

The Ban on True Negative Imperatives

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Abstract

Languages cross-linguistically differ with respect to whether they accept or ban True Negative Imperatives (TNIs). In this paper I show that this ban follows from three generally accepted assumptions: (i) the fact that the operator that encodes the illocutionary force of an imperative universally takes scope from C° ; (ii) the fact that this operator may not be operated on by a negative operator and (iii) the Head Movement Constraint (an instance of Relativized Minimality). In my paper I argue that languages differ too with respect to both the syntactic status (head/phrasal) and the semantic value (negative/non-negative) of their negative markers. Given these difference across languages and the analysis of TNIs based on the three above mentioned assumptions, two typological generalisations can be predicted: (i) every language with an overt negative marker X° that is semantically negative bans TNIs; and (ii) every language that bans TNIs exhibits an overt negative marker X° . I demonstrate in my paper that both typological predictions are born out.

1 Introduction

This paper is about the fact that not every language accepts so-called True Negative Imperatives (TNIs).¹ TNIs are exemplified in (1) and (2) for Dutch and Polish respectively. In Dutch, in main clauses the finite verb precedes the negative marker *niet*. In imperative clauses the negation can also follow the finite imperative verb without yielding ungrammaticality. Polish also accepts TNIs: both in regular negative indicative clauses and in imperative clauses, the negative marker *nie* immediately precedes the finite verb.

- | | | | |
|-----|----|--|--------|
| (1) | a. | Jij slaapt <i>niet</i>
You sleep NEG
'You don't sleep' | Dutch |
| | b. | Slaap!
Sleep!
'Sleep' | |
| | b. | Slaap <i>niet</i> !
Sleep NEG!
'Don't sleep!' | (TNI) |
| (2) | a. | (Ty) <i>nie</i> pracujesz
You NEG work.2SG
'You don't work!' | Polish |

¹ Terminology due to Zanuttini (1994)

- b. Pracuj!
Work.2SG.IMP
'Work!'
- c. *Nie* pracuj! (TNI)
NEG work.2SG.IMP
'Don't work!'

Things are different however in a language like Spanish, as illustrated in (3). In Spanish the negative marker *no* always occurs in preverbal position. However, if the verb has an imperative form, it may not be combined with this negative marker. Spanish does not allow TNIs. In order to express the illocutionary force of an imperative², the imperative verb must be replaced by a subjunctive. Such constructions are called Surrogate Negative Imperatives (SNIs).³

- (3) a. Tu *no* lees Spanish
NEG read.2SG
'You don't read'
- b. ¡Lee!
Read.2SG.IMP
'Read!'
- c. *¡No lee! (*TNI)
NEG read.2SG.IMP
'Don't read'
- d. ¡No leas! (SNI)
NEG read.2SG.SUBJ
'Don't read'

In this paper I address two questions: (i) how can this ban on TNIs in languages such as Spanish be explained? And (ii) how does the observed cross-linguistic variation follow?

The outline of the paper is as follows: in section 2 I discuss three previous analyses of the ban on TNIs. In section 3 I discuss some relevant semantic and syntactic properties of negative markers and in section 4 I demonstrate by means of a survey of different languages that the properties described in section 3 are related to the acceptance of TNIs. In section 5, I present my analysis for all language groups that have been discussed. In section 6, I show that the analysis presented in section 5 makes some correct predictions regarding the development of Negative Concord and the acceptance of TNIs in Romance languages. Finally, Section 7 concludes.

² Negative sentences with the illocutionary force of an imperative are often referred to as prohibitives.

³ See Van den Auwera 2005 (and references therein) for many more examples of languages that ban TNIs and the way those languages express SNIs.

2 Previous analyses

2.1 Rivero (1994), Rivero & Terzi (1995)

Rivero (1994) and Rivero & Terzi (1995) assume that the clausal structure always has the structural relations in (4).

- (4) CP > NegP > IP > VP

They propose then that the difference between Slavic languages (which generally allow TNIs) and Romance languages (that generally disallow them) concerns the position where imperative force is induced in the sentence. This is either IP (expressed by movement of V_{imp} to I°) or CP (expressed by verbal movement to C°). Now the difference between Slavic and Romance languages falls out immediately: if the Neg° position is filled by an overt element, i.e. by a negative marker, then verbal movement from I° to C° is no longer allowed, given the Head Movement Constraint (Travis (1984)). Hence Slavic languages, such as Polish allow TNIs, whereas Romance languages, such as Spanish, where the verb moves to C° , do not (see (5)).

- (5) a. [CP [$NegP$ [Neg° *Nie*] [IP [I° *pracuj*]_{[IMP]i}] [VP t_i]]] Polish
NEG work.2SG.IMP
'Don't work!'
- b. *[CP [C° *Lee*]_{[IMP]i}] [$NegP$ [Neg° *no*] [IP [I° t_i] [VP t_i]]] Spanish
NEG read.2SG.IMP
'Don't read!'

Rivero's and Rivero & Terzi's analysis faces two serious problems. The first problem is that it is unclear why in Romance languages the negative marker is not allowed to cliticize onto V_{imp} so that they move together to C° as a unit, a point already addressed by Han (2001). Rizzi (1982) argues that in constructions such as (6), consisting of a participle or an infinitive, the subject occupies a Spec,IP position and the auxiliary moves to C° . In case of negation, the negation then joins the verb to move to C° . Rizzi refers to these structures as Aux-to-Comp constructions.

- (6) a. [[C° *avendo*] Gianni fatto questo]⁴ Italian
having Gianni done this
'Gianni having done this, ...'
- b. [[C° *non avendo*] Gianni fatto questo]
NEG having Gianni done this
'Gianni having not done this, ...'

If in the cases above *non* is allowed to attach to V_{part}/V_{inf} , it is unclear why this movement would not be allowed in the case of V_{imp} .⁵

⁴ Example taken from Rizzi (1982)

⁵ Rivero and Terzi argue that in these cases the $V_{part/inf}$ does not raise to C° , but to a position lower than Neg° and that the subject is in a position even below. This analysis seems to be contradicted by the fact that (*non*) *avendo* may even precede speaker-oriented adverbs such as *evidamente* ('evidently'), which occupy a position higher than $NegP$ (as pointed out by Cinque (1999) and repeated in Han (2001)).

2.2 Zanuttini (1997)

(7) a. $[_{\text{NegP}} \textit{non-1} [_{\text{MoodP}} \dots [_{\text{VP}}]]]$ imperative clauses
 b. $[_{\text{NegP}} \textit{non-2} \dots [_{\text{VP}}]]$ other clauses

(8) a. * $\left[\text{NegP } Non-1 \left[\text{MoodP } \left[\text{Mood}^\circ [\text{Mood}] \right] \underset{\begin{array}{c} \text{— x —} \\ \text{call.2SG.IMP} \end{array}}{\text{telefona}_{[\text{IMP}]i}} \right] \text{ a Gianni } [{}_{\text{VP}} t_i]] \right]$ Italian
NEG call.2SG.IMP to Gianni
‘Don’t call Gianni!’

b. $[Io [\text{NegP } non-2 \text{ telefono}_i \text{ a Gianni } [{}_{\text{VP}} t_i]]]$
I NEG call.1SG to Gianni
‘I don’t call Gianni’

Still, this analysis suffers from two problems. First, the lexical distinction between *non-1* and *non-2* seems not well motivated. Only if there is additional evidence that the behaviour of the two *non*'s is different in other respects as well, one could argue that these are really distinct. Otherwise the reasoning would lead to circularity. Zanuttini motivates her claim by arguing that languages that have two distinct negative markers are often sensitive to mood distinctions in the verbal paradigm (cf. Sadock & Zwicky (1985)). However, in most of these languages this second negative marker is not only used in imperatives, but also in subjunctives. In Greek, for example, the negative marker *dhen* is used in indicatives and the negative marker *mi* in subjunctives and imperatives. However, TNIs are ruled out not only if *dhen* is the negative marker, but also if the negation is expressed by *mi*. The SNI can only be formed using the negative marker *mi* in combination with a subjunctive verb:

- (9) a. **Dhen* diavase to! Greek
 NEG read.IMP it
 ‘Don’t read it!’
- b. **Mi* grapes to!
 NEG write.IMP it
 ‘Don’t write it!’
- c. *Mi* to grapsis!
 NEG it read.SUBJ
 ‘Don’t read it!’

The fact that Greek exhibits two negative markers is not related to the fact that TNIs are excluded with the first negative marker as the second negative marker excludes them as well. Consequently, the fact that several languages have different negative markers for different moods does not hold as an argument for the lexical ambiguity of Italian *non*.

Second, the prediction that this analysis makes is too strong. It is unclear why the analysis does not hold for Slavic languages, such as Polish, which has a negative head marker *nie* that negates a clause by itself and allows TNIs. Moreover, one may even find Romance varieties, which allow TNIs. Old Italian (10) is an example.

- (10) *Ni* ti tormenta di questo! Old Italian
 NEG yourself torment.2SG.IMP of this
 ‘Don’t torment yourself with this!’

2.3 Han (2001)

Han (2001) argues that the ban on TNIs does not follow from syntactic requirements that have been violated, but from a semantic violation: the imperative operator (i.e. the operator that encodes the illocutionary force of an imperative, Op_{IMP} hereafter) may not be in the scope of negation. Op_{IMP} is realised by moving a feature [IMP] on V_{imp} to C° . Han takes negation in Romance languages to head a projection somewhere high in the IP domain. Hence, negation head-adjoins first to V_{imp} , and then as a unit they move further to C° . As a result Op_{IMP} remains in the c-command domain of negation, which violates the constraint that negation may only operate on the propositional content of the clause. The structure (11) is thus ill formed.

- (11) *
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- ```

graph TD
 CP[CP] --- Spanish[Spanish]
 CP --- C_prime[C']
 C_prime --- C[C]
 C_prime --- IP[IP]
 C --- I_i[I_i]
 I_i --- Neg[Neg: no]
 I_i --- I[I]
 I --- V[V_[Imp]:lee]
 IP --- t_i[t_i]

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Under this analysis, it becomes immediately clear why in languages like Dutch TNIs are allowed. In those languages negation does not form a unit with  $V_{imp}$  and  $V_{imp}$  raises across negation to  $C^\circ$ , as shown in (12).

(12)  $[_{CP} \text{slaap}_{[IMP]i} [_{VP} \text{niet } t_i]]^6$  Dutch

For Slavic languages Han assumes that  $V_{imp}$  does not move to  $C^\circ$ . Consequently, this would mean that  $V_{imp}$  remains under the scope of negation (as the negative marker is a syntactic head in those languages,  $V_{imp}$  cannot move across it). However, Han argues that in those cases the feature  $[IMP]$  moves out of  $V_{imp}$  and moves to  $C^\circ$ . Thus,  $Op_{IMP}$  outscopes negation, as demonstrated in (13) for Polish.

(13)  $[_{CP} [IMP]_i [_{NegP} \text{n}ie [_{IP} \text{pracuj}_i ]]]$  Polish

The fact that Han allows feature movement for the Slavic languages seems to contradict the analysis for Romance languages, since it remains unclear why this feature movement would not be possible in Romance languages. Apart from this problem, Han assumes that the negative marker (in the languages discussed) is always the carrier of semantic negation. In the following section I demonstrate that this is not always the case.

### 3 Semantic and syntactic properties of negative markers

In this section I discuss some semantic properties of negative markers. I present arguments that show that negative markers differ cross-linguistically with respect to their semantic contents. In some languages, such as Spanish and Italian, I argue that the negative marker is the phonological realisation of a negative operator. In other languages, such as Polish and Czech, I argue that the negative marker is semantically vacuous, but has a syntactic requirement that it needs to stand in an Agree relation with a negative operator, which may be left phonologically abstract. The section concludes with a few remarks about the syntactic status of negative markers.

#### 3.1 Strict vs. Non-strict NC languages

The term *Negative Concord (NC)* refers to the phenomenon in which two negative elements yield only one semantic negation. The set of NC languages falls apart in two classes: Strict NC languages and Non-strict NC languages. In Strict NC languages precede the negative marker may both follow or precede n-words<sup>7</sup> as is demonstrated for Czech in (14). In Non-strict NC languages the negative marker may only precede n-words. An example of a Non-strict NC language is Italian (15).

(14) Strict NC:  
 a. Milan *\*(ne)vidi nikoho* Czech  
 Milan NEG.saw n-body  
 ‘Milan didn’t see anybody’

<sup>6</sup> In Zeijlstra (2004) it is suggested that there is no NegP and that the negative marker *niet* occupies a VP-adjunct position (instead of Spec,NegP). However, the current analysis of TNIs in Dutch does not depend on this assumption.

<sup>7</sup> Terminology due to Laka (1990), Giannakidou (2002).

- b. Dnes *\*(ne)volá nikdo*  
Today NEG.calls n-body  
'Today nobody calls'
- c. Dnes *nikdo \*(ne)volá*  
Today n-body NEG.calls  
'Today nobody calls'
- (15) Non-strict NC:
- a. Gianni *\*(non)* ha telefonato a *nessuno* Italian  
Gianni NEG has called to n-body  
'Gianni didn't call anybody'
- b. Ieri *\*(non)* ha telefonato *nessuno*  
Yesterday NEG has called n-body  
'Yesterday nobody called'
- c. Ieri *nessuno (\*non)* ha telefonato (a *nessuno*)  
Yesterday n-body NEG has called to n-body  
'Yesterday nobody called anybody'

In Zeijlstra (2004) I argue that NC is a form of multiple Agree (cf. Ura (1996), Hiraiwa (2001, 2005)) between a negative operator that carries an interpretable negative feature [iNEG] and elements that carry an uninterpretable negative feature [uNEG]. Sentence (15)a can thus be analysed as (16), where *nessuno*'s [uNEG] feature is checked against *non*'s [iNEG] feature.<sup>8</sup>

- (16) [TP Gianni [<sub>NEG</sub>P *non*<sub>[iNEG]</sub> ha telefonato a *nessuno*<sub>[uNEG]</sub> ]]
- └──────────────────────────┘

Given the assumption that n-words are analysed as semantically non-negative indefinites that carry a feature [uNEG] (cf. Ladusaw (1992), Brown (1999), Zeijlstra (2004)), it follows that the negative operator must c-command them in order to yield the correct readings. Consequently, it means that if the negative marker carries a feature [iNEG] no n-word is allowed to precede it (and still yield an NC reading).

However, in Strict NC languages such as Czech, the negative marker may be preceded by an n-word. Consequently, this negative marker cannot be the phonological realisation of the negative operator. It then follows that the negative marker itself carries [uNEG] and that it has its [uNEG] feature checked by an abstract negative operator *Op<sub>-</sub>*, as shown in (17).<sup>9</sup>

- (17) Dnes *Op<sub>-</sub>*<sub>[iNEG]</sub> *nikdo*<sub>[uNEG]</sub> *nevolá*<sub>[uNEG]</sub> Czech  
Today n-body NEG.calls  
'Today nobody calls'.

<sup>8</sup> Note that here a feature checking mechanism is adopted in which checking may take place between a higher interpretable and a lower uninterpretable feature (cf. Adger (2003))

<sup>9</sup> Note that this analysis requires that an abstract *Op<sub>-</sub>* is also available in Non-strict NC languages, for instance in constructions such as (15)a.

The [uNEG]/[iNEG] distinction exactly explains the Strict NC vs. Non-strict NC pattern that one finds amongst NC languages. Thus I argue that negative markers in Non-strict NC languages, like Italian *non* and Spanish *no*, carry a feature [iNEG], whereas negative markers in Strict NC languages, such as Czech *ne* and Polish *nie*, carry a feature [uNEG].

### 3.2 Further evidence

I now present some further evidence for the assumption that the difference between Strict and Non-strict NC languages reduces to the semantic value of their negative markers. First it can be shown that negation behaves differently in Strict and Non-strict NC languages with respect to the scope of quantifying DPs. This is shown in (18). Although Czech *moc* ('much') dominates the negative marker, it is outscoped by negation. This reading is however not obtained in a similar construction in Italian, where *molto* ('much') remains in the scope of negation. This is a further indication that Italian *non*, contrary to Czech *ne*, is a phonological realisation of *Op*₋.

- (18) a. Milan *moc ne*jedl Czech  
 Milan much NEG.eat.PERF  
 ¬ > much: 'Milan hasn't eaten much'  
 \*much > ¬: 'There is much that Milan didn't eat'
- b. Molto *non* ha mangiato Gianni Italian  
 Much NEG has eaten Gianni  
 \*¬ > much: 'Gianni hasn't eaten much'  
 much > ¬: 'There is much that Gianni didn't eat'

Second, in some Strict NC languages the negative marker may be left out if it is preceded by an n-word, something to be expected on functional grounds if the negative marker carries [uNEG] (if an n-word precedes it, the negative marker is no longer needed as a scope marker). This is for instance the case in Greek (a Strict NC language) with *oute kan* ('NPI-even'). If *oute kan* precedes the negative marker *dhen*, the latter may be left out. If it follows *dhen*, *dhen* may not be removed (cf. Giannakidou (2005)). This forms an argument that Greek *dhen* is in fact not semantically negative. As Greek is a Strict NC language, this confirms the assumption that in Strict NC languages the negative marker carries [uNEG].

- (19) a. O Jannis \*(*dhen*) dhiavase *oute kan* tis Sindaktikes Dhomes<sup>10</sup> Greek  
 The Jannis neg reads even the Syntactic Structures  
 'Jannis doesn't read even Syntactic Structures'
- b. *Oute kan* ti Maria (*dhen*) proskalese o pritanis  
 Even Maria NEG invite the dean  
 'Not even Maria did the dean invite'

Finally, the semantic emptiness of negative markers may solve a problem put forward by Watanabe (2005) against Giannakidou's (2000) analysis of fragmentary answers. Giannakidou (2000, 2002) argues that n-words in Greek are semantically non-negative.

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<sup>10</sup> Example taken from Giannakidou (2005).



Hence, she has to account for the fact that n-words in fragmentary answers like in (20)a yield a reading that includes a negation. She argues that this negation, expressed by *dhen*, is deleted under ellipsis. Hence the assumption that n-words are semantically non-negative can be maintained. Watanabe (2005) argues that this analysis violates the condition that ellipsis may only take place under semantic identity (cf. Merchant's (2001a) notion of e-GIVENness). However, as the question does not contain a negation, it may not license ellipsis of the negative marker *dhen*. If on the other hand, *dhen* is semantically non-negative, the identity condition is met again. The abstract negative operator then induces the negation in the answer. Note that in Non-strict NC languages the negative marker never follows an n-word, and therefore no negative marker can be deleted under ellipsis in the first place.

- |      |    |                                                            |                                                                   |                                              |
|------|----|------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| (20) | a. | Q: Ti ides?<br>What saw.2SG?<br>'What did you see?'        | A: [ <i>Op</i> <sub>~</sub> [ <i>TIPOTA</i> [ <i>dhen-ida</i> ]]] | Greek<br>N-thing [NEG saw.1SG]<br>'Nothing!' |
|      | b. | Q: ¿A quién viste?<br>What saw.2SG?<br>'What did you see?' | A: [ <i>Op</i> <sub>~</sub> [ <i>A nadie</i> [ <i>vió</i> ]]]     | N-thing [saw.1SG]<br>'Nothing!'              |

### 3.3 A few words on syntax

Finally, a few words on the syntactic status of negative markers need to be said. All three analyses that have been discussed in section 2, as well as my own analysis that I present in section 5, rely crucially on the distinction between negative markers that are syntactic heads ( $X^{\circ}$ ) and those that have phrasal status (XP). I follow the standard analysis (Haegeman (1995), Zanuttini (1997, 2001), Merchant (2001b), Zeijlstra (2004) amongst many others) that negative adverbs (such as Dutch *niet*, German *nicht*, French *pas*) are XPs, whereas weak or strong preverbal negative markers as well as affixal negative markers have  $X^{\circ}$  status (Italian *non*, Spanish *no*, Polish *nie*, Czech *ne*, Greek *dhen*, French *ne*). The tests on which these analyses are grounded are blocking of verbal movement or clitic climbing (negative markers  $X^{\circ}$  do, negative markers XP do not, cf. Zanuttini (1997, 2001)) or the possibility to adjoin to XP phrases such as 'why' climbing (negative markers  $X^{\circ}$  do not, negative markers XP do, cf. (Merchant 2001b)). The syntactic status of negative markers has been widely discussed in the literature and will therefore not be repeated here. The reader is referred to Zeijlstra (2004) for an evaluation of analyses concerning the syntactic status of negative markers.

Negative markers can thus be distinguished in two respects, each with two possible values: they have either  $X^{\circ}$  or XP status and they have either a value [iNEG] or [uNEG].<sup>11</sup>

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<sup>11</sup> In Zeijlstra (2006), it is argued that in Non-strict NC languages negative markers do not have a formal feature [iNEG], but a semantic feature [NEG]. However, as the interpretation of an element carrying [iNEG] is identical to the interpretation of an element carrying [NEG], I disregard this distinction in this paper, as nothing crucial in this analysis hinges on it.

#### 4 Typological generalisations

Based on the notions discussed above, a number of languages have been investigated for the syntactic status of their negative markers, and their semantic value. Moreover it has been investigated whether these languages allow TNIs or not. The results are shown in (21) below.

(21) Language sample

| <i>Class:</i> | <i>Language:</i> | <i>Neg. marker:</i><br><i>X°</i> | <i>Neg. marker:</i><br><i>[iNEG]</i> | <i>TNIs allowed</i> |
|---------------|------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------------------|---------------------|
| I             | Spanish          | √                                | √                                    | *                   |
|               | Italian          | √                                | √                                    | *                   |
|               | Portuguese       | √                                | √                                    | *                   |
| II            | Czech            | √                                | *                                    | √                   |
|               | Polish           | √                                | *                                    | √                   |
|               | Bulgarian        | √                                | *                                    | √                   |
|               | Serbo-Croatian   | √                                | *                                    | √                   |
| III           | Greek            | √                                | *                                    | *                   |
|               | Romanian         | √                                | *                                    | *                   |
|               | Hebrew           | √                                | *                                    | *                   |
|               | Hungarian        | √                                | *                                    | *                   |
| IV            | Dutch            | *                                | √                                    | √                   |
|               | German           | *                                | √                                    | √                   |
|               | Norwegian        | *                                | √                                    | √                   |
|               | Swedish          | *                                | √                                    | √                   |
| V             | Bavarian         | *                                | *                                    | √                   |
|               | Yiddish          | *                                | *                                    | √                   |
|               | Quebecois        | *                                | *                                    | √                   |

Based on (21) the two following typological generalisations can be drawn:

(22) **G1:** Every language with an overt negative marker  $X^\circ$  that carries [iNEG] bans TNIs.

**G2:** Every language that bans TNIs exhibits an overt negative marker  $X^\circ$ .

These typological generalisations indicate that both the semantic value of the negative marker and its syntactic status play a role in determining whether and why a language bans TNIs. **G2** has already been observed by Zanuttini (1997), **G1** is to my knowledge a novel observation. In the next section I present an analysis that is based on these notions.

#### 5 Analysis

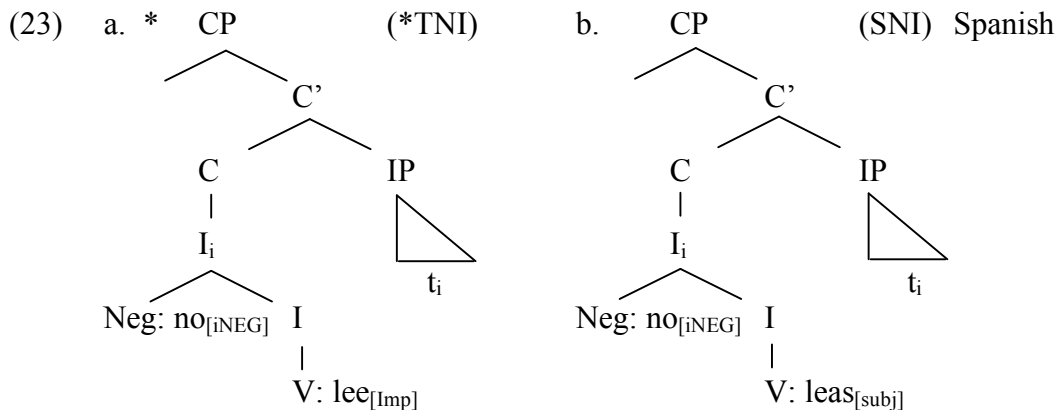
I argue that both the ban on TNIs and its cross-linguistic distribution can be explained on the basis of the following three well-motivated assumptions. First, I assume that  $Op_{IMP}$  must take scope from  $C^\circ$ , a standard analysis in the syntax of imperatives (cf. Han (2001)).<sup>12</sup> Second, I adopt the classical observation that operators that encode

<sup>12</sup> Strictly speaking, it does not have to be  $C^\circ$  from which the  $Op_{IMP}$  takes scope from. Crucially, the [IMP] feature on  $V_{imp}$  triggers the verb to move to a particular position

illocutionary force may not be operated on by a (semantic) negation. In this respect, the analysis presented here reflects Han's analysis. Third, I adopt the HMC (Travis' (1984)), an instance of relativized minimality (cf. Rizzi (1989)). Now I demonstrate how for each combination of  $\pm X^\circ$ ,  $\pm[i\text{NEG}]$  the correct results are predicted.

### 5.1 Class I languages

The first class of languages consists of languages that exhibit a negative marker  $X^\circ$ , which carries an  $[i\text{NEG}]$  feature. To these languages Han's analysis applies and  $V_{\text{imp}}$  must raise to  $C^\circ$ . As the negative marker  $\text{Neg}^\circ$  must be attached to  $V^\circ$ , this negative marker c-commands  $[\text{IMP}]$ , and given the syntactic head status of the negative marker,  $V_{\text{imp}}$  cannot escape out of this unit. This is illustrated for Spanish in (23)a. If, however, the imperative verb is replaced by a subjunctive, nothing leads to ungrammaticality, since the subjunctive does not carry along a feature that encodes illocutionary force, and thus it may be c-commanded by the negation (see (23)b). Obviously, this does not yield the semantics of a prohibitive. However, I assume, following Han, that the prohibitive reading is enforced through pragmatic inference. The language needs to fill the functional gap and uses the non-imperative construction with the subjunctive as a replacement. The SNI does not yield the reading of a prohibitive, but is then used as one.<sup>13</sup>



Note that the first typological generalisation (G1) immediately follows: since the negative head adjoins to  $V_{\text{imp}}$  and  $V_{\text{imp}}$  must raise to  $C^\circ$ ,  $Op_{\text{IMP}}$  cannot avoid being outscoped by negation. Thus every language with an overt negative marker  $X^\circ$  that carries  $[i\text{NEG}]$  bans TNIs.

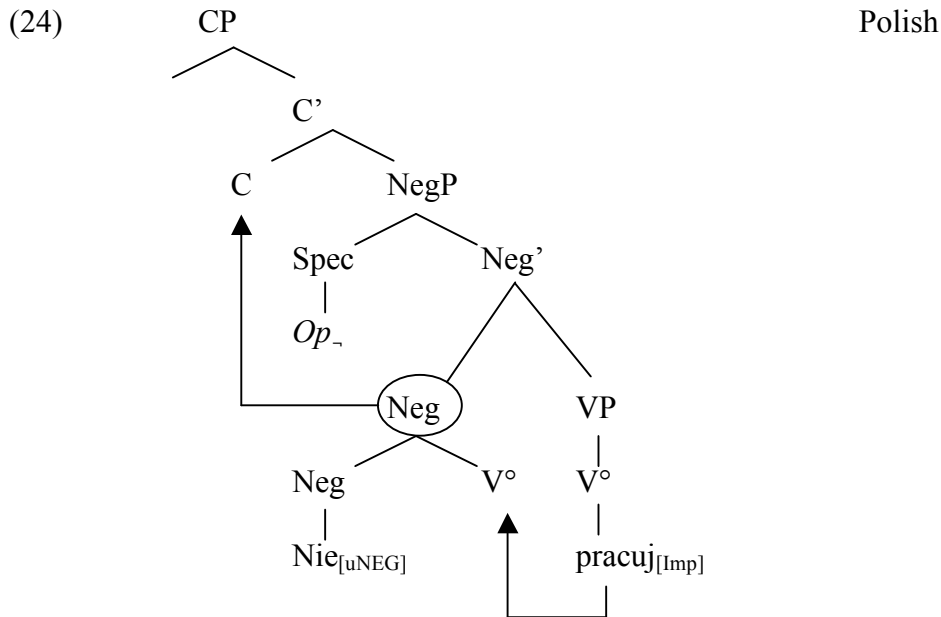
which has many similarities to  $C^\circ$  in non-imperative clauses. The fact that this position must be the highest in the clausal structure follows from its semantics. As  $Op_{\text{IMP}}$  encodes the illocutionary force rather than the propositional content of the sentence, it cannot be located below other functional projections. The presented analysis is blind to the distinction between  $C^\circ$  or a particular imperative position (call it  $\text{Imp}^\circ$ ). In the rest of this paper I conveniently talk about movement to  $C^\circ$  without committing myself to it.

<sup>13</sup> Han (2001) suggests that the fact that the subjunctive encodes an irrealis, plays a role in the imperative interpretation. This is however contradicted by the fact that (for instance) an indicative can adopt this function as well (Italian plural SNIs exhibit an indicative).

## 5.2 Class II languages

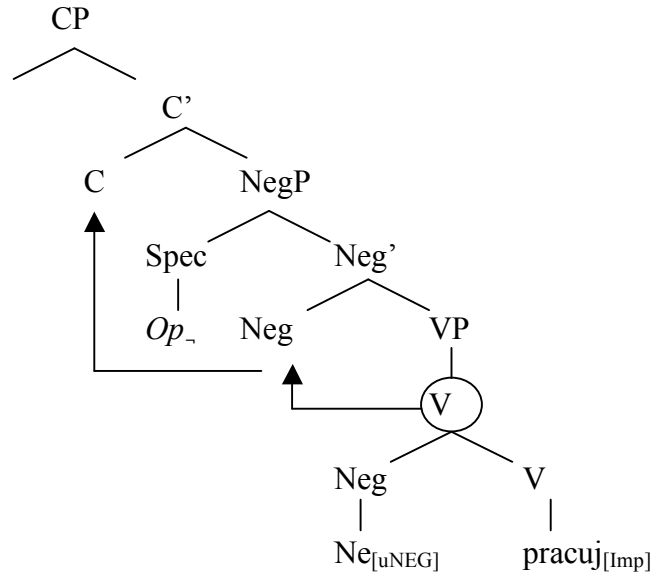
Languages that have negative markers  $X^\circ$  which carry [uNEG] at their disposal differ with respect to the ban on TNIs. Czech, Polish, Bulgarian and Serbo-Croatian for instance accept TNIs, whereas Romanian, Hungarian, Greek and Hebrew disallow them. In this subsection I discuss the first kind of languages.

In Slavic languages, such as Czech, Polish, Bulgarian and Serbo-Croatian, the negative marker is always in preverbal position. Slavic languages however differ with respect to the phonological strength of the negative marker. Polish *nie* is phonologically strong and can be said to be base-generated in its own position  $\text{Neg}^\circ$  that c-commands VP. Czech *ne* is weaker than Polish *nie* and it is thus unclear whether *ne* originated in  $\text{Neg}^\circ$  or has been base-generated as a head adjunction onto V. In both cases, these negative markers are semantically non-negative and negation is thus induced from  $Op_\neg$ . I assume as in Zeijlstra (2004) that this  $Op_\neg$  occupies a  $\text{Spec, NegP}$  position. The clausal structure therefore does not block TNIs. In Polish  $V_{\text{imp}}$  moves to  $\text{Neg}^\circ$ , attaches to *nie* and as a unit  $[\text{Neg } nie\text{-}V_{\text{imp}}]$  moves along to  $C^\circ$ .  $Op_\neg$  remains in situ in  $\text{Spec, NegP}$  and  $Op_{\text{IMP}}$  takes scope from  $C^\circ$ . If Czech *ne* is base-generated in  $\text{Neg}^\circ$  the analysis of Czech TNIs is similar to the one of Polish. If Czech *ne* is head adjoined to  $V^\circ$ , the complex verbal unit  $[\text{V } ne\text{-}V_{\text{imp}}]$  moves through  $\text{Neg}^\circ$  (and all other intermediate head positions) to  $C^\circ$ , from where  $Op_{\text{IMP}}$  takes scope.  $Op_\neg$  is located in  $\text{Spec, NegP}$ . Thus, both in Polish and Czech (regardless of the position *ne* has been base-generated) the scopal condition  $Op_{\text{IMP}} > Op_\neg$  is met. This is illustrated below in for Polish in (24) and for the latter analysis of Czech in (25).



(25)

Czech



### 5.3 Class III languages

The third class of languages under discussion consists of (amongst others) Romanian, Hungarian, Greek and Hebrew. These languages also exhibit  $X^0$  negative markers carrying [uNEG] features, but contrary to what would be expected languages they ban TNIs. Hence, additional explanations are required to account for the ban on TNIs in these languages. Of the four languages studied here, three languages have an additional negative marker for subjunctives. Hungarian *nem* is replaced by *ne* in subjunctives, Greek *dhen* is replaced by *mi* and Hebrew *lo* alternates with *al*.

Let us first focus on Hungarian. Hungarian imperative verbs are fine with this second negative marker *ne*, as is shown in (26).

- (26) a. \**Nem* olvass!  
Neg read.IMP  
'Don't read!'  
b. *Ne* olvass!  
Neg read.IMP  
'Don't read!'

Hungarian

Apparently, *ne* (which is allowed to participate in Strict NC constructions) carries [uNEG] and thus behaves similar to the Slavic negative markers. The only difference is that *nem* and *ne* differ in their feature make-up with respect to mood. A suggestion would be that *nem* carries a feature [-IRR] that disallows it to participate in subjunctives/imperatives and likewise *ne* would carry [+IRR]. Crucial is that the mood distinction of Hungarian negative markers is not related to the ban on TNIs. Strictly speaking Hungarian does allow TNIs, since imperatives and subjunctives cannot be combine with *nem* for independent reasons.

The situation in Hebrew and Greek is different. Greek and Hebrew also exhibit different markers for different moods, but TNIs are banned for both negative markers. Note however that the classification of TNIs has been based on the semantic value of the negative marker in indicatives (using the Strict / Non-strict NC distinction as a diagnostic criterion). However, it is not required that these negative marker have

identical semantics. Below it is shown that the Greek negative marker *mi* (contrary to *dhen*) only allows n-words in postverbal position:

- (27) a. \*Thelo *KANENAS* na *mi* fiji Greek  
 Want.1SG n-body PRT neg leave.3SG.SUBJ  
 ‘I want nobody to leave’  
 b. \*Thelo na *mi* fiji *KANENAS*  
 Want.1SG PRT neg leave.3SG.SUBJ n-body  
 ‘I want nobody to leave’

It is natural to assume that in Greek the mood distinction of negative markers is similar to that in Hungarian. *Dhen* is marked [-IRR], *mi* is marked [+IRR]. Hence, TNIs could only occur with the negative marker *mi*. But, since *mi* carries [iNEG], Greek TNIs are ruled out for the same reason as their Class I counterparts. This same analysis *mutatis mutandis* holds for Hebrew too.

Now only the case of Romanian needs to be discussed as Romanian lacks the negative marker properties that the other languages discussed above exhibit. But still it disallows TNIs:

- (28) \**Nu* lucreaza! Romanian  
 NEG work.IMP  
 ‘Don’t work!’

Apparently, TNIs in this language must be blocked for another reason. One possible explanation could be the following. As has been discussed in the beginning of this section, movement of  $V_{imp}$  to  $C^\circ$  obeys the HMC. Consequently, if a negative marker is base-generated in  $Neg^\circ$ ,  $V_{imp}$  must attach to it, otherwise the derivation crashes. However, it depends on the phonological properties of a negative marker whether it allows this kind of cliticisation. It could very well be that this negative marker cannot be attached to  $V_{imp}$ . In that case the language also bans TNIs and the language requires an SNI. Now suppose that the properties of Romanian *nu* are thus that joint movement to  $C^\circ$  is not allowed. Then it is expected that Romanian bans TNIs as well despite its [uNEG] feature. However, this analysis is still rather speculative and remains subject of further research.

Note, however, that it follows from the unidirectional character of the typological generalisations that this analysis predicts that languages with a negative marker  $X^\circ$  carrying [uNEG] may ban TNIs too, as long as this follows from additional constraints of these languages

#### 5.4 Class IV languages

It follows too that if a negative marker has phrasal rather than head status, TNIs are accepted. Regardless of the position of the negative marker, it cannot block movement of  $V_{imp}$  to  $C^\circ$ . Hence  $Op_{IMP}$  can always take scope from  $C^\circ$  and all scopal requirements are met. In Zeijlstra (2004) it has been argued that the position of the negative marker in Dutch is a vP adjunct position. The structure of a TNI in Dutch would then be like (29).

- (29) [CP slaap<sub>[IMP]</sub><sub>i</sub> [vP niet <sub>t<sub>i</sub></sub>]] Dutch

Note that from this analysis typological generalisation **G2** follows immediately. If in a particular language there is no negative marker  $X^\circ$  available, movement of  $V_{imp}$  to  $C^\circ$

can never be blocked. Consequently, all languages that ban TNIs exhibit an overt negative marker  $X^\circ$ .

### 5.5 Class V languages

Class V languages finally are NC languages without a negative head marker, such as Bavarian Quebécois and Yiddish. Given the explanation for **G2**, it is not expected that TNIs are banned in these languages. The only difference between these languages and Class IV languages is that the negative marker in these languages does not carry an [iNEG] feature.<sup>14</sup> Hence, an abstract negative operator  $Op_-$  needs to be included. This could either be (depending on one's syntactic views) in a (higher) VP adjunct position or in Spec,NegP. Whatever structure is adopted (the representation in (30) is just an example of the two possible structures), verbal movement to  $C^\circ$  cannot be blocked and therefore TNIs are allowed.

- (30) Kuk nit! Yiddish  
 Look NEG  
 'Don't look!'  
 $[CP \text{ Kuk}_{[Imp]i} [NegP/VP \text{ Op}_- [NegP/VP \text{ nit} [VP \text{ t}_i]]]]$

### 5.6 Concluding remarks

It follows that the three assumptions that I presented in the beginning of this section ( $Op_{IMP}$  takes scope from  $C^\circ$ ,  $Op_{IMP}$  may not be c-commanded by a negative operator and the HMC) predict that in some languages TNIs are excluded. Moreover the analysis based on these assumptions predicts the typological generalisations **G1** and **G2**.

## 6 Further evidence: diachronic change

In Non-strict NC languages with a negative marker  $X^\circ$  (that must carry [iNEG]) TNIs must be banned. This holds for instance for Italian. However, it is known that Old Italian allowed TNIs (as pointed out by Zanuttini (1997) and shown in (31)). The analysis presented above predicts that it is impossible that the negative marker *non* in Italian, which is a syntactic head, carries a feature [iNEG] but constitutes TNIs. Thus Old Italian *non* must have carried [uNEG]. The prediction is then that Old Italian cannot have been a Non-strict NC language. This prediction is indeed born out. Old Italian was a Strict NC language, as shown in (32).

- (31) a. *Ni ti tormenta di questo!*<sup>15</sup> Old Italian  
 NEG yourself torment.2SG.IMP of this  
 'Don't torment yourself with this'  
 b. *\*Non telefona a Gianni!* Cont. Italian  
 NEG call.2SG.IMP to Gianni  
 'Don't call Gianni'

<sup>14</sup> This follows from the observation that in languages such as Yiddish a negative marker may occur both the left and to the right of an n-word, and exhibit NC.

<sup>15</sup> Example taken from Zanuttini (1997).

- (32) a. Mai *nessuno* oma *non* si più guarare<sup>16</sup> Old Italian  
 N-ever n-even-one man NEG himself can protect  
 ‘Nobody can ever protect himself’
- b. *Nessuno* (\**non*) ha detto *niente* Cont. Italian  
 N-body neg has said n-thing  
 ‘Nobody said anything’

Apparently Italian developed from a Strict NC language into a Non-strict NC language. Since in Old Italian TNIs were allowed, the change from Strict NC into Non-strict NC must have caused the ban on TNIs. Similar observations can be made for the development of Portuguese that used to be a Strict NC language that allowed TNIs and transformed into a Non-strict NC language that bans TNIs. See Zeijlstra (2006) for a more detailed analysis of the development of Romance languages with respect to NC. The analysis presented above predicts that the diachronic developments with respect to the acceptance of TNIs and the kind of NC that a language exhibits are related. The fact that this prediction is born out further supports this analysis.

## 7 Conclusions

In this paper I analyse the ban on TNIs as a result of three principles: (i) the fact that  $Op_{IMP}$  universally takes scope from  $C^\circ$ ; (ii) the fact that  $Op_{IMP}$  may not be c-commanded by a negative operator and (iii) the HMC (an instance of Relativized Minimality). It follows that if a negative marker is a syntactic head and carries an [iNEG] feature,  $V_{imp}$  may not move across  $Neg^\circ$ , but must attach to it. Hence, the [IMP] feature remains under the scope of negation and the TNI is ruled out.

From this analysis the typological generalisations **G1** and **G2** can also be derived. **G1** follows, since (as explained above) every Non-strict NC language with a negative marker  $X^\circ$  this negative marker must carry [iNEG] and thus TNIs are ruled out. **G2** follows because of the HMC. If a language does not exhibit a negative marker  $Neg^\circ$ , this marker can never block verbal movement to  $C^\circ$  and TNIs must be allowed.

Finally, it follows that diachronic developments with respect to the kind of NC (Strict/Non-strict) that a language exhibits may influence a language’s ban on TNIs. It is shown for Italian that this prediction is indeed correct.

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<sup>16</sup> Example taken from Martins (2000): 194



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