A Corpus-based Study of Marked Response Forms in English[*]
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1. Introduction

Languages differ from each other in many respects. This is true of how to respond to a question. For example, Japanese adopts the truth-based system (agree-disagree based system). When we are asked a negative question *Gohan tabe-te nai no?* 'Haven't you had breakfast yet?', we say for the answer *Iya, tabe-ta yo*. 'No (a negative response form), I have.' The choice between *hai/un* 'yes' and *iie/iya* 'no' depends on whether the responder agrees with the content of proposition in the preceding question, regardless of its polarity (if it is positive or negative). On the other hand, English response forms are based on what is called the polarity-based system (positive/negative system). When they want to respond to the preceding yes/no question, it is customary to say (1a) and (1b), but not (2a) or (2b).

(1)	a.	Yes, I do.	/	Yes, I am.
	b.	No, I don't.	/	No, I am not.
(2)	a.	Yes, I don't.	/	Yes, I am not.
	b.	No, I do.	/	No, I am not.

A rule of thumb here is that the positive response form *yes* comes before a positive proposition, while the negative response form *no* appears before a negative proposition. This linguistic gap from their first language has often been a challenge for early-stage Japanese-speaking learners of English, sometimes even for advanced ones, because it is in utter contrast to their intuition.

Interestingly, however, this apparently general rule does not seem to apply to every case. Rather, the response forms sometimes behave as if they were the Japanese truth-based system; as will be seen below, it is not infrequent for English speakers to say *no, I do* or *no, I am*. What is the reasonable interpretation of these 'unusual' examples? Are they just deviations from the set of basic rules? This would not be the case. A detailed analysis of data from a large-scale corpus has made it possible to grasp the orientation among them and to argue that they should be seen as the instantiations of a different paradigm than that of the polarity-based system. More specifically, *no* immediately before a positive proposition functions as a marker of "interpersonal relationship" in the three-tier model of language use proposed by Hirose (2013, 2015). The rationale for this comes from: (a) the disproportion between the frequency of [Yes + negative] and that of [No + positive]; (b)

the non-question structure of the preceding sentence; (c) interruptive and repetitive use of response forms; and (d) the verbs typically involved in the proposition.

2. Theoretical Background
2.1. Hirose (2013, 2015)
Hirose (2013, 2015) proposes the "three-tier model of language use" to explain the difference between Japanese and English as to how grammar and pragmatics are related. This model suggests that a speaker of language has two aspects of "self": private self and public self. The former is a subject who recognizes and construes something, and the latter is a subject who conveys their construal to others. On the basis of this view, the model captures three tiers in our language use. The first one is called "the situation construal tier". In the first tier, the speaker as private self construes the situation around them and modules their thought. Only with this tier, the speaker is unable to get the addressee to know what they have in mind. Then the second tier, called "the situation report tier," helps us do this job. The speaker as public self is responsible for this communicative aspect of language, which is true also in the third tier called "the interpersonal relationship tier," where the speaker construes and considers their interpersonal relationship with the addressee.

According to Hirose, the difference between Japanese and English lies in how these three tiers are unified. In Japanese, what Hirose calls "a private-self centered language," the situation report tier and the interpersonal tier are unified together, while the situation construal tier is left independent. On the other hand, English is seen as "a public-self centered language", in which the situation construal tier is unified with the situation report, with the interpersonal relationship tier separate. This difference between the two languages is salient in how marked (or unmarked) their private and public expressions are respectively. As the situation report tier and the interpersonal relationship tier are integrated, a Japanese speaker is assumed to use a marked expression both when he/she simply intends to just communicate his/her belief and when he/she does so while conscious of his/her interpersonal relationship with the addressee. In other words, the speaker's language use just towards the private self is unmarked. Consider the following examples:

(3)   a.   Kyoo   ha   doyoobi   da.
                today   topic   Saturday   copula
                'Today is Saturday.'

        b.   Kyoo   ha   doyoobi   da   yo.
                today   topic   Saturday   copula   sentence final particle
                'Today is Saturday (I tell you).'

c.   Kyoo   ha   doyoobi   desu.
today   topic   Saturday polite copula
'Today is Saturday (I tell you).'

Hirose (2013:3)

The sentence final particle *yo* in (3b) or the polite copula *desu* in (3c) functions to show that each utterance is output towards any addressee. The two differ in what kind of interpersonal relationship they mark and how it is achieved, but they are similar in that the speaker's intention to report the situation is explicit in the language form. The plain form in (3a) is untypical of Japanese in an interactive context, and thus is seen as a private speech; as long as there is assumed to be any addressee, it is customary in Japanese to provide an element with which their existence is marked.

In contrast, English is a public-self centered language, where the presence of the addressee does not contribute to the use of a marked expression. More simply put, a speaker of English in any interactive context uses basically the same form as they use when no addressee is involved. This is clear in the uniformity between the translations from Japanese in (3a-c); despite the different communication markers used in the original Japanese expressions, their English translations do not have any of the corresponding items and therefore look the same. It does not mean, however, that the speaker's awareness of their relationship with the addressee is never marked in English. Actually, there are some exceptional cases where the speakers adopt elements to show their awareness. A good example of this is the use of address terms. Here is an example from Hirose:

(4)   Today is Saturday, {madam/ma'am/Mrs. Brown/Jane/darling/honey/etc.}.
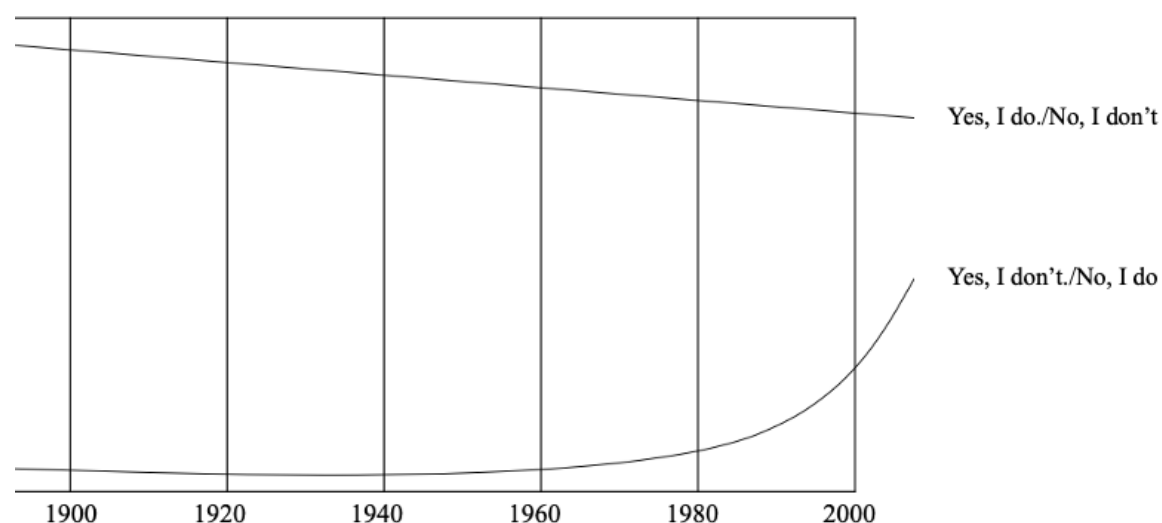
(Hirose 2013:14)

The speaker uses any one of the listed items to show their own attitude towards the addressee, which would fall within the interpersonal tier. Hirose maintains that such additional items are independent of the situation report tier, which in English is unified with the situation construal tier. Thus communication would basically be satisfactory without these dispensable items.

Then, how is the marked use of response forms related to Hirose's model? This study supposes that they are what reflects the speaker's awareness of interpersonal relationship. To "report a situation" to the addressee, English speakers can dispense with these unusual forms, because canonical response forms as in (1) are available. In this sense, the unmarked ways of response are optionally adopted in addition to the elements necessary to report the situation the speaker construes. Therefore, it is the interpersonal relationship tier that is responsible for the marked responses.

2.2 Sakuma (2013)

Sakuma (2013, based on the data from Google (Ngram Viwer, Scholar), British National Corpus (BNC), Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and so forth, conducts a diachronic study and shows that younger people today have been coming to use *yes, I don't* or *no, I do* more and more. As you can see in the figure 1, the curve for *Yes, I don't/ No, I do* remarkably goes upward after 1980, which indicates the exponential increase of these forms in that period of time.

Figure 1   Diachronic change in the use of response forms (Sakuma 2013: 217)

Interesting as it is, Sakuma's study is basically intended for general readers, and does not show in detail how often or for what reason they use such marked patterns. If they are infrequent, we cannot be too careful in deciding whether to give any academic significance to them, because they just might be a kind of "mistakes." In order to get to the bottom, it is necessary to identify their frequency and the reasons behind the use of those patterns. In addition, as the graph suggests, Sakuma does not seem to assume any difference in the acceptability between (2a) and (2b). Just because *no, I do* is acceptable would not immediately mean *yes, I don't* is equally acceptable. Thus it is necessary to investigate each of them respectively with as many types as possible covered.

3. Method

Based on the hypothesis that the marked responses are related to the interpersonal relationship tier, this study has carried out a corpus-based study to analyze them in relation to their linguistic context. The data for this study were taken from the Corpus of American Soap Operas (SOAP), which was compiled by Mark Davies at Brigham Young University, and contains approximately 100 million words of data from American soap operas. Thus it is very useful when we want to investigate truly informal use of English language, and suits

nicely for this study because the marked response in question definitely falls within such informal aspects of language.

First, the following set of queries were adopted to collect the target sequences.

(5) a. yes ./, * am/are/is/was/were/do/does/did/can/will/must/may/should/shall not .

b. no ./, * am/are/is/was/were/do/does/did/can/will/must/may/should/shall .

c. yes ./, * am/are/is/was/were/do/does/did/can/will/must/may/should/shall n' t .

The query (5a), for example, returns any occurrence of the strings that start with 'yes' followed by a given single word, which in turn is followed by any one of the listed copulas or auxiliaries, and then 'not' in the final position. We call them [Yes + positive] pattern in this study. As you may have noticed, the query (5b) is the [No + positive] counterpart of (5a), so it returns sequences that start with 'no' and end without a negative particle. (5c) is a variant of (5a). They differ only in the form of the negative particle. In (5c) *not* is contracted and is combined to the preceding copula or auxiliary. The asterisk (*) functions as a wildcard, thus any value consisting of a sole lexeme can appear in the subject position: we are not concerned with the cases involving a subject longer than one word. Given the anaphoric nature of responses and the fact that any pronoun in English consists of one word, the subject is less likely to be longer than that. The slash (/) between the items means "or", which enables us to quickly and comprehensively collect examples with any kind of copulas and auxiliaries. The final stop (.) at the end of each sequence helps exclude the cases where the response form is followed by an overt proposition (without any ellipsis). It is not unusual for *yes* or *no* to be followed by a sequence which does not seem to make up a part of the immediate response to the preceding utterance. *Yes* or *no* can stand as a response all by itself, so its following clause can be independent as well, especially when the predicate is overt.

Some readers may have noticed that the option between a comma and a full stop is assumed after *yes* or *no*. There would be inconsistency about the transcription of commas and full stops; it is not guaranteed that each mark directly represents a certain length of time. Some may argue that *No, I do*, for example, is made of two distinct sentences, namely *No.* and *I do.* and that it is useless examining the agreement between them. Nevertheless, it is reasonable to regard this as a single unit, because the latter part is lack of autonomy. The superficial clause *I do* must rely at least on the preceding utterance (If not, it is impossible to say what verb *do* here corresponds to). Actually, most of them are transcribed with a comma, not with a full stop, implying that they are more or less integrated as a whole.

This study is concerned not only with the response forms themselves, but also with their linguistic contexts; the focus will be on what happens around these forms as well as what they are like. This is because the response forms are in principle highly dependent on other elements. It would be impossible to examine them without considering what is

happening around them. Therefore, after the target sequences were extracted, the sequences before and after them were analyzed as well. The main focuses are follows: the frequency of the response forms (Section 4.1); the sentence forms of the preceding utterance (Section 4.2); the conversational characteristics (Section 4.3); and the often involved verbs in the response forms (Section 4.4).

4. Analysis

4.1 The distributional imbalance between [Yes + negative] and [No + positive]

Comparing the frequency of [No + positive] and that of [Yes + negative], it is quite obvious that they are hard to treat equally; Table 1 below clearly shows that the former is far more frequently used than the latter.[1] 1255 examples in total follow the [No + positive] pattern. In contrast, as few as three tokens of [Yes + negative] are found. Such an imbalanced distribution would not be found in the frequency of the unmarked pair ([Yes + positive] and [No + negative]), so it would be wise to consider [No + positive] and [Yes + negative] to belong to a different paradigm from these unmarked response patterns.

Table 1 The frequency of *No* + positive and *Yes* + negative

Subject	*No* + Positive	*Yes* + Negative
I	694	0
you	215	0
he/she	104	1
it/this/that	164	1
we	50	1
they	17	0
there	11	0

At the same time, it is clear that [Yes + negative] and [No + positive] are not at all equivalent in their frequency, and perhaps also in their acceptability.[2] Then, what causes [Yes + negative] to occur significantly less often? One possible answer will be that it can have no more meaning than what can be meant by the canonical [No + negative] pattern. By saying *yes*, all the responder could do would be align with the interlocutor's assumption. They typically use a declarative sentence (as seen in the next section), so they would not so much

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[1] Of course it would be ideal to examine every single variant in a detailed way, but owing to the limited space the main focus hereafter will be the [No + positive] pattern whose subject is occupied by the 1st singular person (e.g., *No, I do* , *No, I did*).

[2] Huddleston and Pullum (2002) and others state that [Yes + negative] is possible as a response to negative questions, so we should be careful in deciding if they are grammatical or not. Nevertheless, the difference in frequency is significant and can never be underestimated even when it comes to acceptability or acceptability.

ask a question as state their belief, or make sure if their belief is right at best. If this is the case, almost similar function could be achieved by the unmarked [No + negative] response, so there seem few reasons to step aside to the marked response. However, the functional proximity between them cannot explain their difference in frequency, which is clear from the examination of the [No + positive] response and its unmarked counterpart [Yes + positive]. By saying *no*, the responder has to disagree with the interlocutor's assumption. What is complicating here is that [Yes + positive] too can be used as a disagreeing response to the preceding negative preposition. Thus one can use either (6b) and (6c) to deny what the addressee has just said in (6a):

(6) a. You don't know me.
  b. Yes, I do.
  c. No, I do.

This is well exemplified in the conversation from the movie *When Harry Met Sally*.

(7) Sally: … I have a number of men friends and I no sex involved.
  Harry: No, you don't.
  Sally: Yes, I do.
  Harry: No, you don't.
  Sally: Yes, I do.
  Harry: You only think you do.

               (*When Harry Met Sally*)

In the third line, Sally says *yes, I do* as a response to the contracted negative declarative statement by Harry. The choice between *yes* or *no* may be decided in part by the immediately preceding utterance; *no* is preempted by Harry here, so *yes* may be more useful in showing disagreement more clearly. On the other hand, an interaction like (8) can also be found in SOAP:

(8) Paul: You don't want me to do that.
  Emily: Yes, I do.
  Paul: No, come on.
  Emily: No, I do. Honey?

First, Emily makes an unmarked response to the negative declarative statement by Paul. Then, Paul expresses distrust of the Emily's remark by saying *no, come on*, to which Emily retorts *no, I do* this time; she uses *no*, though the same marker has just been used right before her own remark. Thus, what immediately precedes the utterance cannot be a decisive

factor. Rather, it is much likely here that Emily contrasts her second remark with her own previous remark. She seems to emphasize her desire by switching from *yes, I do* to *no, I do*, judging that Paul does not believe her. This switch implies that [No + positive] can function to show a stronger disapproval than [Yes + positive] can. As will be seen in the following sections, the use of [No + positive] is likely to be associated with the speaker's strong eagerness to disagree with their interlocutor's negative statement. From this it can be said that the assumed functional gap between [Yes + positive] and [No + positive] is greater than that between [No + negative] and [Yes + negative], which contributes to the distributional imbalance that has been discussed in this section.

4.2 The structure of the preceding utterance

As long as the aim of this study is to figure out what responses are like, their linguistic environments can never be ignored, especially those preceding the responses. The appearance of *yes* or *no* at the beginning of an utterance usually presupposes that it is made in principle as a reaction to the preceding utterance made by another speaker. In many cases of the typical and thus "unmarked" questioning, its structure takes on the typical question word order, as in (9):

(9)   Bianca: Do you like me?
          Jack: Yes, I do.

However, this rarely happens to the marked patterns with which this study is concerned. That is to say, they quite typically follow the structure of declarative sentence, sometimes with a tag or rising intonation[3] at the final position:

(10)   Rian: You really don't understand.
          Mia: No, I do.

(11)   Belle: Oh, you don't like it?
          John: No, I do.

This observation implies that the function of *yes* or *no* may not necessarily be a response to a question. Most of these declarative sentences are negative, which may again be a sign that *no* functions as a strong disagreement with what is stated right before its appearance.

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[3] Only textual data is accessible in the corpus itself, so this study conveniently sees the question mark (?) at the sentence final position as something that stands for a rising intonation.

It is not that the responses are always made towards the proposition of the preceding main clause. Some of them are uttered as a reaction to a complement clause, a subordinate clause or an infinitive phrase involved.

(12)   Sami: … and I thought that you liked that about me.
         Austin: No, I do.

(13)   Liza: Look, if you don't believe me, you …
         Tad: No, no, I do. I do believe you.

In (12), Austin tries to argue against not the fact that Sami has a certain belief but the content of the belief. Likewise, in (13) Tad does not react to the whole proposition in the preceding utterance (which is not explicit due to his own interruption), but tries to cancel the condition set by the addressee in the *if* clause. The attempt to show disagreement with what is conveyed in these structures seems to represent his or her desire to cancel what is or going to be taken as a given. Such presupposition is a part of the interlocutor's belief that has been established or is going to be established, so it would require more energy to cancel. This is displayed in the following interaction (14), where Hope reacts to the remark of Brooke before she finishes her turn:

(14)   Brooke: I know. I just want you to understand how much -
         Hope: No , I do . I do.

It should also be noted that not only does Hope interrupt Brooke but also he says "I do" twice. Interruption and repetition are closely related to the preceding structures, and will be discussed in detail in the next section.

The addressee's disbelief in the responder is sometimes realized in the form of imperative statement.

(15)   Edmund: I don't have a right to ask you to trust me after everything I've done to you, but trust me on this one. It'll be ok.
         Maria: No, I do. I do trust you.

Edmund here tells Maria to believe him, which is possible because he does not think that she trusts him.[4]

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[4] Searle (1969: 66) states that one of the felicity conditions of ordering is that "it is not obvious to both S [the speaker] and H [the hearer] that H will do A [the act] in the normal course of events of his own accord."

As mentioned earlier, most tokens of the preceding utterance take on the declarative structure. On the other hand, among 243 tokens of *no, I do*, only 14 of them are uttered as a reaction to the preceding question with inversion. Moreover, very few of them seem to be a neutral question with which the addressee simply wants to elicit information from the responder. Some of them are negative question, which entails a negative bias; the asker of the question is less likely to believe that the answerer "does it."

(16)   Edmund: …don't you have a birthday party to go to this afternoon?
        Maddie: No, I do.

(17)   Nicole: Don't you still love me?
        Brady: No, I do. Probably always will.

Thus the addressee "asks the question" to show his or her belief rather than to gain information. In this sense, the message conveyed here is not distant from the one conveyed with a negative declarative statement.

That a question is followed by a response does not always mean the response is made towards the whole question. The response in (18) corresponds to the embedded clause in the preceding question.

(18)   Alison: Are you saying you don't want to do this?
        Casey: No, I do.

The response in (19) is a little complicated. The second part *I do* corresponds to the relative clause in the preceding question, while the first part *no* corresponds to the whole question.

(19)   Mike: Am I the only person who thinks that Maddie should answer
                 for this?
        Maddie: No, I do.

The questions both in (18) and (19) seem to be more or less biased in that their ideas are in the course of being established, or perhaps have been established; Alison is likely to suspect that Casey does not want to "do this", and Mike probably finds himself the only person who thinks that "Maddie should answer for this." Thus the responders do not simply try to meet the information needs, but object to the belief that is developing in the addressee.

Some exceptional cases are found where an unbiased question with inversion is followed by the [No + positive] formation.

    (20)   Nick: Hey, did I order this?

                        Jack: No, I did.

In the interaction (20), Jack says *no, I did* as a response to the Nick's question. If we were to supplement the invisible elements, it would be like "No, you didn't. But I did." We have to be careful in deciding the scope of negation at work, but whether it is the whole proposition *you ordered this* or only the subject *you* (Nick), *no, I did* here is obviously different from other tokens examined above in that Nick really wants to elicit information from Jack and in that Jack satisfies the need by providing a negative feedback as to whether Nick *ordered this*. Interestingly, this "subject-corrective" pattern is a lot more typical of *no, I did* than its present-tense counterpart *no, I do*. This seems to be related to the greater divergence of the verbs preceding *No, I did*, which will be examined later.

        This subsection has so far observed what kind of structure the preceding statements have, but after all it is likely that what matters most lies not in the superficial structures but in the implicature behind them. [No + positive] sometimes follows a one or two-word utterance, which does not directly correspond to the subsequent response, as in.

    (21)   Jeffrey: Okay. I understand.

                        Reva: Liar.

                        Jeffrey: No, I do.

    (22)   Holden: I owe you a lot.

                        Molly: Oh, really?

                        Holden: No, I do .

Furthermore, [No + positive] may be used as a response even to a not strictly linguistic behavior of the addressee, if their disagreement can somehow be inferred from that.

    (23)   Victoria: It's not that I don't love it here.

                        Billy: Mm-hmm.

                        Victoria: No, I do. I-I love it here, but …

    (24)   Mel: Do I have a sign that says that, too? What?

                        Gus: No, it's just I know the look.

                        Mel: (Laughs)

                        Gus: No, I do.

Therefore, the visible structure of the preceding utterance itself may not be strongly associated with the nature of response forms. The least that can be said here is that it is not a question but a declarative statement that commonly precedes the [No + positive] response.

4.3 Interruption and repetition

Another remarkable characteristic about [No + positive] can be captured from a more conversational viewpoint. The responder often begins their utterance without waiting for the addressee to finish his or her turn, which naturally brings about an interruption. They seem to be motivated to disagree with what has been said, and in some cases even with what "is going to" be said as soon as possible.

(25)   Stacy: Yeah, but if you don't want to –
        Rex: No, I do.

(26)   Holden: … So as long as you don't object –
        Rosana: No, I do. I do. I don't want Will Munson anywhere near here.

As another sign of their eagerness, they typically repeat the part or the whole of the response form, which again shows how desperately they try to express their disagreement. You can catch a glimpse of this below:

(27)   Simon: … I'm beginning to believe you don't want me at all. I mean, what's going on?
        Katie: No, no, no. Of course I do. No, I do. It's just –
                  I'm not like you, Simon.

(28)   Harley: You don't want to spend time with your mother?
        Daisy: No, I do. I do. I do. But, I mean …

Finally, it should also be noted that the responder rarely gives up his or her turn easily after the immediate response to the addressee; in most cases the basic structure [No + positive] is accompanied by its supplementary sequence. Only 20 out of 262 tokens of *no, I do* are unequipped with any additional sequence by the same speaker after them. For instance, in the same vein as repetition, they often emphasize their belief by explicitly mentioning the antecedent of the auxiliary *do* again.

(29)   Rex: … Anyway, under heading of "more than you wanted to know."
        Charlie: Well, no, no, I do. Of course I want to know more about your life, your family.

In other cases, they sometimes provide a ground for their own assertion as in (30), or just use the response form as a way of concession before going on to the following sequence, as in (31):

    (30)   Jade: Wait, you don't understand?

                 Lily: No, I do. See, you've been in a car accident.

    (31)   Marina: So you don't think I'm a big freak?

                 Danny: No, I do. But I like that about you. Marina:

These conversational strategies would naturally emerge because the responder finds the addressee inclined to believe he or she doesn't *do* that. If you want to agree with someone, it would not be wise to interrupt the person because it is highly likely to threaten the addressee's negative face (of course interruption can sometimes save his or her positive face though). By causing an overlap, the rejecter here clearly expresses his or her strong disagreement even at the expense of the addressee's negative face. Similarly, the lengthy responses can also be seen as what reflects the responder's objection to the addressee.

4.4 The frequent verbs

Each instance of the pro-verb *do* in *no, I do* usually has its own anaphoric antecedent. In this section, we are going to see what verbs it typically stands for, and examine if there is any consistency in their characteristics. By doing this, we can get to know what kind of action or behavior the responder tends to insist that they do/did.

    The table 2 presents what verbs the instances of *do* in *no, I do* refer to. The figure next to each represents its frequency. What is remarkable here is their low type frequency; comparatively few numbers of variants are found, and most of the instances concentrate on even more limited number of variants. Another characteristic of them lies in their meaning; they tend to be stative verbs which do not entail physical activities.

Table 2 The anaphoric antecedents of the pro-verb *do* in *No, I do* (SOAP)

want	47	mean	9	hate	1
know	33	trust	9	go in for	1
have to	25	feel	7	hear	1
understand	21	get	7	jump	1
believe	17	need	8	live	1
like	19	remember	6	make sense	1
have	11	owe	6	object	1
think	9	care	2	repeat	1
love	10	explain	2	say	1

What would follow from this observation is that there is a tendency for the responder to emphasize what they have in their mind or what they are like rather than simply what activities they do. This seems to make sense, because we likely take more pride in our own belief or knowledge than in the activity we daily have. We do not want misunderstandings especially about what we are to happen, and this is instantiated in the frequent appearance of the response forms whose pro-verb depends on a preceding stative verb.

Nevertheless, the tense factor cannot be underestimated. While the significant preference for stative verbs is observed with *no, I do*, the verbs for its past-tense counterpart *no, I did* is far more diverged. This is interesting all the more because the tokens of *no, I did* (125) is about half as many as those of *no, I do* (262). As shown in Table 3, many kinds of 'action verbs' in the broad sense are involved here. This difference would arise because the past tense is not compatible with expressing our current mentality. Rather, it is simply used to talk about any events that happened before, which allows much room for the appearance of more various types of verbs in these structures. As mentioned earlier, this would closely be related to the compatibility between *no, I did* and unbiased questions with inversion.

Table 3 The anaphoric antecedents of the pro-verb *did* in *No, I did* (SOAP)

want	7	blow	1	mess up	1
say	5	break off	1	miss	1
have	5	close	1	organize	1
do	5	come	1	page	1
get	5	consider	1	put	1
have to	4	donate	1	rain	1
make a mistake	4	drink	1	reach	1
see	4	end	1	read	1
ask	3	explain	1	ruin	1
love	3	fail	1	send	1
order	3	fall	1	set up	1
tell	3	find	1	sleep	1
change	2	fire	1	squeal	1
forgive	2	forget	1	steal	1
go	2	guess	1	stop	1
leave	2	hear	1	take	1
like	2	kill	1	think	1
meet	2	know	1	throw up	1
accuse	1	look	1	use(d) to	1
destroy	1	make sure	1	weird out	1
believe	1	mention	1		

5. Conclusion

This study has examined the marked response forms [Yes + Negative] and [No + Positive] in relation to their context. It is concluded that they function to mediate the interpersonal relationship between the speaker and the addressee, which is reflected in some facts. First, their frequency is far from being equivalent. They would not be necessary in order simply to achieve "situation report." However, by adopting the marked forms a speaker can add an extra meaning to the report, and this "extra meaning" is compatible only with [No + Positive] patterns. Second, the structures of the preceding utterance by the addressee concentrate on declarative forms. This represents how well their ideas are established, and is the basis of the appearance of the marked expression with which the speaker shows strong disagreement. Third, the responder often interrupts the addressee, sometimes repeating the response form. They put in a more effort to resist the addressee's belief. Finally, stative verbs are quite typically involved in the marked responses. The responder tends to raise a strong objection when their addressee is unlikely to believe that they want, know, or understand something.

Unfortunately, this study has not grasped the whole picture of the response forms in question. As this study ends up focusing only on the variants with the 1st person subject, the same thing may not hold true when the subject is, for example, *you*, the 2nd person. Without the analysis of every kind of variants, it would not be possible to abstract the actual shape of the marked forms themselves.

A foreseeable extension of this study would be to discuss the advantage and the disadvantage of teaching these marked forms in the 2nd language classrooms. Just because those "irregular" patterns can actually be used does not mean that they should be taught at school equally to the "regular" patterns. Most students would get confused about what is correct and what is not. Another future direction of this study would be one that more closely approaches the diachronic changes reviewed in Sakuma (2013). What has urged them to start using the marked response forms? Until when will they keep using them? The answers to these questions will be helpful even in the synchronic study of these forms.

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