negated subject geen van de schoolmeesters is replaced by weinig schoolmeesters, both the sentence with een beetje and al are well-formed: the combination with allerminst, however, is out.

We summarize our findings with respect to the distribution of Dutch APIs in a table:

Table 4

|  | al | een beetje | allerminst |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| weinig | $\sqrt{ }$ | $\sqrt{ }$ | $*$ |
| geen | $\sqrt{ }$ | $*$ | $*$ |
| niet | $*$ | $*$ | $*$ |

Ladusaw (1979, Ch. 6) claims that all APIs in English are excluded from monotone decreasing contexts containing an overt negation. This may be interpreted as equivalent to the statement that English APIs uniformly abhor anti-additive contexts. However, the following examples, taken from Ladusaw (1979, 134), suggest something else, viz., that there exist various types of APIs in English as well: ${ }^{13}$

[^9]a. *Someone hasn't eaten some of his soup
b. *John hasn't already finished the exam
c. *John wouldn't rather be in Cleveland
(26) a. *No one ate some of the soup
b. *No one has already finished the exam
c. *No one would rather be in Cleveland
(27) a. ?Few people ate some of the soup
b. Few people have already finished the exam
c. Few people would rather be in Cleveland
(28) a. ??Hardly anyone ate some of the soup
b. ?Hardly anyone has already finished the exam
c. Hardly anyone would rather be in Cleveland

Although our findings with respect to English APIs are not as clear-cut as those with respect to Dutch, it is good to summarize them in a table.

|  | table 5 |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | some | already | rather |
| few people | $?$ | $\sqrt{ }$ | $\sqrt{ }$ |
| hardly anyone | $? ?$ | $?$ | $\sqrt{ }$ |
| no one | $*$ | $*$ | $*$ |
| n't | $*$ | $*$ | $*$ |

### 2.2.2 A Typology of APIs: Some Generalizations

In the last section, we showed that no APIs in Dutch and English may be combined with sentence negation, and that some APIs may appear in the scope of noun phrases such as weinig schoolmeesters and few people, whereas others may not. It will probably not come as a surprise that other operators, such as the verb betwijfelen 'to doubt', pattern with these noun phrases:
(29) a. *De leraar betwijfelt dat de leerlingen allerminst thuis zijn the teacher doubts that the pupils not-at-all at-home are
b. ${ }^{*} \mathrm{Hij}$ is allesbehalve allerminst gelukkig he is anything-but not-at-all happy
c. *De leraar betwijfelt dat de leerlingen een beetje ziek zijn the teacher doubts that the pupils a bit ill are
d. De leraar betwijfelt dat de leerlingen al thuis zijn

> e. The teacher doubts that the pupils are at home already $(=29 \mathrm{~d})$

From examples such as the ones just given, we cannot but conclude that it is the semantics of the operators involved that is responsible for the fact that only some APIs are allowed in their scope.

On the basis of the data discussed in this section and elsewhere, we propose the following generalizations. ${ }^{14}$

- Strong Affirmative Polarity Items, such as Dutch allerminst, are excluded from all monotone decreasing contexts.
- Affirmative Polarity Items of medium strength, such as Dutch een beetje and most English APIs, are excluded from all anti-additive contexts.
- Weak Affirmative Polarity Items, such as Dutch al, are excluded from anti-morphic contexts.

We restate Table 4 in terms of the theory we have been developing throughout this paper:

Table 6

| al | een beetje | allerminst |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\sqrt{ }$ | $\sqrt{ }$ | $*$ |
| $\sqrt{ }$ | $*$ | $*$ |
| $*$ | $*$ | $*$ |

### 2.3 Conclusion: Negation and Polarity Phenomena

Zwarts's typology gives us the apparatus to describe the complex distribution of the various types of polarity items in Dutch. Negative and affirmative polarity items are not in complementary distribution, but they show a nice mirror image structure, as is illustrated in the following table.

## Table 7

|  | NPIs |  |  |  | APIs |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| strong | medium | weak | weak | medium | strong |  |  |  |
| MD | $*$ | $*$ | $\sqrt{ }$ | $\sqrt{ }$ | $\sqrt{ }$ | $*$ |  |  |
| Anti-additive | $*$ | $\sqrt{ }$ | $\sqrt{ }$ | $\sqrt{ }$ | $*$ | $*$ |  |  |
| Anti-morphic | $\sqrt{ }$ | $\sqrt{ }$ | $\sqrt{ }$ | $*$ | $*$ | $*$ |  |  |

[^10]The fine-structure demonstrated yields a host of counterexamples and problems for all theories that claim negation to be the crucial factor in triggering polarity effects. There is no way in which a binary system may account for the rich variety of polarity items we find in natural language; a more fine-grained semantics is called for.

### 2.4 An Aside: Bi-polar Elements

According to the theory given above, it is not impossible that there exist lexical elements that show a combination of NPI and API behavior. Nothing in the theory so far forbids such a conspiracy of various restrictions on the distribution of words. This being said, consider the following examples:
a. *Een van de kinderen gaat ooit bij oma op bezoek One of the children goes ever with granny on visit 'One of the children ever visits granny'
b. Weinig kinderen gaan ooit bij oma op bezoek Few children go ever with granny on visit 'Few children ever visit granny'
c. Geen van de kinderen gaat ooit bij oma op bezoek None of the children goes ever with granny on visit 'None of the children ever visits granny'
d. ${ }^{*}$ Een van de kinderen gaat niet ooit bij oma op bezoek ${ }^{15}$ One of the children goes not ever with granny on visit

In the theory developed here, there is an obvious way to explain these data. Assume that ooit 'ever' combines properties of negative and affirmative polarity items (we might call it a 'bi-polar item'). In this view, it is a negative polarity item (of the weakest type) as it is uncomfortable in a context that is not monotone decreasing, such as (30a), and fine in monotone decreasing (30b) and anti-additive (30c) contexts. On the other hand, it is a (weak) affirmative polarity item in causing ungrammaticality in antimorphic contexts (30d).

In a theory that attributes polarity effects to (underlying or surface) negation, examples such as (30a-30d) are both unexpected and unex-

[^11]plainable. However, they fit perfectly well in a semantically oriented theory such as the one developed here. ${ }^{16}$

## 3 Paratactic Negation

### 3.1 Introduction

Various languages and dialects show the effect of paratactic negation (PN) (Jespersen 1917), also known as 'redundant negation', 'expletive negation' or 'sympathetic negation'. The terms refer to the phenomenon that verbs and other lexical elements with 'negative import' either trigger the occurrence of one or more negative morphemes in their complement clause, or select a special type of complementizer that may or may not be homophonous to a negation operator. The following sentences are instances of PN:
(31) a. Nature defendeth and forbedeth that no man make hymself riche (Chaucer)
b. First he denied you had in him no right (Shakespeare)
c. Je crains qu'il ne vienne (French)

I fear that-he not comeSUBJ
'I fear that he may come'
d. Evitez qu'il ne vous parle (French) prevent that-he not to-you speak 'prevent that he talks to you'
a. Timeo ne veniat (Latin) 'I fear that he may come'
b. Then fearing lest we should have fallen upon rocks, they cast four anchors out of the stern, and wished for the day (Acts 27:29, King James version) ${ }^{17}$

[^12]c. Fobamai mipos kano lathos (modern Greek) ${ }^{18}$
fear-1SG that-not make-1SG error
'I am afraid to make an error'

### 3.2 Explaining Paratactic Negation

The phenomenon of PN occurs in languages such as Latin, Greek (both classical and modern), French, Polish, etc. Traditional explanations of the phenomenon take one of the following forms.

1. According to a line of thinking that leads back at least as far as Paul (1886) and others, I fear that he may not come (meaning 'I fear that he comes') is a contamination of I fear that he will come and I hope that he will not come.
2. van Ginneken (1907) and others stress the Emotional character of repeated negation: 'the negative prefix is, very unmathematical, placed both before and inside the brackets, in order to spread the negative feeling across the whole proposition'. ${ }^{19}$
3. More modern sources (Seuren 1991, Progovac 1992) postulate an underlying NEGATION in the words that license paratactic negation - just as an underlying or abstract negation has been postulated since Klima (1964) to explain the occurrence of negative polarity items in the scope of such elements.

Each of these explanations is problematic, one way or another. To begin with, explanation 1 does not explain why verbs and other lexical elements tend to contaminate, and why some words with a negative flavor do show the effect, whereas others don't. Therefore, we will not elaborate on this approach. Explanation 2 may be intuitively plausible, but it is too impressionistic and too vague to make any predictions; therefore, it can be dispensed with. Finally, explanation 3 suffers from circularity: an abstract element is postulated to explain a fact or a group of facts, but these facts are the only argument in favor of the postulated element: there is hardly any independent evidence for its presence. ${ }^{20}$ Moreover, such a postulated difference is counterintuitive: all verbs under discussion do have some negative-like meaning, as may be demonstrated in the following sketchy analyses: hinder' $(\mathrm{X})=$ cause X not to become the case; refuse' $(\mathrm{X})=$ not allow that X becomes the case; doubt' $(\mathrm{X})=$ not believe that X is $\operatorname{true}^{\prime}$ fear $^{\prime}(\mathrm{X})=$ believe that

[^13]X will be the case and hope that X will not be the case. If these are anywhere near right, they are not of any help: all verbs contain an underlying negation.

Two more types of explanation of the effect of paratactic negation may be thought of, a syntactic one and a semantic one.
4. Some verbs (etc.) are subcategorized (in the sense of Jackendoff (1977)) for a (paratactically) negative complement or a special, negative complementizer.
5. Paratactic negation is sensitive to SEmANTIC properties of the subordinate clause, perhaps in a way comparable to the way polarity items are sensitive to semantic properties.

Explanation 4 is not without problems either. If paratactic negation would be a case of subcategorization, it should be rather easy to learn and use. In the normal case of subcategorization, the language learner hears that a word is used with a certain complement (or may be used with some argument, in the case of optionality), (s)he remembers this, and that's it. One very seldom meets a native speaker who fails to use verbs like devour or wonder with the right complements, i.e., with a (optional) noun phrase and a clause starting with if or a question word, respectively. However, things are different in the case of paratactic negation. In modern standard Dutch, paratactic negation is supposed to be extinct; normative grammarians nonetheless still need to forbid examples such as (33). ${ }^{21}$ The same holds for modern French where the grammar books allow paratactic negation in some constructions and forbid it in others, but where errors against these rules may be found even in the best writers (34). ${ }^{22}$ If, then, paratactic negation is a case of subcategorization, it is of a special, error-prone kind indeed, unlike the ordinary cases of subcategorization.
a. *Hij verbood mij dat ik het raam niet zou opendoen (Dutch) He forbade me that I the window not would open 'He forbade me to open the window'
b. *De beklaagde bleef ontkennen dat hij de misdaad niet begaan had (Dutch)

[^14]The accused stayed deny that he the crime not committed had
'The accused continued to deny the crime'
a. J'ai peur que ce ne soit trop fatigant (French)

I have fear that it not be too tiresome
'I fear that it may be too tiresome'
b. Il faut éviter que les relations ne se dégradent (French) It should avoid that the relations not themselves deteriorate 'The relations shouldn't get worse'
c. *Il m'apprenait . . . qu'un ouvrier est tout aussi bien un Monsieur que ne l'est un homme du monde (French: Proust) he me-taught that-a workman is just as good a Monsieur than not it-is a man of-the world 'He taught me that a working man is a Monsieur just like a man of the world'

Let us therefore forget about explanation 4, and consider explanation 5 : that paratactic negation is triggered by semantic properties. Let us furthermore assume that essentially the same kind of properties license both polarity effects and paratactic negation, i.e., that the explanation of the occurrence of paratactic negation in the complement of a certain word or construction may be cast in terms of the monotonicity properties of that word or construction.

### 3.3 Arguments in favor of a Semantic Approach

### 3.3.1 Contexts for Paratactic Negation and Polarity

A first argument in favor of the possible correctness of a semantic explanation may be found in the fact that, although there exists considerable cross-linguistic, diachronic, dialectical and even individual variation, the set of words and constructions that license paratactic negation and the set of words and constructions that license polarity effects tend to overlap to a large extent. For instance, in the scope of the elements just demonstrated to license paratactic negation, negative polarity items may occur as well: $:^{23}$
(35) a. Hij verbood mij ook maar een raam open te zetten

He forbade me whatever window open to put
'He forbade me to open any window whatsoever'

[^15]b. De beklaagde bleef ontkennen dat hij een vinger naar de juwelen had uitgestoken
The accused stayed deny that he a finger to the jewels had lifted
'The accused continued to deny that he had lifted a finger towards the jewels'
a. J'ai peur que personne ne vienne I have fear that nobody not come 'I fear nobody will come'
b. Il faut éviter qu'il achète quoi que ce soit It should avoid that he buy whatever
'He shouldn't buy anything'
c. Défense de déposer quoi que ce soit ici Forbidden of anything here
'It is forbidden to deposit anything over here'

### 3.3.2 On the Semantics of Paratactic Negation Contexts

Secondly, the monotone decreasing character of the operators under discussion can be demonstrated, using the subset test:
a. Hij verbood mij een raam te openen $\rightarrow$ Hij verbood mij een keukenraam te openen
'He forbade me to open a window $\rightarrow$ he forbade me to open a kitchen window'
b. J'ai peur que personne ne vienne $\rightarrow$ J'ai peur que personne de mes amis ne vienne
'I fear nobody will come $\rightarrow I$ fear that nobody of my friends will come'

The monotone decreasing character of the verbs ontkennen 'deny', éviter 'avoid' and defense 'forbidden' may be demonstrated analogously.

### 3.3.3 The Uniformity across Languages

The third argument for a semantic explanation underlying paratactic negation may be found in its relatively uniform behavior across languages. For instance, if we compare the occurrence of the phenomenon in modern French (according to Grévisse (1980) with that in seventeenth century Dutch as used by Vondel ${ }^{24}$ (according to van Helten (1883)), the following generalizations may be formulated:

[^16]- Paratactic negation is never obligatory
- It often coincides with subjunctive, conjunctive and other moods that are typically used to express counterfactuals, irrealis etc.
- The phenomenon occurs after words expressing fear
(38) a. J'ai peur qu'il ne vienne

I-fear that-he not come SUBJ
'I fear he will come'
b. J'ai peur que l'événement ne vous trompe

I-have fear that the-event not you mislead SUBJ
'I am afraid the event will mislead you'
(39) a. Uyt vreeze dat de Staet niet strande

From fear that the state not go-under SUBJ
'Out of fear, that the state would collaps'
b. Van vreeze datze niet wierd nae haer dood mishandelt Of fear that-she not would after her death ill-tretade 'Fearing that she would be treated badly after death'

- Paratactic negation may be triggered by words expressing hinder, precaution, and prohibition: ${ }^{25}$
a. J'empêche qu'il ne vienne

I-prevent that-he not come SUBJ
'I prevent that he come'
b. Donnez-vous garde qu'on ne vous attaque Give-you guard that-one not you attack SUBJ 'Take care of being attacked'
(41) a. Men hindre dat hier niet de weiflaers 't zamenrotten One prevent SUBJ that here not the hesitants to gethercome
'One should prevent that the hesitants come together here'
b. Keer, [...] Dat de schoone Abizag niet [...] stof bestelle, tot verdriet van getrouwe burgeryen [...]

[^17]Prevent that the beautful Abizag not stuff bring about to grief of faithful citizenships
'Prevent that the beautiful Abizag cause the sorrow of faithful citizens'

- Paratactic negation is absent after words of Dubitation: ${ }^{26}$
(42) a. Je doute fort que cela soit

I doubt strongly that that be SUBJ
'I seriously doubt that that should be'
b. Il nie que ce soit trouvé dans cette maison

He denies that it be SUBJ found in that house 'He denies that it was found in that house'
(43) In twyffel, of hy met den hals syn' schuld sou boeten

In doubt, if he with the neck his debt would pay
'Doubting whether he was going to pay with his life'

- One may find it in various types of comparative constructions: ${ }^{27}$
(44) a. Il est autre que je ne croyais

He is other than I not believed SUBJ
'He is different than I thought'
b. Paris était alors plus aimable qu'il n'est aujourd'hui Paris was then more nice than-it not-is today 'Paris was more amiable then than it is today'

- It also sometimes occurs in subordinate constructions governed by 'CONJUNCTIVE' elements such as (French) avant que ('before'), ${ }^{28}$ sans que ('without'), ${ }^{29}$ à moins que ('unless'), etc. ${ }^{30}$

[^18]a. Avant qu'il ne fasse froid Before that-it not gets cold 'Before it gets cold'
b. Le lieutenant répondit militairement au salut sans qu'un muscle de sa figure ne bougeât
'The lieutenant answered the salute in a military way without moving a muscle in his face'

Seventeenth century Dutch and contemporary French show comparable patterns with respect to the distribution of paratactic negation: French and Dutch verbs of dubitation do not trigger the effect, whereas verbs of hinder and fear do. This suggests that some semantic factor is at play here. If the phenomenon would be a matter of idiosyncratic properties of lexical items, be they subcategorizational or collocational in nature, this patterning would be unexpected.

Alternatively, one might explain the phenomena by invoking an underlying negation, but that is circular. Of course, it is possible to postulate a negation in the deep structure (or componential analysis) of verbs of fear and hinder, and not in the deep structure of verbs of dubitation, but as independent evidence for such an entity is lacking, nothing much is gained.

So, by exclusion, we are left with the hypothesis that it is (aspects of) the semantics of lexical elements that licenses paratactic negation.

### 3.3.4 'Double Negations'

The fourth argument for the assumption that the same mechanism is at work both in paratactic negation and polarity effects may be found in the fact that comparable 'double negation effects' effects occur. Baker (1970) noticed that, contrary to what one would expect, affirmative polarity items (such as rather in the examples below) may occur in the scope of downward entailing items, if only these themselve are in the scope of downward entailing items. In cases such as these, two negations seem to behave logically, i.e., they cancel out:
(46) a. Everybody in this camp would rather be in Montpellier
b. *Everybody in this camp would n't rather be in Montpellier
c. *Nobody in this camp would rather be in Montpellier
d. Nobody in this camp would n't rather be in Montpellier

In this type of contexts, negative polarity items are less than perfect. Native speakers sometimes judge these sentences grammatical, but they seldom know what their meaning might be:
?Nobody in this camp doesn't like any green vegetables
Words that are able to license paratactic negation likewise loose that property under negation..$^{31}$ On the other hand, verbs such as to doubt that do not trigger paratactic negation, may 'inherit' this property from negation. Note, however, that not all verbs taking a sentential complement may inherit the possibility of licensing paratactic negation and negative polarity from a polarity reverser governing them. In van der Wouden (1985) it is shown that (in Dutch) only the so-called negative raising verbs allow monotone decreasing noun phrases in the matrix sentence to license negative polarity items in the subordinate clause. On the basis of this result, one would likewise expect that only negative raising verbs may in this way acquire the possibility of triggering paratactic negation.
(48) a. Je ne crains pas qu'il (*ne) fasse cette faute 'I am not afraid he will make that mistake'
b. Je n'empêche pas qu'il (*ne) fasse ce qu'il voudra 'I don't prevent that he does what he wants to do'
c. Je ne doute point que la vraie dévotion (ne) soit la source du repos
'I do not doubt that devotion is the true source of rest'
d. Votre mère n'est peut-être pas aussi mallade que vous ( $\left.{ }^{*} n e\right)$ croyez
'Your mother may be not as ill as you think'
e. Je ne puis pas parler sans qu'il *(ne) m'interrompe I cannot talk without him interrupting me'
f. *Fobamai mipos kano lathos (Modern Greek) fear-1SG that-not make-1SG error 'I am not afraid to make an error' (cf. (32c))

[^19]g. Den fobamai oti kano lathos (Modern Greek) fear-1SG that make-1SG error 'I am not afraid to make an error'

Double negation effects such as described above offer a final blow for any explanation of paratactic negation in terms of subcategorization: this would be - as far as we know - the only case where the subcategorization frame of a word depends on the presence or absence of an external operator, in this case of the monotone decreasing type.

### 3.4 Towards a Theory of Paratactic Negation

On the basis of the foregoing, we state the following hypothesis concerning paratactic negation:
(49) Hypothesis:

Paratactic negation is a negative polarity item of the weak sort, i.e., it may occur in all monotone decreasing contexts. ${ }^{32}$

This hypothesis offers an explanation for (and may be a step in the direction of our understanding of ) a number of facts.

Across languages, certain patterns in the distribution of paratactic negation occur over and over again. This suggests that some fundamental mechanism is at work. On the other hand, paratactic negation shows considerable variation, not only across languages but even between speakers within one language community. As we have seen in the first part of this paper, the same holds for the distribution of negative and positive polarity items. In our discussion of Dutch ooit, we showed that the polarity character of lexical items can change within a century. The same kind of rapid changes may be found in the case of paratactic negation: most cases of it in Vondel are totally out now, in modern German the phenomenon is almost extinct, although it was perfectly normal in the era of Schiller and Goethe, and contemporary native speakers of French judge some of the examples given earlier as 'highly archaic'. That is to say: we don't know why we fond this variation, but it doesn't come as a surprise.

Our hypothesis also offers an explanation for the 'double negation' facts discussed earlier. There exist several theories explaining how an operator with the power to license an NPI may lose this power when it is in the scope of another such operator. No matter which one of the theories we choose, its scope may be extended in a natural way to cover the facts discussed in section 3.3.4.

[^20]If paratactic negation is indeed a polarity phenomenon, one would predict it not to be restricted to downward entailing verbs alone. We already discussed that comparable effects show up in comparative constructions and in the scope of the MD preposition without and its counterparts in other languages. Another class of cases in point might be so-called 'negative concord', a phenomenon that, at least in certain dialects of English, may be triggered not only by sentence negation, but by monotone decreasing adverbs such as hardly as well.
(50) a. It ain't no cat can't get in no coop ${ }^{33}$
b. There was hardly no money, nor hardly no hope ${ }^{34}$

Exploration of the idea that negative concord is indeed an instance of paratactic negation is outside the scope of this article. ${ }^{35}$

An extra argument in favor of the hypothesis that the same mechanism underlies the distribution of both negative (and affirmative) polarity items and paratactic negation involves the elegance of the theory. In general, comparable phenomena should be explained in comparable ways. In the discussion above, I have shown that polarity phenomena and paratactic negation are comparable to a large extent. Efforts to explain the distribution of polarity items in one way (viz., in terms of downward entailment) and the distribution of paratactic negation in another way (viz., in terms of negation) are apt to miss generalizations, and are bound to result in theories that are less than optimal from a parsimonious point of view. In other words, a theory that explains both polarity effects and paratactic negation in the same terms (viz., downward entailment) is superior to a theory that explains one phenomenon in terms of downward entailment and the other one in terms of negation.

### 3.5 On the Semantics of Paratactic Negation

It is clear that the semantics of paratactic negation is not the same as that of ordinary negation. To be more precise, its meaning should not be identified with complementation. The contribution of no to the overall meaning of First he denied you had in him no right (31b) or that of ne to that of timeo ne veniat (32a) seems to be nothing at all. In other words, the semantics of paratactic negation may be characterized as the identity function.

One might argue that such a step will lead to systematic polysemy in the lexicon: a word such as not should be attributed both the complement meaning (for its normal, Boolean use) and the identity meaning

[^21](for its paratactic and negative concord use). The same would hold for all other elements showing up in cases of negative concord in the various dialects of English (never, neither, nobody, nothing, nor ...).

However, a solution, or at least an implementation, for this kind of problem may be found in the literature. In order to capture the various meanings of red in collocations such as red grapefruit, red carpet, red army, Partee (1984) has proposed a disjunctive meaning function that maps various meanings on one lexical element, the choice of the various values depending on the noun being modified. Likewise, we may think of a meaning function for the class of lexical elements that is sensitive to the semantic properties of the linguistic context. ${ }^{36}$

Apart from the fact that the contribution of the paratactic element is (intuitively) zero or identity, there are two more arguments for a different semantics for paratactic negation.

The first argument involves cases where negative polarity items coincide with paratactic negation and negative concord. ${ }^{37}$ If paratactic negation would have had the same meaning of 'ordinary' not, it would change the monotone decreasing character of the context into monotone increasing, thus disallowing the negative polarity item. ${ }^{38}$ However, the following examples are fine: ${ }^{39}$
(51) a. Nobody never lifted a finger to help Mary (NS English)
b. Niemand vertelt mij nooit geen ene moer hier (NS Dutch) Nobody tells me never no one bolt here
'Nobody here ever tells me anything'
c. Ick [...] keerme aen moeder noch aen zusters't minste niet. (Vondel)
I turn-me to mother nor to sisters the least not 'I do not listen to my mother and sisters at all'

The second argument in favor of a different semantics for not and elements of that kind runs as follows. Assume a speaker tries (in a paratactic negation language) to express that (s)he does not fear (etc.) something. If not etc. would be systematically ambiguous without any restrictions, one would expect that ( s )he could convey that message by just putting a not in the complement of the verb. However, one would

[^22]then predict all cases of paratactic negation and negative concord to become systematically ambiguous between 'fearing that' and 'fearing that not'. This prediction is wrong, as this way of expressing the intended meaning is not available. In other words, in paratactic negation contexts within paratactic negation languages, the element used for paratactic negation just cannot mean the same as ordinary negation, i.e., logical complementation. French uses the full negation ne ... pas (where the paratactic negation form is just ne), in Greek the 'negative' complementizer mipos 'that-not' is not homophonous with negation, so there normal negation den is used.
(52) a. Je crains qu'il ne vienne pas (cf. (31c))
'I fear that he will not come'
b. Fobamai mipos den erthei (modern Greek)(cf. (32c)) fear-1SG that-not not come-3SG 'I am afraid that he will not come'

## 4 Conclusion

We have shown that the semantic, monotonicity based, approach to polarity phenomena is superior to theories that center around negation as the crucial factor. Affirmative and negative polarity items where shown to exhibit parallel fine-structures that theories in which negation is the only (anti-)trigger are unable to tackle. We moreover gave a number of arguments that the same theory may be applicable to 'paratactic negation' in various languages as well. It is the property of being Monotone Decreasing (and not negation per se) that triggers polarity effects, and it is the property of being Monotone Decreasing (and not negation) that triggers paratactic negation.

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    ${ }^{1}$ We will not dwell here on the question how 'scope' should be defined with respect to negation and polarity items.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ As always, informants try to make as much sense of sentences like (2c) as possible, but the only interpretation they can get involves the literal reading of mals, which leads to nonsense.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ This table goes back to a suggestion of Edward Klima's, via Spellmire (n.d.), Zwarts (1992), and Ladusaw (1980): 'Klima [1964] showed that some items of limited distribution, such as the particle either, were licensed only by negations [...]' (Ladusaw 1980, footnote 1). Spellmire claims that either is compatible with sentence negation (and other elements of that semantic class) only. Most of the eithercases (ca. $90 \%$ ) in real life texts corroborate Spellmire's claim; in the following corpus examples, however, a weaker negation licenses either.
    No one goes out of their way to make it easier, either.
    'It is hardly likely, either,' continued Bathsheba.
    She was never into drugs, either-her only addictions being nicotine and chocolate.

[^3]:    ${ }^{4}$ Hoeksema (1983, (42))
    ${ }^{5}$ Linebarger (1987, (171)).
    ${ }^{6}$ Seuren (1991, (4)).

[^4]:    ${ }^{7}$ Zwarts's original typology handled monotone decreasing nominal expressions only. In the light of the generalization of the notion entailment in Keenan and Faltz (1985), the relevant semantic inference patterns hold for the semantic types associated with other syntactic categories as well, as long as their semantics is in the universe of Boolean algebras. Therefore, we may be sloppy about semantic types.
    ${ }^{8}$ Zwarts (1986) uses both definitions, as well as the tests that follow from them; Ladusaw (1980) shows that the or-test does not work completely in the case of affective verbs such as to regret: although it licenses NPI anyone [i], the disjunction in [iia] does not entail the conjunction in [iib].
    i John regrets that anyone was injured
    iia John regrets that Mary or Susan was injured
    iib John regrets that Mary was injured and John regrets that Susan was injured In the relevant cases in the remainder of this paper, we will mostly use the test parallel to 10a.

[^5]:    ${ }^{9}$ Hoeksema (1983) claims that all and only sentential comparatives are antiadditive; cf. Hendriks (in progress) for a somewhat different view.

[^6]:    ${ }^{10}$ Zwarts (1986, 416), who attributes this result to Johan van Benthem. The editors suggest that all anti-morphic functions can be expressed as negation composed with homomorphic functions.

[^7]:    ${ }^{11}$ Generalizations such as these are called 'laws of negative polarity' in Zwarts (1986). Zwarts only distinguishes a strong and a weak form of negative polarity there, which is, as the examples show, empirically inadequate. Cf., however, his (1993). Incidentally, it should be noted (and it has been noted, e.g. by Linebarger (1987)) that some occurrences of polarity items do not fit too nicely in these laws. On the one hand, some polarity items do not occur in all contexts that meet their semantic needs. E.g. Dutch hoeven 'need' only needs a MD context, but it doesn't occur in relative clauses (de Mey 1990). On the other hand, some polarity items occur in contexts lacking the exact properties needed. E.g. Dutch ooit 'ever' and its English counterpart occur in superlative constructions (Hoeksema 1986).

[^8]:    ${ }^{12}$ In the following, we abstract away from echo-readings, denial, metalinguistic negation, litotes and the like.

[^9]:    ${ }^{13}$ The asterisks in these examples are not intended to mean 'ungrammatical under any meaning', but rather 'ungrammatical under the intended meaning', the intended meaning being the one where the affirmative polarity item is construed within the scope of sentence negation, no one, few people and hardly, respectively. E.g., the reading of (25a) where the scope-bearing elements someone, $n$ 't and some are in that order is not available. The judgements are Ladusaw's, who admits they are delicate; sentences (25) have no star, but a question mark in Ladusaw (1979), but according to the text these sentences can only be denials, readings which we exclude from our discussion.

[^10]:    ${ }^{14}$ Generalizations such as these are called 'laws of affirmative polarity' in Zwarts (1986). Zwarts only distinguishes a strong and a weak form of affirmative polarity, which is, as the examples show, empirically inadequate.

[^11]:    ${ }^{15}$ Note that this sentence is ungrammatical for the reason given and not because the sequence niet ooit 'not ever' is blocked by the existence of the lexical element nooit 'never': ooit is also excluded from the scope of the antimorphic operator allerminst 'not at all'.
    i *Een van de kinderen gaat allerminst ooit bij oma op bezoek One of the children goes not at all ever with granny on visit

[^12]:    ${ }^{16}$ As Jack Hoeksema pointed out to me, matters with respect to ooit are slightly complicated by the fact that ooit is losing its NPI character. Nowadays one finds sentences such as [i] that were considered ungrammatical a century ago.
    i Ooit kende Groningen meer dan duizend molens Ever knew Groningen more than thousand mills 'Groningen used to have more than a thousand mills'
    ${ }^{17}$ To show that lest in itself has a negative meaning, we quote Acts 27:42: And the soldiers' counsel was to kill the prisoners, lest any of them should swim out, and escape. 'And the soldiers' counsel was to kill the prisoners, in order that none of them would swim away and escape'.

[^13]:    ${ }^{18}$ Example from Ruge (1986). Thanks to Stella Markantonatou for discussing the Greek facts with me.
    ${ }^{19}$ van Ginneken (1907, 198).
    ${ }^{20} \mathrm{Cf}$. section 2.1.2.

[^14]:    ${ }^{21}$ The examples are from Tacx (1961). The asterisks mean 'forbidden by normative grammar' here. Alexis Manaster-Ramer and Jack Hoeksema warned me to be careful in using prescriptive grammars as proof that certain sentences are judged grammatical by a considerable number of native speakers. The examples under discussion usually involve complicated sentences, so they may as well constitute implicit warnings to be careful as regards performance errors.
    ${ }^{22}$ Kukenheim (1968, 181). The examples are from Kukenheim (1968) and Cristea (1971). The asterisks mean 'forbidden by normative grammar' here.

[^15]:    ${ }^{23}$ Thanks to Rita Landeweerd, Hillig van't Landt, and Henriëtte de Swart for discussing the French data with me.

[^16]:    ${ }^{24}$ The influential writer Joost van den Vondel (1587-1679) wrote ca. 32 plays, in addition to a lot of poetry and prose. This part of the research would have been

[^17]:    impossible without the help of Ben J. Salemans, who made available Salemans and Schaars (1990) in machine readable form.
    ${ }^{25}$ van Helten (1883) states that after verbs such as hinderen 'to hinder' Vondel always uses paratactic negation. With the help of the computer it was easy enough to find a counterexample to this claim:
    i Pluck weelde, en hinder dat de quicxse lent des levens Voorby vloey. 'Seize the day, and prevent that the joyful springtime of life flow away'

[^18]:    ${ }^{26}$ In Latin, words of dubitation sometimes license paratactic negation:
    i Dubito ne veniat
    I doubt that-not he come
    'I doubt that he will come'
    In all the other cases discussed here, Latin has paratactic negation as well. We assume that the phenomenon of PN is parametrized in such a way that in some languages, all and only the MD contexts license PN, in other languages, a subset of these contexts (perhaps Vondel's Dutch is a case in point), in a third class of languages, a superset thereof. We will not dwell on this topic.
    ${ }^{27}$ For polarity-effects in comparative constructions, compare Hoeksema (1983).
    ${ }^{28}$ On before, cf. Sánchez Valencia, van der Wouden and Zwarts (1993).
    ${ }^{29}$ Sources disagree on whether paratactic negation occurs after sans que: according to Kukenheim (1968), this element is not followed by $n e$, according to Grévisse (1980), it is.
    ${ }^{30}$ Browsing the Vondel corpus didn't yield any clear cases of paratactic negation after eer 'before' or zonder 'without'. van Helten (1883) doesn't discuss these cases.

[^19]:    ${ }^{31}$ We predict that the same would hold for other downward entailing expressions that have scope over these lexical items. This prediction seems to be borne out:
    i Il y a quelques enfants qui craignent qu'il ne vienne There are some children that fear that-he NE come SUBJ 'Some children fear that he may come'
    ii Il y a peu d'enfants qui craignent qu'il (*ne) vienne There are few of children that fear that-he come SUBJ 'Few children fear that he may come'
    iii Il n'y a pas d'enfants qui craignent qu'il (*ne) vienne There not are of children that fear that-he come SUBJ 'No children fear that he may come'

[^20]:    ${ }^{32}$ The phenomenon may be parametrized in the sense that in some languages PN may only show up in contexts with stronger properties, e.g., anti-additivity.

[^21]:    ${ }^{33}$ Black English Vernacular. Example from Labov (1972).
    ${ }^{34}$ Cockney folksong. Example from Seuren (1991).
    ${ }^{35}$ On negative concord, cf. van der Wouden and Zwarts (1993).

[^22]:    ${ }^{36}$ van der Wouden and Zwarts (1993) use the same approach to account for the systematic ambiguity of negative quantifiers in negative concord languages.
    ${ }^{37}$ Jack Hoeksema (p.c.) pointed out the relevance of these cases to me.
    ${ }^{38} \mathrm{Cf}$. the double negations in section 3.3.4
    ${ }^{39}$ One likewise expects that affirmative polarity items (of the appropriate strength) will not co-occur with paratactic negation, for the very same reason that negative polarity items do show up there: the context where paratactic negation shows up is monotone decreasing, and the PN element doesn't change that. Therefore, affirmative polarity items are not allowed there.

