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**PSYCHOLINGUISTIC
APPROACH TO THE SYNTACTIC UNITS**

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INTRODUCTION

Communication being an important exchange of information, has been pondering people since ancient times. Psycholinguistics tries to answer a scientific answer to the construction and understanding of communication. Psycholinguistics is an independent field of science that studies both the creation and the process of understanding the encoding and decoding information with the help of linguistic signs in accordance with the laws of linguistic structure.

Since psycholinguistics arose at the junction of linguistics and psychological sciences, its object is the psychological side of language and speech. Psycholinguistics is closely connected not only with such sciences as linguistics (mainly general linguistics) and psychology, but also with such sciences as sociolinguistics, ethnolinguistics, applied linguistics, computer linguistics.

In the history of the development of psycholinguistics as an independent branch of science the 50s of the 20th century became a new stage.

The history of the creation and development of psycholinguistics is reflected in detail in the works of A.A.Leontyev who noted that there are several stages, "generations" in the development of psycholinguistics as a field of science. He included J.Osgood, J.Carroll, T.Sebeok and F.Lounsbury among the representatives of the first ge-

neration and J.Miller, N.Chomsky and D.Slobin among the representatives of the second generation. The third stage of psycholinguistics was called the “new psycholinguistics” of the 70s of the 20th century. The main representatives of this stage were J.Bruner and J.Verch.

Psycholinguistics emphasizes the differences between linguistic units and rules, their understanding and management.

The symbolic nature of language and the understanding of conversational activity are explained in the works of J.Austin, J.Searle, L.S.Vygotsky, A.Leontyev, A.Luriya and others. Their scientific discoveries, promising and deep scientific concepts, scientific theoretical assumptions about the nature of language and speech, the dialectical unity of language and thinking and speech gave impetus to the emergence of psycholinguistics as an independent science.

In modern psycholinguistics, researchers operate on two fronts based on the concepts of “language is an activity” and “language is a finished product” and the representatives of both fronts are united by the methodology of “registration of the movement of the eyes”. The “language is an activity” tradition is offered by the English linguist philosopher J.Austin. Later, this tradition was further expanded in discursive analysis, pragmatics. This direction in modern times is called the “theory of speech act”. Another psycholinguistic tradition was “*language is a finished product*”. It was reflected in the works of J.Miller and

N.Chomsky, the founders of modern experimental psycholinguistics [176, p.99].

At present, compared to previous periods, psycholinguistics faces much greater problems. People's understanding, memorization of utterance, lexicon and vocabulary of the language are among such problems. In recent decades, however, the focus has been the study of the nature of the word.

The overall goal of psycholinguistics was to study the mechanism of speech formation and acquisition. And an attempt to study individual words, sentences covers later periods of the development of psycholinguistics. Theories and views on the comprehensive interpretation of these issues began to appear in science. Currents such as behaviorism, neobehaviorism, theory of speech activity, connectionist and cognitive psycholinguistics were formed as clear examples of those views. Since the main goal of the manual is to develop the mechanism of creation and acquisition of words, phrases, utterances and sentences (simple, compound), it is also important to interpret the views of those currents on this issue.

Language serves the internal and mental activity of the individual. Recently, psycholinguists have shown particular interest in the issue of the influence of language on various spheres of human activity. However, this area remains fundamentally unexplored. The presented manual is aimed to fill the gap in that field based on existing linguistic and psycholinguistic approaches.

Relevance of the topic. The main goal of psycholinguistics was to study the mechanism of formation and assimilation of speech and language information. Since psychologists are mainly involved with this mechanism, they were interested in the psychological side of the problem, but did not pay attention to the linguistic side.

In modern research on syntax, linguists are more attracted not so much by the division, analysis of syntactic units, but by their semantics, encoding and decoding in the comprehension process, polysemy, synonymy, cognitive homonymy, processing of mitigations that play the role of an interpersonal message.

In certain periods of the development of psycholinguistics, certain attempts were made to study words, phrases, utterances and sentences, however, the mechanism of their formation and assimilation was not the object of experimental research, was not studied from the psycholinguistic aspect.

Performative verbs, which form the main and integral part of the speech act, denote the relationship between the speaker and the listener in the process of communication. The main feature of such verbs is that they express actions that are in sight. In this aspect, the study of performative verbs at the lexical-semantic level on the basis of materials of various systemic languages is of great importance. However, performative verbs in English and Azerbaijani languages have not been investigated in a lexical-semantic,

confrontational typological direction. This is one of the main reasons determining the relevance of the topic.

The main subject of psycholinguistics is the speech as a psychological process, its creation reception and perception. For this reason, the term “speech activity” was used as a synonym for the term “psycholinguistics” in the former Soviet Union. The object of linguistics is language and its system and the object of psycholinguistics is the carrier of language and the process of communication, organization and activity of speech. The object of this research is syntactic units and its subject is psycholinguistic approach to the syntactic units, their encoding and decoding process in communication, the difficulties encountered at this time and the determination of ways to solve these difficulties.

Goal and tasks of the study. The main goal of the study is to identify the mechanism of structural ambiguity in the understanding process of a sentence on the basis of experimental-phonetic analysis, as well as the encoding and decoding of the meaning of phrases, utterances and sentences in the comprehension process by examining syntactic units in a psycholinguistic aspect.

The main *tasks* facing the research are the following:

- to investigate speech activity, its psychological content, forms, structure, types, realization and functions by digression into the history of the formation of psycholinguistics as a relatively new branch of science;
- to analyze the history of the study of syntactic units, different approaches to syntax;

- exploring the mechanism of perception of syntactic units – phrase, utterance and sentence in the process of communication;
- determining the role of mitigations – hedgings in the communication process;
- to involve ambiguous sentences in the experimental-phonetic study;
- to interpret the place allocated to syntactic units in the theory of speech act;
- to study performativity as a psycholinguistic concept, to show the meaning expressed in utterances;
- to interpret the role of composite performative constructions and hedge performatives in the speech act.

Research method. Psycholinguistics does not apply any new methods that are fundamentally opposed to linguistics and its methods. In the research work, the method of acoustic analysis for the investigation of misunderstanding caused by ambiguity in the comprehension process, the statistical method for calculating the results of the experiment, and the confrontative typological method for the comparison of materials of different systems of languages were used. Ambiguous sentences selected for the experiment (the words, phrases that make them up,) were taken from the speech of native speakers.

Main provisions for defense:

- Psycholinguistics should be considered a branch of linguistics that demonstrates the psychological reality of linguistic models and theory.

– The process of syntactic prediction of the utterance begins as a result of the interaction between the subject and the predicate.

– As a communicative strategy, the qualitative change of hedging, which allows the speaker to soften the power of the utterance, manifests itself only in the context.

– Lexicalization of phrases is a psycholinguistic phenomenon and carries a cognitive load.

– Psycholinguistics requires analyzing syntactic units in context rather than in isolation.

– The way from thought to speech is encoding, and the opposite way is decoding of received information.

– Sentences remain in memory not because there is a connection between the words that make them up, but because they are grammatically correct.

– The formation of the sentence, its grammatical structure and the meaning it expresses are formed in the deep and serve as the base for the surface.

– The main reason that conditions ambiguity, which finds its realization only in context, is homonymy, polysemy and prosodic means.

– Different way of syntagm division leads to different interpretation and creates ambiguity.

– The decoding of any sentence in different forms depends on its illusory power, and the locative power of the sentence depends on its cognitive content.

Scientific novelty of the research. In the research work, an analysis of not only units of speech, but also

units of language was carried out. All psycholinguistic theories have both a psychological and a linguistic basis. However, studies show that the currents of psycholinguistics were engaged only in the study of speech, so they focused their main attention on the study of the psychological problems of speech. Classical schools of psycholinguistics mainly confined themselves to the study of problems of speech production and acquisition. The issues of generation and mastering of the smallest units of the language – lexical, lexico-grammatical and grammatical forms, syntactic units such as, phrases and sentences, were almost left out of their attention. In this manual the linguistic units, their forms, especially syntactic units are investigated from the psycholinguistic aspect and on the basis of experiment.

The analysis of syntactic units in the research as a result of the deep and surface layer structures, the study and the analysis of the hedgings formed in the act of speaking, revealing the features of the use of performatives in utterances and the meanings they express from the psycholinguistic point of view based on the materials of the Azerbaijani, Russian and English languages, as well as making generalizations about the grouping of ambiguous sentences through experimental-phonetic analysis can be evaluated as a scientific novelty of the work.

Theoretical and practical significance of the research. The theoretical provisions of the research can be used in psycholinguistic studies, especially in studies related to

the generation and understanding of speech, and the theoretical results obtained through experiments on the mechanism of acquisition of syntactic units can be applied in studies related to the mathematical linguistics and the machine translation.

The results of the research can be used in lectures and practical exercises on sentence syntax, in the preparation of specialty courses on linguistic and psycholinguistic analysis of syntactic units, and in the preparation of language theory textbooks for students and graduate students of philological faculties of universities. The research is also important in terms of improving the teaching of English in the Azerbaijani audience and eliminating the misunderstanding caused by ambiguity in the communication process.

Structure of the manual. The manual consists of an introduction, 5 chapters, a conclusion and a list of references.

CHAPTER I

THE PSYCHOLINGUISTIC ANALYSES OF THE SYNTACTIC UNITS

1.1. A brief information about the syntactic units

Although the foundation of psycholinguistics as a science was laid in the 50s of the 20th century, the foundation for its creation and development to the modern state goes back hundreds of years.

Psycholinguistics is *“the field of linguistics that studies the speech process, the speech activity of a person only from the point of view of content (meaning), communicative value, the fact that the act of speaking serves a certain communicative purpose, in other words, the nature and characteristics of encoding or decoding information given through natural language”* [3, p.222].

There are different opinions about the emergence of psycholinguistics in linguistics. Before following the history of its creation, organization and development, let's dwell on the term “psycholinguistics” itself.

The term “psycholinguistics” (>Greek psyche “heart, soul” + lat. lingua “language”) was first used by J.Kantor in 1936 and in 1946 in the article “Language and Psycholinguistics: a Review” by his student N.Pronko. Under this term, language comprehension, language ability, sign language, aphasia, etc. were studied [294].

After seminars held in the United States in 1951 and 1953, the term “psycholinguistics” began to be used more widely. Of course, it was received in different ways. For example, R.Brown believed that the word “psycholinguist” reminds more of a “lost polyglot” than a psychologist interested in language. The negative attitude towards this term is also reflected in the works of A.S.Reber. Despite these hesitations, the term “psycholinguistics” has been adopted worldwide [113, p.6].

Previously, “psycholinguistics” was used as a general term combining linguistics and psychology (it was more related to the names of two famous American psychologists – J.Osgood and J. Carroll and linguist, ethnographer, semiotician T.Sebeok). At the seminar held in America, this term acquired a precise meaning, and it was justified that psycholinguistics is a separate, independent science. In the development of psycholinguistics as an independent science, the above-mentioned three scientists had invaluable services [153].

In a short period of time, psycholinguistics strengthened its position in the West, and gave valuable research works to world science. In the former Soviet Union, this branch of science also achieved great success and even reached the level of competing with the American schools of psycholinguistics.

In the collection “Psycholinguistics: A Survey of Theory and Research”, published in 1954, it was proved that a

new science arose on the border of linguistics and psychology [67, p.216].

Linguists are interested in the formal side of human thinking – the structure of language. This structure includes the sounding and meaning of speech, as well as a complex grammatical system [108, p.297].

“Linguistics is a branch of psychology, and it studies certain aspects of thinking” says N.Chomsky [210, p.24], confirming the idea that psycholinguistics arose as a result of the interaction of psychology and linguistics.

In the studies, approaches to psycholinguistics as a science from different perspectives are observed. Some authors (L.Sakharniy) call psycholinguistics *“a “version” of linguistics”*. According to Pridiankh, psycholinguistics is *“experimental linguistics”*. According to A.A.Leontyev, psycholinguistics enters the system of psychological sciences at the modern stage of its development. Foreign psychologists also agree with this idea. In the dictionary compiled by N.A.Baranov and D.O.Dobrovolsky, it is shown that psycholinguistics studies the psychological reality of linguistic models and theories as a branch of linguistics [113, p.5].

In addition to L.S.Vygotsky, L.V.Sherba, V.V.Vinogradov, P.P.Blomsky, S.L.Rubenstein, A.R.Lurya and A.N.Leontyev also made great contributions to the development of psycholinguistics as a scientific field.

K.Abdullayev, F.Veysalli, A.Mammadov, G.Sadiyeva, H.Eminli and others talked about the issues of psycholin-

guistics in Azerbaijani linguistics in one way or another. Although some of them tried to develop cognitive psycholinguistic propositions, they did not go beyond the framework of the transformation of internal into external speech based on the theory of speech activity [1; 15; 54; 64; 72; 73].

Both theoretical and experimental studies are conducted in psycholinguistics. These studies are directed to the internal lexicon of a person as a subject of psychosemantics and speech activity. The first direction studies various aspects of human communicative activity, and the second direction studies cognitive activity.

An important place in psycholinguistic research is the problem of word semantics. Psychosemantics, as a branch of psycholinguistics, studies the formation, development and functioning of the individual knowledge system.

Towards the end of the 20th century, several more directions emerged in theoretical psycholinguistics. One of them was the direction of reflexive psycholinguistics. Reflexive psycholinguistics studies the speech process resulting from conscious intellectual activity. Representatives of the Moscow psycholinguistic school are currently dealing with this problem. Another direction is called *developmental psycholinguistics*. This direction studies the development of a person in ontogenesis and the process of formation of speech skills.

Since the 70s of the 20th century, theoretical psycholinguistics also studies the fields of engineering psychology,

space psychology, and military psychology. During this period, special interest in psycholinguistics arises among experts working in the field of forensic psychology and criminology. Even a special type of expertise – forensic psycholinguistic expertise arises. Psycholinguistic analysis is carried out in forensic psychology to determine the veracity of the convict's speech, to which gender the anonymous text belongs.

Psycholinguistics is closer to hermeneutics. Hermeneutics studies the ability to perceive, interpret the text. The basis of both hermeneutics and psycholinguistics is the interpretation of the text. Undoubtedly, each reader perceives the text presented to him in a way that he understands. These issues are the subject of both psycholinguistics and hermeneutics. Psycholinguistics is also closely related to sociolinguistics.

Thus, the subject of psycholinguistics can be summarized as follows:

- speech activity, its mental content, form, structure, type, realization and functions performed;
- the fact that language is the main tool in the formation of speech and the activity of thinking;
- the system of language tools used in the communication process.

When approaching the sciences that study speech activity from various prisms, it becomes clear that the science closest to the theory of ideal speech activity is psycholinguistics. It is this science that has a system of concepts

and notions necessary for a comprehensive study of speech activity.

According to J.Kess, psycholinguistics approaches various aspects of linguistics both theoretically and experimentally. J.Kess notes that there are four main stages in the development of psycholinguistics: orijinala bax!

1. formative, 2. linguistic, 3. Cognitive, 4. psycholinguistic theory, stage of psychological reality [239, p.17].

The influence of ideas of structuralism and behaviorism is typical for the first stage. At this stage, structuralism begins to dominate in linguistics, and behaviorism in psychology. At the time when psycholinguistics was formed in the United States, behavioral psychology began to develop rapidly. At that time, some researchers approached psycholinguistics from a purely psychological point of view, and another part from a purely linguistic point of view. J.Osgood stood out among the supporters of the psychological approach. J.Osgood, who put forward the stimulus-reaction model, used the behaviorist theory in the construction of the psycholinguistic model.

In the second stage linguistics begins to dominate both linguistics and psycholinguistics. At this stage, unlike J.Osgood, N.Chomsky approaches psycholinguistics not from a psychological position, but from a linguistic position and offers a transformational model [54, p.30].

The third stage is the stage of solemn denial of N.Chomsky's ideas and the main attention is directed to the interaction of grammar and semantics. In this period

psycholinguistics is enriched by the works of psychologists dealing with language and speech issues. At this stage, as mentioned in the works of L.S.Vygotsky, the process of speech formation is interpreted as a sequence phase of activity [88].

The fourth stage was the structure of the mental representation and the realization of the acquired knowledge in the mental process [239, p.26].

Studies show that in the first decades of the 20th century, linguists turned to psychology to find answers to the question “how people use language”. Since they could not get an exhaustive answer to this question from the point of view of linguistics, they came to the conclusion that the goals set by linguistics and psychology are completely different. During a certain period, the behavioral approach dominated these fields of science, there was no convergence. Only from the middle of the 20th century, psychologists began to turn to linguistics to study the psychology of language.

Psycholinguistics of the 50s of the 20th century declares that there are three types of communication that operate in the process of oral speech. It should be noted that these types of communication are carried out by means of non-verbal communication. They are as follows:

- vocative auditor (one of the participants in the communication process speaks and the other listens);
- visual gesture (one of the participants in the communication process uses gestures, and the other receives it);

– situational manipulation (hand gesture): here the choice of expression depends on the specific situation.

Thus, psycholinguistics concentrates in itself the following theoretical issues:

1) psychological direction in linguistics. According to linguists, language is the activity of the soul and reflects the culture of the people. So, language combines in itself not only physical, but also mental components.

2) the presence of the ability to correctly form sentences in mastering the language.

N.Chomsky's students insist on starting the history of psycholinguistics with the history of his works. N.Chomsky's theory was a great revolution in American linguistics. He did not consider linguistics a branch of autonomous science, but considered it part of the cognitive psychology [72, p.275].

When analyzing psycholinguistic theories, it is impossible to bypass N.Chomsky's derivative grammar. In N.Chomsky's concept, language acquisition occurs not at the expense of individual elements, but due to the understanding and mastering of the system of rules that form the meaning expressed by sentences and utterances.

L.S.Vygotsky is the first scientist who developed the theory of psychological activity in Soviet and world psychology. He developed such a psychological concept in which a sign (word), a socium (communication) and activity form a theoretical unity. L.S.Vygotsky characterizes the factors involved in the formation of this unity as

follows: *“First, serious analysis of meaning as psychological meaning, second, dynamic, processual nature of meaning, third, understanding of the objectivity of meaning; fourth, understanding the structure of meaning; fifth, the social nature of the meaning (sign), sixth, the understanding of the word as a unity of sign, meaning, communication and understanding; seventh and most important, the integration of words and actions into a single psychological system”* [103, p.8].

Thus, L.S.Vygotsky shows that there are five phases in the creation of speech. According to him phase I is motivation, intention, phase II thought, phase III the expression of thought in the inner word, phase IV the expression of thought in the meanings of external words or the realization of the internal program, and finally phase V the acoustic-articulatory realization of the word [103, 117].

In the psycholinguistics of the 50s of the 20th century, L.V.Sakharniy shows that there are four main levels in the formation of speech: *“1) motivation level – the issues of using active and passive constructions in the speech process, the selection of intonation models are taken as a basis; 2) semantic level – a restriction is imposed on the processing of possible meanings. Undoubtedly, here we are not talking about specific words, but about the functional semantic classes of the word; 3) sequence formation level: at this level, words and morpheme chains are formed within words. Processes created at previous levels are already implemented at this level; 4) integration level: the sound is produced for the pronunciation of the utterance. As the representatives of J.Osgood psycholinguistic school say that the*

syllable is created in encoding, and the phoneme is created in decoding" [153, p.21].

I.A.Zimnyaya shows that speech has four main characteristics according to the method of preparation and organization of thought: *"1) the choice of words to express the attachment of the thought; 2) to observe the content-meaning sequence in the logical structure of the utterance; 3) complexation (combination) of ideas at each utterance level; 4) the presence of connection between utterances within the text as a whole"* [114, p.185]. Since I.Jinkin has sufficiently analyzed the first two features, I.A.Zimnyaya does not dwell on them and analyzes the third feature for the first time. According to her, researchers accept simple, complex, broad, concise sentence types statically and the view a broad sentence as a dynamic union of several predications. [114, p.189]. Complexity is a conscious analysis of objects and events reflected in reality in the speaker's mind. Complexity manifests itself differently at different levels of utterance. In simple sentences, complexation manifests itself in the presence of the predicate with several objects, secondary predications, and in complex sentences in connection with subordinate clauses. In situational and thematic statements, complexation occurs when larger statements and smaller statements form a logical connection with each other [114, p.190].

Undoubtedly, the complexation of thought and speech plays an important role in the expression of reality. The fourth feature (the presence of connectedness between utterances within the text as a whole) indicates the intercon-

nectedness of utterances in the preparation and organization of an idea.

We believe that the word order, the prosodic means are also necessary for the presence of connection between utterances in speech, since the incorrect selection of word order, the arbitrary use of prosodic means are the main means that slow down the understanding of speech. Three stages play an important role in the formation of speech: conceptualization, formulation, articulation. The highest stage is the level of conceptualization, which is often called the level of “message or representation (presentation)”. The basis of this stage is “what to say”, the desire of the speaker, the selection of appropriate information for the creation of the desired speech. This stage is the initial reaction of the speaker to the external factor and is mainly based on previously acquired knowledge. The conceptualization stage is also called “preverbal” message.

Formulation has two components: lexicalization (individual words selected for speaking) and syntactic planning (usage of selected words in a sentence).

The third stage is the articulation stage. This stage is the stage of prepared speech. So, for the pronunciation of any word, the organs of speech – lungs, larynx, mouth, lips, vocal cords-are set in motion [229, p.395].

But in linguistics there is also a fourth stage – the stage of self-monitoring, in which the speaker already begins to find errors in the speech he hears [306].

The term “connection” that we talked about above has been used by many researchers (N.I.Jinkin, I.A.Figurovskiy, G.Y.Solganik, L.P.Doblayev, N.I.Leontyeva and others.) when investigating the types of semantic and syntactic connections, lexical parallelism, repetitions, connecting devices, as well as “mechanisms of communication” (connection), repetition, continuity (tracking) [107].

The stages or levels of speech formation in psycholinguistics were also highlighted in the studies of L.S.Vygotsky and L.V.Sakharniy. L.V.Sakharniy put forward a slightly different opinion about these stages or levels. We consider it more complete, because, in our opinion, as indicated in its interpretation, these stages in the formation of speech should be closely interconnected and serve to understand speech.

“The main responsibilities of psycholinguistics are: 1) moving from language competence to language performance; 2) approaching and analyzing the sentence in context, utterance, not in isolation; 3) learning language not based on logical, rational models, but on the basis of dynamic psychological models” [126, p.150].

As it can be seen, there are approaches to psycholinguistics as a science from different perspectives. It is also called “a version of linguistics”, “experimental linguistics”, “a field included in the system of psychological sciences”. We consider psycholinguistics to be a branch of linguistics that demonstrates the psychological reality of linguistic models and theory.

At present, compared to previous periods, psycholinguistics faces much greater problems. People's understanding, memorization of utterance, lexicon and vocabulary of the language are among such problems. In recent decades, however, the focus has been the study of the nature of the word.

The overall goal of psycholinguistics was to study the mechanism of speech formation and acquisition. And an attempt to study individual words, sentences covers later periods of the development of psycholinguistics. Theories and views on the comprehensive interpretation of these issues began to appear in science. Currents such as behaviorism, neobehaviorism, theory of speech activity, connectionist and cognitive psycholinguistics were formed as clear examples of those views. Since the main goal of the manual is to develop the mechanism of creation and acquisition of words, phrases, utterances and sentences (simple, compound), it is also important to interpret the views of those currents on this issue.

At the beginning of the 20th century, one of the leading trends in American psycholinguistics was behaviorism (from the English word "behavior"). This trend, whose theoretical basis was laid by the American scientist J. Watson (see: [291]), studies the activity and behavior of an individual. J. Watson called the internal and external activity "reaction" and put forward the S-R formula. Although behaviorism, which has become the main direction of psycholinguistics, has both a psychological and a linguis-

tic essence, the methodology proposed by J.Osgood was a purely psychological methodology. The basis of his theory is the importance of behavior and the absence of consciousness, as well as the idea of the irrelevance of studying consciousness.

There are several theories about the relationship between language and thinking. Among them, the strongest theory belongs to J.Watson, who is considered the father of behaviorism. The main principle of J.Watson's behaviorism is that there is no internal psychological activity.

J.Anderson writes about J.Watson's behaviorism thoughts: *"He asserts that everything people do is done through reactions to various stimuli. According to J.Watson, thinking is subvocal speech, that is, when people engage in any "mental" activity, they seem to talk to themselves, so the main component of thinking is subvocal speech. He notes that people even think with their hands, and based on strange facts, he says that they use some signs (gestures) while they are asleep. According to him, thoughts are not hidden speech, but literally inner words, not motor activity"* [82, p.352].

Thus, unlike B.Whorf, the founder of linguistic determinism, J.Watson equated thinking with language.

Behaviorists called the thought an internal language and presented it as a "white page", concluding that human behavior is a psychological and biochemical process. N.Chomsky's critical review of B.F.Skinner's "Verbal Behavior" in 1957, which opposed behaviorism, broke the backbone of behaviorism, which was already collapsing

[252, p.238, p.257]. Although N.Chomsky did not accept the S-R model in language acquisition, he did not deny it either. The same model was adopted by B.Cedric [208, p.17].

After the trend of behaviorism, the trend of neobehaviorism arose. B.F.Skinner, E.J.Tolman and J.Hull are considered to be the founders of this trend, which is based on the “programming” of human behavior. Later, the trend of neobehaviorism was known by the formula “stimulus-disposition-reaction” [275].

The linguistic foundations of neobehaviorism are based on N.Chomsky's “transformational grammar”, which was laid down in the work “Syntactic structures” [211] published in 1957, and which played an important role in the emergence and development of new ideas and approaches in linguistics, as well as in overcoming the crisis of linguistics. Neobehaviorism, like behaviorism, is based on purely psychological methodology.

The third direction of psycholinguistics is “speech activity theory”. Although A.Leontyev is considered the creator of this theory, it was also covered in the works of L.Vygotsky and A.R.Luria [132]. “Speech activity theory” remained a psychological theory, like the theories before it, because in this theory words, utterance and text were analyzed from a psychological point of view, and the linguistic side of the issue was not given much importance. Therefore, in the dissertation, the theory of “conversational activity” was studied and analyzed, and an attempt

was made to clarify not only the psychological problems of syntactic units in the process of communication, but also the linguistic problems.

The newest trends of psycholinguistics are connectionist and cognitive trends. *"There is no doubt that both directions tend to the same linguistic basis, that is, N.Chomsky's theory of generative grammar"* [18, p.41]. Connectionist psycholinguistics is based on parallel distributed processing. Its essence is that the cells forming the memory and the receptors combine and transmit the information to the brain cells in parallel. Connectivism is work experience, acquisition of new knowledge. Connectivism is basically how people learn, model, and communicate through contact [214].

N.Chomsky and his comrades in arms attributed psycholinguistics to cognitive psychology. However, in the 80s and 90s of the 20th century, psycholinguistics was recognized as an independent field of science. N.Chomsky was the first to put forward the idea that the process of speech creation has cognitive roots.

The cognitive approach to psycholinguistics is in what form a person receives information from the world around him, perceives it and how he organizes it in order to fulfill a particular decision. Undoubtedly, it is cognitive linguistics that studies theoretical knowledge about the perception, storage and use of information related to language and its forms, about the hidden mechanisms of communication, about the general patterns of human intellectual activity.

For the first time in Azerbaijani linguistics M.B.Asgarov gave a critical interpretation of former Soviet and foreign linguistic theories, tried to show their pros and cons, and presented his own theory [18]. M.B.Asgarov put forward the scheme “stimulus-code-action” on the basis of his previous theories and came to the conclusion that it is not correct to combine speech to the level of the given reaction to the stimulus and equate it to the processes of understanding and thinking. At the same time, he does not accept the idea that the emergence of speech is on a par with the process of thinking.

According to M.B.Asgarov, the perceived minimal unit is an “element of reality”, and the minimal unit that ensures the realization of understanding is an “intellectual image”. He rightly points out that a person cannot fully understand reality at once. As each unit of reality is understood on the basis of its most important signs and characteristics, M.B.Asgarov calls them “elements of reality”, and the smallest thought units “intellectual images”. He conventionally divides the realization mechanism of the understanding process into four phases: *“The first phase is the contact with the unit of reality and the acceptance of its most obvious features into the operational memory, the second phase is the creation of the first-order intellectual image that affects the memory of those features and recording them in the main memory, the third phase is the bringing of the information in the main memory about the unit of reality to the operative memory,*

that is, remembering, and the fourth phase is the phase of practical use of the information about the unit of reality” [18, p.71].

The basis of human cognitive ability is the use of language. Language plays an important role in the development of human civilization. Language is the main means of transmitting and storing knowledge from generation to generation. Linguistic science serves to reveal the psychology of language, does not study its methods, such cases as language – process. And in revealing the psychology of the language, language skills and activity are of great importance.

According to N.Chomsky, two concepts should be considered in psycholinguistics: language competence and language performance. Language skills are potential knowledge, and language activity is the realization of language skills. In his opinion, language competence ensures the realization of language activity (we will talk about language activity in detail ahead).

One of N.Chomsky's contributions to linguistics is his acceptance of the unity of performance and competence in language learning. Competence is the object of study of linguistics, and performance is the object of study of psycholinguistics (we will talk about performance, performative verbs and their expression in utterances in Chapter IV).

In general, linguists focus on two aspects of language: the productivity and regularity of language. The term “productivity” involves the presence of countless expres-

sions in all languages. *“Regularity”, on the other hand, indicates that countless statements are systematic in many cases. It has been proven that both productivity and systematicity at the same time cannot reveal the nature of the language”* [82, p.340].

We believe that although simultaneously both productivity and systematicity cannot fully reveal the character of language, since language is the most important attribute of consciousness and thinking, it is realized through sentences in communication.

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1.2. Study of words as a syntactic unit in psycholinguistics

In Azerbaijani linguistics, phrases, simple sentence, compound sentence and syntactic whole are considered as syntactic units. In linguistics and psycholinguistics, the basic units of language are the phoneme, the morpheme, the word, the sentence and the text.

The word is the basic and universal unit of language. A word is also a grammatical unit, because each word-lexeme belongs to a certain grammatical word group (noun, adjective, verb, adverb, etc.). A word included in one or another grammatical class concentrates a number of gram-

mathematical signs in itself. For example, case, gender, quantitative categories in nouns, style and tense categories in verbs. Finally, the word, as a linguistic unit, acts as the “core” of syntax, since syntactic units (phrases, sentence, text) are formed precisely from the word. Words combine to form a sentence by expressing a certain opinion. The main signs of a sentence are its meaningfulness, intonation and a certain grammatical structure. The word, the main and universal sign of the language, has an external form and internal content. The internal content (form of expression) of the word as a linguistic sign must correspond to its external form. Sometimes a word can also perform the function of a sentence. Single clauses are an example of this. However, in some cases, several sentences are used to express one meaning.

Words enter the stage of syntactic analysis of the sentence and determine the semantic interpretation of speech. For psycholinguistic models of syntactic analysis of a sentence, the central problem is how people combine words in a syntactic tree to present the structure of a sentence.

Y.M.Voronova, talking about P.A.Florensky's scientific views and ideas, a philosopher, a scientist engaged in the philosophy of language, about “word”, writes that P.A.Florensky approaches the meaning of “word” from an anthropological point of view, tries to give a concrete description of the structure and form of “word”. P.A.Florensky calls “word” an organism and takes its meaning as the basis. In his opinion, the “word” has an “internal” and

“external” form. Its external form is a phoneme and a morpheme, but they are also part of a word, in other words, the phoneme and morpheme are the bone and texture of a word, and the internal form of a word is its etymon, that is, its meaning, and on the other hand, the “heart” of the one who expresses the word. In this aspect, the internal form of the word must necessarily be individual [102, p.15; p. 22].

So, for P.A.Florensky, the three-atom structure of the word is the main one, that is, the word has a nucleus, which consists of sememe, morpheme and phoneme. It is as a result of their combination that a person's speech is understood. According to him, *“the phoneme is the bone of the word, the morpheme is its body, and the sememe is its heart”* [102, p.19].

A phoneme is, first of all, a sound, but a sound arises only in a physical, physiological and psychophysical form. According to P.Florensky, the morpheme is the flesh and blood of the word. In a compound word, the morpheme acts as an intermediary between the phoneme and the sememe. It is the morpheme that preserves the integrity of the word. P.Florensky also calls a morpheme a grammatical and logical characteristic of a word. Unlike a phoneme, a morpheme is static, motionless. A sememe is a complex component of a word that does not have a precise meaning. It may change in speech. For example, when any word is used figuratively, a special color is added to it and a special emotionality is given.

V.Von Humboldt, who called all language signs sounds, noted that *“the signs of language are in every case sound, and by reason of the latent sense of analogy which lies within all the faculties of man, man must perceive that any object is distinct, and pronounce the sound which represents it”* [109, p.301].

According to F.Veysalli, *“The material existence of signs in language is sounds, so there is no language but a sound language. Therefore, linguistic signs differ from all other signs by their nature”* [69, p.75].

In linguistics, the phonetic side of the word was also analyzed. F.Veysalli writes based on the phonetic integrity of the word: *“There are such languages (Turkic languages) in which the stress always falls on the same syllable. So, in such languages (in Czech, the stress always falls on the first syllable, in Polish – on the last syllable, in Azerbaijani Turkish – on the last syllable of a word), the stress marks the word boundary. In addition, the suffix attached to the root of the word takes on either four or two stresses. The combination of a synsemantic word with an autosemantic word is usually called a phonetic word. For example, “on the table” in English, “на столе” in Russian, “stolun üstündə” in Azerbaijani”* [71, p.143].

Speaking pace, speed and pause play an important role in determining the boundary of a word. These three criteria determine the completeness of a word. For example, /O, universitetdə təhsil alır (He is studying at the university)//. – /Kim o universitetdə təhsil alır? (Who is studying at that university?) // ? – /O, universitetdə təhsil alır (He is

studying at the university) //. – what is he doing? studying or working?

Each language has its own phonetic, lexical and grammatical structure. These systems, which determine the existence of a language, are connected to each other in a lawful way. Sounds, which are considered the smallest language unit, combine to form words, and words combine meaning and grammatically to form more complex language units, phrases and sentences.

All words in the language have lexical and grammatical meaning. The lexical meaning of a word is the meaning it expresses, and the grammatical meaning is specific not only for a single word, but also for groups of words, as a generalized abstract meaning. Suffixes are the main indicators of grammatical meaning in both Azerbaijani and English languages. However, a number of auxiliary means, intonation, conjunction, participle and modal words also have a certain role in the expression of grammatical meaning.

In general, two main processes are observed in the grammatical structure of the language:

1) changing words in a sentence and falling into different forms; 2) the process of connection and combination of words in a sentence, sentences in a text.

“The term “word” is ambiguous both in everyday use and in its special use by linguists. Words can be considered either as simple forms (both spoken and written) that combine form and meaning, or, conversely, as complex expressions” [52, p.53].

When we treat words as a meaningful unit, we encounter the following facts: 1) a single form expresses several meanings; 2) the same meaning is expressed by several word forms. Of course, these facts show themselves in homonymy, ambiguity and synonymy (these issues are discussed in the next chapters).

The word is first of all a semantic unit, it has its own emphasis and can finally be separated from other units.

M.B.Asgarov considers language as a linguo-psychological category that satisfies the need for information exchange within the speech-making process and as a result of the activity of the brain. In his opinion, when considering the functions of the language as a means of communication, it is not acceptable to put the structural units of the language into the background, on the contrary, it is necessary to determine the mechanism of execution of this or that function precisely on the basis of the structural units of the language. Each structural unit of the language is aimed precisely at performing one or another function, satisfying the need for information exchange, facilitating the satisfaction of this need, and arose to serve this purpose [18, p.165].

To meet the need for information exchange, internal inflection and conversion are used in English. For example, with internal inflection (substitution within the verb), the verb is shifted from one tense to another: *come* – *came*. The transition from one paradigm to another through conversion is expressed by a formal sign: *a book* – *to book*.

In traditional linguistics, words are grouped by parts of speech, by structure. *"In the psycholinguistic approach to the meaning of the word, two tendencies are manifested: 1) structural approach, 2) approach to meaning as a process. In the structural approach, the properties and characteristics of the word are analyzed, and in the approach to meaning as a process, the understanding of meaning is the focus"* [159, p.125].

In the emergence and perception of speech, we consciously or unconsciously select and identify words according to their meaning, based on words.

Speech activity is carried out through words. The storage and the use of words in memory is an important and complex mechanism. *It is not easy to find an answer to the question "What happens in the lower and surfaces of our consciousness when we construct our speech and express a certain idea?" Words and language facts are preserved in memory. This is called language memory. "Language memory is a memory based on image, sensory, motor, sensory memories"* [22, p.105].

During the flow of speech, a person relies primarily on words. In the semantic theory, the integration of words in the brain occurs at the expense of the internal lexicon. In the internal lexicon, not only words, but also other components of the speech act are reflected. Searching, retrieving and using a word in memory is carried out at the expense of the internal lexicon. Language is formed on the basis of words and the relationship between them. One of the prerequisites for communication is the presence of words and their meaning in the human brain.

A word is not a word when it does not express meaning, it is just a sound. A meaningless word cannot become a speech. The word used in communication is only the internal aspect of speech. The sound part and the meaningful part of the speech are combined to form a speech. *“According to its structure, speech is not a mirror image of thought. Speech does not serve to express a ready thought. Thought is reconstructed and changed until it becomes speech. The idea is not expressed, it is realized in the word”* [105, p.307].

“A word is a concept for us, and for concepts it is the soul of a sign (as a carrier of information). At the same time, it is an operator, sets in motion as many associations as desired during the activation of consciousness. The operational role of the word is also complemented by the fact that the knowledge of the speaker and the listener merges, and the words also serve to express the thoughts shared. It can be considered that in our memory words are “written” in relation to other words” [22, p.111].

So, the search and selection of a word from the internal lexicon occurs primarily at the word level and here the mental lexicon plays a crucial role. Psycholinguistics is the science of how language is processed in the brain, in what form it is reflected. Here comes the question of how the words we use in the language come into contact with our thoughts and what they serve to reflect. This question, which sounds simple at a first glance, is actually controversial. The transformation of abstract thinking into physical (that is, spoken, said, written, denoted) words must first of all be systematized. Systematically organized such

words create a mental lexicon and it is very important, because without it the linguistic arrangement of the language takes a long time and we cannot convey our thoughts accurately. A mental lexicon is often equated with a published dictionary. However, this idea cannot be accepted, because in the dictionaries, the arrangement of the words in alphabetical order, pronunciation, meaning are given and other signs specific to the words are not presented there. A mental lexicon involves explaining more flexible patterns in language.

In the mental lexicon development model, the main question is whether the word is presented with its meaning on the same lexical level or presented on a separate level. (i.e. phonological [kæt] or orthographical *cat*). A similar question is how words are organized in the lexicon and the relationship between them. If there were only one type or level of lexical form, the answer to this question would be that the word is fairly easy and understandable. However, since the lexical form of a word has several levels (meaning, form, morphological structure, etc.), this question is somewhat controversial.

The first methodological meaning of the speech is that it is a socio-historical product. Language is reflected in cultural, social relations, customs, and the history of the people. It was created during the collective labor activity.

It should be noted that language (speech), which is a socio-historical product, also performs the function of integration – the function of communication with generati-

ons. As K.D.Ushinsky said, *"language is a living, extremely enduring relationship"* [175, p.147].

Since phrases, which are syntactic units, name things and phenomena, their main task is nominativeness. The sentence that forms the core of the syntax is the basic unit of communication. It is distinguished from other syntactic units by its multi-aspect. Each sentence performs its communicative function only in the text.

Syntactic units are formed with the help of word-forms, conjunctions, particle, postposition and modifying suffixes. Along with auxiliary parts of speech and prosodic means (intonation, stress, pause, etc.), pronouns also play an important role in the formation of syntactic entities.

The word plays the main role in the composition of the sentence. The possibilities of combining words according to their meaning in a sentence are varied, and it is for this reason that the communicative reality of the word is revealed only in the sentence, in the text. Along with this, there are various connections and relationships between words in the sentence. They can be characterized as follows:

- 1) words differ from each other in meaning,
- 2) words are close to each other in meaning,
- 3) words are equivalent in meaning.

Many of the words present in the language have nominative and significative meanings. Since the nominative meaning is the main one, it does not depend on the con-

text, in all cases it is used in its original meaning. And the signifying meaning is a figurative, additional meaning. Therefore, the nominative meaning is considered a fact of language, and the signative meaning is considered a fact of speech, since it arises in context.

According to A.Damirchizade, *“the meaning indirectly expressed by the word in an additional role is called figurative meaning. The existence of various relationships such as space, time, tool, wholeness and especially similarity between things, work, action, quality, etc. are important conditions for words to have figurative meaning”* [12, p.152].

“In addition, the use of a word, especially a polysemantic word, in a certain syntactic environment, associating with various lexical and grammatical units determines its communicative value, brings the word from the static sphere to the dynamic sphere and turns it into an element of a new mechanism” [55, p.35].

Both metaphoricized and metonymic words play an important role in the organization of the text, increasing emotionality, strengthening the expressive background.

The main feature of the content plan of the word is that it is able to conceptually express the concepts that are about objective reality. A word that carries the same semantic load in ordinary pieces of speech is perceived in different ways in different sentences, comprehended and thus regulated by a contextual condition. For example, *Ana* uşağı süd içməyə məcbur etdi (The **mother** forced the child to drink milk). Azərbaycan dili mənim doğma **ana** dilidir (Azerbaijani

language is my native **mother** tongue). Bu hadisə əsərdə **ana** xətti təşkil edirdi (This event was the **main** line in the work). Bütün **ana** və yardımçı yollar qonaqların gəlişi ilə əlaqədar səliqəyə salındı (All the **main** and secondary roads were cleaned due to the arrival of the guests).

In these examples, the word *mother* acted as a polysemantic word. Its understanding is possible only at the sentence level, within the context. The analogous case also shows in English. However, the most difficult issue for Azerbaijani audiences in English is lexical homonymy, since the same word has the ability to act as both a polysemantic word and a homonym within the context. Comp: / The duck has soft **downs** on his body // 'Ördəyin yumşaq **tükləri** vardır' (noun) – / The girl felt **down** all day// 'Qız bütün günü **kədərli** oldu' (adjective). / The hungry child **downed** the pie in two pieces // 'Ac uşaq piroqu iki dəfəyə **uddu**' (verb). / We drove the car **down** the street // 'Biz maşını küçənin **aşağı** hissəsinə sürdük' (preposition) – / I sat **down** in the darkness and looked around // (postposition) 'Qaranlıqda **oturub** ətrafa baxdım'.

"The selection of words is a complex process, this is how the errors that come to light during that process are grouped: 1. the inaccuracy of the word chosen for the idea; 2. repetition of this or that word does not justify itself; 3. defects in the agreement and alignment of words; 4. the word used does not match the style; 5. to give the way to the dialect word in the literary language; 6. confusion of paronyms; 7. failure in word creation, failure to conform to the model of word creation" [22, p.70].

For a long time, “word” was considered as an association of sound signals that we conventionally see visually. There was such a certainty that the meaning of the word remains unchanged at all levels, and the process of enrichment of the language takes place at the expense of the word. In our opinion, this is the product of a wrong way of thinking.

Since the meaning of the word has passed a complex stage of development, and the sentence and language system has expanded and developed at the expense of the word, in the process of various development, the word becomes not only its own structure, but also the basis for the emergence of new psychological processes.

Little is known about the historical development stages of the word from the evolutionary process until now. Scientists dealing with the history of language development point out that the word has never had a precise form and a precise meaning as it is now. It can be assumed that the first word-sounds did not have a constant subject connection and meaning, they mainly understood the meaning in relation to the action. The process of acquiring a separate meaning of the word has lasted for millennia [134, p.255].

In the process of comprehension, an important role is played by the word, which is the main unit of the language. An isolated word can mean a subject, but cannot provide complete information about it. To express a thought, the connection of several words is absolute, it is as a result

of this connection that a syntagm, sentence or utterance is formed.

1.3. Study of phrases as the main syntactic unit in psycholinguistics

The combination of words in the language manifests itself in a phrase and a sentence form. Such combination of words is conditioned by the laws of the internal development of the language.

Phrases being the main syntactic units were explained for the first time in Azerbaijani linguists by M.Shiraliyev and M.Huseynov. According to them *"Phrases are defined as the combination of at least two words"* [65, p.79].

The phrase consists of a combination of at least two words and it does not express a finished idea [23].

M.Huseynzade means noun combinations under the name of word combinations and divides them into two parts: predicative and non-predicative. He considers a predicative one as a sentence and a non-predicative as a phrase [23, p.41].

Z.Kh.Taghizade accepted noun combinations as phrases, but he did not include verbal combinations in the list of phrases [66, p.25]. Z.Kh.Taghizade considered that one word must be subordinate and the other free in phrases, divided the word combinations existing in Russian and Azerbaijani languages into two parts, predicative and non-predicative, showed that it is not satisfactory to consi-

der predicatives as sentences, and non-predicatives as phrases, and showed that phrases have their own intonation and differ from sentences [66, p.8-17].

In the manual "Word combinations in the modern Azerbaijan language" A.M.Djavadov gave a new classification of phrases and for the first time mentioned noun and phrases together [58, p.11].

Words that act as the components of phrases are nominative in nature, since they are not dynamic, but static, the sentence has modality and predicativity, while phrases do not have this feature.

Phrases in Azerbaijani linguistics are mostly investigated from the lexico-grammatical (Y.Seyidov), lexico-semantic (G.Kazimov, J.Muradov) and structural-semantic (N.Valiyeva) aspects [51; 57; 63; 75].

"The phrase is a nominative unit" and belongs to the period "before communicative syntax" and therefore does not constitute a finished utterance. Despite the fact that the phrase indicates a complex and membered unit included in the information unit, if we admit that it only indicates the objective aspect of the denotation-reality manifestations, then we will allow the distortion and cascading of human language practice. The connotative meaning in words and phrases is created due to the collective language experience and reflects a number of signs of folk culture" [7].

After the increased attention to morphology in Russian linguistics from the end of the 19th century, syntax began to be studied as a branch of grammar. F.F.Fortunatov na-

med phrases as the main unit of syntax and presented the sentence as a type of phrase [<http://sizyhk.weebly.com/20>].

The traditional syntax of the Russian language is based on two main units – a phrase and a simple sentence. A.A.Shakhmatov considers a simple sentence to be the main syntactic unit, and a phrase is a secondary structural element of a sentence [187, p.17].

According to acad. V.V.Vinogradov, the founder of the modern phrase theory, a phrase as a syntactic unit is a free combination of two or more words as a result of a subordinating relationship. V.V.Vinogradov differentiates the concept of a sentence from a phrase. According to him, this difference manifests itself mainly on a functional basis: a sentence is a communicational and informational unit, but a phrase is a nominative unit [97, p.48].

A.M.Peshkovsky, who does not see any difference between phrases and sentences, considers any combination of words as a type of phrases [141, p.38]. He erroneously claims that a sentence is formed only from phrases.

Phrases are syntactic units that play an important role in the development of a language. There is controversy in linguistics over whether it belongs to syntax or vocabulary.

According to A.B.Shapiro, the only object of syntax is phrase. It does not include the sentence in the syntax and recommends relegating it to another field under a special name [186, p.5].

T.P.Lomtev, on the contrary, notes that the sentence is the only unit of syntax, and the phrase is the subject of vocabulary [133, p.6].

V.P.Sukhotin comes to the following conclusions about the phrases: “1) phrases are different from sentences; 2) phrases are predicative and non-predicative; 3) phrases match the sentence in a number of cases; 4) phrases are homogeneous and non-homogeneous (homogeneous are joined by the subordinating relation, for example, a teacher and a student, and non-homogeneous are joined by the subordinating relation: student’s teacher)” [170, p.175].

The book “Russian Grammar” puts forward a different opinion: “The phrase cannot go through the “sentence” stage at all, because they have different syntactic features. The main signs that distinguish phrases from a sentence are the followings: 1) the existence of subordination relationship between formal, lexical-semantic components, 2) the meaning resulting from the subordination relationship, 3) the ability to change the main word in a phrase, 4) to be able to expand and become a more complex construction according to its own internal rules” [138, p.84].

So, phrases are formed as a result of the grammatical union of two or more meaningful words and word forms. The components of phrases consist of a main word and a dependent word. The main word is grammatically independent and the dependent word is formally and semantically subordinate to the main word.

Undoubtedly, phrases serve to express thoughts, becoming a means of communication through a sentence. Thus, the object of syntax is not only a sentence, but also a phrase.

N.A.Baskakov, who gave the most extensive analysis of phrases in Turkology, considers all combinations of words as phrases and accepts them as free combinations of words with independent meaning in a non-predicative form. He is the first linguist who managed to distinguish phrases from sentences in Turkology [87, p.55-60].

Emphasizing the importance of phrases, M.Hoey notes that sentences are formed as a result of the connection and relationship of different word combinations and calls the creation of phrases the process of “lexical prediction” [231, p.78].

According to Y.A.Vikulova, there is a fundamental difference between a phrase and a sentence. A phrase is a means of naming any thing or process. Each component of a phrase varies depending on the grammatical categories (*write letters – wrote a letter – writes letters*). Unlike phrases, each word in a sentence has its own specific form. Any formal change leads to the formation of a new sentence. If we look at the history of the theory of phrases, we see that the syntax of the English language of the 17th century studied groups of words and their structure, as well as the relationships between their constituent components. In the second half of the 18th century, the term “phrase” was used in English linguistics and was understood as “group

of words". It was also accepted by 19th century grammarians. Previously, a combination of two or more words consisting of a noun and a verb was meant as a "phrase", later, the term *clause* consisting of subject and predicate was introduced into English linguistics, and thus the use of the term *phrase* was limited [96, p.61].

Referring to the works of Western linguists, P.H.Farukh shows that there are four different views on phrases: "1) **Semantic view**. *The main purpose of this view is the possibility of placing words side by side, i.e. the fact that some words can come next to other words is related to grammatical features, as well as their meaning aspects. In other words, the meaning of each word is usually determined by the meaning of the words used with it.* 2) **Statistical view**. *Based on this method, phrases are determined with the help of counting the words that come next to each other in large language texts – that is, corpora, repetitions. This view is observed in the works of researchers such as M.A.Halliday, J.Sinclair and K.Church.* 3) **A semantic-functional view**. *This review studies the meaning and function of creative word units.* 4) **Semantic-grammatical review**. *According to this view, grammatical criteria should be taken into account in addition to semantic criteria in the examination and classification of phrases"* [19, p.86].

One of the most important problems of linguistics is the relationship between the syntactic structure of the sentence and its actual grouping. Thematic-rhematic quality of a word or phrase depends on the grammatical structure of the language.

In modern English, there are several specific ways in which a word or phrase corresponds to a rheme. Y.A.Vikulova also showed these ways [96, p.69]. Let's take a look at those ways:

1. *It is ... which / that / who* grammatical construction is used to introduce a rheme involving two components: *It is our disagreement that matters in the long run // It was this which he finally decided to go and see these places* [224, p. 223].

2. A subject or other constituent can be turned into a rhema by means of intonation: Let's compare: *Winifred **re-membered** the flowers in her window-boxes after a blazing summer day // Winifred remembered the **flowers** in her window-boxes after a blazing summer day // Winifred remembered the flowers in her window-boxes after a blazing **summer day*** // [224, p. 209].

3. Intensifying particles (*just, even, only, etc.*) are used. For example: *It seemed so right and simple a suggestion that **even** Winifred was surprised* [224, p.208].

4. In the manner typical of existential sentences, the subject becomes a rhema by being removed to the end of the sentence. Such sentences begin with the adverb *there*. For example: ***There was** a long silence, till James reached* [224, p.249].

5. The indefinite article acts as an indicator of the sentence's rheme. For example: *"It is a coil", she said* [224, p.255].

Y.A.Vikulova states that there are means of bringing the theme into the consideration in the English sentence [96, p.69]. Let's clarify by what means the theme is raised:

1) with the development of the definite article. For example: *The quick lift of her clear brown eyes told him that she had long expected such words* [224, p.223].

2) by adding a parenthesis to the sentence accompanied by the words *as to, as for*. For example: *As for Soames, he listened attentively but he had heard all this before* [224, p.248].

3) removing a word or phrase that carries a load of basic meaning to the beginning of a sentence. This word or expression becomes mainly the adverbs of place and time. For example: *Next morning they both came there with suspicious*.

Being a linguistic unit, the phrase is also a psycholinguistic unit. The process of lexicalization of phrases is considered as psycholinguistic phenomenon and carries a cognitive load as a productive language process. The psycholinguistic analysis of phrases in the dissertation includes:

1) to clarify the role of phrases play in the comprehension of a sentence,

2) to show the relationship between the components of phrases,

3) to determine the role of phrases in “psychological principles” during the act of speaking.

When analyzing the functional meanings of phrases, first of all, it is necessary to clarify its nominative function. *“The phrase is equivalent in meaning to a word, both units have a nominative (naming) function. The function of the utterance is like the function of the word: it is constructed, it functions. A*

phrase is similar to a sentence according to its formal features, and a word according to its functions. Thus, the phrase is the main link in this chain, the sentence is the communicative unit, and the phrase is the nominative unit” [7, p.151].

In the linguistic literature, three groups of phrases are distinguished: 1) nominal, 2) adverbial, 3) verbal. This is considered the most complete division.

“Due to the rich variety of forms and meanings, due to their wide distribution and usage in the language, verbal phrases occupy a special place among the types of phrases, unlike other combinations” [63, p.220]. The formation of verbal combinations is related to three forms – gerund, participle and infinitive. Gerund, participle and infinitives, which are non-conjugated forms of the verb do not express predicativity separately since they only have a dual feature. Infinitive combinations are mostly used in Azerbaijani language.

In the manual the main attention is focused on verbal combinations, infinitive combinations expressing performativity, their types and their expression in utterances are brought to the fore.

“Verbal combinations occupy a special place among the types of word combinations due to their wide distribution, multi-use, variety, rich meaning and form options. The words that make up the sides of verbal combinations express very different relationships. Here, lexical-semantic and lexical-grammatical relationships are expressed against the background of syntactical relationships between their various meanings to work, situations

and actions. In these relations, the verb always acts as the explained part, which can consist of different parts of speech" [75, p.208].

Already in the 19th century researchers have divided phrases into two large groups: exocentric and endocentric. In an endocentric phrase, when one of the components is replaced, the meaning of the phrase as a whole changes. In an exocentric phrase, none of the components can be replaced.

A word form is, above all, an element of phrase. The syntactic form of the word can act as a "structural element" not only in the composition of the phrase, but also in the composition of the sentence. From this we can conclude that the syntactic form of the word participates in the construction of the sentence directly or through phrase.

There are other structural differences between phrases and sentences. This difference manifests itself mainly in the nature of syntactic relations. Phrases are built on the principle of subordination. The subordinative relationship is related to the semantic and grammatical nature of phrases. In sentences, the syntactic relationship is complex and diverse. A phrase performs a communicative function only within a sentence and realizes its possibilities within a sentence. It does not exist as a ready-made unit in the language like words. Its specific lexical meanings are realized in the sentence. Phrases are formed in the process of communication in accordance with certain rules and patterns.

The word has the feature of syntactic connection with other words due to its grammatical and lexical meanings. By entering into a syntactic relationship with other words, it creates conditions for the creation of syntactic constructions that are informational units. For example, *ıçmək* → *su ıçmək* (drink – to drink water) // and *ıçmək* (to swear).

“A sentence is a minimal unit of the surface of the syntactic system, which has a communicative meaning. The phrases below the sentence realize their communicative meaning only in the sentence” [93, p.28].

Linguistic studies show that the realization of the linguistic sign in speech is perceived as a sentence and that is why many studies use the terms “sentence- utterance” to denote that linguistic unit.

1.4. A sentence as the main syntactic unit.

Understanding the meaning of simple and composite sentences

Connection between words, attachment allows the formation of two types of syntactic units – phrases and sentences, connection between sentences, and attachment allows the formation of compound sentences and syntactic whole. Therefore, syntactic units mean phrases, simple sentences, compound sentences and syntactic units [51, p.3].

Syntax (from the ancient Greek word σύν-τάξις “building, arrangement”) studies word combinations, simple

and compound sentences as a branch of the grammatical structure of the language. Word and word forms, which are components of syntactic units, are also attributed to syntax. The word, as the smallest structural unit of the language, has the ability to combine with other words due to its lexical and grammatical features. Entering into a syntactic relationship with other words, words form syntactic constructions. For example: *book – interesting book – to read an interesting book. We are reading an interesting book.* Word forms are involved in the formation of phrases, simple and compound sentences.

The history of syntax begins with the works of ancient Greek philologists. The term “syntax” was used by the Stoics in the 3rd century BC. At that time, this term was based on speech-thinking processes.

According to Y.M.Seyidov, “*Sentences are a grammatical category that expresses a relatively complete idea that is a part of speech. There is no completion of ideas in phrases, although it is relative*”. He calls the sentence the last, the largest unit of the language, rich in diversity of elements, both from the point of view of expressing ideas and according to the rules of organization and formation, and the phrase is the language unit that is formed before the sentence and is relatively simple. [63, p.66, p.72].

In the “Port-Royal” grammar of A.Arnould and C.Lancelot (XVII century), the categories of syntax are called universal, and syntax was presented as a means of expressing ideas and describing sentences and constitutes [81,

p.5].

The middle of the 20th century is considered to be the most productive period of syntax development. V.V.Vinogradov raised the issue of whether the main unit of syntax is a phrase or a complex syntactic whole, paragraph, text, but he could not find a concrete answer to this question [98, p.7].

According to E.A.Bruzgunova, the syntax should include those units that directly serve communication. Syntax means the formation and functioning of word forms, phrases, simple and compound sentences and text fragments, as well as language units formed on the basis of certain rules. It includes not only phrases, simple and compound sentences, but also words and word forms among syntactic units [150, p.5].

N.Chomsky made a "revolution" in linguistics with his first fundamental work "Syntactic Structures". In this work, he tried to reveal the syntactic structure of the language with the help of mathematical models, and in a sense he succeeded. According to N.Chomsky, it is possible to build an infinite number of sentence structures in any language following elementary grammatical rules [211, p.31].

Language, its perception and synthesis form the basis of both linguistic and philosophical views of N.Chomsky. One of his important merits in the history of linguistics, perhaps the first, is that he changed the attitude towards the issue of language perception. According to N.Chomsky, a person does not learn language by inducti-

ve method, his thinking is innately endowed with the ability to reason.

N.Chomsky differentiates between the concepts of grammatical competence and pragmatic competence, linking grammatical competence with form and meaning, and pragmatic competence with the correct use and processing of words and expressions [211, p.34].

In general, three philosophical foundations of N.Chomsky's theory of derivative linguistics are distinguished: 1) what is language? 2) how is it perceived? 3) how is it used in both speaking and understanding?

According to N.Chomsky, transformational-generative grammar is a theory that reflects the competence and intuitive linguistic knowledge of the speaker of the language, which gives a complete and clear description of the language.

For the first time, V.Humboldt brought the concept of "language consciousness" to linguistics. He noted that *"language is both a sign and an expression of reality"* [109, p.66].

H.Shteintal, a student of V.Humboldt, treated the language as both a process and a social entity. Later, the ideas of V.Humboldt and H.Shteintal were developed in the works of A.A.Potebnya. According to A.A.Potebnya, *"speech act is a mental event, and language is a cultural-social act. Language expresses thought, and thought is realized through words"* [146, p.237].

L.V.Sherba shows three aspects of a language. The first aspect is a speech activity. He refers here to the process of speaking and its understanding. According to him, the process of understanding, the interpretation of signs is not as active as the process of pronouncing sounds. L.V.Sherba attributes the language system to the second aspect, that is, the vocabulary and grammar of the language, and the language material to the third aspect [194, p.214-218].

N.Chomsky, giving special importance to the intuition of the language carrier, believes that all the sentences created due to the grammatical structure of the language should be acceptable for the language carriers.

Thus, according to N.Chomsky, the first goal of linguistic grammar is to construct a sentence, and the second goal is to reflect the intuition of the language carrier of all sentences.

Syntactic units have their own characteristics: predicative category (monopredicative, polypredicative), functions (nominative, communicative), intonation, grammatical meaning. Thus, from the middle of the 20th century phrases began to be studied as a part of simple and complex syntactic units.

Traditionally, syntax is shown to be the study of the sentence and its constituents. The first approach to syntax in Russian linguistics found its extensive analysis in the works of F.I.Buslayev [92], A.A.Potebnya [145, p.80], A.A.Shakhmatov [187] and A. M.Peshkovsky [156, p.78].

The second approach was presented in the works of F.F.Fortunatov, M.N.Peterson, and N.N.Durnovo. They considered phrases to be the subject of syntax. F.F.Fortunatov calls a sentence a finished phrase and considers other phrases as a finished sentence, M.H.Peterson proposes to study only phrases in syntax and includes a simple sentence as well [97, p.7].

The third approach can be seen in the works of V.V.Vinogradov and L.V.Sherba. According to them, syntax studies the phrase and the sentence, which are completely different from each other. Since the phrase is not a communicative unit, it does not have the ability to provide information. A sentence, on the other hand, has the ability to provide information as an important communicative unit. Each of these units has its own grammatical structure and meaning [99, p.87].

The fourth approach is related to the name of American scientists. They interpret syntax as sentence formation (derivative grammar) on the one hand, and sentence formation on the other [142, p.4].

According to E.A.Starodumova syntactic units should be included not only phrase and sentence, but also syntax, syntagm and complex syntactic whole [165, p.8].

E.Benveniste, the author of conflicting opinions about the sentence being a syntactic unit, believes that *“a sentence is not a unit because it is opposed to other units of this level; it is a unit because it is a segment of a conversation (speech). But the sentence is an integral unit, it has both a meaning and a referen-*

ce. When people communicate, it is precisely the relation to a certain situation that is common, without which communication does not take place, because even if the "meaning" is understood, if the reference is not known, communication does not take place. A classic expression could be slightly modified to say: nihil est inlingua quod non prius fuerit in oratione "there is nothing in language that is not in speech" [8, p.168].

Thus, syntax studies the structure, meaning and function of syntactic units that occur in the process of communication. The issue of whether a sentence is a language or a conversational unit is one of the issues that creates diversity of opinion among linguists. For example, A.I.Smirnitsky [160], M.A.Halliday [228], J.Lyons [252, p.197] call sentence is a speech unit, G.G.Pochepsov [147, p.269], Y.A.Levitsky [130, p.248] call sentence a linguistic unit. Y.A.Levitsky shows that the sentence as a linguistic unit is non-situational, that is, not related to the context [130, p.248].

Referring to the works of Western linguists, P.H.Farukh shows that there are four different views on phrases: "1) *Semantic view. The main purpose of this view is the possibility of placing words side by side, i.e. the fact that some words can come next to other words is related to grammatical features, as well as their meaning aspects. In other words, the meaning of each word is usually determined by the meaning of the words used with it.* 2) *Statistical view. Based on this method, phrases are determined with the help of counting the words that come next to each other in large language texts – that is, corpora, re-*

petitions. This view is observed in the works of researchers such as M.A.Halliday, J.Sinclair and K.Church.3) A semantic-functional view. This review studies the meaning and function of creative word units. 4) Semantic-grammatical review. According to this view, grammatical criteria should be taken into account in addition to semantic criteria in the examination and classification of phrases" [19, p.86].

Being a lexical unit a word consists of a combination of letters and sounds that express a certain meaning. A word helps to express the thought in a sentence. Language continues to exist through the words. The wealth of words in any language is also an indicator of the development and richness of that language. The word is also considered the main rock of the sentence. Words are combined to form phrases. For example, the phrase – give up||. Here, both the words – give and – up have their own separate meanings. But in the form of a word combination "give up" gives the meaning – "to get out of the habit".

A word consists of a content (lexical meaning) and a form (grammatical meaning) which are closely related.

CHAPTER II

PSYCHOLINGUISTIC VIEW OF AN UTTERANCE AND A SENTENCE

2.1. Utterance as the main communicative syntactic unit

Language is built on certain units, the most important of which are syntactic units. The syntactic structure of the language plays an important role in the arrangement of syntactic units, and syntactic units also perform functions such as nominative, communicative, text-creating, psycholinguistic, and so on.

In linguistics, the term “utterance” is approached from different perspectives. Thus, in linguistics, there have been attempts to equate the term “speech” with the term “phrase” [4, p.45].

F.M.Aghayeva shows that the structure of such units is different and does not fit into the definition traditionally given to the sentence. *“Utterance” is a unit of communication that can be understood by the listener under certain speaking conditions and has the integrity of meaning (idea)* [13, p.141].

In many studies, a “phrase” is considered as a minimal unit. F.Y.Veysalli, G.S.Kazimov and others consider it appropriate to replace the term “phrase” with the term “utterance”, because they call a speech a realized sentence,

lexically complete, concrete purposeful piece of speech [7, p.140].

So, in addition to the term “utterance”, research works include sentences, phrases, expressions, information, etc. units are also used.

“Utterance” is a communicative unit that expresses a certain idea, that is, utterance serves communication. Although discourse corresponds to the sentence in most cases, sometimes it goes beyond the frame of the sentence, it is considered an independent unit of the language system and is distinguished from a sentence, which is a unit of a lower level. Depending on its communicative function, one sentence can serve the expression of several discourses” [51, p.5].

We think that G.Kazimov's consideration of discourse as a communicative unit that goes beyond the sentence level is not his opposition to F.Veysalli's opinion (discourse is a realized sentence, lexically complete, concrete, purposeful piece of speech), but his development of that opinion.

We do not accept replacing the term “phrase” with “utterance” as F.Veysalli and G.Kazimov say, we consider utterance as a unit of communication realized in speech.

The main syntactic concept of the utterance has many synonyms. It is the main syntactic unit and expresses a specific idea. The speech unit “discourse” is different from the linguistic unit “sentence”. While the sentence has its own predicate, the discourse mainly acts as a means of communication between relations during the dialogue.

The discourse, which acts as an actualized unit of communication, contains the signs of content and expression. The plan of content means that it is the unit of communication, and the plan of expression is the unit of intonation [127, p.54].

Although discourses are the most important and meaningful units of the language system and do not express predicativeness, since they express more expressiveness, they form the core of the language structure and can become an exchange of ideas in a sentence.

Discourse has a number of functional characteristics: "1) *nominative*, 2) *communicative-pragmatic*, 3) *psycholinguistic*, 4) *text-creative*, 5) *stylistic-semantic*, 6) *aesthetic*, 7) *meaning and interpretation*" [7, p.151].

The communicative function of discourse is realized only within the sentence. The speaker's emotional state, subjective attitude and approach to events are expressed by word combinations or utterances within the sentence.

Since the discourse is a speech unit, it realizes the speech, and as a language unit, it forms the structural model of the sentence. What distinguishes a discourse from a sentence is its predication. Discourses are activated and intensified in speech activity, and they are considered the initial moment, the core of communication.

The discourse is characterized by the actual members of the sentence, which is a communicative-syntactic unit. Logical stress is the main prosodic device in discourse and wherever it falls, the actual member is considered to be

that word, and undoubtedly the word order forms different meanings.

For example: *O, dünən səyahətə maşınla getdi. O, maşınla səyahətə dünən getdi. Dünən o, maşınla səyahətə getdi. Dünən maşınla o səyahətə getdi.* All sentences here mean / He went on a trip by car yesterday//. /Yesterday he went on a trip by car//.

/ By car he went on a trip//.

The most important information is given in the theme of the discourse, which is the main unit of actual syntax. The main research object of psycholinguistics is the speech mechanism, and discourse is created and formed in this complex process of movement, and its communicative types are created in this process.

I.G.Torsuyeva defines the utterance as follows: *"An utterance is a piece of speech that expresses a communicative purpose, expresses meaning in the realization of the language system, and meets language norms"* [171, p.15].

The functions of both speech and language are realized in utterance. Denotative, communicative and expressive functions are manifested in utterance, and these functions form a language unit. *"Denotative function is a language function. Phatic function is communication function. The phatic function is realized in individual utterances. Utterances cannot be imagined without denotative, emotive, conative functions"* [167, p.18].

I.A.Zimnyaya distinguishes two types of utterances based on the fact that utterances are realized in the situation: single-object and poly-object utterances [114, p.184].

He includes: 1) sentences expanded through the subject. For example: */Farrier carried the bag of gold and notes // [220, p.69].*

2) second, compound utterances extended by predication to simple sentences with one object.

For example: */Possibly he leaves England and only comes back at intervals // [220, p.120].*

He also groups associative utterances as a) situational /A/ utterance and b) situational /B/ utterance.

a) the situational /A/ utterance is expanded through a monoobject subject;

For example: */ Opening the door of our room, he gave a start of surprise. I was equally astonished. His brother Mycroft was sitting smoking in the armchair // [220, p.443].*

b) group the situational /B/ utterance – polyobject monostrophe- (describes only one situation) [114, p.186]. For example: */ I refused to answer, then went to the vicarage, waited outside and finally returned to the cottage // [220, p.967].*

In polyobject situational utterances, the relationship first manifests itself in the semantic connection between words, and then in the development of the corresponding conjunctions [114, p.192].

In linguistics, a number of researchers highlight the connection between language and speech in utterance. But how does this connection come about? This is how I.A.Zimnyaya answers this question. *“The development and organization of thought is dynamic and also changeable. It depends not on the individual psychological and personal characte-*

ristics of the speaker, but on the situation, the state of the speaker and a number of other factors” [114, p.192].

All utterances have the following characteristics: 1) grammatical connection between words, 2) having a communicative function, 3) intonation of the given information: transfer, incitement, question, 4) the ability to connect with other utterances within the text [138, p.84].

E.A.Starodumova shows several classifications of utterances. The first most popular is classification according to communicative purposes. According to this classification, all utterances are divided into two main types:

- 1) Question (the purpose is to search for information);
- 2) Non-question – (the purpose is to convey information) [165, p.16].

Interrogative utterances are made through intonation and with special indicators: interrogative pronouns (who, what, where, why, etc.) and interrogative adverbs (i.e., if, if so, etc.). Interrogative utterances have different functions. Interrogative utterances formed with interrogative pronouns manifest themselves in two ways: 1) the question is about obtaining information. For example: / *What’s going on? What’s new?* // 2) the question is about the transfer of information. For example: / *Who can stop love?* //

Non-interrogative (non-questioning) utterances, in turn, express wishes and suggestions. This type of utterances is carried out by means of grammar: pictures of the verb, a number of adverbs and intonation. In declarative sentences, the verb form is either in the form of predicate,

or in the form of subjunctive. For example, / *They won. Ah I wish they would win* //.

Utterances denoting incitement are used in the imperative form: / *Hurry up!// / Shut up!//*

Imperative sentences without verbs can also be used in our language: /*Shut up!// / Get out!//*

In utterances expressing desire, the verb is used with the word “kaş” (wish) in Azerbaijani, and the infinitive “бы” is used without particle in Russian. For example: /*Поехал бы ты в санаторий!//* I wish you would go to a sanatorium!'

A.A.Leontyev takes a number of parameters as the basis for the creation of the utterance: 1) the place of the utterance in the syntactic structure; 2) specific morphological realization and grammatical signs; 3) semantic features; 4) acoustic (graphic) signs [131, p.59].

Another classification of utterance is based on current information. The Czech scientist P.Adames worked on this classification on the basis of four types of question forms.

1) A complete dictal question: the answer to the question is not known and the question is aimed at getting the answer: For example: / *What happened?//*

2) A semi-dictal question: the speaker partially knows the answer to the question and expects an answer: For example: / *Where are you going?// / Who called?//*

3) Full modal question: the speaker is skeptical about the real event and aims to get correct information: For example: / *Is Sevinj here?//*

4) Incomplete modal question: expresses doubt: For example: */Are you really going to the cinema? //* [165, p.42].

Based on these types of questions, we can show the following types of utterances:

1) general informative utterances. Such utterances serve to convey information fully: For example: */The bell of the door rang. The woman opened it //* [220, p.109].

2) utterances that do not provide complete information. This type of utterances conveys information to the listener in such a way that the information is already known to him. For example: */We will do all our correspondence. Only we must know about it //* [220, p.199].

3) utterances that create confidence in the listener. Such utterances do not bring new news, they only reflect the opinion of the interlocutor: *"This is a very deep business", he said at last. There are a thousand details* [220, p.263].

4) half-convincing utterances. They do not illuminate the reality of the fact as a whole, but a certain part of that fact: For example: */There are several quiet little villages of this city //* [220, p.285].

A.A.Leontyev shows that there are several stages in the creation of an utterance: 1) *motive* – which plays an important role in the creation of speech interpretation; 2) *plan*. According to A.Leontyev, the second stage creates the theme and rheme of the future speech; 3) the third stage is called *internal programming*. It shows two types of programming: a) programming of specific utterance; b) programming of speech as a whole. The basis of programming

is the image, and this image realizes its meaning characteristic; 4) the 4th stage in the formation of utterance is the lexico-grammatical characteristics of the speech [131, p.72].

Undoubtedly, the role of the sentence in the formation of utterance in the process of communication is undeniable, but the utterance with a logical-grammatical essence is realized as a separate level of language in speech. To understand the essence of the utterance, it is necessary to understand the segment-speech- utterance triad. *"A segment is a sound loop that is stable in a speech act and maintains its identity when repeated"* [14, p.203].

2.1.1. The process of encoding and decoding of the utterance in the comprehension process

The sentence, which is the first and main unit of communication plays an important role in the formation of an idea, its transmission to another person, or rather, its encoding and decoding. Structural, semantic and communicative aspects play an important role in the study of the sentence. Communicativeness plays a significant role in determining the semantics and structure of a sentence.

"In addition to sentences, utterances and expressions are used in the use of language to transmit information. This is how limited contexts arise for the information provided to be "understood", that is, the correct understanding of this intonation depends on the thought that was said before the utterance, which can be called a limited context. Utterances have a grammatical

structure, which is itself based on sentence patterns. If there is syntactic ambiguity, the structure of the utterance acquires semantic relevance determined by the rules” [70, p.295].

The central problem of modern linguistics is how to create and understand a sentence that is new to us. To understand and remember a sentence, you need to follow a certain system of rules. It is thanks to this that we can create and understand countless sentences. One of the main problems of psycholinguistics is to understand and develop the nature of this skill [159, p.14].

In general, syntactic analysis of sentences is carried out in two directions: 1) modular, 2) interdependence.

Proponents of the modular direction believe that the language understanding apparatus consists of modules that perform their functions independently of each other. In this case, the syntactic analysis of the sentence takes place before the semantic analysis.

According to the supporters of the interdependence direction, the syntactic analysis of the sentence is determined by semantic and pragmatic information, that is, the syntactic structure of the sentence depends on the verb limited by the semantic context [294].

In the process of communication, the process of encoding and decoding utterance is important. Understanding is a means of connecting the author of the utterance with the addressee. In the process of understanding, competence and confidence are taken as the basis in the expression of utterance. The use of close-meaning words in an utterance

rance or sentence creates the basis for the speaker and listener to understand each other. Understanding what is being said is indicative of having the technique to use the appropriate sign.

Grammatical correctness of utterance also plays an important role in its understanding. The grammaticality of the utterance does not depend on the understanding of the words contained in it. *"It is also possible to read and understand the sentence if it is grammatically correct and the meaning of all the words in it is clear. For example, / Although the sentence "The people is in the room" is not grammatically correct, it is understandable. So, grammaticality does not depend on reality. / The president of the US is a three-year-old cat" is a grammatically correct sentence, but it does not express reality"* [206, p.138].

In linguistics, there are a number of objective tools for transforming phrases into meaningful utterances. In developed languages, these tools are different. For ex. inflection, auxiliary words, position of the word in phrases, etc.

Let's take the words "slice" and "bread". They express a separate opinion. "a slice of bread" is already an elementary expression. "House" and "burning" are separate words, and when we say "The house is burning" it is already a simple sentence, expressions expressing a relatively simple idea usually consist of N+V (noun+verb) or Adj+N (adjective+noun). More complex utterances involve several words and are characterized by the S-P-O (subject-predicate-object) scheme.

Another syntactic means in constructing an utterance, a sentence is the use of auxiliary words (prepositions, conjunctions). Auxiliary words facilitate the codification of language and play an important role in creating various relationships between words.

"The place of words in a sentence is one of the main objective tools. In Russian, the subject (executor) usually comes first, and the object comes second. These three sets of syntactic tools systematize language, create relationships and connections to express and understand thought. In addition to these tools, intonation also plays an important role in expressing speech. Intonation is manifested by the change of the tone of the voice in oral speech, and by punctuation marks in writing" [134, p.272].

A.P.Luria differentiates two types of information in linguistics: "1) *event communication*; 2) *relational communication*" [134, p.273].

Although these two types of information are constructed using the same grammatical means, they differ significantly from each other.

"Event communication" shows itself in simple subject and predicate relationships in a sentence. In this type, executive or descriptive gestures, intonation play an important role. *In "relational communication", the situation is relatively different. There are utterances that do not express any event, but express an attitude that is obvious to everyone. Grammatical constructions such as "The dog is an animal" and "my brother's friend" belong to such constructions" [134, p.273].*

In the transmission of information, a person realizes complex relationships and relationships. Information is transmitted through codes and forms speech and the role of psychological factors here is undeniable. *“Language as a system of objective, social historical codes becomes the subject of linguistics, organization and transmission of thought as a psychological process, and is comprehensively studied in psycholinguistics”* [134, p.276].

Speech as a form of activity is realized in two ways: 1) transformation of information – the participation of two people here is mandatory: the speaker and the listener. 2) The second form unites the speaker and the listener around one subject, and speech becomes not a means of communication, but a weapon of thought [134, p.276].

Speech as a means of communication is involved in two real processes. On the one hand, the speech should embody the idea and bring it to the level of speech. This case is called utterance encoding. The analysis of the path from thought to speech is called the psychology of utterance or expressive speech in science. In the process of decoding the utterance, the opposite process takes place; the accepted utterance becomes an opinion. In psychology, the path from speech to thought is often called the process of comprehension, and this field is studied by psychological impressive speech, a branch of psychology. These processes manifest themselves in both oral and written speech. Both forms of speech have their own psychological features.

The path from thought to speech is called encoding, and the opposite path is called decoding of received information. The process of understanding the received information cannot be considered simply as understanding the meaning of a separate word. The understanding or decoding of information is the encoding of the general meaning.

"In the decoding process, the presence of connection and integration between sentences is important. When we say connection, we mean the proximity between sentences, and here graphic, grammatical, semantic and syntactic features are taken as the basis. Integration finds its embodiment in the text, which consists of a chain of sentences" [248, p. 22].

Consider the psychological process from thought to speech. A person uses a broad form of speech to convey his opinion to his interlocutor. For this, he must first of all use the motive of utterance. The motif can be expressed in the form of desire, demand, and in this case the utterance will have a pragmatic character. The motive of the utterance can be the transfer of information, contact with another person, clarification of some issues. Sometimes, it can be an emotional state, internal tension, as the elementary events of the utterance motive [134, p.280].

On the other hand, the utterance motive is the initial moment that moves with all its might throughout the process. It is at the next stage that ideas arise. Psychological analysis of thoughts has created a number of difficulties in psychology.

Some authors (K.Buhler, H.Bach) believe that "pure thought" has nothing to do with words. Other psychologists note that an idea is a ready-made mental possibility embodied in a word. Later L.S.Vygotsky also confirmed that the idea is not represented, it is formulated in words [134, p.281].

Speech utterances are manifested in two main forms: oral and written. The difference between them is that each of them expresses different speech in different ways.

The simplest structure in oral speech is called "affective speech". Here include speech tags such as *Ah!*, *ah*, *you!*, *be hell!* etc.

In this form, there is no clear motive (request, command, information), instead, affective tension manifests itself. Another form of oral speech is oral dialogic speech. This form has a unique psychological structure. Oral dialogic speech has its own motive; it contains a request or an order, any message. So, this motive is reflected in the subject's behavior. The same can be said about the idea. At the beginning of the conversation, a person has an idea; this idea manifests itself in the form of either giving information to the interlocutor or asking for something. When a person wants to answer a question (if the answer will indicate agreement or displeasure), it is formed as a question in the interlocutor's speech, and this scheme is followed throughout the conversation. The main issue here is that the subject does not need to search and formulate any idea during the conversation. The main feature of the dialogic

speech is that the interlocutor always knows what the conversation is about. Another peculiarity is also evident in the oral dialogic speech. In this form of speech, the use of external factors – various gestures, facial expressions and intonation – comes to the fore.

All this determines the structural features of dialogic speech. This form of speech can be incomplete, abbreviated, sometimes fragmentary, ellipsis, but the speech does not lose its intelligibility in all cases.

“The third most complex type of speech is oral monologic speech which manifests itself in the form of a command, report. An oral monologue must have a motive as well as a plan” [134, p.280].

It is from the plan that the idea is formed. Unlike dialogic speech, this idea is not given in a ready-made form, it arises when the speaker speaks.

Another form of monologic speech is called “epic speech”. This form of speech is accompanied by gestures and intonation. Here, speech should be maximally literate and all language codes (lexical and syntactic) should be used [134, p.283].

The final, more complex form of utterance is a written monologue. Unlike oral speech, in written monologue speech the interlocutor does not participate or the interlocutor is imaginary. It is the fact that determines the psychological structure of the monological written utterance.

If the written monologic speech forms a new, not yet fully processed idea, and some details are not yet clear to

the subject itself, then the understanding of the utterance becomes complicated. Both oral and written speech perform the main function: they play an important role in processing thought, specifying the subject's intellectual activity.

The understanding of oral utterance differs from the perception of written information in terms of psychological structure. Oral utterance uses extra-linguistic factors, which are not reflected in writing.

“During decoding, a number of obstacles appear in the correct understanding of the meaning of the word. For example, the first of the main obstacles is the lack of sufficient vocabulary. It is this fact that makes it difficult to understand homonymous words that are identical in spelling or pronunciation. For example., weather, whether. Another tool is visual thinking. This process manifests itself mainly in the deaf. For example, the sentence на улице холодно, барометр сильно упал is understood as термометр разбился. The last barrier (zone of word decoding) is a pathological condition that occurs during severe fatigue, sleepiness, brain wakefulness” [134, p.289].

Therefore, the decoding of information requires, first of all, the selection of the necessary meaning from among many meanings. First of all, information plays an important role in choosing the right meaning. The word spoken through special intonation automatically helps in choosing an alternative word. Another and the most important factor in choosing the right meaning is the context. On the other hand, there is no barrier between the sentence and the

utterance. In a sentence, predicativeness is expressed by the relationship between the subject and the predicate, while in speech, predicativeness is realized by word order and intonation. While the sentence expresses exhaustion, the utterance is not necessarily exhausted. Thus, the utterance can consist of one word, phrase, half-finished, complete sentences.

2.2. A sentence as the main communicative syntactic unit

The sentence being a syntactic unit has the main function of communicativeness. This function has not been paid much attention in the works of American scientists. The communicative function of the sentence is mainly studied in psychology and psycholinguistics.

In modern linguistics, three aspects of syntax are distinguished: 1) grammatical (formal-syntactic, constructive), 2) semantic and 3) communicative. They operate both separately and together.

1) The main tools of the grammatical aspect are phrases and auxiliary words.

2) The semantic aspect began to be actively studied long after the grammatical aspect, from the middle of the 20th century. In the semantic plan, the sentence expresses a certain situation.

3) Communicative aspect. Syntactic units are not only propositions and constructions, they serve to provide actual information with a specific purpose in speech. For

example, the grammatical formula of the sentence (It is snowing) can be given as $N_1 - V_f$.

“Grammatical or constructional syntax includes syntactic relations, syntactic relations, syntactic constructions, and structural scheme. Syntactic relations include coordinative and subordinating relations, predicative relations, semi-predicative relations, appositive relations. The predicative relation indicates a) the subject and its active action, b) the subject and its state, condition, c) the subject and its qualitative characteristic” [165, p.12].

The semantic aspect of a sentence is closely related to the communicative aspect, as it denotes a certain situation. The difference between semi-predicative relations and predicative relations is that the semi-predicative relationship is not used with personal verbs and, therefore, cannot form an independent utterance, exists against the background of a predicative relationship. Semi-predicative relationship can be formally expressed by adjective, adverb, word order and intonation.

Appositive relationship refers to the relationship between two nouns. Usually, a qualifying word indicates a rank, specialty, and gives additional information about the qualifying word [285, p.324]. For example, phrases such as, *student Sevinj, rector Mammadov* are elementary syntactic constructions.

The situation plays an important role in the formation of communication. Several types of communicative situations are shown in linguistics: the speaker, 2) the listener, 3)

the relationship between the speaker and the listener, 4) the form of communication (formal-neutral-friendly), 5) the purpose of communication, 6) means of communication (gestures, facial expressions), 7) method of communication [286, p.129].

Communication occurs as a result of the interaction of these types of situations.

In her article, N.F.Irtenyeva calls the left branch of the model of immediate constituents (IC) “regressive” and the right branch “progressive”, but she cannot give the analysis of the full disclosure of the informative feature of the sentence [120, p.31].

It is known that a sentence is a unit of communication expressing a finished idea, and through it, information is transferred directly from the speaker to the listener in the communication process. The composition of a sentence, which is a complete unit, consists of grammatically connected words. This attachment has a unique character.

A word is a part of any language with its lexical concreteness and a sentence is formed in the speech process. Unlike a word, a sentence is a communicative-predicative unit. Thus, *“through the words contained in it, the sentence not only expresses something, the sentence also shows the attitude of the named substance to what is happening around. This attitude depends on how the speaker perceives the information or in what form he wants to receive it. The named forms find a place in various areas of the paradigm, form a general category of predicativity. This category, on the other hand, combines two dialecti-*

cally opposite sides of the sentence (speech and language) and introduces language into the system of signs, bringing the sentence to the level of a typical model” [90, p.97].

The scheme of T+N+V+T+N (The boy reads the book) and T+N+is+T+N/A (The book is interesting) is typical for the simplest sentence structure in English. This scheme provides certain information about the capacity of information (here T is a determiner, N is a noun, A is an adjective, and V is a verb).

V.D.Ivshin, talking about the close relationship between the communicative nature of the sentence and intonation, writes: *“The minimal unit of speech activity is a sentence or utterance. Every minimal utterance is a sentence, and a sentence is an invariant of a set of utterances. Communicativeness is inherent in the nature of each sentence. The external indicator of the sentence is intonation. Also, there is no intonation of the word and phrase. Intonation is inherent in the sentence, utterance and logical phrase. It is intonation that conditions the communicative perspective of the sentence” [117, p.39].*

The term “communicative” contains in itself communicative-pragmatic and communicative-syntactic meanings.

The unit of the communicative-pragmatic aspect is speech activity. Speech activity becomes illocutive power or purpose. At this time, speech activity is expressed by performatives. Other tools of the speech act are intonation, word order, particle and other illocutionary indicators. Thus, the communicative pragmatic aspect is the speech aspect. Communicative-syntactic meaning refers to both

speech and language, and its main unit is utterance [138, p.90].

N.F.Irtenyeva shows that the preparation for the information given in the sentence is carried out in several ways. The speaker returns to the previously given information and transfers some parts to the left branch of the newly formed utterance. Direct memory, which is involved in the creation of utterance, cannot store a large amount of information in memory, and thus the received information recedes, in other words, it regresses [120, p.30].

In the communicative aspect, syntactic units are not only propositions and constructions, they serve to provide actual information with a specific purpose in speech. For example, the grammatical formula of the sentence /The delegation arrived// can be given as $N_1 - V_t$. This sentence can be pronounced differently for different purposes.

K.Abdullayev writes about the communicative nature of the sentence: *"As a result, the study of the communicative side of the sentence with the means of actual grouping leads to the understanding of the deeper layer of the grammatical organization of the formal aspect of the sentence. In this case, the importance of studying the grammatical structure of the sentence, its semantic structure – that is, its communicative side – increases many times"* [1, p.93].

V.N.Kodukhov noted that there are two aspects of the sentence: communicative and structural. If communicative semantics focuses on extralinguistic reality, structural semantics focuses on the language itself, its organization.

Unlike words and phrases, a sentence is a communicative unit [122, p.33].

“In syntactic studies, communication is understood in three forms: 1) logical-psychological, 2) situational, 3) informative (cognitive).

Logical-psychological understanding of communication is the most widespread form. In this form, the sentence is determined according to theme and rheme.

Communication is studied in psycholinguistics as a speech act. The sentence acts as the main component of situational speech. Situational speech is based on dialogic speech – speaker and interlocutor, provocation.

Informative (cognitive) understanding means forming and expressing a specific idea” [122, p.34].

According to I.P.Susov, the communicative meaning of the sentence includes the following aspects: 1) structural aspect of the situation, 2) nominative or explicative, 3) localization of information, 4) emotional or expressive aspect [169, p.64].

I.P.Susov shows two types of the structural aspect of the situation: relation and predication. The relational aspect describes the construction of the situation (agent, patient, addressee of the action, etc.). Relational aspect is the most basic aspect of syntactic semantics. This aspect consists of minimal syntactic-semantic units. The predicational aspect determines the grammatical subject and predicate of the information. Both aspects together serve to construct information.

The nominative or explicative aspect is closely related to the lexical composition of the situation as a whole. The third aspect is the aspect of information localization. This includes the modality in which the information is expressed, confirmation/denial information, temporality, purpose, information-question-provocation, topical membership. The fourth aspect is the emotional and expressive aspect. This aspect expresses the feelings experienced by the speaker in the situation [169, p. 67].

Although the sentence has been extensively researched in the works of many linguists, a number of issues regarding its actual grouping have not yet been fully resolved. Actual grouping is different in different communicative types of the sentence. A declarative sentence expresses a certain proposition, this proposition is a fact. In this type of sentences, the present subjunctive is implemented in full form. The rheme of the figurative sentence is the center of the speech.

“An imperative sentence does not express a fact, its rheme expresses a desired and an undesirable action. An interrogative sentence expresses a request, and the rheme of such sentences is informatively open and closed. The main function of the rheme of interrogative sentences is to determine the rhematic position in the interrogative sentence” [96, p.70].

Different types of questions exhibit different open-ended rhemes. In interrogative (special) sentences, the core of the question is expressed by the question word. The fra-

me of the general question is open. The answer is either yes or no.

For exaple: /Couldn't you retire him? asked one of the listeners. *Not* so very easily. We had no written contact, you know, just the old fashioned appointment by letter and all the original letter said, was, as long as it shall please God to bless his ministration // [250, p.258].

/ "Dangerous! You still have danger?" – "*Yes*", he said, "there is always the danger of getting brocken" // [250, p.258].

The clear expression of the rheme also shows itself in alternative questions. For example: /Do we have there a series of reprints – Universal Knowledge from Aristotle to Arthur Balfour, at seventeen cents or perhaps you might like to look over the Pantheon of Dead Authors, at ten cents // ? [250, p.114].

In order for a sentence to be a sentence, it must first have an idea. However, the completeness of the thought in the sentence is not necessarily exhaustion. A sentence cannot express this or that fact of life or a certain issue in an absolutely finished way. We can show a moment, an aspect, a certain characteristic of concrete life events only by using sentences. Sometimes it is necessary to use not one but several sentences to express our opinion. The sentence itself is a microtext. Exhaustion becomes more concrete when sentences, microtexts are combined to form a macrotext.

The term "communicative" has two main meanings: 1) communicative-pragmatic, 2) communicative-syntactic.

The unit of communicative-pragmatic aspect is speaking activity. Speech activity has an illocutionary force or purpose, and speech activity is expressed by performatives. Other tools of the speech act are intonation, word order, particle and other illocutionary indicators.

Thus, the communicative pragmatic aspect is the speech aspect. Communicative-syntactic meaning refers to both speech and language, and its main unit is utterance.

In the middle of the 20th century, M. N. Peterson pointed out that the sentence has two signs and indicated its two signs: 1) completeness of meaning and 2) intonation [138, p.88-92].

According to Z.Budagova *"each sentence must have finished information intonation, predicativeness and modality"* [9, p.13].

Y.Seyidov also puts forward the idea that there are two signs specific to the sentence: 1) predicativeness, 2) intonation. According to Y.Seyidov, *"predicativeness is the confirmation or denial of something, the attitude towards it, giving information about a certain work, receiving information"* [63, p.97].

The basis of predicativeness in the sentence is the verb, and important predicative meanings are realized through the grammatical categories of the verb, mainly the tense category and images. Predication is revealed not only by the words used in the personal form of the verb connecting it with the subject, but also by the forms and elements of relation to reality. In particular, predication (predicative

semantics) is expressed by intonation, word order and various auxiliary words, and it has a verb-category and semantic-syntactic meaning. The sentence has a nominative and predicative function as a language unit.

The semantics of the sentence manifests itself in the unity of nominative and predicative aspects, while the semantics of the word is single-aspect in this regard. On the other hand, it should be taken into account that the nominative function of the sentence is fundamentally different from the nominative function of the word. The optimal nominative meaning of the sentence (propositive nomination) reflects the process situation, the components of this process are various actions (processes), objects, conditions and moments important for its realization.

Predicateness manifests itself in the speech process and a sentence is formed by the creation of this connection. N.A.Baskakov considers predicativity to be the main feature of the sentence [86, p.68].

The semantics of the relation of denotations is called "modality" [90, p.98]. Since modality is not considered a specific category of the sentence, every word that expresses the relationship of the mentioned substance to existing realities can be called a modal word. M.Bloch considers predicativity as a language feature that determines the qualities of a sentence – syntactic modality, and notes that this feature is not unique to any other unit of the language [90, p.98]. It is not by chance that modality is called the soul of the sentence. The main indicator of modality in a sen-

tence is modal words, modal verbs, some words and phrases, combinations.

Predicativeness and intonation are important in creating a sentence. *"In psycholinguistics, the intonation of speech activity (opening of a person's inner world, his psychological state) is considered as a sign"* [178, p. 52]. Syntactic units are formed with the help of word forms, conjunctions, particle, postposition and modifying suffixes. In the formation of syntactic units, the role of intonation, pause, stress is also great. Intonation is a very important component, it often manifests itself as a means of expression along with predicativeness. Intonation is considered as the most universal means of expression of predicativeness. Intonation is an indicator of oral speech, it is replaced by punctuation in written language.

"A sentence is an indefinite, indefinitely variable derivation; it is language's own life in motion. The sentence leaves the domain of language, which is a system of signs, and we enter another world, the world of language, a means of communication, whose expression is speech. The sentence belongs to the conversation. It can be defined exactly like this: a sentence is a unit of speech. The proof of this is that the sentence has a certain modality. It is accepted everywhere that affirmative, interrogative, command sentences differ from each other with specific features of syntax and grammar, but they are based on predication in the same way. These three modalities reflect three main positions of the speaker and he influences the interlocutor with his speech: the speaker either tries to give the interlocutor an element of

knowledge, or wants to get information from him, or orders him to do something. These three communicative functions of speech are reflected in the three forms of sentence modality, each of which corresponds to one of the positions of the speaker" [8, p.167].

Modality is the speaker's attitude to reality. There is no sentence that does not express that modality. Z.Budagova writes about it: *"The modality of the sentence means, first of all, the truth, reality, supposition, etc. of the content expressed in it. Modality is one of the tools that serve to create predicativeness, which is broader in meaning"* [9, p.32].

"Since intonation, predicativeness and modality specific to a sentence are sometimes not taken into account in linguistics, sentences and phrases are mixed and a sentence is considered a certain type of phrase" [9, p.32].

Speaking about the quantitative difference between a sentence and a word combination, N.Mammadov mentions that a sentence consists of one or more words and a phrase is a combination of at least two independent words [56, p.162].

As it can be seen, when N.Mammadov talks about the difference between a phrase and a sentence, he emphasizes only the quantitative difference. However, there are not only quantitative but also qualitative differences between them.

"Sentence is a grammatical unit from a structural point of view. It is the task of syntax to reveal the structure of a sentence. Except for nominative clauses, all sentences have a noun utterance"

rance and a verb utterance” says Veysalli, who defines the sentence as follows: “A sentence is a syntactic construction that is normally arranged with grammatical relations based on the semantic unity of the words in the language, characterized by signs of predicativeness and modality, and expresses a concrete propositional syntactic relation and meaning” [73, p.156, p.160].

A sentence is a set of utterances with a communicative content with specific lexical filling, structural-semantic and morphological arrangement, modality. At the same time, a sentence with a plan of expression and content is a language sign, which confirms that it is not only a communicative unit, but also a nominator of meaning.

In the middle of the last century, in linguistics, we find cases of identification and differentiation of a phrase and a sentence. For example, A.M.Peshkovsky does not distinguish between a phrase and a sentence, so he notes that syntax is the part of grammar that deals with phrases.

Summarizing what has been said, we can say that although both phrase and sentence are syntactic units, there are important differences between them.

1) A phrase is formed by the combination of two independent words and becomes a means of communication within a sentence; 2) the sentence does not name objects and events, but also creates a connection between them, 3) unlike the sentence, intonation, predicativeness and modality are not characteristic of the phrase.

Apparently, no word, even if it consists of several roots, can express the situational-nominative meaning of the proposition described by its essence.

Interacting relationships occur between sentences and noun phrases: the sentence, which is a paradigmatic element of the language, turns into a substantive phrase, in other words, it becomes “nominative” and therefore loses its process-predicative character. Thus, in the process of syntactic nominalization, which eliminates the predicative aspect of the sentence, it appears almost completely isolated, while the nominative aspect of the sentence is present.

Considering the two-aspect nature of the sentence, predication should be considered not as the adaptation of the content of the sentence to reality, but as the adaptation of the nominative content of the sentence to reality. Such acceptance of the semantic-functional nature of predication reveals two fundamental aspects of the mentioned aspects of the sentence and shows their important role in complementing each other.

There are three aspects in the study of a sentence in syntax:

- The sentence is studied semantically and formally;
- The sentence is learned in the speech process;
- The sentence is learned at the level of utterance.

It should be noted that in psycholinguistics, “intonation” (because it reveals the inner world of a person and reveals his psychological state) is also considered as a sign in speech activity. However, there is still no consensus in

this area. Some specialists (for example, T.M.Dridze) treat intonation as a sign (based on the semantic function). Many specialists consider intonation as a separate element of speech activity or include it in “metalanguage” [110].

In our opinion, the second opinion is more appropriate, because intonation not only indicates the harmony and rhythm, pace and speed of speech, etc., it also indicates modality and ensures the connection and grouping of words in a sentence.

The main feature that distinguishes a sentence from a phrase is intonation. *“Intonation is of different types: 1) general, 2) special. In the general plan, intonation denotes informational information, expresses question, doubt and is used for communicative purposes; in the special plan, intonation expresses surprise, assumption, and therefore is closely related to the lexical side of the sentence. The intonation worked out in the general plan expresses an objective modality. For example, a sentence with the same lexical composition can be both informative in nature and expressed in a dubious way. For example – you will come tomorrow-denotes a confirmed fact; you will come tomorrow! – notifies request or command. Thus, the modality in the first sentence denotes reality, and the modality in the second sentence denotes unreality”* [93, p.15].

At the same time, the sentence has different structural levels: 1) grammatical (subject and predicate), 2) semantic structure (the relationship between the subject and its predicate), 3) communicative structure (theme and rheme).

The sentence is built on the basis of content, functional, structural signs.

“Our memory is able to give us a very limited number of ready-made sentence options. This case can be considered normal if we take into account an unlimited number of connections of elements with a small number, and vice versa, the same memory presents us with thousands of new words. Thus, the ability to be an element of a sentence is not the first modus of the existence of a word. It can be said that the word arose independently before the sentence. This idea cannot be attributed to word elements. However, in some cases, even in speech, we have to pronounce not a sentence, but a separate word” (these include vocatives)” said F.de Saussure. He notes that “first we learn to say a sentence, and then we master the words. Any language is understood by speech, and that’s it. Just as the pronunciation of a word lies in our heart and leaves exactly the speech and becomes an impression, so our thinking removes everything in speech except the word. When this process is over, it passes forward as a condition that it is important in what ways the word is chosen” [163, p.159].

According to the communicative purpose of information, all sentences are divided into two classes: 1) non-interrogative and 2) interrogative sentences. The main difference between these types of sentences is that the speaker or writer in non-question sentences transmits the information obtained to another in various forms in a form inherent in reality or unreality, thereby expressing his desire, demand, request. The main purpose of interrogative senten-

ces is to search for information. The speaker informs that he wants to get information from the other. Question sentences have their own grammatical forms, information, word order and special question words. Non-interrogative sentences are divided into three groups: narrative sentences, provocative and wishful sentences.

Discourse as a unit of communication differs from the sentence as an independent unit of the language system. One sentence can express several utterances. For example: *Uşaq kitab oxuyur. Kitab oxuyur uşaq. Oxuyur uşaq kitab.* It is possible to say these sentences in three types of utterances with the help of logical emphasis and inversion. The main indicator of the utterance is actual grouping, and its main unit is theme and rheme. Membership is also of two types: grammatical (the sentence is analyzed according to its constituent elements) and topical (according to theme and rheme). The main signs of theme and rheme are intonation, word order. Rheme is the core of communication and an important source of information.

Being the main communicative unit, the sentence contains a number of structural-semantic and functional signs inherent in many languages. These signs are as follows: 1) meaning finality, 2) informativeness, 3) meaning and grammatical relationship between constituents, words, 4) modality, 5) intonation finality, 6) communicative function.

K.M.Abdullayev noted that the sentence structure in the Azerbaijani language has the following positions: 1)

syntactic position of the subject, 2) syntactic position of the object, 3) syntactic position of the sign. The syntactic position of the subject creates a relation between the object and subject positions, the syntactic position of the object with the completeness, and the syntactic feature position creates a relation between the object and subject positions [77, p.25].

A simple sentence is a minimal unit of information, has a predicative meaning, grammatical structure and information. Sentence syntax is a multi-aspect unit, combining a number of aspects: 1) static or constructive; 2) dynamic or communicative; 3) semantic. Structural and semantic features belong to these aspects.

Sentences are classified according to their typological structure as follows: 1) according to their structure – simple, complex; 2) according to the modality expressed – confirmation and denial; 3) according to the purpose and intonation or according to its communicative purpose – confirmation, interrogative, imperative and optative; 4) Depending on the processing of members of the II degree – short and wide; 5) according to the grammatical structure – single-component and double-component; 6) additions, simple sentences expanding due to homogenous member (*неосложненные и осложненные*); here includes compositions, addresses, additions, etc.; 7) grouping (*да, нет*) and non-grouping – (*Тишина*); 8) complete, incomplete [142, p.43].

The central unit of syntax is a simple sentence. It is an independent, minimal source of information and plays a major role in creating complex sentences and texts. A simple sentence has its own grammatical features; it has its own structure, meaning, intonation and paradigms. Each syntactic unit has its own meaning. For example, a simple sentence conveys several meanings at different levels – predicativity, subjective-modality, topical membership, etc.

Simple sentences are divided into four main meaningful groups: 1) declaratives, 2) interrogatives, 3) imperatives, 4) exclamatives.

These four types of sentences perform different functions in utterance – statements (affirmative sentences), interrogative sentences, directives, exclamations.

Sometimes we come across question sentence types that are syntactically and semantically different from each other. For example:

(1) / *You are not going to buy that, Father?* // [225, p.21]

(2) / *Well, what to do?* // [225, p.22]

(3) / *Soams coughed and said that he had rather visited these splendid places* // [225, p.24].

(4) / *Isn't your mother!* // [225, p.181].

The first sentence is a declarative question form, syntactically it is declarative and semantically it is a question form. The second sentence is a rhetorical question; syntactically it is a question and semantically it is an affirmative sentence (statement). The third sentence is a decla-

rative sentence, semantically it makes a directive proposition. Finally, the fourth sentence is syntactically interrogative and semantically exclamatory.

The analysis of interrogatives in English revealed the presence of a number of shades of meaning in the act of speaking, depending on their contextual meaning. Let's try to consider the meanings they express in examples taken from fiction. Thus, interrogatives in English mean the following semantic meanings.

1. Surprising. In English, this manifests itself in sentences beginning with *why*, *what*. For example: /What can I say that will unable you to understand the depth of my sorrow?// [274, p. 86];

2. Denying/refusing. For example: /Did you not call this a glorious expedition? // [274, p. 289];

3. Confirming, assisting). For example: /Why are you always right? // [274, p.278];

4. Insinuating. For example: /Poor, poor girl, is she the accused? // [274, p.124];

5. Objecting. For example: /How can you do it like that?// [274, p.170];

6. Appealing. For example: /How can I see so noble a creature destroyed feeling the most poignant grief ? // [274, p.63];

7. Advising. For example: / Is that all, my dear Henry? How could you suppose that my first thoughts would not fly towards those dear, dear friends whom I love? // [274, p.105];

8. Wishing. For example: /Will he join with my enemies to crush me, to condemn me as a murder? // [255, p. 133];

9. Requesting. For example: /Are you always to be unhappy? My dear friend, what has happened? // [274, p.117];

10. Suspecting. For example: /Have you really spent your time in studying such nonsense? // [274, p.85];

11. Suggesting. For example: /Would it not be better to let your father and mother remain in Germany and remit them money for their support than put them to the fatigue of so long a journey at their far advanced age? // [255, p.331];

12. Reprimanding. For example: /What do they moan for? "Hunger I believe" // [255, p.15];

13. Inciting. For example: / Don't you dance, dearest Clerval? // [274, p.105];

14. Permission. For example: /May I know the names and residence of those friends? // [274, p. 189];

15. Sarcasm. For example: /What for God's sake, is the matter? // [274, p.103];

16. Blaming. For example: / What makes you draw off in that way, Ines? Are you afraid? // [255, p. 369];

17. Hesitating. For example: /Alas! Wha is safe if she be convicted of crime? // [274, p.125];

18. Challenging. For example: /How can I? And what was I? Why? // [274, p.172];

19. Complaining. For example: /What did he there? Could he be the murder of my brother? // [274, p. 121];

20. Intensifying. For example: /Mr. Kirvin, what do you mean by that laugh? // [255, p.241];

21. Offering. For example: /I am going to Geneva. Can I do anything for you? // [274, p.263];

22. Permitting. For example: /Can I do anything to make you more comfortable? // [274, p. 263];

23. Inviting. For example: /Can you come to somewhere at any time this morning? // [274, p. 263];

24. Proposing. For example: /Will you be that woman, Safie? // [274, p.177].

In linguistics, verificative and informational-investigative interrogative sentences are also distinguished. In verificative sentences, the correctness or incorrectness of the utterance, the possibility or impossibility of performing the action are taken as a basis. In informational-investigative questions, any element within the situation or the nomination of the situation as a whole is taken as the basis.

The words “right, true, a fact” expressing logical-semantic predicativity are also used in the verificative sentences. /Am I right?, Is it true?, Is it a fact?//

Since the stylistic possibilities of interrogatives are wide, in the act of speech they express various modal relationships, many semantic meanings. Interrogatives also denote a communicative act, such as “asking”, not only for the purpose of obtaining an answer, but confirmation and denial also serve to convey the idea in a more emotional way.

Sentences in affirmations can confirm an idea (1), foretell (2), or express an apology (3).

(1) / *"All right, that is his loss, not mine"*, answered the Rocket. *"I am not going to stop talking to him merely because he pays no attention"* // [293, p.79].

(2) / *"We are planning to have some rather good fun tomorrow night"*, he said, *"something that will be a good deal more in your line than a lot of it"* // [250, p.201].

(3) / *And he sobbed again and said: "Mother, my suffering is greater than I can bear. Give me the forgiveness, and let me go back to the forest"* // [293, p.198].

Confirmation of opinion, forewarning, apology are pragmatic categories, which indicate to which semantic class the sentence belongs during the pronunciation. Pronunciation of a sentence is called a speech act, in other words, verbal behavior. When a person performs a speech act, he utters any word, thus performing an illocutionary act. The desired effect of an illocutionary act lies in its illocutionary force, and this act is mainly performed by performative verbs [142, p.83].

N.M.Pipchenko, referring to N.Y.Shvedova, presents syntactic moods expressing five different modality meanings in the paradigm of a simple sentence.

1) Indicative – present, past and future simple sentences expressing reality. For example: / *It snows. It snowed. It will snow* //.

2) Subjunctive – indicates the possibility of performing an action within an indefinite period of time. For example: / *I wish it would snow* //.

3) Imperative – means permission For example: / *We have to get home soon* //.

N.M. Pipchenko concludes that the paradigm of a simple sentence combines seven forms. Three of them are indicative and four are unrealistic [142, p.124].

N.M.Pipchenko, referring to S.Bally, notes that the sentence consists of two elements by nature: dictum and modus. In other words, a sentence becomes a sentence when it reflects reality and the speaker has a certain attitude to that fact. The moment of the fact expressing reality – the objective moment – is the dictum, and the subjective (attitude of the speaker) is the modus. A dictum is taken as a proposition, and a modus is taken as a part expressing modality [142, p.141].

A proposition is a semantic model of a fragment reflected in a sentence. A proposition has its own structure, predicate, actants and circumstantials. The predicate has predicative signs, actants are participants of the event, circumstances are components that have an attributive and adverbial meanings. The center of the proposition is the predicate.

“Three main types of information appear in the formation of a sentence during communicative activity. These are 1) cognitive information, 2) language information, 3) communicative information” [185, p.118].

When we analyze these types of information separately, we witness the emergence of psycholinguistic factors.

Cognitive information is closely related to the human psyche and is expressed by a system of signs. The sign system is a broad concept and is widely used in linguistics, psychology, and psycholinguistics. In other words, cognitive information is the information an individual receives about the environment, the understanding of this information by that individual, and the imprint it leaves on the memory.

In psychology, a sign is considered as a material, a subject of sensation-perception. In psychological theory, signs are divided into two, natural and artificial. Natural signs manifest themselves in natural phenomena, changes in the season, climate and weather, and so on. And the system of artificial signs includes signs formed by animals and people. It also includes linguistic signs, images, ciphers, symbols, diagrams and other non-linguistic signs.

Signs are also used in psycholinguistics. V.P.Glukhov calls these signs "non-verbal signs" and includes various gestures, mimicry, pantomime, etc. [108, p.103].

As we mentioned, another type that appears in a sentence during communicative activity is "language information". In this type, the content and form plan of the language is taken as the basis. In this type of information, almost all levels of linguistic units (phonetic, morphological, lexical, grammatical) are taken into account. The role of syntactic relations in sentences is also great in the formation of speech activity.

The third type that manifests itself during communicative activity is called “communicative information”. Communicative information refers to the information given by the author in the sentences, his feelings, emotions, in short, his psychological state.

The role of formal relations in the creation of a sentence is also great. Formal relation refers to the connection between sentences in the text through grammatical categories and pronouns, the replacement of the previous word with a synonymous word corresponding to it, etc. At the same time, the relationship between meaning and structure is revealed in the text.

For years, our observations in the educational process have shown that students memorize ready-made sentence types and models much better than they have already been encoded in their memories.

For example, the sentence *It is time to go* can be translated in two ways: 1) with prepositional infinitive composition *for: It is time for us to go*, 2) with the subjunctive form of the verb: *It is time we went*.

On the other hand, such an issue in the teaching of practical grammar has attracted our attention. It is easier for a student (1) to hear and memorize a complex sentence and convey it to the listener, than (2) to memorize a simple, concise, scientifically sounding sentence.

For example: (1) / *The thought of that man was almost making **that he wanted her**, and this was a revelation of their relationship* // [224, p.163].

(2) / *The thought of that man was almost making him want her, and this was a relevation of their relationship //*

Since the subordinate clause of the first sentence is connected to the main sentence with the conjunction “that” sometimes is gained to continue the sentence, the first part of the second sentence is a simple sentence expressed in a complex object, and therefore it is perceived late because there is no time left to bring the end of that sentence. Undoubtedly, psychological factors have a certain role in this process. All this shows that the role of psychological factors in the development from acquired knowledge to grammatically polished language is undeniable.

2.2.1. Encoding and decoding of the meaning of the sentence

The structure of language is closely related to thinking. As early as 2,500 years ago, Aristotle studied that thinking determines the category of language. Thinking depends on language, and language depends on thinking. There are other logical ideas about the independence of language and thinking. This principle shows itself in the modularity of the language. According to this principle, language is a separate cognitive component, which first analyzes the incoming information and then gives the results of the analysis to cognitive processing. This idea suggests that

the linguistic module was formed for the transmission of thought.

Various researchers have either challenged or accepted the modularity hypothesis. The modularity of the language is based on two stages: 1) language acquisition, 2) language comprehension [82, p.291].

Language acquisition begins in childhood but language comprehension involves later stages. Undoubtedly, language acquisition is based on innate mechanisms. Speaking about language universals, N.Chomsky notes that grammar is the main thing. According to N.Chomsky, children have an innate instinct to understand language and speak a limited number of phrases [211, p.57].

G.Anderson analyzes language comprehension as a process of listening and reading. The process of listening is more fundamental than the process of reading. But listening and reading share many commonalities and thus he concludes that there are three stages of comprehension: 1) coded reception (understanding) of acoustic or written information; 2) syntactic analysis, 3) mental representation [82, p.291].

The words in the data are converted into a mental representation through syntactic analysis. The addressee is the user of the mental representation of the sentence. If the presented sentence is affirmative, the listener remembers its general meaning, if it is a question sentence, then the listener answers, if it is in the imperative form, then they obey the command. But listeners are not always compro-

missing. These three stages – comprehension, syntactic analysis and its use always follow each other.

Along with the perceptive stage, syntactic analysis and its use also play an important role in the perception and understanding of language [82, p.291].

Recently, the psycholinguistic analysis of the sentence, which has complex and polyfunctional features, has been the focus of attention of both linguists and psychologists. First of all, it should be noted that the sentence is understood by any individual as a system of signs from the psycholinguistic point of view. Undoubtedly, the role of other factors – hearing, perception, vision, hearing, etc.

Our researches show that only linguistics dealt with sentences. We believe that the sentence should be presented as an object of research not only of linguistics, but also of psycholinguistics, because a sentence is a set of signs, a communicative unit, a process that shows the perceptual activity of an individual. The formation and understanding of a sentence is based on the mechanism of encoding and decoding information and the lower and surfaces of the sentence are important here. For many years, a number of apparatuses have been used in the understanding, v.s. decoding of the sentence.

“In modern times, there are various means of displaying the movement of the eyes to the apparatus according to the position of the head. 1. full contactless model, 2. model in the form of a lightweight helmet.

Thus, the helmet is put on the experimenter's ear, and two small 5mm video cameras are placed in that helmet; one of them records what the experimenter is looking at, and the second shows the image of the eyes through the given light. Such equipment is produced by the most famous European companies in modern times. Eyelink, TOBII, ISCAN, EyeGaze are the most famous among them. These technologies are used in various fields of science, mainly in psychology to study memory-related processes, for visual memory, in neuropsychology, neurolinguistics, as well as in the organization of websites. Since the mentioned technologies cover many fields of science, since 1981, conferences called "Registration of eye movements" have been held in Europe" [176, p.116].

In modern times, researches in the field of unspoken word recognition and syntactic disambiguation are widespread.

The process of word recognition begins before the listener finishes pronouncing the word. There are several models of word understanding in modern psycholinguistics. "V. Marslen-Wilson's "cohort model" is the most famous model, the main idea of which is that a potential word order is organized, the sounds in one of the words are said in sequence and conditions are created for the listener to understand it. The cohort model consists of three levels: 1) transition, 2) selection, 3) integration. At the level of integration, the syntactic structure of the entire utterance is established according to the semantic and syntactic features of the selected word. According to this model, the context affects the verbal comprehension of a word only at

the level of integration. According to the cohort model, such a sequence can be manifested in the understanding of words [284, p.3].

Traditionally, linguists consider language as a system of signs belonging to phonetic, phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic and discursive levels. The main goal of this step-by-step process is the development and understanding of speech from voice to utterance. Thus, semantics, pragmatics and discourse play an important role in understanding speech.

It should be noted that phoneme combinations are not created and accepted by the brain as syntactic phrases and sentences. In this sense, each unit with a different hierarchical level has its own, unique, mental representation. On the other hand, language phenomena studied in linguistics are divided into two parts: language competence and language activity. Language competence is determined by abstract units – phonemes, morphemes and syntagms. In language activity, the processes that indicate specific time are manifested.

Coherence and integrity are important for decoding sentences. Coherence means that sentences are connected to each other and this connection is carried out by a number of means – graphic, grammatical, semantic, syntactic. The semantic collection of sentences is perceived by the recipient as a whole. The wholeness is exhausted in the text, which consists of a chain of sentences.

In the process of understanding the sentence, the role of the sense of time in the syntactic, semantic and discursi-

ve stages is also important. What is the meaning of time and what is the difference between the tense forms in these stages?

“Psycholinguists came to the aid of the experimental method “visual-world paradigm” in the process of sentence comprehension. According to the experiment, eye movements are recorded while listening to sentences. Such experiments allow the researcher to track the eye movements for seconds, to determine what information the listener uses while listening to the sentence, as well as the time distribution between other stages and to draw conclusions. The controversial nature of this methodology is that listeners do not visually encounter the context and therefore do not analyze the structure of the perceived sentence” [174, p.133-134].

The “visual-world” paradigm is widespread in world psycholinguistics and is actively used in conversational activity.

“Language is an activity” and “language is a product” paradigms are studied more deeply through the new psycholinguistic method “registration of eye movement according to the free position of the head”. This method has been widely studied since 1994 (free-viewed eye-tracking). Unlike previous technologies, the new equipment allows recording eye movements without restricting head movements. Thus, researchers not only gain time to carry out the reading process, but also have the opportunity to realize a number of psycholinguistic phenomena [176, p.99].

The history of the study of eye movement methodology covers the beginning of the 19th century. This method was reflected in K.Rayner's research. While researching this method, he referred to L.Yaval's experiments.

During his observation in 1879, L.Yaval noticed that the eyes do not move smoothly during reading, on the contrary, the eyes move frequently with short intervals [176, p.99].

According to K.Rayner as a result of the rapid movement of the eyes, a person is practically unable to perceive the environment. The second period of studying this methodology begins in the 20s of the 20th century. Since it coincided with the development of behaviorism and experimental psychology, this method was not remembered by fundamental discoveries. During these years, the American J.Busswell (1937) discovered a non-contact device that records eye movements for reading and viewing pictures. In the 1960s, the works of A.L.Yarbus became popular. The basis of his research was "descriptive vision". When looking at the pictures, the eye movement was more focused on the informative part of the picture. Although the apparatus he used was considered acceptable at the time, it was not widely used later [176, p.99].

The third period of the methodology of studying the movement of eyes coincides with the 70s of the 20th century, and this period is remembered by the works of K.Rayner. The IV period covers the 90s of the 20th cen-

tury. During this period, head movement is also added to the registration of eye movements [267, p.377].

At first glance, no one doubts that a simple sentence is easily remembered. But there are such simple sentences that burden the working memory. For example, let's look at such an example. /Orkhan woke up and went about his own business //. When analyzing this sentence, first of all, the brain must accept that the word "own" belongs to Orkhan, and that the predicate is singular, masculine.

Undoubtedly, more difficult complex sentences require more memory resources. The signal received by the brain must be related to the surrounding world. For example, the interpretation of pronouns plays an important role in understanding a sentence: when we hear the pronoun *she* or *he*, we can determine to whom the fact is addressed.

R.Kuper in his article "The control of eye fixation by the meaning of spoken language" notes that from the moment the experimenter begins to pronounce any word (within 200-400 m/s), his eyes are fixed on that word. R.Kuper perceives this principle as the connection of eye movement to speech activity, in other words, thinking to visual perception (*mind-eye hypothesis*) [154].

However, this experiment put forward by R.Kuper lost its importance after the article dedicated to syntactic ambiguity by M.Tenanshaus and his colleagues saw the light of day.

At the modern stage, eye movement registration in western countries is carried out using the ETL-500 equip-

ment produced by the ISCAN company. Although the devices designed for the registration of eye movements operate on the same principle, they differ in terms of technical and research objectives.

Thus, the decoding of the meaning of the sentence is a complex process, and its solution is realized in the implementation of various methods and experiments.

2.3. Phrase, utterance and sentence in the context of derivational linguistics as a consequence of substructures

In the 50-60s of the XX century when the transformational grammar dominated, the approach of grammar as a formal model in the description of the language manifested itself in the emergence of linguistic competence and performance. But in the 70s of the 20th century after the transformational grammar lost its previous popularity, the decomposition of sentences, the role of extra-linguistic factors, comprehension strategy and the structural interest approach to sentence analysis came to the fore.

“A single superstructure can correspond to several substructures, in other words, the same sentence can have several semantic interpretations” [89, p.16].

In the formation of speech, the role of suprasegmental means – intonation, word order is great. In N.Chomsky's work “Syntactic Structures”, the structure of utterances is

presented as a stronger model. A more powerful model than the utterance structure model is the transformation model. The utterance structure model consists of immediate constituents, and these meaningful constituents are presented as phrases. For example, in his work, N.Chomsky gives a syntactic analysis of the sentence *The man hit the ball* [211, p.29]. It also divides that sentence into smaller parts (*ultimate constituent*): *the+man+hit+the+ball*. However, such a division is unacceptable at the syntactic level. N. Chomsky called this type of division *terminal strings* [211, p.30].

The expression – The old men and women (A+N+N) – (adjective+noun+noun) is understood in two ways: a) The old men and the old women; b) the old men and women. In the interpretation of (a), the adjective *old* refers to both masculine and feminine, and in (b) only to the masculine. N.Chomsky calls such expressions *structural ambiguity* or *constructional homonymy* [211, p.28].

Thus, N.Chomsky comes to the conclusion that the sentence must consist of at least NP+VP (noun phrase+verb phrase). Undoubtedly, his utterance structure grammar cannot be considered comprehensive.

The study of the deep and surface structures of the sentence is the basis of N.Chomsky's linguistic concept. The study of the concept of the lower and surface gave impetus to the development of such areas of linguistics as psycholinguistics, cognitive linguistics and pragmatics.

According to N.Chomsky's concept, language acquisition is not done with the help of individual linguistic elements, but with the acquisition of the system of rules and understanding of utterances. The formation of a sentence is not a linear arrangement of individual words, but is dynamic in nature. "Deep layer" performs the function of "building material" and each "deep layer" has a nuclear sentence.

According to N.Chomsky, "deep layer" or "sublayer" is a "universal component" of the language system. Sentence structure depends on communication. Motive and plan play an important role in the formation of utterance" [184, p.17].

In the deep layer the main grammatical relations – the connection between the subject and the predicate, the word base, semantic interpretation find their realization.

When learning a language, a person acquires a large number of linguistic rules. It is impossible to learn the rules specific to each sentence depending on the length of the sentence. Before we interpret the sentences, we see the relationship between the words in the sentence. These are called phrases or components. Understanding the components of a sentence makes it easier to understand the sentence.

For example, after reading a sentence consisting of 13 words, the first word is reminded to the listener and asked to replace the other words.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
Having failed to disprove the charges, Taylor was later
10 11 12 13
fired by the president.

Each of the constructed sentences was a subordinate clause consisting of six words and a principal clause consisting of seven words. As a result of observation, it became clear that the last main component is remembered more [82, p.373].

Interpretive proximity is one of the main principles in language processing. People try to understand the translation of each word they hear in order to interpret the sentence. For example, Cast and Carpenter studied readers' eye movements during sentence reading. It has been known that almost all of the readers stand on each word during the reading process. They concluded that more time is spent on an unfamiliar word or term. At the same time, there is a little more pause on the word that comes at the end of the sentence. For example:

*Flywheels are one **of the** oldest mechanical devices known to man.*

Sometimes in English the verb comes at the end of the sentence: *It was the president whom the terrorist from the Middle East shot* [82, p.373].

Before the word *shot*, the reader already guesses what might happen between the president and the terrorist. In

sentence processing, a person wants to get as much information as possible and ends up spending extra time on each phrase.

The main goal of the syntactic analysis of the sentence is to combine the meaning of the individual words in the sentence and clarify the meaning of the sentence in general. We use two sources of information to solve this problem. The word order and the use of such auxiliary words as the indefinite article, the conjunctive pronoun *who*. Consider the following sentences:

/Tom saw John // . /John saw Tom // .

Both of the mentioned sources of information play an important role in the syntactic analysis of the sentence.

For example: (1) */The boy whom the girl loved was sick // .*

(2) */The boy the girl loved was sick // .*

(3) */ The boy, the girl and the dog were sick // .*

The first and the second sentences are equivalent, but the second sentence does not include *whom*. The second sentence is shorter, but its brevity is determined by the loss of the signal (sign) in the sentence analysis. There is an ambiguity in the combination of *The boy the girl*. The use of the auxiliary word *whom* in the analysis of the sentence makes its analysis even more difficult. In order to understand the second sentence as well, the listener must at least be able to distinguish between the principal and subordinate clauses. *The boy was sick* is the principal clause of the first sentence, and *whom the girl loved* is the subordinate clause.

Word order also plays a major role in understanding the sentence. The word order shows not only the sequential arrangement of words in a sentence, the relationship between them (subject-object relationship), but also provides other information. In English a number of functional markers (*the, a, with, etc.*) and suffixes (*-s, -es, -ed, -ing, etc.*) are involved in a sentence. Of course, these markers indicate the class the words belong to, their relationship to other words and their meaning.

Word order and markers make up the grammatical structure of a sentence and play an important role in its transformation from a simple word group to a sentence. Syntax plays an important role in constructing a correct sentence. The study of syntax brings us face to face with an aspect as important as human language – language and its productivity.

In English word order is a syntactic signal that forms dominance. For example, the word used in front of the verb is usually agent. In other languages, the word order is not so strictly observed.

Even in some pronouns in English, the phenomenon of inflection is manifested. For example, *he* and *him*, *I* and *me*. G.Anderson, referring to MacDonald, says that in comparison with English and German, he encountered a richer inflection system in German. He experimented with the interpretation of the following sentences in the speech of English speakers: *Him kicked the girl. The girl kicked he*. English speakers take the pronoun *him* in the first sentence as

an agent during interpretation, and the word *the girl* as an object. The Germans, on the other hand, do the exact opposite in their interpretation of these sentences in German: *they* take the pronoun *him* as an object, and the word *the girl* as an agent [82, p.378].

Some sentences have two or more interpretations due to the presence of indefinite words or indefinite syntactic constructions. For example, *John went to the bank*. N.Chomsky's famous sentence – *Flying planes can be dangerous* (“Flying by plane is dangerous”).

It is important to distinguish between temporary and permanent ambiguity. The above examples show constant ambiguity. In other words, ambiguity appears before the end of the sentence. In transient ambiguity, it is important to reach the end of the sentence. For example: *The old train the young*. When the word *train* and the word *old* are taken separately in the combination *The old train*, their meaning is different. For example, *the old* word means “old people”, the word *train* means “they teach”, and the *old train* means “old train”.

Transient ambiguity is very common in the language. However, the acceptance and spread of transient ambiguity does not mean that we do not immediately understand the correct interpretation of the sentence. Let's take a look at this sentence: /The horse raced past the barn fell/. This sentence is interpreted by readers in different ways. The interpretation of this sentence is of some kind of deceptive nature. Most readers take the word “raced” as the main

verb. But when we carefully read the sentence and pay attention to syntactic phrases, we conclude that the predicate is /fell/ and not /raced/ [82, p.383].

As the word “raced” has multiple meanings, it can be used as a past participle or as a verb in the past tense. The reader perceives the word “raced” as “ran” (predicate) at first, but after hearing the word “verb”, the situation changes. The reader is forced to read the sentence again and have to interpret the information again. In the second version, /The horse that raced past the barn fell//. The sentence is grammatically correct, but because “raced” is ambiguous, the reader has to read the sentence several times. These types of sentences are called “garden path” sentences and are often found in analytic languages. Thus, the fixed word order allows determining which part of speech the word belongs to and the function of the word in the sentence. In inflectional languages, ambiguity avoidance is possible through word-changing morphemes. The main factors that make it difficult to understand ambiguous sentences are the non-use of punctuation marks and defining words (who, that).

The transformational method is also widespread in theoretical grammar. In N.Chomsky's book “Language and Thinking”, it was presented under the name “derivative method” [28]. In our opinion, the term “derivative method” does not reveal the full essence of “transformational method”. Because transformation is the cornerstone of this method.

Z.Harris groups the types of transformation as follows: *“absolute and desirable transformation, 2) transformations that lead to the re-change of syntactic structures and elements added to the main sentence, 3) transformations occurring within one or two structures”* [182, p. 630].

Transformational analysis was further developed in derivational grammar which expresses the formal description of syntactic structure.

“The transformation method determines the relationship, relationship of meaning and structures of sentences. The basis of this process is the constructions of the so-called nuclear sentences” [3, p.290]. This method solves a number of problems. These are the following: a) transformation from active voice to passive voice. For example, /The girl is watering the flowers //. – /The flowers are being watered //; b) transformation from sentence to phrase. /The students are arguing//. – /The arguing students//; c) transformation from one phrase to another phrase /A sensible suggestion// – /a suggestion sensible//; d) transformation from a compound sentence to a simple sentence. / Mother wants that you should come early//. – /Mother wants you to come early//; e) transformation of an affirmative sentence into a negative sentence. /They ought to respect you //. – /They ought not to respect you //; f) transformation from an affirmative sentence to a question sentence. /He looks through the morning newspapers //. – /Does he look through the morning newspapers ? //

Therefore, the transformational method plays an important role in determining the meaning of the sentence, opening the lower and surface structural layers of the sentence.

Transformationalism is not the only and main principle in modern psycholinguistics. In psycholinguistics, descriptivism, which is the opposite of transformationalism, has also developed [67, p.217].

It should be noted that the transformational method in linguistics is less developed than other methods (comparative-historical, comparative-typological, distributive). Transformational method is mostly used in practical grammar. This method further develops language learning ability.

In linguistics, a sentence is characterized as a two-way complex language sign, taking into account the aspects of form and content, and each of these aspects separately has a certain structure. The study of the formal aspect of the sentence in isolation from the aspect of meaning cannot give the desired result.

The biggest part of information decoding is the process of understanding the sentence. The process of decoding individual words is significantly different from decoding a sentence. Mastering grammatical codes is of paramount importance in understanding the meaning of a sentence. If the sentence is simple and the meaning expressed by it is understandable, its decoding will not cause any difficulties. For example, sentences like /Part of the students went

for a walk, and the other part went to the meeting// do not cause any difficulty in understanding.

Decoding sentences accompanied by grammatically somewhat complex phrases creates some difficulty. For ex. “my mother's aunt” or “my aunt's mother” gives the impression that we are talking about two people here – “my mother and aunt” and both phrases differ through word order. But the analysis shows that there is also a 3rd person here – “grandmother”.

There are two-way negation sentences in almost many languages. For example, /He is not unhappy//. /I am not unhappy//. The decoding of these types of sentences also causes difficulties. Constructions of this type are understood when two negative meanings express one positive meaning.

We encounter a number of difficulties in decoding comparative constructions. For example, / Baku is smaller than Moscow and bigger than Ganja //. This is the logical-grammatical meaning of this sentence: / Baku is smaller than Moscow, Moscow is bigger than Baku, Ganja is smaller than Baku, and Baku is bigger than Ganja//.

In psycholinguistics, the process of understanding (decoding) a sentence, utterance is a multidisciplinary process. What specific processes does the brain of the one who listens and reads perform in the process of comprehension of utterance? Many researchers dealing with this problem believe that the main process here is syntactic parsing. In research on psycholinguistics, syntactic par-

sing is called “the processing stage of written and spoken speech” [158].

The process of use and perceiving sentences of active voice is a complex process. For example: /His face *had become* extremely set, his eyes stared straight before him // [225, p.99]. – active voice.

/When she *was dressed* she felt quite sick because John could not see her// [225, p.107]. – passive voice.

Also, a negative sentence is harder to understand than an affirmative sentence. If the definite pronouns (who, that, which, as) in the defining subordinate clauses perform the function of completeness, its understanding becomes even more difficult. On the contrary, if the mentioned pronouns act in the subject function, then their understanding becomes easier.

For example: /The boy who chased the dog ran home //. (the defining pronoun is subject).

/The boy who the dog chased ran home //. (the defining pronoun is object).

When decoding a sentence, we do not store it in our memory in its original form, but develop it in our brain in a way that we can process and understand [290, p.160].

Syntactic ambiguity has always attracted the attention of psycholinguists. I.A.Sekerina calls the most widespread model of sentence understanding “garden path” sentences [290].

Syntactic parsing focuses on syntactic ambiguity or “syntactic homonymy”. Syntactic ambiguity is structurally

studied by English language researchers. There are two types of syntactic ambiguity:

1) time (local) – within the context, it is not known which part of speech or which syntactic function the word belongs to, but gradually its function becomes clear in another context.

2) global (standing) – if the sentence ends, it retains its ambiguity [205].

We think that syntax as an initial stage in the formation, organization and understanding of a sentence, and only later the use of semantic factors should come to the fore. Syntax and semantics are interconnected at all levels which determine the correct understanding of the sentence.

As an experiment, my students (1st year) were asked to read and interpret the following sentences.

1. The woman painted by the artist was very attractive to look at.

2. The woman that was painted by the artist was very attractive to look at.

As a result of the experiment, it was found that since the relativity in the first sentence was somewhat weakened (because “that” was not used), it was more difficult to read and understand the sentence “in the subject-verb”, “agent-movement+by the artist”. When /that/ was present in the sentence, the experimenters gained time due to a certain amount of pause and thus managed to understand

the sentence better. So, grammatical analysis plays an important role in understanding the sentence.

But what happens after the grammatical analysis of the sentence is over? The listener only passively understands the meaning. If the sentence is ambiguous or imperative, the speaker is expecting the listener to come up with an idea. The reaction to declarative sentences is sometimes more than expected.

To understand the meaning of the sentence, several types of conclusion are distinguished. They are as follows:

1. Direct approval. The dentist pulled the tooth painlessly. The patient liked the method.

2. Indirect (contrary) result. The tooth was pulled painlessly. The dentist used a new method.

3. Direct result. The tooth was pulled painlessly. The patient liked the new method [82, p.376].

These sentences are presented to the experimenters and they are asked about the process of the “dentist” pulling out a tooth. This idea is explicitly confirmed in the first sentence, but it is also confirmed in the second and third sentences. The result is that the doctor pulls out the tooth. The third sentence requires specifying (the word “doctor” is not used in any sentence) and therefore that sentence is treated as a direct result.

Practitioners put a little too much thought into the direct result (3). They find almost no obstacle in understanding the second sentence.

On the contrary or indirectly as a result, the main issue is to determine the problem, work, sign, etc. that we should know in the sentence. The definition of such signs in English shows itself through the articles of indefiniteness (a) and definiteness (the). The article “the” is used to introduce the known, and the article “a” is used to introduce a new object. For example, /Last night I saw the moon //. /Last night I saw a moon //. The first sentence talks about a fairly banal (template) fact – that is, I see the moon that we always see. In the second sentence, it is known that I have already seen a new moon.

In general, interesting facts appear in the understanding of the language. One of these facts is that people are sensitive to the meaning of the sentence. Experiments show that the processing of an article in a sentence has its own effect on the thinking of the listener. Thus, the use of the article “the”, denoting certainty in a sentence, confirms that there is reality.

It is possible to create millions of original sentences through letters, phonemes and thousands of words in the language. It is possible to expand these sentences from simple to complex, and this extension is possible until a certain time.

For example, /The teacher punished the student//. /The old teacher punished the student//. /The old teacher punished the misbehaving student //. /The old teacher punished the misbehaving student and the student apologized to the teacher //.

It is possible to expand the sentence until then, so that it is no longer possible to include any words in its composition. The grammatical structure of the language should put in order all the processes taking place in the language and keep them under observation. The task of linguists is to study the competence of the language, and the main task of psychology is to study the theory of speech activity. We think that language competence is more important than language activity, because its basis is the ability to use language.

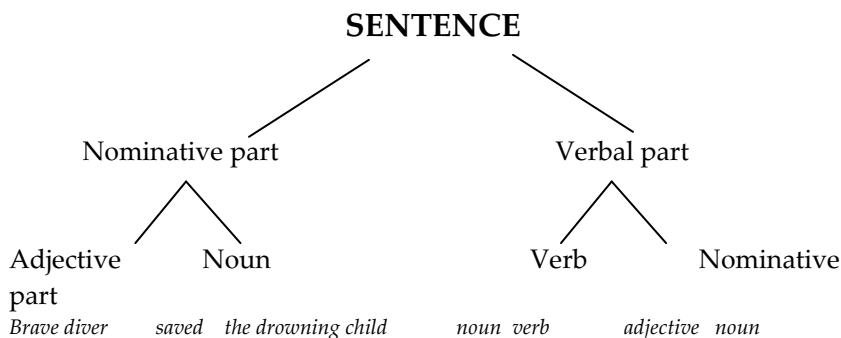
Linguists have focused their attention on the study of the syntax of natural languages. The central part of the linguistic meaning is the structure of the phrase. Analysis of the structure of the phrase plays an important role not only in linguistics, but also in the perception of language.

The phrase structure of a sentence refers to the hierarchical division of sentences into phrases.

For example, /A brave diver saved a drowning child //.

A sentence consists of a subject, a predicate, a noun phrase and a verb phrase. If asked to break this sentence down into meaningful parts, most would break it down into phrases such as “brave diver” “saved” “the drowning child”.

So, the sentence consists of the following parts:



Such tree-type sentences are often encountered in linguistics. Thus, phrase structure plays an important role in sentence organization.

A branch of linguistics is grammar. Many people avoid learning grammar and even learning this branch of science is boring to many. But research shows that psychologists also deal with this formal area of linguistics. Here such a question arises. But why do psychologists deal with this formal area of linguistics? To find an answer to this question, it is necessary to take an overview of the grammatical structure of the language.

“Formally, grammar is divided into two: 1) prescriptive, 2) descriptive. Prescriptive grammar includes the ability to read and write ordinarily, that is, any literate person uses prescriptive grammar in their activities. *“L.Bloomfield and many others describe philosophical grammar as a prescriptive doctrine based on the Latin model, showing no interest in spoken (speech) sounds and confusing speech with writing”* [28, p.35].

Descriptive grammar describes the elementary knowledge needed by a person – to say, to understand. In grammar, it is this form that attracts the attention of psychologists, because its study provides the necessary information about the nature of human thought. Why do people need descriptive grammar? Let's take a certain set of words and connect them in a chain. For example,

1. /One evening I was invited to talk after dinner a few days later to Mr.Rochester //. Since this sentence consists of a group of words and does not have a grammatical structure, it cannot be called a sentence.

2. /Few days later one evening I was invited to Rochester to talk after dinner //. This sentence cannot be considered a normal sentence because it is not grammatically correct.

3. /One evening, a few days later, I was invited to talk to Mr. Rochester after dinner// [204, p.31].

Since this sentence meets all the requirements, it can be called a normal sentence.

If we are asked to memorize these chains, we will undoubtedly choose the sentence in the third chain because that sentence is more grammatically correct. Memorizing a grammatically correct sentence (even if the sentence contains many words) is easier than memorizing a jumble of unsystematic words. Word order is one of the main reasons why a sentence is memorable. Word order not only connects words in a sentence, but also provides certain information. Another reason for remembering a sentence is

the presence of markers in the sentence. In our example, two types of markers are involved: functional markers (after, a, to) and suffixes (-s, -es). Markers indicate which part of speech a word belongs to, information about attitude or meaning. Word order and various markers make up the grammatical structure of the language.

Of particular importance is the storage of the sentence in memory. A person remembers a sentence not because it carries a communicative connection between words, but because it is grammatically correct. So, the syntactic structure and semantic meaning play a huge role in memorizing a sentence. The deep makes preparations for the surface, forming the grammatical structure of syntactic units and the meaning they express.

According to D.Slobin, the psycholinguistic study of grammar sets two goals: *"1) in the linguistic description of language activity, "checking of psychological reality, 2) the influence of psychological factors affecting language activity"* [159, p.58].

Deep structure helps us unravel ambiguity. Structural grammarians proposed a new method in sentence analysis – immediate constituents (IC) method, and the main core of this method was the deep and surface layers. *"These layers are closely related to each other and create a syntactic relationship between the components"* [285, p.26].

The main purpose of immediate constituents (IC) is to make connections between words in sentences or phrases. In the process of understanding, the listener's desire and

effort play an important role. It is in this process that the listener selects the sign he needs and encodes his subsequent behavior, but understanding the sign is not its integration.

In the 1970s and 1980s, the “module principle” was developed in the understanding of natural language in both foreign and Russian applied linguistics. The first germs of this principle were reflected in N.Chomsky's derivative grammar. Comprehension – connects the author of the utterance with the addressee. The use of words with close meaning in utterance creates a foundation for the speaker and the listener to understand each other.

In the psycholinguistic study of grammar, he uses transformational and “immediate structured” (несоответственно составленных) sentence types.

Ready-made sentence structure, syntagms are analyzed at the “immediate constitutes” (IC) sentence level. At the transformational level, psycholinguists are interested in several problems: 1) relationship between sentence types; 2) the complexity of the sentence and its improvement; 3) grammar; 4) the lower and surface structure involved in the improvement of the sentence [159, p.58].

V.N.Kodukhov noted that there are two aspects of the sentence: communicative and structural. If communicative semantics focuses on extralinguistic reality, structural semantics focuses on the language itself, its organization. According to him, a sentence is a communicative unit, unlike words and phrases [122, p.33].

The most important feature of derivational grammar is to interpret the mechanism of ambiguities in the language, and this feature is characteristic of all levels of the language.

2.4. Structural ambiguity or cognitive homonymy in the understanding of a sentence

Before talking about the phenomenon of structural ambiguity or cognitive homonymy, it is necessary to consider the cases of homonymy and ambiguity. One of the important features of spoken language is that its content plan and expression plan do not always correspond to each other. This phenomenon is called the phenomenon of homonymy in linguistics. At first glance, polysemous words and homonyms are very similar to each other. However, in order to distinguish them from each other, the meanings of those words and the relationship between them should be taken into account. If there is a certain connection between the meanings expressed by any word in the language, that word is polysemous, and if there is no semantic connection between the words, they are considered homonyms. It is because of this feature that linguists in the first, the phenomenon of homonymy is considered as a set of words. In the formation of a homonym, the polysemy of the word manifests itself as a preliminary process. In the next stages, there is a process from ambiguity to ho-

monymy, and thus new homonyms appear in the language.

"The emergence of the phenomenon of homonymy in the language is by no means accidental. Its existence in the language is realized thanks to the essence of the language itself and its functional meanings. Each linguistic sign present in the language is psychic in its essence" [40, p.112].

Homonymy and polysemy are the main issues that are noticeable in the expression of ambiguity. There is still no consensus among the scientists in this field. Many scholars argue that only homonyms have the ability to create ambiguity, polysemous words cannot perform this function, while others note that both polysemous and homonymous pairs play a major role in creating ambiguity. However, the analysis shows that homonymy plays a key role in creating ambiguity.

Grammatical ambiguity is realized in oral speech by prosodic means: stress, intonation, pause, etc., but in written speech by punctuation marks, conjunction, minimal addition, change of phrase, change of word order.

One of the conditions that causes difficulties in understanding sentences at the syntactic level is ambiguity. Ambiguous sentences are units that have two or more meanings. N.A.Sekerina shows two types of syntactic ambiguity: global and temporal [155, p.101].

He notes that global polysemous sentences are understood correctly even when used out of context. Such sentences indicate syntactic homonymy. E.g. 1. / Flying planes

can be dangerous //. 2. / Flying by planes is dangerous //. In the first sentence, the noun “planes” is subject, “flying” is an attribute, and in the second sentence, “flying” gerund is a subject, and “plane” is an object [155, p.102].

Let's look at another example. For example: /Bill thought John died yesterday //.

In such sentences, the time adverb “yesterday” can refer to both the principal sentence and the subordinate sentence.

For example, /I returned the book that you were reading in the library //.

When talking about temporally ambiguous sentences, it should be noted that special effort is needed to understand those sentences.

Analyses conducted in the last 10 years show that temporal and local ambiguous sentences express a unique psychological reality during syntactic analysis.

Məs. (1a) /Put the frog on the napkin into the box //.

(1b) /Put the frog that's on the napkin into the box //.

When the experimenters hear the end of the sentence in 1a, they assume that the first reading of that sentence was wrong. Such a question arises. Why, when hearing the beginning of a sentence, do experimenters interpret it in this way? This question is answered in different ways in different syntactic analyses. In “Garden-path” model sentences, the answer to this question is that in such constructions arguments are presented more easily or interpretation is focused on general ideas.

According to the other model – the limitation model, discursive factors affect the different interpretations of this type of sentences.

Synonymous constructions are also used in the analysis of syntactic priming. /The teacher is giving the cup to the boxer//. /The teacher is giving the boxer the cup//.

This type of sentence was very little involved in the experiment. In English, sentences like /Someone shot the waitress of the lady that was in the garden// were also less involved in the research. In order to understand these types of sentences, we need to look for answers to several questions. Often “who was in the garden?” question is asked and the word “lady” is chosen as the answer to this question. Non-native speakers rarely choose the word “waiter” in response to a question.

Eye movement practice and a number of studies show that people have difficulty in understanding the definite subordinate clause. *“If the principal clause is expressed with an inanimate object, they ignore the veracity of that information. Scientists also find it difficult to explain the disregard for the veracity of the information. If the principal clause exchanges information about a living being, then the difficulty in quickly understanding such definite subordinate clauses is almost manifested.”*

For example, (a) /The psychologist told the wife that he was having trouble with her husband//.

(b) /The psychologist told the wife that he was having trouble with to leave her husband//.

These sentences are temporally ambiguous sentences, “that he was having trouble with her husband” refers to the use of an object subordinate clause or a definite subordinate clause. If in sentence (A) we are talking about one woman, then in sentence (B) we are talking about at least two women. Garden-path theory proves that the reader prefers sentence (a) because the object subordinate clause is syntactically easier to understand than the definite subordinate clause. Since in sentence (B) the focus is not on one, but on another woman, we are forced to consider this sentence as a defining subordinate clause, not an object” [283, p.168].

Being a social identity, a man uses the language to share his thoughts with others. Ambiguity in language manifests itself in 3 ways: 1) phonological, 2) lexical, 3) grammatical or structural.

Since phonological ambiguity is not an object of research, although we do not need to provide extensive information about it, in the next chapter we have included phonologically ambiguous sentences in phonetic-experimental research.

The basis of lexical ambiguity is the semantic meaning of words. Lexical ambiguity is when a word has more than one meaning in different situations, and such ambiguity includes linguistic phenomena such as homonyms and homophones. Homonyms represent more than one meaning in both spoken and written language. Homophones (verbal ambiguity) represent two different meanings with the same phonetic composition. For example, the

meaning of “flower” – “flour” can be understood in oral speech only from the situation.

Lexical ambiguity is the result of homonymy and polysemy. For example, /The capitain corrected the list.// In this sentence, the word “list” has 2 meanings: inventory, tilt.

/ Jim saw the girl with a toy. Jim (saw the girl) with a toy and Jim saw (the girl with a toy) //.

“The main task of structural ambiguity is to find an answer to the question “what goes with what” in the sentence” [199, p.87].

Ambiguity of which words, phrases, sentences is possible? Which word group expresses lexical ambiguity? Which phrase, sentence structure is ambiguous? Which type of ambivalence is dominant?

It should be noted that ambiguity is realized both in written and oral speech. Although in lexical ambiguity a word means several meanings, it appears as a result of ambiguity and homonymy.

In the English language more than 80% of words have more than one meaning and this is called lexical ambiguity or polysemy in linguistics. Although the levels of lexical ambiguity differ between languages it is the norm of that language and covers all its levels. A word that is ambiguous in one situation may not be ambiguous in another. Until now, researchers focus on the main two or more meanings expressed by polysemous words and analyze the embodiment of these meanings in the mental lexicon.

In modern times, researchers are no longer interested in the meanings embedded in mental representations, but also in other shades they display. It is the analysis of these semantic nuances that leads to lexical ambiguity. Lexical ambiguity is the result of homonymy and polysemy. For example, /My mother cooked the turkey and it was served to the table// or /Last year we visited Turkey//. In the first sentence, "turkey" is used as "Indian chicken", but in the second sentence, "turkey" is used in different semantics as a geographical name of the word "Turkey".

The other meanings of the word *turkey* are: "failure", "three successive strikes in bowling", "a stupid, foolish or inept person" [308]. Undoubtedly, rhema-thematic relationships are important in understanding ambiguities.

X.Fang, C.Perfetti and J.Stafura conducted studies to determine whether it is easier for a reader or listener to learn a new meaning of a familiar or an unfamiliar word and concluded that relatively short time is spent on learning familiar words and that they explain with existing familiarity with the word form that is in the learners' lexicon and does not need to be learned [221, p.642]. However, it is also an undeniable fact that sometimes learning new meanings of familiar words can become more difficult due to the interference of the familiar meaning.

In understanding the meaning of words, three parts of the cerebral hemisphere give a dynamic response. These are the left front, the left rear and the right front. Among

these hemispheres, the left frontal hemisphere is better studied.

Rodd et al relate the reason for the activation in this area of the brain to the information that precedes the ambiguous word in the sentence and refer to such an example. /The hunter thought that the hare/hair in the field was actually a rabbit//. – /The hunter thought that the rabbit in the field /hair was actually a rabbit// [270, p.1099]. The words "hare" – "rabbit" and "hair" – "hair" in the sentence indicate ambiguity, but the listener guesses from the first word (the hunter) which word that expresses ambiguity (hare/hair) will be used.

Thus, when an ambiguous word is encountered for the first time, either in writing or in oral speech, a choice is made between alternative meanings. Even if the wrong meaning is initially chosen, the meaning is revealed as a result of further interpretation.

In order to clearly understand the meaning of ambiguous sentences, it is necessary to pay attention to the lexical and grammatical interpretation of the words in the sentence. In ambiguous sentences, the word creating ambivalence should be high in terms of "degree". For example:

(1) /I saw the girl with curly dark hair//.

(2) /He drank a cup of port//.

(3) /We saw her duck // or / We saw her evade //.

Since the degree of ambiguity in the first and second sentences is low, these sentences are not considered ambi-

guous. There are two interpretations in the third sentence. In the third sentence, visual illusion shows itself.

As a result of the influence of grammatical factors, structural ambiguity manifests itself: a) Many grammatical forms are dependent and independent. Some prefixes and suffixes have multiple meanings, which creates confusion. Some prefixes and suffixes act as homonyms. For ex. 1. The prefix -in “into, within, towards. “Upon” – **indent**, **in**-born, **in**flame. 2. The prefix -in denotes negation (**in**appropriate, **in**experienced).

b) another type of ambiguity is equivocal phrasing or amphibology [268, p.367].

For example, individual words in a sentence may not be ambiguous, but this is difficult to say for phrases. For example, in the sentence /I met a number of old friends and acquaintances//, “old” can refer to both *friends* and *acquaintances*, or simply to the previous (i.e. first) word. Sentences expressing this type of ambiguity are revealed through context, and in spoken language through intonation.

One of the most important features of derivative grammar was to eliminate the cases of structural polysemy (ambiguity) or cognitive homonymy and to provide a correct explanation of such sentences. For example, /Ali hit a man with a stick//.

The study of syntactic homonyms dates back to the 50s of the last century, and the study of homonymy at the syntactic level is considered an important event in linguistics. The application of the transformational-derivational

grammatical method associated by N. Chomsky to the language system made it possible to investigate the phenomenon of syntactic ambiguity in languages with different systems as a language universal. This phenomenon, as mentioned by the scientists called constructional homonymy and is fundamentally different from other types of homonymy. If it is noted that the morphological level homonymy as a historical-social category originates from the logical judgment of the society to which the language belongs, the level of development, the creation of adaptation between objects and events, and at the same time, several intra-linguistic factors, then syntactic homonymy is the inter-components of syntactic units. Is an original phenomenon resulting directly from the updating of their semantics of syntagmatic relations that can be updated in Syntactic ambiguity, in other words, this phenomenon, symbolically called syntactic homonymy, is a purely contextual phenomenon that manifests itself in written and oral speech and is related to semantics regardless of its type.

Deep and surface ambiguity is the most reliable form of connection between words in a sentence. Deep level ambiguity differs from surface-level ambiguity mainly in terms of the information provided, and it occurs when a word performs several grammatical functions in a sentence.

In addition to sentences, in some expressions, such cases of polysemy can be found. For ex. /old men and wo-

men/, can mean /old men and old women/, and /women and old men/.

In order to understand the meaning of the sentence, first of all, it is necessary to parse the words in the sentence, to find out their syntactic role.

It should be noted that even the simplest sentence has the ability to express ambiguity. Temporal ambiguity can also appear within the sentence. At this time, the previous part of the sentence opens up to several interpretations.

For example: / The secretary applauded for his efforts was soon promoted //.

Although at first glance, the main predicate (verb) of the sentence “applauded” gives the impression, it is not so. The main predicate of the sentence is “was promoted” and this type of sentences are called “garden-path” sentences.

For a number of reasons, the sentences “garden-path” are of interest. These sentences sometimes emphasize any idea, but on the other hand, they have a double meaning. In other words, a neutral approach to the sentence you read or hear is not observed.

What are the factors that cause parsing? First of all, it should be noted that parsing affects auxiliary words and various morphemes used in a sentence, and also leads to deceptive syntactic analysis.

/The secretary applauded for his efforts was soon promoted //. Reading this sentence, many assume that the “secretary” is a woman, applauding him (the man) for the

effort she demonstrates. It follows that parsing is also influenced by semantic factors at the same time [268, p.384].

Understanding sentences of active voice is easier and simpler than understanding sentences of passive voice. The simplicity lies in the fact that there are sentences that express the same meaning in both the active and passive voices. Such sentences are called “reversible” sentences. For example, /The cat *chased* the bird //. /The bird *was chased* by the cat//. Here, both the cat and the bird are the chasers and catchers. But the sentence /I chew the gum // can not be reversible. Sure, I can chew gum, but gum can't chew me.

As can be seen from the examples we have shown, some syntactic and semantic factors mediate the formation of parsing. It is the interaction of syntax and semantics that paves the way for the explanation of “garden-path” sentences.

As mentioned, ambiguity can refer to words, phrases, and sentences. Ambiguity is situationally determined, so a word, a phrase or a sentence that is ambiguous in one situation may not be ambiguous in another.

Ambiguity has several meanings: 1) grammatical (structure) – for ex. when analyzing the expression “new houses and shops”, “new (houses and shops)/ (new houses) and shops; 2) semantic (or lexical) – for ex. The sentence /Visiting speakers can be awful// can be interpreted in two ways. (I. It is awful to visit speakers; II. Speakers who visit are awful).

A.Mammadov divides ambiguity into lexical-grammatical and textual categories. He distinguishes between textual ambiguity and lexico-grammatical ambiguity and notes that *“if a word or syntactic structure expresses more than one meaning regardless of the context, it should be considered as lexical-grammatical ambiguity”* [253, p. 33].

Joseph F.Kess, Ronald A.Hoppe distinguish three types of ambiguity: lexical, surface and deep of linguistic structure. According to them, lexical ambiguity manifests itself when there are more than two words and phrases in a sentence with similar meanings. According to them, surface ambiguity reflects different syntactic groupings between words in a sentence and deep reflects different logical relationships between words and phrases [238, p.30].

Since structural ambiguity often creates confusion in the text, several interpretations are possible in this type of sentence. During the interpretation, the parts of speech the words in the sentence belong to and their differentiation is also of great importance. This feature shows itself mostly in writing.

According to some linguists, it is important to consider not only the structure of utterance, but also a number of discursive functions in understanding speech; in other words, what “speech act” should be expressed or presented.

For example: The interrogative sentence /Can you pass me the book?// executes a directive speech act, because in

this sentence it is expected to pass the book, not the answer “yes”.

The meanings of ambiguous sentences show themselves mainly in writing. For example, let's look at a sentence that sounds the same. /I saw the actor's performance// and /I saw the actors performance// sentences create confusion in oral speech. In the writing, the difference between *actors* and *actor's* is clearly felt, so it is easy to distinguish them. (- s is a plural suffix added to a noun, -'s is the possessive case suffix of the noun).

Ambiguity between words covers almost all parts of speech. For example, In the sentence /The students are demonstrating//, the word “demonstrating” can be taken as both a verb and an adjective. If “demonstrating” is taken as a verb, then the “are” form of the auxiliary verb “to be” will be the main part of the sentence. In this case, the sentence will consist of S+V scheme. If the word “demonstrating” is treated as an adjective, then “are” will function as the main verb and the sentence will contain the scheme Subject+Verb+Subject/complement (S+V+S/c).

Let's look at another example. In the sentence /The University demands change//, “demand” is a verb, “change” is a noun. In this case, the word order is SVO. If we take the word “demands” as a plural noun, “change” will perform the verb function and the word order will be SV.

The University demands change = S+V+O

The University demands change = S (N_p)+V

In structurally ambiguous sentences, the category of tense and style also plays an important role. The Present Progressive Tense form is formed by the auxiliary verb “to be”, the main verb and the suffix -ing (to be +V+ing), and the main verb in this tense form is more dynamic. However, there are cases when the -ing suffix also causes confusion in understanding. In English, the suffix “-ing” also acts as a gerund-forming suffix, a non-conjugate form of the verb, as well as a suffix that forms nouns, adjectives and prepositions. For example, hammering, fasting, embarrassing, distinguishing, notwithstanding, barring.

“The morpheme “- ing” is added to words and is also used as a “verbal noun” and combines all the features inherent in the noun. For example: / She gave the room a good sweeping. He likes the singing of the birds in the garden//.

The suffix “-ing” is added to the root of the verb to form a noun. For example, reading, building, hearing” [30, p.68].

Whether the suffix “-ing” is a gerund or a participle 1 depends on the syntactic function they express and their position in the sentence. For example: In the sentence /The passengers suggested telephoning the hospitals before asking the police to book for him// “telephoning” and “asking” words are gerunds. In the example /Writing his name in the list, a familiar voice attracted my attention//, the verb “writing” is an adjective.

Prof. B.Ilyish who called the “-ing” suffix both gerund and participle 1 did not see an external difference between

these two non-conjugated forms of the verb. He called this suffix “true homonym” [235, p.135].

Structural ambiguity can also be found among the past tense forms, but the ambiguous sentences used in this tense form are less than the sentences used in the continuous tense.

The processing of adverbs also plays an important role in ambiguous sentences. For example, In this example, which is used in the present perfect tense, /I have done my work/, although the moment of execution of the action is not indicated, it is clearly known that the action happened and ended before the moment of speaking.

Distinguishing homophones in ambiguous sentences is also of special interest. For instance: The sentence /They can fish/ creates ambiguity in written speech. When “can” is used as a modal verb, it indicates modality, and the compound verb in the sentence performs the function of modal predicate. When “can” is used as the main verb, “fish” will be a noun.

/They can fish //. = can fish – to tin the fish

/They can fish //. = can fish – to be able to fish

Linguistic theory shows many types of ambiguity: For example, phonological, punctuational, grouping, cross-referencing, lexical, syntactic [268, p.384].

Since more phonological, lexical and syntactic ambiguity is used in English, we considered it appropriate to include those types of sentences in the study.

Phonological ambiguity is such ambiguity that several sounds are interpreted in several ways, and this manifests itself more in the surface than in the deep structure.

For example: psychotherapist – physiotherapist

Lexical ambiguity is also called semantic ambiguity. This type of ambiguity occurs when a word can have more than one accepted meaning.

For example: / Drunk gets nine months in prison case //.

Syntactic ambiguity otherwise called “structural ambiguity”. Syntactic ambiguity occurs when there is misunderstanding in a sentence. For example, /Squard helped the dog bite victim//.

Cross-reference is a type of syntactic ambiguity and the referent consists mainly of pronouns. For instance, /Bob kicked Tom, and he broke his leg //.

Punctuation Ambiguity. This type of ambiguity is a mixture of lexical and syntactic ambiguity. This type also shows itself more in the surface structure.

For example: /A woman without her man, is savage //.
/A woman, without her, man is savage //.

Grouping ambiguity is a type of syntactic ambiguity. In this type of ambiguity, the incomprehensibility of meaning is manifested.

For example: /Hand me the red ball and yellow ball //.
/Hand me the balls that are red and yellow // [268, p.384-386].

In addition to these types of ambiguity, there are also real and computer ambiguity. *“True ambiguous sentences have two different meanings. In computer ambiguity, even tho-*

ugh the meaning is clear to the listener, serious problems arise in its comprehension because it detects several meanings of the sentence” [249, p.76].

In linguistics, there is also “anaphoric ambiguity”, which mainly finds its realization in the text.

“Ambiguity is of interest to philosophers for a variety of reasons, some of which we will look at below. First, ambiguity makes vivid some of the differences between formal languages and natural languages and presents demands on the usage of the former to provide representations of the latter. Second, ambiguity can have a deleterious effect on our ability to determine the validity of arguments in natural language on account of possible equivocation. Third, ambiguity in art can intentionally (or unintentionally) increase the interest in a work of art by refusing to allow easy categorization and interpretation. Fourth, ambiguity in the statement of the law can undermine their applicability and our ability to obey them. Finally, ambiguity resolution is an important feature of our cognitive understanding and interpretative abilities. Studying ambiguity and how we resolve it in practice can give us insight into both thought and interpretation” [198].

In structurally ambiguous sentences words are related to each other in different ways, even though none of the individual words are ambiguous. Structural ambiguity can also be subdivided into two types. 1) the surface and 2) the deep structure ambiguity. This type is grammatically reliant within a sentence.

Ex: Put the flower on the table by the window in the room.

This sentence can be interpreted in three different ways. It can be understood as “put the flower onto the table that is near the window in the room” or as “Take the flower that is on the table and put it near the window in the room” or it could also mean “Take the flower off the table that is near the window and put it in the room”.

Deep structure ambiguity is reflected when a word can have more than one grammatical function in a sentence. For instance, in example the word “singing” can show various grammatical roles. It can be used as a gerund, a participle and a verbal noun [281].

Our research shows that phonological, lexical, structural or grammatical ambiguity in English has a wider scope of operation. Taking this as a basis, in the next chapter, we involved the ambiguous sentences in the phonetic-experimental study.

CHAPTER III

AMBIGUOUS SENTENCES AND THEIR EXPERIMENTAL-PHONETIC ANALYSIS

3.1. Ambiguity of sentences in the process of understanding

There are factors affecting the division of speech into syntagms, which play an important role in determining the syntagm boundary. Those factors are the psychological state of the speaker, the meaning, content and other factors of the expressed idea. A sentence consists of words, and words consist of the smallest utterances – syntagms. According to F. de Saussure, syntagms are a combination of language units on the syntagmatic axis [163, p.159].

“In linguistics, we find cases where syntagm is related to phonetics and syntax. It is argued that since a syntagm is composed of words, it should be studied in phonetics, since it combines various phonetic phenomena (pause, stress, etc.)” [193, p.87].

Since the object of study of syntax is a phrase and a sentence, a syntagm cannot be included in syntax, and thus it cannot be called either a phrase or a sentence. So, the syntagm differs from both the phrase and the sentence in many features.

Can a syntagm be called a unit of syntax? A.Akhundov answers this question as follows: *“If we call syntax the scien-*

ce of sentences and phrase, then we can also call syntax the science of syntagms. However, due to this aspect, this definition cannot be considered accurate. Because syntagms must consist of at least two members. The language also has one-word sentences. Therefore, the subject of syntax cannot be limited only to syntagms" [5, p.150].

According to Y.Seyidov, "a syntagm is a group of words that come one after the other within a sentence (speech) and are expressed with one breath. Syntagms have a special rhythmic emphasis and are separated from each other by a pause" [63, p.70].

First of all, syntagm is realized with the help of emphasis and pause in oral speech. A syntagm can consist of one or more words and be ordered in sequence. It is not the grammatical relationship between the words that make up the syntagm, but the intonation that plays an important role.

The organization of speech into syntagms depending on the situation is extremely important for the correct perception and understanding of the transmitted information by the addressee. In addition, the investigation of mutual relations between different language units in the perception of speech can be attributed to this line of problems. The correct understanding of the meaning of the sentence depends on the syntagmatic association. Syntagmatic association is based on the interaction of linguistic and extralinguistic means.

Thus, a syntagm is a phonetically and grammatically indivisible unit of meaning created in the process of a speech act. Syntagms in English are considered as NP (nominal phrase), VP (verbal phrase).

The important issue of transmitting and receiving information in the act of speaking is closely related to the comprehensive study of the syntagm problem. *"The human speech act consists of a systematic arrangement of sentences that are semantically related to each other and reflects the general chain speech act"* [6, p.6].

Syntagmatic grouping of sentences serves to make communication clear and understandable. Depending on the context, the same sentence can be understood in different ways based on different syntagmatic divisions, and undoubtedly, this division leads to the emergence of ambiguities in the language.

In this chapter, phonological (phonetic), lexical and structurally ambiguous sentences are included in the phonetic-experimental analysis based on the criteria for defining the syntagm, and the obtained results are summarized.

Since it is difficult and confusing to understand ambiguous sentences, we tried to determine the acoustic characteristics of those sentences. We have set ourselves the goal of conducting a computer analysis based on the PRA-AT program, which has been successful in world linguistics in determining acoustic features.

Ambiguous sentences of various types in English (mainly about 50 sentences used in everyday language) were selected as the analysis material, and two native announcers were selected to record those sentences on a tape recorder. The announcers were not informed about the purpose of the study, so they were given a chance to familiarize themselves with the sentences before they started writing. Based on the figures obtained on the basis of the oscillographic analysis of the sentences written on the tape recorder, graphs and tables reflecting the acoustic characteristics of the syntagm (main tone frequency, intensity, temporality – time) were drawn up.

Grammatical and lexical indicators play an important role in revealing the meaning of the sentence. Along with grammatical and lexical signs, prosodic signs are also involved in revealing the meaning of the utterance.

The Organization of speech into meaningful units (syntagms) is one of the urgent problems of modern linguistics. The lower and the upper layers of syntactic constructions (speech) have a particular interest from the point of view of language processing. It is the study of the mutual relations of the lower and upper structures of speech that sheds light on the features of the language system in concrete processing. In modern linguistic sources, this language phenomenon is called asymmetry, which is evaluated as the non-coincidence of the expression and meaning plans of language signs.

The organization of speech into syntagms depending on the situation is extremely important in the correct perception and understanding of the transmitted information by the addressee. In addition, the investigation of mutual relations between different language units in the perception of speech can be attributed to this line of problems. The correct understanding of the meaning of the sentence depends on the syntagmatic association. Syntagmatic association is based on the interaction of linguistic and extralinguistic means. If the segment units (linguistic units) represent the expression plan (representation) of the utterance, the conversion of those units into a single whole in the situation is realized thanks to the activity of the supra-segmental units.

The asymmetry of speech arises, first of all, from the nature of the language and secondly, from the nature of natural language processing. It is more appropriate to associate this concept with the syntagmatics of language structures. In addition, the sign sequence, that is, the linearity of the utterance, is substantial by its nature and is based on proximity relations, which brings it closer to the concept of syntagm.

Differentiation of the lower and upper layers of syntactic structures, syntagmatic organization is a necessary condition, because it creates opportunities for the study and interpretation of the polysemy of statements consisting of several propositions.

According to the theory of transformation grammar, all sentences are built on two levels of syntactic structure: deep structure and surface structure. Thus, the deep is determined by more meaning, and the surface by the sounding of the sentence. F.Veysalli writes about this: *“A base component generates a deep structure, and a transform component transforms it into one or more surface structures. All the information in the semantic component is detected in the deep structure of the sentence, and the entire phonological component is detected in its surface structure by transformation rules”* [73, p.185].

So, the deep structure consists of phrases and lexicons and creates the basis for mental processes. The formation of the sentence, its grammatical structure and the meaning it expresses are formed in the deep structure and serve as the basis for the surface structure. Thus, the sentence formed in the deep structure turns into a speech in the utterance layer and becomes a means of communication. Sometimes the sentence in the surface structure is understood in two or more meanings. This phenomenon is called syntactic ambiguity. Ambiguity, regardless of its meaning, is a concretely dependent phenomenon.

Ambiguity is a linguistic phenomenon arising from the ambiguity of language units, and it finds its realization only in the context, in the act of speaking. The main reasons for the phenomenon of ambiguity are homonymy and polysemy. From the 40s of the 20th century, a new approach to sentence syntax – transformative grammar –

appeared. This approach made it possible to study the phenomenon of ambiguity, which is formed depending on the syntactic structure of phrases and sentences.

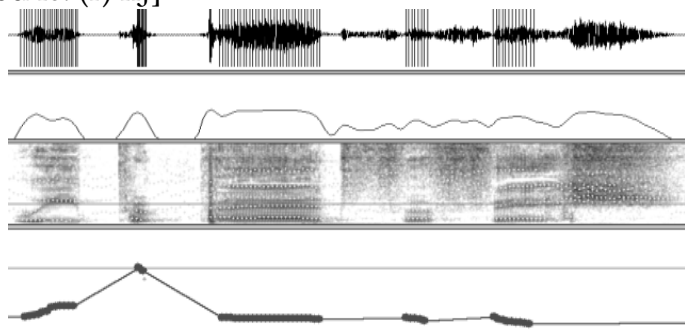
Structural ambiguity is manifested with the help of prosodic means: emphasis, intonation, pause and change of syntagm division. In general, the syntagm plays a big role in understanding the sentence, in other words, the different way of dividing the syntagm leads to the interpretation of the meaning of the sentence in two or more ways. Based on the syntagm division, the meaning of the sentence changes due to the change of the grammatical structure and syntactic task, and thus ambiguity arises. Example, / A young boy from Azerbaijan welcomed the guests// – the difference between the words in the sentence can be interpreted in different ways by changing the syntagm division. A young man from Azerbaijan (NP) welcomed (VP) the guests (NP). In this sentence, the Azerbaijani – performs the function of the subject of the sentence. When an Azerbaijani young man acts as the subject of a sentence, the syntagm division of the sentence is as follows: A young Azerbaijani boy (NP) welcomed the guests (VP). Thus, correct syntagm division is perhaps one of the important conditions for detecting the ambiguity of a sentence. It is the change of syntagm division, emphasis, pause that leads to the understanding of the same sentence in two or more meanings.

3.2. Experimental-phonetic analysis of phonologically ambiguous sentences

In understanding the sentence, the words that make it up are determined by a number of factors: associative characteristics of the word, sound form and subjective factors. We also tried to give an experimental-phonetic analysis of the utterances resulting from the association of words, based on these factors that determine the choice of words in the process of comprehension.

The following acoustic parameters were recorded in the pronunciation of the word [fɔ:(r)] in the sentence /We prepared for fish// [wi: prɪˈpeəd fɔ: (r) fɪʃ] selected from the English language: the average fundamental tone frequency is 164 Hz, the average intensity value is 65 dB, the average syllable length is equal to 96 ms (see: figure 3.1; 3.3).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [wi: prɪˈpeəd fɔ: (r) fɪʃ]



[wi: prɪˈpeəd fɔ: (r) fɪʃ]

Figure 3.1

In the sentence /We prepared *four* fish/ [wi: pri`peəd fɔ: (r) fɪʃ], the analyzed parameters are expressed in the following values: average fundamental tone frequency 201 hs, average intensity 74db, average syllable length 226 m/sec (see: figure 3.2).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [wi:

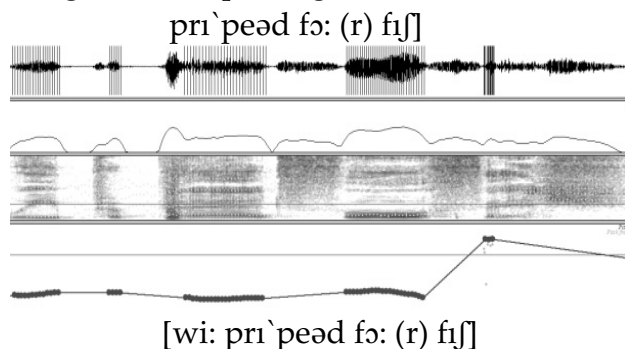


Figure 3.2

As can be seen from the acoustic values of the analyzed sentences, the [fɔ:(r)] component in the second sentence exceeds the corresponding indicators of the [fɔ:(r)] component of the first sentence in all parameters. In the compared components, the difference between the main tone frequencies is 37 hs, the difference between their intensities is 9 db, and this difference between the average syllable lengths is equal to 130 m/sec. The reason for the sharp difference observed in the acoustic parameters of the compared words can be explained by the fact that the word [fɔ:(r)] in the second sentence carries an independent ac-

cent, while in the first sentence that language unit does not have an independent accented word (see figure 3.3).

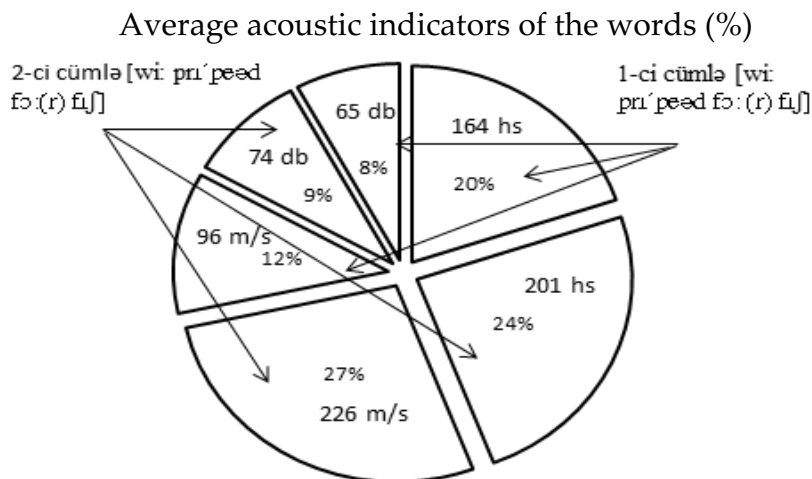
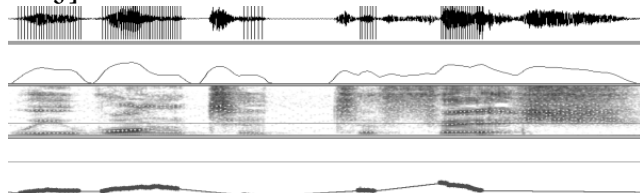


Figure 3.3

We encounter a similar picture in the indicators of the acoustic parameters of the sentence /We wanted to fish// [wi: `wəntɪd tə fɪʃ]. In the word [tə], the average tone frequency is 178 hs, the average intensity is 69 db, and the average syllable length is 83 m/s (see figure 3.4).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [wi: `wəntɪd tə fɪʃ]

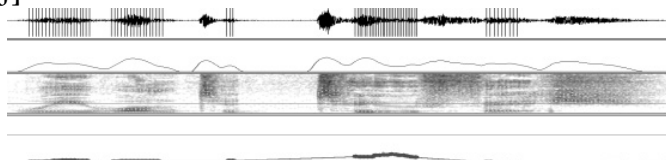


[wi: `wəntɪd tə fɪʃ]

Figure 3.4

In the sentence /We wanted *two* fish// [wi: `wɒntɪd tə fɪʃ], in the word [tu:], the average tone frequency is 213 hs, the average intensity is 72 db, and the average syllable length is 138 m/sec. At the end of the sentence, the main tone frequency is 138 hs, the average intensity is 65 db, and the average syllable length is 73 m/s (see figure 3.5).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [wi: `wɒntɪd tə fɪʃ]

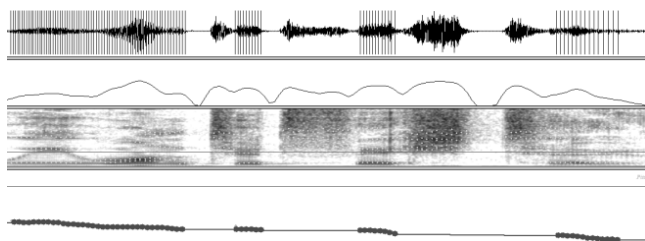


[wi: `wɒntɪd tə fɪʃ]

Figure 3.5

In the sentence /We wanted fish *too*// [wi: `wɒntɪd fɪʃ tu:], in the absolute ending [tu:] component, the average tone frequency is 150 hs, the average intensity is 67 db, and the average syllable length is 147 m/s (see: figure 3.6).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [wi: `wɒntɪd tə fɪʃ tu:]



[wi: `wɒntɪd tə fɪʃ tu:]

Figure 3.6

Average acoustic indicators of the words (%)

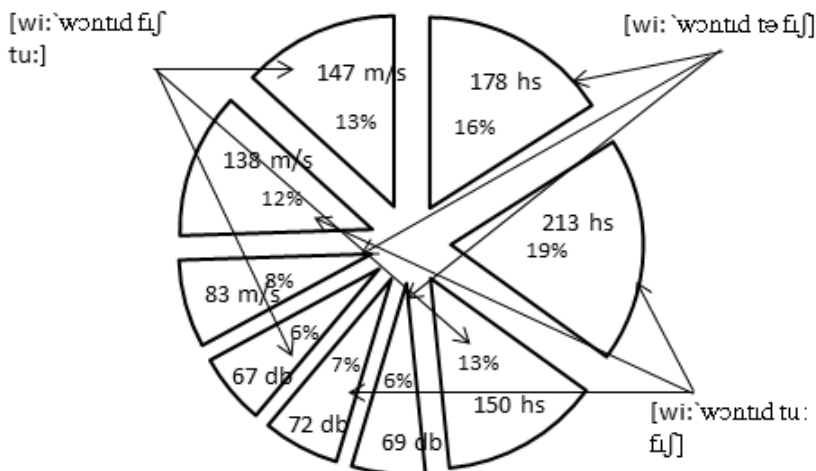
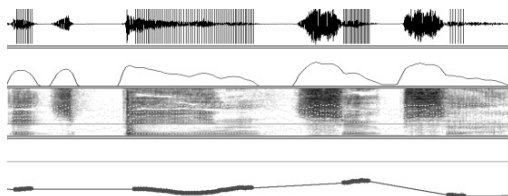


Figure 3.7

In the sentence "It's *bean* soup, sir". [ɪtʒ bi:n su:p, `sə:(r)], in the [bi:n] component, the average tone frequency is 186 hs, the average intensity is 75 db, and the average syllable length is 162 m/s (see: figure 3.8; 3.10).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ɪtʒ bi:n su:p, `sə:(r)]



[ɪtʒ bi:n su:p, `sə:(r)]

Figure 3.8

In the oscillographically analyzed interrogative sentence ¿I don't want to know what it's *been*, what is it now? [aɪ dɔ:nt `wɒnt tə nou wɒt itz bi:n, `wɒt ɪz it nau], the average tone frequency in the [bi:n] component is 182 hs, the average intensity is 73 db, and the average syllable length is 142 m/s (see: figure 3.9; 3.10).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [aɪ dɔ:nt `wɒnt tə nou wɒt itz bi:n, `wɒt ɪz it nau]



Figure 3.9

Average acoustic indicators of the words (%)

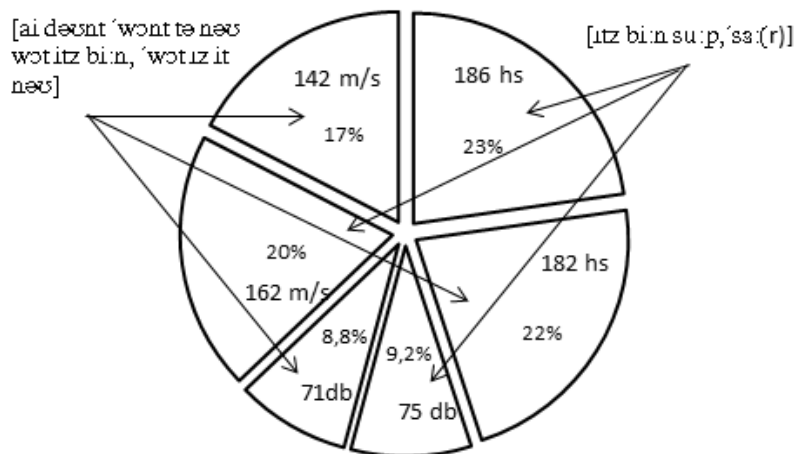
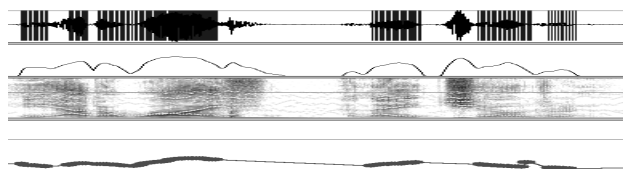


Figure 3.10

In the sentence /He had a wife and *eight* children// [hi: hæd ə waɪf ænd eɪt `tʃɪldrən], in the oscillographically analyzed number /*eight*/, the average tone frequency is 174 hs, the average intensity is 72 db, and the average syllable length is 146 m/sec. (see: figure 3.11; 3.13).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [hi: hæd ə waɪf ænd eɪt `tʃɪldrən]



[hi: hæd ə waɪf ænd eɪt `tʃɪldrən]

Figure 3.11

In the sentence /He had a wife and *eating* children// [hi: hæd ə `waɪf ænd `i:tɪŋ `tʃɪldrən], in the /*eating*/ component, the average tone frequency is 197 hs, the average intensity is 74 db, and the average syllable length is 152 m/sec. The comparison of values shows that all acoustic parameters in the second word are much higher than the corresponding indicators of the first word. For example, the average tone frequency is 23 hs, the intensity is 2 db, and the time consumption is 6 m/s more (see: figure 3.12; 3.13).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [hi: hæd ə `waɪf ænd `i:tɪŋ `tʃɪldrən]

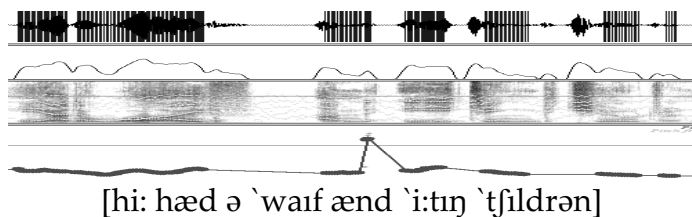


Figure 3.12

Average acoustic indicators of the words (%)

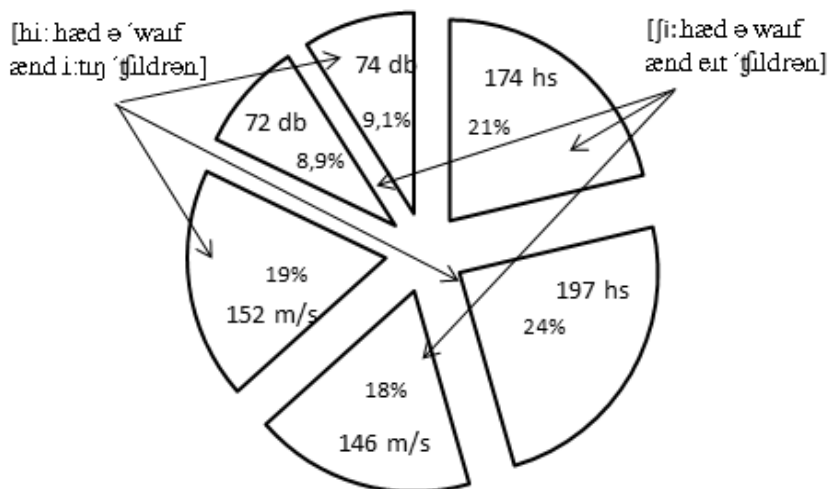
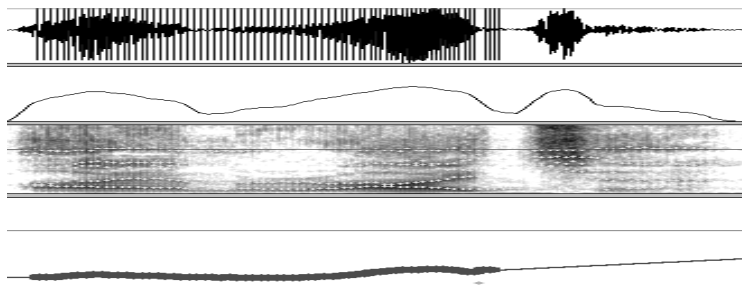


Figure 3.13

In the sentence ¿What kind of job do you have, Ray?" [wɒt kaɪd əv `dʒɒb du: ju: həv, Reɪ], /I am a writer/, in the word /writer/, the average tone frequency is 190 Hz, the average intensity is 78 db, and the average syllable length is 149 m/s (see: figure 3.14; 3.16).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [aɪ əm ə `raɪtə]

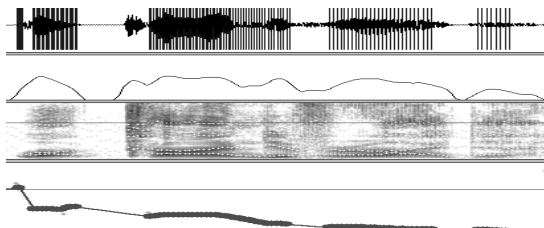


[aɪ əm ə `raɪdə]

Figure 3.14

In the sentence ¿What kind of *rider*?” [wət kaɪd əv `raɪdə], in the word /*rider*/, the average tone frequency is 197 hs, the average intensity is 82 db, and the average syllable length is 176 m/s (see: figure 3.14; 3.16).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [wət kaɪd əv `raɪdə]



[wət kaɪd əv `raɪdə]

Figure 3.15

Average acoustic indicators of the words (%)

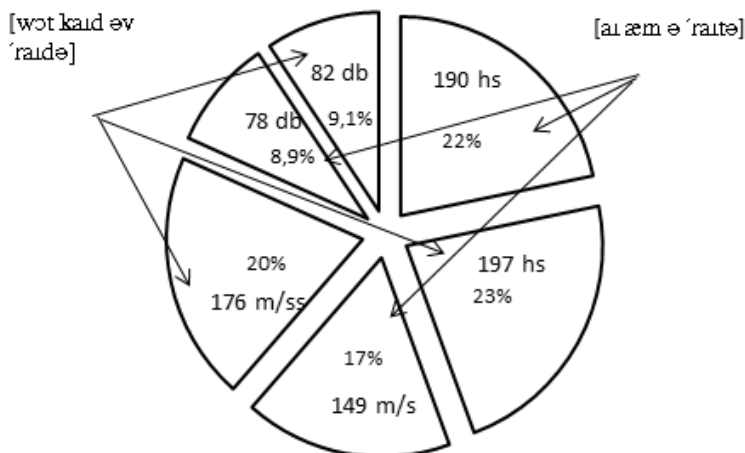
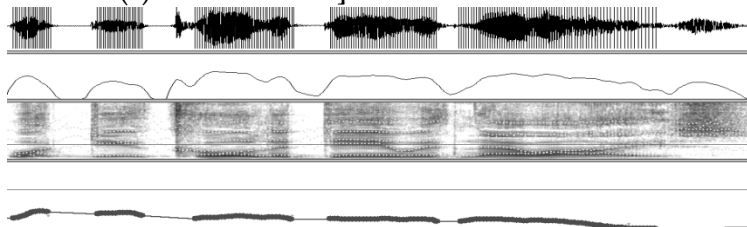


Figure 3.16

In the sentence ¿What do you call *a deer* with no eyes? [wot du: ju: kə:l ə `diə(r) wɪð nou `aɪz], in the word /*a deer*/, the average tone frequency is 155 hs, the average intensity is 76 db, and the average syllable length is 165 m/s (see: figure 3.17; 3.19).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [wot du: ju: kə:l ə `diə(r) wɪð nou `aɪz]



[wot du: ju: kə:l ə `diə(r) wɪð nou `aɪz]

Figure 3.17

In the sentence /It is a deer too//, in the word /a deer/, the average tone frequency is 151 hs, the average intensity is 74 db, and the average syllable length is 171m/sec. (see: figure 3.18; 3.19). In the analyzed words, the frequency of the main tone between the indicators of the acoustic parameters is 4 hs, the average intensity is 2 db, and the time consumption is 6 m/s (see: figure 3.19).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence /It is a deer too//

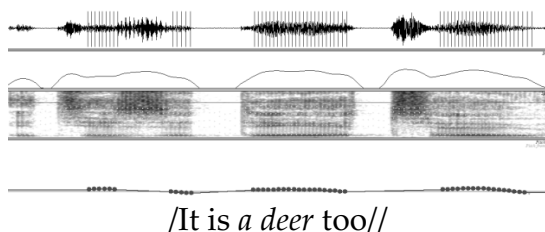


Figure 3.18

Average acoustic indicators of the words (%)

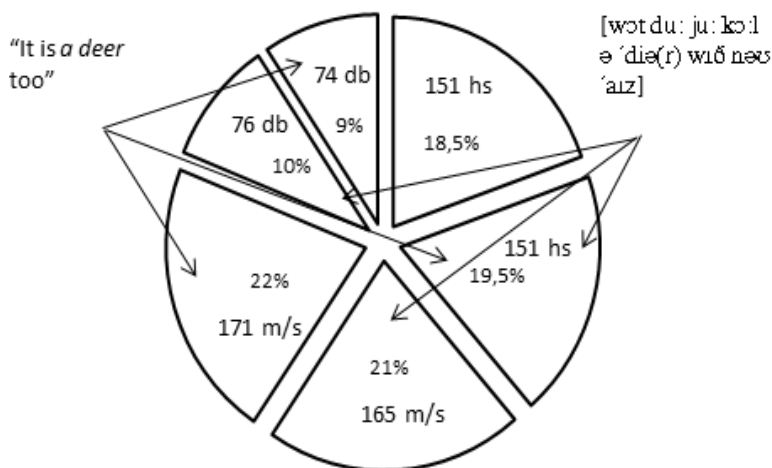
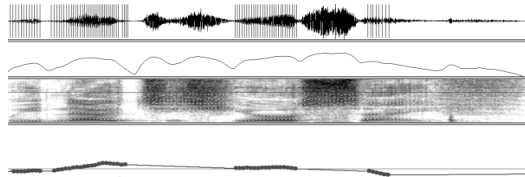


Figure 3.19

In the sentence /We noticed *you're* (your) safe// [wi:ˈnoutist ju:r seif], In the word /ju:r/, the average tone frequency is 185 hs, the average intensity is 79 db, and the average syllable length is 117m/sec. (see: figure 3.20; 3.22).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [wi:ˈnoutist ju:r seif]



[wi:ˈnoutist ju:r seif]

Figure 3.20

In the sentence /Your/ [jɔ:r], the average tone frequency is 198 hs, the average intensity is 81 db, the average syllable length is 312 m/sec. (see: figure 3.20; 3.22). Referring to the comparison of acoustic indicators, it can be said that the indicators of all three parameters prevail in the one-word sentence /Your/ [jɔ:r]. The difference between the main tone frequencies is 13 hs, the difference between the intensity values is 2 db, and the difference between the average pronunciation tempo is 195 m/s (see: figure 3.21; 3.22).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence /Your/ [jɔ:r]

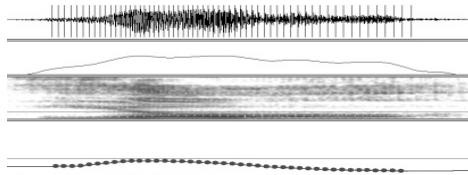


Figure 3.21

Average acoustic indicators of the words (%)

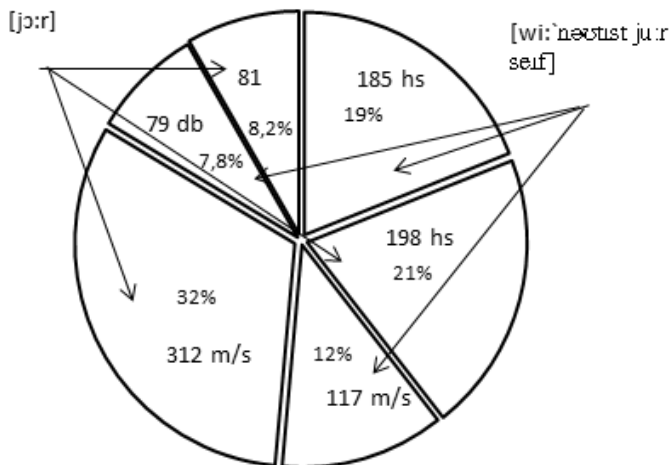
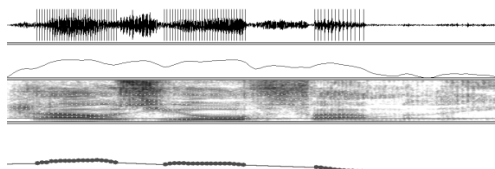


Figure 3.22

In the interrogative sentence ¿How's your family? [hau ɪz jɔ:(r) `fæmɪli], the average tone frequency is 189 hs, the average intensity is 76 db, and the average syllable length is 128 m/sec. (see: figure 3.23; 3.25).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [hau ɪz jɔ:(r) `fæmɪli]



[hau ɪz jɔ:(r) `fæmɪli]

Figure 3.23

In the sentence /How's/[hauz], average tone frequency is 193 hs, average intensity is 79 db, average syllable length is 220 m/sec. (see: figure 3.24; 3.25).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [hauz]

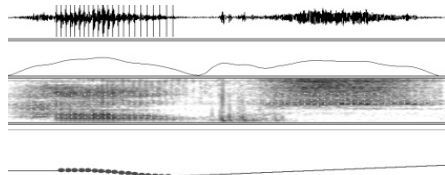


Figure 3.24

Compared to the corresponding parameters of the interrogative sentence ¿How's your family? [hau ɪz jɔ:(r) 'fæmɪli], indicators of acoustic parameters are high. The difference between the indicators of acoustic parameters in the compared sentences is 4 hs, 2 db and 92 m/sec (see: figure 3.24; 3.25).

Average acoustic indicators of the words (%)

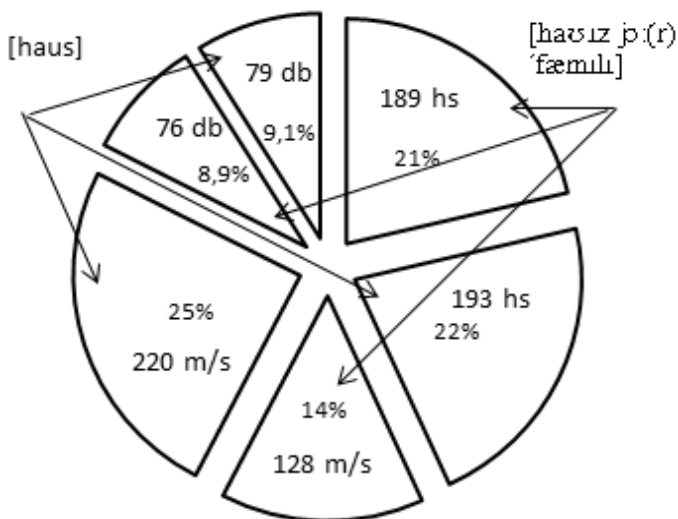


Figure 3.25

Prosody ensures the connection between the components of the text, the relative independence of the components and the discreteness of meaning. The syntagmatic

forming of utterance serves to develop the semantic dynamics of a complex syntactic whole. In the intonation model of the complex whole, communicative actualization takes place through prosodic contrasts expressed by tonal, dynamic and temporal characteristics. For example, according to the results of the experimental-phonetic analysis, the weakening of the intensity and melodiousness towards the end can be considered a relevant sign for narrating sentences. The weakening of the melodiousness towards the end of the terminal syntagm is a relevant sign (see: table 3.20; 3.21; 3.22).

The acoustic indicators of the analyzed sentences indicate that the slowing down of the tempo occurs at the end of the terminal syntagm. Low acoustic indicators recorded at the end of the sentence give it the effect of exhaustion and wholeness. At the end of the terminal syntagm, the maximum of melodicty and intensity weakens, the pronunciation slows down to a noticeable extent (see: table 3.20; 3.21; 3.22).

For exhaustion intonation, the lowering of the tone at the end of the phrase, the slowing down of the pronunciation tempo is located in the last syllable of the phrase, the neutral position of the melodious contour at the end of the phrase in the non-exhaustion intonation, and finally, the raising of the tone and the relative acceleration of the pronunciation tempo in the interrogative intonation, unlike the other two types of intonation. At the beginning of progressive and terminal syntagms, the tempo of pronun-

ciation is relatively high, but at the end of the syntagm, the tempo of pronunciation slows down considerably. The maximum delay is recorded in the last syllable of the terminal syntagm (see: table 3.20; 3.21; 3.22).

3.3. Experimental-phonetic analysis of lexically ambiguous sentences

In the experimental-phonetic analysis of lexical ambiguous sentences, both the acoustic characteristics of ambiguous words and phrase , and the syntagm problem were analyzed.

In the English sentence /She is standing near the *bank*/ [ʃi: ɪz `stændɪŋ nɪə ðə bæŋk], The lexeme /*bank*/ was subjected to oscillographic analysis at the absolute end and in the middle of the sentence. In total, 1.1027 m/s was spent on pronouncing the sentence. The average syllable length in a sentence is 1.57 m/s. Indicators of acoustic parameters in a sentence:

fundamental tone frequency: 171-156-191-187-169-152-130 hs;

intensity: 75-72-74-67-78-71-66 db;

time: 104-62-90-71-131-56-86 m/sec.

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ʃi: ɪz `stændɪŋ nɪə ðə bæŋk]

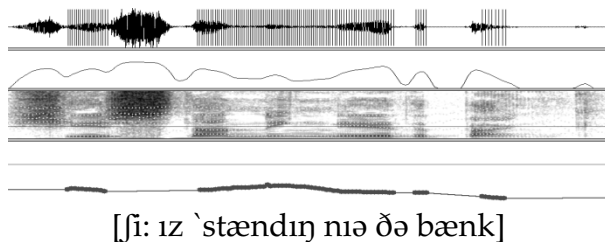


Figure 3.26

In the sentence /She is standing near the *bank* of the river// [ʃi: ɪz `stændɪŋ nɪə ðə bæŋk əv ðə rɪvə], the total pronunciation time in the sentence is 1.3021 m/s, and the average syllable length is 1.18 m/s. Indicators of acoustic parameters in a sentence:

fundamental tone frequency: 156-1-144-156-178-155-148-162-151-169-188-133 hs;

intensity: 67-61-73-65-70-64-71-59-73-71-64 db;

time: 102-65-87-70-139-62-82-73-65-77-102 m/sec.

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ʃi: ɪz `stændɪŋ nɪə ðə bæŋk əv ðə rɪvə]

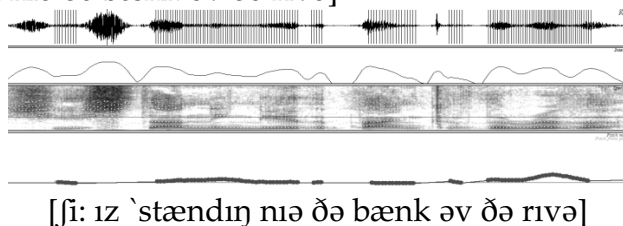


Figure 3.27

In the sentence /She is standing near the *bank* where people deposit and withdraw money// [ʃi: ɪz `stændɪŋ nɪə ðə bæŋk weə `pi:pl dɪ `pɔzɪt ænd wɪð`drɔ: mʌni] the total pro-

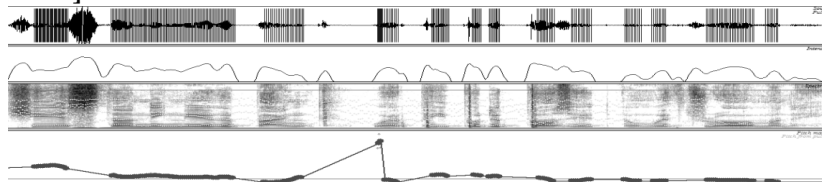
nunciation length of the sentence is 2.2341 m/s, and the average syllable length is 1.06 m/s. Indicators of acoustic parameters in a sentence:

fundamental tone frequency: 220-212-176-167-180-156-157-151-171-163-169-151-144-127-148-156-163-160-145-151-137-140 hs;

intensity: 67-69-72-68-75-73-70-66-63-71-74-65-70-64-60-66-71-69-65-70-67-58 db;

time: 96-82-93-74-135-63-76-138-106-74-113-76-86-80-83-70-81-68-70-67-76-82 m/sec.

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ʃi: ɪz `stændɪŋ nɪə ðə bæŋk weə `pi:pl dɪ`pɔzɪt ænd wɪð`dru: mʌnɪ]



[ʃi: ɪz `stændɪŋ nɪə ðə bæŋk weə `pi:pl dɪ`pɔzɪt ænd wɪð`dru: mʌnɪ]

Figure 3.28

Regardless of the displacement of the components in the analyzed sentences, all of them were pronounced with exhaustion intonation, and depending on the position of the lexeme /bank/, different values were obtained in its acoustic parameters (see: figure 3.29).

Average acoustic indicators of the words (%)

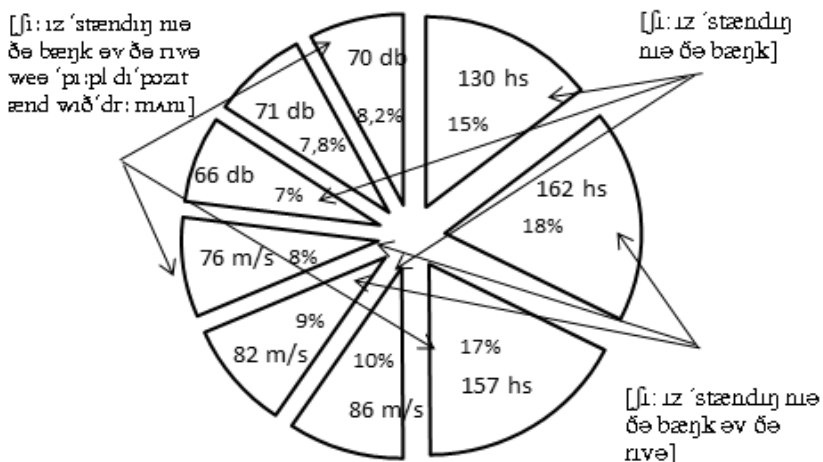


Figure 3.29

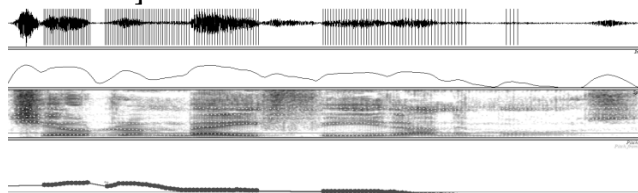
In the sentence */Children may feed animals/* [*ʔʃɪldrən meɪ fi:d `æniməlz*], the total pronunciation time in the sentence is 1.842 m/s, and the average syllable length is 1.69 m/s. Indicators of acoustic parameters in a sentence:

fundamental tone frequency: 203-187-176-168-148-126-119 hs;

intensity: 77-72-76-69-68-57-58 db;

time: 90-84-148-121-84-70-90 m/sec.

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [*ʔʃɪldrən meɪ fi:d `æniməlz*]



[*ʔʃɪldrən meɪ fi:d `æniməlz*]

Figure 3.30

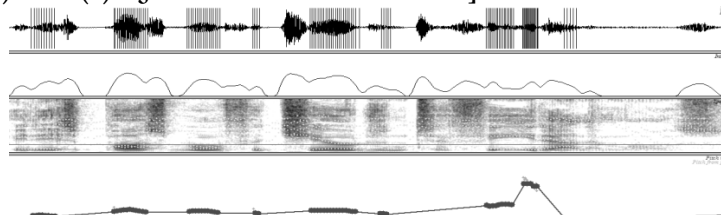
In the sentence /It is possible for children to feed animals// [ɪt ɪz pɒsɪb(ə)l fɔ: (r) ˈtʃɪldrən tə ˈfi:d ænɪməlz], the total pronunciation time in the sentence is 2.0172 m/s, and the average syllable length is 1.67 m/s. Indicators of acoustic parameters in a sentence:

fundamental tone frequency: 151-162-184-173-162-180-166-168-192-138-126-118 hs;

intensity: 64-67-77-70-63-74-63-64-66-62-55-54 db;

time: 82-77-91-72-83-87-82-77-106-81-73-96 m/sec.

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ɪt ɪz pɒsɪb(ə)l fɔ: (r) ˈtʃɪldrən tə ˈfi:d ænɪməlz]



[ɪt ɪz pɒsɪb(ə)l fɔ: (r) ˈtʃɪldrən tə ˈfi:d ænɪməlz]

Figure 3.31

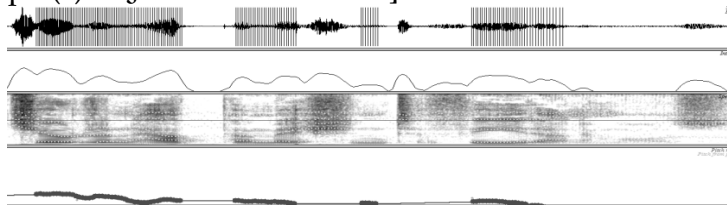
In the sentence /Children have permission to feed animals// [ˈtʃɪldrən hæv ˈpə:(r) mɪʃn tə ˈfi:d ænɪməlz], the total pronunciation time in the sentence is 1.7110 m/s, and the average syllable length is 1.71 m/s. Indicators of acoustic parameters in a sentence:

fundamental tone frequency: 193-182-169-160-162-158-152-158-128-113 hs;

intensity: 77-69-76-69-67-58-70-68-54-55 db;

time: 89-81-83-87-74-78-92-84-76-98 m/sec.

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ˈtʃɪldrən hæv ˈpə:(r) mɪn tə ˈfi:d æniməlz]



[ˈtʃɪldrən hæv ˈpə:(r) mɪn tə ˈfi:d æniməlz]

Figure 3.32

Average acoustic indicators of the words (%)

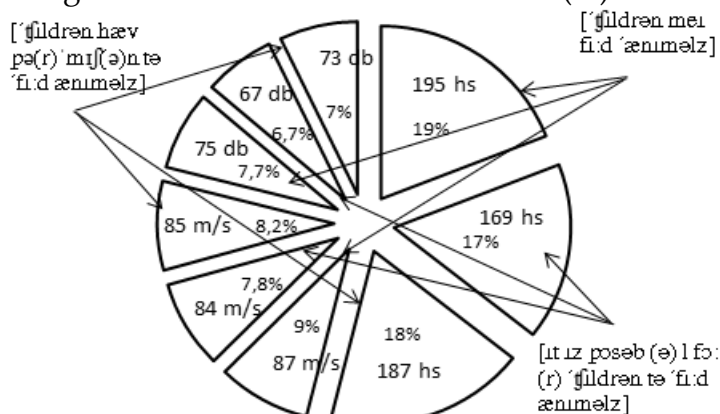


Figure 3.33

A comparison of the acoustic parameters of the word /Children/ shows that the maximum indicators were recorded in the versions realized at the beginning of the sentence (see: figure 3.33).

In the interrogative sentence ¿Do you have *the key*? [du: ju: ˈhæv ðə ˈki:], the total pronunciation time in the questi-

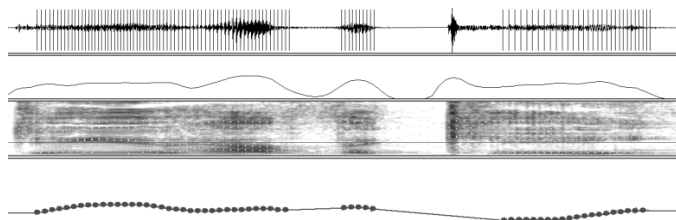
on sentence is 990 m/s, and the average syllable length is 1.98 m/s. Indicators of acoustic parameters in a sentence:

fundamental tone frequency: 209-230-198-210-189 hs;

intensity: 68-70-76-72-70 db;

time: 130-138-81-87-168 m/sec.

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence ζ du: ju: 'hæv ðə 'ki:?



ζ du: ju: 'hæv ðə 'ki: ?

Figure 3.34

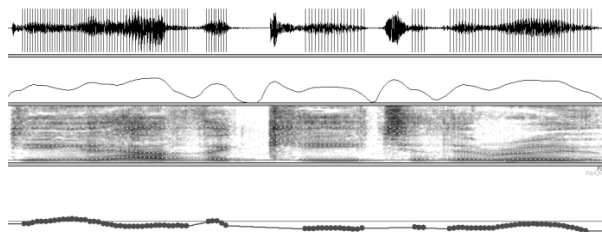
In the interrogative sentence ζ Do you have *the key to the room*? [du: ju: 'hæv ðə ki: tə ðə 'ru:m], the total pronunciation time is 1.4175 m/s, and the average syllable length is equal to 1.77 m/s. The indicators of acoustic parameters in the sentence are as follows:

fundamental tone frequency: 205-212-183-191-162-170-158-176 hs;

intensity: 68-71-70-71-68-64-70-73 db;

time: 128-131-80-82-144-74-83-132 m/sec.

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence ζ du: ju: 'hæv ðə ki: tə ðə 'ru:m ?



[du: ju: 'hæv ðə ki: tə ðə 'ru:m]

Figure 3.35

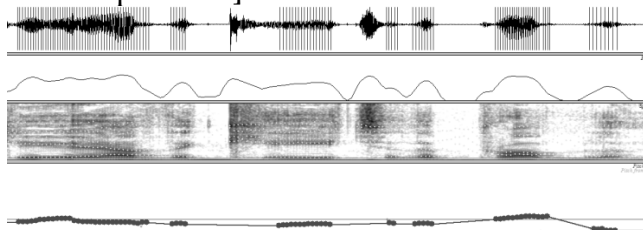
In the interrogative sentence ¿Do you have *the key to the problem?* [du: ju: hæv ðə ki: tə ðə prɒbləm], the total pronunciation time is 1.6203 m/s, and the average syllable length is 1.80 m/s. Indicators of acoustic parameters in the analyzed sentence:

fundamental tone frequency: 194-187-176-169-173-156-170-212-136 Hz;

intensity: 75-77-72-70-71-64-71-76-68 dB;

time: 127-123-88-73-145-77-61-93-75 m/sec.

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [¿du: ju: hæv ðə ki: tə ðə prɒbləm]



[¿du: ju: hæv ðə ki: tə ðə prɒbləm]

Figure 3.36

Average acoustic indicators of the words (%)

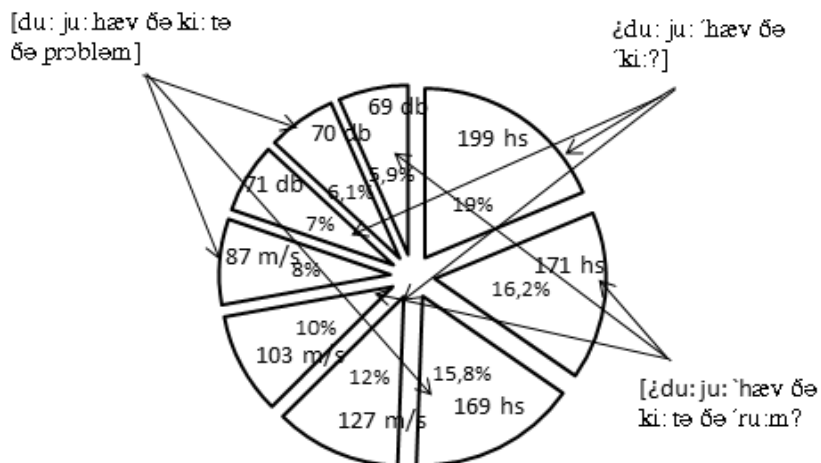
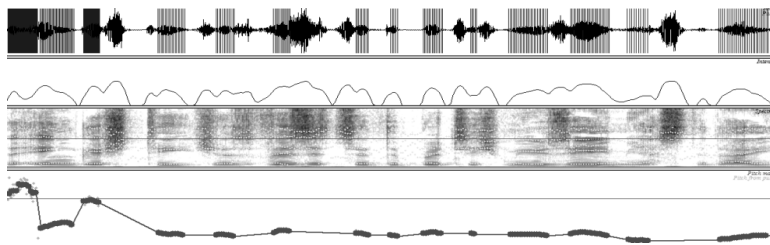


Figure 3.37

In the sentence /The English teachers visited the British Museum yesterday// [ðə `ɪŋlɪʃ ti:tʃə(r)z vɪzɪtɪd ðə `brɪtɪʃ mju: `zi:əm jestədeɪ], in the combination /the English teachers/, the average tone frequency is 178 hs, the average intensity is 71 db, and the average syllable length is 82 m/sec. At the end of the sentence, the acoustic indicators are 148 hs, 68 db and 148 m/sec. The maximum tone frequency and dynamics indicators were recorded at the beginning of the sentence – 228 hs and 74 db (see: figure 3.38). Acoustic indicators reflect that the intonation of exhaustion is characteristic for the sentence.

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ðə `ɪŋlɪʃ ti:tʃə(r)z vɪzɪtɪd ðə `brɪtɪʃ mju: `zi:əm jestədeɪ]

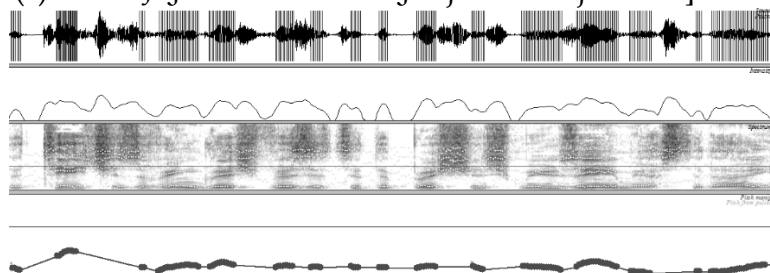


[ðə ˈɪŋlɪʃ ti:tʃə(r)z vɪzɪtɪd ðə ˈbrɪtɪʃ mju:ˈzi:əm jestədeɪ]

Figure 3.38

In the sentence */The teachers of English visited the British Museum yesterday/* [ðə ti:tʃə(r)z əv ˈɪŋlɪʃ vɪzɪtɪd ðə ˈbrɪtɪʃ mju:ˈzi:əm jestədeɪ], we see a similar picture in the sentence. In the combination */the teachers of English/* at the beginning of the sentence, the average tone frequency is 172 hs, the average intensity is 70 db, and the average syllable length is 78 m/sec. The maximum tone frequency and dynamic indicators were recorded at the beginning of the sentence – 217 hs and 73 db. The average pronunciation speed in a sentence is 70 m/s (see: figure 3.39).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ðə ti:tʃə(r)z əv ˈɪŋlɪʃ vɪzɪtɪd ðə ˈbrɪtɪʃ mju:ˈzi:əm jestədeɪ]

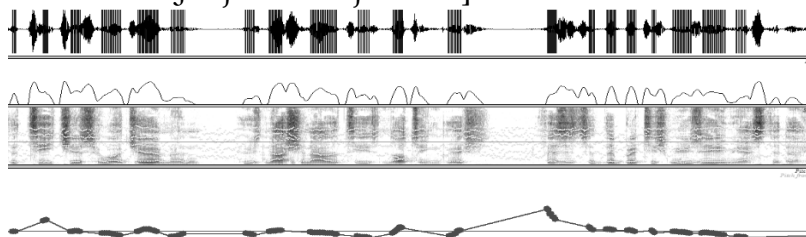


[ðə ti:tʃə(r)z əv ˈɪŋlɪʃ vɪzɪtɪd ðə ˈbrɪtɪʃ mju:ˈzi:əm jestədeɪ]

Figure 3.39

In the sentence */The teachers who are German /whose nationality is not English visited the British Museum yesterday/* [ðə ti:tʃə(r)z hu: a:(r) dʒə:mən/ hu:z næʃə'nəlɪtɪ ɪz nɒt 'ɪŋlɪʃ vɪzɪtɪd ðə 'brɪtɪʃ mju:ˈzi:əm jestədeɪ], average pronunciation speed is 68 m/s. In the beginning of the sentence */the teachers who are German/*, the average tone frequency is 170 Hz, the average intensity is 68 dB, and the average syllable length is 75 m/sec. The maximum tone frequency and dynamics indicators were recorded at the beginning of the sentence – 208 Hz and 72 dB (see: figure 3.40). At the end of the sentence, these acoustic indicators are 126 Hz, 57 dB and 145 m/sec. Referring to the indicators of acoustic parameters, it can be said that exhaustion intonation is realized in both sentences. The structural difference of the analyzed components in all three versions of the sentence does not affect their general intonation arrangement.

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ðə ti:tʃə(r)z hu: a:(r) dʒə:mən/ hu:z næʃə'nəlɪtɪ ɪz nɒt 'ɪŋlɪʃ vɪzɪtɪd ðə 'brɪtɪʃ mju:ˈzi:əm jestədeɪ]

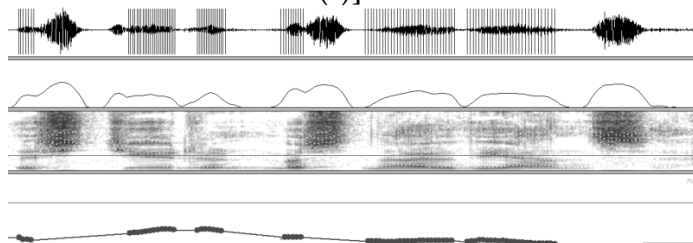


[ðə ti:tʃə(r)z hu: a:(r) dʒə:mən/ hu:z næʃə'nəlɪtɪ ɪz nɒt
'ɪŋlɪʃ vɪzɪtɪd ðə 'brɪtɪʃ mju:ˈzi:əm jestədeɪ]

Figure 3.40

In the sentence /The student must *know* the answer// [ðə `stju:dənt mʌst nou ðə `a:nsə(r)], in the word /*know*/, the average tone frequency is 172 hs, the average intensity is 69 db, and the average pronunciation speed is 147 m/s. These indicators exceed the total tone frequency of the sentence by 17 hs, the average intensity by 4 dB, and the average syllable length by 67 m/s (see: figure 3.41; 3.44).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ðə `stju:dənt mʌst nou ðə `a:nsə(r)]



[ðə `stju:dənt mʌst nou ðə `a:nsə(r)]

Figure 3.41

In the English sentence /It is necessary that the student *should know* the answer// [ɪt ɪz `nesəs(ə)rɪ ðæt ðə stju:dənt ʃʊd `nou ðə `a:nsə(r)], in the word /*should know*/, the average tone frequency is 166 hs, the average intensity is 68 db, and the average pronunciation speed is 110 m/s. These indicators exceed the total tone frequency of the sentence by 12 hs, the average intensity by 3 dB, and the average syllable length by 32 m/sec (see: figure 3.42; 3.44).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ɪt ɪz `nesəs(ə)rɪ ðæt ðə stju:dənt ʃʊd `nou ðə `a:nsə(r)]

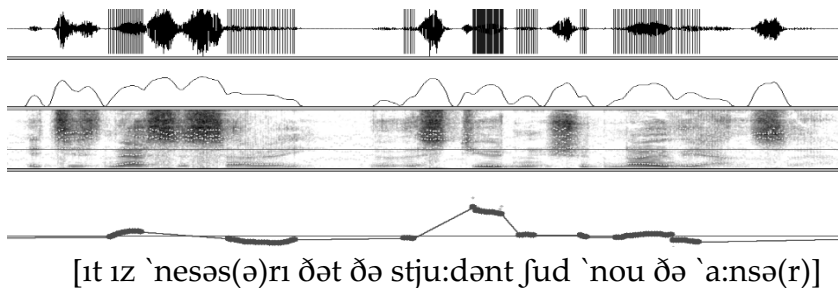


Figure 3.42

In the English sentence /It is concluded /deduced that the *student knows* the answer// [ɪt ɪz kən`klu:dɪd/`di`dju:st ðət ðə stju:dənt nouz ðə a:nsə(r)], in the word /*student knows*/, the average tone frequency is 160 Hz, the average intensity is 65 dB, and the average pronunciation speed is 92 m/sec. These indicators are 8 Hz higher than the total tone frequency of the sentence, 2 dB higher than the average intensity, and 18 m/s higher than the average syllable length. Relatively low acoustic parameters compared to the previous two options can be explained by the closing of syllables in the /*student knows*/ component (see: figure 3.43; 3.44).

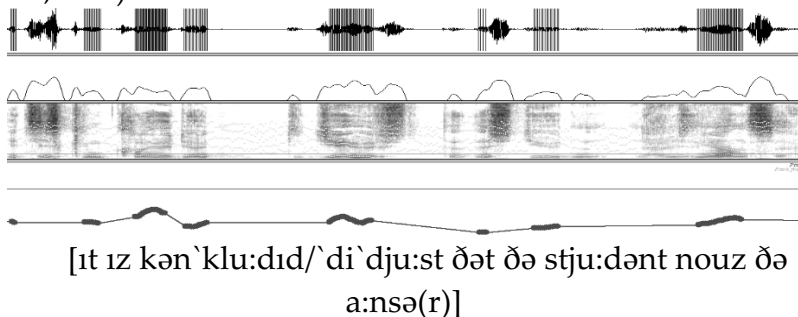


Figure 3.43

Average acoustic indicators of the words (%)

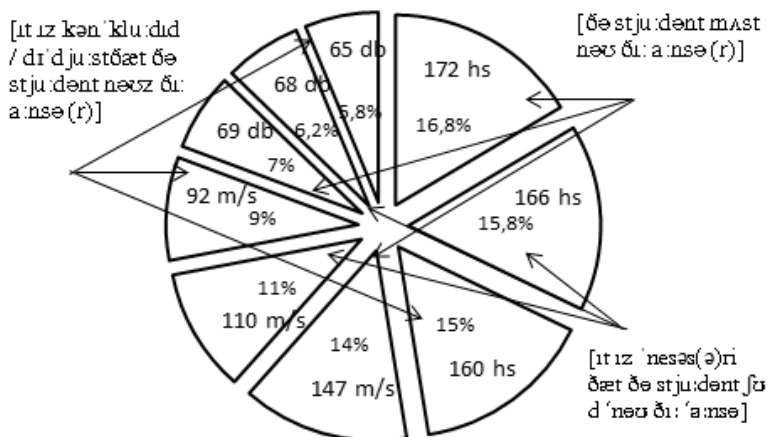


Figure 3.44

In the sentence */The passerby helps the dog bite victim/* [ðə pʌsəbaɪ ˈhelps ðə dɒg baɪt vɪkt(ə)m], In the */helps the dog bite victim/* component, the average tone frequency is 152 hs, the average intensity is 63 db, and the average pronunciation speed is 86 m/sec. Referring to the results of the main tone frequency, it can be said that the intonation of exhaustion is realized in the sentence. The maximum tone frequency was recorded in the second syllable – 243 hs. In the word */dog/*, the average tone frequency is 148 hs, the average intensity is 62 db, and the average syllable length is 75 m/s (see: figure 3.45).

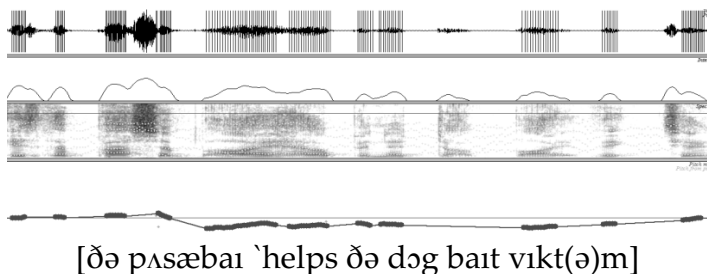


Figure 3.45

In the interrogative sentence *¿Is the passerby helping a dog bite someone?* [ɪz ðə pʌsəbaɪ ˈhelps ðə dɒg ˈsʌmwʌn], In the */helping a dog bite someone/* component, the average tone frequency is 157 hs, the average intensity is 67 db, and the average pronunciation speed is 93 m/sec. Referring to the results of the main tone frequency, it can be said that question intonation is realized in the sentence. The maximum tone frequency was recorded in the last syllables – 187-192 hs. In the word */dog/*, the average tone frequency is 146 hs, the average intensity is 61 db, and the average syllable length is 72 m/s (see: figure 3.46).

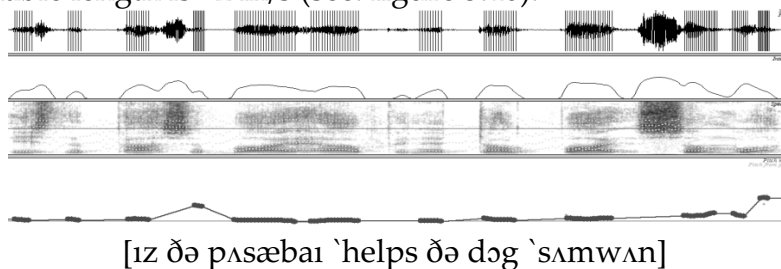


Figure 3.46

In the interrogative sentence *¿Is he helping a person bitten by a dog?* [ɪz hi: ˈhelpɪŋ ə pə:sn ˈbɪt(ə)n baɪ ə dɒg?], In the */a person bitten by a dog/* component, the average tone

frequency is 168 hs, the average intensity is 71 db, and the average pronunciation speed is 96 m/sec. The results of the main tone frequency show that question intonation is realized in the sentence. The maximum tone frequency was recorded in the word /dog/ in the last syllable – 208 hs (see: figure 3.47).

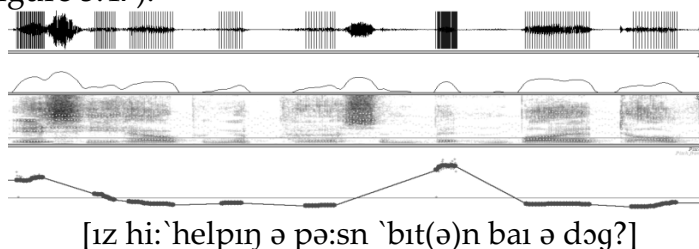


Figure 3.47

In the sentence /I read the book// [aɪ ri: d ðə bu:k], in the word /read/, the average tone frequency is 184 hs, the average intensity is 76 db, and the average pronunciation time is 85 m/sec. The total duration of the sentence is 785 m/s, and the average syllable length is 1.96 m/s (see: figure 3.48).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [aɪ ri: d ðə bu:k]

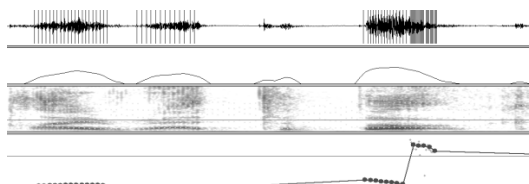
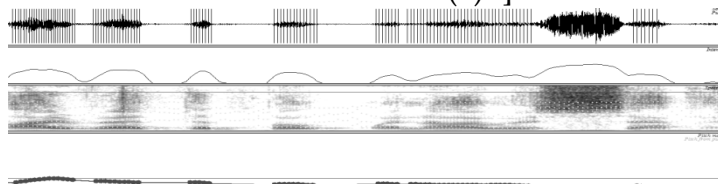


Figure 3.48

In the sentence /I read the book when I was 7// [aɪ red ðə bu:k wen aɪ wɔz sev(ə)n], in the word /read/, the average tone frequency is 176 hs, the average intensity is 73 db,

and the average pronunciation time is 78 m/sec. The total duration of the sentence is 1.3228 m/s, and the average syllable length is 1.65 m/s (see: figure 3.49).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [a₁ red ðə buk wen a₁ wɔz sev(ə)n]



[a₁ red ðə buk wen a₁ wɔz sev(ə)n]

Figure 3.49

Average acoustic indicators of the words (%)

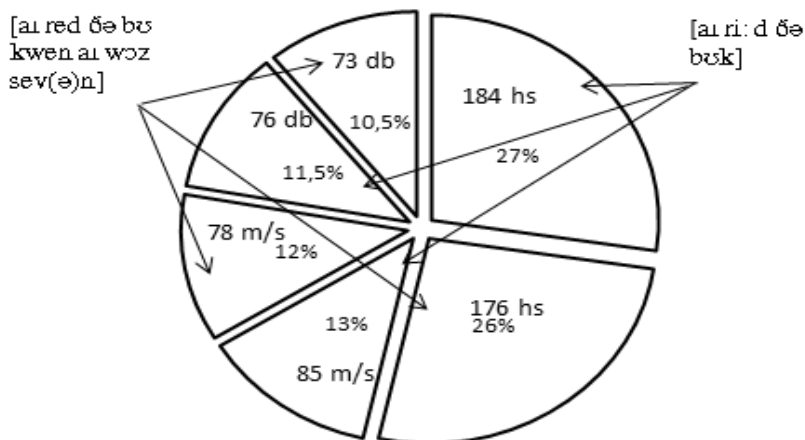


Figure 3.50

In the English sentence /The bark was painful/ [ðə ba:k wɔz `peɪnf(ə)l], in the word /bark/, the average tone frequency is 186 hs, the average intensity is 76 db, and the average syllable length is 127 m/s (see: table 3.51; 3.54).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ðə ba:k wəz `peɪnf(ə)l]

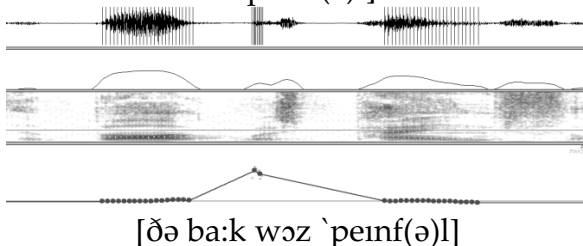


Figure 3.51

In the /Tree's bark was painful// [tri:z ba:k wəz `peɪnf(ə)l] variant of that sentence, in the word /bark/ average tone frequency is 188 hs, average intensity is 70 db, average syllable length is 122 m/sec (see: table 3.52; 3.54).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [tri:z ba:k wəz `peɪnf(ə)l]

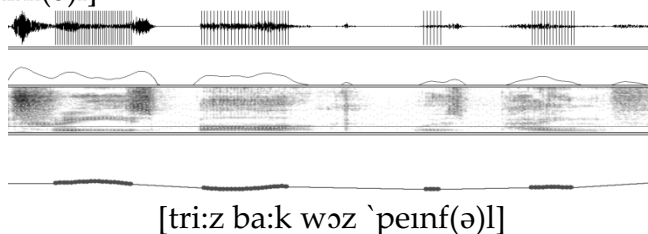
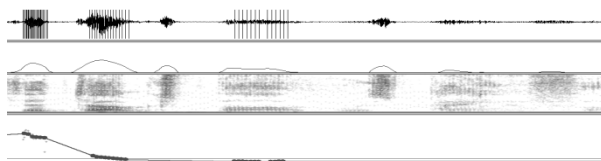


Figure 3.52

In the variant /The dog's bark was painful// (In other words, hearing the barking of a dog was sad), in the word /bark/ the average tone frequency is 179 hs, the average intensity is 74 db, the average syllable length is 117 m/s (see: table 3.53; 3.54).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ðə dɒgz ba:k wəz `peɪnf(ə)l]



[ðə dɒgz ba:k wɒz ˈpeɪnf(ə)l]

Figure 3.53

Average acoustic indicators of the words (%)

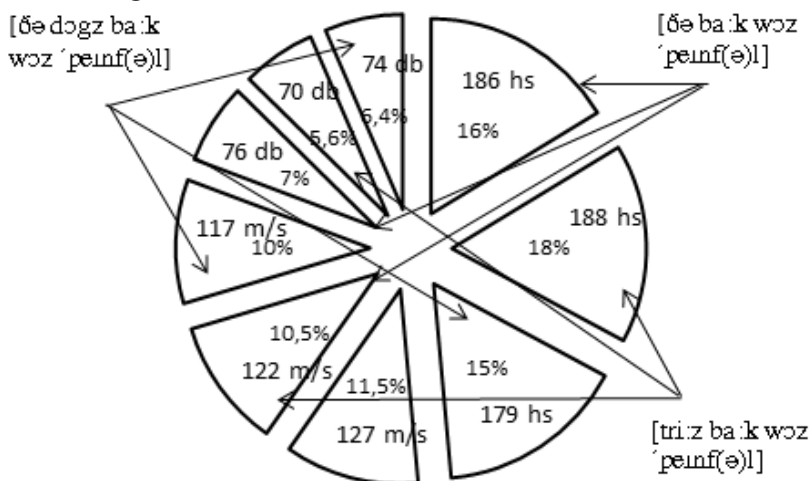
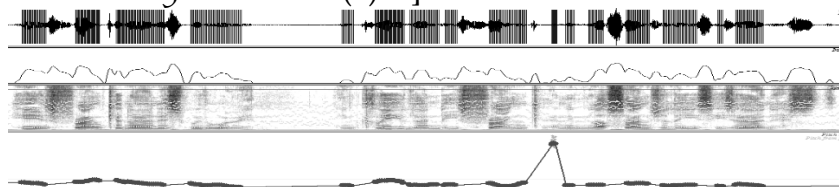


Figure 3.54

In the sentence /He is *frank and earnest* with women. In Cleveland he's *Frank* and in Los Angeles he's *Ernest*// [hi: ɪz fræk ænd ə: (r) nɪst wɪð wʊmɪn. In Klivelənd hi:z fræk ænd in Lɒs ændʒɪli:z hi:z ə:n (ə) st], in the words /*frank and earnest*/, /*Frank*/ və /*Ernest*/, average tone frequency is 178-170-142 hs, average intensity is 73-69-61 db, average syllable length is 84-90-80 m/sec. The results of the acoustic parameters reflect the realization of the intonation outline in the declarative sentences (see: table 3.55).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [hi: ɪz fræk ænd ə:(r)nɪst wɪð wʊmɪn. In Klivelənd hi:z Fræk ænd in Lɔs ændʒili:z hi:z ə:n(ə) st]

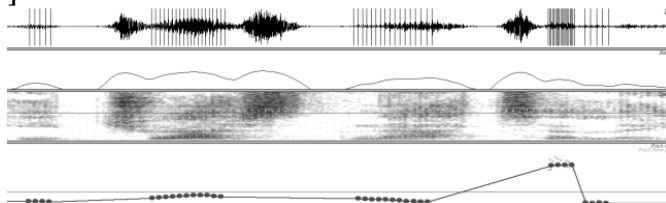


[hi: ɪz fræk ænd ə: (r) nɪst wɪð wʊmɪn. In Klivelənd hi:z
Fræk ænd in Lɔs ændʒili:z hi:z ə:n (ə) st]

Figure 3.55

In the word /*nattily*/ realized at the end of the sentence /He dressed *nattily*/ [hi: ˈdrest nət(ə)lɪ], the average tone frequency is 152 hs, the average intensity is 69 db, and the average syllable length is 92 msec. Maximum tone frequency was recorded at the beginning of the sentence – 168 hs (see: figure 3.56).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [hi: ˈdrest nət(ə) lɪ]



[hi: ˈdrest nət(ə) lɪ]

Figure 3.56

In the interrogative sentence ¿*Natalie* who? [Nətə- lɪˈhu:ʔ], in the word /*Natalie*/, the average tone frequency is 176 hs, the average intensity is 71 db, and the average

syllable length is 83 m/sec. The maximum tone frequency and time spent in the analyzed sentence were recorded in the last syllable – 209 hs and 136 m/sec (see: figure 3.57). It indicates that the question intonation has been realized in the sentence analyzed with reference to the acoustic results. In addition, the acoustic results prove that the overall intonation contour of the sentence depends on its communicative purpose, not on its lexical content.

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [Nətəli`hu:ʔ]

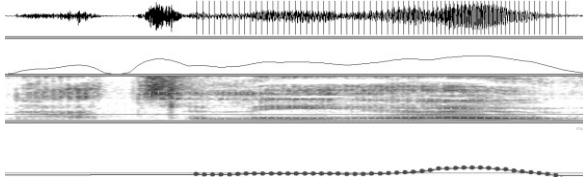


Figure 3.57

3.4. Experimental-phonetic analysis of structurally ambiguous sentences

The grammatical form of the sentence consists of formal-syntactic and intonation aspects. The grammatical form of a sentence is its scheme, that is, the form of expression of an idea through language. Intonation acts as a syntactic organization of the grammatical form of the sentence, that is, a permanent feature. At the same time, it forms an infinite number of variants in terms of intonation. This means that in contrast to the syntactic form, which manifests itself in the internal relationship between

words and sentences in separate parts of the sentence, its intonation form has the ability to express internal relations as well as external relations in the contextual line. For example, the English sentence/I am taking a course in *modern English Grammar*// [aɪ əm `teɪkɪŋ ə `kɔ:s ɪn mɒdə(r)n `ɪŋlɪʃ græmə(r)] was involved in experimental-phonetic analysis in different structures. In this sentence, the combination /*modern English Grammar*/ has been phonetically analyzed in different structures. In general, the announcers spent 3.0825 m/s on pronouncing the sentence. In the first version of the sentence, the acoustic parameters are expressed in the following values:

fundamental tone frequency: 169-163-193-165-180-161-158-181-160-173-161-142-130 Hz;

intensity: 62-59-67-61-60-63-56-73-66-61-62-64-54 dB;

time: 92-73-132-76-78-160-75-103-91-79-74-98-67 m/sec (see: table 3.1).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [aɪ əm `teɪkɪŋ ə `kɔ:s ɪn mɒdə(r)n `ɪŋlɪʃ græmə(r)]

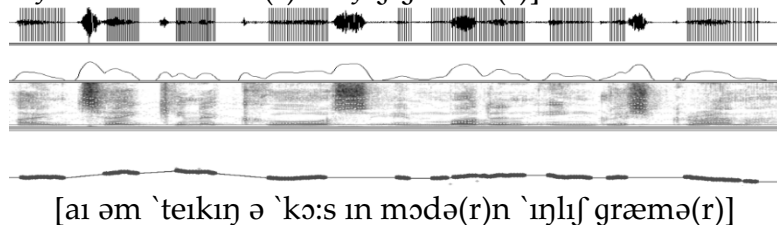


Figure 3.58

The average pronunciation time of the announcers for pronouncing the sentence /I'm taking a course in *grammar of modern English*// [aɪ əm `teɪkɪŋ ə `kɔ:s ɪn græmə(r) əv mɒ-

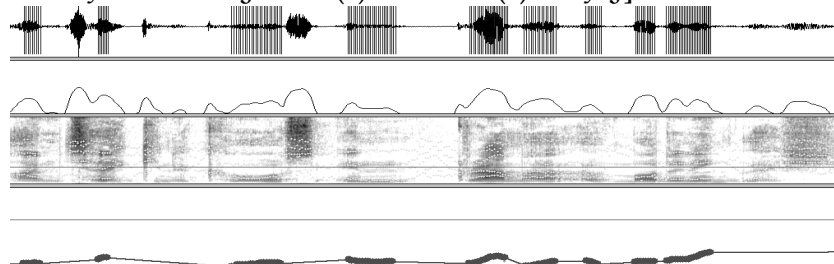
də(r)n `ɪŋlɪʃ] is 3.1256 m/sec. In this version of the sentence, the acoustic parameters are expressed by the following indicators:

fundamental tone frequency: 161-158-185-163-168-161-173-197-173-169-173-170-185-172 hs;

intensity: 65-61-68-64-66-62-59-74-65-58-67-64-60-57 db;

time: 108-77-130-70-78-75-146-73-98-102-70-81-63-82 m/sec (see: table 3.1).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [aɪ əm `teɪkɪŋ ə `kɔ:s ɪn græmə(r) əv mɒdə(r)n `ɪŋlɪʃ]



[aɪ əm `teɪkɪŋ ə `kɔ:s ɪn græmə(r) əv mɒdə(r)n `ɪŋlɪʃ]

Figure 3.59

In this variant of the analyzed sentence /I'm taking a course in *modern grammar of English*// [aɪ əm `teɪkɪŋ ə `kɔ:s ɪn mɒdə(r)n græmə(r) əv `ɪŋlɪʃ], the indicators of acoustic parameters do not differ from the indicators of other variants due to the movement of the intonation contour.

fundamental tone frequency: 193-182-167-170-161-148-193-136-146-142-126-150-123 hs;

intensity: 67-65-71-63-62-61-71-54-63-57-59-59-65 db;

time: 92-72-128-67-152-60-108-58-99-73-74-64-83 m/sec
(see: table 3.1).

Table 3.1
Average acoustic values of the analyzed sentences

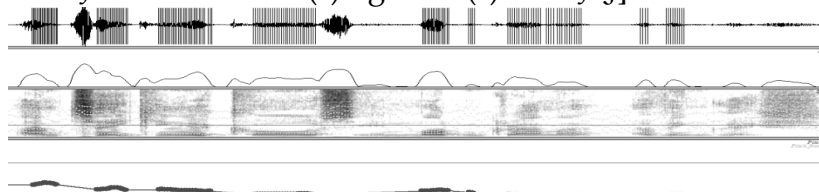
Acoustic parameters Syllables		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
I version	fundamental tone frequency (hs)	169	163	193	165	180	161	158	181	160	173	161	142	130	
	intensity (db)	62	59	67	61	60	63	56	73	66	61	62	64	54	
	time (t)	92	73	132	76	78	160	75	103	91	79	74	98	67	
II version	fundamental tone frequency (hs)	161	158	185	163	168	161	173	197	173	169	171	170	185	172
	intensity (db)	65	61	68	64	66	62	59	74	65	58	67	64	60	57
	time (t)	108	77	130	70	78	75	146	73	98	102	70	81	63	82
III version	fundamental tone frequency (hs)	193	182	167	170	161	148	193	136	146	142	126	150	123	
	intensity (db)	67	65	71	63	62	61	71	54	63	57	59	59	65	
	time (t)	92	72	128	67	152	60	108	58	99	73	74	64	83	

The syntactic arrangement of a sentence is not directly related to its intonation characteristics: the same intonation can be observed in different syntactic structures. Referring to the results of the acoustic parameters, it can be said that the general intonation outline of the sentence does not directly depend on its lexical content. As a proof of this, in all three versions of the same sentence, the intonation

outline towards the end is pronounced with the falling, i.e., intonation of completeness, characteristic of the sentences. The maximum tone frequency is noticeable in the initial syllables of all three variants: 193-183-193 hs.

To visually see what is being said, it is enough to consider the intonograms of the sentences (see: figure 5.58, 3.59, 3.60).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [aɪ əm `teɪkɪŋ ə `kɔ:s ɪn mɒdə(r)n græmə(r) əv `ɪŋlɪʃ]



[aɪ əm `teɪkɪŋ ə `kɔ:s ɪn mɒdə(r)n græmə(r) əv `ɪŋlɪʃ]

Figure 3.60

In different structural variants of the English sentence /I am taking a course in *modern English Grammar*/, average tone frequency was 157-177-145 hs, dynamics parameter – 63-82-80 db, and average pronunciation speed was 85-65-61 m/s (see: figure 3.61).

It should be noted that the descending intonation contour is realized in all the analyzed variants. F.Veysalov (Veysalli) also notes that the maximum decrease of the main tone frequency is not conditioned by the syntactic structure: “In a melodic representation, the peak may be located at the beginning or in the middle, but the general movement of the fundamental tone remains descending” [95, p.133].

Average acoustic indicators of the words (%)

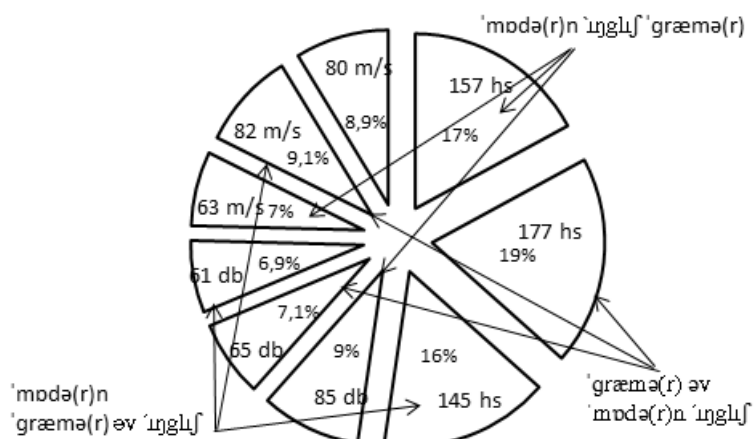


Figure 3.61

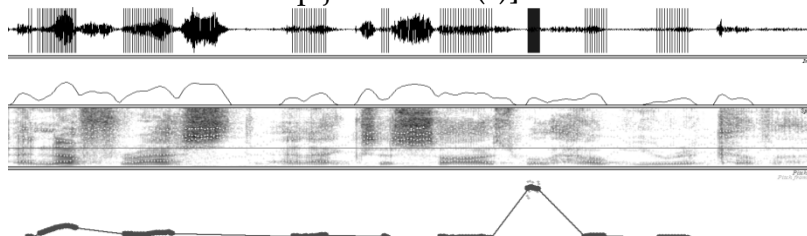
In the English sentence *Enough rest and exercise will help you recover* [ɪˈnʌf rest ænd ˈeksəsaɪz wɪl help ju: rɪˈkʌvə(r)], acoustic parameters were recorded at the following values:

fundamental tone frequency: 154-201-181-154-165-146-154-192-161-164-150-134-121 hs;

intensity: 63-72-74-58-63-56-63-68-62-57-58-61-56 db;

time: 80-90-96-70-80-71-167-76-80-85-96-74-86 m/sec (see: table 3.2).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ɪˈnʌf rest ænd ˈeksəsaɪz wɪl help ju: rɪˈkʌvə(r)]



[ɪˈnʌf rest ænd ˈeksəsaɪz wɪl help ju: rɪˈkʌvə (r)]

Figure 3.62

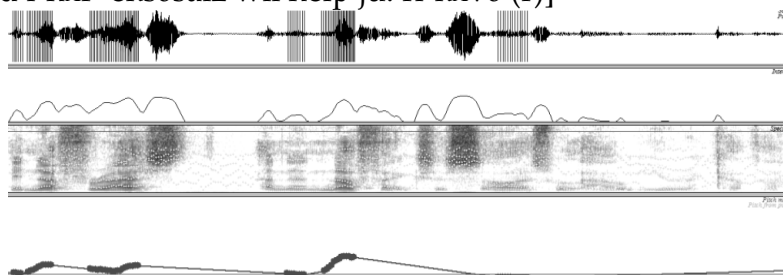
In the variant */Enough rest and enough exercise will help you recover/* [ɪˈnʌf rest ænd ɪˈnʌf ˈeksəsaɪz wɪl help ju: rɪˈkʌvə (r)] of that sentence, acoustic parameters are:

fundamental tone frequency: 154-183-197-150-150-208-177-154-147-130-140-150-153-132 hs;

intensity: 62-69-72-60-56-70-61-59-58-56-57-55-56-54 db;

time: 78-91-98-78-102-109-86-70-156-73-76-90-67-84 m/sec (see: table 3.2).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ɪˈnʌf rest ænd ɪˈnʌf ˈeksəsaɪz wɪl help ju: rɪˈkʌvə (r)]



[ɪˈnʌf rest ænd ɪˈnʌf ˈeksəsaɪz wɪl help ju: rɪˈkʌvə (r)]

Figure 3.63

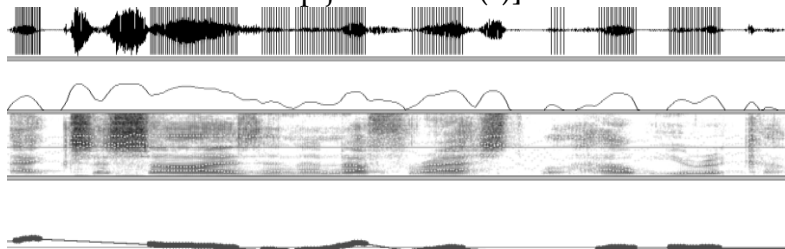
In the third variant of the sentence /*Exercise and enough rest will help you recover*// [ˈeksəsaɪz ænd ɪˈnʌf rest wɪl help ju: rɪˈkʌvə(r)], the values of the acoustic parameters are as follows:

fundamental tone frequency: 189-177-193-161-164-178-169-128-149-165-149-143-128 Hz;

intensity: 64-60-74-58-59-69-69-55-67-64-63-59-55 dB;

time: 102-77-170-79-83-88-104-62-81-102-70-75-70 ms/sec
(see: table 3.2).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ˈeksəsaɪz ænd ɪˈnʌf rest wɪl help ju: rɪˈkʌvə(r)]



[ˈeksəsaɪz ænd ɪˈnʌf rest wɪl help ju: rɪˈkʌvə(r)]

Figure 3.64

Table 3.2

Average acoustic values of the analyzed sentences

acoustic parameters syllables		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
I version	fundamental frequency (hs)	154	201	181	154	165	146	154	192	161	154	150	134	121	
	intensity (db)	63	72	74	58	63	56	63	68	62	57	58	61	56	
	time (t)	80	90	96	70	80	71	167	76	80	85	96	74	86	
II version	fundamental frequency (hs)	154	183	197	150	150	208	177	154	147	130	140	150	153	132
	intensity (db)	62	69	72	60	56	70	61	59	58	56	57	55	56	54
	time (t)	78	91	98	78	102	109	86	70	156	73	76	90	67	84
III version	fundamental frequency (hs)	189	177	193	161	164	178	169	128	149	165	149	143	128	
	intensity (db)	64	60	74	58	59	69	69	55	67	64	63	59	55	
	time (t)	102	77	170	79	83	88	104	62	81	102	70	75	70	

The results of the oscillographic analysis indicate the transmission of acoustic values of the parameters in all three variants of the declarative sentence intonation. In all three versions, the melodious contour is descending throughout the sentence. The average tone frequency in the first sentence is 201-121 hs, in the second sentence 208-132 hs, and in the third sentence 193-128 hs. The peak of melodiousness in the performance of both announcers is at the beginning of the sentences.

Average acoustic indicators of the words (%)

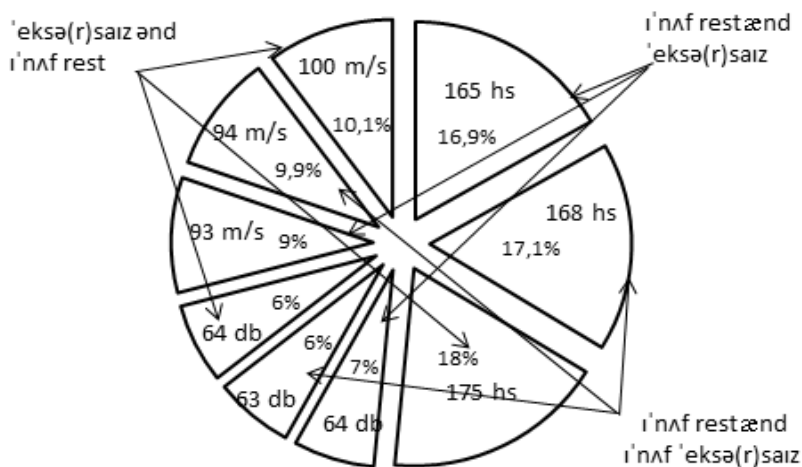
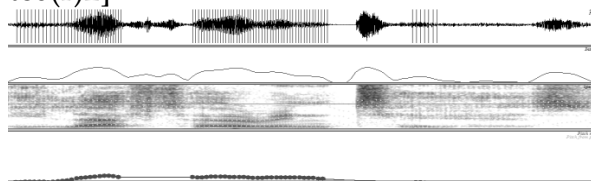


Figure 3.65

The indicators of the acoustic parameters in the oscillographically analyzed /He left her *in tears*// [hi: `left hə: (r) in `teə(r)z] version are as fallows:

fundamental tone frequency: 154-195-171-166-138 hs;
 intensity: 58-77-70-65-58 db;
 time: 103-93-115-75-211 m/sec (see: table 3.3).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [hi: `left hə: (r) in `teə(r)z]



[hi: `left hə: (r) in `teə(r)z]

Figure 3.66

In the variant of that sentence /In tears he left her// [in tee(r)z hi: `left ha:], the acoustic parameters are expressed with the following values:

fundamental tone frequency: 151-189-150-161-135 hs;

intensity: 62-71-52-67-53 db;

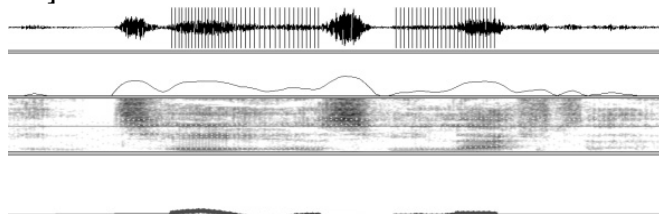
time: 74-146-90-93-120 m/sec (see: table 3.3).

Table 3.3

Average acoustic values of the analyzed sentences

acoustic parameters yllables		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
i version	fundamental tone frequency (hs)	154	195	171	166	138			
	intensity (db)	58	77	70	65	58			
	time (t)	103	93	115	75	211			
ii version	fundamental tone frequency (hs)	151	189	150	161	135			
	intensity (db)	62	71	52	67	53			
	time (t)	74	146	90	93	120			
iii version	fundamental tone frequency (hs)	177	212	168	152	142	152	168	153
	intensity (db)	67	70	67	61	57	60	53	57
	time (t)	96	116	164	90	78	86	78	176

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [in teə(r)z hi: `left hə:]



[in teə(r)z hi: `left hə:]

Figure 3.67

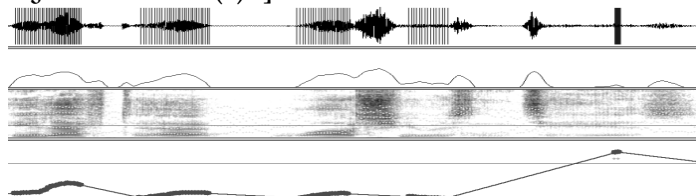
In the /He left her *while she was in tears*// [hi: `left hæ: wail ʃi: wɔz in teə(r)z] version of the analyzed sentence, acoustic indicators are reflected in the following values:

fundamental tone frequency: 177-212-168-152-142-152-168-153 hs;

intensity: 67-70-67-61-57-60-53-57 db;

time: 116-164-90-78-86-78-176 m/sec (see: table 3.3).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [hi: `left hæ: wail ʃi: wɔz in teə(r)z]



[hi: `left hæ: wail ʃi: wɔz in teə(r)z]

Figure 3.68

Average acoustic indicators of the words (%)

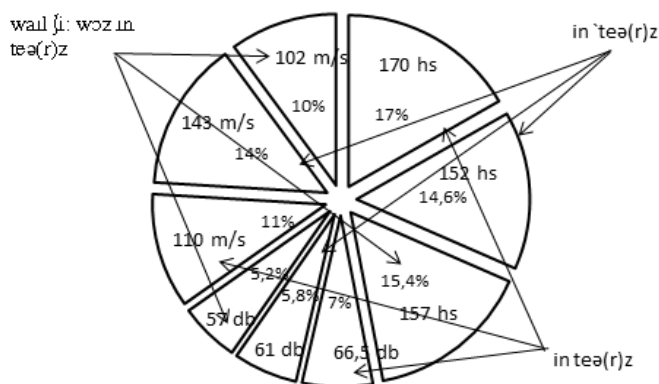


Figure 3.69

In two variants of this sentence, the components involved in the acoustic analysis are realized at the absolute end, only in one variant at the beginning. The different positions in the sentence structure have found their expression in the acoustic parameters of the analyzed component. For example, while the average indicator of the main tone frequency at the beginning was 170 hs, at the end of the sentence, these values were recorded in the amount of 152 hs and 157 hs. At the beginning of the sentence, the intensity was recorded as 66.5 db, and at the end 61 db and 57 db. The average pronunciation speed of the announcers at the beginning of the sentence is 110 m/sec, and at the end it is 143 and 101 m/sec.

It should be added that the acoustic parameters reflect the realization of exhaustion intonation in all three variants. In all three sentences, the lowest tone level is on the last syllable of the last syntagm -135-138-153 hs.

Slowing down of pronunciation speed is not only characteristic of monosyllabic declarative sentences. The intemporal analysis of monosyllabic sentences shows that slowness of tempo at the end is characteristic. Thus, as noted by F.Veysalli, *"Syntagmatic analysis based on the placement of vowels within the syntagm shows that tempo slowing down in terminal syntagms is a regular occurrence"* [95, p.276].

In the sentence /I repaired the car and returned the following day// [aɪ rɪˈpeəd ðə ka: (r) ænd rɪˈtə:nd ðə ˈfɒləʊɪŋ deɪ], /the following day/ component was oscillographi-

cally analyzed in three positions. A total of 2.4371 m/sec was spent on one invariant. The average pronunciation speed in a sentence is 1.87 m/sec (see: table 3.4).

Table 3.4

Average acoustic values of the analyzed sentences

acoustic parameters syllables		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
I version	fundamental tone frequency (hs)	156	176	185	158	163	153	138	154	123	134	130	126	111	
	intensity (db)	66	68	70	61	68	65	56	66	56	60	54	53	54	
	time (t)	134	78	154	80	145	70	76	126	68	85	152	70	156	
II version	fundamental tone frequency (hs)	151	162	168	141	158	146	148	163	151	157	160	154	150	142
	intensity (db)	64	65	68	62	64	58	59	70	65	62	65	67	64	67
	time (t)	122	81	177	75	163	80	70	93	130	63	148	126	74	127
III version	fundamental tone frequency (hs)	143	166	189	158	165	154	146	173	149	138	133	136	123	
	intensity (db)	60	67	65	62	68	64	63	67	58	63	52	54	53	
	time (t)	79	90	128	71	142	145	90	136	70	187	62	66	80	

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [aɪ rɪˈpeəd ðə ka:
(r) ænd rɪˈtə:nd ðə ˈfəluɪŋ deɪ]

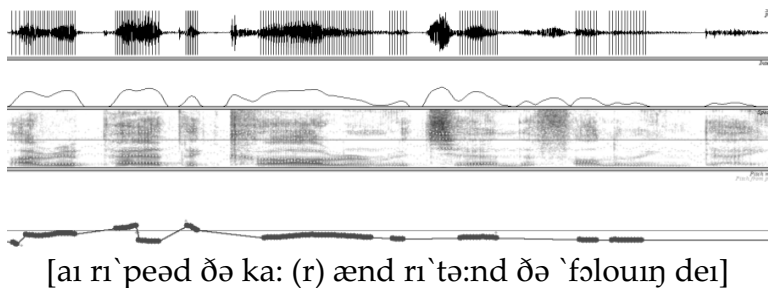


Figure 3.70

In the second version of that sentence, the analyzed component is realized in the middle position. In the variant /I repaired the car and *the following day* I returned// [aɪ rɪˈpeəd ðə ka: (r) ænd ðə ˈfəluɪŋ deɪ aɪ rɪˈtə:nd], the average pronunciation speed is 2.4012 m/s, and the average syllable speed is 1.77 m/s (see: table 3.4).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [aɪ rɪˈpeəd ðə ka: (r) ænd ðə ˈfəluɪŋ deɪ aɪ rɪˈtə:nd]

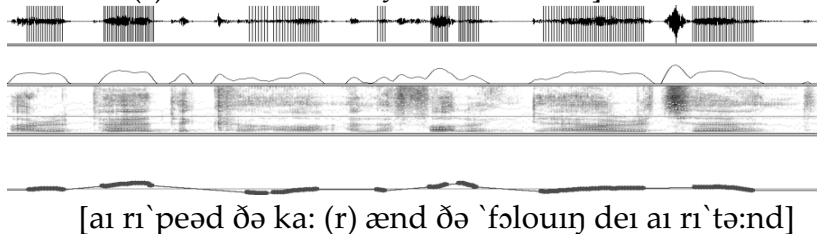
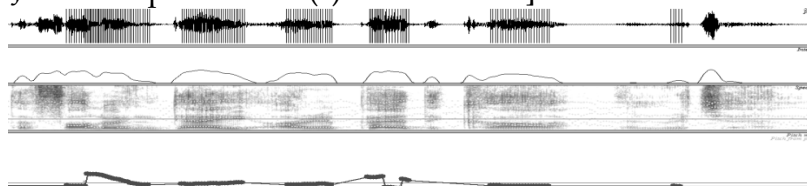


Figure 3.71

In the analyzed variant /*The following day* I repaired the car and returned// [ðə ˈfəluɪŋ deɪ aɪ rɪˈpeəd ðə ka:(r) ænd rɪˈtə:nd] the /*the following day*/ component is processed at the beginning. The overall average pronunciation tempo of this variant is 2.3114 m/s, and the average syllable length is 1.78 m/s (see: table 3.4).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ðə `fəlu:ɪŋ deɪ aɪ rɪ `peəd ðə ka:(r) ænd rɪ `tə:nd]



[ðə `fəlu:ɪŋ deɪ aɪ rɪ `peəd ðə ka:(r) ænd rɪ `tə:nd]

Figure 3.72

The average value of the acoustic indicators spent on the */the following day/* component at the beginning of the sentence is as follows: 164 hs, 64.5 db and 102 m/sec (see: table 3.4).

The average values of the acoustic indicators spent on the */the following day/* component in the middle of the sentence are 124 hs, 55.4 db and 101 m/sec (see: table 3.4).

The average values of the acoustic indicators spent on the */the following day/* component at the end of the sentence are 155 hs, 63.5 db and 106 m/sec (see: table 3.4).

As can be seen from the values, while the maximum frequency and intensity values were obtained in the initial phase, the maximum time consumption was recorded at the end, which was determined by the communicative nature of those sentences.

In the sentence */Mary likes me more than Susan/* [Meəri `laɪks mi: mɔ: (r) ðən Sju:zn], acoustic parameters are recorded in the following indicators:

fundamental tone frequency: 189-155-168-160-155-127-131 hs;

intensity: 65-60-67-57-63-52-59 db;
time: 180-70-171-102-148-82-110 m/sec (see: table 3.5).
oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [Meəri
`laiks mi: mɔ: (r) ðən Sju:zn]

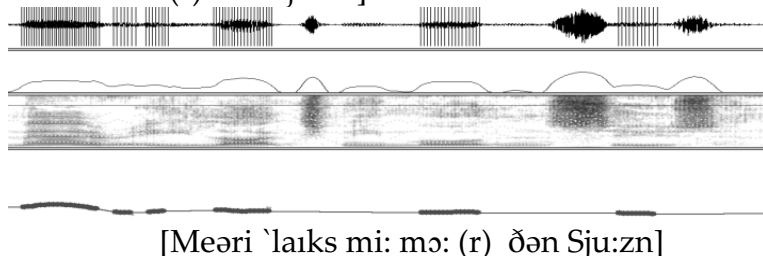


Figure 3.73

In the /Mary likes me more than *she liked Susan*// [Meəri
`laiks mi: mɔ: (r) ðən ʃi: laɪkd Sju:zn] variant, acoustic pa-
rameters:

fundamental tone frequency: 178-149-148-191-173-162-
161-175-150 hs;

intensity: 75-64-66-71-72-65-61-71-66 db;

time: 166-81-162-116-128-83-120-145-122 m/sec (see:
table 3.5).

Table 3.5

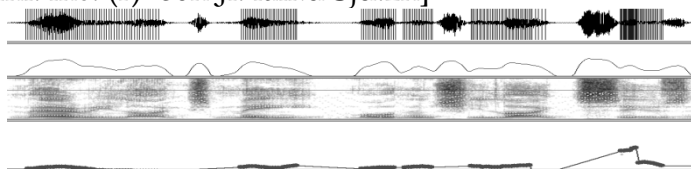
Average acoustic values of the analyzed sentences

acoustic parameters syllables		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
I version	fundamental tone frequency (hs)	189	155	168	160	173	127	131		
	intensity (db)	65	60	67	57	63	52	59		
	time (t)	160	70	151	102	148	82	110		
II version	fundamental tone frequency (hs)	178	149	148	191	173	162	161	175	150
	intensity (db)	75	64	66	71	72	65	61	71	66
	time (t)	166	81	162	116	128	83	120	145	132

Psycholinguistic Approach To The Syntactic Units

III version	fundamental tone frequency (hs)	190	168	187	167	183	158	182	146	127
	intensity (db)	77	70	82	70	76	67	73	60	50
	time (t)	168	90	175	120	136	80	142	150	125

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [Meəri
`laiks mi: mɔ: (r) ðən fɪ: laɪkd Sju:zn]



[Meəri `laiks mi: mɔ: (r) ðən fɪ: laɪkd Sju:zn]

Figure 3.74

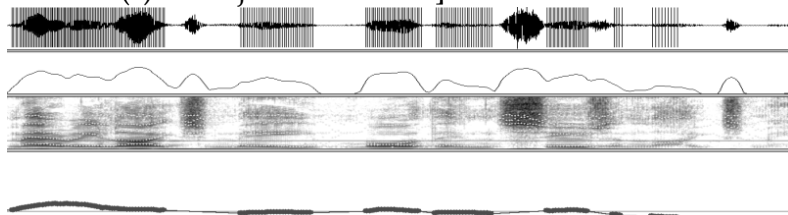
In the /Mary likes me more than Susan likes me// [Meəri laiks mi: mɔ: (r) ðən Sju:zn laiks mi:] variant, values of acoustic parameters:

fundamental tone frequency: 190-168-187-167-183-158-182-136-107 hs;

intensity: 77-70-82-70-76-67-73-60-50 db;

time: 168-90-175-120-136-80-142-150-125 m/sec (see: table 3.5).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [Meəri la-
ɪks mi: mɔ: (r) ðən Sju:zn laɪks mi:]



[Meəri laɪks mi: mɔ: (r) ðən Sju:zn laɪks mi:]

Figure 3.75

Average acoustic indicators of the words (%)

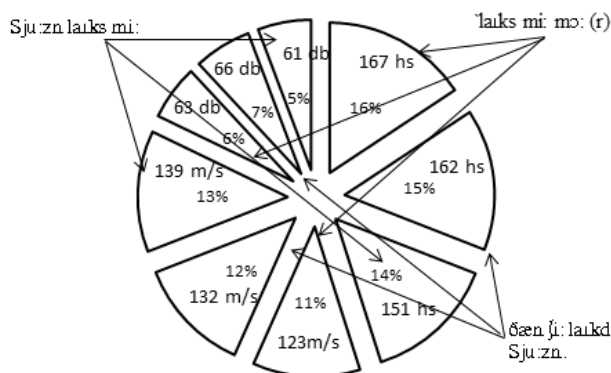


Figure 3.76

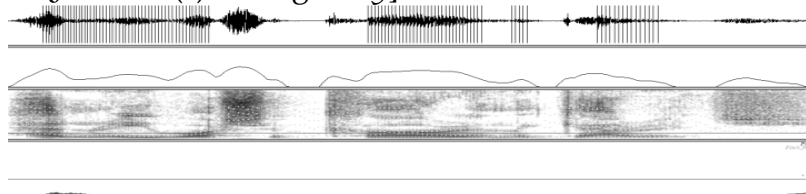
A similar picture is observed in the acoustic parameters of the sentence /Henry washed the car in the garage/ [Henri `wɔ:ft ðə ka: (r) ɪn ðə gəra:ʒ]. In the analyzed sentence, the component /in the garage/ is used in two positions – the beginning and the end. Finally, the acoustic parameters are:

fundamental tone frequency: 196-168-182-144-159-150-155- 145-136 hs;

intensity: 73-66-71-61-71-68-60-67-61 db;

time: 97-100-108-72-132-67-63-118-138 m/sec (see: table 3.6).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [Henri `wɔ:ft ðə ka: (r) ɪn ðə gəra:ʒ]



[Henri `wɔ:ft ðə ka: (r) ɪn ðə gəra:ʒ]

Figure 3.77

At the end of the sentence */Henry washed the car which was in the garage/* [Henry `wɔ:ʃt ðə ka: (r) wɪʃ wɔz ɪn ðə gæra:ʒ] those parameters are as follows:

fundamental tone frequency: 186-168-210-164-178-160-155-190-159-155-141hs;

intensity: 67-65-73-63-72-64-63-70-60-57-58 db;

time: 95-114-108-68-147-82-105-69-78-116-128 m/sec
(see: table 3.6).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [Henri `wɔ:ʃt ðə ka: (r) wɪʃ wɔz ɪn ðə gæra:ʒ]

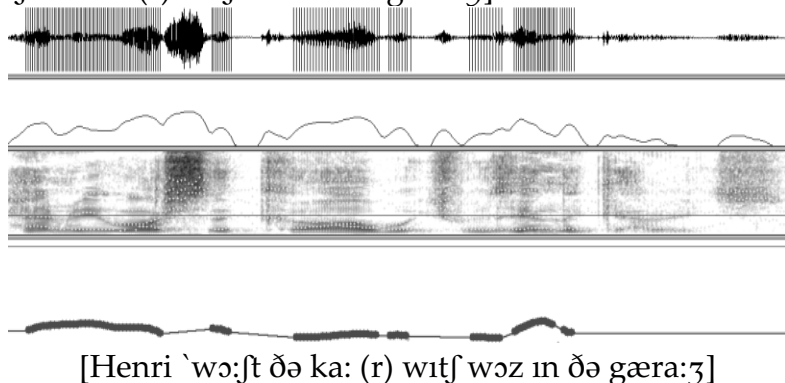


Figure 3.78

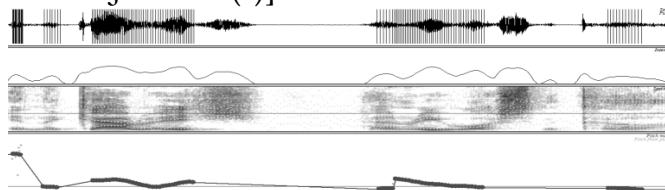
In the preposition of the sentence */In the garage, Henry washed the car/* [ɪn ðə gæra:ʒ Henri `wɔ:ʃt ðə ka: (r)], the values of the acoustic parameters in the */in the garage/* component are expressed in the following figures:

fundamental tone frequency: 190-168-187-167-183-158-182-136-107 hs;

intensity: 63-61-74-73-64-73-66-55-60 db;

time: 70-75-121-136-82-85-86-63-107 m/sec (see: table 3.6).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ɪn ðə gæra:ʒ Henri `wɔ:ft ðə ka: (r)]



[ɪn ðə gæra:ʒ Henri `wɔ:ft ðə ka: (r)]

Figure 3.79

Table 3.6

Average acoustic values of the analyzed sentences

acoustic parameters syllables		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
version	fundamental tone frequency (hs)	196	168	182	144	159	150	155	145	136		
	intensity (db)	73	66	71	61	71	68	60	67	61		
	time (t)	97	100	108	72	132	67	63	118	138		
variant	fundamental tone frequency (hs)	186	168	210	164	178	160	155	190	159	155	141
	intensity (db)	67	65	73	63	72	64	63	70	60	57	58
	time (t)	95	114	108	68	147	82	105	69	78	116	128
ii version	fundamental tone frequency (hs)	190	168	187	167	183	158	182	136	107		
	intensity (db)	63	61	74	73	64	73	66	55	60		
	time (t)	70	75	121	136	82	85	86	63	107		

Average acoustic indicators of the words (%)

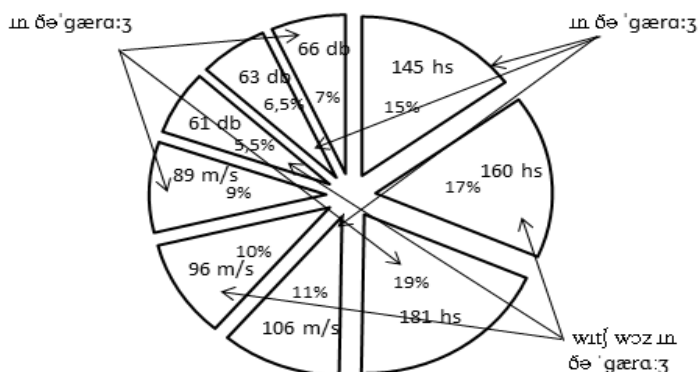


Figure 3.80

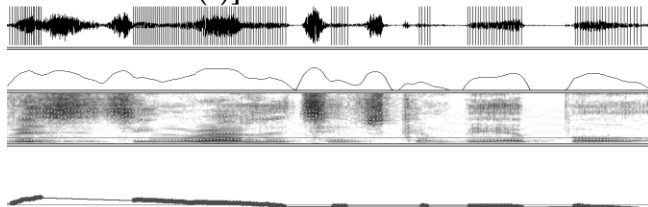
In the analyzed sentence /Visiting relatives can be a bore// [vɪzɪtɪŋ relætɪvz kæn bi: ə bɔ: (r)], the /visiting relatives/ component was realized in the same positions, but in different structures.

fundamental tone frequency: 172-187-176-187-160-164-131-150-156-141 hs;

intensity: 74-68-63-76-64-62-60-67-71-67 db;

time: 99-80-85-107-91-66-78-85-76-171 m/sec (see: figure 3.81).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [vɪzɪtɪŋ relætɪvz kæn bi: ə bɔ:(r)]



[vɪzɪtɪŋ relætɪvz kæn bi: ə bɔ: (r)]

Figure 3.81

In the sentence /*To visit relatives can be a bore*// [tə vɪzɪt relætɪvz kæn bi: ə bɔ:(r)], the following acoustic values were recorded:

fundamental tone frequency: 153-168-187-191-173-168-156-224-193-122 hs;

intensity: 65-67-69-73-70-65-61-71-68-58 db;

time: 75-84-88-95-80-73-72-110-80-153 m/sec (see: figure 3.82).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [tə vɪzɪt relætɪvz kæn bi: ə bɔ:(r)]

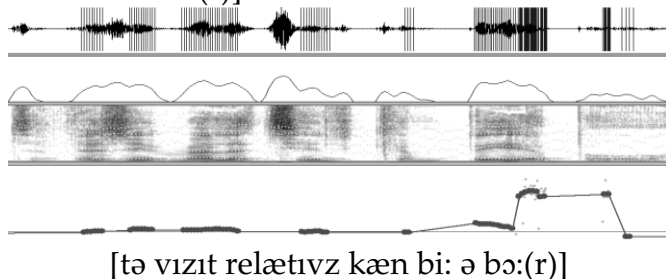


Figure 3.82

In the sentence /*Relatives who visit us can be a bore*// [tə vɪzɪt relætɪvz kæn bi: ə bɔ:(r)], the following acoustic values were recorded:

fundamental tone frequency: 198-190-257-215-206-179-173-157-141-132-162 hs;

intensity: 75-73-70-72-78-68-68-60-65-60-61 db;

time: 109-86-74-115-95-67-103-96-108-73-132 m/sec (see: figure 3.83).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [tə vɪzɪt relætɪvz kæn bi: ə bɔ:(r)]

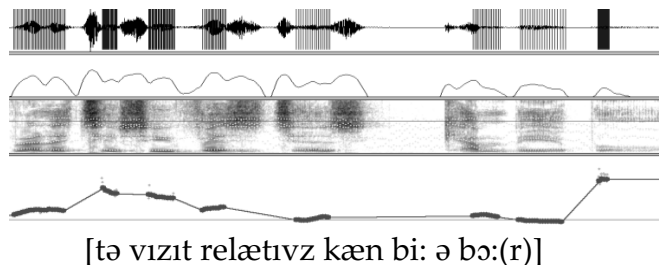


Figure 3.83

To determine the ratio of the acoustic indicators of the /to visit relatives/ component in the analyzed sentences, it is enough to look at figure 3.74.

Average acoustic indicators of the words (%)

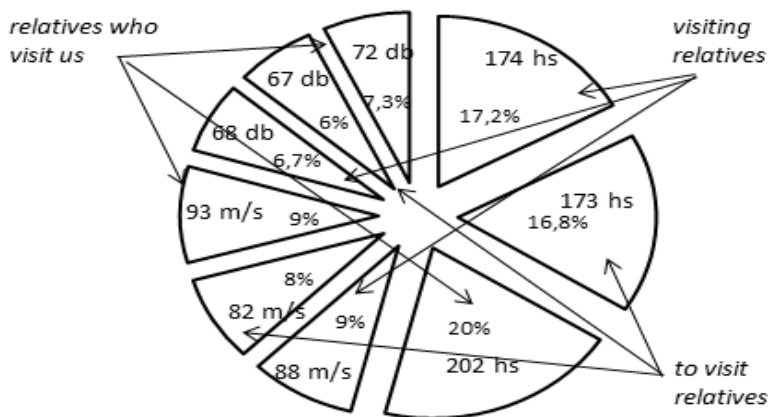


Figure 3.84

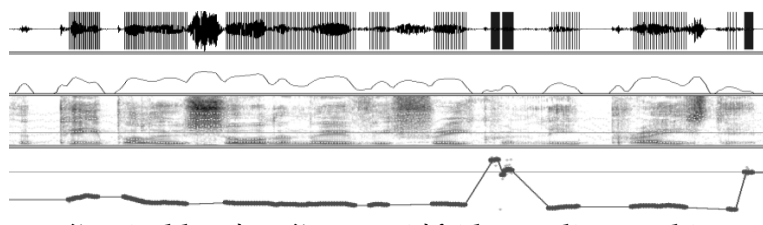
In the analyzed sentence /The people who saw the movie frequently praised it/ [ðə pi:pl hu: `sə: ðə mu:vi `fri:kwəntli preɪzd it], the lexeme /frequently/ is realized in two different positions.

fundamental tone frequency: 190-207-187-185-171-167-154-176-230-152-166-138hs;

intensity: 62-70-71-75-69-71-65-69-60-64-69-59 db;

time: 75-120-112-121-76-116-92-105-82-116-146-73 m/sec
(see: figure 3. 85).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ðə pi:pl hu: `sə: ðə mu:vi `fri:kwəntli preizd it]



[ðə pi:pl hu: `sə: ðə mu:vi `fri:kwəntli preizd it]

Figure 3.85

In the sentence /The people who *frequently* saw the movie praised it// [ðə pi:pl hu: `fri:kwəntli sə: ðə mu:vi `preizd it], the following indicators were recorded:

fundamental tone frequency: 202-198-176-307-273-183-194-157-208-185-162-133hs;

intensity: 63-71-70-73-56-68-72-63-73-64-67-56 db;

time: 80-120-110-127-73-98-120-70-143-90-160-81 m/sec
(see: figure 3. 86).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ðə pi:pl hu: `fri:kwəntli sə: ðə mu:vi `preizd it]

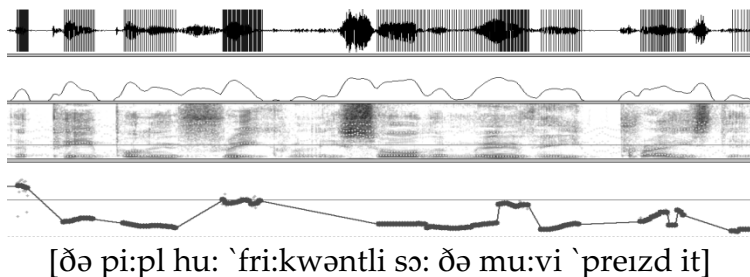


Figure 3.86

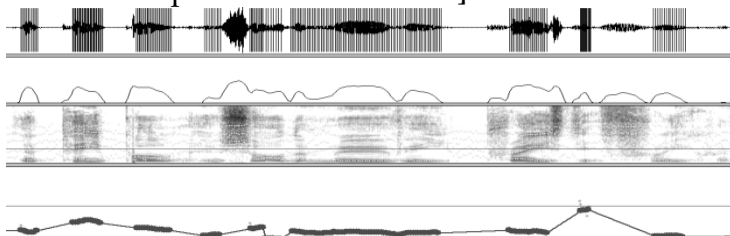
In the sentence /The people who saw the movie praised it frequently// [ðə pi:pl hu: sɔ: ðə mu:vi `preɪzd it `fri:kwəntli], the lexeme /frequently/ is used at the end.

fundamental tone frequency: 190-213-194-205-152-180-166-156-243-160-133-120hs;

intensity: 67-68-69-65-63-69-63-68-61-62-53-50 db;

time: 90-130-138-146-70-143-106-152-60-118-85-115 m/sec (see: figure 3. 87).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ðə pi:pl hu: sɔ: ðə mu:vi `preɪzd it `fri:kwəntli]



[ðə pi:pl hu: sɔ: ðə mu:vi `preɪzd it `fri:kwəntli]

Figure 3.87

Average acoustic indicators of the words (%)

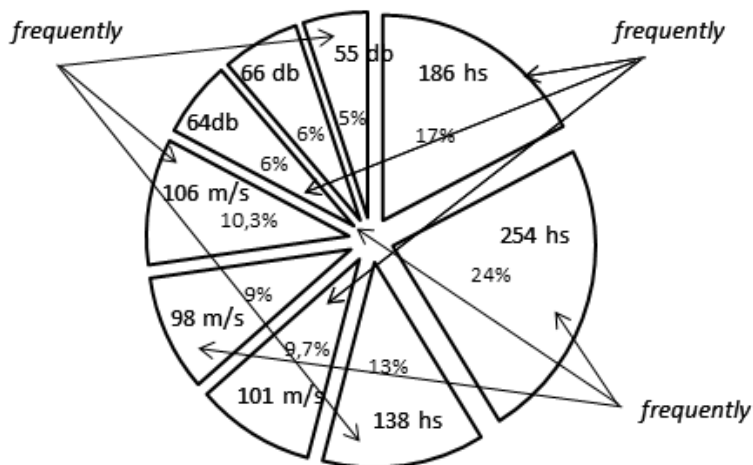


Figure 3.88

As can be seen from the picture above, the maximum tone frequency was recorded in the middle and initial positions – 254 and 186 hs, and the minimum tone frequency was recorded in the final position – 138 hs. The maximum time consumption was recorded in the variant realized in the last position – 106 m/sec (see: figure 3.88).

We meet a similar picture in the acoustic parameters of the sentence /What John disliked *was being ignored* by everyone// [wət dʒən ˈdɪslaɪkd wəz bi:ɪŋ ɪɡˈnɔ:(r)d baɪ ˈevriwʌn]. In the first sentence, the /*was being ignored*/ component has an average tone frequency of 193 hs, an intensity of 62 db, and an average sound duration of 107 m/s.

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [wət dʒən ˈdɪslaɪkd wəz bi:ɪŋ ɪɡˈnɔ:(r)d baɪ ˈevriwʌn]



Figure 3.89

In the variant /John disliked *being ignored* by everyone// [dʒən ˈdɪslaɪkd bi:ɪŋ ɪɡˈnɔ:(r)d baɪ ˈevrɪwʌn], the average melodiousness index of the /*was being ignored*/ component is 168 hs, the average intensity is 65 db, and the average sound duration is 102 m/sec.

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [dʒən ˈdɪslaɪkd bi:ɪŋ ɪɡˈnɔ:(r)d baɪ ˈevrɪwʌn]

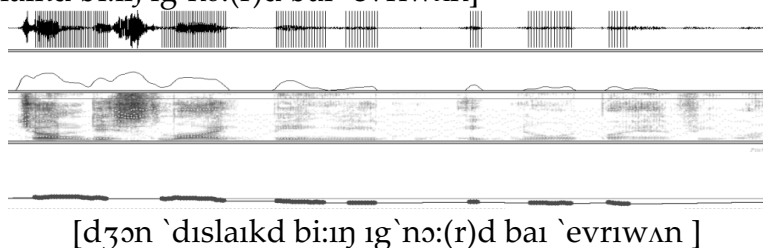
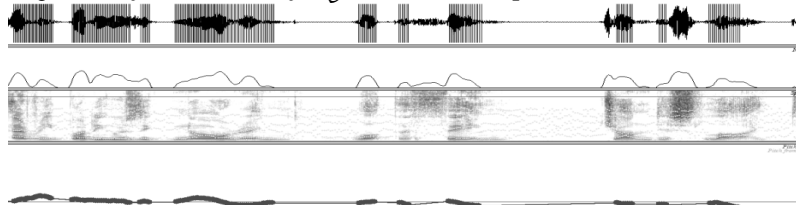


Figure 3.90

In the sentence /Everybody *was ignoring* what/the thing John disliked// [ˈevrəbɒdi wəz ɪɡˈnɔ:rɪŋ wət/ðə θɪŋ dʒən ˈdɪslaɪkd], in the /*was ignoring*/ component, the average tone frequency is 185 hs, the average intensity is 66 db, and the average sound duration is 90 m/s. In all three versions, the intonation of completeness, which is characteristic of the declarative sentences, has been realized (see: figure 3.89; 3.90; 3.91).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ʼevrəbədı wəz ıg`nə:rıŋ wət/ðə θıŋ dʒən `dıslaıkd]

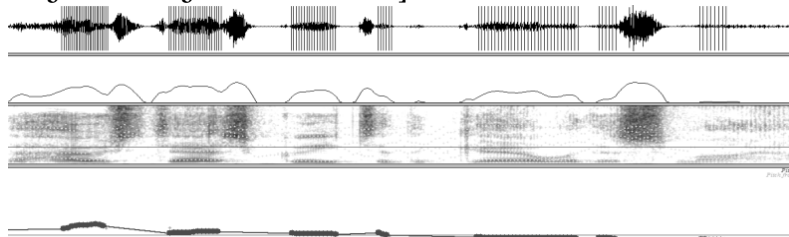


[ʼevrəbədı wəz ıg`nə:rıŋ wət/ðə θıŋ dʒən `dıslaıkd]

Figure 3.91

In the analyzed sentence /The hostess greeted the girl *with a smile*/ [ðə `houstıs `gri:tıd ðə gə:l wıð ə smail], despite the fact that the components are realized in different positions, there is no significant difference in the general intonation outline. All three sentences are pronounced with intonation of exhaustion (see: figure 3.92; 3.93; 3.94). At the end of the first sentence, the average tone frequency in the */with a smile/* component is 147 Hz, the average intensity is 57 dB, and the average sounding length is 103 m/sec.

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ðə `houstıs `gri:tıd ðə gə:l wıð ə smail]



[ðə `houstıs `gri:tıd ðə gə:l wıð ə smail]

Figure 3.92

In the sentence /The hostess greeted the *girl who smiled*// [ðə `houstɪs `gri:tɪd ðə ɡə:l hu: smaɪld], in the /*girl who smiled*/ component, the average tone frequency is 155 hs, the average intensity is 63 db, and the average sounding length is 127 m/sec.

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ðə `houstɪs `gri:tɪd ðə ɡə:l hu: smaɪld]

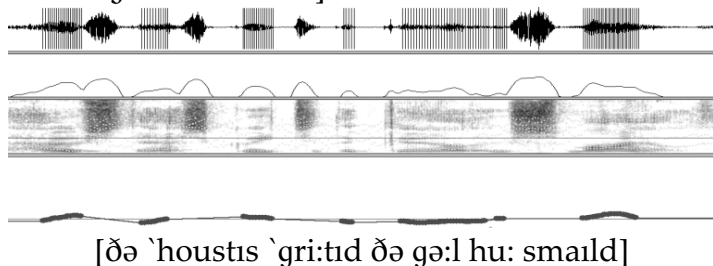


Figure 3.93

In the sentence /*With a smile* the hostess greeted the *girl*// [wɪð ə smaɪl ðə `houstɪs `gri:tɪd ðə ɡə:l], in the /*with a smile*/ component realized at the beginning, compared to the previous variants, different acoustic parameters were recorded: the average tone frequency is 188 hs, the average intensity is 66 db, the average sounding length is 114 m/sec (see: figure 3.94). Referring to the indicators of the acoustic parameters, it can be said that in all three variants, the intonation outline, which is characteristic of the declarative sentences, has been realized (see: figure 3.92; 3.93; 3.94).

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [wɪð ə smaɪl ðə `houstɪs `gri:tɪd ðə ɡə:l]

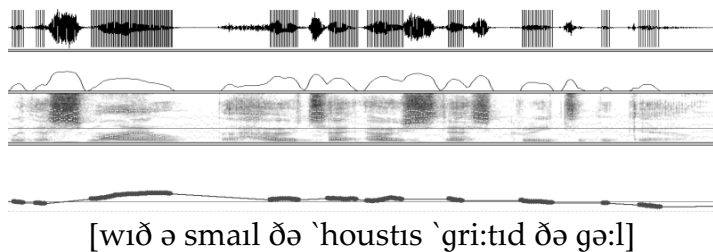


Figure 3.94

The same picture is observed in the sentence /She can give *more possible conclusions*// [ʃi: kən ˈɡɪv mɔ:(r) ˈpɒsəbl kənˈklu:ʒnz]. In the /*more possible conclusions*/ component at the end of the sentence, the average pronunciation tempo for the announcers is 163 hs, the intensity is 63 db, and the average syllable length is 92 m/sec.

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ʃi: kən ˈɡɪv mɔ:(r) ˈpɒsəbl kənˈklu:ʒnz]

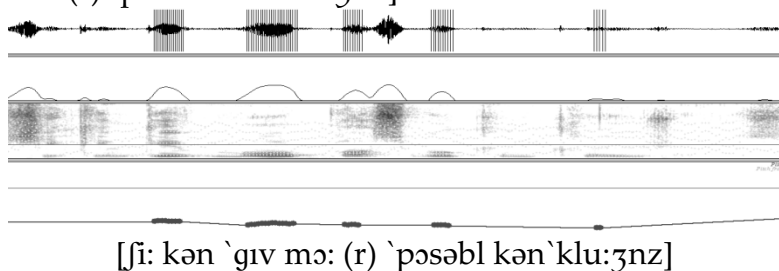


Figure 3.95

In the sentence /She can give *more conclusions which are possible*// Or more of the possible conclusions. [ʃi: kən ˈɡɪv mɔ:(r) kənˈklu:ʒnz wɪtʃ ˈa:(r) ˈpɒsəbl], in the /*more conclusions which are possible*/, the values of the acoustic parameters were realized in the following sequence: the average pronunciation tempo is 160 hs, the intensity of the voice is 61 db, and the average syllable length is 87 m/sec.

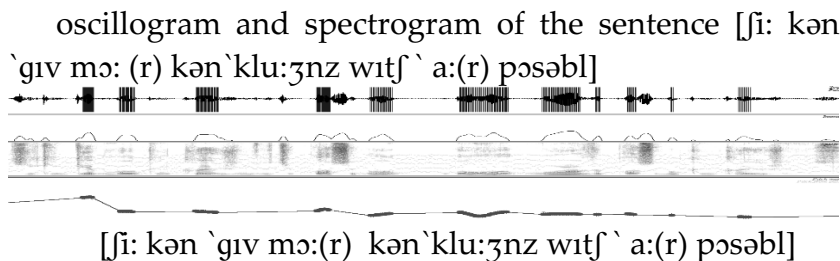


Figure 3.96

In the English sentence /She can give *conclusions which are more possible* [ʃi: kən ˈɡɪv kən ˈklu:ʒnz wɪtʃ ˈa:(r) mɑ:(r) pɒsəbl], the values of the acoustic parameters were realized in the following order: the average tone frequency is 172 hs, the average intensity is 68 db, and the average syllable length is 90 m/sec.

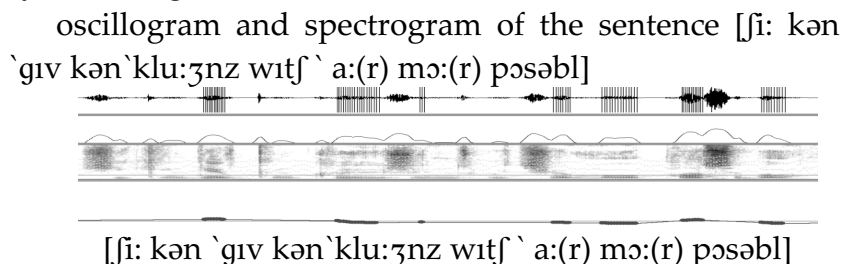
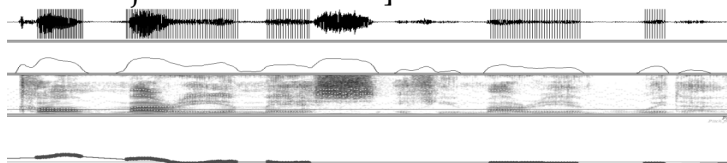


Figure 3.97

In the sentence /You *can't marry* a miss if you *marry* a widow// [ju: kɑ:nt ˈmæri ə mɪs ɪf ju: mæri ə ˈwɪdɒu], the components /*can't marry*/ və /*marry*/ have the following values: the average pronunciation tempo is 172 hs, the average intensity is 68 db, and the average syllable length is 87 m/sec, and the average pronunciation tempo is 142 hs, the intensity is 63 db, and the average syllable length is 91 m/sec.

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [ju: ka:nt
`mæri ə mɪs ɪf ju: mæri ə `wɪdou]

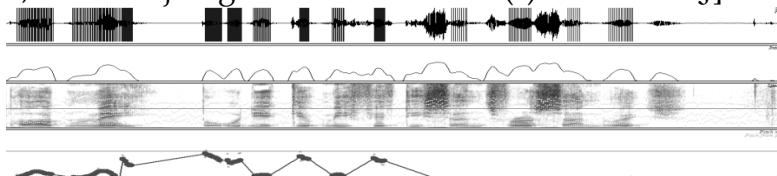


[ju: ka:nt `mæri ə mɪs ɪf ju: mæri ə `wɪdou]

Figure 3.98

In the sentence *ǃPardon me, but would you give me fifty cents for a sandwich?* [pa:dn mi:, bʌt wud ju: `gɪv mi: fɪftɪ sɛnts fɔ: (r) ə `sændwɪtʃ], in the component */for a sandwich/*, the indicators of acoustic parameters are as follows: the fundamental tone frequency is 168 hs, the average intensity is 68 db, and the average syllable length is 97 m/sec. The maximum tone is recorded at the end of the phrase: 198 hs in speaker I, 207 hs in speaker II. (see: figure 3.99). The oscillographic analysis shows that the melodic line in the interrogative sentences has an ascending direction within the syntagm.

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [pa:dn
mi:, bʌt wud ju: `gɪv mi: fɪftɪ sɛnts fɔ: (r) ə `sændwɪtʃ]

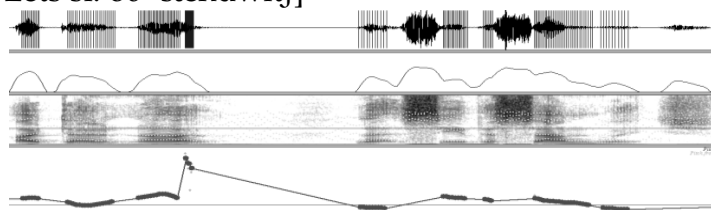


[pa:dn mi:, bʌt wud ju: `gɪv mi: fɪftɪ sɛnts fɔ: (r) ə
`sændwɪtʃ]

Figure 3.99

In the sentence /I don't know. Let's see *the sandwich*/ [a₁ dɔ:nt `kou. Lets si: ðə `sændwɪtʃ], in the component /*the sandwich*/, indicators of acoustic parameters are expressed in the following numbers. The fundamental tone frequency is 147 hs, the average intensity is 65 db, and the average syllable length is 86 m/sec.

oscillogram and spectrogram of the sentence [a₁ dɔ:nt `kou. Lets si: ðə `sændwɪtʃ]



[a₁ dɔ:nt `kou. Lets si: ðə `sændwɪtʃ]

Figure 3.100

Average acoustic indicators of the words (%)

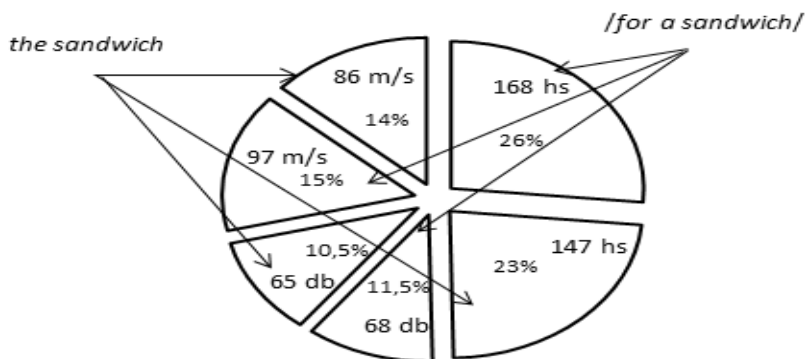


Figure 3.101

Based on the results of the experimental-phonetic analysis, it can be said that the lowering of the intensity and tone towards the end can be considered a relevant sign for terminal declarative sentences. Referring to the indicators of the acoustic parameters obtained from the oscillographic analysis of the language material, it can be said that the intonation contour is independent regardless of the syntactic structure of the sentence and its lexical content, and the exhaustion intonation of the transmitted sentences is realized in the last syllable of the terminal syntagm.

In linguistics, the perception of a text (written and oral forms of syntactic units), characterized by integrity and structure, is considered as a strategy for reworking information about the surrounding world and its verbalization, an understanding of the cultural phenomenon of the language. This is how the perception of syntactic units is interpreted in the research work. In the perception of syntactic units, the phonetic features of speech are of paramount importance. This includes the normativity of sentences (utterances), their length, intonation structure, pause (the pause performs a delimitative function within the utterance), etc.

Being syntagmatic constituent, which is a motor process, plays a special role in the perception of syntactic units. In the comprehension of the text, this or that situation, expressive tone, speaker's intention and other conditional process of being syntagmatic constituent play an

important role because the integration of the text is understood not in its sounding or creation, but in the process of its understanding, in the analytical review of the relations of separate parts that make up the whole. The intonation-rhythmic structure of syntactic units ensures its adequate perception by recipients. Phonetic signs create a fertile ground for understanding the text as a whole and its individual compositional components.

The following points should be taken into account in the comprehension of syntactic units:

- the role of prosodic means in the perception of syntactic units;
- transformation of syntactic units into syntagmatic constituents as an important condition for understanding their meaning;
- communicative organization of syntactic units and its focus on perception.

Conducting electroacoustic analysis of practical language material is promising in terms of revealing the objective acoustic parameters (melodicity, dynamics, temporality) involved in the realization of the communicative intention and perception of spoken speech. The results of the phonetic analysis show that the main means of realization of intonation and their perception in ossillographically studied utterances are melodiousness, tempo and loudness (intensity). The main prosodic means of realization of intonation in utterances and their perception by recipients is melodiousness. Acoustic analysis shows that the

maximum elevation of the loudness falls on the semantic centers of utterances, which means that in addition to the actualization of intonation in the analyzed utterances and the melodiousness parameter in the perception of utterances by recipients, the loudness of linguistic sounds also plays a special role.

From the analysis of the acoustic parameters of language material, it follows that intonation is necessary for the implementation of a specific communicative intention, for rationalizing the perception of speech. The syntagma is closely related to the volume of human operational memory and is the articulatory equation of the generation and perception of speech. An important role in the provision of the content of utterance by the subject of speech activity is played by the lexical-grammatical and intonation compilation. Of particular importance in the perception of the structural and semantics of syntactic units is the meaning-distinguishing function of phonetic-phonological means, as well as supersegment units because intonation is directly related to the structure of syntactic units, their transformation to syntagmatic constituents, including the content of utterance.

Acoustic indicators of pragmatic orientation of syntactic units are realized in syntagm. Compared to the boundaries of syntactic units (utterances), their acoustic properties, which determine the adequate author's intention, are realized in the inter-syntagm boundary. A break at the inter-syntagmatic boundary acts as a relevant sign:

– syntagmatic grouping of utterances plays an important role in understanding syntactic units;

– The exact identification of syntagmas within utterance is proportional to their grouping and perception in terms of meaning. In two-syllable utterances, the intersyntagmatic border with a pause and a positive frequency interval is more successfully perceived by the receivers in the quality of acoustic correlates. A break (pause), lengthening of the last syllable carrying syntagmatic emphasis in syntagms, and a positive frequency interval act as relevant markers in the grouping of the utterances in syntagms. The first two intersyntagmatic markers prove once again that the temporal character of speech is of special importance for the perceptual base.

In addition to the phonetic, lexical, and syntactic analysis of syntactic units, it is also important to examine them cognitively. In the last chapter of the dissertation, we will study syntactic units from a cognitive point of view.

CHAPTER IV

EXPRESSION OF PERFORMATIVITY AS A PSYCHOLINGUISTIC CONCEPT IN UTTERANCES

4.1. The history of the concept of performativity, performatives and constatives

N.Chomsky and his colleagues attributed psycholinguistics to cognitive psychology. However, in the 80s and 90s of the 20th century, psycholinguistics was recognized as an independent field of science. N.Chomsky was the first to put forward the idea that the process of speech creation has cognitive roots.

The cognitive approach to psycholinguistics is in what form a person receives information from the world around him, perceives it and how he organizes it in order to fulfill a particular decision. Undoubtedly, it is cognitive linguistics that studies theoretical knowledge about the perception, storage and the use of information related to language and its forms about the hidden mechanisms of communication and the general patterns of human intellectual activity.

In cognitive approach performativity plays a crucial role. Performativity, which is a logical-philosophical concept has begun to be processed in science since the 50s and 60s of the 20th century, as the unity of words and actions in linguistics. Although performativity has been studied in

various aspects in Russian and foreign linguistics, it has not been a special research object in Azerbaijani linguistics, only some aspects of this problem have been highlighted in a number of research works [10; 16; 20; 78].

The term performativity was introduced into linguistics by John Langshaw Austin, an English philosopher, linguist, who laid the foundation for the theory of the act of speech, who was considered the founder of the philosophical concept of language of the twentieth century. The classical version of the speech act theory was created by J.Austin and developed by his student J.R.Searle. We find the basics of that theory in J.Austin's 12 lectures. The text of the lectures was printed posthumously in the collection of articles "How To Do Things With Words" (1962). The theory of language, which is of philosophical and logical importance, has caused an international resonance [200].

The term "performative" is mentioned along with the term "competence" in N.Chomsky's dissertation "Basics of Language Theory" [74].

"Performative" means "to perform" in English. Performative, at the same time means as the noun "performance", "spectacle" [300].

The term "performativeness" was introduced to the text for the first time by the German philosopher J.Habermas [227].

In the encyclopedia of linguistics, performative utterances are characterized as follows: *"Performative utterance – is the name of utterances that indicate the completion of certa-*

in actions in the speech act theory. They are put against to utterances that describe or confirm something. Later, these two types of discourse were shown as locution and illocution aspects. At the same time, explicit and implicit performative utterances are distinguished in linguistics. For example, in the Azerbaijani language, we say the implicit sentence /You are wrong// in an explicit form like this: /I convince (aprove), that you are wrong//. Lexical illocation indicators such as “thereby, thus” etc. are used in explicit utterance” [14, p.91].

The terms “performative” and “performativeness” are universal terms, distinguished by their social interactivity. The term is used in a number of humanities, such as linguistics, philosophy, sociology, cultural studies, anthropology, and art.

R.Kamal, who studies performativity as a speech phenomenon in the epic plot analysis, writes: “*Performativity is an integral part of contemporary ethnocultural discourse, especially ritual theory. “Performance” is a broad term and is related to the performance of speech acts under certain conditions, the staging and performance of theatrical-ritual acts*” [50, p.8].

“There is still no consensus on the number of performative (illocutionary) verbs in modern scientific literature. J.Austin 188, J.Versuren 175, J.Searle and D.Vanderveken 107 claim the existence of such verbs. The main function of performative verbs is the “interpretation” of the speech act” [188, p.104].

If we try to explain the essence of the term speech act, “act” is of Latin origin and means “movement”. Speech directs action through language. J.Austin developed the the-

ory of the speech act to interpret the meaning of the sentence. The speech act, which has an exceptional role in the formation of linguistic pragmatics, reflects the psychological aspects of the communication process.

During the last 400 years in the process of historical development, there have been significant changes in the qualitative structure of performative verbs. Thus, some performative verbs have left the scope of functionality, some have changed their meaning, and group III verbs have later started to express performativity [188, p.106].

Historically, many performatives have moved from one group to another. For example, representatives have become directives or commissives. In the 16th century, performative verbs such as *beseech*, *charge*, *confess*, *pray*, *say*, *speak*, *swear*, *talk*, *tell*, *thank*, *protest* were more used. These verbs are used both in the 1st person singular and in the plural, in the future tense, in the passive voice (I shall be sworn), in the “subjunctive” form of the verb, with modal verbs, and with the verb “do”.

Argue, *catechize*, *contradict*, *introduce*, *object*, *order*, *refuse*, etc., which were not performative verbs before, began to express performativity. Historically a non-performative verb, “advise” began to express performativity in the 16th – 17th centuries during the Middle English period, and again began to lose this feature in the 18th – 20th centuries.

Undoubtedly, there have been changes in the semantics of verbs. For example, If in the 16th century “protest”

meant “to convince”, “to make a statement”, in the 18th century the meaning of “denying”, “protesting” was added to this meaning. Also, “warrant” began to mean “request, deny” in the 16th century, “confirm, guarantee” in the 18th century.

Further changes in performative verbs showed themselves at the grammatical level. In the 17th century, they (performatives) were used in the continuous tense as part of their imperative forms. For example, /Let me tell you//. /I am expressing my wish// etc. In the 18th-20th centuries, performative verbs are also used as addresses: / How was it, pray//?

A comparison of performative verbs in the discourse of the 20th century and the discourse of the 16th century shows that they are used almost 10 times less in the 20th century. In modern English, the act of speaking is more implicit. Verbs such as *pray*, *say*, *tell* are not performative verbs in the 18th – 20th centuries, but as markers showing illocutionary force in utterance [188, p.108].

The relationship between the addresser and the addressee in the act of speaking is called performativity. Being a semantic-pragmatic category, performativity is a form of speech act that presents speech activity with special verbs in a specific context.

For example, /He is right//. – /I (hereby) state that he is right //.

I – addresser, he – addressee, and hereby, state are indicators that show performativity.

The basis of J.Austin's philosophy is that language units not only provide information about the surrounding world, but at the same time they (language units) directly affect reality [200].

J.Austin's main goal was the study of sentences that are true or not philosophically and linguistically. He also spoke about performatives in this work for the first time. For the first time, the author calls declarative sentences performative sentences, attributing them to those types of sentences that have a specific weight in the act of speech.

Performativity also models certain communicative events, situations, communication relationships of society and the individual with the outside world. "Performance" becomes the main form of societal memory and the main channel of transmission of ethnic social experience [50, p.11].

J.Austin considered performatives as a special type of verbs in the speech act and divided utterances into two parts: performative and constative. Using performative verbs, a person does not say something, he executes something. He notes that the performative, unlike the constative, is not real and false, it is successful or unsuccessful, and it does not describe the action, but informs about it.

For ex. /I hereby resign from the post of a president //. (1)

/I hereby come home at 7 everyday //. (2)

The use of the adverb "hereby" in sentences expressing performativity does not indicate that all sentences express performativity. The verb in the first sentence expresses

performativity because it is performed in a special situation, but performance is not reflected in the second sentence.

The sentence /I name this ship the Queen Elizabeth – as uttered when smashing the bottle against the stem// [200, p.5] does not describe, it gives information, indicates the performed action. The use of “hereby” word means that the utterance expresses performativeness.

Performatives cannot be completely distinguished from constatives. Performatives more often report successful or unsuccessful executed actions, while constants report true and false actions. The same sentence can be used both as a performative and as a constative.

For example: The sentence /I shall be there // denotes direct (primary) performativity or the sentence /I bow deeply before you // expresses explicitness. So, in this sentence it is impossible to understand why I bow before you (as a sign of respect or intimidation). In fact, “bowing” is a ceremonial act and includes verbal elements such as “removing the hat”, “putting the hand to the heart”, “saying something in the heart”, “shaking the head” [296, p.67].

The basis of the speech act is the illocutionary purpose, and the illocutionary purpose mainly manifests itself in the context. Illocutionary force includes seven components: 1) illocutionary goal, 2) method of achieving illocutionary goal, 3) intensity of illocutionary goal, 4) propositional condition of speech act content, 5) speech act conditions, 6) sincerity conditions, 7) intensity of sincerity conditions. [125, p.97].

Performative is called such words and phrases, utterances that in these utterances the action and the execution of the action take place over the same period of time. In other words, performative should be understood as “word – is work, activity.” According to J.Austin, “to say is to do something”. The information in the sentences focused on by J.Austin is not ordinary information, this information is the main information carrier. Such sentences are sentences equivalent to action, activity [200, p.19].

J.Austin showed the following features of the utterances in which performative verbs used in the first person singular, in the present tense, in the active voice, are used in the form of predicate:

- 1) such statements must have an assertive (in confirmation) grammatical form;
- 2) affirmative sentences should not contain can, must modal verbs;
- 3) the content of these utterance and expressions should express a single meaning, in other words, there should be no diversity of opinions or contradictions in the content;
- 4) they describe nothing, inform nothing, and therefore they express neither truth nor untruth;
- 5) they denote the occurrence, implementation, execution of any action [200, p.5, p.11, p.57].

In his article, J.Austin noted the impossibility of using negation pronouns and habit of denial performative utterances. It is true that he could not explain the reason for

this. It is no coincidence that this idea of his was criticized by a number of linguists.

“One of the most important services of N.Chomsky is that he changed the direction of linguistic theory from performance to competence. According to him, linguistic theory should reflect the language competence of the speaker. The Bloomfield school, in general, pre-Chomsky linguistics, based its research on performance. N.Chomsky’s presentation of the concepts of competence and performance already meant that he departed from the Bloomfield school, as well as from a purely empirical position, and approached rationalism” [74, p.65].

Thus, when N.Chomsky said “competence”, he meant “language knowledge of the speaker or listener, and when he talked about “performance”, he meant the use of language in specific situations.

K.Bach and R.Harris divided the communicative illocutionary act into constatives, directives, commissives, acknowledgments, and divided them into subgroups. Thus, they included subgroups such as assertives, predicates, retractives, descriptives, ascriptives, informatives, confirmatives, concessives, retractives, assentives, dissentives, disputatives, responsiveness, successive, and suppositives to *constatives*, requisitives, questions, requirements, prohibitives, permissives, advisors, promises to commissioners, offers to *directives*, apology, condemnation, congratulations, greetings, thanks, thanksgiving, rejection, acceptance to *acknowledgments* [237, p.41].

According to K.Bach and R.M.Harris, constatives express the belief and desire of the speaker in the truth of the information he will convey to the listener. Directives express the attitude of the speaker to the action performed by the listener. Commissives express the desire and wish of the speaker and the realization of the action under certain conditions according to this desire. Acknowledgments express thanks to the listener.

They divide *constatives* into the following subgroups:

1) *assertives*: affirm, allege, assert, aver, avow, claim, declare, deny, indicate, maintain, propound, say, state, submit. For example: //I **said** we might take him back with us and give him a spot of lunch// [257, p.67].

2) *predictives*: forecast, predict, prophesy. For example: //I **forecast** he'll be a blasted little hero in his office// [257, p.16].

3) *retrodictives*: recount, report. For example: //I **recount** that I have found little bits of business had crept in that I hadn't given them and a good many liberties// [257, p.17].

4) *descriptives*: appraise, assess, call, characterize, classify, describe, diagnose, evaluate, identify, portray, rank. For example: //I don't **portray** that if the play's wrong you're dished, I do contend that if the play 's right, it's the actors the public go to see,not the play// [257, p.17].

5) *ascriptives*: ascribe, predicate, attribute. For example: //I **predicate** that you must not tell a lie or anything like that, but I think it would seem rather funny to him if he knew your father was a vet// [257, p. 43].

6) *informatives*: advise, inform, insist, announce, apprise, disclose, reveal, tell, testify, notify, point out, report. For example: /They want to play a couple of rounds and they ask id they need come back to lunch. I **tell** them that was quite all right// [257, p.132].

7) *affirmatives*: appraise , certify, conclude, assess, conclude, confirm, diagnose, find, corroborate, judge, substantiate, testify, validate, verify, vouch for. For example: /I particularly **confirm** the idea of Tom's treating the house as it was a hotel// [257, p. 132].

8) *consessives*: acknowledge, admit, agree, allow, assent, concede, concur, confess, grant, own. For example: / “I **agree**, mum, there is a whole crowd going on to Maidenhead to dine and dance, and they want Tom and me to go too. You don't mind, do you?”// [257, p.140].

9) *retractives*: abjure, correct, deny, disavow, disown, recount, repudiate, take back, withdraw. For example: /I **deny** these presents. I ought never to have let you make me those presents// [257, p.144].

10) *assentives*: accept, agree, assent, concur. For example: /I **accepted** that it gave him a curious look// [257, p.104].

11) *dissentives*: differ, disagree, reject. For example: /I **disagreed** the idea of your being in madly love with her// [257, p. 190].

12) *disputatives*: demur, dispute, object, protest, question. For example: /I really **object** you had better come and stop with me fora little time // [226, p.59].

13) *responsives*: answer, reply, respond. For example: /My heart quite fails me when I *answer* how I might have lost that beautiful luncheon-basket // [226, p. 59].

14) *suggestives*: conjecture, guess, hypothesize, suggest, speculate. For example: /I *guess* it's better to be a fool and know it than a fool and not know it // [226, p.175].

15) *suppositives*: assume, postulate, stipulate, suppose, theorize [237, p.42]. For example: /When I *assumed* I saw you were in a rage it was too late to get out of it // [225, p.147].

J.Austin shows two signs of performative utterances:

1) they do not “describe” anything and do not “report” anything. They express neither truth nor fallacy;

2) performatives denote a performed action [200, p.5].

The processing of performatives in utterances serves purely communicative purposes, and communicative goals also carry out various acts. For example, asking, making a deal with someone, persuading someone to do something, etc. It is through performative verbs that we describe reality and at the same time bring it to life.

“There is no linguistic tool that distinguishes the performative from the constative, a failure in communication is possible both in the affirmative (constative) and in the performative (neither true nor false). Constative affirmation is the realization of a speech act. Sometimes it is difficult put a boundary between them For example, sentences such as / I warn you that..., I certify that...// differ little or not at all” [71, p.291].

Because performativity does not have a leading role in the speech act, their frequent use in speech is not welcomed at all. *“According to the level of implicit understanding, the knowledge and thinking of the listener emerges. That is, implicit meaning is a unique, individual matter of each person as an internal process, based on the subject’s knowledge, worldview, desire, background knowledge and the situation in which the expression is appropriate. In this process, interpretation is always purposeful. Implicit form is as much a reality as explicit form”* [20, p.75].

J.Lyons notes that *“Constative speech is the meaning that creates a sentence with certainty. Performative utterances, on the contrary, are considered the product of the writer or speaker, where action is expressed rather than speaking”* [52, p.252].

From what has been said, it follows that the distinction between constative and performative is not universal, as the same sentence can be used both as performative and constative. According to J.Austin, performatives should be determined not by right or wrong, but by success or failure. It is these characteristics that distinguish performatives from constatives. For example, if the sentence /I’m sorry // expresses the truth, that is, if I really apologize in the speech act, it is constative, if “I’m sorry” expresses the speech act, it is performative.

Performatives must meet the following parameters: in order for the verb to express performativity, it must be in the I Person Singular, in the affirmative, in the Present Simple Tense, in the indicative mood of the verb, in the active voice. At the same time, the completeness of such sen-

tences should belong to the second person. A performative verb must state the reason for the utterance and must have an element of affirmation in that utterance. It is the real fact that makes the statement true, that is, it makes it performative.

“The performativeness of the utterance is not measured only by the presence of the performative verb. The role of other means in creating performativity in utterance is also undeniable. Thus, accent, intonation, gestures, facial expressions also play an important role in the creation of performativity. Performativity manifests itself mainly within the situation” [29, p.39].

However, observations show that the first person singular is not the basis for performative verbs. In performative statements, the first person plural form can also be used, and this is mainly manifested in prayers.

For example, /We worship the God //.

In performative utterances, it is also possible to use the performative verb in the passive form. In performative speech, *mubta* can be used not only in the first person, but also in the third person plural, in the future tense, and even in the subjunctive mood of the verb.

For example, /The passengers are warned to get off the ship //.

J.Austin does not exclude the performatives used in the second and third person singular and plural in the passive voice.

For example: /You are hereby authorised to pay// [202, p.57].

According to I.M.Kobozeva, J.Austin cannot give an exact description of the illocutionary act. In his work, he uses the illocutionary act – question, answer, information, trust, criticism, assignment, etc. also refers to some issues such as [121].

It should be noted that the difference between the illocutionary act and the locative act is its purposefulness.

J.Searle opposes the development of the concept of “locative”, instead he considers it appropriate to use the terms “referential act”, “predication” or “propositional content of the utterance”.

Research shows that performative verbs can be used in the following cases:

1) 1st person singular in the future tense, in the active voice, in the indicative mood of the verb.

For example: / Please present your tickets // .

2) in the 3rd person present tense, in the active voice, in the indicative mood of the verb and indefinite personal sentences.

For example: / Passengers are requested to disembark //

3) 2nd and 3rd person in the present tense, in the passive voice, in the indicative mood of the verb.

For example: / Passengers are invited //.

4) in the 3rd person singular present tense, in the active voice, in the indicative mood of the verb.

For example: / Please review this solution for important issues in a timely manner//.

5) In the subjunctive form of the verb.

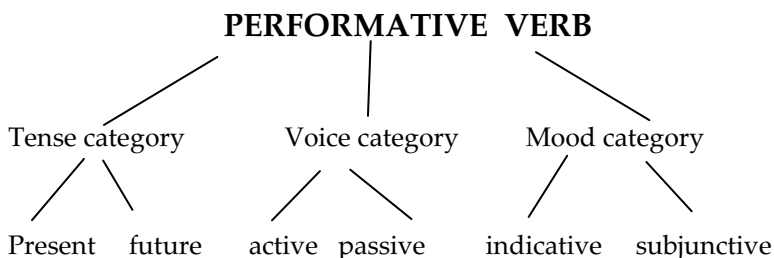
With verbs like “to request”, “to give advice”.

For example: / I request like you to come on time//.

6) With infinitives containing “polite” performative utterances.

For example: / Give permission /I want to warn you //.

Thus, we can summarize the characteristics of performative verbs as follows:



“Strong” and “weak” performatives are distinguished in linguistics. Performatives used in social, legal, and everyday life are called “strong” performatives (for example, to deny), and the form that reveals the essence of the information given by the speaker and describes it is called “weak” performative. Weak performatives are not used in isolation, they require sentence expansion and are usually accompanied by modal verbs. In other words, using a performative verb with a modal verb “softens” or “weakens” the meaning of the performative utterance [80, p.36].

Performative utterances are divided into two parts: “hard” and “non-hard”. *“Hard” performatives fail to reveal*

personalization in contrast to “non-rigid” performatives” [80, p.37].

Performatives are divided into two parts, standard and non-standard. Standard performatives are forms that have a grammatical form, in other words, such performatives are used in the first person singular, in the present simple tense, in the indicative mood of the verb, in the unfinished form. Non-standard performatives do not correspond to the grammatical form. This group includes the forms used in the image category of the verb or in the imperative form of the verb [80, p.37].

In linguistics, “undisputed” and “doubtful” performatives are also distinguished. The processing of uncontroversial performatives in language is natural and considered semantically neutral. Doubtful performatives require special situational conditions and are rarely used in the language [157].

“In language, mental and social performatives are used more than other performatives. Mental performatives indicate a mental state, and we can show them verbs such as обратимся (к), проанализируем, проследим, предполагается, представим. Utterances expressing performativity, such as обещаю, отказываюсь, благодарю, ухожу в отставку can be called social performatives because they exhibit purposeful behavior. Reminder and hypothetical utterances such as напомним что, допустим что, прийми к выводу can be considered as mental performatives” [151, p.24].

Unlike mental performatives, social performatives manifest their relevance in the act of speaking.

Other forms of performatives are also distinguished: ritual, collaborative, group, metalinguistic performatives [197, p.697-700].

Ritual performatives are a particularly important form of utterance. Ritual performatives are highly cultural expressions. Rituals are used in special utterance, in a special situation, in sayings spoken by special people. According to J. Austin, rituals are very similar to felicity conditions [197, p.697].

For ex. (1) /I **name** you Tom//.

(2) /I **baptise** you//.

Each of these utterances is successful and appropriate when they are said by specific people in specific situations. The sentence /I name you Tom// is considered successful when Tom is named in the presence of the parents, or the sentence /I baptise you// is considered successful when the process of the crucifixion was performed by the priest in the presence of the parents in the church. Otherwise, these sentences cannot be considered successful.

Collaborative performative should be performed successfully. The action performed should be a response reaction of the other person. Group performatives involve the participation of more than one person. For example, a report from a summit conference, a report by a committee, a decision made by a jury, etc. [197, p.699].

Noting that “metalinguistic performatives” are few in English, J.Thomas includes the following performatives in this group: I say, I protest, I object, I apologize, I deny, I promise, I withdraw, I declare, I plead, I vote, I thank [282, p.33].

It was mentioned above that there are a number of indicators for the performative verb to express performativity in the sentence. (Example., it must be in the I person singular, in the affirmative, in the Present Simple Tense, in the predicative mood of the verb, in the active voice.). At the same time, the completeness of such sentences should belong to the second person. One of the main indicators is the use of the word “hereby”. The use of the word “hereby” in the sentence is ambiguous by linguists.

In the book “Pragmatics and the English language” written by J.Culpeper and M.Haugh, the 25 most used words with “hereby” out of the 2 billion words in the Oxford dictionary were presented. They are as follows: declare, agree, give, grant, order, find, sentence, acknowledge consent, authorize, certify, undertake, invite, confirm, present, dismiss, call, announce, proclaim, request, appoint, offer, release, pledge [217, p.157].

S.Stephen opposes the use of the word “hereby” accepted by J. Austin and notes that it is not specific to oral speech, and is rarely used in written language. At the same time, he suggests a special emphasis on the pronoun “You” in distinguishing performatives in utterance [277].

J. Levinson does not exclude the use of the adverb “hereby” as well as the adverbs “frankly”, “in brief”, “briefly”, “confidentially” in performative utterances. [251, p.256].

The adverbs “frankly”, “oddly”, “sadly”, “surprisingly”, “inexplicably” used in the language are evaluative adverbs and give information about the speaker's attitude to the proposition.

When studying the theory of the act of speech, the main attention should be paid to the context with the act of speech. In the theory of the act of speech, it is not the grammatical skill of the speaker that is taken as a basis, but his expression of various communicative acts in certain situations.

Explicit performatives are also used in declarative sentences. Performatives are divided into three groups: basic, explicit and implicit. Basic performatives are used more often in declarative, interrogative and imperative sentences.

For example, /He will be back //. (1)

/Are you a doctor //? (2)

/Read this article //. (3)

The first and second sentences express the truth, but for the third sentence this opinion cannot be said. In this type of sentence J. Austin's words, it is necessary to use special words to emphasize the action being performed.

For example, /I order you to read this article //.

/I suggest that you read this article //.

/I request that you read this article //.

The verbs *order*, *suggest*, *request* used to execute an action in these sentences are performative verbs. True performatives, on the other hand (used in sentences 1, 2, 3) Express implicitness. According to J.Austin, explicitness is more evident in declarative and question sentences.

For example: /I *claim* that he'll be back //.

/I *inform* you that I'll be back //.

/I *ask/inquire* you whether you are a doctor //.

/I *request* that you tell me whether you are a doctor //.

The speech act studied by J. Austin is based on the interpretation of performative verbs. The performative verbs used in the act of speaking vary from language to language. Performative verbs refer to the illocutionary act. The illocutionary act is the realization of verbal expressions in communication. According to J.Austin, explicit performatives perform an illocutionary act because they do not express falsehood [200, p.53].

The explicit performative formula consists of two parts – “modus” and “dictum”. The basis of “modus” is the I-Person singular, indicative, performative verb used in the present tense. / Please sit down // The basis of “dictum” is either an infinitive, a subordinate sentence / I demand that you smile //, or a noun (mainly a verb) / I'm sorry // [118, p.178].

In order to show the characteristic features of performatives, it is necessary to study in detail the mood category of verbs and the modality they express. All the sen-

tences formed during the speech act express their own modality and are processed in one of the existing images.

The performativeness of utterance is not measured only by the presence of a performative verb. The role of other means in the creation of performativity in utterance is also important: accent, intonation, gestures, mimicry. Performativity manifests itself mainly within the situation.

For example, / I **order** you to sign this document

In both languages, it is possible to say this sentence with gestures or facial expressions.

The processing of performatives in both English and Azerbaijani language is characteristic mainly for the conversational style, for the official-business style, and rarely for the journalistic and artistic style.

For example, / I **agree with you** //. / I declare the meeting closed //.

/I **declare** the meeting open//. /I **thank** you//. /I **welcome** you //.

Pragmatic types of sentences also have their own place in the act of speech. Communicative-intentional content is essential for each sentence. Without it, a syntactic unit sentence does not exist.

When talking about the pragmatic types of sentences, first of all, it is necessary to talk about constatives. *"The communicative-intentional content of the constative is the processing of the utterance in the affirmative. Interrogative or imperative sentences are not allowed for the constative"* [118, p.272].

Another pragmatic type of sentence in the act of speech is promissive and menative. In other words, a promissive sentence is called a promise, and a menative sentence is called a threat. Like constatives, promissives are always declarative sentences. In promissives, the time concept refers to the future, and therefore the verb in these sentences is always used in the future tense.

"In promises, the author of the utterance acts as a real guarantor of the given word. In promissive sentences, the addressee is interested in the realization of the conversation going on in the sentence" [118, p. 273].

In promissive sentences, the subject is "agent", and the predicate of the sentence indicates an action of active voice. For example, /I'll go/ do/ read//, etc. Even if the predicate of the sentence indicates a situation, that sentence cannot be considered promissive.

For example, /I'll be tired of //, etc.

"The fact that the subject of the sentence is in the first person singular is not the only condition for a promissive sentence. Depending on the relevance of the event in question to reality, a sentence in the second person can be considered promissive. Otherwise, that sentence is considered constative" [118, p. 274].

Depending on the communicative-intensional content, sentences of a menative type denote a threat.

For example, /If she wanted to keeps things from him – she must; he could not spy on her [224, p.87]

In both menatives and permissions, the realization of the action manifests itself differently. If in the promises

the addressee was interested in the realization of the action, then in the menatives this circumstance does not manifest itself. In menatives, the author does not act as a guarantor of the action that may occur in the future, in such sentences, the author can only threaten.

Performatives also belong to the pragmatic type of the sentence and occupy a special place in the speech act. The main feature of performatives is that they do not inform about something, they perform what they inform. In performatives, the relationship between the addresser and the addressee is manifested.

For example, /I pronounce you man and wife//. (the example was taken from J.Austin).

Certain conditions are necessary for the realization of performative sentences. In performatives, the "sincerity" of the speaker is key. Example: /I swear //. /I beg // etc. These verbs are considered performative when they are sincerely acknowledged by the speaker.

Directives are another pragmatic type of sentence that directly prompt the addressee to perform some action.

For example: /Go out //. /Don't go //. /"Have you done anything to stop Jon writing to me, Father?"// [224, p.226].

"Directives show themselves in the form of injunctive sentences and requisitive sentences. They are very close to each other because they provoke the addressee to perform the action. The difference between them is in their prosodic features. In requisitives, the lexical indicator is the word "please" with an illocutionary index. /Don't go there, please. "Let's go, would /could

you kindly +infinitive"/ type constructions are considered as lexical indicators in requisitives" [116, p.277].

Quesitives also belong to the pragmatic type of the sentence and are a question sentence in the traditional sense – in other words, they are interrogatives.

4.2. Performative verbs in languages with different systems, their classification and expression in utterances

Performative verbs and their expression in utterance, which have been studied in Azerbaijani linguistics for the last few years, indicate that this problem needs to be thoroughly studied. In our research, we have set ourselves the goal of analyzing the opinions of many linguists about this problem, the analysis of various pragmatic classifications proposed by them, and expressing our own opinions about this problem as appropriate. Our conclusion is that the realization of performative verbs in the utterances of languages with different systems has its own characteristics, and these characteristics indicate the universality of performativity.

The peculiarity of utterances expressed by performative verbs is that such utterances do not describe action, they are a fact of language that expresses reality, which is realized at the moment of speech. It follows that such utterances do not provide information about facts unrelated to reality, since they themselves are the creators of informati-

on. The essence of performative utterance is a thought that has been confirmed in utterance.

Interest in the category of performativity began in the 50s and 60s of the 20th century, and numerous studies were conducted in this field in both European and Russian linguistics. For the first time in Azerbaijani linguistics, performative verbs and their expressions in utterances are analyzed in this dissertation.

Performative verbs play an important role in the communication process. In English linguistics, performativity was studied and analyzed in the works of J.Austin [200], J.Searle [156], K.Bach, R.Harnish [237] and other linguists, and in Russian linguistics Y.D.Apresyan [83] and other linguists.

The performative verb used in the speech should be mainly in the first person singular, in the present simple tense, in the indicative mood of the verb, in the active voice. However, impersonal performative forms also exist in linguistics.

For example, /No smoking //. /Burada çəkmirlər //. /Здесь не курят //.

In performative speech, as a rule, the speaker expresses not the description of the action, but its execution.

In explicit performatives, self-reflexive expressiveness (that is, "I") manifests itself. A performative sentence is primarily a syntactic unit. Regarding the analysis of the pragmatic types of the sentence, we must say that various speech acts are performed in communication: For exam-

le, commands and requests, threats and promises, apologies, etc. According to J.Austin, more than 1000 verbs in English perform various speech acts. For example, *to accuse, to bless, to boast, to report, to welcome* etc.

Sentence comprehension is a process realized in a complex speech act. Let's look at a simple sentence. Let's look at a simple sentence. For example, /I'll come//. At first glance, the sentence expresses an action that will be performed in the future. On the other hand, the sentence can be used for various purposes, such as "promise", "threat", "warn". Understanding the sentence in different forms depends on its illocutionary force. The locative power of the sentence depends on its cognitive content.

"Simple adjectives are also used in the Russian language to express performativity". For example, /Виноват – /прошу прощения/, согласен – /одобряю его/ etc. The verb "хочу" is of special importance in expressing performativity.

For example, /Я хочу поблагодарить вас//! /Я хочу извиниться перед вами //.

Such utterances do not express the wish for the action to be performed, but the execution of the action with the deictic coordinates "now" and "here" [80, s.37].

A.N.Azadova notes that *"not only the first person singular, but also the third person plural form can be used for Russian performative verbs. For example, /Черезвычайный и Полномочный Посол СССР и И.П.Иванова благодарят за приглашение // A performative verb can also be quantitatively plural. At the same time, the performative verb can be used in*

the future tense, in the passive voice, and in the mood category of the verb. For example, Я посоветовал бы вам остаться" [80, p.37].

This type of sentences also exist in Azerbaijani language. The conducted studies show that the fact that the performative verbs in performative utterances are in the first person singular, in the present tense, in the indicative form of the verb, in confirmation, in the active voice does not fully justify itself. Because language facts prove that performative verbs can be used in Azerbaijani, Russian, and English languages in the first, second, and third person singular and plural, in the active and passive forms, in the present and future tenses, and in the indicative and subjunctive form of the verb.

We think that the fact that J.Austin does not exclude the use of performative verbs in the second and third person singular and plural, in the passive form [80, p.37], shows his careful approach to this problem.

E.Y.Alvarez refers to the following examples, calling performative verbs used in the past tense and passive form not true performative verbs, but "potential performative verbs":

He notes that in the sentences /I promised John that I would buy him...// or /Passengers are requested to remain seated//, if /promised/ were used in the present tense like /promise/ and /are requested/ in the active voice /request/, they could be called performative verbs [197, p.700].

Let's look at a number of features that indicate the sign of performative verbs in Russian linguistics. In their classification, the performatives available in English and Russian are reflected [83, p.208, p.233]. We also tried to illuminate the equivalents of those performative verbs in Azerbaijani language and put forward our proposal.

1. *Performative verbs expressing special appeal and affirmation* (this division corresponds to J.Austin's expository) – declare, state, claim, aver, profess, notify, remind, announce, proclaim, acknowledge, affirm, testify, certify, deny, etc. For example: /“I **affirm** that they will have bread”, Guiliano said. He turned to Silvestro. “Kill him”, he said// [265, p.178];

2. *Confessive performative verbs* – repent, confess. For example: /I tried but couldn't come up with anything. “I don't know”, I **confessed**// [276, p.60];

3. *Performative verbs related to making promises* – (this distribution corresponds to the commissives) – guarantee, warrant, swear (by), promise, certify, quit, etc. For example: /But when I left them I **promised** that I'd come back today to help straighten things up. They protested, but I insisted// [250, p.111];

4. *Performative verbs that express a request* – adjure, implore, pray, ask, beg, appeal, etc. For example: /Yet I **ask** the question with the same winsomeness as he did thirty years ago// [250, p.147]. //At the same time, I **prayed** that she would be more understanding than I had once been// [276, p.50];

5. *Performative verbs giving suggestions and advice (exercitives)* – invite, have out, invoke, call, recommend, advise, rede, propose, suggest, etc. For example: /“I **suggest** we can find something to do. Besides, I should warn you, I am not much of a dancer”// [276, p.44];

6. *Performative verbs that express warning* – advise, warn, prophesy, forewarn, predict, etc. For example: /I couldn’t **predict** as if they should forgive and forget, no matter how much I wished it hadn’t happened// [276, p.55];

7. *Performative verbs expressing order and requests* – order, insist, entrust, tell, charge, demand, suggest, impose, etc. For example, /“I **tell** you that it is all the fault of the government, and if you don’t believe me I shall eat you”// [293, p.179];

8. *Performative verbs expressing prohibition and permission* – forbid, allow, veto, sanction, etc. For example: /I sighed and **allowed** him to ride all day, when I got back// [276, p.19];

9. *Performative verbs expressing agreement and disagreement* – admit, accept, acknowledge, except, disagree, object, protest, refuse, etc. For example: /I **admit** he is amiable, you couldn’t find a nicere chap// [250, p.54];

10. *Affirmative performative verbs* – bless, approve, endorse, praise, affirm, ratify, recommend, etc. For example: /I think I **praised** him in my letters. Anyway, get this—he thinks he’s in love// [250, p.10];

11. *Performative verbs expressing judgment* – condemn, curse, charge, sentence, etc. For example: /I **condemned**

myself that she was turning pink and that having a sunburn of any sort would make her work the next day miserable// [276, p.26];

12. *Performative verbs expressing apology* – absolve (of); forgive, etc. For example: /I **forgive**, knowing there are other, probably more accurate words to describe me back then, all of which are profane enough to offend her// [276, p.27];

13. *Speech rituals (behaviors or acts of social behavior)* – thank, congratulate, condole, greet, etc. For example: /He stopped in front of the house, where I could see the light from my dad's den, glowing yellow. I **thanked** him for the ride// [276, p.20];

14. *Performative verbs that indicate the cancellation, refusal of social acts* – challenge, demur, reject, recant, dispense, excuse, release, relieve, renounce, dedicate, authorize, empower, etc. For example: /“We work during the week, but weekends and evenings are usually clear”. “I’ll keep that in mind”, I said and **excused**// [276, p.22];

15. *Performative verbs denoting appointment, naming* – appoint, name, give name, proclaim, declare, announce, dub. For example: /“I haven’t been to church in years, I mean, I used to go as a kid, but...”, I **declared** // [276, p.23; 83, p.233].

We consider it appropriate to combine the fifteen types of performative verbs into thirteen types (I and X, II and III), taking into account that the divisions are essentially the same.

The meaning of the performative verb is closely related to performative utterances, which on the one hand define the speech act, and on the other hand, perform the illocutionary act. Therefore, performative verbs are called illocutionary verbs. However, performative verbs are not the same as illocutionary verbs. It follows that not every speech verb is performative, and every illocutionary verb is not performative.

If we approach performativity from a pragmatic point of view, we can see that in the deep layer of every utterance there is a performative verb, and the utterance consists of two parts: a performative part (which contains a performative verb) and a propositional part. *"Part I is also called 'prefix' and it can be omitted in the sentence"* [102].

Whether an utterance expresses performativeness depends not only on the presence of performative verbs in the speech, but also on other factors.

Verbs expressing performativity and explicit performative sentences, in turn, can express both performativity and non-performativity. Therefore, all verbs are divided into two categories in the language – performative and non-performative verbs.

Non-performative verbs are situationally performative verbs that never express performativeness.

In linguistics, according to what criteria verbs are used as performative or non-performative verbs, and also under what conditions verbs are realized as performative, it is still controversial.

J. Austin noted that in order to determine performativity, it is necessary to examine its lexical and grammatical criteria. He considered grammatical forms as a general characteristic of performatives, for example, true-false. Many researchers argue that out-of-context sentences express various pragmatic functions. Such a question arises. Are there signs of performative verbs out of context? Undoubtedly, the first sign in determining performatives is the semantic characteristics of verbs.

The signs of performative verbs are reflected in the work "Перформатив в грамматике и слове". The basis of this classification is the semantic and grammatical features of performatives.

The use of performatives has always served communication as it expresses a purpose. It is through performatives that we describe reality and perform at the same time.

The performativity of utterance is realized not only through performatives. A specific grammatical form is applied to the verb, which is more functional for the expression of performativity. This form is called the "typical" or "standard" form of the verb, and this form is used in speech in the first person singular, present tense, indicative form of the verb and active voice [80, p.19].

Sometimes groups of words related to the sign are also used to indicate performativity in the language. /Согласен! // /Винovat! //

Apparently, not only verbs are used to express performativity, but also other parts of speech. In such a case, the

meaning of performativity is clearly felt and is undoubtedly manifested by the fall of the verb expressing this performativity. Performativeness can also be expressed by the subjunctive form of the verb. For example,

/Я хотел(а) бы поблагодарить вас! //

/Я хочу извиниться перед вами! //

/I would like to thank you//.

Performativity can also be expressed by imperatives. /ИЗВИНИТЕ //! /Sorry//!

Usually, verbs express actions that have not yet been performed in the imperative form of the verb. For example, / Do it//! /Bring it //!

But the imperative form of the verb includes speech tags such as /Sorry//!, /Hello//!.

“There is no doubt that performative verbs in English, as well as in other languages, are a type of non-conversational style. But there is reason to doubt that a unique straightness can be observed in the classification of such verbs. This is the same for all cultures and languages. Indeed, most performative verbs in English and other languages obviously depend on the culture of those countries. For example, the meaning and usage of the verb to swear, to promise, and to undertake, to contract, and to guarantee each have the meaning of “to swear” depending on the culture” [52, p.264].

In the analysis of the semantic, structural and grammatical features of performatives, the use of performative verbs in phraseological combinations – idioms, proverbs, idioms – attracts special attention. In all three languages,

performative verbs are used a lot in phraseological combinations. In comparable languages, performative phraseological units mean performance, productivity and conventionality at the same time.

Three types of phraseological performatives are shown: *everyday* (слава богу, иди к черту, отстань, будьте здоровы, спокойной ночи, счастливого пути), *ritual, magical words* (отпускаю грехи, объявляю вас мужем, благослави тебя господи, да попадешь ты в рай, дать клятву). This type of performative phraseology has become more archaic [116, p.22-23].

Sentences are used in speech acts, but speech acts cannot be equated with sentences. Y.Paducheva notes that "from a logical point of view, the main feature of performative verbs is that they express the meaning of truth. Strictly speaking, performative sentences express pragmatic self-confidence. This feature shows itself in every sentence. For example: The sentence /Он шарлатан// can express both the truth and a lie, but in the sentence /Я разберю, что он шарлатан// there is even a slight truth – certainty. In Russian, the tense form of performative verbs in sentences can be expressed not only in the present tense, but also in the future tense.

For example: /Я попрошу Вас выбирать выражения// [137, p.22].

The connection of performative verbs with other predicates is not so typical for the Russian language, and it happens very rarely.

For example: /Рад сообщить, что вы включены в список участников конференции //.

However, this type of construction is typical for the English language, and this construction corresponds to the performative verb + infinitive model.



For example: /I regret to inform. I am happy to tell //.

This model can also be applied to the Azerbaijani language. But in this case, the scheme of infinitive + performative verb will justify itself.



For example: /Səni görməyimə çox şadam //. I am very glad to see you.

In linguistics, there is such an idea that a performative verb cannot express performativity without the knowledge of the main clause. For example: /Разрешите Вам заказ что вы ошибаетес//. But the point is that the deep layer of such sentences does not correspond to the surface layer. In the bottom layer, performative verbs in this type of sentences are more independent.

For example, /Рад сообщить// = сообщаю с радостью.
/I regret to inform//.

In Russian, performative verbs are semantically connected to the following words with the modal operator “*kak*”, in Azerbaijani “*ki*”, and in English “*that*”. The performative verb also has the feature of quantification.

For example: /Благодарю каждого из вас. Приговариваю каждого из вас 7 годам тюрьмы//.

In all three languages, performative verbs are mostly used in complex sentence constructions:

For example: /Благодарю за эту замечательную книгу и обещаю использовать ее в моих дальнейших работах //. /I thank you for this interesting book and I promise to use it in my further work //.

Speaking about the pragmatic features of performative verbs, E.Benvenist notes that the “saying” component is the basis of the semantics of such verbs, and therefore he calls these verbs “delocative”. (“Delocative” is called a non-performative elaboration formed from semantically performative verbs) [137, p.22].

J.Austin classified the illocutionary act based on the semantics and paradigm of performative verbs. He distinguished five classes of illocutionary verbs and classified speech acts based on them. They are as follows:

- 1) expositives (answer, agree, ask, etc.);
- 2) verdictives (characterize, describe, interpret, etc.);
- 3) commissives (promise, invite, guarantee, swear, etc.);
- 4) exersitives (order, warn, advise, assign, etc.);

5) behabitives (congratulations, greetings, thanks, apologies, etc.) [200, p.151-164].

J.Searle also defined 5 types of illocutionary verbs:

1) assertives –confirm, claim, assure, foretell, convey, report, inform, prove, etc.;

2) commissives – promise, swear, threaten, agree, promise solemnly, deny with certainty, guarantee, etc.;

3) directives –ask, request, beg, advise, recommend, etc.;

4) declaratives – announce, confirm, name, bless, etc.;

5) expressives – apologize, congratulate, thank, praise, compliment, greet [156, p.4].

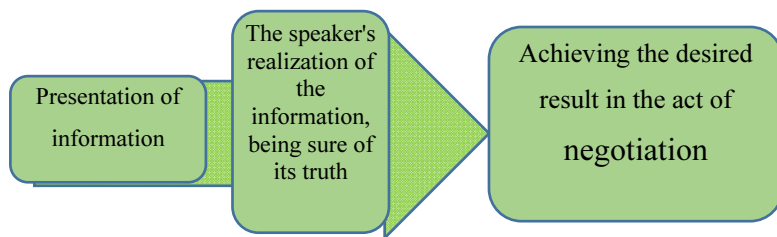
We also analyze each of the following types of performative verbs separately, based on the classification of J.Searle.

Assertives – The term “assertive” means to affirm, to be assertive in one's words. There are several types of assertives themselves: assertives of specialized information and assertions. Assertives are also called representatives in other words. They express the reality, the fact.

For example, /The Present Simple denotes the universal truth//.

The basis of assertives is mutual trust. Both the speaker and the listener know that the idea presented is true. As an example of assertives, we can first cite the verb “inform”. The verbs *utter*, *speak*, on the other hand, are considered more neutral verbs.

The basis of assertives is what information is presented, the speaker realizes it, making sure of the veracity of this information, obtaining the desired result in the act of speech.



Examples of assertives include the verbs claim, assure, argument, and so on.

In Russian, the performative verb mainly perceives the element after itself with a preposition and without a preposition.

For example: /Я *докладываю* *об* итогах проверки /итоги проверки //.

This is also in the Azerbaijani language. Thus, the assertive “to report” can be used with the conjunction “about” and can not be used.

For example: / *I report about* the results of the inspection. *I report* the results of the inspection //.

Another type of assertive is consent and refusal.

For example: / Я *отказываюсь* от работы / работать //.

This type is also used in Russian with and without prepositions. In the Azerbaijani language, the performative verb requires the following element in the infinitive form.

For example: / I *refuse to talk* //. (Sentences in Russian are from E. Krasina) [125, p.161].

In his dissertation, E.Krasina gives the formula of performative verbs conditionally as “Я_х вѣ уа Я_х, что”. Я утверждаю достоверность информации. = Я_х.

For example: Я утверждаю, что полученная информация достоверна. = Я_{х, что}

“As a rule, expressiveness manifests itself in the formula Я_{х, что}”. In this case, in such statements, either the subject or the predicate carries emphaticity due to the theme-rheme grouping” [125, p.102].

For example: / I *am reporting* // (Just Me – no one else) – Here me – is rheme.

// I *am reporting* // (I don't read fairy tales) – report is a theme.

Assertive speech acts realize the illocutionary goal of “saying, giving information”.

Assertives are otherwise called representative. All representations have a common feature: the speaker has a reason to persuade the hearer in propositional content. To achieve the goal, the word swearing is used more often. The psychological state expressed in assertives should express different levels of certainty.

The most commonly used assertives in English are the following: assert, reassert, negate, deny, correct, claim, affirm, state, tell, suggest, guess, report, warn, describe, remind, agree, acknowledge, praise, blame, accuse, complain, utter, speak, inform.

Commissives – Commissive speech acts realize the illocutionary purpose of promising, offering, threatening. Unlike assertives, commissive performative utterances are characterized by I_x formula.

For example: / *I promise* I shall not remind these matters //.

However, the I_x that model is also valid for commissives..

For example: / *I promise that* I won't mention those issues //.

Appeal can be considered as a basic speech act, but their structure differs from the structure of directives and commissives. Addressing as a conversational act has its own characteristics. First of all, it has propositional properties. Address refers to the addressee and indicates an indexical sign.

The appeal is rarely made alone. It often contains illocutionary meanings such as warning, command, request, advice, prohibition, apology.

In linguistics, “appeals” are studied as part of directives, declaratives, and commissives because they attract the attention of the addressee. The following illocutionary acts of the appeal are indicated:

1. Nominative – the intention of the speaker is to name the addressee.
2. Vocative – the main intention is to attract the addressee's attention.

3. Social-regulatory or etiquette – the main intention is to determine the status of communicants and conduct speech politely.

4. Evaluative-characteristic – the main intention is to characterize the addressee and express the attitude to the speaker.

5. Deictic – the main intention is to show the addressee.

Each of these illocutionary acts expresses a certain perlocutionary effect” [123, p.85].

“The performative verb “guarantee” is of particular interest in commissive speech acts. This verb combines several semantic meanings. First of all, it means “special document, certificate, condition for implementing guarantee”. For example, guaranteeing any equipment does not act as a performative verb. In this case, the verb in the sentence “I guarantee” is not considered performative because it is performed by the producer and seller of the goods. On the other hand, if the sentence “I guarantee” is spoken by the leader, then it is declarative and therefore can be considered a performative verb. If the verb “guarantee” is spoken by an individual, then “guarantee” is synonymous with the verb “promise”, and in this case it is not a performative verb, but a quasi-performative one” [157, p.222].

Commissives – to force someone to do something. Two types of commissions are distinguished: promises and offers. Promises are an act of coercion, while offers are an offer made to compel someone to do something. Commissive-constative and commissive-directive hybrids are related

to promises (swearing, quaranteeing), and to offers (volunteering, bidding).

Thus, in the process of the speech act, the commissives perform the illocutionary speech act, because the given word is performed only by the “promisor” – the “speaker”.

The most commonly used commissives in English are: commit, promise, guarantee, threaten, swear, assure, certify, accept, agree, consent, refuse, offer.

Commissives indicate that the action performed by the speaker will occur in the future. The main condition for showing the illocutionary force of commissives is that the speaker must believe and confirm what he is saying. The main psychological state in these verbs is intention. The main verb for commissibility in English is “commit”.

Directives – There are also several types of directives. Directives ask for more. At the same time, they express orders, invitations, calls. Request directives in Russian are mainly used with the preposition “o”.

For example, //Прошу о сохранении тайны//. /Прошу молчать/ не разговаривать//.

No preposition is used as an indicator of the typological feature of the language in sentences with directives in the Azerbaijani language.

For example, /Sirrin saxlanılmasını xahiş edirəm//. – /I order you to keep the secret//.

/Please, join us for dinner on Sunday//.

Directives also express suggestions and advice. These performatives include more infinitive combinations:

For example, /Предлагаю пойти в кино//.

/Призываю соблюдать порядок//.

/Təklif edirəm söhbəti açıq elan edək//.

/I suggest to visit him//.

When the directives state a warning, their semantic core is the verb “say”:

For example: /Предупреждаю об ответственности//.

/Sizi xəbərdar edirəm ki, bu məsələdən hali olasız.

In English, “you+infinitive” (complete infinitive composition) is used at this point.

For example: /I inform you to be aware of the fact//.

Directive performatives are also formed by two formulas: the addressee I_x, I_x, that. I_x is directed to “you” and contains a perlocutionary effect. This performative verb is mainly followed by the infinitive:

For example: / I command silence//. / I command you to be silent //.

In directives, the “You-I” model is important in the speech act process and fulfills the illocutionary purpose. Voluntary is the basis of directive performative verbs. The speaker subject, I, forces the addressee, you, to accept the offer voluntarily, without any pressure.

A.Steblesova mentions the processing of directives with a number of performative verbs, including requisitives, suggestives and prescriptives. *“Requisitives are performative verbs and express requests and prohibitions. This inclu-*

des the verbs ask, demand. Suggestives – means suggestion, advice, invitation, reminder. This group includes performative verbs such as offer, invite, consult, guarantee. Prescriptives are such speech acts that they perform an ordering function. For example, order, book, etc.” [166, p.70].

The most commonly used directives in English are: direct, request, ask, question, interrogate, appeal, invite, beg, beseech, insist, tell, demand, require, claim, order, command, forbid, suggest, propose, warn, permit, allow.

Declaratives or directives differ from assertives in their social meaning.

“In directives, the proposition expresses the action that the hearer will perform in the future. In directives, the main condition for showing the main illocutionary force is that the hearer is able to do what he wants. The psychological state expressed in directives is desire” [39, p.81].

The most commonly used declaratives in English are: declare, deny, approve, name, call, sentence, baptize, dedicate, confirm, open, close, establish.

Declaratives involve litigation, appointment or dismissal from any position. Declaratives provide simple types of syntactic structure.

In the study “Speech act theory and communication: A unique study”, declaratives are called performatives in other words [236].

For example: / I pronounce this shop opened//. /May the Lord richly bless them//.

For declarative performative utterances in the Azerbaijani language, the formula I_x , that is typical.

For example: / I announce that after 10 days there will be a ceremonial opening of sports competitions //.

All declaratives have propositional content. Declaratives do not differ according to the level of goal achievement, where the goal can be achieved or not. Therefore, the psychological state in all declaratives is desire and certainty. All verbs included in this group are performative.

“Declarative performatives are closer to assertives because they have a descriptive feature. Unlike directives, declaratives express more emotion” [157, p.187].

J.Searle mentions that there are 21 declaratives in the conversation act. This includes: *“declare, resign, adjourn, appoint, nominate, approve, confirm, disapprove, endorse, renounce, disclaim, denounce, repudiate, bless, curse, christen, abbreviate, consecrate, excommunicate, name, call”* [230, p.12].

Directives are of two types: 1. sentence – command – injunctive, 2. sentence – request – requisitive. Both of them – injunctive and requisitive – are close to each other and both are aimed at the addressee to perform the action. Quesitives are interrogative sentences and share common features with directives, and both express the reason for the addressee's action. Injunctive and requisitive are distinguished by their prosodic features. According to its lexical indicators, the word “please” is used with requisitives, which eliminates the imperativeness of the sentence, and “please” is called an illocutionary index. The spea-

ker's directive purpose is mostly manifested in command sentences:

For example: /Come, answer! You must answer first!"/.

B.Kent and R. M.Harnish divide the illocutionary act into six categories: two of them are effective and verdictive, not conventional, but communicative. The remaining four main communicative illocutionary acts are constatives, directives, commissives, and acknowledgments.

Directives – indicate the attitude of the speaker to the action performed by the listener. Directives also express the wishes and desires of the speaker, and there are several types of them:

1) requisitions – ask, beseech, implore, insist, invite, petition, plead, pray, request, solicit, summon, supplicate, tell, urge.

2) questions – ask, inquire, interrogate, query, question, quiz.

3) requirements – bid, charge, command, demand, dictate, direct, enjoin, instruct, order, prescribe, require.

4) prohibitives –enjoin, forbid, proscribe, restrict.

5) permissives – agree to, allow, authorize, bless, consent to, dismiss, excuse, forgive, grant, license, pardon, release, sanction.

6) advisors – admonish, advise, caution, counsel, propose, recommend, suggest, urge, warn [237, p.47].

Interrogativity is of great interest from the point of view of linguistic psychology, since question constructions

in the language, acting in speech, reflect the nature of the interaction of people in society. The initiator of an interrogative situation is the speaker, and even if the listener does not react to the speaker's oral speech, this does not give grounds for identifying the situation as non-interrogative, since the listener's silence is also a reaction, a response. The interrogative designation of the situation can occur both on the part of the speaker and on the part of the listener at the same time.

The use of questions in the process of thinking is completely natural. Questions are an integral part of the reasoning process. The very process of thinking can be represented as a search for answers to questions that arise in its course. The answer to the question creates a reciprocal question, which in turn becomes the starting point for the next question. A question sentence is a form of reasoning.

It should be noted that directive interrogatives in the language are also used no less often. Directive interrogatives are called such interrogatives that the speaker predicts in advance the event that surrounds him. Directive interrogatives include verbs such as "to identify, to explain, to argue, to inform, to end" and so on, and with the help of these verbs, the speaker determines whether the executed action is true or false. The main purpose of this type of interrogatives is to perceive what is right and to convey information provision to the listener in this way clearly. The basis of this type of interrogatives is the study of a specific

event or situation. So, the speaker uses the question for various purposes. The sentences used with these verbs can also be considered pragmatically as assertives. For example, / Didn't we agree that such thoughts transported me with rage //?

"When the speaker emphasizes negation in a question sentence, he expects the listener to confirm that idea. In this type of sentences, the speaker expects a supporting answer from the question addressed, and these types of sentences are presented as "false questions", "reverse questions", "rhetorical questions" in linguistics. In English, these questions are realized with are/do, and in Turkish with –"mi" format. Məsələn: / Kambersiz düğün olurmu? / – /Is a wedding possible without Kamber //? or /Sen telefon ettin de biz gelmedikmi //? – /Has it ever happened that you phoned but we didn't come? // [201, p. 198].

This type of sentences is also found in our mother tongue, and the semantics of each of these sentences shows negation and confrontation.

"Directive interrogatives express more assertiveness. Because in this type of sentences, the speaker prompts the listener to do something. Medial interrogatives are used with modal verbs in English. In a more polite form, modal verbs such as "could" and "would" are used. For example: /Would /could you take care of the old? //. According to the action performed by the speaker and the addressee, directives also express a personal need or desire, permission" [28, p.118].

On the other hand, in linguistics, we also come across cases where the directive speech act expresses a request

and it is divided into two types: “blind” (blunt) and “polite” imperatives [271, p.118]. For example: the sentence /May I have the salt? //, in other words, it means /Give me the salt//. This allows us to call interrogatives (question sentences) “direct imperatives”.

Acknowledgments – Corresponds to J.Austin's “behavitive”. They convey a certain feeling to the listener. For example, greeting, meeting at the meeting, satisfaction, thanks, gratitude.

The types of acknowledgments are as follows:

- 1) Condole, commiserate
- 2) Compliment, congratulate, felicitate
- 3) Greeting
- 4) Thanking
- 5) Bid, farewell
- 6) Accept
- 7) Reject, refuse, spurn.

Pardoning, excusing, forgiving can be accepted as acknowledgments [237, p.49-54].

Expressives – Expressives are usually called speech rituals. These speech acts include greetings, greetings, thanks, apologies, congratulations, and condolences. Expressives indicate the psychological state of the speaker, his attitude to the action.

For example: / Congratulations on your wedding day //.
/ Thanks for the help //. /Wow! What a beautiful girl! //

It is also accepted to call speech rituals a behavioral response. J.Austin calls them behavioral [200, p.160], and J.Searle calls them expressive [157, p.288].

The most frequently used expressives in English are: approve, applaud, complain, congratulate, thank, apologize, greet, welcome, blame, compliment, praise.

For expressives, the $\mathcal{R}_x$ model is typical:

For example, / I greet you //. / I hug and kiss you all //.

All expressive speech acts perform a general illocutionary act, and that illocutionary act means “expressing a certain feeling”.

At the same time expressive performative utterances include statements such as /Happy holiday //! /Happy birthday to you //! /Happy New Year//! /See you with great love and joy!

In the speech act, congratulations are included in the group of expressives. Expressives include thanks, apologies, greetings, regrets, sympathy, etc. and therefore they are sometimes called “speech rituals”.

Congratulations can be given as a model as follows:

For example: / I know that something good has happened //.

In the act of speaking, greetings are realized with different language forms. Since congratulations belong to performative utterances, they have their own syntactic schemes.

1. The speaker must be in the first person.
2. To congratulate – performative verb
3. Addressee
4. Motivation for congratulations

Congratulation is done without actant in Russian.

For example: //Поздравляю вас/ тебя с днем рождения!//

This situation also shows itself in the Azerbaijani language.

For example: / Sizi/səni təbrik edirəm! // I congratulate you!

In the existing literature, the use of the deixis “I” in formal situations is accepted, but the real fact is that such cases are rare.

For example: /Поздравляю вас/тебя с днем рождения!!/ /Поздравляю вас/тебя!//

/Поздравляю с днем рождения !!! /Поздравляю! //

/С днем рождения вас/тебя !// /С днем рождения!//

All of these options are stylistically neutral. In the first and fourth sentences, the explicit performative verb “поздравляю” with illocutionary force (in the first person singular, in the indicative form of the verb, active voice) is used. In the fifth and sixth sentences, although the performative verb is not present, the implicit-performative variant is used. The construction /С праздником!// is of particular interest without the third actant [143].

Out of these six-membered performative paradigm, only the 4-membered performative paradigm is justified for the Azerbaijani language.

For example: /Ad gününüz mübarək! //

/ Sizi/səni ad günü münasibətilə təbrik edirəm! //

/ Sizi təbrik edirəm! //

/Təbriklər! //

In English, the three-member performative paradigm is manifested.

For example: / I congratulate you! //

/I congratulate you with your birthday!//

/Congratulations!//

In both English, Azerbaijani and Russian languages, the congratulatory formula can be realized with modal modifications. In this case, the illocutionary verb takes the infinitive form.

For example: /I would like to congratulate you//. /İstərdim sizi təbrik edim!// /(Я) хочу/ хотелось бы вас/тебя поздравить!// In Azerbaijani /I would like to congratulate you!// is more formal.

Another types of “Congratulations” construction include sentence patterns /İzadə verin sizi ad gününüz münaşibətilə təbrik edim!// /Let me congratulate your birthday!// //Позвольте/ разрешите поздравить вас с днем рождения! //. Since these types of constructions are used as an imperative mood, they can be considered as a direct speech act.

Sentences such as /Təbriklərimi qəbul edin!// or /Rica edirəm təbriklərimi qəbul edin/ edəsiniz!//” /Receive my congratulations!//, /Примите мои поздравления!// – are addressed to the upper class, stylistically it means more politeness.

It should be noted that in order to increase the intensity of the greeting in all three languages, modifications

such as *ürəkdən, səmimi qəlbdən, om душу, om сепдүца, горячо, сепдечю, sincerely* etc. are used.

Thus, there is a unique paradigm of congratulation in all three languages. Performativity can be expressed by modal verbs and modality words. The performative formula can be extended by other optional indicators. A performative paradigm with four members for the Azerbaijani language, six members for the Russian language, and three members for the English language appears. Performative paradigm without an actant is typical for all three languages.

The classification of expressives also shows itself in the research of N.A.Trofimova. Thus, he divides expressives into two groups:

1) Sociatives – greetings, congratulations, apologies, best wishes, thanks, condolences;

2) Inflectives – complement, praise, flatter, condemn, insult, wish evil, etc. [172].

K.Bach and R.Harnish show various aspects of the speech act and give the descriptive scheme of the speech act as follows: Utterance act – In the context, “S” expresses “e” for the listener, locutionary act – “S” tells the listener, “H” says something in the context, Illocutionary act – “S” the speaker does something in the context, perlocutionary act – “S” – the speaker affects the listener “H” to some extent (“S” – speaker, “H” – hearer, “e” language-sentence expressed in language (L), “C” content- the content of the

speech, in other words, forms the basis of the speech act) [237, p.3].

These acts are always closely related to each other.

Communicative presumption is a mutual belief in communication that someone says something to someone and thus an illocutionary act is performed.

When a specific description is given, the speaker (S) says any sentence and the listener (H) is allowed to use his memory to capture the necessary meaning. The role of pronouns in activating the listener's memory is also great – especially personal, demonstrative and defining pronouns, as well as proper names [237, p.24-25].

The characteristic features of performative verbs are that they do not simply express the action, but emphasize the execution of the action. For example, the verb “to do” in English expresses a number of grammatical features. So, this verb can be used as main and auxiliary verb.

For example: /“People *do* all sorts of things nowadays”, replied Winifred // [225, p.222]. – “do” is the main verb.

/He is always bothering; but he is such a good sort – I *don't* mind him // [225, p.226]. – “do” is an auxiliary verb.

However, “to do” used in the marriage ceremony, for example, shows itself as a performative verb in the sentence /I do//. When the bride and groom say “I do” as a sign of agreement during the wedding ceremony, it indicates that they have performed the act of marriage. In the Azerbaijani language, the groom and the bride pointing with

their heads and saying “yes” during the wedding ceremony means performativity in that situation.

Performative verbs that exist in both languages are verbs that indicate that an action is partially or completely performed. Thus, they are verbs that determine the performance of an action by promising, warning or commanding. It is this feature that distinguishes performative verbs from other semantic verb groups.

/I *recommend* Guiliano to take him to where the men had dug up the skeleton// [265, p.181].

/I *demand* we fight for ourselves, keep the money we make with our work instead of distributing in to the poor // [265, p.279].

In English, whether a verb is performative or not depends very much on the use of the word “hereby” in the sentence. In both languages, the use of the words “hereby” and “here” in the sentence strengthens its semantic meaning.

For example: /I *hereby* deeply thank you for your participation //.

Thank you very much for your participation *here*.

J.Austin distinguishes between performative and constative verbs and notes that although the sentences /I betted// and /He bets// describe the action, they do not express performativity, because for the sentence to express performativity, the verb must be used in the first person singular, in the predicative mood of the verb, in the active voice. J.Austin groups both performative, performative

and constative, and only constative verbs and sees the difference between them in the illocutionary force of the sentence [200, p.62].

So, in the following grouping, the verbs in the first column are performative because they express action, and the verbs in the second and third columns are not considered performative because they describe the action. This situation also shows itself in the Azerbaijani language. So, /I thank// – /Təşəkkür edirəm//, /I am grateful// – /Minnətdaram//, /I feel grateful// – /Məndə minnətdarlıq hissi var// – show the state of the action being performed, in other words shows a description of the action.

Thus, the comparative analysis of performative verbs in languages with different systems reveals a number of common and different aspects between them.

“The meaning of the performative verb is closely related to performative utterances, which on the one hand define the act of speaking, and on the other hand, realize the illocutionary act. Therefore, performative verbs are called illocutionary verbs. However, performative verbs are not the same as illocutionary verbs. It follows that not every speech verb is performative, and every illocutionary verb is not performative” [27, p.75].

There are some verbs in English that act as performative verbs as well as perceptual verbs. For example, *to know, to think, to learn, to understand, to perceive, to recognize, to wish, to want, to notice* etc. Whether they express performativity depends on their semantic meaning.

For example: /June **noticed** he removing with cold water the traces of emotion// [225, p.264]. In this sentence, /noticed/ means perception. If we say this sentence like /June *hereby* **noticed** he removing with cold water the traces of emotion// then /noticed/ will express performativity.

Performative verbs used in both of the compared languages differ according to their polysemantic features.

The performative verbs used in English and Azerbaijani languages are functionally, semantically and lexically close to each other, so they have a synonymous feature. For example, in the modern Azerbaijani language, performative verbs that express the approval of an idea and form synonyms are: to agree, to confirm, etc.

In modern English, the performative verbs that express the approval of the idea and are synonyms are the following: to admit, to accord, to agree, to affirm, to allege etc. [157, p.15].

Examining the structure and semantics of the verbs used in the question moment from a typological point of view is important in terms of comparative study of the shades of meaning in both languages.

The following are the verbs used to ask a question in the act of speaking in English and they are synonyms: *to ask, to quest, to inquire, to interrogate, to query* etc.

In the modern Azerbaijani language, the verbs used for the purpose of questioning are – *sorğuya tutmaq, sorğusuala çəkmək, sual atəşinə tutmaq, sual vermək, xəbər al-*

maq, xəbər tutmaq, məlumat almaq, söz çəkmək, müraciət etmək, ağzını aramaq etc.

The performative verbs used in everyday conversation in English are as follows: to accept, to agree, to apologize, to assure, to congratulate, to deny, to disagree, to forgive, to forbid, to guarantee, to insist, to invite, to order, to predict, to promise, to recommend, to refuse, to wish, to request, to suggest, to be grateful, to thank etc.

For example: And we *are grateful* to President Obama and First Lady Michelle Obama for their gracious aid throughout this transition. They have been magnificent, *thank* you [303].

The most frequently used performative verbs in the act of speaking in the Azerbaijani language are the following: to mention, to declare, to talk, to announce, to inform, to warn, to be sure, to speak, to pronounce, etc.

For example: *“That is, I want **to state** once again that all this happened as a result of the increased opportunities of Azerbaijan”* [302].

*“I **am sure** that the main reason for this is the successful policy of Azerbaijan, our political and diplomatic victories, the growing economic and military potential of Azerbaijan, and the result of the support of the international community for Azerbaijan’s position”* [302].

“This path is the only right path, and I wish new victories, new successes to all members of the New Azerbaijan Party and all the people of Azerbaijan on this path” [302].

Currently, the scope of processing of performative verbs in the speech act is wide. In both languages, they are used mostly in special ceremonies, such as presidential speeches, swearing-in ceremonies, weddings, and court proceedings.

For example: /Today I *take an oath* of allegiance to all Americans// [303].

We will no longer accept politicians who are always complaining but never doing anything about it [303].

The use of performative verbs in languages with different systems has its own characteristics, and these characteristics indicate the universality of performativity.

CHAPTER V

THE ROLE OF HEDGINGS IN THE ORGANIZATION OF SYNTACTIC UNITS

5.1. The classification of hedges

As is known, the main subject of psycholinguistics as a psychological process is speech, its emergence, acceptance and perception. For this reason, in the former Soviet Union, the term “speech activity” was used as a synonym for the term “psycholinguistics”. The object of linguistics is the language, its system, and the object of psycholinguistics is the carrier of the language and the communication process, the organization and functioning of speech.

The basis of the communication process is the exchange of language and information. Oral speech is faced with certain tasks which serves to exchange information. In other words, every word we say while speaking does not just have only meaning, but also serves as an interpersonal message, information.

In the communicative process the function of interpersonal messages are performed by hedges. As a communicative strategy, they allow the speaker to soften the power of the utterance. Some speech acts, for example, critical speech acts are often mitigated in the communication process and it is called *hedging* – softening in linguistics. If softening is not used the speech act becomes threatening.

The term *hedge* first used in the 14th century is explained in the etymological dictionary as follows: In Old English *hedge* was historically used in the sense of “fence, boundary”. Hedges make the word weaker, softer in speech, and it is identified with euphemism. *Hedge* and *hedging* are used in literary language in the sense of “obstacle”, “border”, “defense” and in linguistics, as mentioned, in the sense of “softening” [299].

The term “hedge” entered the linguistics in the 70s of the 20th century with the article “Hedges: A Study in meaning criteria and the logic of fuzzy concepts” by G.Lakoff. In the article, the author was not interested in the communicative value of hedges, he studied the logical features of words such as *rather*, *largely*, *in a manner of speaking*, *very* which are used only in the language [307].

Hedges are classified according to a number of principles and they are as follows:

1) Hedges denoting quality – *as far as I know*, *I may be mistaken*, *I guess*. These hedges used in the text indicate the accuracy of the information provided.

2) hedges denoting quantity – *as you probably know*, *I won't bore you with all the details*, *but, to cut a long story short*. These hedges indicate the incompleteness of the information.

3) hedges denoting relation – *oh, by the way*, *anyway*, *well*, *I don't know if it's important*, *not to change the subject*, *as for/to*, *speaking of/talking*. These hedges create a connection between the words in the sentence.

4) hedges denoting style – *this may be a bit confusing, but I'm not sure if this makes sense, I don't know if this is clear at all*. These hedges show the speaker's conscious approach to the current situation [285, p. 58].

Hedging is an actual linguistic phenomenon and is the avoidance of responsibility for what is sincerely said. In L.A.Wales' stylistic dictionary we read: "Hedge is narrowly understood as a modifier. In the speech act theory it is used as qualification and toning-down, risk reduction in the spoken opinion" [289, p.515-516].

S.Darian, researching the hypothesis of language aspects in scientific works, states that *modifiers belong to different parts of speech (the view that – noun), (some feel that... – functional noun), (we infer – verb), (presumable – adverb), (one solution is... article*. He notes that "Each linguistic unit carries a quality modifier" [218, p.92].

In linguistics "reinforcement" is considered an integral part of hedging. P.Brown and S.C.Levinson call "reinforcement" an aspect of hedging [205].

Let's look at such an example. In the sentence /He knew Spanish **a little**, "a little" is not a hedge, it is a word used to strengthen the meaning of the sentence. In other words, it is "reinforcement". The use of the word "a little" in the sentence reflects the reality of the fact. Let's pay attention to the word "a little" used in another example. /Wages remained **a little bit** changed in December// "a little bit" used in this sentence is considered as a hedge,

because the meaning of the sentence shows the mitigation of the idea.

There is no exact information on the number of hedges or hedgings used in English. It is impossible to list all the words related to hedging, M.A.Petrovich suggests that the following words and phrases can be called hedging.

- 1) modal verbs: may, might, could, would, should;
- 2) nouns: assumption, claim, possibility, suggestion, probability;
- 3) adverbs: perhaps, possibly, probably, practically, likely, presumably, virtually;
- 4) verbs expressing belief and knowledge: believe, think, realize, understand, guess, to our knowledge, it is our view that..., we feel that...;
- 5) words expressing certainty, doubt: allegedly, arguably, appear, apparently, assume, assumption, (un)likely, maybe, perhaps, possibly, probable, suggest, suspect;
- 6) words indicating quantity and quality: about, around, approximately, almost, in some cases, few, fewer than, nearly, often, many/more/less than;
- 7) words that indicate the speaker's attitude to utterance: surprisingly, regrettably, luckily, admittedly, (un)fortunately, I am afraid, I'd rather, I hope, suitable/suitably, good, significant, important, surprised, in my opinion, in my view;
- 8) reinforcement words: actually, certainly, clearly, definitely, doubtless, obviously, of course, really, surely, unquestionability; For example: / "You haven't?" cried Julia,

with surprise, though she remembered perfectly that Michael had already toed her so. "*Of course* it's not a bad little play, it's served our propose very well, but I can't imagine anyone wanting to see it three times" // [256, p.20].

9) modal particles: only, every, well;

10) words that convey importance: must have, must be, ought to have, should;

11) words denoting subjective prediction: expect, project, foresee;

12) words denoting predictability in logical sequence: must be, must necessarily;

13) words that express concession: but, however, although, even though, nevertheless;

14) passive constructions: was assumed to be, is suggested, was chosen, are summarized, were made;

15) expressions such as: would increase, could easily, might induce;

16) conditional constructions: if...were, ... would...;

17) impersonal constructions: it is, there is, this is, it remains to be seen [139, p.29].

Sometimes not one but several hedges can be used in a sentence. The use of hedges or hedge expressions in a sentence or a text indicates an increase in the emphatic power of that construction. For example: /*May be my perception is not quite right, I suppose* you've never had anything to do with the theatre from the inside [256, p.21]. /I *never* allow outsiders to come to rehearsals, but as you're our accountant you *almost* belong to the theatre, and I *wouldn't*

mind making an exception in your favour *if it would amuse* you to come // [256, p.25].

Sometimes a person involuntarily uses hedges and hedging expressions when expressing his thoughts. Such words are considered to be signal words or expressions.

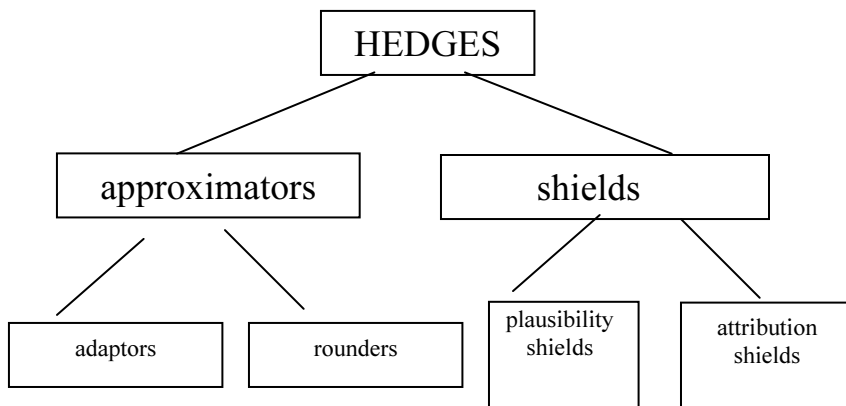
F.S.Meyer defined five semantic groups of hedges: “1) *shields* – all modal verbs denoting possibility, auxiliary verbs such as *to appear*, *to seem*, modal words such as *probably*, *likely*, and epistemic verbs such as *to suggest*, *to speculate* are included here; 2) *approximators* (or verbs denoting predictability): a) *adaptors* (or *connectors*), b) *rounders* (or *limiters*). This group includes words such as *approximately*, *roughly*, *somewhat*, *quite*, *often*, *occasionally*. They are more implicit; 3) which express the author’s personal doubt: *I believe*, *to our knowledge*, *it is our view that etc.*; 4) words that form a special emotionality: *extremely*, *difficult*, *interesting*, *dishearteningly weak*, *of particular importance*, *particularly encouraging*, *unexpectedly*, *surprisingly etc.*; 5) *compound hedges*. They are also called *strings of hedges*” [272, p.154].

It is also possible to use double, triple, quadruple hedges.

- a) modal verbs + hedging verbs: *It would appear that...*,
- b) hedging verb + hedging adverb: *It seems reasonable that...*,
- c) double hedges: *It may suggest that...*, *This probably indicates that...*,
- d) triple hedges: *It seems reasonable to assume that...*;

e) quadruple hedges: *It would seem somewhat unlikely that John will tell anyone.*

Hedge types can be shown schematically as follows:



Linguistic hedges are also present in the language. Such hedges include adjectives, adverbs, impersonal pronouns, subjunctive conjunctions, modal verbs, epistemic verbs, tag questions with postpositive phrases, *if* clauses, continuous time markers, hypothetical past tense, metalinguistic comments, etc.

1) those used with adverbs and adjectives such as *approximately*, *roughly*, *about*, *often*, *occasionally*, *generally* etc. For example: /I am ***approximately*** forty and I don't care who knows it // [257, p.101]; /*This is where I live. I ***generally*** have going people in the evening* // [257, p.123];

2) those used with impersonal pronouns such as *one*, *it*: For example: / ***One can imagine*** that I am keeping him, said Julia, with a ringing laugh // [257, p.168];

3) those used with the nouns *assumption, claim, possibility, estimate, suggestion*. These words also express modality. For example: /*According to June's estimate*, it was foolish and even cowardly to hide the past from John // [224, p.113];

4) *although, though, while, whereas, even though, even if* – those used with conjunctions denoting concession. For example: /*Even if* people wanted to think he was her lover, let them; she was past caring // [257, p.177]. /*Though* you would have thought, with her brilliance, her roguishness, her sense of comedy she would have been perfect// [257, p.25].

5) with the performative accompanied by a hedge. In such combinations, performative verbs are used together with modal verbs. Hedges can be used in close connection with performative verbs. B.Frazer put forward the development of hedge performatives in the language. According to him, performative verbs (promise, admit, wish, suggest) form hedge-performatives with modal verbs, and he concludes that they belong to the illocutionary speech act. For example: I can promise that... [222, p.187].

Hedge performatives are often used in business writing style (I /we advise you that, I/we would suggest that). For example: /I thought *I ought to see for* myself what it was all about // [256, p.172];

6) unmediated speech acts. For example: /*Darling, don't cry. Could you speak a little louder? After all, it had to happen sooner or later* // [256, p.173];

7) with postpositive words or word combinations – *I believe, to our knowledge, it is our view that, we feel that, assume, estimate, tend, propose, speculate, suppose*. When these words and expressions are used as a hedge, they convey the speaker's strong belief in what they are saying. For example: / *That wouldn't be easy. I **believe** you ought to give her a chance* // [256, p.237].

8) those used with modal words. In English linguistics, such words are usually used as modal adverbs. They include words such as *perhaps, possibly, probably, practically, presumably, apparently, assumption, claim*. However, according to S.Schneider, modal words such as *perhaps, may* be automatically eliminate performativity in the sentence. For example: In the sentence /***Perhaps**, I apologize to the lovely state of New Jersey* //. 'I will apologize' can be used instead of /I apologize/, but using performative verbs with modal words carries more descriptive load [277].

For example: /***The assumption** here is that you ruined my performance*// [256, p.264].

Hedges and modality are closely related. The interaction of modal verbs and verbs expressing modality with hedges greatly expands the expressive possibilities of the language [207, p.16];

For example: /*With me? But I thought she was **practically** engaged to Tom. Nonsense. You are always fancying things like that* // [256, p.238];

9) those are used with *might, can, may, would, could* modal verbs. "*The use of these modal verbs in the sentence with*

the adverbs **now, finally, at last** shows that the sentence has a performative nature" [277]. For example: /*You **ought to accept** me well enough **by now** to know that I would never let sentiment interfere with business* // [256, p.191];

10) those are used with epistemic verbs such as *to seem, to appear, to believe, to assume, to suggest*. For example: / *It **seems** that only natural to help you when you were in a hole. It was a pleasure to me* // [256, p.191];

In English, all modal verbs that express assumption are considered as hedging. For example: / Pelosi has said Trump is "goading" Democrats into impeaching him, since the president believes it **would solidify** his base support // [303].

Expressions like *it would seem/appear, it would be indicated that* are often used as hedgings in both political and economic articles in Azerbaijani as well as in English.

For example: / ***It would be indicated that** 40 percent of the crude oil imported by Israel is produced in Azerbaijan* // [302].

/ ***It would be indicated** that this system is a serious mechanism for ensuring transparency and efficiency in granting subsidies in the agricultural sector, for economical use of the state budget, and for eliminating bureaucratic obstacles* // [302].

11) those processed with the reversal tag form. For example: / *He is coming, isn't he? I think he is coming* //.

In general, the use of hedges in interrogative sentences is of particular interest. They are mostly used in general

and special question types of sentences. As a rule, the use of modal verbs in interrogative sentences is not considered a hedge, because such sentences are structured according to grammatical rules.

Therefore, if the use of modal verbs such as, *could* and *might* in the sentence does not serve to mitigate the meaning, it cannot be called hedge. For example: In the sentence /***Could*** you see any connection between a sucking baronet and publishing? // [225, p.222], the modal verb *could* is not considered a hedge because it expresses sense perception. In the sentence /*It might snow, might it not?* //, the modal verb *might* used in the first part is considered a hedge because it expresses an assumption, but this cannot be said about the modal verb *might* used at the end of the sentence;

12) those used with passive without agents. For example: / ***Paragraphs were sent*** to the papers announcing the new venture and Michael and the publicity agent prepared interviews for him and Julia to give to the Press // [257, p.72];

13) those used with the words *as long as*, *so long as*, *assuming that*, *given that*, which express the conditional meaning in the subordinative clause. For example: /***Unless*** it means something to you, why don't you go over to Paris with him for a fortnight when we close? // [257, p.55];

14) those used in progressive (continuous) form. For example: /***I am hoping*** you are very nice to Julia // [257, p.20];

15) drawing preliminary conclusions. For example: /
*The nature **should be** visible from here //*;

16) those used with words like *strictly speaking*, *so to say*, *exactly*, *almost*, *just about* in comments, explanations. For example: /***Strictly speaking**, I don't want to stand in her way. I mean, supposing after tonight she got a big offer for America I can quite see that she ought to be perfectly free to accept //* [257, p.258];

17) those used with adverbs like *perhaps*, *possibly*, *probably*, *likely*, *presumably*, *virtually*, *apparently*. For example: /*What did her father know about Jon? **Probably** everything – pretty nearly! //* [224, p.104];

18) those used in sentences with two negatives. For example: / *"It is **not** that I am **not** arguing", said Fleur and his heart began to beat /* [224, p.105].

In English the lexical hedges are also the majority in terms of the scope of functionality. The term "lexical hedges" was first brought to linguistics by T.Nikula. According to him, not every word, phrase can be a noun, because their meaning is realized only in the context. He gives examples of words and combinations like *I think*, *maybe*, *kind of*, *sort of*, *something like that*, *more or less* [260, p.190].

Hedges that are used a lot in the language, both in writing and in oral speech, such as *I think*, *I believe*, *sort of*, have already become cliches [263, p.20].

For example: /***I think** I can be word-perfect in any part in forty-eight hours //* [257, p.32]. /***I believe** you're prouder of your family than of looking like a Greek god', she*

told him fondly// [257, p. 36). /*I thought* you'd be made-up and *perhaps* a little loud // [257, p.45].

The division of T.Vartalla in the semantic classification of hedges is of special interest. He divides hedges into eight types: those used with modal verbs, main verbs, adverbs, adjectives, nouns, subordinate clauses in interrogative sentences and "other hedges" [287, p.235]. He includes hedges such as *more than, the great bulk, many of these advancements, in principle, another promising* in the "other hedges" group and shows that they are used more often in scientific articles and serve to provide approximate information [287, p.226].

M.H.Tahirian and M.Shahzamani show five types in the classification of hedges, unlike T.Vartalla. They include "*if clauses*" and "*restrictive*" hedges in the "*other hedges*" group [280, p.205].

The term 'epistemic' was derived from the Greek word '*episteme*' which means 'knowledge'. It is closely related to a speaker's knowledge on the proposition. The degree of certainty on the knowledge of a proposition may denote certainty, probability and possibility.

Epistemic modality shows the highest/lowest degree of confidence and may be expressed by:

1. the modals verbs, especially *must* and *will*;

For example: / The case *must* have been dealt leniently with, but the laws were more harshly administered thirty years ago than now and on my twenty-third birthday I fo-

und myself chained as a felon with thirty-seven other convicts in Australia // [280, p.381].

2. the modal adjuncts denoting epistemic certainty with such words as *certainly*, *definitely*, *surely*, *probably*, *perhaps*, and *maybe*.etc.;

For example: /The idea of a snake instantly occurred to me, and when I coupled it with my knowledge that the doctor was furnished with a supply of creatures from India, I felt that I was **probably** on the right track // [220, p.273]. /Holmes was **certainly** not a difficult man to live with // [220, p. 20].

3. the lexical verbs as *believe* and *guarantee*;

For example: / I **believe** that this ally breaks fresh ground in the annals of crime in this country – though parallel cases suggest themselves from India and if my memory serves me from Senegambia // [220, p. 111].

4. the lexico-modal auxiliaries, as *be certain to*, *be bound to* and *be sure to*;

For example: / We **are certain** him not **to** hve been concealed in the room, as there is no concealment possible // [220, p. 111].

5. with *there is/are* phrases followed by the noun *certainty* and a that clause;

For example: / **There is certainty** one singular exception, however, for he had a single room, a lumber-room up among the attics, which was invariably locked, and which he would never permit either me or anyone else to enter // [220, p. 220].

6. the zero and the first Conditional sentences;

For example: / *If* you leave it to a court of law to clear the matter up, of course you can hardly avoid publicity // [220, p. 242].

/I will keep your confession, and *if* McCarthy is condemned I shall be forced to use it. *If* not, it shall never be seen by mortal eye, and your secret, whether you be alive or dead, shall be safe with us [220, p. 217].

7. the modal operators *should* and *ought to*

For example: /If you will have the kindness to hold the lamp for me, we *should* extend our researches to the room above – the secret room in which the treasure was found // [220, p.111].

N.Riekkinen also divides hedges into 8 categories according to their functional similarity: “1) expressions indicating personal assessment, 2) expressions showing approximation, 3) expressions conveying limitation, 4) expressions used with modal verbs, 5) expressions expressing hesitation, 6) expressions used with lexical verbs, 7) expressions related to meta-discourse, 8) and “others” [269, p.47]. He includes hedges such as, *I think, it seems to me, I guess, I suppose, I have the feeling, may be my perception is not quite right, I seem to consider* in the first group.

For example: / Well, I *guess* you have every cause to be // [220, p.297]; / So I *think*, Watson, that I must leave you to your papers for a little // [220, p.298].

He included hedges such as *a sort of, kind of, in a way, somewhat, somehow, and so on, and so forth* in the second group.

up. For example: */I know that I have treated you real had and that I should have spoken to you before I went; but I was **kind of** rattled, and from the time when I saw Frank here again I just didn't know what I was doing or saying //* [220, p.297]. */She was so pleased with her performance that when she had got into her room and **somewhat** noisily locked the door, she paraded up and down bowing right and left graciously to her obsequious retainers//* [220].

Hedges such as *a little, a bit, just, quite, fairly, slightly, in one respect*, included in the third group by N.Riekkinen, limit the meaning of the utterance. For example: */He took up the paper in a listless way, but his attention instantly became revived and he gave **a little** cry of satisfaction //* [220, p.297]. */“The secretary told me you were rehearsing this morning, Miss Lambert,” the young man remarked. “Does that mean you're putting on a new play ?” “Not **a bit of** it, answered Michael//* [257, p.19]. */“Michael thought we were getting **a bit** ragged”, so he called a rehearsal//* [257, p.19]. */“I'm so glad you like it”. Her voice was rather low and ever so slightly hoarse//* [257, p. 17].

In this classification, the fourth group includes modal verbs such as *would, could, might, may, should*. For example: */ Perhaps, Mrs.Moulton, you **would** like my friend and me to leave the room while you explain this matter?” //* [220, p.297]. */ Her honest father **may** not have observed these symptoms, but they were assuredly not thrown away upon the man who had won her affections //* [220, p.61]. */*

If there was nothing else left to him, he *could* at least devote his life to revenge // [220, p.73].

In the fifth group, hedges expressing hesitation such as *perhaps, maybe, probably* are reflected. For example: */That's what you won't do, if you don't take care. But **perhaps** your idea of enjoyments to make yourself wretched* // [225, p.98].

*/ If the boat comes in late I shall **probably** stay the night; she told Jimmie* // [257, p.57].

The sixth group combines hedges such as *seem, tend to, try to, claim* in itself. For example, */The word "deprived" **seemed** to him cold and unsatisfactory, but "bereaved" was too final, and no other word of two syllables short-long came to him, which would enable him to keep "whose lover's heart is weeping"* // [225, p.113].

The seventh group includes hedges like *to be honest, I hate to have to say this, I would be willing to let you*. These hedges are rarely used in written or spoken language. For example: */ **To be honest**, it would be so spendid for both of them!*// [220, p.118].

As it can be seen, although eight groups are indicated in the classification given by N.Riekkinen, he was not included in the eighth group at all.

In the semantic analysis of hedges A.P.Moryuchin's classification also draws special attention. Thus, he divides hedges or approximators into the following groups:

1) prototyping hedges. He refers to the word "somewhat" here.

2) gradualization – here, the desire of the speaker is taken as the basis. Hedges denoting gradualness are often expressed in speech with the adjectives and adverbs and their degree categories. Suffixes -ish, -y often weaken the negative effect in the interlocutor's speech.

3) quantification hedges. These hedges serve to soften the meaning of the utterance. The word “almost” mainly refers to this.

4) hedges express uncertainty. This type of hedges means indeterminacy, uncertainty.

5) understatement. He inserts the word “slightly” here.

6) mitigation. This type of hedges also try to reduce negativity in the interlocutor's speech [258, p.116].

In linguistic works *I think, well, you know* are defined as metacommunicative, deictic and heterointerpretive discursive markers which are mostly used in evaluative statements with a stylistic tint of exaggeration and at the same time are the signals of discursive markers aimed at the addressee. The terminological problem of these discursive markers leads to a variety of definitions: mystical particles, modal words or particles, pragmatic words and particles, epistemic modality, hedging and hedging.

Hedges in linguistics are classified according to the following parameters: 1) hedge assumptions (uncertainty in the answer), 2) hedges of apology (mitigation of the negative), 3) hedges – markers of "female speech" (displaying the social status of the speaker). These parameters differ significantly from each other, but in general, the main

functions of these discursive markers can be characterized as follows: a) hedges – markers that organize discourse; b) hedges – markers that signal cooperation and interaction; c) hedges – markers that signal support [195, p.1126].

The functions of the hedge *well* are primarily determined by its distribution: in the initial position or in the medial position in the utterance. The implications of the *well*, as well as the most commonly used hedges – *you know* and *I think* are non-categoricalness, time and preparation for planning further statements.

Hedge *well* is fragilitive, at the same time dependent. It does not form a separate syntagm and the initial element of the pretact of a certain syntagma. Using *well* the speaker's desire is to show his own defenselessness, fragility, tenderness, weakness, resentment or the search for attention, sympathy, support, consolation.

For example: / I started when I saw the name, for it was that of none other than – *well*, perhaps even to you I had better say no more than that it was a name which is a household word all over the earth – one of the highest, noblest, most exalted names in England // [220, p. 302].

/ “*Well*, matters went from bad to verse with us and this animal Hudson became more and more intrusive, until at last, on his making some insolent reply to my father in my presence one day // [220, p. 378].

In linguistics, understatement is also used as a synonym for hedging. Understatement is a stylistic means that allows the speaker to weaken the decisiveness of the

sentence. Understatement is often used with the words *quite, rather, a bit, a little*. The difference between hedging and understatement can be traced in the *understatement – downtoner – hedge trichotomy*:

1) understatement (*a moment, a second, a little bit*)

For example: / Could you answer my questions **for a moment?** //

2) downtoners (*possibly, just, perhaps, simply, rather, maybe*) .

For example: / Could you **possibly** open the door? //

3) hedges (*sort of kind of, somehow, and so on, more or less*)

For example: /Could you **kind of** show me the way? // [139, p.132].

In the process of communication, choosing the right words and saying them in the right place is of particular importance. Using words like *you know, well, really* indicates that the speaker is looking for the right word. For example: /Then she **really** meant to go away // [224, p.220]. /**You know**, it is not really a star part. But I thought I could make something out of it // [256, p. 20].

“Hedges such as “I think, I suppose, I have the feeling, may be my perception is not quite right” show how the speaker evaluates the person he is thinking about” [268, p.42] . /I **suppose** I should mention they were not exactly small and covered most of my arms // [276, p.13].

Improper use of hedges in the text creates ambiguity and misunderstanding. They are sometimes used in the

text to reduce the potential risk of a claim being made or to prevent an unpleasant situation from arising.

A.Prokofieva and J.Hirshberg also touched on the issue of ambiguities of hedges. According to them, in the sentences /I **think** it is a little odd/ (1) and /I **think** about you all the time/ (2), the expression /I think/ makes them ambiguous [264].

In other words, although they accept the expression /I think/ as neuter in the first sentence, they do not consider the same expression in the second sentence as neuter.

Of course, one cannot disagree with this idea. Since the first sentence reflects the attitude to the action, it can be called a hedge. In the second sentence, /I think/ cannot be called a hedge because it expresses mental ability.

There are a number of features of processing this or that hedge in a sentence. For example, hedge is mainly used as an addition in a sentence, it is often separated from the word that comes after it in writing with a comma, it is a part of a compound sentence. As you can see, in the examples given above, the first sentence consists of principal (I **think**) and subordinate (*it is a little odd*) sentences, and the second sentence is a simple sentence.

Initially it was believed that hedges are mostly directed into saving the negative face of the addressee, whereas boosters are mostly concerned to save the positive face of the interlocutor. In reality both hedges and boosters can be negatively and positively oriented.

Hedging includes stylistic features such as vagueness, understatement, mitigation, vaccentuation, attenuation, quantification, intensification, gradualization, evidentiality (clarity), performativity, epistemic modality, ambiguity, homonymy, implicature, doubletalk, evasiveness.

Thus, the main function of hedges – mitigations, the processing of which depends on the individual's style, is to express uncertainty, politeness, misunderstanding, indirectness in the text. They create a connection between the speaker and the listener, the author and the reader. Hedges that perform a number of functions express more doubt, hesitation, avoidance of criticism in the communication process. They are also used to be sensitive to other people's feelings.

So, hedgings are not a collection of the separate words in the vocabulary of the language, but a textual phenomenon that occurs in written text or speech.

Hedges are distinguished by both form and function. In linguistics, words used with the verb to be (*The result appears to be that...*), a number of verbs (*The result suggests that...*), modal verbs (*The result might be that...*), adverbs indicating precision (*The result possibly is that...*) and adjectives indicating precision (*It is possible that the result....*) were accepted as neuter [215].

For example: */The result possibly was* not so very depressing after all, though of course it might have been better; a tin of sardines – a box of captain's biscuits, nearly

full-and a German sausage encased in silver paper// [226, p.138].

Modal verbs are the main lexical tool used to emphasize hedging in English. Authors use modal verbs more carefully. However, along with modal verbs, verbs or words expressing modality also play an important role in expressing ideas. Verbs such as *propose, suggest, attempt, aim, intend, contribute*, and *allow* are widely used in the texts. For example: / “I **suggest** you've never had anything to do with the theatre from the inside before?”, she said// [257, p.21].

In semantic analysis of hedging two types of modality play a special role in linguistics: epistemic and deontic.

The worldview of the speaker, belief in the presented information is taken as the basis In the epistemic modality. Deontic modality means the importance of the action performed by the agent.

Epistemic modality is expressed by adverbs, which are frequently used in periodicals published in English.

M.R.Perkins distinguishes three subcategories of adverbs: 1) presumptive (probably, apparently, evidently, certainly, obviously), 2) denoting an indefinite frequency (usually, often, seldom), 3) denoting an indefinite degree (quite, relatively, slightly), adverbs of approximation (about, nearly, roughly) [262, p. 69].

Hedges are mostly used in journalistic materials. Journalism differs from other functional styles due to a number of features, for example, reflecting different positions

and interests, different emotions and being close to the common language.

Presumptive adverbs indicate indefinite epistemic modality and this type of adverbs is used more often in journalistic materials in English than in Azerbaijani. For example: /British consumers are *apparently* on a new round of belt-tightening as soaring food and petrol prices and below-inflation wage rises eat into household budgets// [304].

Adverbs of this type, which we also meet in the Azerbaijani language, are considered as hedging. For example: / *Of course, the measures taken in the industrial field have paid off, and as a result, the production of industrial products has increased nearly 110 times over the past 23 years* // [305].

Adverbs denoting indefinite frequency are used more in English than in Azerbaijani. For example: / We are *usually* debated for about six days // [304].

/ *Always* true to its values, SOCAR will hand over the wells in full health, in accordance with technical safety and environmental protection requirements, without any complications, before the scheduled time // [305].

Adverbs of indefinite degree are also more common in English-language articles. For example: /Although *slightly* improvement on the month, the balance remains in negative territory, showing that more retailers reported a slump in sales than a rise // [303].

/...By 2020, a strategic vision of the heavy industry and machine-building sector is aimed at achieving *significant*

satisfaction of the needs of domestic large consumers of heavy industry and machine-building enterprises in the segment of low and medium value products, increasing the share of Azerbaijani products in the regional market // [303].

Hedges denoting epistemic modality indicate a strong belief in the issue voiced in the utterance.

For example: /However, I no longer *believe*, leaving with a deal is a government's main objective. Or rather, as I *believe*, there is no good alternative to that // [303].

/ *I believe that* these ideas, which have been confirmed for centuries, will not become obsolete no matter how much they are repeated // [302].

The expressions “I believe” and “I believe that” used in these sentences are used as additions and play the role of shields in the sentence. In both languages, “I believe” and “I believe that” express the speaker's personal attitude to the action being performed.

Hedges using with if clauses are also often used in both political and economic articles. Hedges used in these types of sentences convey a hypothetical meaning or uncertainty. If clauses are typical conditional sentences and express explicit and implicit meanings. For example: If true..., If anything... unless..., should one... etc.

For example: /Ben Rhodes, former national security adviser to Barack Obama, wrote on Twitter: “*If Trump* was trying to abuse his power of the presidency to solicit foreign help for his campaign, it's hard to imagine a more im-

peachable offense" // [303]. / She said on Wednesday: "You don't bring an impeachment *unless* you have all the facts" // [303].

If clauses were used extensively in the periodical press published in the Azerbaijani language, but in economic articles their sphere of operation was weak. For example: / It was reported that if their control cash registers are implemented, any payment that occurs in the retail trade and service sector will be reflected in the system at that moment // [50].

5.2. Pragmatics of hedging

Hedging being is a natural language phenomenon and an integral part of the text, fulfills a universal discursive marker and carries the literary text and its meaning.

Observations show that hedges are widely used in English not only in ordinary speech, but also in fiction. Examples of the most common hedges are: *as you probably know, to cut (cutting) a long story short, I won't bore you with all details, I am sure if this is right, to my great astonishment, extremely so, in my understanding, my thinking is, frankly speaking, etc.*

For example: */This he unpacked with the help of a youth whom he had brought with him, and presently, **to my very great astonishment**, a quite epicurean little cold supper began to be laid out upon our humble lodging-house mahogany // [220, p.297].*

Hedging is a linguistic phenomenon used to convey interpersonal messages in spoken interaction. It is a communicative strategy which enables speakers to soften the force of utterances or moderate the assertive force of it. It is resulted from different features such as uncertainty, doubt, tentativeness, ambiguity, neutrality, mitigation and subjectivity. Hedges are expressions used to communicate the speaker's weak commitment to information conveyed.

Towards the end of the 20th century, hedges moved away from their original function and began to be used in pragmatics and utterance analysis [254, p.4].

“Hedging helps to maintain and regulate relations between communicants and plays an important role in harmonizing communication and the main functions of it: avoiding conflicts, saving the face of both the speaker and the hearer, softening the illocutionary force of the utterance, protecting the propositional content of the utterance. Hedges can make communication euphemistic, moderate, polite and flexible which effectively helps to maintain and adjust the relationship between speakers and hearers and keep the communication smooth. Hedging can be used both as a negative and positive politeness strategy depending on the speakers’ goals in a verbal exchange” [288].

Hedges being the basic unit of mediated communication can also be called a universal discursive means. Lotfi Zadeh, the founder of fuzzy logic theory used the term hedge or hedging in the modeling of natural language structures [112].

Considerations about hedging in linguistics were first stated by U.Weinreich in 1966. U.Weinreich calls hedging a universal phenomenon and notes that it is characteristic of all languages and calls these elements “metalinguistic operators” and includes here hedges such as *true, real, so-called, strictly speaking, all, like*, etc. [292, p.16].

M.A.Petrovich, who calls “hedging” a language signal that softens or limits the meaning of the utterance, characterizes a number of its features as follows. *“Hedging allows one to individualize one’s opinion, to be responsible for the validity of the proposition, to limit the authenticity and degree of validity of the judgment and to move away from absolute interpretation”* [139, p.12].

Hedging as a multifaced phenomenon includes semantic, pragmatic and cognitive factors. Its quality is developed through the context. A hedge cannot act as a separate word in the utterance, it depends on the desire of the speaker or the writer, as well as the worldview of the interlocutor [216, p.368]. Hedging plays an important role in creating a dialogue between the writer and the reader, the speaker and the listener [234, p.56].

Pragmatic competence is conveying the message to the interlocutor as it is without any changes. Since the main purpose of communication is the exchange of information, oral speech performs various tasks. These are the interpersonal aspect of information exchange and communication. These tasks show their realization in mutual understanding between people.

“Hedges has been the part of face-to-face comminification and has a unique place in utterance. It tells the speaker his feelings – certainty, doubt, guess, etc. increases self-confidence by revealing” [244, p.95].

As a pragmatic phenomenon, the use of some hedges both in speech and in writing is related to certain reasons: their meaning is realized only within the context. The use of hedges in a text often depends on the desire, belief, and even personality of the speaker or writer [254, p.12].

Whether in writing or speaking the role of hedges is irreplaceable in choosing the right word. They have been studied in various fields such as, gender, politeness theory, translation, academic utterance.

In the 1990s, the linguistic research continues to investigate the model of politeness in the analysis of male and female languages. J.Coates assumes that males and females speak differently. She collects evidences to prove this issue. Her research shows that there are differences between males and females use of language with regard to certain features such as, hedges and discusses five examples of hedges (I think, I’m sure, you know, sort of, and perhaps) in males and females chat-logs. She comes to the conclusion that males use more hedges than females [213, p.3].

Drawing on her own research on gender association with speech acts, J.Holmes approves that females are more polite than males. In order to emphasize her view, she

mentions that, for example, females often use hedges more than males [232].

5.3. Hedges and approximators

In linguistics, hedges were also called approximators. From the end of the 20th century, the pragmatic analysis of hedges came to the fore, and gradually the term “hedge” lost its previous meaning of “approximator” and made its way into utterance analysis. In pragmatics, since hedges serve to reduce the impact of speech, pragmatic competence comes to the fore.

Approximators affect the semantics of the sentence, and shields affect the pragmatics.

It is also possible to find parenthetical hedges in English. For example: / *I was quite started I **must say** to find that this pedestal is still in situ* //. “**Must say**” in the example is neither a subordinate nor a principal clause. Such hedges can be used or omitted in the sentence. Leaving them as parenthetical words in the sentence does not change the grammatical meaning of the sentence: / *I will be there, I **promise you*** //. / *I was, I **admit**, a little late* // [277].

So, hedgings are not a collection of the separate words in the vocabulary of the language, but a textual phenomenon that occurs in written text or speech.

Hedges are distinguished by both form and function. In linguistics, words used with the verb to be (*The result appears to be that...*), a number of verbs (*The result suggests that...*), modal verbs (*The result might be that...*), adverbs in-

dicating precision (*The result possibly is that...*) and adjectives indicating precision (*It is possible that the result....*) were accepted as neuter [215].

For example: /*The result possibly was* not so very depressing after all, though of course it might have been better; a tin of sardines – a box of capitain's biscuits, nearly full-and a German sausage encased in silver paper// [226, p.138].

Modal verbs are the main lexical tool used to emphasize hedging in English. Authors use modal verbs more carefully. However, along with modal verbs, verbs or words expressing modality also play an important role in expressing ideas. Verbs such as *propose, suggest, attempt, aim, intend, contribute*, and *allow* are widely used in the texts. For example: / “I **suggest** you've never had anything to do with the theatre from the inside before?”, she said// [257, p.21].

In semantic analysis of hedging two types of modality play a special role in linguistics: epistemic and deontic.

The worldview of the speaker, belief in the presented information is taken as the basis In the epistemic modality. Deontic modality means the importance of the action performed by the agent.

Epistemic modality is expressed by adverbs, which are frequently used in periodicals published in English.

M.R.Perkins distinguishes three subcategories of adverbs: 1) presumptive (probably, apparently, evidently, certainly, obviously), 2) denoting an indefinite frequency

(usually, often, seldom), 3) denoting an indefinite degree (quite, relatively, slightly), adverbs of approximation (about, nearly, roughly) [262, p.69].

Hedges are mostly used in journalistic materials. Journalism differs from other functional styles due to a number of features, for example, reflecting different positions and interests, different emotions and being close to the common language.

Presumptive adverbs indicate indefinite epistemic modality and this type of adverbs is used more often in journalistic materials in English than in Azerbaijani. For example: / British consumers are *apparently* on a new round of belt-tightening as soaring food and petrol prices and below-inflation wage rises eat into household budgets // [304].

Adverbs of this type, which we also meet in the Azerbaijani language, are considered as hedging. For example: / *Of course, the measures taken in the industrial field have paid off, and as a result, the production of industrial products has increased nearly 110 times over the past 23 years* // [305].

Adverbs denoting indefinite frequency are used more in English than in Azerbaijani. For example: / We are *usually* debated for about six days // [304].

/ *Always* true to its values, SOCAR will hand over the wells in full health, in accordance with technical safety and environmental protection requirements, without any complications, before the scheduled time // [305].

Adverbs of indefinite degree are also more common in English-language articles. For example: /Although *slightly* improvement on the month, the balance remains in negative territory, showing that more retailers reported a slump in sales than a rise // [303].

/...By 2020, a strategic vision of the heavy industry and machine-building sector is aimed at achieving *significant satisfaction* of the needs of domestic large consumers of heavy industry and machine-building enterprises in the segment of low and medium value products, increasing the share of Azerbaijani products in the regional market // [303].

Hedges denoting epistemic modality indicate a strong belief in the issue voiced in the utterance.

For example: /However, I no longer *believe*, leaving with a deal is a government's main objective. Or rather, as I *believe*, there is no good alternative to that // [303].

/ *I believe that* these ideas, which have been confirmed for centuries, will not become obsolete no matter how much they are repeated // [302].

The expressions “I believe” and “I believe that” used in these sentences are used as additions and play the role of shields in the sentence. In both languages, “I believe” and “I believe that” express the speaker's personal attitude to the action being performed.

Hedges using with if clauses are also often used in both political and economic articles. Hedges used in these types of sentences convey a hypothetical meaning or un-

certainty. If clauses are typical conditional sentences and express explicit and implicit meanings. For example: If true..., If anything... unless..., should one... etc.

For example: /Ben Rhodes, former national security adviser to Barack Obama, wrote on Twitter: “*If Trump* was trying to abuse his power of the presidency to solicit foreign help for his campaign, it's hard to imagine a more impeachable offense” // [303]. / She said on Wednesday: “You don't bring an impeachment *unless* you have all the facts” // [303].

If clauses were used extensively in the periodical press published in the Azerbaijani language, but in economic articles their sphere of operation was weak. For example: / It was reported that if their control cash registers are implemented, any payment that occurs in the retail trade and service sector will be reflected in the system at that moment // [50].

5.4. The role of approximators, intensifiers in the speech act

Approximators, being the part of the hedges, control propositional content and express expressiveness in interpretation through signs. The classification of approximators in modern English was given by Y.E.Sorokin [161, p.63-78], I.L.Shkot [192], S.B.Adamovich. S.B.Adamovich classifies approximators according to three characteristics: semantic-pragmatic, functional and structural [79, p.114 and 122].

Although the term “approximator” is not used independently in modern linguistics, it shows itself in words and expressions that indicate approximation. The semantics of approximators remains difficult and understudied. The main means of expressing approximators is the abstract syntactic model “Appr+X”. “Appr” – is approximator, “X” – is the main word and this model acts as a nominative unit and plays an important role in the functional semantic field of approximation. “X” can be expressed as a noun, pronoun, number, adjective, participle, gerund and verb.

Approximation as a modal category expresses the speaker's subjective attitude to the facts of objective reality. This category has a conceptual-linguistic nature, as it is oriented to the assessment and interpretation of information by the addressee in the process of its transmission by linguistic means. It is realised in English with the help of approximators [110, p.30].

According to Yu.Sorokin "An approximator is understood as a linguistic unit (morpheme, word, phrase combination, predicative construction) having the seme "approximation", represented in the semantic structure or contextually conditioned" [161, p. 65].

Quantitative approximators are the most commonly used forms in English and the following typical pattern is characteristic for it. “Appr+Num” or “about+num”.

Approximators are also present at the textual level, where they denote connectedness, integrity, relevance, in-

formativeness, modality, and play an important role in the process of speech understanding [119, p.27].

Lexical and grammatical categories cannot fully cover the integrity of the conceptual content expressed in the text. Apart from encyclopedic and linguistic knowledge, the speaker applies his personal opinion as well as the interpretation of the meaning in concrete speech, and these meanings are expressed in the language through the categories of the modal genre. Modus type categories include approximators and adaptors.

There is no accepted definition of the term “approximator” in linguistics. In modern linguistics, like other linguistic phenomena, the boundaries of the term “approximator” have not been clearly defined. Although a number of articles have been devoted to the study of approximators, its semantics remains one of the complex and understudied linguistic phenomena.

V.N.Sadovsky considers their approximators to be ‘empty elements’ because they have no semantic meaning [152, p.35].

We cannot agree with this opinion of V.N.Sadovsky, because approximators such as *around*, *about*, *approximately*, *roughly*, *at least*, *at the most*, *almost*, *nearly*, all have a separate semantic load, so they can be combined on a single conceptual basis and called a linguistic category.

Linguistics states that there are different types of approximators. Y.E.Sorokin calls suffixes (-ish, -like), modifiers like *almost*, *somewhat*, *more or less*, *if I am not mistaken*,

approximators. According to Y.E.Sorokin, semantically one or more syllable approximators are divided into three groups:

- 1) norm-denoting approximators – *on the whole, largely*;
- 2) approximators that denote diminutiveness – *faintly, at least*;
- 3) limiting approximators.

He also divides limiting approximators into three subgroups:

a) denoting reduction *a bit (of), sort of, kind of, slightly, not much*; b) indefinite *somewhat, something, in a way, nearly, or so*; c) relative-comparative *comparatively, relatively, as if, as though, like*. For example: /But it *seemed* to Julia that he held himself in some curious way aloof, *as though* he were playing a part in which he had not lost himself, and she had an uneasy feeling that he was not accepting all these people, but coolly judging them // [257, p.125].

Based on this classification, the researcher concludes that there are two types of approximators: connected and free [161, p.70-71].

We think that the classification proposed by Y.E.Sorokin has a number of shortcomings. First, the division of approximators into single-word and multi-word is formal in nature. Second, the researcher does not consider the means by which the approximators are quantified, and finally, third, he does not consider the role of context in the development of functional approximators.

The original classification of aptoximators was studied by E.S.Bocharova. He divides them into 4 groups:

1) “Absolute approximators” – *almost, nearly, about* etc. In the subgroup of “absolute approximators” there are also “minimizers” (reduction) whose semantics are approximation and negation, such as *scarcely, hardly, barely*. For example: /When they'd eaten *about half a dozen* they discovered that they all had little maggots in them. An English climber there saw how upset they were, and ate the whole of the rest of the cherries – *about two pounds* – maggots, stones and all, just to show them// [224, p.136].

2) Approximators such as *kind of, sort of, of a sort, somewhat off, something like, something of, or something, or anything* represent approximations. At the same time, this group also includes approximators that indicate the hidden degree of a sign, such as *half, part, partly, semi, quasi*. For example: /You must translate of course! Now you can say *something like* cheering the old boy up?// [224, p.113].

3) *at least, no fewer than, not more than, no less than, more than, fewer than* etc. approximators mean comparability and approximation. For example: / “Solemnly and with a delicious egoism he *more than* awfully desired her who snug and rosy in the pink shell of her involuted and so petulant social periphrasis” – Poor Wilfrid!// [224, p.131].

4) *up to, below, from ... to..., within, or more, under* are approximators that give an uncertain approximation. For example: /Stripping the coverings off the picture, Fleur brought it in, and setting it *up to* the jade-green settee, stood away and looked at it// [224, p.133; 91, p.11].

There are several subgroups of approximators: a) degree denoting: *approximately, roughly, about*, 2) denoting indefinite quantity: *a lot of, a bit of, many/much, some, little/a little, a few/few/fewer, less (than), a number of, a good/ great deal of, more or less, more (than), at least, over, under*, 3) denoting indefinite frequency and time: *frequently, often, occasionally/on occasion, generally/in general, sometimes, from time to time, (hardly) ever, rarely, seldom, always, around, round about*.

Two subclasses of approximators are also distinguished. These are *adaptors* and *rounders*.

Adaptors (G.Lakof calls them *hedge*). Here includes hedges such as *somewhat, sort of, almost describable as, some, a little bit*. On the other hand, shields, like approximators, do not change the content of the utterance, but indirectly indicate the attitude of the speaker.

Approximators are stylistic means that can change the original meaning of a sentence. The proper use of the approximators in verbal communication helps the speaker to express his thoughts accurately. The approximate adverbs within the text weaken the force of the verbs they belong to and mainly express the quantity in the sentence.

The approximative adverb “about” is used more often in both Azerbaijani and English-language economic articles than in political articles. For example: /Amber Rudd istefasının səbəblərindən biri hökumətin Brexit sazişini yənidən müzakirə etmək cəhdində ciddi olmaması olduğunu söylədi//. – /Amber Rudd said the government's lack of

seriousness about trying to renegotiate a Brexitdeal was one reason for her resignation// [304].

/ Ölkəmizdə taxılçılığın inkişafı üçün dövlət tərəfindən fermerlərə əvəzsiz subsidiyalar verilir, onlar güzəştli şərtlərlə elit toxum və müasir texnika ilə təchiz edilir. Bu qayğılardan ruhlanan fermerlər bu ilin məhsulu üçün ötən payızda 172 min 465 hektara yaxın sahədə taxıl səpmişlər //.

/ For the development of grain farming in our country, the government provides invaluable subsidies to farmers, equips them with elite seeds and modern equipment on preferential terms. Encouraged by these concerns, the farmers sowed grain in about 172,465 hectares last fall for this year's crop // [305].

V.Q.Voloshin tries to classify the types of linguistic approximation taking into account the possibility of updating this category at all levels of the linguistic structure.

I. Phonographic approximation. An example of this type are various onomatopoeias that imitate the sounds of animate and inanimate nature, the approximateness of which can be proved by the presence of a variation of one sound in different languages (bow-wow, drip-drop, croak-croak). It is expedient to attribute pauses to phonographic approximation, which reflect the speaker's uncertainty about the accuracy of the transmitted information and are indicated by ellipsis in writing.

II. Morphological approximation. Approximators representing an affix (-ish, -like, semi-) containing semes "approximation" adjoining words, modifying their seman-

tics in accordance with the meanings expressed by them (approximators).

III. Lexical approximation. In this kind of approximator the words or phrases like almost, approximately, nearly, at least, kind of, no more than, sort of are used.

IV. A syntactic approximation in which the approximator is a syntactic construction like, either ... or, from ... to, neither...nor, or...and, etc.

V. Text approximation. Under the expression of the category of approximation in the text one can understand the similarity of the lexical-semantic, structural-syntactic and structural-compositional properties of the secondary text to the properties of the original text [100, p.18].

The classification of approximators shows once again that it is a universal category and covers all levels of the language. Approximators show up at all levels of language: lexical, grammatical and phonological. According to I.L.Shkot, the indicator of the approximator at the phonetic level is a pause and the hesitation of the speaker. In writing, hesitation is expressed with graphic indicators, mainly three points. It is expressed at the lexical level with the words "almost", "nearly", "practically", "kind of" at the lexical-semantic level with the expressions "in a way", "to some extent", and at the grammatical level with "neither...nor", "either...or" modifiers [192, p.26].

For example: /*Neither* dog *nor* cat, monkey nor any creature that we are familiar with// [220, p.416].

Adaptors, which are a subgroup of approximators, play an important role in revealing the truth in a proposition by performing the determining function in communication. Shields, like approximators, do not change the content of the utterance, but indirectly indicate the attitude of the speaker.

For example: /He *nearly* turned to Corporal Silvestro and asked, "What do you think?" // [265, p.176]. In this example, the speaker is trying to describe the situation, even if it is not completely from the current situation, and that is why he uses the adaptor "nearly".

For example: /My dear! Impos! She's got *all sorts of* people coming//.

/"It is very much the *sort of* thing that I expected," said he// [224, p.60];

Rounders also mean a certain limit and are used with hedges such as *about, approximately, something around*. For example: /*Approximately* two months – your very first love affair, a matter of half a dozen meetings, a few talks and walks, a few kisses – against, against what you can't imagine, what no one could who hasn't been through it // [224, p.181].

Thus, rounders are used mainly as determiners in the text. Both adaptors and rounders initiate a connection between the actual and the target situation.

Another group of hedges are shields. They serve the relationship between the propositional content and the speaker changes. There is some ambiguity in the content. Shields do not change the original intent of the text, they

express the assumption that the speaker is making. For instance: In the sentence / *In my opinion*, he will know how to use it. He will make sure that Don Groce and the government in Rome will know it is safely in America and then will not dare harm Guiliano // [265, p.244], the first person singular pronoun (my) expresses alternative thoughts and ideas. Here, the main function of the shield expressing doubt is to divert the speaker's mind from other issues and to give a doubtful attitude to the expressed opinion. Shields are used in the first person singular or plural, but they do not serve to moderate the speaker's tone. A number of modal verbs are also used in the text to moderate the meaning.

For instance: /They *might not* conceive of any greater joy in life; to work their own land, to keep what they produced by the sweat of their brow, for themselves and their children // [265, p.255].

Doubtful shields reduce the speaker's accountability. This group consists of two subgroups: 1) *plausibility shields*, 2) *attribution shields*. Expressions such as *I think, I take it, probably, as far as I can tell, right now, I have to believe, I don't see that* are included in shields expressing doubt.

For example: /June was silent, having experienced in her time the inexorable character of her father's amiable obstinacy *as far as she can say* his own freedom of action was concerned // [225, p.119]; /*I think* I had better tell him before he gets to know otherwise // [220, p.113].

Attribution shields (sometimes called *attributive hedges*) usually consist of a combination of several words. This subgroup includes expressions such as *according to her estimates, presumably, at least to X's knowledge*. For example: */According to his estimates, she is a terrible attractive woman //* [256, p.108].

Attribution shields indicate the attitude of the speaker to the thought in the statement. To demonstrate this relationship, let's turn to an example:

For example: In the sentence */It was made of something like silk/*, “something like” is an approximator because it mitigates the meaning in context. If we add */I suspect/* in front of the sentence */It was made of something like silk/*, “something like” in that sentence will be considered as a shield.

Approximators indicate the truthfulness of a statement but attribution shields the degree of responsibility of a speaker or a writer. The latter shows where a statement comes from and can support a claim or address its limitations. The speaker's own degree of commitment can be inferred indirectly, because the concrete source of information needs to be related to the content. Nonetheless, attribution shields provide a piece of information for evaluating the substance of arguments. Plausibility shields, in contrast, indicate explicit or implicit doubts about a statement by adding such words as “probably,” “seem to”. For instance, using words such as “possibly”, “probably” can help the speaker to relativize a statement.

For example: / I looked at the clock. It was a quarter to twelve. This could not be a visitor at so late an hour. A patient evidently, and *possibly* an all – night sitting// [220, p.411].

Shields do not affect the truth conditions of the proposition, but reflect the speaker's attitude towards the content of the topic. Adaptors are words that can reveal the authenticity of the discourse. Rounders refer to those words that can affect the scope of original discourse. They are often used when the speaker thinks it is impossible or unnecessary to give the precise number or term. Plausibility shields refer to the speaker's direct surmise of things, or the speaker's attitude or evaluation of things. Attribution shields means that the speaker quotes the opinions or statements from others and indirectly expresses the speaker's own opinions or views [209, p.17].

I.L.Shkot declares approximation as a functional-semantic category. Taking into account the nature of modification of the word meaning in a sentence, as well as the nature of interaction between the components of a word combination and the approximator, the researcher distinguishes five semantic types of approximation existing at the text level: 1) limiting approximation. It is characterised by occasional blurring of the word meaning. For example: /After some years in San Fransisco, she was surprised to find herself almost happy//;

2) exclusive approximation consists of the occasional exclusion of one or more semes from the semantic structure

re of the approximated word. For example: /A whale is kind of a fish//;

3) additive approximation indicate the interaction of the represented referent implicitly. For example: /Qabala is improving day by day,' he said, 'but mainly in tourism sphere//. /It shows that Qabala is improving in other spheres, but to a smaller extent//;

4) comparative approximation compares implicitly the represented referent with the objects immediately surrounding it. For example: /She is comparatively a pretty woman still' means she is not really a pretty woman but she looks prettier than her friends//;

5) relational approximation, indicating the comparison of the represented referent with the denotative of the used word [191, p.15-16].

Y.E. Sorokin identifies morphemes (-ish, -like), the words 'almost' , 'somewhat' , 'more or less' , if I am not mistaken as approximators. In the semantic aspect, according to him approximators constitute three classes: 1) marginal (on the whole, largely); 2) diminutive (faintly, at least); 3) limiting, including three subgroups: *de-intensifying* (a bit (of) , sort of, kind of, slightly, not much), *indefinite* (somewhat, something, in a way, nearly) and *relationally comparative* (comparatively, relatively, as if, as though, like) [161, p.8].

The classification of approximators by semantic-pragmatic feature distinguishes two types of approximators: inherent and adherent.

Inherent approximators 'almost', 'approximately' are characterised by the constant presence of the hyperseme 'approximativity'. They are typical expressors of approximation and act in any context regardless of the pragmatics of speech. That is why ingredient approximators occupy the central position in the field of approximation, being nuclear constituents.

Adherent approximators (enough, perhaps, rather) can fulfil the functions, as intensifiers or modal words. Adherent approximators actualise the meaning of approximativity and become the markers of approximation only in a certain context and the pragmatic attitude of the speaker plays an important role in this [79, p.114].

Hedges play a significant pragmatic function in the discourse. Writing about the hedges affected by social variables such as, gender M.M.Munthir and Sh.S.Ranian write: "In 1980's, many studies confirm that the women more often than the men tend to use speech style that gives the impression of politeness. Females use more politeness strategies than males. Although both males and females use hedges, only females use them to express personal feelings and doubt. Males use hedges to express their doubt too [259, p.2].

V.A.Petrovich includes processes and events, accentual elements of speech and functional-semantic categories as tools of mediated communication. He includes prototyping (a sort of), vagueness (enough) to processes and events, hedges denoting quantity, intensification to stress

elements of the utterance and gradualization (finishing), epistemic modality as well as the stylistic devices of understatement and mitigation to functional-semantic categories [139, p.17].

The hedge “A sort of” is included in prototyping. For example: /A penguin is *a sort of* a bird//. “Enough” refers to hedges expressing uncertainty and “always, approximately, never, many/much, seldom”, etc. refer to hedges expressing quantity [139, p.18].

Degree adverbs are called in linguistics “intensifiers”. Intensifiers fall under two subcategories: amplifiers and downtoners. Intensifiers indicate an increase of force conveyed by the word and the downtoners a decrease of the force. Quirk et al. (1985) then further classify amplifiers into maximizers (completely, absolutely) and boosters (very, highly) to denote the high degree of a scale, and downtoners into approximators (nearly, virtually), compromisers (fairly, quite), diminishers (slightly), and minimizers (hardly, scarcely) to denote the low degree of a scale [266, p.598].

In reality, intensifiers are the frequently used adverbials both in spoken and written language. These adverbials may affect the meaning and prosody of the whole sentence. Amplifiers, on the other hand, are the common types of adverbs, which convey the degree of their collocates. According to Quirk et al amplifiers are divided into two subclasses: maximizers and boosters. The maximizers –

absolutely, completely, entirely, totally, utterly, fully, likely and perfectly are very common in English.

For example: /It is, I think, much more *likely* that Henry Baker is an *absolutely* innocent man, who had no idea that the bird which he was carrying was of *considerably* more value than if it were made of solid gold// [220, p.250].

/“Your experience is, so far as know, *perfectly* unique’, said he, “may I ask, sir, what you did then?” [220, p.873].

The term of “intensifiers” is different from one scholar to another. Some call them ‘degree words’, others defines them as ‘intensifiers’. Both ‘degree words’ and ‘intensifiers’ refer to the linguistic elements used to boost or to downgrade the meaning of the words. They express the quality or levels of the words they modify [278].

The use of intensifiers has received a great attention from researchers. Studies have found that the use of intensifiers varies with spoken and written English and the frequency of intensifiers is found to be higher in writing than in speaking . The use of intensifiers is also found closely related with the quality of text. The importance of intensification in the communicative process is that it is a vehicle for impressing, praising, persuading, insulting and generally influencing the listener’s reception of the message. Though it may be argued that intensifiers are not so vital in syntax, they do play an important role in daily communication to convey different attitudes of the speaker or the writer. The improper use of these intensifiers can often le-

ad to non-nativeness of learner language, undercutting the effect of learner language and exerting a negative effect on communication [219, p.32].

Intensification refers to the quality of the modification and it includes affixation, degree categories of adjectives and adverbs, quantifiers, etc. Intensification allows the communicator to increase or decrease the pragmatic force of the utterance. According to Kvirik et al., Anglo-Saxon terminology indicates three different functions of intensification: 1. emphaziers "really, simply"; 2. amplifiers "absolutely"; 3. downtoners "kind of, sort of, quite, rather, more or less, partly, slightly, somewhat, a little, a bit, a harf, barely, hardly, scarcely, at all" etc. [266, p.231].

For example: /It gave them *more* the effect of hysteria than of passion// [257, p.28]. /He smiled. "You know that's not *half* a bad idea"// [257, p.41]. / I called at Allan Brothers', the chief land agents in the village, and found that it was from this firm that the villa had been rented. It struck me that the whole proceesing could *hardly* be for the purpose of making a fool of me, and that the main object must be to get out of the rent// [220, p.873].

In English both in written and spoken languages intensifying adverb *quite* is frequently used. Sometimes it is difficult to differentiate them whether they are adverbs or adjectives. "*Such difficulties often arise with the intensifying adverb quite, which can be used to indicate both functions depending on the context. Quite usually means fairly if used as an amplifier, as in /The film is quite good //. British speakers also*

use the intensifying adverb **quite** in the meaning of 'absolutely' before the adjectives which express an extreme degree of quality. In similar cases, **quite** is stressed" [295, p.73].

Various aspects of intensifications and means of their expression in spoken and written language has been drawing the attention of some linguists. The status of intensification remains the most discussed issues in modern linguistics. From the 20th century onwards, a great number of studies have been conducted in studying the use of intensifying adverbs.

There are a lot of adverbs in English and the majority of them are intensifying and have been added to the intensification system. E. V.Zhiber, L.V.Korotina states that "The present study has revealed that for the time being *very* is still the most popular intensifying adverb and its frequency is over five times as great as the frequency of *so* and *really*. On the whole, in British English *very*, *so* and *really* predominate and in American English *very*, *so*, *really* and *pretty* outnumber all intensifying adverbs discussed – *absolutely*, *extremely*, *totally*, *completely* and *entirely*" [295, p.85].

For example: /The country detective was a stout, puffy, red man, whose face was only redeemed from grossness by two extraordinary bright eyes, **absolutely** hidden behind the heavy creases of cheek and brow// [220, p. 73].

Building on the fact that the vast majority of intensifiers in English occur with adjectival heads all adjectives capable of being intensified and were included for the analy-

sis whether they were modified by an intensifier or not. Contexts that did not permit intensification, such as comparatives and superlatives, were excluded. Negative contexts were also left aside since they do not always express the same meaning [279, p.365].

The opposite of intensification is deintensification. Deintensification is divided into 3 semantic groups: moderate, intensive, limited attenuation.

Intensive attenuation are syllables that move down the scale and exhibit less noticeable weakness. Here includes *partly, slightly, somewhat, something, in part, in a way, to some extent, a little, a trifle*.

For example: / Dr. Armstrong is at present of interest to us, but now that I find

something he keeps so keen a look – out upon anyone who may follow him on these excursions the affair appears more important and I shall not be satisfied until I have made the matter clear // [220, p. 631].

The main purpose of emphasisers is to increase the overall effect of the power of meaning: *actually, certainly, clearly, definitely, obviously, really, frankly, honestly, just* etc. The frequent use of adverbs in the text gives more or less intensity and emphasis to the meaning.

For example: /It was *really* rather wonderful, when you came to think of it, that just to have lunch with her and talk to her for three quarters of an hour, perhaps, could make a man quite important in his own scrubby little circle// [257, p.16].

Amplifiers themselves are divided into maximizers and boosters. They both show above normal levels on the intensity scale. The main difference between them is that maximizers indicate a certain threshold, a level that indicates a limit (absolutely, completely, utterly, in all respects, most), they express the superlative degree of the modified item and boosters show the highest limit on the intensity scale (badly, deeply, very, immediately, actually, probably, strongly, unlikely, unfortunately) without reaching the extreme.

For example: /He gave his clothes a troubled look. "I'm **absolutely** filthy"// [257, p.15]. /They had moved into that house two years before, and he knew and Julia knew, that they had put it into the hands of an expensive decorator when they were going on tour, and he had agreed to have it **completely** ready for them, at cost price in return for the work they promised him in the theatre, by the time they came back// [257, p.18].

Both hedges and boosters can be used negatively and positively. In other words, hedges can help attenuate both negatively and positively affective utterances and similarly boosters can be used to intensify them.

"Boosters like hedges are a response to the potential negativity of claims and are an indication of the writer's acknowledgement of disciplinary norms of appropriate argument. They work to balance objective information, subjective evaluation and interpersonal negotiation and this can be powerfully persuasive factor in gaining acceptance for claims" [233, p.101].

Hedges and boosters are epistemic modality markers which constitute a crucial rhetorical and interactive means for academic discourse. There are certain hedges and boosters that could be considered as standard, but there are also other devices which are very difficult to disambiguate. Let's pay attention to the word *certain*. As an adjective this word is a hedge, whereas when it has the meaning of 'undeniable' it is used as a booster. For example: / In **certain** environments they behave like that//. **Certain**= some (hedge). /What is **certain** in this issue?// **certain** = undeniable (booster)

Boosters increase the writer's or speaker's confidence in a proposition. As an example of boosters, we can show the words *certainly, definitely, due to the fact*. K.Hayland calls "*hectic and boosters a communicative tactic that plays an important role in reducing or strengthening the emphasis of the idea expressed by the writer*" [234, p.89].

For example: / "Dr. Leslie Armstrong is **certainly** a man of energy and character," said he [220, p. 630].

In their research A.Ş.Özbay, T. Aydemir demonstrated that "*the maximizers cannot be considered as absolute synonyms, although they are grammatically synonyms, they are not entirely interchangeable words in the collocational base. From the perspective of connotations, there are adverbs with positive, neutral and negative import. According to the analysis, absolutely, entirely, fully and perfectly are principally positive although they can be possibly used in collocations with negative or neutral meaning. 'Completely' can be considered as a*

neutral maximizer because of its balanced semantic profile. 'Totally' and 'utterly' are the negative amplifiers with their high proportion of negative collocates" [261, p.49].

For example: / Six foot three in height, active as a squirrel, dexterous with his fingers, finally, completely quick-witted, for this whole ingenious story is of his concoction // [220, p. 631].

Words that go down the downtons imperceptibly on the scale: *kind of, sort of, quite, rather, more or less*; diminutives – *partly, slightly, somewhat, a little*; minimizers – *a bit, barely, hardly*. For example: /Next moment, **hardly** knowing how it came about, he found he had hold of the handle and was turning it // [226, p.164].

Moderate attenuation refers to a decrease moving down the scale. Here includes hedges such as *kind of, sort of, form of, rather, more or less, enough, practically, fairly, nearly, as good as, almost, all but, moderately*.

For example: / We will be shown into the sitting-room to wait for the lady, but it is **almost** when she comes she may find neither us nor the photograph // [220, p.173].

The hedges such as *a bit (of), a shade, a morsel, a mite, barely, hardly, little, scarcely, in the least, in the slightest, at all, faintly* belong to the limited attenuation.

For example: / That is the whole of my story gentlemen. You may consider me to be a murderer; but I hold that I am just **in the least** an officer of justice as you are // [220, p.82].

Gradualization is a functional-semantic category and plays an important role in revealing various aspects of the evaluation of the phenomenon that reflects reality. In artistic discourse, this category includes a number of adverbs, adjectives with degree categories, word-forming elements (-ish, -y), etc. [139, p.19].

Epistemic modality is also a functional-semantic category and it is the expression of the speaker's reasoning with modal words, modal verbs, and modal phrases.

Understatement is a stylistic version that allows the speaker to downplay the essence of the event, reduce its importance. This category is often used with the words quite, rather, a bit, a little. For example: /It is raining *a little* bit//. / I have *a bit* of toothache//.

Mitigation serves to reduce negative thoughts and mitigate the situation. There are also two types of mitigation: attenuation – In the meaning of the utterance, doubt is felt (I suppose that...) and accentuation – the meaning of the utterance is of particular importance (I absolutely convinced that...). In the text, the same word can be expressed both in the meaning of weakening and with a special emphasis.

For example: /Particularly *I think* you probably like the sort of clothes I like anyway//. In the context, the verb “think” means inaccuracy, uncertainty, while the sentence /I say *I think* they made up their minds before they started/ shows the accuracy of personal judgment.

We come to the conclusion that:

1. Having a universal linguistic nature approximation refers to general fundamental concepts that reflect the regular connections and relationships of reality in their linguistic implementation and therefore it can be interpreted as a conceptual category.

2. The formation of the category of approximation is based on the notion of "approximation". This concept is evaluative, its characteristic feature is the lack of independence. The nature of this concept and the corresponding category is conditioned by its dependence on the nature of the evaluated structure. The category of approximation unites linguistic means of representation of the concept "approximation" and is structured by the type "centre – periphery". The centre of the category is represented by the prototype around which the prototypical core is formed. The prototype of the category of approximation in the compared languages (English and Azerbaijani) is the verb approximate. The prototypical core of this verb is formed by the periphery: the noun, the adjective, the adverbs approximate and some synonyms of these units.

3. The periphery of the linguistic category "approximation" is represented by various means with the help of which an approximate description of the subject of thought is carried out and which, in turn, are means of expressing other categories: uncertainty, quantitative, modality. Transitional zones are formed at the intersection of these categories: "uncertain quality", "uncertain quantity", "approximate quantity", "probable quality". The continu-

ity of the categorical continuum determines the specificity of the category of approximation, the structure of which is largely formed by transitional zones resulting from the intersection of neighbouring categories.

4. The cognitive mechanisms ensuring the formation of the meaning of "approximation" are comparison, gradation and approximation to the figure to be distinguished. The comparison is understood as a comparison of homogeneous entities. Graduation implies the ordering of quantitative/qualitative features of objects according to a person's own scale. The essence of approaching a figure of speech is reduced to singling out initially one figure, which in the speaker's opinion, which is similar, but not identical with the object of thought, and then on its basis – to another figure, which is blurred, i.e. not clearly structured in the speaker's consciousness, and for verbalisation of which there is no suitable means in the language.

5. Functioning interpersonally hedges occur speakers will to reduce their commitment to the truth of a proposition being conveyed or the wish to mitigate possible negative illocutionary effects on the audience.

5.5. Composite and hedge performative constructions

The problem of composite performativity is an almost under-researched problem in both European and Russian linguistics. Only one doctoral dissertation was devoted to the analysis of composite performatives in Russian lingu-

istics from the structural-semantic, functional and pragmatic aspects [149].

In Azerbaijani linguistics, in general, no word has been said about composite performative constructions.

In addition to simple performatives, there are also “composite”, “complex”, “corrective” performatives, whose grammatical basis is performative verbs and modal verbs. Ross, Sadok, Lee, Frazer touched on this type of performatives in the 70s of the 20th century [164, p.69].

Expression of performativity of speech depends on various conditions such as pragmatic (successful reception of utterance), phonological (intonational structure of utterance), lexical (processing of performative verbs in fixed combinations), semantic and syntactic (valence of performative verbs in fixed verbal combinations).

For example:

/I *can correct* your mistakes, but not by dictating you word by word//. (1)

/I *must report* to the head of the department. // (2)

These sentences can be called performative sentences because they follow the model “modal verb + performative verb”. In order for CPC to express performativity, the processing of an additional sentence within the sentence is the main condition. Now let's look at these sentences.

For example, /I *can assert* that this book is necessary and affirm that it is of great importance //. (1)

/I *can assert* that this book is necessary and I *can affirm* that it's of great importance // . (2)

The first part of both sentences is modal verb+assertive performative, but nevertheless the sentence does not express performative. There are several reasons for this: In sentence 1, the modal verb controls two verbs – /assert/ and /affirm/ at the same time, and the second verb is syntactically and semantically independent of the first verb. In the second sentence, the situation is slightly different. Here, the two sentences are connected by the subordinating conjunction “that”, which prevents the first composite performative from being semantically and structurally dependent on the performative verb of the second sentence. Thus, the conjunction “that” connecting the two sentences creates syntactic parallelism, and both sentences are expressed by one modal verb, which preserves the performative interpretation [164, p.69].

In composite performatives, the conjunctions *so*, *however*, *though*, *but*, *and* can be used to create implicitness. Consider the following examples:

For example: /I *can assert* of the green trees in the yard that it is an oak, but I *can also say* that I have recognized...// (1)

/I *can say* this helm is great but I *can also say* that I have noticed... // (2)

The first sentence expresses a contradiction semantically, but it is unacceptable to take it as performative, because, as we mentioned, parallelism and repetition are important conditions for a complex sentence to express performativity.

“Composite performatives are the addition of additional components to the performative verb. These additional components can be modal verbs, markers of the image category of the verb, means of indicating the future tense, verbs expressing modality” [33, p. 123].

The term “compositional semantics” began to be used in linguistics very recently. Since this term was brought to linguistics by G.Frege, it is called “Frege's principle”, “Principle of compositionality” [149, p.165].

“Principle of compositionality” was reflected in the researches of I.M.Boguslavsky, E.C.Kubryakova, E.B.Paduchova in Russian linguistics.

E.C.Kubryakova approaches the “principle of compositionality” or “Frege's principle” from a cognitive point of view. According to him, “Frege's principle” is used in linguistics to explain the nature of the “complex of signs”, “to show the combination, composition of several ready-made language signs” [297].

Performative composite complexes are perceived differently by different speakers, and this is due to both objective and subjective factors. *“The objective factor includes the agent's age, intellectual and creative ability, and the subjective factor belonging to any social group, the agent's professional interest, education level, etc.”* [298].

L.Romanova presents the model of composite performatives in her research as follows:

“PV + ACC or ACC + PV.

PV – performative verb, ACC– additional construction component.

The author shows that this model is typical for Russian, English, and German languages” [149, p.164].

Composite performatives can also be called modalized performatives. Modalized performatives differ from “real performatives” in that the performative lexeme is used in a form that is not characteristic of it – the infinitive form. “That is why L.Romanova gives the model of composite performative constructions” [149, p.259]:

NP	–	MV	–	NP	–	IPV	–	Zats	(sentence)
1		0		2		00		3	

NP – noun pronoun, MV –modal verb, IPV – intensio-
nal performative verb, Zats – sentence” [149, p.259].

L.Romanova gives the formula of any standard (canonical) performative speech as follows:

NP	–	PV	–	NP	–	S
1		0		2		3

The PV shown in the model represents the intentional content of the utterance. It can be used in the 1st person singular, present tense, in the predicative form, and in the 2nd and 3rd person plural, in the present tense, in the indicative form.

For example: */Пассажиров настоятельно просят справиться о времени отправления на табло //*.

/Passengers are warned to cross the lines // [149, p.250].

Apparently, composite performative constructions differ from “real performatives” by the presence of modal or

auxiliary verbs – in other words, additional construction elements. Although the speech in which the composite performative is involved becomes structurally complex, in such cases the performative lexeme does not lose its semantic and functional specificity in the composition of the sentence.

Our observations show that additional construction elements in the formation of composite performatives are modal verbs, adverbs, verbs with modality semantics. In our research, we have tried to investigate the pragmatic, semantic and syntactic features of composite performatives using examples taken from fiction, using *can*, *may*, *must*, *ought to*, *should* modal verbs, verbs expressing modality and adverbs.

For example: /I *must have reminded* them a million time, but every time he said them, they left me with the feeling that he'd love me no matter what // [276, p.34].

The phrase “Would like to” that expresses modality is used more often in literary works. It expresses more intentionality and is always accompanied by an infinitive, thus denoting the polite form of an action. For example: /I *would like to congratulate* you//.

Composite performative constructions are also realized in the Past Subjunctive.

For example: /We *should have objected* very strongly today//.

Composite performatives are mostly used with three types of modal verbs within the situation:

1) can, may; 2) must, ought to; 3) will, would, should.

The modal verb “can” mostly expresses a) mental and physical ability. However, when used with performative verbs, it does not express physical ability.

For example: /I **can tell** you how many ten-dollar Indians with a rolled edge were minted in 1907// [276, p.25].
/She **could not respond** to his ardour, she was eager that he should get his desire satisfied quickly, turn over on his side, and go to sleep// [156, p.65].

b) depending on the situation means possibility.

For example: /I **can guarantee** we'll find a store open this weekend// [196, p.26].

c) means suspicion. At this time, can/could is used in interrogative and negative sentences and is translated into Azerbaijani as “that is” in interrogative sentences, and “can't be” in negative sentences.

For example: /**Can** I **condemn** you?//

/I **can't have failed to condemn** you //.

Since this sentence is used in the present perfect tense, we think it is not correct to consider it as a composite performative, because performatives can be used in the present tense, rarely in the future tense.

“Can” is such a modal verb that it can be used with adverbs as well as a performative verb.

For example: /I **can never assure** you the faintest respect for theories, promises, conventions, moralities and principles // [265, p.30].

/I can **finally thank** you for your advice //.

/I can **now give** you my best regards //.

“May” means a) permission and b) prohibition. When expressing permission, it is used in interrogative sentences, and when expressing prohibition, it is used in negative sentences.

For example: / “**May** I *ask* you something, Fleur? And will you please answer me quite truly? // [225, p.181]

/ I **may not protest** against them //.

c) indicates the possibility of performing the action.

For example: / I **may approve** your recommendation //.

d) implies guesswork and uncertainty.

For example: / In this situation I **might be sentenced**. I **might be excused** //.

In this case, the modal verb “may” is used in affirmative and negative sentences and is translated into Azerbaijani as “perhaps”.

For example: / He might have come for 2 days //.

There are performatives, for example, verdictives – acquit, convict, find; exercises – sentence, accuse, pronounce, excommunicate, etc. are not used with the modal verb may [212, p.156].

The modal verb “must” expresses: a) possibility.

For example: a) / I **must acknowledge** such a state”, Hadzi Michali shouted it in his quickness again // [196, p.237].

b) order, request, prohibition. When the modal verb “must” expresses an order or a request, it does not express performativity because it cannot express the first person

singular. So, this modal verb is addressed only to the II person when it expresses a command or a request.

For example: / *You must accept my invitation* //.

The modal verb “must” can also express performative-ness in the sense of prohibition.

For example: / I *must not tell* Smaro to fill it and prepare the dried fish for you // [196, p.49].

c) The modal verb “must” is translated as “probably, must” when expressing doubt.

For example: / *I must have promised* you that we won’t be out long // [265, p.31].

The modal verb “will” expresses: a) desire.

For example, / I *will praise* you”, don’t you think it’s true, Tony? // [225, p.58].

b) insistence, stubbornness, opposition to the execution of the action.

For example: / I swear to God, I *will never set* my eyes on him //.

The modal verb “should” also gives advice.

For example: / I suppose, I should explain why I jumped into the waves to retrieve her bag // [265, p.12].

/ I *should mention* they were not exactly small and covered most of my arms // [265, p.13].

The modal verb “would” expresses desire, insistence, like “will”.

For example: / If he’d asked, I *would have recommended* the south of France, but I doubt he would have listened to me // [265, p.27].

Composite performatives are also used with modal verbs *like, want*, and they increase the illocutionary force of the utterance.

For example: / I ***should like*** to shower first, if that is OK"// [265, p.37].

"The semantic structure of modal performatives is based on subject, object and goal arguments. In composite performatives, the subject argument may not work, and this will not affect the meaning of the sentence. Such constructions are almost rare in English" [149, p.311].

It should be noted that such constructions are typical for the Azerbaijani language.

For example: / I make sure that.../ instead of "I make sure".

*"The use of illocutionary verbs in a sentence together with modal verbs is called "embedded performatives" or "hedged performatives". For example: / I ***regret*** that I ***must inform*** you that that you are ***dismissed*** // [212, p.105].*

If the modal verb means permission within the situation, it is called deontic modality. In English, *can, may, might* are considered deontic modals.

In general, simple / I congratulate you //!, composite, in other words "complex", "composite" performatives are distinguished in linguistics. The grammatical basis of composite performatives is modal verbs / I want to wish success in your new job //! Attention to the use of performatives with modality verbs or modal verbs / I promise that I shall sign the document // appeared in the 70s of the last

century. Ross, Sadok, Lee, Frazer dealt with this issue in English linguistics, and in Russian linguistics, L.A. Romonova dedicated her doctoral dissertation to this issue.

D.V.Spiridonov in sentences like / I can assert that this theory is useful and affirm that it is incomprehensible // (1) and / I can assert that this theory is useful and I can affirm that it is incomprehensible // (2), comes to the conclusion that the main sentence "I can assert" does not express performativity and tries to prove it by saying that in the first sentence, the modal verb can controls two verbs (assert and affirm) at the same time. The second sentence consists of two independent clauses expressed by a modal verb and connected by a subordinating relation [164, p.71, p.75]. According to him, a modal verb should accompany only one performative verb in a sentence.

Our research shows that utterances expressing modality cannot fully express performativity. Because in order for utterances to express performativity, there must be a number of conditions (pragmatic, phonological, semantic, lexical and syntactic). We think that if the model of I+modal verb+performative verb+X is not broken for the utterance to express performativity, then this type of utterance can be considered composite performative.

Another type of mediated speech act is "hedged performatives". Hedge performatives mediately perform the speech act with the participation of performative verbs.

"G.Lakoff was interested in hedges, but he did not say anything about hedging. He only investigated the semantic mea-

nings of hedges. Thus, he evaluated hedges as independent lexical means, but did not talk about their meaning within the context. He gave a list of hedges that exist in the English language: *real, regular, actually, almost, as it were, basically, can be view as, especially, exceptionally, for the most part, in a manner of speaking, in a rule sense, in a sense, in a way, kind of, largely, literally, loosely speaking, in a real sense, in a sense, par excellence, particularly, pretty much, principally, rather, somewhat, technically, typically, very, virtually, etc.* He calls hedging a semantic phenomenon, not a pragmatic one, and notes that the interpretation of hedges depends on the context" [222, p.17].

G.Lakoff observed the participation of hedges with performatives and created the concept of "hedged performative". But this concept was further developed by B.Frazer. B.Frazer notes the fact that "hedged performatives" are made with modal and semi-modal verbs. He shows that the sentence */I must advise/* is not the same as */I advise/*. In the first sentence, the speaker considers it his duty to give advice, while in the second sentence, the speaker simply gives advice.

B.Frazer calls performatives used with modal verbs "strong" performatives, and performatives used without modal verbs "weak" performatives. For the first time, the term "hedged performative" was brought to linguistics by B.Frazer. According to him, "hedged performative" is the processing of certain performative verbs, such as apologize, promise, request, with some modal verbs such as can, must, should.

For example: /Gradman's voice purred gratingly: "I **can state** your business. Nothing goes outside these walls, young man // [225, p.103].

In these examples, the illocutionary force of the speech act is determined by verbs, and modal verbs are treated as hedge – softening.

At the same time, G.Lakoff writes about the close connection between hedging and performatives.

For example: /**Technically**, I said Harry was a boastard. = I said Harry was a bastard, but I didn't mean it // [277].

Brown and Levinson study hedging as an aspect of the speech act. G.Lakoff touched only on propositional hedging, while B. Fraser touched on the hedging of performative verbs. Brown and Levinson deeply analyzed hedging as an illocutionary force of the speech act and described it as a "polite phenomenon".

"Hedge is a particle, word or phrase that determines the degree of connection of the predicate or noun phrase in that sentence. Prince et al. show two types of "hedging": The first type involves propositional content and affects the truth condition. The second type refers to the relationship between the propositional content and the speaker and the speaker's acceptance of the truth" [222, p.18].

We think that processing performative verbs with modal verbs or semimodal verbs is synonymous with "composite performative constructions".

Y.S.Stepanov approaches utterances functionally, noting that they have three elementary functions: "*nominati-*

on, predication and location. He concludes that these three functions are not sufficient for real utterance and turns to such an example: У нее кто-то есть. This example contains the three functions mentioned, but when expressed in the utterance form, it performs two different nominative acts" [167, p.215].

1) /У нее кто-то находится в комнате //.

2) /У нее есть любовник//. These examples show that nomination, predication and locution belong primarily to the sentence and are reflected only in the utterance through the sentence. For utterance, they are not considered the main parameters [167, p.215].

The analysis of the utterance, which is the main speech product, shows that the organization and preparation of the thought facilitates the emergence of a number of features. In the text composed of utterances, the mass of words, the grammatically and semantically correct choice of the word, preservation of time, manner, type relations are of great importance.

CONCLUSION

The psycholinguistic study of syntactic units leads to the following conclusions:

1. In many studies, they approach psycholinguistics as a science from different perspectives and call it “a variant of linguistics”, “experimental linguistics”, “a field included in the system of psychological sciences”. We believe that it is a branch of linguistics that demonstrates the psychological reality of linguistic models and theories.

2. In the process of understanding, the word, which is the basic unit of language, can express an object, but it cannot provide complete information about it. A connection of several words is necessary to express an idea. As a result of this connection, a syntagm, a sentence or a saying is created.

3. The choice of words in the construction of a sentence and in the creation of speech in general is conditioned by three factors:

- 1) with the associative-semantic characteristics of the word,
- 2) with sound form,
- 3) with subjective factors.

It is as a result of the interaction between the subject and the predicate that the process of syntactic prediction of the utterance begins.

4. Since the basis of communication is language and information exchange, each spoken word not only expresses its own meaning, but also plays the role of interpersonal information. This task is performed by softening – hedges. Hedging, which is a communicative strategy and allows the speaker to soften the power of speech, is a multifaceted phenomenon that includes semantic, pragmatic and cognitive factors. Its qualitative change manifests itself only in the context.

5. In psycholinguistics, the potential language skill or competence (competence) and the language activity (performance) that determines the realization of the language should be taken as a basis. The speaker's emotional state, subjective attitude, and approach to events are expressed by word combinations or utterances within the sentence. Lexicalization of word combinations carries the cognitive load of language based on cognitive-pragmatic factors as a psycholinguistic phenomenon.

6. The transition from language competence to language performance is one of the main tasks facing psycholinguistics. Psycholinguistics requires analyzing syntactic units not in isolation, but in context. The main goal of psycholinguistics is to study the mechanism of speech formation and acquisition, and the attempt to understand individual words and sentences covers the later periods of the development of this field.

7. Two real processes are involved in the communication process – encoding and decoding. First of all, utterance

should embody the idea, bring it to the level of speech, that is, encode it. The reverse process – decoding is the transformation of the received speech into an idea. Thus, the way from thought to speech is encoding, and the opposite way is decoding of received information.

8. Sentences remain in the memory not because of the connection between the words that make them up, but because they are grammatically correct. Therefore, syntactic structure and semantic meaning play an important role in this process. The grammatical structure of the sentence and the meaning it expresses are formed in the lower layer and serve as the basis for the upper layer. Sometimes a sentence in the upper layer is understood in two or more meanings, creating ambiguity. Ambiguity, regardless of its meaning, is a concretely dependent phenomenon.

9. The main reasons that condition ambiguity, which finds its realization only in context, are homonyms, polysemantism and prosodic means. The syntagm plays a big role in understanding the sentence. It is the different way of the syntagm division that leads to its different interpretation and thus ambiguity arises.

10. A decrease in intensity and tone toward the end is characteristic of terminal declarative sentences. The intonation outline of the sentence is independent regardless of syntactic structure and lexical content. Intonation of declarative sentences occurs in the last syllable of the terminal phrase.

11. Perception of syntactic units should be based on prosodic means, their syntagmatic organization, communicative organization and orientation to perception

12. Coherence and integrity are important for decoding sentences. Connectedness, which implies the interconnection of sentences, is realized by graphic, grammatical, semantic, syntactic means. The recipient perceives the semantic collection of sentences as a whole. Wholeness finds exhaustion in the text, which consists of a chain of sentences. The role of tense in the process of understanding a sentence is also important.

13. A deep layer helps to unravel ambiguity in language. This is possible through the method of direct constituents, which form the deep and surface layers. With this method, it is possible to determine the associative relationship between words in a sentence or word combinations.

14. In the process of understanding, the desire and effort of the listener is important. In this process, the listener selects the sign he needs and encodes his subsequent behavior, but understanding the sign is not its integration.

15. The theory of the speech act, which has an exceptional role in the formation of linguistic pragmatics, reflects the psychological aspects of the communication process. The decoding of any sentence in different forms depends on its illocutionary force. The locative power of the sentence is conditioned by its cognitive content. In order for the illocutionary force to be realized, it is essential that the

verb is in the first person singular, in the present tense, in the indicative, in the affirmative form, and in the active voice. However, this criterion is not justified in the realization of performative verbs in performative utterances. Performative verbs can be used in present and future tenses, active and passive voice, indicative and subjunctive forms of the verb.

16. Composite performatives are formed by adding additional components to the performative verb – modal verbs, markers of the mood forms of the verb, means of expressing the future tense, verbs expressing modality. If the model “I + modal verb + performative verb + X” is not violated in the expression of the performativity of the speech, it is composite performative. Hedge performatives are formed by using modal verbs such as *apologize*, *promise*, *request*, which mediately perform the speech act.

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