# The Semantics of amu N-to/-ilato/-ina in Korean: Arbitrary Choice and Concession

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C. Lee, D. Chung, and S. Nam. 2000. The Semantics of amu N-to/-ilato/ina in Korean: Arbitrary Choice and Concession. Language and Information 4.2, 107-123. This paper reports the syntactic distribution of amu-N-to/-ilato/-ina phrases, which are representative polarity sensitive items (PSIs) in Korean, and accounts for their semantic characteristics in terms of "arbitrary choice quantification" and "concession." In the first section, we extensively illustrate the distributional behaviour of the PSIs in various constructions and roughly generalize the distribution in terms of "(anti/non-) verdicality." Section 2 claims amu denotes an arbitrary choice quantifier, and the particles -to/-ilato/-ina as "concessive" markers, so the compounds denote a special element in a pragmatic scale determined by context/situation. Section 3, based on the pragmatics of scalar implicature, accounts for the apparent ambiguity of PSIs between "universal" and "existential" readings, and further characterizes the difference among the concessive markers -to/-ilato/-ina in terms of "quantity/quality scale."

### 1. Distributions of "amu N" Phrases

This section illustrates the distribution of Korean PSIs amu-to/-ilato/-ina with various constructions which reveal their semantic characteristics. The following table is the summary of the distribution, the relevant data of which are illustrated in the APPENDIX at the end of this paper.

There should be exceptional cases which do not conform to the judgements of the table, and some of the constructions must be examined in more detailed sub-classes. The above table, however, gives general distributional tendencies of the PSI's. Let us first note some peculiarities of the table. First of all, amu N-ina is not always natural in affirmative sentences but it sounds natural when the whole sentence induces an implicit modal meaning. amu N-ina is shown to be unacceptable in negative sentences, but it is fine only when the negation carries a "denial" illocutionary force - a sort of metalinguistic negation (cf. (2b) in Appendix). Question marks "?" indicate that the combination does not always sound good due to the context/situation.

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	amu-N-to	amu-N-ilato	amu-N-ina
1. Affirmative S	*	*	$\checkmark$
2. Universal/Generic Quantifier	*	$\checkmark$	$\sqrt{}$
3. Habiuals	*		?
4. Comparatives	*	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$
5. Modals	*	$\sqrt{}$	
6. Imperatives	*	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$
7. Future tense	*	$\checkmark$	$\checkmark$
8. Generics	*		$\checkmark$
9. kikkeshayya 'at most'	*	$\checkmark$	*
10. Rhetorical Q	*	$\sqrt{}$	$\checkmark$
11. Questions	*	$\sqrt{}$	?
12. Conditionals	*	$\checkmark$	?
13. Negative Predicates	(?)	$\checkmark$	?
14. before-clauses	$\vee$	*	*
15. eps-/molu-'not-exist/know'	$\vee$	*	*
16. Negative S	$\checkmark$	*	*

Table 1

The distribution of amu-N-to/-ilato/-ina

Now in order to give a semantic generalization of the distribution in Table 1, we introduce the notion of "veridicality" (Zwarts, 1995), which characterizes the truth-functional meanings of operators and logical connectives. The notions related to "veridicality" are defined as follows:<sup>1</sup>

- (1) Definition: Let O be a monadic propositional operator. The following statements hold:
  - a. O is veridical just in case  $O(p) \rightarrow p$  is logically valid. Otherwise, O is nonveridical.
  - b. A nonveridical operator O is antiveridical just in case  $O(p) \rightarrow \neg p$  is logically valid.
- (2) Definition-2: Let C be a dyadic truth-functional connective. The following statements hold.
  - a. C is veridical with respect to p[q] just in case  $pCq \rightarrow p[pCq \rightarrow q]$  is logically valid. Otherwise C is nonveridical with respect to p[q].
  - b. A nonveridical connective C is antiveridical with respect to p[q] just in case  $pCq \rightarrow \neg p[pCq \rightarrow \neg q]$  is logically valid.

Based on the definitions, Giannakidou (1998, Chapter 3) gives an account of the distribution of Greek PSIs as the following:

(3) a. Negative polarity items are licensed by antiveridical operators/connectives.

<sup>1.</sup> The defintion-2 of (1) applies to the sentential connectives if and before, which are illustrated in (11) and (13) of Table 1 and Appendix. Definition-1 applies to all the other contexts in Table 1.

- b. Affective polarity items are licensed by nonveridical operators/connectives.
- c. Free choice items are licensed by non-episodic operators/connectives.

Now we can also build up a rough semantic generalization of Table 1 of Korean PSIs. That is, we can characterize the licensing condition of amu N-to/-ilato/-ina in terms of "(non/anti-)veridicality" as shown in the following table:

	amu N-to	amu N-ilato	amu N-ina
1. Veridical contexts:			
(1) in Table 1	*	*	$\checkmark$
2. Nonveridical (but			
anti-veridical) context:			·
(2-13) in Table 1	*		$\checkmark$
3. Antiveridical context:			
(14-16) in Table 1	$\vee$	*	*

Table 2
Veridicality and PSIs in Korean

We should point out that there are a few apparent exceptions to the above generalization: First of all, as shown in Table 1, amu N-to is allowed in before-clauses, which are not exactly antiveridical but more negative than conditionals or comparatives (Nam, 1997). We also have not accounted for the difference between amu-lato and amu-na, but section 3 will give an answer to this difference. Finally but very importantly, we note that the near-complementary distribution of amu-N-to and amu-N-ilato/-na, which will be discussed in the subsequent sections. This distributional property reveals that the two forms should be very similar in meaning, and that their distribution is conditioned by the particles -to/-ilato/-ina. Their distribution also raises a big conceptual problem against previous semantic proposals on the licensing conditions of negative polarity items (Zwarts, 1990; Zwarts, 1993; Nam, 1994; Giannakidou, 1998). That is, amu N-ilato is an NPI and is licensed by non-veridical contexts, but, contrary to their claims, it is not licensed by more negative antiveridical contexts. We will suggest that amu N-to and amu N-ilato are alloforms which carry the same truth-conditional meaning.

# 2. The Semantics of amu-N Phrases

Yang (1972, 114) has noted in passing that the so-called "indefinite pronominal" amu-N phrases correspond to English wh-ever forms, e.g., whoever, whatever, etc. And he analyses the particle -to as ambiguous between 'even' and 'also' in English, and -ilato as meaning '(even) as the last recourse,' and -ina as 'rather as the second choice.' Yang's analysis reveals intuitive semantic differences among amu-N-to/-ilato/-ina phrases, but here we propose a unified semantics of the phrases in terms of "arbitrary choice" and "concession." Section 2.1 interprets amu-N as denoting an "arbitrary choice function," which has a kind of quantificational force, and section 2.2 analyses the particles -to/-ilato/-ina as sharing a concessive meaning. So the particles require a pragmatic likelihood scale to denote the least likely element in the scale.

Before-clauses are anti-veridical in the sense that the embedded proposition under before is not true at the point of time when the subsequent event takes place. For example, in the following sentence (i), 'Mary arrived' is not true at the point when John left the party.

 (i) John left the party before Mary arrived.

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### 2.1 Arbitrary Choice Function

The morpheme *amu* in Korean carries a quantificational force of "arbitrary choice," which roughly denotes 'no matter what object x it may be.' That is, given a domain of discourse D, *amu* chooses an arbitrary object in D, so to denote a kind of choice function. This quantificational force of "arbitrary choice" is similar to that of 'indefinite' existentials in denoting an object in a given domain, but we note several characteristics which distinguish the two quantifications.

First, unlike indefinite existential NPs, "arbitrary choice" does not induce scope ambiguity with other quantifiers or scope-bearing operators.

- (4) a. amu-to o-ci. anh-ass-ta any-TO come-not-Past-Dec 'Noone came.'
  - b. han/twu salam-i o-ci.anh-ass-ta one/two person-Nom come-not-Past-Dec 'One/Two person didn't come.'

The indefinites in (4b) above can take a wide scope over negation, so to be interpreted as 'there was/were one/two person(s) such that he/they didn't come.' Further, (4b) has another reading where negation scopes over the indefinites, i.e., 'it was not the case that one/two person(s) came.' amu-to in (4a), however, does not induce scope ambiguity with negation, so has only the reading 'noone came,' i.e., 'no matter what person x it may be, x did not come.' As we illustrated in the previous section, amu-lato or amu-na does not occur with an overt negation. Second, "arbitrary choice" amu does not induce a specific reading, so we have the following difference:

- (5) a. amu-(salam)-ilato o-myen Jini-nun pankin-ta any-(person)-RATO come-if Jini-Top welcome-Dec 'If anyone comes, Jini welcomes him.'
  - b. etten salam-i o-myen Jini-nun pankin-ta some person-Nom come-if Jini-Top welcome-Dec 'If a person comes, Jini welcomes him.'

Etten salam in (5b) may have either a specific or a non-specific reading, so the sentence is ambiguous. But amu-lato in (5a) does not allow a specific reading. The following sentence shows that the demonstrative ku does not make amu specific.

(6) ku amu-to o-ci anh-ass-ta that anyone come-not-Past-Dec 'Noone came, who-so-ever.'

Another crucial difference between "arbitrary choice" and indefinite existentials is that the "arbitrary choice" amu induces a scalar implicature in appropriate contexts (e.g., modal contexts), so as to give a "universal-like" quantificational force. amu-lato/-na in (7a) below induces universal quantification, whereas the same word in (7b) does not. Instead, we get an existential reading in (7b).

(7) a. amu-lato/-na ku il-ul ha-ul.swu.iss-ta anyone that work-Acc do-can-Dec 'Anyone can do that.' = 'Every one can do that.'

b. amu-lato o-myen na-eykey cenhwaha-e anyone come-if I-Dat call-Imp 'If anyone comes, give me a call.'

We will see shortly how scalar implicature brings about universal quantification in modal contexts like (7a) but not in (7b). Unlike indefinite existentials, the arbitrary choice amu can quantify over a mass domain, which undermines Lee and Horn (1994) claim that any in English denotes 'indefinite one plus even'. In section 3.2, we propose that amu-to/-lato is sensitive to "quantity scale" but amu-na is not. We will also show that amu-to/-lato/-na in Korean may induce a scalar implicature in a "quality scale" as well as in a quantity scale, which goes against Lee and Horn's (1994) claim.

Due to the semantics of amu, i.e., arbitrary choice quantification, it does not take structural case markers like -ka [Nom.] or -lul [Acc] as in (8a,b), but it must occur with a concession marker -to/-ilato/-ina (for NPs) or in a concessive clause marked by -ato/-telato/-na 'even though'.

- (8) a. \*amu haksayng-i o-ass-ta any student-Nom came '(Lit.) \*Any student came.'
  - b. \*Jini-nun amu haksayng-ul cohaha-nta Jini-Top any student-Acc likes 'Jini likes any student.'
  - c. amuw haksayng-i o-ato, sensayngnim-un hwanyengha-ess-ta any student-Nom come-though teacher-Top welcome-Past-Dec 'If any student came, the teacher welcomed him.'

Due to its functional nature of arbitrary choice quantification, amu does not pick up a specific entity out of a given domain, and so does not introduce a "discourse referent" (Kamp and Reyle, 1993) in the relevant discourse structure. That is, (9b) and (10b) are not a natural discourse, since the pronoun ku (salam) cannot be resolved in the discourse. But (9a) and (10a) are natural, and the pronouns pick up the discourse referent introduced by etten salam in the preceding utterance.

- (9) a. etten salam-i o-ki.cen.ey imi Jini-nun ku some person-Nom come-before already Jini-Top that salam-i nwukwu-i-nci al-ass-ta person-Nom who-be-Q know-Past-Dec 'Before some person came, Jini already knew who he would be.'
  - b. \*amu-to o-ki.cen.ey Jini-nun ku salam-i any-TO come-before Jini-Top that person-Nom nwukwu-i-nci al-ass-ta who-be-Q know-Past-Dec
     'Before anyone came, Jini knew who he was.'
- (10) a. (i) etten salam-un ku il-ul ha-l.swu.iss-ta some person-Top that work-Acc do-can-Dec 'Someone can do that.'
  - (ii) haciman na-nun ku salam-i nwukwu-i-nci molu-nta but I-Top that person-Nom who-be-Q not know-Dec 'But I don't know who he is.

- b. (i) amu-lato ku il-ul ha-l.swu.iss-ta anyone-LATO that work-Acc do-can-Dec 'Anyone can do that'
  - (ii) #na-nun ku-ka nwukwu-i-nci al-ntaI-Top he-Nom who-be-Q know-Dec'I know who he is.'

As we informally introduced, an arbitrary choice function denoted by amu in Korean denotes an arbitrary object no matter what it may be. It is a special sort of choice function which is dependent on context or utterance situation. It is special in the sense that amu only occurs in a concessive context. The quantificational force of "arbitrary choice" combines with the meaning of "concession" to yield a "concessive (arbitrary) choice function," which now picks up a special object out of the given domain. We will formally define this choice function in terms of "pragmatic scale." The following sentence informally illustrates how to interpret an amu-N phrase in terms of "concessive choice function".

(11) amu haksayng-to o-ci.anh.ass-ta any student-Conc. come-not-Past-Dec 'No matter what student x it may be, it is not the case that x came.' = 'there is some concessive choice function fc such that  $\neg(f_c(STUDENT)\ CAME)$ '

As we noted in section 1, amu-to and amu-lato/amu-na are in complementary distribution. amu-to only occurs in strongly negative contexts like overtly negated clauses and before-clauses, whereas amu-lato/amu-na occur in weakly negative contexts, like non-veridical modal, conditional and generic contexts. Their distributional properties strongly support the claim that they share a core meaning of "concession". Here we note that amu-na is allowed to occur under a "denial" illocutionary operator. Thus the negation in (12b) below, as a response to (12a), is not an ordinary negation but carries an illocutionary force of "denial", which might be interpreted as an extended notion of metalinguistic negation.

- (12) a. amu-na ta hapkyekha-ass-e anyone-NA all passed 'Everyone passes (the exam).'
  - b. amu-na hapkyekha-ci.anh-ass-e anyone-NA pass-not-Past-Dec'It is not the case that every one passed (the exam).'
    - amu-to hapkyekha-ci.anh-ass-e anyone-TO passed-not-Past-Dec 'No one passed (the exam).'

The following discourse attests the distributional constraint of *amu-na* in negated sentences. That is, (13a,b) do not involve a metalinguistic context, so *amu-na* is not allowed in the negated sentence (13b).

(13) a. nwuka hapkyekha-ess-ni? who pass-Past-Q 'Who passed (the exam)?' b. amu-to/\*amu-lato/\*amu-na hapkyekha-ci.anh-ass-e anyone-TO/-RATO/-NA passed-not-Dec
 'No one passed (the exam).'

We might extend the notion of 'metalinguistic negation' of Horn (1989) to the illocutionary act of denial (Van der Sandt, 1991; Van der Sandt, 1998; Geurts, 1998). That is, when the negation is interpreted as a denial of "assertability" of the previous utterance (including presupposition or implicature), it can be analysed as a pragmatic sort of metalinguistic negation.<sup>3</sup> Then, (13b) with *amu-na* is unacceptable since the sentence is not provided with an appropriate proposition/presupposition by the previous utterance (13a).

### 2.2 Concession and Pragmatic Scale

The particles -to/-ilato/-ina combine with amu- and they share "concessive" meaning like English even and eventhough (Lee, 1999). The meaning of "concession" is based on the notion of "low compatibility" of two propositions: That is, it is least likely for the two propositions to occur at the same situation. So we often get a concessive reading in contrastive contexts. Consider the following sentence with a concessive adverbial clause marked by -ato.

(14) a. pi-ka o-ato, kyengki-nun kyeysoktoy-ess-ta rain-Nom come-though game-Top continued 'Even though it rained, the game continued.'

b. e1: 'it rained' e2: 'the game continued'

Notice that the events e1/e2 denoted by the first/second clauses do not take place simultaneously in normal situations-they are hardly compatible with each other, so the whole sentence induces the contrastive reading. Here we claim that noun phrases marked by the concessive marker -to/-ilato/-ina refer to a lower bound of a pragmatic "likelihood scale," which consists of a set of objects which is (partially) ordered according to a relevant property of the sentence. More generally, we define a "scale" as a partially ordered set of objects, which contains at least one lower bound (a bottom element of the scale): A pragmatic scale discussed in the literature normally refers to a linear order which contains a unique bottom element and which is totally ordered, i.e., for every pair of objects x, y in the scale they are ordered in terms of the property in question. This paper, however, extends the notion of "scale" to denote any partial (non-linear) orderings. This extended notion of pragmatic scale will be used shortly to account for the "quantificational variability" of polarity sensitive items in Korean in section 3.1.

Thus, a likelihood scale is a partial ordering  $\Sigma_P$  for a property P, where for any two elements x and y in  $\Sigma$ ,  $x \le y$ , "x is less than or equal to y," iff x is less likely to have the property P than y does. So for example, if the relevant property P is 'to be able to read French,' and if John can read French better than Bill does, then 'Bill'  $\le$  'John' in  $\Sigma_P$ , i.e., 'Bill is less likely to be able to read French than John does.' If Bill is the least likely

<sup>3.</sup> Kwon (1997) extends the notion of metalinguistic negation to the sentences where an overt negative expression denies a proposition which is asserted or introduced by the previous utterance. They support this claim by showing that the negative morpheme always takes a focal prosodic pattern. Sperber and Wilson (1981) analyze some ironic utterances in terms of "echoic mention" of pragmatic assumptions or presuppositions, which is similar to our account of amu-na in the sense that the echoic mention refers to implicit pragmatic objects like assumptions and presuppositions.

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person to read French among the discourse universe, 'Bill' would be the lower bound (bottom element) of the scale  $\Sigma_P$ .

NPs with a concessive marker denote a bottom element of a likelihood scale, since the notion of 'concession' requires a likelihood scale, and the meaning of "low compatibility" picks the least likely element (i.e., a lower bound, a bottom) of the scale. The following sentences contain a subject NP with -to/-ilato/-ina and implicate that the subjects denote a lower bound in a likelihood scale determined by the context.

- (15) Jini-to/-lato/-na kulen il-ul ha-l.swu.iss-e Jini-TO/-LATO/-NA such thing-Acc do-can-Dec 'Even Jini can do such a thing.'
- (16) sey salam-to an o-ass-ta three person-TO not come-Past-Dec 'Less than three people came.'
- (17) sey salam-ina o-ass-ta three person-NA come-Past-Dec 'As many as three people came.'

We might easily construct a pragmatic scale for (15), which gives an ordering for a set of individuals according to 'the ability/probability of their doing such a thing.' Then, (15) implies that 'Jini is the least likely person who can do such a thing.' Let us just note here that Jini-to and Jini-na in (15) give slightly different interpretations: That is, when Jini-to is used in (15), the speaker presupposes that 'there are other (relatively many) people than Jini who are likely to do such a thing,' but when Jini - na is used, the speaker implies that 'there are relatively few people who are likely to do such a thing, and that Jini is the least likely person who is able to do it.' The indefinite numeral NP sey salam-to/-ina '(even) three people' in (16) and (17) also requires a scalar implicature that the number 'three' is the least likely number such that the number of people did not come. Thus, (16) implies that the speaker expected at least three people would come, and (17) implies that the speaker expected at most three people would come, so the number 'three' is the least likely number in a pragmatic quantity scale. We can also identify "concessive" meaning of -to/-ilato/-ina in the following adverbial clauses:

- (18) a. amu-haksayng-i o-a.to/-te.lato manna-ci.anh-ulke-ya any-student-Nom come-though meet-not-Fut-Dec 'No matter what student comes, I will not see him.'
  - b. nwuka/amu-ka ka-na sensayngnim-ul mos manna-ulke-ya who/anyone-Nom go-though teacher-Acc not meet-Fut-Dec 'No matter who goes, he would not be able to see the teacher.'

The particle -to in Korean derives either an "additive" reading like also/too in English or a concessive reading depending on the utterance context/situation. When it takes amu-, however, it requires a pragmatic "likelihood scale" to denote a lower bound of the scale. Thus when the NP marked by -to is an answer to a question, the NP cannot carry a concessive reading of even, but only an additive reading of even.

(19) a. Jini-malko tto nwuka hapkyekha-ess-ni? Jini-besides also who pass-Past-Q 'Who passed (the exam) besides Jini?'

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b. Koni-to hapkyekha-ess-e.
Koni-TO passed
'Koni also passed (the exam).'
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c. simcie Koni-to hapkyekha-ess-e.
 what is more Koni-TO passed
 'What is more, even Koni passed (the exam).'

(19b) is a natural answer to the question (19a), but (19c) is not a natural answer since the adverb *simcie* 'what is more' triggers a pragmatic scale and so *Koni-to* only has a concessive reading 'even Koni.'

### 3. Distribution and Interpretation of amu-to/-ilato/-ina

Why do the combinations of the arbitrary choice amu and the concessive markers -to/-ilato/-ina display different distributions and give rise to different meanings? English any is often viewed as having two different meanings depending on the contexts, i.e., NPI any and free choice any. Such a view presumes the lexical ambiguity of the word any. Giannakidou (1998) similarly argues that Greek NPIs divide into two, emphatic NPIs and non-emphatic NPIs, depending on the prosodic characteristics (existence and lack of the stress). There is, however, no need to postulate a lexical ambiguity for the analysis of Korean amu. The various meanings that it has can be deduced from the collaboration of the following three factors: the arbitrary choice meaning of amu, the concessive reading of the markers -to/-ilato/-ina, and the pragmatic contexts the sentences provide. Here we treat amu-to and amu-lato as alloforms since they are not only very similar to each other in surface form but also are complementarily distributed. Let us now consider how amu produces the relevant readings.

### 3.1 Existential vs. Universal

Let us first consider modal contexts. The following sentence contains an NPI amu haksayngilato and a modal expression -ul.swu.iss- 'be able to.' (20) illustrates how the concessive meaning can be represented in terms of concessive choice function, which is defined in (21) below.<sup>4</sup>

(20) Modal Construction:

amu haksayng-ilato ku il-un ha-ul.swu.iss-e any student-IRATO that work-Top do-can-Dec

- = 'No matter what student x it may be, it is possible that x does it'
- = 'there is some concessive choice function f such that  $\Diamond(f(STUDENT) DO-IT)$ '
- $= \exists f \lozenge (f(STUDENT) DO-IT)$
- (21) Definition: A function f is a concessive choice function iff
  - (i) f is a choice function, and

<sup>4.</sup> The choice function defined in (21) picks a lower bound x out of the set K, and the set K normally denotes a set of entities. But, in order to account for the sentences (13-15), we can naturally extend the definition to the cases where K is a set of generalized quantifiers so that the function chooses an NP denotation x as a lower bound if x(P) refers to the least likely proposition in the relevant pragmatic scale  $\Sigma_P$ . The authors thank to the anonymous reviewer for the possible extention of the concessive choice function.

(ii) for a set K,  $f(K)(\Sigma_P) = x$ , where  $x \in K$ ,  $\Sigma_P$  is a pragmatic likelihood scale induced by the property P, and x is a lower bound in  $\Sigma_P$ .

In such modal contexts, we can naturally conceive of a pragmatic likelihood scale, which can easily be postulated as a linear (total) ordering. The relevant property to induce a pragmatic scale for (20) is 'to be able to do the work,' and the scale orders the objects in the discourse universe according to the property. Now, (20) means that the lower bound of the scale (i.e., the least likely element to satisfy the property) has the property, so we can easily get the implicature that any other elements in the same scale satisfy the property, too. Due to the implicature thus produced, the so-called free choice reading (or universal quantification reading) surfaces. (22) below is an overtly negated sentence, and contains a amu N-to phrase, and the concessive reading is represented in terms of concessive choice function f, so f(STUDENT) picks a lower bound of the likelihood scale  $\Sigma_P$ , which is partially ordered according to the property 'not to come to the party.'

- (22) Negative sentence:
  - a. amu haksayng-to phathi-ey o-ci.ani-ha-ess-ta any student-TO party-to come-not-do-Past-Dec
  - b. 'No matter what student x it may be, x did not come to the party'
  - c. = 'There is some concessive choice function f such that (f (STUDENT) ( $\Sigma_P$ ) NOT-CAME-TO-THE-PARTY)'
  - d. =  $\exists f (f (STUDENT)(\Sigma_P) NOT-CAME-TO-THE-PARTY)$

Before we consider what the formula (22d) means, let us characterize in detail the likelihood scale for interpreting the concessive meaning of (22a). The question we want to answer here is what kind of partial order the scale  $\Sigma_P$  looks like. In fact, when the speaker utters (22a) at a normal situation, there might be an ordering among the individuals with respect to the likelihood of 'not coming to the party.' Then the lower bound of the ordering (likelihood) would denote the least likely person who would have NOT come to the party. (22d) then means that the person denoted by  $f(STUDENT)(\Sigma_P)$ , i.e., the lower bound of the scale, did not come to the party, so to imply that no student come to the party.

Let us now consider the contexts in which amu-lato/amu-na has an "existential" reading. In such contexts, no scalar implicature is significant to induce universal-like quantification, since the likelihood scales for the constructions are not linearly ordered, but the ordering is just trivial so that no element is more likely to have the property in question than any other elements. In other words, such likelihood scales would look like a flat ordering. Consider the following:

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(23) Imperatives:
amu-lato/-na teylyeo-a
any-RATO/-NA bring-Imp
= 'I ORDER YOU, for some concessive choice function f, you take f(MAN) to
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me.'
(24) Future:

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amu-hako-lato/-na kyelhonha-ul.ke-ya.
any-with-RATO/-NA marry-Fut-Dec
= 'for some arbitrary choice function f, (I/he) WILL marry f(MAN).'
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We might try to build a likelihood scale for (23) where some person x is more likely to be taken to the speaker than some other person y is, i.e.,  $y \le x$ . The scale, however, would not be a linear ordering but a partial ordering at best, so we have pairs of elements x and y such that neither  $y \le x$  nor  $x \le y$ . In case like this, even though a lower bound of the scale satisfies the relevant property, this should not trigger a scalar implicature deriving a universal quantification. Moreover, it does not seem to be natural to get any likelihood scale in normal utterance situations of (23-24).

### 3.2 amu-lato vs. amu-na

Now let us see what makes *amu-lato* and *amu-na* so similar in distribution, but different in meaning in some constructions. First consider their meaning difference in the following constructions:

- (25) Relative clauses headed by a universal quantifier:
  amu-lato/-na chayyongha-n hoysa-nun motwu ssuleci-ess-ta.
  any-RATO/-NA hire-Adn company-Top all fall-Pst-Dec
  'Every company that hired any number of/just any employee collapsed.'
- (26) if-clauses:

yocum kathun pwulkyengki-ey wuli hoysa-ka amu-lato/-na these days like depression-at our company-Nom any-RATO/-NA chayyongha-n-ta-myen, ssuleci-ko.mal-ul.ke-ya.a hire-Pres-Dec-if fall-end.up-Fut-Dec 'If our company hires any employee in such an economic depression, it will end up collapsing.'

(27) habitual constructions:

Jini-nun ca-ki.ceney amu chayk-ilato/-na ilk-nun supkwan-i iss-ta.

J.-Top sleep-before any book-IRATO/-NA read-Adn habit-Nom exist-Dec 'Jini is in the habit of reading any books before she goes to bed.'

In the above examples, amu-lato is interpreted as 'one man, no matter who he is.' This indicates the lowest point of the quantity scale. In contrast, amu-na reads as 'anybody, irrespective of the quality he has.' In other words, amu-na is an arbitrary concessive choice in the quality scale. We can classify concessiveness into two types, quantity and quality. Based on this, we propose the following:

(28) Propositions: -to 'concession in quantity(/quality) scale'

-ilato 'concession in quantity/quality scale'

-ina 'concession in quality scale'

The classification given here helps to understand the fact that amu N-ina unlike amu N-ilato often implies a derogative sense. We can also find such contrast in comparative constructions (like in (4b) and (4c) in Appendix) and in rhetorical questions (like in (10b) and (10c)). That is, amu-lato in (4b, 10b) does not induce derogative reading, whereas amu-na in (4c, 10c) does. The propositions in (28) also predict that amu-N-ina is not allowed in a situation where no quality scale is brought up. The prediction seems to be borne out as illustrated in the following constructions.

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# (29) Questions:

Jini-hantheyse amu sosik-ilato/\*-ina iss-ess-ni? Jini-from any news-IRATO/-INA exisit-Past-Q 'Has there been any news from Jini?'

#### (30) If-clauses:

pise-nun amu-lato/??-na o-myen sacang-eykey yenlakhaycwu-ess-ta. secretary-Top any-RATO/-NA come-if boss-to let;know-Past-Dec 'If anyone comes, the secretary let the boss know it.

(31) Relative clauses headed by a universal quantifier:
amu-lato/??-na salanghay.po-n salam-un
any-RATO/-NA love-Adn person-Top
ipyel-uy kothong-ul al-n-ta
separation-Gen pain-Acc know-Pres-Dec
'Everyone who has ever loved anyone knows the pains of separation.'

In the above constructions, amu N-lato sounds much better than amu N-na, since the contexts do not naturally provide a pragmatic "quality scale" for amu-na. We note also that the pragmatic quality scale does not naturally arise in normal interrogatives like (11) in Appendix and in some constructions with a decreasing quantifier kikkeshayya N 'at most N' like (9) in Appendix.

### 4. Conclusions

The paper has characterized the distribution of amu-N-to/-ilato/-ina phrases in Korean in terms of (non-/anti-)veridicality, and identifies their semantics based on the notion of "arbitrary choice" and "concession." Thus we interpret them as a concessive choice function to denote a lower bound of a pragmatic likelihood scale. The proposed account can unify the diverse behaviors of polarity sensitive items in natural language, so we do not treat the PSIs as ambiguous between negative polarity and free choice readings, but as unambiguous, so the different interpretations derive from the different contexts they occur. Free choice reading arises only if the pragmatic scale is totally ordered, i.e., linearly ordered. So if the lower bound of the likelihood scale satisfies the property P of the scale  $\Sigma_P$ , so does every element of the scale.

The paper also suggests that amu-N-ilato and amu-N-ina are slightly different in meaning, so the latter, unlike the former, seems to require a pragmatic "quality scale" to denote its lower bound. In order to get deeper understanding of polarity phenomena, however, we need further inquiry on the formal characteristics of different types of pragmatic scales.

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### APPENDIX

Sample data involving amu N-to/-ilato/-ina:

### 1. Affirmative Sentences

a. \*amu-to/-lato o-ass-ta anyone-TO/-LATO come-Past-Dec

b.

amu-na o-ass-ta anyone-NA come-Past-Dec

'Anyone came.' (intended: 'Anyone was allowed to come.')

?\*amu-na nemeci-ess-ta anyone-NA fall-Past-Dec 'Anyone fell down.'

# 2. Relative Clauses headed by a universal quantifier

a. \*amu-to chayyongha-n hoysa-nun motwu ssuleci-ess-ta.
 any-TO hire-Adn company-Top all fall-Pst-Dec

b.

amu-lato/-na chayyongha-n hoysa-nun motwu ssuleci-ess-ta.
any-RATO/-NA hire-Adn company-Top all fall-Pst-Dec
'Every company that hired any number of/just any employee collapsed.'

### 3. Habituals

 a. \*ku-nun ca-ki.ceney amu chayk-to ilk-nun pelus-i iss-ta he-Top sleep-before any book-TO read-Rel. habit-Nom exists

b.

ku-nun ca-ki.ceney amu chayk-ilato/-ina ilk-nun pelus-i iss-ta he-Top sleep-before any book-RATO/-NA read-Rel. habit-Nom exists 'He is in the habit of reading any book before he goes to sleep.'

# 4. Comparatives

- a. \*amu-to manna-nun kes-pota cip-ey iss-nun kes-i anyone-TO meet-Rel thing-than home-at exist-Rel thing-Nom nas-ta better-Dec
- b. ?amu-lato manna-nun kes-pota
  anyone-RATO meet-Rel thing-than
  cip-ey iss-nun kes-i nas-ta
  home-at exist-Rel thing-Nom better-Dec
- 'I'd better stay home rather than meeting anyone (outside).'

amu-na manna-nun kes-pota cip-ey iss-nun kes-i anyone-NA meet-Rel thing-than home-at exist-Rel thing-Nom nas-ta better-Dec

'I'd better stay home rather than meeting anyone (outside).'

# 5. Modals

a. \*amu-to ku il-ul ha-ul.swu.iss-ta anyone-TO that work-Acc do-can-Dec

b.

amu-lato/-na ku il-ul ha-ul.swu.iss-ta
anyone-RATO/-NA that work-Acc do-can-Dec
'Anyone can do that.'

### 6. Imperatives

a. \*amu-chayk-to ilke-la any-book-TO read-Imp.

b. amu chayk-ilato/-ina ilke-la any-book-IRATO/-INA read-Imp. 'Read any book!'

### 7. Future tense

. \*amu-to o-ul.ke-ya anyone-TO come-will-Dec

b.

amu-lato/-na o-ul.ke-ya
anyone-RATO/-NA come-will-Dec
'Anybody will come.'

# 8. Generics

a. \*amu-say-to nal-n-ta any-bird-TO fly-Pres.-Dec

b.
amu-say-lato/-na nal-n-ta
any-bird-RATO/-NA fly-Pres.-Dec
'Any bird flies.'

# 9. kikkeshayya 'at most'

a. \*amu-hako-to deyithha-e.pon salam-i anyone-with-TO date-experience person-Nom kikkeshayya sey myeng iss-ess-ta at.most three person existed

b.

amu-hako-lato deyithuha-e.pon salam-i
anyone-with-RATO date-experience person-Nom
kikkeshayya sey myeng iss-ess-ta
at.most three person existed

'There were at most three people who have ever dated with anybody.'

c. \*amu-hako-na deyithu-hay-pon salam-i anyone-with-NA date-experience person-Nom kikkeshayya sey myeng iss-ess-ta at.most three person existed

# 10. Rhetorical Questions

a. \*amu-to o-kess-e? anyone-TO come-will-Q

b.

amu-lato o-kess-e? anyone-RATO come-will-Q 'Will anybody come?' = 'No body will come.'

c.

amu-na o-kess-e?
anyone-NA come-will-Q
'will just anybody come?'
= 'It is not the case that just anybody will come.'

# 11. Questions

a. \*Jini-hantheyse amu sosik-to iss-ess-ni? Jini-from any news-TO exist-Past-Q?

b.

Jini-hantheyse amu sosik-ilato iss-ess-ni? Jini-from any news-RATO exist-Past-Q? 'Have you got any news from Jini?'

c. ??Jini-hantheyse amu sosik-ina iss-ess-ni? Jini-from any news-NA exist-Past-Q?

### 12. Conditionals

a. \*amu-to o-myen na-eykey alli-e.cwu-e anyone-TO come-if I-Dat. inform-give-Dec

b.

amu-lato o-myen na-eykey alli-e.cwu-e anyone-RATO come-if I-Dat. inform-give-Dec 'If anyone comes, please let me know.'

??amu-na o-myen na-eykey alli-e.cwu-e anyone-NA come-if I-Dat. inform-give-Dec 'If anyone comes, please let me know.'

# 13. Negative Predicates

a.

(?)amu-to manna-ki-ka elyep-ta
anyone-TO meet-to-Nom hard-Dec
'It is hard to see anyone.'

b. amu-lato/??-na manna-ki-ka elyep-ta anyone-RATO/-NA meet-to-Nom hard-Dec

# 14. before-clauses

a.

Koni-nun amu-to chacao-ki.ceney cip-ul nase-ess-ta
Koni-Top anyone-TO visit-before house-Acc leave-Past-Dec
'Koni left home before anybody came to his house.'

b. \*Koni-nun amu-lato/-na chacao-ki.ceney Koni-Top anyone-RATO/-NA visit-before cip-ul nase-ess-ta house-Acc leave-Past-Dec

15. eps- 'not exist' and molu- 'not know'

a.

amu-to eps-ta
anyone-TO not.exist-Dec
'Nobody exists.'
b.

\*amu-lato/-na eps-ta anyone-TO not.exist-Dec 'No body exists.'

c.

ku il-un amu-na molu-n-ta
that work-Top anyone-NA not.know-Pres.-Dec
'It is not the case that every one knows that work.'

# 16. Negative Sentences

a.

amu-to an o-ass-ta
anyone-TO not came
'Nobody came.'

b. \*amu-lato/-na an o-ass-ta 'Anyone didn't come.' anyone-RATO/-NA not came

c.

amu-na mos ha-e
anyone-NA cannot do-Dec
'It is not the case that anyone can do that.'