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ABSTRACT

of the dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

**PRAGMATIC FEATURES OF INTERROGATIVE
SENTENCES IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE**

Specialty: 5708.01 – Germanic languages

Field of science: Philology

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Baku – 2024

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GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS OF THE WORK

Relevance of the topic and the degree of development. The relevance of the topic stems from the growing interest in the problem of language and culture, the clarification of the role and place of questions in communication, the definition of methods and tools for the implementation of functions related to questions, as well as the study of pragmatic features of questions and rhetorical questions. A comprehensive approach to the study of speech acts, questions, rhetorical questions in English allows to reveal both the pragmatic and pragmalinguistic features of the language, the national cultural views of English users, as well as the main aspects of different perception of questions in different situations.

The study of the pragmatic features of interrogative words is a useful source in terms of studying the foundations of another nation's mentality, national character and behavior, and the causes of communicative inconsistencies and emotional discomfort. The study of question words plays an important role in revealing the national-cultural features and background knowledge of language speakers related to speech behavior. From this point of view, based on the research of the scientific literature on the topic in the dissertation, we can say that the stylistic and pragmatic features of the interrogative sentences in English have not been studied at any level.

C.L.Ostin, J.Olwood, S.Blum-Kalka, T.A.Diyk, H.P.Grays, S.A.Miller, J.Skot, C.R.Serl in German linguistics, A.N.Baranov, V.M.Alpatov, M.M.Bakhtin, E.P.Bakhurova, T.Q.Vinokur, V.A.Grigoryev in Russian linguistics, V.Z.Dementyev, V.A.Kosareva, and in Azerbaijani linguistics A.A. Abdullayev, V.Jafarov, A.Y.Mammadov, F.Veysalli, D.Yunusov and others. In their research, they touched on pragmatic features and pragmatic meaning in communication. Currently, in most countries there is a growing interest in research on the pragmatic meaning, the non-linguistic semantic aspect of the text. The study of various aspects of the questions has attracted the attention of many linguists. However, despite some research in this area, we see that the pragmatic features of the questions used in the communication process are not involved

in the study. We think that from this point of view there is a need to study the pragmatic features of the questions used in different situations in the communication process.

The object and subject of the research. The object of the research lies on the non-linguistic semantic aspect of the interrogative sentences encountered during the study of the English language.

The subject of the research involves the summary of the results obtained in the process of study of the usage variants, functions and features of interrogative sentences found in fiction or discourse and applying them to the decoding process.

Aims and objectives of the study. The objectives of the research are as follows:

- to study the history of the study of pragmatics in linguistics, the history and conditions of the emergence of pragmalinguistics;
- to study speech acts and speech conventions;
- review the classifications of interrogative sentences and explain the acceptable statements of these classifications with examples;
- to determine the author's role in the different interpretation of the same idea in different situations;
- comment on questions in a pragmatic way.

In accordance with the purpose and hypothesis of the research, the following tasks are intended to be performed:

- to identify similarities and differences that arise when using the same questions in different communicative situations;
- to study how the questions are interpreted during translation;
- to consider the statements on the subject in the scientific literature, to determine the theoretical basis of the work and practical language materials;
- to identify the semantic features of the questions involved in the research, which are more common in English, and their ability to associate with the precedent text.

The research methods. The dissertation uses methods of description, observation-comparison, discourse analysis as well as generalization methods of linguistic analysis based on, classification contextual analysis and synthesis of researched linguistic facts, which are mostly used in onomastic research.

The main statements of the defense:

1. Since anthropocentrism is a feature of language, it reflects the objective reality with the inner world of man, and at the same time describes the objective reality in its own way.

2. Pragmatics, in its content, refers to the relationship between language signs and their interpreters. Pragmatic language focus on it in terms of understanding the partners involved in the communication process.

3. Pragmalinguistics examines the norms and strategies of speech behavior.

4. Questions have a special place in the cultural language environment, created by the individual in the language system, with reference to a previously existing fact.

5. The semantics of each question can be identified by defining the context in which they are developed and the intention of the author.

Scientific novelty of the research. The novelty of the dissertation is that the question sentences are approached from a pragmatic point of view and the importance of defining the role of the encounters in the transmission and decoding of non-textual information is shown. The main scientific innovations are the position of question sentences in the language system, the pragmatic functions of question words in communication, the interpretation of issues related to the pragmatic relationship between the components of the question words between the speaker and the addressee.

Theoretical and practical significance of the research. The main statements of the dissertation expand the scientific theoretical views on the pragmatic features of the question sentences used in the process of English communication and open the way for the formation of new theoretical ideas about them. The dissertation can be a useful source in explaining the pragmatic features of the question words used in communication in English linguistics. The practical significance of the work is that the main statements of the dissertation can be used in universities where English is taught as a main and secondary subject.

Approbation and application. Discussions on separate chapters of the dissertation were held at the Department of English Grammar of Azerbaijan University of Languages, reports were given

at International and Republican scientific conferences, as well as articles were published in various journals.

Name of the organization where the dissertation work is carried out. The dissertation is in English at the Azerbaijan University of Languages performed at the Department of English Grammar.

The total volume of the dissertation with a sign, indicating the volume of the structural units of the dissertation separately. The dissertation consists of an introduction, three chapters, a conclusion and a list of references. The introductory – 4 pages, 7093 characters, Chapter I – 485 pages, 89400 characters, Chapter II – 33 pages, 63373 characters, Chapter III – 26 pages, 45438 characters, Conclusion – 5 pages, 9516 characters. The total volume of the dissertation is 214820 characters, excluding the list of references used.

MAIN CONTENT OF THE DISSERTATION WORK

The "Introduction" section of the dissertation provides general information about the relevance of the topic, goals and objectives of the research, scientific novelty, theoretical and practical significance, methods and sources, object, research subject, defense statements, approbation and application of the research, as well as the structure of the work.

Chapter I of the dissertation is called "**Pragmatic directions in linguistics**". subchapter I of the dissertation, entitled "*Anthropocentrism and Pragmalinguistics*", deals with the history of the formation of anthropocentrism as a science, the reasons of its emergence and its relationship with the field of pragmalinguistics, their proportionality and modern ways of development.

The earliest sources of anthropocentrism date back to antiquity and are associated with the name of Socrates. Christianity influenced the development of the term anthropocentrism in the Middle Ages. In ancient times, anthropocentrism was understood to be the pinnacle of human creation (secular anthropocentrism). Today, anthropocentrism shows that man is the central and highest goal in the creation of the world, and in linguistics it is developed from the meaning of anthropocentric principle

to the meaning of anthropocentrism in ecology¹.

The theory of anthropocentrism in linguistics is historically associated with the name of W.Humboldt. This anthropological principle required the man to be expressed through language and studied in language. *"Language is not just a means of exchange that serves mutual understanding. In fact, language is a world where the inner workings of spiritual power manifest themselves between objects and language itself."*² In the 1970s, as a result of Y.S.Stepanov's research, anthropocentrism found its scientific confirmation. Y.S.Stepanov rightly noted that the thinking substance "I" – requires language independently to describe the state of mind, the hidden basis of "I" must be analyzed in language. Our world has always represented the dialectical union of man and the universe³. The world is not just as it appears, it exists as we think of it. N.V.Bugorskaya defines three main meanings of the term anthropo-centrism:

1. Anthropocentrism as a feature of language. Anthropocentrism reflects the objective reality of language with the inner world of man and provides a theoretical confirmation of the Protogor's postulate that "man is the unit of measurement of all things", emphasizing the anthropomorphic features of language.

2. Anthropocentrism as a method of analyzing linguistic phenomena. True anthropocentric and relatively systemocentric approaches do not contradict each other, but rather support each other, which means that they can exist without conflict within a single study⁴.

3. Anthropocentrism, as a methodological study, is associated with philosophical positivism, which manifests itself in the humanization of language in linguistic description⁵.

¹ Большая Российская Энциклопедия: [в 35 т.]. – Москва: Большая российская энциклопедия, – т. 35. – 2017. – с. 176.

² Гумбольдт В. Избранные труды по языкознанию. / В.Гумбольдт. – Москва: Прогресс, – 2000. – с. 234.

³ Большая Российская Энциклопедия: [в 35 т.]. – Москва: Большая российская энциклопедия, – т. 35. – 2017. – с. 178.

⁴ Алпатов В.М. Об антропоцентричном и системцентричном подходах к языку // – Москва: Вопросы языкознания, – 1993. № 3, – с. 22.

⁵ Бугорская Н.В. Язык как форма сознания // Языковое бытие человека и этноса: психолингвистический и когнитивный аспекты. – Москва: Барнаул, – 2003. – с 24.

Within the anthropocentric paradigm, a number of directions are developing in modern linguistics.

Language - not outside its carriers, but by studying the human factor in language and analyzing empirical materials, it is possible to give as many human interpretations of language events and explain the "process of world organization" through language. The role of pragmalinguistics in the formation of communication, as well as in conveying the relationship between what is said and what is not said, is irreplaceable.

Pragmalinguistics. In the scientific literature, the following definition is found: pragmatics – the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with context. This definition distinguishes pragmatics from ideas that seek to equate it with other aspects of linguistics. According to Chomsky, pragmatics is an aspect of linguistic ability, and like other aspects, it is limited only consistently⁶. Thus, pragmatics must clarify the difference between what the speaker means and what the speaker can express with his own words.

Considerations about pragmatics in Azerbaijani linguistics can be found in the section of some linguists' works called semiotics. Especially prof. F.Veysalli gave enough information about pragmatics⁷. According to him, symbolism, arbitrary signs appeared in the later stages of abstraction, development and improvement of language, harmonic signs prevailed in the early days of language development, the lexical system consisted of motivations, repetitions and imitations without exception. Thus, pragmatics can be defined as follows: pragmatics studies the role of context in the sense expressed by the speaker.

Subchapter I, entitled *“Theory of Text Pragmatics”*, examines text strategy and its types, basic standards from the seven standards of textuality, concepts such as cohesion and coherence from a new theoretical perspective, and key concepts of text pragmatics.

In linguistics, there is an opinion that the broadest unit of syntactic description is a sentence. Sentences are often not developed

⁶ Гак В.Г. Прагматика, узус и грамматика речи. // Иностранные языки в школе, – 1982. № 5. – с. 11.

⁷ Veysalli F.Y. Semiotika. / F.Y.Veysalli. – Bakı: Mürtəcim, – 2010. – s. 23-25.

separately, but usually form a more closely related syntactic unit - the text. We speak, read, write, listen and even translate text. While discourse incorporates common and standard expressions in knowledge and structures, text is a specific and unique realization of discourse. Discourse includes both oral and written texts. The text refers to specific oral opinions and written documents.

Linguists have different approaches to the concept of text strategy. There are 4 types of text strategies: temporal (chronologically arranged reference series of time envelopes or time branch sentences), locative (place envelopes, place branch sentences and locative expressions), participatory (events are repeated in a single image in these events). reference) and axial (rapid change of sequence of actions dominates in a textual environment) strategy. These concepts are so closely intertwined that we can call this connection textual standards. R. Beaugrand and U. Dressler show that if the text meets the 7 standards of textuality, then it can be considered a communicative event. If one of these standards is violated, then the text will not be communicative⁸.

The first standard of textuality is called *cohesion*. Cohesion describes the interdependence of the components of sentences in the text - words (lexical and grammatical). Cohesion is an indicator of the different types of formal connections that exist within a branch sentence and a sentence within a discourse. According to M. Halliday and R. Hasan, "*cohesion exists when the interpretation of any unit in the discourse requires reference to another unit existing in the discourse.*"⁹ They divide cohesion into two parts: grammatical and lexical cohesion.

Grammatical cohesion is divided into four subgroups: reference, substitution, ellipsis and connective.

The reference creates a comment by referring to any part of the text, or the background knowledge of the world about the people who send and receive information in the text. The purpose of this reference

⁸https://www.researchgate.net/publication/256021592_Halliday_or_De_Beaugrande_and_Dressler_FAQs

⁹ Halliday, M.A.K. Cohesion in English. / M.A.K. Halliday, H.Ruqaiya. – London: Longman, – 1976. – p. 11.

in the text is to search for information inside the text (endophoric reference) or outside the text (exophoric reference). There are two types of reference: exophora and endophore. Exophore is used to denote the search for missing information outside the text: "He felt that he had met his Waterloo" (an exophoric reference to a historical event). This reference is exophoric because the speaker does not explain its meaning in the text. This extralinguistic factor is correctly recognized by the listener, because the addressee has a background knowledge of the event. Lexical-grammatical reference to the information found in the text is called endophore. There are two types of endophoric reference: anaphora and cataphora. Anaphora is a reference to any part of the word encountered earlier. It comes in two forms: inclusive (author's participation: "I could not use the box. That was too small") and exclusive (referring to a third party: "One family sewed fake Russian uniforms for themselves then, they pretended to be Russian soldiers." and simply drove through a checkpoint"). If anaphora refers to the past, cataphore refers to the future.

The re-presentation of events and expressions mentioned earlier in the text is called a substitution. Substitutions are connections between linguistic units at the grammatical level, vocabulary, linguistic forms, or at the lexical-grammatical level.

Coherence, the second standard of textuality, refers to the links in a text that connect the meanings of sentences. Coherence is also characterized by the configuration of the concepts of the textual environment and the interconnectedness and relevance of the surface elements of the text¹⁰. The text is considered coherent when it describes the events that take place in our background knowledge. The close connection between the parts of the text is the coherence of the text.

The third standard of textuality is *intensity*. R.Beaugrand describes this standard as a parameter that takes into account the position of the author: "*in order to realize the author's intention, cohesive and coherent text must be "armed "with a sequence of events (eg, demonstration of knowledge, achievement of the intended goal,*

¹⁰https://www.researchgate.net/publication/256021592_Halliday_or_De_Beaugrande_and_Dressler_FAQs

etc.)."¹¹ Intensity is associated in the text with the acceptability or appropriateness of the text as a commitment to the communicative purpose. The author of a text implies that it will be perceived by people, intentionally or unintentionally, incorporates a system of textual means and semantic elements into the structure of the text, creating "points of contact" between the author and his reader.

The fourth standard of textuality is called *acceptability*. The author of the text, intentionally or unintentionally, assumes that it will be received by other people, incorporates a system of textual means and semantic elements into the text structure, and organizes a system that creates "contact points" between the author and his reader aiming at a specific reader image by interpretation program.

Informativeness or thematicity, which is the fifth standard of textuality, is a necessary categorical feature of the text, and it manifests itself in the presence of such topics or informative content in the case of maximum reduction in the text, and when we, as a recipient, ask a question, we understand what the conversation is about in that text.

The sixth standard of textuality *situationality* –as one of the factors that turn the words and sentences of the language into text words and text sentences and give their structured considerations a text status, situationality manifests itself in the adaptation of the text to its initial (communicative situation with the addressee and recipient) situation and its functionalization.

Intertextuality, the seventh standard of textuality, is that any text cannot exist in isolation from "common memory" in a sociolinguistic environment. Intertextuality is related to the referential or formal typological relations that the text itself has previously established. Research shows that there are significant differences in works devoted to text features and categories. Existing attempts to classify text categories, identify and differentiate them, and establish a hierarchy are inconsistent for a number of subjective and objective reasons. By introducing the concept of a text prototype to linguistic use, it was possible to overcome this contradiction.

¹¹https://www.researchgate.net/publication/256021592_Halliday_or_De_Beaugrande_and_Dressler_FAQs

Chapter II is entitled “**Question sentences in the context of the theory of speech acts**” and consists of two sub-chapters. The first subchapter is entitled “*The Theory of Speech Acts*”, and discusses the origins of the theory of speech acts and its role as a key component of linguistic pragmatics today.

The theory of speech acts emerged within the framework of analytical philosophy and was characterized by a growing interest in the study of the essence of linguistic reality and the relationship between it and objective reality. L.Wittgenstein, M.Frege and B.Russell believed that the structure of language is isomorphic to the structure of the world that directly surrounds it. By the middle of the twentieth century, logical analysis was gradually abandoned. Although L.Weitgenstein still considers philosophy as a major activity in the study of language, he no longer gives up the goal of creating an ideal language¹².

The theory of speech acts was founded by C.Austin. He thought that the use of language based on the condition of truth is wrong, because the "descriptive illusion" gives reason to think that the main purpose of language in conveying information about anything is to tell the truth. His discovery is that speech not only covers the fact that the conversation is not explicit, but also changes something in the course of events: every sentence used in the conversation is not based only on the conditions of truth, it also depends on the conditions of felicity (success)¹³.

According to C. Austin, each act of speech can be examined in three aspects:

1. Locutive (idiom) act – an act that combines the pronunciation, construction and pronunciation of a purposefully expressed idea in accordance with the laws of a given language.

2. Illocutive act – an act in which the communicative purpose is known during the expression of a sentence.

3. Perlocutive act – as an act performed by influencing the

¹² Вежицкая А. Речевые акты // – Москва: Новое в зарубежной лингвистике. Вып. 16. Лингвистическая прагматика, – 1985. – с. 251-275.

¹³ Austin, J.L. How to Do Things with Words. / J.L.Austin. – New York: Oxford University Press, –1962. – p. 39.

consciousness / behavior of the addressee or creating a new situation¹⁴.

Consider the following example:

"The locution - I said I promised to go early to bed."

"The illocution - I promised to go early to bed" / Illocution is the fact that I promised to go to bed early.

"The perlocution - I may have reassured my parents" is a promise that I promised my parents that I would go to bed early.

These are three aspects of speaking. The most important of these is the generalized illocutionary aspect. This aspect shows that any sentence is determined by conventional laws.

Such an approach to a sentence as an act of speech means that there are special conditions for the use of speech, which are determined by the success of speech expressions, and each sentence is presupposition, implication and has an obligation. For example: *"I promise to marry Jane"* - the presupposition is that I'm not married yet, but it says, *"I'm about to marry Jane."*

Austin's theory of speech acts emphasizes ritual practice, which includes speech as a radical conventionalist approach to speech, and reveals two specific acts (illocutionary and perlocutionary) in linguistic exchange¹⁵.

C.Searle gave a broader classification of speech acts and identified five classes of them: 1) Assertive (can be assessed as true or false); 2) Directive (urges the listener to do something); 3) Commissioner (makes an obligation in accordance with the course of events); 4) Expressive (demonstrates a psychological position on the state of affairs); 5) Declarative (changes the reality according to the proposition of the declaration)¹⁶. Emphasizing the role of contextual features, P.Grace continues his idea, and, surprisingly, this allows him to expand the theory of communicative act of man, guided not by contextual, but by rational principles¹⁷. D.Sperber and D.Wilson's

¹⁴ Ibid, – p.21

¹⁵ Ibid, – p.31

¹⁶ Searle, J.R. *Speech Acts.* / J.R.Searle. – Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1969. – p. 58.

¹⁷ Grice, H.P. *Logic and Conversation* // In P.Cole, Morgan, –1975. v. 3. – p. 41-58

theory of relevance then tried to explain this rationality¹⁸.

Pragmalinguistic misunderstanding occurs when the pragmatic power of a linguistic structure differs from the linguistic structure to which the speaker is accustomed: the listener to the question "do you have a watch?" Specific indicators of speech acts are performative, that is, expressions that are not in themselves a message about the action, but a means of realization of the said action. For example, the sentence "I swear" is not a sentence about the oath, but the oath itself.

Speaking of conventional norms of speech behavior, V.G.Gak uses the concept of *pragmem* (pragmatic function). *Pragmem* is observed in one language and may not be in another: "Nush olsun" and "Bon appetit" have no English equivalent.

Ignorance of *pragmems* leads to two types of errors: 1) semantically incorrect interpretation of the expression (example "How do you do?"); 2) onomosiologically improper use of the *pragmem*¹⁹. It is common for different languages to use different methods for similar communicative purposes.

In the second part of Chapter II "*Semantics of question sentences and the pragmatic nature of answers*" the problem of the relationship between question-oriented communicative intention and its methods of communication is brought to the fore.

Although question sentences act as a natural means of expression and syntactic organization of questions, there is no unambiguous relationship between questions and their forms of realization during speech. The right question for the addressee signals a gap in itself, and the correct answer is an attempt to fill that gap, which will be successful when new information is provided. In any acceptable question-answer theory, information (as in pragmatics) is a key concept. But how can question-and-answer theory be used in pragmatics? In response to this question, we can point to an important maxim proposed by P.Grace – the maxim of relevance. As the name

¹⁸ Sperbe, D. Relevance: Communication and Cognition. / D.Sperbe. – Oxford: Blackwell, –1986. – p. 135.

¹⁹ Гак В.Г. Прагматика, узус и грамматика речи // Иностраннные языки в школе, – 1982. № 5. – с. 13-15.

suggests, relevance depends on what it belongs to²⁰. The topic of conversation can be thought of as a series of questions.

The first necessity (constrain) formulated by N.Belnap was called "equivalence thesis" by itself. N.Belnap observed that wh-combinations of question sentences and indirect questions are often used in pairs²¹, and decided that the semantics of both should be treated equally, but this is not an identification. The equivalence thesis is associated with the principle of compositionality.

Another thesis of N. Belnap is the thesis of responsiveness: the semantic representation of direct or indirect questions must provide sufficient information about which sentence can be a possible answer. In his thesis, he describes the possible answers as follows: the answer is neither too much nor too little information²². In our opinion, the requirement of an answer thesis must be met by another requirement, a standard semantic answer. The following are some of the possible answers to the question:

"Whom did John invite to the party?"

- Mary.

- The girl from the next door.

"A redhead."

Although these three answers have different semantic characteristics, they are possible answers to the same question sentence. The first model is the answer. He names John the person he invited to the party. The second answer is not a typical semantic answer, because signs do not always refer to a referent, as in the case of names.

There are two important facts on which the question-and-answer theory is based: a) standard answers: semantically accurate indicators are not developed and they are not or are unlikely to depend on

²⁰ Grice H.P. Logic and Conversation // In P.Cole, Morgan, – 1975. v.3. – p. 41-58

²¹ Approaches to the Semantics of Questions in Natural language // https://books.google.az/books?id=E311xdZcr2MC&pg=PA22&lpg=PA22&dq=nuel+belnap+approach+to+semantics+of+questions+1981&source=bl&ots=68FevkEaqQ&sig=ACfU3U3lake8EsiZvm0OUPMN75xIXDaXQ&hl=ru&sa=X&ved=2ahUKewilyJv2z_LmAhVhyqYKHxfDCdUQ6AEwAHoECAYQAQ#v=onepage&q=nuel%20belnap%20approach%20to%20semantics%20of%20questions%201981&f=false

²² Ibid

possible information; b) non-standard answers: have an appropriate information structure. An important point to note is that the interpretation of a linguistic answer depends on the context of the question sentence.

a. Who walk in the garden?

b. Which men walk in the garden?

c. John and Bill.

d. John and Bill walk in the garden”.

Both components depend on the interpretation of the answer and the context of the answer-question sentence. Both answers to the first question (a) (c), (d) indicate that John and Bill are the same people who walk in the garden. In the second question, both answers (b) (c) and (d) indicate that John and Bill are men walking in the garden. If Mary also walks in the garden, then both answers to the first question (a) (c), (d) will not be correct or complete. The mayor's walk in the garden does not affect the accuracy and completeness of both answers (c), (d) to the second question (b).

Our main concern is whether there is a specific presuppositional phenomenon for wh-terms or a specific question sentence, and if so, what is their nature? Consider two examples:

“- To whom is John married?

- Do you want tea or coffee ”

It is generally accepted that the word question used presupposes that John is married to someone. This existential presupposition is associated with the lexical meaning of the wh-question "who". The word question can sometimes be associated with two presuppositions: 1. The addressee wants coffee or tea; 2. The addressee does not want any. The alternative question construction means that one of the choices will be correct. Thus, when characterizing the concept of a standard semantic answer, semantics provides the basis for the whole theory of responsibility, where the pragmatic function of answering a question must be taken into account.

Chapter III is entitled **“Question sentences in monologue texts.”** Two important issues are addressed here: the anaphoric functions of the sentence and the nature and cataphoric content of the rhetorical questions. In the first paragraph of this chapter (**“The**

cataphoric function of the sentence”), the parallelism between intra-sentence and inter-sentence cataphor, the manifestations of cohesion are studied, the issue of intra-textual relations is brought to the fore.

Analysis of the methods of realization of cataphoric relations in the structure of the text identified the following typical cases of its use:

1. Substitution of words: a group of words or sentences referred to by this / these pronouns. So, in the following example, this replaces it by pointing to the next whole sentence: “I’ll tell you this. Why don’t you speak to me ever again?”. ”. In this context, this usually acts as a principle or completeness. *“This is my last word: I am no beaten rug. I don’t need to feel like one”*²³.

2. Use of the pronoun as an indicator of the antecedent. In this case, the syntactic connection manifests itself in the plural category of the noun and the pronoun: *“What did they complain about? The waiter brought them tea when the guests had finished the dessert.”*²⁴

3. Using an ambiguous noun as a cataphoric reference. If the ambiguous noun is used for the first time in a sentence and depends on the context after it, then it can only be a cataphoric connection: “He was so pleasant, that his fellow writer, his rivals and contemporaries, forgave him even the fact that he was a gentleman”²⁵.

4. Using the indefinite pronoun of Something: “Wait! I’ll tell you something... In this wedding I play the minister”²⁶. The pronoun “Something” refers to the amount of information to be given in the next text, which the speaker suddenly remembers. The second sentence is the information itself as a whole.

5. In some cases, the reference to the next elements of the text is made by the number of lines and acts as a designation: *“Who is the first to have a try - Jeremy or Ian?”*²⁷.

6. Combining monosyllabic or elliptical sentences in the form of

²³ Herbert, G. The Penguin Dictionary of Quotations. / G.Herbert. – London: Claremont Books, –1995. – p.127.

²⁴ Hemingway, E. For Whom the Bell Tolls. / E.Hemingway. – Москва, –1973. – p.211

²⁵ Ibid, –p.289

²⁶ Ibid, – s.53

²⁷ Hemingway, E. For Whom the Bell Tolls. / E.Hemingway. – Москва, –1973. – p.81

superficial phrases. These means are often found in deliberately open modern advertising texts that require the completion of an expression:

“How to lead a full life? “Earn more. Be independent. Take charge of your future. Join FedEx Ground in Warren”²⁸.

Examples show that referential choice is not governed by the text postponent, but by the cognitive status of the referent.

The results of the study showed that there is an interaction between the perception and the initially mentioned cataphor (as well as the recurring cataphor). We can show the factors influencing validity put forward by M. Ariel by referring to the cataphor. Each of these factors is investigated in 4 aspects (initially mentioned / repeated cataphor in the nucleus, initially mentioned / repeated cataphor in the Orbit). These factors are:

- Old / new information: the speaker usually reserves the pronouns to refer to the referents mentioned in the discourse. Instead, "new" units should be presented with descriptions or names. However, in the first mentioned cataphor, "new" units can be presented in pronominal form.

- Distance: This factor refers to the distance between the antecedent and the anaphora. Pronouns allow the antecedent to be used in the previous sentence. In a cataphor, the same function is performed by a distance with a referent close to the pronoun.

The first mentioned cataphor in orbit is found in the orbital part of coherent relations. The cataphor, originally mentioned in orbit, is developed in the following example in an orbital position in parallel structures: *"Although he called current market conditions are" highly competitive, "Mr. LaMothe, Kellogg's chairman and chief executive officer, forecast an earnings increase for the full year."*

In the case of a recurring cataphor in orbit, the distance between the anaphora and its secondary antecedent in the orbital part of the relationship reaches its maximum in comparison with other cases of the cataphor: “So that’s the reason she went to Portland. Yes. Yes. Yes. Yes. Yes. Yes. The Tabloid Star. Like its mainstream competitors, [breath] it finds people who say they knew her. Were you stunned? This just couldn’t be? Not the Monica Lewinsky that i

²⁸ The Employment Guide. – 2003, January, 2. № 1. – p. 12.

knew? No. No, not s-not stunned. But it's you know, a lot could happen in five years. [Breaking News]”.

- Competition: the speaker must distinguish the intended referee from potential competitors. E.J. As Arnold and M. Griffin point out, if the same person is represented in the context, then the speaker is more likely to use pronouns than explicit forms.

The cataphor, first mentioned in the nucleus, is connected to a referent cataphoric element, and an antecedent referent fights for the position. This is the case with cataphoric dogs.

In the case of repeated cataphores in the nucleus, the referent is a candidate for the position. In this case, the referent can be in the form of NP as a secondary antecedent, either in the form of a repetitive cataphor or an expanded free sentence: *“It was, uh, me, a guy name Jeff Teague, and Craig Barsley. ... And uh, you know after a little while we ended up talking him into it and uh, so we all snuck ... And uh, I don` t know who thought of it, I don` t know if it was me or Jeff or Craig but we had some cigarettes on us and we were smoking trying to be the big rebels you know and we had a lighter. And one of us thought of the idea of sticking a newspaper in the mailbox and setting the mailbox and newspaper on fire [OANC]”*.

- Saliency: M. Ariel connects the concept of notice to the linguistic category of content. The subject theoretically increases the probability of developing pronouns in a sentence. Two levels of topics are defined according to a given discourse segment - sentence and discourse levels.

- Unity: refers to the degree of connection between the segment consisting of the cataphor and the segment on which the anesthetic is processed: "Because Noga cannot resist sweets, she bought a whole load of them" / "Because she cannot resist them, Noga bought a whole load of sweets".

Thus, the cataphor is understood as a case where the text element has an interpretive dependence on the linguistic environment that follows it. Cataphoric communication takes place mainly in texts in the style of scientific and official registers, and provides a prospective transmission of information. The study of other functional styles allows us to expand the scope of research of these references.

Chapter III, entitled “*Main Features and Cataphoric Content of Rhetorical Questions*”, analyzes various types of rhetorical questions, examines the types of context-dependent / non-cataphoric functions with specific examples.

As we know, rhetorical questions have always been in the focus of researchers as a widespread linguistic phenomenon in speech (see: N.I.Jinkin, Y.M.Skrebnev, I.R.Galperin, etc.). Today, rhetorical questions are characterized as an effective dialogizing figure of monologue, and act as an indicator of the meaning and emotionality of the centers of meaning, which serve to form an emotional-evaluative attitude to the subject of speech. A similar approach to rhetorical questions is found in British and American explanatory dictionaries: “*Rhetorical question, a question asked, as in oratory or writing, only for rhetorical effect, to emphasize a point, introduce a topic, etc., no answer being expected*”²⁹.

Lack of informative answers to rhetorical questions is a characteristic feature of rhetoric, although it is not necessary. One of the most common forms of rhetorical questions is the irreplaceable questions used in affirmation and denial: they question the truth of a previously expressed new idea. The irreplaceable rhetorical question used in the denial of form implies a constant of affirmation in indirect speech. “*Brother, don't I feel as bad about it as you do?*”³⁰ Another type of irreplaceable rhetorical question is the grammatical non-negative question sentence, which realizes the constant of denial in indirect speech: “*Is there anyone in the world?*”, *Cried Miss Waterfood, "who can put such a wealth of wit and satire and comic observation into a semi-colon?"*³¹

Rhetorical questions can also be developed in the form of special questions. According to the wording used at the beginning of the sentence, rhetorical questions are divided into subgroups. One of the most common types of substitute rhetorical questions is the who-

²⁹ Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language Text. / – New York: The World Publishing Company, – 1951. – p. 1249.

³⁰ Chrichton M. Airframe. / M.Chrichton. – Arrow Books, – 1997. – p. 42.

³¹ Hemingway, E. For Whom the Bell Tolls. / E.Hemingway. – Москва, –1973. – p.108.

question, which is affirmative in form and refers to the negative constant. "But who does hawk at eagles with a dove?" / "Nobody hawks at eagles with a dove". A less common type of substitute rhetorical question is a question that refers to a formative affirmation: "*Who wouldn't like it? It's so beautiful*"³² / "Everyone would like. It's so beautiful."

Questions with the substitute Who act as a question of completeness: "Who did you ever treat square, you rummy?" I told him. "*You'd double cross your mother*"³³ > "You never treated anyone square". What question pronouns in question sentences may coincide with the question of completeness due to the form of functionalized rhetorical questions: "*What can I say that will enable you to understand the depth of my sorrow?*"³⁴ / "I can't say anything that will enable you to understand the depth of my sorrow". One of the most common types of rhetorical questions is the question corrected by the pronoun used in the Why (why-question) causal envelope function: they usually contain the modal verb affirmation ("*Why should I waste your time in discussing what is inevitable?*"³⁵) And negation ("*Why shouldn't he work with his hands?*"³⁶).

Alternative questions and divisive questions can be rhetorical questions as well as transformations of irreplaceable questions. The rhetoric of alternative and distinguishing questions is determined by the context. The rhetoric of context-dependent rhetorical questions can be opened in contexts. The clarifying context of the rhetorical question can be expressed in one sentence (a) or in several sentences (b): "*Who could attempt to pursue him? It was impossible*"³⁷ / (a) The sentence following the rhetorical question in the example proves rhetoric based on the idea "No one could attempt to pursue him"; (b) "What's your

³² www.pragmatics.oo.vg

³³ Hemingway, E. To have or have not. / E. Hemingway. – Москва: Международные отношения, 1979. – p. 38.

³⁴ Shelley, M. Frankenstein. / M. Shelley. – Aerie Books LTD, –1983. – p. 227.

³⁵ Shaw, B. Mrs Warren's Profession. / B. Shaw. – Ст.-Петербург: Антология, – 2002. – p. 60.

³⁶ Hemingway, E. The Torrents of Spring. / E. Hemingway. – Penguin Books, – 1996. – p. 38.

³⁷ Shelley, M. Frankenstein. / M. Shelley. – Aerie Books LTD, –1983. – p. 72.

degree? ”/ “A Bachelor of Arts. In music, Marty said, in his reasonable tone ”// “*Mr. Barker, do you think that qualifies you to judge aircraft?*”³⁸; (b) In the example, the sentence before the question reflects the speaker's conviction that only a person with humanitarian knowledge cannot be an expert in aircraft design: “*That does not qualify you to judge aircraft.*”

Declarative questions correspond to a formative sentence, they can rarely be rhetorical, their rhetoric depends on the context. All syntactic types of question sentences in English can be rhetorical questions. Rhetorical questions in the form of alternative questions, divisive and declarative questions are rare, their rhetoric depends on the context.

Context-independent rhetoric is defined by the syntactic structure of the rhetorical question or its internal semantics, and usually expresses a universal reality: “*Are you talking about or animated bust? Back to its mansion call the fleeting breath? Can-honor's voice provokes the silent dust or flattery soothe the dull cold ear of death?*” / “*Storied urn or animated bust cannot back to its mansion call the fleeting breath. Honor's voice cannot provoke the silent dust, or flattery car mot soothe the dull cold ear of death*”³⁹. Rhetorical questions that do not depend on the context may include fixed constructions, rhetorical clichés, and sentences that are questionable in terms of the form in which they are used in the sense of a rhetorical question, in which the quality is “erased.”

Thus, a rhetorical question is an affirmation or denial of a question form in order to create a stylistic effect, draw special attention, or enhance the emotional tone of a sentence. Rhetoric is a stylistic and pragmatic function of a particular syntactic structure, and there are affirmative or negative aspects of the affirmative asymmetry that is characteristic of the formal and substantive features of an event - the rhetorical question.

In the “**Conclusion**” part of the dissertation, the scientific conclusions obtained during the research process are summarized as follows:

³⁸ Galsworthy, J. In Chancery. / J.Galsworthy. – Hertfordshire, – 1994. – p. 333.

³⁹ www.taha.org/public/speech

1. Summarizing the definitions given in the research, we can say that pragmatics means how sentences gain meaning in a situation. In linguistics, anthropocentrism focuses the researcher's interests from object to subject and recognizes language in man and man in language. Pragmalinguistics is another field of study that studies language in terms of understanding the addressee and the addressee involved in the communication process, understanding and explaining the nature of language from the human world.

2. A foreign language learner who is fluent in a second language demonstrates a pragmatic performance that is different from that of the native speakers of that language. Pragmalinguistic tools help to convey the idea to the listener in the way the author intended. Such tools exist in the form of explicit and implicit in language. It is possible to "see" the information in the text with exclusive meanings without referring to the background knowledge. Implicit means semantic, grammatical, syntactic, etc. to understand meaning. knowledge is not enough. Such meanings are not taught, they are assimilated from the environment around us.

3. The text is a specific and unique realization of the discourse and refers to specific oral ideas and written documents. If the text meets the seven standards of textuality, then it can be considered a communicative event. When a requirement of one of these standards is violated, the text will not be communicative (will become non-textual).

4. Grammatical, syntactic, lexical, graphic, etc. The connection between the components of the surface structure and the level of deep meaning, in the semantic-cognitive level, is realized by the cohesion-coherence opposition. Intensity is a sequence of cohesive and coherent text events to realize the author's intention. Situationality functions as a standard of textuality – adapting the text to its original situation.

5. When approaching question sentences in the context of speech acts, two directions are taken into account: theories of speech acts and the semantics of question sentences and the pragmatic nature of the answers. A number of expressions are equivalent to action ("I name this ship" or "I now pronounce you man and wife") and they create a new socio-psychological reality. The theory of speech acts

explains these sentences as a three-dimensional case: locational, illusionary, and perlocutionary. Simple movements are called locational speech acts. When we say an illusionist act, the expression is equal to the action (request, warning, breaking a promise). Perlocutionary act refers to the effect (persuasion, intimidation, enlightenment, etc.) on the listener by expression.

6. An important maxim is the maxim of relevance, and the topic of conversation includes the explicit existence of a question-answer relationship between a series of questions. The subject matter itself is an explicit or implicit question and determines the relevance of the claim. Even if the question is not asked explicitly during the communication, it (the question) plays a special role as a background claim, as a topic that coherent the discourse.

7. Cataphora is a phenomenon that has an interpretive dependence on the subsequent linguistic environment, the elements of the text. The cataphoric referent and postsentent, expressed by different means of language levels, are a dual structure of the cataphore and combine the semantic source.

8. Rhetorical theory is based on interaction with other social structures and means of communication, methods of reconstruction of reality, participation in the structuring of socio-political relations. Rhetorical questions have the structural form of ordinary questions, and the semantic value of the narrative sentence, and sentences of any syntactic type and structure can be rhetorical questions. Lack of informative answers to rhetorical questions is a characteristic feature of rhetoric.

9. The rhetoric of rhetorical questions may or may not depend on the context. Context-independent rhetoric is determined by the syntactic structure of the rhetorical question or its internal semantics and usually expresses a universal reality. Contextual rhetorical questions are "clarified" only in the context of the context.

The content, main statements and results of the research are manifested in the following articles and theses published by the author:

1. Rzazadə, G.Ç. Presedentlik anlayışı və alluziv adlar // – Bakı: Azərbaycan Dillər Universiteti, Dil və Ədəbiyyat, – 2014. №4, – s.41-44.
2. Rzazadə, G.Ç. Azərbaycan və ingilis dillərində implisit məna // Ümummillî lider H.Əliyevin anadan olmasının 94-cü ildönümünə həsr olunmuş “Azərbaycanşünaslığın aktual problemləri” adlı Beynəlxalq Elmi konfransın materialları. – Bakı: – 4-5 may, – 2017, – s. 531-532.
3. Rzazadə, G.Ç. Cümlənin kataforik funksiyaları // Doktorantların və gənc tədqiqatçıların XXI Respublika Elmi Konfransının materialları. – Bakı: BDU, – 24-25 oktyabr, – 2017, II c., – s.156-157.
4. Rzazadə, G.Ç. Presuppozisiya intertekstuallığın bir növü kimi // – Bakı: Bakı Slavyan Universiteti, Elmi Əsərlər (Dil və ədəbiyyat seriyası), – 2019. № 1, – s. 220-223.
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6. Рзазаде, Г.Ч. Причины коммуникативных-прагматических неудач в вопросах (на материалах английского и азербайджанского языков) // IV International Scientific Conference “Modern Interdisciplinarity and Humanitarian Thinking”, – Kutaisi, – 2019, – с. 135-136.
7. Rzazadə, G.Ç. Siyasi sual cümlələrinin praqmatika interfeysində analizi // – Bakı: Bakı Slavyan Universiteti, Elmi Əsərlər (Dil və ədəbiyyat seriyası), – 2019. № 2, – s.181-186.
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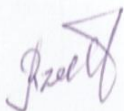
The defense will be held on 28 of February 2024 at 10:00 at the meeting of the Dissertation council ED 2.12 of Supreme Attestation Commission under the President of the Republic of Azerbaijan operating at Azerbaijan University of Languages.

Address: AZ 1014, Baku, Rashid Behbudov Street, 134.

Dissertation is accessible at the Azerbaijan University of Languages Library.

Electronic version of the abstract is available on the official website of the Azerbaijan University of Languages.

Abstract was sent to the required addresses on 23rd of January 2024.



Signed for print: 23.01.2024

Paper format: 60x84 1/16

Volume: 37775 characters

Number of hard copies: 20