NEGATION STRATEGIES
IN ENGLISH AND LITHUANIAN

VIOLETA KALĖDAITĖ, IEVA BASTIENĖ

INTRODUCTION

Negation is a complex linguistic phenomenon, and different languages employ different means to express a negative idea. The corpus-based approach adopted in this study allows identification of the different grammatical and lexical means available to express the negative polarity in English and Lithuanian and to reveal the preferred negation types in the two languages.

Theoretical studies distinguish four major contrasts with respect to negation in English: clausal vs subclausal, ordinary vs metalinguistic, verbal vs non-verbal, and analytic (or not-negation) vs synthetic (or no-negation). Only two of them - verbal vs non-verbal and analytic vs synthetic negation will be discussed in more detail. The two parameters form the basis of the empirical investigation presented here. In Lithuanian, as is the case in English, the distinction is made between verbal and non-verbal negation. An important aspect related to Lithuanian is that the language has only synthetic negation (but no analytic not negation).

The study addresses the following research questions: What is the distribution of two negation types in the English corpus of written texts? What are the frequencies of negative markers in the two languages? How does one type of negation in Lithuanian cope with both types of English clausal negation? What tendencies may be noticed in rendering English negative items into Lithuanian? Are there any peculiarities of negation in each of the analyzed languages?

TYPES OF NEGATION IN ENGLISH

While discussing such clauses as *It is raining* and *It isn't raining*, Huddleston and Pullum (2002:786) note that they differ in terms of positive - negative polarity. They also stress that "for the most part positive represents the default polarity, in the sense that

positive constructions are structurally and semantically simpler than negative ones". In other words, it is the special properties of negative constructions that make them the marked member of the opposition (cf. Croft 1990: 275).

An important aspect of negation analysis is defining the scope of negation. According to Biber et al. (1999:175), the scope of negation is "that part of a clause that is affected by the negative form. [...] With clausal negation, the entire proposition is denied or rejected, and the negative scope extends from the negative form until the end of the clause" (cf. also Quirk et al. 1985: 787).

VERBAL VS NON-VERBAL NEGATION

The two types (verbal and non-verbal negation) are exemplified by Huddleston and Pullum (2002:788-789) as follows:

(1) a. He doesn't dine out. [Verbal]

     b. He never dines out. [Non-verbal, adjunct]

(2) a. I did not see anything at all. [Verbal]

     b. I saw nothing at all. [Non-verbal, object]

(3) a. The report is not complete. [Analytic]

     b. The report isn't complete. [Synthetic]

(4) a. Not many people liked it. [Analytic]

     b. Nobody liked it. [Synthetic]

They also point out (2002:788) that the difference between verbal and non-verbal negation lies in the following: "In verbal negation the marker of negation is grammatically associated with the verb, the head of the clause, whereas in non-verbal negation it is associated with a dependent of the verb". In example (1b) the negation marker is an adjunct, while in (2b) it is an object.

Verbal negation of a clause in English "is commonly marked on or adjacent to the verb of that clause" (Huddleston and Pullum 2002:799). There are three types of clause in which verbal negation is expressed: primary, imperative, and secondary negation; the three types differ in their syntax. In his discussion of negation from a typological perspective, Givón (1984: 336) claims that morpho-syntactically negative markers almost always are attached to the verb.

A distinction is made between **analytic primary negation** (*not* added before the verb) and **synthetic primary negation** (the verb is inflected in the negative). For instance:

(5) a. Kim will be here later on. [positive clause with auxiliary verb]

b. Kim will not be here later on. [analytic primary negation]

c. Kim won't be here later on. [synthetic primary negation]

It is important to draw a distinction between the styles of usage that are appropriate to synthetic and analytic primary negation – these forms are not fully interchangeable in all contexts. According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002: 800),

> The synthetic forms are a mark of informal style […] they are not used in very formal and solemn contexts or in some kinds of written (especially published) language. They are by no means absent from academic prose, but the author or speaker who uses them makes a definite style decision: the effect of using synthetic negative auxiliaries is to increase the sense of familiarity, intimacy, and acceptability.

Even though synthetic negative auxiliaries are treated as informal, this does not imply that analytic forms are neutral or should be preferred. According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002: 800), "analytic forms sound unnatural in many conversational contexts unless there is some clear reason for their use, e.g., emphasis on the word *not* (*I did NOT sneak out by the back door when she arrived!)*". This feature is also discussed by Leech and Svartvik (1994: 306).

In **non-verbal negation** the negator is not associated with the verb. Quirk et al. (1985: 778-779; compare also Tottie 1991) point out that negation of the clause can be done not only by negating the verb (as in (6a) but also by other clause elements, such as *no* or *not,* or by using a negative word, such as *none* or *never* (as in (6b).

(6) a. We *didn't l*eave one bottle behind. [Synthetic verbal negation]

b. We left *not* one bottle behind. [Analytic non-verbal negation]

ANALYTIC (*NOT-*) NEGATION

As regards analytic non-verbal negation, examples with *not* found in a number of constructions, include the following cases (examples from Huddleston and Pullum 2002:807-808):

(7)   *Not all of them* regarded it as a success.

Example (7) shows that to form a negative phrase, *not* combines with certain quantifiers, such as *all, every, many, much, often*. An item of even more wider distribution is *not one* (it can also appear both pre- and post-verbally):

(8)   *Not one* person supported the proposal.

Not also combines with determiners, i.e. *not a little, not a few:*

(9)   His speech caused *not a little* confusion.

The effect of negation in (9) is "a fairly large amount".

Example (10) illustrates how *not* combines with focusing adverbs, *not even, not only*:

(10) *Not even/only* Ed approved of the plan.

Not is found with various degree expressions that modify adjectives, adverbs, or determiners (e.g. *not very, not quite*):

(11) We had a *not very* amicable discussion.

An interesting case of negation occurs when attributive adjectives are negated:

(12) Morton was in his early fifties and *not unattractive* to women.

Huddleston and Pullum (2002:809-810) note that such adjectives cannot be negated directly by *not, e.g. *a not large house.* In order to be negated, the adjective has to meet certain requirements:

a) to consist of a base preceded by a productive and transparently negative prefix (**anarchic*)

b)   the adjective must be gradable (**a not illegal act*)

Negation of adverbs presents a similar case - adverbs cannot be negated directly by *not:*

(13) a. Not unexpectedly, Charles was late for the meeting.

   b. *Not stupidly, he asked for payment in advance.

Another combination with *not,* the *not + that* clause construction, is interpreted as "This is not, however, to say/suggest that..." (Huddleston and Pullum 2002:811):

(14) The film never quite generates his trademark level of icy paranoia. *Not that* it doesn't try.

In such cases, "the *not* calls up a proposition that might be naturally assumed or expected in the context, and denies that it is in fact true" (ibid.).

SYNTHETIC (NO-) NEGATION

Huddleston and Pullum (2002:788) distinguish between **synthetic verbal negation** (which is marked inflectionally, by negative verb-forms, as in (6) *We did**n't** leave one bottle behind,* and **synthetic non-verbal negation** marked by words which have some other function as well. However, here we will follow a slightly simplified classification

of negation (see Tottie 1991, Biber et al. 1999, Johansson 2007), where both forms *not/n't* are treated as analytic (*not*-negation).

Johansson (2007:155) points out that synthetic negation is not expressed by a negative particle, but is incorporated in some other word: a determiner (*no, neither*), a pronoun (*nobody, no one, neither, nothing, none*), an adverb (*never, nowhere*), or a connector (*neither, nor*).

Huddleston and Pullum (2002:788) note that synthetic non-verbal negation is marked by elements of three kinds (cf. also Tottie 1991, Johansson 2007):

1) absolute negators (*no*, including compounds *nobody, nothing*, etc., and the independent form *none*)

2) approximate negators (*few, little; barely, hardly, scarcely; rarely, seldom*)

3) affixal negation (*un-, in-, non-, -less*, etc.).

Synthetic *no*-negation is also expressed by approximate negators, such as determinatives *few, little;* adverbs of frequency and degree, such as *barely, hardly, scarcely; rarely, seldom.* Huddleston and Pullum (2002:820) point out that the approximate negators make an affirmative clause negative:

(15) One **seldom** sees such birds, not even in Australia.

(16) She visits her parents **only rarely**.

The class of approximate negators is claimed not to be "homogeneous", for example, *rarely* and *seldom* are said to be weaker markers of clausal negation. For this reason they can be the focus for *only* (as in (16)), while other approximators cannot.

MULTIPLE NEGATION AND THE *AIN'T* FORM

Biber at al. (1999:178) draw a distinction between dependent and independent multiple negation. Dependent multiple negation is defined as co-occurrence of two or more negative forms in the same clause. For instance:

(17) You've **never** seen **nothing** like this. [conv]

Such a pattern as in (17) is very old and appears in casual speech; one can say it is stigmatized. The repetition of the negative forms gives the strengthening effect to the clause.

There is also a special type of dependent multiple negation with the repetition of *not* (ibid.):

(18) A: Did Jill say what time Caroline's appointment was?

B: No. Er – **not** to me she **didn't.** [conv]

The beginning and the end in such a clause is most noticeable, and such a clause has a strengthening effect.

Biber at al. (2007:179) point out that independent multiple negation occurs when negative forms are not found within the same clause. Very often negation occurs naturally because of repetition and reformulation:

(19) Wo**n't** eat any weggies you know, **none**. [conv]

There are cases when two negative forms make the meaning positive:

(20) Oh well you sleep on sherry though – it makes you sleepy, you ca**n't**

not sleep. [conversational]

Biber at al. (2007:179) stress that the difference between dependent and independent multiple negation is that dependent multiple negation is restricted to conversation. Independent multiple negation, on the other hand, requires planning and is found in written texts.

Biber et al. (1999: 167) discuss the usage of the non-standard form *ain't,* which occurs with all persons and can mean both *to be* and *to have:*

(21) There *ain't* a tape in there. (to be)

(22) I *ain't* done nothing. (to have)

Lithuanian is known for its ability to express double negation whose function is to strengthen a negative idea. A similar use is found in English:

(23) Are there no tickets at all left?

(24) There's just nowhere at all where you can get decent coffee in this town.

Carter and McCarthy (2006:743) refer to this usage as 'intensifying negation' and points out that *at all* is the most common intensifier of negative items.

NEGATION IN LITHUANIAN

Mathiassen (1996:245, cf. also Balta 2004) points out that the most common "proclitic negational particle" in Lithuanian is *ne-,* which is placed before the word which it negates. If the negative marker is attached to the predicate, the sentence becomes negative. Ambrazas (1997:667) notes that *ne* has the status of prefix or particle. If the marker *ne* is attached to a constituent other than the predicate, the sentence remains affirmative (ibid.):

(25) Jis prašė mane dar *ne*važiuoti.

'He asked me *not* to leave yet.'

Ramonienė and Pribušauskaitė (2008: 290) state that "A situation is negated with simple or composite negative predicate. These sentences express negation or prohibition." In the case of simple predicate the verb receives the particle *ne-*:

(26) Rasos *neerzina* buitis.

    'Rasa is not flustered by everyday life.'

In composite predicates the particle *ne-* is added to the copula or the nominal word (Ramonienė and Pribušauskaitė 2008: 291):

(27) a. Jis nebuvo valgęs tris dienas.

      'He hadn't eaten in three days.'

    b. Jis buvo nevalgęs tris dienas.

      'He had not eaten in three days.'

Lithuanian possesses the so-called genitive of negation: if the subject of a clause occurs within the scope of negation, it is transformed into an object in the genitive case (Holvoet and Judžentis 2004:67).

(28) a. Yra kitas kelias.

      'There is another way.'

    b. Nėra kito kelio.

      'There is no other (GEN) way (GEN).' (from Ambrazas 1997:668)

Ramonienė and Pribušauskaitė (2008: 291) point out that this happens only with the third person of the copula *būti* 'to be' when existence of some entity is negated:

(29) a. Mokytoja yra klasėje. /'The teacher (NOM) is in the classroom.'

    b. Mokytojos nėra klasėje./'The teacher (GEN) is not in the classroom.'

    c. Ne mokytoja yra klasėje. /'Not the teacher (NOM) is in the classroom.' (It could be a student's mother.)

If the subject or state is negated, the case of the noun remains the same, as in (29c).

DOUBLE NEGATION FOR EMPHASIS AND INTENSIFICATION

In contrast to English, double negation is a norm of Lithuanian grammar. Mathiassen (1996:81) notes that when the negative pronoun is not related to a verb, there is no double negation:

(30) Jis *jokio* šalčio nebijo.

 'He doesn't fear any cold.'

Double negation occurs when absolute negators are used in order to emphasize and intensify negation (Ambrazas 1976, 1997:670; Valeckienė 1998: 192). Absolute negators include pronouns (*niekas, nei vienas, joks, nė joks*), adverbs (*niekur, niekada, nei karto; nė kiek ne, visai ne, niekaip*), and particles (*ne, nė, nebe, nei, net, netgi*). Lithuanian also shows structures with multiple negation (Ambrazas 1997:673):

(31) Tau *niekas niekada nedarė jokių* priekaištų.

 'No one has ever reproached you for anything.' (lit. 'No one never did not make you no reproaches.'

Mathiassen (1996:177) points out that the *nie-*negation (in adverbs and pronouns) is not strong enough and must be strengthened by *ne-*, thus we get double or even multiple negation as exemplified above.

Discussing double negation, Ambrazas (1997:670) singles out a situation when a double negation makes the sentence positive and provides the following examples:

(32) Duktė *nebuvo negraži*. / 'The daughter was not not-pretty' = 'She was pretty.'

Even though the sentence is negative in form, it is affirmative in meaning. Ambrazas (ibid.) states that double negation here "is a variety of litotes and serves the stylistic purpose of deliberate understatement". English uses a similar kind of negation, especially in the use of verbal negation with negative adjectives, as in example (12) discussed above:

(12) Morton was in his early fifties and *not unattractive* to women.

Ambrazas (1997:670) notes that in order to intensify negation, negative particles (*nė, nei*) are used. They can occur either before the negative predicate (33) or before any other sentence element (34):

(33) Mokytoja nė/nei nepažvelgė į sąsiuvinį.

 'The teacher did not even glance at the copybook.'

(34) Tokio džiaugsmo jis nebuvo nė/nei sapnavęs.

 'He had not even dreamed of such joy.'

As is the case in English, coordinated predicates (see example (35)) in Lithuanian (see Ambrazas 1997:671) can be negated by the reduplicated (i.e. coordinate) conjunction *nei ... nei (neither... nor):*

(35) Žmonės *nei nematė, nei negirdėjo* artėjančios audros.

'People neither saw nor heard the approaching storm.'

The last aspect of Lithuanian negation to be discussed is negation with a positive form. It is used when a person expresses irony or wants to express a certain insignificance of a particular item (see Ramonienė and Pribušauskaitė 2008: 295):

(36) Anoks čia rūpestis!

'This is such a bother!' (meaning 'This is not a bother.')

For this purpose certain pronouns and adverbs are employed: *anoks* 'such', *koks* 'what kind of', *toks* 'that kind of', *taip* 'so', etc. A summary of negation types and the means used to express them is given in Table 1.

Table 1. Negative forms in English and Lithuanian

English		Lithuanian	
ANALYTIC *not* NEGATION	SYNTHETIC *no-* NEGATION	ANALYTIC *not* NEGATION	SYNTHETIC *no-*NEGATION
Not/n't	**Absolute negators:** - determiners (*no, neither*) - pronouns (*nobody, no one, neither, nothing, none*) -adverbs (*never, nowhere*) - connectors (*neither, nor*)	–	**Absolute negators:** – - pronouns (*niekas, nei vienas, joks, nė joks*) - adverbs (*niekur, niekada, nei karto; nė kiek ne, visai ne, niekaip*) - particles (*ne, nė, nebe, nei, net, netgi*) - connectors (*nei...nei*)
	Approximate negators (*few, little; barely, hardly, scarcely; rarely, seldom*)		**Approximate negators** (*keletas, nedaug, mažai; tik,vos, vos (tik), vos ne vos, retai, nedažnai*)
	Affixal negation (*un-, in-, non-, -less, etc.*)		**Affixal negation** (*ne-*)

DATA AND METHOD

The investigation of correspondences between the expression of negation in English and Lithuanian involves an empirical analysis of the data drawn from the parallel corpus of one literary text, the original of *Jane Eyre* by Ch. Bronte and its translation into Lithuanian (this text was chosen to avoid copyright issues). The two texts were put into an e-format by the Center of Computational Linguistics at VMU. The English text consists of 185,089 words, whereas the translation into Lithuanian contains 150,067 words.

The search for expression of negation in English and Lithuanian was carried out with the help of the ParaConc (*Parallel concordance)* programme. When used in language studies, parallel corpora highlight the characteristics of the individual languages as well as show relationships between them. In addition, to obtain more reliable data, in some cases the AntConc 3.2.1 (<http://www.antlab.sci.waseda.ac.jp/ software. html>) programme was used as well.

Table 2. Negative items in the English data

Not-negation	Negative item	Tokens
	Not	1484
	n't	21
Not-negation: total		(43.6%) 1505
No-negation	No	589
	Never	284
	Nowhere	8
	None	37
	Nothing	156
	Nobody	13
	No one	33
	Neither (determiner)	5
	Neither...nor	138
Total		1263
Affixal negation in adjectives	Un-	278
	Il-	2
	In-	18
	Ir-	10
	Non-	5
	-less	202
Affixal negation in adjectives: total		515
Affixal negation in adverbs	Un-	34
	Il-	–
	In-	–
	Ir-	2
	Non-	1
Affixal negation in adverbs: total		37
Total (affixal negation)		552
Approximate negators	few	
	little	32
	barely	2
	hardly	33
	scarcely	44
	rarely	4
	seldom	16
Approximate negators: total		131
No-negation: total		(56.4%) 1946
Total (all negatives)		**3451**

The raw frequencies of negative items in the two languages were counted. In a 185,089 word corpus of English it was found that negatives appear with a frequency of 18.6 occurrences per 1,000 words. With 1484 occurrences the item *not* was ranked as the 17th on the word list; the contracted form *n't* was found 21 times, thus the total numbers of *not*-negation reaches 1505 tokens.

No-negation includes more linguistic items and shows 3451 occurrences. The form *no* appears 589 times; it was ranked as the 39th item on the word list. The total number of negatives is presented in Table 2.

DISCUSSION OF CORPUS FINDINGS

OVERALL FREQUENCIES OF *NOT*-NEGATION AND *NO*-NEGATION IN ENGLISH AND LITHUANIAN

The analyzed corpus has shown preference for *no*-negation (56.4%) against *not*-negation (43.6%). Within *no*-negation, 28.4 % of negation tokens were affixal (e.g. *unlikely, illogical*).

In her detailed analysis of negation in English, Tottie (1991) identified important differences between the use of *no*-negation and *not*-negation, as well as the use of affixal and non-affixal forms. The results of her study (as reported in Kennedy 1998:172) show that in written texts the proportion of affixal negation of adjectives (the largest single word class with affixal negation) was about two-thirds of the total number of negative sentences with adjectives. Kennedy (ibid.) stresses that "This difference is attributed possibly to greater planning time and less fragmentation in the construction of written text". It seems that our data in principle is in line with her basic findings, i.e. preference for *no*-negation in written genres as well as preference for affixal negation with adjectives and adverbs. Moreover, Tottie (1991: 235, as cited in Kennedy 1998:172) suggests that there is a tendency for *not*-negation to replace *no*-negation, "with this tendency showing up most strongly in speech and in less frequent verbs which have not tended to form such strong collocations". This interesting generalization is based on the finding that 66% of the negative examples in speech used the item *not*.

As regards Lithuanian, in a 150,067 word corpus of Lithuanian (a translation from English) there were many more negative items found in comparison to English. A similar tendency was noticed, for example, in Norwegian (Johansson 2007:157). The Lithuanian data reveal a striking difference between the use of negation in the two languages. It appears that the number of negative tokens in the Lithuanian material increased four times as compared to the number of negatives in the English original:

negatives in the Lithuanian translation occurred with a frequency of 75 occurrences per 1,000 words. The overall number of negative items is presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Negative items in the Lithuanian data

No-negation	Negative item	Tokens	Negative item	Tokens
Ne- + another item	(types 9645)			**11,246**
Counts of special cases:				**1819**
			ne- + verb	675
			nebe- + verb	177
Total: ne-/nebe + verb				852
Pronouns			niekas / niekam / niekieno ne-	117
			nė vienas / -no ne-	11
			ne- nė vieno	104
			ne- joks / jokio	29
Total: pronouns				261
Adverbs			ne- niekur	10
			niekur ne-	9
			niekada ne-	2
			niekados	7
			nė karto ne-	11
			nė kiek ne	37
			visai ne	65
			niekaip ne-	8
Total: adverbs				149
Particles			nė ne-	65
			ne- nė	200
			ne- nei	119
			net ne-	149
			netgi ne-	24
Total: particles				557

As can be seen from the table, Lithuanian *no*-negation also employs more linguistic items than English *no*-negation.

PECULIARITIES OF NEGATION IN THE TWO LANGUAGES
DOUBLE AND MULTIPLE NEGATION

Even though modern English avoids double negatives, it existed in the earlier periods of the language development. Van Kemenade (1999:148) presents Jespersen's (1917) "cycle" of the development of negation in English as follows:

Stage 1: negation is expressed by one negative marker

Stage 2: negation is expressed by a negative marker in combination with a negative adverb or noun phrase

Stage 3: the second element in Stage 2 takes on the function of expressing negation by itself; the original negative marker becomes optional

Stage 4: the original negative marker becomes extinct

Van Kemenade (ibid.) also notes that "Sentential negation is predominantly marked by preverbal *ne* immediately preceding the finite verb", as in example (37):

(37) He ne andwyrde ðam wife æt fruman.

He not answered the woman at first.

'He did not answer the woman at first.' (ÆHom.ii.110.33)

Note an example illustrating multiple negation in Old English (Van Kemenade 1999:148):

(38) þæt he na siþþan geboren ne wurde

That he never afterward born not would-be

'that he never not be born afterward' (Oros.139.11)

It can be seen that Old English had the same negative marker as Modern Lithuanian. Moreover, the statement regarding Stage 4 is in line with the tendency in Modern English pointed out by Tottie (1991) for *not*-negation to replace *no*-negation.

Double negation in English as non-standard usage was condemned in the eighteenth century. Baugh and Cable (1994: 274) on this write: "Lowth stated the rule that we are now bound by: 'Two Negatives in English destroy one another, or are equivalent to an Affirmative.' Thus a useful idiom was banished from polite speech". No doubt, that double negation is a useful tool for expressing emphasis and intensification is demonstrated by its frequent occurrence in Lithuanian.

Even though treated as non-standard, double negation still occurs in Modern English, but it is often combined with dependent multiple negation, as in "There *ain't nothing* we can do" (Biber et al. 1999:178). However, our English data do not contain a single instance of this usage. However, the data show another pattern used for emphasis and intensification. According to Carter and McCarthy (2006:743), in English *at all* is the most common intensifier of negative items:

(39) a. <…> I did not indeed dream of sorrow, but as little did I dream of joy; for I **never slept at all**.

b. Jo linkėjimas išsipildė tik pusiau: aš tikrai nesapnavau nieko liūdno, tačiau nesapnavau ir nieko džiaugsmingo, nes **iš viso neužmigau**.

As is seen from the example, the intensifying item *at all* in Lithuanian translations was rendered as *i viso*. In all cases of double negation (25), it is achieved by using

negative particles and a negated verb. Non-verbal negation is often rendered into Lithuanian as *visai be, jokios, ničnieko:*

> (40) a. It was well I secured this forage, or both she, I, and Sophie, to whom I conveyed a share of our repast, would have run a chance of getting no **dinner at all** <…>
>
> b. Gerai, kad aš pasirūpinau valgiu, antraip mes abi ir Sofi, kuriai nunešiau dalį mūsų užkandžių, rizikavome likti **visai be pietų**: <…>

On the other hand, there are instances when this type of negation is rendered by affirmative elements, that is, negative elements become positive in form:

> (41) a. As he had said, there was probably **nothing at all** extraordinary in the substance of the narrative itself <…>
>
> b. Kaip jis pats pasakė, visa ta istorija **gana banali**.

While discussing translation change from negative to positive form, Johansson (2007:164) mentions quantifying expressions, such as *more, few, little*, which are often found in such cases. Some examples from our corpus show that one of the ways to treat such negative quantifying expressions in Lithuanian is to simply leave them out:

> (42) a. **The few** who continued well were allowed almost unlimited license <…>
>
> b. **Tos mergaitės, kurios** liko sveikos, galėjo daryti ką tinkamos <…>

Johansson (2007:165) suggests that in such cases the result of the positive rendering is strengthening of the meaning. He also adds that "The change could be viewed as a case of normalization on the part of the translator, as positive forms are more frequent in general than negative forms". Our data show, however, that negative markers in the Lithuanian translation are much more frequent than it is the case in English. One explanation is that different language may have different stylistic preferences with respect to negation. A bigger variety of *no*-negation items in Lithuanian may be one reason. But to say why exactly this is the case, more detailed investigations based on a large corpus should be carried out. Because of the very big numbers of negative items and the limited possibilities of tracking such cases with the software, it was not possible to specifically find such cases. However, this is an interesting tendency in translation and could be studied as a new research topic.

The search for the combination of *not + at all* gave 11 hits. The most common means for rendering the intensifying effect of *at all* were *visai, nė kiek, maža te(padėjo), visai nebe-, nė tiek ne(galite):*

> (43) a. From just below; and **I am not at all afraid** of being out late when it is moonlight <…>

b. – Štai iš ten, iš slėnio, **ir aš nė kiek nebijau**, nors ir vėlu, – juk mėnesiena.

(44) a. And now you recall your promise, and **will not go to India at all**, I presume?

b. – Dabar jūs, žinoma, atsisakote savo pažado ir **visai nebevažiuosite į Indiją?**

The basic intensification strategy in the Lithuanian text was to use absolute negators (mainly pronouns and adverbs) placing them next to the negative verb form but no other negative items (i.e. multiple negation) appeared. The intensifying elements such as *niekaip, net, netgi* were not found.

A very big number of additional negative items that appeared in the Lithuanian translation (4 times more than in the English original) raises at least several questions: Why are there so many negators in Lithuanian sentences? Is it a grammatical necessity or a stylistic choice of a translator? The examples below in a way indicate the source of the increase of negative elements in the Lithuanian corpus:

(45) a. Accustomed to John Reed's abuse, I **never had an idea** of replying to it;<…>

b. Man buvo įprastas šiurkštus Džono Rido elgesys, ir **niekad nė į galvą neateidavo** mintis prie intis, <…>

The example shows a gradual increase in the number of negators used: instead of one, three negative elements appear in the translation.

Another source for the increase of negators is the tendency to translate an affirmative clause by a negative one:

(46) a. <…> crushing me down on the edge of my crib, dared me in an emphatic voice **to rise from that place, or utter one syllable** during the remainder of the day.

b. <…> nutrenkė ant lovelės ir griežčiausiai įsakė – **nepajudėti iš vietos ir nė neprasižioti** iki vakaro.

(47) a. When you are inquisitive, Jane, you always **make me smile**.

b. – Kai jūs imate mane kvosti, Džeine, **aš negaliu nenusišypsoti**.

This tendency is just the opposite as was seen in example of (41), where a negative element becomes positive in form. This pattern, however, does not seem to influence the increase of negative elements in the Lithuanian translation.

One more source of negation is seen in example (48), where a negative adjective corresponds to a semantically negative adjective in English and which is accompanied by a negated verb.

(48) a. <…> there, though somewhat sad, I was **not miserable.**

b. Nors ir be galo liūdna buvo jame, aš **nesijaučiau nelaiminga.**

The list of *no*-negation items also include approximate negators, such as *few, little;*

barely, hardly, scarcely; rarely, seldom. Here again, the semantically negative approximate negator in English is translated by a negative verb and an intensifying negative particle:

(49) a. **Few children can eat** when excited with the thoughts of a journey; **nor** could I.

b. Vaikai, ruošdamiesi kelionėn, paprastai jaudinasi, ir **valgis jiems ne galvoje**. Aš irgi **nenorėjau nieko nė paragauti**.

Such examples as the above one show the emphatic rendering of the element *nor* into Lithuanian by three negative items in a row. The approximate negator *hardly* shows both positive and negative translation variants:

(50) a. <…> I **hardly know** what to say to you, Miss Eyre.

b. – Aš taip nustebusi, – <…> – kad **tiesiog nežinau**, ką jums ir besakyti, mis Eir.

(51) a. I could **hardly tell** how men and women in extremities of destitution proceeded.

b. Aš **menkai teįsivaizdavau** ką daro žmonės, patekę į didelę bėdą.

Other sources of increased negation include *neither … nor* coordinative clauses:

(52) a. My companion expressed **no surprise** at this emotion, **nor did he question** me as to its cause…

b. Sent Džono **nė kiek nenustebino** mano ašaros ir jis **netgi nepaklausė,** kodėl aš verkiu.
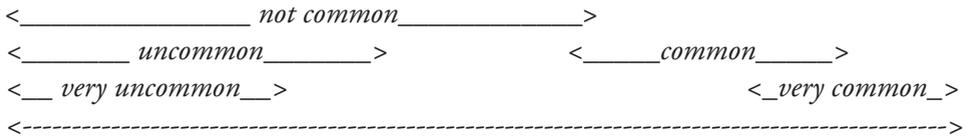
Here again instead of one or two negated forms the Lithuanian sentence has got four. Whether the intensifying particles are needed here or not is a debatable question. In sum, the noticeable increase in the number of negative elements in Lithuanian translation is caused by both the need to render a grammatically and semantically acceptable sentence but also perhaps by the preferences of a particular translator.

AFFIXAL NEGATION

Tottie (1991, as cited in Kennedy 1998:172) indicates that affixal negation of adjectives was dominant in negative sentences containing adjectives. This phenomenon is also interesting to analyze because of the relation between verbal and affixal negation. Huddleston and Pullum (2002:821) claim that examples (53) and (54) do not mean the same:

(53 Such *mistakes are not very common.*

(54) Such mistakes are *very uncommon.*

As regards the difference in meaning, it can be demonstrated by the graph (adapted from Huddleston and Pullum 2002:821):

```
<_____ not common_____>
<_____ uncommon_____>                    <_____common_____>
<__ very uncommon__>                                    <_very common_>
<------------------------------------------------------------------------------>
```

Thus, frequencies in the middle of the scale do not "qualify as either common or uncommon, so *not common* covers a larger area of the scale than *uncommon*" (ibid.). They also argue that *very common* is narrower than *common,* and similarly *very uncommon* a narrower than *uncommon;* therefore, the in-between area is greater.

Turning their attention to the '*not un-*' construction, Huddleston and Pullum (2002:810) discuss the example "Morton was in his early fifties and *not unattractive* to women" (presented above as (12)) and stress the point that it is sometimes viewed by prescriptivists as not fully acceptable. They claim, however, that '*not unattractive*' and '*attractive*' have different meanings. Thus the use of the adjective *attractive* places a particular person at the positive end of a scale; the negative prefix *un-* reverses the situation towards 'ugliness' at the negative end. When *not* is added to *unattractive*, it negates that the appearance is ranked towards the lower end, that is, it suggests ranking of the appearance towards the positive end. However, this structure does not indicate that a person is actually beautiful. An impressionistic graph of the meanings of *attractive* and *not unattractive* is given below (from Huddleston and Pullum 2002:810):

```
                                    ----attractive----
                        ----not unattractive----
_____
UGLINESS            INTERMEDIATE LOOKS              BEAUTY
```

The search of negative adjectives in the data (including *un-, il-, in-, ir-, non-, -less,* see Table 1) gave 515 hits. However, a combination of these adjective forms with *not* was not very frequent, only 5 instances were found. Some of the examples are given below and are followed by comments about their rendering into Lithuanian:

(55) a. During these eight years my life was uniform: but not **unhappy**, because it was **not inactive**.

b. Tuos aštuonerius metus mano gyvenimas buvo vienodas, tačiau **negalima būtų jo pavadinti nelaimingu, nes turėjau ką veikti**.

The example shows two strategies of translation – one *not + un-* combination (*not*

unhappy) is rendered by a negative pattern (double negation), while the meaning of *not inactive* is rendered by a positive clause. In example (56) the meaning of *not uncivil* is rendered by a positive adjective:

(56) a. I saw her in a black gown and widow's cap; frigid, perhaps, but **not uncivil**.

b. Ji, be abejo, juodais drabužiais, su našlės kyku, šiek tiek gal sausoka, bet **mandagi**.

Most probably, it is not possible in Lithuanian to express the semantic difference discussed above (*attractive* versus *not unattractive*); in any case, the semantic difference *not uncivil* versus *civil* is not clearly expressed by the Lithuanian *mandagi*.

A similar pattern of combining *not* and *un-* is also found with adverbs, as in (57), where the translator chose to render this cluster by an adverb of frequency (positive value).

(57) a. When thus alone, I **not unfrequently heard** Grace Poole's laugh: the same peal, the same low, slow ha!

b. Viena šitaip vaikštinėdama po koridorių, **gana dažnai girdėdavau** Greisės Pul juoką, tuos pačius duslius ir kapotus "cha cha cha!"

The English data contain an interesting combination of *not* followed by an *un-*+verb which is rendered as follows:

(58) a. I could **not unlove** him now, merely because I found that he <...>

b. Juk **negalėjau liautis juo gėrėjusis** vien dėl to, kad pamačiau, jog jis nekreipia dėmesio į mane <…>

This aspect of English negation presents a challenge both in interpretation of word meanings and in choosing an appropriate translation equivalent.

SOME LANGUAGE-SPECIFIC CASES OF NEGATION

Language-specific items and structures that are found in negative form in English include negative existential clauses, the *not + that* clause, and tag questions with *not.*

In English, negative existentials are special structures which assert non-existence of a particular entity. The English data show that such sentences prefer *no*-negation to *not*-negation: there were 38 instances of *no*-existentials, while only 6 cases of *not*-existentials were found. Some examples are given below:

(59) a. <…> more bread and butter? **There is not** enough for three.

b. <…> Džiuvėsių trims **neužteks**.

The two English examples below and their translations into Lithuanian demonstrate language-specific characteristics of the existential clause.

(60) a. One thing specially surprised me, and that was, **there were no journeyings backward and forward, no visits** to Ingram Park <…>

b. Vienas dalykas mane itin stebino, būtent, kad jis **visai nebesilankė** Ingrem Parke, **pasibaigė visos kelionės į ten ir atgal**.

Thus the formula *there were no* is translated by a lexical verb plus an intensifier of meaning, *visai nebesilankė*. Choosing a lexical verb instead of the verb *to be* is a very frequent change regarding the translation of Lithuanian existential sentences. The example below demonstrates one more aspect of Lithuanian syntax, specifically, that the verb form *nėra* may be omitted in existential clauses, which is not the case in English:

(61) a. **There were no groomsmen, no bridesmaids, no relatives** to wait for or marshal.

b. Keistos buvo mūsų vestuvės: **nei pamergių, nei pabrolių, nei giminių, nei piršlio**, – tik misteris Ročesteris ir aš.

The *not + that* clause construction found in English, according to Huddleston and Pullum (2002:811), expresses the idea that "This is not, however, to say/suggest that…". In such cases, the negative particle *not* positioned before the *that*-clause straightforwardly denies what is said in it. This may be a preferred way to convey this idea in certain contexts; there were 35 instances of such clauses in the corpus. Note example (62):

(62) a. **Not that** St.John harboured a spirit of unchristian vindictiveness – **not that** he would have injured a hair of my head, if it had been fully in his power to do so.

b. Jis **nebūtų palietęs net** plaukelio ant mano galvos, **net jei ir būtų galėjęs** tai padaryti.

English tag questions do not have a straightforward corresponding linguistic item in Lithuanian, so this is the area where translators employ a variety of ways to express the idea. There were 17 instances of tags found in the corpus; some are exemplified below:

(63) a. And you will marry him, Jane, **won't you**?

b. Ir tu tekėsi už jo, Džeine, **tiesa**?

(64) a. You've brought your luggage with you, **haven't you**, my dear?

b. – O kur jūsų bagažas? **Juk jūs atsivežėte jį**, mieloji?

(65) a. **Won't we**?

b. – **Argi**?

The translations show rather different means used to render the meaning of the tag questions. This is because, first and foremost, the situation in which the tag question appears is taken into account.

It has to be pointed out that cases of implicit negation, i.e. items which are negative in meaning (*lack, fail, refuse,* etc.), were not studied here. This aspect could reveal new negation patterns in the two languages.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The frequency and the linguistic means used to express analytic (*not-*) and synthetic (*no-*) negation in the two languages were revealed by the analysis of the parallel corpus. The analysis has shown that in written English texts *no*-negation (56.4%) is preferred to *not*-negation (43.6%). In addition, nearly half of the *no*-negation instances belong to affixal negation. The general tendencies of negation patterns in principle agree with Tottie's (1991) findings.

Peculiarities of negation in the two languages first of all concern the fact that negative items in Lithuanian four times exceed the occurrence of negative items in the English corpus. It was noticed that Lithuanian employs more linguistic items, such as pronouns, adverbs and particles, to express negation. In Lithuanian, double and multiple negation is a grammatical norm. As regards English, such negation existed in the earlier periods of language development but standard English tries to avoid using it. Tottie's (1991) findings suggest that in Modern English there is a tendency for *not*-negation (a newer form) to replace *no*-negation (an older form).

Double negation is a means of expressing emphasis or intensification, and as such it is frequently employed in Lithuanian. In Modern English, however, it is considered to be a non-standard use and is usually combined with dependent multiple negation (however, no such examples were found in the corpus). The corpus material revealed other means used for creating emphasis, first of all, the item *at all*, which is added to a negated verb. Another way to achieve intensification is approximate negators *few, little; barely, hardly, scarcely; rarely, seldom.* A wide variety of additional negative items which appeared in Lithuanian translations can be explained by the need to render a grammatically and semantically acceptable sentence with double or even multiple negation and by the stylistic preferences of a particular translator.

The data analysis has revealed general tendencies of expressing negation in the two languages. An interesting follow-up of other means used for expressing the negative polarity should be a study of semantically negative verbs which might reveal other patterns of negation across languages.

Violeta Kalėdaitė, Ieva Bastienė

NEIGIMO RAIŠKA ANGLŲ IR LIETUVIŲ KALBOSE

Santrauka

Straipsnyje analizuojamos leksinės ir gramatinės neigimo raiškos priemonės anglų ir lietuvių kalbose, siekiant nustatyti bendras neigimo raiškos tendencijas. Neigimas sudaro priešpriešą teigimui ir dėl savo gramatinės raiškos yra laikomas žymėtu tos priešpriešos nariu. Empirinių neigimo raiškos duomenų analizei buvo panaudotas sulygiagretintas daugiau kaip 335 tūkst. žodžių apimties tekstynas, pasinaudojant programinės įrangos „ParaConc" ir „AntConc 3.2.1" teikiamomis galimybėmis. Tekstyno duomenų analizė atskleidė, kad anglų kalbos rašytiniuose tekstuose sintetinis neigimo būdas (*no-negation*) dažnesnis nei analitinis (*not-negation*). Beveik pusę sintetinio neigimo atvejų sudaro formos su afiksais. Tyrimas taip pat parodė, kad neigimas lietuvių kalboje, kuri turi tik sintetinį neigimą, pasireiškia net keturis kartus dažniau nei anglų. Be to, neigimui reikšti lietuvių kalboje randama įvairesnių lingvistinių vienetų (įvardžių, prieveiksmių ir dalelyčių).

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