The Emergence of Barriers to Wh-movement, Negative Concord, and Quantification

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2. Common Barriers

The three kinds of syntactic phenomena at first seem to suggest the same barrier effects in adult language as illustrated in the following examples, each case with a relative clause.

The sequence [DP [CP ... ]] blocks extraction for wh- in (1):

(1) a. you saw a horse that every child was riding
   b. *who did you see a horse that _ was riding => every child?

We cannot extract the subject by wh-movement out of a relative clause. Predictably we also cannot extract an adjunct from a relative clause:

(2) Why did he help dp (the boy that sneezed?)

It is not possible to get the reading why-sneezed which would involve extraction from a relative. Only the short-distance why-helped occurs.

In (3) likewise the quantifier would have to move outside the relative to receive wide scope so that the quantifier (every child) is higher and co-commands the indefinite (a horse) in the traditional representation of Logical Form (LF):

(3) there is a horse that every child is on

[DP a horse [CP that every child is on]
\begin{equation}
\text{LF: (every child, a horse)}
\end{equation}

= every child on a different horse

b) [a horse, every child]

= one horse that carries every child.

However we find that reading (3a) is blocked, allowing only wide scope for the indefinite at LF which delivers the one horse meaning.

In (4) likewise the Negative Concord in AAE works inside a single clause:

(4) a. He don't want no hotdog
   b. He don't want a hotdog

However, with a relative clause the second negation is real and does not invoke Concord, since the barrier blocks the formation of a Concord chain. We get the reading:

(5) He don't want a hotdog that has no mustard

n't + no = positive
= doesn't want a hotdog that has no mustard
= he wants a hotdog that has mustard

The negative in the relative clause remains negative, creating what we call the true negative where one negative cancels the other. If it got a Concord reading the second negative would be a copy of the first and have no impact. Therefore, the incorrect Concord reading would be:

(6) He doesn't want a hotdog that has no mustard.
    a = he doesn't want a hotdog that has mustard.

So, if asked about (6), does a child think he wants a hotdog without mustard or with mustard? A little concentration makes the distinction clear, but it is interesting that even researchers find double negation difficult to contemplate clearly, and yet in context, with automatic processing, we have no difficulty with Negative Concord and not much difficulty with true negatives.

Whatever form of binding allowed Negative Concord to occur is blocked by the relative clause. In sum, all three structures (wh-, QR, and Neg Con) show blocking by relative clauses. A common empirical effect suggests a common principle. If Negative Concord in fact involves movement, then the barrier effect is predicted. Richards (personal communication) has argued that the binding involves Feature-Attract, just like wh-movement, where a lower [+Neg] moves to a higher position. If we understand movement as Copy+Delete, then a variant would involve just Copy. Thus we take the sentence:

(7) a. He doesn't have a hat = he has no hat
    He [-s] have no hat
    [Neg] < --[+Neg]
    do-insertion: he do+es not have no hat => clitic => he doesn't
    b. he don't got no hat
    [Neg] < == trace-copy

In AAE, a copy is left behind, producing (7b). Thus, although the term Concord itself implies an Agreement phenomenon, the notion of Feature-Attract builds a theoretical bridge to Agreement and therefore introduces the possibility that Concord can be regarded as movement. It now follows that Concord will be blocked by the same barrier as wh- shown above.

(8) This boy don't want the hotdog [that got no mustard]

3. NOT does not work.

Strong empirical divergence suggests that the NOT already fails at the

intuitional level. Quantification and Wh-barriers are not the same. With ordinary verb complements, wh-extraction is allowed, but not QR:

(9) WH: Why did the girl say [t that she left? ]
    QR: A girl said [that every elephant was big]
        i.e. no reading with multiple girls.

QR cannot escape any clause, whereas wh-extraction can move over an unlimited number.

Fox (2000) offers a semantic, interpretive restriction, the Scope-Shifting Principle, which directly captures this restriction

(10) Scope-shifting rules cannot be semantically vacuous

which he articulates as follows:

"Suppose that each step in successive cyclic movement has to be motivated. In the case of wh-movement, each step must be motivated by feature-checking. In the case of QR, each step must be motivated by a shift in semantic interpretation".

(Fox, 2000)

This means that an interpretation must be possible at every point in a derivation, including the intermediate trace position:

(11) A boy said that every man was here
    LF: [every man], a boy said t, that t(every man), was here

The intermediate t, changes no interpretation, since the indefinite is still outside the scope of "every". Therefore the derivation is blocked.

Now we can ask about NegCon: is it like quantification, namely subject to interpretive requirements on successive cyclic movement or is it like Wh-movement, subject to Feature-checking constraints on successive cyclic movement? It appears to be like wh-movement, since negative concord does operate across a clause:

(12) That boy don't think [he done nothing wrong]

This then supports the suggestion by Richards that leftward Feature-Attract is the best way to formulate Negative Concord.

Our theory, as it stands, does not explain why relative clauses should be barriers. Although a number of formulations are possible, one natural way that is compatible with the history of English is to argue that there is a
hidden wh-expression in the Spec of CP blocking any other occupant:

(13) The thing [which] that I bought

If we assume all operators move through Spec CP, then this blocks Neg-movement and could block QR, in addition to the scope-shifting principle.

4. Acquisition Evidence for Complex NP Barriers

De Villiers, Roeppe, & Vainikka (1991) showed that children obey barriers for wh-movement at an early age: 3-4 year old children do not license wh-sequences inside relative clauses (De Villiers & Roeppe, 1995). However, young children do not obey barriers for quantifiers (Roeppe & de Villiers, 1994). They readily allow every to move at LF from inside a relative clause even at age 6, perhaps later. In sum, previous evidence indicates that children show barriers to overt syntactic movement (wh) before barriers to invisible movement at the level of LF (quantifiers). This invites a general view that constraints on Logical Form—interpretive constraints—appear at a later point in the acquisition sequence (see Roeppe and De Villiers, 1991). This claim can in turn be considered a general case of ordered parameters, which figures prominently in learnability theory.

Now we can ask from an acquisition perspective: Is negative concord like wh-extraction or is it like quantifier-extraction? Coles (1998) studied 4-6 year old children’s responses to one barrier to negative concord interpretation in NP and VP prepositional phrases. PP inside NP is also traditionally seen as DP barriers [DP [NP [PP]]], while VP-PP’s have no barrier and therefore should be open to NegCon.

(14) a. He caught a dog, but he didn’t catch a dog with a tail.
   = he caught a dog with a tail
   i.e. he caught a dog, but not with a net (perhaps with a cage).

Six-year-old AAE speakers were sensitive to the complex NP barrier, giving different responses to the two types of prepositional phrase. This correlates with Otsu’s (1981) demonstration that children were sensitive to wh-extraction in the same construction.

However, the children still permitted 30% of answers that allowed negative concord across the complex NP, e.g. they said the man caught a dog with a tail. Although it is possible that picture-choice confused them, we decided to contrast all three structures with a clearer barrier, relative clauses.

4.1 Subjects and methods:

Twenty-one AAE speaking children ages 62-99 months, were read short stories or story-like items featuring target sentences with different types of operators (e.g., negative, wh-word, quantifier) and different relative clause types, e.g., “weak” (subject relative) the hotdog that has mustard, and “strong” (object relative, the present that the baby opened.

Pretests guaranteed that children understood each construction in a simple clause:

A) Universal every distributed over existential
   Every boy has a hat
B) Negative concord
   Which dog don’t have no collar?
C) Why questions that involve inference from story/picture.
   Why ain’t he eatin’ corn?

We also used special procedures to avoid interference in picture choice, direct manipulation of toys to conform to the reading of an in quantifier sentences, and asking “why” as a way to show comprehension of NegCon. We provide one picture to give the flavor of the task.

4.2 Quantifier barrier example

(15) a. There is a basket that got every egg. Show me.
   Barrier violation= every basket gets an egg

4.3 Negative Concord barrier example

(16) This boy don’t want the ice cream that got no nuts. Why?
    Correct reading: "because he loves nuts"
    Barrier violation "because he hates nuts"= NegCon reading
    (cf: he don’t want no nuts)

4.4 Why-question barrier example

(17) The two brothers went swimming. This boy caught a cold from swimming in the cold water. He went to buy some juice because
his throat was sore.
a. Why did the boy that had a cold buy the juice?
   Correct answer: "because his throat was sore"
   Barrier violation: "because he went swimming in cold water"
   = answer to "why did he have a cold?"

4.5 Results

Do children treat the different types of Operator (negation, wh-question
and quantifier) differently with the barrier?

a. A 3 x 2 ANOVA was performed with operator type (quantifier, negative,
and wh question) as one factor and relative clause clause type (weak
versus strong) as the second. Both operator type and relative clause type
were highly significant.

![Barrier violations by Operator and Barrier type]

**Figure 1.**

b. Kendall's coefficient => highly significant ranking, with most barrier
violations for quantifiers. (See Figure 1.)

   questions < negative concord < quantifiers

c. Age was only weakly significant overall.

   Is there any relation between a given child’s propensity to violate the
   barriers with one operator compared to another?

d. No correlation was found: each Operator behaved differently.

5. Discussion

Our results strongly support a broad claim:

(18) Overt movement is recognized before covert movement.

That is, barriers block visible overt movement in wh-questions by many
children who do not block invisible overt movement for quantifiers. This
result patterns naturally with extensive arguments to the effect that quantifiers
are not initially analyzed as a part of DP’s and therefore function as adverbial
modifiers that range over a full sentence.

Now a more difficult question arises: Why is NegCon between visible
Wh and invisible QR? We have argued that NegCon should be assimilated
to wh-movement, which then predicts that it should pattern with wh-
movement.

We propose that the delay is due to the fact that movement is
incomplete, producing partial visibility. With NegCon, if leftward
movement is involved, utilizing Copy and Delete, then the presence of two
negation markers indicates that no deletion of the original negative *(no)* has
occurred.

Why, exactly, should double marking be problematic for the child?
Note that, without deletion, the sentences remain ambiguous between
NegCon and a true Negative reading. The child must consult context before
the sentence can be disambiguated and a choice between NegCon and True
Negatives can be made. Only when stimulated by seeing how meaning
matches context is a movement analysis forced and the Negative chain path
becomes explicit. Confirmation from context is not required for wh-
movement. In contrast, invisible QR never has an explicit landing site.

Other language particular analyses are prerequisite and may therefore
intervene preventing an instant recognition of the barrier effect. Suppose the
child does not know that "n't" is a clitic contraction from a NegP functional
head which causes Feature-checking to occur. It is arguable that not all
languages have Neg as a functional category. Until the child receives
evidence that there is a NegP functional category, the Negative operates as an
adverb which does not engage in Feature-checking. This is precisely the
conclusion that Abdul-karim (2001) arrived at to explain why in her
examination of relativized minimalism and barriers, the clitic *n’t* proved a
stronger barrier than *not*. She argued that the child assimilated *not* to the
class of negative adverbials which did not have the power to invoke a
Negation chain. Until that time they could treat negation as a global
adverbial operator much like the spreading effects with *every*, therefore not
subject to barriers (Roeper and deVilliers, 1991; Philip, 1995). This would
produce an interesting extension of evidence about quantifier errors, but a full
treatment of the issue is beyond the scope of this paper. (See Crain
and Thornton (1999), Drozd (in press ) and references therein).
6. Conclusions

1) The acquisition data provides striking arguments against the NOT: there is no unity of barrier effects. That QR meets different constraints than feature-checking is shown by its late obedience to barriers.

2) It also supports the general claim that LF phenomena which involve interpretive principles are delayed.

3) It provides novel support for an analysis of Negative Concord as a movement motivated by Feature-Attraction.

This in turn reveals how dialects may obey fundamental principles of grammar in a unique fashion, showing that Copy without Delete is also subject to barriers.

New fundamental questions about acquisition also arise in this context. What causes LF phenomena to be late? A number of intriguing hypotheses are possible. First one might argue that these principles involve an interaction with the cognitive interface. Second, LF and its interface connections might be subject to maturation. Beyond such a claim lies a potential learnability claim: the ordering of LF parameters after prior syntactic decisions may facilitate acquisition. These questions require a much more extensive articulation of acquisition evidence—which should form a significant part of the acquisition research agenda.

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