

English Negative Constructions and Communicative Functions in Early Child Language

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## Abstract

How does abstract linguistic negation develop in early child language? Previous research has suggested that abstract negation develops in stages and from more concrete communicative functions such as rejection, prohibition, or non-existence. The evidence for the emergence of these functions in stages is mixed, however, leaving the possibility that negation is an abstract concept from the beginning that can serve multiple specific functions depending on early communicative environment. Leveraging automatic annotations of large-scale child speech corpora in English, we examine the production trajectories of seven negative constructions that tend to convey communicative functions previously discussed in the literature. The results demonstrate the emergence and gradual increase of these constructions in child speech within the age range of 18-36 months. Production mostly remains stable, regular, and close to parents' levels after this age range. These findings are consistent with two hypotheses: first, that negation starts as an abstract concept that can serve multiple functions from the beginning; and second, that negation develops in stages from specific communicative functions but this development is early and quick, leaving our corpus methods incapable of detecting them from the available corpus data.

*Keywords:* negation; syntactic construction; communicative function; development; child language.

Word count: X

## English Negative Constructions and Communicative Functions in Early Child Language

**Introduction**

Negation is an abstract concept that serves different communicative functions in everyday communication. A coffee shop can divide its menu into “coffee” and “not coffee” sections, with “not coffee” bringing together diverse items with no common label like tea and hot chocolate. It could be used in a sign like “no mask, no entry” to regulate people’s behaviors. An employee could say “I don’t like Mondays” to communicate their desires or dislikes. But how does abstract multi-functional negation emerge and develop in the human mind? Are early stages of negation in child language specific to one or a few functions? Or does negation emerge as an abstract and multifunctional concept from the beginning?

Previous literature has proposed that abstract negation develops from less abstract communicative functions in ordered stages (Pea, 1978). For instance, Darwin (1872) hypothesized that the earliest manifestation of negation in infants is when they refuse or reject food from parents by withdrawing their heads laterally. Similarly, Pea (1978) also proposed “rejection” as the first function of negation in child language. By contrast, Bloom (1970) argued that the use of negation to express “non-existence” emerges before “rejection.” For example, when an object that children expect to be present is not, children may say: “there is no window.” Follow-up study by Choi (1988) argued that “prohibition” emerges as early as rejections and non-existence. In cases of prohibition, children use negation to stop others or themselves from performing actions (e.g. “don’t go”). A function similar to prohibition is “inability” (e.g. “I cannot zip it”), in that both involve conceptualizing actions and negating them. Choi (1988) suggested that expressions of inability emerge after the functions in the first phase, namely non-existence, rejection, and prohibition.

Despite considerable research on early communicative functions of negation, their developmental trajectories in children’s production have remained unclear. Recently,

Nordmeyer and Frank (2018) looked at the speech of five children in the Providence corpus (Demuth, Culbertson, & Alter, 2006) and found a great deal of individual variation in how early a negative function is attested. They reported that the developmental trajectory of negation in their study was not as consistent as previously claimed. This leaves the possibility that negation develops as an abstract concept that can serve multiple communicative functions early in the development based on the context of use in parent-child interactions. Therefore, across (a larger number of) children, distinct functions of negation could develop within the same age range and share common production trajectories.

However, previous experiments have mainly relied on manual annotations of corpus data to determine the communicative function of a given negative utterance, which in turn has limited their work to only a handful of children per study. Here we aim to go beyond existing work via utilizing a large collection of child speech corpora in English (MacWhinney, 2000) along with computational tools to automatically identify negative utterances that tend to convey the communicative functions discussed in prior research (Table 1). In particular, our study investigates three questions: (1) how does the developmental trajectory of the negative constructions for each function look like? (2) for utterances expressing the same function, does the developmental trajectory differ depending on particular lexical items that negation modifies (e.g. *like* or *want* for rejection)? (3) taking all functions into account, do they share similar developmental characteristics, or would there be function-specific differences?

Given the automatic fashion of our approach, we focus on larger/longer negative constructions at the single-sentence level. This is in opposition to short negative forms at the discourse-level such as cases consisting of one morpheme (e.g. “no!”) or repetition of negative morphemes (e.g. “no no no”), which arguably could express multiple functions when not taking the discourse context into account and accordingly leave more room for ambiguous interpretation. Therefore the negative utterances in our study do not fully cover all negation

instances from the corpora investigated, nor reflect all possible communicative functions that could be played by negation more broadly, but it could provide at least a conservative estimate of the age range during which negation is developed gradually in child production.

### Related Work

Starting a century and a half ago, Darwin (1872) thought that negation has roots in the expression of human emotions and desires. He hypothesized the earliest manifestation of negation and affirmation in infants is when they refuse food from parents, by withdrawing their heads laterally, or when they accept the food, by inclining their heads forward. He suggested that head shaking and nodding as common gestures for negation and affirmation pro developed from this early habit. Similarly, many researchers studying early functions of negative morphemes like *no* proposed that children use them to “reject” or “refuse” (Bloom, 1970; Choi, 1988; Pea, 1978). For example, when they are asked “do you want juice?” they may say “no,” “not want it,” or “don’t like it.” Pea (1978) proposed this negation function is the first to emerge in children’s early speech.

Bloom (1970) argued that the use of negation to expresses “non-existence” emerges before rejection or refusal. For example, when an object that children expect to be present is not present, children may say: “no window,” “no fish in the bathroom,” or “I do not pro underpants.” Two close concepts to non-existence are “disappearance” and “non-occurrence” (Pea, 1978; Villiers & Villiers, 1979). Disappearance refers to situations where an object disappears and children use negation to express it (e.g. “no food. all gone” or “no more noise”). Non-occurrence refers to cases when an expected action or event does not occur as in “not working” or “doggie not barking.” Some researchers referred to these cases as “failures” and included examples like “no fit in da box” or “it don’t fit” (Cameron-Faulkner, Lieven, & Theakston, 2007; Choi, 1988). Non-existence can also be expressed by negation of locative prepositional phrases (e.g. “no in there” or “daddy was not on the phone”). While

rejection was hypothesized to interact with human emotions and desires, non-existence (broadly construed to include “disappearance” and “non-occurrence”) likely interacts with human perception. Choi (1988) proposed that children’s early linguistic negation is used to express both rejection and non-existence.

Additionally, Choi (1988) introduced “prohibition” and suggested that it emerges as early as rejection and non-existence. In cases of prohibition, children use negation to stop others from performing actions; for example “don’t go” or “do not spill milk.” A special case of prohibition is “self-prohibition.” For example, a child may approach prohibited food but immediately say “no, don’t eat” to stop themselves. A function similar to prohibition is “inability” (e.g. *I can’t reach / I cannot zip it*), in that both involve conceptualizing actions and negating them, possibly interacting with early development of motor control. Choi (1988) suggested that expression of inability emerges after the first phase, namely non-existence, rejection, and prohibition.

“Denial” is another function of negation that is argued to be late in development. Bloom (1970) defined it as asserting that “an actual or supposed predication was not the case,” for example “It’s not sharp.” Later researchers formulated it as “truth-functional negation” because it is used to negate the truth of a proposition (Cameron-Faulkner, Lieven, & Theakston, 2007; Pea, 1978). However, this definition depends on the assumed logical system and its assumptions on what type of propositions receive truth values. A particular sub-function of denial is “labeling,” which is realized as the negation of nominal or adjectival predicates such as “this is not a bunny” or “not red.” These utterances are often used to introduce new linguistic labels by parents and in turn may facilitate word learning (Clark, 2010). Conversely, labeling and word learning may aid the development of abstract negation.

Despite considerable research on early functions of negation, their developmental trajectories in children’s productions remained unclear. Different studies claimed different order of acquisition (Pea, 1978). In a recent study, Nordmeyer and Frank (2018)

131 looked at the speech of five children in the Providence corpus (Demuth, Culbertson, & Alter,  
132 2006) and found a great deal of individual differences in how early a negative function is  
133 attested. This is partly because previous studies pro had to rely on human annotation and  
134 identification of functions from corpus data, a time-consuming and difficult process that has  
135 limited previous studies to a handful of children and a relatively small sample of their speech.

## Experiments

### Data and preprocessing

For developmental production data of child speech in English, we turned to the CHILDES database (MacWhinney, 2000)<sup>1</sup> and focused on children with typical development within the age range of 12 - 72 months. Parents' and children's utterances were extracted via the chldes-db (Sanchez et al., 2019) interface using the programming language R. In order to obtain (morpho)syntactic representations for parents' and children's utterances, we used the dependency grammar framework (Tesnière, 1959). Part-of-speech (POS) tags for each token within an utterance were automatically derived using Stanza, an open-source natural language processing library; dependency relations for all utterances were acquired also in an automatic fashion using DiaParser (Attardi, Sartiano, & Yu, n.d.), a dependency parsing system that has been demonstrated to achieve excellent performance for English.

In this study, we consider seven communicative functions of negation shown in Table 1 and analyzed utterances at both the syntactic and discourse level. In order to investigate the developmental paths of negation within specific constructions (that are not necessarily negative), besides negative utterances, we also examined the production trajectory of positive counterparts to the negative structures (e.g. "I know" for "I don't know") as direct comparisons.

With our parsed data set, we applied different utterance selection criteria for every communicative function at the syntactic and the discourse level. At the syntactic level, given each function, we characterized the syntactic features of both the negative constructions and their positive counterparts (same syntactic features except with no negative morphemes) associated with the function (Table 1), then selected cases based on these features in a

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<sup>1</sup> Code and data are in quarantine at [https://github.com/zoeyliu18/Negative\\_Constructions](https://github.com/zoeyliu18/Negative_Constructions).



rule-based fashion with the help of POS information and syntactic dependencies.

At the discourse level, on the other hand, we aim to analyze utterances where the negative morphemes are discourse response variables instead. To do that and in order to alleviate potential parsing errors, instances starting with the negative morphemes that are discourse response variables (again with a dependency relation *discourse*) were included. In this case, utterances such as “no no I like it” were selected. Then for each negative utterance identified this way, we extracted its previous utterances in the discourse context based on the utterance order and transcript id provided by chldes-db. In particular, for child speech, we included interactions (contextual utterances + current negative utterance) where the contextual utterances were produced by either parents or children themselves; and for parent speech, we only included interactions where the contextual utterances were produced by children. Then for every function, we applied the same syntactic features for both negative and positive utterances at the syntactic level to the contextual utterance within each discourse interaction. Therefore in what follows, when describing whether a construction is negative or positive at the discourse level, we refer to the contextual utterance.

## Measures

As indexes of the developmental trajectory for negative constructions and their communicative functions in child speech, we measured the following two metrics at each given age of the children. The first one is the *ratio* of negative utterances. For instance, the number of utterances produced by children at the age of 30 months (not just all negative constructions at this age) is 81,302 in total. Among these utterances, negative structures that have the function of inability occur for 141 times; the ratio for this communicative function at 30 months is then calculated as  $141 / 81,302 = 0.002$ .

Given the noisy nature of child production data in general, and the facts that there are

different numbers of utterances and children at each age, another measure that we utilized is *moving ratio*, borrowed from the model of moving average in analyses of time series data (Wei, 2006). For a communicative function, the goal of the moving ratio is still to reflect the production of the negative utterances at the given age; meanwhile it takes into account the previous production of all negative constructions of the same function before the specified age. This would allow us to have a more balanced look at individual developmental stage (e.g. age) of a communicative function, in relation to its development patterns thus far.

The computation of the moving ratio is as follows. For instance, given that the number of negative utterances that express inability in child speech is 141 at the age of 30 months, we: (1) count the total number of negative constructions with the same function produced by children *at and before* 30 months old (682); (2) compute the total number of utterances (419,949) within the same age range; (3) divide the number of (1) by that of (2) ( $682 / 419,949 = 0.002$ ).

While our focus is negative utterances (and their positive counterparts as direct contrast) in child production, we used parents' speech as comparative references. Therefore for every communicative function, the same two ratio measures were calculated for parent speech in a similar fashion. Our plots accordingly contrast the ratio / moving ratio of different negative constructions (and their positive counterparts) between children's and parents' production at corresponding ages of the children.

In what follows, we describe in detail the results of each communicative function and their negative constructions. While we computed both ratio and moving ratio for every function, our analyses mainly rely on the latter.

## **Communicative functions of negative constructions and their positive counterparts**

**Rejection.** For the function of rejection, at the sentence level, we examined cases where the lemma of the head verb of the phrase is either *like* or *want*. For negative constructions, the head verb is modified by one of the three negative morphemes, whereas cases including the same head verb but without negation were determined as the positive counterparts. With negative utterances, other than expressions that the speakers used to describe their own desires with (e.g. (1)) or without (e.g. (2)) an auxiliary verb, we also included cases that express rhetorical inquiries of desires from one interlocutor addressed to another (e.g. (3)), and instances where the speaker is describing the desires of somebody else (e.g. (4)). This resulted in a total of 20,641 negative utterances (child: 9,398; parent: 11,243), and a total of 180,881 negative utterances (child: 63,427; parent: 117,454).

(1) *I no like sea*

(2) *don't wanna go*

(3) *don't you wanna try it*

(4) *Sarah doesn't like that either*

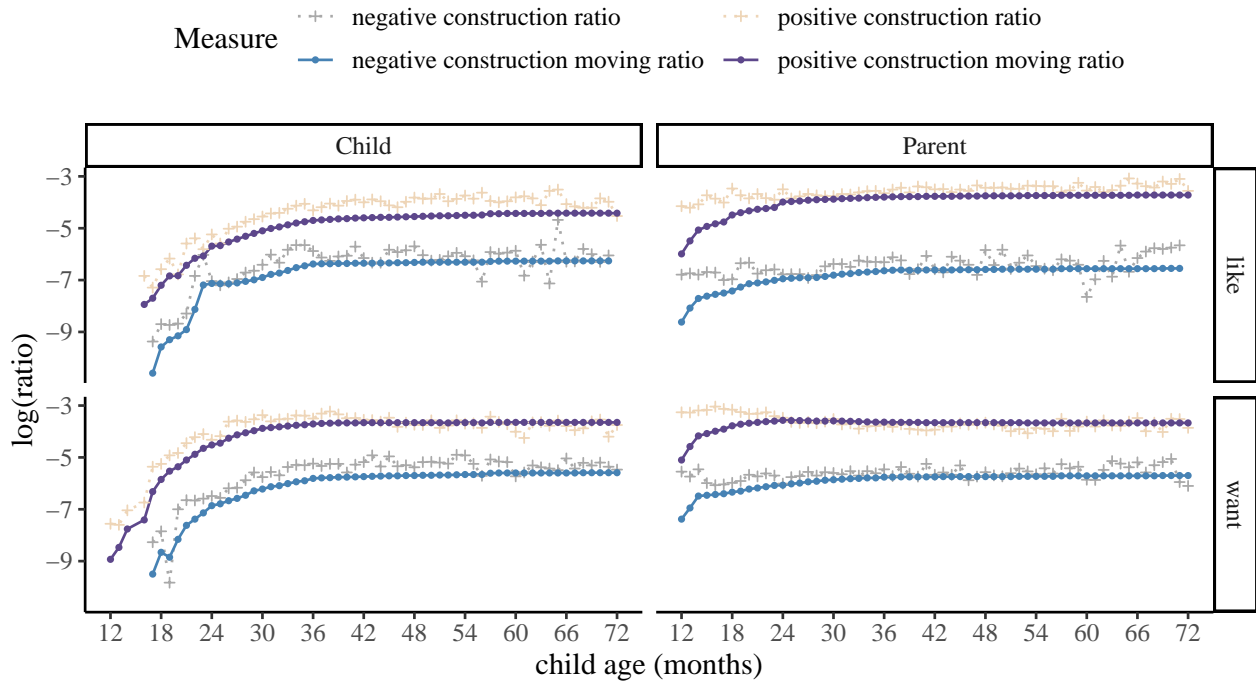


Figure 1. Rejection and its positive counterparts

As presented in Figure 1, at the sentence level the overall pattern for children's usage of negative morphemes for rejection is comparable regardless of the particular head verb. Comparing child and parent speech, it seems that children's production of rejection is gradually increasing between the age of 18 to 36 months. And the production moving ratio in child speech appears to be more comparable to that of parent speech after 32-34 months. Across the age range the production ratio for negative utterances is consistently lower than that for their positive counterparts.

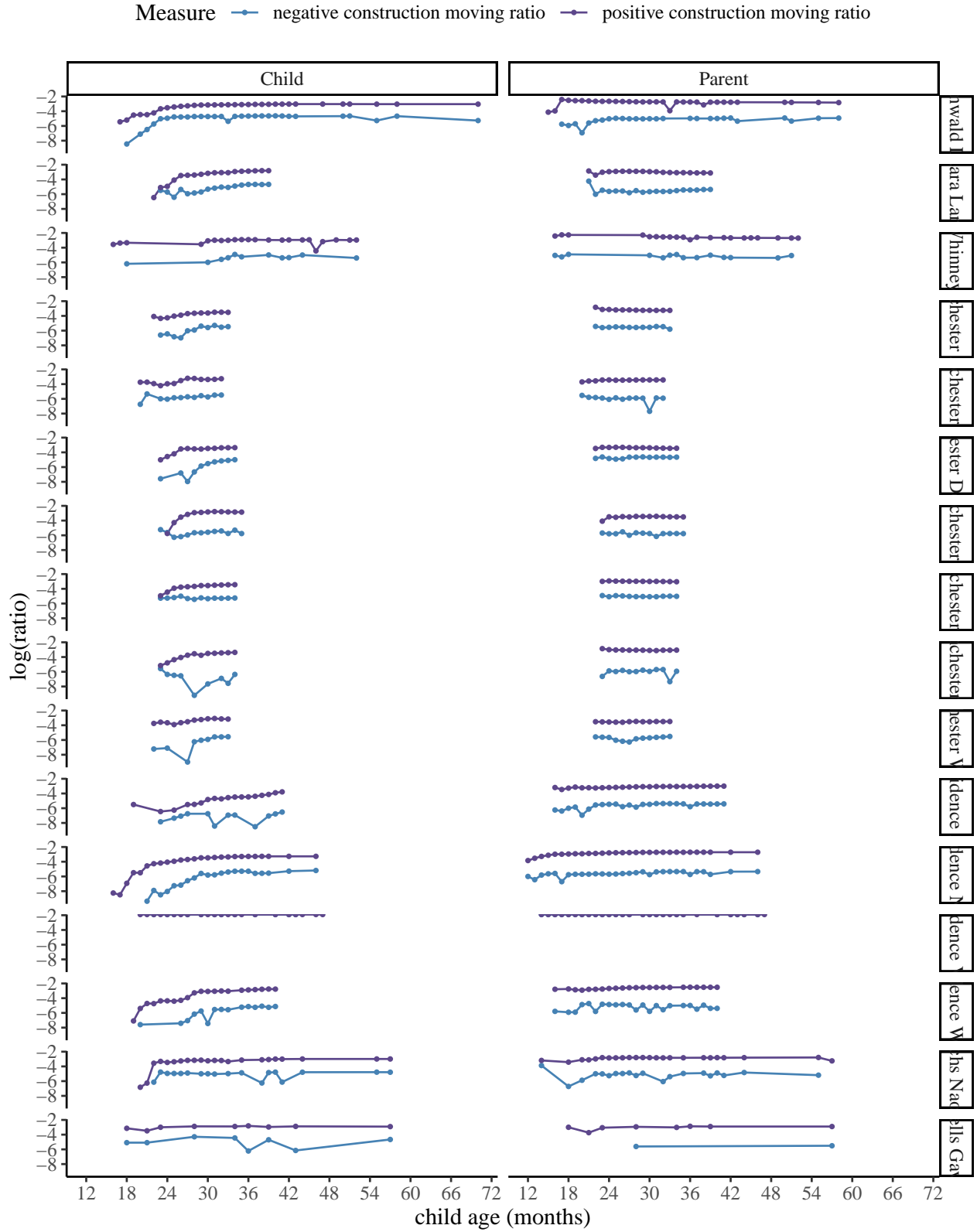


Figure 2. Individual Variation for Rejection and its positive counterparts

On the discourse level, we applied the same syntactic features for negative constructions (e.g. ) and their positive counterparts (e.g. ) to the contextual utterance within an interaction (contextual utterance + current negative utterance). This resulted in a total of 260 negative utterances (child: 134; parent: 126), and a total of 1,697 negative utterances (child: 860; parent: 837).

As shown in Figure 2, children's production of negation as discourse response variables increase regularly from the age of 24 - 30 months, regardless of whether the discourse utterance contains negative morphemes or not. Overall negative morphemes are applied at the discourse level more frequently in child speech compared to that in parent speech, and they more often use negation to respond to positive utterances (e.g. ) than negative counterparts (e.g. ).

(5) Parent: *would you like to go*; Child: *no no*

(6) Parent: *I don't want you to do that*; Child: *no I want to*

(7) Child: *I don't want that*; Parent: *no honey you have to try it*

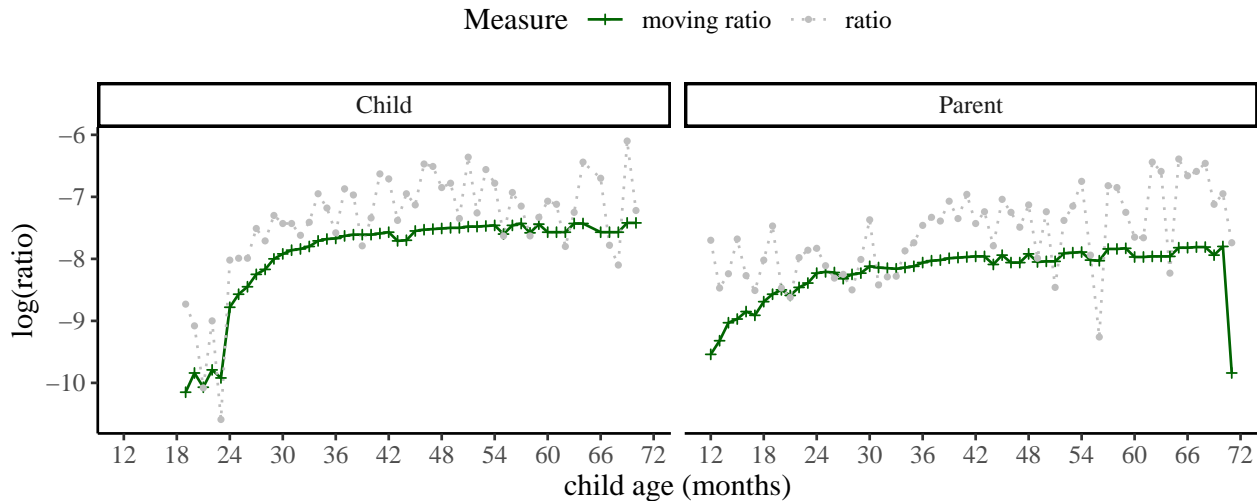


Figure 3. Discourse-level Rejection

**Non-existence.** For the function of non-existence, we extracted utterances that have expletives marked by *there* (e.g. (5) and (6)), and that the predicate modified by the negative morphemes is a nominal phrase (headed by either nouns or pronouns). This led to a total of 37,377 negative utterances (child: 8,896; parent: 28,481).

(5) *there's no (more) water*

(6) *there isn't it*

In child speech, the production of negative constructions to express non-existence is gradually increasing from 25 to 36 months (Figure 2), which is by contrast later than that for the communicative function of rejection presented in Figure 1. This observation does not seem to align with Bloom (1970), which initially proposed that the development of non-existence is earlier than that of rejection. On the other hand, children's production moving ratio gradually approaches that in parent speech at 36-38 months.

Notice that there appears to be fluctuations of moving ratios between the age of 19 and 25 months regarding child production. A closer inspection of the data reveals that within that age range, the frequency of negative utterances at most ages is either one or zero. Therefore while the number of total utterances increases along the developmental trajectory, the moving ratio for negative utterances actually decreases.

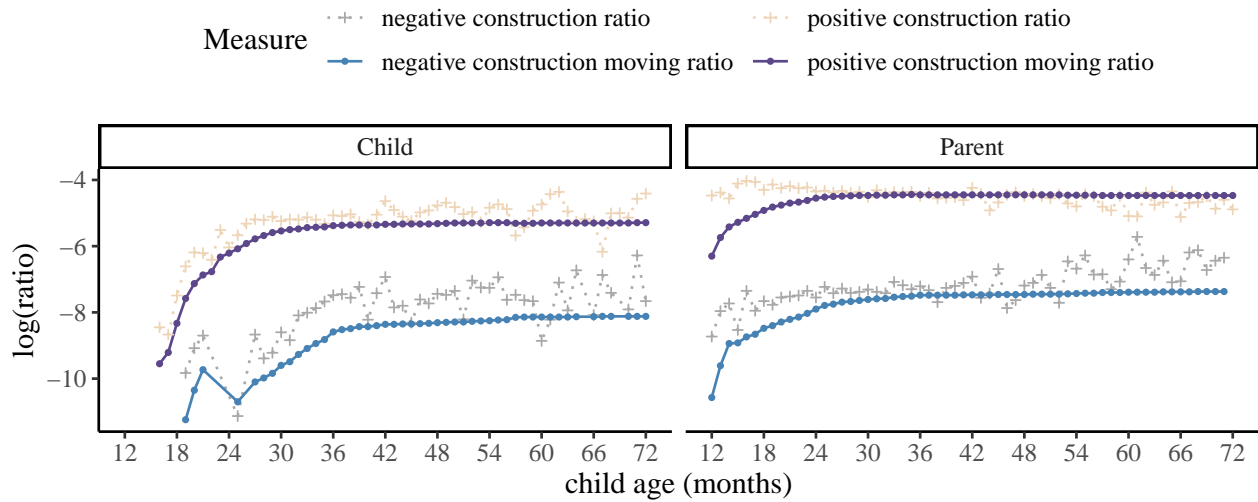


Figure 4. Non-existence and its positive counterparts

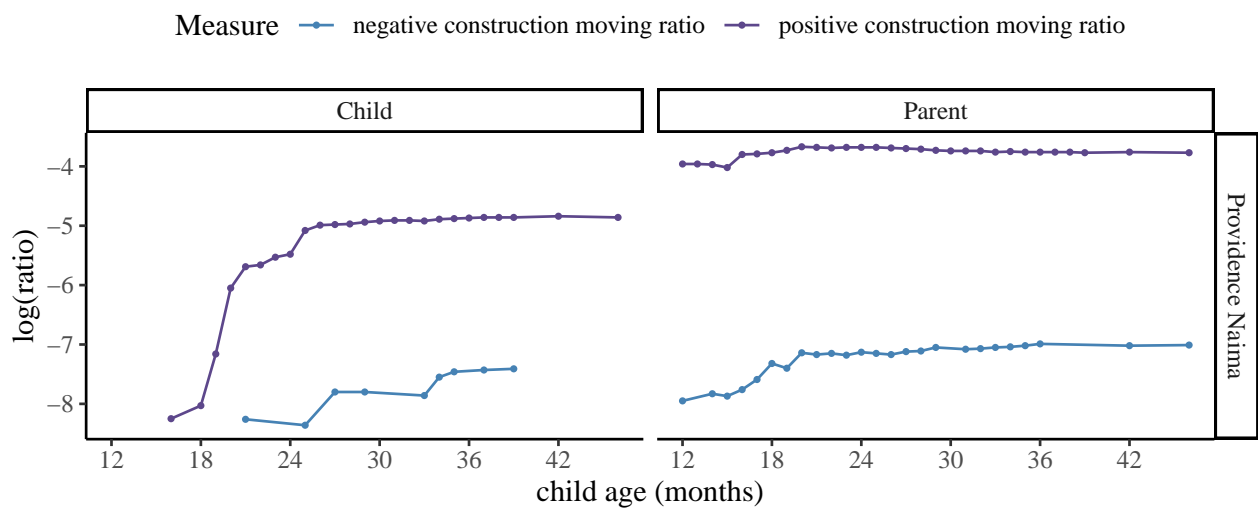


Figure 5. Individual variation for Non-existence and its positive counterparts



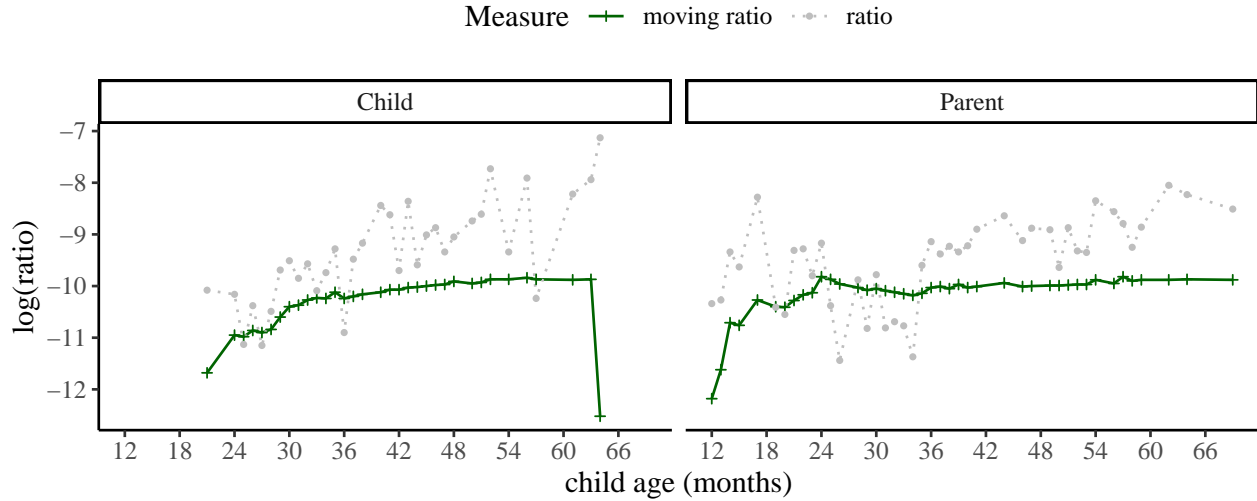


Figure 6. Discourse-level Non-existence

**Prohibition.** For constructions that articulate the function of prohibition, we focused on cases that are annotated as imperatives from the initial CHILDES annotations. These utterances do not take any subject; the negative morphemes are combined with the auxiliary verb *do* (*do*, *does*, *did*) and they together modify the head verbs of the sentences. In order to not overlap with rejection, non-existence, epistemic negation and possession (see below), our search excluded cases where the head verb has any of the following lemma forms: *like*, *want*, *know*, *think*, *remember*, *have*. This resulted in a total of 26,611 negative utterances (child: 8,968; parent: 17,643).

Based on Figure 3, children are combining negative morphemes for prohibition more and more regularly between 24-36 months, which is comparable to that of the function of non-existence, but slightly later than that of rejection. In comparison, the production moving ratio in child speech for prohibition is consistently lower than that in parent speech at any age of the children.

(7) *don't blame Charlotte*

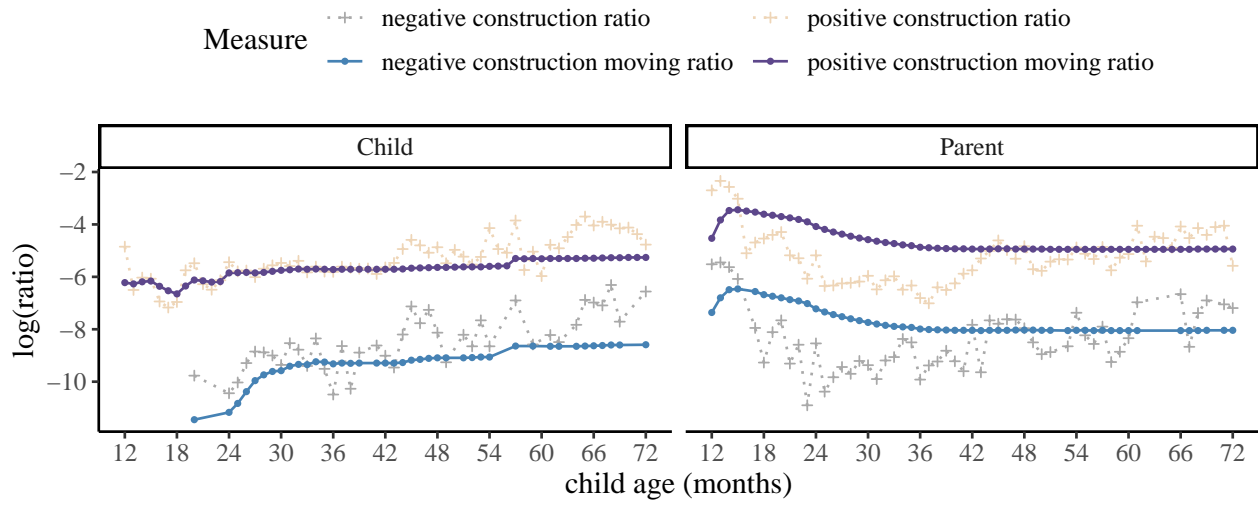


Figure 7. Prohibition and its positive counterparts

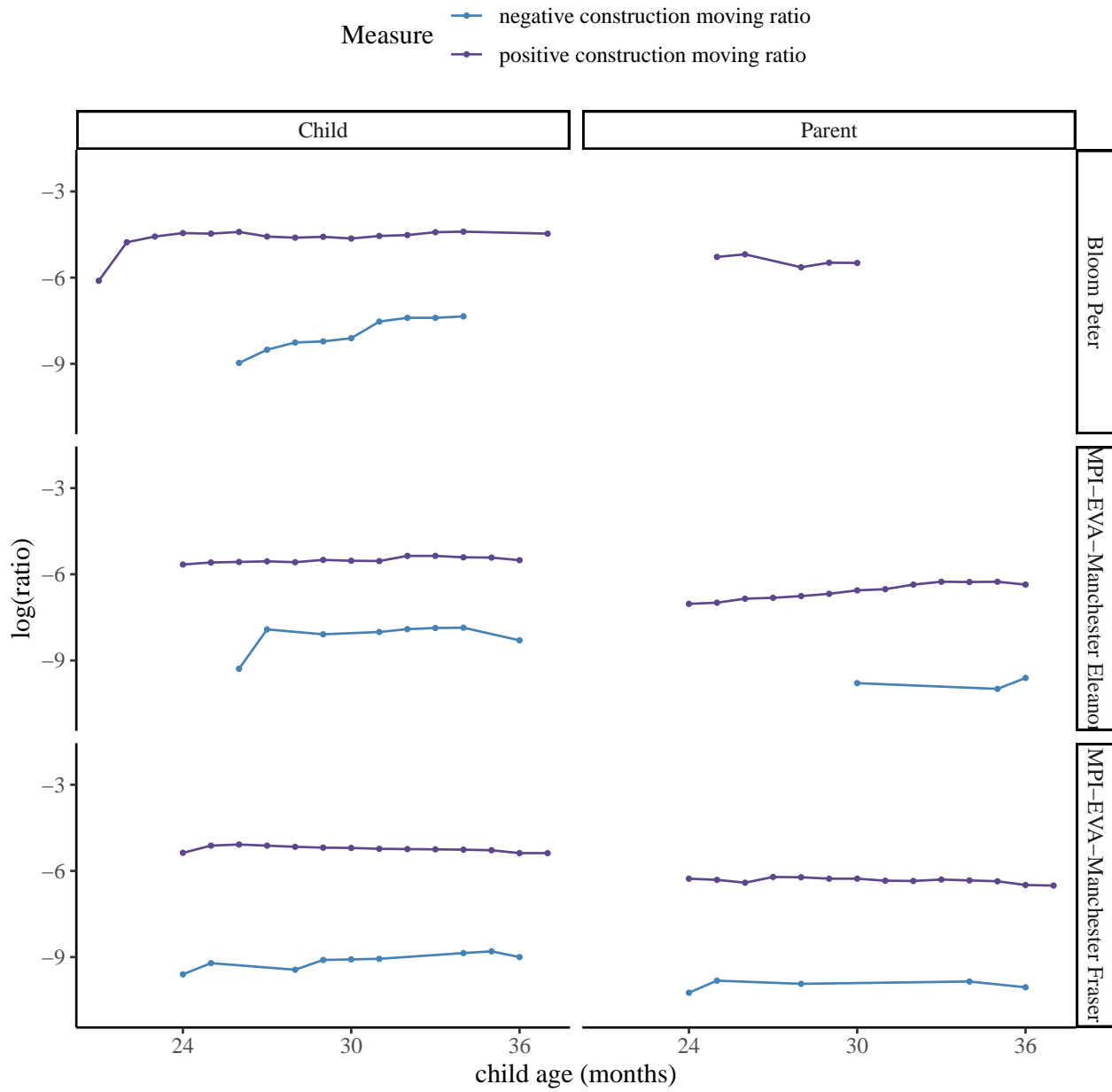


Figure 8. Individual variation for Prohibition and its positive counterparts

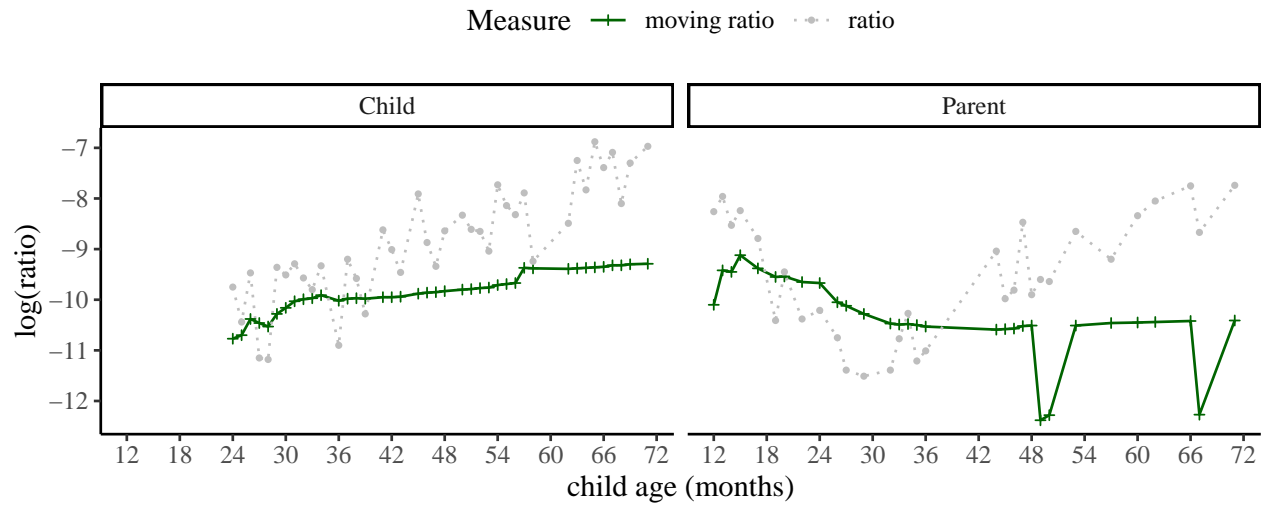


Figure 9. Discourse-level Prohibition

**Inability.** For the function of inability, we analyzed instances where the negative morphemes co-occur with the auxiliary *can* (*can* and *could*; e.g. (8)) and both of them modify the head verbs of the utterances. Again, we filtered out cases where the head verbs are the focus for other functions. Cases without a subject (e.g. “can’t play”) or where the subject is not *I* (e.g. “you can’t do that”) could yield ambiguous readings when not looking at a larger discourse context; they could be a rhetorical question or also express the concept of prohibition. Therefore to potentially avoid less ambiguity, we restricted our analyses only to cases with a subject *I*. This led to 21,548 negative utterances (child: 11,506; parent: 10,042).

(8) *I can’t see*

As shown in Figure 4, the developmental trajectory of inability is similar to that of rejection. Negation is applied more and more regularly between 18-36 months. By contrast, it is different from those of non-existence and prohibition. It seems that the production trajectories of the latter two are both becoming more regular at a later age (25 and 24 months, respectively).

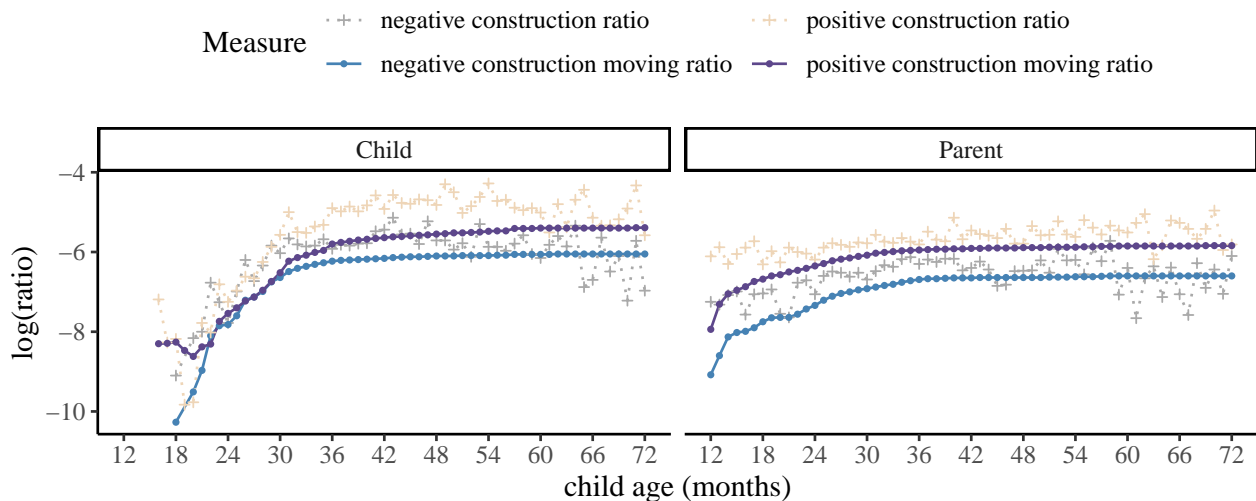


Figure 10. Inability and its positive counterparts

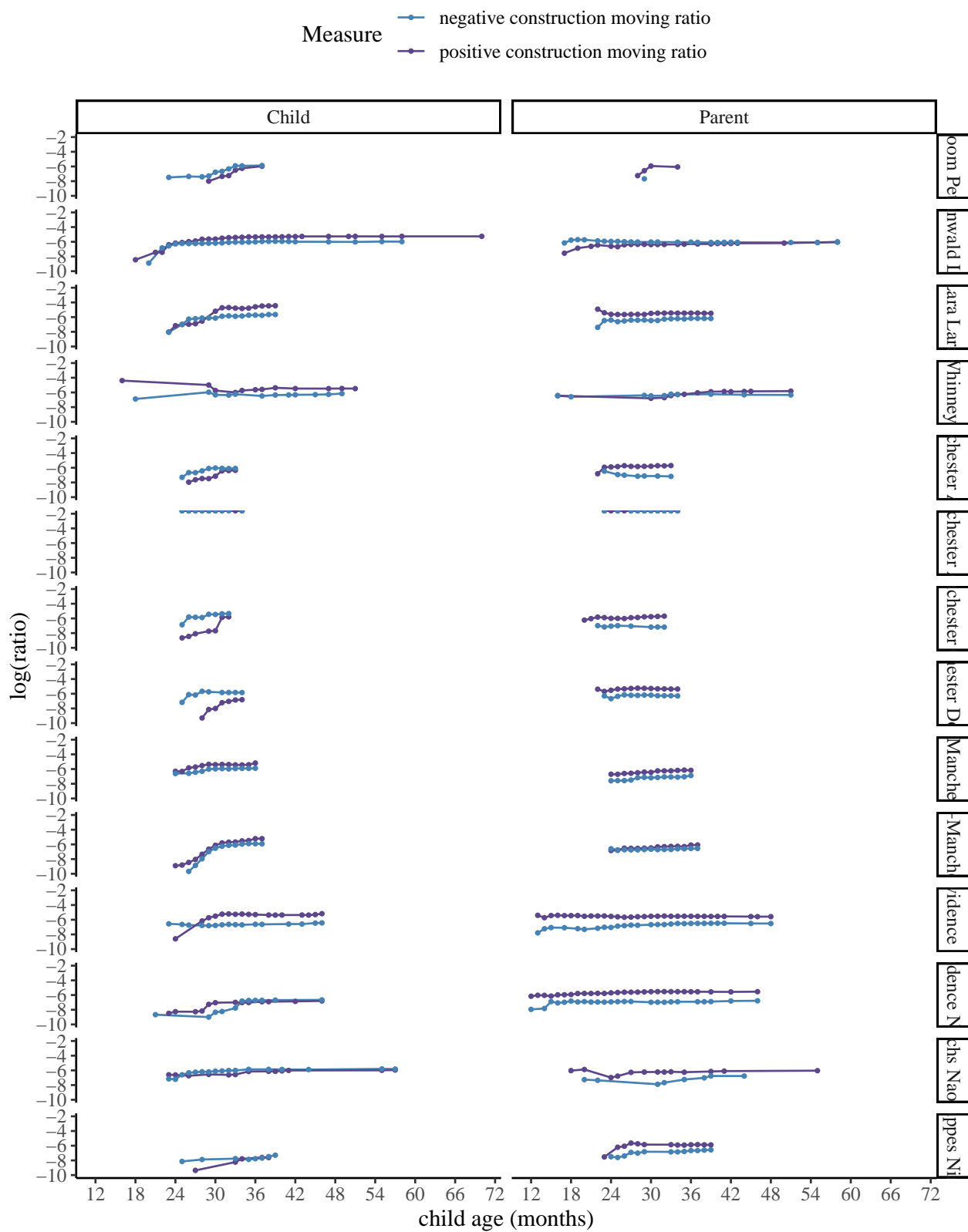


Figure 11. Individual variation for Inability and its positive counterparts

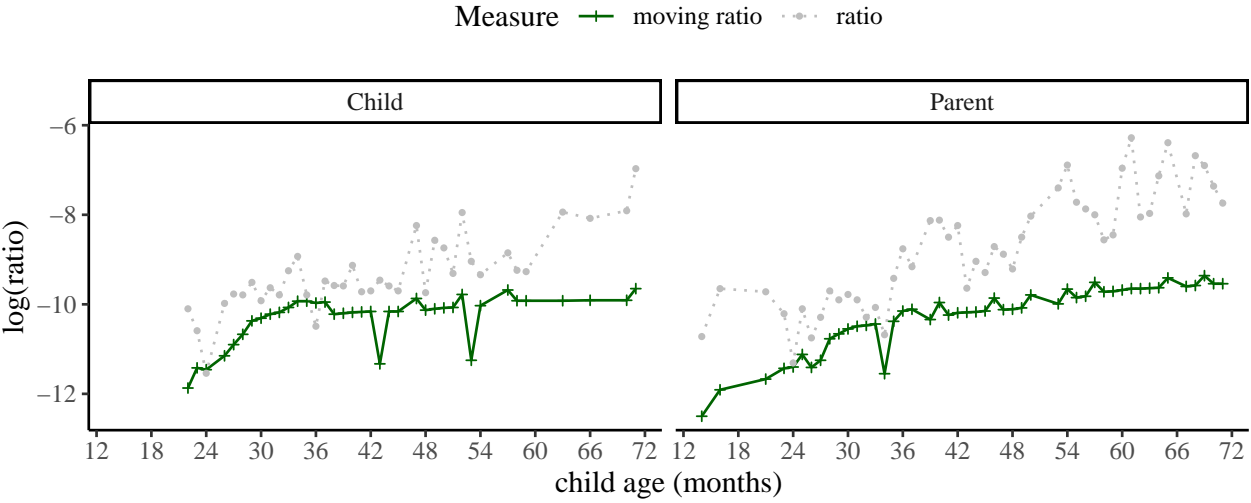


Figure 12. Discourse-level Inability

**Labeling.** To capture the function of labeling, we concentrated on cases where negative morphemes indicate the identity (e.g. (9)), and/or characteristics (e.g. (10)) of a predicative nominal. We also included instances where negation is used to modify a predicative adjective (e.g. (11)). Utterances where negative morphemes modify a nominal or adjectival predicate of a copula verb were extracted. None of the utterances contained expletives (e.g. “there is no book”) to distinguish from non-existence. This resulted in a total of 521,089 negative utterances (Child: 127,300; Parent: 393,789).

(9) *that’s not a farmer*

(10) *I’m not a heavy baby Mum*

(11) *It’s no good*

Based on Figure 5, the developmental pattern for labeling is comparable to non-existence and prohibition; children are increasing their use of the negative morphemes around the age range of 22-36 months.

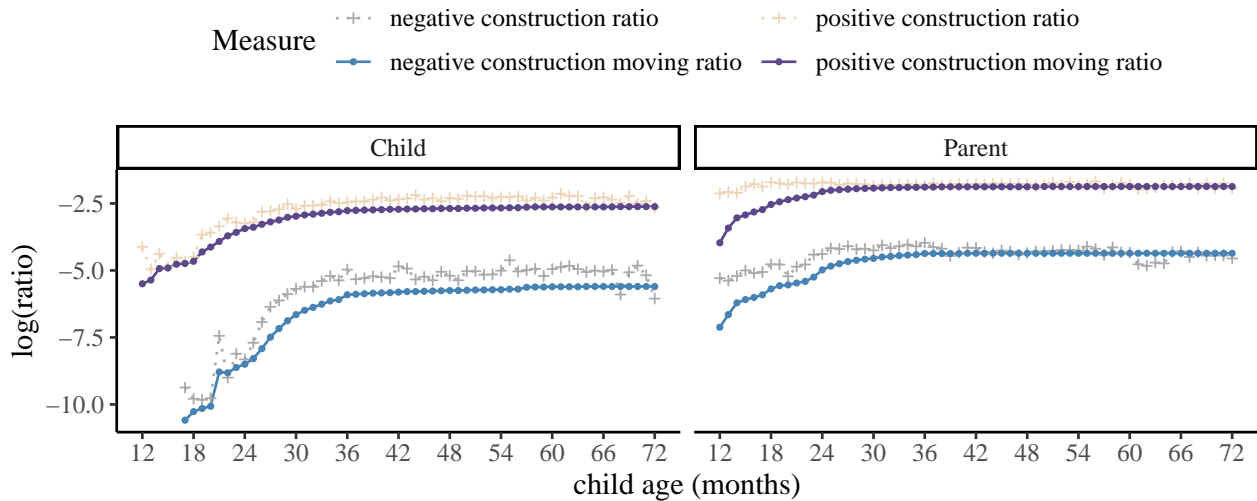


Figure 13. Labeling and its positive counterparts



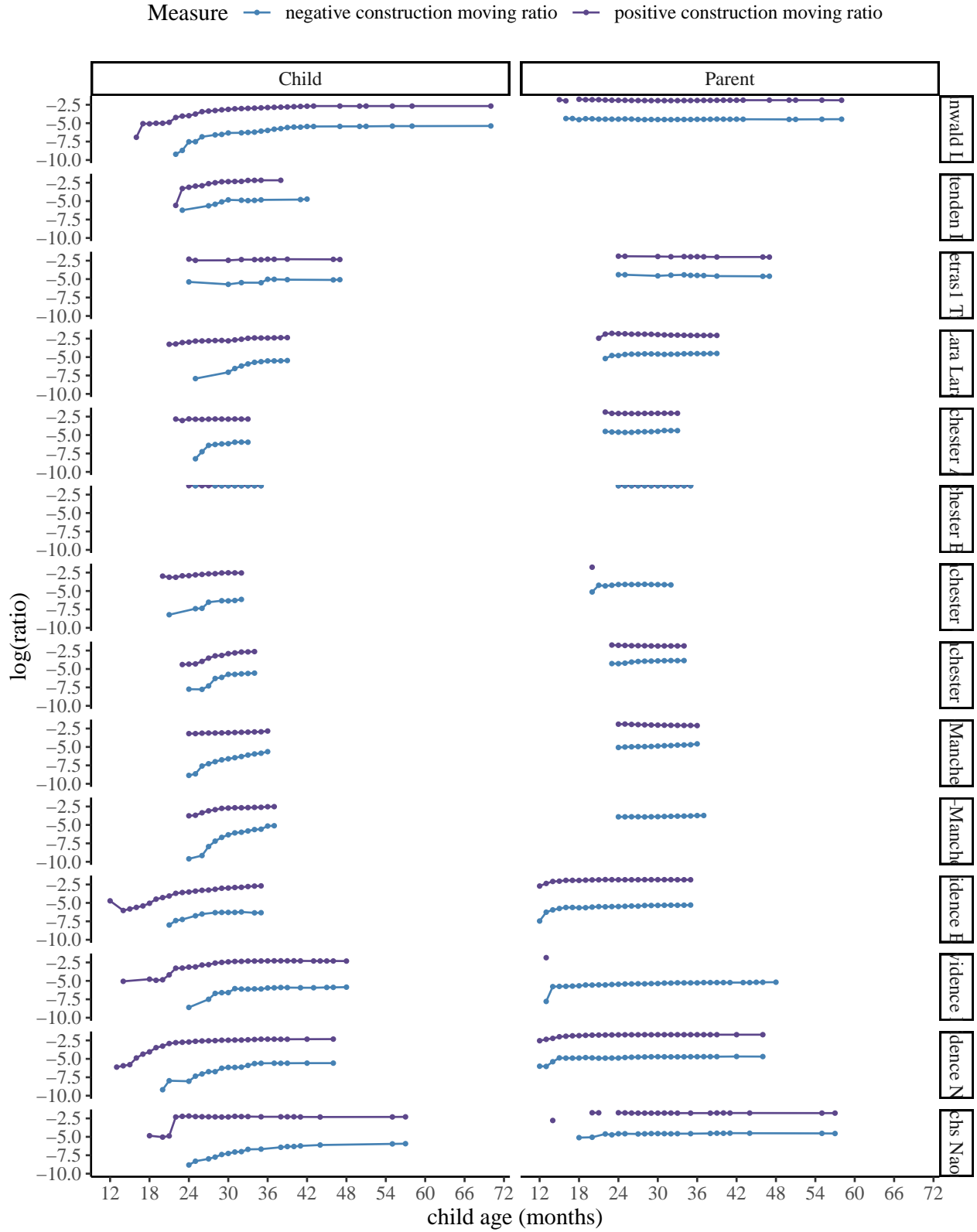


Figure 14. Individual variation for Labeling and its positive counterparts

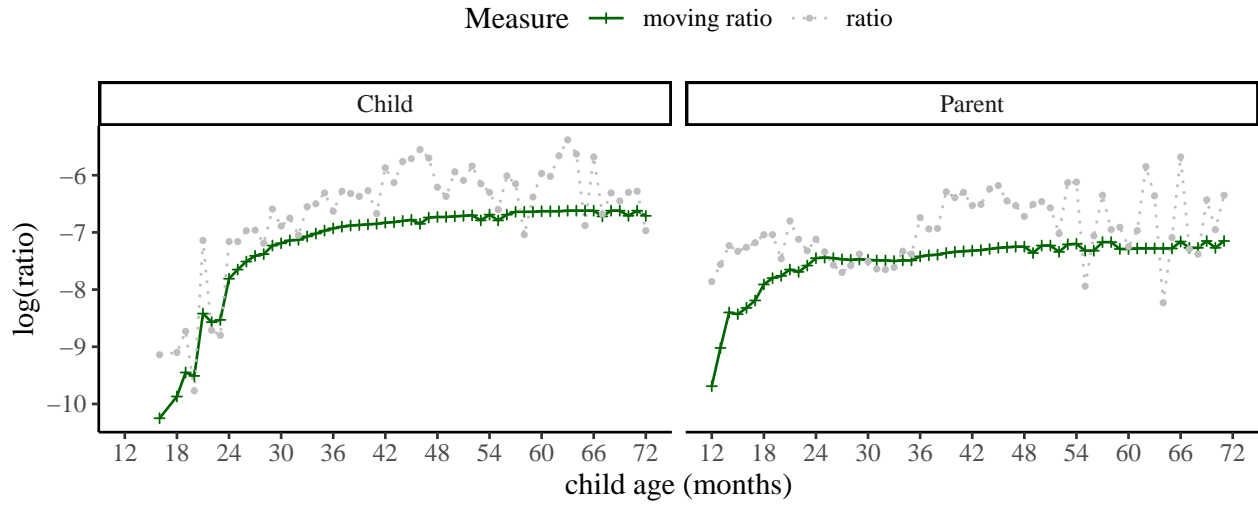


Figure 15. Discourse-level Labeling

**Epistemic Negation.** Previous studies have reported instances where negative morphemes are combined with mental/epistemic state verbs such as *know*, *think*, and *remember* in child speech to express epistemic negation. Here we focused on these three verbs and analyzed negative utterances that articulate the concept of not knowing (e.g. (12)) or uncertainty (e.g. (13)). The verbs in these cases are modified by the negative morphemes directly or by the combination of negation with auxiliaries. Instances where the speaker asks about or describes the negative epistemic state of another speaker (e.g. (14)) were also selected, leading to 127,375 negative utterances in total (child: 26,174; parent: 101,201).

(12) *I not know / I didn't remember*

(13) *I don't think so*

(14) *don't you remember / She doesn't know this*

Based on the data analyzed here (Figure 6), the production of negative utterances headed by *know* are becoming more regular at an earlier age (17-18 months) compared to that of *remember* (~19 months) or *think* (~20 months). Overall the production moving ratio of utterances with *know* is comparatively the highest.

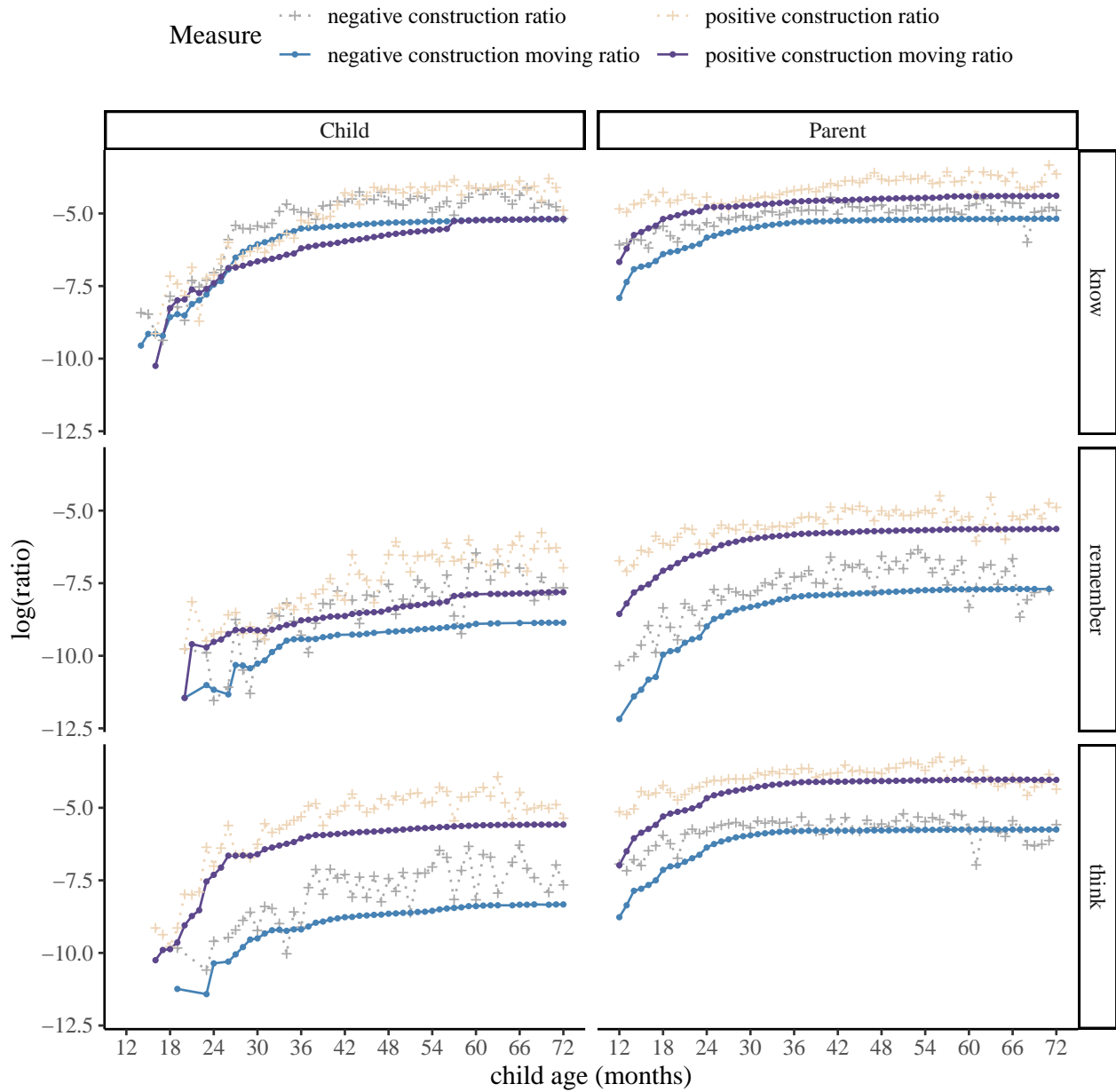


Figure 16. Epistemic negation and its positive counterparts

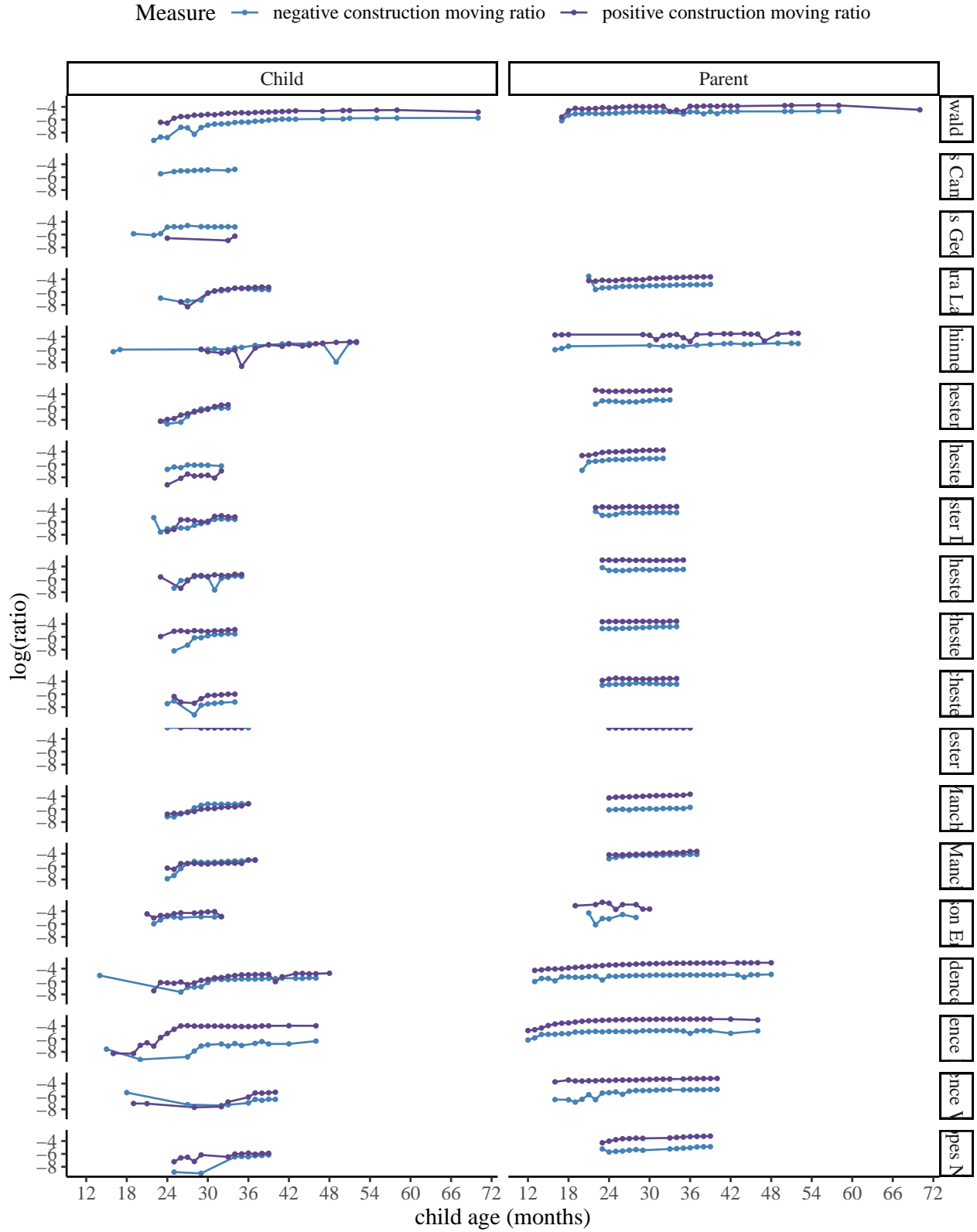


Figure 17. Individual variation for Epistemic negation and its positive counterparts

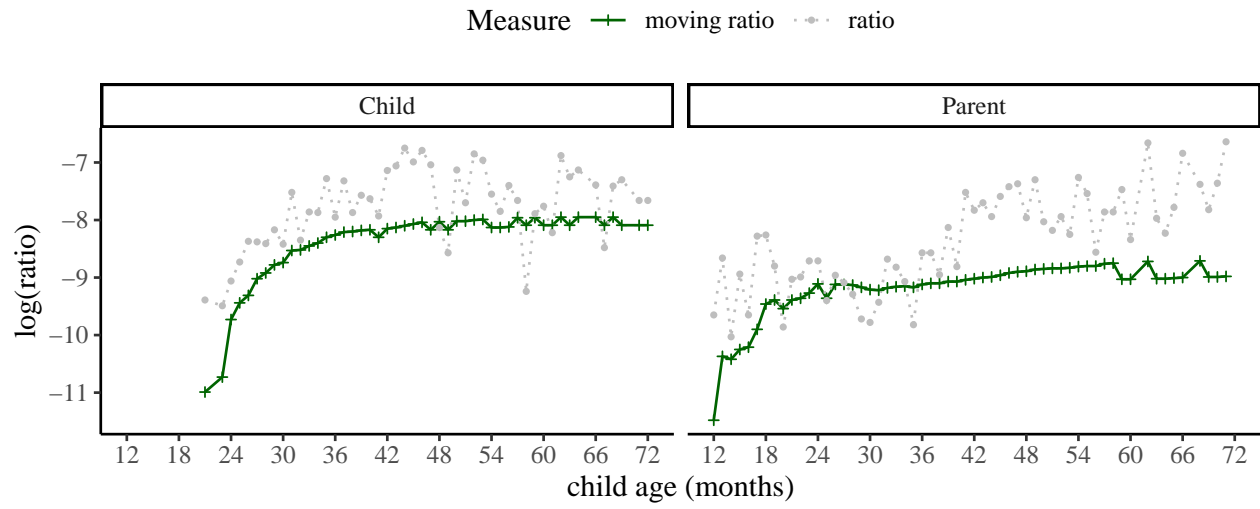


Figure 18. Discourse-level Epistemic Negation

**Possession.** The last function we explored is possession. We selected cases where the negative morphemes are combined with auxiliary verbs to modify a head verb with the lemma form *have* (e.g. (15)). We also included individual noun phrases with possessive pronouns as heads and modified by negative morphemes (e.g. (16)). Cases in which the syntactic head of the negative morphemes is a predicate of a copula verb (e.g. “this is not mine”) were excluded to separate them from the function “labeling.” The number of negative utterances that were subjected to analysis for this function is 17,255 (child: 8,914; parent: 8,341).

(15) *I don't have it*

(16) *not mine*

Given Figure 7, the developmental trajectory for possession in child speech appears to have notable differences depending on what the negative morphemes are modifying. When their syntactic head is *have*, the pattern is comparable to those of “rejection” and “labeling,” where children are increasing their combination of negative morphemes from 18 to 36 months. However, the production moving ratio for utterances headed by possessive pronouns seems to be relatively stable across different ages.

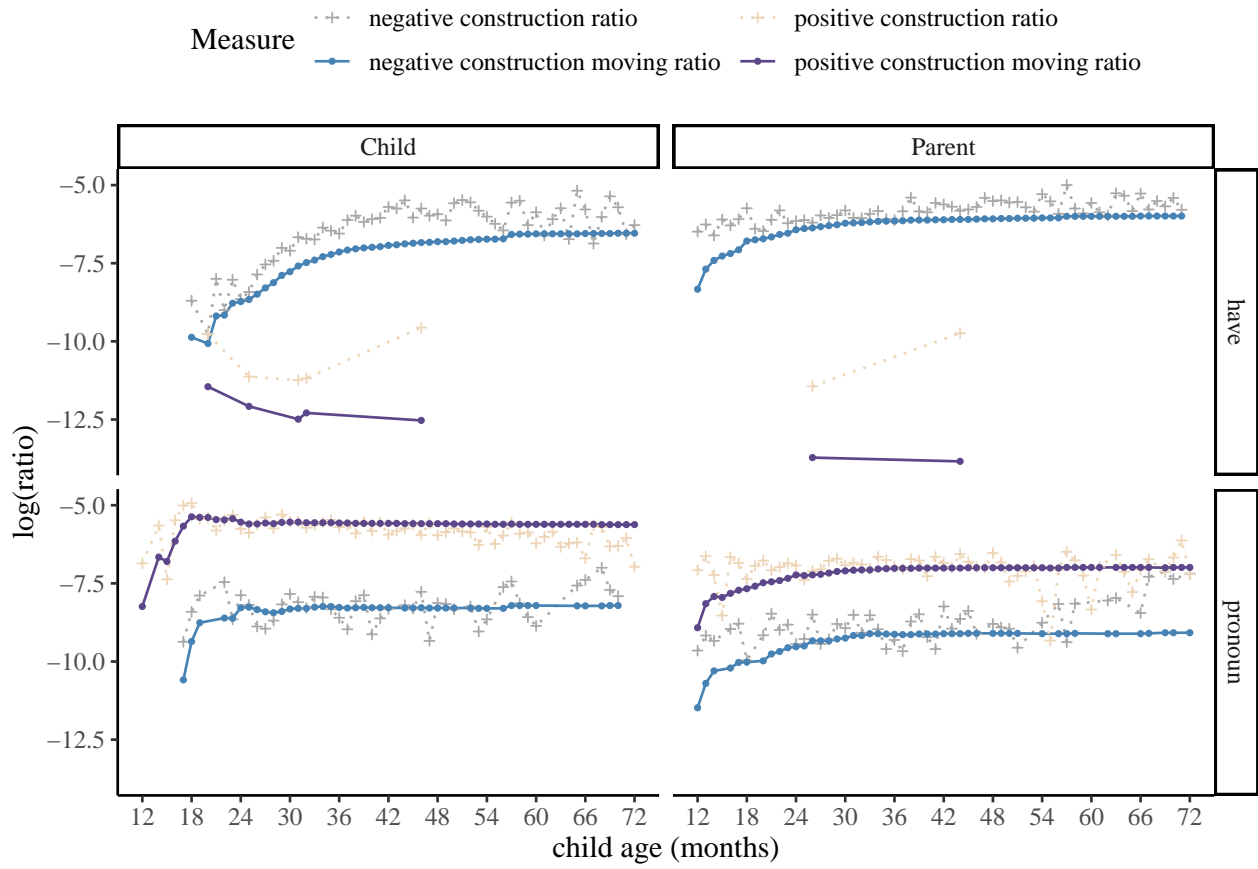


Figure 19. Possession and its positive counterparts



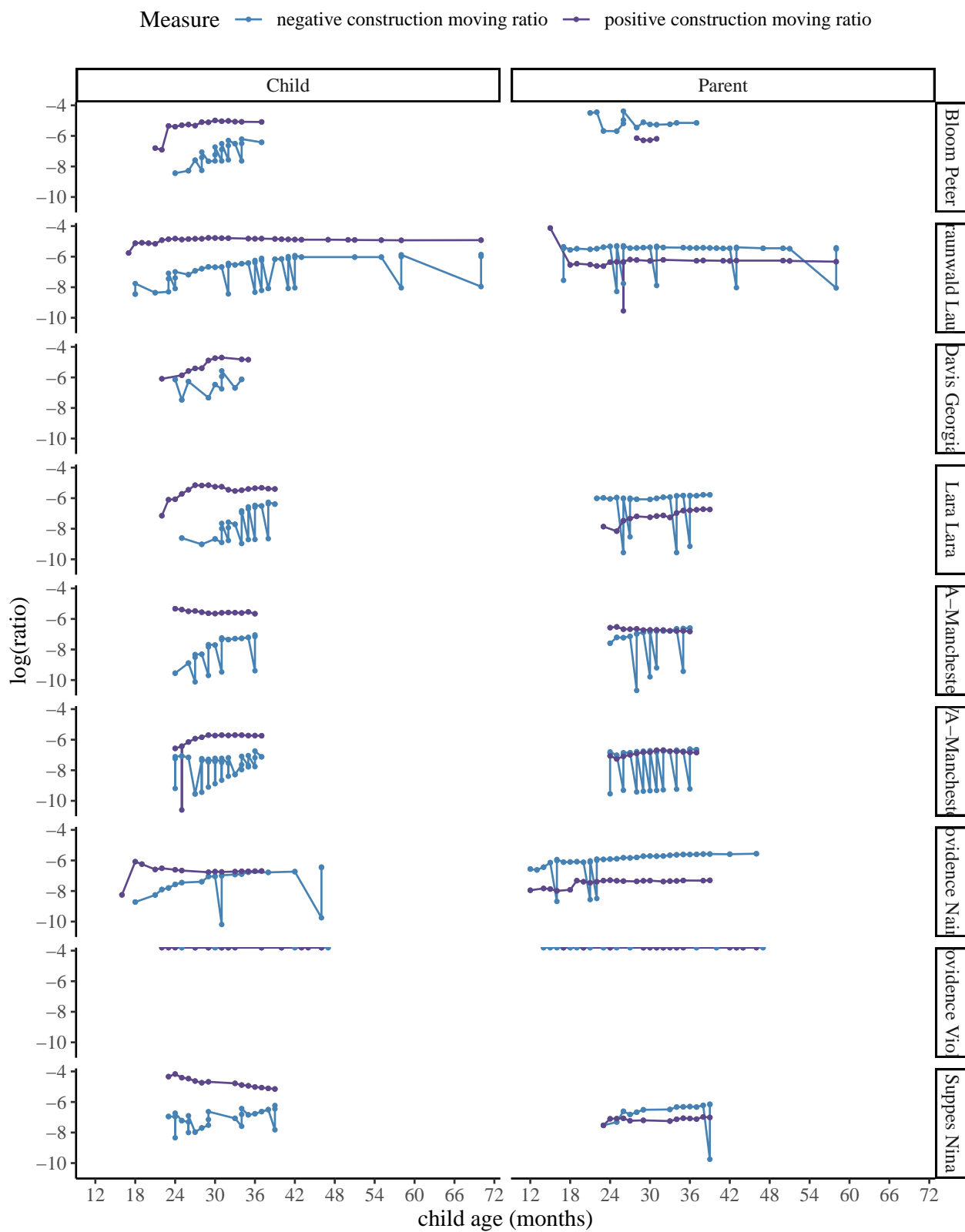


Figure 20. Individual variation for Possession and its positive counterparts

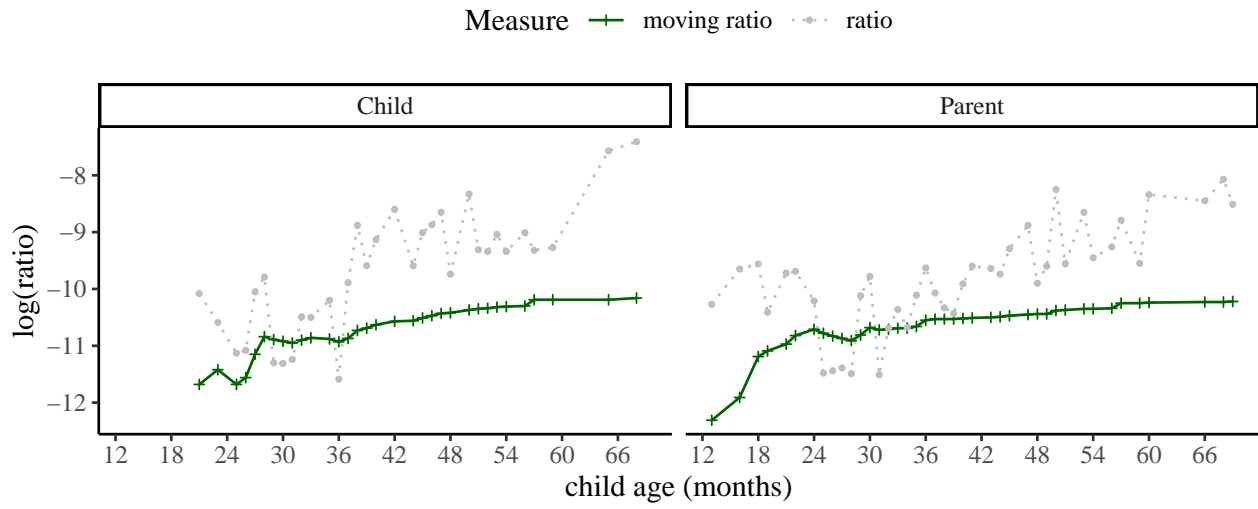


Figure 21. Discourse-level Possession

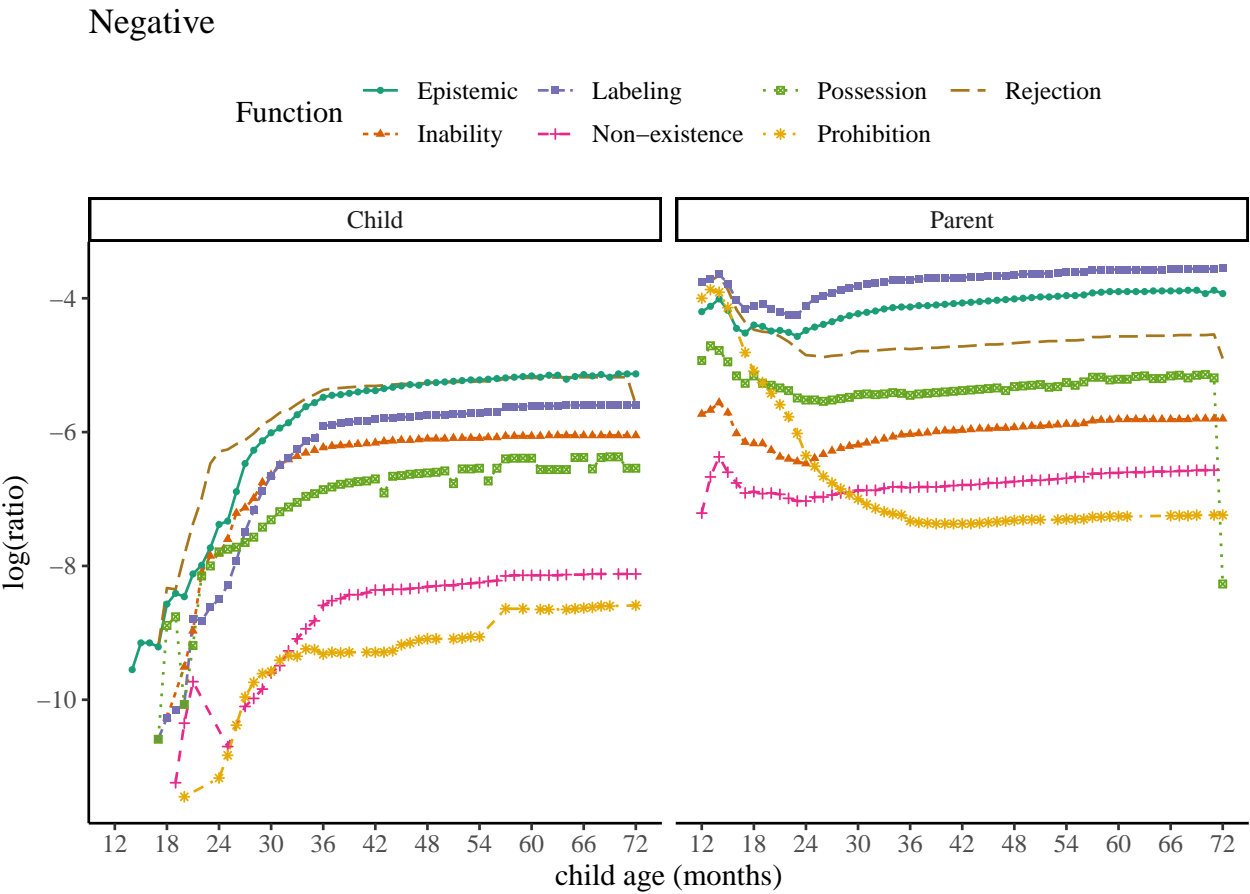


Figure 22. All negative functions

An overall look.

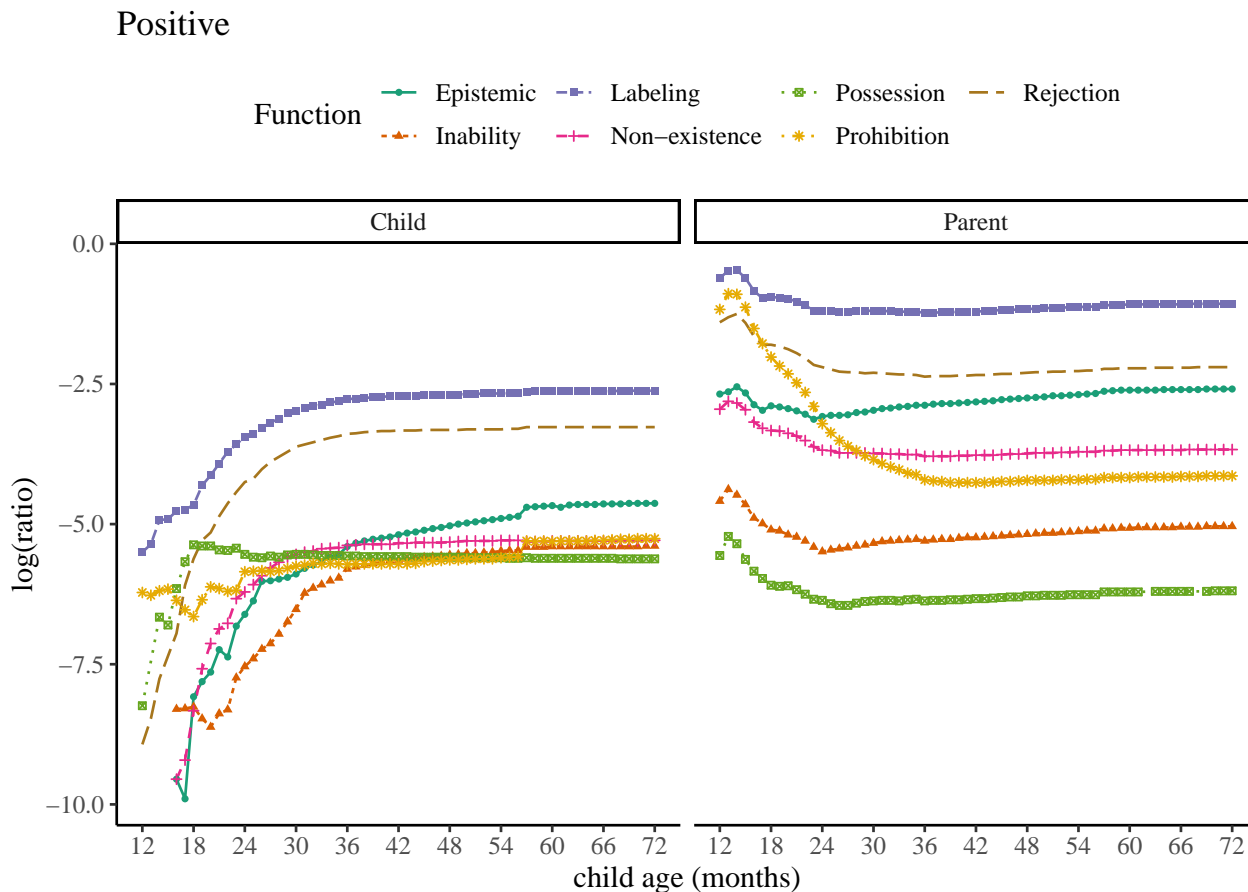


Figure 23. Positive counterparts of all negative functions

## Discussion

Using automatic annotations of large-scale corpora of child-parent interactions, we presented production trajectories for seven negative constructions that tend to express rejection, non-existence, prohibition, inability, labeling, epistemic states, and possession (Table 1). The results suggest that the production of almost all these negative constructions (except for prohibition) emerges and gradually increases within the 18-36 months age range (Figure 8). Their production frequencies remain stable and regular after 36 months and relatively close to parents' levels of production. It is important to note that similar to prior studies, our conclusions are limited to negation in children's production. Systematic experiments testing children's comprehension of negative utterances with different

communicative functions are necessary to better understand the origins and developmental trajectory of negation.

For future work, we would like to explore several directions. First, to more thoroughly examine and potentially model the developmental trajectories of negation in child production, certain production-specific factors (e.g. length of utterance, ease of pronunciation) should be taken into account as well. In addition, we aim to investigate the production trajectory of positive counterparts to our negative structures (e.g. “I know” for “I don’t know”). Comparisons of negative utterances in relation to their positive counterparts would allow us to further analyze the developmental paths of negation within specific constructions.

Lastly, our experiments have concentrated on larger syntactic structures at the utterance level, hence cases where negation is used as discourse markers to respond to previous utterance(s) were excluded. However, these instances also have important semantic and conceptual roles in the communication between children and parents (e.g. parent: *do you want some bread?*; child: *no no no*). Thus inclusions of negative structures at a more comprehensive level would be able to paint a more clear picture about the development of negation.

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Function	Linguistic Composition	Examples
Rejection	with <i>like</i> or <i>want</i>	<i>I not like it; not want it</i>
Non-existence	expletives	<i>there is no soup</i>
Prohibition	with imperative subjectless <i>do</i>	<i>do not spill milk</i>
Inability	with modal <i>can</i>	<i>I cannot zip it</i>
Labeling	modifying nominal or adjectival predicatives	<i>that's not a crocodile; it's no interesting</i>
Epistemic negation	with <i>know</i> , <i>think</i> , <i>remember</i>	<i>I not know/think/remember</i>
Possession	with <i>have</i> ; or possessive pronouns	<i>not have the toy; not mine</i>

Table 1

*Communicative functions of negation in early child language of English.*