DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Towards a New Pedagogical Approach to Some and Any Based on Large-Scale Corpus Analysis

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Towards a New Pedagogical Approach to *Some* and *Any* Based on Large-Scale Corpus Analysis

Thesis presented to the Graduate School of Coventry University in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Linguistics

By

Chris Turner

September 3rd, 2020

Certificate of Ethical Approval

Applicant:

Christopher Turner

Project Title:

Corpus Research and Materials Writing for "Some" and "Any".

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Section 4
Supervisory Declaration

Page 4 Acknowledgements

I would like to thank above all my wife Teresa and my daughter Lucía for their love and encouragement and for keeping me sane even during moments of crisis. I will make it up to both of you, “con creces”, as we say in Spanish.

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Abstract

This thesis lays the foundations for a new pedagogical approach to *some* and *any*, an area of language that poses substantial difficulties for learners. It describes research with the Oxford English Corpus and the Cambridge Learner Corpus which provides the basis for a provisional new pedagogical description of this complex language area.

The research with the Oxford English Corpus reveals that the descriptions provided in grammar books are unsatisfactory, as they give a distorted account of the *some-any* distinction in negative clauses and after implicit negatives, pay scant attention to the use of *any* in affirmative clauses and provide insufficient information on the pragmatic and semantic factors governing the choice between *some* and *any* in interrogative and conditional clauses. The research with the Cambridge Learner Corpus reveals that learners of all levels and many L1 backgrounds have difficulty with all the main uses of *some* and *any* that are poorly explained in grammar books, particularly those involving negative and conditional clauses and the use of *any* in affirmative clauses. Data from the learner corpus is interpreted in the light of the findings from the reference corpus in order to identify possible causes of learner errors with *some* and *any*.

The thesis then explains the changes to the pedagogical grammar descriptions of *some* and *any* which will need to be introduced as a result of the corpus research, accounts for decisions regarding which aspects of *some* and *any* to explain at different proficiency levels and presents a rationale, illustrated by sample explanations, of how to explain new or modified aspects of the description. It then provides a brief discussion of other aspects of the new pedagogical approach such as which methodologies are appropriate for teaching *some* and *any* and how to train teachers in this area of language.

The final chapter examines the need for further research into *some* and *any* and discusses the possibility of using the research methods employed in this study to improve the description of other complex areas of language. The main conclusion from this study is that there is no place in language teaching for fundamentally incomplete or inaccurate descriptions of the kind often provided for *some* and *any*.

List of Tables

List of Screenshots

Chapter 1: Introduction

This thesis lays the foundations for a new pedagogical approach to *some* and *any*, based on reference corpus and learner corpus research. The purpose of the introduction is to outline the aims of this project, provide the reasons for making *some* and *any* the focus of this study and explain the structure and organization of the thesis.

1.1 Aims of the Project

The overarching goal of this project is to lay the foundations for a new pedagogical approach to *some* and *any* that aims to improve learners' understanding of the use of the two words and to enable them to use them more accurately. The subgoals leading to this overall objective are three-fold:

1) To detect possible gaps and inaccuracies in existing accounts of *some* and *any* by comparing grammar book descriptions of these items with actual usage in a reference corpus.

2 a) To discover, via learner corpus research, the main errors which learners of different levels and mother tongues make with *some* and *any.*

b) To identify possible causes for learner errors with these items by interpreting the learner corpus data in the light of the findings from the reference corpus.

3 a) To produce a new pedagogical description of *some* and *any* for learners of different levels, based on the findings from the two corpora and on the identification of possible causes of error.

b) To offer some preliminary reflections on how these items might be taught in the classroom.

1.2 Why Research *Some* and *Any*?

As a language teacher I have long been interested in how to explain and teach complex areas of grammar and lexis and concerned about the divergence that sometimes exists between learner-oriented descriptions of language use and actual usage. For this reason, I decided to carry out corpus research into an important and difficult area of language, with a view to testing and improving existing descriptions of the area. *Some* and *any* appeared to be a suitable choice for such research for two reasons. Firstly, this is an important area of the English language that poses problems for learners of all levels. Secondly, the standard description of *some* and *any* in learner materials has been a controversial subject for decades. Both reasons are expanded upon below.

There are both quantitative and qualitative grounds for claiming that the choice between *some* and *any* is important. From a quantitative perspective, both words are significant, as they are highly frequent items and are regularly required in all text types. According to the Oxford English Corpus, *some* is the 66th most common word in the English language and occurs 1,486 times per million words, while *any* is the 95th most frequent and appears 926 times per million words. From a qualitative viewpoint, the choice between the two words is of great relevance for learners, as it can affect communication. Both words have distinct but not always easily understood semantic meanings and can generate subtly different pragmatic construals in context. Example 1 below illustrates how the wrong choice between *some* and *any* can cause confusion because of their different semantic meanings, while example 2 shows a subtler pragmatic distinction.

1. “He [the author] does not address *some/any* important issues”

2. “I'll let you know if I have *some/ any* trouble”

With *some*, (1) means that there are certain important issues that the author fails to address. With *any*, it means that the author does not address a single important issue. With *some*, (2) could convey the impression that the speaker anticipates trouble; with *any*, it suggests that the speaker does not expect problems or that (s)he has no particular expectation either way. It is certainly appropriate in some contexts to suggest, via *some*, that you expect “trouble” to occur. However, there are many more cases in which such a suggestion would be pragmatically infelicitous regardless of the speaker's actual expectations.

Stack Exchange[1], *Word Reference*[2] and other websites that cover language-related topics provide ample anecdotal evidence that learners have difficulties with the *some-any* distinction. There are queries concerning the use of these items in a number of grammatical environments, including negative clauses, clauses containing implicit negatives, conditional clauses, affirmative clauses, and questions. Both the nature of the queries and the standard of English used in them indicate that the doubts are by no means restricted to lower level learners. In particular, higher level learners make a number of queries about subtle, pragmatic distinctions between *some* and *any*. Several queries suggest a dissatisfaction with current pedagogical grammar descriptions of *some* and *any*, as they refer to discrepancies between the rules that learners have been given and the actual usage that they encounter.

Learners are not alone in questioning the validity of the rules that they have been given about *some* and *any*. Standard grammar book descriptions of this area have been brought into question by Close (1977), De Cassia (1982), Lewis (1995), Lewis and Hill (1992), Tesch (1990), Willis (1990), Gethin (2011) and Breyer (2011), among others.

De Cassia's error analysis study draws attention to the possible influence of inaccurate grammar book descriptions of *some* and *any* on learners’ misuse of the two words. She found that learners tend to underuse *any* in affirmative clauses, conditionals, and after implicit negatives, and *some* in questions and negatives. De Cassia attributes the first tendency to an overgeneralization of the *some for affirmatives* rule taught to beginners and elementary level students, and the second to the overgeneralization of the rule that *any* is required in questions and negatives. Tesch and Willis both criticize the scant attention given to *any* in affirmative clauses in grammar book descriptions, on the grounds that corpus data shows this to be a highly frequent use.

Lewis and Gethin both criticize the use of clause type distribution rather than lexical meaning as the primary means of distinguishing between *some* and *any*. While their differentiation between *some* and *any* on the basis of lexical meaning almost certainly provides a more reliable means of choosing between the two words than the standard clause-type distribution approach, it is over-simplistic for two main reasons. Firstly, it fails to give due importance to pragmatic factors, such as speaker expectations, which, as will be seen in Chapter Three, are covered to a limited extent in many grammar books and in some detail in a few, especially Quirk et al (1985) and Huddleston and Pullum (2002). Secondly, it fails to recognize that, despite the commonality of the central meanings associated with both words, the factors determining the choice between *some* and *any* vary to some extent across clause types.

The answers which teachers provide to queries on *some* and *any* in websites such as *Stack Exchange* and *Word Reference* suggest that teachers as well as learners may benefit from a new analysis of the

[1] https://english.stackexchange.com/

[2] https://www.wordreference.com/

area. While some answers show quite a sophisticated understanding of the pragmatic and semantic factors involved in the *some-any* distinction, many others reveal an insufficient understanding and point to a tendency to assume that the highly simplified descriptions of *some* and *any* provided in grammar books are useful for learners. The answers provided below exemplify the type of answers that teachers often provide on such websites.

Query

Do you need some or any help?

Hi,

I heard peole (sic) saying do you need any help? but i thought the correct way of saying is was do you need some help? Which one is correct?

Thank you,

Answers

1) Anon. (US)

"Any" in this case is the same as "some". They can both mean "an unspecified qauntity(sic) or amount" in this context.

2) Anon. (England)

Yes - in saying them to myself I can't detect any real difference in nuance.

The first respondent correctly identifies the semantic meaning of *some* and *any* in this context, but ignores the different pragmatic meanings that can be conveyed by *some* and *any*. The second respondent is unaware that *some* can suggest that the speaker thinks the interlocutor will need some help. It is true that the speaker's expectations might be of little import in some contexts, but in other cases the assumption that the other person needs help could be taken as an intromission, or as an incorrect assumption that the speaker is unable to do whatever he/she is doing without help.

Breyer (2011) discusses a study that tried to make teacher trainees aware of the shortcomings of the standard pedagogical description of *any* by comparing a set of concordance lines taken from EFL textbook dialogues with a random sample of concordance lines from the Australian English corpus. After examining the concordances, the trainees discussed how to teach *some* and *any* and then wrote an essay on the subject. The views expressed reveal some discrepancy about the extent to which simplification is justified when teaching complex areas of grammar. While the trainees agreed that the rules given to learners were not an accurate representation of actual use, some were in favour of providing a simplified rule for lower levels; indeed, a few even advocated maintaining the current rule for elementary level, e.g. "It could be the easiest and maybe best way to teach pupils that *some* has to be placed with statements and *any* with negative clauses and questions.". However, other trainees questioned the value of using manifestly inaccurate rules of this type with learners at any level, e.g. "I am astonished at such a misleading and confusing attempt to make learning easier for EFL students."

In conclusion, while Breyer's study clearly shows the value of raising teachers' awareness of complex areas of grammar and of encouraging a critical approach to description in language materials, it also shows the resistance that teachers and grammarians who challenge established views of language are likely to encounter.

It is unlikely that my study will convince all stakeholders of the need to change the current pedagogical description of *some* and *any*. Some learners, teachers, materials writers and EFL publishing professionals may cling to the standard view of this area of language in the belief that such highly simplified rules are beneficial, at least at beginner's level, as they provide learners with an easy, probabilistic, way of choosing the right form on the majority of occasions. However, the study may help to persuade others that while some simplification is undoubtedly necessary, long-term acquisition of *some* and *any*, or indeed any other area of language, is better promoted by providing learners from the outset with an essentially correct rule, which is then gradually refined and expanded.

Section 1.3 Structure and Organization of Thesis

1.3.1 Chapter 2: The Literature Review

This chapter examines two main areas: theoretical descriptions of *some* and *any* and previous large-scale corpus-based approaches to this area. The critique of theoretical descriptions discusses analyses of *some* and *any* from the perspectives of generative grammar and, above all, logical semantics, which have dominated theoretical explanations of this area of grammar for several decades, and explains the extent to which these positions have influenced my own approach to researching and describing these items. The review of previous corpus studies focuses primarily on Sahlin's (1979) research into the use of *some* and *any* in spoken and written English but also alludes briefly to Tesch's (1990) comparison of actual usage of *some* and *any* with the descriptions offered in German EFL textbooks.

1.3.2 Chapter 3: A Review of Current Grammar Books

This chapter provides a critical examination of the descriptions of *some* and *any* offered in grammar books, which both highlights differences in the descriptions offered and reveals an overall consensus position that is common to all the grammar books under review. After a brief explanation of the selection criteria used to determine which grammar books to include in this analysis, it points forward to the research study by revealing a number of possible shortcomings in the descriptions offered, including the following: a tendency to use clause type rather than meaning as the main means of distinguishing between *some* and *any*; an over-restrictive view on the use of *some* in negative and implicitly negative clauses and a lack of attention to the uses of *any* in affirmative clauses; an incomplete view of the choice between *some* and *any* in conditional clauses and questions.

1.3.3 Chapter 4: Methodology

After presenting and discussing the research questions employed in this study, the chapter provides a brief rationale for selecting the two databases used in the research, the Oxford English Corpus to analyse proficient speaker use of *some* and *any* and the Cambridge Learner Corpus to analyse learner errors with these items. The main part of the chapter then describes in detail the search methods employed with the two corpora, explaining some methodological problems that arose during the research and how these were addressed.

1.3.4 Chapter 5: Research Results and Discussion

This chapter presents and analyses the results relating to each of the research questions listed and explained at the beginning of Chapter Four. The analysis of the results from the questions relating to the reference corpus research reveals gaps and inaccuracies in key aspects of grammar book descriptions of *some* and *any* and offers some findings that may be of interest to linguists studying the *some-any* distinction or related areas. The analysis of the results from the research question related to the learner corpus reveals the main areas of difficulty that learners have with the *some-any* distinction and suggests some possible causes for these difficulties.

1.3.5 Chapter 6: Pedagogical Implications

Chapter 6 begins with a summary of the main findings from the learner corpus and the reference corpus which form the basis of the new pedagogical description of *some* and *any* presented in this thesis. It then draws on the research to explain why these findings need to be included in the new pedagogical description and to justify the decisions taken regarding the level at which to teach different aspects of the *some-any* distinction. It next explains the descriptive approach adopted with new or modified aspects of the pedagogical description and illustrates this with sample grammatical explanations. Finally, it examines more briefly the teaching methods that can be employed to teach *some* and *any* in the classroom and how to train teachers in this area of language.

1.3.6 Chapter 7: Thesis Conclusion

The concluding chapter begins by reviewing what has been achieved in this study and discussing some methodological limitations of the research. It then highlights areas of the *some-any* distinction which require further research, proposes other poorly explained areas of language to which the combined reference corpus and learner corpus research methodology used in this study could be applied and predicts ways in which this methodology could develop in the future.

The main conclusion to be drawn from this project is that sacrificing long-term understanding on the altar of pedagogical expediency will not help learners: they are always better served by accurate descriptions that take some time to process and by teaching methods that adopt a long-term approach to language instruction.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The primary aim of this chapter is to provide readers with an understanding of the main aspects of previous theoretical and research based literature on *some* and *any*. It will tie in to some extent with Chapter 3 by introducing themes that recur in grammar book descriptions, such as the association of *some* with positive polarity contexts and *any* with negative ones, and the arguments provided on the possibilities of using *some* inside the scope of negation. However, there are also many arguments offered in the theoretical literature in this chapter that will not reappear in the thesis as they have not fed in to grammar book descriptions and are not examined in my research.

The chapter does not aim to establish direct links with my research on *some* and *any* as the latter is largely based on an investigation of aspects of grammar book descriptions of this area. Indeed, the two aspects of previous theory that are covered in the corpus research because they have a bearing on pedagogical grammar descriptions have been incorporated into Chapter 3: absence state and removal predicates (Jo and Lee 2002) in section 3.8 and the use of *any* in veridical contexts (Duffley and Larrivée 2015) in section 3.14.

Sections 2.2 to 2.5 provide an overview of the large body of theoretical literature on the uses of *some* and *any*. Sections 2.2-2.3 review early approaches which establish the treatment of both words as polarity items. Sections 2.4-2.5 examine subsequent descriptions from the fields of generative grammar and, above all, logical semantics. To ensure that the reader can distinguish my own views from those of the authors reviewed, separate, alternate summary and critique sections are provided for each area covered in the theory review; for example, section 2.2 summarizes early approaches to *some* and *any* while section 2.3 critiques them. Section 2.6 focuses on previous large-scale corpus-based analyses of *some* and *any,* with particular reference to Sahlin (1979), and integrates review and critique within the same section.

2.2 Description of Early Accounts of *Some* and *Any* as Polarity Items: from Klima to Baker

2.2.1 Klima's Account

It has long been held that *some* has a strong association with assertive clauses and *any* with non-assertive ones (Jespersen 1933). However, linguistic theory paid little attention to these distributional tendencies until Klima's (1964) article, which postulated a transformational rule called NEG incorporation that changed *some* into *any* in "affective contexts", i.e., negative clauses and other non -assertive clause types. Although Klima does not use the term *polarity item*, his article marked the beginning of the examination of negative and positive polarity items in theoretical linguistics.

A number of aspects of his description were soon challenged by other grammarians. Lakoff (1969) contends that both *some* and *any* are possible in questions and conditionals and that the choice is determined by the speaker's assumptions or attitudes: questions and conditionals with *some* convey positive assumptions or attitudes and are used in speech functions such as invitations, while those with *any* express negative or neutral ones and are used in functions such as threats. Lakoff argues that *any* is a separate lexical item to *some* rather than a transformational derivation of the former. Jackendoff (1972) extends this argument, stating that all negative polarity items are independent lexical items rather than transformational derivations of their positive polarity partner.

2.2.2 Baker

Baker's (1970) article, which introduces the term polarity items, is influential for two reasons: firstly both his definition of polarity items and his position on their occurrence inside and outside the scope of negation are still regarded as valid today; secondly, his discussion of entailment as a means of distinguishing between the use of positive polarity items such as *some* and negative polarity items such as *any* in multiple negation marks the beginning of the logical semantic approach to this area of language.

Baker notes that a few lexical items are 'polarity-sensitive' i.e., "they may occur only in affirmative, or only in negative sentences" (Baker 1970:169). He defines the former as "affirmative polarity items", a term that has since been replaced by "positive polarity items", and the latter as "negative polarity items."

Baker begins by listing some examples of positive polarity items, e.g. a*lready*, w*ould rather* and *just as well* and negative polarity ones, e.g. *much*, *ever* and *be all that.* Although this introduction does not focus on the *some-any* distinction, it is relevant to the discussion because his restrictive position regarding the possibilities of using positive polarity items in non-affirmative contexts and negative ones in affirmative environments is reflected in the position that he adopts towards *some* and *any*. He argues that positive polarity items are only possible after the negator in a metalinguistic use involving an emphatic denial of previous discourse. For example, "the Sox haven't already clinched the pennant" would be correct as a denial of the statement "the Sox have already clinched the pennant". Moreover, he provides no examples whatsoever of negative polarity items in affirmative clauses, suggesting that *any* is not possible in this grammatical environment.

He then turns his attention to *some* and *any:* "there are words such as *some* which may occur in both positive and negative clauses, but in such a way that the addition of *not* in the verb phrase of an affirmative sentence does not result in a sentence whose reading is the logical negation of the original". (Baker 1970:170-171). He illustrates this via the following examples in which the logical negation of (1) is not (2) but (3):

(1) George ate some of that pie
(2) George didn't eat some of that pie
(3) George didn't eat any of that pie.

He next attempts to account for the occurrence of positive and negative polarity items, including *some* and *any,* inside what he terms "double negative" patterns, that is, subordinate negative clauses that are embedded inside negative matrix clauses such as "you can never convince me that "or "there isn't anyone who". The usual term for such patterns today is "multiple negative" rather than "double negative".

Baker notes that the interpretation of *some* inside such patterns is different from its interpretation inside a single negative clause. Thus, (4), with *some*, expresses essentially the same idea as (5) with *any* while, as was seen above, they have different meanings inside a single clause pattern.

(4) You'll never convince me that George didn't eat some of that pie.
(5) You'll never convince me that George didn't eat any of that pie.

To account for this difference, Baker puts forward two rules, the first of which is based on transformational grammar, the second on semantic entailment. The first rule accounts for *some* and *any* inside single clause negation via the operation of a transformative "polarity reversal" rule, based on Klima, which converts positive polarity items (e.g. *some)* into negative polarity items (e.g. *any)* inside negative scope. Baker states that this rule accounts for negative polarity items such as *any* in multiple negative patterns, but does not explain the use of positive polarity items such as *some* inside

such patterns. Thus, both *some* in (4) and *any* in (5) are inside the scope of negation. However, *any* is licensed according to this rule while *some* is not.

The second rule accounts for sentences like (4) via semantic entailment. According to this argument, positive entailment renders *some* felicitous in multiple negative patterns by lifting it out of negative scope. Thus, although Baker himself employs other examples at this point, (4) is rendered felicitous by the entailment in (6).

(6) I am convinced that George ate some of that pie.

2.3 Critique of Early Accounts of *Some* and *Any* as Polarity Items

Klima's approach to what are now called negative and positive polarity items was strongly influenced by transformational grammar, the predominant linguistic theory at the time. Despite the criticisms which his paper received and the resulting development in the approach to *some* and *any* and other polarity items, much of what Klima claims is still held by theorists from different schools today and is reflected in the approach to these items in learner materials. For example, many theorists and materials writers cling to the view that *any* is a suppletive variant of *some* and that both words require special licensing conditions to be used outside their prescribed clause types.

The persistence of such views regarding the *some-any* distinction may stem partly from the fact that most of the work on this area is based on invented or cherry-picked examples rather than on thorough corpus analysis. The continued tendency to treat *some* and *any* in this way in learner materials may come both from the influence of linguistic theory, especially in the case of advanced, university level grammar books, and from the maximization of descriptive simplicity at the expense of accuracy.

Baker maintains an over-restrictive view of the environments in which both positive and negative polarity items can be used. There are many examples which show that positive polarity items can occur in non-assertive clauses and negative polarity items in assertive ones: for example, *have already* and *would rather* both occur in negative questions, while *much* and *ever* occur in affirmative clauses.

With the exception of his discussion of multiple negatives, Baker's argument on the use of *some* inside and outside the scope of negation is an example of how logic-based explanations can clash with natural language. As Jacobsson (2002) points out, *some* appears outside negative scope in the logical notation of “George didn't eat some of that pie”, but in natural language it is clearly within it, as the sentence is focusing on the uneaten part of the pie. The scope of negation is revisited in sections 3.5 and 3.6, owing to the role that this concept plays in grammar book descriptions of *some* in negative clauses.

With regard to multiple negative patterns, Baker’s argument that *some* is outside the semantic scope of negation in examples such as (4) is correct, as the negative in the clause containing *some* is cancelled by the negative in the higher clause. However, leaving aside issues relating to the accuracy of Baker’s entailment rule raised in Tovena (2001) and Van der Wouden (1994), what is missing from Baker's description of multiple negatives is an analysis of possible differences in the meaning or use of *some* and *any* in such patterns.

2.4 Description of Subsequent Approaches to *Some* and *Any* in Generative Grammar and Logical Semantics

Baker's paper marks the beginning of a general move from a transformational or generative grammar approach to *some* and *any* to a logical semantics approach. All major approaches to *some, any* and

other polarity items are now largely semantic in orientation except for Progovac (1994), who offers an approach based on government and binding theory, Chierchia (2013), who combines scalarity with universal grammar, and Linebarger (1980, 1987), who merges transformational grammar with a semantic/pragmatic approach. Progovac and Chierchia's theories are not discussed further owing to a lack of space, while Linebarger's approach is briefly described in section 2.4.2.

2.4.1 Scalar Approaches to the Meaning and Use of Any

Ladusaw (1979) offers an explanation for negative polarity items, including *any*, that draws on both the connections between entailment conditions and negativity introduced by Baker (1970), and on Fauconnier's (1975) pragmatic scales. Ladusaw argues that negative polarity items are licensed in downward entailing environments, that is, contexts which support an inference from a set to a subset.

Lee and Horn's (1994) scalar theory attempts to show that negative polarity and free choice senses of *any* stem from the same core meaning. They argue that both senses evoke the lower point of a scale, as *any* contains the meaning of *even* as part of its semantic content: free choice *any* refers to a qualitative scale and means "even + superlative", while negative polarity *any* evokes a quantitative scale and means "even a bit" with uncountable nouns or "even a single" with countable ones; thus, they claim that "any puppy is cute" means "even the smallest puppy is cute", while "There isn't any person available now" means 'There isn't even a single person available now'.

Kadmon and Landman (1993) state that *any* is a domain widener, that is, an item that refers to all elements of a class, does not readily admit exceptions and can only occur in contexts in which it produces a stronger, more informative, statement than the indefinite *a.* They claim that both the environments in which negative polarity *any* occurs, such as negative clauses, and the contexts in which free choice *any* appears, such as modality, allow strengthening.

These scalar approaches have all met with opposition. Linebarger (1987), Giannakidou (2002), Duffley and Larrivée (2010) and others point to a series of contexts in which *any* is not downward-entailing. For example, Giannakidou cites 11 non-downward entailing environments in which *any* occurs. Some of these are typical environments for free choice *any* and may thus not bring into question the validity of Ladusaw's theory if the latter is thought to apply only to negative polarity *any*. However, others are contexts for negative polarity *any* including conditionals, questions, *only* and limiting adverbs. Jacobsson (2002) observes that unstressed *any* does not always broaden the domain of the noun or rule out exceptions, contrary to Kadmon and Landman's claim. Larrivée (2007) notes that the underlying meaning of *even* proposed by Lee and Horn is not applicable to imperative clauses such as "pick any card"

2.4.2 Non- Scalar Approaches

Linebarger (1980) offers a two-tiered theory for the use of negative polarity items, which builds upon Baker's approach: the first, syntactic, tier states that *any* is "triggered" by lexical items that are in the immediate scope of *not*, that is, there cannot be any logical elements intervening between *not* and *any*; the second, semantic-pragmatic, part states that *any* can occur outside the immediate scope of negation in a clause or sentence that generates a negative implicature. Thus, in the sentence "The ocean isn't blue because it has any blue paint in it", *any* lies outside the scope of *not*, thanks to the intervening element *because*, but qualifies for negative polarity use as it generates the negative implicature "the ocean does not have blue paint". Linebarger's theory has been criticized for generating incorrect examples (Nishiguchi 2003) and for failing to focus on the lexical meanings of polarity items (Tovena 2001).

Across a series of works (including Giannakidou 1998, 2002, 2011, 2013), Giannakidou attempts to account for the environments in which *any* can occur via the concept of *anti/non veridicality* together with negative entailment. Although they are conventionally expressed in logical terms, *veridicality*, *anti-veridicality* and *non-veridicality* can be expressed in ordinary language as follows.

A lexico-grammatical environment is veridical if it entails the truth of the proposition that it expresses. It is anti-veridical if it entails the falsity of the proposition it expresses and non-veridical if it entails neither the truth nor the falsity of the proposition. Thus, affirmative clauses in the present or past simple and present or past progressive tenses are veridical, negative clauses are anti-veridical and questions and conditionals are non-veridical. Giannakidou contends that unless *any* is licensed by a modal verb or by a post-modifying relative clause, it cannot usually occur in the scope of a veridical expression and can only do so in cases which give rise to negative implicatures, e.g. clauses with *only*. However, Duffley and Larrivée's (2015) corpus-based study proves that *any* does occur in several non-negative veridical contexts including progressive tenses, episodic past tense clauses and existential *there* clauses.

Duffley and Larrivée (2010) argue that the scalarity of *any* is a derived pragmatic effect rather than part of the word's core meaning, as there are several lexico-grammatical environments in which *any* cannot be interpreted as scalar; these include information questions, conditionals, negatives and *before* clauses, for negative polarity *any*, and comparative clauses and unstressed *any* in affirmative clauses, for free-choice *any*. They propose the Finean concept of arbitrariness (Fine, 1985) as the core semantic content which is behind the meaning of *any* in all contexts. The term "arbitrariness" refers here to the "irrelevance for the truth of a given proposition of individual variants" (Duffley and Larrivée 2010:6). Although this is very much a truth semantics definition, Duffley and Larrivee's (2010; 2015) discussion of this area suggests that it can be equated in real language terms with indiscriminacy or randomness of choice. In the negative polarity sense of *any*, the randomness of choice refers not to individual things or people but to events or propositions, as in their example "He did not read any book" (Duffley and Larrivée 2010: 6)

Duffley and Larrivée state that a scalar meaning can be derived from the meaning of arbitrariness in many lexico-grammatical environments if one or more of the following contextual triggers is present: stress on *any*, which emphasizes the arbitrariness of the choice, the use of a singular noun after *any*, which makes the sentence more emphatic than it would be with the unmarked plural noun, and gradability of the noun phrase, which enables a focus on lower or upper extremes of the concept being referred to.

Finean arbitrariness also plays a role in Tovena and Jayez's (1999) account of *any*. However, unlike Duffley and Larrivée, they continue to see scalarity as part of *any*'s root meaning. There is no space to develop their argument here.

2.4.3 Monosemous and Polysemous Approaches to *Any*

While many theorists claim that *any* has two meanings, a negative polarity meaning and a free choice meaning, others present arguments for considering that *any* has one basic sense. Proponents of the single-meaning position include Kadmon and Landman (1993) and Lee and Horn (1994), both of whose theories were described in section 2.4.1, and Levy (2008). These arguments are mostly based on logic and will not be discussed further here. Jacobsson defends the single-meaning position from the point of view of natural language, but notes that "it may be convenient, for expository purposes, to distinguish between assertive and non-assertive and between free-choice and polarity uses" (Jacobsson 2002:10).

2.4.4 Meanings of *Some*

2.4.4.1 Introduction

There are two main logical approaches to the meaning of *some:* the predicate logic approach, which treats it as an existential quantifier, and the scalar logic approach, which regards it as an understater. A third approach from Duffley and Larrivée (2012), building on work by Farkas (2002) inside the existential quantifier approach, sees underspecification (that is non-identification) as the core meaning that explains all quantitative and qualitative uses of *some*.

2.4.4.2 Israel: *Some* as a Scalar Understater

Israel (1999) examines the extent to which *some* can be considered monosemous. He argues that *some* has a core meaning that refers to a limited, indefinite instance of the referent of the noun phrase that it modifies. He explains an indefinite instance as one that can be identified purely on the basis of the noun phrase and a limited instance as one which, despite its indeterminate extent, may contrast with other instances. He develops this idea by stating that *some* systematically contrasts with other quantifiers and determiners that have a different referential scope, such as *a/any,* which can describe a single instance, and *all/ any* which refer to all instances of a kind.

He explains that the core meaning of *some* gives rise to a number of different contextually determined construals. Thus *some* can be construed in some contexts as either *existential* (i.e. introducing a referent into discourse) or *partitive* (i.e. referring to a subset of a referent that has already been introduced into discourse), in others as *contrastive* (that is, contrasting with another quantity, e.g. many or all) or *neutral* (i.e. non-contrastive), and in others as *quantity* or *kind*.

However, Israel also identifies three uses of *some* that can be regarded as separate senses as they add a nuance to the basic "indefinite, limited" meaning of *some* that cannot be accounted for by the pragmatics of indefinite reference: "spesumptive some" (Warfel 1972), that is, the use of *some* with singular nouns to produce the idea that the speaker is either unable or unwilling to reveal the identity of the referent, e.g. "There's some guy here to see you. Says he's the Emperor of Japan"; "adverbial some", i.e. the use of *some* as an adverb to modify a verb phrase, e.g. "We danced some, and then we said goodnight"; "exclamative some", that is, the use of *some* in exclamatives, either in a highly positive sense, e.g. "Boy, was she (ever) some dancer!", or in a highly negative, ironic one, e.g. "Some friend she turned out to be!". Israel regards these three uses as "the extended constructional family", and suggests that they are all derived from the core meaning of "indefinite and limited".

Israel relates all meanings of *some* to an underlying function of understatement, which he explains in Gricean terms as the expression of a less informative proposition in place of the expected informative one, and in scalar terms, not dealt with here owing to lack of space. For Israel, understatement is directly operative in the basic "indefinite, limited" meaning and in the spesumptive meaning, and indirectly accounts for the exclamative use because it can be regarded as an extension of the understating function. Unfortunately, he only provides details of the operation of this understating function in the basic meaning and does not explain clearly how the function of exclamation is derived from that of understatement.

2.4.4.3 Farkas's Approach and Duffley and Larrivée's Extension

The logical semantics approach essentially regards *some* as an existential quantifier that refers to the existence of at least one exemplar of the referent (Partee, Meulen &Wall 1990). The detailed explanation of this position is presented in terms of predicate logic rather than natural language.

However, the main argument is that a sentence containing *some* is true if there is at least one example of the referent of *some* within the universe of discourse that makes it true.

Farkas (2002) takes this logical semantic approach beyond the existential and quantificational meanings of *some* to its identificational properties: "using *some* is connected to the fact that the value one chooses for the variable introduced by it is underspecified in some manner" (Farkas 2002:11). By this he means that *some* is used to indicate that the speaker is either unable or unwilling to express the referent. Using unstressed *some* and adding the phrase "or other" – e.g. "I want some book (or other) about St. Petersburg" – strengthens this impression of underspecification or non-identification by suggesting that the identity of the noun phrase referent modified by *some* is immaterial.

Farkas extends this underspecifying meaning of *some* to cases in which *some* + NP can take on a derogatory flavour, e.g. "Marc wrote some paper (or other) on indefinites and now he considers himself a specialist." Farkas relates the derogatory effect in such examples to "the fact that the verifying value is not to be distinguished from others" (Farkas 2002:11). In less abstruse terms, the speaker's inability or unwillingness to identify Marc's paper suggests that it has little value or importance.

Farkas also argues that the underspecifying, non-identifying nature of *some* accounts for its approximate quantity use. Thus, in "There were some three hundred people at the rally", *some* indicates that the speaker is unable to identify the exact quantity.

Duffley and Larrivée's paper argues that neither the existential quantifier approach nor the scalar understater approach can account for all uses of *some,* and suggests replacing them with their extension of Farkas's concept of underspecification. Their point of departure is two-fold: firstly, "the understated meaning of *some* corresponds to the notion of a real, extensionally limited, but non-identified referent" (Duffley and Larrivée 2012:145-146); secondly, while both Gricean principles of informativeness and the related concept of scalarity play a role in certain meanings of *some*, they are not part of the word's core meaning: they are simply implicatures that are generated by certain discourse factors in specific contexts.

A later article by the same authors describes a corpus-based study which argues that scalar implicatures are absent from the semantic meaning of *some* and generated pragmatically by certain contextual triggers (Duffley and Larrivée 2014). In the 2012 article, Duffley and Larrivée examine five uses that pose problems for the scalar understater approach and/ or the existential approach:
- The derogatory use of *some* plus singular noun: Some kid spilt a milkshake on the floor.
-The exclamative use: That was some frittata!
- The large number use: He made some thirty-three snowmen that afternoon.
- The approximate number use: There were some twenty people present.
- The considerable quantity use: We discussed the problem at some length.

They argue that the scalar understater approach does not work with the derogatory use or the considerable quantity use as the quantities referred to in the examples - "one kid" and "some length"- cannot be construed as less than expected, and that the other three uses pose problems for both existential and scalar approaches.

With the exclamative use, they argue that the scalar understater approach fails because *some* refers to a larger amount than expected, and that the existential approach, even with the incorporation of Farkas's extension, falls short because "some frittata" is a definite NP, thus making it impossible to interpret that the speaker is unable or unwilling to provide the identity of the referent.

They argue that the existential approach cannot account for the large number use and the approximate

number use, as the meaning of "at least one, possibly more" proposed by the existential school is not germane to cases in which the number is specified. They state that the scalar understater approach cannot explain these uses either, as there is no reason for thinking that either the 33 snowmen or the approximately 20 people are fewer than expected.

Duffley and Larrivée then explain how their definition of *some* as a word that evokes "a real extensionally limited, but non-identified referent" can be applied to the five uses discussed above, although contextual triggers such as the use of a singular noun or the stress on *some* are required with some uses.

With the derogatory use, they argue that *some* is appropriate because, unlike the indefinite article, it renders the non-identification of the referent totally explicit. They claim that this derogatory effect is brought out far more clearly and reliably when a singular noun referent is used rather than a plural or mass noun referent, as, with a singular noun, the meaning of *some* relates unequivocally to an unidentified or unspecified person or thing as opposed to an unidentified or unspecified quantity. With the exclamative use, they state that the stress on *some*, with its non-identifying meaning, evokes the idea that the frittata was so exceptional that it defies precise identification.

With the approximate number use, *some* indicates that the speaker is referring to a particular but unidentifiable quantity. With the large, but exact, number use, the juxtaposition of the word *some*, which denotes an unidentified quantity, with an exact number creates the implicature of a large quantity, as it suggests that "the speaker has actually counted the occurrences and that they do add up to a considerable amount which is not easy to count up precisely." (Duffley and Larrivée 2012:147). With the considerable quantity use, the employment of *some* rather than a zero article suggests a bounded amount of the referent, which, together with the stress on *some*, creates the implicature that the speaker is referring to a large quantity. Duffley and Larrivée agree with Huddleston and Pullum (2002) that this large quantity meaning is restricted to words referring to time and measure, but do not explain why.

2.5 Critique of Subsequent Approaches to *Some* and *Any* in Generative Grammar and Logical Semantics

2.5.1 Critique of Scalar Approaches to *Any*

As the arguments from Duffley and Larrivée, Linebarger and Giannakidou among others show, none of the scalar approaches discussed above can account for all the lexico-grammatical environments in which *any* occurs. However, the main reason for eschewing both a scalar approach to *any* and any other approach that analyses the *some-any* distinction from a logical perspective, is that logic is not the best way to analyse language, owing to the fundamentally different nature of the two phenomena. Logical representation tends to be linear, unambiguous, idealized and amenable to clear-cut dichotomous categorizations; language is non-linear, ambiguous, imperfect and amenable to fuzzy categories and to mixed categorization.

Barwise and Perry (1983) highlight the problems that can be caused by using logic to analyse language:

"Technical or pseudo-technical notions (..) introduced by philosophers and logicians (..) are not part of the data of natural language. It just might be that some or all of them cut across the grain of the phenomena in unnatural ways, generating artificial problems and constraining the space of possible solutions to the genuine puzzles that language presents." (Barwise and Perry 1983, cited in Jacobsson 2002: 6).

Logical theories may have had a distorting effect on the analysis of *some* and *any*, by focusing both

researchers and theorists on scalarity, predicate calculus, truth values and notational considerations to the detriment of the lexical meanings of *some* and *any*, the speech functions they perform and the roles they play in discourse. Moreover, the overriding attention paid to *any* in such analyses, which stems from the interest of philosophers and logical semanticists in negation, may account for the lack of attention to *some* and to the subtle pragmatic distinctions between *some* and *any* in natural language use.

For the reasons provided above, logical analyses of language will play no part in subsequent chapters of this thesis. They will not be tested during the corpus research and they will not form part of the pedagogical grammar description of *some* and *any*.

2.5.2 Critique of Non-Scalar Approaches to *Any*

Two of the non-scalar approaches use logical notation to explain the concepts involved: Linebarger's negative implicature and Giannakidou's anti-veridicality. However, both theories contain elements that are relevant to the use of *any*. Linebarger's approach draws attention to the use of *any* in implicitly negative contexts, an area that is examined in my research. Although Duffley and Larrivée (2015) show that *any* can occur in veridical contexts, the frequent occurrence of *any* in counterfactual clauses, questions, conditionals, expressions of modality, contexts referring to potentiality or futurity and other non-veridical contexts suggests that something akin to Giannakidou's non-veridicality may be involved in the meaning of many cases of *any*. However, Duffley and Larrivee's arbitrariness probably has broader applicability than non-veridicality, as it also explains the use of *any* in veridical contexts "[in which] emphasis is placed on utter indiscriminacy of reference, as indicated by the lexical content of the main verb, focus particles such as *just*, or other discursive markers of indiscriminacy." (Duffley and Larrivée 2015:35).

2.5.3 A Critique of Monosemous and Polysemous Approaches to *Any*

While it is possible that the negative polarity and free-choice readings of *any* stem from the same base meaning, it may be useful to treat them as separate meanings for expository purposes, as Jacobsson proposes. This position is explained in the assessment of grammar book descriptions of *any* in section 3.4.4.

2.5.4 A Critique of Approaches to the Meanings of *some*

2.5.4.1 Introduction

All three approaches broadly coincide in their description of *some* as a word that evokes a limited quantity and refers to an unidentified, though not always unidentifiable, referent. Although all three approaches have their strengths, Duffley and Larrivée's theory is the most complete.

2.5.4.2 Critique of Israel

Israel's idea that many meanings of *some* are construals based on general pragmatic principles for indefinite words is promising for both teaching and research, as it is usually preferable to examine and teach language patterns at the maximum level of generality. This is analogous with the idea of researching or teaching different subordinate clause markers of hypothesis rather than focusing exclusively on *if-clauses*.

The treatment of the three extended senses of *some* as part of an "extended constructional family" that stems from the core meaning of the word adds to the generative power of his theory. However, Israel does not provide a complete account of how the latter lead to the former, as he only explains how the spesumptive meaning is derived from the basic meaning.

Israel's description of *some* as an item that inherently contrasts with other quantifiers is also questionable. Quantifiers are often juxtaposed to create explicit contrasts, e.g. "any or most", and "some but not all" and, in the right context, the use of one quantifier will imply a contrast with another one. This is part of the general pragmatics of quantifiers rather than of the base quantitative meaning of *some.*

Finally, it does not seem plausible that all uses of *some* are based on understatement, as there are many cases in which understatement would seem to play no role, e.g. *I can see some houses down there; there was some mud on his boots; he laughed some* etc.

2.5.4.3 Critique of Farkas and Duffley and Larrivée

For some time, the existential quantifier approach to *some* focused excessively on the quantifying meanings of *some* and neglected its qualitative uses. However, Farkas's contribution has gone a long way towards redressing this imbalance and has introduced the concept of underspecification, which has become the groundstone of Duffley and Larrivée's analysis. Farkas's work does not yet cover all the qualitative uses of *some*, but the extensions recommended by Duffley and Larrivée's enable it to do so.

Apart from their failure to explain why *some* has an appreciative meaning before time and measure words, Duffley and Larrivée's account adequately explains how all the uses that they cover develop naturally from the word's base meaning: "a real, extensionally limited, but non-identified referent". Nevertheless, despite the coverage that they give to Israel's article, they do not examine the adverbial use covered by the latter. This use could easily be covered by their theory. For example, Israel's example "We danced some, and then we said goodnight" could be glossed as "they danced to a real but limited extent and the speaker does not identify the exact extent to which they danced".

2.6 Previous Corpus Based Studies of *Some* and *Any*

2.6.1 Introduction

There are two publicly available large-scale corpus-based studies of *some* and *any*: Sahlin's (1979) study of *some* and *any* in spoken and written English, and Tesch's (1990) comparison of the use of *some*, *any* and their compound forms in authentic English and in German EFL school textbooks.

Tesch's research provides some potentially useful frequency data on *some* and *any*: in particular, the finding that *any* occurs over half the time in affirmative clauses (Tesch 1990: 338) provides a strong basis for considering that more attention needs to be paid to its use in this grammatical environment. However, the use of *some* in negative clauses receives no attention whatsoever and the study is extremely short on qualitative analysis, which means that no insights are provided into the subtler pragmatic-semantic distinctions between *some* and *any* in questions and conditionals. For these reasons, the remainder of Section 2.6 will focus on Sahlin's study, which, despite some shortcomings discussed below, makes a more significant contribution to the *some-any* distinction.

2.6.2 Contextualization of Sahlin's Study

Sahlin's doctoral thesis reports on her corpus research into *some* and *any,* which was based on the Standard Corpus of Present-Day Edited American English for written English, and the Survey of English Usage for spoken data.

It is important to take into account the temporal context of Sahlin's study. In 1979, when her study was published, corpus research was still largely in its infancy, which affected both the type of research she carried out and the way that she reported her research. Corpora were much smaller than the corpora which are currently available and offered a more limited range of search possibilities. Both the limited data that she offers, and the relative paucity of findings in some areas must be understood in the light of the technical limitations that she faced. Moreover, the research reporting practices of linguistics at the time, which placed far less emphasis on the need for an explicit account of research methodology or for data accountability, may explain the failure to provide relevant methodological information such as a list of research questions and search terms.

2.6.3 Coverage and Aims of Sahlin's Study

In addition to examining *some* and *any* themselves, Sahlin also compares *any* briefly with "competing determiners", primarily *all*, *every*, the zero article and the indefinite article, examines Swedish equivalents of the different uses of *some* and *any,* and provides some insights into the differences between the compound forms of *some* and those of *any*. None of these areas will be discussed further in this review, as they are not of direct relevance to my own research. However, Chapter 7 discusses the need for research which compares *some* and *any* with other items in the lexico-grammatical system.

Sahlin aims to provide a descriptive grammar account of *some* and *any* rather than a pedagogical one, which explains two aspects of the coverage of her study: firstly, she largely focuses on *some* and *any* separately and offers relatively few of the direct comparisons between the two words which are necessary for language learners; secondly, despite some references to Quirk et al (1972), she generally compares her results with claims from theoretical linguists rather than with descriptions in pedagogical grammars. However, despite the orientation of her research towards descriptive rather than pedagogical grammar, she does offer several insights that are potentially useful for learners.

2.6.4 Uses of *Some* and *Any*

2.6.4.1 Introduction

One feature of Sahlin's approach is her division of *some* and *any* into a large number of use sub-categories. Many of her subdivisions will not be discussed here as they are too fine-grained to be of use for learners of English. However, the discussion will focus on those subcategories that have a bearing on the claims that Sahlin makes regarding the distributional properties of *some* and *any* across different clause types.

2.6.4.2 Uses of *Some*

Sahlin divides *some* into two main uses: Some I, an unstressed, indefinite article with a weakly quantifying sense, referring to an unspecified but smallish quantity; and Some II, a stressed quantifier in which *some* has a more overtly quantifying meaning than in the case of Some I. Some II denotes "an unspecified but limited quantity" which can range from "some little, few" to "some considerable". Some II is further subdivided into the following uses: the selective use, employed with plural or mass nouns, in which *some* indicates a subset, generally a small one, of a larger set, e.g. "I used some of your hand lotion"; the non-selective use with mass nouns and plural nouns, which she further subdivides into two uses: a contrastive use, in which *some* contrasts explicitly or implicitly with some other quantity, e.g. "There will be thousands who will thrill to the loveliness of Alastor. There are some even now."; and a non-contrastive use, e.g. "I've been here for some time". She claims that the contrastive use tends to refer to a small quantity, while the non-contrastive use often refers to a large one.

In addition, there is another non-selective use with singular count nouns, e.g. “On the way, we went to some other really lively place”. Sahlin describes non-selective *some* before a singular count noun as a quantifier on the basis that it is used primarily to express the idea that one referent is sufficient to satisfy the description. She treats *some* before a singular count noun as non-specific, either because the referent is unknown to the speaker or because the speaker refuses to specify who or what (s)he is referring to. Sahlin observes that this use can be emotionally loaded and that it often expresses negative feelings such as irritation, anger or disparagement, as in the following example: “we are worried (..) that some crazy fool may push the button”.

2.6.4.3 Uses of Any

Sahlin divides *any* into three uses: Any I, the unstressed weakly quantifying article use, Any II the stressed quantifier, and Any III, stressed, qualitative *any* meaning “no matter what or which”. Any I and II are both used in non-assertive clauses and correspond closely to what is usually termed the “negative polarity” or “non-assertive” use. Any III occurs primarily but not exclusively in affirmative clauses and is essentially the free-choice use. According to Sahlin, Any II has a stronger quantitative meaning than Any I, which is reflected in the fact that it is stressed. However, Sahlin also recognizes that the stress of Any I and Any II may depend on non-semantic factors such as sentence rhythm.

The division of negative polarity *any* into Any I and Any II seems to serve no clear purpose, as in the vast majority of examples which Sahlin provides the distinction is of little practical import. For example, “Did you read any of the tales?”, which Sahlin classifies as Any I, does not seem to contain a greater emphasis on quantity than “Are you doing any more drama?” which she regards as Any II. It is probably sufficient to treat examples like these as the same use and point out that it is possible to bring out the quantitative meaning by placing stress on *any*.

2.6.5 *Some* and/or *Any* in Different Clause Types

This section reviews and examines Sahlin's description of the use of *some* in negative clauses, *any* in affirmative clauses and *some* and *any* in questions and conditionals, as these uses correspond to the main aspects of the *some-any* distinction that form the focus of my study.

2.6.5.1 The Use of *Some* in Negative Clauses

Sahlin makes one important finding with regard to *some* in negative clauses: she observes that s*ome* is used in negative clauses before singular nouns, e.g. “I’m not trying to pull some stupid kind of joke”. As this use refers to a non-specific referent, it clearly disproves Fillmore’s (1967) claim that *some* is only used in negatives when it has a specific referent. With the exception of this finding, Sahlin maintains a similarly restrictive view of *some* in negative clauses to that established by Klima (see sections 2.2-2-3).

Sahlin considers Some I, the unstressed lightly quantitative article use, to be “characteristically ungrammatical” in negative clauses and adduces this as one of the main reasons for distinguishing between Some I and the different stressed uses she covers under Some II. However, her assignment of examples to the Some I and Some II category is not entirely reliable as it is based on the interpretation of stress in a transcribed corpus rather than on actual recordings.

Sahlin claims that Some II occurs most often in negative clauses in the selective use – e.g. “The scientists… do not agree on some of the most vital points.” If the selective use is indeed considerably more common than other uses in negative clauses, it provides a partial justification for the tendency of grammar books to focus on this use in negative clauses. However, Sahlin does not provide the frequency data to show how much more common this use is than other uses.

She claims that *some* is outside the semantic scope of negation in this use as “the negation applies

only to a subset of a set and does not apply to the rest of the set". (Sahlin 1979: 146). However, it can be countered that *some* is inside the semantic scope of negation because the sentence focuses on the subset that is negated rather than on the subset that is not. Sahlin's position is essentially the same as that of current grammar books with regard to the contrastive "some but not others" uses and will be taken up again in sections 3.5-3.6. Sahlin claims that non-selective *some* II referring to an unspecified but limited quantity is only used in negative clauses inside expressions of time, e.g. "He had not mentioned his mother for some days." However, she notes that uses of *some* that cannot normally occur in negatives do occur in cases of "external", i.e. metalinguistic negation, that is, when the speaker refers back to a previous utterance containing *some*.

2.6.5.2 *Any* in Affirmative Clauses

Sahlin's examination of *any* in affirmative clauses focuses above all on the use of Any III, free choice *any*, although, as will be seen in section 2.6.6, she also explains the use of negative polarity *any* in such clauses. She shows that Any III can be used both with an appreciative meaning to refer to a high point on a scale, e.g. "however much" or "even" + positive superlative adjective, and a depreciative meaning to refer to a low point, e.g. "however insignificant" or "however few". Although, as Sahlin recognizes, this distinction has been discussed before in the literature on *any*, she offers clear corpus data showing how it operates in natural use.

Sahlin also examines a set of six syntactic restrictions on the use of *any* in affirmative clauses prescribed by Perlmutter (1970), including agent position after *by* in passive clauses, elliptical clauses with *and*, past tense clauses, primarily past simple ones, and present continuous clauses. While Sahlin proves that *any* can be used in most of these environments, she finds no examples of *any* in present continuous clauses that do not involve relative clause postmodification and no cases of *any* in veridical past tense clauses which refer to a singular specific episode in the past: all her past tense examples involve modals or other contingent elements. As noted in section 2.4.2, Duffley and Larrivée (2015) prove that *any* can be used in veridical instances of both episodic past tense clauses and present continuous clauses. It is possible that there were no examples of such cases in Sahlin's corpora owing to their small size.

2.6.5.3 The Choice between *Some* and *Any* in Questions

Sahlin devotes little space to the choice between *some* and *any* in questions. She subscribes to the generally held view that *some* is used in questions which have a positive bias and *any* in questions with a neutral or negative bias, and offers a number of corpus examples of both yes-no and wh-questions which lend empirical support to this position. However, she points to the need for a more nuanced view of offer and invitation questions: although most cases of such questions occurred with *some* in her data, she states that there are enough examples with *any* to consider that *some* is not the only alternative. Some of these examples involve what she calls the "generous use" in which the offer is extended to an unlimited number of referents e.g. "Anybody want any straight juice?" and "Anybody have some more coffee". She does not refer to the possibility of using *any* in more polite, tentative offers and requests, which is discussed in section 3.12.2 of this thesis.

2.6.5.4 The Choice between *Some* and *Any* in Conditionals

Although Sahlin devotes relatively little space to the *some/any* choice in conditionals in her study, she nevertheless provides a richer, more complex picture of this area than that provided in grammar books.

She confirms the importance of speaker expectations and wishes in determining the choice between *some* and *any* in open conditionals, notes the use of *some* with positively oriented phrases such as *if only* and *I wish* and touches upon the possibility that the choice between *some* and *any* in conditionals may be associated with different speech functions along the lines proposed by Lakoff (1969).

She observes the possibility of using *some* in counterfactual conditionals such as the following: "If, for the sake of argument, you had bought some shares and "He may have been a success had he learnt some human relations skills"; she argues that *some* is possible because *if* is being used in the sense of *assuming that* or *let's say*, to indicate that the speaker is adopting an assumption for rhetorical purposes.

Her findings and analysis regarding counterfactuals are of interest as they contradict both the view expressed in many grammar books that *some* is only used when the speaker has a positive expectation, and the position held by Huddleston and Pullum (2002) regarding the inappropriacy of *some* in counterfactual conditionals. However, Sahlin does not compare the degree to which *some* and *any* occur in counterfactual conditionals, an issue that is analysed in the discussion of my research in section 5.4.2.

Sahlin provides a few examples in which the choice between *some* and *any* in conditionals is determined not by the pragmatic meaning - the speakers' expectations or wishes - but by the semantic meaning that the quantifier needs to express for the sentence to make sense. Thus, in the example "if I wanted help of any sort", *any* can be interpreted, in one possible reading, to express the idea of unlimited help, while in the example "if you don't like any of those [jobs] I can turn over some extra typing jobs", she points out that the use of *some of* instead of *any of* would express a difference of quantity. However, she does not explore in depth the interaction between semantic and pragmatic meaning with *some* and *any*.

2.6.6 Meaning Differences between *Some* and *Any*

Sahlin considers a number of general meaning distinctions which can account for the choice between *some* and *any*: entailment of existence versus non-entailment of existence, specificity versus non-specificity and referentiality versus non-referentiality. She regards the latter as the most reliable means of differentiating between the two words and accounting for their distribution across assertive and non-assertive clauses.

Sahlin presents two objections to the claim that *some* always entails the existence of its referent while *any* does not do so. Firstly, she shows that assertive, free choice *any* (Any III) can occur with a referent whose existence is entailed, as in her example "Problems cling to pools as any pool owner knows". Secondly, she argues that *some* does not always entail the existence of the noun phrase that it modifies. However, she provides no examples of the latter claim.

She also rejects the specificity versus non-specificity distinction on several grounds: for example, she regards *some* before a singular count noun as incontrovertibly non-specific and she argues that several other meanings of *some* can also be unspecific or ambiguous between a specific and an unspecific reading, as in the following examples:

- I guess he wants to ask you some questions (*some* as a "lightly quantitative" determiner, unspecific)
- One might expect that in a poetic career of seventy-odd years, some changes in style and method would have occurred (contrastive *some*, ambiguous between specific and unspecific)
- Try talking to some of the fellows he works with (selective *some*, unspecific)
- He had not mentioned his mother for some days. (*some* before time phrases, ambiguous

between specific and unspecific)

She argues that *some* is referential not only in assertive clauses but also in non-assertive ones: in negative clauses, because it generates a reference that can be considered to exist in the universe of discourse; in other non-assertive clause types, such as conditionals and questions, because "some is the only grammatical item in a somehow associated assertive proposition" (Sahlin 1979:141). Conversely, she argues that all meanings of *any* are always non-referential: Any I and Any II, corresponding to negative polarity *any*, because they are associated with a non-assertive proposition in all clause types; Any III, corresponding to free-choice *any*, because it has a generic meaning and does not therefore refer to specific instances of referents that are treated as existing within discourse.

The *referential - non-referential* distinction seems to be a more reliable means of choosing between *some* and *any* than *specific - non-specific* or *existing - not existing* as it can be applied to all uses in all clause types. The referential – non-referential distinction is discussed further in the critique of grammar book accounts of the qualitative meanings of *some* and *any* in section 3.4.3.

2.6.7 Overall Evaluation of Sahlin

Sahlin's study makes a number of useful contributions to the description of *some* and *any*. She challenges views relating to syntactic restrictions on the use of *any* in affirmative clauses and makes a number of findings relating to the *some-any* choice in conditionals. Moreover, she provides a cogent argument, backed up with corpus data, for considering that the referential - non referential distinction is the most useful means of distinguishing between *some* and *any*. However, her study also has some important limitations, especially her over-restrictive view of the use of *some* in negative clauses, despite her findings with regard to non-specific *some*, and the lack of information that she provides on the *some-any* distinction in questions.

2.7 Conclusion

Approaches to *some* and *any* in generative grammar and logical semantics have led to an excessively narrow focus on *any* in non-assertive contexts and *some* in assertive ones, which, as will be seen in the next chapter, appears to have had an influence on grammar book descriptions. While all the approaches to the meanings of *some* that have been discussed have some value from the point of view of descriptive linguistics, the most useful one for getting to the core meaning is probably Duffley and Larrivée's (2012) account of how different meanings relate to the single core meaning of "a real, extensionally limited, but non-identified referent". However, all of these approaches seem a little too abstract to be of value to learners of English. From the perspective of language teaching, it might be advisable to focus on explaining different key uses of both *some* and *any* rather than attempting to reduce either word to a single meaning.

With regard to the two previous large-scale corpus-based studies of *some* and *any*, Sahlin's offers more insights into the *some-any* distinction, some of which may be of use to learners of English. However there is a need for a new corpus study of this area which uses a larger corpus than Sahlin's and aims primarily to produce an accurate pedagogical description of this area. This is the purpose of my own study, the point of departure for which is the current state of pedagogical descriptions of *some* and *any*, analysed in the next chapter.

Chapter 3 A Review of the *Some/Any* Distinction in Current Grammar Books

3.1 Introduction

Chapter Three examines the *some-any* distinction in a representative selection of the main intermediate and advanced level grammar books that are in current use today. This is a pivotal chapter for several reasons: it contextualizes the thesis by clarifying the sources of my dissatisfaction with the current pedagogical descriptions of this area of language, it helps the reader to follow my reference corpus research by providing a preliminary view of the areas of the *some-any* distinction that are examined in the research questions, and it offers an overview of the current consensus on *some* and *any* against which my proposals for a new description can be evaluated.

Section 3.2 lists the grammar books that have been chosen for the review and explains both the overall criteria for selecting grammar books and the reasons for selecting each one. Sections 3.3 and 3.4 deal with the descriptions of the lexical meanings of *some* and *any*, which, together with the pragmatic factors that are discussed in subsequent sections, provide a basis for understanding the *some-any* distinction across all clause types. The remaining sections, 3.5 to 3.14, examine grammar book descriptions of the *some-any* distinction in the following clause types, which are the subject of my research: negative clauses; clauses in which *some* or *any* come after an implicit negative; conditional clauses with *if* and *unless*; questions, broken down into affirmative and negative yes-no questions and affirmative and negative wh-questions; affirmative declarative clauses.

To avoid possible confusion between my own views and those of the authors under review, separate, alternate summary and critique sections are provided for each area covered in the review: Section 3.3 summarizes the description of the lexical meanings of *some* and *any* while Section 3.4 critiques the description; Section 3.5 overviews the explanations of the use of *some* and *any* in negative clauses, while Section 3.6 appraises the explanations, and so on.

In the rationale, in Section 3.2.2, the books are referred to by their title. In the review itself, from Section 3.3 onwards, the books are referred to by the author's surname name(s) and in the case of books with more than three authors, the convention “author et al”.

3.2 Grammar Book Selection

3.2.1 List of Grammar Books Selected

The following books are included in the review. The list includes only the book title and the surnames of the author(s). Full bibliographical information is provided in the list of references at the end of the thesis.

Standard Reference-Cum-Practice Grammars
*English Grammar in Use Intermediate (*Murphy*)*
Oxford Practice Grammar Intermediate (Eastwood)
*How English Works (*Swan & Walter*)*
Advanced Grammar in Use (Hewings)
Oxford Practice Grammar Advanced (Yule)

Non-Corpus Based Descriptive Grammars
A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik)
The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language (Huddleston & Pullum)
English Grammar: A University Course (Downing & Locke)

Corpus-Based Grammars
Collins Cobuild Grammar (Sinclair)
*Cambridge Grammar of English (*Carter & McCarthy*)*
Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English (Biber, Conrad &Leech)
English Grammar Today (Carter. McCarthy & O'Keefe)

Teachers' Grammars

Grammar for English Language Teachers (Parrott)
The Grammar Book (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman)

Other Grammar Books
Practical English Usage (Swan)
Developing Grammar in Context (Nettle & Hopkins)
Natural Grammar (Thornbury)

3.2.2 Selection Rationale

The grammar books were selected according to the following criteria:

1) International Market
2) Coverage of British and/or American English
3) Intermediate and Advanced Levels
4) Different Levels of Detail
5) Corpus-Based and Non-Corpus Based Grammar Books

The review covers only grammar books written for the international market, because the focus of the thesis is on improving the general pedagogical approach to *some* and *any* for learners of all mother tongues; the inclusion of books for country/L1 specific markets would lead to the need to consider not only the accuracy of the accounts in each grammar book, but also the extent to which specific aspects of the description can be justified as a means of dealing with mother tongue interference or providing scaffolding for learners whose mother tongue has a very different quantification and determination system to that of English. (See Haspelmath (1997) and Van der Wouden (1994) for a discussion of cross linguistic variation in this area of language.)

The decision to review only books that describe British or American English is also related to the overall aim of improving the general pedagogical approach to *some* and *any* for learners across the world. British and American English are the most widely-taught varieties and they are also the main varieties included in the reference corpus that has been employed in my study. Although most books are from British publishers, the majority either cover both British and American English or provide an American English version that has been examined alongside the British one.

Elementary level grammar books have been excluded from the review to ensure that the books under comparison were not excessively dissimilar in terms of the descriptive completeness that they aspired to. However, to ensure that the selection of grammar books is representative, the review includes both university-level grammar books, such as *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, which generally offer more detail, and shorter reference-cum-practice grammars, at intermediate level upwards which, owing both to their target readership and to space constraints, tend to provide briefer accounts.

Finally, the review includes a mixture of corpus-based and non-corpus-based grammar books to cater

for the possibility that corpus research might have changed pedagogical descriptions of *some* and *any*. It is necessary here to clarify the difference between corpus-informed and corpus-based grammar books. While corpus-informed grammars use corpus data primarily as a source of examples, corpus-based books derive both their content selection and their descriptions from corpus data. A number of the grammar books discussed in the review are corpus-informed but only those specifically mentioned as such are corpus-based.

Having explained the overall criteria for selection, the reasons for selecting each book will now be briefly examined:

English Grammar in Use Intermediate, **Oxford Practice Grammar Intermediate** and **How English Works** are included as examples of typical intermediate level reference-cum-practice grammars of the non-corpus-based type. **Advanced Grammar in Use** and **Oxford Practice Grammar Advanced** were incorporated as examples of the same type of grammar books at a higher level, in the expectation that the increase in level would generally lead to an increase in the detail provided in the explanations.

Both **A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language** and **The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language** are included in the review as examples of corpus-informed but non-corpus-based reference works which tend to examine grammar points in great detail. **English Grammar: A University Course** is a non-corpus-based university coursebook-cum-reference book that offers quite detailed coverage of language points from a systemic-functional perspective.

Collins Cobuild Grammar, **Cambridge Grammar of English**, and a **Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English** are incorporated as examples of detailed corpus-based reference grammars. **English Grammar Today** is a corpus-based learner grammar that deals with grammar points in less detail.

Grammar for English Language Teachers and **The Grammar Book** are included as examples of grammar books that have been written for the teacher rather than for the learner, and, while not aspiring to the same level of comprehensiveness as descriptive grammars, offer a greater degree of explanatory detail and complexity on most grammar areas than standard learner grammars. It is important to examine grammar books of this type, as they may influence the explanations of grammar points offered by teachers and teacher trainers.

The remaining grammar books are included in the review for different reasons. **Practical English Usage** is examined as it is a book with a solid overall reputation that is commonly used as a reference source by both teachers and students. **Developing Grammar in Context** was incorporated as an example of a reference-cum-practice book for intermediate level students which teaches language as a context-based system of choices rather than as a set of discrete points. Its series counterpart for upper intermediate and advanced level students, Exploring Grammar in Context, has been excluded as it does not examine the *some-any* distinction. **Natural Grammar** is included as it is the only widely available grammar book which adopts a lexical approach to grammar, focusing on individual words and their colligational and collocational patterns.

3.3 Accounts of the Semantic Meanings of *Some* and *Any*

3.3.1 Introduction

Section 3.3.2 examines the quantitative semantic meanings assigned to *some* and *any* in grammar books, while section 3.3.3 reviews the qualitative meanings. Section 3.3.4 examines whether grammar books distinguish between the non-assertive and the free-choice meanings of *any*.

The division of the semantic meanings into quantitative and qualitative senses cuts across the grammatical distinction between *quantifier* and *determiner*: quantitative meanings are sometimes present in determiner uses and aspects of the qualitative meaning descriptions provided, such as factuality-non-factuality, figure in the distinction between *some* and a*ny* as quantifiers.

3.3.2 Accounts of the Quantitative Meanings of *Some* and *Any*

A number of grammar books do not describe the quantities referred to by either word or provide the same quantitative description for the two lexical items. Yule and Swan state that both *some* and *any* refer to an indefinite amount while Swan & Walter, Carter & McCarthy and Hewings claim that they refer to indefinite but limited amounts. On page 196, Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman state that both *some* and *any* refer to "an indefinite quantity or amount". The quantifier chart they provide on page 330 would seem to indicate that *some* refers to a limited amount, as it is placed with *a few*, *several*, *a couple of* and *a little*. However, the position of *any* in this chart does not clarify if it refers to a limited or unlimited amount, and no information is offered on this elsewhere in the book. Huddleston & Pullum state that both words denote "a quantity or number greater than zero, while Murphy and Downing & Locke do not describe the quantities referred to by either *some* or *any.* Eastwood states that *some* means "a number of" or "an amount of" but offers no meaning definition for *any.* Quirk et al state that some refers to a "specifiable though indefinite quantity" but offer no quantity meaning for *any*.

The grammar books that do distinguish between the quantitative meanings of *some* and *any* do not always agree on the quantities involved. Carter et al and Thornbury state that *some* denotes a limited, indefinite amount and *any* an indefinite amount. Biber et al claim that *some* refers to a "moderate or small quantity" of something, while *any* refers to "an arbitrary amount". Sinclair states that *some* refers to an imprecise quantity, while *any* refers to a quantity that may or may not exist. Parrot describes unstressed *some* as an "indefinite but not large" amount of something. He does not describe the quantities to which unstressed *any* may refer but claims that it is used in questions and negatives to refer to existence.

As will be seen in section 3.3.3, both the grammar books that distinguish between the quantitative meanings of *some* and *any* and those that do not generally make other qualitative distinctions between the two words. However, Huddleston & Pullum make no semantic distinction whatsoever between *some* and negative polarity *any* and differentiate between them purely in terms of clause type distribution, associating *some* with assertive clause types and *any* with non-assertive ones.

3.3.3 Accounts of the Qualitative Meanings of *Some* and *Any*

Different grammar books describe the following qualitative semantic distinctions of *some* and *any*, each of which is discussed in more detail below:

- Specificity versus non-specificity
- Existence versus non-existence
- Factuality versus non-factuality

Swan hints at a difference between the two words when he states that *any* is used in questions and negative clauses because of its "open, non-specific meaning". This differentiation between *some* and *any* in terms of specificity is covered more explicitly in Quirk et al: "the primary difference between *some* and *any* ...is that *some* is specific though unspecified while *any* is nonspecific". (Quirk et al 1985: 783). They claim that the specificity of *some* accounts for its use in assertive contexts while the non-specificity of *any* explains its use in non-assertive environments. Hewings distinguishes between *some* and *any* along similar lines, stating that *some* refers to "particular people or things in an indefinite way", while *any* refers to "non-specific, unspecified things" (Hewings 2005: 96). However,

he does not link *some*'s specificity and *any*'s non-specificity to their respective use in assertive and non-assertive contexts.

Several books use the concept of *existence* and *non-existence* to explain the choice between *some* and *any* in some or all clause types. Murphy employs this concept to distinguish between the two items in questions: "We use *some* [in questions] to talk about a person or thing that we know exists or think exists (..) But in most questions we use *any*. We do not know if the person or thing exists". (Murphy 2004: 170). Parrott states that *any* is used to ask about existence in questions, and to indicate non-existence in negative clauses. For Sinclair, existence - non-existence forms a major part of the semantic definition for *any* in all basic clause types: "*Any* is used (..) when you are referring to a quantity of something which may or may not exist. (..) *Any* is also used in questions asking whether something exists or not. It is also used in negative statements to say that something does not exist" (Sinclair 2005: 56).

Although Downing & Locke do not propose a specific meaning for either *some* or *any*, they provide a general meaning distinction between assertive items, including *some*, and non-assertive items, including *any*: "assertive forms have **factual meanings** (...). Non-assertive forms such as *any* are associated with **non-factual** meanings in the sense of **non-fulfilment or potentiality** [words bolded in original]" (Downing & Locke 2006: 24).

3.3.4 Accounts relating to whether *any* has one or two meanings

A number of grammar books including Huddleston & Pullum, Quirk et al, Carter & McCarthy, Thornbury, Hewings, Murphy, Carter et al, Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, and Eastwood treat *any* as having two separate meanings, along the lines of the negative polarity-free choice distinction made by many theorists in generative grammar and logical semantics. Although some grammar books do not cover the free choice meaning of *any*, as their analysis focuses on the use of *any* in non-assertive contexts (e.g. Biber et al), no book specifically treats the non-assertive and the free-choice senses as one and the same meaning. The majority of books that distinguish between the two types of *any* state that indefinite quantity "negative polarity" *any* is unstressed while free choice *any* is stressed. While all books associate the indefinite quantity meaning primarily or exclusively with non-assertive contexts such as negatives, conditional and questions, there is some variation regarding the clause types prescribed for free choice *any*, which is discussed in the next section.

3.3.5 Accounts of Clause Type Restrictions for Free Choice Any

Most grammar books that deal with free choice *any* associate it explicitly or implicitly with affirmative clauses. Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman and Eastwood both state that free choice *any* is limited to affirmative clauses. Similarly, Quirk et al limit its use to "assertive territory". Although they use the term "assertive territory" to refer to assertive contexts as opposed to merely affirmative clauses, all the examples that they provide are of the latter. While Carter & McCarthy, Hewings, Murphy and Thornbury do not provide any explicit clause type restrictions for free choice *any*, all the examples that they provide are of affirmative clauses. Carter et al state that free choice *any* is usually used in affirmatives.

Both Swan and Parrott distance themselves from this restrictive view of the environments in which free choice *any* can occur by pointing out that it occurs in negatives and questions as well as affirmative clauses. In addition, Parrott notes that this use can refer both to an unrestricted quantity e.g. "I don't like any red wine" and to an unlimited choice, e.g. "You can take any book" (Parrott 2000: 57).

While Huddleston & Pullum state that free choice *any* can occur in both affirmative and negative

contexts, they observe that it is "admissible only in a certain range of contexts". Although they do not clarify in which contexts it can be used, the examples of infelicitous clauses that they provide suggest that they regard it as impossible in total negatives and in episodic past tense clauses: *"we haven't had ANY rain for two months" and *"I (..) was feeling hungry so I ate ANY of the pies" (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 362).

3.4 Critique of Accounts of the Meanings of *Some* and *Any*

3.4.1 Introduction

Two main introductory observations can be made about the description of *some* and *any* in grammar books. Firstly, the numerous and significant discrepancies regarding the meanings of the two words reflect their elusive and multi-faceted semantic-pragmatic content: both *some* and *any* are hard to define, and several meanings often interact in the choice between them in particular contexts. Secondly, in all grammar book descriptions, the meanings play second fiddle to a syntactic focus, which differentiates between *some* and *any* in terms of clause type distribution, over-simplistically associating *some* with assertive clauses and *any* with non-assertive ones.

The difficulties involved in defining these two words accurately and in terms that are comprehensible to learners of English may well explain the attractions of this syntactic approach, which can be considered a simpler version of the clause-type approach to *some* and *any* employed, together with other elements, in generative grammar and logical semantics. At the same time, the acceptance of clause type as the key to the *some-any* distinction may have prevented these grammarians from devoting sufficient attention to the meaning distinctions of the two words.

Because a number of meanings are discussed in this chapter and in Chapter Two, a tabular overview of the main meanings of *some* and *any* is offered in Tables 3.1 and 3.2 below, so that the reader can refer to these when they are mentioned again at other points in the thesis.

Table 3.1 Main quantitative meanings

Meanings common to all quantitative senses of *some*	**Quantitative senses of some in certain contexts**	**Meanings common to all quantitative senses of *any***	**Quantitative senses of *any* in certain contexts**
• Indefinite • Limited • Referential (1)	• A small or moderate quantity, akin to "a certain amount" (usual meaning) • A large quantity e.g. "this is going to take some time." • Contrastive quantity sense: a certain quantity but not all/*many* etc	• Indefinite • Unlimited • Non-referential(2)	• Appreciative, large quantity meaning: "whatever number or amount, however large" • Depreciative small quantity meaning: "whatever number or amount, however small".

Table 3.2 Main qualitative meanings

Meanings common to all qualitative senses of *some*	**Qualitative senses of *some* in certain contexts**	**Meanings common to all qualitative senses of *any***	**Qualitative senses of *any* in certain contexts**
• Referential [(1)]	• A certain unspecified person, thing event etc • A certain person, thing event etc or other • The contrastive quality sense: some people, things etc but not others • Evaluative, often pejorative meaning generated by under-specification, e.g. "he's working in some sleazy nightclub."	• Generic and non-specific: no matter which person, thing type etc. • Non-referential [(2)]	• *Any* **can** be used with referents that actually exist or occur. However, it does not refer to actual instances of the referent, e.g. "As any teacher will tell you…"

[(1)] **referential** = exists/occurs, or is treated as existing/occurring or likely to exist/occur in discourse.
[(2)] **non-referential** = does not exist/occur or is treated as non-existing/occurring or possibly non-existing/occurring in discourse

3.4.2 Critique of Accounts of the Quantitative Meanings of *Some* and *Any*

The most erroneous semantic descriptions of the quantities referred to by *some* and *any* are offered in the books which make no distinction between the quantitative senses of the two words since, as will be argued below, their quantitative meanings are quite different. Carter et al's and Thornbury's description, in which *some* refers to a limited, indefinite amount and *any* to an indefinite quantity, is essentially correct although it does not make it sufficiently explicit that *any* refers to an unlimited amount.

Some does refer to an amount that is both indefinite, because the exact amount is either unknown or unstated, and limited, in the sense that it has finite upper and lower boundaries: the amount referred to is neither infinitely large nor infinitesimally small. Although the amount referred to is usually small or moderate, *some* can also be used before a large number and with expressions of time and measure to refer to large quantities as was seen in 2.4.4.3. However, as Duffley and Larrivée (2012) point out, it is possible that *some* is being used in a qualitative sense in both cases, to indicate that the quantity referred to by the number or the time and measure word cannot be specified exactly.

The quantitative description of *any* which best brings out its similarities and differences with *some* is *indefinite* and *unlimited:* like *some*, it refers to an amount that is unspecified or unknown; unlike *some*, there is no upper limit, as it can refer to whatever amount above zero. This description accounts

both for *any*'s "appreciative", large quantity meaning, e.g. "any number of" and its "depreciative", small quantity meaning, e.g. "any amount, however small". Taken in its mathematical sense, Biber et al's description of *any* as an "arbitrary amount" can also be said to bring out the indefiniteness and lack of boundaries of the quantity referred to. However, it is a more ambiguous term than "indefinite and unlimited", as it can also evoke a random but not necessarily undefined or unlimited amount.

In conclusion, learners are probably best served by a description which uses the terms *indefinite* and *unlimited* to define the quantitative meaning of *any* and *indefinite* and *limited* to describe that of *some*.

3.4.3 Critique of Accounts of the Qualitative Meanings of *Some* and *Any*

All the meaning distinctions used in grammar books to differentiate between *some* and *any* contain elements that are relevant to the choice between the two words. However, none of them are sufficient on their own to explain all cases of the *some-any* distinction.

While *non-specific* can be considered to be a feature of *any*, by no means all uses of *some* can be said to be specific but unspecified, as Quirk et al claim. The definition may work with Quirk et al's example "Did you see some strange man (or other) looking over the hedge?" because the speaker does not specify the person they are referring to, but may well have a specific person in mind. However, in their example, "Some day, I'll tell you a great secret", the speaker is unlikely to have a specific day in mind. The view that *some* does not necessarily refer to a specific referent is given empirical support in Sahlin's (1979) corpus-based study into *some* and *any*, which classifies all uses of *some* as not necessarily specific, except for "some + singular noun", which is classified as always unspecific.

Moreover, in cases in which the speaker does have a particular referent in mind but is unable to specify it or chooses not to do so, the word *specific* does not adequately convey the vagueness of the reference expressed by *some*. As both Channel (1994) and Le and Zhang (2018) note, *some* has many pragmatic functions in which it is used to refer to particular referents in a vague way. Hewings's alternative *particular but unspecified* might be preferable on the grounds that it can be employed to express a lower level of precision than *specific*. However, while the term "particular" is often used in the linguistic analysis of uses of *some* in this thesis, the term *certain* may be preferable for learner descriptions as it conveys *some*'s potential for vagueness more effectively to learners, because it carries a stronger undertone of indeterminacy or ambiguity.

At first sight, the preference for *any* in negative clauses- see sections 3.5-3.6- and the association of *some* with positive speaker expectations and *any* with neutral and negative speaker expectations in questions and conditionals-see sections 3.9-3.10- would seem to lend support to the view that *some* is related to *existence* and *any* to *non-existence*. However, there are numerous examples in the grammar books studied in which this binary distinction does not quite work, because *any* is being used to deny or bring into doubt the performance of an event rather than to refute or question existence. For example, Parrott's "I won't bring any wine" refers to the non-performance of the action of bringing wine rather than to the non-existence of wine.

The related distinction of factuality versus non-factuality can be considered a more useful distinction for the choice between *some* and *any* than existence-non-existence, as it covers the occurrence/non-occurrence of events and actions as well as the existence of people, things and concepts. However, neither existence - non-existence nor factuality - non-factuality can explain the use of *some* in cases like the following from Sahlin's (1979) corpus data: "If for the sake of argument you had some shares in De Beers"; "If we could get some kind of reaction from Professor Thorpe";

The concepts of referentiality – non-referentiality, discussed in section 2.6.6 in relation to Sahlin's

study, may be the most helpful means of distinguishing between *some* and *any*. *Some* is referential, as, with both its quantitative and qualitative meanings, it is used with a referent that is treated as existing or occurring within the universe of discourse; *any,* in both its quantitative and qualitative senses, is *non-referential*, as it is used with a referent whose existence or occurrence within the universe of discourse is discarded or treated as doubtful. The examples from Sahlin in the previous paragraph can both be explained by this definition. In the first example, "some shares" is referential because the speaker is asking the reader to contemplate having some shares as a real occurrence. In the second, the speaker is introducing as a discourse referent his desire or need for some reaction from Professor Thorpe.

At first sight many examples with "no matter which" *any* followed by a generic noun phrase pose a problem for claiming that *any* is non-referential, as they seem to entail the existence or occurrence of the referent contained in the noun phrase. However, they are not referential as the speaker is not referring to any individual person or thing. Thus, although Sahlin's "Problems cling to pools as any pool owner knows" presupposes the existence of pool owners, the speaker is not actually referring to any actual instance of a pool owner. In Givon's words: "By discussing the genus or its properties one may (..) commit oneself to the existence/referentiality of *the genus itself* within the universe of discourse. In most ordinary cases, this may lead to the tacit commitment to the existence of individual members of that genus. However, the speaker using a generic expression is still not committed to "mean" any particular individual." (Givon 1978: 294, cited in Sahlin 1979: 29).

It is instructive to compare Sahlin's pool owner example above, with the following invented adaptation in which *some* is used with a non-specific referent, e.g. "There must be some pool owner who can give you advice". Here, although the speaker is not actually talking about a specific pool owner, the example is referential, as (s)he is explicitly committing to the existence of such an individual. Thus, even in cases when *some* is used to refer to an (un)specific member(s) of a category, it is non-generic and referential because it explicitly discusses an individual member of that category. *Any* on the other hand is non-referential as it does not refer to actual members of a class.

Prior to conducting my corpus-research, it can tentatively be concluded that the referential - non-referential distinction is the most reliable semantic means of distinguishing between *some* and *any*: it is superior to existence - non-existence and factuality - non-factuality, as it can cater for the cases in which *some* is used with referents that do not exist or occur in the real world but are treated as if they exist or occur within discourse; it is better than specificity - non-specificity as it can explain the difference between cases in which *some* refers to individual members of a class and ones in which *any* refers generically to members of a class.

3.4.4 Critique of Accounts Relating to Whether *Any* has One or Two Meanings

Leaving aside the theoretical arguments discussed in Chapter Two regarding whether *any* has only one basic underlying meaning or two, the tendency of grammar books to treat non-assertive *any* and free choice *any* as separate meanings makes sense from a pedagogical point of view, as the two meanings lead to entirely different surface interpretations. For example, Parrot's "I won't bring any wine", with negative polarity any means "I will bring no wine", whereas the invented adaptation "I won't bring (just) ANY wine", with free choice *any* would mean that I will not just bring the first wine that I see in a supermarket or in my wine cellar.

3.4.5 Critique of Accounts of Clause Type Restrictions for Free Choice *Any*

The position that free choice *any* is not polarity sensitive is preferable to the more generally-held position that it occurs exclusively in affirmative clauses and contexts. While more frequent in affirmative clauses, free choice *any* is quite natural in non-assertive clauses such as questions and conditionals. Huddleston & Pullum's assertion that free choice *any* can only occur in a limited range

of contexts would need to be substantiated either via a list of the contexts in which it can occur or via an enumeration and exemplification of those in which it is not possible or does not tend to occur. Possible limitations on the use of free-choice *any* will be examined in Chapter 5.

3.5 Accounts of the Use of *Some* and *Any* in Negative Clauses

While grammar books offer a convergent picture of the role of *any* as the preferred form in negative clauses, there is considerably more divergence with regard to the possibilities of using *some* in such clauses. For this reason, after a brief review of the treatment of *any*, this section will focus on what grammar books have to say about the use of *some* in negative clauses. Much of the discussion focuses on the uses in which *some* is claimed to be outside negative scope. The reader is asked to bear in mind that the reasons offered for considering that *some* is outside negative scope in these uses are those of the grammar books under review. My own position on this question is provided in section 3.6.

All grammar books treat *any* as the preferential form in negative clauses. While they do not explicitly describe the type of negation that is created with *any*, the examples that they offer and the equivalences that they establish between "not negation" with *any* and "no negation" with a nuclear negative, e.g. "I haven't any money" and "I have no money", suggest that they believe that negative clauses with *any* express what will be referred to in this thesis as *total negation*, that is, the negative verb phrase applies to all cases of the noun referent.

While they do not explicitly proscribe the use of *some* in negative clauses, Yule, Murphy, Swan, Sinclair, Swan & Walter, and Eastwood offer no analysis whatsoever of when *some* is used in negative clauses, thus giving the impression that *some* is extremely rare and *any* is the recommended, default form. Although Thornbury does not explicitly state that *some* is not possible in negative clauses, the association that he makes between *any* and non-assertive contexts and the exercises he includes, in which all the negative clauses require *any*, suggest that he too wishes to convey the idea that *any* is the default form in negatives.

Huddleston & Pullum, Quirk et al, Downing & Locke, and Biber et al regard *some* as possible when it lies grammatically or semantically outside the scope of negation. Essentially, these four books all consider *some* to be outside the grammatical scope of negation when it comes before the negator; in line with the consensus position held by both generative grammarians and logical semanticists, they regard it as outside the semantic scope when it is used with its contrastive "some but not all/others" meaning, as in Huddleston and Pullum's example: "I didn't understand some of the points she was trying to make" (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 829).

Hewings states that *some* is possible in negative clauses in three cases: when it means "not all", when the basic meaning of the clause is positive, and when it is used with a singular noun to refer to a "particular but unspecified person or thing". Although Hewings does not state explicitly that *some* has to occur outside the scope of negation, both the comments that he makes and the examples that he provides suggest that all three cases can be considered to be outside the scope of negation if the standard arguments offered in grammar books are applied. The "not all" meaning is clearly identical to stressed, contrastive *some*, which is conventionally regarded as outside negative scope. With the basic positive meaning category, the example that he offers, "somebody isn't telling the truth" suggests that he is contemplating cases in which *some*, or its compound forms, are in subject position and therefore outside grammatical scope. Hewings claims that s*ome* is usually stressed when it means "a particular but unspecified person or thing". From the perspective of the standard view that stressed *some* is outside negative scope, this use too can be considered to be outside the scope of negation.

Parrott, Carter & McCarthy, Carter et al and Celce-Murcia & Larsen Freeman regard unstressed *some* as impossible in negative clauses. While Carter & McCarthy and Carter et al provide no overt clause

type indications for stressed *some*, Parrott and Celce-Murcia & Larsen Freeman both explicitly state that it is used in negative clauses. Celce-Murcia & Larsen Freeman only consider stressed *some* in negative clauses to be possible with one meaning: "It is in fact possible for [stressed] *some* to occur in a negative clause when a meaning of identity is invoked: 'I don't eat some foods -lima beans for example'." (Celce-Murcia & Larsen Freeman 1999: 196). Parrott and Carter et al both provide one example of stressed *some*, which corresponds to the contrastive "some but not all/others" meaning.

Quirk et al and Huddleston & Pullum both state that *some* is used in negative clauses in metalinguistic negation, that is, in the denial or correction of a previous utterance containing the word *some*. For example, Huddleston & Pullum state that "He hadn't eaten some of the meat" can be used as a denial of the previous statement "He had eaten some of the meat". (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 360). Huddleston & Pullum regard such examples as an exception to the "rule" that *some* cannot occur inside negative scope. Huddleston & Pullum also state that assertive items , including *some,* are used "in negative clauses that are embedded beneath a superordinate negative in such a way that the positive counterpart is implicated" (Huddleston and Pullum: 2002: 830), as with expressions such as "You can't tell me that" or "Never think that". Huddleston & Pullum also allude to the positive orientation of other types of cross-clausal and intra-clausal multi-negative patterns, but do not discuss the use of *some* and *any*, or polarity items in general, with these patterns.

3.6 Critique of Accounts of *Some* and *Any* in Negative Clauses

Prior to conducting my research, the description of the *some-any* choice in negative clauses would seem to have two main faults: the failure to focus on the fundamental distinction between *some* and *any* in negative clauses, that of partial versus total negation, and the tendency to take an over-restrictive view on the possibilities of using *some*, which is characterized by the mistaken belief that *some* is only possible when it is stressed and/or lies outside the scope of negation.

In my teaching experience, learners need to learn the contrast between total negation with *any*, as in Downing and Locke's example "He didn't reply to any of the letters", and partial negation with s*ome* as in their example "He didn't reply to some of the letters". No grammar book deals clearly and explicitly with this distinction: some grammar books do not cover the distinction at all while others merely cover it implicitly, in their description and/or in the examples that they provide. The discussion of the research results in Chapter 5 will establish whether this pre-research position regarding the importance of the partial negation use is correct, and the extent to which there are other important uses of *some* in negative clauses.

There are two aspects to the position adopted by grammar books with regard to *some* inside the scope of negation: the claim that *some* is extremely infrequent inside the grammatical scope of negation; the argument that when *some* appears inside the grammatical scope with its contrastive "some but not others" use and the "certain person or thing" use, it is outside the semantic scope of negation.

The question regarding the possibility of using *some* inside the grammatical scope of negation is examined in the results relating to Research Question 1 in Chapter 5. The claim that *some* is outside the semantic scope of negation in the two uses cited above is a question of interpretation that cannot be definitively proven or disproven by corpus research. The discussion below provides reasons for considering that the grammar book claims on the semantic scope of negation are not sustainable.

Firstly, an analysis of Downing and Locke's letter example with *some* (above) shows that contrastive *some* is inside the semantic scope of negation: Although "he didn't reply to some of the letters" clearly implies that some letters were replied to while others were not, this is not a reason for considering that "some of the letters" is outside the scope of negation, as the focus is on what is not done, on the letters that were not written. Furthermore, if examples of unanswered letters are added to this example

as an appositional element e.g. “He didn’t reply to some of the letters, especially the ones from his former company” then the examples are clearly inside semantic scope. If it is accepted that “the ones from his former company” are inside semantic scope, then the genus from which they are taken - “some of his letters” - must also lie inside it.

Secondly, it does not seem to be correct to claim that *some* is outside the semantic scope of negation when it is used in object position in a negative clause to mean “a certain person or thing” or “certain people or things”, because it is precisely the thing(s) or person/people being referred to that is the focus of the negative verb phrase. Thus, in the following example, “some application” is in the scope of negation, as the speaker is focusing precisely on the one application that he hadn’t completed: “One of our administration guys said I hadn't filled in some application we have to do every week.”

Stress does not appear to be a reliable means of determining whether *some* is inside or outside the scope of negation or whether it is possible in negative clauses. In the contrastive use, *some* would normally be stressed but in the “certain person or thing” use with a singular noun it is by no means clear that *some* is always stressed. In the application example above, it would probably be more usual to use the weak unstressed form /sm/. Similarly in clauses in which *some* is used before a plural noun to mean “certain people or things” or “a certain amount of”, there may be cases in which the stress falls on other elements of the clause such as on the verb, the noun or the accompanying adjective. The extent to which unstressed *some* occurs inside negative scope would need to be examined with a spoken corpus for which recordings are available. It is not examined in my own reference corpus research, which is based on a written corpus.

Huddleston & Pullum’s observation that a variety of types of cross-clausal and intra-clausal multiple negation may be positively-oriented and thus admit positive polarity items may prove to be relevant to the some-any distinction if *some* occurs frequently inside such patterns. The frequency of this use is examined in my own corpus research in Chapter 5.

3.7 Accounts of *Some* and *Any* after Implicit Negatives

Although some grammar books including Parrott, Nettle & Hopkins, and Carter et al make no mention whatsoever of the use of *some* and *any* with implicit negatives, most books cover this area to some extent. While less information is provided on implicit negation than on explicit negation, all the grammar books that describe the use of *some* and *any* with implicit negatives treat this area in essentially the same way that they treat their use in explicitly negative clauses; that is, they regard *any* as the preferential or default form and consider *some* to be possible in the same limited range of contexts discussed in sections 3.5 to 3.6 above.

While some grammar books simply allude to the use of *any* in implicitly negative clauses, without offering a list of implicit negative words, others offer lists of varying length. The books which provide the most detail are Hewings, Biber et al, Quirk et al and Huddleston & Pullum. Hewings notes that implicit negatives include “negative adverbs such as *barely, hardly, never, rarely, scarcely, seldom*; negative verbs such as *deny*, *fail*, *forbid, prevent*, *prohibit*, *refuse*; negative adjectives such as *impossible*, *reluctant*, *unable*, *unlikely* and the preposition *without*” (Hewings 2005: 96).

Some grammar books also mention some other grammatical environments, which are not strictly speaking implicit negatives but can nevertheless lead to the use of non-assertive *any*, including clauses containing *too*+ adjective/adverb, comparative and superlative clauses and time clauses with *before*.

3.8 Critique of Accounts of Some and Any after Implicit Negatives

Grammar books cannot provide learners with a proper understanding of the *some-any* distinction in negative environments unless they offer a thorough coverage of implicit negatives as well as negative clauses. Indeed, the covert nature of the negative meaning conveyed by these words makes it particularly important for grammar books to cover them explicitly, as learners may not perceive their negative meaning on their own.

The grammar books that do deal with implicit negatives can be criticized on three counts: for providing the same over-restrictive view of the use of *some* in implicit negatives as they do for its use in negative clauses; for covering a generally limited range of implicit negatives; for failing to draw attention to specific cases of the *some-any* distinction in implicit negatives. The discussion below focuses on the last two problems. The first problem is not discussed further as the same basic arguments provided in section 3.6.3 against restricting *some* in explicit negative clauses to cases in which it is stressed or outside negative scope also apply to implicit negatives.

While Hewings, Quirk, Huddleston & Pullum and Biber et al cover a broad range of such words, the list could be made more complete still by including other semantic sets of words that tend towards *any* owing to their negative meaning. Jo and Lee (2002) mention two groups of words that could perhaps be added to the list of implicit negatives: *removal process predicates*, that is, verbs such as *remove*, *destroy* and *get rid of* which indicate a process of removal or elimination, and *absence state predicates,* that is noun phrases and adjectival phrases such as *absence of, clear of,* and *devoid of* which indicate absence or lack. While the claim made in grammar books that *before* clauses and *without* clauses occur primarily with *any* may be correct, it may also be useful for learners to know how to distinguish between *some* and *any* in these clauses.

As will be seen in the discussion of Research Question 2 in Chapter Four, the corpus study undertaken for this thesis addresses all of the deficiencies of current grammar book descriptions described in the preceding paragraphs.

3.9 Accounts of the Use of *Some* and *Any* in Conditional Clauses

3.9.1 Introduction

While the majority of grammar books limit their discussion of *some* and *any* in conditionals to *if* clauses, a few books including Quirk et al and Huddleston & Pullum also include a brief description of s*ome* and *any* in *unless* clauses. Although some grammar books occasionally refer to speaker expectations in other conditional clauses, e.g. *as long as*, they do not position themselves clearly with regard to the use of *some* and *any* in these clauses. For this reason, they have been excluded from the discussion below.

3.9.2 Accounts of the Use of *Some-Any* in *If*-Clause Conditionals

While Parrott, Carter et al and Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman make no mention of the use of *some* and *any* in conditionals and Swan regards both items as equally possible, most grammar books included in the review treat *any* as the "preferred form" in *if* clause conditionals. They mostly state that *any* is preferred and provide no examples with *some*.

Hewings, Quirk et al and Huddleston & Pullum also subscribe to the view that *any* is the most likely form, but, in line with their position on the *some-any* distinction in questions, they believe that the choice is determined by speaker expectations: they regard *any* as the usual form in *if* clauses which express neutral or negative expectations on the part of the speaker and *some* as the preferred form in

those which convey positive expectations.

Huddleston & Pullum also link the choice between *some* and *any* in *if* clauses to the distinction between open conditionals, which essentially correspond to "type 1 conditionals", and remote conditionals, which basically involve "type two" and "type three" conditionals. They state that open conditionals generally have either a neutral or a negative orientation towards the realization of the condition, and thus tend to prefer non-assertive items such as *any*. However, they indicate that assertive items such as *some* can be used to point up the greater likelihood of the condition being satisfied. They equate remote *if* clause conditionals with negative meaning because of the speaker's negative expectations regarding the fulfilment of the condition. For this reason, they believe that they are a natural environment for non-assertive items such as *any* and an unlikely context for *some*.

Quirk et al do not explicitly compare the use of assertive and non-assertive items in real and remote *if* clause conditionals. However, their association of *some* with other conditional conjunctions that are not normally used in hypothetical conditionals, alongside their general position regarding the role of *some* to express positive orientation, suggests that they too believe that *some* is only possible in positively-oriented open *if*-clauses.

3.9.3 Accounts of the Use of *Some* and *Any* in *Unless*-Clause Conditionals

Most grammar books do not discuss the distribution of s*ome* and *any* with *unless* clauses. However, Quirk et al associate the use of *unless* clauses with assertive items, because such clauses tend to occur in open conditionals, and provide an example that contains a compound form of *some.* Similarly, Huddleston & Pullum's discussion of the difference between *unless* and *if.. not* suggests that they regard *unless* clauses as an environment that attracts assertive items such as s*ome* and repels non-assertive items such as *any*.

3.10 Critique of Accounts of the Use of *Some* and *Any* in Conditional Clauses

3.10.1 Introduction

Clearly, the grammar book descriptions which simply state that *any* is the preferred form in conditionals without providing a principled basis for choosing between *some* and *any* are not helpful for learners. The general rule offered in other grammar books that links *some* to positive speaker expectations and *any to* negative ones fits with the general association made in grammar books between some and positive contexts and any and negative ones and is corroborated by Sahlin's (1979) corpus study. However, the role of expectational bias will be re-examined in the discussion of research results in Chapter 5 in order to establish any possible exceptions to this rule.

Section 3.10.2 discusses my pre-research position regarding what may be missing from the current description of the use of *some* and *any* in conditional clauses. Section 3.10.3 critiques Quirk et al's and Huddleston & Pullum's description of the *some-any* choice in *unless clauses*.

3.10.2 Critique of Accounts of the Use of *Some* and *Any* in *If- Clause* Conditionals

Lakoff's (1969) article linking *some* to certain positively oriented functions in conditionals and *any* to negatively oriented ones is an oft-cited contribution to the *some-any* distinction generally, and to the use of *some* and *any* in conditionals in particular. However, speech functions are not discussed in any of the grammar books reviewed in this chapter. The role played by such functions is examined in the discussion of research results in Chapter 5.

As was seen in section 2.6.5.4, the claim that remote conditionals must occur with *any* has already

been brought into question by Sahlin's (1979) corpus-based study. However, more information is needed to determine the factors affecting the choice between *some* and *any* in this type of conditional clause.

One such factor may be the type of bias that is expressed in the conditional. Given the general association made in grammar books between *some* and positive contexts and *any* and negative ones, and the treatment of *some* as a positive polarity item and *any* as a negative polarity item in the theoretical literature, it seems reasonable to expect remote conditionals which express negative or neutral epistemic bias to show a preference for *any*, and conditionals in which the speaker chooses to emphasize a positive desiderative or deontic bias over the negative or neutral epistemic one to tend towards *some*. This belief will be tested against corpus data in Chapter 5.

3.10.3 Critique of Accounts of the Use of *Some and Any* in *Unless*-Clause Conditionals

The general tendency to focus on *if* clauses to the detriment of other conditional clause types in pedagogical descriptions of conditionals probably accounts for the failure of most grammar books to deal with the *some-any* choice in *unless* clauses. It seems advisable for grammar books to pay some attention to the *some-any* choice in conditionals with *unless,* as it is an area that can cause problems for learners.

Unless clauses could be regarded as positively oriented as they appear to consider the condition that they express as a genuine possibility. From this perspective, Quirk et al's and Huddleston & Pullum's claim that such clauses prefer assertive items to non-assertive ones makes sense and would seem to suggest that *some* is more likely than *any* in *unless* clauses. However, as occurs in all positively oriented clauses, the use of free choice *any* also seems perfectly possible, e.g. “unless he has a master key that opens any door” and the use of negative polarity *any* cannot be discarded, e.g. “unless he actually does any work”. My research study attempts to uncover a principled basis for distinguishing between *some* and *any* in such clauses.

3.11 Accounts of the use of *Some* and *Any* in Questions

3.11.1 Introduction

The review of grammar book descriptions of the use of *some* and *any* in questions focuses on the explanations offered for the following questions types, affirmative yes -no questions; negative yes-no questions; affirmative wh-questions; negative wh-questions.. The discussion of speaker bias in affirmative yes-no questions in section 3.11.2 is also relevant to other question types and will be taken up again in other sections.

3.11.2 Accounts of the Use of *Some* and *Any* in Affirmative Yes-No questions and the Role of Speaker Bias

Most books which explain the choice between *some* and *any* in affirmative yes-no questions, offer essentially the same account, which is based on speaker expectations; *any* is used when the speaker has negative or neutral expectations, that is, he/she expects a “no” for an answer or has no expectations regarding the answer that he/she will receive; *some* is used in questions in which the speaker expects the answer “yes”. Most books also draw attention to the need to use *some* rather than *any* in offers and requests because the speaker is oriented towards a positive answer.

Parrott and Thornbury offer a more reductionist view. They state that *any* is the preferred form in information questions regardless of speaker expectation and restrict the use of *some* exclusively to positively-biased questions which perform certain directive functions: Thornbury claims that *some* is

the preferred form in offer and suggestion questions, while Parrott states that *some*, in its usual unstressed form, is obligatory in requests and interchangeable with *any* in offers.

Huddleston & Pullum provide a more fine-grained analysis of the role of speaker bias in questions, which is not limited to expectational bias. Although this more detailed analysis makes few references to the *some-any* distinction, or even to the more general distinction between assertive and non-assertive items, it provides a possible framework for understanding more subtle bias-related distinctions between *some* and *any* in questions.

Huddleston & Pullum break down positive and negative bias into three different types: *epistemic bias*, that is, a bias towards an answer that fits with the speakers' knowledge or expectations, *desiderative bias*, that is a bias towards the speakers' hopes and wishes, and *deontic bias*, that is a bias towards what, from the speakers' perspective, should or shouldn't happen. They argue that assertive items are used to indicate a positive desiderative bias in a variety of indirect speech acts. Although they do not explicitly state so, this suggests that *some* is used not only in offers and requests, but also in speech acts such as instructions, advice and suggestions. Huddleston & Pullum relate the *some-any* choice in requests and offers to desiderative bias, explaining that *some* is the usual form because the speaker is indicating that he wants the action to occur. However, they state that *any* can be used in less effusive offers in which the speaker wishes to express indifference towards the acceptance of his proposal.

While Quirk et al do not explicitly break down positive and negative bias into different types, their description of biased questions as "conducive questions [that] indicate the speaker is predisposed to the type of answer that he has wanted or expected" (Quirk et al 1985:808) suggests that they too see a role for desiderative bias in positively and negatively oriented questions.

3.11.3 Accounts of the Use of *Some* and *Any* in Negative Yes-No Questions

The only authors who expressly describe the so*me-any* choice in negative yes-no questions are Carter & McCarthy, Quirk et al, Huddleston & Pullum, and Downing & Locke. In addition to these explicit references, some authors make general comments on aspects of negative yes-no questions, including question bias, which might be thought to have an indirect bearing on this distinction. Only explicit references are analysed here for space reasons.

Carter & McCarthy, Downing & Locke, Huddleston & Pullum and Quirk et al agree that *any* confers a negative bias upon negative interrogatives. However, they disagree with regard to the role of *some* in such clauses. For Carter & McCarthy, Quirk et al and Downing & Locke, *some* always gives negative interrogatives a positive orientation. For Huddleston and Pullum, negative interrogatives containing assertive items, such as *some*, usually express a positive bias but may sometimes express a negative one. For example, they note that "Didn't you like some of it?" could be interpreted either with a positive bias – "It wasn't all bad; there was some of it you liked wasn't there" – or with a negative one – "it apparently wasn't a complete success; there was some of it you didn't like, did you?".

3.11.4 Accounts of the Use of Some and Any in Affirmative Wh-questions

While most grammar books include sections on wh-questions, they provide little information that can be considered relevant to the *some/any* distinction. Quirk et al and Huddleston & Pullum can be considered partial exceptions. For both sets of authors, wh-questions involve presuppositions which affect the bias of the question: affirmative questions generally involve the presupposition that the event, action or situation described in the question actually occurs, while a negative wh-question activates the presupposition that it does not occur. Thus, for these authors, grammatically affirmative

wh-questions tend to be positively-oriented, while grammatically negative ones generally have a negative bias. Quirk et al also allude to the existence of another type of factual wh-question in which the speaker expresses a negative attitude towards the fact expressed. For example, he explains "Why are you making so much fuss?" as "You are making a lot of fuss, but you shouldn't be making so much fuss". They do not discuss the *some-any* distinction in questions of this type.

Both Quirk et al and Huddleston & Pullum state that one way of cancelling the positive presupposition in affirmative wh-questions is to use a non-assertive item such as *any*. Thus, in Huddleston and Pullum's example "Where can you find anything better?" the use of negatively oriented *anything* cancels the presupposition that something better could be found somewhere and thus conveys the speaker's belief that it would be impossible to find a better alternative anywhere. Similarly, in Quirk's example "When will we ever win any prizes?" the use of *any* cancels the presupposition that we will win some prizes. Some other grammar books note the possibility of using rhetorical questions to make negative statements but do not relate this to the *some-any* distinction.

Biber et al, Carter & McCarthy, Quirk et al, Huddleston & Pullum and Thornbury note the possibility of using wh-questions to perform speech functions. Most of their comments refer to the use of affirmative wh-questions in positively oriented directives such as suggestions, invitations or instructions. However, Biber et al note that wh-questions can be used to make rebukes – e.g. "How dare you speak to me like that?" (Biber et al 2002: 250). Quirk et al state that the phrase "Why do you?" involves a positive presupposition but functions as a negative directive.

3.11.5 Accounts of the Use of *Some* and *Any* in Negative Wh-Questions

Quirk et al note that negative wh-information questions generally express presuppositions in the same way as positive wh-questions in which the presupposition has not been cancelled. Thus, "Who hasn't had any coffee?" presupposes "Someone hasn't had any coffee". Quirk et al also discuss negative wh-interrogatives involving the use of phrases such as "Who doesn't know?" and "How couldn't you remember?" to make positive statements. They explain these cases by stating that the wh-element is replaced by "a positive element". Thus, "Who doesn't know?" is equivalent to the positive statement "everyone knows", while "How couldn't you remember" means "You certainly could have remembered".

Most grammar books note that the question Why don't you? and its abbreviated form "Why not?" can be used to perform directive functions such as instructions, invitations, suggestions but make no specific reference to the distribution of *some* and *any* with these functions. However, Quirk et al observe that non-assertive items may be used in a different type of wh-question: in questions such as "Why don't you ever write?", which, in their analysis, both offer advice and express irritation at the fact that the hearer has not performed the action

3.12 Critique of Accounts of the Use of *Some* and *Any* in Questions

3.12.1 Introduction

The main problem with grammar book descriptions of the *some-any* choice in questions relates to the lack of information that they offer on affirmative and negative wh-questions. The explanation provided for affirmative and negative yes-no questions seems to be largely correct but incomplete.

3.12.2 Critique of Accounts of the Use of *Some* and *Any* in Affirmative Yes-No questions and the Role of Speaker Bias

The consensus position establishing that *any* is used in neutrally and negatively oriented questions and s*ome* in positively oriented ones seems to be essentially correct. However, two aspects of the

account may need to be modified: the position relating to the *some-any* choice in offers and requests and the description of the role of bias types.

Given that offers and requests tend to express the speaker's positive-orientation towards the action that (s)he is proposing, the claim that *some* is the preferred form in these functions seems highly plausible. Moreover there are many cases in which *any* sounds entirely inappropriate, e.g. Murphy's example "Can I have any sugar, please?". However, it is possible to think of cases in which *any* is possible, e.g. "Would you like any help?" or "Can you lend me any money?".

It is possible that *any* renders the offer or request more tentative than "Would you like some help?" and "Can you lend me some money?", which seem a bit more obtrusive than the equivalent questions with *any*. These two examples bring into doubt the idea that *some* is always politer than *any* in offer and request questions. The possibility of using *any* in offer and request questions is discussed in the research results in Chapter 5.

Although Huddleston & Pullum provide a detailed analysis of different types of question bias in affirmative yes-no questions *per se* , they, like other authors, only consider the role of epistemic bias - what the speaker thinks or knows is the answer - in the choice between *some* and *any* in such questions. While epistemic bias clearly plays a key role in the *some-any* choice in questions, desiderative and deontic bias may also be involved in both affirmative yes-no information questions and affirmative yes-no questions that perform speech functions. This possibility is examined in my research alongside other aspects of the use of *some* and *any* in this clause type.

3.12.3 Critique of Accounts of the Use of *Some* and *Any* in Negative Yes-No Questions

The claims that *any* is used to express a negative bias and *some* to express a positive one in negative yes-no questions fits with the general view that *some* is used to express positive speaker orientation and *any* to express negative orientation. However, if one departs from the premise that *some* is possible in negative contexts, then Huddleston and Pullum's assertion that *some* is possible in negatively-biased negative yes-no questions also seems to make sense. The research conducted into negative yes-no questions as part of this thesis tests both these claims and examines whether *some* or *any* are used to perform positively and negatively oriented speech functions along the lines suggested by Lakoff (1969) for questions and conditionals generally.

3.12.4 Critique of Accounts of the Use of *Some* and *Any* in Affirmative Wh-questions

While Quirk et al's analysis alludes briefly to the use of *any* and other negative polarity items in negatively oriented, counterfactual wh-questions, nothing explicit is said about the use of *some* or other assertive items in any type of wh-question. Given the association of *some* with referential meaning and *any* with non-referential meaning that is discussed in section 3.4.3, *some* is likely to be the preferred form in factual affirmative wh-questions and *any* in counterfactual ones. As was seen in Section 3.11.4, the grammar books that link wh-questions to positively oriented speech functions such as suggestions or instructions, or to negatively-oriented ones such as rebukes and negative directives, do not link this to the *some-any* distinction. If the usual distribution of *some* and *any* in non-assertive clause types is applicable to wh-questions, it would seem logical to assume that *some* will occur with the positively oriented speech functions, and *any* with the negative ones. This assumption is tested against corpus data in my study.

3.12.5 Critique of Accounts of the Use of *Some* and *Any* in Negative Wh-questions

Quirk et al offer a clear analysis of negative and positive orientation in such clauses, which raises issues that may have a bearing on the *some-any* distinction. In negative wh-information questions in

which no presupposition cancellation takes place, the distinction between *some* and *any* may be based on the difference between total negation and partial negation. In rhetorical wh-questions which function as emphatically positive clauses, it is logical to expect referential *some* rather than non-referential *any* – e.g. "Who hasn't made some mistakes?". Nevertheless, *any* would seem to be possible with its free-choice meaning, e.g. "Who hasn't seen at least five movies starring any one of these guys?". My research aims to determine the role of both lexical meanings and positive and negative orientation in the *some-any* distinction in such clauses.

3.13 Accounts of the Use of *Any* in Affirmative Declarative Clauses

Grammar books devote considerably more space to the use of *any* in non-assertive contexts than they do to its use in affirmative declarative clauses. Nevertheless, some patterns emerge in the description of how *any* is used in affirmative declarative clauses.

Swan, Carter et al, Huddleston & Pullum and Quirk et al indicate that *any* is not negative in and of itself, but only when it is preceded and governed by a word that confers negative meaning upon the clause. In the context of affirmative declarative clauses, this indication clearly relates to the use of *any* after implicit negatives, although grammar books do not always make this link fully explicit. Most books indicate that the use of *any* which occurs in affirmative declarative clauses tends to be free choice "no matter which" *any.* Carter & McCarthy, among others, also state that *any* is used in implied conditionals such as "any rain will clear by midday".

While theoretical linguists discuss a series of grammatico-lexical restrictions on the use of *any* in affirmative clauses, grammar books generally place no limits on its use. Quirk et al claim that the use of free choice *any* in assertive contexts is mostly restricted to clauses which contain modal auxiliaries or to cases in which the noun phrase with which *any* is used is postmodified by a relative clause. A number of grammar books state that only stressed *any* tends to occur in affirmative contexts. This restriction may well be linked to the view that *any* is generally used with its free choice meaning in such contexts, as free choice *any* is generally considered to be stressed.

3.14 Critique of Accounts of the Use of *Any* in Affirmative Declarative Clauses

The indication by some authors that negativity is not part of *any's* basic meaning may be a useful reminder for learners who make mistakes like the following: "Which shops are open today?" – "*Any of them". Errors of this type, in which *any* and its compound forms are used instead of nuclear negative words, are not analysed in my learner corpus research, which only examines the cases in which *some* and *any* are confused.

The examples of *any* with its "no matter which meaning" in affirmative declarative clauses that are offered in grammar books appear to be quite typical cases of *any* in such clauses - e.g. Carter and McCarthy's example "Any fruit juice will make you sick if you drink enough of it". My research into *any* in affirmative clauses examines the relative frequencies of the "no matter which" and the negative polarity meanings.

The reference in some grammar books to cases such as "Any rain will clear by midday", in which *any* refers to events, things or people that may or may not exist within the universe of discourse may help to get the non-referential nature of *any* across to learners. However, it may be preferable to refer to this use as the "any possible" use rather than the "implied conditional" use, as the latter term may be thought to indicate that there is an underlying conditional in "deep structure".

With regard to the contexts in which free choice *any* can be used in affirmative declarative clauses,

Quirk et al's claim that it is only common in clauses containing modal auxiliaries and relative clause modification seems somewhat restrictive, as examples can be found in grammar books that do not belong to these lexico-grammatical contexts and sound quite common, e.g. “Any doctor knows that”, in Yule. To test the extent to which free choice *any* can only occur in a restricted range of contexts, my study examines a set of contexts in which *any* is commonly said not to occur in affirmative clauses in the theoretical literature: the present continuous tense, episodic past tenses and existential *there* clauses.

3.15 Conclusion

The grammar book review in this chapter suggests that the current description of *some* and *any* has the following faults. Firstly, it appears to focus too much on clause type distribution as a means of distinguishing between *some* and *any,* and fails to pay enough attention to the meanings of the two words. Secondly, it seems to offer an over-restrictive view of the possibilities of using *some* in negative clauses and offers very little information on the use of *any* in affirmative clauses. Finally, the descriptions of the *some-any* distinction in conditionals and questions, while basically accurate, do not appear to do justice to the complexities of the distinction and fail to cover both wh-questions and *unless*-clauses.

The corpus research discussed in the next chapter will reveal the extent to which the criticisms of the current pedagogical description offered in this review are justified. The results of this research will form the basis for the new pedagogical description that is presented in Chapter 6.

Chapter 4 Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter gives an account of the research questions that have been employed to investigate uses of *some* and *any* and the data sets and the corpus search methods that have been used to answer them. Section 4.2 presents and justifies the research questions. Section 4.3 explains the decision to examine *some* and *any* through corpus research. Section 4.4 accounts for the decision to use the Oxford English Corpus (hereafter the OEC) and the Cambridge Learner Corpus (hereafter the CLC) to conduct the corpus research. Section 4.5 explains the search methods that were employed in this study before describing in more detail the search terms used with each research question. Sections 4.6 and 4.7 discuss the methodological problems that arose during the research with the OEC and the CLC respectively and explain how these problems were addressed.

4.2 Research Questions

This study set out to answer the following research questions. Questions 1-5 are answered using a reference corpus, the OEC, and question 6 using a learner corpus, the CLC.

RQ1) Is *some* used inside the scope of negation, in object position, in negative clauses? If so, how is it used?

RQ2) What is the distribution and use of *some* and *any* after implicit negatives? Are there any patterns of distribution and use that are specific to certain implicit negatives?

RQ3) What are the main factors that determine the choice between *some* and *any* in *if*-clause conditionals and *unless*-clause conditionals?

RQ4) What are the main factors that determine the choice between *some* and *any* in the following question types: affirmative yes-no questions; negative yes-no questions; affirmative wh-questions; negative wh-questions?

RQ5) Which meanings of *any* are used in affirmative clauses? To what extent is the use of *any* restricted in veridical contexts?

RQ6) What errors do learners of English make in the choice between *some* and *any*? How do these errors relate to the areas of the *some-any* distinction examined in RQs 1-5 and what are the possible causes of these errors?

The fundamental objective of **RQ1** is to examine the accuracy of the grammar book descriptions of the use of *some* in negative clauses that were discussed in sections 3.5-3.6. The main feature of these descriptions is the restriction of *some* to cases in which it lies outside the scope of negation. The search for *some* inside the grammatical scope of negation focuses exclusively on *some* in object position immediately after a negative verb phrase in object position. The use of *some* after a negative form of the verb *to be*, without a following main verb, was not studied. The reason for this is that *be not some* is very much limited to the evaluative negation use, e.g. “this isn’t some goofy 80’s nostalgia piece” (OEC) and would thus distort the balance of the different uses across the sample.

The research reported in this thesis examines the extent to which *some* in object position in negative clauses is limited to the case that is most often explicitly sanctioned in grammar books: contrastive

some meaning "some but not all" or "some but not others", e.g. "I didn't like some of them, but I liked others"[3]. While there are strong reasons for considering that *some* is in fact inside the scope of negation in the contrastive use (see section 3.6), there is still a strong consensus in both grammar books and the theoretical literature that it lies outside negative scope. For this reason, the claim that *some* cannot be used in negative clauses inside the scope of negation can only be properly challenged by finding other uses of *some* in object position in which *some* is clearly inside negative scope. In the event that the use of *some* inside negative scope is confirmed by this study, the aim of the research is to build up a profile of the different uses which could form the basis for a more accurate pedagogical description of the use of *some* in negative clauses.

RQ2 examines the distribution of *some* and *any* across the following types of implicit negatives: firstly, the standard set of implicit negative verbs and adjectives covered in the grammar books that provide most detail on this area; secondly, an examination of the *some-any* distinction in *before* and *without* clauses, both of which are treated as environments for *any* in grammar books; thirdly, two further semantic sets of words which, according to Jo and Lee (2002), attract *any* and other negative polarity items owing to the negative meaning that they express: *removal process predicates*, that is, verbs such as *remove, destroy* and *get rid of* which indicate a process of removal or elimination; *absence state predicates,* that is noun phrases and adjectival phrases such as *absence of, clear of, devoid of* which indicate absence or lack.

The purpose of examining the distribution of *some* and *any* across implicit negatives from grammar books is as follows: to test the claims made in grammar books, with occasional minor qualifications (e.g. Hewings 2013), that these words occur exclusively or almost exclusively with *any;* to examine to what extent the distribution and patterns of use of *some* and *any* with implicit negatives coincide with their use in explicitly negative clauses; to see whether there are any differences in the distribution and uses of *some* and *any* across the wide range of words and word types that are thought to carry implicit negative meaning. This explains the focus on *without* clauses and *before* clauses, as my observation of the use of *some* and *any* in these clauses in everyday English indicated that that the use and distribution of *some* and *any* might differ from that of the implicit negative verbs and adjectives studied.

My research into the use of *some* and *any* with Jo and Lee's list of *removal predicates* and *absence state predicates* aims to establish the distribution patterns of *some* and *any* with these words and phrases in order to evaluate whether they show a strong preference for *any* and therefore merit inclusion alongside other implicit negatives in the coverage of *any* in grammar books. However, no attempt has been made to produce a definitive list of implicit negatives.

Owing to space limitations, the research does not focus on the use of *some* and *any* with other implicit negatives, including the limiting quantifiers *little* and *few,* the limiting adverbs *hardly, scarcely, barely, rarely and seldom,* and other words which are thought to generate negative implicatures such as *too* and *only*.

RQ3 focuses primarily on conditional clauses with *if,* because they are more frequent than other types of conditional clause and therefore of greater relevance to learners of English. The research into *if* clause conditionals examines three areas of grammar book descriptions of *some* and *any* that were discussed in sections 3.9.2 and 3.10.2: firstly, it tests the claim that *any* is used in *if* clauses that express a neutral or negative epistemic bias and *some* in *if* clauses with a positive epistemic bias; secondly, it explores the role of the speakers' attitude, alongside expectational bias, in the *some-any* choice in conditionals; finally it examines the association established by Lakoff (1969) between *some*

[3] The extremely rare metalinguistic use- e.g. "I didn't say some British cities; I said some English cities" is also regarded as inside the scope of negation. It is not discussed here as no cases were found in my research.

and *any* and conditional *if* clauses which perform specific speech functions, an area that is largely ignored in grammar books.

Unless clauses are also examined in order to test the association made in some grammar books between *unless* and *some,* to establish a principled means of determining when *some* and *any* are used, and to uncover any speech functions that may be realized with *some* and *any*.

The purpose of **RQ4** is to check the claims made in grammar books with regard to the distribution and use of *some* and *any* in the question types examined in sections 3.11 and 3.12.

The research into positive yes-no questions sets out to examine three main areas: firstly, it aims to establish if the association of *some* with positive expectations and *any* with neutral and negative ones that is offered in grammar books is correct and whether there are any noteworthy exceptions to this pattern; secondly, it seeks to define the role played, in the choice between *some* and *any*, by the different types of bias mentioned in Huddleston et al, that is, epistemic bias, desiderative bias and deontic bias; finally it aims to test whether *any* may be more appropriate than *some* in more tentative offer and request questions, a possibility that was briefly outlined in section 3.12.2.

The research into the choice between *some* and *any* in negative polar interrogatives aims to provide new information on this area, which receives at best cursory treatment in most grammar books. It will examine whether the association between *some* and positive bias and *any* and negative bias also holds for this type of question, since, as was seen in section 3.11.3, there is some disagreement between grammarians on this issue. The research into affirmative and negative wh-questions aims to provide the first clear pedagogical description of the factors affecting the choice between *some* and *any* in different types of wh-question, an area of the *some-any* distinction that has largely been neglected in grammar books

For space reasons, the scope of **RQ 5**, on the use of *any* in affirmative clauses, has been limited to just two areas: an examination of the meanings of *any* that occur in affirmative clauses and an exploration of some of the syntactic restrictions on the use of *any* that have been postulated in the theoretical literature. The exploration of meanings aims to determine the relative importance of the "no matter which" and the "negative polarity meanings" inside assertive clauses and observe any interesting linguistic behaviour related to either meaning. The examination of possible syntactic limitations on the use of *any* focuses on three veridical contexts that are often cited as impossible environments for *any* in the theoretical literature: the present continuous tense, episodic past tenses and existential *there* clauses. These three contexts were examined alongside some others in Duffley and Larrivée's (2015) corpus-based study. The main reason for re-examining them is to gain more information on the verb types with which *any* is possible in the present continuous and episodic past tenses and to test whether Duffley and Larrivee's finding that *any* is restricted to quantity noun phrases such as "any number" is correct.

RQ6 switches the focus from the way that expert speakers use *some* and *any*, as manifested in the reference corpus, to the errors that learners make with the two words, as revealed in the learner corpus. While the motivation behind the research conducted with the reference corpus is to provide the basis for an accurate pedagogical grammar description of the uses of *some* and *any*, the purpose of the learner corpus research is to ensure that the new pedagogical description is maximally relevant to the learner: the examination of learner errors can help determine which aspects of the *some-any* distinction in non-assertive clauses and of the use of *any* in assertive clauses deserve most attention in the grammar book description, indicate which learner errors to highlight, and provide insights into how the grammar description needs to be expressed in order to help learners to use the two words accurately.

Two variables were examined in relation to the errors committed by learners with *some* and *any*: learner level and mother tongue. The learner level variable is required to determine which errors to focus on at each level. I was particularly interested in exploring whether errors made by higher level learners were circumscribed to the subtler pragmatic distinctions between *some* and *any*, like those which operate in questions and conditionals, or whether they also committed more basic errors such as the confusion between total negatives with *any* and partial negatives with *some*. The mother tongue variable is important to determine which aspects of the *some-any* distinction cause problems to learners of all mother tongue backgrounds, and which, if any, are more L1 specific.

4.3 A Rationale for Using Corpora to Research *Some* and *Any*

The research conducted into *some* and *any* is based on corpus data rather than on introspective examples for two main reasons. Firstly, providing that a reasonably balanced and representative corpus is used, corpus data provides a sounder empirical basis for studying language than intuition. There are many studies which argue that intuition can sometimes prove unreliable in the fields of grammar (Sinclair 1991), semantics (Stokhof 2011), frequency of uses (Kennedy 1992), collocation (Stubbs 1995) and pragmatics (Wolfson 1986). Moreover, there is a risk that a linguist may, consciously or unconsciously, devise examples that fit his or her view of the language point under discussion. Secondly, corpus research can help uncover rarer uses (Ross 2015) and non-obvious meanings (Partington 2017), which may be opaque to the researcher relying on his own examples.

Research based on a reference corpus has been preferred to Internet searches for the following reasons: carefully selected corpora offer a more reliable data source for standard English than the Internet, which contains many examples of both non-standard native speaker varieties of English and non-expert and non-native speaker usage; corpora provide more accurate frequency data and offer a wider variety of search options including lemmatized searches, searches for parts of speech and collocation searches; the stratification of corpora makes it possible to conduct research into specific text types and sub-domains if the research shows this to be necessary.

The value of combining research into expert and learner corpora to discover the causes of learners' language difficulties is also amply attested in the literature. Nesselhauf points to the superiority of studying both learner corpora and expert corpora as opposed to intuition-based contrastive analysis, in order to gain insights into the causes of learners' errors: "Since (..) it is not sufficient to compare the learners' Ll with the target language to identify areas of difficulty, the best way to find out what these difficulties are is to analyse the language produced by a certain group of learners and compare it with the language produced by native speakers" (Nesselhauf 2004: 126). The learner corpus-native speaker tandem is frequently used in contrastive interlanguage analysis to gain insights into the interlanguage of advanced learners, among other areas (Granger 2015).

4.4 Datasets Used

Two datasets were used to answer the research questions: the OEC, an expert reference corpus, to provide answers to research questions 1-5 and the CLC, a learner corpus, to address research question 6.

The OEC is a corpus that contains nearly 2.1 billion words of written English texts (2,073,563,928 words) from the years 1999-2012. According to the Oxford Dictionaries website[4], the OEC aims to "be as wide ranging as possible in in its representation of the English language" by covering a broad and balanced set of language varieties, text types and topic areas". 80% of the corpus is made up of texts from British or American English, reflecting the importance of these language varieties, and the

[4] https://web.archive.org/web/20111231203046/ http:/ oxforddictionaries.com/words/ the-oec-composition-and-structure#blank

remaining 20 percent comes from different varieties across the world[5]. The corpus is divided into 22 main topic areas, which are further subdivided into around 180 more specific categories, and it covers a variety of text types. Although it is based primarily on texts collected from the World Wide Web, texts for some subject areas have been supplemented with printed texts to try to increase the representativity of the corpus.

The OEC was chosen primarily on account of its size: at the time at which the research was conducted, the OEC was the largest corpus for which information on text type composition was available. There are two main reasons for selecting such a large corpus: firstly, as Ross (2018) notes, a larger corpus is likely to provide a greater amount of reliable data on rare uses; secondly, a larger corpus could increase the chances of uncovering non-obvious meanings, as a large number of examples may be necessary for subtler semantic and pragmatic meanings to clearly emerge.

The other reasons for choosing the OEC relate to its coverage of a broad variety of topics and text types, the predominance of American and British English and the inclusion of informal text types alongside more formal ones. Although the OEC does not provide a great amount of information on how texts were selected in the web link cited above, the wide range of topics and text types may help ensure that the findings related to *some* and *any* are reasonably representative of the English language as a whole. Similarly, the predominance of the two main varieties of English taught across the world, American and British English, increases the likelihood that the findings are valid for the majority of learners of English. Finally, the coverage of informal text types such as fanzines, underground and counterculture websites, personal websites, blogs and message board postings may partially compensate for the lack of a spoken corpus by ensuring that informal language is reasonably well-covered.

The Cambridge Learner Corpus is a learner corpus of over 55 million words, of which around 29 million have been coded for error. It is composed of 180,000 exam scripts which cover a variety of written English task types - see section 4.5.4. It covers all Common European Framework (CEF) levels and approximately 140 different mother tongues and it is a recognized and frequently used tool for the creation of materials for language learners.

The main reasons for selecting the CLC are its large size in comparison with other learner corpora, the coverage of a wide range of mother tongues and of all CEF levels and the fact that part of the corpus is error tagged.

Firstly, at 29 million words, the error-tagged section of the CLC alone is significantly larger than its closest rival, the ICLE with 5.5 million words: although it was not expected that the CLC would cover all learner errors (see 5.10.1), it was thought that its size made it the best available database for ensuring that the most frequent learner errors with *some* and *any* are covered. Secondly, as was explained in the discussion of RQ6 in section 4.2, the coverage of all proficiency levels and of a broad range of mother tongues is necessary in order to cater for the possibility that level and L1 differences might provide insights into the causes of errors with *some* and *any*. Finally, the use of error tagging makes the process of extracting learner errors with these words far quicker than with an untagged corpus, thus reducing research time.

4.5 Corpus Search Methods Employed in the study

4.5.1 Introduction

Once the publishers of the OEC and the CLC granted me access to their corpora, the searches into both corpora were performed on the corpus analysis platform Sketch Engine. Two types of corpus search procedures were employed: concordance searches and collocation searches. Concordance

[5] These percentages refer only to the part of the corpus which has been assigned to a specific language variety: about 17% of the corpus consists of texts that have not been assigned to any variety.

searches were employed with the native speaker corpus, the OEC, and the learner corpus, the CLC. Automatic collocation searches were conducted with the OEC but not with the CLC, as the smaller amount of data in the latter enabled me to identify collocational patterns manually. Section 4.5.2 describes the different types of concordance search conducted with the OEC. Section 4.5.3 explains the specific concordance searches employed with each research question. Section 4.5.4 describes the procedure used to generate collocations related to specific searches. Section 4.5.5 explains the searches that were employed with the learner corpus.

4.5.2 Concordance Searches

Three main types of concordance search were employed to answer RQs 1-5:

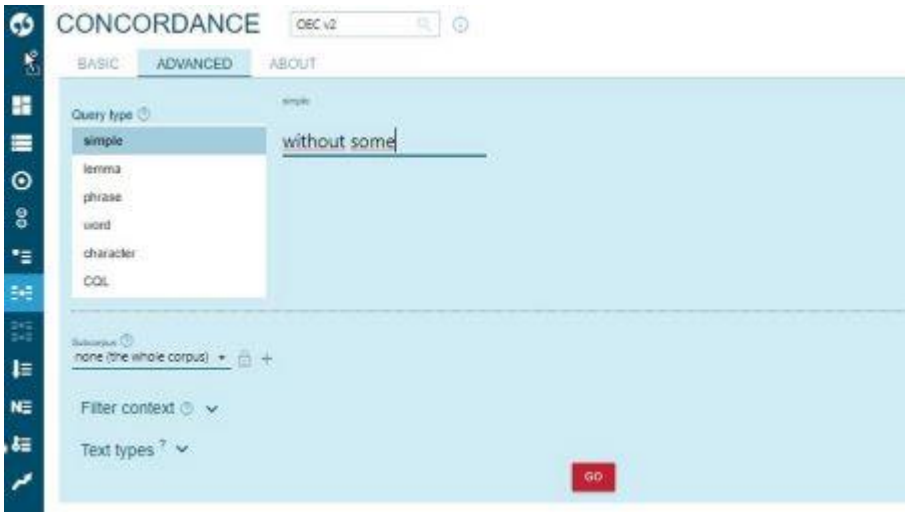
1) Complex searches using regular expressions that are operative using the corpus query language (CQL) function in Sketch Engine, e.g.

[word="*isn't|aren't|wasn't|weren't|hasn't|haven't|hadn't|didn't|doesn't|don't|won't|wouldn't|can't|couldn't|shan't|shouldn't|mightn't|mayn't|needn't|mustn't|oughtn't"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] within <s/>*]

Square brackets are used to specify the search word or search word type. To search for a specific word, part of speech tag or lemma, the researcher must write *word, tag* or *lemma* followed by the equals sign, followed by the word, tag or lemma itself in inverted commas. Alternative words, tags or lemmas are separated using a vertical bar as in the example above. Empty square brackets are used to allow any one word to appear between one search term and another, e.g. between the word *isn't|aren't* etc and the tag *VB.**, meaning a verb of any type. Curly brackets are employed to indicate the number of words permitted between the search terms. The regular expression *within* <*s/*>, specifies that all the terms used in the CQL search must occur inside the same sentence.

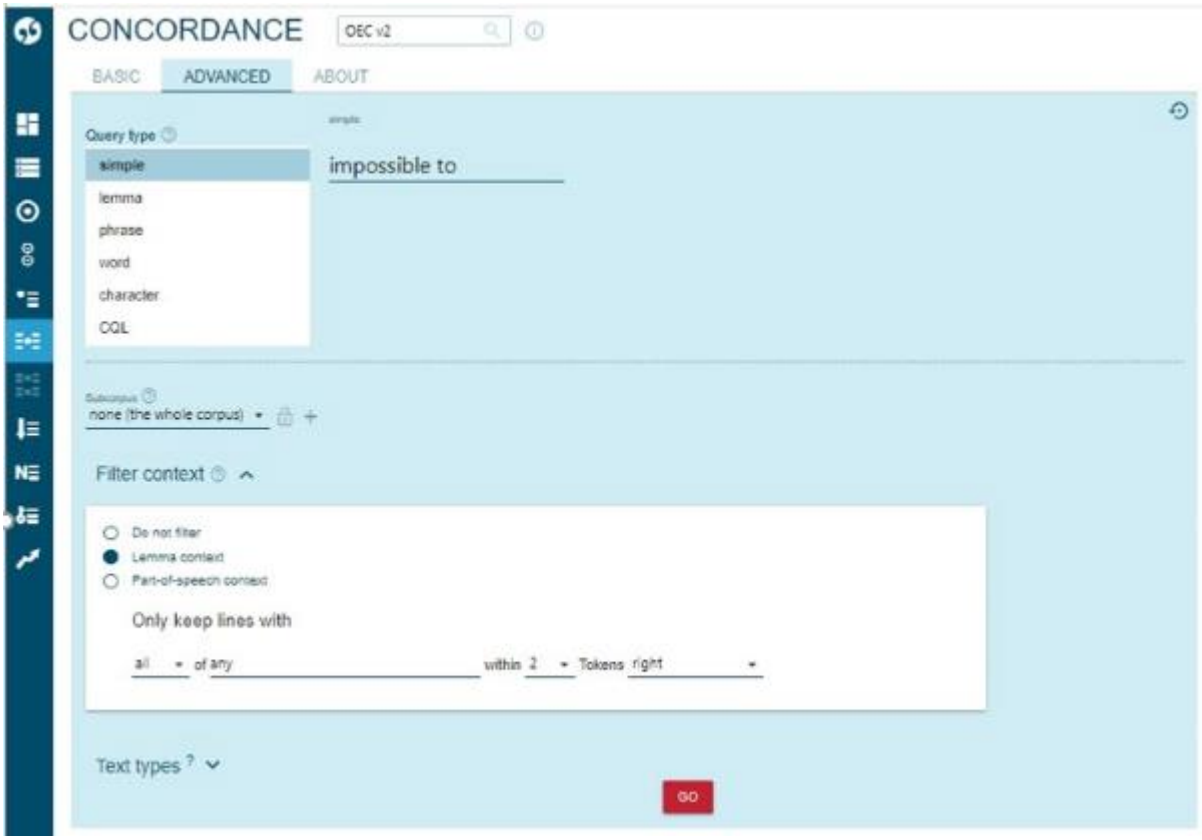
2) Simple searches for continuous word strings, as in Screenshot 1:

Screenshot 1: Simple Search for "without some"



3) Simple searches for a word or lemma combined with Sketch Engine's contextual filters, which enable the researcher to specify lemmas and/or parts of speech to the left and/or right of the search term as in Screenshot 2:

Screenshot 2: Simple Search for "impossible to " with *any* within a search window of two spaces to the right.



It was often necessary to employ filters to avoid producing examples that did not correspond to the pattern that the corpus search attempted to generate. For example, verbs such as *ask*, *enquire* and *wonder* were removed from the search for *if*-conditionals to avoid generating examples of indirect questions, e.g. "I asked if they knew some of my works". Some filters were employed from the outset to remove unwanted examples. However, it was also necessary to employ a number of post search filters to remove dud examples that had not been predicted beforehand.

A KWIC (Key Word in Context) context size of 400 characters was set for all searches to ensure that there was a minimum co-text of around 60 words on either side of the search term. For the majority of concordance examples, this was normally enough co-text to identify both the situational context and any typical co-occurrence patterns, and to assign the examples to the right meaning or use categories. However, it was sometimes necessary to expand the co-text further in Sketch Engine or even, on a few occasions, to access the source text itself if it was available.

4.5.3 Search Terms Employed with the OEC to answer RQs 1-5

4.5.3.1 Introduction

This section explains all the searches that were conducted to answer research questions 1-5. Some minor searches that were conducted later to address issues of interest that arose during the research are briefly alluded to in the discussion of results in Chapter 5. The explanation of search terms also describes the main negative filters applied with each search. The full set of negative filters is given alongside each search term in the appendix. Table 4.1 lists the searches requiring random samples owing to the large number of concordance lines generated and indicates the size of the random

sample. The technique employed to determine the size of the random samples is discussed in section 4.6.2. Table 4.2 lists searches across the whole corpus

The discussion of search terms sometimes refers to the trade-off between *precision* and *recall*. In data science, *recall* refers to the degree to which a data search method generates all the examples of a given phenomenon that are present within the dataset, while *precision* denotes the extent to which the examples generated by the search method correspond to the phenomenon under study (Buckland and Gey 1994). When applied to concordance searches, a search with high recall generates a high proportion of all the examples of the pattern that are present in the corpus, while a search with high precision ensures that a high percentage of the examples generated by the research correspond to the pattern that is under analysis. Section 4.6.3 discusses the degree to which the trade-off between precision and recall has affected the reliability of the results.

Table 4.1 List of Random Sample Searches

Name of Search	**No. of Concordance Lines**	**Size of Random Sample**
Some in object position in negative clauses	8791	600
Any in object position in negative clauses	194204	700
Implicit negatives: *Without some*	4453	580
Implicit negatives: *Without any*	46724	600
Implicit negatives: *Before some*	1262	460
Implicit negatives: *Before any*	5832	600
If some	36971	660
If any	101886	660
Unless some	2797	550
Affirmative yes-no questions with *some*	4935	595
Affirmative yes-no questions with *any*	17692	600
Affirmative wh- questions with *some*	5087	600
Affirmative wh- questions with *any*	4901	600
Negative wh- questions with *some*	843	400
Negative wh- questions with *any*	689	400
Affirmative Clauses with *any*	1359724	750

Table 4.2 Searches Performed Across Whole Corpus (2,073,563,928 words).

Name of Search
Implicit Negatives: verbs
Implicit Negatives: adjectives
Implicit Negatives: absence-state predicates
Implicit Negatives: removal process predicates
Unless Any
Negative yes-no questions with *some*
Negative yes-no questions with *any*
Veridical Clauses with *any*: Episodic Past Tense
Veridical Clauses with *any*: Present Continuous
Veridical Clauses with *any*: Existential There be

4.5.3.2 Searches Related to RQ1

The following search was employed to find *some* in object position in negative clauses:

[lemma="be"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] |[lemma="have"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [lemma="do"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="will"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="would"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="can"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="could"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="shall"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="should"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="might"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="may"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="need"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="must"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="ought"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="isn't|aren't|wasn't|weren't|hasn't|haven't|hadn't|didn't|doesn't|don't| won't|wouldn't|can't|couldn't|shan't|shouldn't|mightn't|mayn't|needn't|mustn't|oughtn't"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] within <s/>

This search covers all cases of *some*, in object position, in a verb phrase containing a negated auxiliary or modal verb, both with contracted and uncontracted negation. A maximum of two spaces was set between the word *not*, or the negative contraction, and the main verb, and between the main verb and *some*, as trial and error indicated that this was the best compromise between precision and recall.

The following negative filters were applied:

- removal of punctuation marks from inside the KWIC concordance to eliminate cases in which *some* lies outside the negative clause-e.g. "a politician (whose name I can't remember) donated some money."
- removal of the lemma *why* to eliminate negative wh-questions with this particle. The removal of other particles was avoided as it was found to remove some genuine negative clauses as well.
- removal of both *only* and *just* to avoid cases like "I wasn't just doing some equation" "the sale (..) is not only to clear some inventory" in which local negation applied, i.e. a negation of *only* or *just* but not of the object of the verb.

Although RQ 1 focuses on *some* in object position, the following search was employed with *any* in object position in order to compare the frequency of the two words in this position*:*

[lemma="be"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] |[lemma="have"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [lemma="do"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="will"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="would"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="can"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="could"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="shall"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="should"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="might"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="may"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="need"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="must"]

[word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="ought"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] |
[word="isn't|aren't|wasn't|weren't|hasn't|haven't|hadn't|didn't|doesn't|don't|won't|wouldn't|can't|couldn't|shan't|shouldn't|mightn't|mayn't|needn't|mustn't|oughtn't"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] within <s/>

As with the some search, punctuation inside the KWIC concordance and *why* before it were removed. In addition, the negative filter [tag="PJJR"] [word="\."] was employed to remove cases such as "didn't know any better" but allow cases such as "didn't have any better ideas".

4.5.3.3 Searches Related to RQ2

The implicitly negative verbs and adjectives from grammar books, the removal predicates and the absence state predicates were all examined across the whole corpus rather than with a random sample. To maximize precision, each search limited the space between the lexical item in question and *some/any* to a minimum: that is, there was either no space at all between the implicit negative items and *some/any* or there was only space for an intervening verb. Details are provided in the appendix.

Without clauses were identified using simple searches with no space between *without* and *some/any,* and no filters. Negative clauses were kept in the search so that multinegative patterns with *without* could be investigated. The use of *without* followed by a gerund clause containing *some* or *any* was not researched.

Before clauses were examined using the following searches, which allow two spaces between *before* and the noun phrase, the noun phrase and the verb, and the verb and *some*/*any*:

- Search containing *any*:
  [lemma="before"] [] {0,2} [tag="SPP|N.*"] [] {0,2} [tag="V.*"] [] {0,2} [word="any"] within <s/>.
- Search containing *some*:
  [lemma="before" & tag="SC"] [] {0,2} [tag="SPP|N.*"] [] {0,2} [tag="V.*"] [] {0,2} [word="some"] within <s/>

The search covered standard finite *before* clauses in which *some/any* comes after the verb, but it did not cover *before* followed by a gerund or cases of *some* in subject position in a *before* clause. The search generated both personal subject pronouns and nouns in subject position via the tags SPP and N.* respectively.

The search for *some* used the tag SC to specify that *before* needs to be a subordinating conjunction. A trial based on the first 300 lines generated by the search, before the application of negative filters, suggested that this specification was necessary as the advantages in terms of increased precision outweighed the loss of recall: the "SC" tag removed around 9% of actual examples of *before* clauses but nearly 40 % of false positives. This did not prove necessary with the *any* search as the false positives related to non-conjunctive, i.e. prepositional, uses of *before* were largely removed by the application of negative filters (see the appendix). For example, the word *Christmas* was eliminated to avoid generating examples like the following one: "The demonstrations in Brussels before Christmas shattered any argument that (..)".

The negative filters for *some* were built up after an initial examination of the concordance lines generated by the search, to remove cases of non-conjunctive uses of *before* not eliminated by the "SC" tag and other cases in which *some /any* were not scoped by *before*.

4.5.3.4 Searches Related to RQ3

The following searches were employed for *if*-clause conditionals:

- Search containing *any*:
  [lemma="if"] [] {0,6} [word="any"] within <s/>
- Search containing *some*:
  [lemma="if"] [] {0,6} [word="some"] within <s/>

Six spaces were allowed between *if* and *some/any* because experimentation with search terms had shown that this was enough to allow for most cases of both affirmative and negative conditional clauses without significantly affecting precision. A negative filter was applied to both the *some* and the *any* searches to remove cases of *as if* and of indirect speech, such as "ask if". In addition, "if only" was removed from the *if some* search, as it is an idiomatic use rather than a standard *if*-clause.

The following searches were employed for *unless-clause* conditionals :

- Search containing *any*:
  [lemma="unless"] [ ] {0,5} [tag="V.*"] [] {0,3} [word="any"] within <s/>
- Search containing *some*:
  [lemma="unless"] [ ] {0,5} [tag="V.*"] [] {0,3} [word="some"] within <s/>

These searches allowed a greater total gap between *unless* and *some/any* than with *if* clauses. The main reason for this was to prioritize recall over precision in the *unless any* search, on the basis that *any* does not occur frequently with *unless*. The same search term was employed with *unless some* to ensure a like for like frequency comparison. It did not affect precision in the latter as only 3 percent were false positives.

4.5.3.5 Searches Related to RQ4

The following searches were employed for affirmative yes-no questions:

- Search containing *some*: [lemma="be|have|do|will|would|can|could|shall|
  should|might|may|need|must|ought"] [tag="SPP"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"]
- Search containing *any*: [lemma="be|have|do|will|would|can|could|shall|
  should|might|may|need|must|ought"] [tag="SPP"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"]

The searches for *some* and *any* in affirmative yes-no questions did not include question marks. A variety of post search filters were used to remove examples such as emphatic subject-auxiliary verb inversions with *never*, *neither only* etc, which were generated by the lack of a question mark, along with other false positives such as wh-questions. The decision to omit question marks from the search was taken as means of ensuring an adequate representation of informal questions, as it had been observed that informal texts in the corpus sometimes omitted the question mark. This decision can be considered justified as it did not significantly affect precision: the percentage of real positives in the samples was 96.127 % for *any* and 92.437% for *some.* However, as no differences were found between the use of formal and informal questions, this decision is not discussed further in the analysis of results in Chapter 5.

The search was restricted to examples with personal pronoun subjects because I was unable to generate a sufficiently precise search that allowed both noun phrase and pronoun as subject. The non-inclusion of noun subjects clearly affects recall. However, *yes-no* questions with personal pronouns are a highly typical type, and there were enough examples with both *some* and *any* to draw conclusions about different uses and about the distribution of *some* and *any* in this question type.

The following searches were employed for negative yes-no questions:

- Search containing *any*:
  [word="isn't|aren't|wasn't|weren't|hasn't|haven't|hadn't|didn't|doesn't|don't|
  won't|wouldn't|can't|couldn't|shan't|shouldn't|mightn't|mayn't|needn't|mustn't|oughtn't"]
  [tag="SPP"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [] {0,2} [word="any"]
- Search containing *some*:
  [word="isn't|aren't|wasn't|weren't|hasn't|haven't|hadn't|didn't|doesn't|don't|
  won't|wouldn't|can't|couldn't|shan't|shouldn't|mightn't|mayn't|needn't|mustn't|oughtn't"]
  [tag="SPP"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [] {0,2} [word="some"]

These searches were employed in order to generate contracted negative questions, not non-contracted ones, as the latter are regarded as formal (Swan 2005) or highly formal (Carter and McCarthy 2006), and are probably therefore of less use to learners.

Owing to the difficulties encountered when trying to devise conjoint searches for sentence initial and mid-sentence questions, separate lower and upper case searches were carried out for both *some* and *any*, i.e. one search with *isn't|aren't* etc and one search with *Isn't|Aren't* etc. The results of the upper and lower case searches were then computed together.

Question marks were not specified in the search in order to increase recall, as negative yes-no questions were not expected to generate a large amount of examples. The loss of precision did not matter given the small number of concordance lines generated. Filters were used in lower case searches to remove wh-questions, and in both upper and lower case searches to ensure the generation of questions rather than other structures such as imperatives and exclamatives - e.g. “don’t you dare”.

The following searches were employed for affirmative wh-questions:

- Search containing *any*:
  [lemma="why|who|what|where|when|how"]
  [lemma="be|have|do|will|would|can|could|shall|should|might|may|need|must|ought "] []
  {0,8} [word="any"] [] {0,10} [word = "\?"] within <s/> 6215
- Search containing *some*:
  [lemma="why|who|what|where|when|how"]
  [lemma="be|have|do|will|would|can|could|shall|should|might|may|need|must|ought "] []
  {0,8} [word="some"] [] {0,10} [word = "\?"] within <s/> 5848

The main purpose of the negative filters, which are included in the appendix, is to avoid generating negative wh-questions rather than affirmative ones.

The following search terms were used for negative wh-questions :

- Search containing *some*:
  [lemma="why|who|what|where|when|how"]
  [word="isn't|aren't|wasn't|weren't|hasn't|haven't|hadn't|didn't|doesn't|don't|won't|wouldn't|can't
  |couldn't|shan't|shouldn't|mightn't|mayn't|needn't|mustn't|oughtn't"] [] {0,8} [word="some"] []
  {0,25} [word = "\?"] within <s/>
- Search containing *any*:
  [lemma="why|who|what|where|when|how"]
  [word="isn't|aren't|wasn't|weren't|hasn't|haven't|hadn't|didn't|doesn't|don't|won't|wouldn't|can't
  |couldn't|shan't|shouldn't|mightn't|mayn't|needn't|mustn't|oughtn't"] [] {0,8} [word="any"] []
  {0,25} [word = "\?"] within <s/>

4.5.3.6 Searches Related to RQ5

The procedure for investigating *any* in affirmative clauses departed from a simple search for lemma *any*, employed to generate cases of both lower case, sentence-internal *any* and upper-case, sentence-initial *any*. Negative filters were applied to the left of *any* to remove straight negative and nuclear negative clauses, questions and conditional clauses. Automatic filters were not employed to remove cases of negative and nuclear clauses beginning with *any* - e.g. “Any bias of the authors is not perceptible”, as the filter would also have removed some cases of affirmative clauses. Instead, such cases were removed manually.

The following search was employed:
[lc="any" | lemma_lc="any"],
Negative filter:-12 0 1 [word="not|isn't|aren't|wasn't|weren't|hasn't|haven't|hadn't|didn't|doesn't|don't|won't|wouldn't|can't|couldn't|shan't|shouldn't|mightn't
|mayn't|needn't|oughtn't|cannot|nobody|never|nowhere|no|none|neither|nothing|nor"]

Two searches were performed to find veridical episodic simple past tense clauses with *any*, one for transitive verbs in the past simple, and the other for past tense prepositional or phrasal verbs.

The search for transitive simple past tense verbs followed by *any* allowed no space between the past tense verb and *any* to avoid greatly reducing the precision of the search: experimentation with search terms had shown that, owing to problems with grammatical parsing, the Sketch Engine algorithm generated many false positives with this search.

The search term for phrasal and prepositional simple past tense verbs followed by *any* allowed no space between the preposition and the verb or the verb and the preposition for the same reason. In addition, because the algorithm produced a number of cases of false positives involving prepositions that were not attached to the verb, such as “proved beyond any doubt”, a series of negative filters were applied to remove prepositions such as *beyond* and *without* which caused this problem. It is true that the removal of *without* eliminated examples of prepositional verbs such as “did without any” or “went without any”. However, this was not a problem, as such cases are non-veridical uses owing to their negative meaning. Implicit negative verbs, negative clauses and other non-assertive clauses were removed as they are not veridical.

Examples were only classified as past episodic if they referred incontrovertibly to one moment in time. For example, cases were disallowed if the action or situation started before and stretched beyond the moment being described - e.g. “I entered, smiling in greeting (..). They **looked like any** normal kids.” (OEC)

The search for veridical present continuous clauses with *any* adopted the same strategy applied with past episodic clauses. Two searches were performed: one for ordinary transitive verbs and the other for prepositional or phrasal verbs. No spaces were allowed between the search terms to reduce false positives. As with the episodic past tense clause search, negative filters were applied to remove implicit negative verbs, negative clauses and other non-assertive clauses.

To investigate veridical *there be* clauses containing *any*, a simple search was employed to generate all affirmative clauses containing simple verb forms of *there be* (*is*, *was*, *are* or *were*) followed immediately by *any*. This search did not cover cases of the present perfect - *there has/have been any* - which were not investigated. Clauses with an intervening modal verb were not investigated as they are thought to be non-veridical (Sahlin 1979; Giannakidou 2002).

Rather than employ a random sample with the *there be* search, the entire number of concordance lines were investigated to ensure that all possible cases of veridical uses were examined. A mixture of automatic filters and manual removal was employed to remove non-veridical examples such as straight and nuclear negative clauses, questions, conditionals and implicit negatives from the search. Details are provided in the appendix.

4.5.4 Collocation Searches

The Sketch Engine collocations function was employed to search for collocates of *some* and *any* inside the four main clause types investigated in the research: negative clauses, affirmative yes-no questions, if-conditionals and affirmative declarative clauses. Two statistical measures were used to uncover the collocation candidates: MI scores and T-scores. According to some sources, including Hunston (2002) and the Wordbanks website,[6] these two scores have different strengths and weaknesses. MI scores provide an indication of collocational strength and are useful for uncovering phrasal collocates but tend to give unduly high scores to low frequency collocates. T-scores are suited to searches for grammatical collocates and collocates of higher frequency words; they provide a more reliable indication that there is an association between two words, but they do not measure the strength of the association

Collocational candidates were regarded as significant collocates of *some* and *any* inside the clause type under study if they achieved a T-score of above 2 and an MI score of above 5 (the commonly accepted minimum significance limits for both scores). However, candidates with a T-score of above 2 but an MI score of below 5 were also investigated to see if they formed part of a collocational set, i.e. a group of collocates sharing the same meaning. Collocates with a T-score of below 2 were ignored regardless of their MI score, as there was a greater likelihood that these were chance occurrences.

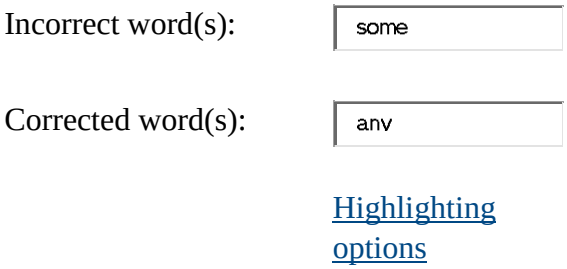
The identification of collocates inside specific clause types is statistically problematic, as the collocation algorithms in Sketch Engine are designed to find the collocates of specific words and phrases, not of grammatical patterns. In particular, it is possible that collocation searches conducted in this way may generate collocations for other words that are specified in the search as well as for *some* and *any*. To overcome this difficulty, post-hoc qualitative analysis was carried out to check that the collocation candidates were indeed collocates of *some* and *any* and not of intervening search words.

4.5.5 Search Procedure with the Learner Corpus

As this study focused exclusively on the *some-any* distinction, and not on other aspects of the use of both words, only two concordance searches were conducted with the CLC, one for errors in which *any* was incorrectly used instead of *some*, and another for errors in which *some* was incorrectly used instead of *any* (see Screenshot 3) . Other important errors such as the confusion of *some* and *any* with other articles or quantifiers or the use of *some* or *any* when a zero article is required have not been analysed as they lie outside the scope of my research.

[6] https://wordbanks.harpercollins.co.uk/other_doc/statistics.html

Screenshot 3: Search for *some* corrected into *any* in the CLC



The KWIC context size was set at the maximum to ensure that there was sufficient co-text to understand why *some* or *any* could be considered the wrong choice in each example and, if necessary, gain a good grasp of the task that the learner was performing. The searches were also set so that they included information on the learners' mother tongue, actual CEFR level, and the level of the exam that they had taken. There was no need for random samples, as the number of concordance lines produced by both searches - 384 for *any* corrected to *some* and 218 for *some* corrected to *any* before the removal of repeated or mismarked examples - was perfectly manageable. The examples were then analysed in order to determine the clause type in which the error occurred and other relevant information such as errors inside set phrases, and common noun collocates of particular types of error.

4.6 Problems that arose during the Reference Corpus Research

4.6.1 Introduction

Sections 4.6.2 to 4.6.4 examine three different methodological problems that arose during the OEC-based research and explain how each problem was addressed. Section 4.6.2 examines the problem of how to determine the size of random samples to ensure that they are representative of the whole corpus. Section 4.6.3 discusses the trade-off between precision and recall and the extent to which this might have affected the reliability of the research. Section 4.6.4 examines interpretation problems that arose with some corpus examples.

4.6.2 Determining the size of random samples in reference corpus searches

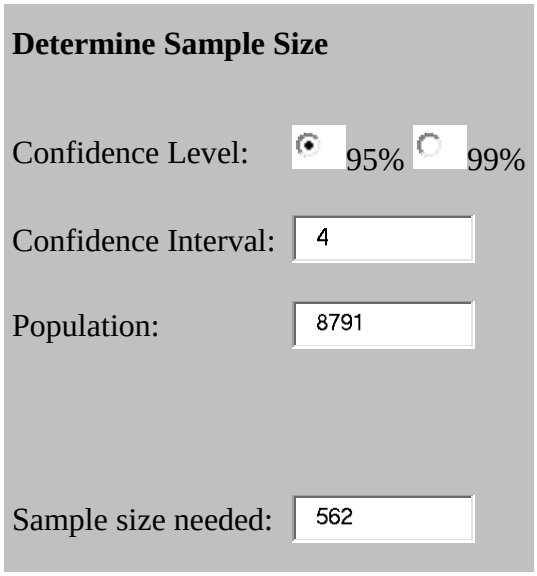
With many searches, it was necessary to use random samples, as the study of all the examples would have taken up time that could have been more usefully employed on other aspects of the project. For example, it might have taken several months to analyse and classify the raw number of concordance lines from the search for *any* in affirmative contexts, 1359724.

The use of computer-generated random samples has become a generally accepted practice and it is widely recommended in the literature on corpus research (e.g. Leech 1992 and McEnery and Hardie 2012). However, one problem that has not been addressed so far in the corpus research literature is how to determine in a principled way if a given random sample is big enough to ensure that it covers all the main uses contained in the concordance. Sinclair recommends iterative sampling, whereby the researcher reviews successive batches of around 25-50 concordance lines until no new patterns related to the target item appear. This technique does not guarantee that the researcher has identified all the patterns related to the target item since, as O'Donnell observes, "it is of course always possible that the next 25 lines will contain new or previously under-represented patterns." (O'Donnell 2008: 2).

Quantitative measures of representativity from the field of demographic sampling were employed in an attempt to ensure that the random sample was large enough to accurately reflect the uses contained

in the whole concordance. An online sample size calculator - www.surveysystem.com - was employed to calculate the number of examples needed in the sample to make it representative of the total concordance, on the basis of two demographic sampling measures: *confidence interval* and *confidence level*. The confidence interval is a specification of the amount of error that a researcher is prepared to tolerate in his or her sample with regard to the total population size or, in this case, total number of words. The confidence level is a percentage expression of the confidence with which the researcher can state that he/she would get only this confidence interval with a given sample size. To calculate the sample size needed to ensure that the random sample was representative of the whole corpus, a confidence level of 95% and a confidence interval of 4 were employed, as these measures are generally considered sufficient to ensure representativity in demographic surveys. The screenshot below shows how the sample size for *some* in object position in negative clauses was calculated: because the search had generated 8791 examples across the whole corpus, the number 8791 was included in "total population size", the confidence level was set at 95% and the confidence interval at 4, which produced a random sample size of 562 examples.

Screenshot 4: Calculating the sample size for *some* in object position in negative clauses



However, to ensure that the sample size was large enough to meet the population sampling criteria it was necessary to take into account the number of false positives that a set of concordance lines might contain: any reductions in the sample size brought about by the presence of false positives could reduce the size below the minimum required to achieve a confidence level of 95% and a confidence interval of 4. To overcome this problem a search was carried out across the first 100-150 lines in each sample in order to estimate the number of false positives across the whole sample and the sample size was increased accordingly. Thus, on this basis, the sample size for *some* in object position in negative clauses was increased from 562 to 600.

To check that the final sample size identified via this technique was large enough, the following procedure was employed after analysing the random sample:

1) The percentage of real positives in the sample was computed against the number of concordance lines generated for the whole search in order to arrive at a projected total of examples across the whole corpus.

2) The sample size required was then recalculated using the projected total of examples.

In twelve of the sixteen random sample searches, this technique showed that the sample sizes employed were big enough to meet both the required population sampling criteria. In four cases, the final size of the random sample after removing the false positives proved to be big enough to reach the required confidence level of 95% but too small to obtain the required confidence interval of 4. These cases are summarized in Table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3: Summary of Samples that did not obtain the required confidence interval of 4 after removing the false positives

Search Term	No of concordance lines in whole corpus search	Size of random sample	Number of hits in random sample	Projected total number of examples across whole search	Sample hits required to meet confidence levels	Percentage deviation between number of sample examples and required total
Some in object position in negative clauses	8791	600	550 (91.666%)	8058	559	-1.61%
Before some	1262	460	299 (65%)	820	347	-13.833%
Affirmative yes-no questions with *any*	17692	600	577 (96.166%)	17014	580	-0.517%
Wh questions with *some*	5087	600	516 (86%)	4375	528	-2.727%

After determining that these samples did not meet the required sample size, the possibility of analysing a larger random sample was considered but finally rejected for two reasons. Firstly, with the exception of the *before some* sample, the percentage deviation was very small. Secondly, in all four searches the final number of hits in the random sample was amply sufficient to guarantee a confidence interval of five, which while considered less rigorous than four, is often employed in population sampling studies to determine sample size.

4.6.3 Balancing Recall and Precision

When deciding which search terms to use in the concordance searches into different clause patterns with *some* and *any*, it was necessary to keep in mind at all times the need to strike a judicious balance between the concepts of *recall* and *precision*. As Buckland and Gey (1994) note, there is frequently a trade-off between the two concepts: a search term that generates all or most examples will often contain a large number of false positives, while a term that succeeds in removing irrelevant examples will generally fail to pick up a number of relevant ones.

Clearly, from the point of view of data reliability, it is preferable to emphasize recall over precision by employing very general search terms that generate all possible examples and then removing the false positives afterwards. However, time constraints may force the researcher to sacrifice some recall in order to reduce the time spent on example removal. The need to sacrifice some degree of recall

increases when using large corpora, as high recall searches are likely to generate an unmanageable number of examples.

Given the huge size of the OEC, it was necessary to sacrifice some recall in favour of precision in a number of searches. Reduced recall may affect quantitative reliability in two ways: firstly, it can affect the reliability of individual frequency counts, as searches with less than maximum recall do not generate all the examples in the corpus; secondly, it can render the frequency comparison between the search results unreliable as different results will have been obtained with different levels of recall. However, in this case, the reduced recall affecting some searches is unlikely to affect the validity of the research because searches with reduced recall potential were only employed with areas of the *some/any* distinction that produced very large numbers of examples, and they produced more than enough data to ensure that the searches were representative.

4.6.4 Data Interpretation Difficulties

There were several examples that were hard to interpret in terms of the grammatical role of *some* or *any* or their pragmatic meaning. The main problems of grammatical interpretation relate to adjunct phrases containing *some* and *any*, such as *for some reason* or *at any time* in questions and conditionals, as it was not always clear if they fell within the scope of the patterns, words and structures that were being investigated. The difficulties of pragmatic interpretation primarily involved contexts in which the intentions, attitudes or expectations of the speaker/writer were not clear. For example, in a few question and conditional clauses it was unclear if the speaker/writer expected the action or situation to occur or not.

When I did not find any principled and generally applicable basis for dealing with the problems of grammatical categorization or pragmatic interpretation, I opted to interpret each example on an *ad hoc* basis.

4.7 Problems that arose during the Learner Corpus Research

Although the CLC contained errors relating to all the main clause types examined in the OEC, some more specific clause types or uses related to clause types were underrepresented in the corpus or absent from it. The learner corpus produced enough cases of errors with negative clauses, questions, affirmative clauses and conditionals to get a clear idea of the main error patterns that learners commit with these forms. However, there were only isolated examples of time clauses with *before*, conditionals with *unless* and multi-negative patterns, and a number of important implicit negative words did not appear at all in the learner corpus data. It is likely that larger learner corpora are required to provide exhaustive data on errors with complex areas of language such as *some* and *any*. Section 5.10.1 discusses how the problem of data paucity has affected the status of the learner corpus research.

4.8 Conclusion

Two datasets were employed to answer the research questions, the Oxford English Corpus, a reference corpus to answer RQs 1-5, and the Cambridge Learner Corpus to answer RQ6. The main problems that arose during the reference corpus research were how to ensure the representativity of random samples, how to balance recall and precision and how to deal with examples that were difficult to interpret. Sections 4.6.2 - 4.6.4 explained how these problems were dealt with. The primary difficulty with the learner corpus research was the lack of data on some minor clause types, an inevitable problem given the current size of learner corpora. The information provided in this chapter on the databases and the methodology employed in this research will enable the reader to evaluate the research results that are discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 5 Results

5.1 Chapter Overview: structure of chapter and presentation of frequency information

This chapter presents and discusses the data pertaining to the research questions in the order in which these were presented at the beginning of Chapter Four. Sections 5.2-5.9 each analyse the data from the reference corpus, the OEC, relating to RQs 1-5. Section 5.10 analyses the data from the learner corpus, the CLC, that relates to RQ6 on learner error.

Although the fundamental aim of this corpus-based research study is to make discoveries about the *some-any* distinction that can contribute towards a new pedagogical approach to this area of language, the scale and complexity of some of the findings from the reference corpus far exceed the framework of a pedagogical description of this area. Nevertheless, the findings are discussed below in as much detail as space allows for two reasons: firstly, the findings which go beyond what can be included in a pedagogical description of *some* and *any* may be of interest to pure linguistic research; secondly, and more importantly, the in-depth linguistic research undertaken with the reference corpus is an integral part of the process of creating a new pedagogical approach: first the reference corpus data is analysed in depth; then the learner corpus is examined to reveal common learner problems with *some* and *any*; finally decisions are taken about what to include in the pedagogical description. Without the initial fine-grained analysis, it is impossible to understand the process of selection and simplification that leads to the pedagogical description.

The following types of frequency information are provided in tabular form with regard to the reference corpus research:

- The relative frequency of *some* and *any* in the search
- The relative frequencies of specific uses of *some* and *any*
- When appropriate, information on sub-uses or on specific linguistic realizations of uses

The following tabular information is provided in relation to the relative frequency of *some* and *any* in searches based on random samples: the total number of concordance lines generated from the search before the random sample was created; the number and percentage of actual hits across the random sample; a projection of the number of hits across the whole corpus. The projection is calculated by assuming the same percentage of actual hits across the whole corpus as was found in the random sample. For example, in Table 5.1 the projected total number of examples for *some* in object position in negative clauses, 8058, is calculated by applying the percentage of hits in the random sample, 91.666% to the total number of concordance lines generated across the whole corpus with the search term used, 8791.

With regard to the relative frequency of uses found in random sample searches, the following tabular information is provided: the number and percentage of cases for each use in relation to the number of actual hits in the random sample; an estimated total number of hits across the whole corpus. The estimate is calculated by applying the percentage of cases of each use in the random sample to the projected total number of cases generated by the whole corpus search. Thus, in Table 5.2, the partial negation use occurs in 282 of the 550 hits in the random sample, amounting to 51.273 % of the sample. The estimated total of 4132 cases of this use across the corpus is calculated by applying the percentage, 51.273%, to the projected number of concordance lines generated by the search for *some* in object position in negative clauses, 8058. Owing to the rounding of the numbers relating to each use, the sum of the estimated total of the different uses is occasionally up to two integers higher or lower than the projected total. For example, the sum of the estimated numbers for each use of some in object position is 8059, one integer higher than the projected total of 8058 examples.

When searches are carried out across the whole corpus, both the relative frequencies of *some* and *any* in the clause types studied and the frequencies of specific uses of *some* and *any* within each clause type are expressed as a total in relation to the size of the corpus (2,073,563,928 words). The percentage of cases corresponding to each use are indicated in the same way as with the random samples.

The tables on sub-uses - e.g. table 5.3 - provide simply the number of cases across the sample or the whole corpus and the percentage frequency of each use. The tables on specific linguistic exponents of uses (e.g. Table 5.5), which always relate to whole corpus searches, simply indicate the number of examples corresponding to each type. Other statistical information relating to frequent lexico-grammatical or phraseological realizations of specific uses is discussed in the text but is not included in the tables.

The information from the learner corpus on errors with *some* and any is based entirely on searches across the whole corpus. Random searches were not necessary owing to the manageable amount of data generated: 358 errors in which *any* is used instead of *some* and 206 errors in which *some* is used instead of *any*. The frequency information in the tables related to the learner corpus simply indicates the number of errors of different types across the whole corpus rather than the percentage. However, percentages are provided in the discussion when this information is relevant.

5.2 Results relating to RQ1 on the Use of *Some* in Object position in Negative Clauses

5.2.1 Relative Frequency of *Some* and *Any* in Object position in Negative Clauses

Table 5.1 shows that *any*, with an estimated 188378 examples across the whole corpus, is 23 times more frequent than *some* with an estimated 8058 examples. *Some* occurs across a range of different uses that are discussed in section 5.2.2. Section 5.2.3 examines the overlap between *some* and *any* in object position in negative clauses, while section 5.2.4 briefly describes the collocations that are found to occur with *some*.

Table 5.1 Frequencies of *some* and *any* in object position in negative clauses

No of concordance lines for *some*	**Size of random sample**	**Number of hits in random sample**	**Projected total[1]**
8791	600	550 (91.666 %)	8058
No of concordance lines for *any*	**Size of random sample**	**Number of hits in random sample**	**Projected total[1]**
194204	700	679 (97%)	188378

[1] **Assuming the same percentage of hits as in the random sample**

5.2.2 Uses of *Some* in Object Position in Negative Clauses

Table 5.2 presents the uses of *some* in object position in negative clauses. It was found that 91.45% of the cases of *some* in object position in negative clauses - 503 out of 550 cases in the random sample - belong to one of the following uses:

1) Uses corresponding to the central semantic meanings of *some,* which express *partial negation*
2) A variety of *positively-oriented multiple negative patterns* in which the two negations cancel each other out, creating an emphatically positive sentence
3) *Evaluative negation* in which *some* occurs before an evaluative noun phrase

Table 5.2 Uses of *some* in object position in negative clauses

Use	Number of cases in random sample hits count of 550	Percentage of cases	Estimated hits based on projected total (8058)
Central lexical meanings of *some* leading to partial negation	282	51.273%	4132
Evaluative negation	113	20.545%	1656
Positively-oriented multiple negative patterns	108	19.636%	1582
Minor uses involving positive orientation	47	8.545%	689

The most frequent category in the data, accounting for just over half of the examples in the random sample - 282 out of 550 - involves uses in which *some* expresses one of its central semantic meanings, *i.e.* "a limited, indefinite amount", "certain, unspecified people or things" and "some but not others", as in (1) to (3) below. Separate frequency counts have not been provided for these meanings, as many examples cannot be assigned to only one meaning. For example, "some of them" in (1) below could be interpreted as "certain, unspecified" or "a limited number of" vehicles. All three meanings express ***partial negation***, i.e., the negative verb phrase applies to some but not all cases of the noun phrase referent. Partial negation with *some* contrasts with ***total negation*** with *any,* in which the negative verb phrase applies to all cases of the noun referent. For example, (1), with *any*, would mean that I understand no special purpose vehicles whatsoever.

(1) (Context: talking about special purpose vehicles) Frankly, I <**don't get some**> of them - like those mini SUVs. (..) They're under-powered, under-sized and well under my radar screen.
(2) Powerpoint still <**haven't convinced some**> employers to toss out old 9-to-5 traditions (..)" Even though all of the technology was there (...). they still preferred people coming in every day".
(3) A recession <**will not hit some**> areas as badly as others. When you're in college, it's like you're disconnected from the world.

These three basic meanings of *some* in negative clauses are used to bring new referents into discourse, which are then expanded upon in subsequent co-text via exemplification , enumeration or explanation. In (1), for example, the writer introduces the fact that (s)he doesn't understand some SUVs and then describes one type that (s)he particularly dislikes.

The second most frequent category of *some* in object position in negative clauses is *evaluative negation,* which accounts for just over one fifth of the examples in the sample. In this use, *some* is followed by different types of evaluative noun phrase, i.e., a noun phrase which expresses the speaker or writer's attitude with regard to the referent. Evaluative noun phrases add emphasis to the negation: (4) and (5) would be less emphatic if "some icky guy" and "some counsellor" "were replaced by "any man" and "any psychological help" respectively.

(4) "That's gross , I <**don't want to touch some**> icky guy like that (..)."
(5) I had felt lost for so long (..) not knowing what the hell's going on. I <**didn't need some**> counsellor. I needed my mom.

When preceded by *some*, evaluative nouns occur mostly with singular countable nouns: 88 % of the

examples in the sample (99 out of 113) involved singular nouns, while there were only nine examples with plural nouns and five with uncountable ones. The significance of this colligational tendency will become clear in the discussion of the overlap between *some* and *any* in section 5.2.3.

The different types of noun phrase involved in the evaluative negation use are summarized in Table 5.3 below. There are two main types, which together make up over 85% of the sample: *intrinsically pejorative noun phrases* in which the noun itself and/or the accompanying adjective are conventionally associated with pejorative connotations; *contextually pejorative noun phrases* in which the pejorative meaning is derived not from the intrinsic meaning of the noun phrase but from the accompanying co-text and/or the situational context. Thus, in (4) it is the adjective *icky* which gives the noun phrase its pejorative flavour, while in (5) the co-text confers a pejorative meaning on neutrally connotated *counsellor.* The third most frequent type of evaluative noun phrase is one that expresses a highly positive meaning via the noun itself or the accompanying adjective.

The remaining three cases of evaluative negation in the sample involve evaluative noun phrases that cannot be ascribed to one of the above categories: for example, in (6), *length* cannot be considered a pejorative noun, as the disparagement is not directed at the dimensional concept in itself, but at the idea that it can be used to measure points.

(6) We're missing quite a subtle point; a point is not a little bit of a line. A point < **doesn't have some**> very small length; it has no length at all. No matter how many of them you put next to each other they will (..) never have any length.

Table 5.3 Sub-Types of evaluative noun phrase that occur in evaluative negation with *some*.

Type of evaluative noun phrase	Number of cases in random sample of 113	Percentage in random sample of 113
Contextually pejorative noun phrase	58	51.327 %
Intrinsically pejorative noun phrase	41	36.283%
Noun phrase with a highly positive meaning	11	9.735%
Other	3	2.655%

Two patterns emerge as especially frequent in evaluative negation with *some*: highlighting the undesirability of an action or possibility, which occurs exclusively with pejorative noun phrases, and refuting an idea, assumption or belief, which occurs with both pejorative and highly positive noun phrases.

In the sample, 58 of the 99 cases of evaluative negation with a contextually or intrinsically pejorative noun phrase present the action or event being described as undesirable, as in (4) and (5) above. Although undesirability is expressed in a variety of different ways in the sample, two lexical exponents stand out as particularly frequent: *don't/doesn't/didn't want*, which occurs 19 times and *don't/doesn't/didn't need*, which occurs 8 times; no clear pattern emerges with regard to grammatical colligations of this use as it is found to occur across a broad range of verb tenses and moods including the present simple, the present continuous, the past simple, going to, conditional *would* and the imperative.

Within the sample, 25 cases of evaluative negation with pejorative nouns and all 11 cases of evaluative negation with highly positive nouns involve the refutation of ideas, assumptions or beliefs that the speaker/writer believes that his readers or listeners may hold. Pejorative nouns are used to question excessively negative or pessimistic viewpoints, while highly positive nouns are used to challenge excessively positive or optimistic standpoints. The use of an evaluative noun rather than a non-evaluative one creates an ironic effect which adds force to the refutation, as in in (7).

(7) (Context: Explaining a resignation) I <**haven't got some**> amazing new job lined up. I [just]

no longer find it either satisfying or interesting to sit in long meetings.

A fundamental characteristic applicable to all types of evaluative negation is that the only reason for using *some* rather than *any* is the decision of the speaker or writer to employ an evaluative noun. All the sample examples of this use involve total rather than partial negation (i.e. negation of the entire quantity referred to in the noun phrase) and would therefore be used with *any* if they were not followed by an evaluative noun. However, the fact that the use of evaluative noun phrases renders *some* felicitous inside total negation does not mean that *any* can never be used with such noun phrases. The difference between *some* and *any* with evaluative noun phrases is discussed in section 5.2.3.2.

While the use of *some* followed by an evaluative noun phrase in affirmative clauses has received the attention of several linguists, including Sahlin (1979), Duffley and Larrivée (2012) and Ranger (2014), its use in negative clauses has not been examined in previous studies. As will be seen later in the thesis, evaluative noun phrases also play a role in the choice between *some* and *any* in a range of other non-assertive contexts including implicit negatives and wh-questions.

Positively-oriented multiple negative patterns, which, as was seen in Chapter 3, are mentioned by Huddleston and Pullum in their discussion of positive polarity items, are the third most frequent use category of *some* in object position in negative clauses, accounting for just under a fifth of all examples in the random sample. Table 5.4 below indicates the different multiple negative patterns involved in this use category, along with their distribution across the corpus. The term *multiple negative* refers here to any standard English combination of negative elements, across clauses or within the same clause, which cancel each other out, thus creating a positive meaning. It does not refer to cases of negative concord, that is, of non-standard uses such as "I didn't do nothing", in which the negative elements reinforce each other rather than cancel each other out.

Table 5.4 Types of positively-oriented multiple negative pattern that occur with *some*

Type of positively-oriented multiple negative pattern	**Number of cases in random sample of 108**	**Percentage of cases in random sample of 108**
Type 1: Straight Negative or nuclear negative main clause cancels a straight negative subordinate clause	43	39.815%
Type 2: Straight Negative verb phrase cancels an implicit negative in the same clause	38	35.185 %
Miscellany of other minor cross-clausal patterns	27	25%

The most frequent type, which constitutes just under 40% of the cases of multiple negation in the random sample, consists of a straight negative or nuclear negative main clause that cancels the negative element in a straight negative subordinate clause, as in (8) and (9).The second most common type, which comprises 35% of the cases, consists of a negative verb phrase which cancels an implicit negative inside the same clause, as in "didn't stop" in (10). These two types will be referred to as *type 1* and *type 2* respectively.

(8) (..) you cannot say that the government <**hasn't let some**> people down.

(9) There's no investment that <**doesn't involve**> some risk.

(10) Minidiscs never really caught on (..), but that <**didn't stop some**> record labels from releasing albums specifically on minidisc.

In the majority of cases in the random sample - 34 cases out of 43 - the type 1 multiple negation pattern is used either to contradict negative expectations or to make emphatic generalizations. There are 19 cases in which the type 1 pattern is used to contradict negative expectations generated either by previous discourse or by the overall context. The negative clause with *some* is preceded either by a main clause with a negated communication or thought verb such as *say* or *mean*, or by the phrase

not that, which serve to signal the contradiction to the hearer/reader, as in (11) below. There are 15 cases in the random sample in which the combination of a negative main clause and a following negative relative clause is used to make emphatic generalizations. In (12) the combination of "not a parent" with "hasn't asked some" creates the implicature that every parent has related this story to their own children. The use of the multi-negative pattern creates an even more emphatic effect than its affirmative equivalent (12A).

(11) (..) while I criticise [the film] The Dinner Party, that doesn't mean to say it <**doesn't reveal some**> underlying truths about young Irish society.

(12) There's probably not a parent in the country who, after hearing this story, <**hasn't asked some**> very pointed questions about what should I do with my own children?

(12A) Every parent in the country who has heard this story has probably asked some very pointed questions about what should I do with my own children?

The type 2 pattern, involving a negative auxiliary verb phrase followed by an implicit negative in the same clause, occurs with *some* in a limited range of implicit negatives and cannot therefore be extrapolated to implicit negatives as a whole. Twenty of the thirty-eight cases of the type 2 pattern in the sample involve *litotes*, a rhetorical device in which positive ideas are expressed through the negation of their opposite, creating a form of understatement that is either more emphatic in effect than the equivalent affirmative expression or more discreet and nuanced. In (13), the use of "sure", along with the overall co-text, clarifies that *wouldn't mind* is being used in an emphatic sense to mean "I would really enjoy". By contrast, in (14) the juxtaposition of *sometimes* with *not uncommon* produces a more nuanced effect, as it suggests that both skin redness and skin peeling occur with a certain regularity but are not necessarily very frequent. The litotes which occurred in the sample can be divided into three groups: nine cases with the verb phrase *don't/didn't/wouldn't mind*; eight cases of *not* + *be*+ negative attitude adjectives, the most frequent of which were *afraid* (which occurred four times) and *averse* (which occurred twice); three cases of negative frequency adjectives, two with *unusual* and one with *uncommon*. Of the eighteen cases of type two multiple negation in the sample that involve non-litotic uses, ten occur with verbs that express the idea of prevention, including *stop*, *prevent*, *preclude*, *foreclose* and *suppress*.

(13) I sure <**wouldn't mind transplanting some**> of the intellectual enthusiasm of my inmate students to my regular classrooms.

(14) It sometimes has unwanted side-effects: it <**is not uncommon to experience some**> redness and peeling of the skin.

The 27 cases of multiple negation in the sample which do not belong to the type 1 or type 2 categories involve different multiple negative patterns in which the negation in the subordinate clause is cancelled by negative main clauses of the following type: clauses governed by an implicit negative (15); negatively oriented rhetorical questions (16); clauses containing a negatively-oriented set phrase such as *have a hard time believing* (17). All these minor multiple negative patterns create an emphatically positive sentence.

(15) There's [sic] very few parts of France that I <**haven't visited and spent some**> time in

(16) Do you really think that Seattle's new BBL <**doesn't have some**> effect?

(17) I have a hard time believing it <**doesn't have some**> impact.

The remaining 47 cases of *some* in object position in negative clauses in the sample all involve cases of single clause negation that express some type of positive meaning. Twenty-four of these cases involve clauses in which the positive meaning stems not from specific phrases but from the overall context, as in (18), where the co-text clarifies that the writer is arguing that Jesus cannot be a fraud given the profundity of his speeches. Fifteen cases involve the use of grammatically negative verb phrases that carry a clearly positive semantic meaning, such as *can't help but* in (19). These phrases

will henceforth be referred to as *positivizing phrases* in this thesis. In the sample the only positivizing phrases that occur with *some* in object position are *can't/couldn't help* (*but)*, *can't/couldn't wait to* and *can't/couldn't resist*, which occur nine, four and two times respectively. However, informal searches across the whole corpus confirmed that other positivizing phrases also occur with *some* in the OEC, including *doesn't half*, *wouldn't hurt to* and *darned if*. The remaining 8 cases expressing positive meaning in the sample involved the phrases *it's a pity* and *it's a shame* (20), which are used to lament the fact that something does not exist or occur. Searches across the whole corpus demonstrated that a wider range of "lament phrases" occur in this use, including *it's too bad* and *regret*.

(18) Spoonbenders don't preach the Sermon on the Mount . Frauds <**don't deliver some**> of the most profound discourses recorded in John's gospel that the world has ever heard.

(19) The increasing normalisation of pornography, sexual violence and sexist attitudes to women in our society <**can't help but have some**> effect on how young people relate to each other!

(20) It's a shame that we <**can't get some**> kind of movement going to provide more of these community networks.

5.2.3 *Some-Any* Overlap in Object Position in Negative Clauses

As was seen in section 5.2.2, the main semantic meanings of *some* in object position are clearly and easily distinguished from *any*: while these core meanings of *some* involve partial negation, *any* involves total negation. Thus in (2), above, "haven't convinced some employers" means that certain employers have not been convinced, while the same phrase with *any* means that none have been convinced.

However, with some other uses there is some overlap between *some* and *any*. Although the *some-any* overlap lies outside the original research scope of RQ1, which focused exclusively on the uses of *some,* the decision was taken to investigate it for pedagogical reasons: when distinguishing between uses of similar frequency, a use which occurs almost exclusively with *some* is more relevant to learners than one in which *some* overlaps substantially with *any* and there is no clear motivation for choosing one word or the other.

The research into overlap in this study was limited to the following areas for time reasons: type 1 and type 2 multiple negation patterns and evaluative negation.

5.2.3.1 *Some-Any* Overlap in Multi-Negative Patterns

The research discussed below showed virtually no overlap in the type 1 pattern used to express emphatic generalization but revealed considerable overlap in the type 1 pattern employed to contradict expectations generated in previous discourse.

On the basis of the samples alone, the bias towards *some* in the emphatic generalization use is extremely clear. There are 15 cases of this use in the sample for *some* and no cases at all in the sample for *any*. However, to test whether *any* is at all possible inside emphatic generalizations, a search with broader recall was applied: the string *never/ not/ no/ nobody/nothing* with *any* at 15 spaces inside a straight or nuclear negative relative clause headed by *that, who, which , where or whose.* Only one case was found, represented by (21) below. The explanation for the use of *any* may be that the speaker wishes to indicate there are no republicans that refuse absolutely every kind of health care reform and therefore opts for *any*, with its unlimited "no matter which" meaning. While the use of *some* would lead to the loss of the unlimited nuance, the sentence would still generate the implicature that all republicans want some kind of health reform.

(21) Health care is such a big crisis in this country right now. </s><s> There's <**no Republican who doesn't want any**> kind of health care reform and that's something that can, again, be an opportunity for the president.

It can be concluded from this analysis that although the use of *any* to express a different nuance cannot be completely ruled out, *some* is by far the most usual form in emphatic generalizations. The explanation for this strong bias may be that this use requires words with referential meanings such as *some* rather than words with non-referential meanings such as *any*, because it asserts the actual existence of things or describes the actual performance of actions or realization of events.

To compare the use of *some* and *any* across multiple negative patterns which contradict negative expectations generated in discourse, the key exponents of these uses were searched for across the entire set of concordance lines generated by the searches for *some* and *any* in object position in negative clauses.

The results summarized in Table 5.5 below reveal that both *some* and *any* are employed in all key exponents of this use. While *some* is a little over twice as frequent with *not to say that* across the corpus, it is only 1.4 times more frequent with *not mean,* and almost equally frequent with *not that*. Moreover, the investigation did not reveal a clear rationale for when one quantifier is preferred to the other: in all but three cases, the examples with *any* could be replaced by *some* and *vice versa* with no fundamental change in meaning. The three exceptions all involve cases in which *any* expresses a "no matter which" meaning, which is incompatible with the limited scope of reference expressed by *some*.

Table 5.5 Contradicting negative expectations. (Results across whole corpus[2,073,563,928 words])

Not mean* + straight negative clause with *some	***Not mean* + straight negative clause with *any***	***Not that* + straight negative clause with some**	***Not that* + straight negative clause with any**	***(Be) not to say* followed by a straight negative clause with *some***	***(Be) not to say* followed by a straight negative clause with *any***
89	63	57	53	87	42

To investigate overlap in the type 2 multiple negation pattern, the main exponents of both litotic and non-litotic uses were examined across the entire set of concordance lines generated by the main searches for *some* and *any* in object position. The results reveal a very different distribution of *some* and *any* across litotic and non-litotic sub-uses.

All the litotic uses that occurred in the sample for *some* in object position proved to be considerably more frequent with *some* than with *any* in multi-negative patterns across the entire corpus. As the figures in Table 5.6 show, *some* is three and a half times more frequent than *any* in multi-negative patterns containing adjectives expressing fear or reluctance, four times more common with those involving the semi-fixed phrase *don't /doesn't/didn't/wouldn't mind* and 23 times more frequent in those containing negative frequency adjectives.

Table 5.6 Litotic uses of *some* and *any* in type 2 multiple negation. (Results across whole corpus[2,073,563,928 words])

Not mind [(1)] **(+verb) + *some***	***Not mind*** [(1)] **(+verb) + *any***	***Be not* +infrequency adjective** [(2)] **+verb + *some***	***Be not* +infrequency adjective** [(2)] **+ verb + *any***	***Not* +adjectives expressing fear or reluctance** [(3)] **+ verb + *some***	***Not* +adjectives expressing fear or reluctance** [(3)] **+ verb + *any***
153	38	23	1	54	16

[(1)] All full and contracted negative verb phrases containing do or a modal auxiliary+*not* +*mind* were examined.
[(2)] The infrequency adjectives investigated were *uncommon, unusual, rare, abnormal, strange, odd, infrequent* and *uncustomary*.
[(3)] The fear or reluctance adjectives investigated were *afraid, averse, frightened, opposed, reluctant, hesitant, unwilling, resistant hesitant, loath* and *disinclined.*

When *any* does occur with these phrases, the "no matter which" meaning predominates over the negative polarity meaning. With adjectives expressing infrequency and adjectives expressing fear or reluctance, all but three cases involved the "no matter which" meaning. With *not mind,* there are 30 cases in which *any* clearly expresses a "no matter which" meaning, and eight cases in which it expresses a negative polarity meaning or could be interpreted with either meaning. The preference for "no matter which" *any* can be explained by the positive orientation of all the phrases examined.

The research across the whole corpus with prevention verbs, the main exponent of non-litotic type two negation, revealed that these verbs occur with both *some* and *any* in multi-negative patterns. As table 5.7 below indicates, all the main verbs with the exception of *not stop* occur more frequently with *any* than with *some.* However, *some* and *any* generate entirely different meanings in this use: *any* is used with its "no matter which" meaning when the multi-negative verb phrase refers to the failure to prevent all cases of a phenomenon, as in "any strikes" in (22); *some* is employed with its limited quantity and certain people or things meanings to indicate the failure to prevent particular cases or a limited amount of cases of a phenomenon, such as the delinquent behaviour of some employees in (23).

(22) This bill will not prevent any strikes.

(23) Good internal control systems will not prevent some smart employees committing crimes.

Table 5.7 Prevention verbs in type 2 multiple negation. (Results across whole corpus [2,073,563,928 words])

Not stop (= prevent) + *some*	**Not stop (= prevent) + *any***	**Not prevent+ *some***	**Not prevent+ a*ny***	**Other prevention verbs [(1)] + *some***	**Other prevention verbs + *any***
158	41	53	61	26	35

[(1)] This section covers the other prevention verbs from the sample, *suppress, preclude* and *foreclose*, plus the verb *avoid*.

5.2.3.2 *Some-Any* Overlap in Evaluative Negation

To test for the overlap between *some* and *any* in evaluative negation, a quantitative comparison was conducted across the whole corpus with the strings *don't want any* and *don't want some*, with no separation between *want* and the quantifier. *Don't want any* was found to occur 288 times with nouns that have some kind of evaluative meaning. 270 of these nouns were plural or uncountable and only 18 were singular. By contrast, *don't want some* occurred 96[7] times with nouns that have an evaluative meaning, 86 times with a singular evaluative noun and only 10 times with an uncountable or plural one.

The explanation for the preference for singular evaluative nouns with *some* and plural or uncountable evaluative nouns with *any* relates to the different meanings expressed by *don't want some* and *don't want any* before evaluative nouns. *Don't want some* is used in more emphatic expressions of lack of desire, while *don't want any* is used to express a more quantitative generic meaning. The singular noun is more suited to the qualitative meaning expressed by *don't want some*, while plural and uncountable nouns are better suited to the quantitative meaning expressed by *don't want any*. Sahlin (1979), Hirtle (1988) and Duffley and Larrivée (2012), among others, note that *some* is used before a singular noun to create a pejorative effect by suggesting that the speaker has no interest in specifying which person or thing(s) he is talking about**.** As was seen in 2.4.4.3, Duffley and Larrivée note that

[7] These figures for *don't want some* cannot be reliably compared to those of the random sample as the whole corpus search does not include *doesn't want* and *didn't want* and, as noted above, does not allow spaces between *want* and the quantifier.

this derogatory effect is brought out more clearly and reliably when a singular noun referent is used rather than a plural or mass noun referent, as, with a singular noun, the meaning of *some* relates unequivocally to an unidentified or unspecified person or thing as opposed to an unidentified or unspecified quantity.

However, as the following analysis shows, this semantic distinction between the qualitative meaning expressed by *don't want some* and the generic, quantitative meaning of *don't want any* also applies in almost all cases when the grammatical distinction breaks down, that is, when *any* is used in negative clauses before singular countable evaluative nouns and *some* before plural or uncountable ones.

All cases in the corpus of *don't want any* with a plural or uncountable evaluative noun express a quantitative, generic meaning. In (24), although *idiot* is an evaluative noun owing to its pejorative connotations, "don't want any idiots" is used rather than "don't want some idiot", because the policeman is referring to his desire to keep all citizens who behave idiotically out of the town centre.

(24) "I <**don't want any**> idiots in the town centre," said Inspector Nowakowski.

In 16 of the 18 cases of *any* with a singular noun, the use of *any* instead of *some* can be explained by the fact that the clauses express a generic reference of some sort. Four cases involve the use of "no matter which" *any* in the phrases *any old* or *any random* + a singular noun. These have a generic meaning as they express the speaker's indifference towards the identity of the referent. Twelve examples involve contextually pejorative or intrinsically pejorative noun phrases that have a generic reference that is deducible from the co-text. For example, (25) clearly refers to do-gooders in general. All but one of these 16 examples of generic reference with *any* would work just as well in the plural as in the singular. The exception is (26), which sounds more natural in the singular. However, it too involves generic reference, as the speaker is clearly referring to the general idea of a nanny state rather than a unique type or an actual case.

(25) <**Don't want any**> do-gooder either of the Texan variety or of the home-grown variety.

(26) I'm still responsible for my actions and I <**don't want any**> nanny state to take that away from me.

However, in two cases there is no clear explanation for the use of *any* rather than *some* as the noun phrase has a strong qualitative meaning, as in (27).

(27) I <**don't want any**> strange cyar to pull up on mi (sic) driveway asking for the Skin Doc at all.

All cases with *don't want some* with singular, plural and uncountable nouns express a clearly qualitative, evaluative meaning as opposed to a quantitative one. A frequent feature of "don't want some", present in 65 of the 96 cases, involves its use with a following clause, embedded inside the noun phrase, which provides detail about the phenomenon that the writer/speaker finds undesirable. This is another example of the use of *some* to introduce items into discourse, which was first discussed in section 5.2, in connection with the use of *some* in partial negation. In (28), the detail inside the embedded relative clause suggests that the writer has a particular, although imaginary, case in mind. The evocation of particular cases renders referential *some* more appropriate than non-referential generic *any*.

(28) We <**don't want some**> blandly-written tosh that's simply full of promotional gloss and political sloganeering.

In conclusion, *don't want some* is the preferred form before evaluative nouns which are employed in order to express a particular qualitative meaning. It frequently evokes particular cases that the speaker has in mind (either actual or imaginary). *Don't want any* is the preferred form when the negative clause expresses a quantitative, generic meaning.

5.2.4 Collocates for *Some* in Object position in Negative Clauses

The search for specific collocates of *some* in object position was not particularly productive. The most significant finding is the high number of noun and adjective collocates that are evaluative in meaning, reflecting the use of *some* in evaluative negation. Twenty-one of the top 50 collocates with a T-score of above two and an MI score of above five are either intrinsically evaluative nouns or nouns which are shown by context to be used in an evaluative way: *smarmy*, *tinhorn*, *bullshit*, *stalker*, *upstart*, *magical*, *bastard*, *stuff*, *idiot, chick, crazy, stupid, dude, stranger*, *silly, asshole*, *guy, arrogant, crappy, fucking, fancy* and *shit*.

5.3 Results relating to RQ2 on the Distribution of *Any* and *Some* with Different Types of Implicit Negative

5.3.1 Introduction

Section 5.3.2 examines the distribution of *some* and *any* with implicitly negative verbs and adjectives, which, despite some important internal variation, exhibit quite homogenous behaviour with regard to the *some-any* distinction. Sections 5.3.3 and 5.3.4 then focus on the implicit negatives examined that display the most idiosyncratic behaviour in terms of the choice between *some* and *any*, namely *without* and *before*. Sections 5.3.5 and 5.3.6 examine the distribution of *some* and *any* with the two groups of implicit negatives defined in Jo and Lee (2002), absence state predicates and removal predicates, in order to see the extent to which it coincides with the distribution among implicit negatives covered in grammar books.

5.3.2 The Distribution and Use of *Some* and *Any* after Implicit Negative Verbs and Adjectives Listed in Grammar Books

The results of the whole corpus searches into the implicit negative verbs and adjectives listed in grammar books, summarized in Tables 5.8 and 5.9 below, show a clear distributional picture for the adjectives examined and a more variegated picture for the verbs**.** All of the adjectives studied occur over 90% of the time with *any* rather than *some,* confirming that the treatment of these items as implicit negatives in grammar books is correct. Five of the verbs studied - *deny*, *forbid*, *fail*, *refuse* and *prohibit* - occur over 90% of the time with *any* rather than *some*. *Avoid*, *prevent* and *doubt* display a slightly lower preference for *any*, ranging from 86.5 % in the case of *avoid*, to just over 82% in the case of *doubt*. The two main outliers are *ignore*, which occurs with *any* in around 65% of cases, and *forget to + verb* which occurs with *any* in just over half the cases.

Table 5.8 Distribution of *some* and *any* with implicitly negative adjectives. (Results across whole corpus [2,073,563,928 words])

Implicitly Negative Adjectives	Total cases with *some*	Percentage of cases with *some*	Total cases with *any*	Percentage of cases with *any*
unlikely + to + verb	10	0.90%	1101	99.10%
illegal + to + verb	1	1.37%	72	98.63%
incapable of + verb	6	1.91%	308	98.09%
unaware of	35	3.51%	961	96.49%
unable + to + verb	160	4.49%	3404	95.51%
reluctant + to + verb	25	5.68%	415	94.32%
unwilling + to + verb	18	5.64%	301	94.36%
impossible + to + verb	55	6.25%	825	93.75 %

Table 5.9 Distribution of *some* and *any* with implicitly negative verbs. (Results across whole corpus [2,073,563,928 words])

Lemmas	Total cases with *some*	Percentage of cases with *some*	Total cases with *any*	Percentage of cases with *any*
deny	174	2.28%	7448	97.72%
forbid	17	3.60%	455	96.40%
refuse to + verb	148	3.61%	3957	96.39%
fail to + verb	459	7.05%	6053	92.95 %
prohibit	53	7.08%	696	92.92%
avoid	915	13.47%	5878	86.53%
prevent	854	14.71%	4951	85.29%
doubt that	52	18.31%	232	81.69%
ignore	389	32.66%	802	67.34%
forget to + verb	131	47.29%	146	52.71%

In all cases, *any* is used with either its *negative polarity* meaning or its "no matter which" meaning to express total negation. Separate counts have not been offered for the two meanings, as they are often indistinguishable after implicit negatives, as in (29), which could be read either as "the government built settlements so that there was no challenge to Israel's sovereignty", with a negative polarity interpretation, or "the government built settlements to counter all possible challenges", with

a “no matter which” reading.

(29) The government then set about building settlements (..) “in order to <**prevent any**> challenge to Israel 's sovereignty”.

Tables 5.10 and 5.11 below summarize the uses of *some* after implicitly negative adjectives and verbs respectively. The main finding is the high predominance of the partial negative use. Whereas this use comprises just over 50% of the examples of *some* in object position in negative clauses, it accounts for 85% and 88% respectively of all cases of *some* after implicit negative adjectives and verbs. The second most frequent use is *some* in positively-oriented multi-negative patterns, which accounts for 7% and 10.5 % respectively of all cases of *some* after implicit negative adjectives and verbs. The frequency with which positively-oriented multi-negative patterns are used with *some* is significantly higher with three items: *doubt*, *forget* to and *impossible to*. Positively-oriented multi-negative patterns constitute 22% of all cases with *impossible to*, just under 50 % with *forget to* and almost 95 % of all cases with *doubt that.*

The breakdown of uses of *some* suggest some possible reasons why the preference for *any* over *some* is not as strong with some implicit negatives as it is with others. Owing to space limitations, the discussion is limited to the three items which have the highest percentage of cases with some: *doubt*, *ignore* and *forget.*

In the case of *doubt that some,* it is possible that its use in positively-oriented double negative patterns reflects a wider tendency to use the absence of doubt as an emphatic means of expressing certainty: expressions like *no doubt*, *doubtless*, *undoubtedly*, *little doubt* and *beyond doubt* are all employed to express certainty. In the case of *ignore*, the explanation for the large number of cases with the partial negative use might be that it is common not to pay attention to certain things or people while attending to others. The high number of cases with *some* after *forget to* may relate to its suitability for both emphatic expressions and partial negatives: *don’t forget* is used as an emphatic means of expressing the need to remember something, and it is common to forget to do certain things while remembering to do others.

Table 5.10 Breakdown of uses of *some* with implicit negative adjectives. (Results across whole corpus[2,073,563,928 words])

Implicit negative adjective	**Partial negative**	**Positively--oriented multi-negative**	**Evaluative negative**	**Miscellaneous cases involving positive orientation**
Unlikely	7	-	3	-
Illegal	1	-	-	-
Incapable of	5	-	1	-
Unaware of	31	2	2	-
Unable to +verb	141	5	2	12
Reluctant to +verb	22	1	1	1
Unwilling to+ verb	14	2	-	2
Impossible to + verb	42	12	-	1
Total	263	22	9	16
Percentage (out of aggregated total of 310)	84.839%	7.097%	2.903%	5.161%

Table 5.11 Breakdown of uses of *some* with implicit negative verbs. (Results across whole corpus [2,073,563,928 words])

Implicit negative verb	Partial negative	Positively--oriented double negative	Evaluative negative	Miscellaneous cases involving positive orientation
Deny+some	150	24	-	-
Doubt that	2	49	1	
Refuse to+verb	134	-	6	8
Forbid	17	-	-	-
Prohibit	51	2	-	
Fail to	416	30	1	12
Avoid	851	60	1	3
prevent	749	85	3	17
ignore	364	21	2	2
Forget+to+verb	65	65	1	-
Total	2799	336	15	42
Percentage (out of aggregated total of 3192)	87.688%	10.526%	0.470%	1.316%

5.3.3 Without

The figures in Table 5.12 show that *without any* is 10.5 times more frequent than *without some*. However, *without some*, with almost 4500 projected cases, is by no means infrequent and, as tables 5.13 and 5.14 show, it is used across a broader range of uses than *without any*.

Table 5.12 The distribution of *some* and *any* in *without* clauses

Raw no of concordance lines for *without some*, with no intervening words, across the whole corpus	Size of random sample	Number of hits in random sample	Projected total across the whole corpus
4453	580	579 (99.828%)	4445
Raw no of concordance lines for *without any*, with no intervening words, across the whole corpus	**Size of random sample**	**Number of hits in random sample**	**Projected total across the whole corpus**
46724	600	600 (100 %)	46724

Table 5.13 Uses of *Without Some*

Use	Number of cases in random sample	Percentage of cases in random sample	Estimated hits based on projected total (4445)
Multi Negative Patterns	443	76.511%	3401
Unless meaning	94	16.235%	722
Partial Negative	29	5.009%	223
Evaluative Negative	13	2.245%	100

Table 5.14 Uses of *Without Any*

Use	Number of cases in random sample	Percentage of cases in random sample	Estimated hits based on projected total (46724)
Total negation in single negative clauses	590	98.333%	45945
Multi-negative patterns	10	1.666%	778

The most significant finding with regard to the uses of *without some* is that over three quarters of the cases occur inside a multiple negative pattern, which gives the clause a positive orientation. The most common meaning expressed in multi negative patterns with *without some* is a condition or requirement that broadly corresponds to the meaning of *unless* as in (30). This meaning is present in just under half of the multi-negative cases - 213 out of 443. The remaining multi-negative cases cover a wide range of uses which have not been quantified, including the expression of inevitability as in (31), the litotic set phrase *not without*, and emphatic generalization with a negative quantifier such as *no* and *few*. The "unless" meaning is also the most common meaning in single negative clauses with *without*.

(30) Certainly, no single operator is likely to want to go head-to-head with BT <**without some**> additional support.

(31) It's impossible to live in that community <**without some**> connection to murder.

The remaining cases in the sample involve partial negation and evaluative negation which amount to only 5% and 2% respectively of the sample. The infrequency of partial negation with *without* contrasts starkly with its use with implicit negative verbs and adjectives where partial negation is predominant (see tables 5.10 and 5.11 above). One possible reason for this is that *without some*, because of its strong association with positive meaning, is rarely used to express the idea of lack or absence of certain things.

Without any is associated very strongly with negative meaning: 590 of the 600 examples in the sample involve the expression of total negation in affirmative clauses; the remaining ten examples involve double negation patterns which express either positive or negative orientation. Although these multi-

negative patterns amount to less than 2% of the total sample, the frequency of *without any* means that such cases occur a projected 778 times across the whole corpus. For this reason, it is necessary to briefly consider the possibility of overlap between *some* and *any* after *without* in multiple negation.

The cases of multi-negative patterns with *any* in the sample vary with regard to the possibility of overlap with *some*. There are four cases which express a clear negative orientation which renders *some* infelicitous; however, in the remaining six cases, while the use of *some* might give the sentence a slightly more positive orientation, *some* and *any* are practically interchangeable. For instance (32), with *any*, means that the distinction is not completely lacking in significance, while 32 A, with *some,* could be thought to mean that the idea "has a certain significance". However, in the context in which the example appears, substituting *some* for *any* would probably have little or no effect on the meaning that is conveyed to the reader.

(32) Many scholars have made distinction between Meccan and Medinese Islam and it is not without any significance.

(32 A) Many scholars have made distinction between Meccan and Medinese Islam and it is not without some significance.

Despite these few cases of overlap, the overall distinction between *without some* and *without any* is clear: with the exception of the few cases in which it is used to express partial negation or evaluative negation, *without some,* in both affirmative clauses and multiple negative patterns, is used to express a range of positive meanings the most common of which is "unless". By contrast, *without any* is used almost entirely in affirmative clauses and tends to express the idea of total negation.

5.3.4 *Before*

As Table 5.15 shows, *before* clauses display a similar behaviour to *without* clauses from a distributional perspective: although *before any* occurs around 6.5 times more frequently than *before some*, the latter is also a relatively common form, as it occurs over 800 times across the whole corpus in the investigated string with an intervening verb. For this reason, it is necessary to examine in detail the different meanings expressed by both *before some* and *before any*, which are summarized in Tables 5.16 and 5.17.

Table 5.15 Distribution of *some* and *any in before* clauses

No of concordance lines for *before some* with an intervening verb	**Size of random sample**	**Number of hits in random sample**	**Projected total assuming the same percentage of hits as in the random sample**
1262	460	299 (65%)	820
No of concordance lines for *before any* with an intervening verb	**Size of random sample**	**Number of hits in random sample**	**Projected total assuming the same percentage of hits as in the random sample**
5832	600	550 (91.666%)	5346

Table 5.16 Uses of *before any*

Use	Number of cases in random sample hits count of 550	Percentage of cases in random sample	Estimated hits based on projected total (5346)
Not until	365	66.364%	3548
Avoidance	93	16.909%	904
When not..	78	14.182%	758
Factual before clauses with application of Force Majeure principle	12	2.182%	117
Dispreference	2	0.364%	19

Table 5.17 Uses of *before some*

Use	Number of cases in in random sample hits count of 299	Percentage of cases in random sample	Estimated hits based on projected total (820)
Sequencing of physical actions or events	119	39.799%	326
Sequencing of discourse actions or events	77	25.753%	211
Indicating the imminence or inevitablility of a future action or event: “it’s a matter of time before”	36	12.040%	99
Avoidance of action, situation or event that is on the point of occurring	34	11.371%	93
Counterfactual before clauses with application of *Force Majeure* principle	13	4.348 %	36
Sequencing with “not before”	9	3.010 %	25
Other cases involving positive orientation	6	2.007%	16
Demands	5	1.672%	14

The main conclusion to be drawn from the different uses that are discussed below is that *some,* owing to its referential meaning*,* is used in factual *before*-clauses while *any,* because of its non-referential meaning is used in counterfactual ones.

98% of all cases of *before any* in the random sample - 538 out of 550 - involve counterfactual uses of *before* clauses. The most frequent counterfactual use, making up two thirds of the sample, is one in which the *before* clause expresses the meaning of *not until,* as in (33). The second most frequent use, which occurs in around 17% of all cases, expresses the idea of avoiding an action, situation or event, as in (34). The third most common use expresses the idea of "when not": in other words, at the time in which the action or event in the main clause occurs, the action in the *before*-clause has not taken place, as in (35).The remaining two cases of counterfactual uses in the sample involve dispreference, that is, the event action or situation expressed in the *before*-clause is treated as less desirable than that of the main clause, as in (36)

(33) We will fully assess the Government's response, <**before we make any**> decision.

(34) In addition, we started new programs like our Operation Stop It initiative to close down phishing operations <**before they could do any**> harm.

(35) That was back in 1985 <**before Arnold had professed any**> political ambitions.

(36) I would vote for Ringo <**before I would vote for any**> member of N'Sync.

The assignment of *before any* to the three main counterfactual use types described above is determined primarily by the general context of the examples rather than by the existence of linguistic cues such as tenses. The "not until" use is partially related to the idea of futurity, as it occurs 174 times in the sample in the present tense referring to future time, and on 36 occasions with a past tense form to express the idea of the future in the past, or of the conditional. However, it also occurs 117 times with the present tense referring to present time and 38 times with a past simple form referring to past time. Although 15 of the 78 cases of the "when not" use involve present perfect and past perfect tenses, which do not occur with the "not until" use, this is not a defining quality of this use as the remaining 63 cases involve the same range of uses found with the "not until" use. The avoidance use cannot be distinguished from other uses in terms of the tense used either, as it employs either the present simple or the past simple, which also occur with other uses.

One linguistic feature of the *before any* avoidance use is the recurrence of the verb form *could,* which occurs in 36 of the 93 sample examples of this meaning. The explanation for the use of *could* with this use is that it fits with prevention in the past - something happened before somebody could do something. However, *could* is not a defining feature of the avoidance use for two reasons: firstly, there are more cases of this use which do not use *could* than cases which do use it; secondly, *could* also occurred 16 times in the sample with the "not until" use.

The two examples of the dispreference use in the sample involve the use of *would* in both the main clause and the *before* clause. The use of *would* in these examples can be explained by the fact that preference is one of the functions expressed by this modal verb. However, it is possible that there are other linguistic realizations of this use that did not appear in the sample.

There are twelve cases in the sample in which *any* is used in *before* clauses belonging to types usually used with referential *some* rather than non-referential *any*, because they all refer to actual events. In all these cases *any* is used despite the factual[8] meaning of the *before* clause, either because the quantifier conveys a "no matter which meaning", as in (37), or because the clause expresses a total negative, as in (38), and thus requires the unlimited quantitative meaning expressed by *any* rather than the limited quantitative meaning expressed by *some*.

(37) It wasn't long <**before the level of stimulation surpassed any**> ability I might have had to

[8] Although (37) contains *not long before*, which, as will be seen below, is a frequent exponent of imminent future events, the clause in this case refers to an actual event and is therefore incontrovertibly factual.

cope with it.

(38) We had not checked whether security would allow us to film in situ , <**before RL decided not to use any**> over- familiar London landmarks.

These twelve cases are instances of a general principle governing the choice between *some* and *any* which will be referred to in this thesis as the *Force Majeure* principle. The rule is stated in the box below:

Force Majeure Principle

Whenever there is a conflict between semantic and pragmatic meaning in the choice between *some* or *any*, priority is given to semantic meaning.

Just under 70% of all cases with *before some* in the sample (205 cases out of 299) involve clauses which are incontrovertibly factual as they express some kind of sequencing of actual events: the two most frequent sequencing uses involve the sequencing of physical events, which occurs with action verbs as in (39), or of discourse events, which occurs with speech verbs as in (40); a less frequent use involves clauses with *not before* which indicate that the event in the *before* clause occurs before the event in the main clause. This is an emphatic use which brings the event in the *not before* clause into sharper focus, as in (41).

(39) The car was seen being driven " erratically " <**before it collided with some**> bins.

(40) < **Before we talk about some** > of the things he discussed, we'll first mention (..)

(41) He was drummed out of basic training for planting evidence on suspects, but **<not before he learned some**> handy skills.

Thirty-six further cases in the *before some* sample involve clauses which indicate that a future event is imminent (42). This imminence is expressed through a range of linguistic exponents including *shortly before, just before, how long.. before, not (too) long before* and *a matter of time before*. These cases have not been included in the example count of incontrovertibly factual clauses above, as the event has not yet taken place. However, because the event is taken for granted, it is much closer to a factual *before* clause than to the counterfactual types in which *any* tends to occur.

(42) It was only a matter of time <**before I let some**> of the feelings out.

There are in total 58 cases in the *before some* sample of different uses that involve counterfactual *before* clauses. In all these cases there is a clear reason for using *some*. The most frequent of these counterfactual uses, which occurs 34 times in the sample, expresses the avoidance of an action that is on the point of occurring, as in (43). Although, as explained above, avoidance is a counterfactual use associated with *before any*, the imminence of the avoided action provides a justification for using *some*. The action is so close to occurring that the speaker presents it as a real possibility and therefore prefers referential *some* to non-referential *any*. However, ten of the 93 cases of avoidance in the *before any* sample also involve imminent actions. Thus, while *some* is the preferred form in *before* clauses which express the avoidance of an imminent action, the counterfactual nature of these clauses renders *any* possible.

(43) We want you out of here <**before he finds some**> reason to keep you around.

There are 13 counterfactual cases with *before some* that involve uses associated with *before any,* such as *"*not until" or "not when"*,* but require *some* because the clause expresses partial negation or because it expresses evaluative negation, with an evaluative noun in the singular. These cases are another instance of the Force Majeure principle explained above.

It will be seen later that the need to use *some* because of the choice of an evaluative noun occurs not only in *before* clauses but also in other non-assertive clause types, including in negatively-oriented

unless clauses which express unlikelihood and in some negatively oriented questions. It is classified as Force Majeure in all cases. It could be argued that the use of *some* before evaluative nouns in all such clauses do not strictly involve Force Majeure, i.e. the prevailment of semantic over pragmatic meaning, as evaluative nouns express the speaker's attitude, which is pragmatic rather than semantic meaning. However, they have been included as Force Majeure on the grounds that it is the special meaning expressed by the noun phrase itself, a semantic meaning, which forces the use of *some* despite the fact that the overall pragmatic meaning expressed by the speaker's general stance towards the proposition points to the need to use *any.*

In the remaining 11 counterfactual cases in the *before some* sample, *some* is used to express some kind of positive orientation. Five of these cases involve examples with *How many times ..before* or *How long…before* in which the speaker or writer is making a demand as in (44). The other six cases express a positive desiderative and/or deontic bias: the speaker or writer would like the action or event to occur and/or thinks that it should occur.

(44) How many times do we have to put up with intellectual death-defying acts <**before we get some**> honesty in this house?

5.3.5 The Use of *Some* and *Any* with Absence State Predicates

As Table 5.18 shows, while there are no examples in the OEC of *sterile of* and *arid of* followed by either *some* or *any,* the bias towards *any* for the remaining items studied is very strong, ranging from 87.5% in the case of *barren of* and *regardless of* to 99.4% in the case of *innocent of*. The preference for *any* with absence state predicates probably stems from their underlying negative meaning: *independence from* refers to the state of not being tied to something; *innocent of* means "not guilty of" or "not responsible for"; *regardless of* means "not taking into account" etc.

Table 5.18 Frequency of absence state predicates with *some* and *any.* (Results across whole corpus [2,073,563,928 words])

Absence State Phrase	Total no. of cases with *some*	Percentage of cases with *some*	Total no. of cases with *any*	Percentage of cases with *any*
innocent of	2	0.56%	357	99.44%
devoid of	14	1.01%	1371	98.99%
immune from	1	1.37%	72	98.63%
clear of	14	1.56%	884	98.44%
free of	33	3.19%	1001	96.81%
the absence of	93	3.98%	2245	96.02%
freed of	1	5%	19	95%
independence from	2	8.70%	21	91.30%
barren of	1	12.50%	7	87.50%
regardless of	1	12.50%	7	87.50%
sterile of	0	-	0	-
arid of	0	-	0	-

The uses of both *some* and *any* with absence state predicates are very similar to those of the implicit negatives covered in grammar books: a*ny* is used to express a total negative meaning with either its negative polarity or its "no matter which" meaning. As with implicit negatives, no attempt was made to calculate the relative frequency of these two meanings as there were numerous cases in which they overlapped.

With regard to *some*, absence state predicates display a very similar use profile to that seen with most implicitly negative verbs and adjectives. Partial negatives occur in 90% of all cases of *some* after an absence state predicate, 146 out of 162, and the remaining uses involve positively oriented multiple negative patterns and evaluative negation.

In conclusion, while the status of *sterile of* and *arid of* as implicit negatives could not be confirmed, absence state predicates as a whole can be considered typical implicit negatives, because they show a strong bias towards *any* and because the uses in which *some* occurs closely resemble those of implicitly negative verbs and adjectives.

5.3.6 The Use of *Some* and *Any* with Removal Predicates

As table 5.19 shows, the distribution of *some* and *any* varies greatly across the removal predicates examined in this study. *Obliterate, extinguish, put an end* to and *annihilate* have a preference for *any* of 85% or more. *Wipe out, eradicate, erase and* d*estroy* also show a bias towards *any* of between 75 and 79 %. *Cut off*, *remove, blot out* and *cancel* have a more moderate preference for *any*. The remaining four removal predicates show either no bias or no significant bias towards *any*: *decimate* and *axe* occur with almost equal frequency with *any* and *som*e, while *get rid of* and *break down* show a clear preference for *some*.

Table 5.19 Frequencies of removal predicates with *some* and *any*. (Results across whole corpus [2,073,563,928 words])

Removal predicate	Total no. of cases with *some*	Percentage of cases with *some*	Total no. of cases with *any*	Percentage of cases with *any*
extinguish	12	8.76%	125	91.24%
obliterate	12	9.09%	120	90.91%
put an end to	19	14.18%	115	85.82%
annihilate	6	14.63%	35	85.37%
eradicate	31	21.09%	116	78.91%
wipe out	58	21.40%	213	78.60%
erase any	100	24.94%	301	75.06%
destroy	473	25.12%	1410	74.88%
cut off	90	31.25%	198	68.75%
remove	1794	33.04%	3636	66.96%
blot out	5	33.33%	10	66.66%
cancel	180	38.30%	290	61.70%
decimate	8	47.06%	9	52.94%
axe	12	54.55%	10	45.45%
get rid of	502	62.13%	306	37.87%
break down (=destroy or make ineffective)	187	73.91%	66	26.09%

On the basis of the exemplars investigated in this study, removal predicates as a whole cannot incontrovertibly be regarded as implicit negatives, as some items show a strong preference towards *any* while others do not. It has not been possible to establish a clear reason for this variant preference. One possible explanation that was considered was that there might be a converse relationship between the degree of emphaticness of the removal predicate and its tendency to occur with *any*, as the eight verbs which show the strongest bias towards *any* (*extinguish, obliterate, put an end to, annihilate, eradicate*, *wipe out, erase* and *destroy*) all have a highly emphatic meaning. However, this possibility was rejected because *blot out*, which has a weaker, albeit clear, bias towards *any* is also emphatic, as

are *decimate, get rid of* and *axe,* which do not show a preference for *any*. Future research into a wider range of removal predicates may throw some light on the question of why certain removal predicates show a stronger preference for *any* than others.

Because removal predicates as a whole were not found to be incontrovertible cases of implicit negatives, the uses in which *some* occurs were not investigated.

5.4 Results Relating to RQ3 on the Use of *Some* and *Any* in *If* Clauses and *Unless* Clauses

5.4.1 Introduction

The research conducted into conditionals largely confirms the position of grammar books regarding the distribution of *some* and *any*. Firstly, as table 5.20 below shows, *any*, with a projected total of 92006 examples across the whole corpus, is 2.69 times more frequent in *if* conditionals than *some*, with a projected total of 34170 examples, thus corroborating the claim made in grammar books that *any* is the prevalent form in such clauses. Secondly, the results confirm that expectational bias is the main basis for distinguishing between *some* and *any*, with *some* being preferred in cases that express a positive expectational bias towards the proposition expressed in the conditional and *any* in cases that express both neutral expectations and, less frequently, negative ones.

However, the findings also reveal that expectational bias is by no means the only factor affecting the *some-any* choice in conditionals. Firstly, the speaker's attitude towards the conditional proposition is shown to play a role, since *some* is used in conditional clauses in which the speaker expresses a positive attitude towards the proposition, while *any* is used in those in which he/she expresses a negative attitude; moreover, attitudinal bias determines the choice between *some* and *any* in a number of speech functions, as will be explained in Section 5.4.2. Secondly, it is shown that *some* is used in counterfactual conditionals in which the speaker or writer asks the listener or reader to imagine an impossible or unlikely situation.

Sections 5.4.2 and 5.4.3 focus on the uses of *if some* and *if any* respectively. Section 5.4.4 briefly examines the collocates of *some* and *any* in *if* clauses. Section 5.4.5 analyses in slightly less detail the *some-any* distinction in *unless*-clauses.

Table 5.20 Distribution of *some* and *any* in *if* clauses

Raw no of concordance lines for *if some* across the whole corpus	**Size of random sample**	**Number of hits in random sample**	**Projected total across the whole corpus**
36971	660	610 (92.424%)	34170
Raw no of concordance lines for *if any* across the whole corpus	**Size of random sample**	**Number of hits in random sample**	**Projected total across the whole corpus**
101886	660	596 (90.303%)	92006

5.4.2 Uses of Some in *If* clauses

Table 5.21 presents the uses of some in if clauses.

Table 5.21 Uses of *some* in *if* clauses

Use	Number of cases in random sample hits count of 610	Percentage of cases in random sample count	Estimated hits based on projected total (34170)
Factual Conditionals expressing likely events or situations	358	58.689 %	20054
Factual Conditionals expressing actual occurrences (If = When)	60	9.836 %	3361
Factual Conditionals expressing concession	47	7.705 %	2633
Counterfactual Conditionals referring to imagined situations	42	6.885 %	2353
Positively Oriented Speech functions (Requests, recommendations and exhortations)	32	5.246%	1793
Counterfactual Conditionals with a Positive Desiderative or Deontic Bias	29	4.754 %	1624
Force Majeure	25	4.098 %	1400
Negative Counterfactual Conditional referring to Actual Occurrences	10	1.639%	560
Other Negative conditional clauses expressing unless meaning	7	1.148	392

Of the 610 hits from the sample search for *if some*, 465 (76 percent) belong to three different uses that directly express positive expectational bias. The most frequent type, which accounts for 358 of the examples expressing positive expectations and for nearly 60 % of the entire *if some* sample, involves factual conditionals in which the speaker sees or treats the conditional proposition as a likely event, as in (45). The assignment of examples to this category was almost entirely based on overall co-text and situational context as, with the exception of five cases involving the set phrase *not be surprised if,* there were no clear linguistic cues inside the *if*-clause itself pointing to the likelihood of the action. The second most frequent type, which occurs in 60 examples in the sample, corresponds to what are often called "zero conditionals", in which *if* means "when" or "whenever". The third most frequent type involves concessive *if* clauses, which can express two meanings: *"*although"*,* as in (46) or "even allowing for the possibility that" as in (47). With the "although" meaning, the use of referential *some* is required because the speaker/writer takes for granted that the action or situation will occur. With the "even allowing for the possibility that" meaning, *some* is needed because, while the speaker/writer does not necessarily believe that the action or situation will occur, he/she is contemplating it as a real possibility. There is a clear linguistic exponent of both meanings of this use, as 44 of the 47 cases in the sample involve the conjunction *even if*.

(45) Since I am not a native speaker of French, or have even studied it I will be using an online translator. </s><s> So, <**if some**> of the dialogue comes out odd, please forgive that.

(46) Even <**if some**> of the hunters are less than credible, they do enable the filmmakers to capture some amazing footage.

(47) Even <**if Mr Cameron can recapture some**> of the electoral ground his party has lost in recent months, he still faces a major obstacle (..).

One of the most important findings relating to the use of *some* in *if* clauses is its occurrence in different types of counterfactual conditionals, corresponding either to what are termed type 2 conditionals, which hypothesize about unlikely or impossible occurrences in the present time, or type 3 conditionals, which speculate about events that did not occur in the past.

The two most frequent uses in which *if some* does not express positive expectations of some kind both involve counterfactual conditionals. The most frequent counterfactual type, accounting for just under 7 percent of the *if some* clauses in the sample, involves a type of counterfactual conditional in which the speaker or writer is imagining, and asking the interlocutor or reader to imagine, an unlikely or impossible situation, as in (48). In such cases, as Sahlin (1979) notes, *if* has a meaning similar to that of words such as *assuming* and *let's say*. The justification for using referential *some* rather than non-referential *any* is that the speaker or writer is treating the impossible or unlikely situation as though it were real for the purposes of discourse. Once more, the assignment of examples to this category is largely based on the overall co-text and/ or the situational context: while 5 of the 42 examples of this use contain the phrase *what if*, and one involved the phrase *imagine if*, the remaining examples contained no such linguistic cues.

(48) <**If there were some**> pigs on the island I would train the pigs to find truffles and then put the pigs on the spit.

The second most frequent use category for counterfactual *if* conditionals with *some*, comprising just under 5 % of the sample, involves clauses that express positive desiderative or deontic bias. In 13 of the 29 cases, the linguistic bias is determined by the presence of one of the following linguistic cues: *if…only/just* or the use of volitional *would* inside the conditional clause. In the remaining cases, the bias was deduced from the overall co-text and/or situational context.

In addition to these two main counterfactual use categories, counterfactual conditionals with *if some* are employed in several other categories: negative counterfactual conditionals with *some* are used to refer to actual occurrences, as in (49), and the categories of Force Majeure, requests and recommendations contain some examples in which counterfactual conditionals are employed. In total, 109 of the 610 examples of *if some*, just under 18% of the sample, involve counterfactual conditionals

(49) <**If some people**> didn't think it was rubbish, it wouldn't be worth talking about.

By contrast, the *if any* sample contained only 40 counterfactual examples out of 596, less than 7% of the sample. However, owing to the greater number of concordance lines generated by the *if any* search, these percentages produce very similar amounts when projected over the whole corpus: the projected total number of examples of counterfactual conditionals with *if any* is 6175 while the projected amount for *if some* is 6106.

In conclusion, Huddleston and Pullum's (2002) claim that counterfactual conditionals occur with *any* rather than with *some* is not borne out by the OEC data: the percentage of *if some* conditionals that are counterfactual clauses is higher than the percentage of *if any* cases and the overall amount of counterfactual conditionals is very similar with both quantifiers.

Positively-oriented speech functions play a less important role in *if* clauses than they do in affirmative *yes-no* questions. 5% of the *if some* sample, 32 cases out of 610, involve specific speech functions in which the speakers' positive bias towards the performance of the action leads to the use of *some* rather than *any*. Three functions are involved in this use in the sample: requests, recommendations and

exhortations.

Requests and recommendations occur in both factual and counterfactual clauses but tend more towards the latter; 8 of the 13 requests and 9 of the 11 recommendations were performed using counterfactual *if* clauses. The counterfactual conditional is used here not to indicate that the action is unlikely but as a politeness strategy to distance the speaker from what he is proposing. Recommendations involve positive deontic bias, as they indicate what should be done. Requests, which are discussed further in sections 5.5.2 to 5.5.4 on questions, may involve a mixture of positive expectational and desiderative bias.

The eight cases of the exhortation function, exemplified by (50), occur in factual *if* clauses. The function is realized through the interplay of a negative *if* clause and the main clause: the negative *if* clause expresses the action that the speaker would like to see performed and thinks should be performed, while the main clause warns of the consequences of not performing it.

(50) Search engines (..) can cause no end of grief <**if you don't know some>** simple tricks.

Linguistic cues are present in conditional clauses that perform the recommendation and the request function. All of the thirteen examples of the request function in the sample involve typical linguistic exponents of requests. There are six examples of conditional clauses containing the verb *could*, two containing *can* and one each containing *might* and *would like*. The remaining examples involve the expressions *do you mind if*, *would appreciate it if* and *is it alright if*. The clearest examples of linguistic cues in the recommendation function are *would be better if* and *maybe if*, which both occur twice.

The most important use category of *if some* not yet discussed involves *if* clauses which express a negative orientation but require *some* owing to the application of the Force Majeure principle. Thirteen of the 25 cases in the sample require *some* because of the quantitative meaning expressed, “a certain amount of” , or “some but not others” while 12 require it because the quantifier precedes an evaluative noun in the singular.

The remaining seven cases in the *if some* sample involve grammatically negative conditional clauses linked to a main clause that also expresses negative meaning. The negative meaning of the main clause is conveyed either by a grammatically negative verb phrase, as in (51) below, or by some other means of expressing negativity, such as implicit negatives or rhetorical questions. *Some* is required because the juxtaposition of the two negative clauses confers a positive meaning on the negative *if* clause, similar to that of standard affirmative *unless* clauses, which show a preference for *some* over *any,* as will be explained in section 5.4.5.

(51) <**If you don't start playing some**> of Michael's videos, you can't play any of our artists' videos

5.4.3 Uses of *Any* in If Clauses

Table 5.22 presents the uses of *any* in if clauses.

Table 5.22 Uses of any in if clauses

Use	Number of cases in random sample hits count of 596	Percentage of cases in random sample	Estimated hits based on projected total (92006)
Neutral factual conditional	322	54.027 %	49708
Negatively-oriented quantifying phrases	119	19.966 %	18370
Force majeure	67	11.242 %	10343
Counterfactual conditionals indicating unlikelihood or the non-occurrence	36	6.040 %	5557
Singularizing function	23	3.859 %	3551
Threats and warnings	15	2.517 %	2316
Factual conditionals expressing negative expectations	9	1.510 %	1389
Factual conditionals expressing negative desiderative or deontic bias	5	0.839	772

Of the examples from the sample search for *if any*, 81.5 %, 486 out of 596, correspond to different uses in which the speaker or writer expresses negative or neutral expectations towards the realization of the conditional proposition. The most frequent use of this type, accounting for 54% of the entire *if any* sample, involves factual conditionals that express neutral expectations, as in (52), where the possibility of blisters developing is seen as an objective possibility rather than a probability. The second most frequent use, accounting for just under 20% of the entire *if any* sample, involves the use of negatively-oriented quantifying expressions which are employed to cast doubt on the realization of the conditional occurrence: there are 45 cases with *if any*, 32 with *what if any*, 25 with *few if any* and 17 with *little if any*. The remaining uses which belong to the umbrella category of neutral or negative expectations are counterfactual conditionals indicating that something is unlikely to occur or did not occur and factual conditionals which express negative expectations.

(52) Patients should be instructed to see their physician <**if any**> blisters develop.

In two of the counterfactual conditionals in the *if any* sample, the speaker is emphatically denying a proposition. Although this use is highly infrequent, it is worth describing because it also occurs in wh-questions and because it contrasts with one use of *unless some,* in which the speaker emphatically confirms a proposition. The emphatic denial is realized by the interplay between the conditional *protasis* and the *apodosis*: the condition expressed in the *if-clause* is shown to be false by the use of counterfactual verb forms; the result expressed in the apodosis provides a reason for considering the *if-clause* to be false, which serves to emphasize the falsity. Thus the person quoted in (53) states that the allegations against him cannot be true because the killings were not shown on television.

(53) (Context: the speaker has been accused of killing four people during the war in Sarajevo) <**If any of this**> were true-even one per cent- it would have been on television.

Just over 11 percent of the *if any* sample correspond to cases which express a positive expectational or attitudinal bias towards the conditional proposition, but require *any* owing to the application of the Force Majeure principle. In 36 of the 67 Force Majeure cases, *any* is required because it expresses a "no matter which" meaning, while in the remaining 31, it expresses a total negative. In (54), the *if clause* is of the factual "when" type, which would normally go with *some*, but requires *any* because it is a total negative.

(54) He knows I hate reporting to the General, especially <**if we don't have any**> good news.

Two of the categories not yet discussed involve the use of *any* in speech functions and together constitute a little over 6 % of the random sample for *if any*: one involves what might be termed a *singularizing function* in which *if any* is employed as a hyperbolic means of singling out something or someone for praise or attention. The other involves warnings or threats.

In the *singularizing function* (55), *any* could be understood to express either the usual "no matter which" meaning or its depreciative variant. With the former reading it means "whichever exemplar you choose to think of", while with the latter it means "to the extent that any person or thing, however insignificant". With either reading, it is likely that *any* has crystalized into this set phrase because its non-referential meaning renders it suitable for cases in which the speaker is not referring to an actual instance of the referent. This function often occurs with quite a fixed phraseology: in all but three cases, the main clause which follows the singularizing conditional clause begins with the phrase *(then) +subject +be*, as in "then surely that place would be" in (55); moreover, 12 of the 23 cases of this function involve a conditional clause with *if there be* and four involve a conditional clause containing the lexical word *have*, in the sense of "possess".

(55) U.S. foreign policy has created enormous resentment. </s><s> But <**if there is any**> other country in the world of which the same could be said, then surely that place would be India.

Warnings and threats, as in (56), occur with *any* because they involve negative desiderative or deontic bias: the speaker or writer does not want the event or action expressed in the *if-clause* to occur or thinks that it should not occur. The protasis indicates what the speaker does not want to occur, while the apodosis produces the effect of a warning or a threat by indicating the negative consequences of the action or event. While one example contains the verb *warn* and another the verb *threaten*, the remaining 13 examples do not contain any clear linguistic cues and can only be interpreted as belonging to the warnings and threats function by examining the wider co-text or the situational context in which they are expressed. Warnings and threats have been counted as the same function owing to the similarity of purpose of the two uses and the difficulty of assigning some examples to one use or the other. The remaining five cases in the *if any* sample, which cannot be assigned to any speech function, involve factual conditionals in which the speaker is expressing negative deontic or desiderative bias.

(56) I'll allow you to continue rehab but toss you back in jail <**if you (..) violate the terms of your probation in any way, if you miss any**> random drug tests.

During the research into the use of *some* and *any* in conditionals, several cases were encountered in which the speaker or writer appears to exploit the association of *some* with positive expectations and *any* with negative ones in order to achieve covert pragmatic effects. In (57), the use of *some* strengthens the speaker's argument by implying that false accusations are likely to cause permanent damage. In (58), the use of *any* suggests that it is unlikely that the company made any mistakes when expelling users from its service. The speaker may be using *any* here to avoid admitting *a priori* that his/her company is at fault. The use of *some* or *any* to achieve covert pragmatic effects has not been quantified or exhaustively explored in this study.

(57) **(Context: discussing false accusations)** "(..) the people (..) and their families have to live

with that burden<**if some**> of the mud sticks".

(58) He said the SurfTime product provided unmetered access - but that it did not mean that users could expect to have a dedicated connection to the Net. (..). 'However<**if any>** mistakes have been made we will put this right".

5.4.4 Collocations

The search for single word collocates of *some* and *any* in *if*-clauses did not throw a great deal of light on the *some-any* distinction. A number of noun collocates occur with both *some* and *any*, e.g. *sort, kind, reason, form, ideas, suggestions* etc and there are many others that are clear collocates with one of the quantifiers and near collocates with the other, because they meet the required T-score of 2 but are just below the required MI score of 5.

However, there was one important finding. The following noun collocates with *any* refer to events or situations that are normally treated as unlikely in both conditionals and questions to avoid causing alarm or offence: *problems, doubts, concerns, harm, complaints, offence, mistakes, errors, wrongdoing, trouble and difficulties.* The pedagogical relevance of this finding will be discussed in Chapter 6, in section 6.2.3.

5.4.5 *Some* and *Any* in *Unless*-Clauses

There are two main findings with regard to the use of *some* and *any* in *unless* clauses. Firstly, *some* occurs far more frequently than *any*. Secondly, despite their lower frequency, the uses in which *any* occur deserve attention as they are clearly differentiated from those in which *some* occurs.

As is shown in Table 5.23 below, *some* is around seven and a half times more frequent than *any* in *unless clauses*, as there was a projected total of 2711 examples with *some* compared to an actual total of 356 cases with *any*. The preference for *some* over *any* can be explained in terms of the central overriding meaning of *unless* clauses. As Declerck and Reed (2000) note, *unless* clauses can have a variety of contextually dependent meanings including, among others "except if", "if not" and "only if not". However, these meanings all correspond to one basic meaning: essentially, *unless* clauses always express the only or "exceptive" condition under which the proposition of the main clause does not apply. Thus, (59) cites the condition under which the index will not be essential, while (60) states the condition under which the police ask for search warrants. The exceptive condition is not treated as a likely occurrence but as a possible one that is worth contemplating in discourse. The assumption that the condition is possible or worth contemplating is what makes referential *some* the preferred form in *unless* clauses.

(59) (..) an index is essential <**unless you wish to search some**> 55,000 entries.

(60) You don't (..) get a search warrant for somebody's home, <**unless you think some**> rather serious crime has been committed.

Table 5.23 Distribution of *some* and *any* in *unless*-clauses

No of concordance lines for *unless* + verb + *some* across the whole corpus	**Size of random sample**	**Number of hits in random sample**	**Projected total across the whole corpus**
2797	550	533 (96.909%)	2711
Number of concordance lines for *unless* + verb+ *any* across the whole corpus		**Total Hits**	

414	356

The breakdown of the uses of *some* and *any* discussed below reflects the operation of two basic principles relating to *some* and *any*: firstly, the *some-any* choice depends largely on expectational bias but, as also occurs in other non-assertive clauses including *if conditionals* questions and *before* clauses, attitudinal bias also plays a role; secondly, the Force Majeure principle, whereby semantic meaning distinctions between *some* and *any* override pragmatic ones in the event of a conflict between the two meaning types is a major factor in the choice of *any* in positively-oriented *unless*-clauses.

As Table 5.24 below shows, 84% of the examples of *unless+verb+some* in the sample correspond to the basic use of *unless* clauses to introduce an exceptive condition that is assumed to be a possible occurrence. The second most important use of *some* in *unless* clauses corresponds to clauses which perform the exhortation function seen already with negative *if*- clauses. Thus in (61) the *unless* clause exhorts the readers to apply some security patches, while the main clause warns of the consequences of not doing so. The use of *some* in exhortative *unless* clauses can be justified on two grounds: firstly, like standard *unless* clauses, exhortative *unless* clauses assume that the exceptive condition is a real, if not necessarily likely, possibility that is worth contemplating in discourse; secondly, exhortations express the speaker's desire for the action or event contemplated in the *unless* clause to occur.

(61) You could be in for big trouble <**unless you apply some**> security patches.

Table 5.24 Uses of *unless some*

Use	**Number of cases in random sample hits count of 533 corresponding to each use**	**Percentage of cases in random sample**	**Estimated hits based on projected total (2711)**
Ordinary *Unless* Clause assuming exception as genuine possibility	448	84.053	2279
Exhortation	55	10.319	280
Force Majeure	19	3.565	97
Emphatic Confirmation	8	1.501	41
Other: miscellaneous cases in which *any* could have been used instead of *some*	3	0.563	15

While, as will be seen below, the *force-majeure* rule is a major factor in the choice of *any* in *unless*-clauses, it plays a very minor role in the choice of *some*. Less than four percent of the examples in the random sample involve cases in which *some* is chosen on account of semantic/connotational meaning rather than expectational or attitudinal bias. In all such cases, the co-text of the examples indicates that the speaker is emphasizing the unlikelihood of the condition, which, as will be seen below, would normally lead to the use of *any* rather than *some*. However, *some* is required because the speaker has chosen to use an evaluative singular noun.

The remaining cases in the *unless some* sample involve two categories: clauses used in combination

with a grammatically negative or implicitly negative main clause or a negatively oriented rhetorical question, to emphatically confirm an idea; clauses in which *some* is employed but *any* is the expected form.

The contrast between emphatic confirmation in *unless* clauses and emphatic denial in *if*-clauses clearly exemplifies the role played by positive and negative orientation in the choice between *some* and *any.* In emphatic denial, the *if*-clause denies the proposition and the main clause provides the reason for denying it. The *if*-clause occurs with *any* because it is negatively oriented. In the emphatic confirmation function (62), the *unless-clause* provides the statement confirming an idea, and the main clause provides the reason why this idea must be true. The *unless-clause* occurs with *some* because it is positively-oriented.

(62) Gibbon would not be the historian of the decline and fall of the Roman Empire < **unless there had occurred some** > actual sequence of events more or less corresponding to his narrative.

There are three cases in the *unless some* sample of *unless* clauses that refer to unlikely events, a use in which *any* is preferred, as will be seen in the discussion of *unless any* below. A possible explanation for the use of *some* in these examples is that the speaker/writer uses it as a type of default form owing to its higher frequency in *unless* clauses.

As Table 5.25 below shows, the most frequent use of *any* in *unless* clauses, corresponding to just under 60 % of all cases involve standard "some type" unless clauses in which the application of the Force Majeure principle applies: on 149 occasions, *any* is required with its "no matter which" meaning to indicate the unrestricted nature of the noun referent, as in (63); in 63 cases, it is required in a negative unless clause to express the idea of total negation, as in (64).

(63) [context: review of a DVD on military history] <**Unless you absolutely detest violence in any form**> , this is an engaging and informative disc.

(64) Don't try to sell during a significant downturn < **unless you absolutely don't have any** > other options.

Table 5.25 Uses of *Unless Any.* (Results across whole corpus [2,073,563,928 words])

Use	Number of hits	Percentage of cases corresponding to each use
Force Majeure no matter which meaning	212	59.551%
Special Emphasis on unlikelihood	71	19.944%
Get out clauses	65	18.258%
Special emphasis on extreme infrequency	8	2.247%

The second most frequent use, corresponding to 20% of the cases, involves clauses in which the speaker or writer is emphasizing the unlikelihood of the conditional proposition, as in (65). The emphasis on unlikelihood leads to the use of non-referential any as it involves negative expectational bias.

(65) Even I can tell this isn't Witch Island , ' she announced , ' <**unless you have any**> boy witches.

A related use, the *get-out clause* use, occurs in 18% of the cases. It involves *unless* clauses which provide the reader or interlocutor with a possible reason for refusing a request, proposal or planned course of action. There are two possible reasons why *any*, with its suggestion of unlikelihood, is

preferred to *some* in get-out clauses. Firstly, it may be more usual to present the objections to proposed or requested courses of actions as unlikely so that the proposals or requests do not lose persuasive force. Secondly, it may be politer in most cases to assume that the reader or interlocutor is unlikely to have objections to the request or proposal. Both reasons may be involved in example (66): Mel Gibson is requesting the key role in a film while also presenting his interlocutor with a reason for refusing him this role. By presenting the interlocutor's objections as more likely, the use of *some* might both weaken Mel Gibson's claim on the role and offend the interlocutor by suggesting that he has something against the actor.

(66) Mel said basically, " I'd like to do this <**unless you have any**> objections".

A number of lexical items which describe phenomena that often constitute a reason for refusal co-occurred with particular frequency with the get-out clause use: *question(s*) and *objection(s)* occurred 19 and 10 times respectively, *ideas* and *matters* both occurred six times, and a series of other nouns occurred between one and four times including *information*, *comment*, *queries*, *issues*, s*uggestions* and *plans*. The nouns cited above are often preceded by the adjective *further,* which occurs 24 times.

The eight remaining cases of *unless any* involve *unless* clauses in which the speaker emphasizes the infrequency of the conditional proposition. In all cases of this use, there is no doubt that the action being contemplated sometimes occurs, but the speaker or writer chooses to emphasize its infrequency by using *any*, with its depreciative "whatever amount, however small, there is" meaning. In (67), the use of *any* would be enough to indicate that it is unusual for the fire to spread, but the writer has chosen to make this more explicit with "this is rarely the case".

(67) Firemen say explicitly that (..) their interventions (..) have little use <**unless the fire presents any**> danger of spreading, which is rarely the case.

5.5 Results Relating to RQ4 on the Use of *Some* and *Any* in Affirmative Yes-No Questions

5.5.1 Introduction

The findings relating to the distribution of *some* and *any* in affirmative yes-no questions confirm that the description of this area provided in current grammar books is basically correct. Firstly, as Table 5.26 shows, *any* is confirmed to be the most frequent form as it occurs 3.7 times more frequently than *some* in such questions across the whole corpus. Secondly, the results corroborate the claim that expectational bias is the main factor that determines the choice between *some* and *any*, with *any* being preferred in questions that express a neutral or negative expectational bias and *some* in questions that express a positive one. Finally, the study confirms that the two most important speech functions to occur in questions are offers and requests, and that both these functions, as will be seen below, occur overwhelmingly with *some*.

However, the findings also reveal aspects of the *some-any* distinction that are not covered in grammar books, including the use of *any* in polite requests and offers, the use of *some* with a few other minor speech functions, and information on the relative frequency of neutrally-oriented versus negatively-oriented questions with *any*. Section 5.5.2 focuses on the uses of *some* while 5.5.3 examines the use of *any*. Section 5.5.4 provides a more detailed analysis of the *some-any* distinction in offers and requests.

Table 5.26 Distribution of *some* and *any* in affirmative yes-no questions

Raw no of concordance lines for yes-no questions with *some* across the whole corpus	Size of random sample	Number of actual hits in random sample	Projected total across the whole corpus
4935	595	550 (92.437%)	4562

Raw no of concordance lines for yes-no questions with *any* across the whole corpus	Size of random sample	Number of actual hits in random sample	Projected total across the whole corpus
17692	600	577 (96.167)	17014

Section 5.5.2 Uses of *Some* in Affirmative Yes-No Questions

Table 5.27 presents the uses of *some* in affirmative yes-no questions.

Table 5.27 Uses of *Some* in affirmative yes-no questions

Use	Number of cases in random sample	Percentage of cases in random sample hits count of 550	Estimated hits based on projected total (4562)
Positive expectational bias	276	50.182%	2289
Requests	136	24.727%	1128
Offers	74	13.455%	614
Suggestions	19	3.455%	158
Positive deontic or desiderative bias	18	3.273%	149
Persuasion	11	2.000%	91
Expressing a fear or suspicion	9	1.636%	75
Force Majeure	7	1.273%	58

Uses in which the choice of *some* is related in some way to the expression of positive expectations together make up over 95% of all cases of *some* in affirmative yes-no questions. The main group, to which just over half of the examples in the sample belong, involves questions in which the co-text or the situational context suggest that the speaker or writer believes that the proposition expressed in the question is likely to occur or have occurred. In (68), the statement before the question indicates that the speaker believes that the interlocutor may well have some influence in the design of the show. In (69), it is probably the speakers' awareness of the existence of homophobic attitudes which leads him/her to believe that some people might not react well to a gay actor playing God.

(68) You are actually the producers of the show. <**Do you have some**> say in how it all looks on TV?

(69) <**Do you think some**> people might prefer not to see God played by someone who's gay?

Different speech functions in which the choice of *some* is related in some way to positive expectations together constitute 45% of the sample. As Table 5.27 shows, the two most common of these functions by far are requests and offers. The three least common speech functions in the sample are suggestions, persuasion and expressing fears or suspicions. In four of the functions associated with positive speaker expectations, the preference for *some* can be explained in terms of the rhetorical exploitation of speaker/ writer expectations, while in one it is related to the expression of actual positive expectations.

In requests, offers and suggestions, the speaker/writer does not always regard the proposed action as probable or attempt to convince his interlocutor that it is likely. However, it is conventional for the speaker to present the proposition expressed in the question as a possible or likely one so as not to detract from the possibility of the action being performed. Thus, while positive deontic and desiderative bias may also play a role, the exploitation of positive expectational bias is always involved in questions with *some* that perform these three functions.

In persuasion, the speaker or writer presents the question as a positive one in order to convince the interlocutor that he has a particular need or desire. In the sample, there were no linguistic cues for the persuasion function; this function is deducible from the context and occurred either in advertisements inserted into texts, as in (70) or in appeals for contributions from readers or listeners, as in (71).

(70) HAVING TROUBLE SLEEPING LATELY? </s> <s> <**Could you use some**> advice from an experienced entrepreneur who has been where you are and figured out what works and what doesn't?

(71) Think of the things you could buy! </s> <s> <**Have you heard some**> new music or seen a new movie that you would like to add to your music or movie library?

Expression of fear and suspicion is the only speech function associated with *some* in questions which clearly involves an actual expression of positive speaker/writer expectations rather than a rhetorical exploitation: referential *some* is preferred to non -referential *any* because the speaker/writer genuinely fears or suspects that the action, situation or event described in the question occurs, as in (72).

(72) What condition was his mother entering? (..) <**Was she having some**> of those tiny strokes they talk about?

Common linguistic exponents have been clearly identified for three of the positively oriented speech functions performed in questions with *some* - requests, offers and suggestions. Of the 136 requests, 121 are headed by *could* or *can* and 11 by *will* or *would*. Of the 74 offers, 68 are headed by the phrases *would you like*, *do you want* and *do you need* which occur 35, 25 and 8 times respectively. Suggestions occur primarily with *can/could you* which occurs five times, and *shall I* and *have you considered* which both occur on four occasions. However, it is important to emphasize that all of the linguistic exponents cited above also occur in clauses that do not belong to one of the above speech functions. For this reason, it is once more context and co-text rather than linguistic cues that determine the identification of these functions.

There are only two categories of *some* in affirmative yes-no questions which do not involve any type of positive expectations. Just over three percent of the sample (18 examples) involve cases in which the context determines that the speaker/writer is expressing a positive desiderative or deontic bias as opposed to a positive expectational one: the speaker or writer regards the question proposition as impossible or unlikely but indicates that he/ she would like it to occur or thinks that it should occur. The remaining seven examples involve cases in which *some* is required owing to the application of the Force Majeure principle: five of these cases involve negatively oriented rhetorical questions that employ *some* alongside an evaluative noun in order to emphasize the extreme improbability of the proposition expressed in the question, as occurs with the noun phrase “divine inspiration” in (73), while two are questions that are between neutral or negative in orientation, but require *some* because of the quantitative meaning that is expressed.

(73) Why is it that in this House we have to decide which shops can open when ? </s><s> <**Do we have some>** divine inspiration here this night that means we can decide that it is not OK for shops in Rotorua (…) to open , but it is OK for shops in Taupo (..) to open ?

5.5.3 Uses of *Any* in Affirmative Yes-No Questions

As can be seen in Table 5.28 below, nearly 85% of all affirmative yes-no questions with *any* express a neutral expectational bias; that is, they involve questions like (74) in which the speakers or writers do not commit themselves with regard to the likelihood of the action or event occurring. The two next most frequent categories involve questions which involve negative expectations: questions in which the speaker/writer regards the question proposition as unlikely, as in (75); negatively oriented rhetorical questions, as in (76).

(74) <**Do you plan on doing any**> more horror films in the future?

(75) <**Are they making any**> progress in the call centres? Because I had just an awful time with this guy on the phone.

(76) Just who are you Marty? <**Have you directed any**> plays? (..) What have you done?

Table 5.28 Uses of *any* in affirmative yes-no questions

Use	Number of cases in random sample	Percentage of cases in random sample hits count of 577	Estimated hits based on projected total (17014)
Neutral expectational bias	483	83.709%	14242
Negative expectational bias 1: unlikely propositions	43	7.452%	1268
Negative expectational bias 2: Negatively oriented rhetorical questions	37	6.412%	1091
Force Majeure in positively oriented questions	6	1.040%	177
Polite neutrally - oriented offers	3	0.520%	88
Polite neutrally-oriented requests	3	0.520%	88
Negative deontic or desiderative bias	2	0.347%	59

The assignment of questions to both the neutral expectations and the two negative expectations categories was determined by co-text and/or situational context. In the case of neutral expectations, no linguistic cues were present. In the case of questions expressing unlikely propositions and negatively oriented rhetorical questions, some linguistic cues were present, but none were found to be determinant in the assignment of examples to either category. For example, although nine of the 37 examples of negatively oriented rhetorical questions involved the phrase “do you have any idea”, the same phrase also occurs five times in non-rhetorical questions that express unlikely propositions and 21 times in neutral questions.

Polite offers and requests with *any* can be said to involve the rhetorical expression of neutral expectational bias: regardless of the speaker’s/writer’s actual expectations regarding the realization of the action, *any* is used instead of *some* to express a more neutral stance towards the realization of the action and thus allow the interlocutor more space to refuse. The three examples each of polite offers and requests in the sample were all cases in which *some* would have sounded less appropriate

than *any*. For example, the offer of help in (77) below might sound a little more obtrusive with *some* as it could be taken to suggest that the speaker is taking for granted that help is required. *Any* is significantly more appropriate than *some* for the delicate request in (78), as it recognizes that the interlocutor may not be in a position to accede to the request. Polite offers and requests are discussed in more detail in the next section.

(77) Officer Lora, whom Mr. London described as " a protector" of his neighborhood, approached Mr. Arzu 's minivan to help him. </s><s> He opened the driver's side door, Mr. London said, and asked Mr. Arzu" Are you O.K.? <**Do you need any**> help?"

(78) if someone from, say, Jaytee Biosciences, a main competitor (..) had said, " <**Could I have a copy of any**> of that documentation", you would not have given it to them, would you?

Only eight of the 577 examples in the *any* sample do not involve neutral or negative expectations in any way. These involve the use of "no matter which" *any* in positively oriented questions thanks to the application of the Force Majeure principle, and questions that express a negative deontic or desiderative bias, as opposed to a negative expectational one.

5.5.4 A Closer Look at the *Some-Any* Distinction in Offers and Requests

As the sample contained only three examples each of polite offers or requests with *any*, more examples were searched for across the whole corpus in order to examine this use further. The only cases found involved offers with "do you need any help?" and "do you need any money?" and requests with "Is there any way (that) you could?".

There are 64 offers with "do you need any help" in the whole corpus compared to 24 with "do you need some help". The cases of "do you need any help" occur both in informal contexts in which speaker and interlocutor know each other well and in more formal contexts like (84) above, in which they do not know each other. By contrast, *some* occurs exclusively in more informal contexts in which the relationship between the speakers ensures that the offer of help is unlikely to give offence. The results suggest that while "do you need some help" may be appropriate in some informal contexts, "do you need any help" is generally a safer bet for a delicate request of this nature.

The search for offers of money produced far fewer results than the search for offers of help. There are five examples in the corpus of "do you need any money", compared to one example with "do you need some money". All examples involve informal contexts, perhaps because people are more likely to offer money to people that they know reasonably well. It seems plausible that speakers may generally prefer to use *any* rather than *some* with offers of money, as they do not wish to be seen to be taking for granted that the other person is in need of financial help.

The phrase "Is there any/some way (that) you can/could" was found to occur in 34 requests with *any* and only once in requests with *some*. The preference for *any* may be explained by the fact that this expression is used in requests of a delicate nature, in which it may be preferable for the requester to allow the other person more space to refuse and to avoid giving the impression that they are taking a positive answer for granted.

There seems to be enough evidence from this research to conclude that while *some* is far more usual than *any* in offers and requests, *any* is more appropriate in more delicate cases as a means of saving the interlocutors' face by expressing more neutral expectations

5.5.5 Collocates of *Some* and *Any* in Affirmative Yes-No Questions

As occurs in *if conditionals*, *any* collocates with nouns that refer to events that are normally treated as unlikely to avoid causing alarm or offence: *problems, regrets, concerns, objection, trouble, difficulty, doubts, qualms, resentment, contradiction, reservations, backlash, misgivings.* In other respects, the collocational profile of *some* in questions is by no means dissimilar to that of *any*, as there are several noun collocates that occur with both words, including *sort*, *kind*, *advice*, *sense*, *ideas* and *lessons,* and many more that qualify as clear collocates for one of the quantifiers and narrowly

fail to qualify with the other on account of their MI score.

5.6 Results Relating to RQ 4 on the Use and Distribution of *Some* and *Any* in Negative Yes-No questions

5.6.1 Introduction

In terms of overall frequency across the corpus, negative yes-no questions with *some* and *any* can be considered a minor area of the *some-any* distinction. As Table 5.29 shows, s*ome* in negative yes-no questions occurs on 615 occasions making it almost seven and a half times less frequent than *some* in affirmative yes-no questions. *Any* in negative yes-no questions occurs on 424 cases, making it 40 times less frequent than *any* in affirmative yes-no questions.

Table 5.29 Distribution of *some* and *any* in negative yes-no questions

Total number of yes-no questions with *some* in the OEC	Percentage of total cases with *some*	Total number of yes-no questions with *any* in the OEC	Percentage of total cases with *any*
615	59.192%	424	40.808%

In line with what is claimed in Quirk et al (1985), negative yes-no questions were found to express either a positive bias or a negative bias and never a neutral bias. All cases of *some* involved the expression of a positive bias and, with the exception of the cases discussed below in which the Force Majeure principle applied, all questions with *any* expressed a negative bias. The different uses of *some* and *any* in negative yes-no questions are discussed in Sections 5.6.2 and 5.6.3 respectively.

5.6.2 Uses of Some in Negative Yes-No Questions

As Table 5.30 shows, the main use of *some*, amounting to over 60% of all cases of this quantifier in negative yes-no questions, is to express a positive deontic bias, that is, to indicate what should be done, as in (79) and (80). The main linguistic exponents that commonly occur in this use belong to three areas: negative deontic modal verbs, negative verb phrases containing verbs of cognition, and negative verb phrases containing verbs of liking or desire. There are 212 cases with deontic modal verbs, which break down into 93 cases with *can't,* 81 with *shouldn't* and 38 with *couldn't*. There are 51 examples with negative verb phrases containing verbs of cognition, primarily *think*, *feel* and *realize*, which occur 26, six and four times respectively and 44 cases of negative verb phrases containing verbs of liking or desire, including 22 cases with *don't/didn't wouldn't you want*, 12 with *wouldn't you like* and five with *wouldn't you love*. Although neither cognition nor desire verbs express deontic meaning in themselves, they have been included in the deontic bias category because the speaker or writer is suggesting that the addressee should have the feeling or the desire that is expressed in the question, as in (80).

(79) Shouldn't they have produced at least some entry-level product by now?

(80) "I 'm here to explain! </s><s> " </s><s> she snorted. </s><s> " You 've been sitting here for months, taking it. </s> <s> don't you want some answers?

Table 5.30 Uses of *some* in negative yes-no questions. (Results across whole corpus [2,073,563,928 words])

Use	Number of hits	Percentage of cases

		corresponding to each use
Expressing a positive deontic bias	385	62.602%
Expressing a positive expectational bias	188	30.569%
Making Requests	22	3.577%
Making Offers	20	3.252%

In addition, there are two less frequent phraseological exponents associated with positive deontic bias in negative yes-no questions: there are 18 cases of the phrase "don't you have … to do" and ten cases of the phrase "isn't it time (that/to)", exemplified by (81) and (82) respectively. "Isn't it time that" clearly belongs in the deontic category as it is an emphatic means of saying that something should occur or should already have occurred. Some examples of "Don't you have…to do?" could be thought to contain an element of expectational bias as well as deontic bias. For example (81) could be paraphrased as "surely you have some packing to do", which could be seen as expectational bias or as "you should be doing some packing", which involves deontic bias. However, all examples of this phrase have been placed in the deontic bias category, because the underlying intention of the speaker is to indicate that the addressee should be somewhere else or doing something else instead of annoying the speaker.

(81) "Why are you down here spying on me? </s><s> " </s><s> I shot back. </s><s> " <**Don't you have some**> packing to do?

(82) <**Isn't it time some**> of these hospital administrators started accepting responsibility for what is happening?

The second most frequent use category for negative yes-no questions with *some*, accounting for just under a third of the cases across the whole corpus, involves positive expectational bias. This category subdivides into two types of question, which are covered in Quirk et al (1985): confirmation-seeking questions (83), and rhetorical questions (84) that emphatically state the truth of the proposition expressed in the question. The assignment of examples to these two categories was determined by co-text and situational context, as there are no clear specific linguistic exponents of either use inside the question itself. Thus in (83) the accompanying clause *if so* clarifies that the speaker is asking for confirmation regarding the need to "clean up", i.e. improve the situation, while in (84) the preceding conditional clause is expressed in an emphatic way and the preceding sentence confirms that the speaker is emphatically stating that Ted speakers feel forced to try to deliver what they promise. However, the co-text and the situational context are not always sufficient to disambiguate clearly between the confirmation-seeking and the emphatic statement functions, as disambiguation is partly dependent on phonetic stress, which cannot be investigated in a written corpus such as the OEC. For this reason, it has been impossible to establish the relative frequencies of the two functions.

(83) Before you get anybody else convinced that it's a good idea to get into this thing <**don't you have to clean it up some**> , and if so , how do you go about doing that?

(84) (..) my conspiracy theory is that the purpose [of inviting someone to give a Ted talk] is really to hold the recipient [of the invitation] accountable. If you had to share a goal in front of hundreds of leaders including Al Gore and the Google guys, <**wouldn't you feel some**> pressure to make it happen?

The remaining cases of negative yes-no questions with *some* involve the functions making offers and making requests, as in examples (85) and (86) respectively. These two functions play a very minor role in negative yes-no questions in comparison to the role they play in affirmative questions with *some*: they together constitute less than 7 % of all cases in negative yes-no questions compared with 38% in the affirmative yes-no questions sample. Moreover, offers and requests in negative questions are largely restricted to a limited range of linguistic exponents: 11 of the 20 offers occur with *won't you* and eight with *don't you want*, while 12 of the 22 requests are made with *can't I/you/we* and eight with *won't you*.

(85) <**Won't you have some**>? Please help yourself.

(86) <**Can't we reach some**> sort of agreement?

5.6.3 The Uses of *Any* in Negative Yes-No Questions

As Table 5.31 shows, the main use of *any* in negative yes-no questions, accounting for just under 90% of all cases, involves questions which express surprise and/or irritation at the fact that something does not exist or occur as in the examples below.

(87) <**Haven't you had any**> sleep at all?
(88) <**Haven't you got any**> real work to do?"

Table 5.31 Uses of *any* in negative yes-no questions. (Results across whole corpus [2,073,563,928 words])

Use	Number of hits	Percentage of cases corresponding to each use
Expressing surprise or irritation at the fact that something does not exist or occur	380	89.623%
Force Majeure in positively-oriented yes-no questions	44	10.377%

With the exception of one phraseological sub-use, the assignment of examples to the expressing surprise and irritation category is entirely dependent on co-text or situational context. The exception is the phrase "don't you have any", which is employed to criticize people's lack of particular positive personality characteristics as in (89) below. There are sixty-two instances across the corpus of this sub-use with a broad range of nouns referring to personality. The most frequent nouns to appear are *shame*, *respect* and *sense* which occur 8, 7 and 6 times respectively. Other nouns that occur between two and four times include *decency*, *brains*, *pride*, *manners*, *feelings* and *compassion*.

(89) <**Don't you have any**> respect for yourself?

The cases of *any* in negative yes-no questions that do not involve expressing surprise or irritation all involve positively-oriented questions in which, in keeping with the Force Majeure principle, *any* is with its "no matter which" meaning.

5.7 Results Relating to RQ 4 on the Use of *Some* and *Any* in Affirmative Wh Questions

5.7.1 Introduction

Any and *some* have practically identical overall frequencies in wh-questions. As the results provided in Table 5.32 show, *some* is estimated to occur 4375 times and *any* 4370 times across the whole corpus. Furthermore, *any* and *some* are both employed, albeit to varying degrees, across the same three main uses: **content questions**, **counterfactual rhetorical questions** and **rhetorical comment questions.**

Table 5.32 Distribution of *some* and *any* in affirmative wh questions

Raw no of concordance lines generated by *some* search	Size of random sample	Number of hits in random sample	Projected total assuming the same percentage of hits as

			in the random sample
5087	600	516 (86 %)	4375
Raw no of concordance lines generated by *any* search	**Size of random sample**	**Number of hits in random sample**	**Projected total assuming the same percentage of hits as in the random sample**
4901	600	535 (89.167 %)	4370

Section 5.7.2 defines and explains these three main question types and accounts for the distribution and use of both *some* and *any* in each type. Section 5.7.3 discusses some minor uses of *some* and *any* in affirmative wh- questions. A summary of the use profiles of *some* and *any* in affirmative yes-no questions is provided in Tables 5.33 and 5.34 below in order to give readers an overview of the use distribution before the different uses are described.

Table 5.33 Uses of *any* in affirmative wh questions

Use	No. of cases in random sample	Percentage of cases in random sample	Estimated hits based on projected total
Counterfactual rhetorical questions	372	69.533%	3039
Content questions	138	25.794%	1127
Rhetorical comment questions	24	4.486%	196
Minor uses	1	0.1869%	8

Table 5.34 Uses of *some* in affirmative wh questions

Use	No. of cases in random sample	Percentage of cases in random sample	Estimated hits based on projected total
Content questions	422	81.783%	3578
Counterfactual rhetorical questions	38	7.364%%	322
Rhetorical comment questions	28	5.426%	237
Minor uses	28	5.426%	237

5.7.2 Main Affirmative Wh Questions Types

Wh-content questions contain assertive propositions alongside an interrogative element that is realized by the particle. They take for granted, or at least do not call into question the proposition contained in the question, and, via the particle, ask for information related to the following: the human agent, receiver or beneficiary of the action (*who*); the non-human agent, receiver or beneficiary of the action (*what*); the place where the action or situation occurred (*where*); the time of the action or situation (*when*); the reason for the action or situation (*why*); the way in which the action or situation occurs (*how*), as in (91). In wh-content questions, the choice between *some* and *any* is determined by their semantic meanings rather than by pragmatic considerations such as speaker intention. Thus (90) requires *some* in its "certain people of things" sense to establish the limited reference to particular films that the writer has in mind, while (91) requires "no matter which" *any* to show that the question is applicable to all mentorships.

(90) <Why do **some** films> stand out from the crowd?

(91) <How do we measure the success of **any**> particular mentorship?

Wh-content questions are the most frequent overall wh- question type: adding together the results from the sample with *some* and the sample with *any*, content questions occur in 560 of the 1051 sample hits, thus amounting to 53% of the conjoint sample. The fact that affirmative wh-content questions contain assertive propositions determines the relative frequency of *some* and *any*: as the figures in Tables 5.33 and 5.34 above show, *some* occurs a little over three times more frequently than *any* in content questions in the corpus; moreover, this use constitutes 82 percent of all cases of *some* in wh-questions in the sample and only 26 percent of all uses of *any*. The greater frequency of *some* with this use can be attributed to its referential meaning, i.e. its tendency to refer to things, people or events which actually exist or are treated as existent in discourse.

In keeping with the assertive nature of content wh-questions, when *any* does occur, it is used with meanings that tend to occur in assertive clauses rather than in non-assertive ones: in 90 of the 138 cases in the sample, *any* is used with its standard "no matter which" meaning, as in (92); in the remaining 48 cases, it is used with a depreciative variant of this meaning. It is important to stress that the distinction between standard "no matter which" *any* and the depreciative use is dependent on context or co-text rather than on specific linguistic cues. For example, in (93), although the use of "first" provides a clue, it is the overall context and the following sentence indicating that the speaker was aware of match-fixing while he was a cricketer, which leads to the depreciative reading.

(92) <**How does a technology or any**> medium of communication exert such an effect upon people?

(93) (Context: match-fixing in cricket) <**When did you first get any**> sense that some bad stuff might be going on? It obviously was going on while I was playing.

Counterfactual rhetorical wh- questions are questions which deny the proposition contained within the question. Each particle expresses a different type of denial which can best be understood by assigning a different negative word or phrase to each one: *who* corresponds to "no one", *where* to "nowhere," *when* to "never", *why* to "there is no reason why", *how* to "there is no way in which", and *what* to "no" or "nothing". Thus (94) generates the inference that that no one would advertise in a company run by the man described.

(94) Who'd work with such an ethically challenged man, who'd invest money into his company, <**who would advertise in any**> company run by him?

Because they deny the proposition contained within the question, the uses in which *some* and *any* occur are analogous to those of negative clauses. *Any* occurs in counterfactual rhetorical questions that express the idea of total negation, as in (94) above. *Some* is used to express partial negation, evaluative negation, and in a positively-oriented multiple negative pattern, in which the counterfactual particle combines with an implicit negative to create an emphatically positive statement. In (95), the negative meaning of "Who could" cancels out the negative meaning of "fail to identify" to create an emphatically positive meaning: if no one could fail to identify some of the worship settings and worshippers, then everyone must be able to identify some of them.

(95) <**Who could fail to identify with at least som**e> of the worship settings and worshipers I described earlier?

The relative frequency of *some* and *any* in counterfactual rhetorical questions is similar to that which obtains in negative clauses and implicit negatives. *Any*, with a projected 3039 examples across the whole corpus, is over nine times more frequent than *some*, with an estimated 322 examples. The preference for *any* might be explained by the general preference for total negation over partial negation and the other types of negation expressed by *some*.

Rhetorical comment questions, the least frequent affirmative wh-question type, constitute an intermediate category between the other two types. While they share with genuine questions the

characteristic of asserting the occurrence or existence of the action or situation, they also contain a rhetorical element, expressed in the wh-particle. Through this rhetorical use of the particle, the speaker or writer emits a negative judgement in relation to the proposition in the question.

All the rhetorical comment questions with *some* and *any* in the samples perform the same function: they indicate that there is no reasonable justification for the action, situation or belief described in the question. The examples of rhetorical comment questions in the samples for both *any* and *some* all occur with the particles *why* and *how*, except for one example, reproduced as (96) below. Despite the use of a different particle, this example performs the same function as the examples with *why* and *how*. The preference for *why* and *how* in rhetorical comment questions is clearly related to the fact that such questions are used to express the absence of a reasonable justification for the event situation or belief that is described.

(96) <**Where do some>** fans get off on getting off early? (..) It constantly amazed me that after forking out hard-earned cash, fans would even contemplate leaving early (..).

There are no clear linguistic cues that enable the analyst to identify rhetorical comment questions. The use of *why* and *how* cannot be regarded as a clue for identifying the rhetorical element in these questions, as these particles are used in all types of wh-questions. The rhetorical meaning is either apparent from the whole sentence as in (97) or deducible from the broader co-text, as in (98). The use of *how could you* + verb in (98) appears at first sight to be a phraseological exponent of rhetorical comment questions, as this form, along with the related "how can you" is used to express reprobation. However, both forms appear only once in such questions in the sample and also appear in counterfactual rhetorical questions.

(97) <**Why is there any**> kind of political content in what should have been a straight ahead, episodic, adventure film?

(98) I was delighted to see a reference to the much-maligned Roy Harper in your 'Common Ground'. But < **how could you overlook some** > of Roy 's other sporting-based songs and poems such as ' Watford Gap ' which contains the verse (..).

As the figures in Tables 5.33 and 5.34 above show, *some* and *any* display a very similar overall frequency in rhetorical comment questions. The choice between *some* and *any* in questions of this type is subtle, and, like most difficult aspects of the *some-any* distinction, it is related to positive and negative orientation.

Rhetorical comment questions with *some* simultaneously announce the occurrence of an action or a situation and denounce that action or situation as irrational or inexplicable. For instance, (99) both asserts that some cinematographers use digital cameras to make vertigo-inducing images, and denounces this practice as unjustifiable. It is the positive orientation in these questions, the emphasis on asserting an occurrence and thus introducing it into discourse, which renders *some* appropriate.

(99) The camerawork itself wasn't very good to begin with. <**Why do some**> cinematographers, when given a digital video camera, feel the urge to create vertigo-inducing images?

By contrast, wh-rhetorical comment questions with *any* do not announce the occurrence of the actions or situations but merely comment on the lack of justification for their occurrence. There is no need for the speaker or writer to announce the occurrence, either because it has been stated in the previous co-text and/or because it is taken for granted in the situational context: in (100), the mere existence of the film presupposes that the actors involved in it agreed to participate; in (101), the Californian government's decision to allow the dance schools to close has been established in the previous co-text. *Any* is the appropriate form in these examples because of their negative orientation, that is, because the emphasis is not on the occurrence of the action but on the idea that it should not occur.

(100) Given the obvious script deficiencies, <**why did any>** of the actors agree to participate?

(101) In a time of such prosperity, is there any excuse for allowing places where art is made to go under? How can three studios for dance shut down in a single week in San Francisco, the

capital of the new economy? <**How can any**> administration permit that to happen?

In summary, the choice between *some* and *any* in rhetorical comment wh-questions depends on the same factors that have been seen to operate in many other areas of the *some-any* distinction. Positively-oriented *some* is used when these questions assert the occurrence of something as well as denouncing its irrationality; negatively oriented *any* is used to state that the action or situation should not occur in contexts in which the occurrence of the action or the situation has been stated in the co-text or is apparent in the situational context.

5.7.3 Minor Uses of *Some* and *Any* in Wh Questions: Phraseological or particle specific patterns

The sample for *some* in affirmative wh questions contains 28 cases that do not correspond to one of the main wh- question types described in section 5.7.2. All these cases are motivated by the positive orientation of the wh-questions involved.

Sixteen of the 28 cases belong to positively oriented wh- questions that perform general speech functions, which break down as follows: there are two requests, two suggestions and twelve demands for an action or situation to occur in rhetorical questions with *when*, as in (102). Eleven of the 12 examples of demands involve verb forms referring to the future, seven cases with *going to*, four with *will* and one with *would*, used to refer to the future in the past.

(102) When <**is Hollywood going to take some**> responsibility and stop portraying gunfights as cool and sexy?

The remaining 12 minor uses involve two specific phraseological combinations. Firstly, there are eight cases of the set phrase *what are you, some kind of /sort of*, which is used to make accusations, as in (103). This phrase requires *some* rather than *any* because an accusation is a type of assertion and is therefore positively-oriented. Secondly, there are four cases in which an affirmative *why* question is combined with an *if*-clause in order to cast doubt on the proposition expressed in the *protasis* as in (104).

(103) Stop fiddling with your machines - <**what are you , some**> kind of software pirate?

(104) “If she loves me so damn much, then **<why is she constantly going off to do things with some**> other man? I 'm not stupid; everyone in town has seen them together.”

This use is related to the rhetorical denial use involving a counterfactual *if* conditional seen in Section 5.4.3 . However, in this case, the type of conditional used is a metalinguistic conditional referring to a proposition that has been considered in previous discourse, or to a generally-held belief. For example, (104) above is a riposte to a previous claim that the woman in question loves the man.

This use also occurs once with *any.* The example of this use with *any* (105), the only case in the *any* sample that does not correspond to one of the main uses, involves exactly the same elements as the examples with *some*: the wh- question presents a fact which casts doubt on the proposition expressed in the *if* clause. The explanation for the use of *any* is that the quantifier is governed by the implicitly negative verb *resist* and requires *any* in order to express total negation.

(105) If the biotech industry is so certain of the benefits of GM (...), <**why does it resist demands to accept liability for any**> negative outcomes of planting GM crop.

The four-to-one preference for *some* can be explained in terms of the factual nature of the wh-question: in this use, the affirmative wh- question reports a true fact situation or event which renders impossible or implausible the proposition contained in the *if*-clause. However, given the low numbers of examples found in the samples, the quantitative information provided on this use cannot be regarded as definitive.

5.8 Results Relating to RQ 4 on The Use of *Some* and *Any* in Negative Wh-Questions

5.8.1 Distribution of *Some* and *Any* in Negative Wh-questions

As Table 5.35 shows, the overall frequency of *some* and *any* in negative wh- questions is broadly similar, although *some* is 1.3 times more frequent than *any*. Both *some* and *any* occur considerably less frequently in negative wh- questions than they do in affirmative ones. *Some*, with 790 projected cases across the whole corpus, is 5.5 times less frequent than it is in affirmative wh- questions, while *any* with an estimated 591 cases is 7.4 times less frequent.

Table 5.35 Distribution of Some and Any in Negative Wh-Questions

Raw no of concordance lines for *some* in negative wh-questions	**Size of random sample**	**Number of hits in random sample**	**Projected total assuming the same percentage of hits as in the random sample**
843	400	375 (93.75 %)	790
Raw no of concordance lines for *any* in negative wh- questions	**Size of random sample**	**Number of hits in random sample**	**Projected total assuming the same percentage of hits as in the random sample**
689	400	343 (85.75 %)	591

The three question types in which *some* and *any* occur most frequently in affirmative wh-questions, content questions, counterfactual rhetorical questions and rhetorical comment questions, also figure in the *some-any* choice in negative wh-questions. However, there are two important differences: firstly, the distribution of *some* and *any* across these three uses differs from that found in affirmative wh-questions; secondly, there is one major use that does not fit into one of the three standard wh-question types, suggestion questions with *why don't you/we*?

5.8.2 Uses of Some and Any

Tables 5.36 and 5.37 present the different uses of some and any in negative wh-questions.

Table 5.36 Uses of *some* in negative wh-questions

Use	**No. of cases in random sample**	**Percentage of cases in random sample**	**Estimated hits based on projected total**
Rhetorical comment questions	144	38.400%	303
Suggestions with "Why don't"	139	37.067%	293
Positively oriented counterfactual rhetorical questions	67	17.867%	141
Content questions	19	5.067%	40
Offers	6	1.600%	13

Table 5.37 Uses of *any* in negative wh-questions

Use	No. of cases in random sample	Percentage of cases in random sample	Estimated hits based on projected total
Content questions containing a total negative proposition	273	79.592%	470
Force Majeure in positively-oriented counterfactual rhetorical questions	35	10.204%	60
Rhetorical comment questions	21	6.123%	36
Proposition denial via rhetorical wh-question + if clause	11	3.207%	19
Other cases of Force Majeure in positively-oriented wh-questions	3	0.875%	5

While their affirmative counterparts contain positive assertions, negative wh-content questions contain negative ones, as they take for granted, or at least do not bring into doubt, the non-occurrence of the action or situation stated in the propositional part of the question. The particles have the same function as in affirmative wh-content questions: *who* is used to ask about the agent, receiver or beneficiary involved in the proposition, *when* to ask about the time etc. Because negative wh-content questions refer to non-occurring events, actions or situations, the distribution of *some* and *any* is far more similar to that of negative clauses than to that of affirmative wh-questions.

Projecting the results over the whole corpus, *any* is around 12 times more frequent than *some* in negative wh-content questions as it occurs an estimated 470 times, while *some* occurs an estimated 40 times. All content questions with *any* in the sample involve total negatives as in (106), while all cases of *some* involve partial negatives as in (107). The absence of other meanings of *some* that commonly occur in negative clauses can be explained by the meaning and function of negative wh-content questions. Evaluative negation is not present in the sample because negative wh- content questions are not emphatic or judgemental; they simply state what does not occur and ask questions about the non-occurrence. Positively-oriented multi-negative patterns are not used with negative wh-content questions, precisely because such questions contain negative assertions.

(106) One-Armed Bandit is only your sixth album. <**Why haven't there been any**> more records?

(107) <**Why aren't some**> types of broken bones put in casts right away?

While their affirmative counterparts function as emphatic negative statements, negative wh-counterfactual rhetorical question**s** function as emphatically positive ones through the operation of

multiple negation: the negative meaning expressed by the particle (*who* means "no one", *what* means "nothing" etc.) cancels the negative meaning expressed in the question proposition creating an emphatically positive statement. Thus *what isn't* in (108) and *who doesn't want* in (109) are interpreted as "everything is" and "everyone wants" respectively. Because these questions have a positive bias, *some* is more frequent than *any*. However, as with other positively-biased non-assertive clauses, the Force Majeure principle applies: *any* is used when the speaker needs to express the "no matter which meaning", as in (110).

(108) <**What isn't reusable in some other shape or form?**

(109) <**Who doesn't want some**> level of personal and professional growth?

(110) <**Who wouldn't like to see their horse live at any**> time from their own computer?

Negative rhetorical comment questions are the reverse mirror image of their affirmative counterparts. The affirmative version both states the occurrence of an action or existence of a situation, and comments that there is no logical explanation for its occurrence. Conversely, the negative version both states the non-occurrence of an action or non-existence of a situation, and treats the non-occurrence/existence as inexplicable. While affirmative rhetorical comment wh-questions were found to occur frequently with both *how* and *why*, negative ones only occur with *why* in the sample. As occurs with affirmative wh-rhetorical comment questions, it is the co-text or the situational context rather than linguistic cues which determine that examples belong to the rhetorical comment use.

There are two types of negative rhetorical comment question. The first, most frequent, type not only criticizes the non-occurrence of the action but also emphasizes the need for it to occur. For example, (111) both criticizes the government's failure to spend part of the education budget on the creation of online resources and exhorts them to invest money in this area. The second type places the emphasis on the non-occurrence of the action and functions as a type of complaint. For example, (112) bemoans the political parties' unjustifiable failure to pay attention to an important electoral issue.

(111) <**Why can't some**> of our education budget be spent creating such learning resources online?

(112) <**Why aren't any**> of the major parties paying attention to this very important election issue?

The first type occurs 144 times with *some* in the sample and just once with "no matter which" *any*. The preference for *some* can be explained by the positive deontic bias of the question, the emphasis on what should occur. The second type occurs 20 times with *any* and not once with *some*. The preference for *any* can be explained by the negative orientation, i.e. the emphasis on the non-occurrence of the action.

Suggestion questions with *why don't you/we* (113) amount to over a third of the entire sample for *some*. This is a positively-oriented function and therefore occurs more readily with *some*. However, there were two cases in which "no matter which" *any* was used through the operation of the Force Majeure principle.[9]

(113) <**Why don't you get some**> rest?

Two more minor uses occur in the sample. Firstly, there are 11 cases of factual negative questions with *why any* that combine with an *if* clause to cast doubt on the proposition expressed in the latter, which refers to a previous statement or a generally-held belief. *Any* is used rather than *some* in all cases of this use because the question expresses what amounts to a total negative. Secondly, there are six cases of offer questions with *some*.

5.9 Results Relating to RQ5 on the Uses of *Any* in Affirmative Declarative Clauses and Possible Restrictions on its Use.

[9] These are included in the "other cases of force majeure" category in Table 5.37.

5.9.1 Introduction: Overview of results

The results in Tables 5.38 and 5.39 above confirm Tesch's (1990) findings regarding the high frequency of *any* in affirmative declarative clauses and indicate the need to pay attention to the use of both "no matter which" *any* and negative polarity *any* in such clauses. *Any* occurs an estimated 1,245,507 times across the corpus in affirmative clauses, compared to 188,378 times in object position in negative clauses, and 17,014 times in affirmative yes-no questions.

Table 5.38 Frequency of *any* in affirmative declarative clauses

Raw no of concordance lines for *any* in affirmative declarative clauses across the whole corpus	**Size of random sample**	**Number of hits in random sample**	**Projected total across the whole corpus**
1359724	750	687 (91.6%)	1245507

Table 5.39 Distribution of "no matter which" *any* and negative polarity *any* in affirmative declarative clauses

Meaning of *any*	**No. of cases in random sample**	**Percentage of cases in random sample**	**Estimated hits based on projected total**
No matter which *any*	528	76.856%	957247
Negative Polarity *any*	159	23.144%	288260

A little over three quarters of the cases of *any* in affirmative clauses correspond to the use of "no matter which" *any* in clauses that express a positive meaning. The remainder correspond to the use of negative polarity *any* in clauses that have a negative meaning owing to the use of some type of implicitly negative word or phrase. Despite the considerably higher frequency of "no matter which" *any*, the uses of negative polarity *any* in affirmative clauses can clearly not be ignored as there are nearly 300,000 cases across the whole corpus.

Section 5.9.2 briefly summarizes the different use categories found for *any* with its "no matter which" meaning and discusses whether the concept of existence or non-existence is relevant to *any* with this meaning. Section 5.9.3 discusses the cases in which *any* appears with its negative polarity meanings. Sections 5.9.4.1 to 5.9.4.3 focus on the results relating to three areas where *any* is not thought to be possible in affirmative clauses: past episodic clauses; present progressive clauses; existential *there* clauses. These results are dealt with in depth, as the use of *any* in affirmative clauses cannot be properly understood without carefully examining possible restrictions on its use.

5.9.2 No Matter Which *Any* in Affirmative Declarative Clauses

The "no matter which" meaning relates to existence in the following ways. It can refer to a random exemplar of a given, usually existing referent (114), a random member of a usually existing set (115) or a random amount of a given, usually existing referent (116). In addition, the related "any possible" meaning refers to whichever exemplars of a referent that may not exist (117). The frequency of these uses has not been researched in this study: the important factor is not the relative frequency of these uses but how all the uses relate to the concept of non-referentiality.

(114) It was and remains (...) a sure hit with <**any**> audience.

(115) Period 6 (..) [has] the lowest average competitive balance ratio of <**any**> of the six periods.

(116) There are <**any**> number of children who get dropped at the library in the morning.

(117) The writers have done so much research, so <**any**> questions I had they would double check.

While only the "any possible*"* meaning expresses clear doubts about the existence of the referent, all the meanings are non-referential in the sense expressed by Givon (1978), as, like negative polarity *any*, they do not refer to an actual exemplar of the genus that they belong to. The common factor that renders all four uses non-referential is randomness and non-particularity.

5.9.3 Use Categories for *Any* inside Affirmative Declarative Clauses with a Negative Meaning

23% of all the cases in the sample of *any* in affirmative declarative clauses occur within the scope of implicit negatives, that is, words or phrases which, without being grammatically negative, nevertheless confer a negative meaning on both the clause or sentence and *any* itself.

In the random sample, 135 of the 159 implicit negatives belong either to the group of implicit negatives examined in this study or to other words that are widely accepted in the theoretical literature to have a negative meaning, including *too*, *only*, limiting adverbs and limiting adjectives. A number of implicitly negative verbs and adjectives that occur with negative polarity *any* in the sample are not included in grammar book lists, e.g. *difficult*, *loath*, *forego* and *shrug off.*

Fourteen of the implicit negatives in the sample belong to the two categories proposed by Jo and Lee (2002) as implicit negatives, twelve to the category of "absence state predicates"¸ e.g. *devoid of* , and two to that of removal process predicates, e.g. *destroy.* Absence state predicates were confirmed as implicit negatives by the research carried out in relation to RQ 2, while removal process predicates were not, owing to their variant preference for *any* over *some.* Two of the absence state predicates found in the sample are items that are not on Jo and Lee's list, *disconnected from* and *stripped of*. This suggests that further research will be necessary in the future in order to build up a complete list of absence state predicates.

The research also revealed that *any* occurs after grammatically affirmative phrases with an implicitly negative meaning. These phrases can be termed "negativizing phrases" as they are the direct opposite of the positivizing phrases seen in section 5.2.2. While positivizing phrases are grammatically negative items which express a positive meaning, negativizing phrases are items which occur in affirmative clauses and express a negative meaning. The negativizing phrases which were found in the sample were *yet to*, which occurs three times, *steer clear of*, *rather than*, *prior to*, *the more..the less* and three expressions that indicate negative expectation, *it baffles me* , *a wonder that* and *hard to imagine*.

In response to this finding, further searches were carried out across the whole corpus in the belief that there would be other negativizing phrases which occurred with *any* in affirmative clauses. Items found include *the last thing that*, *a long time since*, *reduce/ lessen the chance that* and *pessimistic that*.

5.9.4 Possible Restrictions on the Use of *Any* in "Veridical" Clauses

5.9.4.1 Introduction

Three types of veridical affirmative clauses were examined in order to see which factors render any possible in such clauses:

- past episodic clauses, i.e. clauses which use the past simple to refer to a single past event.
- present progressive clauses
- existential *there* clauses

The reference corpus data indicates that *any* occurs in these clause types across a wider range of cases than has been recognized in former studies, including Duffley and Larrivee's (2015) corpus-based paper. However, as will be seen in section 5.9.4.4, the conditions under which *any* can be used in veridical *there be* clauses are somewhat more limited than those of present continuous clauses and episodic past tense clauses.

5.9.4.2 *Any* in Episodic Past Tense Clauses

There are 314 examples across the whole corpus of veridical, episodic simple past tense clauses in which *any* is not followed by a relative clause or any other type of postmodifier. 293 of these examples involve past tense verbs belonging to one of the following semantic categories: speech verbs; verbs of exceeding or surpassing; verbs of resolving or settling; verbs of seeking and selection. The remaining 21 cases involve a miscellaneous group of verbs that cannot be assigned to any semantic category. The results across the whole corpus are summarized in Table 5.40 below.

Table 5.40 Episodic past tense verbs followed by *any* without postnominal modification. (Results across whole corpus [2,073,563,928 words])

Speech verbs (apologize for, ask for etc)	Verbs of seeking and exploration	Verbs of exceeding or surpassing	Verbs of resolving, settling etc	Verbs of selection	Miscellaneous verbs
184	43	30	27	9	21

The most frequent category by far are speech verbs, which amount to 184 of the 314 cases across the whole corpus. The speech verbs that occur with this use are listed in Table 5.41. The brackets in the first two columns indicate the number of times that each verb listed occurs. One possible explanation for why the verbs in this semantic category occur with episodic past tense verbs followed by *any* is that they can describe veridical events with a referent whose existence is in doubt. Their ability to describe veridical events may enable them to be used in the episodic past, while their ability to be used with referents whose existence is in doubt may enable the use of non-referential *any*.

All but four cases in the speech verb category involve cases of reported speech in which there is doubt with regard to the existence of the referent expressed by *any*+noun phrase in the speech event that is being reported, as in (118) and (119). Despite the doubt regarding the existence of the referent, the speech verb category is veridical as there is no doubt that the speech event described by the past tense verb actually took place. For example (118) refers to an actual apology while (119) refers to an actual appeal for witnesses.

(118) As soon as we were notified we collected the bag and <**apologised for any**> inconvenience.

(119) The police have <**appealed for any**> witnesses to contact Ardmore PSNI Station.

The four cases that involve actual referents rather than referents whose existence is in doubt occur with the verb *answered* (120). In these cases, *any* is used to give the idea that the answers provided were not limited to particular questions: the speaker answered whatever questions were asked at that particular moment.

(120) The experimenter then <**answered any**> questions , and orally elaborated on the strategy reports

Table 5.41 Breakdown of speech verbs in episodic past tense clauses and followed by *any*. (Results across whole corpus [2,073,563,928 words])

Verbs occurring five times or more	Verbs occurring two to four times	Verbs occurring once
Apologised/Apologized for (35) Appealed for (26) Asked for (25) Called (9) Called for (8) Urged (7) Welcomed (6) Asked (5) Attacked (5)	Answered (4) Denounced (4) Told (4) Warned (4) Branded (3) Condemned (3) Criticized (3) Offered (3) Ordered (3) Advised (2) Blamed (2) Invited (2) Slammed (2)	Arranged for Assigned Authorized Cautioned about Corrected Declared Deflected Described Encouraged Implored Labelled Pleaded for Promised Referred to Reminded Requested Termed Threatened Upheld

Forty-three cases of *any* without postmodification in a past episodic context involve verbs related to searching and exploration. The verbs involved, across the whole corpus, are summarized in Table 5.42 below. This group of words combine with *any* for the same reason as the speech verbs: they refer to referents whose existence is in doubt. Thus, in the examples below, the person performing the action does not know if (s)he will find food (121), or encounter traffic (122).

(121 Margaret didn't feel like annoying her mother this morning, so she <**explored the pantry for any**> food.

(122) I pulled out of Pier 79, I <**looked for any**> kind of southbound traffic, and I saw the plane there?

Table 5.42 Breakdown of seeking and exploration verbs in episodic past tense clauses followed by *any*. (Results across whole corpus [2,073,563,928 words])

Verbs occurring five times or	Verbs occurring two to four	Verbs occurring once

more	times	
Looked for (18) Listened for (8) Searched for (7)	Watched for (3) Scanned for (2)	Grasped for Checked for Probed for Tested for Sought

Across the whole corpus, thirty cases of *any,* without postmodification, in a past episodic context involved verbs related to exceeding and surpassing. Table 5.43 provides a breakdown of the verbs involved. The verbs in this group are analogous to comparative adjectives or adverbs, which have a strong tendency to co-occur with "no matter which" *any*, e.g. "surpassed" in (123) means "were superior to"; Like comparative patterns, these verbs are used with *any* to refer to a generic point of comparison, i.e. all things that can be considered to have been exceeded or surpassed. This ability to link to general referents renders *any* possible, as it lifts the referent out of the narrow episodic past time frame and into the broader realm of the potential.

(123) His actions "<**surpassed any other soldier**> on that day".

Table 5.43 Verbs of exceeding or surpassing in episodic past tense clauses followed by *any*. (Results across whole corpus [2,073,563,928 words])

Verbs occurring five times or more	Verbs occurring two to four times	Verbs occurring once
overcame (7)	overwhelmed (4) exceeded (3) eclipsed (2) overrode (2) trumped (2)	Matched Outdid Overpowered Overshadowed Outshone Outsold Overshot Surpassed Transcended One-upped

Across the whole corpus there are 27 cases of verbs related to resolving, calming or settling, summarized in Table 5.44. These verbs occur with either an "any possible" or depreciative *any*. The reason why these verbs occur with non-referential *any* may be that the noun phrases that they are used with refer to negative phenomena such as fears, doubts or problems, which are often treated as possibly existing rather than definitely existing.

Table 5.44 Verbs related to resolving, calming or settling in episodic past tense clauses followed by *any*. (Results across whole corpus [2,073,563,928 words])

Verbs occurring five times or more	Verbs occurring two to four times	Verbs occurring once
Settled (7)	Answered (=resolved) (4) Eased (4) Remedied (2)	Alleviated Broke through Calmed Completed

		Corrected Forgave Repaired Righted Salved Steadied

Nine cases of *any,* without relative clause modification in a past episodic clause involved **verbs related to selection:** *select* and *take*, which have selection as one of their core meanings, and *put*, *stick*, *grab*, *collect* and *gather*, which can convey an element of random selection in some contexts, as in (124). The reason why these verbs are compatible with *any* in past episodic contexts is that the agent of the action does not have an actual referent in mind for the action he/she is performing. In the words of Choi and Romero (2008), these verbs express "agent indifference" with regard to the identity of the referent.

(124) This evening I finally decided that I wasn't too bothered about the home page thingy, just <**stuck any**> old thing on there.

The 21 remaining cases of the episodic past simple involve verbs that do not clearly relate to any particular semantic category and cannot incontrovertibly be assigned to a particular meaning of *any*.

5.9.4.3 *Any* in veridical cases of the present progressive

Across the whole corpus, there are 264 cases of "no matter which" *any* inside a veridical present progressive clause which do not involve relative clauses or any other kind of nominal postmodification. The semantic profile of the verbs that occur with the present continuous + *any,* shown in Table 5.45 is similar but by no means identical to that of the episodic past.

Table 5.45 Verbs that occur in the present continuous tenses followed by any without postnominal modification. (Results across whole corpus [2,073,563,928 words])

Verbs of seeking and exploration	Speech verbs	Verbs expressing availment	Verbs expressing actions which point forward to the future	Miscellaneous verbs
104	47	14	12	87

As occurs with episodic past simple clauses containing *any*, the verbs belong to two main semantic categories, verbs of seeking and exploration and speech verbs. However, while speech verbs are the most frequent group with the episodic past, verbs of seeking and exploration are the most common category with veridical present continuous clauses. The reasons used to account for the use of these two verb categories with the episodic past are also applicable to the present continuous tense: both categories can describe veridical events with a referent whose existence is in doubt, as in (125), where the police cannot know whether there were any witnesses.

(125) Swindon police <**are urging any**> witnesses to come forward.

Two minor semantic categories which did not occur with the episodic past simple + *any* can be identified for the present continuous + any: verbs expressing the idea of availment and verbs expressing futurity or expectation. The availment category is made up of verbs which express the idea that the speaker is taking advantage of every available opportunity or using every possible means to do something. The verbs used most frequently to express this meaning are *using* and *taking* which occur five and three times respectively. Other verbs which also occur with this meaning are *finding, following* and *pursuing*. The verbs in this group occur with *any* in the present continuous because,

like the selection verb category which occurs with the episodic past simple + *any*, the agent of the action does not have an actual referent in mind, as in (126) .

(126) Test centres <**are using any**> excuse to fail cars and bring them in a second or third time.

The verbs which express the idea of futurity are *waiting for*, which occurs four times, *awaiting* and *preparing for,* which occur three times, and *targeting* and *planning*, which occur once. These verbs occur with the present continuous followed by *any* because their predication on the future enables them to be used with referents whose existence is in doubt, as in (127), where the use of *any* suggests both that the writer will accept whatever aid is offered and that (s)he is not sure that there will be any aid.

(127) We went to Nyala and came here on Monday , and <**are waiting for any**> aid.

Just under a third of the verbs that occur with the present continuous followed by *any* - 87 out of 264 - cannot be assigned to a specific semantic category.

5.9.4.4 Existential *There* Clauses

The results relating to the use of *any* in assertive, existential *there be* clauses differ substantially from those of Duffley and Larrivée's (2015) study. Duffley and Larrivée found that *any* is only used in veridical *there* clauses inside noun phrases expressing quantity, such as *any number of.* While my study confirmed that *any* is frequently used in *there be* clauses inside noun phrases expressing quantity, there were 396 cases of veridical affirmative there be clauses in which *any* does not form part of a noun phrase of this type. It will be seen that most of these cases correspond to the following use categories: *any* after time conjunctions which express repeated occurrences or situations; *any* inside a relative clause (as opposed to being postmodified by one); clauses with the conjunctions *where* and *wherever*. The results are summarized in Tables 5.46 and 5.47 below.

Table 5.46 Use of *there be any* inside a noun phrase expressing quantity in assertive *there be* clauses. (Results across whole corpus [2,073,563,928 words])

Quantity Phrase	No of Cases in assertive there be clauses across the whole corpus.
Any number of	691
Any amount of	20
Any quantity of	1

Table 5.47 Uses of *there be any* outside a noun phrase expressing quantity in assertive *there be* clauses. (Results across whole corpus [2,073,563,928 words])

Use	Number of hits	Percentage (Out of aggregated total of 396)
Veridical time clauses referring to repeated occurrences or situations	239	60.354%
Clauses with the conjunctions where and wherever	98	24.747%
Defining Relative Clauses	45	11.364%
Cleft Clauses and extraposed it clauses	8	2.020%
Other Cases	6	1.515%

There are 239 cases of veridical *there be* + *any* headed by a time conjunction. The results are summarized in Table 5.48 below. They include only time clauses that refer to actual actions or situations in the past or the present. Time clauses which refer to the future have been excluded as they cannot be said to refer to things that actually happen and are regarded as non-veridical in studies of modality (Giannakidou and Mari 2013), assertive and non-assertive items (Giannakidou 2014) and quantification (Watanabe 2013).

Table 5.48 Time Clauses used with *there be any* outside a noun phrase expressing quantity. (Results across whole corpus [2,073,563,928 words])

When Clauses	Whenever Clauses	Other Time Clauses
131	68	40

One feature of the veridical time clauses that occur with *there be any* is that they express repeated actions or situations rather than single episodes. The two main time clauses which occur with veridical *there be any* are *when* clauses and *whenever* clauses, which refer to repeated actions or situations in the past, as in (128). The other time clauses involved in this use, *any time that*, *as soon* as, *every time that*, *the moment that*, *each time that* and *any day that*, refer to repeated past actions or situations on all but two occasions. The only exceptions are two of the *as soon as* clauses which refer to single actions in the past, as in (129) below. It is possible that the generic meaning of *any* enables it to occur more readily in *there be* clauses that refer to repeated actions or situations than to single episodes. However, the two exceptions show that *there be any* can also be used in time clauses that refer to single episodes.

(128) Whenever <**there was any**> problem in filling the position of chief accountant, such as occurred between 1560 and 1562, Torregrosa was appointed on a temporary basis.

(129) They went out for a few months back in, um , sophomore year , but Jesse broke it off pretty much <**as soon as there was any>** commitment talk.

The corpus contains 89 instances of veridical *there be any* in clauses with *the conjunction where*, and nine with the related conjunction *wherever*. Both conjunctions are used with *there be any* with either a spatial sense or a temporal sense: *when* can mean “in the place(s) in which” (130) and “each time that/whenever” (131); *wherever* can mean “in whatever place in which” or “whenever”.

(130) Trees are in a terrible state - where <**there are any**> - since they are regularly mangled by the efforts of mock Neolithic clearers.

(131) We recognise the need to balance counter-terror legislation with traditional personal liberties; but where <**there is any**> conflict the government has a duty to err on the side of public safety.

The corpus also contains 45 cases of *there be* + *any* + *noun* occurring **inside** a defining relative clause, as in (132). The most frequent relative clauses which occur with veridical *there be any* are *where* and *that*, which occur twenty and thirteen times respectively.

(132) Sometimes a "linear" narrative is one in which <**there is any**> sort of causal explanation.

In the corpus there are five veridical cases of *there be any* inside extraposed *it* clauses and three inside cleft clauses with sentence-initial *that*. These are treated together as they perform the same discourse function, that of emphasis. While all of these examples are objectively veridical, in the sense that they refer to actual occurrences, it is possible to argue that they involve negative presuppositions and are thus subjectively non-veridical. However, they have all been classified as veridical clauses for the reasons discussed below.

Three of the examples contain the expression *at all*, which typically occurs with *any* in non-assertive contexts. However, they have been classified as veridical examples on the basis that the main emphasis is on the occurrence of the action. Thus, although (133) implies that no preservation effort was expected, it focuses primarily on the making of this effort and what this tells the reader about the importance of sculpture in late Roman times.

(133) <**That there was any**> effort at all to preserve cult statues bespeaks the status of sculpture in the later Roman world.

The five examples that do not contain the expression *at all* can also be said to involve negative presuppositions. For example, (134) implies that there wouldn't have been any competitors if it hadn't been for David, while (135) perhaps contains a subaudition of implicitly negative *only*: "it is only in economic performance that..". However, in all cases the main emphasis is on the actual occurrence of the event or existence of the phenomenon: the main message of (134) is that there are competitors thanks to David, while (135) highlights that economic performance data provides at least some hope of testing the said theories.

(134) It was down to David <that there are any> competitors.

(135) It is in economic performance that there is any hope of finding some hard data to prove or disprove the various theories of imperialism , from Marx and Lenin to the present

All the uses of *there be + any* described above have one unifying characteristic: they involve the use of *there be* inside subordinate clauses and would not be possible with *any* if they were inside a main clause. It is possible that the distancing from reality involved in many types of subordination renders *any* possible in these cases. The examples are veridical, but the subordinate clause is not merely stating the existence or occurrence of something: time clauses and *where/wherever* clauses express what needs to exist for the action or situation of the main clause to occur; relative clauses with *there be* express the conditions under which something can be said to occur or exist; *it* clefts and sentence-initial *that* clauses evaluate rather than merely state existence.

Leaving aside the examples with "any number/amount/quantity", there were only six cases in which *there be + any* occurs inside a veridical main clause. While three of these are clearly anomalous, the remaining three are valid, if somewhat rare examples.

The acceptable examples all use *any* in a hyperbolic sense to evoke an unrestricted typology: "any range" in (136) means "as large a range" of faces as you can possibly imagine while "any kinds" and "any varieties" in (137) and (138) mean "all imaginable" kinds or varieties

(136) Well, the people's faces. There was <**any range**> from being stunned to this 90-year-old lady

(137) There are <**any varieties and types**> of rice - long and short.

(138) There are <**any**> kinds of help [for depression], including herbal.

In conclusion, the research reveals that the use of *any* in veridical *there be* clauses, apart from the cases with a quantity noun, is limited almost exclusively to subordinate clauses, which help to distance the speaker/writer from the reality that is expressed. However, examples (136) to (138) above show that it is also used in main clauses with nouns like *range, varieties* and *kinds* to create a hyperbolic effect by evoking an unrestricted typology.

5.10 Results Relating to RQ6 on the Errors that Learners Make with *Some* and *Any*

5.10.1 The Status of Learner Corpus Data in Determining the Content of the New Pedagogical Grammar Description of *Some* and *Any*

The learner corpus research results confirm that learners have most difficulties with *some* and *any* in the following clause types, which figured strongly in the reference corpus research: assertive clauses,

affirmative yes-no questions, conditional clauses with *if* and both explicitly and implicitly negative clauses. However, the following areas examined in the reference corpus research either do not appear or are only minimally represented in the learner corpus error data: *before*-clauses*, unless*-clauses negative yes-no questions, affirmative wh-questions and negative wh-questions. Furthermore, some specific error types are far more common than others. For example, the misuse of *some* to express total negation is considerably more frequent than the misuse of *any* to express partial negation, and the misuse of *any* in ordinary request questions, while circumscribed to lower level learners, occurs far more often than the misuse of *some* in face-saving requests.

Error types which occur frequently at all levels and with all mother tongues have been given close attention in the pedagogical grammar description in Chapter Six. However, the description also takes into account error types that are minimally represented or even absent in the learner corpus. There are two reasons for this. Firstly, infrequent errors are relevant to learners if they can affect communication. Secondly, the learner corpus is considerably smaller than the reference corpus and covers a more reduced range of text types. For this reason, it is not possible to be certain that errors that do not appear in the learner corpus pose no problems for learners.

5.10.2 Overview of Learner Corpus Results

As Table 5.49 shows, the research with the CLC uncovered a total of 564 errors, 358 where *any* was used in place of *some* and 206 where *some* was employed instead of *any,* after the removal of repeated concordance lines and false positives involving correct uses that had been marked as incorrect.

Tables 5.50-5.51 show the frequency of errors across the most common clause types in which errors occur, and the distribution of errors across different levels. Subsections 5.10.3 to 5.10.7 offer a more detailed description of the errors committed with each clause type and discuss possible causes for these errors. The discussion of possible causes will serve as a link between the corpus-based research discussed in this thesis and the pedagogical description of *some* and *any* outlined in Chapter Six. All the main errors in both directions occur across all proficiency levels. However, as will be seen in the more detailed discussion in the following subsections, there is a tendency for some errors to cluster in specific CEF levels.

Mother tongue influence was not found to be an important factor in determining the errors made by learners. Although the learners' L1 background may play a role in some phraseology-related errors discussed in section 5.10.3, most errors occur across a very broad range of language families including Romance languages, Germanic languages, Slavic Languages, Chinese and Arabic.

Table 5.49 Total Number of Errors involving the confusion of *some* and *any*

Use of *some* when *any* is required	**Use of *any* when *some* is required**
206	358

Table 5.50 Uses of *some* when *any* is required

Level/clause type in which errors occur	**A1**	**A2**	**B1**	**B2**	**C1**	**C2**	**Total**
Explicit and implicit negative clauses	4	22	16	20	15	14	91
Conditionals with if	3	27	13	11	3	3	60
Affirmative Yes-No questions, direct and indirect.	2	5	5	6	5	1	24
Affirmative clauses	1	8	2	7	2	2	22
Other	0	1	3	2	2	1	9

Table 5.51 Uses of *any* when *some* is required

Level/Clause type in which errors occur	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2	Total
Affirmative clauses	14	54	49	86	71	27	301
Affirmative Yes-No questions, direct and indirect.	8	9	6	2	2	0	27
Conditionals with if	0	5	4	2	4	0	15
Explicit and implicit negative clauses, including multi-negative patterns	0	1	1	4	3	1	10
Other clause types	0	2	0	1	1	1	5

5.10.3 Errors with the *Some-Any* distinction in Affirmative Clauses

Of the 564 errors examined with *some* and *any*, 323 (57%) occur in affirmative clauses. This percentage does not include errors with implicit negatives as these have been treated in the discussion of negative clauses. The vast majority of these errors – 301 - involve cases in which *any* is used instead of *some*.

The errors in which *any* is used instead of *some* in affirmative clauses involve both semantic errors in which learners wrongly employ *any* with its "no matter which" meaning instead of *some* with its meanings of "a certain person or thing" or a "certain quantity", as in (139), and phraseological errors, belonging to one of the following combinations: *I hope* (that) + *any* (140); *any* followed by the noun *kind* or a synonym of *kind* such as *form* or *sort*; *any* followed by *other*; *I would like* + *any* (140).

(139) There we could build ***any** more youth hostels.

(140) I would like to give you ***any** important information now.

Table 5.52 below provides a breakdown of the errors involving the use of *any* instead of *some* in affirmative clauses committed by learners at different proficiency levels. The semantic misuse of *any* is quite evenly distributed across elementary, intermediate and advanced levels, as 97 of the errors occur at B1 level or below and 103 at B2 level or above. The persistence of this error at C1 and C2 level suggests that learners have problems mastering the central semantic distinction between the limited quantitative or typological meanings of *some* and the unlimited meanings of *any*. As the figures in the table show, a strikingly high proportion of phraseological errors are committed by higher level learners: with all four phraseological patterns, errors at B2 level and above clearly predominate, and with *hope*, *kind* and *would like* half or more of the errors are committed by students at C1 or C2 level.

Table 5.52 Error types of *any* in affirmative clauses when *some* is required

Error Types/level	A1	A2	B1	B2	C1	C2	Total
Normal Semantic Error	12	47	38	59	32	12	200
Phraseological error with *hope*	0	3	1	7	14	8	33
Phraseological error with *kind*	0	0	6	8	10	4	28
Phraseological error with *other*	1	2	3	8	7	2	23

Phraseology error with *would like*	1	2	1	4	8	1	17

The reasons why the misuse of *any* with certain phraseological combinations occurs above all with higher-level learners are unclear, but some tentative causes are discussed below. In the case of the misuse of *any* in place of *some* after *would like* and *hope*, the explanation may be related to the mother tongue distribution of this error: 31 of the 33 errors with *hope* and 16 of the 17 errors with *would like* are committed by students whose mother tongues employ the subjunctive or some other type of non-indicative mood to express hope and desire, including German, Dutch, Romance languages, Russian and Arabic. Higher level learners with these mother tongues may have observed the use of non-referential *any* in counterfactual contexts, likened it correctly to the use of the subjunctive in their own language, and then overgeneralized it to contexts such as the expression of *hope* and *desire*, which, owing to their positive orientation, are more likely to occur with *some* in English, unless "no matter which" *any* is required. The reason why lower level learners do not make this error may be that they have not yet noticed the non-referential nature of *any* and are therefore less likely to associate the need to use *any* with the need to use the subjunctive in their own language.

One possible objection to the claim that errors with *I would like* and *I hope* stem from L1 influence, is that, according to the data from the CLC, the tendency to overuse *any* does not extend to other expressions of *hope* and *desire*, which also require the subjunctive in many languages. For example, there are no cases in the corpus of the erroneous use of *any* after *I wish,* and with the exception of one error at B2 level, the seven cases with *I want* are produced by learners at B1 level or below who may not yet have started to associate *any* with non-referential meaning or to link this meaning to the subjunctive. When larger learner corpora than the current CLC become available, it may be possible to see whether the tendency to use overuse *any* with *would like* and *hope* also extends to other lexical items used to express *hope* and *desire*.

The other phraseological errors which were found to occur - the use of *any* before the noun *kind* and its synonyms, and before the adjective *other* - may be related to the subtlety of the *some-any* distinction with these lexical items. Some learners may have trouble distinguishing between the typological vagueness of reference inherent in the expression *some kind* and the typological unlimitedness of *any kind*. This is best understood by examining some examples from the learner corpus.

In (141), the learner has chosen *any* over *some* to convey the idea that teenagers have always given great importance to certain sports over others. *Some* is appropriate to transmit this idea because it can express lack of specification without suggesting a free choice. A*ny* is inappropriate because its unlimited meaning suggests that teenagers have always given priority to sport of whatever type. In (142) restricted *some* is more appropriate than unrestricted *any*, as the writer is referring to problems of an unknown nature but does not wish to suggest that the problems can take any form imaginable.

(141) ***Any** kind of sport has always been the chief priority among teenagers.
(142) Those who do not do their best to obtain it, are bound to have a lot of problems of ***any** kind.

The overuse of *any* before the adjective *other* also occurs in contexts in which the difference between the limited meaning evoked by *some* and the unlimited meaning evoked by *any* is quite subtle. In (143), *any* inadvertently implies that it does not matter what alternative activity is offered as long as there is one; in (144), *any* suggests that the charity could now be open to attack from other charities of all types, when criticism is in fact far more likely to come from charities working in the same area.

(143) You should be ready to provide ***any** other activity.
(144) [Context: A hospital charity is complaining about an inaccurate news article] We may not only receive criticism from the newspapers but also from ***any** other charity organisations.

The reason why the errors with *kind* and *other* cluster at higher rather than lower CEF levels may be that while more advanced learners are choosing between *some* and *any* on the basis of a subtle

semantic distinction, lower-level learners are simply applying the "rule" that *some* is required in affirmative clauses.

Although the use of *some* instead of *any* in affirmatives occurs only 22 times in the corpus, it is an important error, as it has the potential to cause misunderstanding. Misunderstanding is particularly likely in cases in which *some* is used to modify a referent that may not exist or occur, as it can give the impression that the speaker/writer is taking for granted its existence or occurrence: (145) could be interpreted to mean that the security staff have heard that some people will enter the disco tonight carrying knives or perhaps even that the people addressed in the sentence will be carrying them; in (146), the reader may understand that certain sports clothes can be worn but not others.

(145) When you get into this disco you'll be checked in order to find ***some** guns or knives.
(146) You can wear ***some** sports clothes that you want.

The frequency with which *some* and *any* are confused in assertive clauses may partly be attributed to the lack of attention in language materials to the use of "no matter which" *any*. Although learners are taught this meaning, learning materials focus excessively on the use of "negative polarity" *any* in non-assertive contexts. As a result, learners are often unsure of the difference between restricted *some* and unrestricted *any* in assertive clauses.

Both the overidentification of *some* with affirmative clauses and *any* with non-affirmative types and the failure of language materials to cover the "any possible" meaning may explain the tendency of some learners to use *some* with referents whose existence is uncertain. Many grammar books make no reference to the "any possible" meaning, and others simply allude to it via the claim that *any* can be used in "implied conditionals" such as "Any rain will clear by midday".

5.10.4 Errors with the *Some-Any* Distinction in Explicitly Negative Clauses and clauses containing implicit negatives

Of the 564 learner errors with the *some-any* distinction, 101 (18%) occur inside explicitly negative clauses and clauses containing implicit negatives. These two types of negation are treated together in this section, as no difference was found in either the types of errors involved or the levels of the learners who make the errors. However, it is worth noting that errors in explicitly negative clauses predominate over errors in implicit negatives: the former constitute 81 of the 101 examples and the latter only 20.

Of the 101 errors in negative and implicitly negative clauses, 91 (90%) involve the use of *some* instead of *any* in total negatives and only 10 cases involve the use of *any* instead of *some*. These ten cases include five positively oriented multi-negative patterns, three partial negatives, and two instances of evaluative negation. While the misuse of *some* instead of *any* is clearly the most important from a frequency perspective, it will be seen that the error which is most likely to cause communication problems is the use of *any* in partial negatives.

There are no cases in which the use of *some* instead of *any* in total negatives has a strong likelihood of affecting comprehension. In 89 of the 91 cases, the use of *some* clearly does not prevent the reader from understanding the clause as a total negative. For example, in (147) it is clear that the writer means "no time". There are two cases in which the reader might be initially unsure whether the speaker is using a partial or a total negative. However, in both cases the co-text is likely to enable the reader to opt for the total negative reading. For example, in (148), some readers might be initially unsure whether the speaker means that certain international dishes are not available or that none are available. However, the explanation in the following sentence that dishes are always spicy enables readers to conclude that the food is exclusively Mexican and that therefore international dishes are not on offer. Likewise, none of the errors involving positively-oriented multiple negation or evaluative negation will cause misunderstandings.

(147) She doesn't have ***some** time for her herself.

(148) The food is typical of Mexico, you cannot get ****some*** international dishes. You can get all dishes more or less spicy , served with rice or potatoes.

Conversely, although context helps to disambiguate to some extent, the cases in which *any* is wrongly used instead of *some* inside partial negatives all clearly have the potential to cause misunderstandings, by giving the impression that the speaker is employing a total negative. For instance, the reader of (149) might understand that working prevents all types of diseases, and (150) could be taken to mean that the speaker disagrees with everything that Pete said in his letter.

(149) A working life maintains body fitness. It prevents ***any** diseases.

(150) Hello Pete! I got your letter yesterday and I must say that I don't agree with you in on ***any** things.

Two main possible causes can be advanced for the use of *some* in negative clauses in which *any* is required: the discrepancy between the rules taught and actual usage, and error fossilization. Firstly, the learner who is taught that *any* is preferred to *some* in all/nearly all negatives is likely to come across examples that do not fit this pattern. This may cause confusion or uncertainty, which may lead learners to use *some* and *any* randomly in negative clauses. Secondly, the need to use *some* and *any* regularly in conversation and in writing may mean that, when learners understand at least the basic distinction between partial negation with *some* and total negation with *any*, they still make some mistakes, owing to the fossilization or semi-fossilization of incorrect uses.

At C1 and C2 levels another explanation, which is applicable to nine of the 29 errors at these levels, is that learners may be attempting unsuccessfully to employ advanced uses of *some* in negative clauses. In four cases, the writer may be using *some* because (s)he sees the sentence to be positively-oriented. For example, in (151) the writer may perceive the sentence to be positively-oriented because (s)he would like to have some days off and/or because (s)he is asking for those days now. However, the sentence is negatively-oriented as it is focused on the time during which (s)he has not had some days off . In a further three cases, he/she may be interpreting the sentence incorrectly as a positively-oriented multiple negative pattern, as in (152), in which the use of *without* does not, in this case, cancel the negative meaning expressed in the clause containing *impossible*. In two cases, the writer seems to be attempting evaluative negation, as in (153).

(151) I have not asked for ***some** days off since the 17th of July 1992.

(152) It has become impossible nowadays to make do ****some*** research without the Internet.

(153) The fact that it was the music and not ***some** antics by anybody that took centre stage that night made it the best concert of by Oasis this year.

The inverse problem - the use of *any* in partial negation - may have three possible causes. Some learners may simply be applying the rule that they are given, which virtually excludes the possibility of using *some* in negative clauses; others may opt for *any* for probabilistic reasons, as it is the more frequent form and is therefore more likely to be correct. Finally, as with the use of *some* instead of *any*, the confusion caused by the discrepancy between rules and actual usage may lead some learners to use the two forms indiscriminately.

5.10.5 Errors with the *some-any* distinction in questions

Errors with the *some-any* distinction inside affirmative yes-no questions make up 51 of the 564 errors, that is, 9 % of all the errors.

There are 24 errors in which *some* is wrongly used instead of *any* in affirmative yes-no questions. Twenty-two of these errors involve direct or indirect information questions which require *any* on account of their negative or neutral orientation, and two involve tentative offers or requests, in which

any would be more appropriate as it gives the interlocutor more space to refuse. The CEF level distribution of the erroneous use of *some* in neutral or negative information questions is significantly different across direct and indirect questions. While the errors in direct questions are spread across all levels from A1 to C1, 10 of the 11 cases with indirect questions occur at B2, C1 and C2 levels. One possible explanation for the concentration of this error at higher levels may be that lower level learners tend to use direct questions rather than indirect ones.

In the examples in the corpus, the use of *some* instead of *any* in negatively or neutrally oriented questions does not have a significant impact on communication. In (154), *any* is more appropriate given the speakers' neutral orientation towards the question proposition, although the use of *some* does not cause misunderstanding and sounds only slightly infelicitous. In (155) the assumption, expressed through *some*, that discounts are available is clearly inappropriate. However, although it may make the speaker sound over-eager, it is unlikely to give offence.

(154) I was wondering if ***some** special clothes are required and how much pocket money I need for this trip.
(155) Are ***some** discounts available for our company?

As explained in section 5.5.4, the use of *some* in more delicate offers or requests, in which the speaker does not wish to convey the assumption that the interlocutor will accept, is potentially offensive. However, the two errors of this type in the corpus are not particularly likely to give offence. In (156), it would be more appropriate for the person writing the letter to employ *any* to give Mrs Bishop more space to refuse. However, given her current indisposition, Mrs Bishop is more likely to be grateful than offended by the offer of help. (157) could be interpreted either as an enquiry or as a request. While *some* sounds out of place in both readings, the effect is worse with the request reading, as the assumption that the request will be granted could be taken as a little obtrusive. Nevertheless, the use of *some* in this example is unlikely to offend.

(156) Dear Mrs Bishop, I know you are not well. I'm sending the flowers to make you happy. Do you need ***some** help?
(157) Is there ***some** possibility we could rent the golf shoes?

The 27 cases of affirmative yes-no questions in which *any* is wrongly used instead of *some* all involve standard positively oriented request questions. In all cases the use of *any* sounds unnatural and there are six cases in which it might also impede communication by suggesting that the request is difficult to carry out, as in (158) below.

(158) (…) because two designers have been ill. Could you help us to find ***any** temporary employees?

The use of *any* rather than *some* in positively oriented requests is an error that occurs mainly at lower levels: there are eight errors at A1 level, nine at A2 level, six at B1 level and only four further errors at higher levels. It is possible that the frequency of requests with *some* in actual usage - see Table 5.27- enables learners to master this use by B2 level.

The absence of other question types in which *any* is wrongly used instead of *some* may be due to a compendium of causes. The lack of errors involving *any* instead of *some* in positively-oriented yes-no information questions may be due to the fact that questions requiring *some* are less frequent than questions requiring *any* (see Table 26) and therefore less likely to appear in learner corpus data. The lack of offers in which *any* is wrongly used could be due to the fact that learners quickly associate questions like “Would you like some..?” or “Do you want some..?” with declarative offers such as “Have some...” or “Take some…”. The absence of questions involving other positively oriented speech functions such as recommendations and suggestions could be related to corpus size and representativity: although the CLC is the biggest available learner corpus, it may not be large enough or representative enough to cover errors with a broad range of question types. An alternative or complementary explanation is that learners may tend to use assertive clauses rather than questions to perform such speech functions.

The erroneous use of *some* in negatively and neutrally-oriented questions, both indirect and direct, may stem partly from the failure to provide learners with clearer guidelines regarding when *some* is inappropriate and partly from the intrinsic difficulty of this area. On the one hand, grammatical explanations which simply state that *some* is used to express positive expectations and *any* to express negative and neutral ones, without indicating when it is appropriate to express one type of expectation rather than another, may not provide sufficient information to help learners to choose appropriately between *some* and *any*. On the other hand, even if more information were provided, some learners might find it difficult to recognize when it is more suitable to use *any* to avoid the implication that the speaker/writer has positive expectations. In the case of indirect questions, an additional explanation might be the lack of attention to questions of this type in the discussion of the *some-any* distinction in grammar books.

The erroneous use of *some* in tentative offers and requests may be caused by the lack of attention to offers and requests of this type in language materials, and to the infrequency with which they occur in actual use.

5.10.6 Errors with the Some-Any Distinction in Conditional Clauses

Of the 564 learner corpus errors related to the *some-any* distinction, 75 (13%) occur in conditional *if* clauses. The use of *some* when *any* is needed occurs 60 times and amounts to 29% of the entire corpus of errors involving the overuse of *some*. The use of *any* in place of *some* occurs 15 times and amounts to only four percent of the errors involving the overuse of *any*. As Table 5.50 indicates, the use of *some* instead of *any* peaks at A2, plateaus during B1 and B2 levels, and then becomes significantly less frequent at C1 and C2 levels. This may be a sign that learners have almost mastered this use once they reach advanced level.

Fifty-eight of the 60 cases in which *some* is wrongly used involve affirmative *if* clauses that require *any* because of their neutral or negative orientation, and just two involve negative *if* clauses that require *any* because they express total negation. Just over half of these errors, 31, involve instances in which the choice of *some* could affect communication. Three of the communicatively-problematic cases involve examples that require "no matter which" *any* in order to express the idea of unlimited typology or quantity that the writer wishes to convey. The remaining 28 cases that can affect communication involve noun phrases which refer to events and phenomena that are not normally presented as likely events because of their potential to give offence or cause unnecessary alarm. For example, (159) might scare some tourists by suggesting that they are likely to become ill during their visit. The nouns that were found to occur in this error in the learner corpus were *trouble, medical care, mistakes, difficulties* and above all *problems,* which occurs 22 times.

(159) I have left some tourist guides and direction maps on the table. If ***some** of you need some medical care, there is a hospital in Nyan.

Thirteen of the 15 cases in which *any* is erroneously used instead of *some* involve positively-oriented conditional phrases such as *I would be grateful if* and *it would be better if*. The two cases that are not introduced by such phrases are nevertheless clearly positively-oriented. (160) is a "zero conditional", in which *if* could be replaced by *when*; (161) involves the use of the conditional as a polite means of introducing a discourse move, as in "if I can just interrupt here" or "if I can just make the point that…". In the example from the learner corpus, the use of *any* sounds unnatural, perhaps because it inadvertently casts doubt on the speaker's ability to give advice.

(160) I really enjoy going out shopping and even more if it is with ***any** friends.
(161) If I can help and give you ***any** advice, I'd choose a small school in the countryside.

Learners' difficulties with if-conditionals may stem partly from the intrinsic complexity of the pragmatic factors affecting the *some-any* choice in such clauses and partly from the relative inattention to this area in learner materials: although the *some-any* distinction in conditionals is treated in learner materials, the choice in questions, which poses similar problems *a priori* for learners,

currently receives considerably more coverage in both the explanation sections and practice exercises.

5.10.7 Other clause types

There are 14 errors which do not correspond to the main clause types discussed above, nine involving the use of *some* when *any* is required and five the use of *any* when *some* is needed. The errors involving the misuse of *some* break down into five disjunctive *if/whether* clauses, two conditionals with *in case*, one negative yes-no question and one affirmative wh- question. The errors in which *any* is misused involve two *unless* clauses, one *before* clause, one negative yes-no question and one negative wh- question.

The disjunctive *if/whether* clauses would be more felicitous with *any* because they express the writers' doubts regarding the proposition being expressed, as in (162) below. Similarly, both the negative yes-no question in (163) and the counterfactual rhetorical wh-question in (164) would be more appropriate with *any* as they involve negative orientation. In addition, the latter example, out of context, could lead to misunderstanding, as it could be interpreted to mean that the people involved do actually find time to read. One of the examples with *in case* could cause communication problems of the same type caused by *if* clauses with nouns such as *problems* and *difficulties*, as it seems to unduly take for granted that problems will occur (165).

(162) I don't know if there will be *__some__ gift shops.

(163) Don't you do *__some__ exercise? If I were you, I'd go Jogging.

(164) So when they stay all day in front of the television how can they find *__some__ free time to read a book?

(165) Just in case you've got *__some__ problems, please call me.

In the two cases with *unless* clauses*, any* sounds unnatural, as the *unless* clause is not emphasizing the unlikelihood of the conditional proposition. The *before* clause requires *some* rather than *any* because it expresses the idea that the event described in the *before* clause is imminent.

The negative wh- question and the negative yes-no question in (166) and (167) below both require *some* on account of their positive orientation. In (166), the positive orientation stems from the fact that the speaker is making a suggestion. In (167), *some* is more appropriate because the speaker believes there is a good chance of seeing the pit. While these examples would not lead to misunderstanding, the use of *any* in positively-oriented negative yes-no questions could in some contexts cause communication problems, as the reader/hearer may interpret that the speaker is irritated or surprised that the event or action expressed in the question proposition has not occurred.

(166) Before I answer your questions, why don't you give me ***any** information about your location.

(167) Would it be possible to visit something else in the area so that they would be more motivated? Isn't there *__any__ old pit we could see? Please let me know.

The fact that there is only one error with the use of *some* and *any* in affirmative wh-questions in the corpus may partly be explained by the tendency of learners to use mainly wh-content questions, in which the *some-any* distinction is not difficult, rather than rhetorical comment or counterfactual rhetorical questions, in which it is considerably more complex. The low number of errors with *some* and *any* in both negative yes-no questions and negative wh-questions cannot be taken as firm proof that learners do not have problems with these uses: it can probably be ascribed to the infrequency with which learners use such questions rather than to any mastery of this area.

5.11 Conclusion

The results from the reference corpus research point to deficiencies in current grammar book descriptions of *some* and *any* in all the clause types covered in the research. Although the learner

corpus research did not produce information on some clause types, it throws light on the nature of the main problems that learners have with the *some-any* distinction. The main part of the next chapter will examine the pedagogical conclusions that can be drawn from the research.

Chapter 6 Pedagogical Implications

6.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the pedagogical implications arising from the corpus research. Table 6.1 provides a summary of the research results from the reference and the learner corpus that will need to be incorporated into a new pedagogical description of *some* and *any*. Sections 6.2 and 6.3, focus on improving this description, which can be considered the preliminary stage of a new pedagogical approach, as no language area can be successfully conveyed to learners until the description provided for learners accurately represents the key factors involved in actual usage and the problems that learners have using the target items. Section 6.2 focuses on the content of the new description. It provides a rationale for including the findings from the corpus research in the new pedagogical description, explains at which level they can be taught and justifies the omission of other findings. Section 6.3 focuses on the approach to description: it explains how the findings will be described at elementary, intermediate/upper intermediate and advanced levels, and illustrates the explanation with sample descriptions of areas of the *some-any* distinction that have been added or substantially changed as a result of the corpus research described in this thesis.

The remaining sections of this chapter briefly examine other means of ensuring that an accurate description is successfully conveyed to and assimilated by learners. Section 6.4 discusses teaching approaches that can be employed in order to improve learners understanding of *some* and *any*. Finally, section 6.5 outlines the role that teacher training can play in delivering a new pedagogical approach to *some* and *any*.

Table 6.1 A Summary of the Main Findings from the Corpus Research.

Research Question	**Main Reference Corpus Findings**	**Main Learner Corpus Errors**
RQ 1: *some* inside the grammatical scope of negation.	*Some* is used primarily in: • partial negation. • positively oriented multi-negative patterns. • evaluative negation.	• *Some* in total negation • *Any* in partial negation
RQ 2: *some* and *any* after implicit negatives.	• Standard grammar book implicit negatives and absence state predicates occur primarily with *any*. • *Some* is used in the same range of uses as in negative clauses, but partial negatives are more prevalent. • *Without any* expresses a negative idea; *without some* expresses a positive one and is often used in multi-negative patterns. • *Any* is used in counterfactual *before* clauses and *some* in factual ones.	• *Some* in total negation
RQ 3: *some* and *any* in *if- clause* conditionals.	• *Any* is used to express neutral or negative speaker expectations. • *Some* is used to express positive expectations and in counterfactual conditionals referring to imagined situations.	• *Some* with negative and neutral expectations • *Any* with positive expectations. • *Any* after positivizing phrases • *Some* with nouns that refer to events normally treated as unlikely e.g. “problems”.

	• Positive and negative bias determine the *some-any* distinction in specific speech functions: *some* is used in exhortations, recommendations and requests; *any* is used in warnings and threats, and in the singularizing function.	
RQ 3: *some* and *any* in *unless-clause* conditionals.	• *Some* is the standard form reflecting the positive orientation of *unless*-clauses. • *Any* is used to emphasize unlikelihood, to express the "no matter which" meaning, and in negative *unless* clauses that express total negation	N/A
RQ 4: *some* and *any* in affirmative *yes-no question*s.	• *Any* is used to express neutral or negative speaker expectations and, more rarely, negative deontic or desiderative bias • *Some* is used to express positive expectations and, more rarely, positive deontic or desiderative bias • Expectational bias also plays a role in the *some-any* distinction in specific speech functions. • Offer and request questions mostly occur with *some,* but face-saving offers and requests occur with *any*.	• *Some* with negative and neutral speaker expectations • *Any* with positive expectations
RQ 4: *some* and *any* in negative *yes- no question*s.	• *Some* is used in positively-oriented questions to state what should occur, to check information, and to make emphatic assertions. • *Any* is used in negatively-oriented questions to express the speaker's surprise or irritation at the fact that something does not occur.	N/A
RQ 4: *some* and *any* in affirmative *wh- question*s.	• Real affirmative wh-questions prefer *some* owing to their positive orientation. However, no matter which *any* and depreciative *any* also occur. • Counterfactual Rhetorical wh-questions occur with negative polarity *any* owing to their negative orientation. • Rhetorical comment questions that emphasize the action that is performed prefer *some*.	N/A

	• Rhetorical comment questions that emphasize the irrationality of the action performed prefer *any*.	
RQ 4: *some* and *any* in negative *wh- questions*	• Negative wh-content questions use *any* to express total negation and *some* to express partial negation. • Negative counterfactual rhetorical wh-questions require *some* owing to their positive orientation. • Negative rhetorical comment questions which emphasize what needs to happen require *some*. • Negative rhetorical comment questions which complain about the non-realization of the action require *any*.	N/A
RQ 5: *any* in affirmative clauses	• Three quarters of all cases involve "no matter which" *any* • A quarter of all cases involve negative polarity *any* in clauses with an underlying negative meaning.	• "No matter which" *any* instead of *some,* meaning "certain". • *Some* instead of negative polarity and "no matter which" *any*

6.2 Findings to Include in the New Pedagogical Description of *Some* and *Any*

6.2.1 *Some* in Negative Clauses

The use of *some* in negative clauses is the area of the *some-any* distinction in which the current description is shown to be most lacking: my research into the use of *some* in object position in negative clauses reveals that *some* is not limited to cases outside the scope of negation and that it also has a broad range of uses inside the scope of negation. However, not all of the findings related to the uses of *some* in negative clauses merit inclusion in a pedagogical description.

The finding that merits the most attention in the description is the use of *some* to express partial negation via one of its three main meanings - "a limited indefinite amount", "certain, unspecified people or things" and "some but not all/others". This use can be considered important for three reasons: firstly, partial negation is the most frequent use of *some* in object position in negative clauses in the reference corpus, constituting 51% of all uses found in the random sample. Secondly, the learner corpus data shows that learners have difficulty distinguishing between partial negation with *some* and total negation with *any*, reflected above all in their tendency to use *some* in total negation. Finally, while the use of *any* in cases of partial negation is a relatively infrequent error, amounting to only 10 % of the errors involving the confusion of *some* and *any* in negative clauses, it is an important problem, as the data from the learner corpus shows that it can affect communication.

A clear focus on the use of *some* in partial negation and a comparison of this use with *any* in total negation may help learners to make the correct choice between *some* and *any* in negative clauses. Because the distinction between partial negation and total negation is easily understood, it can be introduced at elementary level, so that learners can observe the operation of this distinction in the texts that they encounter.

The uses of *some* with evaluative negation and positively-oriented multiple negation together constitute 40% of all uses in the random sample and therefore need to be included at some stage in the pedagogical description to ensure that it reflects actual usage. However, both types of negation need not be taught until advanced level as they are sophisticated rhetorical uses. In the most frequent type of evaluative negation, although the use of *some* with a singular pejorative noun helps to emphasize the speaker's negative attitude towards the proposition that is being described, it is not strictly necessary to use *some* to convey this attitude: the OEC example "I don't want to touch some icky guy like that (..)" is more evocative and emphatic than the adaptation "I don't want to touch any man like that", but both forms convey the speakers' disgust effectively. Multiple negation can be used to express a range of rhetorical purposes including contradicting negative expectations, understating, and adding emphasis, all of which can also be expressed by other means. However, although multiple negation is not treated explicitly at intermediate level, some common multiple negative phrases will be presented at this level. This is explained further in section 6.3.

The different uses of *some* to express a positive meaning in single negative clauses, as opposed to multiple negative patterns, need not be included in the description as none of these uses are frequent enough to pose a significant problem for learners of English. However, at advanced level, reference can be made to the general principle that *some* can be used in negative clauses that function like affirmative statements. The use of *some* in positivizing expressions such as *can't resist* or *can't wait* does not need to be included in the description as learners are likely to use *some* after such phrases once they learn that it is associated with positive meaning.

6.2.2 Implicit Negatives

Four pedagogical implications can be drawn from my corpus research with regard to implicit negatives. Firstly, the association made in grammar books between implicit negatives and *any* can be maintained in the new description, as it has been strongly corroborated in the reference corpus research - see section 5.3. Secondly, the evidence from both the reference corpus and the learner corpus suggests that the use of *some* and *any* in explicitly negative clauses and after implicit negatives can be explained conjointly: the OEC data reveals that *any* is used to express total negation in both explicitly and implicitly negative clauses, and that *some* is used across the same range of uses in both types of negation, although the predominance of partial negatives over other uses is much higher with implicit negatives; the learner corpus data reveals that the difficulty in distinguishing between partial and total negation that was seen with explicit negative clauses extends to implicitly negative ones. Thirdly, the distinction between *some* and *any* in *before* clauses deserves some attention, both because it is a frequent use, as explained in Section 5.3.4, and because learners may not be able to work out for themselves the meaning distinctions that exist between counterfactual uses with *any* and factual uses with *some.* Finally, absence state predicates can be added to the list of implicit negatives in grammar books on account of the predominance of *any* over *some* and the very similar use profile for the cases in which *some* is used. The list of absence state predicates can include the most frequent items from Jo and Lee's list (2002) and incorporate *without* and *lack*, which are often included in grammar book descriptions and also express the idea of absence.

To avoid overloading elementary learners with too much information, the use of *some* after implicit negatives can be left until intermediate level, where it can be taught alongside negative clauses. Similarly, the use of *some* in *before* clauses can be introduced at advanced level to avoid including too much detail at intermediate level.

Although *without* clauses are frequently used with both *some* and *any,* as was seen in section 5.3.3, the specific differences between *without* clauses with *some* and *without* clauses with *any* can be omitted from the description to avoid making it too complicated. Once learners understand the concept that *some* is used with positive orientation and *any* with negative, they may be able to work out these uses of *some* and *any* for themselves by observing them in actual language data.

6.2.3 Conditional Clauses with *If* and *Unless*

My reference corpus research into *some* and *any* in *if* clauses clearly confirms the correctness of the standard grammar book claim that *any* is used when the speaker has neutral or negative expectations regarding the realization of the proposition, and that *some* is used when he/she has positive expectations: as was seen in section 5.4, 76% of the examples in the *if some* sample involve the expression of positive expectational bias, and over 80 % of the examples in the *if any* sample express a negative or a neutral bias. However, the learner corpus results reveal that learners have difficulty choosing between *some* and *any* on the basis of expectational bias, as they use *any* with positive bias and *some* with negative or neutral bias.

To attempt to overcome this problem, grammar books could draw the learners' attention to this area by highlighting the communicative effects of making the wrong choice. Learners may benefit from an indication that it is particularly important to avoid using *some* in neutrally or negatively oriented conditionals before nouns such as *trouble* or *medical care*, which refer to negative events or phenomena, so as not to give offence or cause unnecessary alarm. The need to focus on this area is confirmed both by the reference corpus data, which indicates the tendency of such nouns to occur with *any,* and by the learner corpus data, which reveals that the use of *some* before such nouns in *if*-clauses is a common error.

If-clauses that perform specific speech functions such as requests, exhortations, warnings or singularizing may be considered less important for learners than standard *if*-clauses. From a quantitative standpoint, these findings are less significant since they only constitute around 5-6 percent of both the *if some* and the *if any* samples; from a qualitative perspective, they are less important as, with the exception of the singularizing function[10], they are clearly derivative of the general principle linking *some* to positive orientation and *any* to negative orientation.

Nevertheless, the findings merit a brief mention in grammar books for two reasons. Firstly, although *if*-clauses expressing speech functions are infrequent in relation to the main uses of *if* conditionals, they are not in themselves infrequent in language use, owing to the frequency of *if*- clauses. Secondly, the strong speaker bias involved in *if*-clauses expressing speech functions (with the stated exception of the singularizing function) means that the choice between *some* and *any* is likely to have greater communicative salience than in *if*-clauses which express neutral speaker expectations.

In *if*-clauses that express neutral expectations, the choice of *some* rather than the expected *any* does not always have a significant effect on the meaning of the sentence: in the following OEC example, the use of *any* helps to convey the impression that the speaker has neutral expectations regarding the possibility of more money being required: "I've some money left over from the fundraising and if we need **any** more I'll raise it myself." However, although the use of *some* might be taken to indicate a greater likelihood that more money is needed, it would not lead to serious misunderstanding or stand out as especially infelicitous.

By contrast, an inappropriate choice in *if*-clauses employed to express speech functions, is usually salient and may sometimes affect communication. In warnings, the use of *some* stands out as infelicitous and may also wrongly suggest that the action the speaker is warning against is likely; in the following OEC example *some* would be inappropriate as it suggests that the speaker expects there to be damage: "This is your centre and, if there's **any** damage, it will prolong the closure". In requests, recommendations and exhortations, *any* would sound infelicitous owing to the strong positive orientation expressed in these functions. Furthermore, it could lead to either a semantic or a pragmatic misinterpretation, as the interlocutor might interpret that a "no matter which" meaning is being expressed or that the speaker sees the performance of the action as unlikely. In the case of the

[10] See section 5.4.3 for an explanation of why the singularizing function occurs with *any*.

singularizing function, the choice of *some* rather than *any* would not lead to a misinterpretation of speaker bias. However, the strong phraseological tendency towards *any* makes *some* sound distinctly out of place.

The use of *some* in *if*-clauses which contemplate imaginary situations as though they were real deserves some attention in the pedagogical description: firstly, it is the most frequent use that is not related to positive expectations; secondly, it can help to counteract the misconception that counterfactual conditionals do not occur with *some*; finally, it may help to get across the important concept that *some* is used not only with things that actually exist or occur but also with things that the speaker imagines to exist or occur for rhetorical purposes. In addition, the need to use *some* after positivizing expressions such as "it would be great if" and "it would help if" deserves brief attention, as the learner corpus data indicates that the use of *any* with such expressions is a common error.

The clear differentiation in the meanings expressed by *unless*-clauses with *some* and *any* indicates the need to incorporate this area into the new description. Learners need to know that *unless*-clauses typically occur with *some* rather than *any* and that *any* is used with its "no matter which" meaning in clauses that express total negation, and to express unlikelihood. *Get-out* clauses, that is, *unless*-clauses that provide the reader or interlocutor with a possible reason for refusing a request, proposal or planned course of action, can be subsumed under the latter category, as they also involve the expression of unlikelihood. The rare use of *any* to stress the infrequency of the event or action described in the *unless*- clause can also be subsumed under unlikelihood.

The basic distinction between *some* and *any* in *if*-clauses, based on speaker expectations, can be introduced at elementary level so that learners are aware of this distinction as soon as they begin to use conditional clauses. The intermediate level description can cover all the other content areas mentioned above, namely: the use of *some* and *any* in *if* conditionals that perform speech functions; the use of *some* in counterfactual *if*-clauses that contemplate imaginary situations; the need to use *any* with nouns such as *problem*s; the use of *some* after positivizing expressions; the *some-any* distinction in *unless*-clauses.

6.2.4 *Some* and *Any* in Affirmative Yes-No Questions

As occurs with *if*-clauses, the standard grammar book "rule" associating *any* with negative and neutral bias and s*ome* with positive bias is confirmed by the reference corpus research: over 95% of all the examples in the *some* sample involve either the direct expression of positive expectational bias or a rhetorical exploitation of such bias. Furthermore, adding together the different uses, negative and neutral expectational bias are involved in some way in almost 99% of the *if any* sample. The data on learner corpus errors provides further confirmation of the need to continue focusing on this area, as learner errors involve both the use of *some* in questions that express negative or neutral speaker expectations and that of *any* in questions that express positive ones.

With regard to speech functions, the current attention in grammar books to requests and offers can be maintained as the OEC research has shown these to be by far the most frequent speech functions that are related to the *some-any* distinction in questions. The fact that 136 of the 139 random sample examples of requests occur with *some*, as do 74 of the 77 random sample examples of offers, clearly demonstrates that *some* is the preferred form. However, the finding that *any* is used in these functions when the speaker wishes to give the interlocutor more space to refuse and/or to avoid giving the impression that a positive answer is expected, needs to be incorporated into the description as the use of *some* in such cases is a potential source of offence.

The current practice of introducing the association between expectational bias and *some* and *any* at elementary level can be maintained to make learners aware of this area of grammar as soon as they

start using questions, as can the indication that *some* is used in most offers and requests. The use of *some* and *any* with questions that perform specific speech functions can be introduced at intermediate level, alongside the distinction between standard offers with *some* and face-saving offers with *any*.

Little attention need be paid to the remaining speech functions uncovered in the research into the use of *some* in questions as none were shown to be particularly frequent. Suggestions, the third most frequent speech function with *if some,* can be briefly mentioned at intermediate and higher levels alongside offers and requests as these three functions involve the same rhetorical exploitation of positive expectational bias. If further research confirms both the use of *some* in persuasion and its tendency to occur in advertising texts, it could be introduced in ESP materials for learners studying advertising and marketing. The use of *some* to express fears and suspicions need not be introduced as a separate function as it involves the direct, non-rhetorical use of *some* to express expectations. Rhetorical questions that function like negative statements need not be introduced into the pedagogical description as they can be subsumed under the general statement that *any* is preferred in questions that express a negative bias.

6.2.5 Negative Yes-No Interrogatives

On the basis of frequency, negative yes-no questions with *some* and *any* may be considered a relatively unimportant use for learners. Not only are they considerably less frequent than affirmative yes-no questions, as was discussed in Section 5.6.1, but they are also significantly less common than affirmative wh-questions: *some* occurs 615 times across the whole corpus in negative yes-no questions and is projected to occur 4375 times in affirmative wh- questions; *any* occurs 424 times across the entire corpus in negative yes-no questions and is estimated to occur 4370 times in affirmative wh- questions.

At lower levels, negative yes-no questions can be omitted completely from the description owing to their infrequency and because, given the rhetorical nature of such questions, lower level learners are not likely to attempt to use them. However, learners at intermediate level and above require some information on such questions. Firstly, learners will need to know that *some* is associated with positive bias and *any* with negative, as, given the strong bias associated with such questions, misuse can easily lead to misunderstanding. Secondly, to enable learners to use such questions appropriately, it is necessary to indicate the main functions associated with negative yes-no questions with *some*, namely saying what should happen, checking information and making emphatic assertions, and the use of *any* in negative questions that express surprise or irritation at the fact that an action has not occurred.

The use of negative offer and request questions with *some* can be omitted from the pedagogical description because the corpus results show it to be an infrequent use and because it is covered by the association of *some* with positive bias in negative yes-no questions.

6.2.6 Affirmative Wh- Questions

The most important findings for learners with regard to the use of *some* and *any* in wh-questions relate to their use in wh-content questions, as opposed to counterfactual rhetorical and rhetorical comment ones. Firstly, wh-content questions are clearly the most frequent type since they occur in over 80% of the sample for *some*, in a quarter of the sample for *any* and in over 50% of the hits across both samples. Secondly, they are the most relevant type for learners as they perform a basic transactional function (the seeking of information about time, place, agency etc), while the other two types involve more advanced stylistic uses and can be replaced by simpler means of expression that perform the same basic function: the proposition denial involved in counterfactual rhetorical questions can be rendered by negative clauses; the lack of justification for actions or events that is expressed by rhetorical comment questions can be more simply expressed through phrases such as “this shouldn’t happen” or “I can see no reason for this”.

Although the use of *some* and *any* in wh-content questions is important for learners, its description can be delayed until intermediate level, to avoid making elementary-level descriptions too unwieldy. At intermediate level, learners can be taught that *some* is the preferred form in such questions, because of the positive propositions that they express, and that *any* can be used with its "no matter which" meaning. While a third of all the examples of *any* in content questions involved the depreciative "whatever amount, however small" meaning, this use can be omitted from the description of this clause type, as it is a variant of the basic "no matter which" meaning. However, the depreciative meaning is described in the explanation of referential and non-referential meaning at advanced level.

Affirmative counterfactual wh- questions deserve some attention at intermediate level as they are the second most frequent wh-question type overall and the most frequent type in wh-questions with *any.* From a purely frequency-based perspective, it would be possible to include only the most common use at intermediate level, that of counterfactual questions with *any* which express total negation, and leave the uses with *some* until advanced level. However, the inclusion of a partial negative example with *some* alongside the examples with *any* may help intermediate level learners to avoid errors with the *some-any* choice and drive home the total-partial negative distinction that has been introduced at this level. The use of affirmative counterfactual rhetorical wh- questions to express multiple negation and evaluative negation can be introduced in the advanced level section.

Although affirmative rhetorical comment questions only account for 4.5 % of the reference corpus sample for *any* and 5.4% of the sample for *some*, it is necessary to explain the *some-any* distinction in such questions to advanced level learners, as the wrong choice sounds infelicitous and may sometimes lead to a breakdown in communication. In the following reference corpus example, the use of *some* instead of *any* would not affect communication but it would sound unnatural: "Service was really bad: the waitress took away our wine bottle, part of our order got lost on its way. How can **any** self-respecting restaurant allow such a bad service?". In the Roy Harper example offered in Chapter 5, the use of *any* instead of *some* would affect communication as it would wrongly imply that all of Roy Harper's sporting songs should have been mentioned in "Common Ground": " I was delighted to see a reference to the much-maligned Roy Harper in your 'Common Ground'. But how could you overlook **some** of Roy's other sporting-based songs". Other uses of affirmative wh-questions can be left out of the pedagogical description on account of their infrequency and/or because learners will be able to work out the meaning once they understand the principle of positive and negative orientation. For example, once learners understand the need to use *some* to express positive deontic or desiderative bias, they will probably understand that *some* is required rather than *any* in questions with *when* that function as demands.

6.2.7 Negative Wh- Questions

From a frequency perspective, negative content questions, negative rhetorical comment questions and suggestions with *why don't..some* clearly deserve priority over all other question types in the pedagogical description: adding together the examples from the *some* and *any* samples, these three types together make up 83% of the hits, 596 out of 718, and are thus clearly frequent enough to be introduced at intermediate level. However, while suggestions with *why don't… some* can simply be introduced as a phraseological use related to the concept of positive orientation, the decision about when and how to explain the other two uses at this level is more complicated.

As negative wh-content questions in the samples occur overwhelmingly with *any* to express total negation (see Tables 5.36 and 5.37), it might be justified to focus only on this use and omit negative wh-content questions with *some* which express partial negation, or delay their treatment until advanced level. However, given that the distinction between partial and total negation will be examined at this level, learners can be taught that it also applies to *wh-content* questions. This will

both give learners a more complete picture of this important distinction and guard against the possible confusion of *some* and *any* in wh-content questions.

The presentation of negative wh-rhetorical comment questions at intermediate level is complicated by the decision to delay the description of affirmative questions of this type until advanced level. This problem can be circumvented by explaining the use of negative wh-rhetorical comment questions with *some*, the most frequent type, in terms of their function, explaining what needs to happen, without introducing the concept of rhetorical comment questions.

Negative counterfactual rhetorical questions can be introduced at advanced level, where it can be explained that they admit both *some* and "no matter which" *any* on account of their positive orientation. All other uses of wh-rhetorical questions found in the samples can be left out of the description owing to their low frequency.

6.2.8 Affirmative Declarative Clauses

While "no matter which" *any* occurs around three times more often than negative polarity *any* in affirmative declarative clauses, both meanings are clearly frequent enough to merit inclusion in grammar book descriptions, owing to the high frequency with which *any* occurs in affirmative clauses.

The data from the learner corpus corroborates the need to focus on the use of both "no matter which" and negative polarity *any*. The data showing that learners have difficulty distinguishing between "no matter which" *any* and *some* in clauses that have a clearly positive orientation suggests that they could benefit from a description that contrasts the unlimited nature of "no matter which" *any* with the more limited meaning of *some*. Because this is a central meaning distinction it needs to be introduced at elementary level, so that learners can observe it in subsequent input.

The learner corpus data revealing that learners use *some* instead of negative polarity *any* in clauses that have a negative meaning suggests that they may need help in recognizing negative meaning in clauses that do not contain explicit markers of negation such as *not* or *never*. While, as noted above, implicit negatives can enter the pedagogical description at intermediate level, negativizing phrases such as *a long time since*, and *the last thing that* can be incorporated at a more advanced level. However, the description also needs to convey to the learner that negative meaning can stem from the overall textual and/or situational context as well as from the presence of specific words or phrases in the clause.

6.2.9 Treatment of the Force Majeure Principle

The Force Majeure Principle has not been included in the summary of findings in Table 6.1 because learners may find this principle difficult and will not require it to use *some* and *any* correctly. Uses which involve the Force Majeure Principle will be conveyed by referring to the semantic meanings of *some* and *any.* For example, in all cases of positive orientation in which *any* can be used, the explanation offered is that *any* is required to express a "no matter which" meaning. The reference to semantic meanings gives learners a sound basis for choosing between *some* and *any,* together with pragmatic considerations such as expectational bias and positive or negative orientation.

6.3 Approach to Description at Different Proficiency Levels

6.3.1 Elementary Level

The purpose of the elementary-level description is fourfold: to provide learners with the main semantic meanings of *some* and *any*; to show that the choice between *some* and *any* is made on the basis of meaning rather than clause type; to provide a basic introduction to the role of expectational

bias in questions; to make learners aware that *some* is possible in negative clauses and to show them the basic distinction between *some* and *any* in such clauses.

To emphasize the primary role of lexical meaning and counteract the overemphasis on clause types in the standard account, the description begins with the following statement:

Some and *any* can both be used in all types of clauses. They have different meanings.

This is followed by a description of the main meanings of *some* and *any*, accompanied by examples which show these main meanings in the clause types that learners are most likely to have been taught at this level, affirmative clauses, negative clauses and questions, and also in conditional *if*- clauses, which some elementary-level learners might have encountered. The objective of the examples is to illustrate and reinforce the idea that *some* and *any* can occur in all clause types. To save space, the sample description offered below includes only one example for each clause type inside the different meanings. More examples can be provided in the final description given to learners.

Some means:

1) An indefinite, limited and usually small quantity of something

- There are **some** good restaurants (A certain amount of restaurants; the speaker does not say how many).
- Do you want **some** coffee?
- **Some** users do not like the programme.
- Let me know if you need **some** more time.

2) A certain person or thing; or certain people or things

- I've invited **some** people for lunch.
- He did not answer **some** basic questions.
- Do you know **some** good restaurants near here?
- It would be nice if we could visit **some** monuments.

Any means:

1) "No matter which". With this meaning *any* is frequent in affirmative clauses, but it can occur in any type of clause.

- Take **any** bus to the city centre.
- This is not just **any** movie: it's the movie of the week
- Is this software compatible with **any** computer?
- Feel free to contact us if you have **any** ideas.

2) An indefinite, unlimited quantity greater than zero. With this meaning *any* occurs especially in clauses such as negative clauses, questions and conditionals that do not refer to actual events. However, it also occurs in affirmative clauses when these clauses express a negative meaning.

- We haven't got **any** money (=not even the smallest amount of money)
- Are there **any** good restaurants around here?
- I rarely have **any** contact with them (=I don't usually contact them)
- Call me if you have **any** problems.

As occurs in current grammar books, the description of the use of *any* in questions and *if*- conditionals establishes the preference for *any* and links the use of *some* to positive expectations. While the need to use *any* in face-saving offers and request questions is not discussed at this level, learners are told that *some* is "normally used" in offers and requests, thus leaving open the possibility that *any* may

occur. The preference for *some* in positively-oriented questions and conditionals is also presented as a general tendency rather than a fixed rule.

> We normally use *any*, not *some*, in questions and conditionals.
>
> We generally use *some* in questions and conditionals when the speaker expects or wants the answer "yes". For this reason, we normally use *some* rather than *any* in offer and request questions.

To avoid encumbering the elementary-level learner with new terminology, the essential distinction between *some* and *any* in negative clauses is conveyed as follows without using the terms "partial negation" and "total negation":

> Look at these examples:
>
> I don't like **some** of the songs (= I don't like certain songs on the album)
>
> I don't like **any** of the songs (= I like none of the songs on the album)
>
> I didn't answer **some** questions in the exam (= I didn't answer a few questions in the exam)
>
> I didn't answer **any** questions in the exam (= I answered no questions in the exam)

At the end of the elementary-level description, a section on common errors can be included for two reasons: to provide learners with an indication of the typical errors that learners make and thus help guard against fossilization; to help learners reach a more precise understanding of *some* and *any* by indicating the limits on their use.

The first reason is related to Schmidt and Frota's "noticing the gap" hypothesis (1986). Schmidt and Frota note that "in order to overcome errors, learners must make conscious comparisons between their own output and target language input" (Schmidt and Frota 1986: 723). Swain and Lapkin (1995) provide empirical evidence that helping learners to notice the gaps between interlanguage and target language can help them to address their language difficulties.

The second reason is based on the negative evidence hypothesis, namely that evidence on what is not possible in a language may help learners acquire language. Bley-Vroman (1986) argues that positive evidence alone is often insufficient to enable learners to question incorrect interlanguage hypotheses, and that the failure to provide negative evidence can lead to the fossilization of errors. Although Schwartz and Gubala-Rysak (1992) are sceptical about the effects of negative evidence on L2 learning, a number of empirical studies indicate that it can have a positive effect, including White (1991), Carroll and Swain (1993), Izumi and Lakshmanan (1998) and Al-Maghrabi and Sabir (2019). However, Birdsong (1987), drawing on evidence from studies in both language learning and general cognition, argues that the ability to benefit from negative evidence may depend on learner-internal factors such as differences in metalinguistic awareness, information processing skills and the ability and willingness of learners to use disconfirming information to alter initial hypotheses.

In this thesis, the position taken is that while not all learners will benefit equally from the provision of negative evidence, such evidence is a useful addition to grammar book descriptions as some students can benefit from it immediately, while some others, as Birdsong notes, may be able to do so after training.

Common mistakes can also be included in the descriptions for intermediate and advanced level learners as a means of mitigating the problem of backsliding (Selinker 1972), that is, the re-emergence of learner errors owing to a return to a previous stage in the learner's interlanguage development. The continued occurrence revealed by the learner corpus of some basic errors with *some* and *any* at higher levels, such as the confusion between partial and total negation, may be an indication that backsliding occurs with aspects of the *some-any* distinction.

The box below shows how common mistakes could be presented to elementary-level learners. The first two examples warn against the use of *any* in partial negatives and *some* in total negatives respectively. The third and fourth examples focus on the need to avoid *some* when the speaker has neutral or negative expectations and *any* when (s)he has positive expectations. The last example warns against the confusion of "no matter which" *any*, with its suggestion of lack of limitation and indiscriminacy and *some* with its limited "certain amount" sense. In the definitive version, the examples can be cross-referenced to the section of the grammar explanation that they refer to.

Common Mistakes

I understand the text well, but I don't understand ~~any~~ **some** words and phrases.

I haven't got ~~some~~ **any** money left. I spent it all this morning.

Picture of someone at info counter: Are there ~~some~~ **any** direct trains from London to Liverpool?

Picture of woman at bar hiccoughing. She asks: "Can I have ~~any~~ **some** water?"

I would like ~~any~~ **some** help with the project.

6.3.2 Intermediate Level

The intermediate level begins with the same basic discussion and exemplification of the main lexical meanings of *some* and *any* that is provided at elementary level in order to reinforce the idea that clause type is not a determinant factor in the choice between *some* and *any*; the only addition that needs to be made to the elementary-level meanings description is the information that *some* can be used with 'time' and 'measure' words to refer to a large quantity.

From intermediate level onwards, the description of negative environments draws parallels between the uses of *some* in straight negative clauses and clauses with implicit negatives, as the main uses are the same as in the reference corpus and cause similar problems for learners - primarily the distinction between partial and total negatives. The description of the partial-total negation distinction introduces the terms partial and total negation and clarifies that the distinction is relevant to implicit negatives and to nuclear negative clauses as well as to straight negative clauses.

Total and Partial Negation

In negative clauses and all clauses with a negative meaning *some* and *any* often express very different ideas.

Any expresses a **total negation**: not do any.. = do no:

Picture of film director, and speech bubble:

- I haven't read any reviews of my films for the past 12 years (He has read no reviews for 12 years).

Some is mainly used to express a **partial negation**: not do some...= not do certain things or a part of something.

Picture of tanks. Shaded area arrow "under army control"/ smaller shaded area "not under army control".. Picture of reporter and speech bubble:

- "The army still do not control some parts of the city." (The army controls some parts of the city but not others.)

The difference between total negation and partial negation also occurs in clauses with *never*, *no one*, *nothing*, *nowhere* and with implicit negatives.

The description of implicit negative words maintains the association of these words with *any* that is

made in many existing grammar books. The new area that has been added, absence state predicates, can be described as "words or phrases which describe the absence or lack of something". The preference for *any* over *some* with implicit negatives is expressed in the following terms so that learners can see that it is only a colligational tendency rather than an absolute rule:

> *Any* is commonly used after implicit negatives, that is, words or phrases that are not in themselves negative but express a negative meaning.

The treatment of *some* in implicit negatives at intermediate level is reproduced in the box below, as it is a new area. In addition to reminding students of its use in partial negation, two typical and frequent phrases involving multiple negation - *not without* and *don't doubt* - are presented as expressions of "positive ideas".

> **Use of Some after Implicit Negatives**
>
> *Some* is used after implicit negatives in partial negation and to express a positive idea.
>
> - Cable news refused to let **some** stories die (A partial negative: they did not let certain stories die.)
> - The centre of town is not without **some** charm. (A positive idea: the centre of town has a certain amount of charm.)
> - I don't doubt that **some** of the rumours are true (A positive idea: I am sure that some of the rumours are true.)

The explanation for the *some-any* choice in offer and request questions is explained in simple terms that avoid the need for metapragmatic terminology: the concept of saving the interlocutor's face is conveyed simply with the expression: "give the other person more opportunity to refuse". The explanation provided is reproduced in the box below.

> **The *Some-Any* Distinction in Offers and Requests**[11]
>
> We tend to use *some* in offers and requests because it is usually politer to assume that the other person will accept or agree.
>
> - Do you want **some** dinner?
> - Would you like **some** more time to answer the question?
> - Can you give me **some** examples?
>
> However, we use *any* in offers and requests if we want to give the other person more opportunity to refuse.
>
> - (Context: you are not sure if the person wants or needs help) Do you need **any** help or are you OK working on your own?
> - (Context: you know the other person won't like the idea of working on Sunday; you don't want to force the person to accept) Is there **any** way you could come to work on Sunday?

In addition to covering the same common errors that were presented at elementary level, the intermediate level can draw attention to the inappropriacy of using *some* before nouns such as *problems* and *illnesses* in both questions and conditionals along the lines proposed in the box below.

[11] As explained in section 6.2.4, suggestions will be introduced at intermediate level, alongside offer and request questions in the initial explanation on questions with *some* that perform positively-oriented functions. They are not introduced in the description provided in this box, as my research did not show any evidence of face-saving suggestions with *any*.

Warning: Use *any* to avoid suggesting that you expect something

In some situations, it is not usually appropriate to suggest that you expect something to happen. In questions or conditionals that refer to these situations, it is better to use *any* rather than *some* because *any* can express neutral or negative expectations:

- (Context: arranging travel insurance) "Do you have ~~some~~ **any** illnesses?" (*Some* illnesses suggests that you think the person is ill)
- (Context: talking to a baby sitter) "This is my daughter Sharon. If you have ~~some~~ **any** problems with her let me know." (*Some* problems suggests that you expect your daughter to behave badly.)

As the distinction between *some* and *any* in wh-questions is not treated in other grammar books, the description for intermediate level is offered in the boxes below so that the reader can see how this area might be described. Wh-content questions are presented as wh-questions that ask for information. Affirmative and negative wh-content questions are dealt with together to show that the *some-any* choice in affirmative ones is like the distinction in affirmative clauses, while the choice in negative questions is dependent on the partial negation vs total negation distinction. Learners are not told that *some* is the most frequent form in affirmative wh-content questions and *any* in negative ones, as this might predispose them to opt for the most frequent form without making a reasoned choice between the two options.

Wh-Questions that Ask for Information

Affirmative wh- questions that ask for information assume that the action or event described in the question will occur. For this reason, the choice between *some* and *any* is made in the same way as in affirmative clauses: so*me* is used mainly with its "certain people or things" or "limited quantity" meaning. A*ny* is used with its "no matter which" meaning.

- Where can I buy **some** wine near here?
- Who knows **any** funny jokes?

Negative wh- questions that ask for information assume that the action or event described in the question will not occur. For this reason, the choice between *some* and *any* is made in the same way as in negative clauses: *any* is used to express the idea of total negation and *some* to express the idea of partial negation.

- Why don't **any** of you like my music (= Tell me the reason why none of you like my music.)
- Why don't **some** people use the Internet? (= Tell me the reason why some people don't use the Internet.)

The description of affirmative counterfactual rhetorical questions below also establishes that these are like negative statements and that the choice between *some* and *any* is therefore based on the distinction between partial and total negation. Finally, for the reasons explained in section 6.2.7, negative rhetorical comment questions with *some* are treated as a functional use: complaining that something needs to occur.

Rhetorical Wh-Questions with a Negative Meaning

Affirmative wh-rhetorical questions are like negative statements, e.g. "Who would enjoy working in a mine?" means that no one would enjoy working in a mine. The choice between *some* and *any* is the same as in negative clauses:

- What has **any** of this got to do with me? (= This has nothing to do with me)
- Who really cares about **some** of these things? (= No one really cares about some of these things.)

Other Common Functions of Wh Questions

Suggestions with "Why don't.." are used with *some* :

- Why don't we buy **some** flowers for Mum?

Negative questions with *why* are used with *some* to complain that something needs to occur:

- Why don't you show me **some** respect? (=You should show me some respect but you don't).

Both these functions use *some* because they have a positive orientation: they refer to what the speaker wants to happen or thinks should happen.

The description of the *some-any* distinction in *unless*-clauses has been reproduced in its entirety below as it the most important addition to the existing description on conditional clauses at intermediate level. Although it is not explicitly stated, the last example with *unless some* illustrates the *exhortation* function, while the last example with *unless any* exemplifies the *get-out* clause function.

Use of *some* and *any* in *unless*- clauses

Some tends to be preferred to *any* in *unless*-clauses. This is because *unless*-clauses have a positive orientation; they state the only possible reason for considering that something is going to happen or that something is true.

- Rome are not going to beat Barcelona unless they find **some** way to contain Messi. (Rome will only beat Barcelona if they find some way to contain Messi)
- Unless **some** problems arise, this will be the final version of the software.
- You're not going to lose weight unless you do **some** exercise.

Any is possible in some cases. It is used to:

Express the idea that the condition in the *unless*-clause is impossible:

I wouldn't worry about it unless you actually have **any** problems. (This suggests that you will almost certainly not have any problems.)

Express the idea of "no matter which"

- When you have a cold, you don't usually need to see a doctor unless you have **any (=whichever)** of the following symptoms: high fever (over 39 degrees), persistent vomiting, respiration problems (..).
- I'd like to record this conversation, unless you have **any** objections.

Express total negation:

- Don't stay in that hotel unless you don't have **any** other choice.

Recommendations, requests and exhortations in *if + some* clauses can be introduced with typical examples, as can the use of *any* with threats and warnings. The explanation can explicitly link the use

of *some* in these functions to positive orientation and the use of *any* to negative orientation. The singularizing function can also be presented at this level, linking it to its common exponents - "if there is/are any" in the protasis and "then it is" in the apodosis. The use of *some* with positivizing expressions can be introduced as in the box below:

It would be great/good *if* + *some*

There are a number of phrases with *if* that occur with some because they express positive ideas: *it would be nice if, it would be great if, it would be good if, it would help if, it would be helpful if.*

- It would be great if **some** of you could come and support us.

6.3.3 Advanced Level

The main differences in the description offered to advanced level learners compared to that offered at intermediate level are the explanation of the *referential-non-referential* distinction and the level of detail provided in the description of non-assertive clause types.

It is important to emphasize that while the concepts behind the terms *referential* and *non-referential* as they are used by Sahlin (1979) to refer to *some* and *any*, and by Givon (1978; 1984) to refer to the determiner system in general, are essential to gaining a full understanding of the meaning difference between the two words, the terms themselves are not employed in the description. There are two reasons for this.

Firstly, the terms are not transparent for learners of English, because the sense in which they are used by Sahlin and Givon to mean something that exists/doesn't exist within the universe of discourse, is not directly retrievable from the everyday meaning of the two terms. Because both terms stem from the verb *refer*, learners may understand, wrongly, that *referential* means "referring to a thing or concept" and *non-referential* "not referring to a thing or concept". Moreover, a search for the term *referential* in dictionaries will not help learners to understand how it is used with *some* and *any*, as the term is either not explained or explained with its everyday meaning; for example, the Meriam Webster dictionary[12] defines referential as "of, containing, or constituting a reference" or, "especially: pointing to or involving a referent".

Secondly, *referential* may not be a good term for teachers of English to use, as it is not always used in the Givonian sense in language description. It is used in semantics as an equivalent for denotative or semantic meaning - i.e. the objective real world meaning expressed by an utterance (Leech 1981). Moreover, in Systemic Functional grammar terms such as "referential item" and "referential chains" are used to denote words that increase cohesion by enabling the reader to follow the references to words and concepts across a text (Halliday and Hasan 1976, Bloor and Bloor (1995).

Neither the semantic meaning of *referential* nor its meaning in Systemic Functional Linguistics help to distinguish between *some* and *any*: both words are used to express pragmatic, contextually dependent meanings, as well as to express denotative meaning and both words can be used in noun phrases that form part of a referential chain or, in their pronoun form, as referring items that form part of the chain of reference.

The referentiality of *some*, in the sense in which this term is used by Sahlin and Givon, is conveyed by stating that it refers to things "which exist", "are treated as existing", "are likely to exist" or are "assumed to exist". The "assumed to exist" meaning is linked to the use of *some* in counterfactual conditionals.

[12] https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/referential

Some tends to refer to particular events, people and things which exist or happen or are treated as existing by the speaker:

- There are **some** good restaurants (the speaker has some actual restaurants in mind)
- I'd like to ask you **some** questions (the speaker has prepared the questions or at least decided what questions he wants to ask.)
- I haven't passed **some** subjects (= there are some subjects that I haven't passed yet.)

Some is also used in questions and conditionals to refer to things that the speaker thinks are likely to exist:

- If I can get **some** funds, I'm going to set up my own business.
- You look a lot happier. Have you made **some** friends?

In other cases, the speaker is not talking about actual or likely things, but about things which are assumed to exist or occur for the purpose of conversation or discussion.

- What would you do if you saw **some** kids stealing?

Conversely, the non-referentiality of the indefinite, unlimited quantity use of *any* is explained in terms of existence or non-existence in discourse, and linked to its use in non-assertive clauses and negatively-oriented assertive clauses. The standard "no matter which" meaning of *any* is conveyed by referring to its inability to refer to particular instances of a real phenomenon, while the "any possible" meaning and the related, depreciative "whatever there is" meaning are explained by stating that the existence or occurrence is "in doubt".

The indefinite, unlimited quantity meaning of *any* is used to discuss people, events and things that do not or might not exist or are treated as non-existent or possibly non-existent by the speaker. For this reason it is frequent in questions, conditionals, negative clauses and other non-assertive clauses. However, it is also used in affirmative clauses when these express a negative idea.

- The chances of them doing **any** damage were minimal.

Any with its "no matter which" meaning sometimes refers to things, concepts and phenomena that exist or occur. However, it never refers to particular instances of the referent.

- Take **any** bus to the city centre" (The speaker assumes that there are buses but is not referring to a particular one).

Any can also be used to express the idea of "any possible" or "whatever… there is" when the existence or occurrence of something is in doubt.

- Please correct **any** mistakes.
- There is a small possibility of light showers but **any** rain will clear by the early afternoon.

The most novel part of the description of negative clauses at advanced level is the explicit introduction of the evaluative negation and multiple negation uses, reproduced in the box below. The description offers a simplified account of both these uses that focuses only on the most common findings from the reference corpus. The description of evaluative negation focuses exclusively on pejorative nouns without distinguishing between intrinsically pejorative and contextually pejorative ones and ignores the issue of overlap with *any*, discussed in section 5.2.3.2. The description of multi-negatives covers the Type 1 and Type 2 multi-negative patterns discussed in section 5.2.2.

Some is also used in negative clauses:

With evaluative noun phrases[13] in the singular to express the speaker's attitude towards the event that he is describing. This is an emphatic type of negation, which is used especially with pejorative nouns, to express a negative attitude.

- We don't need **some** idiot to tell us how we should think.
- I don't want **some** amateur decorating our home.

Inside multiple negative patterns that express positive meaning:

- I don't know anyone who hasn't suffered **some** kind of back pain.
- There's no investment that doesn't involve **some** risk.
- You cannot say that the government hasn't done **some** good things
- This idea is not without **some** merit.
- I find it hard to believe it doesn't have so**me** impact.

The most important additions to the focus on wh-questions at advanced level are the introduction of negative counterfactual rhetorical wh questions and the treatment of rhetorical comment questions. Negative counterfactual rhetorical wh-questions can be introduced straight after affirmative ones to highlight the contrast between the negative nature of affirmative counterfactuals and the positive nature of negative ones. The description of rhetorical comment questions is reproduced below.

Rhetorical Comment Questions

Affirmative Rhetorical comment questions with *why* and *how* provide a negative comment about something that actually happens. They indicate that there is no logical reason why it should happen. Both *some* and a*ny* can be used in this type of question.

Any is used to say that something should not happen. It is negatively-oriented. The example below emphasizes that no one should care what the person in question spends his money on.

- It's up to him what he spends his money on. Why do **any** of you care what he does with it?

Some is used to introduce or denounce a situation or event as well as to say that it should not happen. It is positively-oriented because it states that something occurs. The example below denounces the fact that some politicians behave like children.

- Why do **some** politicians behave like children?

Negative Rhetorical Comment questions criticize the fact that something does not occur. Again the difference between *some* and *any* is one of positive versus negative orientation.

The focus of *any* is only on what does not happen.

- You've understood nothing. Why weren't you paying **any** attention? (= "It was wrong of you not to pay attention.")

Some focuses both on what doesn't happen and on the need for it to occur:

- Why can't they come up with **some** answers? (= They should come up with some answers. I don't understand why they haven't.)

[13] The concept of an evaluative noun is relevant to more areas than the *some-any* distinction and could therefore be explained elsewhere in the grammar book, e.g. in a section on noun phrases or on different types of meaning.

The distinction between *some* and *any* in *before* clauses focuses both on the overriding distinction between counterfactuality and factuality and on the main specific meanings relating to each quantifier. The explanation on sequencing events offers examples of both sequencing actions and sequencing discourse.

Some and any in *before* clauses

Some and *any* are used in different types of *before* clauses. *Any* is used in counterfactual *before* clauses, to describe things which do not actually occur or have not yet occurred. *Some* is used in factual or near factual *before* clauses to talk about things which actually occur or things which are on the point of occurring.

Before Any is used:

To mean "not until":

- We will fully assess the Government's response, **before we make any** decision. (We will not make any decision until we have fully assessed the Government's response)

To mean "not when":

- It's a lot easier to remember complicated equations before you have answered **any** exam questions (= when you still haven't answered any) than it is when you've answered half of them.

To indicate that something does not happen for a long time:

- It will be a long time before we make **any** progress.

To express the idea of prevention or avoidance:

- Luckily, the software discovered the virus before it could do **any** harm.

Before Some sometimes occurs to suggest the prevention of an action that is on the point of occurring:

- The woman told us to go grab the last dolly before **some** other customer took it.

Before Some is used to:

1) Sequence events:

- The man was seen driving erratically **before he collided with some** bins.
- He examined the causes **before discussing some** of the solutions.

2) Indicate that something is on the point of happening:

- "It was only a matter of time **before I let some** of the feelings out."

With this use, *some* often occurs after the phrase "only a matter of time before".

6.4 Classroom Approaches to *Some* and *Any*

It would be inadvisable to recommend one single approach to teaching *some* and *any* that can be applied in all situations, as the approach adopted will depend on a multiplicity of factors including the learners' preferred learning styles and previous learning experience, the teacher's own beliefs about language and language pedagogy, and relevant aspects of the local teaching context such as the number of contact hours and whether or not the teacher is required to follow a specific course book. The purpose of this section is to explain which type of methods are particularly suited to teaching the *some-any* distinction and then, via a discussion of the Present-Practice-Produce

paradigm, show how other methods could be adapted to render them more suitable to the teaching of this area of language.

Given the complex nature of both the *some-any* distinction itself and of contrasts between *some* and *any* and other aspects of the quantifier and determiner system, learners might be better served by methods which emphasize long-term acquisition of the target area over short-term productive accuracy, treat language as a system of communication choices rather than a mere question of right or wrong and encourage learners to adopt an exploratory approach towards language learning. Firstly, methods that have a long-term approach to acquisition are better-suited to subtler aspects of *some* and *any*, such as their use in questions and conditionals, which may take some time to acquire. Secondly, many errors with *some* and *any*, especially those related to expectational bias and positive or negative orientation in non-assertive contexts, involve making a contextually inappropriate choice rather than using a form that is incontrovertibly incorrect from a semantic or grammatical perspective. Finally, although the *some-any* distinction can be explained directly by the teacher, the subtleties and open-endedness of *some* and *any* make this area especially suitable for language analysis tasks in which learners work out the rules for themselves. Two methods that seem well-suited to the criteria specified for teaching *some* and *any* described in this paragraph are ***Language Awareness*** and ***Observe-Hypothesize-Experiment***.

Language Awareness (Borg 1994; Svalberg 2007) encourages learners to see language as an open-ended phenomenon rather than a fixed set of rules, and incorporates activities in which learners observe, analyze and discuss language and engage with it on both a cognitive and an affective level. It is based on the view that explicit knowledge of language can lead to acquisition. Ellis (2002) argues that explicit knowledge of a language form can lead to implicit or acquired knowledge in three stages, noticing, comparing and integrating: first, the learner notices the form in input; then the learner compares the form with his own interlanguage observing the difference; finally, after observing the form in input over time, the learner integrates it into their own language. Ellis (2002) argues that making learners aware of the form facilitates integration as it enables the learner to continue observing it in input.

Schmidt (1990) sees noticing, the conscious awareness of language features, as "the necessary and sufficient condition for converting input into intake" (Schmidt 1990: 129). Although in later works Schmidt points to the benefits of higher levels of awareness such as understanding, he essentially maintains his initial position: "My proposal is that noticing is necessary for SLA, and that understanding is facilitative but not required." (Schmidt 2010: 725). However, proponents of Language Awareness advocate the need for tasks which promote higher levels of awareness than mere noticing in language learning: Svalberg (2007) cites a number of studies which show that understanding leads to a higher level of language achievement than noticing; Thornbury (2001) argues that learners cannot restructure their learning unless they observe the effects that the use of a particular language form has on meaning; Van Patten (1990) found that learners need an explicit focus on specific language forms, as they have problems focusing on form and meaning simultaneously and tend to notice meaning before form.

The need for such an explicit focus seems particularly strong with *some* and *any* for three reasons: firstly, the meaning that is expressed by both items often relates to pragmatic factors such as the speaker's expectations or intentions, which may be less evident to learners than semantic meanings; secondly, the semantic meanings that they do express may receive less attention from the learner than the meanings of the main content words in each sentence; finally, *some* and *any* are normally unstressed and therefore may not be salient in speech.

The Observe-Hypothesize-Experiment cycle (Lewis 1993) involves the observation of instances of language use in written and spoken texts, the *observe* stage, language analysis activities which

encourage learners to form hypotheses based on their observations, the *hypothesize* stage, and the opportunity for language output, during which learners are encouraged to try out their hypotheses, the *experiment* stage.

The main difference with regard to Language Awareness is the experiment stage, which explicitly involves language output tasks. Although Lewis does not provide an explicit theoretical or research-based rationale for the experiment stage (or indeed for the cycle as a whole), arguments based on Swain's output hypothesis (Swain 1993) may be adduced in support of this stage. Swain argues that learners need to produce language and receive immediate feedback on it, as a means of, *inter alia*, helping learners to notice gaps in their interlanguage, test hypotheses and, through discussion of the reasons for communication breakdowns, increase their metalinguistic awareness. Research evidence in support of the output hypothesis is provided by Izumi et al (1999) and Donesch-Jezo (2011), among others. With the *some-any* distinction, an output stage in which learners test their hypotheses may serve as a means of raising learners' awareness of how the wrong choice can affect communication, of gaps in their language and of the need to continue observing this area of the English language in subsequent input.

However, it is important to note that while the Language Awareness approach focuses above all on the observation, analysis and discussion of language, it by no means excludes a focus on language output. Svalberg (2007) observes that tasks such as dictogloss and other types of text reconstruction which combine elements of interaction with a focus on language are often employed by teachers using the Language Awareness approach. There are studies which attest to the combined use of Language Awareness and other methods involving language output such as communicative language teaching (Sangiamwibool, 2012) or task-based learning (Sheppard and Ellis 2018).

A traditional conception of the **Present-Practice-Produce** (PPP) paradigm that teaches language items discretely via decontextualized examples, presents language as a system of rules rather than choices, uses drills in the controlled practice stage as a means of internalizing language, and demands learners to use items in the free practice (production) stage as soon as they have been taught is not supported by research into second language acquisition. Skehan (1996) and Ellis (2003) criticize the behaviouristic, linear view of language learning on which the present and practice stages of the paradigm are based; there is evidence from second language acquisition studies that language is not acquired in a linear, step by step way and that learners must often pass through lengthy developmental stages before they acquire a structure (Long and Crookes (1992). Willis (1990) argues that the presentation of language as discrete items with hard and fast rules will cause problems when learners encounter examples that do not fit this view, and Lightbown (1985), with reference to mechanical drills in audiolingual classrooms, cites studies which show that practice does not necessarily lead to the internalization of language items. Lightbown (2000) recognizes the benefits of more communicative practice tasks but cites research showing that even this improved version of practice is not sufficient on its own to ensure fluency and accuracy.

Furthermore, the traditional version of the PPP paradigm described above would be ill-matched to the teaching of *some* and *any* for several reasons: firstly, owing to its discrete item approach, it would not help learners to see the relationship between *some* and *any* and other items in the lexico-grammatical system, which will be discussed in section 7.4.1; secondly, the presentation of hard and fast rules would obscure the fact that the choice between *some* and *any* is dependent on what the speaker is trying to convey and is often a question of degree of appropriacy rather than right or wrong, while the use of decontextualized examples would prevent learners from seeing the role that pragmatic factors play in that choice; thirdly, the demand for immediate use is particularly ill-suited to items such as *some* and *any* which require a long time to be assimilated.

However, adaptations of this paradigm which are better adjusted to principles of language acquisition could be used to teach *some* and *any*. Without necessarily losing the teacher-centred focus that is inherent to PPP, the presentation stage could employ contextualized examples, compare *some* and *any* with other language items, use an inductive or guided-inductive presentation method, and present

the choice between *some* and *any* as a question of appropriacy and probability rather than as a rule. With regard to the practice stage, mechanical drills and decontextualized practice exercises which focus only on the rigid application of rules can be replaced by contextualized practice tasks, which require learners to reflect on the meaning differences expressed by *some* and *any*. The production stage can be set up as an opportunity for experimenting with the language forms in focus and receiving feedback, in line with the Output Hypothesis mentioned above. It can be followed by awareness-raising tasks in which learners reflect on their reasons for choosing between *some* or *any* and other language items during task performance. To ensure that PPP reflects the need for a long-term focus on the *some-any* distinction, teachers could be encouraged to delay the production stage with the more difficult aspects of this area of language.

There is some evidence in the literature that the procedures proposed here are employed by some ELT practitioners that use the PPP cycle: Ellis (1992), Gabrielatos (1994) and Anderson (2016) note than an inductive approach to language presentation is sometimes employed in the PPP cycle; Golebiewska argues that PPP "can, and often does, involve learners in language discovery where explicit explanations and inference from examples are combined" and reports on the use of practice tasks which resemble the experiment stage of the OHE cycle, as the focus is on allowing students to "experiment through practice". (Golebiewska 2013: 33 & 82).

In summary, the position adopted in this thesis is that while the teaching of *some* and *any* is most obviously suited to methods such as Language Awareness and Observe-Hypothesize-Experiment, for the reasons given above, it can also be taught effectively within other methodologies providing that teachers focus on long-term acquisition over short-term accuracy, employ contextualized language analysis, compare *some* and *any* with related items in the lexico-grammatical system and use output tasks as a means of testing hypotheses and raising learners' language awareness.

6.5 Teacher-Training

Teacher-training could help ensure an effective delivery of a new pedagogical approach to *some* and *any* by raising teachers' awareness of the distinctions between the two words, sensitizing them to the inaccuracy of existing descriptions and encouraging them to adopt a critical stance towards the techniques that they employ to teach this area. Methodological training on *some* and *any* could be combined with language training since, as Wright observes, "language education practitioners are involved not in language and teaching (separately), but in 'language teaching' or teaching languages and language learning" (Wright 2002: 115).

Given the difficulties of the *some-any* distinction, it is highly likely that teachers will need to increase their content knowledge of this area in order to teach it effectively. Analysis of texts, dialogues or corpus data could be used to raise their awareness of the semantic and pragmatic factors involved in the *some-any* distinction and in the choice between these forms and related words in the lexico-grammatical system.

Teacher trainees who have been teaching English for some time are likely to have been exposed to partially inaccurate descriptions in grammar books and other learner materials. In some cases, this could lead them to believe that these descriptions are accurate or that the inaccuracies that they contain are useful simplifications for the learner. This problem can be treated by combining the language training described in the previous paragraph with the analysis of reference materials along the lines proposed in Breyer's (2011) study, which was briefly discussed in Chapter 1, and by using learner corpus data to make them aware that some of the errors that students make with these forms are likely to be caused by their exposure to inaccurate descriptions.

Methodological training could include evaluating different output tasks that help learners to use *some* and *any*, the treatment of learner errors and assessing how different teaching methodologies could be employed to convey the grammatical information that learners will require in order to use these forms correctly. The treatment of learner errors could encourage teachers to evaluate which errors are more important and therefore deserve most attention, and the suitability of different correction techniques.

In addition to language knowledge and methodological knowledge, proficiency in using language is a relevant factor to consider when training non-native speaker teachers. The need for language proficiency is often considered in the literature on teacher training: a study by Murdoch (1994) reports that non-native teachers are aware of the need to improve their language proficiency in order to become better teachers; Richards (2010) sees language proficiency as one of the ten essential components that a language teacher needs to master, while Medgyes (1999) and Wright (2002) regard it as the one of the three main components of teacher expertise. In the case of *some* and *any*, both the frequency with which *some* and *any* are used and the number of errors committed by learners at B2 level and above in the learner corpus data indicate that non-native teachers may need training in the use of these forms if they are to act as reliable models for the learner. While training in the principles governing the *some-any* choice may help learners to become more proficient, they will also need to be made aware of the errors that they make, some of which may be performance errors rather than competency-based ones. Cullen's (2001) proposal to use lesson transcripts to make non-native teachers aware of their use of language in the classroom could be employed to sensitize teachers to the main errors that they make, including errors with *some* and *any*.

6.6 Conclusion

This chapter has proposed major changes to the current description of *some* and *any* for all levels and offered sample descriptions which show how new content and complex areas of the *some-any* distinction can be conveyed to learners. The main content changes relate to the treatment of negative clauses and implicit negatives and to the inclusion of previously neglected areas such as *unless* clauses and wh-questions. The key aspects of the approach to description are the prioritization of meaning over clause type as a means of distinguishing between *some* and *any*, and the belief that complex aspects of the distinction such as the *referential-non referential* distinction need to be covered in descriptions for advanced learners. The chapter has also recommended a long-term, exploratory approach to *some* and *any*, which can be employed with different teaching methodologies including Language Awareness, Observe-Hypothesize-Experiment and an adapted version of Present-Practice-Produce. Teacher-training in the *some-any* distinction is proposed as a means of increasing teachers' awareness of the complexities involved in this area of language and of the limitations and inaccuracies of current descriptions.

To complete the new approach to *some* and *any* it will be necessary to determine which areas of language these items need to be compared with in order to convey their role within the lexico-grammatical system. However, because the role of *some* and *any* within the lexico-grammatical system requires further research and does not emerge from my own study, this will be discussed in Chapter 7.

Chapter 7 Thesis Conclusion

7.1 Overview

This thesis has presented the beginnings of a new approach to *some* and *any* that is based on reference corpus and learner corpus research to ensure that the description of this area of language is closely aligned both to learners' needs and to actual usage. This thesis conclusion summarizes and reflects on the thesis and makes suggestions for future research.

Section 7.2 reviews what might be considered to be the main contributions of the corpus research described in this thesis. Section 7.3 discusses some methodological limitations of the research study and evaluates the extent to which these may have distorted the findings. Section 7.4 outlines further research that can be conducted into *some* and *any*: Section 7.4.1 focuses on the need for research into the relationship between *some* and *any* and other quantifiers and determiners and Section 7.4.2 outlines, more briefly, ways in which future researchers might build on the findings from this study. Finally, Section 7.5 proposes future pedagogically-oriented research into other areas of language, and predicts ways in which the methods used in this study could be developed in response to both technological advances and new thinking.

7.2 Main Contributions of this Study

The most significant contributions of this study are probably those that relate to the areas of wh-questions and negative clauses, both grammatically negative clauses and clauses in which *some* or *any* are under the scope of an implicit negative. Certain aspects of the findings related to conditionals and affirmative yes-no questions are also a significant contribution to knowledge.

The findings on wh-questions provide a clear picture of an area of the *some-any* distinction which has been almost entirely ignored in previous pedagogical grammar accounts. From the learners' perspective, the most relevant discovery within this area is that *some* is the preferred form in affirmative wh-content questions and *any* in negative ones. From a linguistic perspective, this finding is not particularly striking, as it is easily predictable from the assertive nature of *some* and the non-assertive nature of *any*. However, the confirmation of this prediction through my corpus research means that this important area can now be reliably explained to learners. From the point of view of descriptive linguistics, the most interesting discovery relates to the operation of the *some-any* distinction in affirmative rhetorical comment questions, a question type in which the choice is hard to predict owing to its conjoint positive and negative orientation. The difference between *some* and *any* is a matter of emphasis and discourse function: positively-oriented *some* is used to announce censurable events or situations, to introduce them into discourse. Although the question with *some* contains negative orientation as it expresses a critical attitude towards the event or situation, it foregrounds positive orientation by emphasizing the fact that the action or event occurs. By contrast, negatively-oriented *any* is used when the occurrence of the action or event is taken as a given element and the emphasis is on criticizing its occurrence.

The findings on grammatically negative clauses call for a complete revision of the way this area is explained in grammar books. The findings demonstrate the unsustainability of the widespread claims that *some* is extremely rare in negative clauses and that it can only be used when it is outside the scope of negation. *Some*, while less frequent than *any* within negative scope, is used inside the grammatical scope of negation in a broad range of negative clauses, the most common of which involve partial negation, evaluative negation and multiple negative patterns[14]. The most important

[14] Although the fact that the two negatives cancel out lifts some outside semantic scope, *some* is inside the grammatical scope of negation in multi-negative patterns.

distinction for learners is between total negatives, which require *any*, and partial negatives, which require *some*.

The findings with regard to implicit negatives also point to the need to overhaul the description of this area. The confirmation that *some* is used in implicit negatives in the same range of meanings as in negative clauses reveals that descriptions which claim that *any* is always used are incorrect, while those which simply state that *any* is the preferred form by no means provide sufficient information. The findings also clarify the distinction between *some* and *any* with two frequent items, *before* and *without*. The confirmation via corpus research that words which express absence or lack display a similar *some-any* distribution to implicit negatives is useful for learners and opens up the possibility that there may be more semantically linked groups of words that tend towards *any* owing to their inherently negative meaning. This question is discussed further in section 7.4.2.

While there were many findings relating to conditionals and affirmative yes-no questions, especially with regard to positively and negatively oriented speech functions, most of them simply add additional or complementary elements to the existing description. However, three findings are of greater significance: the need to use *any* in face-saving offers and requests, findings relating to the *some-any* choice in *unless*-clauses, and the fact that counterfactual conditionals are an environment in which both *some* and *any* are employed.

The first of these findings can help learners to avoid making offers and requests that sound obtrusive and shows that the *some-any* distinction is shaped not only by the expectations and attitudes of the speaker/writer, but also, albeit to a lesser extent, by those of the hearer/reader. This point is taken up again shortly in the discussion of methodological limitations. The findings related to the *some-any* choice in *unless*-clauses provides learners with a clear rationale for choosing between *some* and *any* in a clause type that has been neglected in previous descriptions. The finding regarding counterfactual conditionals contradicts the claim made in Huddleston and Pullum (2002) that conditionals of this type show a strong preference for *any*, and emphasizes the importance of distinguishing between *some* and *any* in terms of the semantic and pragmatic meanings that they express in context, rather than in terms of clause type.

7.3 Methodological Limitations

The current study has three methodological limitations: the lack of a spoken corpus, the failure to employ a systematic means of dealing with examples that were hard to classify or interpret, and the decision, taken for time reasons, to examine only incorrect choices between *some* and *any* rather than correct ones in the learner corpus.

The lack of a spoken corpus is problematic for three main reasons. Firstly, corpus research into any language area that is employed in both speech and writing cannot be considered to be exhaustive unless it includes both written and spoken data in order to analyse possible differences in the behaviour of the item across the two modes. Secondly, it is possible that a spoken corpus could shed light on the role of the hearer in the *some-any* choice. While both spoken and written communications can be seen as co-constructed, the hearer has a more active and direct role in the co-construction of spoken speech events than the reader in written ones. For this reason, the attitudes and expectations of the hearer may play a greater role in the *some-any* distinction than do those of the reader in written text. Finally, the greater amount of informal language in a spoken corpus may increase the amount of data on some rarer colloquial uses. For example, it is possible that a spoken corpus would provide more information on lament phrases – e.g. “Pity I can't get some fat back on those rump steaks” (OEC), and other cases in which *some* is used instead of *any* in negative clauses to express an undercurrent of desire.

In the future, it is possible that a spoken corpus would provide more detail on the use of *some* and *any* in questions, given the higher frequency of questions in spoken language: according to research into the ICE-G.B corpus, questions are around four times more frequent in spoken language than in written language (http://www.englicious.org/book/export/ html/304). However, this advantage is currently offset by the fact that current spoken corpora are considerably smaller than the OEC. The largest, the COCA spoken corpus, is around 18 times smaller than the OEC; therefore, departing from the premise that questions are "only" four times more frequent in spoken language, it is likely to produce less data on questions than the OEC. In conclusion, this last advantage of spoken corpora will only be realized when these get larger.

The problem of examples that are hard to classify or interpret could have been addressed by asking a team of native speakers to examine these examples and decide which categories they belong to. The confidence with which examples can be assigned to a particular category could have been measured in terms of interrater reliability, i.e. the degree of agreement among researchers. One score that is commonly used for this purpose is the Kappa statistic (Cohen, 1960), which might be better than pure percentage agreement as it is designed to take into account the possibility of agreement occurring by chance. Although some researchers, (e.g. Uebersax 1987) question the capacity of the Kappa statistic to cater for random agreement, it is still a widely-used measure of interrater agreement today and has been employed in some recent corpus linguistics studies, e.g. Spooren and Degand (2010) and Himmelmann et al (2018). If an interrater reliability study is employed in future studies of *some* and *any*, it will also be necessary to consider research design issues, such as whether or not to train coders beforehand and the advantages and disadvantages of using expert and non-expert analysts. Questions such as these are discussed in the context of semantic classifications in Bolognesi et al (2017).

The decision not to examine correct learner usage means that it is not possible to determine if the lack or paucity of errors related to some less frequent uses is due to the small size of the learner corpus or to the fact that learners usually distinguish correctly between *some* and *any* in these uses. Such information would be useful when determining which aspects of *some* and *any* to include in a pedagogical description.

Although it would be desirable to solve these methodological limitations in future research, there is a basis for thinking they do not bring into question the results of this study. While it would be useful to obtain information on the hearer's perspective and on rarer colloquial uses from a spoken corpus, such information would be unlikely to affect the central findings about how *some* and *any* are used. Although the exclusive focus on erroneous choices between *some* and *any* in the learner corpus has prevented me from obtaining better insights into why data is missing, it nevertheless provides a good deal of information on learner error in all the main clause types. The failure to use interrater reliability measures with dubious examples affects only the reliability of the quantitative data offered in this research, as the number of cases in some categories might have been slightly larger or smaller had such measures been employed.

7.4 Future Research Areas Related to *Some* and *Any*

7.4.1 The Relationship between *Some* and *Any* and other Language Items

As the lexico-grammar functions as a system, future pedagogically-oriented research is required to compare the behaviour of *some* and *any* to that of other items within the English determiner and quantifier system, including the following:

- *any* versus *all/every/each*
- *any* and *some* versus *a/an*
- *any* and *some* versus zero article

- *some* versus other quantifiers, including *a little/a few, several, much, many* and *a lot/lots (of)*
- *not all*/*every* versus *not some*
- *not any* versus *no*
- contrasts between the compound forms of *some* and *any* - e.g. *someone* versus *anyone* and *something* versus *anything*.
- contrasts between the compound forms of *some* and *any* and other compound forms with *no*, *every* etc.

Reference corpus research will help to determine how *some* and *any* interrelate with these other items and evaluate current pedagogical descriptions of this interrelationship. Learner corpus research will elucidate both specific problems that learners have in differentiating *some* and *any* from the other target items, and the relative importance of each area for learners. The discussion below indicates my current understanding of the differences between *some* and *any* and other determiners and quantifiers, and my ideas for further research in each area.

Part of the distinction between "no matter which" *any* and the quantifiers *all*, *every* and *each* may relate to the non-referential nature of *any*, which contrasts with the basically referential nature of *all*, *every* and *each*, although the latter are also thought to have generic non-referential uses (Sahlin 1979). As Sahlin notes, another distinction may be that *any* with its free-choice "no matter which" meaning invariably refers to the possibility of choosing an individual item from within a set, while *all* and *every* (and *each*, which Sahlin does not discuss) refer to the whole set: "You can do **any** of these courses" refers to the possibility of doing at least one of the courses available but not the totality, while "you can do **all** of the courses" refers to the possibility of doing the whole set.

While Sahlin discusses the significance of this distinction from a logical semantics perspective, research is needed to clarify how this distinction may relate to the choice made by speakers between *any* and *all*, *every* and *each* in actual contexts of use, and how the wrong choice between *any* and these items can affect communication. The former can be researched via a reference corpus, the latter via a learner corpus.

Sahlin also sees the inability of both non-assertive *any* and free choice *any* to refer to the whole set as one of the factors that sets it apart from *a/an* and the generic use of the zero article (Sahlin 1979: 91-95; 115-119). The possibility of using *any* with a singular noun is worth researching in order to compare it not only with *a/an* or the *zero article* but also to the use of *any* before plural and non-count nouns. A number of grammar books including Parrott (2000), Murphy (2004) and Carter (2011) limit or equate the use of non-assertive *any* to plural and uncountable nouns. However, Sahlin presents a number of corpus examples in which non-assertive *any* is used with a singular noun. She claims that the use of *any* with a singular noun creates a qualitative[15], emphatic effect that is not generated by the use of *a/an*. An analysis of learner errors related to the use of *any* with a singular noun when a plural or uncountable noun is appropriate may also help to provide a description that delimits this use adequately for learners of English.

Sahlin cites a number of elements that may characterize *some* + singular noun and help to distinguish it from *a/an*, including the inability or unwillingness to identify the referent and the use of evaluative nouns, especially pejorative ones. While both unidentified referents and evaluative nouns also occur with singular nouns preceded by *a*/*an*, it is possible, as Sahlin notes, that the use of *some* is more emphatic: in other words, it may make more salient the non-identification of the referent and the emotional or judgemental element expressed by the evaluative noun. My research only revealed the use of *some* + evaluative noun in non-assertive clause types. Future research can examine its relationship with *a/an* in both assertive and non-assertive clauses.

[15] The fact that *some* plus a singular evaluative noun has been shown to be more qualitative in tone than *any* in my research - see Section 5.2.3.2 – is consistent with the possibility that *any* may express a more qualitative, emphatic tone than the indefinite article.

While the meaning of *any* will need to be contrasted with the generic meaning of the *zero article*, *some* will need to be contrasted with the non-generic, indefinite use that is exemplified in the following examples from Sahlin, in which she claims that the italicized *zero article* nouns and the nouns with *some* are not interchangeable:

- Martha left Mrs Quest to go across to offer *coffee*. There were *introductions*: Mrs Coldridge sat down, took *some coffee*..
- There was a tiny shop which was also a post office. In it were *pencils and paper*. There were *magazines* too, and *some books*, but the books were not worth bringing back.

Sahlin proposes that the two elements that differentiate the unstressed determiner *some* from the *zero article* are specificity and limited quantity, as the zero article has an "uncertain" status with regard to specificity and places no limit on the quantity referred to. Sahlin's argument here is not that unstressed *some* must be specific, but that it can have this property and that it is this property, together with limitedness of quantity, that distinguishes it from the zero article. Specificity and limitedness of quantity suffice to explain the distinction between *coffee* and *some coffee* in the first example, as the offer of coffee does not refer to a particular coffee or a limited amount, whereas the coffee drunk by Mrs Coldridge is both a particular instance and a limited amount.

The limited quantity meaning, which Sahlin states is more important for the distinction between *some* and the zero article than specificity, might also help to explain the difference between *magazines* and *some books* in the second example, as it is plausible that a small shop of this type would have larger amounts of magazines than of books. However, it is possible that another factor involved in the second example is the use of *some* as a means of introducing referents into discourse: "some books" would seem to bring books more into focus, and thus be better suited than "books" for the ensuing description of the referent. The use of *some* to introduce items into discourse was discussed in sections 5.2.1 and 5.7.2 in relation to *some* in negative clauses and wh-rhetorical comment questions respectively. Future reference corpus research can help determine if this aspect of *some* helps to distinguish it from zero articles and/or other determiners and quantifiers.

The difference between *some*, *a little/ a few* and *several* may prove to be quite subtle as, while all items refer to small unspecified quantities, they are by no means synonymous in all contexts. To explore similarities and differences between the small quantity meaning of *some* and *a few*, *a little* and *several*, it may be fruitful to examine if the other three quantifiers, which have positive meanings and would seem *a priori* to be referential items, have a similar distribution across clause types to *some* and occur in non-assertive clauses in a similar range of uses, including partial negation and positively oriented questions and conditionals. To gain a fuller picture of the difference between *some* and the other quantifiers mentioned, it will also be necessary to explore the use of *some* to refer to larger quantities, including its use before nouns referring to time and distance, which is attested in Sahlin's corpus data.

Another area that might help learners to distinguish better between *some*, *a little/a few* and *several* is research into the collocations employed with each item. A study by Laso (2009) found that learners made mistakes in the use of quantifiers such as *not much*, *a little* and *a few*, because they were unaware of the collocational patternings associated with each quantifier. Although collocation did not prove to be a useful means of distinguishing between most uses of *some* and *any* in my OEC data, it is possible that future research may show that *some* has a different collocational profile to that of some other quantifiers.

While there is a clear semantic distinction between the usual small quantity meaning of *some* and *many/much/a lot of*, which refer to substantial amounts, the pragmatic distinction may prove more complex: *some* and *many*/*much*/ *a lot of* can be used to refer to the same actual quantities, but *some*, in its usual quantitative use, presents them as a small amount, while *many/much/a lot of* present them as a substantial amount. Reference corpus research which explores a wide co-text surrounding the search term and takes into account other factors such as text type, topic domain and text source may

throw some light on the pragmatic issues that can affect a speaker or writer's choice of quantifier. Such pragmatic information could be of benefit to some learners as well as to linguists: firstly, it may throw light on differences between the uses of *some* and *many/much/a lot of* and equivalents in other languages; secondly it might provide useful information for EAP students studying areas such as advertising or media studies where the rhetorical exploitation of words and phrases related to quantity is important.

A corpus study by Favaro (2015) compares the use of *not all can* and *some cannot*, with both *some* and *all* in subject position in the negative clause, and reveals both similarities and differences. With regard to the similarity of *not all can* and *some cannot,* Favaro's main finding is that both forms occur frequently in disjunctive and concessive structures because they are "used very often for either contrasting a given condition or introducing one which will then be contrasted". However, the fact that in Favaro's data disjunctive and concessive structures occur only in a third of the cases with *not all can* and a fifth of the cases with *some* suggests that functions other than contrast may be involved in many cases.

With regard to the distinctions between *not all* and *some cannot*, Favaro's main finding, at least in terms of its potential relevance to learners of English is that *some* is often specified by following examples. Favaro suggests that examples are used to help the interlocutor to resolve the uncertain quantitative status of *some*. However, it is not clear from the corpus instances that he provides that exemplification helps to specify the quantity referred to by *some*. For instance, in the following example provided by Favaro, the purpose of the exemplification is to clarify the type of items that are being referred to, not their quantity: "Sorry, some items cannot be gift wrapped, such as oversized items or items that are shipped in their original boxes".

Moreover, it is not clear that the vagueness of the quantity reference expressed by *some* would need to be resolved, as *some* is often chosen precisely in order to avoid expressing a precise quantity (Sahlin 1979; Channel 1994, Le and Zhang 2018). An alternative explanation may be that exemplification is used after *some* because *some* focuses on particular instances of the referent and introduces them into discourse. However, further research is required both to confirm this explanation and to ascertain whether "not all" can be used with the same function.

The use of *not any* and its compound equivalent *not anyone/anything* etc. versus *no/no one/nothing* etc. is discussed in a number of grammar books including Biber et al (2002) Hewings (2005) and Downing and Locke (2006). The nuclear negative forms are treated as more emphatic and, in some descriptions, more formal than their *not any* equivalents. Future reference and learner corpus research may be able to determine if these descriptions need to be modified.

A related issue, which is discussed in a number of grammar books, including Downing and Locke (2006) and Swan (2005), is the unsuitability of *any*, on its own without a preceding negator or implicit negative, for expressing negative meaning. Learner corpus research can help determine if the use of *any* on its own to express negative meaning is a common mistake and reveal the distribution of this error across different levels and mother tongues.

The two corpus studies that have compared the compound forms of *some* and *any* to the non-compound forms find that the former are used in the same way as the latter, (Sahlin 1979; Tesch 1990), a finding that would seem to confirm the accuracy of current pedagogical grammar descriptions which make no distinction between simple and compound forms. However, Sahlin's study paid relatively little attention to compound forms, while Tesch's focused almost entirely on the frequency distribution of uses across clause types rather than on differences of meaning between *some* and *any*. For this reason, further reference corpus research will need to be conducted to determine if the compound forms exhibit the same behaviour as the simple forms, alongside learner corpus research to determine whether any differential behaviour that is found is of relevance to learners of English. The research conducted could also compare the *some* and *any* compounds with other compounds such as *everyone*, *no one* etc.

7.4.2 Further Research into Specific Research Findings

In the course of this study, a number of aspects of the *some-any* distinction that were not contemplated in the original research questions revealed themselves as good candidates for future research.

The study of conditionals, questions, *before* clauses and conditional clauses revealed the application of the *Force Majeure* principle, whereby semantic meaning prevails over pragmatic in cases in which the two meaning types conflict. Further corpus research is needed to determine whether there are any exceptions to the application of this principle with *some* and *any*. Moreover, the *Force Majeure* principle is worth examining with other items in which semantic and pragmatic meaning can sometimes conflict to see if it is a general principle of communication.

Research is also required into the distribution of *some* and *any* across specific text types. The use of *some* in questions in order to persuade the reader or the interlocutor, which was briefly discussed in Section 5.5.2, will need to be further investigated to determine which text types it applies to. Another area that emerged during the research but was not discussed owing to lack of space is the strong preference for *any* over *some* in if conditionals in medical texts and legal texts: whereas *if any* is 2.69 times more frequent than *if some* in the corpus as a whole, it is over five[16] times more frequent in both medical texts and legal texts. One possible explanation for this is the need for exhaustivity. Exhaustivity is a common feature of medical advice as those giving it (doctors, health experts and pharmaceutical companies) need to cover every possible symptom and side effect: e.g. "Echinacea may not be helpful if you have any of the following conditions". Similarly, legal texts such as contracts need to consider every possible factor that may impinge upon the matters being discussed. Further research is needed to confirm the reasons for the bias towards *any* in medical and legal texts.

Although implicit negatives received close attention in my study, further research is required in order to create a more complete inventory of words that tend towards *any*. The investigation of the use of *any* in affirmative clauses showed that there are many more items that could be included in the list, both single word lexical items such as *difficult* and expressions such *as a long time since*. Future research will need first to uncover more items like this and then to check the distribution and uses of both *some* and *any* with these items. As noted in section 5.9.3, one promising area for future research is absence state predicates, as there may be more exemplars than the items listed in Jo and Lee's (2002) paper. In addition, the inconclusive results regarding the bias towards *any* with removal predicates suggests that more research is required in order to determine which of these show a preference for *any* and which do not. Finally, research can be undertaken to determine if the implicit negatives that show a strong preference for *any* over *some* show a similar preference for other negative polarity items over their positive polarity partner, e.g. for *yet* over *still*.

7.5 Implications of this Study for Pedagogically-Oriented Research into Other Areas

It is to be hoped that the approach to language analysis adopted in this thesis, that is, the investigation of pedagogical grammar descriptions through a mix of large-scale reference corpus research and learner corpus analysis, will also be applied to other areas of the English language which are highly complex, poorly described or both. Other areas in which such an approach might prove fruitful

[16] This was calculated using the same search terms that were used in the main *if some* and *if any* searches in searches inside the medical and legal subcorpora: in medical texts, there were 3068 raw examples of *if any* compared to 592 with *if some;* in legal texts there were 6476 raw examples of *if any* compared to 1231 with *if some.*

include gerunds and infinitives, the use of the unreal past tense outside conditional clauses, and various easily confused word pairs, including some other assertive-non-assertive pairs such as *already/yet*, and the connection between spatial/temporal and metaphorical uses of prepositions.

It is possible that future research may have methodological advantages over my own. Learner corpora may become much larger and thus be able to give a greater amount of information on rarer uses, and the size gap between spoken and written reference corpora may be substantially reduced, allowing the researcher to obtain much more information about spoken language than is currently possible. Combinations of introspective research methods with corpus research along the lines of work conducted by Gilquin and Shortall (2007) might provide deeper insights than is possible from corpus study alone into how both expert speakers and learners understand and use particular words, thus increasing the possibility of writing psycholinguistically accurate and maximally relevant pedagogical descriptions. With regard to research into native speaker language, reference corpora will continue to constitute a more reliable source of data than the Internet, unless web search tools substantially improve their capability to detect expert texts and enable a reliable selection of text types.

Future research into *some* and *any* and other areas of language could also examine how to translate corpus-based findings into classroom practice. Such research might consider, among other areas, how best to teach these areas to different groups of learners and in different learning environments, the learnability of different aspects of the new description of these areas, the suitability of different correction techniques for overcoming learners' difficulties, the development of new teaching materials, and the possible benefits of deploying communicative tasks as a means of raising learner awareness of these language areas and/or accelerating the proceduralization of declarative knowledge.

7.6 Concluding Comments

The findings of the corpus study carried out in this research project and the preliminary pedagogical grammar description that has been derived from these findings are intended as an important step towards the creation of a new approach to *some* and *any*. It is hoped that this thesis will convince some teachers, materials writers and publishers of the need to rethink their approach to *some* and *any* and that at least some of the descriptions offered in this thesis will gradually filter down into the classroom via journal articles, TEFL conference papers and teacher training workshops. The main message that I would like to be drawn from this thesis is that complex and hard to learn language is best acquired by embracing its complexity and making it manageable for learners. There is no room in language description for excessive oversimplification of the type currently provided for *some* and *any*.

References

The references are divided into three parts:

1) Main References: References to all books outside the grammar review in Chapter Three

2) Grammar Books: An alphabetic list of the grammar books reviewed in Chapter Three

3) Websites: A list of the websites referred to in the thesis.

Please note: grammar books from Unit 3 that are referred to in other chapters have also been included in the main references.

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Appendix

List of Main Searches Including Search Filters

Note: Although the search terms are already provided in Section 4.5.3, they are repeated here so that the reader can examine the queries and the filters together.

RQ 1: *Some* in Object position in Negative Clauses

Query

[lemma="be"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] |[lemma="have"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [lemma="do"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="will"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="would"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="can"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="could"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="shall"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="should"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="might"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="may"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="need"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="must"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] | [word="ought"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] |
[word="isn't|aren't|wasn't|weren't|hasn't|haven't|hadn't|didn't|doesn't|don't|
won't|wouldn't|can't|couldn't|shan't| shouldn't|mightn't|mayn't|needn't|mustn't|oughtn't"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"] within <s/>

Filters

Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [word = "\,|\;|-|\(|\)|\:"]

Negative filter -1 -1 1 [lc="why" | lemma_lc="why"]

Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="only" | lemma_lc="only"]

Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="just" | lemma_lc="just"]

RQ 1: *Any* in Object Position in Negative Clauses (To Compare Frequency of *Any* and *Some* in this Position in Negative Clauses)

Query

[lemma="be"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] |[lemma="have"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [lemma="do"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="will"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="would"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="can"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="could"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="shall"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="should"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="might"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="may"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="need"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="must"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] | [word="ought"] [word = "not"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] |
[word="isn't|aren't|wasn't|weren't|hasn't|haven't|hadn't|didn't|doesn't|don't|

won't|wouldn't|can't|couldn't|shan't| shouldn't|mightn't|mayn't|needn't|mustn't|oughtn't"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"] within <s/>

Filters

filter [word = "\,|\;|-|\(|\)|\:"] (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)

filter why (not, -1..-1)

filter [tag="PJJR"] [word="\."] (not, 0..2,+KWIC)

RQ 2 Searches Used to Compare the Distribution of *Some* and *Any* with Different Types of Implicit Negatives

Queries

The queries are explained below for each type or group of implicit negatives examined. With the exception of before clauses, no filters were used, as they were not necessary owing to the precision of the search terms used.

Implicit negative adjectives
-*Unaware* and *incapable* are examined via the string **unaware/incapable + of + some/any**, with no intervening spaces.

- *Impossible*, *unlikely*, *unable*, *reluctant*, *unwilling* and *illegal* are examined via the string **impossible/unlikely etc + to + verb + some/any**, with no intervening spaces.

Implicit negative verbs
-*Deny*, *avoid*, *forbid*, *prevent*, *prohibit* and *ignore* are examined via the string **deny/avoid etc +some/any** with no intervening spaces.

-*Forget*, *refuse* and *fail* are examined via the string **forget/refuse (etc) +to + verb + *some/any*** with no intervening spaces.

- *Doubt* is examined via the string **doubt & tag=V.* +that +some/any** with no intervening spaces.

Before and *Without*

. *Without* is examined via the string **without + some/any** with no intervening spaces.

. *Before* clauses are examined using the following search terms and the negative filters specified:

Query for *before any*
[lemma="before"] [] {0,2} [tag="SPP|N.*"] [] {0,2} [tag="V.*"] [] {0,2} [word="any"] within <s/>
Filters

Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [word = "\,|\;|&|-|\(|\)|\:|\/|that|because|so|which|without|if|when|and|but|as|Christmas|break"]
Negative filter 0 2 1 [lc="date" | lemma_lc="date"]

Query for *before some*

[lemma="before" & tag="SC"] [] {0,2} [tag="SPP|N.*"] [] {0,2} [tag="V.*"] [] {0,2} [word="some"] within <s/>

Filters

Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [word = "\,|\;|&|-|\(|\)|\:|\/|that|because|so|which|who|if|when|while|as|although|Christmas|break"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="before" | lemma_lc="before"][lc="long" | lemma_lc="long"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="before" | lemma_lc="before"][lc="too" | lemma_lc="too"][lc="long" | lemma_lc="long"]
Negative filter 2 2 1 [word="months|years|weeks|days|date"]
Negative filter 1 1 1 [lc="time" | lemma_lc="time"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [word="and|but"]

Removal Predicates and Absence State Predicates
The searches for all removal predicates and absence state predicates were conducted with no intervening words between the predicate and *some/any*.

RQ 3 The use of *any* in *if* clauses

Query

[lemma="if"] [] {0,6} [word="any"] within <s/>

Filters

Negative filter:-1 0 1 [lemma="inquire|establish|see|confirm|check|consider|hear|decide|know|aware|sure|unsure|explain|wonder|remember|ascertain|discover|determine|learn|discern|doubt|doubtful|clear|unclear|tell|ask|as"] within <s/>

RQ 3 The use of *some* in *if* clauses

Query

[lemma="if"] [] {0,6} [word="some"] within <s/>

Filters

Negative filter:-1 0 1 [lemma="inquire|establish|see|confirm|check|consider|hear|decide|know|aware|sure|unsure|explain|wonder|remember|ascertain|discover|determine|learn|discern|doubt|doubtful|clear|unclear|tell|ask|as"] within <s/>

Negative filter:kwic kwic 1 [word="\,"],

Negative filter:kwic kwic 1 [lc="if" | lemma_lc="if"][lc="only" | lemma_lc="only"]

RQ 3 The use of *any* in *unless* clauses

Query

[lemma="unless"] [ ] {0,5} [tag="V.*"] [] {0,3} [word="any"] within <s/>

Filters

Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [word="\,"] [word="any"]

Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [word=";|:|.|-"]

Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [word="\)"] [word="and|but|with"]

RQ 3 The use of *some* in *unless* clauses

Query

[lemma="unless"] [ ] {0,5} [tag="V.*"] [] {0,3} [word="some"] within <s/>

Filters
Negative filter:kwic kwic 1 [word="\,"] [word="some"]

RQ 4 The Use of *Any* in Affirmative Yes-No Questions

Query

[lemma="be|have|do|will|would|can|could|shall| should|might|may|need|must|ought"] [tag="SPP"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="any"]

Filters

Negative filter why
Negative filter who
Negative filter what
Negative filter where
Negative filter when
Negative filter how
Negative filter how
Negative filter nor
Negative filter neither
Negative filter chances
Negative filter rarely
Negative filter wouldn't
Negative filter what, N.*
Negative filter don't
Negative filter not
Negative filter no, N.*
Negative filter thing, is
Negative filter thing, was
Negative filter only

Negative filter neither, N.*
Negative filter only, in
Negative filter part, is
Negative filter can't
Negative filter nowhere
Negative filter not, once
Negative filter were, she
Negative filter were, he
Negative filter were, it
Negative filter trouble, is
Negative filter never

RQ 4 The Use of *Some* in Affirmative Yes-No Questions

Query

[lemma="be|have|do|will|would|can|could|shall| should|might|may|need|must|ought"] [tag="SPP"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [word="some"]

Filters

Negative filter -1 -1 1 [lc="how" | lemma_lc="how"]
Negative filter -1 -1 1 [lc="nor" | lemma_lc="nor"]
Negative filter -1 -1 1 [lc="when" | lemma_lc="when"]
Negative filter -1 -1 1 [lc="where" | lemma_lc="where"]
Negative filter -1 -1 1 [lc="what" | lemma_lc="what"]
Negative filter -3 -1 1 [lc="how" | lemma_lc="how"][lc="much" | lemma_lc="much"]
Negative filter -3 -1 1 [lc="how" | lemma_lc="how"][lc="many" | lemma_lc="many"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="don't" | lemma_lc="don't"][lc="you" | lemma_lc="you"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="don't" | lemma_lc="don't"][lc="we" | lemma_lc="we"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="don't" | lemma_lc="don't"][lc="I" | lemma_lc="I"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="don't" | lemma_lc="don't"][lc="they" | lemma_lc="they"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="doesn't" | lemma_lc="doesn't"][lc="he" | lemma_lc="he"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="doesn't" | lemma_lc="doesn't"][lc="she" | lemma_lc="she"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="doesn't" | lemma_lc="doesn't"][lc="it" | lemma_lc="it"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="can't" | lemma_lc="can't"][lc="we" | lemma_lc="we"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="couldn't" | lemma_lc="couldn't"][lc="we" | lemma_lc="we"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="can't" | lemma_lc="can't"][lc="I" | lemma_lc="I"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="aren't" | lemma_lc="aren't"][lc="you" | lemma_lc="you"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="aren't" | lemma_lc="aren't"][lc="we" | lemma_lc="we"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="couldn't" | lemma_lc="couldn't"][lc="you" | lemma_lc="you"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="couldn't" | lemma_lc="couldn't"][lc="they" | lemma_lc="they"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="wouldn't" | lemma_lc="wouldn't"][lc="you" | lemma_lc="you"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="won't" | lemma_lc="won't"][lc="we" | lemma_lc="we"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [tag="SPP"] [word="not"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="didn't" | lemma_lc="didn't"][lc="I" | lemma_lc="I"]
Negative filter -1 -1 1 [lc="why" | lemma_lc="why"]

Negative filter -2 -1 1 [lc="not" | lemma_lc="not"][lc="only" | lemma_lc="only"]
Negative filter (excluding KWIC) -1 0 1 [lc="who" | lemma_lc="who"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="who" | lemma_lc="who"]
Negative filter -1 -1 1 [lc="which" | lemma_lc="which"]
Negative filter -1 -1 1 [lc="chances" | lemma_lc="chances"]
Negative filter -1 -1 1 [lc="truth" | lemma_lc="truth"]
Negative filter -1 -1 1 [lc="problem" | lemma_lc="problem"]
Negative filter -2 -1 1 [lc="only" | lemma_lc="only"][lc="now" | lemma_lc="now"]
Negative filter -2 -1 1 [lc="only" | lemma_lc="only"][lc="then" | lemma_lc="then"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="not" | lemma_lc="not"]
Negative filter -2 -1 1 [lc="no" | lemma_lc="no"][lc="sooner" | lemma_lc="sooner"]
Negative filter -2 -1 1 [lc="no" | lemma_lc="no"][lc="longer" | lemma_lc="longer"]
Negative filter -2 -1 1 [lc="no" | lemma_lc="no"][lc="way" | lemma_lc="way"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="had" | lemma_lc="had"][lc="they" | lemma_lc="they"]
Negative filter -1 -1 1 [lc="neither" | lemma_lc="neither"]
Negative filter -5 -1 1 [lc="only" | lemma_lc="only"][lc="in" | lemma_lc="in"]
Negative filter -3 -1 1 [word="man"] [word="\,"]
Negative filter -1 -1 1 [lc="man" | lemma_lc="man"]
Negative filter -3 -1 1 [lc="boy" | lemma_lc="boy"]
Negative filter -1 -1 1 [word="hell|earth|exactly|heck|else"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="won't" | lemma_lc="won't"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="wouldn't" | lemma_lc="wouldn't"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [word="\."]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="didn't" | lemma_lc="didn't"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [word="\?"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="is" | lemma_lc="is"][lc="we" | lemma_lc="we"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="is" | lemma_lc="is"][lc="they" | lemma_lc="they"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="is" | lemma_lc="is"][lc="you" | lemma_lc="you"]
Negative filter -12 0 1 [lc="only" | lemma_lc="only"][lc="by" | lemma_lc="by"]
Negative filter -1 kwic 1 [lc="does" | lemma_lc="does"][lc="is" | lemma_lc="is"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [word="is|has|been"] [word="I|you|we|they"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [word="was"] [word="you|we|they"] 2.07
Negative filter -1 kwic 1 [lc="it" | lemma_lc="it"][lc="is" | lemma_lc="is"]
Negative filter -2 -1 1 [lc="if" | lemma_lc="if"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [word="have"] [word="it"]
Negative filter 1 5 1 [word="you"] [word="\!"]
Negative filter -2 kwic 1 [lc="in" | lemma_lc="in"][lc="so" | lemma_lc="so"][lc="doing" | lemma_lc="doing"]
Negative filter -14 10 1 [lc="only" | lemma_lc="only"][lc="when" | lemma_lc="when"]
Negative filter -2 0 1 [lc="how" | lemma_lc="how"][lc="often" | lemma_lc="often"]
Negative filter -2 -1 1 [lc="how" | lemma_lc="how"][lc="far" | lemma_lc="far"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [lc="can't" | lemma_lc="can't"][lc="you" | lemma_lc="you"]
Negative filter -2 -1 1 [lc="will" | lemma_lc="will"][lc="be" | lemma_lc="be"] 4,945
Negative filter -2 kwic 1 [lc="when" | lemma_lc="when"][lc="he" | lemma_lc="he"][lc="does" | lemma_lc="does"]
Negative filter kwic kwic 1 [word="is"] [word="it"] [tag="VB[PZ].*"]

RQ 4 The Use of *Any* in Negative Yes-No Questions

Two separate queries were employed, one for lower case negative auxiliary verbs, the other for upper case.

1) Lower Case Search

Query

[word="isn't|aren't|wasn't|weren't|hasn't|haven't|hadn't|didn't|doesn't|don't|
won't|wouldn't|can't|couldn't|shan't|shouldn't|mightn't|mayn't|needn't|mustn't|oughtn't"] [tag="SPP"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [] {0,2} [word="any"]

Filters

Negative filter:-3 0 1 [word="Why|why|If|if"]

, Negative filter:0 8 1 [word = "\!"]

, Negative filter:0 0 1 [word = "\?"]

, Negative filter:0 0 1 [lc="dare" | lemma_lc="dare"]

2) Upper Case Search

Query

[word="Isn't|Aren't|Wasn't|Weren't|Hasn't|Haven't|Hadn't|Didn't|Doesn't|Don't|
Won't|Wouldn't|Can't|Couldn't|Shan't|Shouldn't|Mightn't|Mayn't|Needn't|Mustn't|Oughtn't"] [tag="SPP"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [] {0,2} [word="some"]

Filters

Negative filter:0 8 1 [word = "\!"]

Negative filter:0 0 1 [word = "\?"]

Negative filter:0 0 1 [lc="dare" | lemma_lc="dare"]

RQ 4 The Use of *Some* in Negative Yes-No Questions

Two separate queries were employed, one for lower case negative auxiliary verbs, the other for upper case.

Lower Case Search

Query

[word="isn't|aren't|wasn't|weren't|hasn't|haven't|hadn't|didn't|doesn't|don't|
won't|wouldn't|can't|couldn't|shan't|shouldn't|mightn't|mayn't|needn't|mustn't|oughtn't"] [tag="SPP"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [] {0,2} [word="some"]

Filters

Negative filter:-3 0 1 [word="Why|why|If|if"]

Negative filter:0 0 1 [word = "\?"]

Upper Case Search

Query

[word="Isn't|Aren't|Wasn't|Weren't|Hasn't|Haven't|Hadn't|Didn't|Doesn't|Don't|
Won't|Wouldn't|Can't|Couldn't|Shan't|Shouldn't|Mightn't|Mayn't|Needn't|Mustn't|Oughtn't"] [tag="SPP"] [] {0,2} [tag="VB.*"] [] {0,2} [word="some"]

Filters

Negative filter:0 0 1 [word = "\?"]

RQ 4 Use of Any in Affirmative Wh Questions

Query

tc [lemma="why|who|what|where|when|how"]
[lemma="be|have|do|will|would|can|could|shall|should|might|may|need|must|ought "] [] {0,8}
[word="any"] [] {0,10} [word = "\?"] within <s/>

Filters

Negative filter 0 0 1
[word="isn't|aren't|wasn't|weren't|hasn't|haven't|hadn't|didn't|doesn't|don't|won't|wouldn't|can't|couldn't|shan't|shouldn't|mightn't|mayn't|needn't|mustn't|oughtn't"]

Negative filter 0 0 1 [lc="not" | lemma_lc="not"]

Negative filter 0 0 1 [lc="never" | lemma_lc="never"][lc="any" | lemma_lc="any"]

Negative filter 0 0 1 [lc="hardly" | lemma_lc="hardly"][lc="any" | lemma_lc="any"]

Negative filter 0 0 1 [lc="when" | lemma_lc="when"][lc="any" | lemma_lc="any"]

Negative filter 0 0 1 [lc="if" | lemma_lc="if"][lc="any" | lemma_lc="any"]

Negative filter 0 0 1 [word="\,"] [word="any"]

Negative filter 0 0 1 [lc="without" | lemma_lc="without"][lc="any" | lemma_lc="any"]

Negative filter 0 0 1 [lc="any" | lemma_lc="any"][lc="one" | lemma_lc="one"]

Negative filter 0 0 1 [lc="no" | lemma_lc="no"]

RQ 4 Use of *Some* in Affirmative Wh Questions

Query

tc [lemma="why|who|what|where|when|how"]
[lemma="be|have|do|will|would|can|could|shall|should|might|may|need|must|ought "] [] {0,8}
[word="some"] [] {0,10} [word = "\?"] within <s/>

Filters

Negative filter 0 0 1 [lc="some" | lemma_lc="some"][lc="one" | lemma_lc="one"]

Negative filter 0 0 1
[word="isn't|aren't|wasn't|weren't|hasn't|haven't|hadn't|didn't|doesn't|don't|won't|wouldn't|can't|couldn't|shan't|shouldn't|mightn't|mayn't|needn't|mustn't|oughtn't"]

RQ 4 Use of *Some* in Negative Wh Questions

Query

[lemma="why|who|what|where|when|how"]
[word="isn't|aren't|wasn't|weren't|hasn't|haven't|hadn't|didn't|doesn't|don't|won't|wouldn't|can't|couldn't|shan't|shouldn't|mightn't|mayn't|needn't|mustn't|oughtn't"] [] {0,8} [word="some"] [] {0,25} [word = "\?"] within <s/>

Filters

Negative filter -3 0 1 [lc="anyone" | lemma_lc="anyone"]

RQ 4 Use of *Any* in Negative Wh Questions

Query

[lemma="why|who|what|where|when|how"]
[word="isn't|aren't|wasn't|weren't|hasn't|haven't|hadn't|didn't|doesn't|don't|won't|wouldn't|can't|couldn't|shan't|shouldn't|mightn't|mayn't|needn't|mustn't|oughtn't"] [] {0,8} [word="any"] [] {0,25} [word = "\?"] within <s/>

Filters
No filters were employed to ensure maximum recall

RQ 5 Use of *Any* in Affirmative Clauses

Query
[lc="any" | lemma_lc="any"]

Filters

Negative filter-12 0 1 [word="not|isn't|aren't|wasn't|weren't|hasn't|haven't|hadn't|didn't|doesn't|don't|won't|wouldn't|can't|couldn't|shan't|
shouldn't|mightn't|mayn't|needn't|oughtn't|cannot|without|nobody|never|nowhere|no|none|neither|nothing|rarely|scarcely|barely|hardly|nor|before|too|few|little"]

Negative filter-12 0 1 [lc="no" | lemma_lc="no"][lc="one" | lemma_lc="one"]

Negative filter 0 7 1 [word = "\?"]

Negative filter-12 0 1 [lc="if" | lemma_lc="if"]

Negative filter-12 0 1 [lc="unless" | lemma_lc="unless"]

Negative filter-12 0 1 [lc="as" | lemma_lc="as"][lc="long" | lemma_lc="long"][lc="as" | lemma_lc="as"]

Negative filter-12 0 1 [lc="supposing" | lemma_lc="supposing"]

Negative filter-12 0 1 [lc="provided" | lemma_lc="provided"][lc="that" | lemma_lc="that"]

Negative filter-12 0 1 [lc="providing" | lemma_lc="providing"][lc="that" | lemma_lc="that"]

Negative filter-12 0 1 [lc="on" | lemma_lc="on"][lc="condition" | lemma_lc="condition"][lc="that" | lemma_lc="that"]

Negative filter-6 0 1 [lc="whether" | lemma_lc="whether"]

Negative filter-5 0 1 [lc="yet" | lemma_lc="yet"][lc="to" | lemma_lc="to"]

Negative filter-5 0 1 [lc="without" | lemma_lc="without"]

RQ 5 Use of *Any in Veridical There Be Clauses*

Query

[lc="there" | lemma_lc="there"][lc="be" | lemma_lc="be"][lc="any" | lemma_lc="any"],

Filters

Negative filter:kwic kwic 1 [lc="there" | lemma_lc="there"][lc="wasn't" | lemma_lc="wasn't"]
Negative filter:kwic kwic 1 [lc="there" | lemma_lc="there"][lc="isn't" | lemma_lc="isn't"]
Negative filter:kwic kwic 1 [lc="there" | lemma_lc="there"][lc="aren't" | lemma_lc="aren't"][lc="any" | lemma_lc="any"]
Negative filter:kwic kwic 1 [lc="there" | lemma_lc="there"][lc="weren't" | lemma_lc="weren't"][lc="any" | lemma_lc="any"]
Negative filter:-2 -2 1 [lc="how" | lemma_lc="how"][lc="can" | lemma_lc="can"], Negative filter:-1 -1 1 [lc="if" | lemma_lc="if"]
Negative filter:-1 -1 1 [lc="whether" | lemma_lc="whether"]
Negative filter:-2 -2 1 [lc="not" | lemma_lc="not"][lc="that" | lemma_lc="that"], Negative filter:-2 -2 1 [lc="nor" | lemma_lc="nor"], Negative filter:-5 -5 1 [lc="not" | lemma_lc="not"]
Negative filter:-1 -1 1 [lc="should" | lemma_lc="should"]
Negative filter:-3 -3 1 [lc="no" | lemma_lc="no"][lc="idea" | lemma_lc="idea"], Negative filter:-2 -2 1 [lc="don't" | lemma_lc="don't"], Negative filter:-3 0 1 [lc="does" | lemma_lc="does"][lc="not" | lemma_lc="not"][lc="believe" | lemma_lc="believe"] Negative filter:-3 -3 1 [lc="do" | lemma_lc="do"][lc="you" | lemma_lc="you"]
Negative filter:-1 -1 1 [lc="will" | lemma_lc="will"]
Negative filter:-1 -1 1 [lc="lest" | lemma_lc="lest"]
Negative filter:-1 -1 1 [lc="has" | lemma_lc="has"]
Negative filter:-2 -2 1 [lc="not" | lemma_lc="not"][lc="because" | lemma_lc="because"]
Negative filter:-3 3 1 [lc="do" | lemma_lc="do"][lc="not" | lemma_lc="not"][lc="think" | lemma_lc="think"
Negative filter:-3 -3 1 [lc="not" | lemma_lc="not"][lc="know" | lemma_lc="know"]
Negative filter:-3 -3 1 [lc="don't" | lemma_lc="don't"][lc="know" | lemma_lc="know"][lc="that" | lemma_lc="that"]
Negative filter:-3 -3 1 [lc="if" | lemma_lc="if"][lc="in" | lemma_lc="in"][lc="fact" | lemma_lc="fact"]
Negative filter:-1 -1 1 [lc="can" | lemma_lc="can"]
Negative filter:-2 -2 1 [lc="not" | lemma_lc="not"][lc="feel" | lemma_lc="feel"]
Negative filter:-3 3 1 [lc="don't" | lemma_lc="don't"][lc="feel" | lemma_lc="feel"] Negative filter:-3 3 1 [lc="don't" | lemma_lc="don't"][lc="think" | lemma_lc="think"]
Negative filter:-5 0 1 [lc="do" | lemma_lc="do"][lc="you" | lemma_lc="you"][lc="feel" | lemma_lc="feel"]

Negative filter:-4 kwic 1 [lc="have" | lemma_lc="have"][lc="you" | lemma_lc="you"], Negative filter:-1 -1 1 [lc="could" | lemma_lc="could"]
Negative filter:-1 -1 1 [lc="might" | lemma_lc="might"]
Negative filter:-3 3 1 [lc="don't" | lemma_lc="don't"][lc="see" | lemma_lc="see"], Negative filter:-5 kwic 1 [word="no"] [] {0,3} [word="that|of|to|for|where"]
Negative filter:-4 kwic 1
[word="doesn't|don't|didn't|won't|hasn't|haven't|shouldnâ€™t|wouldnâ€™t|cannot|not|neither|never|Why"] [] {0,3} [word="there"]
Negative filter:-1 -1 1 [word="may|shall|might|should|would|case|can|have|had|earth|providing|provided"],
Negative filter:-4 -1 1 [lc="to" | lemma_lc="to"][lc="the" | lemma_lc="the"][lc="extent" | lemma_lc="extent"][lc="that" | lemma_lc="that"] Negative filter:-6 0 1 [word="if|If"]
Negative filter:-2 -1 1 [word="far|insofar|long|much"] [word="as"], Negative filter:-5 kwic 1 [lc="doesn't" | lemma_lc="doesn't"][lc="seem" | lemma_lc="seem"], Negative filter:-5 kwic 1 [word="don't|doesn't|didn't|can't|won't"] [word="mean"]
Negative filter:-8 0 1 [word="Not|Neither|Never|Nor|Never"]
Negative filter:-8 0 1 [lc="no" | lemma_lc="no"][lc="one" | lemma_lc="one"]
Negative filter:-3 -3 1 [lc="can't" | lemma_lc="can't"]

RQ 5 Use of Any in Veridical Episodic Past Simple Clauses

Queries
Two searches were employed:

1) For a Past Tense Verb Followed Immediately by *Any*

Query
[tag="VBD_T"] [word="any"]

Filters
if (not, -8..10,+KWIC)
whether (not, -8..0,+KWIC)
[lemma="none|never|no|neither|nobody|not|nor|doesn't"] (not, -8..0,+KWIC)
have you (not, -3..-1)
anyone (not, -1..-1)
hardly (not, -3..-1)
deny (not, -5..kwic,+KWIC)
any (not, -4..-1) 24,546- than (not, -2..-1)
had any (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
only (not, -5..-1)
first time (not, -5..-1)
before (not, -5..-1)
got any (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
opposed (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
eliminated (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
removed (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
avoided (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
stopped (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
prevented (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
abandoned (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)

lacked (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
precluded (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
excluded (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
refused (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
omitted (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
eradicated (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
dissolved (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
disclaimed (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
hindered (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
defied (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
ignored (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
dismissed (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
negated (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
undermined (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
dispelled (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
evaded (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
lost (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
detested (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
dashed (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
hated (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
disliked (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
disregarded (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
forbade (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
banned (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
prohibited (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
resisted (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
eschewed (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)
repudiated (not, kwic..kwic,+KWIC)

2) For a Past Tense Prepositional Verb Followed Immediately by *Any*

Query

[tag="VBD.*"][tag="PREP"] [word="any"]

Filters

Negative filter
-8 0 1 [lc="if" | lemma_lc="if"]
Negative filter
-8 0 1 [lc="whether" | lemma_lc="whether"]
Negative filter
-8 0 1 [lc="\[lemma=\"none" | lemma_lc="\[lemma=\"none"] | [lc="never" | lemma_lc="never"] | [lc="no" | lemma_lc="no"] | [lc="neither" | lemma_lc="neither"] | [lc="nobody" | lemma_lc="nobody"] | [lc="not" | lemma_lc="not"] | [lc="nor" | lemma_lc="nor"] | [lc="doesn't\"\]" | lemma_lc="doesn't\"\]"]
Negative filter
kwic kwic 1 [lc="without" | lemma_lc="without"]
Negative filter
kwic kwic 1 [lc="beyond" | lemma_lc="beyond"]
Negative filter
kwic kwic 1 [lc="during" | lemma_lc="during"]

Negative filter
kwic kwic 1 [lc="like" | lemma_lc="like"]
Negative filter
kwic kwic 1 [lc="against" | lemma_lc="against"]
Negative filter
kwic kwic 1 [lc="in" | lemma_lc="in"]
Negative filter
-5 kwic 1 [lc="don't" | lemma_lc="don't"]
Negative filter
-3 kwic 1 [lc="have" | lemma_lc="have"][lc="you" | lemma_lc="you"]
Negative filter
kwic kwic 1 [lc="before" | lemma_lc="before"]
Negative filter
kwic kwic 1 [lc="than" | lemma_lc="than"]
Negative filter
-5 kwic 1 [lc="none" | lemma_lc="none"]
Negative filter
-1 -1 1 [lc="ever" | lemma_lc="ever"]

RQ Use of Any in Veridical Present Continuous Clauses

Two searches were conducted:

1) For a Transitive Present Continuous Verb Followed Immediately by *Any*

Query
tc [word="am|is|are"] [tag="VBG_T"] [word="any"]

Filters

Negative filter -10 0 1 [lc="no" | lemma_lc="no"][lc="one" | lemma_lc="one"]

Negative filter -10 0 1 [lc="nobody" | lemma_lc="nobody"]

Negative filter
-8 0 1 [word="isn't|aren't|wasn't|weren't|hasn't|haven't|hadn't|didn't|doesn't|don't|
won't|wouldn't|can't|couldn't|shan't| shouldn't|mightn't|mayn't|needn't|mustn't|oughtn't"]

Negative filter -8 0 1 [lc="cannot" | lemma_lc="cannot"]

Negative filter -8 0 1 [lc="if" | lemma_lc="if"]

Negative filter -8 0 1 [lc="none" | lemma_lc="none"]

Negative filter -10 0 1 [lc="no" | lemma_lc="no"]

Negative filter -10 0 1 [lc="not" | lemma_lc="not"]

Negative filter -10 0 1 [lc="nor" | lemma_lc="nor"]

Negative filter -14 0 1 [lc="neither" | lemma_lc="neither"]

Negative filter -9 0 1 [lc="do" | lemma_lc="do"][lc="you" | lemma_lc="you"]

Negative filter -10 0 1 [lc="whether" | lemma_lc="whether"]

Negative filter 0 1 1
[word="lacking|avoiding|precluding|missing|escaping|erasing|killing|blocking|preventing|stalling|denying"]

Negative filter -4 0 1 [lc="difficult" | lemma_lc="difficult"]

Negative filter
[word="downplaying|resisting|ducking|disregarding|removing|destroying|rejecting|refusing|ignoring"]

Negative filter -10 0 1 [lc="hard" | lemma_lc="hard"][lc="to" | lemma_lc="to"]

Negative filter -10 0 1 [lc="unless" | lemma_lc="unless"]

Negative filter -6 0 1 [lc="when" | lemma_lc="when"]

Negative filter -7 0 1 [lc="only" | lemma_lc="only"]

2) For a Present Continuous Prepositional Verb Followed Immediately by *Any*

Query
[tag="VBG.*"][tag="PREP"] [word="any"]

Filters

The same negative filters were employed as for past tense prepositional verbs.