## **Negative Polarity Items in Ewe**

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**Abstract**: This paper investigates negation and negative polarity items (NPIs) in Ewe. First, we analyze Ewe ke-NPIs in terms of NEG raising. Second, we show that three parameters of variation distinguish English NPIs from Ewe NPIs. Third, we give an analysis of bipartite negation in Ewe that builds on our NEG raising analysis of Ewe NPIs. Fourth, we give a brief survey of non-ke-NPIs, and discuss how they fit into the analysis.

**Keywords:** Ewe, bipartite negation, negative polarity items, weak and strong NPIs, events.

#### 1. Introduction

A *negative polarity item* (NPI) is commonly taken to be an expression that only appears in certain contexts, prototypically those that are negative. For example, *any* and by extension, phrases constructed with *any*, such as *anybody*, are English NPIs. That is, they cannot occur in positive declarative clauses such as (1a), but can appear in a negative ones such as (1b):

- (1) a. \*Kofi saw anybody.
  - b. Kofi didn't see anybody.

The goal of this paper is to investigate Ewe negation and negative polarity. Consider the Ewe sentences (2) which correspond to the English sentences (1):

- (2) a. \*Kofi kpó ame-ádéké Kofi see person-any
  - b. Kofi mé-kpó ame-ádéké o Kofi NEG<sub>1</sub>-see person-any NEG<sub>2</sub> "Kofi didn't see anybody."

One difference between English and Ewe is that Ewe has so-called *bipartite negation*. That is, in a wide range of cases negation is expressed with two particles: me which precedes the verb (henceforth, NEG<sub>1</sub>), and o which follows the VP (henceforth, NEG<sub>2</sub>). For a general survey of bipartite negation see Bell (2004). Bipartite negation will be analyzed in sections 2 and 11.

Setting aside the issue of bipartite negation for now, (2a) shows that *ame-adeke* "any person" cannot appear in a positive declarative clause, in the same way that *anybody* cannot appear in a positive declarative clause. For this reason, we assume that *ame-adeke* is an NPI in Ewe, just like *anybody* is an NPI in English. Henceforth, we refer to expressions formed with *adeke* "any" as *ke-NPIs*. However, as shown in what follows, there are significant differences between the syntax of ke-NPIs in Ewe and any-NPIs in English. We will show how these differences can be understood within the framework of Collins and Postal 2014 (henceforth, CP2014).

To situate Ewe, it is the westernmost language of Gbe, a subgroup of the Kwa language family. The Gbe languages are spoken in Ghana, Togo, Benin and some parts of Nigeria. In Ghana, Ewe is used as a medium of instruction and is a subject of study from primary school to higher education.

The data for this research was elicited from the third author, who is a native speaker of the Wedome (Uedome) variety of Ewe. The Wedome variety is spoken mainly in Ho, which is in the center of the Volta Region of Ghana. The third author also speaks and understands other varieties of Ewe such as Anlo and Tongu, which are spoken mainly in Southern Volta, and Mina/Gengbe spoken in Togo. Based on the sociolinguistic background of the third author, the majority of the data are based on standard/unified Ewe, with some influence from Wedome.

The paper is structured as follows. In section 2, we give an overview of the basic facts about Ewe negation. In section 3, we present present the basic framework of CP2014. In section 4, we give a NEG raising analysis of ke-NPIs. In sections 5-8, we discuss various properties of ke-NPIs and show how those properties follow from the analysis given in section 4. Sections 9-11 discuss Ewe bipartite negation. Section 12 discusses three non-ke-NPIs. Section 13 is the conclusion.

# 2. Bipartite Negation: Basic Facts

Before discussing NPIs and their analysis, we give an overview of the basic facts of Ewe negation in order to help the reader parse the relevant sentences which follow. As shown in (3), both NEG<sub>1</sub> and NEG<sub>2</sub> are necessary in bipartite negation:

- (3) a. Kofi mé- du nú o Kofi NEG<sub>1</sub>- eat thing NEG<sub>2</sub> "Kofi didn't eat."
  - b. \*Kofi du nú o Kofi eat thing NEG<sub>2</sub>
  - c. \*Kofi mé- du nú Kofi NEG<sub>1</sub>- eat thing

NEG<sub>2</sub> immediately follows the verb phrase. In the following example, NEG<sub>2</sub> must follow the direct object. (4c) shows that NEG<sub>2</sub> cannot be appear twice (this option will be omitted in the rest of the examples):

- (4) a. Kofi mé-kpó nye fé agbalế o Kofi NEG<sub>1</sub>-see 1SG POSS book NEG<sub>2</sub> "Kofi didn't see my book."
  - b. \*Kofi mé-kpó o nye fé agbalé Kofi NEG<sub>1</sub>-see NEG<sub>2</sub> 1SG POSS book
  - c. \*Kofi mé-kpó o nye fé agbalḗ o Kofi NEG<sub>1</sub>-see NEG<sub>2</sub> 1SG POSS book NEG<sub>2</sub>

The following examples show that  $NEG_2$  needs to follow various kinds of VP-internal PPs (see also Aboh 2010: 122-123):

- (5) a. nye-mé-fo nu kplé Kofi o

  1SG-NEG<sub>1</sub>-hit mouth with Kofi NEG<sub>2</sub>

  "I didn't speak with Kofi."
  - b. \*nye-mé-fo nu o kplé Kofi 1SG-NEG<sub>1</sub>-hit mouth NEG<sub>2</sub> with Kofi
- (6) a. wó-mé-le tá-me bu-m tsó ga ŋú o 3PL-NEG<sub>1</sub>-COP head-inside think-PROG from money about NEG<sub>2</sub> "They are not thinking about money."
  - b. \*wó-mé-le tá-me bu-m o tsó ga ŋú 3PL-NEG<sub>1</sub>-COP head-inside think-PROG NEG<sub>2</sub> from money about

VP adjuncts must also appear to the left of NEG<sub>2</sub>.

- (7) a. nye-mé-dzi ha le azấdu fé o 1SG-NEG<sub>1</sub>-sing song at party NEG<sub>2</sub> "I didn't sing at the party."
  - b. \*nye-mé-dzi ha o le azấdufé 1SG-NEG $_1$ -sing song NEG $_2$  at party
- (8) a. nye-mé-dzó háfi Kofi dzó o 1SG-NEG<sub>1</sub>-leave before Kofi leave NEG<sub>2</sub> "I didn't leave before Kofi left."
  - b. \*nye-mé-dzó o háfi Kofi dzó 1SG-NEG<sub>1</sub>-leave NEG<sub>2</sub> before Kofi leave

The facts in (4-8) suggest that NEG<sub>2</sub> is in a position following the VP.

However, there are elements of the sentence that can follow  $NEG_2$ , for example, question particles (Ameka 1991: 64-65):

(9) Kofi mé-du nú o a Kofi NEG<sub>1</sub>-eat thing NEG<sub>2</sub> Q "Did Kofi not eat?"

Furthermore "because"-adjuncts either precede or follow NEG<sub>2</sub> with contrasting interpretations:

(10) a. me-dzó dé Kofi ta 1SG-leave Prep Kofi head "I left because of Kofi."

- b. nye-mé-dzó o dé Kofi ta 1SG-NEG1-leave NEG2 Prep Kofi head "I didn't leave because of Kofi." ("I stayed because I wanted to talk to him.")
- c. nye-mé-dzó dé Kofi ta o 1SG-NEG1-leave Prep Kofi head NEG2 "I didn't leave because of Kofi." ("I left for another reason.")

Compare (10b) to (8b), where NEG<sub>2</sub> may only follow the adjunct. The data suggests that "before"-clauses and "because"-clause occur in different syntactic positions. Arguably, "before"-clauses are VP-internal, and hence never follow NEG<sub>2</sub>, while "because"-clauses may either be VP-internal or VP-external.

We turn to the placement of  $NEG_1$ , which precedes the verb and also preverbal auxiliary elements, for example, the future marker:

(11) Kofi mé-á-du nú o [pronounced madu] Kofi NEG<sub>1</sub>-FUT-eat thing NEG<sub>2</sub> "Kofi will not eat."

Furthermore, in the negative imperative, NEG<sub>1</sub> precedes the imperative particle ga-:

(12) me-ga- du-i o NEG<sub>1</sub>-IMP- eat-3SG NEG<sub>2</sub> "Don't eat it!"

In summary, the following generalizations about NEG<sub>1</sub> and NEG<sub>2</sub> hold for finite clauses which manifest bipartite negation:

- (13) a. NEG<sub>2</sub> appears immediately after the VP.
  - b. NEG<sub>1</sub> precedes the future and negative imperative markers.

While finite clauses include  $NEG_1$  and  $NEG_2$ , gerundive phrases do not in general manifest bipartite negation. As the following examples show, gerundive phrases are formed by verbal reduplication. When the verb is negated, the negation marker plus the verb are reduplicated, yielding the sequence: NEG-V-NEG-V.

- (14) a. ame-ma-bu-ma-bu mé-nyó-o person-NEG-respect-NEG-respect NEG<sub>1</sub>-be.good-NEG<sub>2</sub> "Lack of respect is not good."
  - b. Kofi dzó nu-ma-fo-ma-fo ná Áma Kofi leave mouth-NEG-hit-NEG-hit to Ama "Kofi left without talking to Ama."

In these examples, there is a preverbal NEG ma-, but no post-VP NEG in the gerundive phrase. While we cannot pursue the issue of the distribution of NPIs in gerundive phrases, the following sentence shows when an NPI is present, NEG<sub>2</sub> appears:

(15) Kofi dzó nu-ma-fo-ma-fo ná ame-ádéké o Kofi leave mouth-NEG-hit-NEG-hit to person-any NEG<sub>2</sub> "Kofi left without talking to anybody."

In some conditional constructions, there is a post-VP o, but no preverbal negation:

(16) Me-da nú (o) nye-mé-da nú o Kofi á-dzó 1SG-cook thing ?? 1SG-NEG<sub>1</sub>-cook thing NEG<sub>2</sub> Kofi FUT-leave "Whether I cook or I don't cook, Kofi will leave."

The analysis of NEG<sub>2</sub> given in section 9 below does not cover the first post-VP o in cases like (16).

#### 3. Collins and Postal 2014

CP2014 argue that Universal Grammar defines two fundamental types of NPIs. Type 1 are illustrated in (17), and Type 2 NPIs are illustrated in (18):

- (17) a. I didn't see anything.
  - b. Nobody saw anything.
- (18) a. If you see anything, tell me.
  - b. Did you see anything?
  - c. It surprises me that he saw anything.
  - d. Everybody who saw anything was afraid.
  - e. Only Kofi saw anything.

Roughly, Type 1 NPIs require a negation somewhere in the sentence. In (17a), there is a negation following the finite auxiliary. In (17b), the negation is part of the subject quantifier DP *nobody*. Type 2 NPIs do not require any negation. For example, (18a), the NPI *anything* occurs, but there is no overt negation anywhere in the sentence.

CP2014 argues that Type 1 and Type 2 NPIs have different syntactic structures. In this, CP2014 takes a sharply distinct position from mainstream views of NPIs, where all NPIs including those in (17) and (18) are analyzed as indefinites. Therefore, in mainstream views, there is no difference between the structure of the NPIs in (17) and (18).

In the framework of CP2014, Type 1 NPIs have a structure and meaning identical to the structure and meaning of negative quantifiers, accounting for the truth conditional equivalence of pairs like the following:

- (19) a. I saw nobody.  $\neg \exists x [person(x) \land see(I, x)]$ 
  - b. I didn't see anybody.  $\neg \exists x [person(x) \land see(I, x)]$

In particular, CP2014 analyzes both the *nobody* and *anybody* of (19) as DPs of the form [[NEG SOME] body], where NEG modifies a covert existential quantifier SOME. The differences between (19a,b) lie in the fact that in the (19a), *SOME* is realized as null, while NEG is spelled out as *no*. In (19b), NEG raises to the post-Aux position, and *SOME* is spelled out as *any* (see rule (21)).

In these terms, a more precise structure of (17a) is given in (20b):

(20) a. I didn't see anybody
b. I did NEG<sub>1</sub> see [[<NEG<sub>1</sub>> SOME] body]
Raising of NEG<sub>1</sub>

In (20b), NEG<sub>1</sub> originates in a position modifying SOME (internal to the NPI anybody). NEG<sub>1</sub> then raises to the post-Aux position, but is interpreted in its position of origin, modifying SOME. The angled brackets around the lower occurrence of NEG<sub>1</sub> in (20b) indicate a non-pronounced occurrence. The reader is referred to CP2014 (chapters 3 and 5) for further discussion.

CP2014 claim that *any* in (20a) is a suppletive form of *SOME*, determined by the rule in (21):

- (21) The SOME/any Mapping
  - a. SOME  $\rightarrow$  any, in the context [<NEG>\_\_] (NEG unpronounced)
  - b. SOME  $\rightarrow$  null, in the context [NEG \_\_] (NEG pronounced)
  - c. SOME  $\rightarrow$  some, otherwise

Type 2 NPIs are analyzed in CP2014 as double negation structures. Consider again (18a), repeated below as (22):

(22) If you see anything, tell me.

First, there is no overt NEG preceding the verb in (22), unlike the situation with Type 1 NPIs illustrated in (17a). Second, the interpretation of *anything* in (22) is equivalent to the existential quantifier *something*. CP2014 argue that the NPI *anything* in (22) has the double negation structure in (23). The effect of such a structure is that the semantics of NEG<sub>1</sub> cancels that of NEG<sub>2</sub>, so that the resulting interpretation is JUST *something*.

(23) If you see [[<NEG<sub>1</sub>> [<NEG<sub>2</sub>> SOME]] thing], tell me.

A binary NEG structure such as (23) contains two unpronounced NEGs. According to CP2014, the NEGs in (23) are unpronounced because they are deleted. NEG deletion involves a relation between individual NEGs and other phrases, their *NEG deleters*. The relevant NEG deleters in the case of Type 2 NPIs include the following:

- (24) Some NEG Deleters in Binary NEG Structures
  - a. The conditional complementizer if
  - b. The yes-no question complementizer (the Q morpheme)

- c. verbs such as surprise
- d. the quantifier *every*
- e. the phrase [only DP]

So in (23), the conditional complementizer *if* deletes the NEG<sub>1</sub> of the structure [NEG<sub>1</sub> [NEG<sub>2</sub> SOME]] (while NEG<sub>1</sub> deletes NEG<sub>2</sub>). Because NEG<sub>2</sub> is deleted, *SOME* is realized as *any* by rule (21a). See CP2014 (chapter 4) for further detail.

THE CP2014 refer to Type 1 NPIs as *unary NEG NPIs*, since only one NEG modifies SOME. Type 2 NPIs are referred to as *binary NEG NP*Is, since there are two NEGs present. The distinction between unary NEG and binary NEG NPIs corresponds to the traditional distinction drawn between strong versus weak NPIs, and strict vs. non-strict NPIs (see CP2014: section 9.4 for discussion). The analysis of Type 2 NPIs plays only a very marginal role in this paper.

# 4. Analysis of ke-NPIs

The following examples illustrate a range of EWE expressions that contain adeke (built the morpheme -ke, see (29) below for an analysis breaking down adeke morpheme by morpheme):

- (25) a. Kofi mé-kpó ame-ádéké o Kofi NEG<sub>1</sub>-see person-any NEG<sub>2</sub> "Kofi didn't see anybody."
  - b. Kofi mé-yi afi-ádéké o Kofi  $NEG_1$ -go place-any  $NEG_2$  "Kofi didn't go anywhere."
  - c. Kofi mé-kpó náné-ké o Kofi NE $G_1$ -see something-any NE $G_2$  "Kofi didn't see anything." (náné-ké = nú-ádéké) (náné = something)
  - d. Kofi me-kpó avú ádéké-wó o Kofi NEG<sub>1</sub>-see dog any-PL NEG<sub>2</sub> "Kofi didn't see any dogs."

As the following examples show, when a ke-NPI is present,  $NEG_1$  and  $NEG_2$  are obligatory (just as when no ke-NPI is present, as shown in (3) above):

- (26)a. \*Kofi kpó ame-ádéké Kofi see person-any \*Kofi yi afí-ádéké b. Kofi place-any go \*Kofi kpó nánéké c. Kofi anythin see \*Kofi kpó d. avú ádéké-wó
  - Kofi see dog any-PL

Ewe does not have negative expressions like English *nobody*, *nothing* and *nowhere*, which are used without any additional negative particle (like *n't* or *not*). English sentences with such negative quantifiers are translated with ke-NPIs.

adeke is composed of ade, an indefinite marker (illustrated in (27)) and -ke (see Westerman 1930: 70, and Agbedor 1994: 57):

(27) Kofi kpó avú ádé Kofi see dog INDEF "Kofi saw a certain dog."

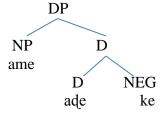
Indefinites can be expressed in Ewe in two different ways. The form *avú ádé* in (27) is a specific indefinite, and can be paraphrased as "a certain dog". But there is also a bare indefinite illustrated in (28). We do not investigate the difference between these two types of indefinite DPs here.

- (28) a. e-kpó avú kpó a 2SG-see dog some.time Q "Have you ever seen a dog?"
  - b.  $\tilde{\epsilon}$ , me-kpó avú kpó yes, 1SG-see dog some.time "Yes, I have seen a dog."

Now consider the internal structure of ke-NPIs. Agbedor (1994: 57) calls -ke a "negative quantifier marker" and assumes that ke-NPIs involve a "negative particle in the negative quantifier". Rongier (1988: 76) calls -ke a "suffixe de négation", and uses the expression "négation du nom" for ke-NPIs. He notes the relationship between ke-NPIs and verbal negation as well: "La négation du nom entraine celle du verbe..." ("Negation of the noun entails that of the verb...").

We assume that -ke is just NEG, and that -ke modifies ade. On these assumptions, the structure of Ewe ke-NPIs is as in (29):

# (29) Structure of: *ame-ádé-ké* "anybody"



This structure could be refined in various ways not directly relevant to the current paper. For example, the structure in (29) violates Kayne's 1994 LCA (Linear Correspondence Axiom), since NP precedes D (instead of following it). Furthermore, in Principles and Parameters/Minimalist syntax, -ade and -ke would head separate projections (see CP2014: 27 for discussion).

Recall from section 3 that CP2014 propose that negative quantifiers such as *nobody* and unary NEG NPIs such as *anybody* both have the underlying structure [[NEG SOME] body]. In Ewe, the parallel structure has an overt manifestation, in that both NEG –*ke* and SOME *ade* are realized overtly. Therefore, the Ewe structure supports the claim that UG admits the possibility of NEG modifying *SOME*.

Now consider the relation between the NEG marker -ke and the preverbal NEG marker mé-. Consider again (1) and (2) above, repeated below:

- (30) a. Kofi didn't see anybody.
  - Kofi me-kpó ame-ádéké o
     Kofi NEG<sub>1</sub>-see person-any NEG<sub>2</sub>
     "Kofi didn't see anybody."

As discussed in section 3, we assume that the post-Aux NEG in (30a) (that is, -n't) originates in a position modifying SOME internal to the NPI, but raises to the post-Aux position. We propose that (30a) and (30b) have parallel structures. Just as (30a) involves NEG raising, so does (30b). But a key difference between Ewe and English is that Ewe NEG raising in cases like (30b) leaves a copy NEG in the origin position.

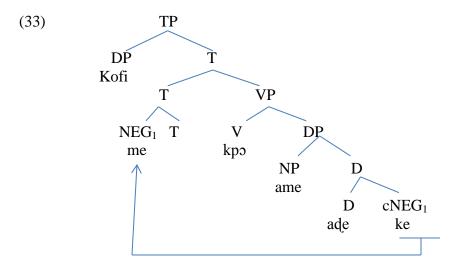
(31) The ke in a ke-NPI is a copy of the original NEG raised from the position ke- occupies.

The DP internal NEG is resumptive element, arguably similar to the highlighted resumptive pronoun in English cases like: "He is the kind of guy who I wonder if *he* will ever get married." In this example, the resumptive pronoun occupies the position that in Principles and Parameters syntax would normally be occupied by a trace of the movement of the relative pronoun *who*.

Crucially, we are assuming that while a copy NEG can have a phonological shape identical to the raised element (see Bell (2004) for a discussion of this situation in Afrikaans), This need not be the case (just as in the resumptive pronoun case, the raised wh-phrase and its associated resumptive pronoun are not identical phonologically). In (30b), the preverbal NEG<sub>1</sub> is  $m\acute{e}$ - and the DP internal copy is -ke. Even though these two elements are different phonologically, -ke is a copy left in the origin position by raising of NEG to the preverbal position.

Given the assumption in (31), the analysis of (30b) is given below. The notation  $cNEG_1$  means that -ke is a copy NEG, associated with the raising of NEG<sub>1</sub>.

Leaving out the post-verbal  $NEG_2$  for the moment, the structure of (32) is given below:



The T element in (33) can be filled by the future marker in some sentences, or left empty (in past and present tense sentences). The structure in (33) could be refined in varfious ways, but it suffices for our purposes.

Given this analysis of ke-NPIs, two parameters arguably distinguish Ewe from English. First, when NEG raises, it leaves a copy in Ewe, but not in standard English. It is important to specify standard English in this generalization, since in varieties of non-standard English NEG raising can leave a copy (see Blanchette 2015). This parameter is given below:

## (34) Parameter A

Standard English: NEG raising does not leave a copy.

Ewe: NEG raising leaves a copy.

The second parameter is that NEG raising is optional in English, but obligatory in Ewe:

#### (35) Parameter B

Standard English: NEG optionally raises from a unary NEG structure.

Ewe: NEG obligatorily raises from a unary NEG structure.

This parameter accounts for the fact that English allows both (19a, b) while Ewe only has the analog of (19b). Example (19a) does not involve NEG raising, while (19b) does.

### 5. Non-Negative Contexts

In this section, we show that Ewe ke-NPIs may not appear in conditionals, in yes-no questions, in the complement of "surprise", in the restriction of universal quantifiers or in the scope of only-DPs. In this way, ke-NPIs differ from any-NPIs in English which appear in all those environments. The generalization is that ke-NPIs only appear if a preverbal-negation is present. We will show that this generalization follows from the-analysis of ke-NPIs presented in section 4.

We will illustrate each context with two NPIs, *naneke* "anything", *avu-adeke-wo* "any dogs". The translations will illustrate that English *any-NPIs* are available in the corresponding contexts.

- (36) a. \*né e-kpó nánéké, gblo-e ná-m if 2SG-see anything, say-3SG to-1SG "If you see anything, tell me."
  - b. \*né e-kpó avú ádéké-wó, gblo-e ná-m if 2SG-see dog any-PL, say-3SG to-1SG "If you see any dogs, tell me."

If the NPI is replaced by an indefinite, the resulting examples are grammatical, as shown below:

- (37) a. né e-kpó nú-ádé, gblo-e ná-m (nu-ade can be fused as nádé) if 2SG-see thing-INDEF, say-3SG to-1SG "If you see something, tell me."
  - né e-kpó avú ádé-wó, gblo-e ná-m
     if 2SG-see dog INDEF-PL, say-3SG to-1SG
     "If you see some dogs, tell me."

The following examples show that ke-NPIs do not occur in yes-no questions:

- (38) a. \*e-kpó nánéké a?

  2SG-see anything Q

  "Did you see anything?"
  - b. \*e-kpó avú ádéké-wó a?

    2SG dog any-PL Q
    "Did you see any dogs?"
- (39) a. e-kpó nú-adé a? (nu-ade can be fused as nade)
  2SG-see thing-INDEF Q
  "Did you see something?"
  - b. e-kpó avú ádé-wó a?

    2SG dog INDEF-PL Q

    "Did you see some dogs?"

The following examples show that ke-NPIs are not licensed in the clausal complement of "surprise":

- (40) a. \*é-wo ŋku ná-m bé é-kpó nánéké 3SG-do surprise to-me that 3SG-see anything "It surprises me that he saw anything."
  - b. \*é-wo ŋku ná-m bé é-kpó avú ádéké-wó 3SG-do surprise to-3SG that 3SG-see dog any-PL "It surprises me that he saw any dogs."

- (41) a. é-wo ŋku ná-m bé é-kpó nú-ádé
  3SG-do surprise to-me that 3SG-see thing-INDEF
  "It surprises me that he saw something."
  - b. é-wə ŋku ná-m bé é-kpó avú ádé-wó 3SG-do surprise to-3SG that 3SG-see dog INDEF-PL "It surprises me that he saw some dogs."

The following examples show that ke-NPIs are not licensed in the restriction of a universal quantifier:

- (42) a. \*ame síà ame si kpó nánéké dó vovő everybody which see anything put fear "Everybody who saw anything was frightened."
  - b. \*ame síà ame si kpó avú ádéké-wó dó vovő everybody which see dog any-PL put fear "Everybody who saw any dogs was frightened."
- (43) a. ame sí ame si kpó nú-ádé dó vovó everybody which see thing-INDEF put fear "Everyone who saw something was frightened."
  - b. ame síà ame si kpó avú ádé-wó dó vovô everybody which see dog INDEF-PL put fear "Everyone who saw some dogs was frightened."

Lastly, only-DPs do not license ke-NPIs in Ewe:

- (44) a. \*Kofi ko-é kp5 nánéké Kofi only-FOC see anything "Only Kofi saw anything."
  - \*Kofi ko-é kpó avú ádéké-wó
     Kofi only-FOC see dog any-PL
     "Only Kofi saw any dogs."
- (45) a. Kofi ko-é kpó nú-ádé Kofi only-FOC see thing-INDEF "Only Kofi saw something."
  - Kofi ko-é kpó avú ádé-wó
     Kofi only-FOC see dog INDEF-PL
     "Only Kofi saw some dogs."

Evidence for the claim that ke-NPIs only appear if a pre-verbal negation is present is provided by the novel *Ku le Xome* (Akafia 1970). A search revealed 27 instances of *naneke* "anything", all of them in contexts containing a pre-verbal negation *mé*-.

These facts about ke-NPIs follow from our analysis of ke-NPIs as negative DPs. For example, consider (36a), repeated below:

(46) \*né ekpó nánéké, gblo-e ná-m if 2SG-see anything, say-3SG to-1SG "If you see anything, tell me."

Under our assumption in (31) that -ke is a copy left by NEG raising, (46) is ungrammatical because the only way–ke can be introduced into the structure is as a copy of a raised NEG. But there is no raised NEG in (46). A similar explanation holds for (36)-(45).

The English translation of (46) with *anything* is grammatical because *anything* does not have to represent a unary NEG NPI. So there is no reason for it to be accompanied by a raised NEG. Rather, in the translation of (46), *anything* is a Type 2 NPI, which in the framework of CP2014 is a binary NEG NPI with the conditional complementizer *if* as the NEG deleter.

There are unary NEG NPIs in English that are not homophonous with binary NEG NPIs. As discussed by CP2014, *jackshit* has both an NPI and a non-NPI usage:

- (47) a. Terry knows jackshitz about transponders. (non-NPI usage)
  - b. Terry doesn't know jackshit<sub>A</sub> about transponders. (NPI usage)

We gloss the occurrence in (47a) as  $jackshit_Z$  because it is equivalent to "zero". See Postal (2004: chapter 6). We gloss the occurrence in (47b) as  $jackshit_A$  because it is equivalent semantically to anything.

The *jackshit* A usage cannot appear in non-negative contexts:

(48) \*If he knows jackshit<sub>A</sub> about physics, he will be admitted. "If he knows anything about physics, he will be admitted."

Example (48) is ruled out on the relevant interpretation, illustrating that  $jackshit_A$  cannot occur in non-negative contexts.

A striking generalization about the environments where Ewe ke-NPIs occur is that they correspond to those environments where  $jackshit_A$  appears in English. This parallel distribution strongly suggests that ke-NPIs and  $jackshit_A$  should be analyzed in the same way. In the framework of CP2014, both are analyzed as unary NEG NPIs.

Another generalization apparent from the data in (36)-(45) is that Ewe lacks Type 2 NPIs in these contexts. For example, consider (37a), repeated below:

(49) né e-kpó nú-ádé, gblo-e ná-m (nu-ade can be fused as nádé) if 2SG-see thing-INDEF, say-3SG to-1SG "If you see something, tell me."

There is no Type 2 NPI in Ewe corresponding to *something* that appears in a conditional clause. Rather, Ewe simply uses the indefinite. Similarly, there is no Type 2 NPI used in yes-no questions, in the complement of "surprise", in the restriction of a universal quantifier or in the scope of an only-DP.

The simplest way to state this difference between Ewe and English is the following:

(50) Parameter C

Standard English: Allows Type 2 (binary NEG) NPIs. Ewe: Disallows Type 2 (binary NEG) NPIs.

We return to possible grounds for revising this generalization in section 12.

## **6.** The Remnant Raising Condition

One difference between English any-NPIs and Ewe ke-NPIs is that ke-NPIs can appear in subject position (see Agbedor 1994: 56):

- (51) a. \*Anybody didn't come to my house.
  - b. Ame-ádéké mé-vá nyě-afé-me o person-any NEG<sub>1</sub>-come 1SG-house-inside NEG<sub>2</sub> "Nobody came to my house."

In the CP2014 framework, (51a) would have the following structure:

(52)  $[DP [<NEG_1>SOME] body]_2$  did  $NEG_1 [VP come <DP_2> to my house]$ 

In case like (52), NEG<sub>1</sub> raises to the post-Aux position, while the remnant DP<sub>2</sub> raises to subject position. We suggest that these cases are ungrammatical because such remnant raising is barred universally:

(53) The Remnant Raising Condition

If  $M = [DP [D < NEG_x > SOME] NP]$ , then no occurrence of M c-commands an occurrence of  $NEG_x$ .

In (52), the higher occurrence of  $DP_2$  c-commands  $NEG_1$ , violating condition (53). This constraint could be thought of as a version of the well-known c-command constraint on NPIs, stated in terms of the framework of CP2014. As will be seen in section 9, the constraint in (53) also plays a role in accounting for a difference in licit fragment answers between Ewe and English.

The structure of the Ewe sentence in (51b) is given below:

Structure (54) does not violate (53) since instead of <NEG<sub>1</sub>> there is a copy, cNEG<sub>1</sub>, in DP<sub>2</sub>. In effect, the copy NEG allows the structure to avoid a violation of (53), just as resumptive pronouns in English allow a structure to avoid a violation of island constraints.

# 7. Determiner Sharing

As in English, multiple NPIs can appear in a single Ewe clause:

- (55) ame-ádéké me-kpó nánéké o person-any NEG<sub>1</sub>-see anything NEG<sub>2</sub> "Nobody saw anything."
- (56) a. sukúví ádéké mé-no aha sésế ádéké o student any NEG<sub>1</sub>-drink drink strong any NEG<sub>2</sub> "No student drank any whiskey."
  - b. sukúví ádéké mé-no aha sésế ádéké le ahadzráfé ádéké o student any NEG<sub>1</sub>-drink drink strong any at bar any NEG<sub>2</sub> "No student drank any whiskey in any bar."

If -ke is analyzed as NEG, then how is it that multiple ke-NPIs yield only a single semantic negation? In particular, while (56a) above has two ke-NPIs, and (56b) has three, both are interpreted as having one semantic negation. CP2014 (chapter 6) propose that in such cases there is determiner sharing. So in (56a) there is a single underlying determiner [NEG SOME] which is shared by two DPs. Determiner sharing is indicated in (58) below by co-indexation of the two quantifiers and the two NEGs. The single determiner is realized by two copies of *adeke*.

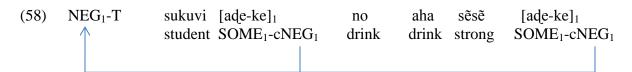
Since there is only one underlying syntactic determiner [NEG SOME], it follows that there is only one semantic negation. CP2014 propose that such determiner sharing is interpreted in terms of polyadic quantification, where a single quantifier quantifies over n-ary sequences. In the simplest case, where only two DPs share a D, the result is exemplified by: there is no  $\langle x,y \rangle x$  a student and y a quantity of whiskey such that x drank y.

Although this article focuses on Ewe and English, it is worth mentioning that determiner sharing is the mechanism that CP2014 uses to analyze other cases of negative concord (see Blanchette, 2015 on the application of the CP2014 framework to the analysis of negative concord in non-standard English dialects).

Given this background, (55) and (56) raise the question of how NEG<sub>1</sub> can be related to the -ke of each ke-NPI. Recall that in (31) we assumed that -ke is always a copy of a NEG that has raised, repeated below:

(57) The ke in a ke-NPI is a copy of the original NEG raised from the position ke- occupies.

We propose that in such cases of multiple ke-NPIs the NEG<sub>1</sub> raises to T from the shared determiner [SOME NEG]. Since the shared determiner has two occurrences (two places in the tree), the resulting structure can be represented as follows (ignoring the VP final NEG<sub>2</sub> for the moment):



Structure (58) represents the underlying structure of (56a) before the subject raises to Spec TP (subject position). In (58), NEG<sub>1</sub> undergoes copy raising from the underlying shared D which has two occurrences.

Such raising recalls the phenomenon of Across-the-Board extraction: "Which plan did Bob buy and Luke sell?" In both ATB wh-movement and NEG raising in Ewe, a single syntactic object has two underlying occurrences (positions) and undergoes raising.

## 8. Long Distance Licensing

Ewe ke-NPIs need not occur with a *clausemate* preverbal negation. Example (59b) is a response to the assertion in (59a). Example (59c) with clausemate negation is given for comparison. The sentences in (60) provide an additional example.

- (59) a. e-gblə bé Kofi du núsîànú le dzodófé 2SG-say that Kofi eat everything at kitchen You said that Kofi ate everything in the kitchen.
  - b. nye-mé gblo bé Kofi du nánéké le dzodófé o 1SG-NEG<sub>1</sub> say that Kofi eat anything at kitchen NEG<sub>2</sub> "I didn't say Kofi ate anything in the kitchen."
  - c. me gblə bé Kofi mé-du nánéké le dzodó fé o 1SG say that Kofi NEG<sub>1</sub>-eat anything at kitchen NEG<sub>2</sub> "I said that Kofi did not eat anything in the kitchen."
- (60) a. Dě e-gblo bé Kofi fo noví-a nútsu a?

  Did you-say that Kofi hit sibling-his male

  "Did you say that Kofi hit his brother?"
  - b. Ao, nye-mé-gblo bé Kofi fo ame-ádéké o No, 1SG-NEG<sub>1</sub>-say that Kofi hit person-any NEG<sub>2</sub> "I didn't say that Kofi hit anybody."
  - c. me-gblə bé Kofi mé-fo ame-ádéké o 1SG-say that Kofi NEG<sub>1</sub>-hit person-any NEG<sub>2</sub> "I said that Kofi didn't hit anybody."

Since we are analyzing ke-NPIs as Type 1 NPIs, which are the unary NEG NPIs, one might expect the relation between negation and ke-NPIs to be clause bound (see CP2014: chapter on the clause boundedness of unary NEG NPIs). However, (59) shows that the ke-NPI may be separated from its preverbal NEG by a clause boundary.

We propose that such sentences involve high scope of the ke-NPI. On this analysis, the structure of (59b) would be as in (61a), and its interpretation would be as in (61b) (ignoring  $NEG_2$  and the adjunct for simplicity):

- (61) a. nye-me  $<[nu-ade-ke]_2>$  gblo be Kofi du  $DP_2$   $1SG-NEG_1$  thing-SOME-cNEG $_1$  say that Kofi eat anything
  - b. There is nothing that I said that Kofi ate.

We assume that quantificational DPs have at least two occurrences: a covert scope occurrence and a lower overt occurrence (c-commanded by the covert scope occurrence). See the discussion in CP2014 (chapter 2). In (61a), the higher occurrence of DP<sub>2</sub> in scope position is not

pronounced, as indicated by the angled brackets. Since  $NEG_1$  raises to the matrix T from the scope position of  $DP_2$ , there is no clause boundary separating the ke-NPI from the raised  $NEG_1$ . The interpretation of (61a), given in (61b) is natural in the situation specified.

Cross-linguistically, unary NEG NPIs are commonly clause-bound. For example, Serbo-Croation ni-NPIs (which are in some ways similar to Ewe ke-NPIs), must in general have a clausemate negation (Progovac 1994: 41). The difference between Ewe and Serbo-Croation, on our view, is that Serbo-Croation does not allow its unary NEG NPIs to take matrix scope as in (61).

Our analysis of (59) tracks closely the analysis that CP2014 (chapter 9) gave of cases where strict NPIs seem to be separated from their associated NEG by a clause boundary, illustrated in (62):

(62) Andrew didn't claim that Carl said jackshit<sub>A</sub> about compilers.

Example (62) shows that although  $jackshit_A$  is a strict NPI, if it is stressed, it can appear with a non-clausemate negation. CP2014 propose that the DP  $jackshit_A$  in (62) has matrix scope and that NEG raising takes place from the scope occurrence of  $jackshit_A$  in the matrix clause. That analysis is entirely parallel to the one just given for the Ewe data in (59).

# 9. Bipartite Negation: Analysis

The goal of this section is to explain the syntactic relationship between NEG<sub>1</sub> and NEG<sub>2</sub> in cases like (63).

(63) Kofi mé-kpó ame-ádéké o Kofi NEG<sub>1</sub>-see person-any NEG<sub>2</sub> "Kofi didn't see anybody."

First, we argue that in any clause containing both negation markers, the post-VP o is structurally higher than the preverbal me. The argument is based on ellipsis involving Ewe NPIs. In the following examples, (64b) is an elliptical answer to the question in (64a), while (64c) is the non-elliptical form.

- (64) a. ame-ka-é ne-kpô person-which-FOC 2SG-see "Who did you see?"
  - b. ame ádéké \*(o) person any NEG<sub>2</sub> "Nobody"
  - c. nye-mé-kpó ame ádéké o 1SG-NEG<sub>1</sub>-see person any NEG<sub>2</sub> "I didn't see anybody."

In the following examples, the response phrase is an object:

- (65) a. nú-ka-é ne-wɔ thing-which-FOC 2SG-do "What did you do?"
  - b. nánéké \*(o) anything NEG<sub>2</sub> "Nothing."
  - c. nye-mé-wo nánéké o 1SG-NEG<sub>1</sub>-do anything NEG<sub>2</sub> "I didn't do anything."

In the following examples, the response phrase is a subject:

- (66) a. ame-ka-é tsó nyě ga person-which-FOC take 1SG money "Who took my money?"
  - b. ame ádéké \*(o) person any NEG<sub>2</sub> "Nobody."
  - c. ame ádéké mé- ts $\acute{0}$  wǒ ga o person any NEG $_1$ -take 2SG money NEG $_2$  "Nobody took your money."

In the following examples, the response phrase is a locative:

- (67) a. afı́-ka-é ne-yi place-which-FOC 2SG-go "Where did you go?"
  - b. afí-ádéké \*(o) place-any NEG<sub>2</sub> "Nowhere."
  - c. nye-mé-yi afî-ádéké o 1SG-NEG1<sub>1</sub>-go place-any NEG<sub>2</sub> "I didn't go anywhere."

In all the elliptical examples above, the presence of  $NEG_2$  o is obligatory. We propose a deletion analysis of these facts. In particular, we follow the treatment of sluicing proposed in Ross (1969) and defended in Merchant (2001). Consider the following English sluicing example:

(68) John saw something. I don't know what.

According to Ross (1969) and Merchant (2001), the second clause of (68) has the following analysis:

## (69) I don't know what<sub>1</sub> <[TP John saw $t_1$ ]>

In this sentence, *what* raises to the left periphery (Spec CP) and the TP is deleted (as indicated by the angled brackets). In the analysis of Merchant (2001), the deletion of the TP happens under semantic identity with the TP in the first clause in (68). See Merchant (2001) for the exact definition of semantic identity.

Transposing Ross' and Merchant's analysis to the relevant Ewe facts yields the following structure for (64b):

(70) [ame ádéké]<sub>1</sub> 
$$<$$
[TP nye-mé- kp5  $<$ DP<sub>1</sub> $>$ ] $>$  o person any 1SG-NEG1-see NEG<sub>2</sub>

In (70), the DP [ame adeke] $_1$  raises to the left periphery and the TP remnant is deleted. Crucially, NEG $_1$  is deleted, but NEG $_2$  is not. This supports the claim that NEG $_2$  is higher than NEG $_1$ . If, on the contrary, NEG $_1$  were higher than NEG $_2$ , it would be possible for NEG $_2$  to be deleted, leaving NEG $_1$ . See Aboh (2010: 131) for a different argument reaching a similar conclusion about the relative height of NEG $_1$  and NEG $_2$ .

An analysis of fragment answers parallel to that in (70) can also explain why an NPI cannot serve as an answer to an English wh-question:

- (71) a. Who did you see?
  - b. \*Anybody.

On the analysis of CP2014, the structure of (71b) would be the following:

(72) 
$$[[\langle NEG_1 \rangle SOME] body]_2 \langle [TP I NEG_1 saw DP_2] \rangle$$

In this structure, NEG<sub>1</sub> raises to the post-Aux position, then remnant [[<NEG<sub>1</sub>> SOME] body]<sub>1</sub> raises to the left periphery. Finally, TP is deleted. This structure violates the Remnant Raising Constraint in (53), since [[<NEG<sub>1</sub>> SOME] body]<sub>2</sub> c-commands NEG<sub>1</sub>.

Giannakidou (2006: 328) and Watanabe (2004: 562) take fragment answers to distinguish n-words (or negative concord items) from negative polarity items. N-words but not negative polarity items can be used as fragment answers. Consider what such a diagnostic says about Ewe, where ke-NPIs must be accompanied by NEG<sub>2</sub>. In this respect, ke-NPIs are unlike n-words in other languages (such as Italian), where no such negative particle is needed in addition to the n-word itself in fragment answers.

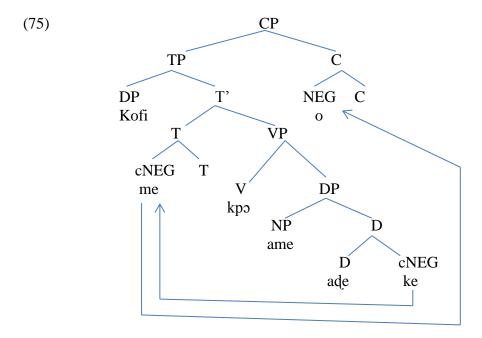
However, Ewe ke-NPIs pattern like n-words with respect to other criteria. For example, they can appear in subject position (unlike English NPIs) (see Watanabe 2004: 562). In CP2014, the distinction between NPIs and n-words can be captured as follows. Unary NEG NPIs are unary NEG structures where the NEG raises and leaves a gap. N-words are unary NEG structures where in some case the NEG raises, and when it raises it leaves a copy (instead of a gap). All differences between NPIs and n-words should follow from this distinction. We are not able to pursue the issue here.

So here are the assumptions that we are making so far about bi-partite negation in sentences like (63):

- (73) a. Even though there are three occurrence of NEG (preverbal  $m\acute{e}$ , NPI -ke and post-VP o), there is only one semantic negation.
  - b. -ke is a copy left by raising of NEG<sub>1</sub> to adjoin to T.
  - c.  $NEG_2$  is higher in the structure than  $NEG_1$ .

We propose that  $NEG_1$  is also a copy, left by movement of  $NEG_2$  to a right peripheral position in the clause. In particular, we will assume that there is a rightward complementizer position COMP and that  $NEG_2$  raises and adjoins to this position. The analysis of (63) is sketched below:

On this analysis, there is only one underlying NEG, which originates in a position where it modifies SOME. NEG RAISES to T and leaves a copy in D. Further, NEG raises again to COMP, leaving a copy in T. So NEG raises twice, leaving two copies. But the NEG is only interpreted in its underlying (SOME modification) position. This explains why there are three surface occurrences of NEG, but only one semantic negation. A tree structure illustrating this analysis is given below:



What remains to explain is the presence of bipartite negation in sentences that do not involve ke-NPIs, such as the examples in (3). Getting to that requires a detour to develop some tools.

## 10. Event Syntax

Consider the following simple English sentence involving no NPIs:

### (76) Susan sang

This sentence can be represented in predicate logic in terms of quantification over an event (we leave out reference to time). See Davidson (1967) and Maienborn (2011) for more recent discussion:

### (77) $\exists e.sing(e, Susan)$

"There is an event e such that e is a singing event and Susan is the singer in that event."

We adopt a syntactic version of this hypothesis, containing a covert quantifier over events binding an event variable:

## (78) $[<[SOME EVENT]_1>[Susan sang DP_1]]$

On this view, a silent quantificational occurrence of  $DP_1$  binds an occurrence of  $DP_1$  which is interpreted as a variable. The noun EVENT as well as the quantifier SOME are silent. We do not take any stand on the exact location of the event variable  $DP_1$ . We only assume that the scope position of the quantificational  $DP_1$  must c-command its variable occurrence.

On the Davidsonian view, the negative sentence (79a) would have the semantic representation in (79b).

# (79) a. Susan did not sing.

b.  $\neg \exists e.sing(e, Susan)$ 

In other words, (79) represents negation of an existential quantification. In the framework of CP2014, negated existential quantifiers have representations like that of (80):

$$(80)$$
 no boy = [[NEG SOME] boy]

Here NEG is realized as *no* and SOME is covert. So (79a) would be represented with a negated existential quantifier over events, as follows:

## (81) $[\langle DP | \langle NEG_1 \rangle SOME | EVENT]_1 \rangle [Susan NEG_1 sing DP_1]]$

An issue that (81) raises is that NEG has raised to Aux from the clause initial [ $_{DP}$  [<NEG> SOME] EVENT] violating (53), the Remnant Raising Condition. Given this consideration, a better representation of (80a) would be (82):

# (82) $[_{S}$ Susan did NEG<sub>1</sub> $[_{VP} < [_{DP} [< NEG_1 > SOME] EVENT]_1 > [_{VP}$ sing DP<sub>1</sub> ]

Here [DP [<NEG1> SOME] EVENT] is in a low scope position (perhaps adjoined to VP), and NEG1 raises to Aux, which c-commands the low scope position; see CP2014 on this use of low scope positions, and the relation between NEG raising and scope. In other words, the event quantifier DP has scope lower than the overt occurrence of NEG in the post-Aux position.

## 11. Bipartite Negation and Event Syntax

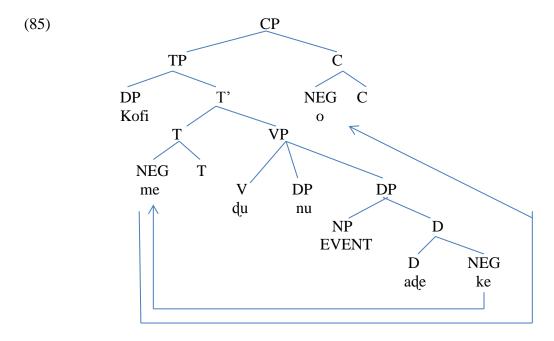
Now we can analyze Ewe sentences which manifest bipartite negation but which do not contain any ke-NPIs, such as sentence (3), repeated below:

(83) Kofi mé- du nú o Kofi NEG<sub>1</sub>-eat thing NEG<sub>2</sub> "Kofi didn't eat."

If in (83) NEG<sub>1</sub> occurs in the preverbal position as the result of NEG raising, what is the source of NEG<sub>1</sub>? Analogizing from the account of English in section 10, we propose that (83) contains a silent event quantifier, and that the NEG raises from this quantifier to T, as shown below (ignoring the post-VP NEG for the moment):

But the diagram is misleading in one important way. In a completely filled out analysis, NEG would raise from the scope position of the event quantifier, not the in-situ position (see CP2014: chapter 5 for discussion). We leave out the representation of scope positions here for the sake of readability.

A tree diagram for this analysis is given below:



In this diagram, NEG raises to C. See Aboh (2010) on C positions in the Gbe languages.

#### 12. Non-ke-NPIs in Ewe

So far we have focused on Ewe ke-NPIs. In this section, we investigate three other NPIs: *hade* "yet", *kura* "at all", and *gbede* "ever". None of these NPIs involve the morpheme *-ke*.

Example (86a) shows that *hadé* "yet" can appear with negation, while (86b) illustrates that it cannot appear in a positive declarative clause:

(86) a. nye-mé-kpó-e hadé o
NEG<sub>1</sub>-1SG-see-3SG yet NEG<sub>2</sub>
"I haven't seen him yet."
b. \*me-kpó-e hadé
1SG-see-3SG yet

However, unlike ke-NPIs, *hadé* "yet" does occur in the non-negative context of yes-no questions:

(87)e-kpś Kofi hadé a. 2SG-see-3SG Kofi Q yet "Have you seen Kofi yet?" nú hadé b. e-du a? 2SG-eat thing yet Q "Did you set yet?"

But even though *hade* "yet" appears in yes-no questions, it does not appear in conditionals, with the verb "surprise", in the restriction of a universal quantifier or with only-DPs, as show below. Note that English "yet" is also unacceptable the corresponding contexts.

- (88) a. né Kofi dzó (\*hade) lá, gblɔ-e ná-m if Kofi leave (\*yet) REL, tell-3SG to-me "If Kofi has left, tell me."
  - b. é-wo ŋku ná-m bé Kofi dzó (\*hadé) 3SG-do surprise to-me that Kofi leave (\*yet) "It surprises me that Kofi has left."
  - c. ame síà ame si dzó (xó, \*hadé) lá le afíma everybody which leave (already, \*yet) REL COP there "Everybody who has left is there."
  - d. Kofi ko-é dzó (\*hadé) Kofi only-FOC leave "Only Kofi has left."

Like ke-NPIs, *hade* "yet" can appear as the elliptical answer to yes-no question:

- (89) a. e-du nú a' 2SG-eat thing Q "Did you eat?"
  - b. hadé \*(o)yet  $NEG_2$ "Not yet."
  - c. nye-mé-du nú hadé o 1SG-NEG<sub>1</sub>-eat thing yet NEG<sub>2</sub> "I didn't eat yet."

Consider now the NPI *kura* "at all". (90a) shows that *kura* can appear with negation, while (90b) indicates that it cannot appear in a positive declarative clause following the object. But example (90c) shows that *kura* can be used following the subject, where it translates as "even". We have not investigated this usage.

- - b. \*me lõ Kofi kúrá 1SG like Kofi at.all
  - c. Áma kúrá lõ Kofi
    Ama even likes Kofi
    "Even Ama likes Kofi."
    ("It is quite difficult for Ama to like people.")

Given further linguistic context, *kura* can follow the direct object. We have not investigated this usage either:

(91) 15 Kofi kúrá hafi me wo-le nye dzu-m 1SG like Kofi at.all/even before 3SG-COP 1SG insult-PROG Lit.: "I even like Kofi before he is insulting me." "I like Kofi even though he is insulting me." Context: I saw Kofi and I wanted to greet him, and he started insulting me.

Just as with English at all, kura often appears following other NPIs:

(92) ...ye-mé-kpó nánéké kúrá le fóto-á me o ...3SG-NEG1-see anything at.all LOC foto-DEF in NEG2 "...he didn't see anything at all in the photograph." (Akafia 1970: 17)

Like *hade* "yet", it can appear in the non-negative context of a yes-no question:

- (93) a. Áma lõ Kofi kúrá -a
  Ama love Kofi at.all -Q
  "Does Ama like Kofi at all?"
  (context: Ama has been doing something doing bad to Kofi.)
  - b. Áma se nú-ma gome kúrá -a?

    Ama hear thing-that under at.all -Q

    "Does she understand that at all?"

Furthermore *kúrá* "at all" cannot occur in other NPI environments, such as in conditional clauses, the complement of "surprise", the restriction of "every" and in the scope of only-DPs:

- (94) a. né e-lō-na Áma (\*kúrá) lá, fo nu nê if 2SG-like-HAB Ama (\*at all) REL, hit mouth to.3SG "If you like Ama at all, talk to her."
  - b. é-wo ŋku ná-m bé Áma lõ Kofi (\*kúrá) 3SG-do surprise to-1SG that Ama like Kofi (\*at all) "It surprise me that Ama likes Kofi."
  - c. ame síà ame si 15 Kofi (\*kúrá) lá le afísia Everybody who likes Kofi (\*at all) REL COP here "Everybody who likes Kofi is here."
  - d. Áma ko-é lỗ Kofi (\*kúrá) Ama only-FOC likes Kofi (\*at all) "Only Ama likes Kofi."

Like the ke-NPIs, *kúrá* can be used in an elliptical answer to a question:

- (95) a. e-lõ Kofi a? 2SG-like Kofi Q "Do you like Kofi?"
  - b. kúrá o at.all NEG<sub>2</sub> "Not at all."
  - c. nye-mé lã Kofi kúrá o 1SG- NEG<sub>1</sub> like Kofi at.all NEG<sub>2</sub> "I don't like Kofi at all."

Lastly, example (96a) shows that the NPI *gbede* "ever" can appear with negation, while (96b) illustrates an often used reduplicated form *gbede gbede*. (96c) shows that this NPI cannot appear in a positive declarative clause. Examples (97a,b) provide additional illustration:

(96) a. nye-mé-á yi China (kpó) gbedé o 1SG- NEG<sub>1</sub>-FUT go China one.time ever NEG<sub>2</sub> "I will never go to China."

- b. nye-mé-á yi China gbedé gbedé o 1SG-NEG<sub>1</sub>-FUT go China ever ever NEG<sub>2</sub> "I will never go to China."
- c. \*me-á yi China (kpó) gbedé 1SG-FUT go China one.time ever
- (97) a. Kofi mé-wɔ-a é-fé aféme-dó gbedé o
  Kofi NEG<sub>1</sub>-do-HAB 3SG-POSS home-work ever NEG<sub>2</sub>
  "Kofi never does his homework."
  - b. \*Kofi wɔ-a e-fe aféme-dɔ́ gbedé Kofi 3SG-do-HAB 3SG-POSS home-work ever

Just like the previous two NPIs,  $gbed\acute{e}$  "ever" occurs in yes-no questions. For some reason, it only occurs in this context in the presence of  $kp\acute{\sigma}$  "one time", which is itself not an NPI. See Rongier (1989: 212):

- (98) a. a yi China gbe deká -a 2SG. FUT go China day one -Q "Will you ever go to China?"
  - b. \*a yi China gbedé -a 2SG.FUT go China ever?
  - c. a yi China kpó gbedé -a 2SG.FUT go China one.time ever -Q "Will you ever go to China?"

Like the other NPIs discussed in this section *gbede* "ever" does not appear in other NPI contexts, such as conditionals, the complement of "surprise", the restriction of "every" or the scope of only-DPs:

- (99) a. né e-yi China (\*gbedé, \*kpó gbedé) lá, a-srố China-gbe if 2SG-go China ever one.time ever REL, 2SG.FUT-learn China-language "If you go to China, you will learn Chinese."
  - b. é-wo ŋku ná-m bé a-yi China (\*gbedé, \*kpó gbedé)
    3SG-do surprise to-me that 2SG.FUT-go China ever, one.time ever
    "It surprises me that you will go to China."
  - c. ame síà ame si yi China (\*gbede, \*kpó gbede) la, a-srɔ́ China-gbe everybody which go China ever, one.time ever REL, 2SG.FUT-learn China-lang. "Everybody who goes to China will learn Chinese.
  - d. Kofí ko-é a-yi China (\*gbedé, \*kpó gbedé) Kofi only-FOC FUT-go China ever, one.time ever Only Kofi will go to China

But like ke-NPIs,  $gbed\acute{e}$  "ever" can be used as an elliptical answer to a question. However,  $gbed\acute{e}$  "ever" is different from all other Ewe NPIs in that NEG<sub>2</sub> is optional in the elliptical answer.

- (100) a. e-dí bé ye-á-yi China a?

  2SG-want that LOG-FUT-go China Q

  "Do you want to go to China?
  - $\begin{array}{ccc} b. & gbed\acute{e} & (o) \\ & ever & NEG_2 \\ & "Never." \end{array}$
  - c. nye-mé-a-yi China gbedé o 1SG-NEG-FUT-go China ever NEG<sub>2</sub>

Ameka (1991:691) proposes that  $gbed\acute{e}$  can be used either adverbially or as a "completive signal", which is used to express disagreement or rejection of a proposition. Without going into syntactic detail, we propose that when NEG<sub>2</sub> is present in (101b),  $gbed\acute{e}$  is being used adverbially, and when NEG<sub>2</sub> is absent, it is being used as a completive signal.

The data in (86)-(100) support the following generalization:

(101) An NPI A in Ewe may appear in a yes-no question unaccompanied by a pre-verbal NEG iff A is not a ke-NPI.

The data concerning Ewe non-ke-NPIs is difficult to account for because they are distinct in distribution both from ke-NPIs and from English Type 2 any-NPIs. ke-NPIs require that sentences containing them have a pre-verbal negation, but non-ke-NPIs do not have such a stringent requirement. However, non-ke-NPIs are quite a bit more restricted than Type 2 any-NPIs in English.

If Ewe non-ke-NPIs were unary NEG NPIs, then that would explain why they do not appear in conditionals, with "surprise", with "every" and with only-DPs. However, it would leave unexplained the fact that they can appear in yes-no questions (where no overt NEG is present).

If non-ke-NPIs were Type 2 NPIs (binary NEG NPIs in the framework of CP2014), that would explain why they occur in yes-no questions (with no overt NEG present), but would leave unexplained the fact that they do not occur in conditionals, with "surprise", with "every" and with only-DPs.

If Ewe non-ke-NPIs were Type 2, the generalization in (104) below (see also (50)) would have to be modified. Ewe *would* allow a small number of Type 2 NPIs, which are adverbs and which contain no determiner (parallel to *adeke*). Therefore, Ewe would not have a series of *nominal* Type 2 NPIs, that is, NPIs corresponding to English *anything*, *anybody*, *anywhere*, etc.).

We must leave it open for the present whether Ewe non-ke-NPIs are property analyzed as Type 1 NPIs (unary NEG NPIs) or Type 2 NPIs (binary NEG NPIs).

#### 13. Conclusion

We have shown that Ewe ke-NPIs correspond to Type 1 NPIs (unary NEG NPIs). We left it open as to whether Ewe non-ke-NPIs are Type 1 (unary NEG) or Type 2 NPIs (binary NEG). We have argued that the differences between Ewe and English can be characterized in terms of the following three parameters:

(102) Parameter A

Standard English: NEG raising does not leave a copy.

Ewe: NEG raising leaves a copy.

(103) Parameter B

Standard English: NEG optionally raises from a unary NEG structure. Ewe: NEG obligatorily raises from a unary NEG structure.

(104) Parameter C

Standard English: Allows Type 2 (binary NEG) NPIs. Ewe: Disallows Type 2 (binary NEG) NPIs.

Other languages arguably fall into the classification made available by these parameters. For example, one can analyze Serbo-Croatian as a language where NEG raising is obligatory and always leaves a copy. However, Serbo-Croatian has clear nominal Type 2 NPIs (binary NEG NPIs). See Progovac 1994 for an overview.

The analysis of Ewe provides strong support for the basic assumptions of CP2014. There it is proposed that English NPIs fall into two classes: unary NEG NPIs and binary NEG NPIs. We suggest that in Ewe, binary NEG NPIs do not exist (except for possibly three adverbial NPIs discussed in section 12). This means that the whole domain of nominal Ewe NPIs is composed of unary NEG NPIs. That fact provides indirect support for the theoretical distinction previously based principally in English. That is, we take UG to allow for two types of NPIs. English instantiates both types. In some cases, (e.g., any-NPIs, ever-NPIs), they are ambiguous between unary NEG and binary NEG structures. Ewe only allows unary NEG NPIs, manifested as the ke-NPIs. These share basic properties with English unary NEG NPIs, specifically restriction to negative contexts.

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