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Negation in Written and Spoken Language

Bachelor Thesis

2020   Zuzana Olexová

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ZADÁNÍ BAKALÁŘSKÉ PRÁCE
(projektu, uměleckého díla, uměleckého výkonu)

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Zásady pro vypracování

Cílem bakalářské práce je prostudovat užití negace v psaném a mluveném jazyce prostřednictvím analýzy literárního díla Johna Steinbecka O myších a lidech. Studentka nejprve představí hlavní rozdíly mezi psaným a mluveným jazykem s ohledem na míru formálnosti a ve vztahu k preskriptivním a deskriptivním gramatickým pravidlům. Dále na základě studia relevantní lingvistické literatury vymezí pojem negace, podrobně popíše jazykové prostředky užívané pro vyjádření negativního obsahu (tj. prostředky gramatické a lexikální negace), vysvětlí rozdíly mezi negací větnou a členskou, definuje ohnisko a dosah negace, negativně polaritní výrazy, negativní shodu a dvojí zápor. Následně provede analýzu narativních pasáží a dialogů z vybrané novely s cílem zhodnotit užití různých prostředků záporu z pohledu psaného a mluveného jazyka. Na závěr zdůvodní odlišnosti v užití jazykových prostředků negace s ohledem na sémantickou a stylistickou stránku jazyka.

Rozsah pracovní zprávy:
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V Pardubicích dne 29. listopadu 2019

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Beru na vědomí, že v souladu s § 47b zákona č. 111/1998 Sb., o vysokých školách a o změně a doplnění dalších zákonů (zákon o vysokých školách), ve znění p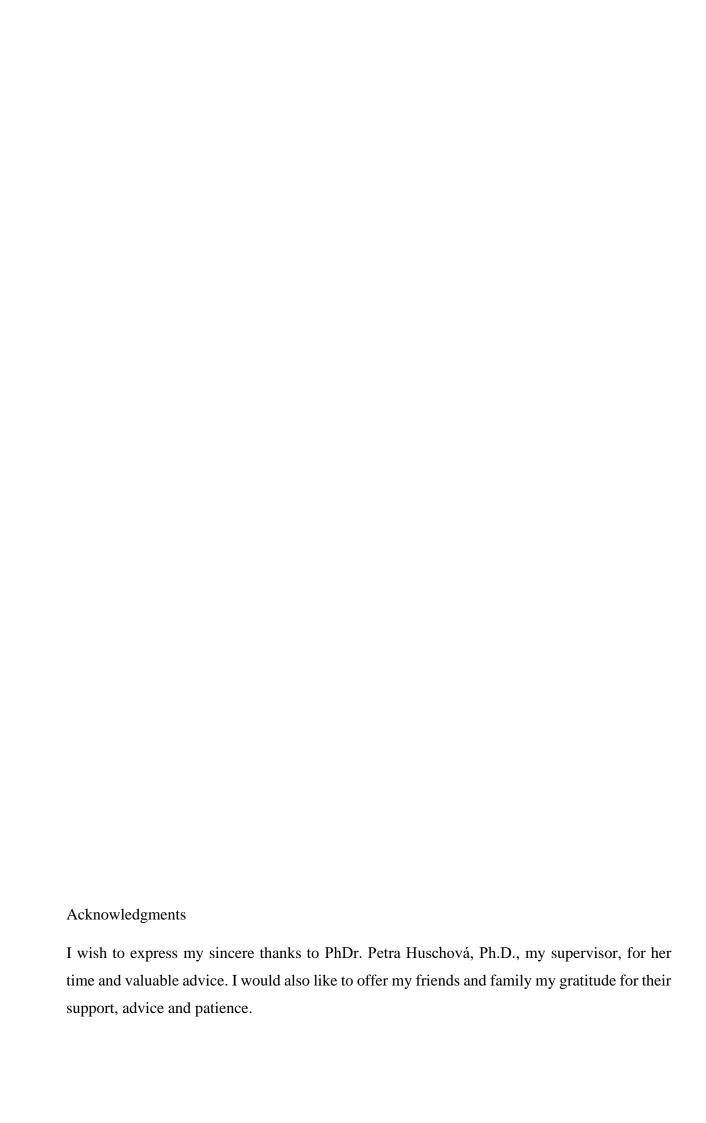ozdějších předpisů, a směrnicí Univerzity Pardubice č. 7/2019 Pravidla pro odevzdávání, zveřejňování a formální úpravu závěrečných prací, ve znění pozdějších dodatků, bude práce zveřejněna prostřednictvím Digitální knihovny Univerzity Pardubice.

V Pardubicích dne 1.7. 2020

Zuzana Olexová

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Annotation

The bachelor thesis deals with the features of standard and nonstandard negation in English. Its aim is to discuss the usage and occurrence of negation in written and spoken language by analysing the American novel Of Mice and Men by John Steinbeck. The theoretical part is mainly concerned with negation, its standard and nonstandard features and rules. The practical part is divided into two main chapters, dialogues and narrative passages, where the features of spoken and written negation are analysed.

Key words

negation, scope of negation, multiple negation, ain't, standard English, nonstandard English, written language, spoken language, Of Mice and Men

Název

Negace v psaném a mluveném jazyce

Anotace

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá prvky standardní a nestandardní negace v anglickém jazyce. Jejím cílem je zkoumat užití a výskyt negace v psaném a mluveném jazyce prostřednictvím analýzy americké novely O myších a lidech od Johna Steinbecka. Teoretická část se zabývá převážně negací, jejími standardními a nestandardními vlastnostmi a pravidly. Praktická část je rozdělena do dvou hlavních kapitol, dialogů a narativních pasáží, zabývajících se vlastnostmi mluvené a psané negace.

Klíčová slova

negace, dosah negace, dvojí zápor, ain't, standardní angličtina, nestandardní angličtina, psaný jazyk, mluvený jazyk, O myších a lidech

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Introduction

The aim of the thesis is to analyse the usage of negation in written and spoken language. The textual analysis is based on the novel *Of Mice and Men* by John Steinbeck. The thesis is divided into two parts, the theoretical and the practical. The main purpose of the theoretical part is to introduce the rules for forming negation generally regarded as the preferable way of speaking and especially writing of the English language. The main purpose of the practical part is to analyse the dialogues and narrative parts of the novel and determine whether these rules apply to spoken and written language as well as observe which types of negation appear in the two instances.

The theoretical part consists of three main chapters. As the thesis analyses negation from the viewpoint of grammar, the features of *descriptive* and *prescriptive* grammars are stated in the first chapter, and a suitable approach is chosen. Since written and spoken English play an essential part in this work, the concepts of *standard* and *nonstandard* English are introduced in the second main chapter as standard English is used in the theoretical part to showcase the preferred usage of negation in written language whereas nonstandard English forms a major part of the practical section of the thesis since it is more or less exclusively found in spoken, colloquial English. Substantial emphasis is given to the rules that guide formation and usage of negation as they are crucial for understanding this work. The third main chapter is therefore divided into several subchapters that explain these rules for *not-negation*, *no-negation*, *the words negative in meaning (not form)* and *lexical negation*. In order to understand the intended meaning of negation in a sentence, the *scope of negation* is introduced. Moreover, *multiple negation* and *ain't*, which are the main features of nonstandard negation, are discussed for the purposes of the practical analysis.

The practical part uses the excerpts of the dialogues and narrative passages found in the novel and analyses them in several chapters. These excerpts can be found in the appendices of this work. The first chapter is dedicated to the novel itself and the language it uses. Moreover, it contains an overview of the corpus findings. The two main subchapters are dedicated to the dialogues and narratives respectively. Each of them analyses the excerpts according to their category and excerpts falling within nonstandard English are compared with their standard English equivalents.

1 Descriptive and Prescriptive Grammars

In order to establish an approach the thesis abides by, the terms "descriptive" and "prescriptive" grammar are introduced. Biber et al. (1999, 6–7), Quirk et al. (1985, 14) and Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 5) agree that there are two points of view on grammar, descriptive and prescriptive. The prescriptive approach sees grammar as a strict set of rules to be followed whereas the descriptive approach, although acknowledging these rules, strives to describe the language as it is.

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 7) with Quirk et al. (1985, 14) point out that there is no authority dictating the correct and incorrect usage of grammar. The authors of prescriptive works simply consider formal language in standard English superior to informal language and thus the correct one (ibid., 7; ibid., 14). Hence, prescriptivists tend to label informal language as ungrammatical. Furthermore, they direct language users to write and speak in a certain way. On the other hand, descriptive works often dispute with prescriptive views as they find some restrictions in usage to be obsolete, stiff and unnatural to the speakers of English and consider every option that is used widely as the correct one. Therefore, they do not instruct speakers of English to speak and write in one desirable way, they provide them with options. In descriptive approach, both formal and informal language within standard English is treated as correct. Moreover, a nonstandard structure is considered incorrect in standard English, although correct in its usage of a nonstandard language. (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 2–8)

The thesis uses mainly descriptive grammars such as Biber et al. (1999) and their view of the English language. Thus, the thesis follows descriptive approach. The terms standard and nonstandard English mentioned in relation to the grammars are discussed further in the following chapters.

2 Standard and Nonstandard English

The previous chapter introduced the terms standard and nonstandard English in relation to prescriptive and descriptive grammar. The concept of standard and nonstandard English is essential to the thesis as its aim is to analyse the spoken and written language in the novel *Of Mice and Men*, where both standard and nonstandard English are employed in dialogues and narratives. In the practical section, the nonstandard variety of the language shall be compared to the standard variety which is the predominant dialect of English. This chapter explains the two concepts in general and they are further illustrated on the usage of negation in chapter 3.

2.1 Standard English

As stated in chapter 1, nobody dictates the rules that govern the usage of the English language. Nevertheless, there is a generally recognized form of English preferred by dictionaries, grammars, teachers etc. called standard English (Biber et al. 1999, 18). Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 4) define standard English as a type of variety of present-day English that is accepted by native speakers as well as non-natives to whom it serves as a tongue used in most aspects of their lives such as broadcasting, education or entertainment. As these speakers of English use the language on day-to-day basis in various situations, there needs to be an agreement about the style and form of English used in these situations. The agreement is provided by those who choose a type of language to use in broadcasting, writing etc. and those who edit and correct the statements, works etc. Therefore, the agreement between the speakers that suggests what is widely accepted as correct and suitable for each context forms standard English. (ibid., 4) Quirk et al. (1985, 18) confirm that there is an agreement between the speakers as they claim that there is a great uniformity within the written language in English worldwide. Similarly, Trudgill (2000, 5–6) defines standard English as the variety of English "used in print […], taught at schools and to non-native speakers learning the language" as well as "spoken by educated people and used in news broadcasts and other similar situations."

Strevens (1981) provides a definition of standard English that is in alignment Trudgill (2000) but also emphasizes that standard English is a dialect of English:

> [Standard English is] a particular dialect of English, being the only non-localised dialect, of global currency without significant variation, universally accepted as the appropriate educational target in teaching English; which may be spoken with an unrestricted choice of accent. (Strevens 1981, 2)

As Trudgill (2000, 6) explains, this variety of the English language formed out of the various London dialects spoken by educated people from the upper class whose way of speaking and writing was praised as the ideal. Thus, a certain fixed grammar was formed and used as the predominant form in print, enabling it to sustain its reputation as the highest form of English. However, there is a difference between a dialect and an accent as grammar does not influence pronunciation. Therefore, a person can have a particular accent such as Scottish and still speak standard English. (Trudgill 2000, 6–7) This suggests that the difference between standard and nonstandard English stems solely from the usage of grammar. Furthermore, standard English is divided into two groups that Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 5) refer to as regional dialects, whereas Quirk et al. (1985, 18) call them subsystems of spelling and punctuation in standard English. Nevertheless, the two groups are the same, dividing standard English into the British

and American variants. The difference between the two varieties stems mostly from the fact that some words such as *colour*/*color* or *centre*/*center* have different spellings, punctuation differs in regard to quotation and dates differ in order of information stated (Quirk et al. 1985, 18–19).

It is important to mention that there is a great difference in perception of standard English, as descriptive grammars such as Biber et al. (1999) consider it to be the superior option, whereas Trudgill (2000), whose point of view is sociolinguistic, points out that the main reason people generally regard standard English as the superior, pleasant-sounding option, is because there is a certain social norm that makes people believe that upper-class, educated people are to be admired and therefore the language they use must in turn be the desirable way of speaking as opposed to variants spoken by a relatively small number of people commonly of rural background whose language is not perceived as beautiful.

2.2   Nonstandard English

Nonstandard English is not easily definable. Considering that standard English is defined as a dialect widely used by speakers in many aspects of lives and by non-natives as the predominant educational variety, clearly, nonstandard English is the opposite, i.e. the dialect or dialects of English used only by specific groups of people. Rogne (2018, 8) states that it is indeed not easy to determine what nonstandard English is. In Rogne's opinion, the difference between standard and nonstandard English is in the usage of grammar, as nonstandard English "violates the rules of standard English." (2018, 8) Therefore, she confirms the view taken by the descriptive works this thesis abides by as she finds nonstandard English to be grammatically incorrect in standard English.

Amberg and Vause (2009, 91) share Rogne's opinion and confirm the difference between descriptive and prescriptive approaches to grammar, claiming that instances of nonstandard English are considered ungrammatical by prescriptivists but grammatical by descriptive linguists. Thus, the sentence (1) *Me and him went out last night* is regarded as correct in nonstandard English by descriptive linguists as it is used by the speakers in spoken language (ibid., 91). Since the thesis uses the descriptive view on grammar, nonstandard English is treated as grammatical, but its usage shall nevertheless be compared to the rules of the standard language as described in the following chapters.

Biber et al. (1999, 1121) indicate that nonstandard or vernacular language, as they also call it, is found in colloquial speech, implying that written language usually uses standard variety of

English. Furthermore, they specify that some nonstandard structures are used somewhat commonly whereas others such as multiple negation are stigmatized. (ibid., 1121) The main two features of nonstandard negation are *ain't* and multiple negation and these phenomena shall be discussed further in their respective chapters as they form a substantial part of the thesis' analysis.

3   Negation

The bachelor thesis deals mainly with negation and the usage and application of its rules in written and spoken language using excerpts of dialogues and narratives from the novel *Of Mice and Men*. Thus, this chapter is dedicated to negation, its definition, division, function, types and other factors influencing negative parts or negative elements of a sentence. The chapter's main sources are Biber et al. (1999), Quirk et al. (1985) and Huddleston and Pullum (2002). Hence, the examples the thesis uses to explain the topic at hand are extracted primarily from these grammars and their interpretation reflects the author's understanding of information gathered from the various grammars.

3.1   Definition of Negation

Gleason quoted in Alnawaisheh (2015, 1) states that negation in spoken language "allows us to discuss what is not happening or what we do not want." According to Biber et al. (1999, 158), negation "is used to deny or reject proposition." They describe the formation of negation in a clause simply as "the insertion of the negator not or some other negative words such as no, nothing, etc." (Biber et al. 1999, 158). Similarly, Alnawaisheh (2015, 1) claims that negation is a process that makes a clause negative usually by insertion of some negative particles. Crystal (2008, 323) adds that in lexis there are other means to negate affirmatives such as by negative affixes or words that denote negative meaning. Moreover, Dušková et al. (1994, 337) emphasise that in order to make a clause negative, only one negative particle needs to be inserted. Thus, the function of negation is quite straightforward: it negates either a sentence, clause or parts of the clause.

It is important to point out that negation is much more productive in spoken than in written language as (Biber et al. 1999, 159) observed in their corpus findings. The high frequency of negation in spoken English is influenced by several factors. Firstly, there are many more clauses in the spoken language and they are shorter and use more verbs (especially those that strongly collocate with negator *not* such as *forget*, *know*, *mind*), which results in frequent use of negation since negative elements are more likely to attract verbs than other clause elements. Secondly,

repetition is a common spoken feature as well as some structures involving negation such as multiple negation and question tags. Thirdly, as spoken language usually involves discussion, disagreement between the speakers can arise as opposed to the written form where usually only one author or group of authors present their ideas. (ibid., 159)

Negative statements differ in polarity from positive statements. Therefore, the following examples (2) A. *It is raining* and (2) B. *It isn't raining* differ from each other as the statement (2) A. possesses positive polarity, while the statement (2) B. possesses negative polarity (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 786).

3.2   Division of Negation

The approach to dividing negation differs from author to author since there are many ways to classify the types of negation used in English. Generally, authors agree in two criteria according to which they divide negation; according to the formation of negation and according to the meaning of negation. However, the terms they use and further division of these criteria differ. For the former, Biber et al. (1999) and Quirk et al. (1985) use the term "clause/clausal negation," whereas Dušková et al. (1994) use the terms "grammatical negation" and "lexical negation". The categories are divided into subgroups that differ between authors, although there is a common ground. The latter criterion again differs in terminology, as Biber et al. (1999) and Quirk et al. (1985) call it "scope of negation," whereas Dušková et al. (1994) apply the terms "clausal negation" and "subclausal negation."

Biber et al. (1999, 158–159) divide clausal negation into "not-negation", including the negator *not* and "no-negation," including negative words *no*, *nothing*, *nobody*, etc., whereas Quirk et al. (1985, 776–780) use more general labels, calling the usage of *not* "clause negation through verb negation" and the usage of other negative words "clause negation other than through verb negation". The latter is divided into two subgroups, "words negative in form and meaning", containing the words *no*, *none*, *never*, etc. and "words negative in meaning but not in form", containing the words *seldom*, *rarely*, *hardly*, etc. (Quirk et al. 1985, 778–80) The second subgroup is not discussed by Biber et al. (1999) in relation to negation. However, it is mentioned in relation to subject-operator inversion in the category "negative or restrictive opening elements" (Biber et al. 1999, 915). Grammatical negation devised by Dušková et. al (1994, 336–338) corresponds to the division of clausal negation by Biber et al. (1999). Moreover, they mention words negative in meaning but not in form by Quirk et al. (1985) in relation to the negative words. However, there is a new category, mentioned in the previous paragraph, called

lexical negation. This category corresponds to Crystal's (2008) statement in the previous chapter since it is concerned with negative affixes of words such as *uncomfortable* and *hopeless*. (Dušková et al. 1994, 336–338) Quirk et al. (1985) and Biber et al. (1999) do not mention these words in relation to negation.

Biber et al. (1999, 175) include in the scope of negation a category called "local negation" whereas Quirk et al. (1985, 787–794) consider it to be a separate related category. On the other hand, Quirk et al. (1985, 789) include a category called "focus of negation," which Biber et al. (1999) do not mention. Dušková et al. (1994, 339) use the terms clausal and subclausal negation that correspond with Biber et al. (1999).

Furthermore, Huddleston and Pullum (2002) have a distinct view on division of negation. They use different terminology, e.g. "verbal" negation for the usage of the negative particle *not*, as well as different categories such as "ordinary vs metalinguistic negation". (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 787–790) Even though their categorization differs, the categories still fall into the assumption made by the author in the first paragraph of this chapter as they correspond to the two criteria.

The thesis shall use the combination of terms by Biber et al. (1999) and Quirk et al. (1985) as their terminology overlaps and therefore call the criterion of formation clausal negation and the criterion of meaning focus of negation. Moreover, lexical negation mentioned by Dušková et al. (1994) shall be discussed as well since the purpose of this work is to analyse all types of formation of negation. Clausal negation shall use the combination of the terms of Biber et al. (1999) and Quirk et al. (1985) to cover all categories. It shall consist of not-negation, no-negation and words negative in meaning (not form). Scope of negation shall include local negation, whereas focus of negation is excluded, as it is purposeless for the practical part.

3.3 Scope of Negation

The criterion of meaning shall be discussed before the criterion of formation as formation is logically linked to meaning and thus it is necessary to establish the differences in having scope over. Negation within the sentence can be restricted either to the entire clause, part of the clause, a phrase or a word. The part of the sentence influenced by the negative item is called scope of negation. Scope of negation applies to the clause or its part, whereas the scope of negation within a phrase or a word is called local negation. As the previous chapter mentions, the thesis includes local negation in the scope of negation and excludes focus of negation.

Quirk et al. (1985, 787) and Biber et al. (1999, 175) state that scope of negation usually starts with the negative element and ends at the end of the clause. Baker (1995, 490) applies the "left-to-right rule," working on the principle that the left-most clause element has the widest scope and thus the scope of negation starts with the negative element on the left and continues right to the end of the clause. Therefore, the scope of negation can be demonstrated in (3) *I didn't kill it* (Appendix A, 164). Dušková et al. (1994, 339) mention that the negator *not* can negate an entire clause even when not related to the predicate of the clause, showing this in (4) *Not a single star could be seen*. They reveal no-negation can also have a scope over the entire clause such as (5) *No stars could be seen* (Dušková et al. 1994, 339). According to Quirk et al. (1985, 788) the scope of negation can occasionally extend into a subordinate clause. They give an example (6) *I wouldn't like you to disturb anyone*, where negation clearly extends into the subordinate clause that uses non-assertive *anyone* as it follows the negative operator *wouldn't* in the main clause (Quirk et al. 1985, 788).

This touches upon another fact concerning the scope of negation. Anderwald (2002, 32) explains that a clause involved in the scope of negation uses only non-assertive items, whether it is negated by not- or no-negation. Furthermore, her statement is supported by Baker (1995, 491–493), who applies a rule called the "non-assertive rule" that gives narrower scope to non-assertives as opposed to assertives and negative items. Thus, non-assertives must lie inside the scope of negation as negative items have wider scope, which puts them more left in the sentence than non-assertives by his left-to-right rule.

Moreover, when a clause ends with an adjunct, the adverbial needs not be included. As adjuncts vary in their position, they do not always lie within the scope of negation, which results in different meanings. Conversely, disjuncts and conjuncts are never included in the scope of negation, regardless of their position. (Quirk et al. 1985, 787–788) Quirk et al. (1985, 788) provide examples of such clauses:

(7) *She definitely didn't speak to him.*

(8) *She didn't definitely speak to him.*

(9) *I wasn't listening all the time.*

(10) *I wasn't listening all the time.*

Sentence (7) does not include the adjunct *definitely* in the scope of negation and it implies that the subject of the clause surely did not speak with *him*, whereas in sentence (8) the adjunct

definitely is included within the scope of negation, suggesting that the speaker is not certain whether *she* spoke with *him*. Example (9) implies that the speaker wants to communicate the fact that they were not listening at all, as the scope of negation lies only on *wasn't listening* as opposed to (10) where the scope of negation includes the adjunct *all the time*, resulting in the meaning that they were not listening the entire time, just sometimes. The difference between the sentences (9), (10) could be discerned only in spoken language where the speaker would give emphasis to certain words. This also shows Baker's (1995) left-to-right rule is not always true.

3.3.1 Local Negation

As per chapter 3.3, local negation is the scope of negation within a phrase or a single word. Thus, such negation affects e.g. a noun phrase as in (11) *You've abducted <u>a not unknown holder</u> of government office, a member of the House of Representatives* or adverbial as in (12) *<u>Not surprisingly</u>, two GOP Assembly incumbents were defeated for re-election in California that November* (Biber et al. 1999, 175).

As Quirk et al. (1985, 790) indicate, the difference between the scope of negation and local negation is mainly the fact that the scope of negation affects the clause from the negative item to the end of the clause (with exceptions mentioned in the previous chapter) as opposed to local negation that applies only to the phrase or word that is negated.

Anderwald (2002, 33) applies the term "constituent negation" and provides others such as "phrasal negation" or "focusing negation". She defines it as negation influencing only a part of a sentence by using *not*. In case of this narrower scope, however, it is possible to use *not* in places in the sentence where the sentence negator *not* is not possible, resulting in a focused, local scope. Such focused scope is easily recognizable, as in standard English it usually stands right in front of the highlighted structure, creating contrast. Such sentences usually use *not…but* structure, which implies a positive substitution of the negated phrase / word as in (13) *Among other metaphors there is a rich cluster based <u>not on sight</u> <u>but on touch</u>*. (Anderwald 2002, 33)

Quirk et al. (1985, 792) dispute with Anderwald since they claim that *no* as well as other no-negation words can form local negation. For example, the quantifiers *a little* and *a few* are indeed negated locally by *not* but the quantifier *little* is negated with *no*, resulting in local negation. Local negation with *no*, *none*, *nothing*, *never* as well as *not* can negate prepositional phrases as in (14) *I'll give it to you <u>for nothing</u>*. (Quirk et al. 1985, 792)

Dušková et al. (1994, 338) provides a type of negation that only influences the word it is related to. Mentioned in chapter 3.2, such negation is called lexical negation and is discussed in chapter 3.5.

3.4 Clausal Negation

Chapter 3.2 introduced the term clausal negation which consists of three categories: not-negation, no-negation and words negative in meaning (not form). This chapter discusses the rules for the usage of these types. Generally, several syntactic features of clausal negation that discern negative statements from positive ones exist:

> They are followed by positive checking tag questions. […] The are followed by negative tag clauses, with additive meaning. […] Like positive clauses, however, they may be followed by positive tag clauses that do not have subject-operator inversion. […] In discourse, they are followed by negative agreement responses. […] They are followed by non-assertive items. […] They do not cooccur with items that have positive orientation. […] (Quirk et al. 1985, 777–778)

3.4.1 Not-negation

Quirk et al. (1985, 776) and Biber et al. (1999, 160), state that to make a positive statement negative by using not-negation, the negator *not* must be inserted between the operator and the rest of the verb phrase. Sinclair (2017, 562) states that *not* is the negative word used most often. (Quirk et al. (1985, 776) explain that "the operator is the first auxiliary verb in a complex verb phrase." In simple verb phrases with *be*, the verb behaves as an auxiliary. In simple verb phrases with *stative have*, it is also possible to use the verb as an auxiliary, especially in British English. Therefore, the positive sentence (15) A. *They <u>are</u> noisy* shall be transformed into (15) B. *They <u>are not</u> noisy* and the positive sentence (16) A. *He <u>has</u> enough money* can be transformed into (16) B. *He <u>has not</u> enough money.* In positive sentences with no operator, the dummy auxiliary *do* is inserted into the negative sentence, preceding the negator *not*. The following example shall demonstrate this (Quirk et al. 1985, 776):

(17) A. *I <u>paid</u> the porter.* - B.1. *I <u>did not pay</u> the porter*. B.2. *I <u>didn't pay</u> the porter.* (Quirk et al. 1985, 776)

Similarly, with *dynamic have* as opposed to *stative have*, the insertion of auxiliary *do* in the negative sentence is necessary. Thus, the positive sentence (18) A. *We <u>had</u> a party last week* shall be transformed into (18) B. *We <u>didn't have</u> a party last week.* (Quirk et al. 1985, 776) Biber et al. (1999, 160) add that the verb *be* in negative imperatives also needs the auxiliary *do*, such as in the sentence (19) *<u>Don't be</u> silly!*

The examples (17) B.2. and (18) B. represent a feature of negation called "contraction". Biber et al. (1999, 160) state that in informal writing as opposed to formal writing, the negator *not* attaches to the operator as an enclitic in form of *n't*. However, in speech and informal written English exists another possibility to create contracted negation by attaching the auxiliary verb to the preceding word and thus creating a contraction consisting of the subject and the verb, causing the negative particle *not* to stay uncontracted. (Biber et al. 1999, 160)

Albeit the variability of contraction, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 801) provide restrictions to the usage, namely for the position of the enclitic *n't* and the negator *not*. Since *n't* is an inflectional suffix of the verb it is attached to, it cannot be attached to anything else. The negator *not* is restricted in its position in subject-auxiliary inversion. Therefore, the question (20) *Does not she agree with me?* is marked incorrect, as the negator *not* cannot be placed between the auxiliary and the subject. (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 801)

There is another option allowing speakers to make positive statements negative using not-negation. Quirk et al. (1985, 778) and Dušková et al. (1994, 337) agree the negator *not* can negate other sentence elements besides the verb. Hence, the example (21) A. *We didn't leave one bottle behind*, that uses the negator *not* in combination with an auxiliary verb *do*, can be rephrased into (21) B. *We left not one bottle behind*, where the negator *not* is linked to the object of the sentence (Quirk et al. 1985, 779).

3.4.2   No-negation

A sentence can become negative by inserting a negative word. According to Dušková et al. (1994, 337) those words, which she calls "negative quantifiers", are *no*, *none*, *nobody*, *no one*, *nothing*, *nowhere*, *never*, *neither*. Biber et al. (1999, 168) add the conjunction *nor* to the list. Each *no*-form has its positive equivalent used in not-negation. Thus, *no* and *none* correspond to *not any*, *nobody* corresponds to *not anybody*, *no one* corresponds to *not anyone*, *nothing* to *not anything*, *nowhere* to *not anywhere*, *never* to *not ever*, *neither* to *not either*, *nor* to *and not*. (Biber et al. 1999, 168)

Dušková et al. (1994, 337) states that *no* either functions as a determiner or has a sentential function as in the answer to yes-no questions. Quirk et al. (1985, 780) indicate that the negative quantifier *no* is used with adjectives only when marked for comparative degree as in examples (22) *no worse*, (23) *no more awkward* and (24) *no less intelligent*. However, there is an exception to the rule. In fixed phrases, such as (25) *no good*, an adjective not marked for comparative degree is modified by the negative quantifier *no* (Quirk 1985, 780).

In no-negation, the negative element is not associated with the verb, as is mostly the case with not-negation, but with other sentence elements (Dušková et al. 1994, 339). As per chapter 3.1, only one negative particle negates the clause in standard English. Nonstandard negation can use more than one negative element in one clause in the so-called multiple negation discussed in chapter 3.6.

Sinclair (2017, 522) observes that *no* stands before singular as well as plural nouns as a determiner, e.g. (26) *He has no ambition*. To refer back to a noun phrase with determiner *no,* the negative word *none* can be used. The example (27) *Nobody in her house knows any English* shows that *nobody* together with *no one* and *nothing* are indefinite pronouns. *Nowhere* is an indefinite place adverb as in (28) *There's almost nowhere left to go*. *Never* is used between the auxiliary and main verb in a verb phrase as in (29) *I would never trust my judgement again*. It usually follows the main verb *be* in simple present and past tense (unless it precedes it for emphasis; applies to the auxiliary *do* as well) as opposed to any other main verb where it precedes the verb. Moreover, *never* has an initial position in imperative structures. *Neither* and *nor* are used together to express the negation of two alternatives, e.g. (30) *Neither Margaret nor John was there*. The negative word *neither* always contradicts the first alternative and *nor* the second. Furthermore, *neither* can stand on its own before a noun expressing both items that are to be negated in a sentence such as (31) *Neither report mentions the Americans.* (ibid., 522–526)

3.4.3 Not-negation vs No-negation

Biber et al. (1999, 170) observe that the usage of not-negation greatly exceeds the usage of no-negation. Overall, no-negation is least used in conversation as opposed to written language, with news being the most frequent style of writing where no-negation occurs. Sinclair (2017, 525) confirms the latter since he states that in spoken English the negative word *no* is usually replaced by *not / n't + any* and so the clause (32) A. *I had no money* would more likely be phrased (32) B. *I didn't have any money*. However, Dušková et al. (1994, 341) partially dispute with Sinclair (2017), as, in their opinion, *no* is the preferred choice in cases where *not + any* would stand in close vicinity as in (33) A. *There's nothing we can do*, as with not-negation the clause would be rephrased (33) B. *There isn't anything we can do*. Although they agree with the fact that *not + any* is often used in speech as opposed to *no* that belongs to writing, their corpus findings study reveals that *no* still exceeds *not + any* in the frequency of usage in spoken language. The reason for a higher frequency of *no* stems from the previously mentioned tendency to use *no*, where *not + any* would stand next to each other as well as from the fact that

not + any is never used in place of the subject and other preverbal positions as in (34) *Nobody promised me anything* where *not anybody* is not possible. (ibid., 341)

According to Biber et al. (1999, 169) not-negation can in circa 80% of cases replace no-negation, whereas no-negation can only replace not-negation in about 30% of cases. Dušková et al. (1994, 341) employ a rule of using the type of negation that comes as close to the beginning of a clause as possible. The reason for this rule arises from the fact that a clause is perceived as positive by the listener or reader until the negation takes place, making it more convenient to express negation early in the structure. Therefore, this rule in some cases favours not-negation but no-negation in others. (ibid, 341)

As seen in the first paragraph, the negative word *no* is replaceable with *not + any*, and vice versa. Hence, each negative quantifier and its *not + any* equivalent, mentioned in the previous chapter, can be used interchangeably. Moreover, a sentence using not-negation can be replaced with no-negation when a noun phrase with an indefinite article appears, such as in the sentence (35) A. *She doesn't have a car yet* where the indefinite article *a* can be replaced by the negative element *no* resulting in the sentence (35) B. *She has no car yet* (Biber et al. 1999, 169).

As stated in the first paragraph, there are cases where not-negation cannot replace no-negation: when *not + any* would stand next to each other, would be used as a subject or in a pre-verbal position. However, Quirk et al. (1985, 779) add that not-negation (operator + *not*) cannot be used with non-generic subjects such as in (36) *None of us were ready* and (37) *Not one guest arrived late* whereas the sentence (38) A. *No honest man would lie* can be rephrased using operator + *not* into the sentence (38) B. *An honest man would not lie*.

As there are cases where both not-negation and no-negation are possible, the meaning the language user desires to communicate is crucial since the type of negation used changes the meaning. Biber et al. (1999, 168–169) and Quirk et al. (1985, 779–780) agree that the most common difference comes from the usage of the negator *not* and the negative quantifier *no*. They provide the same example:

(39) A. *He's not a teacher.* B. *He's no teacher.*

Sentence (39) A. states that the person discussed does not work as a teacher. Sentence (39) B. suggests that the person discussed works as a teacher but the speaker believes their teaching skills are questionable. Thus, the sentence using the negative word *no* is evaluative, which

creates the main difference between the choice of usage of *not* and *no*. (Biber et al. 1999, 168–169) (Quirk et al. 1985, 779–780)

3.4.4   Words Negative in Meaning (not form)

Some words imply negation although they are not negative in their form. According to Quirk et al. (1985, 780) the category includes *hardly*, *scarcely*, *rarely*, *barely*, *seldom*, *little*, *few* and to some extent *only*. Sinclair (2017, 527–528) calls these words "broad negatives" since their presence in the clause makes it almost completely negative. Baker (1995, 494) confirms this statement since his non-assertive rule shows a wider scope for broad negatives and puts them on the left, preceding non-assertives as in (40) *Hardly any citizens ever say anything*, which proves their negative interpretation.

Sinclair (2017, 528) states that broad negatives occupy the same positions in the sentence as *never* (see 3.3.2). Biber et al. (1999, 915) and Quirk et al. (1985, 781) agree that when words negative in meaning (not form) stand in the initial position in the sentence, subject-operator inversion is required. Quirk et al. (1895, 781) illustrate the cases of subject-operator inversion on the following examples:

(41) *Rarely does crime pay so well as many people think.*

(42) *Scarcely ever has the British nation suffered so much obloquy.*

Example (41) introduces a case in which the auxiliary *do* is inverted with the subject *crime* as the sentences is initiated with the word *rarely*. Example (42) uses subject-operator inversion with the operator *have* and the subject in form of a noun phrase *the British nation*. Additionally, the sentence shows the syntactic feature of clausal negation; the usage of non-assertive items since the negative element *scarcely* is followed by the non-assertive *ever*.

Similar to not-negation and no-negation, broad negatives possess syntactic features that discern negative statements from positive statements as mentioned in chapter 3.4. Therefore, apart from being followed by non-assertive forms as shown in the first paragraph of this chapter, they are used with positive question tags such as in the example provided by Quirk et al. (1985, 780):

(43) *They hardly have any friends, do they?*

Quirk et al. (1985, 781) together with Baker (1995, 495) note that occasionally other words (verbs, adjectives, prepositions) that denote negation are used in sentences with non-assertive items as their negative meaning gives them a wider scope. Quirk et al. (1985, 781) provide

examples (44) *He denies I ever told him* where the verb *deny* conveys negative meaning and thus non-assertive *ever* follows or in (45) *We are unaware of any hostility* where negative meaning is conveyed by the adjective *unaware* followed by non-assertive *any*. The latter example is an instance of lexical negation and it is discussed in greater detail in the following chapter.

3.5   Lexical Negation

Chapter 3.2 introduces the term lexical negation employed by Dušková et al. (1994). This type of negation is not discussed by other grammarians, although Huddleston and Pullum (2002) mention lexical negation in relation to "synthetic non-verbal negation," a category which includes the elements of no-negation, words negative in meaning (not form) and lexical negation. Anderwald (2002, 15) refers to this type of negation as "morphological negation" although she does not consider it a part of negation due to the reasons below.

Dušková et al. (1994, 338) together with Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 788) refer to the negative elements used for lexical negation as "affixal negators." Affixal negators include negative prefixes *a-*, *dis-*, *non-*, *un-, in-, im-, ir-, il-* such as in (46) *He pretended to be unaware of Lennie so close beside him* (Appendix B, 24). A suffix used to form a negative word is *-less* as in (47) *Both wore black, shapeless hats and both carried tight blanket rolls slung over their shoulders* (Appendix B, 16).

As mentioned in 3.3.1, lexical negation does not make the clause or its parts negative as is the case with clausal negation, only the word the affix is attached to is negated. Hence, lexical negation does not influence other elements in the clause and can be combined with not- and no-negation (Dušková et al. 1994, 338). Anderwald (2002, 15) explains that since lexical negation influences only the derived word, the rest of the clause may be positive and use negative question tags, which explains her reluctance to place lexical negation among other negative features.

Dušková et al. (1994, 338) reveal that a clause with not- or no-negation can have a similar meaning to a clause using lexical negation. The example (48) A. *This name is not common* is therefore similar to (48) B. *This name is uncommon*. Nevertheless, the meaning starts to differ when intensification takes place. In that case, (49) A. *This name is not very common* differs profoundly from (49) B. *This name is very uncommon*, as the former example suggests only a slight degree of uncommonness whereas the latter suggests a high degree of uncommonness. (Dušková et al. 1994, 338)

3.6   Multiple Negation

As stated in chapter 3.1, only one particle is inserted in a clause to form a negative structure. However, chapter 3.4.2 mentions that clauses with more negative particles exist. This phenomenon is called multiple negation. Multiple negation or double negation, as Quirk et al. (1985, 798) call it, is said to differ in standard and nonstandard English. In standard English the two negatives cancel each other whereas in nonstandard English negative items are used instead of non-assertive items that should follow the first negative element in the sentence. Anderwald (2002, 101) and Palacios Martínez (2013, 222) refer to the nonstandard type as "negative concord." Biber et al. (1999, 177–179) use the term multiple negation and analyse both standard and nonstandard types which they divide into two subtypes, "independent" multiple negation and "dependent" multiple negation. Hence, the division proposed by Biber et al. (1999) corresponds with the statement made by Quirk et al. (1985). Since double negation suggests the occurrence of only two negative particles in one clause, this thesis uses the term multiple negation as mentioned in 3.2. Furthermore, independent and dependent multiple negation are used to effectively imply the difference between the two types. The types are discussed further in the following subchapters.

3.6.1   Independent Multiple Negation

The previous chapter introduced the term independent multiple negation as such negation that uses two or more negative elements that cancel each other. Such negation is used and considered correct in standard English. Biber et al. (1999, 179) introduces two main instances of independent multiple negation, the first being repetition and restatement and the second being negative items that cancel each other. Overall, independent multiple negation appears mostly in the written form since it is formed deliberately. (Biber et al. 1999, 179)

Biber et al. (1999, 179) provide examples of repetition and restatement:

(50) *Won't eat any veggies you know, none.*

(51) *No, not tomorrow, she said.*

Both examples cannot be restated as this would change their meaning. Biber et al. (1999, 179) point out the negative forms are independent, as they cannot be changed into non-assertive items without the need of adding the negator *not*. They are both excerpts from spoken language where such repetition is applied to emphasise the speaker's desired meaning.

Quirk et al. (1985, 798–799) offer examples of the second main instance along with their positive restatements:

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

(53) *Never before had none of the committee members supported the mayor. – Some of the committee members had always supported the mayor before.*

As the restatements suggest, this multiple negation can result in positive meaning. Quirk et al. (1985, 799) add that "syntactically the clauses are still negative."

3.6.2 Dependent Multiple Negation

According to Biber et al. (1999, 178–179), dependent multiple negation is a cooccurrence of two or more negative items in one clause that are used to convey one negative meaning. Such multiple negation occurs mainly in spoken forms, i.e. conversations and dialogues in fiction. They state that dependent multiple negation normally occurs in sentences with non-assertive items, since these items follow the first negative element of the clause and in dependent multiple negation they become negative as well. This is true for the example (54) *You've never seen nothing like it*, where the second negative item would normally occur as the non-assertive *anything*. (ibid., 178) Anderwald (2002, 101–102) elaborates, saying there are two types of such negation, one that uses not-negation in combination with no-negation, where no-negation replaces a non-assertive item, and one that uses two no-negation forms as seen above. Although she does not specifically mention this, broad negatives can also be used together with not- or no-negation to form dependent multiple negation, as can be seen in her and Palacios Martínez's (2013) corpus findings.

Palacios Martínez (2013, 222–223) observes that in a clause with dependent multiple negation, the negative elements *not*, *ain't*, *never*, *hardly* and *no* come first and they are usually followed by *nothing*, *no*, *none*, *never*, *nobody / no one* and *nowhere*. When *nobody*, *nothing* and *nowhere* appear in the first position in the sentence, they are never followed by another negative. He explains that this is likely due to their strong negative meaning. Also, first positions are in 98% cases taken by *not* and *no*, the other negative elements mentioned as appearing in first positions therefore account only to 2%.

Since there are two or more negative elements within the same clause, Biber et al. (1999, 178) declare that this phenomenon can result in stronger negative emphasis. They illustrate the

strengthening effect on the example: (55) *But without the heater they've <u>no</u> hot water, <u>no</u> nothing!*

3.7 Ain't

A common feature of nonstandard negation is the usage of the contraction *ain't*. Biber et al. (1999, 1122) concur with Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 1611) that the contraction *ain't* stands for all the present tense forms of the verb *be* and both present tense forms of the verb *have* in contraction with the negator *not*. Palacios Martínez (2013, 214) adds that the verb *be* functions as an auxiliary as well as lexical (main) verb, whereas *have* mostly functions as an auxiliary, since it either expresses perfect aspect or is combined with *got*. He also observes that the contraction can rarely stand for the verb *do. Ain't* meaning *do*, though, is restricted only to African American Vernacular English. (ibid., 214)

Quirk et al. (1985, 129) confirm the information from chapter 2.2, as they claim that *ain't* is a nonstandard contraction. Biber et al. (1999, 167) subscribe to the opinion as well, indicating, however, that the usage of the contraction is somewhat common albeit unacceptable in standard English. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 1611) claim that in American English, the usage of *ain't* in standard English is acceptable when it appears in an informal setting. Nevertheless, the comparison of usage of the contraction *ain't* as opposed to the standard informal contractions in all types of texts shows that *ain't* is a minor type restricted almost entirely to nonstandard speech. (Biber et al. 1999, 168)

The wide usage of the contraction *ain't* is illustrated on the following examples:

(56) *I <u>ain't</u> takin' it away jus' for meanness.* (Appendix A, 2)

(57) *That mouse <u>ain't</u> fresh, Lennie; and besides, you've broke it pettin' it.* (Appendix A, 13)

(58) *You seen little guys like that, <u>ain't</u> you?* (Appendix A, 45)

(59) *George … I <u>ain't</u> got mine.* (Appendix A, 47)

The example (56) shows that the contraction *ain't* can be used to substitute the auxiliary *be* in its singular, first person form *am*. (57) is a case where *ain't* stands for the contraction *isn't*, suggesting the usage of *ain't* in substitution of the verb *be* in third person singular in its lexical meaning. To substitute the auxiliary *have* in second person singular/plural, *ain't* can be implemented in a sentence as seen in (58). Furthermore, the excerpt (59) represents a sentence where *ain't* stands for first person singular auxiliary verb *have*.

Palacios Martínez (2013, 214–216) observes the frequency of each meaning of the contraction *ain't*, with auxiliary *have* being the most frequent, followed by main *be* and ending with auxiliary *be* as the least frequent. The results of his study correspond to those of Anderwald (2002). She concludes that the reason the speakers use *ain't* stems from their need to reduce or simplify grammatical constructions since *ain't* is the same for various verb forms and persons (Anderwald 2002, 125). It is necessary to specify that their research is concerned with British English only and may not necessarily reflect the frequency in American English.

Moreover, this phenomenon is commonly combined with multiple negation. Biber et al. (1999) as well as Palacios Martínez (2013) often find this combination in their corpus findings.

4   Analysis

The purpose of the bachelor thesis is to analyse negation in spoken and written English. The analysis consists of two main parts, the dialogues and the narrative passages found in the American novel *Of Mice and Men* by John Steinbeck, as they represent the two types of language. Moreover, dialogues use both standard and nonstandard English and thus, the nonstandard excerpts are compared to the usage of standard rules as described in the theoretical part of this bachelor thesis, mainly according to Biber et al., Quirk et al. and Huddleston and Pullum.

Of Mice and Men was written in 1937. The novel tells a story of two men, George Milton and Lennie Small, who travel California during the Great Depression in search for a job. They settle on a ranch in Soledad where they meet the rest of the characters; the owner of the ranch simply referred to as the Boss, the Boss' son Curley and his pretty wife, an old handyman Candy, an African-American stable boy named Crooks and the other farmhands named Slim, Carlson and Whit.

As the story revolves around ranch workers, the language used in the novel's dialogue is authentic. Guth (1973, 106) suitably calls nonstandard English "Working man's" English and describes it as English used on the job, neighbourhood and home. The rules of standard English are violated in many ways, e.g. the speakers do not respect subject-verb concord, i.e. the agreement between the subject and verb phrase in number and person, which is limited to the present tense except for the verb *be* (Biber et al. 1999, 180). A specific example from the novel is the sentence (1) *He was sure burned when you <u>wasn't</u> here this morning* (Appendix A, 203). The correct form of the verb *be* would naturally be *were(n't)*, as this form would agree with the subject *you*. For the purpose of this bachelor thesis, the excerpts are analysed based on their

usage of negation and unless relevant to the analysis, the author does not comment on any other aspect of each sentence.

The corpus consists of 300 negative clauses, appearing on the first 43 pages, of both dialogues and narratives in standard and nonstandard English. The clauses can be found in Appendices A and B. Out of the 300 clauses, 265 are excerpts of dialogues, the rest being narrative excerpts. In the novel, there is a relative balance in the amount of dialogues versus narratives. The disproportion of excerpts suggests that negation is indeed more productive in spoken language as stated in 3.1, e.g. on page 3 of the novel, which is purely narrative, only 4 instances of negation are found, whereas on page 31, which almost exclusively contains dialogues, 14 instances of negation are found. Moreover, the narrative passages are purely standard, whereas the dialogues are primarily nonstandard. There are almost twice as many nonstandard excerpts of spoken English compared to standard English. Thus, the practical part is divided into two main chapters, dialogues and narrative passages, with their subchapters analysing the excerpts. Dubious cases are discussed in a separate chapter.

4.1 Dialogues

This chapter analyses the dialogue excerpts found in the novel *Of Mice and Men*. As mentioned in the previous chapter, the dialogues use standard as well as nonstandard English. Hence, the first three subchapters discuss the excerpts where nonstandard language is used, whereas the last three chapters discuss the standard excerpts.

Before the thorough analysis of each negation type, the table below, which indicates the number of occurrences of each type in general, shall be discussed.

Table 1 Number of occurrences of each type of negation found in dialogues

Type of dialect	Type of negation	Number of occurrences
Nonstandard English	Ain't	50
	Dependent multiple negation	73
	Dependent multiple negation in combination with ain't	38
Standard English	Not-negation	78
	No-negation	19
	Independent multiple negation	2
Total		**260**

As apparent from the table above, the most common type of negation in dialogues is not-negation and the least common is independent multiple negation. They are also the most and least common types in standard dialogues, whereas in nonstandard dialogues, the most common type is dependent multiple negation and the least common type is dependent multiple negation in combination with ain't.

In nonstandard English, dependent multiple negation is likely so frequently used since there is a high chance for non-assertives to appear in a sentence, which results in a tendency to negate such items. The combination of the phenomena with *ain't* being the least common indicates either a tendency to use non-assertives when they appear after the non-standard contraction *ain't* or the lack of such items in sentences with *ain't*. The reason for not-negation being the most common type in standard English stems from the fact that not-negation is used more frequently than no-negation to form negation, as stated in 3.4.3 and the reason why independent multiple negation is the least common type is that it is more common in written language, as per chapter 3.6.1.

4.1.1 Ain't

The first nonstandard phenomenon frequently occurring in the corpus findings is the contraction *ain't*. Chapter 3.6 explained the function of *ain't* as a substitution for the negative contractions of verbs *be* and *have* in their auxiliary and main functions. For the purposes of the analysis, it is necessary to state that the verb *be* in its main form functions as a copula. Copular verbs are such verbs that are followed either by a subject complement or by an adverbial (Quirk et al. 1985, 54). Moreover, the verb *be* in combination with *going to* has a function similar to those of modals (see 4.1.2.1) and therefore is called semi-modal (Biber et al. 1999, 484). *Be* also appears in existential structures with *there* to state the (non-)existence or (non)occurrence of something (ibid., 943). The table below represents a detailed description of the contraction's functions that can be found in the corpus.

Table 2 Number of occurrences of various ain't functions

Correspondence to the type of verb	Number of occurrences
auxiliary verb *be* + *not*	5
semi-modal *be* + *not going to*	4
copula *be* + *not*	32
existential be + *not*	3
auxiliary verb *have* + *not*	2

auxiliary verb *have + not + got*	4
Total	**50**

As apparent from Table 2, the most frequently occurring type of *ain't* is the copula *be* with 32 occurrences. On the other hand, auxiliary verb *have* used to express perfect aspect present tense is the least frequent with only 2 occurrences. In general, *ain't* frequently substitutes the verb *be* as opposed to the verb *have*. All the types are analysed in the following paragraphs.

Firstly, the excerpts with *ain't* corresponding to the verb *be* shall be examined:

(2) *I <u>ain't</u> saying he's bright.* (Appendix A, 3)

(3) *Now, look – I'll give him the work tickets, but you <u>ain't gonna</u> say a word.* (Appendix A, 6)

(4) *He <u>ain't</u> bright.* (Appendix A, 32)

(5) *But that lady <u>ain't</u> here.* (Appendix A, 14)

(6) *You're the new fellas that just come, <u>ain't</u> ya?* (Appendix A, 10)

(7) <u>Ain't</u> a thing in my pocket. (Appendix A, 43)

(8) *I know there <u>ain't</u>. (*Appendix A, 44)

Instances of *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *be + not* appear 5 times in the corpus. An example of such an instance is sentence (2). In this example, the auxiliary verb *be* forms progressive aspect and it would be restated as *I'm not saying he's bright* in standard English.

Ain't corresponding to semi-modal *be + not going to* expresses future time, as in the example (3). Here, *ain't* stands for the contraction *aren't.* Moreover, *going to* is frequently substituted with the nonstandard spelling *gonna*. Thus, the standard negative form of (3) is […] *but you aren't going to say a word*.

The excerpts (4), (5) and (6) represent the most frequent meaning of the contraction *ain't*, that is copular *be + not.* As stated at the beginning of the chapter, the copula *be* occurs in sentences with *subject-verb-subject complement* and *subject-verb-adverbial* patterns. Both types are present in the corpus with (4) representing the former and (5) representing the latter. Hence, the two sentences would be rephrased as *He's not bright* and *But that lady's not here.* Excerpt (6) shows the usage of the copula *be* in question tags and the sentence would be rephrased to standard English as *You're the new fellas that just come, aren't you?*

The last instance of *ain't* substituting the verb *be* is *existential be + not*. Since *there* is not always present in the nonstandard variety of this type of clause, this type is slightly different as *ain't* occasionally replaces the whole phrase *there is / are*. This is true for (7), as such clause equals to the standard *There isn't a thing in my pocket*. However, in (8), the existential *there* is present in the sentence.

Secondly, the excerpts corresponding to the verb *have* are listed:

(9) *I been mean, <u>ain't</u> I?* (Appendix A, 46)

(10) *Well, we <u>ain't got</u> any.* (Appendix A, 48)

Ain't substituting auxiliary verb *have + not* is the least common occurrence of the contraction. There are only two instances and they both represent a sentence where *have* expresses perfect aspect in question tags. Thus, (9) corresponds to *I have been mean, haven't I?* As apparent, similarly to the existential structures, the verb *have* is not present in the sentence at all and the perfect aspect is evident from the form of the verb *be*.

The other type of *ain't* substituting the verb *have* is auxiliary verb *have + not + got*, as in (10). Sentence (10) expresses possession since it uses *have got*, which is an informal construction used especially in British English preferably to express negation (Quirk et al. 1999, 131). The reason why *have got* is present in such clauses as opposed to the *stative have* expressing possession possibly stems from the fact that the meaning behind *ain't* would not be recognizable in the latter case.

In summary, the contraction *ain't* is used in clausal negation and its usage is similar to that of not-negation in standard English. Thus, the scope of negation starts with the negative contraction and ends at the end of the clause. Non-assertives do not appear within the scope of *ain't* except for 1 instance of *any* as seen in example (10). The reason for the non-assertive in the sentence may be to emphasise. Albeit Palacios Martínez (2013) and Anderwald's (2002) identical observations, in the American novel, the usage of main *be* greatly exceeds the usage of auxiliary *have*. This may indicate different tendencies in American English as opposed to British.

4.1.2 Dependent Multiple Negation

Chapter 3.6.2 introduced a prominent nonstandard feature of negation, dependent multiple negation, which is the occurrence of two or more negative elements in one clause that do not cancel each other. In corpus findings, this type occurs the most, with 73 cases.

Table 3 Number of occurrences of various dependent multiple negation combinations

Combination	Number of occurrences
not-negation + no-negation	61
no-negation + no-negation	8
words negative in meaning (not form) combinations	4
Total	**73**

Table 3 shows clear dominance of the combination of not- and no-negation, which corresponds with Palacios Martínez's (2013) observation in chapter 3.6.2, as *not* is one of the frequently used negatives in the first position in a clause and negative quantifiers always stand in the second position. Negation formed solely by negative quantifiers appears less frequently probably since not-negation is used more frequently to form negation, as stated in 3.4.3, and thus the verb in the sentence incorporates the negator *not* rather than staying positive and allowing negative quantifiers to appear. There are only few cases where dependent multiple negation is not formed by the two predominant types, which explains Anderwald's (2002) reluctance in 3.6.2 to place broad negatives among the types of negation forming dependent multiple negation.

Since there are many combinations of different auxiliaries, negative quantifiers and broad negatives that can form dependent multiple negation, each type is discussed separately in the following subchapters.

4.1.2.1 Not-negation in Combination with No-negation

In the corpus, dependent multiple negation is most typically formed by *not* in combination with a negative quantifier. As *not* is frequently combined with modal verbs, this verb category and its relation to negation shall be defined.

There are 9 central modal auxiliary verbs. In the corpus, only 4 central modal auxiliary verbs appear, *can / could* and *will / would*. According to Biber et al. (1999, 484–485), modal verbs are unmarked for tense, although e.g. *will* can be used to refer to future time or non-past time. Their main function is to denote permission / possibility / ability (*can*, *could*) or volition / prediction (*will*, *would*) (ibid., 485). Quirk et al. (1985, 127–128) state that they are followed by bare infinitives, they occur only as operators in verb phrases and they do not use the third person singular inflectional suffix -*s*. Their uncontracted negatives are *cannot / could not*, *will not*/*'ll not* / *would not*/*'d not* and their contracted negatives are *can't / couldn't*, *won't / wouldn't*

(ibid., 135). Since the two pairs are present and past forms of the same verb, each pair forms one category.

Since modal verbs have been defined, the excerpts shall be analysed, starting with the illustration of the various types in the table below:

Table 4 Number of occurrences of various not-negation and no-negation combinations

Combination		Number of occurrences	Subtotal
Type of verb	**Negative quantifier**		
auxiliary verb *do + not*	*no*	22	36
	none	2	
	nothing	6	
	no one / nobody	4	
	never	1	
	neither	1	
auxiliary verb *be + not*	*no*	2	4
	nothing	1	
	neither	1	
copula *be + not*	*no*	1	1
existential be + not	*no*	1	1
modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not*	*no*	6	12
	none	2	
	nothing	3	
	no one / nobody	1	
modal auxiliary verb *can / could + not*	*no*	1	5
	nothing	3	
	no one / nobody	1	
bare infinitive *+ not*	*no*	2	2
Total		**61**	

The auxiliary verb *do* is the most productive in the corpus findings of the not- and no-negation combination, which may be caused by the fact that the dialogues use present simple tense extensively, i.e. there are only 6 instances of *did* as opposed to *do*, and thus the lexical verbs need an auxiliary to form negation. Conversely, existential *be* and copula *be* are the least

productive, with only 1 instance. Existential *be* in general is not very productive, as could be seen in 4.1.1. Moreover, *no* is the most productive negative quantifier (35 instances), whereas *never* is the least productive (1 instance). *No* is possibly highly productive due to its usage as a determiner of singular and plural nouns that often appear as objects of the verb phrases. The excerpts shall be divided according to the verb they use and analysed.

 Firstly, auxiliary *do* and its excerpts:

(11) *Tried and tried, but it <u>didn't</u> do <u>no</u> good.* (Appendix A, 51)

(12) *You jus' stand there and <u>don't</u> say <u>nothing</u>.* (Appendix A, 75)

(13) *<u>Don't</u> <u>never</u> speak to him.* (Appendix A, 85)

Auxiliary *do* appears mostly with *no*, as apparent from Table 4. One such instance is example (11), that, according to the rule by Dušková et al. (1994) in 3.4.3, it would be rephrased […] *but it didn't do any good*, although the restatement […] *but it did no good* with emphasis on *good* could be used as well. Moreover, this confirms the statement in chapter 3.4.2 that fixed phrases such as *no good* use *no*, despite not being marked for comparative degree. Furthermore, in example (11), the auxiliary verb *do* is used in its past form *did. Nothing* occurs often in the scope of *do + not* in the corpus as in (12). It would be restated as […] *don't say anything* in standard English. There is only 1 instance of *never* appearing in the not-negation + no-negation combination. However, the reason for this is purely coincidental, as its non-assertive counterpart, *ever*, does not appear at all.

Secondly, there are various excerpts using a type of the verb *be*:

(14) *But when she was standin' in the doorway showin' her legs, you <u>wasn't</u> looking the other way, <u>neither</u>.* (Appendix A, 90)

(15) *It <u>wasn't</u> <u>no</u> good to pet.* (Appendix A, 91)

(16) *This here blacksmith – name of Whitney – was the kind of guy that would put that stuff around even if there <u>wasn't</u> <u>no</u> bugs – just to make sure, see?* (Appendix A, 92)

Excerpts (14), (15) and (16) represent all three types of the verb *be* and two of the three negative quantifiers that appear with the verb. (14) represents auxiliary *be* forming progressive aspect and, as mentioned in chapter 4, it uses the wrong form of the verb, as for second person singular it should be *were(n't)* and the whole sentence would be […] *you weren't looking the other way, either*. The sentence would not use *neither*, as it would not have a scope over the sentence and,

as stated in 3.4.2, it needs to be used with *nor* or at the beginning of the sentence to negate two items. Example (15) would be restated as *it was no good to pet,* as by the rule *any + not* do not appear in immediate vicinity. In excerpt (16), the verb *be* is used in an existential structure with *there* and *no* is used as a determiner of the noun *bugs*, and so the standard restatement is […] *there weren't any bugs*.

Thirdly, the first of the two modals is listed:

(17) *An' I <u>won't</u> get <u>no</u> mice stole from me.* (Appendix A, 95)

(18) *But I <u>wouldn't</u> eat <u>none</u>, George.* (Appendix A, 99)

The sentence (17) shows the modal auxiliary *will* in its contracted form with *not* that expresses volition. *No* is used as a determiner with the noun *mice.* The standard restatement is *An' I won't get any mice stole from me.* The sentence (18) represents a case of the contracted form of modal auxiliary *would* and the negative quantifier *none. Would* expresses volition and *none* is used to refer back to a noun phrase with the determiner *no* (*no ketchup*).

Finally, the second modal auxiliary excerpts are introduced:

(19) *We <u>couldn't</u> get <u>no</u> rides in the morning.* (Appendix A, 105)

(20) *<u>Nobody</u> <u>can't</u> blame a person for lookin'.* (Appendix A, 109)

The first of the excerpts above uses *could(n't)*, the past form of the verb, to express inability, and *no* as a determiner of *rides. We couldn't get any rides in the morning* is the standard restatement. The second excerpt uses the present form *can('t)*, expressing a sort of prohibition. *Nobody* is used in the initial position in the sentence and, as *not + any* cannot be used as a subject, the sentence's restatement is *Nobody can blame a person for lookin'.*

Moreover, there are two cases where *not* stands in front of a bare infinitive, as in the following example:

(21) *Now we got to be careful and <u>not</u> make <u>no</u> slips.* (Appendix A, 110)

The example shows a sentence where *not* negates the bare infinitive *make* and *no* is used as a determiner. The restatement would either be […] *and make no slips* or *and not make any slips* or more likely the sentence would use to-infinitive as in […] *be careful to not make any slips.*

To conclude, in dependent multiple negation with *not* in combination with negative quantifiers, the dominant quantifier *no* is frequently used due to its function as a determiner since there are

a lot of nouns in the sentences, as seen in the excerpts above. *Not* is almost exclusively attached to auxiliary verbs, except for two bare infinitives, where it stands on its own. The scope of negation starts from the negated verb or *not* itself in case of a bare infinitive and continues to the end of the clause, which is demonstrated by the negative quantifiers that replace non-assertives within the scope. There are two main reasons as to why not-negation combined with no-negation is the most productive type of dependent multiple negation. The first stems from the statement in 3.1 that spoken language uses a lot of verbs and the second from chapter 3.6.2, where it is stated that in dependent multiple negation non-assertives usually become negative. Thus, it is clear that where there is a verb, it usually becomes negative and where there is a non-assertive, it becomes negative as well, resulting in multiple negation.

4.1.2.2   No-negation in Combination with No-negation

There are a few cases of dependent multiple negation realized by combining negative quantifiers. The table below illustrates the combinations found.

Table 5 Number of occurrences of various no-negation and no-negation combinations

Combination		Number of occurrences
First negative quantifier	**Second negative quantifier**	
never	*no*	3
	none	1
	nothing	2
	no one / nobody	1
	neither	1
Total		**8**

As illustrated in the table above, the first negative quantifier in the sentence is always *never*, which is perhaps why it is so scarcely used in the previous dependent multiple negation type since its position is usually between the auxiliary and main verb for emphasis, preventing the auxiliary from becoming negative. The most productive negative quantifier in the second position in the clause is *no*, although the differences in numbers of the quantifiers are negligible. The previous chapter concluded that *no* is the most used negative quantifier due to its wide usage as a determiner, which likely applies here as well. As the usage of the negative quantifiers has been illustrated by the previous chapter, only certain instances of no-negation in combination with no-negation are introduced.

(22) *I <u>never</u> get <u>no</u> peace.* (Appendix A, 112)

(23) *I <u>never</u> done <u>nothing</u> to him.* (Appendix A, 116)

(24) *<u>Never</u> seem to give a damn about <u>nobody</u>.* (Appendix A, 118)

The first instance illustrates the usage of *never* standing between the auxiliary and main verbs in the verb phrase, as stated in chapter 3.4.2. Similar to the previous chapter, *no* is used as a determiner of the noun *peace*. To follow Dušková et al.'s (1994) rule, (22) would be rephrased *I never get any peace.* The second instance also uses *never* in the previously mentioned position. However, in this case, the auxiliary *have* is missing from the sentence, but the perfect aspect is apparent from the form of the main verb *do*. In standard English, the sentence would be *I have never done nothing to him.* The third instance seemingly uses *never* in its initial position in the sentence. However, if transformed to standard English, the sentence indicates a missing personal pronoun in place of a subject, placing the usage of *never* among the other two examples.

In conclusion, the excerpts from the novel using no-negation combined with no-negation use exclusively *never* in the first position. This chapter confirms the statement from 3.3, as no-negation here has a scope from the first negative element over the entire clause and even negates non-assertives in its scope. In comparison to the previous chapter, it is apparent that spoken language in the novel prefers to use not-negation as the initial element in dependent multiple negation.

4.1.2.3   Words Negative in Meaning (not form) Combinations

Broad negatives in dependent multiple negation appear the least in the corpus. Only 4 cases appear. Interestingly, there are only 3 cases with more than 2 negative elements in the sentence and this chapter includes one of them. The table below illustrates the various occurrences.

Table 6 Number of occurrences of various words negative in meaning (not form) and other negation types combinations

Combination		Number of occurrences
Broad negative	**Various negation types**	
hardly	modal auxiliary *can / could + not*	1
	none	1
	never	1
	modal auxiliary *can / could + not + nothing*	1
Total		**4**

Similar to the previous chapter, only one broad negative appears in initial positions; *hardly*. Broad negatives combine with both, not- and no-negation. No-negation outnumbers not-negation by 1 instance. It seems that there is no particular reason for *hardly* to be appearing with these types of not- and no-negation, as each instance is different. The reason for *hardly* to be the only broad negative in the corpus in this type of non-standard negation possibly arises from its rather colloquial connotation as opposed to the others, e.g. *scarcely*, *seldom*. The following paragraphs shall analyse all four instances.

There is 1 instance of a modal auxiliary appearing with *hardly*:

(25) *That dog of Candy's is so God damn old he can't hardly walk.* (Appendix A, 120)

The excerpt above uses the modal auxiliary *can('t)* to express inability and the broad negative *hardly* to express that the *dog* walks with trouble. As *hardly* has this specific meaning, it cannot be excluded from the clause, and thus its standard restatement is […] *he can hardly walk.*

There are 2 cases where *hardly* is combined with no-negation:

(26) *Hardly none of the guys ever travel together.* (Appendix A, 121)

(27) *I hardly never seen two guys travel together.* (Appendix A, 122)

In instance (26) *hardly* takes the initial position in the sentence, although there is no subject-operator inversion suggested by Quirk et al. (1985) in chapter 3.4.4. In standard English, the sentence should be rephrased with subject-operator inversion, and thus auxiliary *do* would be inserted to form the sentence *Hardly ever do any of the guys travel together.* Instance (27) uses *hardly* in position between the auxiliary verb (*have*), which is missing from the sentence, and the main verb (*seen*). The standard restatement is *I have hardly ever seen two guys travel together*. The two instances suggest that when *hardly* is present in the sentence, only the non-assertives in its close vicinity are negated, as in the first one *ever* stays positive as opposed to the second instance.

The phenomenon of more than 2 negative elements in a clause appears once in the corpus:

(28) *Can't hardly see nothing in here.* (Appendix A, 123)

The sentence (28) represents an example of dependent multiple negation formed by 3 negative forms. It is the combination of modal auxiliary *can('t)*, broad negative *hardly* and negative

quantifier *nothing*. As before, removing *hardly* would change the meaning of the sentence; the standard form would be *I can hardly see anything in here.*

To summarize, broad negatives in combination with other negative elements do not appear often in the corpus and their representation is limited to *hardly*. The combinations are purely coincidental. The instances make it clear that the broad negative is irreplaceable in the sentence as its purpose is not purely to negate the clause. Their scope differs, e.g. in (26) it clearly influences only the noun phrase, whereas in (28) it is clear that the scope extends to the end of the clause.

4.1.3 Dependent Multiple Negation in Combination with Ain't

The last instance of non-standard English is the combination of *ain't* and dependent multiple negation. The previous chapters analysed the two phenomena separately. However, as stated in 3.7, they frequently combine and the corpus findings from *Of Mice and Men* reinforce this. Since the contraction *ain't*, negative quantifiers and broad negatives are analysed in previous chapters, this chapter shall briefly overview and analyse the combinations of the two phenomena. As the following table shows, there are several reoccurring combinations.

Table 7 Number of occurrences of various dependent multiple negation and ain't combinations

Combination		Number of occurrences	Subtotal
Correspondence to the type of verb	**Negative quantifier / Broad negative**		**Subtotal**
ain't corresponding to auxiliary verb *be + not*	*no*	3	6
	nothing	1	
	no one / nobody	1	
	never	1	
ain't corresponding to semi-modal *be + not going to*	*no*	3	5
	nothing	2	
ain't corresponding to copula *be + not*	*no*	7	11
	nothing	2	
	no one / nobody	1	
	neither	1	
ain't corresponding to existential *be + not*	*no one / nobody*	1	2
	no + neither	1	
	nothing	1	2

ain't corresponding to auxiliary verb *have + not*	*nothing + no*	1	
ain't corresponding to auxiliary verb *have + not + got*	*no*	6	11
	nothing	4	
	neither	1	
ain't corresponding to copula *be + not*	*hardly*	1	1
Total		**38**	

The dominant type of *ain't* is the auxiliary verb *have + not + got* and the copula *be + not*. In comparison to excerpts involving only *ain't* corresponding to *have + not + got*, the reason for its high occurrence is clearly the fact that it is followed by an object. The previous chapters prove that *no* is a highly productive negative quantifier due to its function as a determiner of nouns. Since the objects usually use a determiner, it becomes negative in nonstandard negation, which is the reason why *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *have + not + got* occurs more often in the category combined with dependent multiple negation. In general, the copula *be* is very productive in both instances for no apparent reason. The least occurring type is the combination of a verb with a broad negative. Chapter 4.1.2 describes that broad negatives are rarely used. Furthermore, the previous chapter mentions one of three cases of more than 2 negative elements in the sentence and this category includes the remaining two. The specifics of this category shall be analysed further in the following paragraphs.

To illustrate the frequently reoccurring combination of dependent multiple negation and *ain't*, the first two examples represent *ain't* corresponding to the verb *have*:

(29) *Well, we ain't got no ketchup.* (Appendix A, 148)

(30) *I ain't got nothin', George.* (Appendix A, 155)

The former excerpt uses *ain't* in combination with negative quantifier *no*. As mentioned in the second paragraph, *no* is used instead of non-assertive *any* and it serves as a determiner. The standard variant of the clause is *Well, we haven't got any ketchup.* Moreover, in the latter excerpt, *nothing* is used in place of an object, where non-assertive *anything* would normally stand. When Dušková et al.'s (1994) rule is applied, the sentence is restated as *I haven't got anything* […].

The specific types occurring in this category are listed below:

(31) *Take a real smart guy and he ain't hardly ever a nice fella.* (Appendix A, 159)

(32) *There ain't no more harm in him than a kid neither, except he's so strong.* (Appendix A, 160)

(33) *Well, I ain't done nothing like that no more.* (Appendix A, 161)

Excerpt (31) contains the only broad negative in this category; *hardly*. This excerpt shows that the assumption in the previous chapter is incorrect, as *hardly* does not negate non-assertive *ever* in its immediate vicinity. *Ain't* in this sentence corresponds to the copula *be*, and thus, according to chapter 3.4.2 together with 3.4.4, the sentence can be restated in two ways to standard English, either […] *he is hardly ever a nice fella* or *he hardly ever is a nice fella* since broad negative usually follows the copula *be* unless it precedes it for emphasis. Examples (32) and (33) use 3 negative elements to form a negative statement. The first uses *ain't* corresponding to existential *be* and the second uses *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary *have*. Both examples use the phrase *no more*. The first could be restated *There isn't any more harm in him than a kid either* […]. However, the second is more complicated, as in standard English it could not be rephrased to *anymore*. It could be substituted with *ever* as in *Well, I haven't done anything like that ever since / ever again.*

In conclusion, as before, the usage of the verb *be* exceeds that of *have*, which suggests a different usage of the two meanings in American English as opposed to British English. The scope clearly starts with *ain't* and ends at the end of the clause, as there are no assertives present. The category's infrequent occurrence can be caused by the lack of non-assertives in clauses with *ain't* in chapter 4.1.1.

4.1.4 Not-negation

The first standard negation type appearing in the corpus, which is also the most productive, is not-negation. As discussed in chapter 3.4.1, standard negation is typically realized by the negator *not* attaching to an auxiliary (or main verb in case of *have* and *be*) of the verb phrase. However, the chapter also discusses the possibility of negating other parts of the clause with *not*. Such an instance does not appear in the corpus. Nevertheless, there is one instance of *not* standing on its own in a sentence negating to-infinitive. For closer analysis, the following table outlines the types of not-negation appearing in the novel.

Table 8 Number of occurrences of various not-negation types in dialogues

Type of verb	Number of occurrences
auxiliary verb *do + not*	37
auxiliary verb *be + not*	1
semi-modal *be + not going to*	1
copula *be + not*	9
modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not*	16
modal auxiliary verb *can / could + not*	13
to-infinitive *+ not*	1
Total	**78**

Overall, 78 instances of not-negation appear in the corpus with a significant dominance of auxiliary *do* which corresponds to dependent multiple negation using not-negation, where auxiliary *do* dominates as well. The least used not-negation types are various types of *be*. This is possibly caused by the fact that speakers prefer to use *ain't* meaning *be*, as this meaning is shown to be highly productive in the respective chapters. The total lack of the verb *have* suggest this as well. As the difference in usage of not-negation in standard English and not-negation in nonstandard dependent multiple negation stems solely from the latter's combination with no-negation or words negative in meaning (not form), only some specifics are highlighted, followed by a general analysis of this negation type.

(34) <u>*Don't*</u> *you even take a look at that bitch.* (Appendix A, 189)

(35) *That's <u>not</u> what I meant.* (Appendix A, 206)

(36) *I bet he <u>won't</u> come in here to sleep tonight.* (Appendix A, 223)

(37) *She <u>couldn't</u> feed that many.* (Appendix A, 231)

(38) *You take him back or I'll tell Slim <u>not</u> to let you have him.* (Appendix A, 239)

The preceding excerpts represent instances of all 4 verbs found in this category as well as a special instance of *not* in combination with to-infinitive appearing only once in the entire corpus. In excerpt (34), *do + not* is used in the initial position in the sentence to form an imperative structure. Moreover, the subject is present in the sentence as it specifies the addressee (Quirk et al. 1985, 219). Excerpt (35) uses the copula *be* in contraction with the preceding *that*, leaving *not* uncontracted, which illustrates the special type of contraction used

in speech, as stated in 3.4.1. Excerpt (36) illustrates the usage of modal auxiliary *will* expressing prediction. In (37), *could* expresses impossibility. *Not* in combination with to-infinitive appears in excerpt (38). The negator *not* negates the rest of the clause from the infinitive to the end.

In summary, not-negation appears in the corpus most commonly due to the reason stated in 4.1. Nonstandard English uses not-negation usually in cases where no non-assertive item appears in the clause, and so it cannot be negated to form multiple negation. The scope of negation starts with the negated verb and ends at the end of the clause. The auxiliary verb *do* is the most frequent verb to combine with the negator *not* in not-negation. Spoken language uses a special type of contraction of verb and subject, leaving *not* uncontracted.

4.1.5 No-negation

The second standard negation type is no-negation, which uses insertion of negative quantifiers to realize negation, with 19 occurrences illustrated in Table 9:

Table 9 Number of occurrences of various no-negation types in dialogues

Negative quantifier	Number of occurrences
No	6
no one / nobody	2
Never	11
Total	**19**

There are three types of negative quantifiers appearing in standard no-negation; *no*, *no one / nobody*, *never*. *No* appears as a determiner and there are also cases where it stands in the initial position in the clause, as in the following excerpt:

(39) <u>*No reason at all for you.*</u> (Appendix A, 240)

The excerpt above, as the others with *no* in initial position, seemingly stands there to negate the entire clause as seen in chapter 3.3. However, when analysed closely, it is apparent that the sentence is missing a verb. Hence, the existential structure *there is* needs to be inserted in the sentence for it to be completely standard from all points of view. Nevertheless, no-negation is used standardly as the determiner of the noun *reason*.

Nobody functions as a subject of both cases found in the corpus, as in:

(40) <u>*Nobody'd take it away from me.*</u> (Appendix A, 247)

Here, it is combined with the contraction of the verb *would.* As chapter 3.6.2 mentions, *nobody* in initial position is never followed by another negative and the corpus findings confirm this.

Never appears in its usual positions between the operator and main verb or in front of the operator as in:

(41) *Never did seem right to me.* (Appendix A, 249)

In the example above, *never* precedes the auxiliary *do* for emphasis. The clause is missing a subject (*it*), though the usage of negation is standard.

In general, no-negation is not very productive in standard spoken English. This is possibly due to its frequent combination with not-negation, resulting in multiple negation. Thus, as illustrated above, it appears mainly in initial positions, where it either strongly negates the clause which results in lack of other negators in the clause or where no other assertive or verb is present in the clause, preventing multiple negation. Therefore, the broad negative in a clause has a scope over its entirety.

4.1.6 Independent Multiple Negation

The last minor type of standard negation is independent multiple negation, which is formed by repetition, restatement or the occurrence of two or more negative elements that cancel each other. It is the least occurring type of negation in dialogue. The 2 combinations appearing in the corpus are listed below:

(42) *It wasn't nothing.* (Appendix A, 259)

(43) *Never mind, never mind.* (Appendix A, 260)

In excerpt (42), the copula *be* is combined with negative quantifier *nothing* in position of an object. It is an example of two negatives that cancel each other, as the restatements *It wasn't anything* and *It was nothing* do not convey the intended meaning, which is *It was something*. Excerpt (43) uses negative quantifier *never* and it is an example of repetition. Therefore, the corpus contains examples of both main instances.

To conclude, the corpus findings confirm that independent multiple negation does not occur in spoken English often. Repetition is a typical feature of spoken language, and so it appears in the corpus. A clause with 2 negative items that cancel each other is typical for written language. Nevertheless, it appears once in spoken English. As with dependent multiple negation, negative elements in independent multiple negation have a scope over the entire clause.

4.2 Narrative Passages

In this chapter and its subchapters, the narratives appearing in the American novel are analysed. The excerpts use standard English and realize negation through 4 different types. The following table showcases their number of occurrences.

Table 10 Number of occurrences of each type of negation found in narrative passages

Type of negation	Number of occurrences
Not-negation	9
No-negation	4
Lexical negation	21
Words negative in meaning (not form)	1
Total	**35**

Lexical negation, absent from dialogues, is the most productive type of negation in narrative passages. As a clause using lexical negation commonly corresponds to a clause using not- or no-negation (see 3.5), the lack of its existence in dialogues may be caused by the fact that the form with lexical negation may sound more formal and literary, and thus it is used preferably in the narratives. Words negative in meaning (not form) are the least productive which conforms with its negligible frequency in dialogues, where it is also an uncommon type, appearing only in combination with other negators in multiple negation.

4.2.1 Not-negation

Not-negation, a type of phenomena occurring profusely in dialogues and thoroughly analysed in the respective chapters, occurs in 9 cases illustrated by Table 11. Before their analysis, a special case of not-negation found in the corpus, which is *not* in coordination, is introduced. This type, described by Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 811), is a type of nonverbal not-negation, where *not* usually combined with *but* in a sentence coordinate two items. In this case, the negator influences solely the item in its immediate vicinity, differing from the usual scope not-negation has over the clause.

Table 11 Number of occurrences of various not-negation types in narrative passages

Type of verb	Number of occurrences
auxiliary verb *do + not*	5
auxiliary verb *be + not*	1

copula *be* + *not*	1
auxiliary verb *have* + *not*	1
not in coordination	1
Total	**9**

The most common type of not-negation is auxiliary *do* + *not* corresponding to spoken language, where this type is also the most productive in not-negation and dependent multiple negation with not- and no-negation. Present simple and especially past simple tense are used in the narratives, and thus *do* is the most productive, as it is used to form negation with lexical verbs that cannot be used as operators, as stated in 3.4.1. No modal auxiliaries are used in written negation, and only single instance of auxiliary *be*, the copula *be* and auxiliary *have* appear.

To illustrate the usage of not-negation in written form, three clauses with various verbs are listed below:

(44) *Lennie didn't move from his bunk.* (Appendix B, 5)

(45) *Slim moved back slightly so the light was not on his face.* (Appendix B, 7)

(46) *Slim had not moved.* (Appendix B, 8)

The first excerpt is a clause with a contracted form of the auxiliary verb *do* in past tense and the negator *not*. The second excerpt uses the copula *be* in past tense with the negator *not* in their uncontracted forms, which is a typical feature of written language, informal and especially formal. As the narratives are written in informal language, cases of contractions appear as well, as illustrated by example (44). The third excerpt, as the second one, applies uncontracted forms. The verb *have*, appearing scarcely in narrative not-negation, is found solely in this sentence.

The unusual type of not-negation is presented on the following sentence:

(47) *His ear heard more than was said to him, and his slow speech had overtones not of thought, but of understanding beyond thought.* (Appendix B, 9)

Not together with *but* in excerpt (47) is used to coordinate the two items (*thought*, *understanding*) to refute the first item and affirm the second item. Hence, *not* does not negate a verb, as in the other excerpts but the noun *thought*.

As apparent from the analysis, not-negation in written language is similar to that of spoken language. Written language, as opposed to spoken, often uses uncontracted forms. Standard

English obeys the rules stated by grammarians, and so it differs from nonstandard in the initial dialogue chapter, where spelling such as *gonna* and omission of subject and other constituents is typical. The scope, as with not-negation in dialogues, usually starts with the negated verb and continues to the end of the clause. Nevertheless, *not* in coordination has a scope solely over the item it precedes.

4.2.2 No-negation

No-negation, scarcely appearing in narratives, occurs 4 times in the corpus. The negative quantifiers occurring are shown in the table below.

Table 12 Number of occurrences of various no-negation types in narrative passages

Negative quantifier	Number of occurrences
No	2
no one / nobody	1
neither…nor	1
Total	**4**

As in dialogues, *no* dominates with 2 occurrences due to the reasons stated in the previous chapters. An example of such occurrence is the following instance:

(48) *He pointed with his right arm, and out of the sleeve came a round stick-like wrist, but <u>no</u> hand.* (Appendix B, 11)

In the example above, the negative quantifier *no* is used as a determiner, which is its usual function in the corpus overall.

There is 1 instance of *no one / nobody* in the corpus:

(49) *The man looked cautiously at the door to make sure <u>no one</u> was listening.* (Appendix B, 12)

In sentence (49), *no one* is an indefinite pronoun standing in the position of a subject, which is its common position in spoken English as well.

A special type of negative quantifiers is the combination of *neither* and *nor* that is not present in the dialogue excerpts. It is illustrated on the following excerpt:

(50) *Slim <u>neither</u> encouraged <u>nor</u> discouraged him.* (Appendix B, 13)

Although there are two negative quantifiers, this is not a case of multiple negation. They negate two alternatives and frequently appear together, as mentioned in chapter 3.4.2. Hence, in (50), *neither* negates *encouraged* and *nor* negates *discouraged*, which suggests that there are two main clauses coordinated.

Overall, no-negation is atypical in written language, not-negation exceeds its usage similarly to spoken language. *Neither / nor* combination appears in written language, as its usage is somewhat formal and suitable for written discourse as opposed to spoken. In the corpus, the negative quantifiers in written language usually a word or a phrase at the end of the clause and their scope applies to them. Moreover, *neither / nor* each apply to one verb and as there are two clauses, each of them has a scope over one.

4.2.3 Lexical negation

The predominant phenomenon in standard narratives is lexical negation. Chapter 3.5 introduces it as a type that influences solely a word a negative affix is attached to, resulting in its possible combination with no- and not-negation. There are many affixal negators, however, only 3 are present in the corpus.

Table 13 Number of occurrences of various lexical negation types

Prefix / Suffix	Number of occurrences
suffix *-less*	8
prefix *un-*	8
prefix *dis-*	5
Total	**21**

The suffix *-less* and the prefix *un-* appear 8 times. As the suffix *-less* is the only existing negative suffix, it is understandable it appears often. The prefix *un-* appears commonly in Dušková et al.'s examples, suggesting its high frequency overall. There are 5 instances with the prefix *dis-* in the corpus, suggesting it is also productive in English as opposed to the other affixal negators mentioned in 3.5 that are missing. The usage of all three affixes is illustrated on the following examples.

Firstly, the suffix *-less* is analysed on the examples below:

(51) *His hatchet face was <u>ageless</u>.* (Appendix B, 20)

(52) *Lennie said <u>breathlessly</u>.* (Appendix B, 21)

In the corpus, -less is used to negate two different word classes; an adjective, as in (51), where the suffix negates the adjective *aging*, and an adverb, such as *breathlessly* in (52). As mentioned in 3.5, sentences with no- or not-negation can result in similar meaning. However, in both cases, a clause with no- or not-negation is not similar.

Secondly, the prefix -*un* and its usage are displayed in the following instances:

(53) *George <u>unslung</u> his bindle and dropped it gently on the bank.* (Appendix B, 22)

(54) *He pretended to be <u>unaware</u> of Lennie so close beside him.* (Appendix B, 24)

(55) *Candy looked about <u>unhappily</u>.* (Appendix B, 29)

The prefix *un-* is used to negate either a verb, an adjective, or an adverb. In example (53), *un-* negates the verb *sling*. The clause could not be restated with not-negation, as *George didn't slung his bindle* […] would result in a different meaning. On the contrary, sentence (54), where the adjective *aware* is negated, can be restated as *He pretended not to be aware* […], resulting in the same meaning. In excerpt (55), *un-* negates the adverb *happily* and its restatement *Candy didn't look about happily* results in a somewhat similar meaning.

Thirdly, *dis-*, the second prefix occurring in the corpus, appears in the excerpt below:

(56) *Lennie tried to <u>disengage</u> his ear.* (Appendix B, 32)

In the corpus, *dis-* negates solely verbs, as in (56). *Lennie tried not to engage his ear* could be its not-negation restatement.

In summary, lexical negation has the scope over the word the affix is attached to. In corpus the words are adjectives, adverbs and verbs. Although Dušková et al. (1994) claim that most clauses can retain similar meaning when restated with no- or not-negation, in the corpus there are few clauses with negative affixes that can be restated. As this type does not appear in spoken language, it seems that it is more suitable for written form.

4.2.4 Words negative in meaning (not form)

As illustrated by chapter 4.2, there is only 1 instance of words negative in meaning (not form) occurring in narrative passages. The broad negative is *only* and it appears solely in this chapter, as in the previous cases, *hardly* appears. The clause with *only* is showcased below.

(57) *<u>Only</u> the tops of the Gabilan mountains flamed with the light of the sun that had gone from the valley.* (Appendix B, 35)

In chapter 3.4.4, *only* is said to be negative to some extent, and so it does not necessarily negates the clause. In the excerpt above, the broad negative forms a negative meaning, as the clause could be changed to reflect its negative properties: *The tops of the Gabilan mountains and nothing else flamed* […]. Hence, the broad negative has a scope over the clause.

To conclude, broad negatives appear scarcely in both dialogues and narratives, and their miniscule frequency in written language may be caused by the fact that they are somewhat evaluative and thus more suitable for spoken discourse. However, considering the disproportion between dialogue and narrative excerpts, their low amount in written language can be caused purely by the small number of corpus findings.

4.3 Dubious Cases

There are 5 negative clauses where the distinction between standard and nonstandard or the type of negation is not completely clear. The dubious excerpts are found in Appendix A, since they are all excerpts of dialogues. The 5 clauses represent 3 different phenomena, discussed further.

Firstly, the auxiliary verb *do + not* appears as enclitic *n't* attached to adverb *why*, as in the following example:

(58) *Why'n't do it yourself?* (Appendix A, 261)

There are three cases of *why'n't* in the corpus. As the full form of this contraction is *do + not*, it seemingly belongs to the standard category of dialogues. However, the contraction is not standard, and so its categorization is questionable.

Secondly, *do + not* appear using non-standard spelling *dunno* as follows:

(59) *I dunno.* (Appendix A, 262)

Similar to (58), excerpt (59) uses *do + not*, and so it is standard not-negation. However, the spelling is nonstandard, causing it to be uncategorizable.

Thirdly, the following excerpt shows the last dubious case:

(60) *Didn't I remember about not gonna say a word?* (Appendix A, 265)

Here, *not* is used to negate either *going to* in nonstandard spelling *gonna*, or it negates the entire phrase. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 804–811) provide several ways to negate other sentence constituents with *not.* Nevertheless, no such occurrence as the clause above is included.

5 Conclusion

The thesis is concerned with spoken and written negation in English. It analyses negation on the American novel *Of Mice and Men* by John Steinbeck. The aim of the thesis is to analyse the differences in usage and occurrence of negation in written and spoken English, standard and nonstandard English.

For the purposes of the analysis, the rules for the usage of negation in English are introduced in the theoretical part. Firstly, descriptive and prescriptive grammars are introduced, and the descriptive approach is chosen for the thesis. Secondly, standard and nonstandard English are discussed in order to divide the features of negation into the two categories. Thirdly, negation is defined, and several topics, such as scope of negation and clausal negation are discussed. The theoretical part states not-negation, no-negation, words negative in meaning (not form), lexical negation and independent multiple negation to be standard features used to negate a clause, a part of a clause or a word, whereas dependent multiple negation and ain't are stated to be features of nonstandard negation.

In the practical part, an analysis of 300 negative clauses has been conducted in order to identify the types of negation occurring in written and spoken language. Out of the 300 clauses, 265 are clauses from dialogue and 35 are from narrative passages. Furthermore, in dialogues, 5 cases are dubious, and so only 260 clauses have been divided further into standard and nonstandard from the viewpoint of negation. Nonstandard negation prevails over standard, as there are 161 nonstandard clauses as opposed to 99 standard clauses.

Both typical nonstandard negation features are present in the corpus. There are 73 cases of dependent multiple negation, 50 instances of ain't and in 38 occurrences the two types are combined. Dependent multiple negation is mostly realized by not-negation in combination with no-negation. Other combinations, such as no- and no-negation or words negative in meaning (not form) and not- or no-negation appear scarcely. Auxiliary verb *do* prevails in not- and no-negation combination since the auxiliary is the most versatile verb that can be used for negation, as it negates most main verbs. The most productive no-negation word is the negative quantifier *no* that is used as a determiner of nouns. In the other dependent multiple negation combinations, the negative quantifier *never* and the broad negative *hardly* are the most productive. *Never* appears between the auxiliary and main verb, preventing it from becoming negative and appearing in the first, most productive combination. *Hardly* is the only broad negative for its rather informal, spoken connotation.

The most occurring meaning of *ain't* is the copula *be*. Its frequent occurrence can be caused by its lack of appearance in both dependent multiple negation and not-negation in standard English, as the speakers prefer to use the contraction instead of the standard one. In its combination with dependent multiple negation, the most correspondence of *ain't* is the copula *be* and auxiliary verb *have*. The reason for the auxiliary *have* to be appearing in this category is due to its combination with *got* used for possession, as the object is usually preceded by a determiner that becomes negative in nonstandard negation. In dependent multiple negation, *ain't* is almost exclusively combined with no-negation. The most typical broad negative is the negative determiner *no* for the reasons previously stated.

Standard negation is typically realized by not-negation in the corpus. There are 78 excerpts that use not-negation as opposed to 19 clauses using no-negation and 2 cases of independent multiple negation. There are no cases of words negative in meaning (not form) or lexical negation in spoken discourse. In not-negation, the auxiliary verb *do* appears most often for the reasons already stated. In no-negation, *never* appears most often. The negative quantifier stands in its usual position between the auxiliary and main verb, and so the reason for its occurrence have been already stated. As there are only 2 cases of independent multiple negation, there is no obvious pattern.

In narrative passages, not-negation, no-negation, words negative in meaning (not form) and lexical negation appear. Not-negation occurs 9 times and the most typical verb is the auxiliary verb *do*. There are 4 cases of no-negation with *no* being the prevalent. The broad negative *only* is the only case of words negative in meaning (not form) for no apparent reason. Lexical negation, the most productive type in narratives, occurs in 21 clauses. The most productive affixes are the prefix *un-* and the suffix *-less*. The prefix *un-* is generally a productive affix and the suffix *-less* is the only existing negative suffix, and so its occurrence is understandable.

Overall, the immense difference between the number of dialogue and narrative excerpts confirms that negation is more productive in spoken discourse, as there are usually more verbs, shorter sentences and disagreement as there are more speakers opposed to written discourse, where there is usually only one author or a group that generally agree. Not-negation dominates spoken discourse, which confirms its dominance according to the theory. In written language, lexical negation prevails in narratives, which may be caused by its more formal connotations as opposed to its not- or no-negation equivalent. In spoken English, nonstandard negation

dominates over standard, proving that nonstandard English is a feature of spoken discourse. Narratives being purely standard confirms standard English to be suitable for written discourse.

Resumé

Tématem této bakalářské práce je negace v anglickém jazyce. Jejím cílem je prozkoumat užívání negace v psaném a mluveném jazyce prostřednictvím díla O myších a lidech od Johna Steinbecka. Obecně se zápor v anglickém jazyce vyjadřuje, na rozdíl od českého, pouze jednou. Záporný element ve větě následuje výraz obecné platnosti, např. *any*, *anything*, *ever* apod. Rozděluje se na standardní a nestandardní. Standardní zápor je stejně jako standardní jazyk používán jako univerzální dialekt pro komunikaci spojenou se vzděláváním, rozhlasovým či televizním vysíláním, novinami apod. Standardní angličtina je tudíž všeobecný mezinárodní dialekt, kterým se mluví jak v anglicky mluvících zemích, tak v zemích bilingvních či na hodinách anglického jazyka ve školách a jehož gramatická pravidla jsou psána v učebnicích a popisována gramatiky. Nestandardní dialekt se liší od standardního gramatickými pravidly, kterými se řídí a používá ho určitá skupina lidí pro běžnou konverzaci. Obecně se standardní dialekt asociuje spíše s psaným jazykem, i když je určen i pro jazyk mluvený. Nestandardní dialekt se používá téměř výlučně v mluveném jazyce. Jelikož se práce drží deskriptivní gramatiky, považuje oba typy dialektů za správné. Deskriptivní gramatika totiž popisuje jazyk takový, jaký je, a tak se nestandardní dialekt považuje za správný co se týče jeho použití v nestandardní angličtině, ale za nesprávný v rámci standardního dialektu. Tím se liší od preskriptivní gramatiky, která považuje pouze standardní, formální jazyk za správný.

Mezi standardní prvky negace patří negace pomocí záporky *not*, negace pomocí záporky *no*, slova záporná významem (ne formou), lexikální negace a „nezávislý" dvojí zápor. Negace pomocí záporky *not* se používá spolu se slovesy k vyjádření záporu, kde se *not* vloží mezi pomocné a významové sloveso. Pokud ve větě pomocné sloveso chybí, přidá se pomocné sloveso *do* a spolu s *not* pak tvoří zápor. Dále se záporka *not* dá připojit k pomocnému slovesu a vytvořit tak stažený tvar, např. *don't*. Kromě sloves se dá záporkou *not* zezápornit i jiný větný člen. Negace pomocí záporky *no* užívá k negaci *no* jako determinátor nebo záporné kvantifikátory *nobody*, *nothing*, *never* apod. Kategorie zvaná slova záporná významem (ne formou) obsahuje slova jako *hardly*, *scarcely*, *seldom*, které dělají větu téměř zcela negativní. Lexikální negace se liší od ostatních typů tím, že zezáporňuje pouze jedno slovo, ke kterému se pojí pomocí záporné předpony (*dis-*, *non-*, *un-*, apod.) nebo přípony (*-less*). Dvojí zápor je rysem nestandardní negace, jelikož se v anglické větě nesmí objevit více než jeden záporný prvek. Existuje však „nezávislý" dvojí zápor, přičemž se dva zápory v jedné větě vyruší. Jedním z druhů takového záporu je např. opakování nebo přeformulování, kdy v mluveném jazyce dojde k zopakování záporného prvku v jedné větě.

Mezi nestandardní prvky negace patří dvojí zápor a stažený tvar *ain't*. Dvojí zápor se, jak již bylo řečeno, v anglickém jazyce nepoužívá. Je to typ záporu, kde se dva nebo více záporných elementů objeví v jedné větě k vyjádření jednoho záporu. Obvykle se dvojí zápor objevuje ve větách, kde se kromě slovesa se záporkou *not* objevují také výrazy obecné platnosti, které se ve větě se dvojím záporem stávají negativní, a tak se např. z *anybody* stane *nobody*. Kromě záporky *not* se záporkou *no* a dalšími zápornými kvantifikátory lze oba typy kombinovat také se slovy zápornými významem (ne formou). Stažený tvar *ain't* zastupuje ve větě sloveso *be* a *have* v kombinaci s *not* a to jak v jejich významové, tak pomocné formě.

Na analýzu bylo použito 300 vět z Americké novely O myších a lidech, z nichž 265 bylo vět dialogu a 35 vět bylo z narativních pasáží. 5 vět z dialogu bylo sporných a zbylých 260 vět bylo rozděleno na standardní a nestandardní z pohledu negace. Nestandardních vět bylo v korpusu 161, a tak značně převažují nad standardními, kterých je 99. Věty z narativních pasáží byly pouze standardní.

V nestandardních dialozích se objevují oba typické prvky nestandardní negace, 73 případů dvojího záporu, 50 vět se staženým tvarem *ain't* a 38 případů, kde došlo ke kombinaci těchto typů. Nejčastější kombinací dvojího záporu v korpusu je kombinace negace za použití záporky *not* se záporkou *no* a dalšími zápornými kvantifikátory. V této kombinaci se nejčastěji objevuje pomocné sloveso *do*, jelikož je velice univerzální a používá se k zezápornění významových sloves. Nejtypičtější záporkou v negaci s pomocí záporky *no* je právě *no,* které se používá jako determinátor podstatných jmen, a proto se ve větách objevuje často. Dalšími kombinacemi jsou dvě negace pomocí záporky *no* v jedné větě či kombinace slov zápornými významem (ne formou) se záporkou *not* nebo *no* a dalšími zápornými kvantifikátory. V kombinaci dvou negací pomocí záporky *no* se na prvním místě ve větě objevuje pouze *never*, které stojí mezi pomocným a významovým slovesem, čímž zabraňuje zezápornění slovesa. Jediné slovo záporné významem (ne formou), které se v korpusu objevuje, je *hardly*, pravděpodobně díky jeho poněkud neformální konotaci.

Stažený tvar *ain't* nejčastěji zastupuje významové sloveso *be*, což je pravděpodobně způsobeno jeho minimálním výskytem v ostatních typech. Toto naznačuje, že mluvčí raději volí tento nestandardní stažený tvar nežli jeho standardní formu. V kombinaci s dvojím záporem *ain't* nejčastěji odpovídá významovému *be* a pomocnému *have*. Pomocné sloveso *have* je zde kombinováno s *got* odpovídající výrazu *mít, vlastnit*, tudíž se často pojí s předmětem, jehož determinátor se v nestandardní angličtině zezáporní. V dvojím záporu je pak *ain't*

kombinováno téměř výhradně s negací tvořenou pomocí záporky *no*, přičemž nejčastěji se pojí s již zmíněným determinátorem *no*.

Ve standardní negaci se nejčastěji vyskytuje typ negace pomocí záporky *not*, a to v 78 případech. Dále se pak objevuje 19 vět s negací pomocí záporky *no* a 2 případy „nezávislého" dvojího záporu. Ve větách se záporkou *not* se opět nejhojněji vyskytuje pomocné sloveso *do*. Ve větách s negací pomocí záporky *no* se nejčastěji objevuje *never*, opět v pozici mezi pomocným a významovým slovesem. V případě „nezávislého" dvojího záporu se neobjevuje žádný vzorec, což je způsobeno malým počtem výskytů.

V narativních pasážích se objevuje negace pomocí záporky *not*, negace pomocí záporky *no*, slova záporná významem (ne formou) a lexikální negace. V korpusu je 9 případů negace pomocí záporky *not*, kde opět převažuje užití pomocného slovesa *do*, dále pak 4 případy negace pomocí záporky *no*, kde, jako v standardních dialozích, převažuje *never*. Jediným slovem záporným významem (ne formou) v narativních pasážích je slovo *only*. Nejčastějšími afixy v lexikální negaci je předpona *un-* a přípona *-less*. Předpona *un-* je obecně často užívaným afixem, zatímco přípona *-less* je jediná existující negativní přípona, což naznačuje, proč se v korpusu vyskytují často.

Z analýzy tak vyplývá, že převaha dialogů nad narativními pasážemi potvrzuje, že se negace vyskytuje více v mluveném jazyce, kde se obvykle objevuje více sloves, věty jsou kratší a mluvčí si mohou rozporovat, oproti psanému jazyku, kde je obvykle pouze jeden autor či mezi sebou souhlasící skupina. V mluveném jazyce se nejvíce používá negace pomocí záporky *not*, což potvrzuje tvrzení, že se tato záporka používá v anglickém jazyce nejčastěji. V psaném jazyce dominuje lexikální negace, což může být způsobeno její poněkud formální konotací v porovnání s negací pomocí záporky *not* a *no*. Nestandardní negace převládá v mluveném jazyce nad standardní, což dokazuje, že nestandardní angličtina je rys mluveného jazyka. Absence nestandardního jazyka v narativních pasážích dokazuje, že standardní angličtina je převážně užívaná v psané formě.

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Appendix A *Dialogue Excerpts from the Novel Of Mice and Men*

1. George – why <u>ain't</u> we goin' on to the ranch and get some supper? *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *be + not*

2. I <u>ain't</u> takin' it away jus' for meanness. *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *be + not*

3. I <u>ain't</u> saying he's bright. *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *be + not*

4. (You takin' his pay away from him?) No, 'course I <u>ain't</u>. *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *be + not*

5. Well, you <u>ain't</u> tryin' very hard. *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *be + not*

6. Now, look – I'll give him the work tickets, but you <u>ain't gonna</u> say a word. *ain't* corresponding to semi-modal *be + not going to*

7. Well, I <u>ain't gonna</u> remind ya, fear ya do it again." *ain't* corresponding to semi-modal *be + not going to*

8. I <u>ain't gonna</u> say a word. *ain't* corresponding to semi-modal *be + not going to*

9. If I get in any trouble, you <u>ain't gonna</u> let me tend the rabbits. *ain't* corresponding to semi-modal *be + not going to*

10. You're the new fellas that just come, <u>ain't</u> ya? *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not*

11. He's jes' like a kid, <u>ain't</u> he. *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not*

12. I <u>ain't</u> sure it's good water. *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not*

13. That mouse <u>ain't</u> fresh, Lennie; and besides, you've broke it pettin' it. *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not*

14. But that lady <u>ain't</u> here. *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not*

15. They <u>ain't</u> so little. *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not*

16. An' that <u>ain't</u> the worst. *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not*

17. With us it <u>ain't</u> like that. *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not*

18. It <u>ain't</u> the same if I tell it. *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not*

19. I <u>ain't</u> so sure. *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not*

20. He <u>ain't</u> much of a talker, is he? *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

21. No, he <u>ain't</u> (much of a talker) but he's sure a hell of a good worker. *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

22. (I ain't saying he's bright.) He <u>ain't</u>. *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

23. (He's awright.) Just <u>ain't</u> bright. *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

24. Kind of like he's mad at 'em because he <u>ain't</u> a big guy. *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

25. Lennie <u>ain't</u> handy, but this Curley punk is gonna get hurt if he messes around with Lennie. *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

26. He <u>ain't</u> the first. (to marry a tart) *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

27. You see if she <u>ain't</u> a tart. *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

28. You <u>ain't</u> mad, George? *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

29. I <u>ain't</u> mad at you. *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

30. (Sometimes Curley's in here.) Well he <u>ain't</u> now. *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

31. (Well he ain't now.) If he <u>ain't</u>, I guess I better look some place else. *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

32. He <u>ain't</u> bright. *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

33. He <u>ain't</u> very small. *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

34. <u>Ain't</u> small at all. *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

35. Maybe he <u>ain't</u> bright, but I never seen such a worker. *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

36. He's dumb as hell, but he <u>ain't</u> crazy. *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

37. It <u>ain't</u> so funny, him an' me goin' aroun' together. *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

38. He <u>ain't</u> mean. *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

39. I can see Lennie <u>ain't</u> a bit mean. *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

40. 'Course he <u>ain't</u> mean. *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

41. 'Course he <u>ain't</u> (mean) and he'll do any damn thing I –. *ain't corresponding to copula be + not*

42. <u>Ain't</u> many guys travel around together. *ain't corresponding to existential be + not*

43. <u>Ain't</u> a thing in my pocket. *ain't corresponding to existential be + not*

44. I know there <u>ain't</u>. (a thing in my pocket) *ain't corresponding to existential be + not*

45. You seen little guys like that, <u>ain't</u> you? *ain't corresponding to auxiliary verb have + not*

46. I been mean, <u>ain't</u> I? *ain't corresponding to auxiliary verb have + not*

47. George … I <u>ain't got</u> mine. *ain't corresponding to auxiliary verb have + not + got*

48. Well, we <u>ain't got</u> any. *ain't corresponding to auxiliary verb have + not + got*

49. Whatever we <u>ain't got</u> that's what you want. *ain't corresponding to auxiliary verb have + not + got*

50. (Either you guys got a slug of whisky?) I <u>ain't</u>. *ain't corresponding to auxiliary verb have + not + got*

51. Tried and tried, but it <u>didn't</u> do <u>no</u> good. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

52. Now you listen and this time you got to remember so we <u>don't</u> get in <u>no</u> trouble. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

53. I <u>don't</u> know where there is <u>no</u> other mouse. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

54. I <u>don't</u> want <u>no</u> ketchup. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

55. They <u>don't</u> belong <u>no</u> place. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

56. We <u>don't</u> have to sit in <u>no</u> bar room blowin' in our jack jus' because we got no place else to go. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

57. <u>Don't</u> build up <u>no</u> more fire. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

58. We <u>don't</u> want <u>no</u> pants rabbits. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

59. <u>Didn't</u> give <u>no</u> other reason but the food. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

60. (Lennie ain't no fighter, but Lennie's strong and quick and) Lennie <u>don't</u> know <u>no</u> rules. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

61. Slim <u>don't</u> need to wear <u>no</u> high-heeled boots on a grain team. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

62. I <u>don't</u> want <u>no</u> trouble. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

63. Like the old guy says, Curley <u>don't</u> take <u>no</u> chances. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

64. <u>Don't</u> make <u>no</u> mistake about that. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

65. I <u>don't</u> want <u>no</u> trouble. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

66. I <u>don't</u> like it <u>no</u> better than you do. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

67. Jus' tell Lennie what to do an' he'll do it if it <u>don't</u> take <u>no</u> figuring. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

68. Guy <u>don't</u> need <u>no</u> sense to be a nice fella. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

69. They <u>don't</u> have <u>no</u> fun. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

70. I <u>didn't</u> mean <u>no</u> harm, George. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

71. You get him back there quick, and <u>don'</u> you take him out <u>no</u> more. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

72. He <u>don't</u> have <u>no</u> fun. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no*

73. <u>Don't</u> tell Curley I said <u>none</u> of this. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + none*

63

74. <u>Didn't</u> hurt the girl <u>none</u>, huh? dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + none*

75. You jus' stand there and <u>don't</u> say <u>nothing</u>. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + nothing*

76. But <u>don't</u> you try to put <u>nothing</u> over, Milton. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + nothing*

77. I <u>didn't</u> hear <u>nothing</u> you guys was sayin'. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + nothing*

78. Lennie <u>didn't</u> do <u>nothing</u> to him. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + nothing*

79. Just <u>don't</u> have <u>nothing</u> to do with him. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + nothing*

80. I <u>don't</u> know <u>nothing</u> that stinks as bad as an old dog. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + nothing*

81. I <u>don't</u> like <u>nobody</u> to get nosey. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no one / nobody*

82. <u>Don't</u> let <u>nobody</u> see you. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no one / nobody*

83. They get so they <u>don't</u> want to talk to <u>nobody</u>. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no one / nobody*

84. He <u>don't</u> give <u>nobody</u> else a chance to win. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + no one / nobody*

85. <u>Don't</u> <u>never</u> speak to him. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + never*

86. <u>Didn't</u> <u>neither</u> of you play horseshoes? dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *do + not + neither*

87. Used ta dress up Sundays even when he <u>wasn't</u> going <u>no</u> place, put on a necktie even, and then set in the bunk house. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *be + not + no*

88. I <u>wasn't</u> kicked in the head with <u>no</u> horse, was I, George? dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *be + not + no*

89. I <u>wasn't</u> doing <u>nothing</u> bad with it, George. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *be + not + nothing*

90. But when she was standin' in the doorway showin' her legs, you <u>wasn't</u> looking the other way, <u>neither</u>. dependent multiple negation, auxiliary verb *be + not + neither*

91. It <u>wasn't</u> <u>no</u> good to pet. dependent multiple negation, copula *be + not + no*

92. This here blacksmith – name of Whitney – was the kind of guy that would put that stuff around even if there <u>wasn't</u> <u>no</u> bugs – just to make sure, see? dependent multiple negation, *existential be + not + no*

93. If he finds out what a crazy bastard you are, we <u>won't</u> get <u>no</u> job, but if he sees ya work before he sees ya talk, we're set. dependent multiple negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not + no*

94. I <u>wouldn't</u> eat <u>no</u> ketchup if it was right here beside me. dependent multiple negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not + no*

95. An' I <u>won't</u> get <u>no</u> mice stole from me. dependent multiple negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not + no*

96. I <u>will not</u> get in <u>no</u> trouble, George. dependent multiple negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not + no*

97. Well, that <u>won't</u> do you <u>no</u> good if Curley wants to plug himself up for a fighter. dependent multiple negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not + no*

98. You ask him right away, George, so he <u>won't</u> kill <u>no</u> more of 'em. dependent multiple negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not + no*

99. But I <u>wouldn't</u> eat <u>none</u>, George. (no ketchup) dependent multiple negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not + none*

100. You could cover your beans with it and I <u>wouldn't</u> touch <u>none</u> of it. dependent multiple negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not + none*

101. Your aunt Clara give you a rubber mouse and you <u>wouldn't</u> have <u>nothing</u> to do with it. dependent multiple negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not + nothing*

102. You <u>won't</u> tell Curley <u>nothing</u> I said? dependent multiple negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not + nothing*

103. <u>Won't</u> be <u>nothing</u> left in a couple of minutes. dependent multiple negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not + nothing*

104. You <u>wouldn't</u> tell <u>nobody</u>? dependent multiple negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not + no one / nobody*

105. We <u>couldn't</u> get <u>no</u> rides in the morning. dependent multiple negation, modal auxiliary verb *can / could + not + no*

106. (But don't try to put nothing over) 'cause you <u>can't</u> get away with <u>nothing</u>. dependent multiple negation, modal auxiliary verb *can / could + not + nothing*

107. He <u>can't</u> chew <u>nothing</u> else. dependent multiple negation, modal auxiliary verb *can / could + not + nothing*

108. He <u>can't</u> think of <u>nothing</u> to do himself, but he sure can take orders. dependent multiple negation, modal auxiliary verb *can / could + not + nothing*

109. <u>Nobody</u> <u>can't</u> blame a person for lookin'. dependent multiple negation, modal auxiliary verb *can / could + not + no one / nobody*

110. Now we got to be careful and <u>not</u> make <u>no</u> slips. dependent multiple negation, bare infinitive + *not + no*

111. But this Curley better <u>not</u> make <u>no</u> mistakes about Lennie. dependent multiple negation, bare infinitive + *not + no*

112. I <u>never</u> get <u>no</u> peace. dependent multiple negation, *never + no*

113. I seen 'em poison before, but I <u>never</u> seen <u>no</u> piece of jail bait worse than her. dependent multiple negation, *never + no*

114. I <u>never</u> meant <u>no</u> harm, George. dependent multiple negation, *never + no*

115. You <u>never</u> had <u>none</u>, you crazy bastard. dependent multiple negation, *never + none*

116. I <u>never</u> done <u>nothing</u> to him. dependent multiple negation, *never + nothing*

117. I <u>never</u> done <u>nothing</u>, George. dependent multiple negation, *never + nothing*

118. <u>Never</u> seem to give a damn about <u>nobody</u>. dependent multiple negation, *never + no one / nobody*

119. He <u>never</u> got mad about it, <u>neither</u>. dependent multiple negation, *never + neither*

120. That dog of Candy's is so God damn old he <u>can't</u> <u>hardly</u> walk. dependent multiple negation, modal auxiliary *can / could + hardly*

121. <u>Hardly</u> <u>none</u> of the guys ever travel together. dependent multiple negation, *none + hardly*

122. I <u>hardly</u> <u>never</u> seen two guys travel together. dependent multiple negation, *never + hardly*

123. <u>Can't</u> <u>hardly</u> see <u>nothing</u> in here. dependent multiple negation, modal auxiliary verb *can / could hardly + nothing*

124. Well, you <u>ain't</u> petting <u>no</u> mouse while you walk with me. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *be + not + no*

125. An' you <u>ain't</u> to be trusted with <u>no</u> live mice. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *be + not + no*

126. He <u>ain't</u> doin' <u>no</u> harm out there. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *be + not + no*

127. You <u>ain't</u> puttin' <u>nothing</u> over. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *be + not + nothing*

128. Seems like Curley <u>ain't</u> givin' <u>nobody</u> a chance. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *be + not + no one / nobody*

129. You <u>never</u> oughta drink water when it <u>ain't</u> running, Lennie. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *be + not + never*

130. Lennie <u>ain't</u> <u>no</u> fighter, but Lennie's strong and quick (and Lennie don't know no rules.) dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not + no*

131. This here <u>ain't</u> <u>no</u> setup. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not + no*

132. This <u>ain't</u> <u>no</u> good place. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not + no*

133. He <u>ain't</u> <u>no</u> cuckoo. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not + no*

134. That <u>ain't</u> <u>no</u> good. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not + no*

135. He <u>ain't</u> <u>no</u> good to you, Candy. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not + no*

136. He <u>ain't</u> <u>no</u> good to himself. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not + no*

137. I <u>ain't</u> <u>nothing</u> to scream about, but that big bastard there can put up more grain alone than most pairs can. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not + nothing*

138. I <u>ain't</u> interested in <u>nothing</u> you was sayin'. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not + nothing*

139. It <u>ain't</u> <u>nobody's</u> mouse. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not + no one / nobody*

140. An' I <u>ain't</u> so bright <u>neither</u>, or I wouldn't be buckin' barley for my fifty and found. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not + neither*

141. There <u>ain't</u> <u>nobody</u> can keep up with him. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to *existential be + not + no one / nobody*

142. An' you <u>ain't gonna</u> do <u>no</u> bad things like you done in Weed, <u>neither</u>. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to semi-modal *be + not going to + no*

143. <u>Ain't</u> we <u>gonna</u> have <u>no</u> supper? dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to semi-modal *be + not going to + no*

144. But you <u>ain't gonna</u> get in <u>no</u> trouble, because if you do, I won't let you tend the rabbits. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to semi-modal *be + not going to + no*

145. I … <u>ain't gonna</u> say <u>nothin'</u>. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to semi-modal *be + not going to + nothing*

146. You <u>ain't gonna</u> put <u>nothing</u> over on me. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to semi-modal *be + not going to + nothing*

147. But we <u>ain't</u> done <u>nothing</u> to get dirty. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *have + not + nothing*

148. Well, we <u>ain't got</u> <u>no</u> ketchup. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *have + not + got + no*

149. I <u>ain't got</u> <u>no</u> mouse. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *have + not + got + no*

150. I <u>ain't got</u> time for <u>no</u> more. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *have + not + got + no*

151. I <u>ain't got</u> the poop <u>no</u> more. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *have + not + got + no*

152. I <u>ain't got</u> <u>no</u> people. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *have + not + got + no*

153. I <u>ain't got</u> <u>no</u> pup. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *have + not + got + no*

154. I <u>ain't got</u> <u>nothing</u> to do. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *have + not + got + nothing*

155. I <u>ain't got</u> <u>nothin'</u>, George. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *have + not + got + nothing*

156. You <u>ain't got</u> sense enough to find <u>nothing</u> to eat. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *have + not + got + nothing*

157. They <u>ain't got</u> <u>nothing</u> to look ahead to. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *have + not + got + nothing*

158. I'd drink it myself if I had, an' I <u>ain't got</u> a gut ache <u>neither</u>. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *have + not + got + neither*

159. Take a real smart guy and he <u>ain't</u> <u>hardly</u> ever a nice fella. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to copula *be + not + hardly*

160. There <u>ain't</u> <u>no</u> more harm in him than a kid <u>neither</u>, except he's so strong. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to *existential be + not + no + neither*

161. Well, I <u>ain't</u> done <u>nothing</u> like that <u>no</u> more. dependent multiple negation in combination with *ain't*, *ain't* corresponding to auxiliary verb *have + not + nothing + no*

162. <u>Don't</u> really seem to be running, though. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

163. <u>Didn't</u> wanta stop at the ranch gate, that's what. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

164. I <u>didn't</u> kill it. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

165. They was lookin' for us, but they <u>didn't</u> catch us. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

166. I <u>didn't</u> forget that, you bet. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

167. I could get along so easy and so nice if I <u>didn't</u> have you on my tail. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

168. An' <u>don't</u> you fool around. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

169. I <u>don't</u> know why. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

170. I <u>didn't</u> steal it. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

171. <u>Don't</u> you think I could see your feet was wet where you went acrost the river to get it? not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

172. <u>Don't</u> even remember who that lady was. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

173. If you <u>don'</u> want me I can go off in the hills an' find a cave. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

174. If you <u>don't</u> want me, you only jus' got to say so, and I'll go off in those hills right there – right up those hills and live by myself. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

175. No, I <u>don't</u> like it. not-negation auxiliary verb *do + not*

176. You get a kick outta that, <u>don't</u> you? not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

177. I <u>don't</u> know. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

178. But the stable buck <u>don't</u> give a damn about that. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

179. I <u>didn't</u> go in there. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

180. Then why <u>don't</u> you let him answer? not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

181. Well, God knows he <u>don't</u> need any brains to buck barley bags. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

182. Damn right he <u>don't</u>. (listen) not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

183. S'pose he <u>don't</u> want to talk? not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

184. He <u>don't</u> have to take after Lennie. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

185. He just <u>don't</u> give a damn. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

186. I <u>don't</u> like mean little guys. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

187. <u>Don't</u> let him sock me, George. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

188. <u>Don't</u> let him pull you in – but – if that son-of-a-bitch socks you – let 'im have it. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

189. <u>Don't</u> you even take a look at that bitch. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

190. I <u>don't</u> care what she says and what she does. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

191. I <u>don't</u> like this place, George. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

192. I gotta pair of punks on my team that <u>don't</u> know a barley bag from a blue ball. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

193. I <u>don't</u> know why. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

194. I <u>don't</u> know whether he got a brown and white one. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

195. I <u>didn't</u> watch her go. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

196. Jesus Christ, I <u>don't</u> know how we're gonna get him to sleep in here. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

197. Honest I <u>didn't</u>. (mean any harm) not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

198. I <u>don't</u> like to play ever' night. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

199. So you <u>wasn't</u> gonna say a word. not-negation, semi-modal *be + not going to*

200. I <u>wasn't</u> listenin'. (26) not-negation, auxiliary verb *be + not*

201. Wonder he <u>isn't</u> too damn good to stop in Soledad at all. not-negation, copula *be + not*

202. He was sore as hell when you <u>wasn't</u> here to go out this morning. not-negation, copula *be + not*

203. He was sure burned when you <u>wasn't</u> here this morning. not-negation, copula *be + not*

204. It <u>wasn't</u> Murray and Ready's fault. not-negation, copula *be + not*

205. Says we was here when we <u>wasn't</u>. not-negation, copula *be + not*

206. That's <u>not</u> what I meant. not-negation, copula *be + not*

207. I seen she <u>wasn't</u> under your wagon this morning. not-negation, copula *be + not*

208. It <u>wasn't</u> much to you, maybe, but it was a hell of a lot to him. not-negation, copula *be + not*

209. That <u>wasn't</u> so damn much fun after a while. not-negation, copula *be + not*

210. You say that over two, three times so you sure <u>won't</u> forget it. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not*

211. Your aunt Clara <u>wouldn't</u> like you running off by yourself, even if she is dead. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not*

212. (But you ain't gonna get in no trouble, because if you do) I <u>won't</u> let you tend the rabbits. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not*

213. The guys <u>wouldn't</u> let him use his feet, so the nigger got him. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not*

214. <u>Won't</u> do any good to go out now till after dinner. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not*

215. An' you <u>won't</u> let the big guy talk, is that it? not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not*

216. <u>Won't</u> ever get canned 'cause his old man's the boss. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not*

217. No, 'course you <u>wouldn't</u>. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not*

218. I <u>won't</u> say a word. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not*

219. Say it over to yourself, Lennie, so you <u>won't</u> forget it. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not*

220. They <u>won't</u> be a damn thing left to eat. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not*

221. An' I ain't so bright neither, or I <u>wouldn't</u> be buckin' barley for my fifty and found. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not*

222. You <u>wouldn't</u> tell? not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not*

223. I bet he <u>won't</u> come in here to sleep tonight. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not*

224. You <u>wouldn't</u> think it to look at him now, but he was the best damn sheep dog I ever seen. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not*

225. Then it <u>won't</u> be you that does it. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *will / would + not*

226. I <u>can't</u> keep it. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *can / could + not*

227. You <u>can't</u> keep a job and you lose me ever' job I get. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *can / could + not*

228. You can remember this place, <u>can't</u> you? not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *can / could + not*

229. The guys said on account of the nigger's got a crooked back, Smitty <u>can't</u> use his feet. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *can / could + not*

230. We <u>can't</u> help it, Lennie. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *can / could + not*

231. She <u>couldn't</u> feed that many. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *can / could + not*

232. Got no teeth, damn near blind, <u>can't</u> eat. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *can / could + not*

233. <u>Couldn't</u> swim a stroke. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *can / could + not*

234. No, I <u>couldn't</u> do that. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *can / could + not*

235. But you get used to goin' around with a guy an' you <u>can't</u> get rid of him. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *can / could + not*

236. He was so scairt he <u>couldn't</u> let go of that dress. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *can / could + not*

237. I tol' you you <u>couldn't</u> bring that pup in here. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *can / could + not*

238. Well, I <u>can't</u> stand him in here. not-negation, modal auxiliary verb *can / could + not*

239. You take him back or I'll tell Slim <u>not</u> to let you have him. not-negation, to-infinitive *+ not*

240. <u>No</u> reason at all for you. no-negation, *no*

241. <u>No</u> mess at all, and when the end of the month come I could take my fifty bucks and go into town and get whatever I want. no-negation, *no*

242. They got <u>no</u> family. no-negation, *no*

243. Tell you what he used to do – At meals he'd peal his boil' potatoes, an' he'd take out ever' little spot, <u>no</u> matter what kind, before he'd eat it. no-negation, *no*

244. Got <u>no</u> teeth, damn near blind, can't eat. no-negation, *no*

245. <u>No</u> need to thank me about that. no-negation, *no*

246. I'd lay out in the sun and <u>nobody'd</u> hurt me. no-negation, *no one / nobody*

247. <u>Nobody'd</u> take it away from me. no-negation, *no*

248. Well, I <u>never</u> seen one guy take so much trouble for another guy. no-negation, *never*

249. <u>Never</u> did seem right to me. no-negation, *never*

250. Curley <u>never</u> seen it. no-negation, *never*

251. No, you <u>never</u>. (done anything) no-negation, *never*

252. Honest I <u>never</u>. (meant any harm) no-negation, *never*

253. Maybe he ain't bright, but I <u>never</u> seen such a worker. no-negation, *never*

254. God almighty I <u>never</u> seen such a strong guy. no-negation, *never*

255. I've beat the hell outta him, and he coulda bust every bone in my body jus' with his han's, but he <u>never</u> lifted a finger against me. no-negation, *never*

256. But he <u>never</u> hurt her. no-negation, *never*

257. I been around him so much I <u>never</u> notice how he stinks. no-negation, *never*

258. If you was to take him out and shoot him right in the back of the head, right there, why he'd <u>never</u> know what hit him. no-negation, *never*

259. It <u>wasn't</u> <u>nothing</u>. independent multiple negation, copula *be + not + nothing*

260. <u>Never</u> mind, <u>never</u> mind. independent multiple negation, *never + never*

261. Why<u>'n't</u> do it yourself? dubious

262. I <u>dunno</u>. dubious

263. Why<u>'n't</u> you get Candy to shoot his old dog and give him one of the pups to raise up? dubious

264. Why<u>'n't</u> you shoot him, Candy? Dubious

265. <u>Didn't</u> I remember about <u>not</u> gonna say a word? dubious

Appendix B *Narrative Excerpts from the novel Of Mice and Men*

1. His arms <u>did not</u> swing at his sides, but hung loosely. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

2. Slowly, like a terrier who <u>doesn't</u> want to bring a ball to its master, Lennie approached, drew back, approached again. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

3. George <u>did not</u> answer. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

4. Lennie's eyes moved down over her body, and though she <u>did not</u> seem to be looking at Lennie she bridled a little. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

5. Lennie <u>didn't</u> move from his bunk. not-negation, auxiliary verb *do + not*

6. Carlson <u>was not</u> to be put off. not-negation, auxiliary verb *be + not*

7. Slim moved back slightly so the light <u>was not</u> on his face. not-negation, copula *be + not*

8. Slim <u>had not</u> moved. not-negation, auxiliary verb *have + not*

9. His ear heard more than was said to him, and his slow speech had overtones <u>not</u> of thought, but of understanding beyond thought. not-negation, *not* in coordination

10. <u>No</u> answer. no-negation, *no*

11. He pointed with his right arm, and out of the sleeve came a round stick-like wrist, but <u>no</u> hand. no-negation, *no*

12. The man looked cautiously at the door to make sure <u>no one</u> was listening. no-negation, *no one / nobody*

13. Slim <u>neither</u> encouraged <u>nor</u> discouraged him. no-negation, *neither…nor*

14. The rabbits hurried <u>noiselessly</u> for cover. lexical negation, suffix *-less*

15. For a moment the place was <u>lifeless</u>, and then two men emerged from the path and came in to the opening by the green pool. lexical negation, suffix *-less*

16. Both wore black, <u>shapeless</u> hats and both carried tight blanket rolls slung over their shoulders. lexical negation, suffix *-less*

17. … he said <u>hopelessly</u>. lexical negation, suffix *-less*

18. George was tense, and <u>motionless</u>. lexical negation, suffix *-less*

19. Lennie was looking <u>helplessly</u> to George for instruction. lexical negation, suffix *-less*

20. His hatchet face was <u>ageless</u>. lexical negation, suffix *-less*

21. Lennie said <u>breathlessly</u>. lexical negation, suffix *-less*

22. George <u>unslung</u> his bindle and dropped it gently on the bank. lexical negation, prefix *un-*

23. George <u>undid</u> his bindle and brought out three cans of beans. lexical negation, prefix *un-*

24. He pretended to be <u>unaware</u> of Lennie so close beside him. lexical negation, prefix *un-*

25. Inside, the walls were whitewashed and the floor <u>unpainted</u>. lexical negation, prefix *un-*

26. He <u>unrolled</u> his bindle and put things on the shelf, his razor and bar of soap, his comb and bottle of pills, his liniment and leather wristband. lexical negation, prefix *un-*

27. Slim's eyes were level and <u>unwinking</u>. lexical negation, prefix *un-*

28. The old man squirmed <u>uncomfortably</u>. lexical negation, prefix *un-*

29. Candy looked about <u>unhappily</u>. lexical negation, prefix *un-*

30. Lennie lumbered to his feet and <u>disappeared</u> in the brush. lexical negation, prefix *dis-*

31. They made their beds on the sand, and as the blaze dropped from the fire the sphere of light grew smaller; the curling branches <u>disappeared</u> and only a faint glimmer showed where the tree trunks were. lexical negation, prefix *dis-*

32. Lennie tried to <u>disengage</u> his ear. lexical negation, prefix *dis-*

33. Suddenly a triangle began to ring outside, slowly at first, and then faster and faster until the beat of it <u>disappeared</u> into one ringing sound. lexical negation, prefix *dis-*

34. Slim neither encouraged nor <u>discouraged</u> him. lexical negation, prefix *dis-*

35. <u>Only</u> the tops of the Gabilan mountains flamed with the light of the sun that had gone from the valley. words negative in meaning (not form), *only*