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BAKALÁŘSKÁ PRÁCE

Forma a funkce deklarativních otázek v britské angličtině

Form and function of declarative questions in British English

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ABSTRAKT

Předmětem této bakalářské práce je forma a funkce deklarativních otázek v britské angličtině. Teoretická část představuje pojem nepřímé korespondence mezi větnou formou a diskurzivní funkcí, dále pojednává o zaujatosti v kontextu deklarativních otázek a zabývá se lexikálním značením deklarativních otázek. O tento teoretický základ se pak opírá analytická část práce.

Analytická část je korpusovou studií, která jako zdroj využívá konverzační sekci Britského národního korpusu (XML edice). Zaměřuje se na lexikální znaky, které se objevují ve větách s deklarativním slovosledem a které značí funkci otázky. Zkoumá četnost jednotlivých lexikálních ukazatelů a jejich funkci v komunikaci.

KLÍČOVÁ SLOVA
deklarativní otázky, zaujatost, korpusová lingvistika

ABSTRACT

This thesis examines the form and function of declarative questions in British English. The theoretical part introduces the concept of indirectness between sentence form and discourse function, discusses the notion of bias in the context of declarative questions and examines the lexical marking of declarative questions. This theoretical foundation is then used as a basis for the analytical part of the thesis.

The analysis is a corpus-based study that uses the conversation section of the British National Corpus (XML edition) as its source. It focuses on identifying lexical markers suggestive of question function that appear within declarative clauses. It examines the frequency of individual question markers and explores how they function in communication.

KEYWORDS

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1 Introduction

The aim of this thesis is to analyse the form and function of declarative questions in British English. Declarative questions are a specific linguistic phenomenon with versatile functions, observed not only in English but also in other languages like Dutch or Czech (Beun, 1990; Malá, 2010).

The theoretical part deals with indirectness within sentence form and discourse function. Furthermore, the theme of bias in terms of grammatical marking is explored, focusing on its manifestation in declarative questions. Then, the difference between declarative questions and their interrogative counterparts is discussed in terms of both form and function. Finally, explicit lexical and morphosyntactic marking indicative of question function in declarative questions is discussed.

The analysis focuses on identifying lexical markers that suggest question function within declarative questions. The material is drawn out from the British National Corpus conversation section. This material is explored to determine the ratio between marked and unmarked declarative questions and the frequency of individual lexical markers. Then, these markers are exemplified, and their specific function is illustrated by example sentences from the British National Corpus.

The thesis is organized as follows. The second chapter provides the theoretical background for the analysis. The third chapter discusses the material and the method adopted in the thesis. The analysis is presented in the fourth chapter, and the findings of the analysis are summarized in the conclusion.

2 Theoretical background

2.1 Sentence type and discourse function

Quirk et al. (1985, p. 803) point out that we distinguish four major syntactic types in English, each having a different grammatical form. These are declaratives, interrogatives, imperatives, and exclamatives. They can be distinguished according to whether they contain a subject and how a subject and a finite verb are ordered (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 180).[1]

1) **Declaratives:** the subject is present and is generally placed before the verb

   Pauline gave Tom a digital watch for his birthday.

2) **Interrogatives:** formally marked in one of two ways:

   a) Yes-no interrogatives: contain an operator[2] that is placed in front of the subject

   Did Pauline give Tom a digital watch for his birthday?

   b) Wh-interrogatives: open with a wh-element, the operator is placed before the subject

   What did Pauline give Tom for his birthday?

3) **Imperatives:** have no overt grammatical subject, the verb has a base form

   Give me a digital watch for my birthday.

4) **Exclamatives:** generally have subject-verb order, an initial phrase introduced by 'what' or 'how'

   What a fine watch he received for his birthday!

   (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 803)

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[1] Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 856) differentiate five major sentence types: declarative, exclamative, imperative, and closed and open interrogatives. Closed and open interrogatives are discussed in greater detail in 2.5.1.

[2] Quirk et al. (1985, p. 79) provisionally defines an operator as „the first or only auxiliary" in a sentence.

Quirk et al. (1985, pp. 803–804) further distinguish four discourse functions or semantic classes: statements, questions, directives, and exclamations.

1) **Statements:** primarily used by speaker to state something and convey information

   The sun rises in the east.

2) **Questions:** "primarily used to seek information on a specific point"

   Are you happy?

3) **Directives:** "primarily used to instruct somebody to do something"

   Open the door!

4) **Exclamations:** primarily used to express speaker's feelings

   What a surprise it is!

(Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 803–804)

2.1.1 Declarative sentence type

Declaratives are the most common clause types as they present a major part of spoken and written language (Dušková et al., 2006, ch. 12.1). They are marked by the presence of a subject, which generally precedes the verb, and they display SVO word order pattern (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 803; Siemund, 2018, p. 136). As Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 855) state, declaratives represent a default clause type, and therefore, "a clause is declarative if it lacks the special properties that define the other types". As for the mood of the verb, the prevailing type in a declarative clause is indicative, which presents the sentence's content as a statement, as in ex. (1). Moreover, the verb form can be conditional, as shown in example (2), presenting the information as conditional, possible, or unreal (Dušková et al., 2006, ch. 12.11).

(1) The sun rises in the east.

(2) Without her expensive clothes and make-up, she would look quite ordinary.
    (Dušková et al., 2006, ch. 12.11)

2.1.2 Interrogative sentence type

If a declarative sentence is considered a default type, we will delve into how interrogatives differ from declaratives. Downing and Locke (2006, p. 182) claim that interrogatives, in contrast to declaratives, have a different word order, in which the finite verb stands before the subject. Different types of interrogatives syntactically differ. In the case of yes-no interrogatives, there is an inversion of the operator and the subject (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 807). Wh-interrogatives, in addition to the inverted word order, place wh-word at the beginning of a clause [3](Dušková et al., 2006, ch. 12.12.3).

As for the inversion, not all corresponding positive declarative sentences contain an operator that could be used to form an interrogative sentence. Such sentences use do-support, meaning that if no item in the verb phrase can function as an operator, they take the 'empty' operator 'do', such as in ex. (3), which represents a yes-no interrogative or ex. (4), which is a wh-interrogative (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 80).

(3) He sleeps a lot. - Does he sleep a lot?

(4) I bought it here. – Where did you buy it?

However, this 'empty do' also occurs in negative declarative clauses, in which it precedes the negator 'not' as in ex. (5). Moreover, 'empty do' can be found in positive declarative sentences as a means of emphasis, placed before the lexical verb as in ex. (6). (Dušková et al., 2006, 8.33)

(5) I do not eat meat.

(6) The rule is a very general one; if an exception does occur, it is one of the following cases. (Dušková et al., 2006, 8.33)

Secondly, wh-interrogatives characteristically contain one (or more) interrogative words (wh-words), which are fronted to the initial position, as in ex. (7) (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p. 164). However, Quirk et al. (1985, p. 817) claim that declarative sentence type may contain interrogative words as well, such as in ex. (8), where the wh-element occurs in

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[3] However, wh-questions can display a declarative form in some instances. When the wh-element stands for a subject, there is no subject-operator inversion, such as in: Who is your best friend? (Dušková et al., 2006, ch. 12.12.3)

the final position. They speak about declarative wh-questions typical for interviews and interrogations.

(7) Where did you board the train?

(8) So you boarded the train where? (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 817)

Dušková et al. (2006, ch. 12.12) claim that different types of interrogatives differ from the declarative sentence type in different scales, with yes-no questions showing the most difference, as for the intonation, which is rising and the inverted word order.

2.2 Direct and indirect correspondence between form and function

There is a conventional association between a clause type and a discourse function; this is an association between syntactic and semantic classes. Quirk et al. (1985, pp. 803–804) claim that declaratives are characteristically used to make statements, as in ex. (9). Secondly, we use interrogatives to ask questions (10). Imperatives are used for directives, as shown by ex. (11), and by exclamatives, we characteristically express exclamations (12). Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 853) make an association between the clause types and their characteristic use as follows: declarative (statements), closed interrogative (closed question), open interrogative (open question), exclamative (exclamatory statement) and imperative (directive).

(9) Bill is my brother.

(10) Did he phone you yesterday?

(11) Close the door!

(12) What a handsome man he is!

However, this correspondence between clause types and discourse functions is not absolute (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 804). This claim can be demonstrated by the following examples. Example (13) is syntactically a declarative but bears the semantic meaning of a question[4], ex. (14) is an exclamation expressed by an interrogative, ex. (15) has an interrogative form but semantically is a command, and ex. (16) expresses a statement despite its interrogative

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[4] The indirect correspondence between declarative form and interrogative function signals bias. Thus, every question that has a declarative form is non-neutral. The topic of bias will be discussed in greater detail in section 2.4 Malá points out that "the declarative form of the question serves as an indicator of conduciveness" (Malá, 2006, p. 143).

form. This suggests that the major clause types can perform any discourse function. (Weber, 1993, p. 7).

(13) You felt alright when you left? (Biber et al., 1999, p. 203)

(14) Isn't that lovely! (Biber et al., 1999, p. 207)

(15) Will you behave! (Biber et al., 1999, p. 207)

(16) What do I care? (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 804)

2.3   Discourse function of a question

As mentioned before, it can be distinguished between four different semantic classes, each of which is used in communication for different purposes. My focus will be on questions. Questions can be differentiated from statements, directives, and exclamations by the fact that by asking a question, a speaker expects an answer. Questions thus prototypically express inquiries. In asking a question, we seek information that we do not know, and we want to have it provided by the addressee (Huddlestone & Pullum, 2002, pp. 865-866). "Questions typically express ignorance on some point and aim at eliciting a response from a hearer which will remove the ignorance" (Cruse, 2000, p. 338).

However, questions are not only used to inquire information that one does not know but also express other functions. Questions can be used to express surprise or interest as in ex. (17). Speakers also use questions as a gateway for a topic they wish to discuss, such as in ex. (18), where the speaker does not make a genuine inquiry but instead uses the question as a preliminary to tell the addressee what the book is about (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 202). In addition, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 867) speak about questions that are used to direct someone's attention to a particular topic, as shown in ex. (19), "I am directing your attention to a question whose answer I'm about to give you".

(17) A: Thomas is moving to Chicago.

B: Is he? I thought he would stay in Seattle because of his job.

(18) Have you read this book? It's about a plane that crashes in the Andes and no-one comes to their rescue… (Downing &Locke, 2006, p. 202)

(19) How can this problem be overcome? I suggest that the first step is… (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 867)

Moreover, there exist several kinds of questions, whose function is not to inquire something, but rather have the content of a sentence verified or confirmed. Among these are echo questions (20) that ask for repetition or clarification (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 835). [5] Another example would be question tags (21), whose function differ according to the tone they possess. Rising tone signifies doubt and therefore asks for verification. On the other hand, falling tone signifies that the speaker is rather certain and seeks confirmation (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 187). Another type of question used for other function than questioning is the one that has a declarative form, the declarative question (22), which the speaker uses in order to have the content of the sentence confirmed (Dušková et al., 2006, 12.12.1). Moreover, there are comment questions (23), which are used to "provide feedback and keep the conversation going" (Biber et al., 1999, p. 207). Lastly, there is a rhetorical question, which is strikingly different from the questions mentioned above since it does not expect any response from the addressee. The motivation behind a rhetorical question is to make a statement or an exclamation as in ex. (24). (Downing & Locke 2006, p. 201).

(20) A: Switch the light off, please.

    B: Switch the LIGHT off? (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 835)

(21) Ben is in South Africa, isn't he? (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 187)

(22) You didn't know it? (Dušková et al., 2006, 12.12.1)

(23) A: She's a teacher. B: Oh, is she? (Biber et al., 1999, p. 207)

(24) Do you expect me to wait here all day? (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 201)

2.3.1 Question types

Independent interrogative clauses can be divided into three groups "according to the type of reply they expect" (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 806): wh-questions, yes-no questions, and alternative questions (Biber et al., 1999, p. 204; Dušková et al., 2006, ch. 12.2; Quirk et. Al, 1985, p. 806).

Huddleston and Pullum (2005, p. 162) differentiate between closed and open interrogatives. The answers to closed interrogatives can be derived from the questions

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[5] Quirk et al. (1985. 835-837) differentiate between recapitulatory questions and explicatory echo questions.

themselves, and according to this characteristic, they are further divided into polar and alternative questions. In contrast, open interrogatives do not expect a specific set of answers, and as for the number of answers, they are unrestricted in a way (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, pp. 161–164).

Yes-no questions

In yes-no questions, or in other words polar questions (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 808), "the speaker asks for confirmation or denial of the clause content, to be expressed by yes or no" (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 183). However, this confirmation or denial can be performed via a wide range of responses. (Dušková et al., 2006, ch. 12.12.1). For example, if we ask the example question (25), the response may be 'A little', 'Need practice' or 'Of course'.

(25) Can you swim?

Yes-no questions usually display inverted word order as there is an inversion of operator and subject. However, not all polar questions are inverted; an example of this exception are declarative questions. Usually, polar questions have rising intonation, however, falling intonation in yes-no questions is used as well, mainly in the polar questions containing modal operators (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 807–808).

Quirk et al. (1985, p. 808) further distinguish between neutral and conducive yes-no questions. Neutral polar questions contain non-assertive forms. However, there are cases where assertive forms are used instead, and questions are oriented towards particular answers, either positive or negative (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 808). The issue of bias will be discussed in greater detail in section 2.4.

Wh-questions

Wh-questions, also called information questions (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 817), express a lack of information and turn to the addressee to provide the missing information (Dušková et al., 2006, ch. 12.12.3). They contain interrogative words, some of which function as syntactic substantives as in ex. (26), determinators (27), and adverbials (28) (Dušková et al., 2006, ch. 12.12.3). These wh-words stand for a clause element or a part of a phrase that the speaker wants to have supplied by the addressee (Biber, 1999, p. 204). Huddleston and Pullum (2005, p. 166) call these phrases supplied by the addressee "replacement phrases"

because we use them to replace the wh-element in a clause. As for intonation, they usually have a fall (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 817).

(26) What did you buy?

(27) Which colour do you want?

(28) Where was she?

Alternative questions

Alternative questions provide the addressee with the alternatives from which they can choose and answer the question. The alternatives are coordinated by the coordinating conjunction or, and the number of alternatives contained in the sentence is unrestricted but there are most often two alternatives (Dušková et al., 2006, ch. 12.12.2). In asking an alternative question the speaker assumes that only one of the alternatives is true (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 823–824).

In syntactic terms, alternative questions are similar to yes-no questions as they are marked by an inverted word order (Dušková et al., 2006, ch.12.12.2). In contrast to yes-no questions, they display a rise-fall intonation, with all alternatives having their own intonation unit, "a rise occurs on each item in the list, except the last, on which there is a fall, indicating that the list is complete" (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 823). Intonation is crucial as alternative questions as well as yes-no questions types can contain the conjunction 'or'. Therefore, it is the intonation that tells us with what kind of question we are dealing (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 823). This can be demonstrated by the example sentence (29); if it is produced with a rise at the end, the rise indicates a yes-no question, and the speaker might answer, "yes, I want ice cream or chocolate" or "I don't want ice cream or chocolate". Conversely, a fall at the end indicates an alternative question, and the answer may be "I want chocolate" or "I want ice cream".

(29) Do you want ice cream or chocolate?

2.4 Biased questions

Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 867) classify polar questions as neutral and biased.[6] Whereas the first case stands for questions that have no expectation towards the answer on the part of the speaker, the latter one contains a bias towards either positive or negative answers (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 879). [7]

By asking a polar question, the speaker asks whether the proposition expressed is true or false. However, polar questions can be biased and convey additional pragmatic meanings that go beyond analysing a question as a mere inquiry into truth conditions. (Sudo, 2013, p. 275). Bias can be defined as "a non-truth-conditional aspect of a question meaning" (Sudo, 2013, p. 276). According to this, we can use two distinct questions to ask about the same thing, meaning that they will have the same propositional content, but they differ in how they can be interpreted according to the bias they do or do not convey. This can be demonstrated by example sentences (30) and (31), which both express the proposition 'she phoned you', but the first question is neutral while the second one is biased as the speaker chooses a negative form to ask a question, which tells us about the speaker's bias towards a particular answer (Sudo, 2013, p. 276).

> (30) Did she phone you?
> (31) Didn't she phone you?

2.4.1 Kinds of bias

As for the classifications of bias, there exists more than one. Sudo (2013, pp. 282–283), following the work of Büring and Gunglongson (2000), classifies bias as epistemic and evidential. The critical difference between these two concepts is that evidential bias stems from the evidence accessible to the participants in a given situation. Example sentence (32) carries positive evidential bias as there is a "compelling contextual evidence for the proposition that it is raining" (Büring & Gunglongson, 2000, p. 7) and therefore the speaker expects a positive answer, according to the evidence. Epistemic bias, in contrast, is based on the speaker's beliefs, as shown in ex. sentence (33) where Sarah believes that

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[6] Alternatively ‚open‘ and ‚conducive‘ (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 879)
[7] Siemund (2018, p. 171) points out that most yes-no questions are biased as "speakers maintain and also try to improve on a host of hypotheses about the world around them".

Jack has some cash.[8] The difference can be summarized as follows: epistemic bias belongs to the speaker in a way, it is private, while evidential bias is "inherently public" (Büring & Gunglongson, 2000, p. 282).

(32) scenario: A enters S's windowless computer room wearing a dripping wet raincoat:

S: Is it raining?

(33) scenario: Sarah wants to buy a coffee from a machine that only accepts cash but realizes she doesn't have any with her. She therefore asks Jack as she knows he always carries cash.

S: Jack, you have some cash, right?

On the other hand, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 880) identify three kinds of bias: epistemic, deontic, and desiderative. Epistemic bias refers to "the speaker thinking, expecting, or knowing that one answer is the right one". An example of this phenomenon would be example sentence (34), in which the speaker may expect or think that she does not like it based on her remarks or behaviour. Deontic bias is associated with the speaker's "judging that one answer ought to be the right one", therefore in example sentence (35) the speaker judges that they should be ashamed of themselves. Lastly, desiderative bias refers to the speaker's hope that a particular answer is the right one, this is the case of example sentence (36) where the speaker hopes for a positive answer as he wants to be given more ice-cream.

(34) Doesn't she like it? (Huddleston &Pullum, 2002, p. 880)
(35) Aren't you ashamed of yourself? (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 880)
(36) Can I have some more ice-cream? (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 880)

2.4.2   The encoding of bias

We can recognize that a question is biased towards a specific answer because of the context in which it is uttered. Example sentence (37) may be used as an inquiry about the

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[8] Sudo (2013, p. 282) adds that epistemic bias can have different modal flavors, as it does not always stem from the speaker's belief, it can be based on some norms and rules (deontic bias) or it can refer to the speaker's desire (bouletic bias)

price of the knives, which the speaker expects the addressee to know, then there will be positive desiderative bias, as the speaker expects a positive answer. Secondly, in the context where the addressee seems to be misusing the knives, this sentence may be used as a rebuke, having a strong negative epistemic bias (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 881).

(37) Have you any idea how much these knives cost? (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 881).

Moreover, bias may be marked by the prosodic properties of a question (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 881). Asher and Reese (2007, pp. 12–13) argue that bias can be derived from the intonation and that placing emphatic stress on certain sentence elements can be responsible for bias. Example sentence (38) contains an item 'anything', which generally conveys neutrality. However, if the sentence is read with emphatic stress on 'any' it is no longer neutral, but biased. By stressing the item 'any' in ex. (39) the speaker may convey his scepticism that Fred did not contribute anything or contributed very little to the campaign.

(38) Did Fred contribute anything to the campaign?
(39) Did Fred contribute ANYthing to the campaign? (Asher & Reese, 2007, p. 13)

Grammatical bias marking

Lastly, it is the grammatical structure of a sentence, from which we can infer that the question is not neutral but biased. Huddlestone and Pullum (2002, p. 881) account for three cases of grammatical bias marking: a declarative form, negative interrogative questions, and assertive items, with the last one conveying weaker bias than the first two.

Quirk et al. (1985, p. 808) claim that "negative questions are always conducive". According to Dušková et al. (2006, ch. 12.2.1), English negative questions can be used only in specific contexts. This is usually when the speaker expected a positive response (old expectation) but is confronted with new evidence (new expectation) that indicates a negative response as illustrated by example (40) in which the speaker thought that the addressee could drive straight but new evidence suggests that he cannot (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 808). According to the disparity between the previous expectations and new evidence,

"negatively oriented questions often express disappointment or annoyance" (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 809).

(40) Can't you drive straight? (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 809)

Moreover, negative questions can contain assertive items, in which case they are biased towards positive answers, as in example (41) where the speaker expects that someone called. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 809).

(41) Didn't someone call last night? (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 809)

See Ladd (1981, pp. 164–166) on the scope of negation and the difference between outside and inside negation.

Moreover, neutral, genuine yes-no questions contain non-assertive items that express no bias towards any specific answers, including items such as ever, yet, or any, and expressions with any. However, positively-oriented items, such as some or already, can be used in questions as well. By using them, a speaker assumes a positive answer, and rather than making a genuine inquiry, he asks for confirmation or verification of his assumption on the part of the addressee, such as in example (42). This distinction between a neutral and a biased question can also be demonstrated by the fact that the answer to the question (42) can be 'That's right' while it would not be a possible answer to a neutral yes-no question (Dušková et al. 2006, ch. 12.12.1).

(42) Did someone call last night? (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 808)[9]

2.5 Declarative questions

Declarative questions are sentences that have a declarative structure but bear the semantic meaning of a question (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 804). They are also referred to as queclaratives (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 203), and according to their use, they are

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[9] Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 885) add that positively oriented items often occur in indirect speech acts, such as in offers or requests. The reasoning behind this is that when we request something, we expect that an addressee can do something about it. Also, by offering, we express hospitality, for the expression of which the opposite, negatively-oriented item 'any' would not be sufficient and would appear rather strange.

considered a kind of polar questions (Gunlogson, 2015, p. 124), as they can be answered by 'yes' or 'no'.

They are said to be non-neutral as they carry heavy answer bias (Siemund, 2018, p. 141). Gunlogson (2015, p. 130) states that "a declarative expresses (some degree of) commitment to its content", and therefore the questions that have declarative form are biased, as the speaker's "expected answer is here the statement with the same propositional content as the question" (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 881). By asking a declarative question, the speaker seeks confirmation or verification of a proposition he believes (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 882). According to this, positive declarative questions have a positive orientation, as shown in ex. (43), and negative ones have a negative orientation, as in ex. (44) (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 814).

(43) Somebody is with you? (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 814).

(44) You didn't get anything to eat? (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 814).

2.5.1 Syntactic form and prosodic properties of a declarative question

As claimed above, declarative questions are considered a kind of polar questions, however, they differ from a prototypical polar question by the fact that they do not display subject-operator inversion, as demonstrated by ex. (45), which is a yes-no question with inversion while ex. (46) is a declarative question and has an SVO word order.

(45) Did you buy a cookbook?

(46) You bought a cookbook?

In a written text, they are indicated by a question mark and, in spoken discourse, by rising intonation (Gungloson, 2015, p. 124). However, the case where a final falling intonation is used also exists, specifically when a comment clause is added to a declarative question, as in ex. (47); the comment clause has a rise, whereas the declarative has a fall (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 814).

(47) You realize what the risks are, I hope. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 814)

2.5.2 Communicative function of declarative questions

Although the grammatical form of declarative questions would suggest that they possess the communicative function of statements, it is not quite right. Huddleston and Pullum

(2002, p. 882) state that declarative questions are indirect speech acts. Searle (1979, p. 31) defines indirect speech acts as "cases in which one illocutionary act[10] is performed indirectly by way of performing another". According to this characteristic, they are statements at the direct level but count as questions.

It is the final rising intonation[11] thanks to which they acquire the function not typical of a declarative clause, the function of a question (Gungloson, 2015, p. 124). The intonation serves as an additional factor in deciding what an utterance counts as and "overrides clause type in determining what kind of speech act is performed" (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, p. 163). According to this characteristic, they are also referred to as "syntactic declaratives with rising intonation, which typically have the force of a yes/no (polar) question" (Malá, 2008, p. 143).

2.5.3 Declarative questions vs. interrogative questions

Declarative questions and interrogative questions cannot be utterly interchangeable because having two different forms expressing identical meanings would lack efficiency. Having said that, there must be differences between declarative questions and the questions expressed via interrogative clauses.

To start with, "declarative questions cannot be used "out of the blue"" (Gunlogson, 2015, p. 124) and are bound by contextual limitations. Thus, the use of a declarative question must be implied by the context. According to Dušková et al. (2006, ch. 12.12.1), this context can be linguistic or situational. As far as the linguistic context is concerned, they claim that declarative questions are often used to echo what was uttered by another speaker as shown in ex. (48), this subtype of declarative question is called echo question.

(48) A: He didn't trouble to explain.

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[10] Illocutionary act refers to the communicative purpose of a speaker. "The illocutionary force of an utterance is what the utterance 'counts as'" (Yule, 1996, 48–49).

[11] The rising intonation of declarative questions finds its explanation in terms of commitment to the propositional content of discourse participants. Gunlogson (2015, p. 130) points out that "falling declaratives commit the Speaker to the proposition expressed" and, therefore, express statements. On the contrary, rising declaratives shift this commitment to the addressee, "rising declaratives, like interrogatives, may make the point that the Addressee, rather than the Speaker, is in a position to know whether the proposition expressed is true". According to this, rising declaratives are consistent with interpretation as questions.

B: He didn't trouble to explain? (Dušková et al. 2006, ch.12.12.1)

However, Gunlogson (2015, pp. 140–141) adds that the use of declaratives extends beyond echoing what was said beforehand. She claims that declarative questions can be used to question presuppositions, as in ex. (49). Moreover, "the Speaker can use a declarative question to present an inference interpretable as a consequence of the Addressee's position", as illustrated in ex. (50)

(49) A: The king of France is bald.

B: France is a monarchy? (Gunlogson, 2015, p. 129)

(50) A: John has to leave early.

B: He'll miss the party then? (Gunlogson, 2015, p. 140)

Furthermore, Gunlogson (2015, p. 141) claims that "declarative questions do not require a linguistic antecedent" and demonstrates it by the following example (51), where a declarative question can be used even though nothing was said before.

(51) scenario: Robin is sitting in a windowless computer room when another person enters. The newcomer is wearing a wet raincoat and boots. Robin says:

R: It's raining?

However, if there is no context, as in ex. (52) a declarative question cannot be used, and an interrogative structure must be used instead (Dušková et al., 2006, ch. 12.12.1).

(52) scenario: Robin is sitting in a windowless computer room with no information about current weather conditions when another person enters. Robin says to the newcomer:

R: Is it raining?

R: *It's raining?

Crucial distinction between declarative questions and interrogative questions is in terms of neutrality. Gunlogson (2015, p. 125) states that "declaratives are not neutral; they convey a bias that interrogatives lack". According to this, declarative questions cannot be used for neutral questioning (Gunlogson, 2015, p. 126). This can be illustrated by example sentence (53), which could be used during a job interview, a situation that requires neutrality, while its declarative counterpart (54) would be odd in the same situation.

(53) Have you been convicted of a felony?

(54) *You've been convicted of a felony? (Gunlogson, 2015, p. 126)

The fact that declarative questions display bias and anticipate answers is reflected in the way how they can be answered. A plausible answer to the declarative question (55) might be 'That's right' or 'Exactly' but these phrases could not be used as answers to a neutral interrogative question in ex. (56) (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 882).

(55) They've moved to San Francisco?

(56) Did they move to San Francisco?

Moreover, according to the bias declarative questions possess, they cannot be used as speculative questions[12] as their interrogative counterparts (Gunlogson, 2015, p. 127). While ex. (57) works as an open-ended question, which can be answered by many answers and might lead into further discussion, ex. (58) commits the speaker to a particular view and cannot be used in the same way.

(57) Do you think there is anything after death?

(58) *You think there is anything after death?

In addition, a declarative question cannot be used as a polite request for action while an interrogative can, as demonstrated by the examples (59) and (60) (Gunlogson, 2015, p. 127).

(59) *You can close the door?

(60) Can you close the door?

Another difference lies in the use of polarity items, such as any or ever, which are typical of interrogatives but do not occur in declarative questions, as demonstrated by the following examples (61), (62) (Gunlogson, 2015, p. 128). On the contrary, declarative questions are similar in the use of polarity items to declarative sentences and, therefore, may contain polarity items, such as already, still, or some, as shown in ex. (63) (Dušková et al., 2006, ch. 12.12.1).

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[12] Speculative questions can be defined as "questions designed to instigate thought or discussion without necessarily being answered or answerable" (Gunlogson, 2015, p. 127).

(61) Did anyone call?

(62) *Anyone called?

(63) You are already back? (Dušková et al., 2006, ch. 12.12.1)

Next is the occurrence of specific markers, which are characteristic of declarative questions. Among these are confidence markers that convey how the speaker is certain or confident about the proposition expressed. An example of this phenomenon is ex. sentence (64), in which the phrase "no doubt" indicates that the speaker is confident or certain they misunderstood her intentions. However, these markers occur rather rarely in interrogative questions, and if they do, they carry much weaker epistemic certainty, as in ex. (65) (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 882).

(64) They <u>no doubt</u> misunderstood her intentions? (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 882).

(65) Did they <u>perhaps</u> misunderstand her intentions? (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 882).

2.5.4 Function of declarative questions

The primary function of declarative questions is not to seek information but to have the sentence's content verified or confirmed by the addressee (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 882; Quirk et al., 1985, p. 814,). In her study of declarative questions, Weber (1993, pp. 120–121) concludes that 73 % of the declarative questions in her research are used to request confirmation of B-events. [13]

This confirmative function can be demonstrated by several examples. In ex. (66), the speaker uses a declarative question to express the conclusion he has reached according to what the addressee told him and asks for confirmation (Biber et al., 1999, p. 203).

(66) A: She packed her things and next morning she was gone.

B: So she's left him?

A: Yes, that's exactly what she did.

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[13] „B-events are typically known to B but not to A, e.g., his or her emotions, daily experiences, likes and dislikes, etc." (Weber, 1993, p. 94)

Siemund (2018, p. 142) claims that declarative questions tend to occur in contexts that he calls 'induced confessions', in which the speaker merely checks the information he was provided about the addressee. This is the case of ex. (67), in which the speaker, a doctor, only wants to confirm the data the patient gave him in the questionnaire. Another example of these 'induced confessions' would be police interrogations.

(67) D: So you used to be a smoker?
     P: Yes.
     D: But you haven't smoked for ten years?
     P: No, I haven't.

Moreover, via declarative questions, the speaker may express surprise, as in ex. (68) or disbelief as in ex. (69) (Biber et al., 1999, p. 203).

(68) Scenario: A meeting B, though arriving slightly early
     A: You are already here? (Siemund, 2018, p. 142)
(69) A: Do you understand?
     B: No.
     A: You don't understand? Why don't you understand? (Siemund, 2018, p. 142)

Downing and Locke (2006, p. 204) speak about another use of declarative questions associated with the marker 'You were about to say…'. Using this marker and the following declarative, the speaker can press the addressee to admit something, as in ex. (70).

(70) A: You were about to say that you left your husband and married his brother?
     B: No, I did not intend to say this.

Furthermore, Beun (1990, p. 58), following the ideas of Leech, points out that declarative questions can be used for reasons of politeness, as in ex. (71), claiming that the question with interrogative form would sound rather offensive in such cases, like 'Don't you even know whether a train leaves that early'. He is buttressing this claim by Leech's (1983, p. 135) approbation maxim, which is formulated as follows: "minimize dispraise of other; maximize praise of other".

(71) S: What time do they leave from Eindhoven and can I use them when I want to pick someone up and didn't book myself?

I: That is no problem, but I don't have any time schedules about buses here. In that case, you have to call another number.

S: (i) You don't know whether they leave early in the morning? (Beun, 1990, p. 66)

Concerning the function of declarative questions, Stenström (1984, p. 152) differentiates between declarative questions, declarative questions with a tag, and those with a prompter, matching individual types with function. She claims that declarative questions have a function of confirmation; they ask for confirmation of what has been proposed, while the latter two ask for acknowledgment of the information proposed.

2.5.5 Formal marking of declarative questions

Having said that declarative questions violate the direct correspondence between form and function, the question arises as to how the addressee can recognize the interrogative intention of the speaker when he utters the question in a declarative form.

Weber (1993, p. 57) points out that it is the morphosyntactic form, lexical and morphosyntactic elements, intonation, gesture, accessibility of information, and sequential position in the talk that help the speaker interpret utterances. "There are multiple factors relevant to the interpretation of an utterance and that the interaction of these factors is important" (Weber, 1993, p. 8). In her study, she focuses on lexical and morphosyntactic marking that suggest the question function of declarative questions. She further differentiates between declarative questions with no associated marker and those marked declarative questions (Weber, 1993, p. 59).

Marked declarative questions

Downing and Locke (2006, p. 203) claim that declarative questions are frequently accompanied by lexical items that function as markers, whose purpose is to "'draw out' the desired information by reinforcing the speaker's assumption". Weber (1993, p. 61) distinguishes between three types of marking as follows:

(1) Marking which occurs within the declarative clause

Firstly, there are lexical elements suggestive of question function that are integrated into the clause structure (Weber, 1993, p. 61). Bolinger (1957, pp. 61–62) distinguishes between two classes of lexical markers of declarative questions, tentations and imputations. By the term tentations he refers to the expressions that indicate that the speaker is making a presumptuous assertion and expects confirmation (Bolinger, 1957, p. 61). On the other hand, imputations stand for phrases by which "the speaker ascribes words or opinions to someone else" as shown in ex. (72) (Bolinger, 1957, p. 10). However, these classes are not mutually exclusive, meaning that one question can contain an imputation as well as tentation as exemplified by ex. (73).

(72) You say it's too late? (Bolinger, 1957, p. 10)

(73) You think he's coming I suppose?

The class of temptations include:

- Hypothetical verbs (I suppose, assume, imagine, hope, guess, believe, bet, say)
- Hearsay verbs (I understand, am told, am informed, hear, have heard)
- Inferential adverbs (adverbs used as inferential connectives) (then, so, therefore)
- Potential adverbs (perhaps, probably, maybe, possibly, most likely)
- Adverbs of assurance (doubtless, no doubt, undoubtedly, assuredly, of course, surely)
- Impersonal expressions (it must be that, it is certain that, it is to be supposed, it is to be expected, it is to be hoped, it is to be assumed)
- Accented auxiliaries (but you DO like it?)

Imputations include:

- Ask, say, tell, claim, think, believe, imagine, and suppose

Bolinger (1957, p. 62) points out that as for the position of the imputation, „post-posed imputations are better than pre-posed ones".

Moreover, both Bolinger (1957, p. 62) and Stenström (1984, p. 153) consider the second person pronoun 'you' to be a lexical marker of the question function. Swerts & Šafářová (2004, p. 316), according to their study, claim that the presence of 'you' in any syntactic

position is relevant in recognition of a declarative question. Weber (1993, p. 97) considers the second pronoun in subject position to be a marker suggestive of question function but claims that "it is not the meaning of the second person pronoun which makes it suggestive of question function; it is the fact that it refers to the recipient in an interaction" (Weber, 1993, p. 87). She supports her claim by stating that second person subjects are, when compared to other person pronouns, most often found in interrogative structures and therefore their occurrence is in general associated with question function (Weber, 1993, p. 86).

Another lexical marking of declarative questions includes the occurrence of wh-words, which are displaced to the final position as in ex. (74) (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 203). Wh-words also occur in a large extent in echo questions, in which they stand for words or phrases the speaker did not understand clearly and asks for their clarification or repetition (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 835).

In addition, the questioning function can be indicated by a "gap", as in ex. (75), in which the speaker leaves out the information he wants to have provided by the addressee. It can be said that in such cases, two speakers form together a declarative clause (Weber, 1993, p. 63-64).

> (74) So you took the documents to which Ministerial office? And you left them where? (Downing & Locke, 2006, p. 204)[14]
> (75) A: He wrote a book about an Indian woman.
>   B: And it's called …..?
>   A: The God of Small Things.

(2) Marking which occurs before the production of the declarative clause

Apart from the explicit markers of question function that occur within the clause, the utterances produced before a declarative clause may also help the hearer recognize the speaker's questioning intentions. This marking includes prior declarative clauses, which contain lexical elements that suggest a question function, as the verb phrase 'I don't know' in ex. (76), which is followed by a complement clause (Weber, 1993, pp. 64–65).

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[14] This is a wh-declarative question (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 817).

(76) I don't know what it's about, you're not goona tell me? (Weber 1993: 65)

Other signals of question function include the use of interrogative words, as in ex. (77) before the declarative question. (Weber, 1993, p. 66)

(77) scenario: a mother sees her daughter frowning at the food she cooked.

M: What. You don't like it? (Weber, 1993, p. 66)

Last but not least are the discourse markers that precede declarative questions (Weber, 1993, p. 69). The category of discourse markers includes "words and expressions which are loosely attached to the clause and facilitate the ongoing interaction" (Biber et al., 1999, p. 140). According to this characteristic they can be relevant in revealing the questioning function of declarative clauses, as in ex. (78), in which the discourse marker 'because' introduces the speaker's inference about the reason for the couple's breakup. As it is an inference drawn by the speaker from what he was told by the addressee, he expects a confirmation.

(78) A: They did not seem to have any problems, but he was always angry about her being on her phone all the time, so once he lost his temper and broke up with her.

B: Because she was addicted to her phone?

(3) Marking which occurs subsequent to the production of the declarative clause

The words or phrases that follow declarative questions can be suggestive of the fact that the speaker is doing questioning (Weber, 1993, p. 71). Among these are tags added to declarative questions (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 814), as shown in ex. (79), which display the same polarity as the declarative question. Invariant tags, whose form does not change according to the polarity of a clause, can be added to declarative questions as well as in ex. (80). In both example sentences, the tag added to the declarative question in combination with rising intonation signalizes the question function and expects some kind of response from the addressee (Weber, 1993, p. 72).

(79) You've got the explosive, have you? (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 814)
(80) You bought the gift, right?

Declarative questions with no associated marker

Above, the examples of declarative questions containing certain lexical elements marking the questioning function were discussed. But what if a declarative sentence does not possess any of these elements, how is it possible for a hearer to recognize the questioning function?

One factor is the intonation, with which the utterance is produced. Generally, it is claimed that declarative questions have final rising intonation (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 814). However, the intonation itself cannot be considered a signal for the question function, as rising intonation occurs in locutions, whose function is not to do the questioning (Bolinger, 1957, p. 13). Moreover, "there is no such thing as an unambiguous question intonation" (Weber, 1993, p. 60). Secondly, it is a facial gesture, which may indicate to the addressee that the speaker's intention is the one of questioning (Weber, 1993, p. 75).

An essential aspect in encoding declarative sentences as questions is the accessibility of information. Weber (1993, p. 75), following the ideas of Labov and Fanshel (1977), speaks about the rule of confirmation that conversational participants apply in order to encode a declarative question. This idea is based on the notion of B-events. „B-events are typically known to B but not to A, e.g., his or her emotions, daily experiences, likes and dislikes, etc."(Weber, 1993, p. 75). According to this "If A makes a statement about B-events, then it is heard as request for confirmation" (Labov and Fanshel, 1997, p. 100, cited in Weber 1993, p. 76).

This phenomenon can be illustrated by ex. (81). Speaker A might have an assumption that the addressee went to the shop and therefore asks the declarative question, which the addressee interprets as a question according to the fact that whether the addressee's went to the shop is a B-event, known to B but not to A.

(81) A: You went to the shop?

B: Yes, I wanted to buy some chocolate.

3   Material and method

The sentences analysed in this thesis have been excerpted from the conversation section of the British National Corpus (XML edition). The main aim of this thesis is to determine which lexical markers suggestive of question function occur in declarative questions, how frequent they are and determine their function. The declarative questions we are concerned with are subject to the following characteristics:

- they display direct word order (no subject-operator inversion),
- both subject and verb are present,
- they end with a question mark,
- they have a questioning function.

To find declarative questions, the query mode was set to "CQP syntax", and the query was formulated as follows: <s>[pos!="V.+|.+Q"][]{1,10}[word="\?"]within s. Then, after receiving the data, I thinned it, using the random (reproducible) thinning method, reduced the number of hits to 2000, and downloaded the data. After that, all the occurrences were manually checked, and the first 150 instances that fulfilled the criteria defined above were included in the analysis. Among the included items were, for instance, declarative questions such as:

- They're actually doing it?
- And they all stood on the stage doing something?

On the contrary, the instances which did not fulfil the criteria were excluded. Among the excluded tokens were examples such as:

- You going there? – as the operator is ellipted, it is hard to determine whether the original sentence was 'Are you going there' or 'You are going there?'
- Did he tell you how much they charge? – subject-operator inversion
- Anybody got a pen? – functions as a request
- You like some more coffee? – functions as an offer

I also encountered cases with the verbs 'wonder, hear, think, mean, say, ask' constituting the main clause, as in ex. (82). The example is a complex sentence with the main clause 'I

wonder' and a subordinate interrogative clause 'if we'll get him', so direct word order is the unmarked option. However, such cases fulfill the criteria defined above (direct word order, question mark,…), and therefore, I decided to include them in my analysis and will comment on them.

(82) I wonder if we'll get him?

The data I gathered from the corpus contained a large number of declarative clauses with tag questions, which I decided not to include in the analysis. The reason behind that is that the authors (Dušková et al., 2006, ch. 12.12.1.; Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 810, 814) differentiate between declarative clauses followed by tag questions and declarative clauses with rising intonation despite the fact that in functional terms, they are very similar. Tag questions possess interrogative form, as shown in ex. (83), and according to their tone, they either ask for verification (rising tone) or confirmation (falling tone) (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 811). Downing and Locke (2006, p. 189) claim that "tags are questions and so require an answer". Concerning their similarity with declarative questions, Quirk et al. (1985, p. 814) even state that declarative questions "resemble tag questions with a rising tone in that they invite the hearer's verification". Having said that, if a tag question is appended to a declarative question, it can be considered its functional equivalent as it takes over the verificative function of a declarative question.

(83) Her husband died has he?

Another case is the invariant tag questions, shown in ex. (84), which have a rising tone but do not display an interrogative structure. In this category belong words or phrases such as *right?, am I right? don't you think?* etc. However, as far as their function is concerned, they also invite the hearer's response, and therefore, I decided to exclude them from the analysis. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 814)

(84) That's how they do them, right?

As far as the issue of invariant tags is concerned, comment clauses must be mentioned. Quirk et al. (1985, p. 814) differentiate between invariant tags, which express questions, and those which usually do not, which he calls comment clauses. Regarding the function of comment clauses, they are used as hedges, meaning that "they express the speaker's

tentativeness over the truth value of the matrix clause" (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1114). Comment clauses also express the speaker's certainty and his emotional attitude, and some seek agreement on the side of the hearer (Quirk et al., 1985, pp. 1114–1115). In the data, I encountered two comment clauses following the declarative clause: 'you know'*,* and 'I suppose'.

In the analysis, I included the comment clause 'I suppose', which occurs in the final position and indeed functions as a hedge; Downing and Locke (2006, p. 203) even consider epistemic verbs with first-person subject, among which 'I suppose' belongs, to be the markers of declarative questions.

However, concerning the declarative clauses followed by the comment clause *you know*, I decided to exclude these cases. Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1115) claim that the comment clauses that contain the pronoun you call for the hearer's attention, express warmth toward the listener, and engage him in the conversation. Sometimes, the speaker may also use the comment clause 'you know' in expectation of the hearer's agreement (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1115). Östman (1981, p. 21) speaks about the function of *you know* in terms of intonation contour, making a connection between the intonation contour and position of *you know* in the sentence as follows: *utterance-initial you know* (declarative), *utterance-final you know* (interrogative/declarative); those in the final position are of greater importance to me. If the phrase *you know* occurs in the final position and is accompanied by an interrogative contour (a fall-rise, a rise), it displays a rather questioning effect, suggesting uncertainty, meaning 'do you agree' or 'do you see what I mean?'. If, in contrast, the declarative contour is present; it can suggest rather the meaning of 'It's obvious', I'm not going to say anything about it' (Östman, 1981, p. 21).

All in all, it is a fixed phrase, and it seems to me that in the data I gathered, it is rather appended to a declarative clause that expresses a statement than to a question. I will demonstrate this on the example (85) I found in the data, in which two speakers speak about the condition of a motorcycle, and one of them shares his desire to have a larger bike, which his parent does not want to buy him. Speaking of the comment clause *you know*, the speaker is using it as he assumes or wants the speaker to understand him; he may even expect some kind of response, which would suggest agreement. However, the clause

'yeah, it wants' is not a declarative question; it has a declarative structure, but in functional terms, it represents rather a statement. I found fourteen such cases in my data and decided to exclude them as they do not represent declarative questions, even though they display a declarative form and have a question mark at the end.

> (85) PS0KV: And erm magneto broke on it and these, I mean back shockers are a bit weak on this and that, but Sharon had it and said oh it's not big enough! I want a bigger bike but she's not gon na ride it until she's had the baby.
> PS0KP: Mm.
> PS0KV: And erm I mean, it 'll go, just wants a bit of
> PS0KP: Coaxing?
> PS0KV: Yeah. It wants, **you know**? Cos of the, the bloke up in Wooton Rivers the bike breakers there
> PS0KP: Mm

In the data, there were also instances with 'You know' at the beginning of the utterance, but none of them functioned as a comment clause. This can be exemplified by ex. (86) in which 'You know' is not a comment clause and the sentence can be paraphrased into full interrogative structure 'Do you know Lynn's working now?'. Having said that, I included such cases in the analysis.

> (86) You know Lynn 's working now?

In the sample, I also encountered two phrases 'you mean', which occur at the end of an utterance. At first, I considered them comment clauses similar in their function to 'you know'. Nevertheless, I decided to include them into my survey as they both can be paraphrased into an interrogative structure, as demonstrated by the example (87) – 'Do you mean (you put) more milk in?'

> (87) PS06A: I always do white coffee!
> PS06B: No you do n't you do something like that browny colour.
> PS06A: What? More milk in you mean?
> PS06B: Yeah. A lot more milk, about half .

In the analysis, I also included echo questions. Echo questions repeat the whole message or just a part of it (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 835). Some authors treat echo questions as a separate group, but I will follow Dušková et al. (2006, ch. 12.12.1), who claim them to be a subtype of a declarative question. They were subjected to the conditions mentioned above as well. And therefore, cases like ex. (88) were excluded:

(88) You just what? – the verb is missing

4   Analysis

In the analysis, I decided to focus on the lexical markers of question function that appear within the clause. The total number of declarative questions analysed is 150. Firstly, I analysed the sample in terms of marked and unmarked declarative questions. Furthermore, I dealt with the frequency of individual declarative question markers and illustrated their function on the example sentences from the corpus.

4.1   Marked vs. unmarked declarative questions

The following table demonstrates the distribution of lexically marked declarative questions vs. declarative questions with no associated lexical marker in the data.

Distribution of marked vs. unmarked declarative questions

Marked vs. unmarked declarative question	Number of tokens
Marked questions	96 (64 %)
Unmarked questions	54 (36 %)

4.2   Distribution of individual markers in my sample

The lexical markers of question function I encountered in the data were hypothetical verbs, hearsay verbs, inferential adverbs, adverbs of assurance, wh-words, a second person pronoun you in the subject position, and imputations. The most frequent question marker is 'you', which appears in 77 % of all marked questions.

4.2.1   Frequency of individual markers

Frequency of individual markers

Question marker	Number of tokens
Hypothetical verbs	2
Hearsay verbs	1
Inferential adverbs	20
Adverbs of assurance	1

Wh-words in final position	6
Second person pronoun in subject position	74
Imputations	5

4.2.2   Number of question markers per clause

Number of question markers per clause

Number of lexical markers per clause	Number of declarative q.
1 marker	77 (80, 2 %)
2 markers	19 (19,8 %)

As the table suggests, the majority of the declarative clauses have a single lexical marker suggestive of question function, while two markers occur only in 19 % of all marked declarative forms. An example of a declarative question with 2 question markers is the ex. (1). The sentence contains the lexical marker 'you', which, among other things, emphasizes the fact that the speaker makes a statement about a B-event (which is known to the hearer, not to the speaker, and therefore the hearer understands it as a request for confirmation). The second marker is the hypothetical verb 'I suppose'.

(1) ***You** don't do any gardening, **I suppose** at school?*

Quite interestingly, eighteen of the nineteen sentences with two lexical markers always contained marker 'you'. There was only one exception. In ex. (2) the speaker PS0F8 inquires about the status of the addressee's vehicle tax; in his utterance, he produces 'so' and 'then', both of which have inferential function and indicate a logical inference, to which the speaker has reached.

(2)

- *PS0F8: It's the [unclear] for us car tax.*
- *PS0F9: Oh, is it?*
- *PS0F8: Yeah, that's what that is, D L V Swansea .*
- *PS0F9: Oh right.*

- *PS0F8: [unclear] as a reminder. **So you 're tax will be up soon then?***
- *PS0F9: Ca n't say that [unclear] .*

4.2.3 Hypothetical verbs

Two sentences in the sample were marked by the presence of the hypothetical verb 'I suppose', once in its positive, and the second time in its negative form – 'I don't suppose'. As previously discussed in Chapter 3, Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1114) classifies the phrase 'I suppose' as a stereotyped comment clause. Through its usage, the speaker conveys tentativeness and uncertainty about the content of the dependent clause to which the comment clause is loosely attached. By using the comment clause 'I suppose' in ex. (3) the speaker imbues the question in the matrix clause with tentativeness, suggesting a desire for confirmation of its content. The speaker PS091 understands that the utterance is a request for confirmation and responds accordingly.

(3)

- *PS08Y: too. And what about all this gardening then? I was very interested when you were talking about gardening this morning. Erm*
- *PS091: Well*
- *PS08Y: **you do n't do any gardening, I suppose at school?***
- *PS091: Erm, no, I wish we could have a garden, sort of thing , like we mi , where mum used to go and have a garden but it do n't*

4.2.4 Hearsay verbs in my sample

Concerning hearsay verbs, in the sample occurred only one, the matrix verb hear, whose meaning can be interpreted as "people have been telling me this" (Weber, 1993, p. 62). In ex. (4) the matrix clause 'I hear' is followed by a clause that contains the information the speaker heard and wants to have confirmed by the addressee.

(4)

- *PS03W: True . I hear you were at the Empire the other night ?*
- *PS042: I was indeed , yes . Just sniffing about , you know see what 's going on .*

4.2.5 Inferential adverbs

As mentioned above, declarative questions may question inferences that the speaker has made and wants their confirmation on the part of the addressee (Biber et al., 1999, p. 203). Malá (2010, p. 145) claims that in such cases "what is questioned is not what has been said but what the speaker has inferred". For making inferences, the occurrence of inferential adverbs is typical. In the data, I found two different inferential adverbs: 'so' and 'then', with 'so' (12 cases) reaching a greater number than 'then' (8 cases). As far as the position is concerned, 'so' always occurs at the beginning of the clause whereas 'then' at the end, with one exception where it stands at the beginning. The inferential character of the declarative question can be exemplified by the following dialogue (5), in which the speaker reacts to the statement 'Batteries not included' made by his dialogue partner, based on which he makes an inference, saying 'So, there's no batteries in there?'.

(5)

- *PS087: Collect all three. Oh, I think you get it in here somewhere. Oh no start saving your tokens. Eight tokens for one of these amazing pens.*
- *PS089: Eight? That's not very.*
- *PS087: Batteries not included.*
- *PS088: Er can you get [unclear].*
- *PS089: **So there's no batteries in there?***
- *PS087: No, you have to go and buy your own batteries.*

4.2.6 Adverbs of assurance, confidence markers

In the sample, only one sentence contained a confidence marker, specifically the adverb 'surely'. As mentioned above, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 882) assert that confidence markers like 'surely' are characteristic of declarative questions, as they serve to reinforce the bias of such questions by indicating the speaker's level of certainty regarding the proposition expressed. In ex. (6) the speaker PS1BM uses a declarative question to seek confirmation or agreement from the speaker PS1BL concerning the assumption that PS1BL retains some information despite finding it boring. The use of 'surely' indicates a high degree of certainty or conviction regarding the assumption on the part of the speaker PS1BM.

(6)

- *PS1BM: Next two weeks is a good idea because you 've no school during the day*
- *PS1BL: It's so boring , you just do n't take any of it in cos it's so boring.*
- *PS1BM: **Well surely you retain some of it?***
- *PS1BL: You do n't honestly.*

4.2.7 The occurrence of wh-words

Concerning the questions with wh-words displaced in final position, Quirk et al. (1985, p. 817) differentiate between: declarative wh- questions and wh- echo questions. The difference between them lies in terms of function; echo questions aim at having repeated or clarified the part of the preceding utterance the speaker did not understand, while wh-declarative questions seek new information (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, p. 873). In the sample all the questions that contain wh- element displaced in the final position belong to the first group and, thus are echoes, in which the wh- element represents the part of the preceding utterance the speaker wants to have clarified by the addressee (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 835).

I encountered four such cases in my data, and their function can be exemplified by the following ex. (7), in which a mother echoes the preceding statement produced by her daughter with 'where' in the final position, as she did not understand where the doll was going and wants to have it clarified.

(7)

- *PS05B: Right, now you be a good girl for a minute, while I 'll fill up the , fill up the car alright ?*
- *PS05B: What did you say?*
- *PS05E: I said doll is going any [unclear] box, box .*
- *PS05B: **Doll 's going where?***
- *PS05E: Going in my pushchair.*

Five sentences in the data also contained wh-words (specifically 'when' and 'to where') in initial position but otherwise displayed direct word order.

In ex. (8) the speaker PS05C opts for a declarative structure as he wants to express bias, the fact that he expects a specific answer, respectively: 'we must go to the shop in the Pinge'. By choosing this form, he seeks confirmation or agreement about the planned destination he has in mind. As the speaker PS05B might not be sure which concrete place the speaker PS05C has in mind, he uses an interrogative structure to ask a genuine question about what their next destination is.

(8)

- *PS05B: Is that Lego in there ? You gon na make Mummy something ? Oh Amy do n't cry now .*
- *PS05C: **To where we must go?***
- *PS05B: Where must we go?*
- *PS05C: We must go in the shop in the Pinge to buy something for my bunny*

The rest of the sentences contained 'when' at the beginning of the clause. However, in neither of the cases was it used to seek information in the same sense as in wh-questions. These declarative questions were rather used as yes/no questions, taking yes or no for an answer. For instance, the declarative question (9) seeks confirmation or acknowledgment of the timing for carrying out the plan.

(9)

- *PS03S: Are you going to show it Tom and Madge?*
- *PS03T: Yes. **When we get there?***
- *PS03S: What take it with us?*

In ex. (10) the speaker PS03T interrupts the speech of his dialogue partner as he attempts to suggest a possible continuation of the story, guess what the speaker PS03S wants to say or wants to show interest in the story and actively participate in the process of storytelling. By interrupting the flow of the speech, he takes over the sentence uttered by PS03S, 'When you' and completes it with his assumption about what he thinks the speaker is going to say. In this, he follows the declarative sentence form established by the previous speaker. The question mark at the end might suggest that the speaker is seeking confirmation of his

assumption about what his dialogue partner was about to say or might just express polite interest and expect no answer.

(10)

- *PS03S: Do you wish you could go back to the good old days?*
- *PS03T: No .*
- *PS03S: You do n't ?*
- *PS03T: No.*
- *PS03S: Why? The wa*
- *PS03T: Just making sure.*
- *PS03S: The way you carried your shoes in a brown paper bag and when you were at ours. When you*
- *PS03T: **When you 're dancing?***
- *PS03S: when you were going out and the [unclear] had stopped and all the girls had a you know, the ordinary paper bag with a got their shoes in there.*

In ex. (11) the speaker PS04U possesses a question in an interrogative form at the beginning ('how did he get your address?') followed by a declarative question in bold, which suggests a possible explanation of how the person got one's address. Regarding function, it seeks confirmation, which can be seen in the fact that the dialogue partner recognizes the speaker's intention and answers 'yes…'.

(11)

- *PS04U: How did he get your address?*
- *PS04Y: Well*
- *PS04U: **When he worked in Safeways or something?***
- *PS04Y: Yes er somehow they, they 'd , they 'd got it , or was it or did I have to fill in a a census form just at the time when Paul was with me ? When he happened to be with me.*

In ex. (12) the sentence in bold is a question asked after a declarative question 'You must have done something interesting?', thus according to the context it can be deduced that the speaker PS1BL has some expectations or suspicions about what has his dialogue partner

done. The declarative question in bold specifies a particular time frame, the speaker is asking about and also suggests that the speaker knows that the addressee was out. Concerning the use of this question, the speaker utters it to prompt the addressee to provide an explanation regarding his activities.

(12)

- *PS1BL: Shut up! What have you, what have you done today? You must have done something interesting?*
- *PS6P6: Er erm*
- *PS1BL: **When you was out?***
- *PS6P6: No.*
- *PS1BL: I 'll put the tape back on. [unclear]*
- *PS6P6: I 've been giving the milkman a blow job, you know, that sort of thing .*

Furthermore, in the data, there was also one sentence (13) beginning with an interrogative word 'what', which can be said to set the stage for the following declarative question. Quirk speaks about the interrogative words 'why' and 'what', which, if they appear before the clause, express surprise (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 819). Weber (1993, p. 66) points out that such sentences consist of two questions but are interpretable as one, "a general question followed by a more specific one".

(13)

- *Oh what they didn't ban it?*

4.2.8 You as a question marker

The second person pronoun represents the most abundant question marker in the sample. The occurrence of 'you' is also common in echo questions. From all the echo questions in the sample, the ones with the pronoun 'you' in the subject position constitute 55 % of them. This high frequency of its occurrence corresponds to the function of echo questions, in which the speaker echoes what was said by another speaker in order to obtain repetition or clarification from him, often referring to the addressee explicitly by 'you' as in ex. (14), in which the speaker requests the addressee to repeat or further elaborate on the information he provided.

(14)

- *PS1FG: I 've got Tyne Tees on mine now.*
- *PS1FC: the other one, so we left it on that channel, channel nine I think it were*
  *. **You 've got what?***
- *PS1FG: I said I 've just tuned Tyne Tees in to mine*

As far as the distribution of the pronoun 'you' in echo vs. non-echo questions is concerned, the table suggests that 10 questions, out of all 74 declarative questions marked by the presence of 'you', were echo questions.

The distribution of subject 'you' in echo vs in non-echo questions

Echo vs. non-echo question	Number of tokens 'you' in subject position
Echo question	10
Non-echo questions	64

4.2.9   Imputations

In the sample, I identified five cases that can be classified as imputations, or ascribing phrases. The verbs used in these phrases were: 'mean', 'think', 'say', always used with second person pronoun. Although Bolinger (1957, p. 61) does not explicitly include the verb 'mean' in his enumeration of imputations, I consider it to be one, as it fulfills the function of imputation by ascribing words or opinions to another person (Bolinger, 1957, p. 10). This can be illustrated by the following example (15), in which the speaker uses the clause in bold with the verb 'mean' to verify and confirm the understanding of the PS066's suggestion about moving or lifting paving stones.

(15)

- *PS066: I 'll get some of those bricks up and put the stone things down cos they*
  look better.
- *PS065: Mm. Mm. Mhm.*

- *PS066: As long as I can get, walk along and get to all the plants there. What do you think of that [unclear]? I 'd definitely think about moving those other pavers at the bottom. There we were the steps are.*
- *PS065: **Oh, lifting them you mean**? [unclear] you mean? Oh god.*
- *PS066: Yeah [unclear] . That would make th give it a better erm.*

Concerning the position of the imputations, two of them were placed at the end of the clause and three at the beginning.

4.2.10 Elliptical questions

In the sample I also encountered elliptical clauses beginning with indefinite pronoun 'any', having operator omitted. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 899). They can be said to be colloquial versions of full interrogative questions. The text in the brackets indicates the interrogative phrases that have been omitted.

(16)

- *(Is there) Anything else you want to look at Dinda ?*

(17)

- *(Does) Anyone wan na bid for it ?*

(18)

- *(Is there) Anything you fa you fancy ?*

4.2.11 Problematic interpretations

In the sample, I encountered several instances that, although fulfilling the criteria defined above, go beyond ordinary declarative questions. Among these cases were complex sentences, all having a first person pronoun as a subject, with verbs 'wonder', 'thought', 'said' and 'ask' in the main clause followed by an embedded clause that expresses the content of what is being questioned or pondered.

I found four examples of sentences introduced by a main clause, 'I wonder' (ex. 19). They all can be said to be indirect questions, whose use is associated with politeness on the

speaker's side as they soften the tone of the inquiry in contrast to their direct counterparts (Beare, 2019).

(19)

- *PS003: Before we lose any of it!*
- *PS007: Er perhaps it's not! I know, work [gap:telephone_number] .* **I wonder if we 'll get him?**
- *PS003: Ah, well if not we 'll try the car .*

A sentence in bold in the ex. (20) presents an indirect question as well. The speaker is inquiring about the addressee's plans for attending Marion's event this year.

(20)

- *PS04B: Going somewhere else?*
- *KBEPSUNK: Huh no, well I 'm staying home I hope.*
- *PS04B:* **I thought you was going to Marion 's this year?**
- *KBEPSUNK: No. I said I wanted to have a rest. Hello Dave.*

In ex. (21), the use of a declarative structure seems to be an example of reported speech. The speaker PS09E is by saying 'I said' signals that he is referring back to the conversation that took place earlier, and what follows the clause 'I said' is reported speech. The speaker reports a previously asked question ("Have you bought it since you left [unclear]…"). In this case it does not have a question function but rather serves to convey information about a previous inquiry made by speaker PS09E. The clause 'I asked him if he had the right number' in ex. (22) is according to the context a case of reported speech as well.

(21)

- *PS09E: I said how long is it since you retired from [unclear]? Said ooh it 'll be erm eighteen years this year. (588)*
- *PS09F: Yeah.*
- *PS09E:* **I said you 've bought this since you left** *[unclear]? Well, I was trying to find how old it was.*
- *PS09F: Mm*

(22)

- *PS0FF: Well, he had the right number then did n't he?*
- *PS0FH: I did n't say it!* ***I asked him if he had the right number?*** *I did n't know who he was! Then he said the same.*
- *PS0FF: Oh!*
- *PS0FG: I suppose he thought he was talking to Sally*

In the data I also encountered two conditional clauses with declarative structure, which are followed by a question mark. As they fulfil the criteria defined above, I classify them as declarative questions. In ex. (23), the speaker utters a conditional clause with the intention of having its content confirmed – that even in the event of loss, there would still be a basis for making a claim.

(23)

- *PS05X: That is what it is for. That is what it is. Contingency is if the customer having, the buyer having said he will cover the insurance, does n't*
- *PS102: Mm.*
- *PS05X: and then does n't get his money, does n't pay us*
- *PS102: Right.*
- *PS05X: we can claim.*
- *PS102:* ***But if it was lost we could still claim?*** *We could claim, he could n't but we could .*
- *PS05X: Yes.*

In ex. (24) the speaker utters a conditional clause introduced by 'unless', offering the other speaker the option to play tummyache instead of doing the wash-up.

(24)

- *PS08A: I expect you can play tummyache while I do*
- *PS087: True .*
- *PS08A: the washing up .*
- *PS087: Yeah .* ***Unless you want to play tummyache?***
- *PS088: And you wash the*

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- *PS08A: I 'm prepared to wash up .*

4.2.12 Instances of 'you're kidding'

In the sample, I encountered one instance of 'you're kidding', whose function cannot be fully defined as the one of questioning. Bolinger (1957, p. 84) claims that such questions "have become fossilized signals for yes-no answers" (Bolinger, 1957, p. 84), and their questioning function is not clear even though they tend to receive yes/no answers. He points out that it is the high or rising terminal pitch that would suggest questioning function. He adds that they are "normally felt as exclamatory", rather than to seek information, they express the speaker's emotions. In ex. (25) the function of 'you're kidding me or what?' seems to be primarily exclamatory, expressing the speaker's surprise or shock. However, it can also be interpreted as seeking confirmation from the speaker PS0EB about the statement they uttered beforehand (*about twenty five pound*). As the question function cannot be clearly ruled out, I decided to include this sentence in the analysis.

(25)

- *PS0EF: The answer is So is he paying you?*
- *PS0EB: About twenty-five pound.*
- *PS0EF: Do you?* ***You kidding me or what?*** *–*
- *PS0EB: No.*

5 Conclusion

The aim of the analysis was to identify and examine the use of lexical markers in declarative questions that indicate question function. The analysis focused on 150 declarative questions, revealing that 64 % of these questions exhibited explicit lexical markers indicative of question function, while the remaining 36 % lacked such overt markers.

Among the identified lexical markers, the second person pronoun 'you' emerged as the most prevalent, appearing in 77 % of all marked questions. This prevalence can be attributed to the prototypical function of declarative questions, which is confirmation of B-events. Many questions in the sample began with 'you' in the subject position, explicitly referring to the addressee who owns the information the speaker wants to have confirmed. Furthermore, the frequent occurrence of 'you' in the subject position might also be associated with echo questions, as 10 questions, out of all 74 declarative questions that were marked with second person subjects, were echo.

In terms of frequency, 'you' was followed by inferential adverbs, although at a significantly lower rate. Then followed wh-words, whose occurrence is also highly influenced by including echo questions in the analysis, and imputations. Adverbs of assurance, hypothetical and hearsay verbs had the lowest frequency among the identified markers.

Regarding the number of lexical markers per clause, nearly 20 % of declarative questions featured combinations of two different markers. However, in the majority of cases (18 out of 19), these combinations always included the presence of a second person pronoun along with another lexical marker.

The declarative questions beginning with wh-words were also examined. However, in functional terms, they did not turn to the addressee to provide the missing information as typical, neutral wh-questions do but were rather seeking confirmation, which is reflected in the answers they obtained.

Finally, sentences that did not resemble prototypical examples of declarative questions were addressed. Namely those with first person subject in the main clause followed by a

subordinate clause. After closer examination, it was found that they were examples of indirect questions, and two sentences were even examples of reported speech.

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7 Appendix

7.1 Declarative questions analysed

I wonder if we 'll get him ?

they 're actually doing it ?

This is that ?

That 's her ?

And they phoned Glasgow ?

I can sit in the smoking section [unclear] with you ?

They were n't , they were n't in the wall ?

I do ?

And they all stood on the stage doing something ?

He 'll say what ?

You know Lynn 's working now ?

No point is there ?

(Is there) Anything you fa you fancy ?

You got that pack then ?

You need the toilet ?

So the mayor 's taking out the oranges ?

I wonder what that 's about ?

I wonder how they 're getting on through there ?

When we get there ?

That 's cos I 've left the thing off ?

You reckon ?

you 're leaving it like that then ?

They 're your grandchildren ?

When you 're dancing ?

Biscuit 's gone ?

He played for the county and things like that ?

You got a melly bum ?

You were n't watching Neighbours ?

You gon na come down ?

I hear you were at the Empire the other night ?

Well you wo n't want these [unclear] ?

She does n't come out ?

[unclear] wonder where you bought these clocks ?

She is n't your friend ?

You 've booked up ?

I thought you was going to Marion 's this year ?

You did ?

And that 's is your letter box up at Christmas yet ?

When he worked in Safeways or something ?

You know erm Paul ?

And that 's when you bought your meat pies ?

Wednesday 's new year 's day ?

You wash your hands ?

You want blowing ?

You want to come and talk to your daddy ?

Doll 's going where ?

You do n't want to get wet ?

You know when I , when I change a nappy ?

To where we must go ?

You wo n't laugh ?

You got your lights on ?

But if it was lost we could still claim ?

That sounds fine with you ?

So I 'm now going straight for the black ?

Well you know erm you know Charlotte ?

More milk in you mean ?

You ai n't ?

When you was out ?

Erm you know Piccadilly Bus Station ?

Your mum 'd do that ?

Well surely you retain some of it ?

And she 's been chucked out of the house ?

they wo n't do well ?

Oh lifting them you mean?

You know the quarry ?

They just heave them ?

We gon na have to get tickets when we get there ?

You want three ?

Ian did n't ?

You had a sweet at school ?

There 's a what love ?

You ca n't cope ?

You 've been cutting the bottom part of the grass ?

Unless you want to play tummyache ?

So there 's no batteries in there ?

You think I 'm gon na get two ?

They 've never been ?

The main one shuts ?

You know that programme you were asking about ?

Ooh he want , he want that for a test ?

Oh you did ?

you do n't do any gardening , I suppose at school ?

Because they were made of the right kind of iron ?

I said you 've bought this since you left [unclear] ?

Oh that 's this one ?

I do n't suppose there 's much been done ?

You got one of these ?

You got your paving stones Mark ?

You know they get a small glass like a whisky glass ?

You 're not ?

I erm , I t you know The Bounty ?

So you had a good day yesterday ?

you know what I mean ?

Anything else you want to look at Dinda ?

That 's what ?

You know what they said ?

She has n't got much of a choice for what ?

She 's doing well then ?

You kidding me or what ?

But it was n't , it was n't borough ?

You want to get your violins done ?

You have n't had a coffee yet ?

So you 've done the rounds tonight then Brian ?

You put it on there ?

So you 're tax will be up soon then ?

You know what next door 's done ?

Ooh it 's done the rounds then ?

So you like fishing ?

So you 've got to wait ?

You know this reproduction furniture ?

You win the caravan ?

You want the pate anyway ?

Then you packed in ?

When she went ?

Oh it is , yeah I wonder how nice it is ?

Only you said Sally 's having another baby ?

And he reckoned he 'd been there ?

Well so he ca n't have that one then ?

Anyone wan na bid for it ?

They founded it ?

So they do n't really do it any more ?

You ca n't ?

It does n't say ?

[unclear] other people click ?

Straight after registration we 're doing it ?

You got cooking ?

My dad 's been teaching him ?

I thought you was a lady ?

You 've got what ?

You have ?

You mean if electric goes off ?

You 've like half cleared ?

Oh you mean out front here ?

You had a good day ?

But she 's gon na send something else ?

Oh you want the nickname ?

You did n't ?

You bought the Sunday Sport ?

You got it in the garage ?

[unclear] European 's in the F A cup then ?

You have them ?

Oh what they did n't ban it ?

You ca n't find it ?

there 's some food in there darling ?

So they 've knocked it off from [unclear] everybody ?

So you got a two pound transfer ?

You want to get up again ?

So you 'll be worth quite a bit dead ?

You know where the Orion is ?

You have n't got the wallpaper ?