

NEGATION IN ENGLISH AND POLISH*

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I. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Definitions of negation are not plentiful in linguistic literature. About the only attempt at defining negation that was found by the present author was by Marouzeau (1951), and is quoted here in the original French:

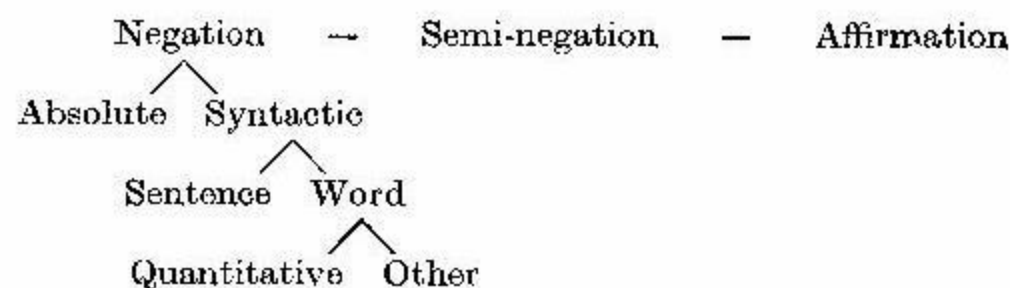
"Négation. Expression propre soit a constanter (négation proprement dite) soit a prétendre (dénégation) que telle chose n'est pas ou n'est pas ce qu'on dit".

The above statement is not, however, of much help in a formal study. Much more helpful in this respect is the rest of the entry, where various kinds of negation are enumerated. Thus Marouzeau distinguishes *absolute* negation from one related to a statement, which is termed *syntactic*. The latter, in its turn, can bear upon a word (*word* negation) or a sentence (*sentence* negation). This division is a reliable one, since it is based on formal dichotomy. The other division that Marouzeau gives, that into simple negation (containing only the negative idea) vs. compound negation or negative word (negation attached to an idea of time, person, object, etc.) does not appear to be so clear-cut. The dichotomy should rather be continued by saying that within the word negation group a special group of words can be distinguished, often termed *quantitative* negatives (most of which are 'compound' negations). Marouzeau

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also mentions *semi-negatives* — words serving to lessen an affirmation, which have to be considered as well, since they display some of the formal features of the negatives.

1.2. Arranged in a systematic manner the different kinds of negation could be represented in the following diagram:



The existent terminology is by no means consistent. Thus corresponding to 'sentence' and 'word' negation, Jespersen (1917) introduced 'nexal' and 'special' negation respectively. 'Grammatical' vs. 'lexical' are another pair of terms covering the same distinction. 'Quantitative' negatives (as distinguished from all the rest which were 'qualitative', both terms introduced by Gebauer and Mourek in 1902), were termed 'words of negative totality' by Palmer (1924). In this paper the term *special* will, for the sake of convenience, be used for that group of lexical negations which are not quantitative negatives and are denoted as 'other' in the diagram above.

1.3. The order of dealing with the different kinds of negation in this paper will be as follows.

- (1) Absolute negation,
- (2) Sentence negation,
- (3) Quantitative negation,
- (4) Special lexical negation,
- (5) Semi-negatives, and
- (6) Implied negation in affirmative form.

Other aspects, such as negative 'attraction', strengthening of negatives, double negation, etc. will be dealt with at the most convenient places within that general scheme. But first the formal exponents (marks) of the category both in English and Polish have to be reviewed.

II. EXPONENTS OF NEGATION

2.1. Exponents (marks, signals) of negation, like those of other grammatical categories, can be found at various levels of linguistic analysis. In English they are the following:

1. Negative words
 - (a) simple: *no, not*;
 - (b) compound: *none, nobody, nothing, nowhere, never, neither, nor*;
2. The negative particle *-n't* (or *-not*, as in *cannot*), always joined to a special finite;
3. Negative affixes
 - (a) prefixes: *un-, dis-, in-, a-, non-*;
 - (b) suffix: *-less*.

Other exponents taken into consideration were the words *hardly* and *scarcely* (semi-negatives) and *nearly* (because of its negative Polish equivalent), as well as the negative preposition *without*. The determinative *any* (and its compounds) which might be termed a secondary exponent of negation, since it signals it only when accompanying another negative element in the sentence, has been automatically included with the negative sentences. The above list is probably incomplete, since such words as e.g. *lest* might also be included.

2.2. Some of the above exponents (*no, not, neither, any*) may be ambiguous if taken at their face (dictionary) value, and it is only at other levels that one can distinguish between various kinds of *no, not*, etc.

Thus at the phonological level some *not*'s have a strong stress, and some a weak one. The same is true of *any*. The *any* we are concerned with (the one accompanying a negative word) is always unemphatic and weakly stressed; but there is also a strongly stressed *ány* which is not negative. Cf.

I won't go to *ány* café — Nie pójdę do żadnej kawiarni
vs. I won't go to *any* café — Nie pójdę do byle jakiej kawiarni.

The phonological level is, in its turn, of some help for the analysis at the grammatical level, where it is already possible to discern most of the exponents, and to classify them according to their function. Thus it is seen, on the one hand, that there is actually no difference in function between *-n't* and the unstressed *nót*, the two forms often alternating and always negating verbs (*verbal negator*). On the other hand, we can distinguish between two kinds of stressed *nót*, one negating the following word (*lexical negator*), the other replacing a whole negative clause. There are also two kinds of *no*, one functioning as an absolute negation ('prosentence'), the other as a determiner or adverb of quantitative negation.

There are other phenomena to be observed in syntax. A verbal negator (*-n't* or *nót*) is a form bound to its place after its special finite (*-n't* having almost become an inflexional element, *nót* admitting only of insertion of a pronoun subject, including *there*). A general lexical negator (*nót*) is free to be placed at any point in the sentence in front of the word that is to be negated. Occasionally inversion takes place after front-positioning of negatives like *never*, etc.

There are also exponents to be found at the lexical (semantic) level (the negative 'import' of a word, etc.).

2.3. In Polish the exponents of negation are:

1. *nie*, often spelt together with the word negated;
2. *ni-*, found only in compounds, e.g. *nikt*, *nic* (both in their various case forms), *nigdzie*, *nigdy*, and *ani*;
3. *żaden* (in various case forms of its three genders).

The list can be completed by prefixes such as *bez-*, and the preposition *bez*.

At the phonological level one might contrast *nie* having its own stress with *nie* depending for its stress on the immediately following word it qualifies. This latter *nie* will appear now as stressed, now as unstressed, the mechanism of this phenomenon being as follows. Stress in Polish regularly falls on the penultimate syllable of a word, or rather stress-group, so if the word qualified by *nie* happens to be a monosyllable, the stress will of necessity have to be automatically transferred to *nie*, cf.

nie b'yo vs. nie ma

with stresses mechanically superimposed on the penultimate syllable in each group. This system in Polish helps to understand why there is the possibility for the negative particle to be linked together with the following word in spelling: a proclitic word within a stress group has the same status as a syllable has within a word.

The stress-system differences tie up with grammatical distinctions, the absolute negation *nie* being always stressed, while the sentence negation *nie* is proclitic. At the syntactical level it may be observed that a *ni-* word appearing in a sentence is always accompanied by *nie* (verbal negator). Objects of negative sentences appear in the genitive case (instead of the normal accusative), etc.

2.4. A tentative tabulation of the two sets of formal exponents against one another taken at their face value and arranged according to their functions would yield the following scheme.

| Function | English | Polish |
|-----------------------|------------|--------|
| Absolute negation | nó | nie |
| Sentence negation | nót (-n't) | nie |
| Quantitative negation | no | żaden |
| | none | żaden |
| | no one | nikt |
| | nobody | nikt |
| | nothing | nic |

| | | |
|------------------|---------|---------|
| | nowhere | nigdzie |
| | never | nigdy |
| | neither | ani |
| | nor | ani |
| Special negation | nót | nie |
| | un- | nie- |
| | in- | nie- |
| | -less | bez- |
| | without | bez |

The above comparison is by no means absolute. It is only meant to show, at a first approximation, that there is no 1 : 1 correspondence between the exponents of negation in the two languages, the Polish exponents being fewer (in form) than the English. Thus

| | | |
|----------------|-------------------|-------------------------------------|
| <i>no</i> | and <i>none</i> | are both rendered by <i>żaden</i> , |
| <i>nobody</i> | „ <i>no one</i> „ | „ „ „ <i>nikt</i> , |
| <i>neither</i> | „ <i>nor</i> „ | „ „ „ <i>ani</i> , |
| <i>un-</i> | „ <i>in-</i> „ | „ „ „ <i>nie-</i> , etc. |

Further complications will appear presently.

III. ABSOLUTE NEGATION

3.0. The absolute negation in English is *no* (contrasted with *yes*). This *no*, marked 'no (1)' by Palmer (1938), together with *yes* constitute a special group of function words in Fries's (1952: 102) classification: they are the two alternative answers to general questions.

3.1. *No* sometimes constitutes the whole of a response utterance (hence the name 'absolute' negative), but mostly only introduces a response utterance. The standard Polish equivalent is *nie*, best seen in citation form as in the following example:

He had been saying "Yes" and "No" in turn
mówił tylko "tak" i "nie".

Genuinely absolute occurrences are not very numerous. Their domain appears to be in situations where the negative answer is hasty, abrupt, or decisive and final, e.g.

Are we at the top? *No*.
Are we going to the top? *No!*

(The second speaker is obviously annoyed by the first speaker's questions.)

3.2. But in most cases *no* serves only to introduce a fuller response. This may be in the form of

(a) a full separate sentence, often expressing a contrast:

Hallo, Piglet! he said. I thought you were out.

No, said Piglet, *it's you who were out*.

Could you stop turning round for a moment?

No, said Eeyore. *I like turning round*.

or (b) a formally negative sentence, extending and supporting the absolute negative:

No, said Pooh. That would *not* be a good plan.

3.3. A typical negative answer in English, however, consists of the absolute negative *no* followed by a negative special finite with its pronoun subject. There being no auxiliaries of that kind in Polish (except for the auxiliary of the imperfective future tense *będę*, etc.) the full (negated) verb has to be used here:

Do you know what A means, little Piglet?

No, Eeyore, I *don't*.

Nie, Kłapouszku, *nie wiem*.

I can see mine! cried Roo.

No, I *can't*, it's something else.

Nie, *nie widzę*, to co innego.

3.4. In all the above instances *no* was rendered by *nie* or '*nie plus*' in Polish, i.e. by a negative. There are, however, instances where it has to be rendered by an affirmative:

That's no good.

No, said Pooh, I thought it wasn't.

To niedobrze.

Tak — zgodził się Puchatek — i ja tak myślę.

What was Pooh saying? Any good?

No, said Pooh sadly. No good.

Co Puchatek powiedział? Zdaje się, że nie mądrego.

Tak, — westchnął Puchatek — nie mądrego.

These result from different systems operating in the two languages. In English the comment or answer addresses itself to the fact, irrespective of the form of the preceding statement or question; in Polish it depends on the form of the question as well, or rather on the relationship between that form and the actual situation. The two systems can be represented as follows.

| | Form of Question or Statement | Situation | Answer or Comment | |
|-----|----------------------------------|-----------|-------------------|--------|
| | | | English | Polish |
| (1) | positive | positive | yes | tak |
| (2) | positive | negative | no | nie |
| (3) | negative | positive | yes | nie |
| (4) | negative | negative | no | tak |

The disagreement shown above for cases (3) and (4) is important, the more so, that it is not a peculiarity of the Polish-English contrast only. As stated by Catford (in Quirk and Smith 1959: 176): "There are many languages in which affirmation and denial of the 'yes' or 'no' type consists in acceptance or rejection of the form of the *question*, and not, as in English, of the *facts*. It so happens that ... languages, although in other respects very different from each other, *agree* in this point in *disagreeing* with English". Or, more precisely (Catford 1965: 40): "In English, selection of *yes* or *no* in response to a question (or statement) depends on what we may call 'the polarity of the situation': situation positive, answer 'yes'; situation negative, answer 'no' (irrespective of the polarity of the preceding utterance). In many other languages, selection of the appropriate response depends on the polarity-relationship between question (or statement) and situation: *same polarity* — answer *X*; *different polarity* — answer *Y*".

As pointed out by Blackstone (1954: 15), "It is most important to note that *agreement* with negative questions is expressed in English by *no*. Much confusion is caused by failure to observe this rule, and Englishmen living abroad learn by bitter experience to follow a rule of their own: Never use a negative question when addressing a foreigner".

IV. SENTENCE NEGATION

4.1. Negative Sentences.

Traditional grammar textbooks often establish the tripartition of sentences into affirmative, interrogative, and negative. Such a tripartition should be looked upon with criticism, since one can easily find sentences which are equally well classifiable with both interrogative and negative types, the divisions not being mutually exclusive. Upon a closer inspection the tripartition turns out actually to be a combination of two binary oppositions intersecting each other and yielding a total of four (not three) different kinds of sentences. The two contrasts are

(a) Affirmative vs. Interrogative,

(b) Positive vs. Negative,

and the four types of sentences are

1. Affirmative positive (traditional Affirmative),
2. Interrogative positive (traditional Interrogative),
3. Affirmative negative (traditional Negative),
4. Interrogative negative.

The marked members of the oppositions are Interrogative and Negative respectively, wherefrom it follows that type (1) is unmarked and type (4) doubly marked, as observed in the traditional terminology, the term 'interrogative-negative' (or negative-interrogative) being actually used in spite of the tripartite division.

4.2. The negative sentences, which are our concern in this chapter are the marked member of the above opposition (b). The marker is (in writing) *not* placed after one of the 24 special finites, or *-n't* written jointly with them. In spoken English the latter exponent is used almost exclusively, the negative *-n't* having in some instances so amalgamated with the special finite as to become inseparable from it except by the eye (trying to subtract the negative element from *don't*, *won't*, *shan't* or *can't* one is left with what sound like 'dough', 'woe', 'Shah' or 'car'! — in RP).

One absolute exception to the rule is the case of *am*: there is not a form like **amn't*. According to Jespersen (1917: 20) it would be 'unpronounceable'. The form *I'm not* is used instead, with the reduction of *am* to 'm, the weak form of either *not* or the special finite being imperative (Palmer 1939: 124).

The two tendencies are found to compete in the case of *are*, where both *'re not* and *aren't* can be found, although Palmer (1939: 261) asserts that the form *aren't* seems to be avoided by educated speakers. On the other hand, *'s not* is rather isolated. The full paradigm of the Present Negative of the auxiliary verb *to be* would then seem to be (Palmer 1939: 138):

| | |
|------------|--------------|
| I'm not | we're not |
| you're not | you're not |
| he isn't | they're not. |

In the Interrogative-negative *Isn't* and *Aren't* are general.

Extreme reduction of the negative *don't* is sometimes shown by the spelling *dunno* for 'don't know'.

The full (written) forms of both the special finite and *not* are found only in the following instances:

- (a) purely graphical representation:
PLEZ CNOKE IF AN RNSR IS NOT REQID
(Owl's illuminating notice on his door),
- (b) formal style:
My remarks do not, of course, apply to ...

The fact of emphasizing the global negative special finite form as it is, instead of decomposing it into the (positive) special finite plus emphasized negative *not* is important, because it helps to establish, parallel to the opposition

'negative particle — zero'

the opposition

'negative special finite — special finite',

where the special finites acquire the affirmative value of the logical contrary of the negative *not*.

4.3. Special finites are distinguished from all the rest of finites by their functions as syntactical *operators* (Firth 1957: 13, Cygan 1969). The most striking formal difference, however, is their use joined to the contracted form *-n't*. (Hornby 1954: 3 even proposed — for beginners — the term "the 24 friends of *not*"). A special position among them is held by the auxiliary *do*. This, unlike the rest, has no independent meaning, but serves purely as a carrier of the exponents of various grammatical categories normally expressed with the help of special finites. The forms *don't*, *doesn't*, and *didn't* are pure negatives (cf. Sweet 1898: 91).

The negative special finites constitute the greatest part of the bulk of the negative exponents in an English text. They are the negatives *par excellence*. This follows from the fact that the category of negation is in a definite and rather special relationship to the category of verb. For the negative accompanying the verb makes the whole utterance negative, whereas a negative standing by any other part of the sentence may not affect the general positive sense of the utterance. By far the most frequent among the negative special finites are the empty negation carriers, since all non-auxiliary finite verbs are made negative with the help of the auxiliary verb *do*.

4.4. From the point of view of their Polish equivalents it is convenient to divide the negative special finites into two groups.

Group 1 would include those special finites that actually function as auxiliaries in conjugation, viz. *do* (carrier of negation), *be* (Continuous and Passive auxiliary), *have* (Perfect auxiliary), *shall* and *will* (when marking pure futurity and in Conditional). To this group should also be added *can* when used with verbs of perception (cf. *I can't see* being equivalent to *I don't see*).

Group 2 will include the special finites used as verbs with meanings of their own, thus *be* denoting existence or used as copula, *have* denoting possession, and all the modals retaining their modal meanings (*can*, *must*, *need*, etc.).

The negative finites of the first group are rendered in Polish by *nie* only

(immediately followed by a finite form of the corresponding full verb to be negated).

The negative finites of the second group are rendered by *nie* + an equivalent of the special finite (in the case of modals followed by the infinitive of the full verb).

Examples of the first group:

Tiggers *don't* like honey — *nie lubią*
 I'm *not* throwing it — *nie rzucam*
 I *haven't* seen Roo for a long time — *nie widziałem*
 Perhaps he *won't* notice you — *nie zauważy*
 I *shouldn't* be surprised — *nie zdziwiłbym się*
Can't you see? — *nie widzisz?*

Examples of the second group:

Oh, *you're not* Piglet — *nie jesteś Prosiaczek*
 I *haven't* another balloon — *nie mam drugiego balonika*
 Tiggers *can't* climb downwards — *nie mogą złązić*
 One *mustn't* complain — *nie mogę narzekać*
 I *needn't* be face downwards — *nie muszę leżeć...*

4.5. Apart from this general scheme, individual special finites of Group 2 call for some more remarks.

Thus with the verb *to be*, the equivalents are:

- (a) *nie jestem*, etc. (Present), *nie byłem*, etc. (Past);
 (b) *nie* alone, in case of omission of the copula in Polish (Present only; the Past form is regularly *nie byłem*, etc.);
 (c) *there isn't*, *there aren't* are rendered by *nie ma* (Present only; the Past is regularly *nie było*.) The subject of the sentence is in the genitive case here (supplementary exponent of negation).

Examples:

it *isn't* a sponge — *to nie jest gąbka*
 but spelling *isn't* everything — *nie wszystko*
 It *wasn't* Pooh's fault — *nie była wina*
 Pooh *isn't there* — *nie ma Puchatka*
 The more he looked inside, the more Piglet *wasn't there*
 — Prosiaczka tam *nie było*

The standard equivalent of *haven't* is *nie ma*, etc., with the 3rd person Singular identical in form with *nie ma* above. The two used to be kept apart in the old system of Polish orthography, where *nie ma* ('hasn't') was contrasted with *nie ma* ('there isn't'), but that purely graphical differentiation was abolished in the last spelling reform in 1936 (Jodłowski and Taszycki 1936 :

37). The new spelling system specified that both cases should be spelt disconnectedly in accordance with a more general rule of spelling *nie* disjointly with all verbs (except for the cases where the verb did not exist without the negative particle, e.g. *nienawidzić* 'to hate').

The subject of *nie ma* 'has not' is in the nominative case. As a transitive verb, however, *nie ma* can take an object, and this — like all objects of negative verbs in Polish — is put in the genitive (corresponding to the accusative of the positive forms). An exception to this rule is the form *nie*, which will be commented on later (5.2.4).

Of the modals, *can't* is rendered by *nie mogę*, *nie umiem*, *nie potrafię*, etc., all of these expressing incapacity to do some thing or ignorance how to do it. The impersonal *you can't* is rendered by *nie można*. *Can't help* — by (1) *nie można*, etc. with negative infinitive, or (2) *muszę* with positive infinitive.

Mustn't is rendered by *nie może*, *nie powinien*, *nie wolno* indicating prohibition (opposite of *may*); *needn't* by *nie muszę* (opposite of *must*), expressing absence of obligation or necessity.

4.6. One of the peculiarities of the special finites is that they can function as 'propredicates' (Joos 1964 : 65) or 'code finites' (Firth 1957 : 13), or, as traditional grammar puts it, are used to avoid repetition of verb. There being no device of that kind in Polish, there are two kinds of possible equivalents with negatives:

- either (1) the full verb form is repeated with negative *nie* preceding,
 or (2) the negative *nie* alone is used, the verb being 'understood'.

Examples:

- (1) but instead of coming back the other way, as expected, he *hadn't* — *nie wrócił*
 I think — began Piglet nervously.
Don't, said Eeyore — *nie myśl*
 (2) sometimes the Place was Pooh's nose and sometimes it *wasn't*
 — a czasem *nie*
 whether you want him or whether you *don't*
 — czy się go potrzebuje czy *nie*

In some instances *nie* alone may be ambiguous, being identical in form with the absolute *nie* ('no'). To avoid ambiguity the full verb is added:

Can't you see them? No, said Pooh. —
 Czyż ich *nie* widzisz? Nie, odpowiedział Puchatek, *nie widzę*.

(For the same reason an absolute *no* has sometimes to be replaced by a negated verb in Polish, since *nie* alone would mean 'yes', see above 3.4).

Example:

But, Pooh, cried Piglet, all excited, do you know the way? *No*, said Pooh. Ależ Puchatku, zawołał Prosiaczek mocno wzburzony, przecież ty nie znasz drogi! *Nie znam*, rzekł Puchatek.

The same problem occurs in the so called short answers to questions in apposition to an absolute negative. In this case, however, only the full repetition of verb is possible in Polish (or entire omission of the apposition). The reason again is the rendering of both the absolute *no* and *-n't* in Polish by *nie*, whereby the retention of *nie* alone after the absolute *nie* would result in an awkward repetition of two stressed *nie*'s side by side.

4.7. Another important peculiarity of the special finites is their use in Disjunctive or Tag Questions. These consist of the statement and the comment in the same utterance. The tags are either negative or positive, depending on whether they are attached to a positive or a negative sentence respectively. In Polish the difference is lost entirely. There are formally two equivalents: the seemingly negative *nieprawda* (*nieprawdaż*) and the positive *prawda*, but they seem to be used quite freely in translation, irrespective of the English tag form. Cf.

Seventeen, isn't it? — *nieprawda?*

Fourteen, wasn't it? — *prawda?*

I'm not Roo, am I? — *nieprawda?*

They didn't catch it, did they? — *prawda?*

Occasionally other equivalents are found, negative (*czy nie? chyba nie?*) or positive (*co? tak?*, etc.).

4.8. Sometimes English verbal negation is not rendered in Polish by negating the verb. Instead of a negative sentence (negative verb) we have the negative element placed next to some other part of the sentence, the result being a positive sentence with only part of it negated. This phenomenon has been called *negative attraction* (Jespersen) and explained by the power of some words of attracting the negative particle to themselves. The following are typical examples of this kind of substitution of word negation for sentence negation.

But it *isn't* everyone who could do it — *ale nie każdy* to potrafi

but it *isn't* quite a full jar — *ale garnek jest niezupełnie pełen*

Pooh (who *was n't* going to be there) — Puchatek (który miał być *nieobecny*)

You don't often get seven verses in a Hum — *Nieczęsto* bywa siedem zwrotek w mrużance

This *didn't* help Pooh much — *Niewiele* to powiedziało Puchatkowi

he *didn't* like the idea of that . . . to mu się *nie bardzo* uśmiechało

We *can't* all — *nie wszyscy* mogą

After all, we *can't* all have houses. — Zresztą, *nie każdy* może mieć własną chatkę.

I *don't* mean you, Christopher Robin. — *Nie ciebie* mam na myśli, Krzysiu.

4.9. One more point needs to be mentioned in connection with sentence negation. This is the case of *don't think* (*suppose, expect, etc.*) with a subordinate clause, which can be rendered in Polish in several ways:

(1) sometimes exactly corresponding to the English version:

I don't expect we shall get very far.

Nie sądzę, żebyśmy poszli bardzo daleko.

(2) but more often by the positive in the main clause, the negative being shifted to the subordinate clause:

I *don't* think we'd better eat them just yet.

Myślę, żebyśmy ich jeszcze nie jedli.

(3) A third possibility is the use of *chyba nie*, which is perhaps the best idiomatic rendering:

But I don't think he meant to

Tylko, że on chyba nienaumyślnie

The second of the above types (the most logical one) seems to be in favour in Polish while in English the preference is for type (1), cf. Palmer (1939 : 263): "When either the main clause or the subordinate clause may be made negative without materially changing the meaning of the whole statement it is usual to introduce the negative into the main clause (i.e. the clause that precedes)."

4.10. A construction corresponding to the Polish type (2) does, however, exist in English, and may conveniently be mentioned here. It is found in sentences of the type *I thought not* where *not* does not negative the preceding verb (which is not a special finite), but is equal to a negative clause beginning with *that*. Palmer (1938 : 121) calls it 'not III' (contrasted with *so*), and states that constructions of that type are less usual and more formal than those of the "I-don't-think-so" type.

V. QUANTITATIVE NEGATION

5.1. The second biggest group of negative exponents are quantitative negatives.

Although sentences containing this kind of negation may be equivalent

in meaning to sentences with verbal negation, they are not formally negative. One has to distinguish here between two different bases of classification:

(a) a formal basis, according to which a sentence is either negative or positive, depending on whether it does or does not contain a negative special finite, and

(b) a functional (semantic) basis, according to which it either asserts or denies a fact.

Combining the two aspects we arrive at the following diagram.

| Form | Function | |
|----------|------------------------|-------------------------|
| | Assertion | Denial |
| Positive | (1) I go somewhere | (2) I go nowhere |
| Negative | (4) I don't go nowhere | (3) I don't go anywhere |

The interesting thing is that the two singly marked members (2) and (3) mean the same thing, thus

I don't go anywhere = I go nowhere,
while the doubly marked member *I don't go nowhere* in English comes to mean the same as the unmarked *I go somewhere*.

The above diagram, however, does not apply to Polish, for at least two reasons.

(1) First, the top right sentence type (2) is quite impossible since a quantitative negation in Polish is mutually expectant of a negative verb form (negative sentence). For the same reason the other sentence on the right hand side (3) is also impossible. The only type of sentence with a quantitative negative in Polish is the double negation type (4).

(2) Second, that double negation type form in Polish is, at the semantic level, exactly the opposite of the formally equivalent English sentence, i.e. a regular negative (as in substandard English, cf. *I ain't done nothin'*).

The Polish system is thus much simpler, having instead of the four English sentence types a straightforward extremal opposition (both formal and functional at the same time) of a positive vs. negative sentence, corresponding in form to the two left hand side sentences in the English diagram, (1) and (4), respectively, viz.

| Form | Function |
|----------------------|-------------------|
| Positive = Assertion | (Idę gdzieś) |
| Negative = Denial | (Nie idę nigdzie) |

The important conclusions following from the above discrepancy of the English and the Polish systems that are already predictable at this stage are that:

(1) English sentences containing a quantitative negative will have to be rendered in Polish by negative sentences.

(2) In any such sentence there will normally be at least two exponents of negation.

(3) The English negative sentences (described in the preceding chapter), when containing a word like *any*, *ever*, etc. (secondary negative) will equally appear in Polish as sentences of double (or multiple) negation, undistinguishable from those under (1).

5.2. The quantitative negatives in English are:

1. *no* (both determinative and adverb; Palmer's (1938 : 118) *no* 2), contrasted with *all*; and its absolute form *none*;
2. noun-pronouns formed from *no*: *no one*, *nobody*, *nothing*;
3. Negative adverbs (formed by prefixing *no-* or *n-* to the interrogative form: *nowhere*, *never*;
4. negative conjunctions: *neither*, *nor*.

Peculiarities to be noticed are:

- (1) at the phonological level: *nothing* with / \wedge /;
- (2) at the graphical level: *no one*. A spelling like '*noone*' would inevitably be associated with an /u:/ sound in pronunciation. The spellings *no one* and *none* are two alternatives to avoid that difficulty. Other solutions would have to make use of hyphens or diacritics (*no-one*, *noöne?*). The parallel compounds *someone* and *anyone* present no such problems.

The Polish equivalents of the individual words of quantitative negation will now be reviewed one by one.

5.2.1. *No*

1. The regular Polish equivalent of the determinative *no* is *żaden* (in any of the case and gender forms of its full adjectival declension), e.g.

and there was *no* need — *i nie ma żadnego powodu*
where *no* ships came — *dokąd żaden statek jeszcze nie przyłynął*
no exchange of thought — *żadnej wymiany myśli*

2. In most cases, however, *żaden* is omitted altogether, since it would often sound emphatic and superfluous, or else reminiscent of a calque from the German *kein*. Thus most English sentences containing *no* (det.) are rendered in Polish as simple negative sentences with the verb only negated, e.g.

There was *no* wind

— *Nie było wiatru* (not: *żadnego wiatru*)

Eeyore took *no* notice of them

— *Kłapouchy nie zwrócił na nich uwagi*

No blame can be attached to him

— Nie można rzucać na niego ˘ oskarżenia

3. *No* (det) is sometimes rendered by means of the preposition *bez*, always governing the genitive:

Well, it's a very nice pot, even if there's

no honey in it — nawet *bez* miodu

No brain at all, some of them — *Bez* śladu mózgu

4. *No* (adverb) is translated by *nie*, e.g.

No better from this side — Wcale *nie* lepsze z tej strony

5.2.2. *None* is rendered by *nikt* and *ani jeden*, but *żaden* is equally admissible. In spite of being held to be singular (as equivalent to *not one*) in English, it is often used as plural in the spoken language, e.g.

I suppose *none* of you are sitting on a thistle

by any chance? — Czy *nikt* z was ...

He hummed in his throat a little, so that *none* of

the words should stick — żeby *ani jedno* słowo ...

5.2.3. *Nobody*

The standard Polish equivalent is *nikt*, and its case forms *nikogo* (gen.-acc.), *nikomu* (dat.), *nikim* (instr.-loc.), e.g.

There must be somebody there, because somebody must

have said "*Nobody*" — Tam musi ktoś być, jeśli powiedział, że *nie* ma *nikogo*

so there's really *nobody* but Me

słowem *nie* ma *nikogo* prócz Mnie

5.2.4. *Nothing*

Nothing is rendered by *nie* (nom.-acc.) and its other case forms: *niczemu* (dat.), *niczym* (instr.-loc.). It is interesting that the genitive form *niczego* is not used as object of a negative verb or subject of the *nie ma* construction, and the form *nie* (acc.) is used instead. The phenomenon is explained by Szober (1957 : 227) in the following way (my translation, J.C.): "The form *nie* is, in its origin, also a genitive form. Traces of that origin have been preserved to this day in those expressions, unusual for the present-day feeling of language, where after negated verbs we use as object the form *nie* which has today the meaning of accusative. Alongside with the forms "nie widziałem pana, nie słyszałem ani słowa" we say "nie widziałem, nie słyszałem", and not "niczego nie widziałem, niczego nie słyszałem."

The above explanation may be supplemented by the following. The replacing of *niczego* by *nie* might well be due to the mechanical tendency in the language to bring closer the two parallel paradigms, cf.

| | | |
|-------------|--------|---------------|
| Nom. | nikt | nie |
| Acc. | nikogo | nie |
| Gen. | nikogo | niczego > nie |
| Dat. | nikomu | niczemu |
| Instr.-Loc. | nikim | niczym |

where the relationship (gen.) *niczego* : (acc.) *nie* is changed to *nie* : *nie* parallel to the relationship (gen.) *nikogo* : (acc.) *nikogo*. Whatever the explanation, the form *niczego* sounds pathetic and artificial. The normal examples are:

Christopher Robin said *nothing* — *nie* nie mówił

nothing came out — *nie* z tego *nie* wyszło

All that wet for *nothing* — Tyle chlapaniny na *nie*.

5.2.5. *Nowhere*

The dictionary equivalent is *nigdzie*. With verbs of motion one might get *donikąd*; in prepositional phrases *do niczego*, etc.:

Where are we going? said Pooh. *Nowhere* — *Donikąd*.

I mean, it gets you *nowhere* — *do niczego* nie prowadzi

5.2.6. *Never*

1. *Never* with reference to time (contrasted with *always*) is regularly translated by *nigdy*, e.g.

They're funny things, Accidents.

You *never* have them till you're having them.

Nigdy go nie ma, dopóki się nie wydarzy.

A frequent phenomenon here is the inversion in English:

Never had Henry Pootel Piglet run so fast as he ran then.

... never had he seen so much rain.

2. *Never* is also used as emphatic verbal negator in English. In this case it is not rendered in Polish by *nigdy*, but by *nie*, often strengthened by some emphatic word (*wcale*, etc.) e.g. You *never* told me — *wcaleś* mi nie powiedziało

3. *Never mind* (if translated by a negative at all) will have *nie*, not *nigdy*, e.g. *Nie* nie szkodzi, to *nie*, etc.

5.3. Quantitative negatives are also rendered by positive forms of the corresponding Polish pronoun,

(a) in the *nie ma* construction with following infinitive — by *kto, co, gdzie*, etc., e.g.,

so it's *no* good — *więc nie ma o czym mówić*

poor Eeyore has *nowhere* to live — *nie ma gdzie mieszkać*

(b) in questions (direct or indirect) — by *kto(s), co(s)*, etc. e.g.

To see that *nobody* interrupted it

— *czy ktoś tego przypadkiem nie wyjadł*

Nobody can be uncheered with a balloon.

— *Bo kogo nie ucieszyłby balonik?*

They can also stand by themselves (absolute function), as laconic answers to questions, e.g.

Isn't there anybody here at all? *Nobody*.

Why, what's the matter? *Nothing*.

You don't often get seven verses in a Hum, do you, Pooh?

Never, said Pooh.

5.4. Quantitative negation in English can also be expressed in another way, namely by a group-negative made up of *not*+a word of the *anything* type. In other words, it is possible (as has been already mentioned) to set up the following equations:

| | |
|---------|--------------------|
| no/none | = not any |
| no one | = not anyone |
| nobody | = not anybody |
| nothing | = not anything |
| nowhere | = not anywhere |
| never | = not ever |
| neither | = not either, etc. |

There is a theory of the distribution of the two types (Palmer 1939 : 291), based on the assumption that the negative element should be placed as near to the beginning of the sentence as possible. Thus the forms on the left would usually be found

(a) in laconic answers,

(b) when the subject itself is negative,

and the compound type forms in most other cases. *Never*, being already in pre-verbal position, is used in preference to *not ever*.

Sweet (1891 : 85) contrasts the use of spoken (*not any* type) and literary (*no-* type) forms.

When two (or more) expressions of quantitative negation are used in English in the same sentence, the negative element is used only once, with the first word capable of having it, e.g.

nobody has taken any notice

nobody said anything

nothing ever happens

never before had anyone sung ho for Piglet

you've never been to see any of us

he never comes to any harm

he never understands anything

also: I suppose that isn't any good either.

5.5. Polish, of course, as might be expected, follows the opposite trend here. The negative exponents are discontinuous, scattered throughout the sentence, being attached to every word capable of receiving them. Jespersen (1933 : 302) pointed to it as "the tendency to spread a thin layer of negative colouring over the whole of the sentence."

All the Polish quantitative negatives, except *żaden*, contain the negative particle *ni-* prefixed to the word. This particle is felt to be more emphatic than the verbal negator *nie*, and is often put earlier in the sentence, before the verbal negation, cf. the following example (with an accumulation of four negative elements):

Nikt mnie nigdy o niczym nie zawiadamia.

(The English original was: Nobody keeps me informed).

5.6. The tendency in Polish to multiply the exponents of negation is also conspicuous with negative intensifiers. By negative intensifiers are meant such intensifiers only as would rarely if ever be used in a non-negative sentence. It is a matter of common knowledge that exponents of negation in English may be intensified by *at all*. This is rendered in Polish by *wcale, w ogóle, bynajmniej, ani krzty*, etc.

5.7. One more point still needs to be mentioned in connection with the pleonastic exponents of negation in Polish: negative conjunctions. The English negative conjunctions *neither* and *nor* both have their regular equivalent in Polish *ani*.

1. The negative conjunction *ani* must be repeated when joining any element to something negatived, e.g.

nic nie było słycać ani widać

Nie biorę tu oczywiście pod uwagę Maleństwa ani Prosiaczka

Nie jest to warczenie, ani mruczenie, ani szczekanie, ani też chrząkanie

2. *Ani* is often put before the first element as well. The resulting combina-

tion *ani ... ani* (with the same connective repeated) is of a type unknown in English where there are two different conjunctions only (*either ... or*). E.g.

ani ty, ani Puchatek nie macie pojęcia
nigdy już nie zobaczy ani Krzysia, ani Puchatka, ani Kłapouchego

VI. SPECIAL NEGATION

6.1. The quadripartite system shown at the beginning of the preceding chapter for English is not entirely absent from Polish. It is found there in the case of special (lexical) negation, and the correspondence of the two languages is in this instance a perfect one, both formally and semantically, cf.

| Form | Meaning | |
|----------|---|--|
| | Assertion | Denial |
| Positive | (1) She is happy Jest szczęśliwa | (2) She is unhappy Jest nieszczęśliwa |
| Negative | (4) She isn't unhappy Nie jest nieszczęśliwa | (3) She isn't happy Nie jest szczęśliwa |

This is the case where double negation in Polish (as usually in English) expresses affirmation, though a little self-restrained (cf. Wackernagel 1924: 298). The distinction between types (2) and (3) is that the former is somewhat stronger, this being appreciated when an intensifier like *very* is added to each of the two sentences (Jespersen 1917: 43), cf.

She is very unhappy vs. She isn't very happy.

In Polish, unlike in the case of quantitative negation, where the negative element was the emphatic *ni-* contrasted with the usual *nie*, there are here two negative elements of the same (unemphatic) form *nie*, suggesting the same order of prominence. The negative power of both is thus equally balanced, each *nie* being independent and capable of standing alone in a sentence. The negative particle and the word it negatives are felt strongly to belong to each other, and can in fact as a whole always be replaced by another word of synonymous meaning but positive in form. This is reflected in Polish orthography where *nie* is as a rule spelt jointly with nouns, adjectives, and adjectival adverbs (Jodłowski & Taszycki 1936: 36).

Special negation is formally expressed in English in two ways:

(a) by prefixing a negative *not* to the word (this *not*, termed *not* II by Palmer, (1938) is a lexical negator, always stressed and never weakened to *n't*),

(b) by changing the word into its complementary negative word (this is done with the help of negative prefixes or suffixes).

The two methods are essentially of the same rank. As Sweet (1891: 26)

puts it, "Such a derivative element as *un-* is an ultimate sense-unit with a very definite meaning, being so far on a level with the word *not*. But it is not independent: for while *not* can stand alone, and can be put before any word with which the general rules of English grammar allow it to be associated, *un-* cannot stand alone, and can be used only with certain words".

What Sweet meant here would, in present-day linguistic terminology, be the difference between a bound morpheme (*un-*) and a free morpheme (*not*), the latter being capable of functioning as linguistic unit of a higher rank (a word).

At the semantic level a word of negative 'import' (Jespersen's term) may be used (see chapter VIII).

6.2. *Not*

Not is used to form the negative of words other than finites and of parts of sentences. It is regularly rendered in Polish by *nie* (sometimes, e.g. with gerunds, spelt together). *Nie* preceding the negated word is so universal here that even a change in construction of the sentence in translation (e.g. the rendering of a participle by a gerund or an infinitive, etc.) makes no difference as far as negation is concerned. The sentences are formally positive (affirmative), the finite verb not being negated.

Examples:

1. With non-finite verb groups

Pooh was so busy *not looking* where he was going

— był zajęty niepatrzeniem

So he got into a comfortable position for *not listening*

— Więc usadowił się w ten sposób, aby móc nie słuchać

Oh, said Piglet, and tried *not to look* disappointed

— i usiłował nie wyglądać na rozczarowanego

2. With nominal groups

(To show the contrast clearly an adversative conjunction, like *a* or *ale* is often used preceding the negative.)

and the conversation would go better,

if he and *not Pooh* were doing one side of it

— gdyby on, Prosiaczek, a nie Puchatek

Not the big ones — Ale nie z tych wielkich

(*Not a* with a noun is a stronger *no*):

We are going for a Short Walk, he said, *not a* Jostle

— a *nie na żadną* wyprawę całą bandą

3. With adverbial groups

Not at this time of year — nie o tej porze roku

Not round and round — ale nie w kółko i w kółko

4. With clauses

not so as to be uncomfortable

not that it's easy, mind you

6.2.2. The use of *not* in lieu of a subordinate clause (*not* III) has been mentioned earlier (4.10).

6.2.3. In *what-not not* has lost its negative meaning, and especially in enumerations comes to mean 'everything' by way of double negation (Jespersen 1917: 24). The Polish translation is always positive, e.g.

Pencils and what-not. — Ołówki i coś tam jeszcze.

6.3. Negative Affixes.

There are several of those (mostly prefixes) of various origin: Germanic (*un-*, *-less*), Romance (*in-*, *non-*, *dis-*), Greek (*a-*).

6.3.1. The most important of these is *un-* which is also by far the most frequent. Historically it goes back to two different sources (Sweet 1891: 454 f., Jespersen 1942: 464, 476), the fact being of importance for the comparison with Polish, where the original distinction of meaning is clearly reflected in the translation equivalents. It is useful, then, for our purpose to distinguish between

1. *un-* I, the negative prefix added to adjectives in the broadest sense, simple and derived, and adverbs, and

2. *un-* II, the privative prefix added to verbs.

The former is *always* rendered in Polish by *nie*, while the latter is *never* translated by *nie*, but some prefix like *od-*, *z-*, *roz-*

1. Examples of *un-* I Nominal-prefix words:

uncertain — niepewny

undoubtedly, undoubtedly — niewątpliwie

unexpected — nieoczekiwany

unfavourable — niesprzyjający

unhappy — nieszczęśliwy

unprecedented — nie notowany dotychczas

2. Examples of *un-* II Verbal-prefix words:

unbuttoned — odpięła

unhooked — odczepił

unlocked — otwierał

untied — odwiązał się

unwound itself — rozkręcił się

This use of *un-* with verbal roots is quite puzzling to the Polish learner.

6.3.2. The meaning of reversal or undoing of the verbal action is also carried by the Romance prefix *dis-*, which is more readily accepted and normally translatable into Polish by *nie-*, e.g.

disobey — nie słuchać (się)

disbelieve — nie wierzyć

disagree — nie zgadzać się

dislike — nie lubić, etc.

6.3.3. Also regularly rendered by *nie-* is the negative Romance prefix *in-*, which is used with Romance words, and rivals with the Germanic *un-* I. It is prefixed in accordance with Latin rules, i.e. *in-* is assimilated to *im-* before labial consonants, to *il-* before the lateral, and to *ir-* before *r* (in spelling), cf. *impossible*, *immortal*, *illegal*, *irrational*. In the pronunciation of the last three examples, as well as that of the normal form *in-* before *n* as in *innocuous* there appears of course the same allomorph, simple /i/, according to the rules of English phonology, which prohibit double consonants, though variants with double consonant may be heard, no doubt due to the clear-cut morphemic boundary (cf. Francis 1958: 211).

The difference in usage of the two rivalling prefixes, the Romance *in-* and the native *un-*, has been specified by Marchand (1960: 121) as follows. "On the whole the difference between *in-* and *un-* is that the latter is the regular prefix with adjectives belonging to the common vocabulary of the language and accordingly stresses more strongly the derivative character of the negated adjective. The prefix *in-*, however, can only claim a restricted sphere: it forms learned, chiefly scientific words and therefore has morphemic value with those speakers only who are acquainted with Latin and French."

6.3.4. Even more restricted to terms belonging to science is the Greek prefix *a-* (*alpha privativum*), with its allomorph *an-* occurring before a vowel (also aspirated) according to the linguistic laws of Greek, e.g.

amorphous — bezkształtny, niekształtny

asymmetric — niesymetryczny

anhydride — bezwodnik

6.3.5. The most universal prefix, attached chiefly to nouns, even those modifying other nouns, is the always hyphenated, unchangeable prefix *non-*. The regular Polish equivalent is *nie*. E.g. *non-intervention*, *non-existence*, *non-conductor*, *non-metal*, but *non-party member* (*bezpartyjny*).

6.3.6. The privative suffix *-less* has to be rendered by some prefix, there being no negative suffixes in Polish. There is, again, a choice of two prefixes: *nie-* and *bez-*, e.g.

careless -- beztrosko, niedbale
 hopeless -- beznadziejnie

6.4. Negative prepositions.

The frequent rendering of the negative affixes by *bez-* leads us to the question of the negative preposition *without*. This is used in English with (a) nominals, and (b) gerundials, and rendered in Polish by:

1. preposition *bez* preceding a nominal form, e.g.
 without Pooh — bez Puchatka
 without thinking — bez namysłu
 without its meaning something — bez powodu
2. *nie* preceding a non-finite verbal form, e.g.
 without waiting — nie czekając
 without falling in — aby nie wpaść
3. a negative relative clause governed by *bez* (with a necessary antecedent pronoun *tego*), e.g.
 without getting up again almost at once
 — bez tego, żeby po chwili nie trzeba było wstać
 without something having been sneezed
 — bez tego, żeby ktoś nie kichnął

As has already been mentioned, *bez* governs the genitive (like the negative verb).

Looking from the other side, we shall find the following equivalents of the Polish preposition *bez* in English:

- (a) *without*
- (b) *with no*, e.g. *bez prezentów i torcika*
with no presents and no cake

VII. SEMI-NEGATIVES

7.1. *Hardly* and *scarcely* are the words usually referred to by the above term. It is also convenient to discuss *nearly* under this heading, in view of both its semantic interrelation with *hardly* and the Polish equivalent.

Semantically *hardly* is equal to *nearly* (or *almost*) + a negative word, and combinations like *nearly nothing*, *nearly never* are usually replaced by *hardly anything*, *hardly ever* (Palmer 1939: 262), there being a preference for negating the first word (see above 5.4). Formally, then, *hardly* has here a function like that of *not* in combinations of the *not anything* type. Like full negatives, it can also be strengthened by *at all*.

The Polish equivalent of *hardly* is *ledwo* (or *ledwie*), while *hardly ever* is rendered by *rzadko*. The sentence in Polish is positive, cf.

he could hardly speak — ledwo mógł mówić
 which hardly ever happened — co rzadko się zdarzało
 On the contrary, *nearly*, which is positive in English, is translated in Polish by *o mało co*, the sentence being negative, e.g.

and nearly catch a wozzle — i o mało co *nie* łapia łasicy
 he nearly fell down — o mało co *nie* przewrócił się
Not nearly is also rendered by a negative sentence, e.g.
 It wouldn't sound nearly so well
 — Zresztą to nawet nie brzmiałoby ładnie

In isolated cases *hardly* is translated by a negative, and *nearly* by a positive, i.e. in formal agreement with English, e.g.

Hardly at all — raczej nie
 When they had all nearly eaten enough
 — Gdy wszyscy już sobie dobrze podjedli

VIII. IMPLIED NEGATION

8.1. So far we have been dealing with such instances of negation in English only as had the negative idea expressed clearly by means of clear-cut exponents, formally describable at the grammatical, phonological and graphical levels.

But it has been mentioned already (6.1) that a particular negated word is actually equivalent to a positive word of synonymous meaning. Thus substituting the formally positive word *miserable* for the negative *unhappy* in the diagram in section 6.1, we obtain the following scheme:

| Form | Meaning | |
|----------|----------------------|-------------------|
| | (Assertion) | (Denial) |
| Positive | She is happy. | She is miserable. |
| Negative | She isn't miserable. | She isn't happy. |

This system, however, is different from the previous one in two major respects:

(1) There are only two formal types represented here (instead of four), the left hand side formally exactly corresponding to the right hand side.

(2) The difference between the two sides is entirely at the lexical (semantic) level, i.e. in the inherent negative meaning of the positive form *miserable*. But the most important point is that, though *miserable* in this pair is naturally looked upon as negative (*miserable* = 'not happy'), the order could be logically inverted (*happy* = 'not miserable'). The headings 'Assertion' and 'Denial'

would then have to be interchanged to agree with the new way of viewing the situation (hence the brackets).

8.2. The problem of mutual relationship between words of positive and negative import in English (or Polish) is not, however, our concern in the present grammatical study. Besides, the study was based on the formal exponent of negation, in at least one of the languages under consideration. This chapter, therefore, purports to review only those formally positive English words, the negative import of which is explicitly reflected in their Polish equivalents by means of a formal negative element. The words can be divided into several groups, according to their Polish equivalents.

1. Negative element is the only possible equivalent, e.g.

| | | |
|-----------|---|-------------------|
| anxious | — | niespokojny |
| awkward | — | niezgrabny |
| danger | — | niebezpieczeństwo |
| dowdy | — | zaniedbany |
| extremely | — | niezmiernie |
| hate | — | nienawidzić |
| surprise | — | niespodzianka |
| upset | — | niepokoić |

2. There are two possibilities, but

(a) The negative element is more colloquial, e.g.

| | | |
|---------|------------|------------------|
| hostile | wrogi | nieprzyjacielski |
| shyly | bojaźliwie | nieśmiało, etc. |

(b) The negative equivalent is milder, e.g.

| | | |
|---------|---------|------------|
| bad | zły | niedobry |
| foolish | głupi | niemądry |
| little | mało | niewiele |
| miss | chybić | nie trafić |
| near | blisko | niedaleko |
| often | często | nieraz |
| silly | głupi | niemądry |
| slight | drobny | nieznaczny |
| soon | wkrótce | niedługo |
| wrong | zły | niesłuszny |

(c) The negative equivalent expresses a self-restrained approval, e.g.

| | |
|------|------------|
| good | niczła |
| nice | niebrzydka |
| well | nieźle |

3. The negative equivalent used does not correspond truly to the original word, since

(a) It is rather exaggerated, e.g.

| | |
|-----------|--------------|
| fancy | nie do wiary |
| grand | niesłychane |
| very | niesłychanie |
| wonderful | niezwykły |

(b) It is not exactly synonymous, e.g.

| | |
|--------------|-------------------|
| accidentally | niechcący |
| crossly | z niezadowolaniem |
| different | niepodobny |
| excited | niespokojny |
| fierce | niebezpieczny |
| mEEKly | nieśmiało |
| miserable | nieszczęśliwy |

The choice in groups 2 and 3 may, to a large extent, be dependent on style, and falls outside the scope of the present study.

8.3. Indirect expression of a negative idea can also be effected by various syntactical means. We are now passing on to such cases where various types of formally positive English sentences become negative in the Polish rendering.

1. The first big group is Questions.

(a) A number of English positive general questions appear in Polish as negative questions. The positive form would be quite unobjectionable in Polish, but it is more usual to use the negative. Jespersen's (1917: 97) explanation of the fact is that there is scarcely any difference between the two forms of questions, the real question being a disjunctive one (of the Will-you-or-will-you-not? type). The particular way of simplifying that complex construction depends on the language: in English a negative question might sound rude, while in Polish it is just the more polite way of asking ('Would-you-mind' type), e.g.

Have you seen him between eleven and twelve?

— Czy *nie* widziałeś go ...

Are you hurt? — Czyś sobie czego *nie* zrobił?

Could you ask your friend to do his exercises somewhere else?

— Czy *nie* mógłbyś ...

Would you write 'A Happy Birthday' on it for me?

— Więc czy *nie* zechciałbyś napisać ...

Owl looked at him, and wondered whether to push him off the tree

— czy go *nie* strącić

The disjunctive pattern of the deep structure postulated by Jespersen appears in:

and wondered if it would rain

— i myślał, czy będzie deszcz, czy *nie* będzie.

(b) Questions implying negative statement are often translated simply by negative sentences (affirmative or interrogative), e.g.

Any good? — Zdaje się, że *nic* mądrego.

do you know the way? — przecież ty *nie* znasz drogi!

What about me? — A o mnie *nic*?

(c) Also sentences implying uncertainty (asking, wondering, etc.), i.e. question-like in meaning, are made into negatives in Polish, e.g.

I've been wondering about him

— *Nie* wiem, co się z nim dzieje

Correct me if I am wrong

— *Nie* jest wykluczone, że się mylę

2. Negative is also found regularly in Polish in subordinate clauses after

(a) verbs expressing anxiety, doubt, uncertainty, etc., e.g.

wishing that he had gone in for swimming instead

— żałując z duszy serca, że zamiast tego *nie* zaczął pływać

(b) the conjunctions *póki*, *dopóki*, and frequently with other conjunctions such as *zanim*, *odkąd*, etc., e.g.

until he had learned it off by heart

— *dopóki* *nie* nauczył się jej na pamięć

before it was too late

— *zanim* *nie* będzie za późno

I make it seventeen days come Friday since anybody spoke to me

— *odkąd* *nie* zamieniłem z nikim ani słowa

3. A large group of sentences are made negative by

(a) the use of an opposite concept, e.g.

But the noise went on

— Ale rumor *nie* ustawał

He was out — *Nie* było go w domu

You'll be all right

— *Nic* ci się *nie* stanie

(b) Negation is also implied in expressions with *too*, and some comparison of the *as ... as* type, e.g.

This was too much for Pooh

— Tego już Puchatek *nie* mógł znieść
as happy as could be

— szczęśliwy, jak jeszcze *nigdy* w życiu.

(c) Words like *other* (*otherwise*, *else*, *different*, etc), *only*, *difficult* are used as implied negative terms, e.g.

There are lots of noises in the Forest,

but this is a different one

— ale tego jeszcze *nigdy* *nie* słyszałem

I thought I was the only one of them.

— A myślałem, że więcej takich *nie* ma.

4. *Gone* is often rendered by *nie ma*, there being no Present Perfect tense in Polish, cf.

but, after all, what are birthdays?

Here to-day and gone to-morrow.

— Dziś są, jutro ich *nie ma*.

But the Extract of Malt had gone.

— Ale Tranu już *nie było*.

But positive equivalents are also possible, e.g.

they are gone — znikają

Cf. also: *He's been there* — *Był, ale go nie ma*, where the negative makes explicit in Polish the idea implicit in the English Present Perfect.

8.4. The same phenomena are found to occur in the reverse direction, i.e., English negative sentences become positive in Polish. Cf.

1. The use of an opposite concept, e.g.

no doubt — napewno, z pewnością

said *nothing* — milczał

nobody's business — moja sprawa

weren't there — byli daleko

won't have more — miał dosyć

wouldn't stop — kręcił się dalej

without saying — w milczeniu

2. The use of words meaning 'different, else, only, difficult', instead of negation, e.g.

you *couldn't* deny — trudno było zaprzeczać

didn't think — był innego zdania

3. The use of rhetorical questions, obviously implying a negative, e.g.

no hurry — *po co się śpieszyć?*

he *can't* help — *co on może zrobić?*

and vice versa, e.g.

aren't we high? — *jestemy* wysoko.

A negative question as in the last example in English always implies a positive statement. Cf. Fries (1952:167), "The question *don't you like to dance* assumes an affirmative situation, in contrast with the question without the negative, *do you like to dance*, which is entirely without commitment concerning any expected situation." Also Sweet (1891:173): "Negative (general) interrogative sentences imply the expectation of an affirmative answer".

IX. CONCLUSION

9.1. General conclusion to be drawn from the above comparison of the English and Polish systems of negation can be summed up under three headings, corresponding to the three main functions of negation, viz.

- (1) absolute (contextual, situational) negation (comments on statements and answers to general questions, chapter 3),
- (2) grammatical negation (negative sentences and quantitative negatives, chapters 4 and 5),
- (3) lexical negation (explicit formal negation and implied semantic negation, chapters 6 and 8).

The systems operative in the individual types differ between the two languages as well as among themselves in each language, and are as follows.

1. Absolute Negation

In answers to general questions (and in comments on statements) in the English system the form of the question (or statement) does not count, the answer (comment) being entirely dependent on the actual fact (extra-linguistic situation). In Polish two factors, viz. both the form of the question (statement) and the situation are interrelated and bear upon the form of the answer (comment).

If the two systems are thought of in mathematical terms, the English system is reminiscent of addition of a relative (positive or negative) number to a number which is indifferent as to its sign, i.e. 0 (since only $0 = +0$ or -0). Thus we get for English

(System I)

| | Mathematically (addition to nought) | Linguistically | | Answer |
|-----|--|------------------|----------|--------|
| | | Form of Question | Fact | |
| (1) | $0 + (+1) = +1$ | (positive) | positive | yes |
| (2) | $0 + (-1) = -1$ | (positive) | negative | no |
| (3) | $0 \div (+1) = +1$ | (negative) | positive | yes |
| (4) | $0 \div (-1) = -1$ | (negative) | negative | no |

The Polish system, which involves two factors, resembles mathematically multiplication of relative numbers, where two identical signs yield a positive result, while two opposite signs result in the negative meaning of the product. Thus for Polish we have

(System II)

| | Mathematically (multiplication) | Linguistically | | Answer |
|-----|------------------------------------|------------------|----------|--------|
| | | Form of Question | Fact | |
| (1) | $(+1)(+1) = +1$ | positive | positive | tak |
| (2) | $(+1)(-1) = -1$ | positive | negative | nie |
| (3) | $(-1)(+1) = -1$ | negative | positive | nie |
| (4) | $(-1)(-1) = +1$ | negative | negative | tak |

The two systems agree only in two out of four cases, viz. when the form of question is positive (unmarked), cases (1) and (2).

2. Grammatical Negation

Systems operative in sentences containing a quantitative expression are even more different in the two languages. In English the system is one of the already familiar multiplication type (System II), the verb and the quantitative expression both bearing upon the meaning of the sentence. The meanings of the individual combinations are:

| | Verb | Quantitative Expression | Meaning |
|-----|----------|----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| (1) | positive | positive | positive |
| (2) | positive | negative | negative ('nothing' type) |
| (3) | negative | positive | negative ('not anything' type) |
| (4) | negative | negative | positive (double negation type) |

In Polish the markers do not influence each other in this way, but are cumulative, again resembling addition, but this time addition of two unities of equal importance (thus different from that in System I). The system is:

(System III)

| | Mathematically | Linguistically |
|-----|--------------------|----------------------|
| (1) | $(+1) + (+1) = +2$ | |
| (2) | $(+1) + (-1) = 0$ | (non-existent forms) |
| (3) | $(-1) + (+1) = 0$ | |
| (4) | $(-1) + (-1) = -2$ | negative meaning |

Instead of the usual '1' of the other systems, the results here are either '0' or '2', thus indicating a different nature of the system. '0' means that some constructions have no meaning (and no form), '2' shows the cumulative meaning of some forms. In point of fact, the Polish positive here syncrizes both positive form with asserting function, while the Polish negative combines denying function with negative form. Thus to the English 4-term (two-dimensional) system corresponds in Polish a 2-term (one-dimensional) system. Agreement is found between the two languages only in type (1) sentences, i.e. when no negation is involved.

3. Lexical Negation

In this case the two languages have systems identical both in form and meaning. The systems are of the 'multiplication' type (System II). Agreement is complete in all cases.

The distribution of the above systems in the two languages is then as follows.

| | English | Polish |
|----------------------|---------|--------|
| Absolute negation | I | II |
| Grammatical negation | II | III |
| Lexical negation | II | II |

The only system common to both languages is system II. System I is absent from Polish, while system III is absent from English, so those two would present most difficulty. System III does, however, exist in substandard English

(cf. Conner 1968: 202:

I ain't never got nothin from nobody),

which may thus help to bridge the gap between English and Polish, while the systems of absolute negation are totally incomparable, and result in frequent confusion of type (3) and (4) sentences.

9.2. Apart from the fundamental systemic differences discussed above, there are a number of specific points likely to create difficulty for Polish learners of English, which will now briefly be enumerated.

1. Unlike in English, the absolute negation and sentence negation in Polish both have the same form *nie*. Poles may therefore find it difficult, especially in the beginning stages of learning English, to use *no* and *not* in their proper places.

2. The use of negative special finites in short answers in apposition to *no* may present difficulty. Poles are inclined to say either more or less than is necessary, i.e. they would either repeat the full verb or drop the special finite altogether.

3. The special finites in question tags present a difficult problem of choosing the right one out of a large number of possible forms, where Polish offers practically no choice. *Isn't it* is often misused here.

4. Of the two types of hypotaxis, viz. *I don't think* + positive clause vs. *I think* + negative clause, the latter is much more popular in Polish and tends to be used for the former in English.

5. With expressions of quantitative negation there is a tendency to use the (structurally closer to Polish) 'not anything' type in preference to the compact 'nothing' type. Of course, the principle of a single negative exponent in English has first to be acquired.

6. The difficulty in the use of *no* vs. *none* (both corresponding to Polish *żaden*) is probably of the same order as that of distinguishing *my* from *nine*, etc.

7. *Neither ... nor* for *ani ... ani* can be learnt easily. Poles find it more difficult to remember that in joining anything to a negative in English positive conjunctions (*and*, *or*, etc.) must be used for the Polish universal negative *ani*. On the other hand, *even* and *why* alone are often misused for *not even* and *why not*.

8. The different negative prefixes (*un-*, *in-*, etc.) equivalent to the uniform Polish prefix *nie-* have to be learnt rather as lexical items. Quite puzzling for the Polish feeling of language is the use of *un-* with verbs. There is no negative suffix like *-less* in Polish, but adjectives of this type are readily negated by means of an equivalent negative prefix (*bez-*, *nie-*).

9. Semi-negatives are usually encountered at a more advanced stage when the student is already familiar with the chief peculiarities of English negation and can fit them in the appropriate pattern.

10. There is a strong tendency to use Negative-interrogative where Interrogative is normally used in English. The former type is probably more polite in Polish, contrary to the English usage.

11. Negative verb is *de rigueur* in Polish in subordinate clauses with *póki*, *dopóki*, etc., but these also come up at a later stage. The learner had meanwhile been put on his guard here in connection with another peculiarity of such clauses (the use of the Present for the Future tense.).

12. Likely to cause confusion at the semantic level is the case of *mustn't* which, on analogy to Polish, is mistaken to mean the negative of *must*.

13. The way of negating *all* may present problems. Poles are most likely to say (logically) *Not all is lost*, etc.

14. On the other hand, some other obvious discrepancies seem to be of no consequence for the interference of the mother tongue. E.g. the use of the genitive with Polish negatives does not interfere with the English system. It will probably present a difficulty for an English learner of Polish, but not more difficulty than any other use of Polish case forms.

15. It may also be pointed out that the peculiar English use of *do* in negative sentences, difficult as it is in written English (where the full forms of negatives are used), in spoken English corresponds very neatly with the Polish system, the global form *don't* (purely negative in meaning) fitting readily into the bilingual proportion:

I *don't* go : I go = *Nie* idę : Idę.

Apart from the obvious differences (changes occurring in the auxiliary rather than in the main verb) the general pattern of the negative preceding the verb is much more natural to the Polish learner than the postposition (as in German) or negative entourage (as in French).

Incidentally, the empty auxiliary *do* in the interrogative also fits in the Polish structural pattern with the empty general question marker *czy*, cf.

Do they think : They think = *Czy* (oni) myślą : (Oni) myślą.

This is worth noting, since negatives (and interrogatives) with *do* are more numerous than those with any other special finite.

16. In connection with structural differences one more point might be worth mentioning. English very often makes use of the determinative *no* in nominal phrases. As has been pointed out in 5.2.1, the Polish equivalent *zaden* does not fit very well in the Polish system. Therefore everyday notices of the type *No smoking*, *No entry*, etc. are never rendered by *zaden*, but always changed in such a way as to make it possible to use some other, more suitable negative exponent, e.g. *Nie palić*, *Przejścia nie ma*, etc., or *Palenie wzbronione*, *Droga zamknięta*, etc.

Which once again proves that there is more than one way of expressing negation in language, and the present limited study does by no means pretend to have done justice to all their interesting variety.

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