CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL REVIEW

This chapter explains about the theoretical of negative construction ‘no’ and ‘not’. The theories used in this research are derived from the theories of syntax and semantics. Thus, this chapter is proposed to describe and illustrate how the theories of syntax and semantics are being applied to analyze the data.

2.1 Syntactic Features of Negative ‘no’ and ‘not’

Independently, the negative ‘no’ and ‘not’ stand as a grammatical unit that has category, function, and distribution in a grammatical construction whether in word, phrase, clause, or sentence. The differences of their syntactic features may convey different entailments from the construction in which ‘no’ and ‘not’ exist. The category and function cannot be separated since they are related each other in which the category describes the function of the word.

However, the functions of the word can also be various depending on to what constructions the word exist. This is called as the distribution. The explanation below describes how the categories, functions and distributions relate each other. In addition, the explanation about the syntactic features of ‘no’ and ‘not’ will show the clear roles and rules of both negative markers, and it is expected to enlighten how and when to use ‘no’ or ‘not’.

2.1.1. Categories and Functions of ‘No’ and ‘Not’

In identifying the category of a word, it cannot always be based on the standard of parts of speech, but it is also determined by its distribution in a construction. Also for ‘no’ and ‘not’, the categories and functions of them are dependent not only on their definition in parts of speech but also on their distributions in the construction they belong to.

The explanation below describes the categories of ‘no’ and ‘not’ based on their distributions in constructions of phrase.

2.1.1.1 Categories of ‘No’ Based on Its Distributions in Phrase

Based on its distribution in phrase, ‘no’ can stand as the categories of determiner, modifier, and pronoun.

According to Huddlestone (1985: 420), negative ‘no’ belongs to determiner, in which it precedes N/NP. For example, ‘He had *no choice,* did he?’ From the example, it can be seen that ‘no’ functions to determine the NP ‘choice’.

Quirk (1990: 254), further, argues ‘no’ belongs to central determiners like the *articles* and the words like *this/that/ every/* and *each*. These words form a set of a closed-class item in which there cannot be more than one central determiner occurring before the NP. For example, * the no people, * an every place. They cannot occur together since the central determiner presents one determiner instead of the others, called as ‘choice relation’.

In addition, according to Quirk (1990: 255), as a central determiner, ‘no’ has co-occurrence with the noun classes singular count (book, idea, etc), plural count (books, ideas, etc), and non-count nouns (justice, sugar, etc). For instance:

SINGULAR COUNT	PLURAL COUNT	NONCOUNT
No book	*No books*	*No sugar*

Moreover, Huddlestone (1985: 420) states another function of ‘no’ as modifier in comparative structures of AdjPs and AdvPs. For instance: ‘She is *no better* than the last we met’.

Standing as modifier, ‘no’ also can (negate) modify the quantifier ‘little’. For example, ‘They showed *no little interest* in their project’ (Quirk, 1990: 792). So far, ‘no’ is considered as determiner in its distribution in NP and as modifier (may be adjective) that precedes comparative structure of AdjPs and AdvPs.

Furthermore, Quirk (1990: 255) argues ‘no’ has additional function of pronoun while it joins in compounding form with – *(one),* - *(body), or* – *(thing),* in which ‘no’ stands as pronoun that can be separated with its pair in compounding form.

no one	*nobody*	*nothing*
everyone	*everybody*	*everything.*

Based on those explanations above, it can be concluded that the categories of ‘no’ are dependent on its distributions in phrase. In other words, ‘no’ can stand as a determiner of NP, which has co-occurrence with noun classes of singular

count, plural count, and non-count noun. ‘No’ can also stand as a modifier, in which it functions to modify comparative structures of AdjPs and AdvPs. Further, ‘no’ may belong to pronoun while it joins in compounding form with *–one, -body, -thing*, to form pronoun.

The contrast functions between ‘no’ and ‘not’ as the negative marker are explained below. The differences will influence their distribution in conducting negative statement syntactically.

2.1.1.2 Categories of ‘Not’ Based on Its Distributions in Phrase

As an adverb, ‘not’ primarily functions to modify verb. For example, ‘I do *not* have any money’ (‘not’ modifies verb ‘have’). However, in other cases, ‘not’ may function as a modifier of other classes depending on its distribution in construction of phrase. According to Huddlestone (1985: 420), ‘not’ stands as modifier for such determinatives as *much, many, enough, one* or in the construction with *even*. For instance:

Not many people came, did they?

Not even John could do it.

As can be seen above that ‘not’ may precede *many, much, any,* and *enough* other than the verb.

Additionally, according to Quirk (1990: 445), another syntactic function of an adverb, related to negative ‘not’, is considered as a modifier of the word classes as follows:

a. Modifier of adjective

She is *a not attractive* actress.

'Not' can pre-modify adjective as an intensifier that is as a scaling device. Intensifier often has co-occurrence with a gradable adjective.

b. Modifier of Pronoun

Not everybody came to her party.

'Not', as an intensifying adverb, can pre-modify indefinite pronoun as *everybody, everyone, everything*,

c. Modifier of NP

She left *not a bottle* behind.

The negative 'not' is possible to precede a noun that has an article. Thus, it functions as a modifier of NP.

She wants *not to eat* banana

The negative 'not' negates 'to eat' as the form of nominalization. Thus, 'not' may function to negate 'to-infinitive' form.

d. Modifier of Adverbial

She visited me *not very often.*

I saw her *not long ago.*

The negative 'not', in this case, modifies the adverbial degree 'not very often' and the adverbial expressions of extent in distance or time like 'not long ago', 'not far from', 'not many years after'.

Further, Quirk (1990: 792) states 'not' has another co-occurrence to negate quantifier as *a few* and *a little*, and the comparative as *more, less*, and *fewer.*

They have *not a few aesthetic* in their family.

They will pay you *not less than* ten dollars an hour.

The functions of negative ‘not’ as modifier of word categories of adjective, pronoun, noun and adverbial cause ‘not’ has more co-occurrence with more word categories than the negative ‘no’ has. It causes ‘not’ to occur more frequent in negative statement rather than ‘no’.

By highlighting the explanations above, it can be concluded that the negative ‘not’ has more distribution in construction of phrase than the negative ‘no’. However, their difference distributions in phrase also influence their distributions in construction of clause. Further, their distributions in a clause are described clearly in the next point.

2.1.2 Distributions of ‘no’ and ‘not’ in Clause

Even though the categories and functions of ‘no’ and ‘not’ are different, it is often confusing to differ their usage in a clause or in a sentence. To choose between ‘no’ and ‘not’ in conducting negative statement, it will be easier when the distribution of both ‘no’ and ‘not’ have been comprehended.

Syntactically, the distributions of ‘no’ and ‘not’ correspond to the types of negation in which they differ from what part of the clause being negated, classified as *clause negation*, *local negation*, and *predication negation*. Additionally, ‘no’ and ‘not’ differ from what part they are attached to, as *verbal* or

nonverbal negation. The explanation below illustrates the distributions of ‘no and ‘not’ in negative constructions.

According to Quirk (1985: 775), there are three types of negation differing from the part of the clause being negated.

1. Clause negation

In this negation, the negative marker causes the whole clause negated.

For instance: I did *not* go out last night

The clause negation is often marked by the existence of negative ‘not’ between the operator and the predication or known as *verbal negation*. The negative ‘not’, an adverb, attached to verb, causes the whole clause syntactically treated as negative.

However, the negative ‘not’ does not always stand as an adverb to conduct clause negation through verbal negation. ‘Not’ may also occur before the NP in the subject, object and complement. For instance: *Not many people* came. As long as the negative ‘not’ did not attach to the verb, it cannot be treated as clause negation. In this case ‘not’ only negates one constituent, the subject, which is further in the next point called as local negation.

2. Local negation

In this negation, the negative only negates one constituent of the clause whether to subject, object, complement or adverb but not to the verb.

For instance:

(i). She is a *not independent* woman

(ii). *No water* led them to suffer

The negated constituent refers only to the complement (i) and to the subject (ii). Beside ‘not’, the negative ‘no’ is more often used to conduct local negation since ‘no’ cannot negate the verb as ‘not’ can. Further, the function of ‘no’ as determiner limits the word class that can go together with it.

3. Predication Negation

In this negation, the negative marker negates only the predication.

For instance: You may *not go to swim*

In this type of negation, the negative ‘not’ does not refer to the modal, but it refers to the predication. The defining of this negation is based on to what part the negative goes. For this negation, ‘no’ will never occur, in which it is impossible for determiner to attach to verb.

Thus, ‘not’, as adverb and modifier, gives more distributions in syntactical construction. It also has correspondence with more categories to be put together rather than determiner ‘no’.

In term of meaning, however, ‘no’ has double distributions in which it acts not only to state the opposite of something but also to emphasize the negation itself.

I have *no money* (more emphatic)

I *do not have* any money (less emphatic)

Further, the distribution of meaning of ‘no’ and ‘not’ will be explained in the next point, semantic features of ‘no’ and ‘not’.

2.2 Semantic Features of ‘no’ and ‘not’

Word, phrase, clause and sentence can be considered as grammatical unit since they have fulfilled the syntactic and semantic rules. The construction cannot stand only as syntactic unit, but it needs to have meaning as its semantic unit to complete the construction as one grammatical unit. Talking about semantics of a word, meaning consists of concepts or ideas that want to be delivered through that word. As Goddard (1998: 7) argues a meaning of a word is a structured idea, or concept, in the mind of the person using that expression. Thus, meaning of a word has an important role to send the idea from the writer to the reader, from the speaker to the hearer, from the addressee and the addressor through wordings.

Specifically, ‘no’ and ‘not’ have the same concept of meaning while they stand independently as one word without joining with other words. Both ‘no’ and ‘not’, as an individual word, mean the opposite or treated as negative. However, while ‘no’ or ‘not’ joins to other words to construct another construction like phrase, clause or sentence, each of them leads to different concept of meaning resulting different entailments.

As Quirk (1990: 779) states negation with ‘no’ may have different implication than verb negation with ‘not’. For instances, ‘She is not a teacher’ denotes that her occupation is not teaching whereas ‘She is no teacher’ indicates that she lacks the skills needed for teaching. Further, Quirk (1990: 780) argues determiner ‘no’ converts the usually non-gradable noun into a gradable noun that

characterizes the person. Quirk (1990: 780) shows contrast i.e. ‘I’m not a youngster’ (I am not young) and ‘I’m no youngster’ (I am quite old). The two examples above seem to imply similar entailment but they are not. Therefore, ’no’ and ‘not’ need to be concerned since even though they have the similar concept to negate a construction, they lead to different entailment.

In addition, the different entailments are not only caused by the concept of meaning of ‘no’ and ‘not’, but also caused by the stressed spot where the negative ‘no’ or ‘not’ wants to focus, called as focus of negation.

Focus of negation itself cannot be separated from the scope as the limitation of the scale of distance in focus of negation. The scope and focus of negation are described in the next point.

2.2.1 Scope and Focus of Negation

The goal of negation is to negate a definite word, phrase or clause as the focus of negation. However, to limit the information that will be negated, there should be a scope to determine the starting point and the ending point where the negation focuses. The focus of negation must be included in scope of negation to show the limitation of negation and to show emphasizes in which the negation refers. Thus, it will be easier to figure out the semantic entailments since there is a clear limitation of part that is being negated, and the semantic entailment will not be out of that limitation.

For instance, the different placement of focus of negation has different entailments as follows:

The parts that are not within the scope are understood positively.

I did not take Mary to go to the zoo today - I forgot to do so

I did not take Mary to go to the zoo today - It was John

I did not take Mary to go to the zoo today - just to see it

I did not take Mary to go to the zoo today - I took her to the public park

I did not take Mary to go to the zoo today - It was last week

I did not take Mary to go to the zoo today - It was father-taking Mary

The different placements of focus of negation cause different entailment occur in each construction. The entailments of different focus of negation can be found out by seeing the relation between the negative and the word that becomes the focus of negation. The relations involved between the words in a construction are known as lexical relation. Further, the explanation of lexical relation is described clearer in the next point.

2.2.2 Lexical Relation

In a grammatical construction, for example a clause, it consists of several words put together in word order implying a meaning or an idea. The idea of the clause is formed through the process of combining meanings of each word to other words. However, combining word is not so easy while there is no clue about relations existed among the words. Yule (2006: 104) argues words not only as

containers of meaning or as fulfilling roles in event, they also have relationship with each other. In this approach, the meaning of a word can be identified by seeing the relationships with other words in the construction.

According to Yule (2006: 104), there are kinds of lexical relation as follows:

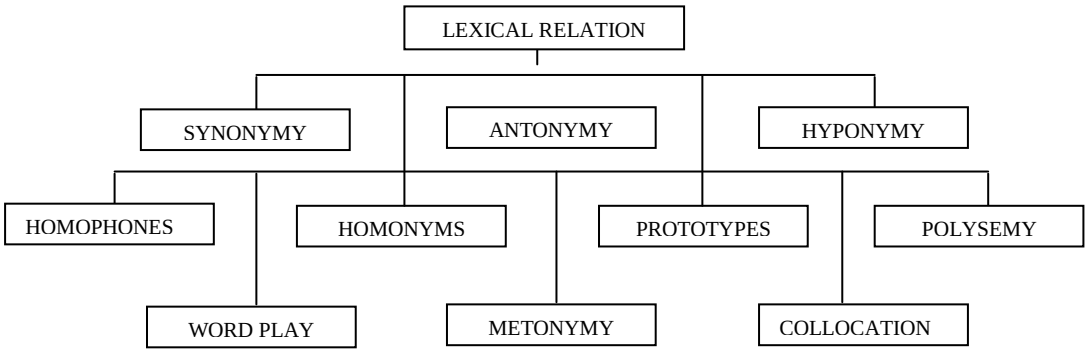


Figure 2.1 The Diagram of Lexical Relation

The figure above illustrates at least ten lexical relations that can be used to identify one word. However, specifically, there are only two lexical relations that are considered as device to analyze the data in this research, especially to find the semantic entailments of a negative construction. The two lexical relations are antonyms and hyponyms, described as follows:

2.2.2.1 Antonyms

Either negative construction ‘no’ or ‘not’, is used to state the denial, the refusal and the disagreement of something. The existence ‘no’ or ‘not’ in a construction, for example in a clause, is to negate either a part or the whole part of the clause. While ‘no’ or ‘not’ negate one word, for example ‘not good’, the word which may replace the phrase ‘not good’ is a word that has the opposite relation

with the word ‘good’. It may be ‘bad’ or it may be ‘quite good’. Thus, the opposite relation is concerned to find semantic entailments of negative construction.

Antonyms are defined as opposite meaning between two words. For example, *small* is opposite from *big*. Thus, *small* is in antonyms relation with *big*. Antonyms are usually divided into two main types, ‘gradable’ (opposites along scale), and ‘non-gradable’ (direct opposites).

Gradable antonyms, mostly occurs as the pair *small/big*, *black/white*. In addition, it often can be seen in comparative construction, as *I am smarter than you are*. In gradable antonyms, the negative of one word does not necessarily imply the other word that stands as its pair in gradable antonyms. For example, *my cat is not small*, does not always mean *my cat is big*.

In contrast, non-gradable antonyms normally do not use comparative construction. Moreover, the negative of a non-gradable word mostly implies the other word as its pair. For instance; *my grandparents are not alive* does indeed mean *My grandparents are dead.*

2.2.2.2 Hyponyms

Finding the opposite of a word is important to find the semantic entailments of negative construction. However, it becomes hard when the opposite relation belongs to non-gradable. For instance, ‘she doesn’t like Flower’. It is obviously seen that the opposite of the flower will be treated as the entailment. However, flower is general terms that can include the other members of flower

belongs to it. For example, Rose is kind of flower. Therefore, it can be said that ‘she doesn’t like flower’ may entail ‘she doesn’t like Rose’. This kind of relationship that involves the concept of inclusion is described as hyponyms. For instance, *animal/dog, dog/poodle, vegetable/carrot, flower/rose.*

Yule (2006: 105) describes hyponymy relation in the hierarchy diagram as follows:

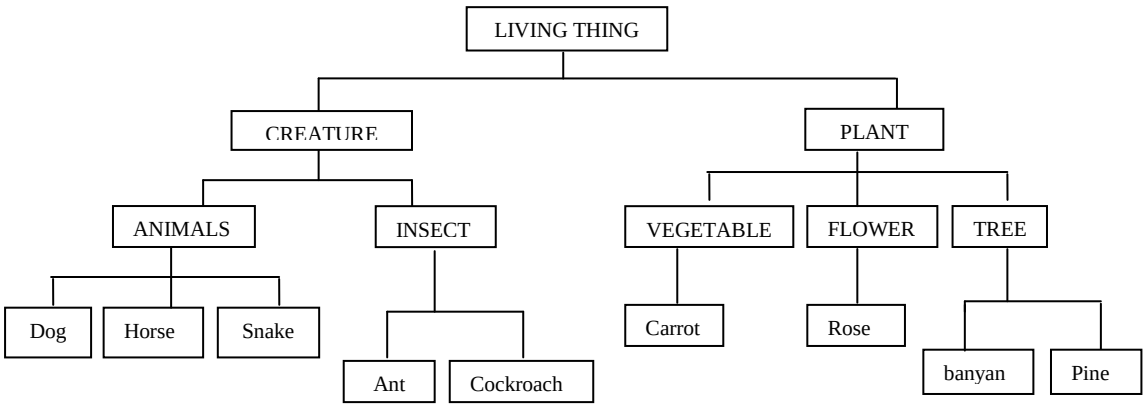


Figure 2.1 The Hyponymy Relation in Hierarchy Diagram

2.2.3 Semantic Entailments

The goal of the analysis in this research is to find different semantic entailments of the negative construction ‘no’ and ‘not’. This goal can be fulfilled by relating the scope and focus of negation, also the lexical relations as devices to find semantic entailments. However, what is entailment itself? According to Goddard (1998: 17) entailments is a relationship that applies between two sentences, where the truth of one implies the truth of the other because of the meanings of the words involved. In other words, entailment may be defined as other possibilities of meaning out of the explicit meaning that is exposed straight

from a construction. The entailment that may appear also depends on the relation between the meanings of words involved in that construction. Mostly, entailment comes because of the relation of words, in this case, only the antonyms and hyponymy. For instance, ‘she has a lot of dogs’, the hyponymy relation of ‘dogs’ can be Poodle, Bulldog, and Rottweiler because all of them belong to kinds of dogs (hyponymy relation), and the entailment may be ‘she has a poodle’. For other cases, related to focus of negation, the sentence ‘I am not a woman’. The relation between ‘not’ and ‘a woman’, in which the focus of ‘not’ goes to woman, causes the opposite relation (antonyms). The opposite of woman refers to ‘man’ (non-gradable). Thus, ‘I am not woman’ entails to ‘I am a man’.

Furthermore, semantic entailments in negative equivalent constructions are analysed through scope and focus of negation and the lexical relation. It is conducted to prove that of ‘no’ and ‘not’ indeed cause different entailments.

2.2.4 Case and State Roles

In a grammatical construction, functionally, each unit S, V O, C or adverb brought a concept implied in its syntactic unit. Thus, in a clause, for example, it owns a proposition that is defined as group of concepts. In order to have a proposition, a clause needs to merge one concept with other concepts involved in a clause to form a group of concepts. The concepts include THING, EVENT, and ATTRIBUTE. However, the group of concepts is not formed in an arbitrary ways, but it is formed because there are relations among the concepts.

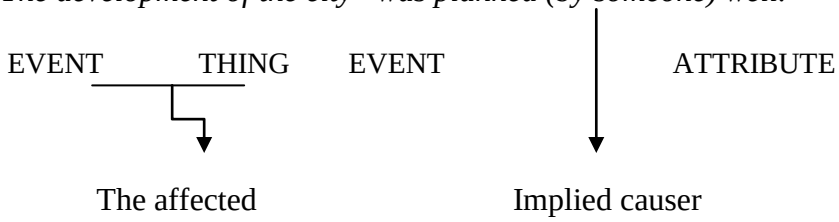
According to Larson (1984: 199), the relations of concepts are divided into two that are *Case Roles* and *State Roles*.

2.2.4.1 Case Roles

The relation between the concepts THING, EVENT, and ATTRIBUTE, in which the EVENT becomes a central concept called as Case Roles (forming EVENT proposition).

For instance, case roles:

The development of the city was planned (by someone) well.



In this sentence, the central concept is an EVENT encoding the action and referring to the verb of the sentence. The relation among them includes ‘cause and effect’ where there is an agent ‘someone’ who does the action ‘planned’ to the ‘city’ causing the affected to shift from its existing condition to a better one, namely ‘development of the city’. From this explanation, the THING ‘the city’ undergoes the EVENT ‘developed’. In contrast to the Event proposition, the explanation of State proposition is explained below.

2.2.4.2 State Roles

State Roles define any relations between THING and THING or THING and ATTRIBUTE without any EVENT as its central concept.

The car *is* *in the garage*



As can be seen above, State proposition does not have an EVENT as its central concept. The relations in the construction are between THING and THING or THING and ATTRIBUTE in which one concept describes another. Furthermore, the State roles consist of two main parts 'Topic' and 'Comment' and it may be indicated by the verb *be* and *have* in a construction. The Topic is considered as THING that is being further specified by Comment; consists of THING or ATTRIBUTE used to describe the topic and the relation.

Both case and state roles can be used to identify a construction of phrase, clause and sentence whether the construction consists of any kinds of concepts.