

# Questions, Answers and the Structuring of Information: II: Polarity Questions and Their Answers

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## II Responses to Assertions and Polarity Questions

Day 2: Polarity questions and answers to polarity questions, e.g. with response particles like *yes* / *no*. Ways of modeling the answerhood relation, e.g. by elliptical clauses, by conversational moves like rejection, by propositional discourse referents. See in particular Roelofsen & Farkas 2015. Also, theories of high negation in questions.

Slides can be downloaded from:

- ◆ <http://www.zas.gwz-berlin.de/180.html>
- ◆ or [http://www.zas.gwz-berlin.de/mitarbeiter\\_krifka.html](http://www.zas.gwz-berlin.de/mitarbeiter_krifka.html), go to “Vorträge” or “Talks”

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# 1 Introduction

## 1.1 A biblical advice about clear communication

- (1) *But let your communication be, Yea, yea; Nay, nay; for whatsoever is more than these cometh of evil.* (Matthew 5:37)

But are *yes* and *no* really that clear?

- (2) S<sub>1</sub>: *You stole the cookie.* S<sub>2</sub>: *Yes.*  
*Did you steal the cookie?* *No.*
- (3) S<sub>1</sub>: *You did not steal the cookie.* S<sub>2</sub>: *Yes.* S<sub>2</sub>: *No, I didn't. / No, I did.*  
*Did you not steal the cookie?* *No.* *Yes, I didn't. / Yes, I did.*

*yes, no*: “polarity particles”, “response particles”

Experimental result of Kramer & Rawlins 2012:<sup>1</sup>

- ◆ Bare particles reduced in acceptability in (3), *no* better than *yes*.
- ◆ Both *yes* and *no* both preferably interpreted as ‘S<sub>2</sub> did not steal the cookie’

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<sup>1</sup> Cf. Kramer, Ruth, and Kyle Rawlins. 2012. An ellipsis approach to answer particles in positive and negative contexts. Paper presented at the Workshop on the Syntax of Answers to Polar Questions, Newcastle University.

## 1.2 Approaches to polarity items

Classics:

- ◆ Emily Pope. *Questions and Answers in English*. Mouton, The Hague, 1976.
- ◆ Jones, Bob Morris. 1999. *The Welsh answering system*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Some recent contributions:

- ◆ Biezma, Maria & Kyle Rawlins. 2012. Responding to alternative and polar questions. *Linguistics and Philosophy* 35: 361-406.
- ◆ Brasoveanu, Adrian, Donka Farkas & Floris Roelofsen. 2013. N-words and sentential negation: Evidence from polarity particles and VP ellipsis. *Semantics & Pragmatics* 6: 1-33.
- ◆ Goodhue, Dan and Michael Wagner. 2015. It's not just what you say, it's how you say it: Intonation, *yes* and *no*. Deniz Ozyildiz & Thuy Bui (eds.), *NELS* 45
- ◆ Holmberg, Anders. 2012. On the syntax of *yes* and *no* in English. *Newcastle Working Papers in Linguistics* 18: 52-72.
- ◆ Holmberg, Anders. 2016. *The syntax of yes and no*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- ◆ Kramer, Ruth & Kyle Rawlins. 2009. Polarity particles: an ellipsis account. *NELS* 39.
- ◆ Krifka, Manfred. 2013. Response particles as propositional anaphors. *SALT* 23. 1-18.
- ◆ Roelofsen, Floris & Donka Farkas. 2015. Polarity particle responses as a window onto the interpretation of questions and assertions. *Language* 91: 359-414.

## 2 Syntactic approach: Kramer & Rawlins 2009

Proposal: *Yes* and *no* are adverbials corresponding to the heads of ellipsis clauses which correspond to contextually salient propositions.

(4) S<sub>1</sub>: *Ede stole the cookie.*

S<sub>2</sub>: [<sub>ΣP</sub> *Yes* [<sub>Σ</sub> [<sub>TP</sub> ~~*he did*~~ [<sub>t<sub>he</sub></sub> ~~*steal the cookie*~~]]]]

Ellipsis phrase ΣP with head Σ, adverbial *yes*.

(5) S<sub>1</sub>: *Ede did not steal the cookie.*

S<sub>2</sub>: [<sub>ΣP</sub> *No*<sub>[u NEG]</sub> [<sub>ΣP</sub> <sub>Σ</sub><sub>[u NEG]</sub> [<sub>TP</sub> ~~*he didn't*~~<sub>[i NEG]</sub> [<sub>t<sub>he</sub></sub> ~~*steal the cookies*~~]]]]

No double negation interpretation: *n't* has an interpretable NEG feature that agrees with an uninterpretable NEG feature provided by *no* (Zeijlstra 2004).

(6) S<sub>1</sub>: *Ede did not steal the cookie.*

S<sub>2</sub>: [<sub>ΣP</sub> *Yes / No*<sub>[u NEG]</sub> [<sub>ΣP</sub> <sub>Σ</sub><sub>[u NEG]</sub> [<sub>TP</sub> *he didn't*<sub>[i NEG]</sub> [<sub>t<sub>he</sub></sub> ~~*steal the cookies*~~]]]]

*Yes* is featureless, compatible with [u NEG] head of ellipsis clause.

Syntactic approach: Kramer & Rawlins 2009:

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Problems:

◆ Why is (7) not possible, as *yes* is featureless, compatible with negation?

(7) S<sub>1</sub>: *Ede stole the cookie.*

S<sub>2</sub>: *#Yes, he didn't steal the cookie.*

◆ Distribution of elliptical clauses and response particles does not always match:

(8) *Did Ede steal the cookies?*

a. *If he did, he must pay them back.*

b. *\*If yes, he did, he must pay them back.*

c. *If <sup>??</sup>yes / so, he must pay them back.*

Syntactic approach: Kramer & Rawlins 2009:

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## 3 Roelofsen & Farkas 2015

### 3.1 Response particles as anaphora

Response particles pick out contextually salient propositions (couched in communication theory of Farkas & Bruce 2010, neglected here).

(9)  $S_1$ : *Ede stole the cookie.* Contextually salient proposition:  
 $\varphi$  = 'Ede stole the cookie'

$S_2$ : *Yes.* Confirms  $\varphi$ .  
*No.* Rejects  $\varphi$ .

With polarity questions, two propositions are introduced, one the negation of the other (cf. propositional set theory of questions, Hamblin 1973; F&R use inquisitive semantics, which is equivalent for our purposes).

(10)  $S_1$ : *Did Ede steal the cookie?* Interpretation:  $\{\varphi, \neg\varphi\}$

This is not sufficient to explain the usage of *yes* and *no*.

F&R assume in addition that the proposition that is "explicitly mentioned" is highlighted, and hence made salient.

(11)  $S_1$ : *Did Ede steal the cookie?*  $\{\varphi, \neg\varphi\}$ ; contextually salient:  $\varphi$ , due to highlighting.  
 $S_2$ : *Yes.* a. Confirms highlighted proposition, asserts  $\varphi$ .  
*No.* b. Reverses highlighted proposition, asserts  $\neg\varphi$ .

### 3.2 Yes and no in negated questions

For *yes* and *no* in negated questions:

- ◆ F&R assume that antecedent propositions are marked as non-negated or negated
- ◆ refined conditions for *yes* and *no*:

(12)  $S_1$ : *Did Ede not steal the cookie?*  $\{\varphi, \neg\varphi\}$ ,  
where  $\neg\varphi$  identifiable as negated proposition.

$S_2$ : *Yes.* [AGREE, +] a. **Confirms** highlighted proposition, here  $\neg\varphi$ .  
a'. Reverses highlighted neg. proposition, i.e. **asserts  $\varphi$** .  
*No.* [REVERSE, -] b. **Reverses** highlighted proposition, i.e. asserts  $\varphi$ .  
b'. Confirms highlighted neg. proposition, i.e. **asserts  $\neg\varphi$** .

- ◆ Highlighting of propositions is an extraneous semantic feature in propositional set theory / Inquisitive Semantics,
- ◆ Marking of proposition as negated an extraneous feature in truth-cond. semantics; requires representational theory (e.g. Situation Semantics: Ginzburg & Sag 2000)
- ◆ Therefore F&R propose using propositional discourse referents (see below), i.e. representational entities that can express features like negation (cf. gender)
- ◆ Ambiguity or replies to neg. antecedents resides in an ambiguity of *yes* and *no*
- ◆ Combinations of features [+]/[-], [AGREE]/[REVERSE] express particles in several lg.

### 3.3 Polarity features and their uses

R&F assume polarity features are hosted in a polarity phrase:

- ◆ [<sub>PolP</sub> Pol Prejacent], where prejacent: clause, IP?
- ◆ A PolP is anaphoric to an antecedent clause.

R&F assume two kinds of “polarity features”:

- ◆ Absolute polarity features: [+], [-],  
where [+]/[-] presupposes that prejacent has highlighted positive / negative polarity
- ◆ Relative polarity feature: [AGREE], [REVERSE],  
where [AGREE] / [REVERSE] presupposes antecedent has  
the same meaning and same polarity / complement meaning and opposite polarity

Realization rules for English:

- ◆ [AGREE] and [+] can be realized by *yes*
- ◆ [REVERSE] and [-] can be realized by *no*

Consequence:

- ◆ [AGREE, -] and [REVERSE, +] can be realized by both *yes* and *no* – ambiguity!

Markedness contrast, where marked features have a higher need for expression:

- ◆ [+] is less marked than [-]
- ◆ [AGREE] is less marked than [REVERSE]

### 3.4 Explanation of English data

Non-negated antecedents:

- (1) S<sub>1</sub>: *Peter called.* / *Did Peter call?*  
S<sub>2</sub>: *Yes, he did.* / *\*No, he did.* [AGREE, +] cannot be realized by *no*  
S<sub>2</sub>: *\*Yes, he didn't.* / *No, he didn't.* [REVERSE, -] cannot be realized by *yes*
- (2) S<sub>1</sub>: *Peter didn't call.* / *Did Peter not call?*  
S<sub>2</sub>: *Yes, he DID.* / *No, he DID.* *yes* realizes [+], *no* realizes [REVERSE]  
S<sub>2</sub>: *Yes, he didn't.* / *No, he didn't.* *yes* realizes [AGREE], *no* realizes [-]

Use of bare particles *yes* / *no* with negated antecedent:

- ◆ Ambiguous, hence less felicitous
- ◆ *yes* and *no* more often understood as confirming antecedent ('he didn't'),  
as marked [REVERSE] feature has a higher need for expression.
- ◆ *no* preferred over *yes*, as marked [-] feature has higher need for expression.

Additional phenomena:

- (3) S<sub>1</sub>: *Susan failed the exam.* / *Did Susan fail the exam?* true prejacent  
S<sub>2</sub>: *Yes, she did not pass.* / *\*No, she did not pass.* *failed the exam* is elided
- (4) S<sub>1</sub>: *Does Igor speak English<sup>↑</sup> or French<sup>↓</sup>?* *two highlighted*  
S<sub>2</sub>: *\*Yes (he speaks English) / \*No (he speaks French).* antecedent propositions

## 4 Response Particles as Anaphora: Krifka 2013

### 4.1 Propositional discourse referents

Discourse referents: Entities, Events, Propositions, and Acts

- ◆ Discourse referents for entities (cf. Karttunen 1969, Kamp 1981, Heim 1982).

(13) [<sub>DP</sub> *A man*] *came in. He stole* [<sub>DP</sub> *a cookie*]. – introduced by DPs  
 $\hookrightarrow d_{\text{entity}} \quad \uparrow d \quad \hookrightarrow d'_{\text{entity}}$

- ◆ Discourse referents for events, introduced by tenseless vPs: (Hinrichs 1981, Partee 1984).

(14) [<sub>TP</sub> *He steal-PAST*] [<sub>VP</sub> *t<sub>he</sub> t<sub>steal</sub> a cookie*]]. *Bill saw it.* – introduced by tenseless vPs  
 $\hookrightarrow d_{\text{event}} \quad \uparrow d$

- ◆ DRs for propositions (propDRs), introduced by tensed TPs, e.g. Webber (1978), Asher (1986), Cornish (1992), Frank (1996).

(15) [<sub>TP</sub> *He stole a cookie*]. *Bill knows it.* – introduced by tensed TPs  
 $\hookrightarrow d_{\text{prop}} \quad \uparrow d$

- ◆ Speech act discourse referents (actDRs), introduced by ActPs, e.g. Webber (1978)

(16) S<sub>1</sub>: [<sub>ActP</sub> *ASSERT He stole a cookie.*] S<sub>2</sub>: *That's a lie!* – introd. by illocutionary phrase, here: ActP  
 $\hookrightarrow d_{\text{act}} \quad \uparrow d$

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Complete analysis, except for entity DRs:

(17) *He stole a cookie.*

[<sub>ActP</sub> *ASSERT*] [<sub>TP</sub> *he steal-PAST*] [<sub>VP</sub> *t<sub>he</sub> t<sub>steal</sub> a cookie*]]  
 $\hookrightarrow d_{\text{speech act}} \quad \hookrightarrow d'_{\text{prop}} \quad \hookrightarrow d''_{\text{event}}$

(18) *Did he steal a cookie?*

[<sub>ActP</sub> *did-QUEST*] [<sub>TP</sub> *he t<sub>did</sub>-PAST*] [<sub>VP</sub> *t<sub>he</sub> t<sub>steal</sub> a cookie*]]  
 $\hookrightarrow d_{\text{speech act}} \quad \hookrightarrow d'_{\text{prop}} \quad \hookrightarrow d''_{\text{event}}$

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#### 4.4 Propositional anaphora

Different syntactic categories for propositional anaphora:

- ◆ *it* and *that*: DP
- ◆ *so*, *not*: TP (pace Cornish 1992, who considers them adverbials)
- ◆ *yes* and *no*: ActP  
(pace Ginzburg & Sag 2000, who call them “propositional lexemes” but consider them adverbials)

(23) *Did he steal a cookie? If \*it / so / ??yes, he must be punished.*  
[*if* [<sub>TP</sub> α]], hence α ≠ [<sub>DP</sub> *it*], α ≠ [<sub>ActP</sub> *yes*]

(24) *Did he steal a cookie? Bill believes it / so / ??yes.*  
*believe* [<sub>DP</sub> α], cf. *I believe this*, or *believe* [<sub>CP</sub> α],  
cf. *I believe (that) he did it*; hence α ≠ [<sub>ActP</sub> *yes*]

Proposal for *yes* and *no*:

- (25) a. *yes* picks up salient propDR *d* and asserts it: ASSERT(*d*)  
b. *no* picks up salient propDR *d* and asserts its negation: ASSERT(¬*d*)

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#### 4.5 Response particles with elliptical clauses

Response particles with (elliptical) clauses as appositive structures:

(26) S<sub>1</sub>: [<sub>ActP</sub> *did*-QUEST [<sub>TP</sub> *he* t<sub>did</sub>-PAST [<sub>VP</sub> t<sub>he</sub> t<sub>steal</sub> *a cookie*]]]

S<sub>2</sub>: a. [<sub>ActP</sub> *yes*], = ASSERT(*d*)  
↑<sub>d<sub>prop</sub></sub>

b. [<sub>ActP</sub> ASSERT [<sub>TP</sub> *he did* [[<sub>VP</sub> t<sub>he</sub> ~~*steal the cookie*~~] / [<sub>DP</sub> *it*]]]]  
↑<sub>d<sub>event</sub></sub> ↑<sub>d<sub>event</sub></sub>

c. [<sub>ActP</sub> *yes*], [<sub>ActP</sub> ASSERT [<sub>TP</sub> *he did* [[<sub>VP</sub> t<sub>he</sub> ~~*steal the cookies*~~] / [<sub>DP</sub> *it*]]]]  
↑<sub>d<sub>prop</sub></sub> ↑<sub>d<sub>event</sub></sub> ↑<sub>d<sub>event</sub></sub>

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#### 4.8 Optimal choice of response particles

Recall interpretation of *yes* and *no*, cf. (25):

- (35) a. [ActP *yes*] requires salient discourse referent  $d_{prop}$ , interpreted as ASSERT( $d$ )  
 b. [ActP *no*] requires salient discourse referent  $d_{prop}$ , interpreted as ASSERT( $\neg d$ )

Recall introduction of discourse referents in negated clauses:

- (36) [ActP ASSERT [<sub>NegP</sub> *he did-n't* [<sub>TP</sub>  $t_{he}$   $t_{did}$  *steal a cookie*]]  
 $\hookrightarrow d'_{prop}$   $\hookrightarrow d_{prop}$

Four possibilities of interpretation in this context.

- (37) a. *Yes*. ASSERT( $d$ ) 'Yes, he did!' Requires rejecting accent, with clause.  
 b. *Yes*. ASSERT( $d'$ ) 'Yes, he didn't.' Natural answer, but with clause.  
 c. *No*. ASSERT( $\neg d$ ) 'No (he didn't).' Natural answ, ellipt. clause not required  
 d. *No*. ASSERT( $\neg d'$ ) 'No, he did!' Requires rejecting accent, with clause.

These judgements arise due to certain preferences:

- (38) a. \*NEGDR: Penalizes picking up a negatively marked discourse referent;  
 Reason: When a clause contains a negation, the non-negated proposition is typically salient in the preceding context.  
 b. \*DISAGR: Penalizes disagreement with other speaker;  
 reason: Agreement as the default case.

- (39) Calculation of optimal forms in an OT tableau, antecedent: assertion (36);  
 we assume that \*DISAGR is ranked above \*NEGDR

- [ActP ASSERT [<sub>NegP</sub> *he did-n't* [<sub>TP</sub>  $t_{he}$   $t_{did}$  *steal a cookie*]]  
 $\hookrightarrow d'_{prop}$   $\hookrightarrow d_{prop}$

	expression	reference	resulting meaning	*DISAGR	*NEGDR	Favorite
a	<i>yes</i>	$d$	'He did.'	*		((☹))
b	<i>yes</i>	$d'$	'He didn't.'		*	(☹)
c	<i>no</i>	$d$	'He didn't.'			☹
d	<i>no</i>	$d'$	'He did.'	*	*	

Appositive clauses (*he did / he didn't*) required for non-optimal solutions, for clarification.



	expression	reference	resulting meaning	*NEGDR	*DisAGR	Favorite
a	yes	d	'He did.'		*	(☹)
b	yes	d'	'He didn't.'	*		((☹))
c	no	d	'He didn't.'			☹
d	no	d'	'He did.'	*	*	

Contrast with syntactically high negation (Ladd 1981), cf. Krifka (2015):

(43) S<sub>1</sub>: *Didn't Ede steal some cookie?*

[<sub>ActP</sub> *did*-REQUEST [<sub>NegP</sub> *not* [<sub>ActP</sub> *Ede* ASSERT [<sub>TP</sub> *t<sub>Ede</sub> steal some cookie*]]]]  
↪ d<sub>prop</sub>

Only **one** propDR is introduced; negation interpreted as speech-act operator; S<sub>1</sub> requests from S<sub>2</sub> to denegate the assertion that Ede stole some cookie.

Predicted answer pattern:

(44) S<sub>2</sub>: a. *Yes (he did).*                      b. *No (he didn't).*  
c. *\*No, he did.*                                d. *\*Yes, he didn't.*

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#### 4.10 The German particle *doch*

In German there is in addition to *yes* and *no* a third particle, *doch* (cf. also French *si*), that requires a syntactically negated discourse referent.

(45) S<sub>1</sub>: *Er hat einen Keks gestohlen.* 'He stole a cookie.'  
S<sub>2</sub>: *Ja.* 'He did steal a cookie.'  
*Nein.* 'He did not steal a cookie.'  
*\*Doch.*

(46) S<sub>1</sub>: *Er hat keinen Keks gestohlen.* 'He did not steal a cookie.'  
S<sub>2</sub>: *Ja.* 'He did not steal the cookie.'  
*Nein.* 'He did not steal the cookie.'  
*Doch.* 'He did steal the cookie.'

(47) S<sub>1</sub>: *Es fehlt ein Keks.* 'A cookie is missing.'  
S<sub>2</sub>: *Ja.* 'A cookie is missing.'  
*Nein.* 'No cookie is missing.'  
*\*Doch.*

Roelofson & Farkas 2015: *doch* realizes feature combination [REVERSE, +]

Like *ja* / *nein*, the particle *doch* is of the syntactic category TP:

(48) *Er hat wahrscheinlich keinen Keks gestohlen. Falls doch, muss er bestraft werden.*  
'He probably did not steal a cookie. But if he did, he must be punished.'

Assumption for *doch*:<sup>2</sup>

- ◆ Presupposes two propDRs, one the negation of the other:  $d, d' = \neg d$
- ◆ Picks up the non-negated discourse referent,  $d$ .

(49) *Er hat möglicherweise keinen Keks gestohlen. Wenn doch, müssen wir ihn finden.*  
'Ede may not have stolen a cookie. If DOCH, we have to find it.'  
Notice that *doch* makes accessible the DR introduced by *a cookie*,  
hence picks up non-negated propDR anchored to *Ede hat einen Keks gestohlen*

The particle *doch* comes with a specific presupposition, which blocks the uses of other particles in case the presupposition is satisfied.

<sup>2</sup> The assumption that *doch* presupposes two salient propositional discourse referents,  $d, \neg d$  is probably too strict, as  $\neg d$  can be accommodated in certain cases.

S<sub>1</sub>: *Hat Ede denn (etwa) einen Keks gestohlen?* S<sub>2</sub>: *Ja. / Doch.* (= he stole a cookie) *Nein.* (= he didn't steal a cookie)

A's question introduces only one discourse referent,  $d =$  'Ede stole a cookie', yet *doch* is possible. Perhaps the requirement is that a propositional discourse referent  $d$  is salient, but the context entails that  $\neg d$  might hold; *doch* then picks up the discourse referent  $d$ . This allows, but does not require, that a discourse referent  $\neg d$  was introduced.

One implementation of blocking, following Beaver (2004):

- ◆ Meta-constraint BLOCK that is marked by the presence of an expression for which the indicated interpretation is strongly preferred.
- (50) Calculation of optimal forms in an OT tableau; negated antecedent clause; DISAGR is irrelevant if ordered under BLOCK.

	expression	reference	resulting meaning	*PRES	BLOCK	*NEGDR	Favorite
a	<i>ja</i>	d	'He did.'		*		
b	<i>ja</i>	d'	'He didn't.'			*	( <del>⊖</del> )
c	<i>nein</i>	d	'He didn't.'				⊖
d	<i>nein</i>	d'	'He did.'			*	( <del>⊖</del> )
e	<i>doch</i>	d	'He did.'				⊖; blocking of a
f	<i>doch</i>	d'	'He didn't.'	*		*	

S<sub>1</sub>: *Er hat den Keks nicht gestohlen.*

- S<sub>2</sub>: a. *??Ja, er hat ihn gestohlen.*      b. *Ja, er hat ihn nicht gestohlen.*  
 c. *Nein (er hat ihn nicht gestohlen).*      d. *Nein, er hat ihn gestohlen.*  
 e. *Doch (er hat ihn gestohlen).*      f. *\*Doch (er hat ihn nicht gestohlen).*

The presence of a third particle, *doch*, creates a more expressive system of response particles, obviating the need to add full or elliptical clauses as in English.

#### 4.11 Narrow-scope negation

Holmberg (2012) observes preference for the agreeing answer in cases like (51):

- (51) S<sub>1</sub>: *John sometimes / purposely did not show up for work.*  
 S<sub>2</sub>: *Yes, he didn't. / ? No, he didn't.*

Explanation: Negation does not form a NegP under the scope of a quantifier, hence does not introduce a negated propDR.

A case of ambiguous negation in German, disambiguated by *doch*.

- (52) S<sub>1</sub>: *Jeder Zahnarzt ist nicht reich.*  
 i. 'For every dentist it holds: he or she is not rich.'  
 ii. 'It is not the case that every dentist is rich.'  
 S<sub>2</sub>: *Doch.* 'Every dentist IS rich.' (= ¬(ii.))

Explanation: Only reading (ii) introduces a negated propDR, hence *doch* is applicable only for this case.

## 4.12 Focusing on negation

Holmberg (2012) observes that stressing the negation in an antecedent clause influences the interpretation of yes/no answers;

(53) S<sub>1</sub>: *Did Ede NOT steal a cookie?*

S<sub>2</sub>: Yes. (likely interpretation: He did not steal it).

Explanation:

- ◆ Stress indicates focus, and focus indicates alternatives (cf. Rooth 1992).
- ◆ In the case at hand, the meaning is the proposition ¬‘Ede stole a cookie’, and the set of alternatives is {‘Ede stole a cookie’, ¬‘Ede stole a cookie’}.
- ◆ As for the introduced propDRs, the meaning introduces two propDRs, d for ‘Ede stole a cookie’, and d’ for ¬‘Ede stole a cookie’; the only alternative introduces just one, d for ‘Ede stole a cookie’
- ◆ The highlighting or contrast of the focused expression with the alternatives also affects their anaphoric potential; as the focused expression and the only alternative differ just in d’, this makes d’ more salient than d.
- ◆ As d’ is more salient, and the yes answer is semantically less complex, yes can be used to identify d’.

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## 5 Other kinds of response particles

### 5.1 *hai* and *iie*

Agree / disagree systems (cf. Sadock & Zwicky 1985), e.g. *hai* / *iie* in Japanese:

- (54) a. S<sub>1</sub>: *John wa hashitte imasu ka?*    a. S<sub>2</sub>: *Hai* (, *hashitte imasu*). ‘Yes (, he is running)’  
      ‘Is John running?’                    b. S<sub>2</sub>: *lie* (, *hashitte imasen*) ‘No (, he is not running)’
- b. S<sub>1</sub>: *John wa hashitte imasen ka?*    a. S<sub>2</sub>: *Hai* (, *hashitte imasen*). ‘Yes (, he is not running)’  
      ‘Is John not running?’                b. S<sub>2</sub>: *lie* (, *hashitte imasu*). ‘No (, he is running)’

Theoretical options:

- ◆ *hai* and *iie* express agreement / disagreement; questions are always biased.
- ◆ Negation in Japanese does not form a NegP, hence does not introduce a negated propDR. cf. Yabushita (1998) for arguments for that option.

Other kinds of response particles: *hai* and *iie*

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## 5.2 right and wrong

*right* and *wrong* act as agreement/disagreement markers; un-ambiguous meaning with assertions:

(55) S<sub>1</sub>: *He stole a cookie.* S<sub>2</sub>: *Right.* (= he stole one.)  
*Wrong.* (= he didn't steal one.)

(56) S<sub>1</sub>: *He didn't steal a cookie.* S<sub>2</sub>: *Right.* (= he didn't steal one.)  
*Wrong.* (= he stole one.)

They can also be used with questions, which presupposes that the question can be understood as biased.

(57) S<sub>1</sub>: *Did he steal a cookie?* S<sub>2</sub>: *Right. / (?)Wrong.*

(58) S<sub>1</sub>: *Didn't he steal a cookie?* S<sub>2</sub>: *Right. / Wrong.*

Proposal: *right* and *wrong* do not pick up propositional discourse referents, but speech-act referents:

(59) S<sub>1</sub>: [<sub>ActP</sub> ASSERT [<sub>NegP</sub> *He did-n't* [<sub>t<sub>he</sub></sub> <sub>t<sub>steal</sub></sub> *steal a cookie*]]]

↪ d<sub>speechact</sub>  
 S<sub>2</sub>: a. [<sub>ActP</sub> ASSERT [*this is right / wrong*]]

↑ d  
 b. [<sub>ActP</sub> *Right.*], making the same speech act as d, performed by B.

Other kinds of response particles: right and wrong

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The speech act of an assertion

- ◆ is right (= justified), if the proposition that is asserted is true, and relevant for the current exchange.
- ◆ and it is wrong if this is not the case.

With biased questions,

- ◆ the speech act of uttering a question introduces a bias towards a particular answer as an implicature (cf. Krifka 2015 for negated questions).
- ◆ As such, a speech act introducing a bias can also be right or wrong.

*Right* and *wrong* can be used for non-assertive questions as well, and then express the speaker's opinion whether the question is justified at the current exchange (i.e. if it is an interesting question to ask).

(60) S<sub>1</sub>: *Did he steal a cookie, or not?*

S<sub>2</sub>: *Right, that's a good question.*

Other kinds of response particles: right and wrong

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### 5.3 *uh-huh* and *uh-uh*

(61) S<sub>1</sub>: *He stole the cookie.*  
 S<sub>2</sub>: *uh-huh.*

Notice: *uh-huh* is weaker than *yes*; does not commit S<sub>2</sub> to the proposition; works as a backchanneling signal (Ward 2006).

But it can also be used like *yes*:

(62) S<sub>1</sub>: *Did he steal the cookie?*  
 S<sub>2</sub>: *uh-huh.*

And *uh-uh* always is interpreted like *no*:

(63) S<sub>1</sub>: *He stole the cookie. / Did he steal the cookie?*  
 S<sub>2</sub>: *Uh-uh.*

Other kinds of response particles: *uh-huh* and *uh-uh*

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Proposal:

- ◆ The speech act of assertion is a combination of two separate acts (Krifka 2015):

(64) S<sub>1</sub>, to S<sub>2</sub>: *He stole the cookie.*  
 a. S<sub>1</sub> commits himself/herself to the truth of the proposition 'he stole the cookie'  
 b. S<sub>1</sub> wants that the proposition becomes common ground between S<sub>1</sub> and S<sub>2</sub>.

(65) [<sub>ActP</sub> COMMIT<sub>S<sub>1</sub></sub> + COMGROUND<sub>S<sub>1</sub>,S<sub>2</sub></sub> [<sub>TP</sub> *he steal*-PAST [<sub>VP</sub> *t<sub>he</sub> t<sub>steal</sub> a cookie*]]]  
 ↪<sub>d<sub>act</sub></sub> ↪<sub>d'<sub>prop</sub></sub> ↪<sub>d''<sub>prop</sub></sub> ↪<sub>d'''<sub>prop</sub></sub>

where d'''<sub>prop</sub>: 'he stole a cookie'

d'<sub>prop</sub>: 'S<sub>1</sub> is committed to the proposition d'''

d''<sub>prop</sub>: 'the proposition d''' is part of the common ground of S<sub>1</sub> and S<sub>2</sub>'

d<sub>act</sub>: S<sub>1</sub> acts to make d' and d'' true, relevant for answer *right / wrong*

- ◆ The discourse referent d'' typically elicits some sort of reaction from the addressee, as the common ground is common between the interlocutors.
- ◆ Reactions *uh-huh* and *yes* assert a propositional discourse referent, where *uh-huh* is weaker, and typically will target d'': ASSERT(d'') and *yes* is stronger, and will target the more commitmental d''': ASSERT(d''')
- ◆ Reactions *uh-uh* and *no* assert the negation of a propositional discourse referent, but here the rejection to accept d'' (that d''' is part of the common ground) implies that S<sub>2</sub> has reasons to assume that d''' is false, hence ASSERT(¬d'') and ASSERT(¬d''') are pragmatically close.

Other kinds of response particles: *uh-huh* and *uh-uh*

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## 6 Experimental data on *ja* / *nein*

Joint work with Sophie Repp, Berry Claus, Marlijn Meier,  
DFG project on response particles, Priority program XPrag.de<sup>3</sup>

4 acceptability judgement experiments (here: only for assertion antecedents)

- ◆ particle + full-clause responses to positive assertions
- ◆ preference patterns for *ja/nein* in affirming / rejecting particle + full clause responses to negative assertions
- ◆ particle + full clause responses to rejecting assertions, including *doch*
- ◆ bare particle responses to affirming responses to negative assertions

<sup>3</sup> Meijer, Anna Marlijn; Claus, Berry; Repp, Sophie; Krifka, Manfred. 2015. Particle responses to negated assertions: Preference patterns for German *ja* und *nein*. In Brochhagen, Thomas; Roelofsen, Floris; Theiler, Nadine, *Proceedings of the 20th Amsterdam Colloquium*, 286-295. Amsterdam: ILLC / Dept. of Philosophy, University of Amsterdam.

Experimental data on *ja* / *nein*: Experimental data on *ja* / *nein*

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### 6.1 Experiment 1: positive antecedent

48 experimental items, 16 fillers, 48 subjects, 2x2x2 within subjects, rating 1-7

Context sentence: *Ludwig and Hildegard have their large garden redesigned.*

◆ Positive context: *They are talking about what the gardener has done already.*

◆ Negative context: *They are talking about what the gardener hasn't done yet.*

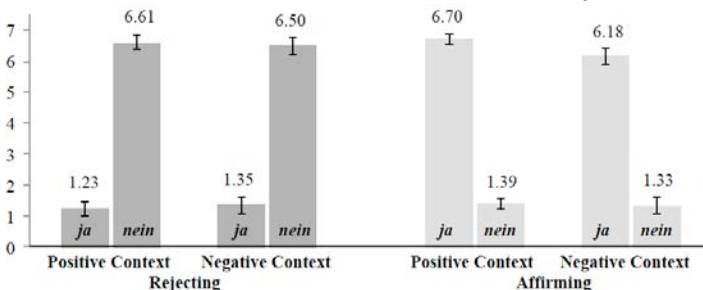
Ludwig: *The gardener has sown the lawn already.*

Hildegard: Affirming: *JA, he has sown the lawn already.*

*NEIN, he has sown the lawn already.*

Rejecting: *JA, he hasn't sown the lawn already.*

*NEIN, he hasn't sown the lawn already.*

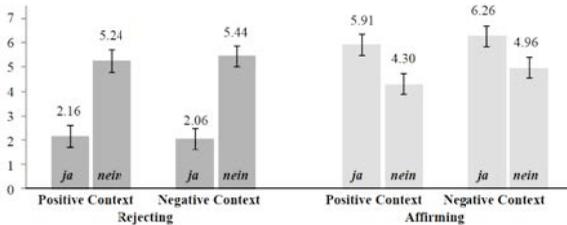


Experimental data on *ja* / *nein*: Experiment 1: positive antecedent

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## 6.2 Experiment 2: negative antecedent

Ludwig: *The gardener hasn't sown the lawn yet.*



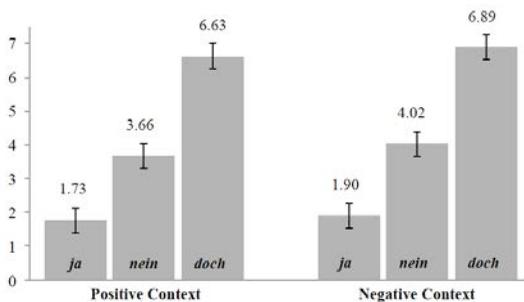
- ◆ No influence of context, against prediction by saliency account
- ◆ Preference for *nein* for rejecting responses (no *doch* provided) not predicted by feature model, predicted as default by saliency account (*NO, he has sown the lawn*; recall that *doch* was not offered as option)
- ◆ Slight preference for *ja* for affirming responses against default prediction of saliency and feature model, common knowledge (e.g., Wikipedia) (*JA > NEIN, he hasn't sown the lawn yet*).

Experimental data on ja / nein: Experiment 2: negative antecedent

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## 6.3 Experiment 3: negative antecedent, with *doch*

Results for rejecting answers:



- ◆ no influence of context, as before, contra saliency account
- ◆ *doch* clearly the best option, as expected
- ◆ *nein* better than *ja*, different from expectations of both accounts, as before

Experimental data on ja / nein: Experiment 3: negative antecedent, with doch

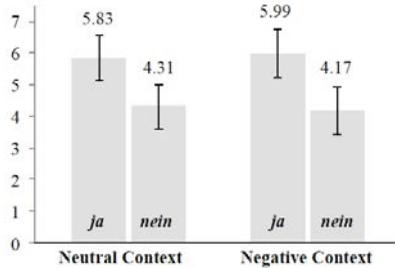
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### 6.4 Bare particle responses to negated antecedents

- ◆ Setting: *Ludwig and Hildegard have their large garden redesigned. This morning, Hildegard talked to the gardener, who told her that because of the weather he would sow the lawn only in a couple of days.*
- ◆ Context: Neutral: *During lunch, Hildegard and Ludwig are talking about the gardener and the redesigning of their garden.*  
 Negative: *During lunch, Hildegard and Ludwig are talking about what the gardener hasn't done yet.*
- ◆ Dialogue: Ludwig: *The gardener hasn't sown the lawn yet.*  
 Hildegard: *Ja. / Nein.*

Results, again:

- ◆ No influence of context
- ◆ Slight preference for *ja* for confirmation



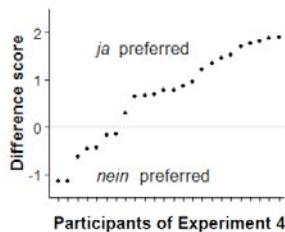
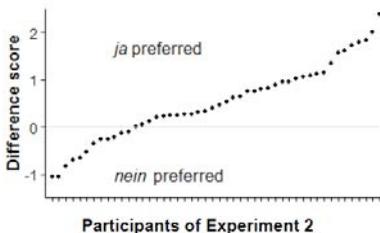
Experimental data on *ja* / *nein*: Bare particle responses to negated antecedents

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### 6.5 Group differences

Evidence for different behavior of participants

- ◆ Difference scores for each participant: Mean rating of *nein* – mean rating of *ja*
- ◆ z-value transformation



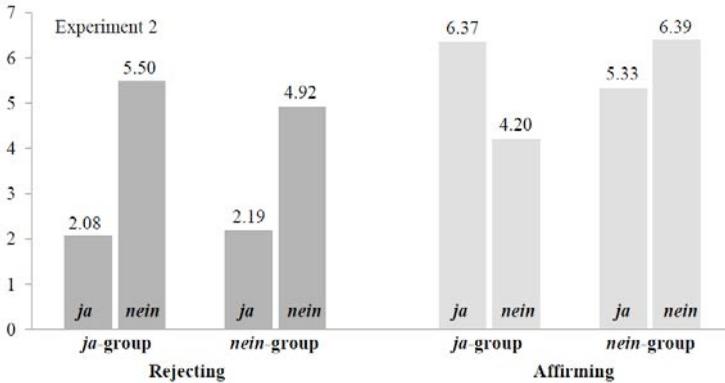
Two groups:

- ◆ *ja*-group (majority) prefers *ja* as affirming particle to negative antecedent
- ◆ *nein*-group (minority) prefers *nein* as affirming particle to negative antecedent
- ◆ But: Not a bimodal distribution – subjects are aware of two strategies

Experimental data on *ja* / *nein*: Group differences

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Acceptability judgements by groups, here: Experiment 2



Experimental data on ja / nein: Group differences

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6.6 Revised saliency account

For negated antecedents:

(69)  $[[[Bill \bar{p}_{DR} \text{ doesn't } p_{DR} \text{ smoke}]]] = \neg \text{smoke}(\text{bill})$

ja-group:

- ◆ The negated DR  $\bar{p}_{DR}$  is more salient
- ◆ Reason: It is introduced by the major constituent vs. a subconstituent cf. Gordon, Hendrick, Ledoux & Yang (1999)<sup>4</sup> on nominal anaphora: *Mary's aunt owns a lake house where she likes to go swimming.*
- ◆ Result: ja preferred for affirming responses, as it picks out  $\bar{p}_{DR}$

nein-group:

- ◆ No saliency differences between the two groups
- ◆ The use of ja is penalized, as the result is ambiguous (creates a tie) between  $p_{DR}$  and  $\bar{p}_{DR}$
- ◆ With nein, picking up  $\bar{p}_{DR}$  would result in a double negation:  $\neg \bar{p}_{DR}$ , to be avoided, hence nein picks up  $p_{DR}$  and negates it:  $\neg p_{DR}$
- ◆ doch can only pick up a negated DRs and negates it:  $\neg \bar{p}_{DR}$

<sup>4</sup> Gordon, Peter C. et al. 1999. Processing of Reference and the Structure of Language: An Analysis of Complex Noun Phrases. *Language and Cognitive Processes* 14: 353-379.

Experimental data on ja / nein: Revised saliency account

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Ja-group: Salient propDR = $\bar{p}_{DR}$								
	Particle	Targeted propDR	Meaning	*TIE	*NON SAL	*BLOCK	*DOUBLE NEG	
Positive antecedent (e.g., <i>Bill smokes</i> )	<i>ja</i>	$p_{DR}$	$p_{DR}$ = affirming					* $\bar{p}_{DR}$
	<i>nein</i>	$p_{DR}$	$\neg p_{DR}$ = rejecting					* $\bar{p}_{DR}$
Negative antecedent (e.g., <i>Bill doesn't smoke</i> )	<i>ja</i>	$p_{DR}$	$p_{DR}$ = rejecting		*			
		$\bar{p}_{DR}$	$\bar{p}_{DR}$ = affirming					* $\bar{p}_{DR}$
	<i>nein</i>	$p_{DR}$	$\neg p_{DR}$ = affirming		*			
		$\bar{p}_{DR}$	$\neg \bar{p}_{DR}$ = rejecting			*	*	
		<i>doch</i>	$\bar{p}_{DR}$	$\neg \bar{p}_{DR}$ = rejecting				*

Nein-group: Saliency ( $\bar{p}_{DR}$ ) = Saliency ( $p_{DR}$ )								
	Particle	Targeted propDR	Meaning	*TIE	*NON SAL	*BLOCK	*DOUBLE NEG	
Positive antecedent (e.g., <i>Bill smokes</i> )	<i>ja</i>	$p_{DR}$	$p_{DR}$ = affirming					* $\bar{p}_{DR}$
	<i>nein</i>	$p_{DR}$	$\neg p_{DR}$ = rejecting					* $\bar{p}_{DR}$
Negative antecedent (e.g., <i>Bill doesn't smoke</i> )	<i>ja</i>	$p_{DR}$	$p_{DR}$ = rejecting	*				
		$\bar{p}_{DR}$	$\bar{p}_{DR}$ = affirming	*				
	<i>nein</i>	$p_{DR}$	$\neg p_{DR}$ = affirming					* $\bar{p}_{DR}$
		$\bar{p}_{DR}$	$\neg \bar{p}_{DR}$ = rejecting			*	*	
		<i>doch</i>	$\bar{p}_{DR}$	$\neg \bar{p}_{DR}$ = rejecting				*

Experimental data on ja / nein: Revised saliency account

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## 6.7 No saliency differences

*ja*-group:

- ◆ Always picks up the propositional discourse referent that was asserted
- ◆ With negative antecedents, this is  $\bar{p}_{DR}$
- ◆ *doch* expresses negation of negated DR:  $\neg \bar{p}_{DR}$

*nein*-group:

- ◆ *ja/nein* always pick up the TP discourse referent of the antecedent
- ◆ With negative antecedents, this is  $p_{DR}$
- ◆ *nein* picks up  $p_{DR}$  and negates it:  $\neg p_{DR}$
- ◆ *doch* is like *ja* but requires presence of a negated propDR,  $\bar{p}_{DR}$   
picks up  $p_{DR}$  and affirms it:  $p_{DR}$

Experimental data on ja / nein: No saliency differences

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## 6.8 Question antecedents

Low negation questions:

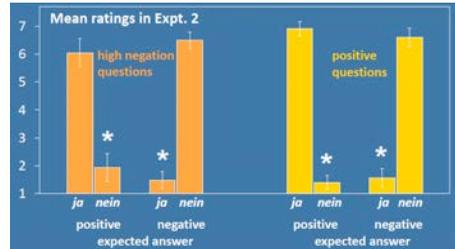
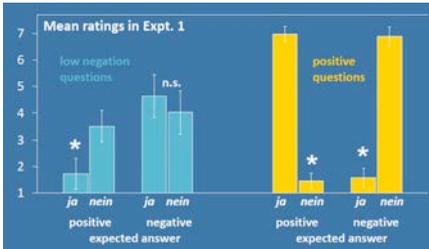
- ◆ Example: *Has the gardener not sown the lawn yet?*
- Two propositional discourse referents,  $\underline{\text{pDR}}$  and  $\overline{\text{pDR}}$

High negation question:

- ◆ Example: *Hasn't the gardener sown the lawn already?*
- High negation is not propositional, hence only one propDR:  $\underline{\text{pDR}}$

Two experiments:

- ◆ Low negation questions similar to negated assertions as antecedents
- ◆ High negation questions similar to non-negated assertions as antecedents



Experimental data on ja / nein: Question antecedents

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