

**NEGATION IN ENGLISH: A
CONSIDERATION OF THE INTERPLAY
BETWEEN THE SYNTACTIC AND SEMANTIC
ELEMENTS**

BY

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis titled, "Negation in English: A consideration of the interplay between the syntactic and semantic elements" has been written by me and it is a record of my own research effort. It has never been presented in any previous application for higher degree.

All quotations and sources of information are duly acknowledged by means of reference.

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This thesis, "Negation in English: A consideration of the interplay between the syntactic and semantic elements" has been read and approved as satisfying the regulations governing the award of Degree of Master of Arts in English Language in the Department of English Language, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria.

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DEDICATION

Lamentations 3:22 "The steadfast love of the Lord never ceases, his mercies never come to an end."

I dedicate this thesis first and foremost to Almighty God for giving me the grace to complete it successfully despite all odds.

I also dedicate it to my ever wonderful, supportive and loving husband for his total understanding. And last but not the least, to my understanding and lovely children.

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ABSTRACT

In the investigation reported here the researcher assessed the use of negative elements/forms by two hundred and eighty-seven (287) subjects drawn from four states in Nigeria. The study, which was carried out in 1997, had subjects selected through stratified random sampling, which ensured participation from different academic disciplines. Seven tertiary institutions across the nation were used. The schools were located in Ogbomosho (Oyo State), Ilorin (Kwara State), Kaduna and Zaria (Kaduna State) and Ugbokolo (Benue State).

Works written by other linguists, language experts and psycholinguists concerning negation were consulted and the recent trends exposed by the various grammatical schools were critically examined. These formed the underpinning for the 73-item test instrument on which the subjects were tested. The cross - linguistic and cross-psychological comparisons aimed at giving a good balance to the instrument had earlier been carried out.

Subjects were tested in identifying, producing and converting negative elements to measure the depth or shallowness of their performance in this linguistic task. Five sub-tests were given: The first sub-test looked at the conceptualization and use of negative words, sub-test one was largely context - free or of general orientation with regard to negative patterning. The second sub-test required a manipulation of the grammatical formulation involved. The third and the fourth sub-tests centred on interpretation, the appropriate syntactic response being dependent upon the meaning assigned to the sentence or text. These two sub-tests (i.e. sub-test three and four) were thus context dependent. The fifth or last sub - test was the only continuous text used to gauge the subjects' mastery or ignorance of the negative message so as to show that not only words, phrases and sentences could convey a proper negative idea but that, negation could also be present in a large text or

presentation. In this last sub-test, the selection of the appropriate response was dependent upon details provided by context in the text.

Findings from the study revealed that a high level of sensitivity backed by a rich degree of exposure to the English language was a pre-requisite for good performance on the given tasks.

These findings emerging from the investigation also showed that the subjects' receptive skills were higher than their productive skills. In addition, the findings also revealed subjects' limited manipulative ability regarding other patterns/forms of the negative other than the conventional not or n't.

In scoring the sub-tests the 5 - band rating that was used consisted of: Excellent, Good, Fair, Weak and Failed. There was no overall "Excellent" performer among the schools based on the rating system used in this investigation. Significantly, even the highest performing school (Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomosho) fell only within the overall rating band of fair (average).

Based on the findings, the researcher has made a point-by-point specification of the varying but integrated strategies that should be put in place to improve responses of Nigeria students to language forms in general and to negative constructions in particular. Most significantly, the need to incorporate listening-in sessions and handling a variety of exercises has been highlighted.

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CHAPTER ONE

1. 0. THE PROBLEM AND ITS BACKGROUND

1.1. Introduction

Language itself is a conglomeration of complexities, and English in particular has all kinds of replacive and non-replacive variables. To wade through and sort out all these variables is a herculean task. Negation in English is one of the complexities one encounters.

Negation is a process or construction in grammatical and semantic analysis, which typically expresses the contradiction of some or all of a sentence's meaning. In English grammar it is expressed by the presence of the negative particle 'not' or 'n't' (the contracted negative) in lexis, there are several possible means, e.g. prefixes such as un-, non-, ex- or words such as deny. In recent linguistics, a topic of particular interest has been the range of sentence structure affected by the position or use of a negative particle. Take the sentences below:

I think Angela isn't coming.

I don't think Angela is coming.

Angela may never be coming.

Such variations in the scope of negation affect the English logical structure as well as the semantic analysis of the sentence. The verbal system of English is operated largely by the use of the auxiliaries like (be, have, do, will, shall, can, must and ought) with several other marginal cases. It is with these verbs that negation can be formed in English, by the devices of the n't ending

He wasn't eating

He hasn't gone

He can't run.

All these are surface structures that look simple but a little deeper and one encounters difficulties, as illustrated below:

'I don't think he will come' is formed from 'I think he won't come'.

'He mustn't come' is not the true negative of 'He must come' for the true negative is 'He needn't come' and 'He mustn't come' is rather 'He must not come'.

Then there is the familiar problem of some and any. All these are typical distinctions one encounters.

People normally use positive rather than negative representation so that they can represent knowledge as simple and as directly as possible.

The subject of negation can be approached from two or three main perspectives, which include:

- i. The sociolinguistic
- ii. The psycholinguistic
- iii. The syntactic.

While these categories are not mutually exclusive, they nevertheless represent the dominant standpoints from which the subject might be looked at. To the layman, the concept of negation relates in an opposite or parallel form to that of positivity. This is principally because, in everyday terminology negation is encountered, as the other side of a positive situation or matter.

To the linguist however, the concept of negation attracts interest at different levels. At the psycholinguistic level, the linguist examines when the child begins to imbibe the responsiveness to the idea of negation. Studies have shown that children find negative words harder to acquire than their positive counterparts, because they start with conceptual preferences for relationships that correspond to the positive term. The psycholinguist also looks at the types of negation used, and their sequence of development. To the linguist, negation takes different sentence form or syntactic form. A principal interest of the linguist will therefore include, specifying which form of negation occurs in a particular construction for example, 'some' seems to be used with positive verbs and 'any' with negative ones.

"He has some food', He hasn't any food'.

In English as a second language [ESL] environment, users seem ill at ease with options and selections. Often they are torn between determining what is right and what is appropriate. This and other similar issues affect negation patterns and would therefore need to be investigated fully.

1.2 Background to the problem

The basic structural pattern of the sentence in English varies depending on a lot of factors. According to **Halliday (1985)** the sentence is usually regarded as the largest structural unit in terms of which the grammar of a language is organised. It must have a finite verb, and a subject governing the verb. The above is not accepted by many. The classification of the sentence structure proceeds along many different lines e.g. the binary constituent procedures of immediate constituent (I.C.) analysis or the hierarchical analysis of Halliday or the kernel sentence and its transformation in transformational generative grammar.

In generative grammar, likewise, there are several models of analysis for sentence structure, with competing views as to the direction in which a sentence derivation should proceed. Certain analytical problems are shared by all approaches, e.g. how to handle 'Elliptical' sentences such as 'To Lagos' (in answer to where are you going?) how to handle cross – reference between sentences such as 'He's coming' (sentence connectivity) and how to handle the minor, non-productive' sentence types in a language (e.g. yes, please, How do you do? Taxi! Happy Birthday, Gosh! No entry, Down with NADECO (National Democratic Coalition). Most analysts agree on the need to recognise a functional classification of sentences into statement, question, command and Exclamation types.

Most analyses also recognise some such classification of sentence patterns' into simple V complex or compound types i.e. Consisting of one subject – predicate as opposed to more than one. Whether one calls this subject – predicate unit a clause, a 'simple' sentence, or uses some other term depends on one's model of analysis, but something analogous to this unit emerges in all theories, e.g.

NP + VP, subject – verb – object

David Crystal identifies five basic patterns

1. S + VP + C (linking verb): These biscuits have kept fresh.
2. S + VP (intran V): Tom has left
This bread will go bad quickly
3. S + VP + O (tran V): He has left the house
She kept the Money
4. S + VP +IO + Do (trans V): Her father left her N10,000.00
Please give me a packet.

5. S + VP + O + C (trans): He left her crying

She kept the money safe.

According to **Stageberg, (1981)** English is not spoken by merely stringing words together in some random fashion. Rather words are carefully arranged consciously or unconsciously into certain pattern. In English, he identified nine basic patterns, with a multitude of sub – patterns. In all these patterns, the subject always occurs in the first N position.

1. N be Aj

Exercises are tiring - VS

2. N be Adv.

The car is outside - SVA

3. N¹ be N²

My mother is a teacher –SVO

4. N LV Adj.

The farmer appears tired - SVC

5. N¹ LV N¹

My niece became a carpenter - SVO

6. N In V

The boy came -SV

7. N¹ TrV N²

Amina ate the bread - SVO

8. N¹ TrV N² N²

The doctor gave the baby an injection - SVOO

9. N¹ TrV N² plus one – this form can take 8 different forms in the final position.

It can take the following forms:

a. N¹ TrV N²

The Postgraduate class appointed Mike chairman.

b. N¹ TrV Adj.

The doctor declared her insane.

c. N¹ TrV pronoun

I taugh the caller called you?

d. N TrV Adv of place

We imagined him dancing

e. N¹ TrV V present participle

She imagined him dancing

f. N¹ TrV V past participle

I found him seated

g. N¹ TrV Prep. Phrase

We rated her above the others

h. N¹ TrV Inf phrase with to be

We considered Ali to be a good wrestler.

The conventional features of the negative form in English takes a number of varieties depending on what the sentence is, that is, question, command, or statement.

a. Negative sentences: not is placed after the operator

e.g. S + Op + n't + V = He didn't see an aeroplane

He has not seen one

HE couldn't have been one.

b. Negative questions: n't is combined with interrogative inversion wh – word + op + n't

+ S + V = Didn't he see one?

Hasn't he seen one?

Why couldn't he have seen one?

Negative questions implies that:

(a) the speaker now tends to believe that something he previously thought true/ was not infact so,

or (b) he is still clinging to the belief that something is/was so despite contrary evidence that is, he is hoping for a positive answer. Context and intonation usually make the meaning clearer.

Negative commands:

Don't look! Do not look! Nobody looks! Don't you look!

Negative commands normally require the operator.

Do + not (n't)

Instead of using not in the verb phrase (VP), negation can also be marked by:

- i) Adverbs – never, nowhere and semi – negatives like hardly, rarely, scarcely.
- ii) Determiner – no
- iii) Pronoun – none, nothing, and nobody.

In general, everything after the negative words is negated, so position affects the scope of the negation hence the difference between:

- I haven't still got the keys (i.e I haven't got them now though I had them once). and I still haven't got the keys (i.e. I have never had them).

According to analysis of Klima, (1968) a wide variety of sentences containing superficially quite distinct 'negative' words such as not none never can all be analysed as containing a constituent NEG with sentence underlying deep structure position on the convergence of several criteria for distinguishing a class of 'negative sentence'. He identifies the following:

(a) Tag questions: Under a falling intonation on the tag, positive sentences take negative tags and vice versa.

1. i) Ali has eaten, hasn't he?
ii) She's excited about the play, isn't she?
iii) Tim hasn't left yet, has he?

iv) You've never been to Lagos before, have you?

v) None of those boxes are empty, are they?

(b) Not – even tags: only negative sentences allow not – even tags

2. i) Irede doesn't like fried eggs, not even boiled ones.

ii) No one showed up in church, not even the priest.

iii) I am not going to the 7th floor, not even with the lift.

(c) Further conjoining: in order for two conjoined sentences to have the form S1, and S2 – either, the second sentence must be negative or the first must be so.

3. i) Ibrahim played in school all day, and Amina didn't go anywhere either.

ii) Ali couldn't eat the food, and none of his friends could eat.

(d) Neither - tags: in order for the 2nd of two either - conjoined sentence to be truncated into a neither - tag, the 1st sentence (as well as the 2nd) must be negative.

(1) Irede couldn't run, and neither could Iyiola

(2) None of the girls liked it, and neither did any of the boys.

According to Klima (op cit.) words with negative prefixes such as unhappy, displeas, dislike, unlikely and words, which are in some sense, semantically negative such as doubt or refuse, do not yield negative sentences.

For example:

a) some of those boys dislike meat, not even lamb

b) Mary isn't cooperative, and Joseph is un-cooperative either.

c) Emmanuel was not happy and neither was Yinka.

All these illustrations do not yield negative sentences in the way we know. The sentences which count as negative with respect to the above, criteria all contain either not (or contracted n't) or one of the "pre verbs" hardly, scarcely, rarely, seldom, barely are called "incomplete

negatives" in that they make a sentence negative with respect to some but not all of the criteria.

Few and little also appear to share many but not quite all properties of negative words. All these point to the fact that there is a syntactic relationship between not (n't) and certain negative words.

We can have the following alterations:

5. a) She saw nothing of interest in it.
b) She didn't see anything of interest in it.
6. a) He has never been on time to school.
b) He hasn't ever been on time to school.
7. a) No one ate the food.
b) The food was not eaten by anyone.

Klima (op cit.) goes further and postulates a deep structure morpheme NEG which will be looked at in more depth in chapter 2.

According to Eka (1994), the most important element that conveys meaning at the level of the sentence is the verb. It is a compulsory element while other elements like the S, C, O, A are optional. There are verbless sentences but such constructions are not the rule. All these elements combine to give different patterns.

Examples:

- a) V – run.
- b) SV – Angela sang.
- c) SVO – Ayo wrote a letter.
- d) SVA – Bola walked elegantly.
- e) SVC – Amina was appointed principal.
- f) SVOA – My mother cooked Jollof rice yesterday.
- g) SVCA – Amina was appointed principal last year.
- h) SVOC – The students made the president angry.

This is highly simplified and shows that every sentence with a verb must start with the S – element. This is not so necessarily as any element can begin it, e.g.,

- Did Rahab buy petrol yesterday? – V – S – VOA
- Last night I baked some cakes – A – S – V – O
- Last year she passed well – A – S – V – A

All these also hinge on:

- (1) The type of sentence structure – is it a simple, complex, compound, multiple or compound –complex sentence?
- (2) The type of function the sentence performs – is it a statement, imperative, interrogative or exclamation?

Having established the basis structural patterns for English, the conventional features of the negative forms and their parallel constructions or in the positive forms will now be examined.

Table 1:1 Some Negative Patterns in English.

Conventional features of the negative forms	Parallel constructions or in the positive forms	Prominent feature form of function	Level of manifestation of the negative patterns.
I shall not attend your party – SVC	I shall attend your party – SVC	Verb – form	Syntactic
You mustn't sleep here tonight SVAAA	You must sleep here tonight. SVAA	"	"
I should wait, shouldn't I S V Q tag - neg	Should I wait V (S) V	"	"
HE has not seen Ali S V (neg) O	He has seen Ali S V A	"	"
Don't look up V (neg) A	Look up VA	"	"
Didn't he eat his food V (neg) S V O	He ate his food - S V. O	"	"
I disagree with you S V O	I agree with you	"	Morphological
I deny the charges S V O	I accept the charges	"	"
Tim dissuaded me from going to Kano S V O A	Tim convinced me to go to Kano	"	Semantic

NB

Since the negative not can't be used without the modal auxiliaries, then its form hardly changes.

1.3 Aim of the study

This study evaluated the different ways in which negation is used in an environment where English is the L2. The evaluation was aimed at identifying the ostensible features of the negative forms so as to arrive at the following:

- 1) To provide a clear articulation of what is involved in the concept of the negative form.

- 2) To assess (however approximately) the spread of the negative patterns in a typical discourse or write – up.
- 3) To examine the incidence of misuse of certain negative patterns.
- 4) To identify the psycholinguistic findings on negation and assess the relevance to linguistic description.
- 5) To identify the principal types of negation in the English construction.
- 6) To make recommendations where necessary regarding the rate of exposure of learners to the various and sometimes conflicting negative patterns in the English language.

1.4 Statement of the Problem

When one looks around and see the “normal” way in which negation is being used, there is cause for alarm. In recent linguistics, a topic of particular interest has been the range of sentence structures affected by the position, form and meaning of a negative particle. There are different variants and all these affect the logical structure as well as the semantic analysis of the sentence.

Wason (1959, 1961) was able to show that negative statements are harder to understand and evaluate than affirmatives. **Jones (1966)**, has similarly shown that negative instructions lead to more mistakes and to a slower rate of performance. Negation is probably expressed in a complex way because it takes more specification to say what something is **not** than to say what it is. There are different and conflicting patterns of the negative in English and this sometimes leads to unintended mix-ups or statements, and to the selection of forms that fail to capture the meaning intended by the user.

This study will attempt to answer critical questions such as:

- a) Does the negative form occur in uncountable forms or patterns in English?
- b) Does the negative form occur only in the verbal section?
- c) Does the negative form always represent a contradiction?
- d) Do the markers of negation fall into specific categories? And if so, what are these?

Some primary questions will also be raised, namely:

1. Are Nigerian users of English conversant with the various forms of the negative patterns?
2. Is a particular level of English language proficiency necessary for overcoming some of the problem areas?

The present study is a response to all these conflicts.

1.5 Theoretical framework

Several linguists in the English language area have carried out some investigations on negative forms but many of these studies have been in different directions.

Linguists who have made important investigations in the area of negation include: Stockwell and Partee (1973), Lyons (1968), Young (1980), Quirk et al (1972), Todd (1985), Crystal, (1995), Chomsky (1980) e.t.c

During the investigation, attempts have been made to identify the most plausible or the most viable theoretical framework by examining those provided by the above linguists. In addition, it was worthwhile in assessing the viability of an eclectic theory. Efforts have been made to unearth unifying features at both superficial and real levels, and to pinpoint those elements that are unique.

1.6 Significance of the study

Many language students are sensitive only to a restricted range, or number of negative forms, so a study like this attempts to bring out other possibilities in terms of constructional occurrences, and also find out some of the factors responsible for the propensity among Nigerians to commit errors in negation in English. The negative form often necessitates some unique grammatical patterns or constructions.

The study examined to what degree the users of English in Nigeria follow selectional requirements. While negation might have been covered in language acquisition within the area of psycholinguistics, very little work has been done in the area of negation from the standpoint of a grammatical analysis.

The study was expected to be of high significance to the following groups:

- a) To learners at post-secondary levels. This was likely to be so, since some of the factors responsible for the propensity to commit these errors were to be identified. Additionally the study was expected to draw attention to such language tasks that might help to reduce the poor performance of learners especially in the area of manipulating the negative patterns across the English language.
- b) To teachers. The study should characterize the real areas definitive of resemblance superficial similarity and real differences.

1.7 Scope and Limitation

The investigation ~~was~~^{is} expected to take an indepth look and analysis of students' constructions involving the use of negative patterns and the manipulation of the negative patterns of English constructions at the following levels: word, phrase, sentence and textual level. Three main forms will, among others, be used:

- a) Elicited passages
- b) A test on sentence manipulation
- c) Word identification

Students and institutions in Kaduna, Kwara, Oyo and Benue States formed the main population from which samples were selected. The stratified random sampling method was employed. It is recognised that conclusions emanating ^{from} such a limited range of samples may not be readily generalisable. They may however, be significant and sufficiently powerful to allow for highly reasonable degree of deductions.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction to the Various Approaches

The English language is one of the most complex languages one can come across and treating a concept like negation in the language becomes doubly demanding. Negation goes beyond merely speaking or saying some words to connote non-positiveness. It is a vast field with all kinds of attendant implications, real or imagined. Consequently, the literature on it can only be contributive not exhaustive.

The present study is concerned with what might be described as a small aspect of negation in the English Language. It has attempted to expose the limited range of the use of the negative concept, and has brought out other possibilities, which usually follow certain unique grammatical patterns; naturally only those aspects which are of relevance and constitute a core to the language come under review in this chapter. It is an established fact that many language students especially at the tertiary level of learning are sensitive to only a restricted range of negative forms.

Many students or users of English are not aware that other possibilities exist, and that the propensity to commit errors in the use of negatives can be traced to certain factors. It is these areas of immediate concern that the literature review in this study is restricted to. A study of negation will take cognizance of what selected various writer/authors have written. The similarities and differences exhibited in each, a sort of cross-linguistic parallelism. This will help us to see the various leanings that inform the authors.

Some are psychological, some sociolinguistical, some grammatical, some syntactic, some morphotonic, and some contrastive. Our literature review therefore begins with this cross-linguistic parallelism, and how each author sums up his approach and places negation in the use of language.

Next, we examine the various viewpoints. The developmental or psychological point of view, where Language and thus by implication, negation is closely tied up with age. The sociolinguistic approach, which encompasses a broad spectrum, is comprising of its contextual meaning, attitudes, emphasis, style etc. The syntactic approach which looks at negation in sentences, the different morphemic forms it takes, the modals and all the rules it should follow, depending on what type of sentence – is the sentence a question, statement, command or Inquiry. Under this, the morphotonemic aspect will be briefly looked into. This is followed by the lexical, which has several means of representing negation such as, prefixes like – un, -non, etc. Finally, the study examined the contrastive approach to negation, with a view to taking an eclectic stand.

2.2 The Study of the Grammar of Negation.

2.2.1 Klima

Klima's article on negation (1964) has been judged to be one of the major works in the field of transformational studies of English, and one of the major treaties on negation. Klima's basic thesis is that a wide variety of sentences that are superficially quite distinct "negative" words such as **not**, **none**, **never** can all be analyzed as containing a constituent **NEG** with a single underlying deep structure position in the sentence.

This sentential **NEG**, Klima considers plays a very crucial role in deep structure constraints. He gave the following as examples of such constraints:

- in the occurrences of **until** - phrases
- in the modal **need**
- in a number of idiomatic expressions such as **sleep a wink, give a damn , bat an eye.**

He also attributes it to certain transformational changes, which are conditioned within the sentence, such as **some - any.**

In all these, Klima is trying to show several criteria for differentiating a class of "negative sentences". His approach is a syntactic approach clearly aimed at grammatical correctness and proper use of the negation. He believes that there is a syntactic relation between **not (n't)** and other negative words, as seen in the following examples.

1. (a) She saw nothing of interest in the magazine
(b) She didn't see anything of interest in the magazine
2. (a) No one ate the food
(b) The food was not eaten by anyone

Other criteria he identified include:

3. tag questions, under a falling intonation on the tag, positive sentences take negative tags and vice versa, e.g.
(a) Amina has eaten, hasn't she?
(b) Angela hasn't left yet, has she?
(c) He is going to the party, isn't he?

4. Not-even tags, in this only negative sentences allow not-even tags. E.g.
- (a) No one ate the food, not even the dog
 - (b) Joseph doesn't like spicy food, not even tasty ones.
5. Either conjoining, for the two sentences joined to have either, the second sentence must be in the negative. E.g.
- (a) Ali couldn't swim across the river, and none of his friends could either.
 - (b) Amina read in the library all day, and Angela didn't go anywhere either.
6. Neither-tags, here the first and the second sentence must be negative, in order for the second of two either- conjoined sentences to be truncated into a neither-tag. E.g.
- (a) Ali couldn't eat, and neither could Amina.
 - (b) None of the men wore formal clothes to the party, and neither did any of the women.

Klima's (op cit) exposition with the above examples show that words with negative prefixes such as displeased and unhappy and words which semantically connote negation like doubt or refuse do not yield negative sentences in this sense. His emphasis is therefore not on lexical words that connote negation, but on the traditional not with other negative words like none, never, no, nothing, etc.

He regards words like hardly, scarcely, rarely, seldom, etc as "incomplete negatives" because they make a sentence negative with respect to some but not all of the criteria. He also postulated further

relations between the negative words, any and any- compounds and some and some- compounds. E.g.

7. (a) No one said anything to anyone.
(b) Nothing was said to anyone by anyone.
(c) I'm getting [somewhere] with this
[anywhere]

Klima regards the some – any suppletion to be optional in most environments to account for contrasts such as:

8. (a) Some of the students didn't understand.
(b) None of the students understood.

both of which would be analysed as

- (c) NEG some of the students understood

All the above criteria so far discussed form the core of Klima's analysis, there are other rules for many other phenomena connected with negation, which we shall now take one by one.

Double Negatives

[Klima (op cit) gives these examples:]

9. (a) He doesn't often really not understand
(b) Chomsky doesn't not pay taxes for nothing.

In this, he admits two NEG's per sentence, but only with an intervening adverb; however, sentence C contains three negatives. The question of grammaticality for double negation has been on since the existence of pre-traditional grammar, and has always been traced to the existence of a substandard dialect, which converts all some's directly into nos. in negative sentences.

In talking about the intervening adverb, where pertinent is that even with only one negative, the position of the negative with respect to the adverb can affect the meaning in a way that seems directly related to having two negatives with the adverb. For example,

10. (a) He doesn't really eat well.
- (b) He really doesn't eat well.
- (c) He doesn't really not eat well.

There are many difficulties with adverbs including their range and use relative to one another and to negation in a given sentence that will not be dwelt it on.

To now claim that 10a is an ordinary negative depends on the assumption that the corresponding positive sentence will be:

11. He really eats well.

But if the adverb was to be analyzed as deriving from a higher sentence as seems plausible, then 10b will be a negating simplex, with the adverb dominating the negated simplex. 10a will thus be really negating (the higher sentences containing) really , often.

Sentences containing multiple negations have been found to be difficult to analyze, because a proper or right analysis will require a much more thorough prior analysis of adverb and their scope, and of the possible effects on semantic interpretations.

Neg – Raising

For certain matrix verbs, Klima [op cit] proposes a special analysis in connection with embedded NEG's. Look at the following pairs

12 (a) I think he won't tell her.

(b) I don't think he will tell her.

13 (a) It's likely that he won't get there until after the game.

(b) It's not likely that he will get there until after the game.

14 (a) John knows they aren't here.

(b) John doesn't know they are here..

For Klima, 12a, 13a and 14a have a sentence NEG in the embedded sentence only. He assumes an underlying NEG in both matrix and constituent in 12b and 13b, which would trigger a radical difference in meaning, 12b should be the negative of 12a and 13b of 13a. His thrust in this analysis is to account for the possibility of such items as until after the game in 13b, which could not occur in a corresponding positive sentence.

For the sentences

15 He dislikes doing nothing all summer

16 It isn't likely that there won't be any rain in January.

Klima claims an underlying double negative in the constituent sentence, but it will be noticed that he has defeated himself here, since, according to his own rules, he allows two negatives only with an intervening adverb such as often and/or really.

Phrasal Negation

For this, Klima [op cit] identifies certain occurrences of not which do not have criteria properties of sentence negation. He gave the following examples:

17. (a) He found something interesting there not too long ago,

[and neither did she]

[and so did she]

(b) He had spoken with someone else not many hours earlier,
hadn't he?

(c) There was some rain long ago,

[not even in the desert]

[even in the desert]

There were other occurrences which he identifies, but he pointed out, that, these occurrences of not should be treated as the same morpheme neg which he puts forward for sentence negation, but introduced in lower constituents, such as:

18. (a) Not long ago there was rain falling.

(b) Not long ago was there rain falling.

(c) Not even then was there rain falling.

19. (a) Not three weeks ago he got there before 3:00

(b) Not three weeks ago he got there until 3:00

(c) He almost never gets there until 3:00

Evidence came up however that, it is the same morpheme neg in both cases as can be seen in the following:

20. (a) It wasn't long ago that he found something interesting there

(was it?)

(b) He had spoken with someone else, which hadn't been many hours earlier.

This now clearly illustrates the similarity of constituent and sentential not with respect to both co-occurrences and semantic interpretation.

He therefore tentatively suggests the use of a base rule of the following sort:

Time \Rightarrow (neg) long [ago]

[after]

[before].

Klima's [op cit] treatise on negation is one of the most comprehensive that is available. One of his fundamental conclusions is that,

“except for double negation, all negative sentences should be accounted for on the basis of a single deep structure constituent NEG whose position in the base should be the same no matter what constituent its superficial reflex is associated with”

He also concludes that NEG must be immediately dominated by S in deep structure, as a result of his use of the concept “in construction with”, which he uses to define the some - any rule scope.

One of his argument on Sentence-initial NEG comes from sentences like

21. (a) The old people wanted to remain but not the young people.

(b) Mary can come in, but not anybody else.

He further argued that for an Sentence-initial for NEG to be possible, one has to keep the structure of a sentential NEG with a preposed adverb separate from that of constituent NEG, so as to correctly predict AUX-inversion, that is at the time AUX-attraction applies, the sentences must have distinct structures, e.g.

22. (a) Not even two years was I there

(b) Not even two years ago I was there.

23. (a) In not many years will Christmas fall on Sunday.

Opposition to this argument points out that Klima [op cit] fails to see that from the position of not in the prepositional phrase in (23) it cannot still be dominated directly by sentence, though, how the difference should be represented is not clear. The Sentence-initial position postulated as the source of NEG does not seem sufficient.

Preverbs:

This is an area also examined by Klima. The preverbs he considers important are barely, hardly and scarcely.

Klima [op cit] believes that they only occur in the environment of NEG, which they later "incorporate". He however does not suggest any related positive elements. His analysis is faulty, because it clashes with the rule of sentence initial adverb placement and attraction of NEG to any – words because of the behaviour of the "negative preverbs".

Options suggested for this include not generalising adverb-preparing beyond the preverbs, and also stating the NEG- attraction rule as applying to not and to the non- temporal negative preverbs hardly, barely, scarcely, but not to the temporal negative preverbs.

A new approach was thus suggested by the synonym of the following sentences.

24. (a) Hardly anyone ever buys turtles in Nigeria.

(b) Hardly ever does anyone buy turtles in Nigeria.

(c) Seldom does anyone buy turtles in Nigeria.

Sentences (24a) and (24b) are analogues to (25a) and (25b)

25. (a) No one ever buys turtles in Nigeria.

(b) Never does anyone buy turtles in Nigeria.

Previously (24a) was generated while excluding (25b)

This solution served certain advantages:

Since seldom will no longer be a negative preverb in deep structure, a Fillmore- like derivation of hardly can be adopted as a possible re-write of NEG. In addition, the NEG- attachment rule, which used to apply to NEG and to non- temporal negative preverbs, now applies simply to NEG. Thus all the major problems or difficulties connected with the preverbs appear to be solved or over.

Klima [op cit] finally looks at negation in relation to:

Too, Either And Neither:

He considers too- either alternation essentially the same processes as some- any alternation, and either – neither a case of any – no suppletion.

2.2.2 Lakoff

[Lakoff was another linguist] who looked at negation syntactically, and differed from Klima [op cit] in certain areas. He raised some main objections, but his findings or propositions are not as far reaching or all encompassing as Klimas: He looked at ambiguous sentences with adverbials in relation to negation, and cites this ambiguous sentence. Lakoff (1965)

26. I don't beat my wife because I like her

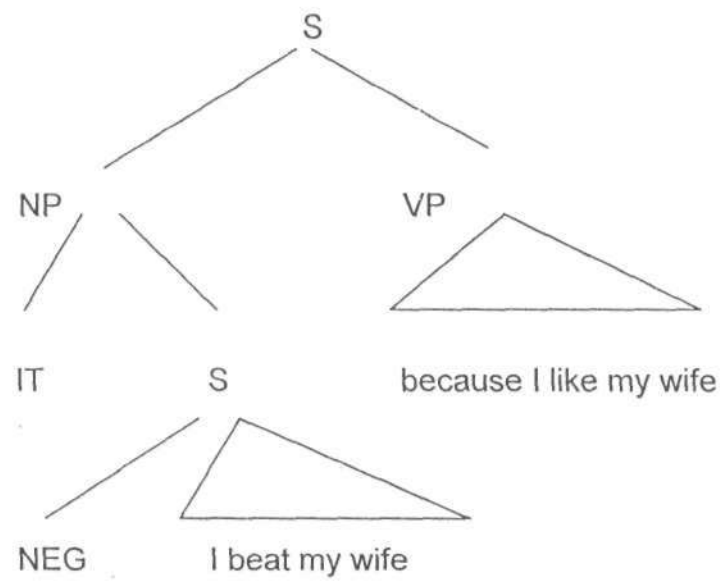
Which has two possible interpretations:

27. (a) It is because I like her that I don't beat my wife.

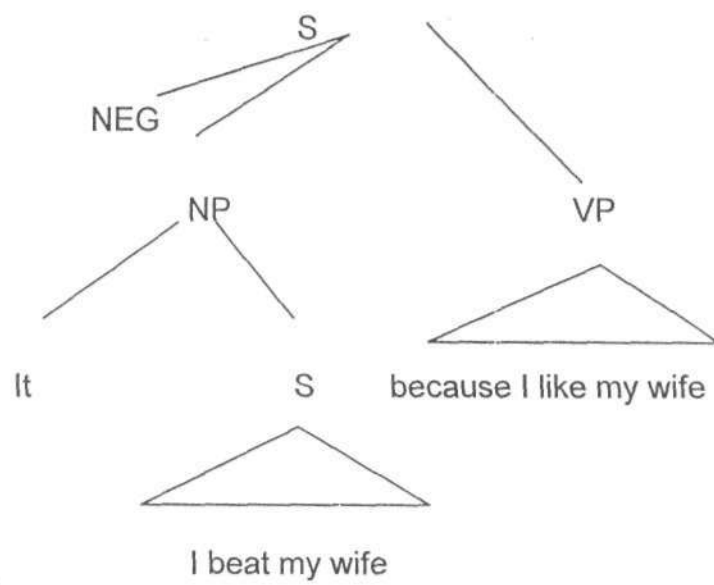
(b) It is not because I like her that I beat my wife.

Corresponding to these two sentences interpreted thus, he put forward the deep structures as follows:

27. (a)



27. (b)



He identifies other types of adverbials including locative, instrumental and frequency adverbial, which he claims forbid NEG from occurring in the embedded sentence, because "one cannot assert the location, etc of an event that does not occur".

However, objections were raised to these assertions because it was discovered that, there are certain cases where the negation of an event may, loosely speaking, itself be an event, e.g. not paying taxes, not getting up early, not watching the football match etc (semantically, the "event" appears to be the breaking of a habitual or expected pattern of activity). Such "negative events" definitely allow frequency and locative adverb but not instrumental adverbs. There are a lot of problems facing these various analysis especially, those that include NEG and the various adverbs within the sentences in fixed positions. The ambiguity in sentence (26) is thus not yet clearly sorted out, and is still unaccounted for.

The ambiguity in a sentence like

28. He doesn't go to church at the university

can be attributed to a distinction between a true location and a while clause.

Do we then fall back on intonation to disambiguate? The intonational difference between a "conjunction" because and a "restrictive adverbial" because since there are still many other problems concerning adverbs which have not been solved, the analysis of (26) remains an unsolved mystery.

For NEG-raising Lakoff (1965) believes in what he calls a rule of NEG-raising, which he calls "not- transportation". He does not see

any connection in it with any general properties of matrix verbs, but simply posits an exception feature for it.

2.2.3 Jackendoff

Jackendoff looks at negation from a radically different perspective. In examining the concept of NEG- raising, he presents an argument similar to Lakoff semantically. In addition to this, he puts forward a counter- argument that a NEG in an embedded sentence like:

29. It's not likely that he will get there until after the game

is necessary to account for the until – phrase. This is assuming that there is no reflex of a raised NEG in the following:

30. (a) I doubt that John will arrive until 4:00 [Jackendoff 42]

(b) Bill is afraid to leave until his mother comes [43]

(c) Scarcely anybody expected him to get there until after 5:00
[44]

He bases his arguments on certain theoretical assumptions, such as, that lexical insertion of items like doubt, afraid, scarcely is applied at the deep structure level.

Jackendoff [op cit] concludes this by saying there is neither a NEG- raising nor a NEG- absorption rule in the grammar. The only way a NEG can move out of its sentence is by NEG- attraction and even then, only into lower, not higher sentences.

Jackendoff's approach is usually called the "Interpretive Approach" because essentially he hinges his evidences on the fact that

negatives are introduced in their full range of surface positions with the relations that exist between sentences explained by semantic interpretation rules acting on derived structures. Part of the functions of the semantic rules include determining the "scope" of any occurrence of NEG in a sentence. He gave the following examples:

31. (a) Some of the men didn't see anything [32]

(b) None of the men saw anything. [33]

These two are generated by PS- rules according to him, and an interpretive rule assigns VP scope to the NEG of (31a) and S- scope to the NEG of (31b). He however gives no indication of how the variability of scope might be limited to sentences containing indefinites: he seems to be triggering off an ambiguity in

32. John didn't see the police car.

A crucial point of Jackendoff's [op cit] argument is that the scope of negation is always a (continuo) constituent, i.e. it is always associated with a particular node in the tree. But contradictions arose in these as shown by some examples given by Fillmore [op cit]:

33. (a) No one has found any solution to some of these problems.

(b) Mary supports John not John Mary

These examples point to a difference in individual determiners, rather than a global difference in scope. But some of the strongest arguments in Jackendoff's position come from sentences with more than one negative in which the order of the constituents crucially affects the interpretation, e.g.

34. (a) Never before had any of his friends not come to one of
his parties.

(b) Never before hadn't any of his friends come to one of his
parties.

2.2.4 Fillmore

Fillmore [op cit] another linguist had an approach similar to Klima's but with a few modifications. He points out that Klima's some-any suppletion rule (which Klima considers optional in most environments) generates the following non-synonymous pairs as optional variants of each other.

35. (a) Some of us didn't go to the picnic.

(b) None of us went to the picnic.

36. (a) Sometimes I don't know what to do.

(b) I don't ever know what to do.

37. (a) Many of us didn't go to the picnic.

(b) Not many of us went to the picnic.

38. (a) I didn't see some of them.

(b) I didn't see any of them.

Because of [Nos. 38 a & b] he rejects the idea that the differences in 35 – 37 are as a result of a distinction between "predicate negation" and "sentence negation". He states that the differences reside in the indefinite quantifiers, which may be either [+SPECIFIC] or [-SPECIFIC].

where the feature [+ SPECIFIC] is the same as that, that accounts for the ambiguity of

39. I told her to do something.

40. I'm looking for some girls with red hair.

But this is not always the case, the [+SPECIFIC] functions do not always harmonize. For example:

41. I'm not looking for some girls with red hair.

This shows that "there are some (specific) girls with red hair that I'm looking for".

Thus, even though the notion of [+SPECIFIC] is possible at times, it can't be used all the time. The notion of [-SPECIFIC] for example can be interpreted only in certain limited contexts. E.g.

42. Some huge ants came in the door (only [+SPECIFIC]). Another problem envisaged for this analysis appears when instead of a simple NEG (or not), a "partial" negation such as hardly or almost not is involved.

In looking at Deep structure position of NEG, Fillmore introduces not in sentence-initial position, but not immediately dominated by sentence. For him, not is also one member of a lexical category NEG which includes hardly, seldom, scarcely.

For Fillmore [op cit] NEG is one of the elements, which can trigger some-any suppletion, and is dominated by Pre-verb. He agrees with Klima [op cit] that the some-any rule (NEG precedes all the quantities at the time the rule applies) is accomplished by having NEG start out sentence-initially, and move AUX only after the some-any rule

applies. For both Klima and Fillmore, one of the arguments for sentence-initial NEG is the parallelism between NEG and the interrogative morpheme, WH or Q. both trigger some-any suppletion and both trigger AUX-inversion.

Problems, however, have been pointed out from Fillmore's use of the sentence-initial position of preverbs.

One argument used by Fillmore [op cit] alone, is that the sentence-initial origin of NEG will simplify the account of the following:

43. (a) Never had he seen such a marvelous device.
(b) Hardly anyone believed him.
(c) John hardly believed him.
(d) Hardly John believed him.
(e) Seldom has anyone performed so well.
(f) Anyone has seldom performed so well.

The negative preverbs here originate sentence-initially, then move into AUX only if the subject is not an any-word. e.g (43f), the movement is obligatory for certain preverbs like hardly, optional for some like seldom.

He separates the any - no rule from the rule for positioning the preverbs other than NEG and this will bring difficulty for the sentence-initial position of preverbs. Since hardly is not included in the any - no rule, it can come up only in sentence initial position, or in the AUX. Thus Fillmore generates all of (44) and none of (45).

44. (a) Hardly the authors of any of the books objected.

(b) John hardly told the story to anyone.

(c) He has hardly had anything to eat for the last three weeks.

45. (a) The authors of hardly any of the books objected.

(b) John told the story to hardly anyone.

(c) He had hardly had anything to eat for the last three weeks.

Like Klima, Fillmore does not give any related positives to the preverbs barely, hardly, and scarcely which he considers negatives, he classifies not as belonging to them. His analysis has problems with rules for sentence-initial adverb placement and attraction of NEG to any - words, precisely because of the “negative preverbs” mentioned above.

2.2.5 Eka

Eka, (1994), looked at negation only in relation to modal auxiliaries, he believes that practically every modal auxiliary can undergo negation, with or without contraction. He gave some examples.

Please see Table 2:i

TABLE 2:i Samples of Eka's negation typology.

Word	Uncontracted negation	Contracted negation
Can	Cannot	Can't
Could	Could not	Couldn't
May	May not	Mayn't
Might	Might not	Mightn't
Shall	Shall not	Shan't
Should	Should not	Shouldn't
Will	Will not	Won't
Would	Would not	Wouldn't

Each example of negation constitutes the opposite of a positive modal.
He cites the following possibilities:

46. (a) I shall not attend to you shortly
(b) I shan't attend to you shortly.
47. (a) Peter shall not be welcome.
(b) Peter shan't be welcome.

For modals like can, shall, should, would, etc, the act of negation in them is easy and it occurs often times, but there are some that care needs to be taken when negation is in process, e.g. must, will or may.

While it is possible to say

48. You mustn't sing here at night as a negation of

49. You must sing here at night.

It is not usual to have

50. There mustn't be a mistake in this addition

If our intention is to provide a negation of

51. There must be a mistake in this addition.

According to Eka (op cit) No. 50 above is negative obligation i.e you are obliged not to make a mistake. This implies that the addition has not taken place yet.

No. 51, is a case of logical inference or deduction. The addition has already been completed. He also made the following points:

- (a) Contracted negations occur largely in speech e.g dialogues, etc. They also occur in formal writing particularly if they are for illustration.
- (b) The contracted form 'll has been used in speech for both shall and will. He noted that this tends to obliterate the distinction between shall and will (common in the past) as markers of determination and futurity respectively. The form 'd is restricted to would.
- (c) Mayn't does not occur always in speech, not even British English which is often shown to be tolerant of it.

- (d) The to in ought to is often retained in the contracted negative oughtn't to except in American English which has tended to be tolerant of its elimination.

2.2.6 Robins

Robins (1980) described negation as one of two formal categories exhibited by verbs in a number of languages, (the other being causativity). Every language he says expresses it. Latin for example expresses negation in the simplest way grammatically, by the mere addition of a negative word e.g. Latin:/pluit/it is raining/non pluit/it is not raining.

English he observed is not like this, but more complicated. The negative counterparts or transformations of affirmative sentences are usually different and go beyond merely adding of a single word or a negative bound morpheme only performing the job. It involves an entire transformation, which reflects parts of the speakers' intuitive awareness of relations between sentences of different types, e.g. positive and negative sentences, the association between them rests on the native speakers recognition of their semantic relatedness, which is expressed by relatedness of grammatical structure.

This is a TG approach to language, which pays more emphasis on native intuitions. Language was being viewed from an "internal" point of view i.e. finding out what constitutes a speakers knowledge of his language and not looking at how to deal with a given data. In this case now, the use of negatives is supposed to be an innate thing with the speaker of English. This approach or line of thought will not be exhaustively researched in this submission, because it will defeat the entire purpose of this investigation which as part of what it is digging out, to identify familiar ways of use, the spread of the patterns,

propensity to commit errors in its usage, and possibilities. This area has been briefly touched, because there will be unexplained cases that will come under this.

2.2.7 Palmer

Palmer, (1965), pointed out some exceptions in the use of negation, based on his findings that the grammar of the spoken language is different from that of the written, the negative form of am, which can only be seen in questions is quite odd in writing – aren't I? But in the spoken form it is perfectly normal. It is paralleled by can't I? And shan't I? The negative differs from the positive in that the vowel is [a:] instead of [ae], and the last consonant of the positive form is missing in the negative form.

Can [kaen] - can't [ka:nt]

Am [aem] - aren't [a:nt]

Shall [sael] - shan't [sa:nt]

Palmer (1965), considers negation as one of the defining characteristics of the auxiliary verb, in fact he defined an auxiliary verb as "one whose forms are used together with the negative particle- or to put in a better way, one, which has paired positive and negative forms".

I can come -> I can't come.

We must eat -> We mustn't eat.

He identifies several relations between the positive and negative forms:

- a) The negative form differs only in the addition of (nt) in the case of is, are, was, were, has, have, had, does, did, would, should, could, might, ought, might, dare and need.
- b) The negative form lacks the final consonant of the positive form in the case of must and used [mnst], [mnsnt], [ju:st], [ju:snt].
- c) The negative form has different vowels from that of the positive form in the case of do [du:] dount].
- d) The negative form has a different vowel from that of the positive form and lacks final consonant in the case of will [wil] [wount], shall [fael] [fa:nt], can [kaen] [ka:nt]. With these three the differences are Paralleled by differences in the orthography too – won't, shan't and can't (not cann't).
- e) **Am** has no negative form in statements; the negative form of a sentence containing **am** contains the form **not** (not):

I'm going [aim gouig]

I'm not going [aim not gouig]

In questions with inversion, however, there is a negative form [a:nt]:

Am I? [aem ai] [a:nt ai]

There is also no corresponding negative form to may, no mayn't, or corresponding to be.

Palmer (1965), also identifies some problematic forms, these include the use of **DARE** and **NEED**, these occur both as auxiliaries and full verbs at different times also there is an overlap between the auxiliary & full verb forms, but the distribution of the auxiliaries is defective.

As auxiliaries they occur in negation thus:

He daren't go

You needn't ask.

As full verbs:

He doesn't dare go.

You don't need to ask.

In using them as full verbs, Do is introduced in the negative form. The auxiliaries however, usually can and do occur with the semi-negative adverbs never, hardly and scarcely. There are several other forms which Palmer says are notionally negative and which may in formal terms be regarded as closely connected to negation, under this comes never hardly, scarcely and no one, they function in only two types of sentences as negatives:

a) sentence with dare and need

No one need know

He hardly dare ask

He need never know

The use of dare and need and not dares and needs suggests that, no one, hardly and never are here negatives formally as well as semantically.

b) Sentences with question tags:

He's tried, hasn't he?

He hasn't tried has he?

The first has a rising intonation, the second a falling one. What is important is that a positive initial sentence is followed by a negative 'tag' and vice versa. When words such as never occur in the first part, the tag is positive.

He's never tried, has he?

This again shows that never is a negative (formally).

For most of the modals, negation is simply in the form of a negative form like will/won't, but mustn't and oughtn't are the negative forms of must and ought only morphologically, in wider syntactical patterns, the form used is needn't for both of them.

I can go, but John can't.

Can I go? No you can't

I must go, but John needn't

Must I go? No you needn't

I ought to go, but John needn't

Ought I to go? No you needn't

In semantic terms, **mustn't** does not negate the obligation to act, but expresses a positive obligation not to act.

With **can**, there is also a contrast. Look at the following:

Positive	you can go	you must go
Negative (i)	you can't go	you needn't go
Negative (ii)	you can not go	you mustn't go

Where negative (i) indicates (semantically) negation of the auxiliary and (ii) negation of the following infinitive. This is the case with all other auxiliaries.

For **must**: The negation form is can't

He must be there

He can't be there

These are not two kinds of negation. **Can't** implies a negative conclusion not a positive one. Palmer looks at negation in the complex phrase, he looks at it through a lexical and not grammatical viewpoint,

viewpoint, even then only superficially. The finite verbs he agrees is negated in the usual way while the non – finite by a preceding not.

He agreed not to do anything

He asked them not to come.

All these are lexical & not grammatical restrictions. There are other verbs, which might be described as 'adverbially' or verbs of 'manner' and can be used negatively.

He failed to come

He neglected to come

According to F. R. Palmer, the first test of an auxiliary is whether it occurs with the negative particle **NOT**, or more strictly, whether it has a negative form as of sentences with auxiliaries used for negation are:

I don't like it

We aren't coming

You can't do that

He mustn't ask them

They mightn't think so

Positive sentence may or may not contain an auxiliary form

I can come

We must go

I like it

We saw him

An auxiliary verb may then be defined as one whose forms are used together with the negative particle – or, to put it in another way – one which has paired positive and negative forms.

There are eleven or possibly 12 auxiliaries, with 28 distinct forms in all or 30 if those that function both as finites & non – finites are counted twice.

TABLE 2:ii Different Auxiliary Forms.

S/No.		FINITES	NON-FINITES
1.	BE	Is, are, am, was, were	Be, being, been
2.	HAVE	Has, have, had	Have, having
3.	DO	Do, does, did	
4.	WILL	Will, would	
5.	SHALL	Shall, should	
6.	CAN	Can, could	
7.	MAY	May, might	
8.	MUST	Must	
9.	OUGHT	Ought	
10.	DARE	Dare	NB. Used is the doubtful auxiliary it does not fit into the full pattern of the auxiliary can't be handled together with them in any detail.
11.	NEED	Need	
12.	USED	Used	

Negative forms: the auxiliaries have negative forms ending in orthographic n't, phonetically [nt], but the relation between the positive and the negative forms are of several kinds.

- a) The negative form differs only in the addition of [nt] in the case of is, are, was, were, has, have, had, does, did, would, should, could, might, ought, dare and need.

- b) The negative form lacks the final consonant of the positive form in the case of must and used [m^st] [m^snt], [ju:st] [ju:snt].
- c) The negative form has a different vowel from that of the positive form in the case of do [du:] [dount].
- d) The negative form has a different vowel from that of the positive form and lacks final consonant in the case of will [wil] [wount], shall [fael] [fa:nt], can [kaen] [ka:nt] with these three the differences are paralleled by differences in the orthography too – won't, shan't and can't [not cann't].
- e) Am has no negative form in statements; the negative form of a sentence containing am contains the form **not** [not]:

I'm going. [aim gouig] I'm not going. [aim not gouig]

In questions with inversion, however, there is negative form [a:nt]

Am I? /aem ai/ /a:nt ai/

The only possible orthographic form of this is aren't I? but in a formal style this is avoided presumably because it is assumed to be the negative of are and not of am, and am I not? is written in its place. But the form is no stranger than can't, won't or shan't either in transcription or in orthography. There is, for many speakers, no negative form of corresponding to may – no mayn't while usedn't is at least uncommon.

There is no negative form corresponding to 'be' though on the analogy of the imperative forms do, don't, one might expect be and ben't; but no such form exists.

It would be entirely reasonable to talk about a negative conjugation in English since the negative forms must be handled in the morphology. Indeed we may consider that there is one regular formation with the addition of n't [nt] and five irregular ones.

2.2.8 Todd

Todd (1985), identifies what she calls the dummy auxiliary in the construction of negative sentence. She posits that, at least one auxiliary is obligatory in negatives. This she considers necessary in Modern English, whereas Shakespeare would write

I like it not

Like you that?

We must use:

I do not like it

Do you like that?

When there is no other auxiliary occurring to form the negative, 'do' is then used. This is what she calls the 'dummy auxiliary'. It is considered a dummy because although it is grammatically very significant, its meaning is very negligible. Negative exclamations do also occur:

I've never seen such a mess in all my life!

Never in a million years will I speak to him again!

2.2.9 Young

Young (1980) in looking at modality and negation gave this e.g.

You must keep to the left

Which can be negated as either:

- a) You needn't keep to the left (it is not compulsory)
- b) You mustn't keep to the left (it is compulsory not to)

These two interpretations are not equivalent. He notes that there is a rule against combining negative with any main verb except **be** (or sometimes have), i.e. there are no forms **beginsn't** or **broken't**, he thus surmises that a finite verbal group that is negative, but not modal, or perfect, or continuous or passive must contain an auxiliary. He looked at what he calls 'Transferred negation', as exemplified in the following sentence:

- a) He thought they were not willing.
- b) He didn't think they were willing.

In the most natural interpretation, (b) is synonymous with (a), the negation has been transferred from the reported clause, where it really belongs, to the dominant, though it shows that it does not make a difference which clause is negated. He points out that the contrast between positive and negative will be meaningless in a polar interrogative environment at first sight but there is a meaningful difference between 'is raining?' and 'isn't it raining?' He thus sees negative interrogatives as meaning that the speaker is hesitant about which role to cast himself in.

2.2.10 Halliday And Hassan

Halliday and Hassan (1976) looked at the issue of negation and polarity. It was pointed out that polarity is normally expressed at the beginning of the verbal group. A negative verbal group will have **n't** or **not** attached to the first word if it is finite e.g. couldn't come, could

not come. If it is non-finite, it has not, usually as the first word e.g. not having eating, not to have eaten, though the not may sometimes follow the first verbal operator, e.g. having not eaten, to have not eaten. Other negative adverbs like never, hardly, hardly ever may occur in place of not.

According to their findings, the category of negative is not clearly defined, but is revealed by the choice of tag.

Ellipsis plays a major role here, its function is that of cohesion by presupposition, but one thing that can't be presupposed is polarity: namely where the response (e.g. to a yes/no question) serves precisely to supply the polarity, all else being taken for granted. For example:

- a) Were you eating? - No I wasn't
- b) Cats like cheese - they don't, do they? - yes they do
do - well some do and some don't

In the non-finite, there is a special elliptical form of the negative namely not to as in I'd hate not to, not to would be silly, which expresses the non – finiteness and the polarity and nothing else.

There is an equivalent positive form to, which is however much more restricted: we say – I'd love to but we say to would be silly

There is also a special type of negation in which the negative is attached specifically to some other element in the verbal group, eg.

- a. I've kept on telephoning, but they've simply been not answering.
- b. He says he's been not being informed about these developments.

Here, the verbal group is positive, while certain features in it are explicitly negated. The lexical verb answer in (a), the lexical verb inform and the passive voice selection in (b) polarity can be restated as shown thus:

- a) What are you doing? (positive)
- b) Thinking. (Positive; 'I'm.....')
- a) Not day dreaming? (Negative; 'aren't you.....?')
- b) No, thinking. (Positive; 'I'm?')

If there is a change in polarity, it might go from positive to negative or from negative to positive; the final occurrence of thinking above does not take over the selection of negative from the presupposed group.

There is also what is called marked polarity, which is the assignment of special prominence to the selection of positive negative in order to draw attention to it.

A verbal group with lexical ellipsis must have the polarity marked; so the finite operator can not be reduced:

- a) Who'll put down hundred Naira? - I will (not I'll)
- b) John's arrived, has he? - Not yet; but Mary has (not Mary's)

This applies to all positive forms. The negative may or may not be reduced. We could have I won't in (a), and Mary hasn't in (b) this is no doubt because the negative is itself a kind of marked polarity. The preference for marked forms polarity as seen thus is that it is the expression of polarity that is the whole point of the response.

Negative polarity, according to Crystal, D. (1991), are those words or phrases which can appear only in a negative environment in a sentence, e.g. any in:

I haven't got any books.

2.2.11 Quirk et al

Quirk et al (1973), also share the opinion that negative sentences involve the operator, requiring the insertion of not (or in its contracted form – n't) between the operator and the predication. His contributions are also very extensive.

Tim did not come with us

Paul isn't going home

Ambiguity can also come about on the basis of the disclaimed validity if the negative particle is introduced into a sentence with as many as [2] elements as Quirk et al (op cit) gave this example,

The girl isn't now a student at a large university unless a prosodic or grammatical focus is used to resolve the ambiguity. The ambiguity will still be there. In the above sentence for e.g. it could be:

- a) The girl was a student at one time but not now.
- b) She is still at a large university but not a student there.
- c) She is at a university but it isn't large.

There is also an important similarity between question and negations, a semantic one. A sentence can be non-assertive by either being a negative or a question. An assertion like: He gave her some money.

Can be non-assertive thus:

Negative: He did not give her some money?

This is an interrelated system with non-assertion being expressed as either negative or question.

This analysis according to Quirk et al (op cit) is usually used in a special technical way, because in ordinary speech, negative sentences

can be considered assertions, E.g. 'I did not give her the book' was his constant assertion.

Negation and Question

Considering Negation and Question, Quirk et al (op cit) agrees like most linguistics that questions like statements can be positive or negative, e.g.

a) Didn't she go with you to church? – negative

b) Did she go with you to the church? – positive

In (b) the answer required may be neutral, it may be 'yes' or 'no' with equal probability, but in (a) This form has been developed in English as a way of showing the speaker's surprise that the context has implied that the answer is no.

There are also severe restrictions on the use of wh-questions with negatives at all, e.g. compare

a) Where is Ali?

b) Where isn't Ali?

Negative prepositions were also identified (away from, off, out of) & may be defined by simply adding the word not to the corresponding positive preposition.

Rahab is away from Zaria (= Rahab is not in Zaria)

The bags were off the table (=The bags were not on the table)

She is out of the school (=She's not in school) different [She's not in the school]

Negation and Disjuncts:

Quirk et al (op cit) are among the few who have looked into this area and they say most disjuncts can be modified and several can be premodified by not, especially 'surprising' and some with negative prefixes (unexpectedly, unreasonably, unwisely, unusually)

Not surprisingly, she gave birth to twins.

Not unreasonably, she fought him.

On the scope of negation, this is often dependent on the ellipsis of subject and auxiliary, if the positioning of the adjuncts are before the lexical verb in the first clause they are regarded as having extended their scope to subsequent clauses in which the auxiliary is ellipted. This normally applies only if:

- a) The co-ordinator is and or or
- b) An identical subject or an identical lexical verb is also ellipted.

E.g.s. are:

John will rarely sing or dance

Peter does not play games and sees plays

Thomas cannot dance the waltz or Simon the tango.

The scope of negative particle is sometimes extended when neither subjects nor lexical verbs are identical especially if the coordinator is or:

Deborah can't run or Alice jump.

The effects of negation in a sentence like:

Don't drink and drive

Ought to be looked at. Is it to be?

Don't drink

Don't drive

As and is the coordinator. Semantically, because of the context in which the sentence is located we know that the intention is not to prohibit either activity, but only when both are combined.

Also recognised a combined process where the first conjoin is negated e.g.

- a. John didn't break the window but refuse to pay for it.
is a denial of
- b. John broke the window but refused to pay for it.

Sentence (a) could elicit the response 'Yes, he did'

Whereas there are two processes that are separate in some sentences, and the scope of negation in the first conjoin does not extend to the second conjoin:

a) John didn't break the window, but he offered to pay for it.

b) John didn't break the window, but he didn't offer to pay for it.

Negation in the first conjoin can also, likewise affect clauses coordinated by or thus:

John doesn't take a bus or go by train

Can be the negative equivalent of

John takes a bus or goes by train

Which can be synonymous with one explanation of

John takes a bus and goes by train

When the combinatory possibility in the alternative is included.

Transferred Negation:

Writing about this, Quirk et al (op cit) examines the transfer of the negative from a subordinate that - clause, where semantically it belongs, to the main clauses. E.g.

I didn't think he was happy
can be interpreted as; one in which the negation applies to the main clause, and one in which it applies, through transferred negation to the subordinate clause:

I thought he wasn't happy

Transferred negation is limited to verbs of belief or assumption, e.g. think, believe, suppose, fancy, expect, imagine and reckon.

[thing]

I don't [believe] (that) you've paid for it yet

[suppose]

[imagine]

He doesn't [expect] (that) we need worry

[reckon]

The negative status of the that - clauses can be seen by the occurrence of need (which can't appear in a positive sentence we need worry) and the non-assertive form yet.

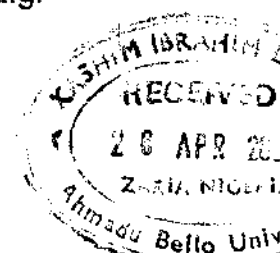
He agreed though, that, not all verbs in the semantic field of belief, uncertainly, etc take transferred negation for e.g. assume, surmise and presume are not included in the above list.

I don't assume that he came

Is not equivalent to:

I assume that he didn't come

What then happens with the negation of a clause which has no auxiliary (apart from BE) e.g. give, gives or gave. This problem is solved by introducing the substitute or 'dummy' auxiliary Do. E.g.



She sees me everyday = She doesn't see me everyday

The girl ate the rice = The girl didn't eat the rice.

Abbreviated Negation:

On abbreviated negation, he notes that in areas where it is possible to abbreviate the operator by the use of a contracted form enclitic to the subject, two colloquial forms of negation are possible:

Someone's not coming – some isn't coming

We're not ready – We aren't ready

There are certain negative forms which are restricted in usage, e.g. mayn't, mustn't, oughtn't, daren't needn't and there is also an e.g. of one that cannot be contracted am not: I am not sleeping.

The negative particle not or n't is often followed by one or more of the non – assertive, items listed in the third column below.

Table 2:iii Assertive/Non assertive Negatives.

S/No.	SYNTACTIC CLASS	ASSERTIVE	NON - ASSERTIVE	NEGATIVE
1.	Determiner	Some (one or the other)	any	No
2.	"	(one or the other)	Either	Neither
3.	Pronoun	Some	Any	None
4.	Pronoun	(one or the other)	Either	Neither
5.	Pronoun	Something	Anything	Nothing
6.	"	Somebody	Anybody	Nobody
7.	"	Someone	Anyone	No one
8.	Process adverb	Somewhere	Anywhere	(In no way)
9.	Place adverb	(informal Am E -) some place	(informal Am E -) any place	Nowhere
10.	Time adverb	Sometime (s) (informal Am E -) any time	ever	Never
11.	Time adverb	Already	Yet	-
12.	"	Still	Anymore/longer	No more/ longer
13.	Extend adverb	(to some extend)	At all	-
14.	Intensifier	Somewhat	Any (the)	No, none the
15.	Additive adverb	As well, too	Either	-

When not is used with a non-assertive form, it can often be replaced by the negative word in the right hand column thus; we can have two negative equivalents of each positive sentence:

- 1) We've had some lunch – [We haven't had any lunch]
[We've had no lunch]
- 2) He saw one man or the other – [He didn't see either man]
[He saw neither man unusual]
- 3) I was speaking to somebody - [I wasn't speaking to anybody]
[I was speaking to nobody]

Negative Intensification:

Negative determiners and pronouns are given emphasis by at all, whatever:

I found nothing at all the matter with him.

You have no reason whatsoever.

Never is repeated for emphasis

I'll never, never go out in the night again.

The combinations **not one** and **not a** (single) are emphatic alternatives to **no** as a countable determiner.

Other well-known and emotively coloured expressions of negation are exemplified by:

I didn't sleep a wink

He didn't give me a thing

I don't care a damn whether we eat or not.

Initial Negative Element:

Quirk et al (op cit.) write that, non-assertive forms associated with negation cannot precede **not** in the sentence, thus we can't have an alternative construction to the simple negative form which occurs in a subject or initial adjunct.

a) Negative Subject:

No one came with me (? Anyone doesn't come with me)

Nothing came of it (? Anything didn't come of it)

None of us were ready (? Any of us weren't ready)

Not one plate was left.

Negative subject can also be formed with the word not as a predeterminer, in the combinations **not all**, **not every**, **not everyone**, **not much**, **not many** e.t.c. Not all scientists agree with you.

b) Negative Adjunct:

Never will I visit you again

Nowhere have we enjoyed our holidays more thoroughly than in London.

Not until last week did they bring the clothes.

Here in the above examples we see the reversal of subject and operator that occurs with an initial negative element.

He also noted that, if a clause contains a negative element, it is usually negative throughout, from the onset of the use of the negative to the end, or at least until the beginning of a final adjunct.

I never traveled anywhere by rail yet

I haven't ever been on any of the big liners either

Not many of the refugees have anywhere to go yet

The non-assertive forms even occur in positive subordinate clauses following a negative in the main clause:

Nobody has promised that any of you will be released yet.

Occasionally, there are instances where two negatives occur in the same clause:

I can't not obey (I have to obey)

No one has nothing to offer to society (Everyone has something to offer to society).

These are like double negative.

Also, there are a lot of words, which he identifies as being negative in meaning, but not in appearance. They include seldom and rarely (adverbs meaning not often)

Scarcely and hardly (adverbs meaning almost ... not/no)

Little and few	(“ “	not much/many)
Only	(“ “	no more/other than)
Barely	(“ “	only just)

These words are considered as negatives for three reasons

1. They are followed by non-assertive rather than assertive forms:

I seldom get any sleep

I've spoken to hardly anyone who disagrees with me.

Few changes in government have ever taken so many people by surprise.

2. When in pre-subject position, they normally cause subject-operator inversions, as in

Rarely does crime pay so well as Shehu seems to think.

Scarcely ever has the Benin kingdom witnessed so much massacres

The inversion is literary or rhetorical in forms as usual.

3. They are followed by positive rather than negative tag – questions.

She scarcely seems to eat, does she?

In addition to all these, verbs, adjectives, or prepositions with negative meaning can rule over non-assertive forms:

He denies I ever came there

I forgot to ask for any food

Unaware of any danger

Without any delay

Against any changes

Scope Of Negation

In considering the scope, he writes that, a negative form maybe said to govern a non – assertive form only if the latter is within the

SCOPE of the negation, i.e. within the stretch of language over which the negative meaning operates. This scope normally extends from the negative words itself to the end of the clause, or to the beginning of a final adjunct. There is thus a difference between:

I definitely didn't speak to him (it's definite that I did not)



I didn't definitely speak to him (it's not definite that I did)



In looking at another e.g., the difference of scope, which is marked by intonation, reflects an important difference of meaning.

a. I wasn't listening all the TIME



b. I wasn't listening all the TIME



a. Means 'For the whole time, I wasn't listening'.

b. Means 'It is not true that I was listening all the time'.

Clauses, Local And Phrasal Negation

All these can be distinguished by looking at the extent of the scope of the negation. This is illustrated below:

Clause Negation: Nothing agrees with me more than oysters (i.e. 'oysters agree with me as much as –indeed, more than – anything else')

Local Negation: Nothing agrees with me more than oysters (i.e. 'Eating nothing agrees with me more than eating oysters')

Local negation may be explained as negation of a clause condensed into a phrase. Strictly speaking, the second sentence is not really a negative sentence of all but a positive sentence containing a negative word.

Another type of negation, though minor is phrasal negation this type is grammatically restricted to a single phrase, but semantically applies to a whole clause. It is thus the opposite of local negation, which is grammatically similar to but semantically unlike clausal negation.

Not a word came from his lips (No word - - -)

He gave me not even a moment to collect my thoughts.

Not five men survived the journey.

Not here has the effect of negating the whole clause.

Phrasal negation, has emphatic meaning, and is often combined with negative inversion.

Focus Of Negation

This is an important area also, because without a focus, the entire meaning might be lost, this is talking about the **information focus**.

Here, the contrastive nuclear stress comes to play, especially when it falls on a particular part of the clause. This indicates not only that the contrast of meaning implicit in the negation is located at that spot, but that by implication the rest of the clause can be understood in a positive sense.

HARRY didn't attack the labour Government

(i.e. Someone) attacked - - - -, but it wasn't Harry

Harry didn't atTACK the Labour G~~o~~vernment

(i.e. 'He did something to the labour Government but he didn't attack it')

Harry didn't attack the LABOUR G~~o~~vernment

(i.e He attacked some government but it wasn't one')

The scope and focus are interrelated in such a way that the scope must include the focus. This then follows that another way of

signaling the extent of the scope is by the position of the focus. Placing the information focus in a special position is a primary way of indicating that a special attention of the scope of negation has been made. E.g.

I didn't leave HOME, because I was afraid of my FAther –
(1)

I didn't leave a home because I was afraid of my FAther –
(2)

In (1) there is separate tone unit allotted to each clause, and the **because** – clause is placed outside the scope of the negative but (2) extends a single tone unit over both and places a contrastive fall + rise on father.

It should be noted that when the negative word not itself has the focus, the scope maybe restricted to that word, as in the denial sentence:

I did NOT offer her some chocolates
(‘it is not true that I offered her - - - -’)

This same effect is achieved by focus on a negative operator

I DiDN'T offer her some chocolates

Negation Of Modal Auxiliaries

He pays a great deal of attention to this area because the scope of the negation may or may not include the meaning of the auxiliary itself. Thus we make a distinction between **AUXILIARY NEGATION AND MAIN VERB NEGATION:**

Please see Table 2:iv

This study in looking at the various approaches will follow the pattern as evidenced in the works of Klima and Quirk et al. A syntactic approach has been taken with all the attendant semantic relatedness. The test instrument will also fall along this line.

Table 2:iv Auxiliary/Mainverb Negation

S/No.	AUXILIARY NEGATION	MAIN VERB NEGATION
1.	May not (=‘permission’) You may not go swimming (you are not allowed ---- ‘)	May not (=‘possibility’) They may not bother to come if it is wet (‘It’s possible that they will not bother to come ----’)
2.	Cannot, can’t (in all senses) You can’t be serious (‘It is not possible that ----- ‘) You can’t go jogging (you are not allowed to -----’)	

2.2.12 The Yoruba Language; A Contrastive Approach

The Yoruba language will only serve as a contrastive peripheral area for comparison. No study of Yoruba (and indeed of any language!) may be said to be complete without a thorough understanding of cultural institutions associated with the use of the language.

As Bamgbose (1982) points out, Yoruba study has not fully developed, there is the difficulty of finding generally accepted Yoruba terms for grammar, literary criticism and stylistics.¹ The problem is not limited to terminology alone. He also adds that experience with students at Lagos and Ibadan shows that there is no difficulty in using or learning Yoruba, as long as the work is not strictly analytical. The real difficulty he says is when dealing with analyses or description of other features; this he adds, is not the students’ fault; but rather the meta-language must be developed in order to be equal to these studies. Until this is done, the meta-language will not be very effective or profound.

In the dictionary of the Yoruba language (1979), ‘negation’ is a noun and is defined as *ise, iyan*.

negative is defined as: $\begin{matrix} \diagdown & \diagup & \diagdown & \diagup \\ \text{oro} & \text{sisé} & \text{oro} & \text{íyan} \end{matrix}$

One has to look at Yoruba language from the Morphotonemic angle, this can be paralleled to the intonation pattern in English, this involves the rising and falling of the voice and is distinct from tone.

As much as Yoruba is a tonal language, intonation will be largely excluded from this study. An indication of it though will be used sparingly in the orthography, this is because it is difficult and almost impossible to analyse intonation within this type of study because it is a wide and complex phenomenon.

Oke (1969) opines that verbal group negation in Yoruba is effected throughj the operation of certain negator elements on the positive verbal group. He showed that, the syntactic use of one of the negators does not always produce negative meaning, making it necessary, therefore to differentiate the use of that negator as a semantic reinforcer from its use as a semantic negator.

As a preamble, he puts forward three questions, which he considers very crucial to eventual deductions that will be made.

- (a) what elements may be considered as verbal group negators?
- (b) what factors affect their syntactic use in the language?
- (c) two negators may follow each other in the negation of only one verbal group: what is the distribution of negators in such sequences in relation to the verbal groups negated by them?

He identifies two negator elements operating on the verbal group. These are **ko** and **maa**. The **ko** can be further divided into two main parts:

- (i) **Ki**: This occurs only before $\dot{y}\ddot{o}$, $\dot{b}\ddot{a}$ (e.g. $\dot{k}\dot{i}$ $\dot{b}\dot{a}\dot{a}$ $\dot{w}\dot{a}$ → he wouldn't have come), and \underline{n} (e.g. $\dot{k}\dot{i}$ \underline{n} $\dot{s}\dot{u}\dot{n}$ $\dot{l}'\dot{o}\dot{r}\dot{u}$ → he doesn't sleep at night)
- (ii) **Ko**: This occurs before all verbal elements except the full verbs **ni** 'be' and **wa** 'be, exist', and the auxiliary elements **a**, **yoo**, **maa**, **baa**, **m**.

Maa is normally realized in speech as maa; but sometimes, in fast speech, it comes out as ma if the following syllable is on low tone or mid tone.

Oke's observation bears some striking resemblance with certain negation markers in English earlier identified in section 2.2.5 of this study.

In addition, he raises some salient points on the fact that Yoruba Grammar in many cases has tended to focus on the syntactic than the semantic role of ko and concludes that the operation of the negator ko on a verbal group does not always result in a negative meaning. For example, the semantic difference between:

Ibaa wa s'ile oko re (She would have come to her husband's house)

and

Ko baa wa s'ile oko re (She would have come to her husband's house)

is not the difference between a positive and a negative sentence, as in:

O wa s'ile oko re (She came to her husband's house)

as against

ko wa s'ile oko re. (She didn't come to her husband's house)

In most cases, the sequence results in a double negative meaning as in:

Ko le maa wa (lit. he cannot not-come)
(he cannot fail to come)

which is the negative form of the meaning of

O le maa wa – he may not come. But there are instances when the sequence of negators does not result in a double negative meaning. For example, ko ki n jeun osan – he doesn't eat lunch.

the difference of meaning between

Ko baa maa si n'ile oko re

even if she were not in her husband's house

and

Ibaa maa si n'ile oko re

Is not a difference between a double negative meaning and a single negative meaning: it is actually a difference between emphatic and non-emphatic.

From all the examples given so far, it is then clear that it is necessary to have two types of negation: syntactic negation and semantic negation. Also, in the examples already given, the syntactic negator **ko** does not always play a negativising role on a following verbal group; sometimes it merely reinforces the meaning (whether positive or negative) that is already in the syntactic elements. Thus, **ko** has two semantic functions; it serves as a negator as well as a reinforcer. The reinforced positive can be seen thus: ko baa lo – even if

he goes. This usually occurs when **ko** separates before the verbal group **baa + verb**.

In the case where the use of **ko** results in a negative meaning, it is regarded as double negation, and it involves the interposing of **dede**, **feree**, **gboodo**, **jaja**, **le**, **moomo** between **ko** and **maa**. E.g. **ko lee maa wa** – he cannot fail to come.

There are also instances where **ko** is merely a reinforcer, and this may be called a reinforced negation. In this case, a sequence of two negators is not split by any of the verbal elements listed above. In such cases, the sequence of two negators produces only one emphatic negative meaning, and a deletion of the first negator would produce the same meaning, but with less emphasis. Examples

Ki baa maa ri i Ibaa maa ri i

he wouldn't have found it

ko ki n jeun osan Ki n jeun osan

he doesn't eat lunch.

The **ko + verbal group** has different meanings. It is thus established that the negative **ko** does not always have a negative meaning in its occurrences, sometimes it is only a reinforcer.

His approach is also comparable to that of Palmer, (1965), (section 2.2.7). They share the idea that the grammar of the spoken language is different from that of the written. For example:

A ko lo = A o lo = A a lo → We didn't go.

Ogunbowale (1981) identifies two negative forms: **ko** and **ki ise**

E.g., Ojo ko or ki ise ojo (It is not Ojo)

He looks at the word ko and adds that it is also used in the formation of the negative especially when the answer is in the negative for a habitual action. E.g.

Emi ko nsise ni ojo satide

I do not work on Saturdays

This is a very simplistic approach that can be compared to Robins (1980), contributions about the Latin language which he says expresses negation in the simplest way grammatically, by the mere addition of a negative word.

Awobuluyi (1979) looks at negation in sentences, and says negative words come from the classes of verbs, introducers and modifiers.

The verb ti means (to be impossible, find to be impossible) and the sentences in which it occurs are considered negative sentences. E.g., O ti → No!

A o nii se e ti, a o nii ti i se → May we not find it impossible to do.

A gbe e ti → we could not lift it up.

The introducer **ko** (not) is negative in meaning. According to him, it negates nouns only, and it always follows the nouns it negates. Often, the introducer itself is in turn directly followed by a topical qualifier. E.g.

Emi ko → I wasn't the one

Iyen ko ni a wi → That's not what we said.

Iwe ko ni mo ra —▶A book wasn't what I bought

The modifiers (pre-verbal adverbs) ko, maa/ma and i

give negative meanings to the sentences in which they occur. Specifically, they negate the verbs or verb phrases in such sentences.

Ojo ko lo —▶ Ojo didn't go

Maa/ma lo mo —▶Don't ever go (there) again

Ki i lo —▶ He never goes

He concludes by saying, Yoruba words differ from one another in so many ways, and we have a lot of sub-classifications, which are not all useful because the members of each of the classes of words that some of them yield will not behave alike, and because of this, it will not be possible to make general and simple statements about them, in which case, simple and straightforward grammars of the language are difficult to produce. The only proper way to classify Yoruba words for syntactic purposes is by the functions that they perform in sentences. English also shares this principle. Stageberg (1981) agrees with this as shown in his book (An Introductory English Grammar, Fourth Edition). He assigns words to various categories based on their functions.

Bamgbose (1983) identifies three types of verbs, which he calls (a) preverbs; (b) free verbs; (c) post verbs. The preverbs are our concern, because it is within them that he classifies negators. There are three negators according to him:

Ma, ki and ko/o

Ma occurs only in imperative clauses, except when it is preceded by the preverbs: **iba, ibaa, gbo.do, ki, le, feree.**

E.g. Ma wa _____ → Don't come.

E ma se bee → Don't do so.

Ole ma lo → He can fail to go

Ki occurs before iba, yoo/yo/o and before the verbal particle, e.g.

a ki o ri won mo → we shall never see them

a ki iwo o → we never look at it

Ko/o occurs before all verbs (except yoo/yo/o., a, maa, a, ki) and before the verbal particle. E.g.

Owo ko si → There is no money

E o le so }

E e le so } → You can't say.

Two combinations of negators are also possible:

Ko or where appropriate, ki before any of the six preverbs which can precede ma., e.g.

Ko gbo do ma lo → he mustn't fail to go

Ki ba ma ku → He wouldn't have died.

This is similar to Klima's treatise on double negation under section 2.2.1. He also affirms that two negatives are possible in a sentence but only with an intervening adverb, for Bamgbose, this occurs when preverbs like iba, ibaa, gbo.do, ki, le and feree appear in the verbal group.

Awoniyi (1976) cites two verbs as the ones capable of changing sentences to the negative. This is to say that he identifies only two negators in Yoruba:

(a) Ko (tabi o), (tabi i) - Aki i se bee

(b) Ma - ma daruko mi o

2.3. New Trends In The Various Grammars

Recent developments have swayed the issue of negation into different ways by different linguists. There is no one theory or approach that monopolizes all the valuable work on it. It is therefore appropriate that basic facts about each should be presented.

2.3.1 Transformational Generative Linguistics

TG Linguistics is one of the most important, and has been briefly dealt with earlier on. Its main proponent is Chomsky (1968). Its aim is to account for fully and explicitly everything that is involved in the competence or intuitive knowledge of a native speaker or a fluent speaker of a language. Description takes the form of series of rules, which are based on the theory underlining them, and are said to generate, if they are fully consistently worked out, all and only the grammatical sentences of a language. So language description is seen as a grammar of rules, formalizing the linguistic ability, the competence of a native speaker.

Thus in negation, a native speaker of the language is supposed to know and have innately all the rules or patterns a negative will fall

into, recognise their semantic relatedness which is expressed by relatedness of grammatical structure, e.g.

Ali didn't eat his food.

The food wasn't eaten by Ali.

This theory will automatically say double negative is wrong, or certain negatives can't go with certain words emphasis was on native intuition rather than methodological analytical research. Chomsky kept revising his work, and has shifted, to acknowledge from his earlier 'standard' position to recognize that some transformations do have a bearing on semantic interpretation. For example, the 'scope' of negative words may be affected by the passive transformation:

Many arrows did not hit the target.

The target was not hit by many arrows.

Are not exactly equivalent in meaning: one can say "many arrows did not hit the target, but many (other arrows) did hit it" but scarcely 'the target was not, hit by many arrows, but it was hit by many (other arrows)". Frankly, I do not know if Chomsky has succeeded in enlightening or confusing us the more.

2.3.2 Tagmemic Grammar

Its main preoccupation is with grammatical analysis. It is specially associated with Pike (1972). It does not lay emphasis on semantic or other areas but this is understandable when it is recalled that their descriptive work is primarily directed towards bible translation, and the service of evangelism. The central analytical and descriptive concept is the tagmeme. A tagmeme is a place in a structure (syntactic

or morphological) together with the formal class of elements occupying that place (often referred to in the literature as a 'slot' with its 'filler')

Tagmemes unite such traditional concepts as subject, predicate, object, complement etc with class concepts such as noun, verb, pronoun, etc. There are sizes of unit, and of tagmeme, which are referred to as levels. We have sentence lexical tagmemes, clause level tagmemes, phrase level tagmemes and word level tagmemes.

One of the fundamental aims of tagmemic theory as stated by Longacre (1972) is that, 'tagmemics is reaffirmation of function in a structuralist context'.

2.3.3 SYSTEMIC GRAMMAR

Halliday (1976) is another notable linguist worth exploring. His work represents an attempt to do what Firth (1974) never did, namely to work out an explicit theory of language and of linguistic description on the basis of Firth's teaching and his published writings. Language in the theory contrasts linguistic form with substance (phonic or graphic representation) on one side and with situations (in relation to which linguistic form has meaning) on the other. Central in linguistic form are grammar and lexis. On the other side the semantic functions, or meanings, of a grammatical and lexical elements are stated in terms of contexts of situation. No area has been left out in this approach, including intonation of English sentences, showing the different distribution of different degrees of emphasis and contrast, and even minute details such as the differentiation of what is newly introduced into a conversation from what has already been mentioned. In Lexis, emphasis is on collateral restrictions.

The fundamental 'categories' of Halliday's linguistic description are four: unit, structure, class and system, and these are related to another along three scales: rank, delicacy and exponence. Currently Halliday has developed systemic grammar into a theory of linguistic analysis whereby languages are described as sets of options (systems) that allow speakers to frame and interpret utterances in response to all the situational requirements as they assume them.

From all indications, systemic grammar seems to be the most all encompassing most comprehensible of all the grammars so far mentioned, and will be the main final approach adopted by this researcher.

2.3.4 Traditional Grammar

Traditional grammar has contributed in no small measure to our perception of a number of things. Negation for example, traditional grammar says you shouldn't say:

I haven't done nothing.

Because two negatives make a positive. This is a prescriptive rule, a descriptive comment will say, here two negatives do not make a positive, but a more emphatic negative – a construction which can be found in many languages (e.g. French, Russia). The example is not acceptable in Standard English, but this is the result of social factors, not the dictates of logic.

In the area of comparisons, these tend to be coded from the positive end down, not the negative end up. For e.g. people will rather describe two objects as **A is larger than B** rather than **B is smaller than A** (Flores d'Arcais, 1970).

2.3.5 Contrastive Approach

In looking at the contrastive approach to negation, **Welmers (1973)** looks at the notion of negation from several perspectives and across different languages including English. Under the sub-topic of tone and negation, he identifies the manner in which morphotonemic alterations are used to trigger negation.

He also look as at lexical units or items and their use as markers of negation. Some of the particles are in the NP position others in the Predicate position or unit. In the case of tone as a marker of negation, the high tone especially when used with the verb is described as typically indicative of the negative form. The parallel or similar structure in English is the intonation form. Principally, in dialogue the intonation contour can be used to signal attitude or frame of mind.

The following examples will further illustrate the point

Tolu: Tomi, are you cooking lunch so early?

Tomi: Am I cooking lunch so early at 3 o' clock

A look at the intonation pattern in the short dialogue above will reveal that both have rising forms of intonation in some case this could be called echo question. If it is in the form of tag, we may have an instance of copy tag.

Some of the particles have counter parts in English. However, the resemblance may appear to be superficial. In English some of the items can't stand on their own, they may only form a part of either the verbal unit or may be used in the weak form where there is no stress or emphasis. e.g.

She couldn't even wait for a cup of tea.

She needn't bother to come.

Where the n't is the weak form or unstressed. If any emphasis is needed in the negative, it will become – “She need not come.” In some cases, the English particle is used for focus or nuclear stress e.g.

“Irede broke the glass I didn't” you can either stress broke or didn't, the two can not be stressed if it is contrast or nuclear stress.

Negative systems rarely parallel affirmative systems fully, and in many languages some affirmative constructions do not have any corresponding negative in the basis verbal morphology.

A full analysis of a language is rarely achieved what with new theories and discoveries being made everyday by scholars.

2.3. 6 Negation In Componential Analysis

Negation is a common component in word senses too e.g.

Irede is present: Irede is absent

Iyiola is there: Iyiola is not there.

This suggests that absent is the negation of present just as not there is the negation of there.

Some positive – negatives pairs are related morphologically as in a disagree. The extra component is not [x] is often reflected in a prefix, as in able – unable, moral – immoral – yet in other pairs, the morphology gives no hint of the positive – negative relationship, as in often – seldom, remember – forget, and have – lack.

The component not [x] may be lodge deep in among other components of a word sense. Take persuade and dissuaded in 1 and 2, where the sentence in (a), with its paraphrases in (b), has the same semantic representation in (c) (G. Lakoff, 1970).

1.

- a) X persuaded y to do z
- b) X caused it to come about that y intended to do z
- c) X Cause (x, come - about (intended y to do z))))

2.

- a) X dissuaded y from doing z
- b) X Caused it to come about that y intended not to do z
- c) Cause (x, come – about (intended y not to do z))))))

Dissuaded does not simply mean 'not persuade', for I dissuaded Vivian from leaving' doesn't mean the same as I didn't persuade Vivian to leave' rather, as 2c shows. The negative component (not [x]) in dissuade is buried deep within other components. This is typical of many negative words.

Unmarked and marked adjectives: The component not [x] is less visible in such antonyms as long – short, high – low, and happy – sad.

Long and short denote opposite ends of the scale called length, negativity in antonyms is often tied to a phenomenon called markedness in adjectives (Sapir, 1944; Greenberg, 1966; Lyons, 1968) in some cases long 'neutralizers e.g.

- a) Neutral: How long is the movie?
- b) Non – neutral: How short is the movie?

One usually use 1(a) not 1(b), because 1(a) is neutral and doesn't prejudge the movies length, whereas 1(b) presupposes the movie is short and ask how short.

Long and short signal two – place propositions long (x, y) and short x, y) with these paraphrases:

X is long for a y: X has a length that is some distance from the length of the

typical y in a direction that is not normal.

Once again, the negative not [x] is buried deep within the other components.

Inherent Negatives: like absent, different, conflict, forget and dissuade illustrate how semantic procedures are “mini – strategies”. When listeners use the assertion x isn’t present, they have to recall procedures when they use absent, they recall the procedure for absent.

Inherent negatives take less time to deal with than the corresponding explicit negatives suggesting that it takes less time to represent and carry out the procedure for not [x] than the procedure for false [x].

The conjunctions and and but also contrast in a type of positive negative relationship e.g.

1.
 - a) Patrick is old and handsome
 - b) Patrick is old but handsome

But is merely and with two extra semantic procedures, one of which is not [x] the other is suggest (x, not [y]), this has other attendant details because but implies a contrast above and beyond the simple conjunction in and. **And** is usually preferred to **But** because but took longer time to insert into the appropriate sentence.

If and unless also bear a positive – negative relationship to each other, though this is complicated. The negative nature of unless can be seen by comparing (1) paraphrase in (2):

1. Twain liked people unless they were hypocrites.

2. Twain liked people only if they were not hypocrites.

Unless means roughly " only if not". The semantic procedure not [x] therefore is real enough.

2.4. The Psycholinguistics of Negation; how Negation is learned

In looking at negation from the psychological viewpoint, one might be tempted to ask: Why psychology in the area of grammar? (after all psychology has drawn a lot of flak from its critics). Even in everyday teaching, teachers are likely to ask: 'What can it tell us about teaching mathematics or negation?' 'How is it going to help us control our classes?' It is not easy to give a simple answer to all these questions but suffice to say, it is very important and necessary for the teacher to know the essence of studying human behaviour. It is from psychology that teachers pick up such hints and clues like:

- (a) that children's cognitive development takes place in definite stages as described by Piaget (1977)
- (b) That the natural pattern of performance is the normal curve.

As Cohen (1987), says 'psychology is a faith or collection of faiths, and like others it can help smooth the rough edges of reality, give peace of mind. It is hoped that, that peace of mind will be assured in this thesis. Several studies have provided evidence that children seem to be aware of meanings early on in their language development which only later become capable of differential expression through the use of inflections. A number of questions have intrigued developmental psychologists. They include these: Do children go through identical stages as they learn to talk? What part do adults play in creating a context in which child language will flourish? How important is it to examine the child's growing competence in a socially meaningful context? There are four main areas of language competence, which

the child acquires. These are phonology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics.

Findings have shown that there seem to be great similarities in all human societies in the sequence of language development, as children progressively master the rules of sounds (phonology), of word of (syntax) and of meaning (semantics), and learn to combine words in ways which are acceptable and understandable within their linguistic community (pragmatics). Whether the child speaks English, Yoruba, Edo, Nupe, Igala or Pidgin, he constructs a grammar with rules and strategies. How does the child do this? As yet, there is no one theory, which successfully encompasses all aspects of language development. Explanations vary in emphasis. For a time, the principles of learning theory seemed to be adequate, other theories have suggested that there is a biological basis for language acquisition with innate mechanisms underlying it. Still others take the interactionist approach and argue that the development of linguistic competence need to be studied within its social context.

2.4.1 Clark And Clark

Clark And Clark (1977), on negation and affirmation opine that people prefer to relate experiences in terms of positive rather than negative propositions. It is more likely that people will say:

A is inside B

Rather than – A is not outside B

In almost every study where people have been asked to describe things affirmatives have always been used, yet we have situations where the use of negation becomes necessary, especially if speakers want to explicitly deny some prior expectation.

- (a) The police chief here is a woman.
- (b) The police chief here isn't a man.

In (b) the negative coding preempts the affirmative one. The more complicated negative representation has been suggested as, at times the simplest way of coding a situation.

Take the case of a couple that might want to buy a car that isn't red. Surely they won't tell the dealer "We want a car that is blue or brown or gray or black.....". Rather they would say, with great efficiency "We want a car that isn't red." By the use of just one extra negative they have avoided a linguistic windy route, and represented the situation in the simplest way.

Negation in child's language.

Children find negative words harder to acquire than positive ones. This is because children start out with conceptual preferences for relationships that correspond to the positive term. They move one object towards another, not away. These situations are taken to be normal, and the normal usually coincides with the positive, words containing **not(x)** nearly always describe the other situation – the one not normal – and so is harder for children to acquire. As they grow and acquire more words, they learn to express more than one proposition in each utterance. Consider the following:

1

- (a) Helen is standing up.
- (b) Helen isn't standing up.

2

- (a) I wanted a drink.
- (b) I didn't want a drink.

3

- (a) Why can Tim pick it up?
- (b) Why can't Tim pick it up?

The not is shorthand version of "It is not the case that" inserted into positive sentences in 1a-3a to form the negative ones in 1b-3b. The surface structure used to express negation is complex, and as children go through life acquiring language and its rules, they drop difficult concepts and pick up rules more specific to the structure being acquired.

Several studies have been carried out of how children express negation, they express it in several ways during the earliest stages of acquisition, from shaking of the head, to frowning combined with one word, to gestures, or the word no used alone.

A few children mark one- and two-word utterances as negative by using a different intonation pattern (Lord, 1974). At the one- and two-word stages negation is often expressed by words like bye bye, all gone, or off, as in Bye Bye man, All gone shoe, and Boot off as well as by no or not.

2.4.2 Klima And Bellugi

Children at the two-word stage place the negative word at the beginning or end of their sentences. Klima and Bellugi (1966) used this as the starting point for their research, of examining three children over a fairly long period of development, and were able to identify three main stages in the acquisition of negative structures in English.

Stage 1 utterances consisted of a "nucleus" either preceded or followed by a negative, and the use of -ing was beginning to emerge. They use no or not consistently for negation in all utterances and contexts, avoiding interrupting the sentences with no or not, always placing at the beginning or end. They usually ignore negative words that interrupted a clause as in "You're not to touch that" and would prefer starting with no, e.g. No, don't touch that.

At stage 2, the children begin to integrate their negatives into affirmative clauses. They used both can't and don't as internal negatives e.g. 'You can't dance', 'I don't want it'. They also inverted no into clauses e.g. 'He no bite you'.

The fact that they insert no before verbs like bite suggests that all negative elements – no, not, can't, and don't are being used in a similar way, though they may have different subtle meanings. They also used stage 1 type of negative 'No pinch me' and also used negative commands like "Don't leave me" with don't instead of no in first position. The children at this stage have now added can't and don't to no and not. Once they start to insert negatives into clauses, they consistently do so in the right place, between subject and the verb. Their reliance on the rule of not interrupting the clause with a negative, then gives way to the principle of keeping track of word order. By stage 3, the children always added the negative into negative utterances, they knew how to use do, can and will in affirmative sentences, while don't can now be analyzed as do + not. Whenever they now use an auxiliary verb (do or a modal like can or will) they correctly place the negative not immediately after it (e.g. I gave him some so he won't cry).

At this stage, all three children appeared to comprehend most of the negatives addressed to them, and no longer found it difficult to pick out the negative element inside a clause, but they still made mistakes in their own speech. For example all three omitted the copula be and auxiliary be, two grammatical morphemes that are acquired late, and said things like Paul not tired instead of Paul isn't tired. They didn't know when to alternate some with any and would say: "I didn't see something" instead of "I didn't see anything". They also couldn't work out how negatives such as no one or nothing are used, and often used double negatives using not as well, e.g. No one didn't come in.

At this stage, children are very close to having mastered the adult system for negation.

How are these stages related to the acquisition of negatives related to children's ages?

Brown (1973) found that in the early stages of language development, the average length of children's utterances is often a better guide to the stage they are at their actual age.

At stage 1, for example. Eve was 1;6, Adam 2;2, and Sarah 2;3, but all three children were in the two-word stage of development. The mean length of their utterances, counted in morphemes was 1.75 morphemes. By stage 2, their mean length of utterances had increased to 2.25 morphemes, while their ages were: Eve 1;10, Adam 2;6, and Sarah 2;7. By stage 3, their utterances averaged 3.5 morphemes. Eve was 2;0, Adam 3;0, and Sarah 3;5. The rate, at which different children go through such stages, may vary. Children, then appear to go through at least three stages in the acquisition of adult devices for negation.

Children acquiring negation in Italian and German seem to go through similar stages (Voltera, 1972; Antinucci and Voltera, 1975; Grimm, 1973).

The use of negation can thus be tied to age. Psychologists like Skinner who believed in language as a matter of imitation were confronted by this example of a young girl and her mother, (reported by David McNeill, 1973), the child proved unable to use a pattern, even though the parent presented the correct adult model several times.

Negatives In Children's Speech

The First Stage

No wipe finger
Not fit
No the sun shining
No mitten
No fall

No sit
Wear mitten no
Not a teddy bear!

The Second Stage

No pinch me
Book say no
Come in
No square.... Is clown
blue

Don't bite me yet
Don't wait for me....

That no O, that

I can't catch you
You can't dance
I don't sit on Cromer's coffee
I don't know his name.

That no fish school
There no squirrels
He no bite you
I no want envelope

The Third Stage

Paul can't have one
This can't stick

I didn't did it
You don't want some supper
I didn't caught it
Paul didn't laugh
walls down

This not ice cream
They not hot
Paul not tired
It's not cold

I not crying
He's not taking the

I gave him some so he won't cry
on
Donna won't let go

Don't put the two wings

Don't kick my box

No, I don't have a book
That was not me
I isn't..... I not sad
mistake

I not see you anymore
I not hurt him
Ask me if I not make

Child: Nobody like me

Mother: No, say 'Nobody likes me.'

Child: Nobody don't like me

(8 repetitions of this dialogue)

Mother: No, now listen carefully: say 'Nobody likes me.'

Child: Oh! Nobody don't likes me

The child at this point in its learning of grammar, was clearly not ready to use the single negative dialect of English. Such examples

suggest that language acquisition is more a matter of maturation than of imitation.

Negation as cognitive category: One of the most conclusive universals Greenberg found was that negatives are marked with respect to positives. In English, it becomes more complex because of all the additions in a sentence (*Alice is sleeping* versus *Alice isn't sleeping*), verbs (*tie* versus *untie*), adjectives (*able* versus *unable*), adverbs (*ever* versus *never*), and even pronouns (*one* versus *none*).

The relation between good-bad and positive-negative is very close. It is almost never possible to add negative prefixes or suffixes to bad evaluation words to produce terms like *unbad*, *unsad*, or *unuugly*, although these prefixes are added to good evaluation words to get *ungood*, *unhappy*, and *unbeautiful*. This shows that normal states are conceived positively and abnormal states as the absence of normal states, as negative states.

2.4.3 Brown, Bloom and Mcshane

Bloom (1970), observed that the children she studies appeared to use the word *no* in three different ways in two – word utterances. The first was to express *rejection* as in 'No dirty soap', spoken as a piece of dirty soap was pushed away. The second was to describe *non- existence* which was used when the child was talking about something not present, as in 'No pocket' spoken as a child handled a piece of cloth which had no pocket. The third meaning of *no* was *denial*, as in 'No truck', spoken in response to a car.

Bloom (op cit) noted that ways of expressing each of these three kinds of negation appeared in a fairly consistent developmental order of rejection, non – existence and finally denial.

Rejection was expressed mainly by use of '*don't*' replacing '*No pants*' by '*I don't need pants off*', and '*No eat*' by '*Don't eat it*'. Non-

existence was usually marked by 'more', as in 'No people' becoming 'No more people', and 'No lights' use of 'not', as in 'that not lollipop' and 'it's not cold' replacing 'No lollipop' and 'No cold'. Bloom (op cit) argues that these 3 types of negation are semantically distinct.

A later study by Mcshane (1980) of six children during their second year of life has confirmed these early uses of negation, and has added two further uses which appear to emerge at the same time. These are the uses of 'no' to comment on the child's failure to carry out some action which he or she was attempting, and a conversational use of 'no' to deny or contradict someone else has said. The uses of 'no' are different from the four (4) identified by Bloom because they are not modified later, and they can appear on their own.

The studies by Brown, Bloom and Mcschane support the idea that the child begins to expand his use of particular words before he has acquired the ability to reflect this expansion by the use of a distinct form for each different function.

It has been observed in English and other languages, that there are several alternative syntactic options (or paraphrases) for expressing essentially the same information. It was an implicit assumption of much of the early research carried out in psycholinguistics in the 1960's that certain syntactic forms were exactly equivalent in meaning. This assumption was necessary for the commonly held belief that complex syntactic forms (like negatives, passives) might be constructed by applying transformational rules to simpler syntactic forms. According to this view shared among others by Miller and Mckean (1964), negative sentences were constructed by the application of a negative transformation rule to an affirmative. However, subsequent research has shown that negatives are used in response to the presence of particular pragmatic factors, which are different from those associated with the use of affirmatives.

2.4.4 Wason And Greene

The use of negative form was investigated by Wason (1965) and Greene (1970) who showed that the natural function of a negative is to signal denial or contradiction of a prior assertion. Comprehension of negative sentences is facilitated when negation is used to fulfil one of these functions. For example, in Greene's (1970) experiment, subjects were asked to sort pairs of statements according to whether the statements in a pair had the same or a different meaning. She argued that if the second statement in a pair contained a negative then it would be more natural for the meaning of the two statements to be different, whereas, if the two statements were both affirmative, it would be more natural for the two statements to make similar meaning. Greene found that subjects performance in her sorting task supported this claim. For statement pairs containing a negative, sorting was faster when the two statements meant something different than it was when the two statements meant the same. Thus it took subjects less time to decide that the following sentences had a different meaning.

X exceeds Y

X does not exceed Y

than to decide that the following two sentences had the same meaning:

Y exceeds X

X does not exceed Y.

2.4.5 Cancino, Rosensky And Schumann

The development of the English negative has attracted a lot of attention even in foreign language teaching. Cancino, Rosansky and Schumann (1978) who looked at the learning of English by six Spanish speakers: two children, two adolescents and two adults, found a consistent developmental sequence summarised as follows:

Stage 1	No + verb	e.g. I no understand
Stage 2	don't + verb	e.g. I don't can explain I don't hear
Stage 3	Aux. Or modal + neg.e.g.	You can't tell her We couldn't do Anything
Stage 4	Analysed form of don't Stage 1 disappears	e.g. I didn't have a light It doesn't make any difference.

Stage 1 occurs in first language acquisition, it could also be interface from Spanish ([Yo] no entiendo).

Wode's (1976) report on a German learner of English shows a similar sequence, but with interesting differences.

Stage IIB	no + verb	e.g. no play baseball
Stage III	verb + negative	e.g. John go not to school
	Modal Aux. + negative	I can no play with Ali
Stage IIIB		I didn't see
Stage IV	Analysed – do negative	e.g. don't tell nobody

Wode's stage IIb looks very like Cachino el al's stage I, his stage III has elements of their stage 2 & 3 and his stage IV is much like their stage 4, particularly if his stage IIIb is included. However, there is a strong effect of a German word – order, in which the negative element follows the verb (John **geht nicht zur schule**).

If then psychology is concerned with the nature and working of the human mind and with the individual's mental phenomena, it is thus clearly a discipline related in a number of ways to linguistics. There has been the long – standing question of the relationship between language and thought, and the extent to which language is necessary for thought.

2.4.6 Cross –Section And Comparisons Of Views

According to Owens's, Jr. (1984) by age three (3), there is tremendous growth in vocabulary, and the child has begun to employ and use different versions of adult negative. Negative words consist of no, not, can't, don't and won't, usually used interchangeably by age four (4), auxiliary verbs are used in the negative sentence form that require their use.

Klima and Bellugi (1973), identified four adult forms of the negative including (1) not and n't, (2) negative words such as nobody and nothing, (3) the determiner no used before nouns or noun – like words, and (4) negative adverbs such as never and nowhere. The earliest negative to appear is the word no. This appearance indicates that the very young child develops this concept and uses it non-syntactically.

Syntactic negation appears in two-word utterances, generally as "negative + x". Bellugi (1967), insisted that the 'X' is a sentence nucleus and that the child negates the entire proposition from outside. E.g. "No baby eat", "No sit chair". Bloom (1970) countered that the negative is not outside of the nucleus, the 'x' is characteristically less complex than the nucleus of non negative sentences, and the negative element appears prior to the verb, as in adult negation. Utterances such as 'No mittens on' are rare, he says.

De Villiers and De Villiers (1979), offered a third idea, based upon language use, they say that the "negative + nucleus" form is seen only in rejection of a proposed or current course of action. The specific negative element(s) the child uses seem to reflect parental use with the child. Some parents control behaviour with no others don't.

Within stage II the child may use negative in non syntactic sentences that can be explained as conversational style (Bellugi , 1976). The child may use “**No/not + affirmative statement**” in response to previous talk. For example, if the mother says “**Mommy pick you up**”, the child may reply with “**No Daddy**”, while the surface meaning appears to negate any help from her father, the child may mean “**No Mommy, Daddy will do it.**”

Bellugi, (1976), identified three periods of syntactic development of negation which do not correspond exactly with Brown's stages. The first period (discussed on page 46) occurs in stage I and early stage II up to an MLU of 2.25. In the second period which corresponds with late stage II and early III, the child uses contractions can't and don't interchangeably with no and not. The child does not differentiate these forms and their positive correlates can and do appear later (Brown et al, 1969). Thus the sentences “**I don't eat it**” and “**I can't eat it**” may be similar in meaning.

In the final period, an MLU of 2.75 to 3.5, the child develops other auxiliary forms. This period corresponds roughly to Brown's stage IV. The child develops the positive elements can, do does, did, will and be, which may be used with not in the contracted form. By late stage IV, the child's negative contractions include isn't, doesn't, are't, and didn't (Miller, 1981). These continue in stage V, with the addition of the past tense of be and modals like wouldn't, wasn't, couldn't and shouldn't. These are not consistent initially.

The most important period around stage II, when the child begins to vary the negative in form and to insert it between the subject and the predicate. These changes are obvious adaptations towards the adult structure of negation. Hence Brown (1973) noted that development of negation was one of the significant aspects of stage III.

This is not to say children master the negative within preschool period. Indefinite forms such as **nobody**, **no one**, **nothing** proves difficult even for some adults. E.g. **“I don’t want none”** , **“Nobody don’t likes me”**, **“I ain’t scared of nothing”** **“I don’t get no cookies”**. Some of these double negatives almost seem acceptable, because they occur frequently in the speech of children and some adults.

Table 2:v Acquisition of sentence forms with Brown's Stages of development

STAGE	NEGATIVE	INTERROGATIVE	EMBEDDING	CONJOINING
Early I (mlu:1-1.5)	Single word <u>no</u> , <u>all gone</u> , <u>gone</u> negative + x	<u>Yes/no</u> asked with rising intonation and a single word. <u>What</u> and <u>where</u> .		Serial naming without <u>and</u>
Late I (mlu:1.5-2.0)	<u>No</u> and <u>not</u> used interchangeably.	<u>That</u> + x? . <u>what</u> + noun phrase + (doing)? <u>What</u> + noun phrases + (going)?	Proposition <u>in</u> and <u>on</u> appear.	<u>And</u> appears.
Early II (mlu:2.0-2.25)				
Late II (Mlu:2.25- 2.5)	<u>No</u> , <u>not</u> , <u>don't</u> and <u>can't</u> used interchangeably.	<u>What</u> or <u>where</u> + subject + predicate	<u>Gonna</u> , <u>wanna</u> , <u>gotta</u> , etc appear.	<u>But</u> , <u>so</u> , or and <u>if</u> appear
Early III (Mlu:2.5- 2.75)	Negative element placed between subject & predicate			
Late III (Mlu:2.75-3.0)	<u>Won't</u> appears	Begin to use auxiliary verbs in questions (<u>be</u> , <u>can</u> , <u>will</u> , <u>do</u> .)	Object noun phrases complements appear with verbs like <u>Think</u> , <u>guess</u> , <u>show</u>	Clausal conjoining with <u>and</u> appears (not until late V that most children can produce this form). <u>Because</u> appears
Early IV (Mlu:3.0- 3.5)	Develops auxiliary Forms <u>can</u> , <u>do</u> , <u>does</u> , <u>did</u> , <u>will</u> and <u>be</u>	Begin to use auxiliary verbs in questions (<u>be</u> , <u>can</u> , <u>will</u> , <u>do</u> .)		
Late IV (Mlu:3.5- 3.75)	Adds <u>isn't</u> , <u>aren't</u> , <u>doesn't</u> , and <u>didn't</u> .	Begins to intert auxiliary verb & subject. Adds <u>when</u> , <u>how</u> and <u>why</u>		
Stage V (Mlu: 3.75 - 4.5)	Adds <u>wasn't</u> , <u>wouldn't</u> , <u>couldn't</u> and <u>shouldn't</u>	Adds modals stabilizes inverted auxiliary.	Infinitive phrases appear at the end of sentences. Relative clauses appear in obj. position.	Clausal conjoining with <u>if</u> appears
Post - V (Mlu: 4.5 +)	Adds indefinite forms <u>nobody</u> , <u>no one</u> , <u>none</u> and <u>nothing</u> . Difficulty with double negatives		Multiple embedding by late V. infinitive phrases with same subj. as the main verb Gerunds appear. Relative clauses attached to the subj. Embedding & conjoining appear within same sentence above an MLU of 5.0	Clausal conjoining with <u>because</u> , <u>when</u> and <u>so</u> appear beyond MLU of 5.0

Adapted: Clark & Clark (1997)

2.5. Harmonisation for Testing.

2.5.1 What then To Test

The study has examined some various approaches and contributions to the issue/concept of negation.

How then does one test the concept? The choice of what is to be assessed or tested is probably the most important decision that has to be made. Unless a sound choice is made diagnosis may come to focus on the trivial.

Pupils usually see assessment as basically a judgement on them. This is not the case in this research. The tests carried out during the course of this investigation are to be seen as a basis for further work to overcome diagnosed learning difficulties of language use.

In testing, positive approaches were fostered. The tests were as direct as possible, achievements were made, and hopefully moving forward from the achievement should be stimulating.

Testing is an integral part of the teaching and learning process. The most common reason for testing is for evaluating individual performance. A good classroom test according to Heaton (1975) will help to locate the precise areas of difficulty being encountered, so as to be able to offer assistance through appropriate anticipation, remedial work and additional practice.

What then to test:

According to Heaton (1975), the development of modern linguistic theory has gone a long way in making language teachers and testers aware of the importance of analyzing the language being tested. He views testing as almost an impossible task, what with complex language skills being closely related to many other non-linguistic skills like gestures and eye movements. To separate them for the purpose of any kind of assessment looks herculean. Standards are

also very important in any testing. **Baker (1989)**, posits that the purpose of a test is to arrive at a decision. This he calls the decision-facilitating function of language testing.

Greenberg (1985), on his part sees tests as being built for many purposes ranging from the assessment of general intelligence, aptitude and achievement to the evaluation of a person's proficiency in some highly specific area, knowledge or skill. In order to be acceptable for use in most contexts, tests have to be capable of being administered in relatively short periods of time. This makes it possible to cover only a small portion of the content – ideally a “representative sample” of it. The tests in this research are just that – “a representative sample” of the concept on the use of negation.

The concept of negation is tested at four main levels in this study:

- (a) Vocabulary level
- (b) Phrasal level
- (c) Sentence level
- (d) Textual level

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 METHODOLOGY OF DATA COLLECTION

3.1 Introduction

There are different terminologies that are employed to describe the various types of language tests in use. However, test experts are agreed on at least three broad areas along which language may be tested. These include: achievement/attainment tests, proficiency tests, and aptitude tests. These divisions can be further sub-classified as for instance, we can have beginning reading achievement test, vocabulary-based proficiency test and phonology-based aptitude test.

The interest in this investigation is on proficiency test, since it is under it that the test carried out in this research falls. Proficiency tests look toward defining a student's language ability with reference to a particular task, which he will be required to perform.

Heaton (1975), points out that proficiency tests are in no way related to any syllabus; infact, many proficiency tests are intended for students from different schools and even language backgrounds. The proficiency test is primarily concerned with measuring the student's control of language in the light of what he will be expected to do with it, in his future performance of a particular task. For example, is the student limited to only a restricted range of the negative forms? Is he conversant with the various forms of the negative patterns of English? Is a particular level of English language proficiency or performance necessary with regard to the use of negative patterns?

The proficiency test is thus concerned with measuring not general attainment but specific skills in the light of the language demands made later on the student.

One way of finding out the level of students' language ability is to listen to them in both formal and informal language situations. Another way of assessing their language ability is to engage them in such listening test that will bring out their writing or note taking skill. In still another method, the student can be examined or tested specifically in the area of language, that is being focused at. Through such test, the students' response can be used to gauge and characterise his level of production.

For this particular research I have chosen the examination option, this is principally because a test is dynamic in several ways. Question given in a test format could, when contextually framed provided authentic language situations for the students. Secondly, some of the questions represent or approximate the normal language situations that the students face in their day to day interactions.

Thirdly, some of the questions that require the students to make questions of their own provide the normal latitude they would need in constructing their own sentences. This is where the use of both multiple choice format and the open-ended procedure will be found potentially useful for examining students English language ability.

Language specialists like **Heaton (1975)**, **Oller (1987)**, have suggested that experience has shown that examinations that look for the correctness of surface grammatical skills are not more useful than communicative or meaning-oriented test. After several years of classroom interaction,

"These teachers realized that the way to develop communication skills was by requiring student to perform communicative task..... language use almost always as associated with it a multitude of purpose. People speak, listen, edit, exaggerate, compose, read, write, think, describe, promise,

extol, lie, pray, curse etc, in other to achieve certain deeper life oriented goals (1988).”

In some recent times, language tests have moved towards the holistic posture. Some of the tests can be described as pragmatic, such is the case when there is an interconnection between the contents of a test and the likely everyday experience of students with the language.

This chapter provides a detailed account of the methodology used in collecting the data. The chapter specifies the design of the study. The Geolinguistic range covered by the study, the population of the study and the test instrument employed in the study. The chapter in addition provides a description of the scoring techniques used in assessing the performance of the subjects in the different aspects of the test instruction. In some cases, the discrimination index of some of the test items have been computed and discussed.

The test instrument was the sole mode of gauging the subject's performance in the area of the negative form. This would seem to have made this approach a monolithic one. The choice of one means of testing was deliberate essentially because the instrument was dynamic in being both global and discrete in terms of item selection. Moreover, enough care was taken to incorporate into this test several strands of the negative realization. Operationally these strands were made up of the following:

1. Vocabulary based sub-test
2. Appropriacy sub-test based on completion
3. Sentence-based sub-test
4. Multiple-type interpretation sub-test
5. Text-based identification and conversion sub-test.

3.2 Design Of The Study And Test Instrument

As mentioned earlier, there are different types of tests, and the more a test looks as if it is testing what it is intended to measure, the better it is. Types of test include progress, achievement, proficiency, aptitude and diagnostic tests.

There are certain features, which are implicit in the design of any testing program according to Y. P. Lee et al (1985).

- 1a. Why test?
- 1b. What is the function of the test?
- 2a. Whose responsibility?
- 2b. What feedback will there be from the tests?
- 2c. How are the results to be interpreted?
- 3a. What is tested?
- 3b. What are the evaluation criteria?
4. How do we test?

Testing is done to gauge the students' competence and performance in the use of negatives, and to identify some of the factors responsible for the propensity to commit errors in negation. It is the responsibility of every linguist or language expert to see that users of the English language use it correctly.

In this thesis how students' manipulate negation is tested – the positive equivalents of the certain negatives items, including those with a semantic negative outlook, the negative tag, the phrasal verb in the negative form, complete negative sentences and a text. In essence, the students' proficiency in general use of negative items.

A test can be carried out in different ways. The test carried out in this thesis fall under the proficiency test, which can be further subdivided. In most cases, following the structuralist tradition, language is divided into elements at four levels. Baker (1975) listed them as:

1. Phonological: Phonemes, stress and intonation patterns
2. Lexical: Vocabulary items
3. Syntactic: Grammatical structures
4. Culture: A 'dustbin' category containing what would now be called sociolinguistic and pragmatic features.

This breakdown provided the basis for listing and categorizing the 'bits' of language, which were to be taught or tested.

Heaton (1975), identified four language elements to be isolated for both teaching and testing purposes:

1. Phonology (concerned with punctuation, stress and intonation)
2. Vocabulary (concerned with word meanings and word arrangements)
3. Grammar.
4. Overall general proficiency.

The examination method as mentioned earlier was used. All the language elements vis-a-vis phonological, vocabulary syntactical and general were used. This made it possible to test negation at all the various levels, and have comprehensive package.

Phonology Test: Some of the factors relevant in the prediction of stress are phonological while others are non phonological. Stress is only assigned in lexical words-words, that is, that are members of the syntactic categories **noun, verb, adjective or adverb**. The morphological structure of the words plays a major part in the regularities that govern stress placement in English. Words in English still pose a phonological problem, seen especially in the area of tag questions. [An example is given in question 18 which is discussed fully]

Test items designed to test phonology usually task the candidates to pronounce the significant sound contrasts of a language, assess the ability to recognise and use the stress patterns of a

language, and evaluate the ability to hear and produce the melody or the patterns of a language (i.e. the rise and fall of the voice).

The Vocabulary Test is also commonly employed for language assessment. This measures the students' knowledge of the meaning of certain words and word groups. That this kind of a test should test the students' active vocabulary items is very important. There are certain pitfalls to watch out for in this type of testing.

- a) The population can sometimes be too small for a statistical study.
- b) Differences in the background of students can make all kinds of comparisons difficult.
- c) Test situations may not be absolutely identical.

The Grammatical tests measure the students' ability to manipulate structures and to distinguish appropriate grammatical forms from inappropriate ones. This grammatical test measure the recognition and correct use of patterns of vocabulary items within a text. Here, general latitude was provided for the students to identify as many structural items as possible.

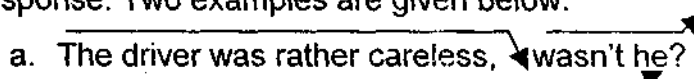
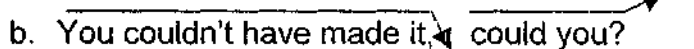
Looking at the format of the study critically, one can state that this study looked at the student, the kind of language forms they come in contact with in both their reading and writing. Having observed that the negative form is one area that poses some serious problem, texts were selected that amply reflected the use of the negatives form. In looking at the texts we discovered that a proportion as high as 20% was reflective of the use of the negative form.

Some of the items based on the negative form provided guides for some of the questions included in the final test given to these subjects covered in this study. For example, Interim Joint Matriculation Board Examination, 'O' Level English papers involving negatives in the

period were used as guides to construct questions of appropriate standard for this instrument. This ensured a firm kind of standardization of the items.

To ensure that these tests met the high level of criterion of authenticity, the language sub-tests earlier mentioned were made up of different formats. One particular sub-section relied heavily on the dialogue-like form. This was deliberately intended to cater for the non-inclusion of the oral-aural.

The occurrence of statement with tag is known to be high among Nigerians, yet little expertise is demonstrated in the use of such a pattern. In English there are sentences in which two parts occur side by side, in such cases the first part of the sentence will be a positive statement followed by a negative tag. In some other instances, the negative statement could be followed by a positive tag. It is interesting to note that in setting the correct intonation pattern is an additional feature of the sentence. Generally, with the positive statement, there is a falling intonation at the point of the pause with the statement being followed by a rising intonation. Here, the rising intonation will normally suggest a yes/no response. Two examples are given below:

- a. 
a. The driver was rather careless, wasn't he?
- b. 
b. You couldn't have made it, could you?

In terms of intonation, the patterns of the two sentences are identical even though their grammatical forms may be exactly the same. In both cases we have falling and rising intonation, but whereas (a) has a form of positive statement plus a negative tag, (b) has a negative statement plus a positive tag. The inclusion of the tag-pattern format was also intended to evaluate both the general and the specialised uses of users of English in Nigeria at the post-secondary level.

The vocabulary-based negative is another sub-test based on the correct use of vocabulary items involving the correct recognition of the positive forms and their understanding of the particular vocabulary. In selecting the items for this sub-test, effort was made to incorporate vocabulary items of different morphemic forms, and of different semantic range. In some instances, certain vocabulary items that have high currency only in the positive form were selected. Subjects were then faced with the task of providing the negative form of such a regularly encountered vocabulary item.

In the pre-test briefing the discussion with other colleagues, it was found necessary to emphasize the use of single word items to stand for negative form of the cued word items.

Two of the vocabulary test items were (nos. 17 & 25) selected on account of their reflecting idiomatic use of English, whereas one was selected for its morpho-phonemic qualities (nos. 18).

Another sub-test was made up of sentences, which had to be read and interpreted. Each sentence had some degree of negativeness either notionally, structurally or morphologically. In the case of this sub-test, the subjects were required to reconstruct their own sentences negatively.

The fourth sub-test centred on interpretation. Here, the subjects had to look at a construction which contained a negative tense either ostensibly or in an implicit sense the subject were provided with options; each option had at least one shade of a strong detractor. The subjects, however, needed some above average degree of sensitivity to the negative form to be able to correctly identify the correct one.

In the text based sub-test, a text was chosen as a reading material to test the subject's mastery or ignorance of negative message in a continuous text. Sufficient care was taken in selecting a suitable

passage of a level equivalent to the 'O' level. This selection was done to ensure that no unrealistic demand was going to be made on the students' processing ability. The sub-test was made up of open-ended items so as to provide a balance with the other part of the instrument, which had included, completion, the multiple choice-type and the sentence interpretation sub-test.

3.2.1 Test Instrument

All instruction are clearly written. Five sub-tests were used. The test instrument was also divided into two sections.

In section one sub-test one there were fifteen (15) items, which required the subject to recognise the current positive form in sentences and use their understanding of the particular vocabulary to provide the negative form of each identified positive vocabulary. Here their ability to use negative words was tested.

Some vocabulary items that have a high currency were used. Subjects then had to provide the negative parallel for such regularly used words. This required a manipulation of the language code as an abstract system. Question 1 – 5 covered a range that had relatively straight negatives.

Question 6 has a vocabulary that is encountered in everyday use, but of which the negative form does not easily come to mind, it being an adverb makes it more demanding. The positive words as given is always and the negative expected is never.

Also, question 9 has an item (colourful) the negative of which is not readily available. In trying to get a negative parallel for the word 'colourful' it is usual to think of the word in terms of actual colour like red, green or blue.

The equivalent 'colourless' does not readily come to mind because of the first semantic thought that flashes across that of colour.

Question 15 also has an item 'leafy' that is not a common occurrence in our regular or special speech. Infact, culturally it looked like a zero zone. The subjects that got this correctly could be assumed to have a wide range of exposure. Positive is *leafy* and the expected negative one is *leafless*. Leafless on its own is a 'usual', but when put in contrast, then it becomes 'unusual'

Apart from these three items, namely: '*Always*' in question 6 '*Colourful*' in question 9 and '*Leafy*' in question 15, the remaining test items in this section were not expected to pose much of a problem. The test items were straight and positive ones needing a straight negative, either through the addition of a prefix, change in prefix or just the addition of a prefix component not. This section tested the subjects' ability to produce negatives.

Sub-test two of the test instrument also required some manipulation of the language, but this goes a bit beyond section one, and skills like the use of intonation pattern, pronunciation, and understanding of the concept of idiomatic expression and phrasal verbs were necessary.

The sub-test was in the format of a multiple choice and had ten (10) items. This multiple-choice test item examined the students' ability to recognise the correct form unlike in section one, when it is to produce the correct form. Of the ten items, five contained the tag, namely question 16, 19, 20, 21 and 23. The testee had to demonstrate the "competence" to match the correct tags with the meaning. In English, when the sentence is positive, the tag is usually negative, and when the sentence is negative, the tag is positive then more collocational constraint of well-formedness as they involve relating form to meaning becomes paramount. This is concerned with grammatical accuracy but in the selection of the acceptable response, the testees needed more attention on other areas than merely identifying that. It would take a

grammatically sensitive student to handle such items correctly. There were three negative tags and two positive ones. Two of the items, nos. 17 and 25 were idiomatic expressions that connote a negative behaviour. It would take some reasonable exposure and probably enriched background of the subject to handle these two expertly.

Question 18 bordered slightly on the phonological. It is a negative sentence. Usually in speech the last syllable is silent, but in the written form it has to be reflected. The correct choice here is (E): Are not supposed.

The key word here was supposed. Verbs usually have their main stress on the final syllable. The base word is suppose, so the d is an inflectional suffix to the base word. Inflectional suffixes frequently carry stress-neutral suffixes.

Firstly, they never make any difference to the stress pattern of their base, when for example, the past tense d is added to the verb suppose the final syllable becomes heavy (supposed); nevertheless, the stress remains on the initial syllable. What is true for the stress patterns of such a base is generally true for its entire phonological forms. The second property of stress-neutral suffixes is that such suffixes are always unstressed-even where they constitute heavy syllables, stress-neutral suffixes, then, are simply appended as unstressed material to an entirely unmodified base.

Word stress in English as said earlier is still a phonological problem and stress-neutral suffixes do distort the picture a bit. In our socio-cultural background, the stress will most likely be in its proper position. It will be transcribed, as it is pronounced that is '**suppose**' instead of '**supposed**'.

In question twenty-two (22), it is a straight negative sentence. Already the context was expected to cue the selection. This deals with collocational constraints of well-formedness.

In question twenty-four (24), another area of difficulty reared its head, the correct way of using like and as. These are similes and proper understanding of what goes with what is essential. Like will normally take on a direct comparison with an object, person or animal while as takes an indirect comparison. A reliable knowledge will help the subject in picking the right choice.

In section two sub-test three, the appropriate syntactic reponse was dependent upon the meaning assigned to the sentence. There were six (6) sentences in this section. The sentences were in the positive, and the subjects were expected to change each sentence to a negative sentence. Use of sentences like these ones elevated the level of contextualisation of the various items.

The method of testing, that is of transformation from positive to negative (transformation) is sometimes very useful for testing ability to produce structures in the target language. This is different from producing the sentences. It is difficult to restrict the number of possible answers although such restrictions are not important for the constructor of the tests, provided that she is fully aware of all the possible correct answers and of the specific areas being tested. Changes in the structural patterns of the sentences were expected. In sentence four (4) for example, the auxiliary were becomes was during the transformation. Sentence five (5) also changed its article from a to an.

The following sub-test, that is sub-test four (4) contained eight (8) statements, and the selection of the appropriate phrase was necessary. The subject was required to select the alternative, which was true according to the information conveyed in each sentence. Knowledge of particular syntax was necessary for the understanding of the sentence.

All statements used had a negative stand, and a proper interpretation of each was essential to the selection of the best option.

The final sub-test, sub-test 5 had two sets of instructions to be followed, two tasks to be performed by the subjects:

- (a) Identification: to identify all negative words, ideas or information.
- (b) Conversion: to convert all identifiable negative words, ideas or information to the positive form.

This is an open-ended text and an individual's mindset might detect some information or idea that is negative. Selection of the appropriate response was dependent upon details provided by context.

There were seventeen items to be identified by the subject, some negative words, some negative ideas and yet some negative information.

The negative items are easy to pick out, and this is much more usefully tested in context, since it is the context that gives specific meaning and relevance to a word.

The design of the test instrument was very pragmatic. It made use of samples of authentic statements that could be heard in everyday situation. Authenticity is a key element in modern language testing.

3.3 The Spread and Population of The Study

The study was among students of tertiary institutions in Nigeria. 200-level university students and Higher National Diploma students were chosen because both sets would have had at least enough exposure expected to be close to three (3) years of post-secondary intensive contact with the language.

Seven higher institutions of learning comprising two universities, three polytechnics and one college of education and the Nigerian Defense Academy spread across four states, namely; Kaduna, Benue, Kwara and Oyo were covered.

The subjects were both male and female except for one of the institutions (Nigerian Defence Academy) where it was all male. Students were tested from each of the institutions and the population varied from institution to institution. The subjects covered were chosen on the basis of stratified random sampling.

3.4 The Administration and Scoring of The Test

A test must be fairly straightforward to administer. The length of time available for the administration of the test was adequate. The test for this study was administered during the regular semester in each of the affected institutions. Co-operating lecturers were discussed with and briefed fully on how the test was to be administered; the administration was to be in strict compliance with normal examination conditions. Dictionaries or reference books were prohibited and the subjects were made to sit at appropriate distance from one another.

The number of subjects was maximum of forty-six (46) per institution. This was considered a manageable figure for the cooperating lecturer. The time of one hour fifteen minutes was considered adequate and so candidates were instructed to adhere strictly to the given time.

The presentation of the test paper was not taken for granted, it was typewritten, neat and aesthetically pleasing.

With regard to Scoring of the test, before the test was administered a marking scheme was prepared and this was authenticated by the supervisor and one other language test expert. Each test item was allocated marks on the basis of each individual's perceived degree of difficulty.

In section one sub-test one there were fifteen (15) items and each item carried one mark, which gives a total of fifteen marks in this section.

Sub-test two has ten (10) statements, each correct statement was awarded two (2) marks, except for statements in numbers 17, 18 and 25 which attracted three marks each because of the level of difficulty encountered in them, these three statements have a high discrimination index. The entire section thus, had a total of twenty-three (23) marks

In section two sub-test three, there were six (6) sentences, with each sentence in the correct mode carrying two (2) marks each which gave a maximum of twelve (12) marks in this section.

In sub-test four, there were eight (8) test items, and each correct option was awarded two (2) marks, which added to a total of sixteen (16) marks for this section.

The last sub-test, that is sub-test five was divided into two parts, though each part carried equal marks. The (A) part of the sub-test had seventeen (17) correct words to be recognized, and for each correct identified word is earned one (1) mark, which gave this (A) part of the section a total of seventeen (17) marks. The (B) part of the sub-test also had seventeen (17) correct sentences to be made, and each correct sentence got one (1) mark, which gave this (B) part a total of seventeen (17) marks also. The (A) and (B) parts of the sub-test were then added up which produced the overall total for sub-test five as thirty-four (34).

Method of presenting candidates' overall performance was by recording and adding up all the scores for the individual sub-tests to get an aggregate.

3.5 Discrimination Levels of Various Test Items

The discrimination index for each test item was worked out. This was done to give some idea of those items that were correctly answered presumably only by the excellent candidates. The

discrimination index of an item points to the extent to which the item discriminates between the testes, separating excellent ones from the average ones.

In section sub-test one of the test instrument, number fifteen (15) has the word 'leafy' – the negative of which is to be given. This is not a usual word or one that has a high frequency, so the chances of forty percent (40%) of the subjects getting it correct was slim. Sub-test two has three (3) sentences with a high discrimination index and one (number 24) with a particularly strong distractor.

The three sentences because of their uniqueness attract an additional mark each in addition to the general award of two marks each per sentence in this sub-test. Number 17 and 25 have negative sentences as idiomatic expressions. The idiomatic expressions embedded in the sentences do not give a straight negative sentence, the subjects have to go behind the seemingly 'normal' sentences to dig out the negativeness in them. They also need to have sound manipulative powers for syntactic constructions and the power to decode grammatical codes.

Number 18 need a bit of correct pronunciation abilities coupled with phono-syntactical rules of grammar.

3.6 Summary

The design of the instruments took into consideration several factors like:

- (a) The class / level of the subjects.
- (b) The level of difficulty of the test items.
- (c) The time required to perform the task.
- (d) The population of the subjects.
- (e) The coverage of test instrument.

This was so because the test method using the test instrument was the sole mode of gauging and assessing the students' performance. Four areas were tested namely.

- (i) Vocabulary - ability to recognize the positive and give the negative equivalent.
- (ii) Phrases - ability to use tag correctly, and also handle idiomatic expressions sensibly.
- (iii) Sentences - ability to recognize negation in continuous text, and convert same to positive.

And this was done through filling in the blanks with words provided by the students, multiple choice answers, sentence re-writing and identification of negative words and conversion into the positive.

All in all, two hundred and eighty-seven students took the test, which was divided into five sections. Seventy-four questions were asked, with varying marks allotted to each depending on the section or level of difficulty of the test item.

Section one or sub-test one had fifteen tests items, with each carrying one mark.

Section two or sub-test two, had ten test items with each item carrying two marks each, except numbers 17,24 and 25 which had three marks allotted to each item.

Section three or sub-test three had six sentences, with two marks allotted to each, while sub-test four had eight sentences with two marks for each item. The last sub-test was sub-divided into two parts namely (5a) and (5b), with each sub-division having seventeen items each, making a total of thirty-four items and each with one mark allotted to it. All the sub-marks totalled one hundred percent (100%).

It was a very pragmatic test instrument designed to examine almost all areas of negation.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 ANALYSIS OF RESULT

4.1 Introduction

The instrument employed in this study was made up of five distinct parts. These parts were broken into five (5) sub-tests, the motive behind these sub-divisions was a deliberate attempt to give each subsection its unique focus and the entire test a genuine character of widespread distribution.

The specific design of the instrument was also intended to fall in line with the most recent and credible recommendations made by language specialists to the effect that most language tests must be both global (holistic) and discrete [Hughes, 1989; Oller, 1979; Weir 1988].

Additionally, these sub-test of the instrument ensured the accommodation of items that were based on semantically-cued orientation and those based on syntactic considerations.

4.2 The Sub-tests And Their Tasks

The test instrument that was administered was broken into two main sections of five sub tests in all. Section I was made up of two subtests, whereas section II was made up of three (3) subtests. It was instructive to realise through re-appraisal the weighting that each item in the sub-tests should receive. After due consideration with four different language test experts, the decision was taken to allot each test item what was considered to be its proper mark. This fall in line with the respected procedure in language testing to assign marks for items based on their level of difficulty in terms of issues of both linguistic and competence considerations.

There was no specific reading time provided because the subjects were expected to spread their attention according to the demands of each sub-section.

The first sub-test was expected to help the subject perform the task of recognition and production. The second was relatively specialised with tag, idiomatic expression and phrasal verbs all expected to test negation through recognition of the correct or best option. The third sub – test involved the task of interpretation and representation from the negative to the positive. The fourth was also interpretation with identification of the best option. The fifth sub-test was on recognition and as well production.

The seven tertiary institutions used were spread across four States, with as high as forty-six subjects in each of two schools performing the task. These institutions were Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna, and Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomosho, Oyo, and Thirty-two (being the lowest) writing the test in one institution that is Federal College of Education, Zaria.

The overall performance was definitely revealing with schools that performed excellently (in relation to the grading system used) in one area, failing to live up to expectation in others.

A 5-band rating system was used as follows:

Table 4:i The 5-band rating system

Score	As Interpretation	Letter Grade
70-100%	Excellent	[A]
60-69%	Good	[B]
50-59%	Fair	[C]
40-49%	Weak	[D]
39-0%	Failed	[F]

This rating is in line with those used in parallel examination bodies like the West African Examinations Council, Joint Admission Matriculation Board, National Board for Technical Education and National Teachers Institute.

In assessing the overall performance of the schools, Ladoke Akintola University of Technology Ogbomosho, in Oyo State performed the best of all. It had an average score of 58.3%, which according to our rating system is just fair (C).

Following it was College of Education, Zaria with 54%. Next was University of Ilorin with 53.5%, and closely behind it Benue State Polytechnic, Ugbokolo, Benue State, with 53.4%. Nigeria Defence Academy, Kaduna which is now a Military University came next with 51.2%, Kwara Polytechnic Ilorin had 47.4%, while Kaduna Polytechnic came 6th with 45%.

This is represented in a tabular form below:

Table 4:ii Mean scores across institutions

Ranking/Position	Schools	Mean Score
1 st	Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomosho Oyo State.	58.3%
2 nd	Federal College of Education, Zaria	54%
3 rd	University of Ilorin, Ilorin	53.5%
4 th	Benue State Polytechnic, Ugbokolo Benue State	53.4%
5 th	Nigeria Defence Academy (NDA), Kaduna	51.2%
6 th	Kwara Polytechnic, Ilorin	47.4%
7 th	Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna	45%

Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomosho, which performed the best of all the institutions, also had the highest number

of subjects who scored 70⁺(A) representing 15% of the institutions sample population. This was almost a rarity generally, but in this institution (i.e. LAUTECH) seven (7) subjects fell within this category.

Federal College of Education, Zaria, which also came second in the overall mean score, followed with four (4) in the 70⁺ range.

University of Ilorin, Kwara State had three (3) students scoring 70⁺, while Kwara Polytechnic, Ilorin and Benue State Polytechnic, Ugbokolo each had one (1) student in this category.

Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna, and Nigeria Defence Academy, Kaduna had no student in the "**Excellent band**" category.

For next highest band of performance: 60 – 69% (or B) which denotes Good, Ladoke Akintola University of Technology maintained its lead with thirteen students falling within this category. The Nigerian Defence Academy, Kaduna, and the Kwara State Polytechnic, Ilorin, both had eleven subjects or students in this category.

Benue State Polytechnic Ugbokolo, Benue State came fourth, with nine students, Federal College of Education, Zaria, Kaduna State and Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna came fifth and sixth respectively, with seven students each and University of Ilorin seventh with four students.

In the third level of rating which is 50 – 59% (or C) and considered fair, University of Ilorin, Ilorin topped the chart with eighteen students falling within this rating category. This was followed closely by Benue State Polytechnic, Ugbokolo and the Nigerian Defence Academy having sixteen students each in this category. Surprisingly, Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomosho came fourth with thirteen students in this category. This was the institution that maintained a distant lead in the first two ratings and which would have been expected to now have all her other students in this category. But this did not happen.

Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna was fifth in this category with twelve students, Kwara State Polytechnic, Ilorin sixth with eleven students and Federal College of Education, Zaria seventh with ten students.

The weak rating, which carried a score of 40 – 49% (or D), had University of Ilorin and Kwara State Polytechnic, Ilorin leading the way with twelve students each. (Any Geographical Link?) Kaduna Polytechnic came third with eleven students, Benue State Polytechnic, Ugbokolo placed fourth with ten students, Nigerian Defence Academy, Kaduna and Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomosho tied fifth position with nine students, while Federal College of Education, Zaria was seventh with six students.

The band of poor rating score which carried 0 – 39% (or F) featured prominently at the Kaduna Polytechnic which topped this category with as high as sixteen students falling within this category, no other institution had this double number digit. This was not surprising though, since this institution had the lowest mean score and thus the last on the position ladder.

The Nigerian Defence Academy, Kaduna, followed next with eight students scoring less than 40%. Federal College of Education, Zaria had six students coming third in this category. Kwara State Polytechnic, Ilorin came fourth with five students in this category. Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomosho and Benue State Polytechnic, Ugbokolo both had four students each coming fifth in this category while University of Ilorin, Ilorin came last with only two students in this category, coming seventh. From a positive perspective this meant that University of Ilorin had the least number of poor-performing subjects.

The tabular form is represented below:

Table 4:iii Performance According to Schools

NAME OF INSTITUTIONS	70 – 100	60 – 69	50 – 59	40 - 49	0 – 40
Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomosho	7 (15.21%)	13 (28.26%)	13 (28.26%)	9 (19.56%)	4 (8.69%)
Federal College of Education, Zaria	4 (12%)	7 (21%)	10 (30%)	6 (18%)	6 (18%)
University of Ilorin, Ilorin	3 (7.6%)	4 (10.25%)	18 (46.15%)	12 (30.76%)	2 (5.12%)
Benue State Polytechnic, Ugbokolo	1 (2.5%)	9 (22.55%)	16 (40%)	10 (25%)	4 (10%)
Kwara State Polytechnic, Ilorin	1 (2.5%)	11 (27.5%)	11 (27.5%)	12 (30%)	5 (12.55%)
Nigeria Defence Academy, Kaduna	0 (0%)	7 (15.21%)	12 (26%)	11 (23.91%)	16 (34.78%)

4.2.1 Best-Performed Sub-tests

Certain areas of the five sub-tests proved comparatively easy in some institutions and difficult in others.

The sub-test that was best performed at or that scored the highest grade was sub – test four (4). This required the candidate to select the appropriate phrase out of the available options. The task involved was that of interpretation. It is a kind of open-ended statement, and doesn't require any intense sentence manipulation. The subject was not expected to construct his/her own sentences and this may have accounted for the generally excellent performance in this sub-test.

Nigerian students are naturally waiting to be spoon-fed and would generally excel in areas where intense thinking or complex manipulation of ideas or thoughts are not necessary for the overall performance on a task.

In this sub-test, five institutions, namely: Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomosho, Benue State Polytechnic, Ugbokolo, University of Ilorin, Ilorin, Kwara State, Federal College of Education, Zaria, Nigeria Defence Academy, Kaduna all had excellent scores.

One institution, that is Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna had a good score, while the institution that came last in this sub-test, which was Kwara Polytechnic, had a fair score.

This sub-test employed the use of contrasting syntactic signals to effect negation. There were instances though where there were no ostensible negative markers. For example, in the first task in this sub-test, the statement had a word "befriended". For a student that is not proficient, alert or linguistically sensitive, this may be confusing, because he would be expecting to see the use of the negative marker "not". He could easily come to terms with "did not befriend" rather than with "befriended nobody" and would instinctively know the best possible option or interpretation.

4.2.2 Sentence Based Sub-test

Sub-test three ranked second in terms of commendable overall performance. Two institutions had an excellent score, namely *Benue State Polytechnic, Ugbokolo and Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomosho* Three scored in the band of good grades (i.e. 60 – 69%) namely: *Nigeria Defence Academy, Kaduna, Federal College of Education, Zaria and University of Ilorin.*

Two institutions fell within the fair range, namely: *Kwara Polytechnic, Ilorin and Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna.*

This sub-test required the candidates to construct their own sentences. In doing this, a lot of changes took place. The students probably performed very well in this sub-test because it was open – ended, and it required individual construction of sentences, so a lot of room is given for manipulation, and choice of words.

There were some sentences that had article change or tense alteration. In the first sentence for example, the word “rains” which has an - S will drop the S if the negative choice is “doesn’t” or “does not”, i.e.

(not doesn’t rains)

(not does not rains)

but will retain the – S particle if the choice is never. Sentence five also will drop the indefinite article a for another indefinite article an to obey certain phono-syntactic rules. As long as the student could identify the positive element in each sentence, changing it to the negative apparently posed no problem, especially since there were no specific syntactic rules to follow, and a lot of individual manipulation was allowed, as long as the negative sentence given obey all grammatical rules. There is no specific negative prompter in sentence one of this sub-test, and there is also the deliberate exclusion of the word always, which would have helped the student to cue in on what the negative counterpart would have been unlike in the other sentences of this sub-test which had words like

Possible, Everybody, All, Full, Remember

to help in identifying the opposite or negative to them.

Sub-test one came third in the positive or commendable overall performance of the students. No school had an excellent score. Only four institutions had scores that fell within the band of good. They were:

Federal College of Education, Zaria.

Nigerian Defence Academy, Kaduna.

University of Ilorin, Ilorin.

Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna

It was surprising that Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomosho, which had consistently done well was not among these four. It was in the fair bracket together with Benue State Polytechnic, Ugbokolo and Kwara Polytechnic, Ilorin.

It was also noteworthy that, for this sub-test, just as there was no excellent score, there was also no weak or fail score.

4.2.3 Vocabulary Based Sub-Test

In this sub-test which is the first the student was expected to look back into his mental capacity or repertoire for suitable negative options. A lot of the words were got through effecting a change in the prefix or adding a prefix to the base word which is akin to morpho – syntactic processing or manipulation.

Two of the words that proved particularly difficult were colourful in sentence nine, and leafy in sentence fifteen.

This can be attributed to the fact that these are not words of high frequency for the average Nigerian user of English. Responses like

uncolourful (for
colourful)

deleafy (for leafy)

were among those given by some of the subjects.

Sentence three had a queer twist to it. Many of the students had declined as the negative of inclined instead of disinclined. This was probably a result of weak linguistic orientation, or the case of wrong application of an otherwise vocabulary item. The word decline means refuse, and in looking at the entire sentence, the semantic interpretation that first comes to mind is that of refusing to do

something, so automatically the word decline comes to mind without vigorous thinking of the word in use itself, inclined.

4.2.4 Completion/Appropriacy Based Sub-test

Sub-test two and sub-test four are similar, because they are the only two sub-tests with available options to choose from. Also they both require interpretation tasks in different ways.

No school had an excellent score in this sub-test. Three schools were within the good band. They were: Nigerian Defence Academy, Kaduna, Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomosho and University of Ilorin, Ilorin. The remaining four schools fell within the fair range. They were Federal College of Education, Zaria, Benue State Polytechnic, Ugbokolo, Kwara Polytechnic, Ilorin and Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna.

This sub-test relied heavily on tags but usually had each statement followed by the tag. The quick reader was challenged to plough back in his experience the kind of setting that would provide the right context for the interpretation of the statements.

The ubiquitous tag isn't it was used both as a distractor and a key. "Isn't it" is commonly a source of error for Nigeria users of English, and is used in three instances in this sub-test (Numbers 16, 19,21).

There was also the use of phrasal verbs in three instances. In one particular instance, that is item twenty-five (25) only about 10% of the entire subjects that took the test got it.

The occurrence of statements with tags is high among Nigerians. Yet it is almost always used wrongly. That is why of the twenty-five statements given almost half of them (i.e. ten) carried the tag feature.

A level of competence was expected here for subjects to be able to match the correct tag with the correct statement. In English, when the

sentence is positive the tag is negative, and when the sentence is negative the tag is positive. But this is hardly ever the pattern employed by users of English. A typical user will choose option E as the correct one in sentence 16, and option D in sentence 19, which was what many of the subjects did.

The idiomatic expressions used with phrasal verbs also posed some difficulty for many of the students and this was because many of the students had probably not been exposed to that level of sophisticated use of language.

4.2.5 Text Based Identification and Conversion Sub-Test.

Sub-test five which was further divided into two parts had the lowest number of scores from all the institutions. No school recorded anything near the fair score. The highest score in 5(a) fell within the weak band, and this was scored by Ladoke Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomosho, and Benue State Polytechnic, Ugbokolo. The remaining five schools were all within the fail band. In 5(b), all the schools fell within the fail band.

There is no apparent reason why all the schools failed this sub-test except perhaps for laziness. As this was the only text in the instrument one could ask: "Will the results have been different if it was placed as the first sub-test?" Many of the subjects were probably too lazy to read the entire text, and therefore performed poorly on the tasks. They preferred short sentences, with options to choose from. This way they did not have to task their brains.

This last sub-test involved identification first of the negative words, then a conversion into the positive format in sentences. Nigerian students generally have never liked continuous texts in any form, and it is this general apathy that was apparently carried over in performing this task.

Since not one question or sub-test can be said to have been attempted first, we can't say more energy or time was expended on one sub-test than the other

4.3 Discrimination Power Of Various Test Items

Analyses of the subjects' performance on the items showed that:

- a) Three questions –3, 9 and 15 in sub-test one of section one – had very low levels of discrimination index. They were .03, .06 and .07 respectively.
- b) Question 24,25 in sub-test two of section one and 8 in sub-test four of section two had discrimination levels that can also be considered as low. Interestingly, the percentage of success for question 24 was high (93%) for the top scorers and 65% for the last scorer.

This showed probably that the question was not as challenging as had been envisaged. Question 8 in sub-test four section two also had a high percentage of success, 93% for the top scorer and 71% for the last scorer. This was also probably an indication that the question was not sufficiently challenging.

- c) Question 1 sub-test three section Two and 5(b) sub-test 5 section 5) seemed to have good discrimination indices. This was because the distinction between good performers and bad ones was visibly reflected from the discrimination index levels.
- d) From the outcome, questions 24 and 8 that "looked simple" showed the margin of difference in performance between the top and the last scorers.

Question 3 in sub-test one section one had the focal word inclined, which in the subjects' mental bank could mean agree to and which in their collocational relatedness the next word that should

collocate with it should be decline, meaning refuse to. This could be a reason why almost all the subjects chose this word. May be another less demanding word should have been used in place of inclined.

In question 9, in sub-test one section one the word colourful, is an everyday word but appearing as a task seemed to have made it assume a sophisticated status or identity. Candidates therefore, needed a good level of language sophistication in performing the task.

Question 15 in sub-test one section one falls into this same category as question 9, except that, the word leafy is not frequently used among the Nigerian English speaker, and this could make it look like a foreign word. Again it will take a certain level of sophistication and exposure to efficiently handle such an item. Question 24 and 25 in sub-test two demanded an answer based on semantic sophistication and knowledge and understanding of the concept of idiomatic expression.

Question A in sub-test five section two has no ostensible negative marker/prompter, the student must possess a sensitivity that will fish out what is required. This question provided a good index for distinguishing the top scorers from the poor ones.

The sentence in question 8 did not have a visible negative marker as in question 1 of section three above. Though the word nobody appeared in it, the key word there is befriended. The student would probably be used to did not befriend and would not be quickly cued into the word as the pre-empter to the word nobody, to get the overall semantic negativity. The subject had to apply the information already given to his total experience and match them together to get the final picture.

The last question, which was a phrase in the last section, (the text) required an identification or recognition of the word. The word being: in vain

This question separated clearly the good students from the poor ones, and provided a good index for their discrimination. It required a mental ability that could link a good level of language use to an appreciable semantic depth.

The discrimination index table thus presented is represented below.

Table 4:iv Performance according to Test items

Score by Top 25% (N = 72)			Score by last 25% (N = 72)			I.D
Question Number	Number of Successes	%	Number of Successes	%		
1 – 3	8	11	5	7	.03	
2 – 9	18	25	13	18	.06	
3 – 15	34	47	28	39	.07	
4 – 24	67	93	47	65	.25	
5 – 25	27	37	10	14	.21	
6 – 1	53	74	18	25	.44	
7 – 8	67	93	51	71	.20	
8	52	72	17	24	.44	

4.4 Reconsideration Of The Earlier Questions Asked

In the statement of the problem, a number of questions were raised, namely:

- i. Does the negative form occur in uncountable forms or patterns in English?
- ii. Does the negative form occur only in the verbal pattern?

- iii. Does the negative form in English always represent a contradiction?
- iv. Do the markers of negation fall into specific categories and if so, what are these?
- v. Are Nigerian users of English conversant with the various forms of the negative patterns in English?
- vi. Is a particular level of English language proficiency necessary for overcoming some of the problem areas?

4.4.1 Incidence of Negative forms in English

In looking at the first question, the key word there is "uncountable". The negative form or patterns available are not **ad infinitum** syntactically, which is the area of concern of this question. There are other areas like socio-linguistic and functional approaches, which encompass negation in all its ramifications, be it attitude, emphasis, style and inference. These are not patterns that can be encapsulated into definite categories, or assigned to specific areas, but may all rely on individual idiosyncrasies and situational factors. The syntactic patterns which do not rely on whims or style, represent constructions that are divisible into clear forms or representations. They formed the focus of this study. In the study the sentences were examined, different morpho-syntactic possibilities were reviewed and the test instruction was used to measure subjects' performance on negation-related tasks.

Probably the most comprehensive identification of the range of negative forms has been captured in the works of Klima (1964), and Quirk et al (1973). For the sake of convenience their respective contributions have been summarised below. They in combination reflect adequately the total picture of negative forms in English.

Klima (1964), identified certain criteria in establishing the negative. His emphasis was on the traditional 'not'. He established over ten patterns of the negative as represented below.

- i. Superficial negatives: not, none, never
- ii. Not + negative word: didn't, no one, was not
- iii. Tag questions + falling intonation on the tag:
 - Amina has eaten, hasn't she?
 - Sule is going to school, isn't he?
- iv. Not –even tags permissible in only negative sentences:
 - No one ate the food, not even the dog.
- v. Either – conjoining sentences: John couldn't climb the tree, and none of his friends could either.
- vi. Neither tags: Angela couldn't dance, and neither would Rahab.
- vii. Incomplete negatives: hardly, scarcely, rarely, seldom
- viii. Double negatives with an intervening adverb: He doesn't often really not understand.
- ix. Negative – raising: I think he won't kill her.
- x. Negative preverbs: barely, hardly (this is the same with his incomplete negatives)
- xi. Some – any negative: Jonah hasn't any clothes for ironing.

Quirk et al (1973), have insisted that the insertion of not, in negative sentences between the operator and the predication is a necessity. They have identified negative occurrences as shown below:

- xii. Negative + operator: Paul isn't eating
- xiii. Transferred negation: limited to verbs of belief or assumption like: think, believe, suppose, fancy, except.
- xiv. I don't think you've paid for it yet

- xv. Abbreviated negation: someone's not coming
- xvi. Negative Subject: No one came to my party.
- xvii. Negative Adjunct: Never will I go to his house again.
- xviii. Negative in meaning not in appearance: seldom, hardly, only, barely
- xix. Phrasal negation: Not a word came from his lips.
- xx. Auxiliary negation: may not, cannot, need not.
- xxi. Main verb negation: They may not bother to come if it is wet
- xxii. Tag questions: " You can drive straight, can't you?" = Can't you drive straight?
- xxiii. Lexical Negatives: These are formed without the not, either by implication or the use of negative prefixes. For e.g by negative implication are words like; deny, withhold, refuse, exclude

By the use of prefixes as in words like; Unfair, unwise, Non-smoker, non-drip, Insane, Illogical, Improper, Irrelevant, Disobey, disloyal, Asymmetry

There are several areas that overlap, but basically many of the negatives we encountered will fall into one of these patterns.

4.4.2 Position of the negative form in English

The question of whether the negative form occurs only in the verbal phrase is very pertinent. The negative form does not occur only in the verbal phrase as can be seen from the patterns already given above; other areas of the sentence are also involved. Many of the words that take on a prefix to form a negative have the base of their words rooted in parts of the sentence like the noun phrase or the subject unit and the object unit with words like adjectives and nouns.

The table below shows a representation of some of these negative words in the various positions including the verbal. Some occur as words, some as phrases.

Table 4:v. Negatives and that possible grammatical group
[Ajala, 1998]

Verbal	Adjectival	Adverbial	Nominal	Conjunction	Pronoun	Preposition
Do + not = don't	Unwise	Never	Non-drip (e.g. paint)	Neither	Nobody	Without
Is + not = isn't	Unassuming	None	Asymmetry	Nor	No one	Away from
	Unfair	Hardly			Atheist	None
Was not	Insane	Barely	Ex-President			Out of
Not bother	Illogical	Scarcely				Without
Disloyal	Unprofitable	Not e.g. not a word				Against
Dislike	Disorganized	Nothing				
Disobey	Empty	Nowhere				
Don't want	Fruitless	In no way				
Weren't you	In vain	No more				
Put off	Unaware	No longer				
Declines	Improper	Seldom				
Deny	Disloyal	Rarely				
Hanging out	Discourteous	Barely				
Withhold	Little	No				
Forget						
Not						
As unfit						

4.4.3 The Status of the Negative Form in Terms of Meaning Polarity

The third question raised as to whether the negative form in English always represent a contradiction is almost tautological. The word **negative** on its own means **not positive**, or implies denial or refusal, and this represents a contradiction to its parallel. So the answer obviously is, **YES** - that the negative form in English always represents the contradiction does not pre-supposes a wrong or right relatedness.

4.4.4 Syntactic Categories of Negation

Question two raised and answered has adequately covered the issue raised in question four. The categories marked out there clearly showed the specific categories in which negative words can occur: namely; verbal, Adjectival, Adverbial, Nominal, pronominal, preposition and conjunction.

There are para-linguistic categories also in which negative attitudes, style or culture occurs but these cannot be assigned to specific categories.

Other categories include the idiomatic expression used together with a verb, e.g. hanging out, As unfit as, Put off

Do these take on a different category like phrasal verbs or do they get put together in the verbal positions or category. This would seem to depend on the individual and the focal point in question. For this study the idiomatic expression was added to the verbal section.

4.4.5 Sensitivity of Nigerian Users to Negative Forms.

Judging from the outcome of the test instruments sent out, and from close observation of various individual speech patterns, this writer believes that Nigerian users of English are not conversant with various forms of negative patterns in English. The position can be defended that it is not possible for any individual to be conversant with all the various forms of the negative patterns in English, but a handsome working knowledge is at least desirable, so as to facilitate communication and lighten the processing burden of the learner during the course of his study.

It is very common to hear Nigerian users of English allowing a negative sentence to take a negative tag, instead of a positive one. For instance:

a. These days you are not as busy as you've always been

(i) are you [✓] (ii) aren't you [X]

b. You wouldn't mind coming along with us.....

(i) won't you [X] (ii) would you [✓]

The options marked (x) are the ones that readily come to mind for the typical Nigerian user of English and this is wrong, the correct one is ticked [✓].

Once the rule is known that a positive sentence takes on a negative tag and vice-versa, then the question of wrong grammar does not arise. But the issue of the tag goes more than this. It is tied to the knowledge of falling and rising intonation, which the Nigerian user of

English does not typically respect. So if the learner is familiar with the rule of tag but still does not apply the appropriate intonation patterns how well will the total message be relayed?

From the results seen of the test instruments sent out, taking a sample of eight (8) items in the test instrument, out of a total of two hundred and eighty –seven students that were tested, not up to three quarters could be said to be conversant with any pattern of negation in English.

The table below represents it: It shows the number of students in each institution that got the item right and the total number of students that got it. This translates to mean, that in item no. 3 = 31 students out of 287 got it right representing 10.8%

Item no. 9 = 69 out of 287 representing 24%

Item no. 15 = 113 out of 287 representing 39.3%

Item nos. 24 = 226 out of 287 representing 78.7%

Item no. 25 = 82 out of 287 representing 28%

Item no.1 (section three) = 154 out of 287 representing 53.6%

Item no. 8 (section four) = 237 out of 287 representing 82%

Item no. 8 (section five) = 147 out of 287 representing 51.2%

The above partially answers question five to the effect that Nigerian users of English are conversant with some of the forms of the negative patterns in English. From the table, it was observed that they did very well in areas of negative patterns that they were familiar with and poorly in areas or patterns not familiar with.

4.4.6 Effect of General English Proficiency on Negation Processing

To the last question, which asks if a particular level of English language proficiency is necessary for overcoming some of the problem areas, the answer is obviously YES. A particular level of English language proficiency is definitely necessary for overcoming some of these problem areas. In addition, it will make a beautiful match with a high level of exposure, which will lead, to a reasonable degree of level of proficiency in the use of the English language.

The test instrument used in this study was administered to students in tertiary institutions, and the minimum class used was 200 Level, HND final year students were also used, alongside 300 – level students. At such levels, one would have expected a decent or respectable level of proficiency in the language that serves all other subjects on the curriculum.

4.5 Summary of Overall and Specific Findings

The outcome of the test carried out showed that Ladoko Akintola University of Technology, Ogbomosho which got the highest overall mean average (58.3%) did not fall into the excellent band, but the average one. It is also noteworthy to comment on the fact that the highest number of subjects who scored 70⁺ (seven) came from this institution.

It was additionally observed that of the eight test items listed out for discrimination, it was only in one (that is number 8 in sub-test four) that it actually scored higher than any other school. Thus it made up for its deficiencies in these discrimination items through other test items.

There is therefore no established or consistent pattern that can be said of any of the institution, this shows the divergence that cuts across all the schools.

Test items in or sub-tests three and four were found to be considerably easy for almost all the subjects and high marks were consistently scored in these sub-tests.

The average in each sub-test fluctuated along undulating plains, some were excellent, some good, several average, many weak, and numerous outright fail. Since not one question or a particular sub-test can be said to have been attempted first, we cannot say more energy was expended on one sub-test than the other.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 General Summary

This study has looked at negation from a mainly but not exclusively syntactic viewpoint. This study is concentrated on the negation in English citing some contrastive illustration wherever these were found most appropriate. Yoruba particularly being a tonal language is presented with as few complexities as possible. Morphotonemic alternations, whether phonologically or morphologically conditioned are universal in African tone languages. In Yoruba language, minimal contrasts in tone are really common. There are morphemes whose only realization is tonal, such morphemes may be adjectives, particles or pronouns. The Yoruba language has encountered a lot of English (or Latin) grammatical categories to a language, which has a different structure. Words are assigned to classes not on the basis of their form or function in Yoruba, but on the basis of the English classes to which their English equivalents (at least in terms of semantic features) belong.

The data collected came from a widespread population; this population that was eventually used for the study was selected in a stratified random sampling, stratified in that a geo-linguistic coverage was respected. Areas like the North, South and the middle belt were represented. However, one of the first observations made was that despite the rather extensive terrain that was used, we established that the population in most of the locations was both cosmopolitan and heterogeneous. Thus, it was really difficult to isolate subjects according to their ethnic groups. However, the level of exposure most of the

subjects had had with English seemed to be of high significance. This was especially borne out in the degree of manipulative abilities in terms of sentence construction especially when it came to handling open-ended questions. Some of the responses betrayed the fundamental difficulties in reading among the subjects and the inherent attitudinal problems of several of the subjects akin to that characterized by Abe (1983)

Equally, the degree of exposure was borne out when the subjects had to demonstrate their own linguistic sensitivities. Specifically, it was observed that the subjects generally do not have a clear articulation of what is involved in the concept of some of negative forms and the incidence of mis-use of certain negative patterns was high in some tests.

Many linguists have made significant contributions in the area of negation in English and some of their findings and conclusions were drawn upon. The study was not premised on one particular theory, but pooled together the contributions of the acknowledged linguists together and established an eclectic theory, with a view to having a wide representative base on the concept of negation.

Through the investigation, other constructional selectional occurrences came up that revealed the subjects' socio-cultural lapses in terms of language, the low level of exposure to what is obtainable worldwide, and the subject's poor/low level of production especially in terms of linguistic creativity.

5.1.1 Refining the Instrument

The development and rectification of the instrument relied heavily on these three sources:

- (a) A close scrutiny of the relevant literature to get familiar with the most recent and most authentic materials.

- (b) Consultation with the subjects' expert and testing specialists to cross check and critique the quality and appropriateness of the test items.
- (c) A section by section comparison of the test items with available standardised tests of equivalent level of challenge.

Additionally, the test instrument was pilot tested in two centres, after which the performances of the subjects were analysed and used as the basis for improving on the quality of the test instrument.

5.1.2 Administration

For the effective and hitch free administration of the instrument, a heavy reliance was placed on the collaboration of professional colleagues, as well as identified subject specialists who were all known to have a high credibility level. The positive response was so tremendous that once the subjects had been identified through the odd number method, there was a high response as high as one hundred percent (100%). Put another way, all the subjects that identified and enlisted for participation in the taking of the test did actually participate. This facilitated greatly the easy retrieval of the answer sheets of the participating subjects.

Once the scripts were collected and marked, the scoring took place in line with the marking scheme that had been prepared for determining participants' performances. The scoring was done by the researcher with the help of some trained assistants and the cross-checking done by two other professional colleagues and the supervisor. As stated earlier, there was no incomplete paper in the sense of a subject not attempting at all any of the sub-tests. Rather, it could be seen that some of the subjects could not handle effectively the demands of test items in terms of quality and time management.

The scoring showed very graphically the gaps, the difference between the very strong subjects and the very weak ones. The different institutions were ranked according to the quality of their performance across institutional centres at a glance as well as a general representation of the performances of subjects on item basis. This latter point necessitated or recommended the use of the item discrimination index to assess the level of difficulty of the test items as well as the degree to which these items posed difficulty to both all-round good performances on the one hand, and all-round weak performances on the other.

5.2 Specific Limitations Of The Study

Oral interviews were excluded as possible source of data, because of the possibility of interference through over prompting or cueing. Also, the dependence on intonation for oral interview may lead to a single intonation tune having a vast variety of functions (which may lose the focus of this study;) its precise functions depending on a number of factors which are not accounted for in this thesis, some of them within the language, some situational and others outside the language. Nothing will be gained and a lot of clarity would be lost if at all times, these supra-segmental features are marked in all the various sentence or utterances as the case may be.

In addition, an unrealistically large number of research assistants would also become necessary. In oral speech speakers might negotiate meaning without using a particular pattern that might have been cued.

Geographically, no data was collected from the Eastern part of the country. The East was left out because the population already obtained was cosmopolitan (especially from institutions like Benue

state polytechnic, Ugbokolo, Federal college of Education, Zaria and Kaduna Polytechnic, Kaduna), in terms of Ethno linguistic background.

In addition, we were anxious to avoid unconsciously making the instrument administratively cumbersome by over-enlarging the geographical spread. Even though both male and female were tested, the researcher did not find out which gender performed better, or was more capable of using the negative pattern in the English language.

The write-up also did not place undue emphasis on the subjects' disciplines, to find out if subjects from the Law Department (who probably use or encounter the use of negative words almost daily eg. "No, my Lord") performed better than subjects from science-oriented disciplines.

Conclusions from such a limited range of samples may not allow for readily generalisable deductions, but are significant and sufficient enough hopefully to allow for highly reasonable degree of deductions.

5.3 Specific Contributions of This Study

The study has revealed some global picture of the students' performance in the area of handling constructions that involve negation. The study has also revealed that students encounter less difficulty with test items involving the negative form when such items are constructed along the multiple-choice format. This probably suggests that the subjects' receptive skills are higher or superior than their productive skills, the subjects perform less creditably when responding to negative test items that are constructed in the open-ended format.

We also find the most problematic negative items the study has been able to expose, that words of expression of low frequency would constitute serious selection problem for students.

It has also been established that even though the students are second language learners, fifty percent (50%) are conscious of the fact that negation must have a surface and zero level of presentation, because the negation markers may not be ostensibly marked or expressed.

The thesis has exposed students to other patterns or forms that the negative can take. In making students respond to certain test items their focus could be narrowed down to such a degree that they would not be able to operate under the cover of avoidance strategy, because you make them select a word, and make them respond to a negative item so they cannot avoid answering the question.

The study has also established certain patterns that the negative word can fall within, spread across the parts of speech, and that a higher rate of exposure will enable a more adept handling of negative constructions.

5.4 Recommendations

The findings from this investigation have, among other things, revealed the need to move towards more pragmatic and functional modes of learning and teaching English in the Nigerian situation. It is the thinking of this investigator that this novel modes of second language teaching/learning should be anchored closely on such techniques like:

role plays; radio listening; impromptu class discussions; well-organised, out of classroom assignments; and constant exposure to discrete points and holistic tests.

Structured interviews with both student participants and their lecturers in the reported investigation, personal experience over several years of teaching and counseling on remedial work by the researcher and ample discussions with present professional colleagues

example, the students could begin to see that negation may imply polarized oppositions.

In the words of Jackson (1990),

“Polarity implies the expression of two opposites: here the opposition is between asserting that something is the case (negative polarity). Negation is of two main types; negation of the whole sentence, and negation of some elements or parts of the sentence (Local negation)”.

In this study, at least two other types of negation to which the students would need to be familiarised with were identified; these were the tag-based negation and idiomatic negation.

Specifically, students should be exposed to global use of language. This should start from the secondary school level where the student is already handling linguistic tasks. One procedure is to ensure that negation as a topic is adequately covered in the textbooks and where this is not the case the language should have their own methods of incorporating items on negation. This also implies that tertiary institutions should provide electronic media like the television and radio in the various common halls, where students could listen to and watch international programmes.

They should be encouraged to develop the habit of listening to programmes that handle language tasks, and even see language in action, through documentaries or the news reading and analysis. The level of exposure of these students should be raised and consistently maintained because, language is dynamic and the English language in particular is very much so.

Hardly can anything be equal to a good foundation. Right from the primary, through the secondary up to the tertiary level, curriculum developers should identify areas of need built on both practical and valid theoretical considerations. Course offerings should

and the supervisor have all pointed towards one important ingredient to commendable achievements in English: Practice.

For practice to be rewarding, it has to be properly organised whether self initiated or teacher induced. Often, practice has to be closely supervised or carefully monitored.

The place of radio news especially news and discussions from respectable sources like the British Broadcasting Corporation, Cable Network News, Voice of America, Nigerian Television Authority, Abuja and Lagos can never be over-emphasized. Zhu Jiaju (1984), has put it most aptly by saying, **“making use of daily English news programmes is the next best thing to being in the target language environment”**. One can only add that the sources of such news programmes must necessarily be respectable and authentic in the richness of the language forms provided.

Similarly, students would need to be taken through hands-on practices with written materials drawn from various sources. The practice of limiting students to only fixed or prescribed textbooks is both sterile and often counter-productive. The careful and well-placed exposures to other written materials drawn from magazines, newspapers, journals and even transcripts of recording, would almost certainly provide the well-needed multiplier effect. Through such extensive practices, students can get exposed to both the traditional negative patterns and the non-traditional ones including negative polarity. Such multi-dimensional encounters with the negative form would sharpen students' language sensitivities.

The new level of understanding would most likely enhance students' language proficiency in reading both language materials and topics drawn from other content areas. With polarity for

move alongside international standards. All these require funds, materials and above all determination. This means that it is not only the annual education budget that should be increased but in addition the institutional back up must be heightened.

On the strength of the findings Nigeria would seem to be drifting into the twenty first century only as a semi-literate nation.

5.5 Conclusion

The study revealed that a respectable level of proficiency is necessary for performance of a language task like use of negatives. This level of proficiency can only be attained through practical efforts on the part of all concerned. This is so because the investigation has shown an interconnection between the contents of the test and the likely everyday experience of the students with the language.

The study has tremendous relevance and significance to the learning, teaching and testing of English language in Nigeria. Its findings, if properly and carefully looked at, would enhance the confidence of the Nigerian user of English, and thus raise the standard of English in Nigeria.

Furtherstill, the study has the potential of laying to rest many of the misconceptions about negation. Most learners hardly realise that negative may be expressed in forms that appear superficially positive, especially where traditional negative markers are omitted.

It is left for each institution to provide the right conditions for promoting the effective growth and use of language forms in students. The imperatives seem to include the following:

- a) Devoted and up-to-date well-trained and highly resourceful personnel
- b) Effective learning facilities
- c) High degree of motivation and determination among the students.

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TEST IN THE USE OF ENGLISH NEGATIVES

Dear Student,

Please, read these instructions carefully and attempt the given questions. Your cooperation will be appreciated fully.

Name (optional).....Sex:

Male/Female.....

Course.....

Level.....

Institution

.....

Date.....

Time Allowed: 1Hour 15 minutes

(Mrs. Angela Ajala M.A. student, English Dept., ABU, Zaria, Nigeria)

SECTION ONE: SUB-TEST ONE

INSTRUCTION: Change the underlined positive words in the following sentences into their negative forms.

1. The children want some ice cream for their birthday party.

.....

2. After a long argument the students agreed on the topic for their project.

.....

3. After several disappointments he remained inclined to visit the Taylor family.

.....

4. Soon after leaving school Haruna's parents organised a profitable venture for him.

.....

5. If they behave properly the school administration will praise them.

.....

6. Members of the team always like to travel with the careful driver.

.....

7. When visitors went into their room it looked organised.

.....

8. It is legal to drive at the age of twenty-one in most countries of the world.

.....

9. The graduation ceremony was colourful in every respect.

.....

10. Even though Hannatu was only one week in the house she looked settled when her friends called on her.

.....

11. Most of the family members were agreeable to her plan to leave the country.

.....

12. Yahaya remains a responsible uncle to his relations.

.....

13. There was an increase in the patronage of motorcycle as a result of fuel scarcity.

.....

14. The topic was considered relevant to the students' chosen career.

.....

15. The branches of the tree became leafy as result of the weather conditions.

.....

SUB-TEST TWO

In questions 16 – 25 tick (-) from the options lettered A-E the one that best fills each gap.

16. "You're late again for your lesson,", Mary was asked.

(a) "isn't it" (b) "weren't you?" (c) "not so" (d) "Isn't so" (e) "aren't you?"

17. High prices in many Nigerian hotels havemany would-be visitors.

(a) put on (b) put of (c) put off (d) put out (e) put up

18. "You.....to report late just because the first day of school is devoted to cleaning", the principal repeated.

(a) are suppose not (b) are not supposing (c) may not suppose (d) Will not suppose (e) are not supposed.

19. "After practicing for ten weeks, Wini now drives well,?" the manager asked.

(a) "doesn't she?" (b) "can't she" (c) "wouldn't she?" (d) "isn't it?" (e) "won't she?"

20. "It was strange that Yohanna ran away from home,"

(a) "did he?" (b) "wasn't it?" (c) "not so?" (d) "could he?" (e) "don't you?"

21. Jibril's course mate observed, "These days you've not as busy as you've always been,"

(a) "can you?" (b) "are you?" (c) "isn't it?" (d) "won't you?" (e) "would you?"

22. The policeman is so stubbornly strict that heaccepting lifts.

(a) drums (b) demands (c) debates (d) doubts (e) declines

23. "You wouldn't mind coming along with us,....."
- (a) "won't you?" (b) "can you?" (c) "Would you?" (d) "Could you?"
 (e) "Can't you?"
24. Oranges bought recently from the Central Market have been identified.....for human consumption.
- (a) like unfit (b) as unfitting (c) as unfitted (d) as unfit (e) as unfitting
25. Since Nigeria's political crisis commenced Donga has beenwith shoddy characters.
- (a) hanging in (b) hanging on (c) hanging out (d) hanging up (e) hanging together.

SECTION TWO: SUB-TEST THREE

INSTRUCTION: Read the following positive sentences carefully and change each one to a negative sentence.

1. It rains in Port – Harcourt throughout the year.

2. It was possible to carry out the task.

3. Everybody voted for him.

4. All executive members were present at the meeting.

5. The car in the garage has a full tank.

6. I remember everything she told me.

SUB-TEST FOUR

INSTRUCTION: In the following sentences, tick (-) the option that best interprets each statement.

8. As a stranger in the town Bilkisu befriended nobody. This means that she
- a. made few intimate friends
 - b. avoided certain people
 - c. made no friends
 - d. remained very observant
 - e. became a nervous stranger
9. Maidawa was never on time for his classes.
- a. was always late
 - b. never present
 - c. often careless
 - d. partially irresponsible
 - e. practically unreliable
10. The bus driver announced to the passengers that there was no time to waste. This meant that
- a. the passengers could take their time
 - b. the bus was almost late
 - c. wasting time was criminal
 - d. fuel problem was imminent
 - e. the bus was leaving immediately
11. His not going did not discourage the female participant. From this we know that
- a. only the male did not attend
 - b. only the female did not attend

- c. the male and the female did not attend
- d. hardly did anybody attend
- e. all attended

12. He wanted nothing from his parents. This means that

- a. he actually wanted something
- b. he desired to be on his own
- c. he disliked his parents
- d. he disrespected his parents
- e. he wished he had no parents

13. The coach dropped the not-so-talented players. This means that the coach dropped.

- a. nearly all players
- b. the excellent players
- c. the average players
- d. the terrible player
- e. the impressive players

14. Even though Jennifer was badly needed, she was nowhere near the house. From this statement we know that Jennifer was.

- a. away to the market
- b. always playing truant
- c. never serious minded
- d. was then absent
- e. was not reliable

15. There has been no turn around in the supply of fuel. This means that

- a. petrol dealers have not changed their prices
- b. petrol has become a scarce commodity

- c. petrol supply has been in one direction
- d. those in petrol business have betrayed the people
- e. there has been interference in oil supply

SUB-TEST FIVE

- INTRODUCTION: (A) Read the passage below carefully and identify all the negatives by underlining each.
- (B) Convert all the negative sentences into positive and write them out in the given space.

Years ago during the time of famine, the antelope and her friend discovered some food in a distant land. Nobody else knew of this. One day, the antelope asked the ass to go with her so that they might bring some nuts to their starving brother. Early the next morning they set out. They walked and ran so fast that one could easily hear their footsteps. However, each time they approached a house, they would walk very gingerly so that no one would hear their footsteps.

When they reached the spot where the groundnuts were kept, they started eating greedily. The antelope ate a basketful while the ass ate three basketfuls. The antelope, being a clever animal would go out at intervals to see if her belly would go through the narrow gate through which they had entered the farm. But the ass kept on eating and eating until he was quite full.

They then decided to go home. But it was impossible for the ass to pass through the gate. The antelope told the ass to try harder and squeeze through, but all his efforts were fruitless. The antelope even tried to help push the ass through the gate, but all was in vain. In fact, the ass let out a loud cry each time the antelope gave him a push. Unfortunately, as the farmers were coming, they heard a cry coming

from the direction of their gate. They stopped and listened and whispered to each other.

'There are thieves on our farm', they said. They therefore armed themselves and walked briskly to where the sound was coming from. As soon as the antelope heard the farmer's footsteps she dashed out through the gate, but her friend the ass could not do the same. His belly was so big that he could neither squeeze through nor jump over the gate.

The ass was caught at the gate struggling not to be caught. The farmers shouted, 'Thief! Thief! Thief!' and gave the ass a thorough thrashing. He was made a prisoner for life, working without pay. From that time on, the ass has never had a happy life.
