

TAGS IN ENGLISH AND EQUIVALENT CONSTRUCTIONS IN POLISH

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This paper is divided into two sections. In the first section we shall review some of the approaches towards the analysis of tagged sentences in English. The second section will be devoted to the postulation of the performative analysis of tagged sentences as best suited for the analysis of these sentences in English and Polish. For reasons of clarity some terminological problems will be dealt with at the outset of the first section.

The term TAG has been used in the literature, both theoretical and pedagogical, to refer to several constructions frequently found in Spoken English. Consider the following sentences;

1. *John did it, didn't he?*
- A 2. *John didn't do it, did he?*
3. *John did it, did he?*
4. *John didn't do it, didn't he?*
5. *Do it now, will you?*
- B 6. *Do it now, won't you?*
7. *Don't do it, will you?*
8. *Pass me the hammer, would you?*
- C 9. *What a nice girl she is, isn't she?*¹

¹ The question mark at the end of each sentence in (1 - 9) should not be taken to mean that they are all questions. In fact, different authors seem to have different feelings about the question mark in tagged sentences; we shall not decide the matter here. One may notice in passing that the selection of the proper question mark should be related to the type of intonation employed, which, in turn, is related to some deeper factors, e.g., semantic interpretation.

It is generally agreed that the surface structures of (1 - 9) contain two constituents and that the constituent which proceeds the comma belongs to the category Sentence. The second constituent is most often referred to as Tag.²

However, the interpretation of the whole construction in question is far from being clear and uniform. This is reflected in the various names given to sentences (1 - 9) representing here three types of the construction under investigation. Thus, A-type sentences are often called Interrogative Tags or Question Tags, B-type sentences are called Imperative Tags, and C-type sentences are called Exclamatory Tags.³ In some approaches, though, A-type is christened Tagged Declarative (Hudson 1975), and B-type Tagged Imperative (Stockwell et al. 1973).

Also controversial is the evaluation of the discursive function of sentences like those in (1 - 9). A-type sentences are usually referred to as questions but B-type sentences have different interpretations; e.g. 'urging' for (7), 'command' for (5) and (6), or 'request' for (8). C-type sentences have been referred to as exclamations (cf. McCawley, N. (1973), also Leech and Svartvik (1975)).

Undoubtedly, these linguists who propose terms ending in -ive (interrogative, imperative, etc.) pay more attention to syntactic properties of the forms in question, whereas these who propose terms like 'question' or 'request', etc., are more interested in the function these forms perform in discourse.⁴ Being of an opinion that form and function must be kept apart in linguistic analysis we propose the following terminology: Declarative, Imperative, and Exclamatory will be used to refer to the mood of the first constituent of the construction under investigation, and the term Tag will be preserved for the

² Huddleston (1970) says that the relation between the two constituents is that of parataxis. For an extensive and revealing discussion of paratactic constructions see Polański (1967), especially Chapters: II and III.

³ Besides the above mentioned types Bolinger (1957) arrives at a different classification of tags taking into account both the word order and the intonation pattern in tags. He distinguishes five types of tags;

1. Auxiliary tags: *Find them, did he?*
2. Tentations: *He will I suppose?*
3. Imputations: *They'll attend to it later you say?*
4. Explications: *How does he like it I wonder?*
5. Intonation tags: *Says he is sorry, eh?*

Bolinger also mentions tags which are added after a Yes/No Question, and even after a Wh Question, e.g.;

Did he go there did he? (Bolinger 1957:47)

Where's the paper is it? (Bolinger 1957:27)

The above five types, according to Bolinger (1957) cover only a part of the linguistic phenomena in English that are usually called tags; in fact, he says, there is an unlimited variety of tags. Cattell (1973: 616) also mentions tags attached to Yes/No Questions.

⁴ Hartmann and Stork (1973) invented a term 'confirmational interrogative'.

second constituent. The conjunction of the term, e.g., Declarative Tag, Imperative Tag, etc., will refer to a very superficial characterization of the whole construction and will simply mean that a Tag has been formed on a declarative sentence, interrogative sentence, etc. Where the specific characterization of the construction is irrelevant for the discussion a neutral term 'tagged sentence' will be used.

After these preliminaries we shall now dwell on some tendencies in the analyses of tagged sentences. For reasons of space and time the presentation will be reduced to A-type sentences, i.e. Declarative Tags.⁵

Various analyses have been proposed for Declarative Tags in English. These analyses may be divided into two major groups; syntactic analyses and semantic analyses. We shall deal with them in order.

Syntactic analyses. The central problem in a syntactic analysis is how to account for the formation of Tags. In the discussions of Tags that may be found in numerous transformational treatments it is possible to distinguish two approaches; according to one of these approaches a tagged sentence is derived from an underlying simple sentence and the Tag is introduced by means of a Tag-transformation. Needless to say, there are differences among adherents of this approach as to the exact formulation of the relevant transformation but common to all of them is a simple-sentence-source for deriving tags (cf. Klima (1964); Arbin (1969); Burt (1971); Lester (1971); Thomas (1965)). In the second approach represented by Huddleston (1970), Stockwell et al. (1973), and Sadock (1971) tags are derived from an underlying compound-sentence-source. To illustrate these two approaches we shall consider proposals made by Thomas (1965) and Stockwell et al. (1973).

In Thomas (1965:188) the transformation which produces Declarative Tags (Thomas uses 'tag question') uses the same structural analysis as the regular interrogative transformation and works in four stages:

1. a duplicate tense marker is added
2. a Pro-form of the same number and gender as the subject is added after the duplicate tense marker
3. '-n't' is added to the duplicate tense marker if there is no negative morpheme present in the matrix sentence
4. 'Q' is deleted

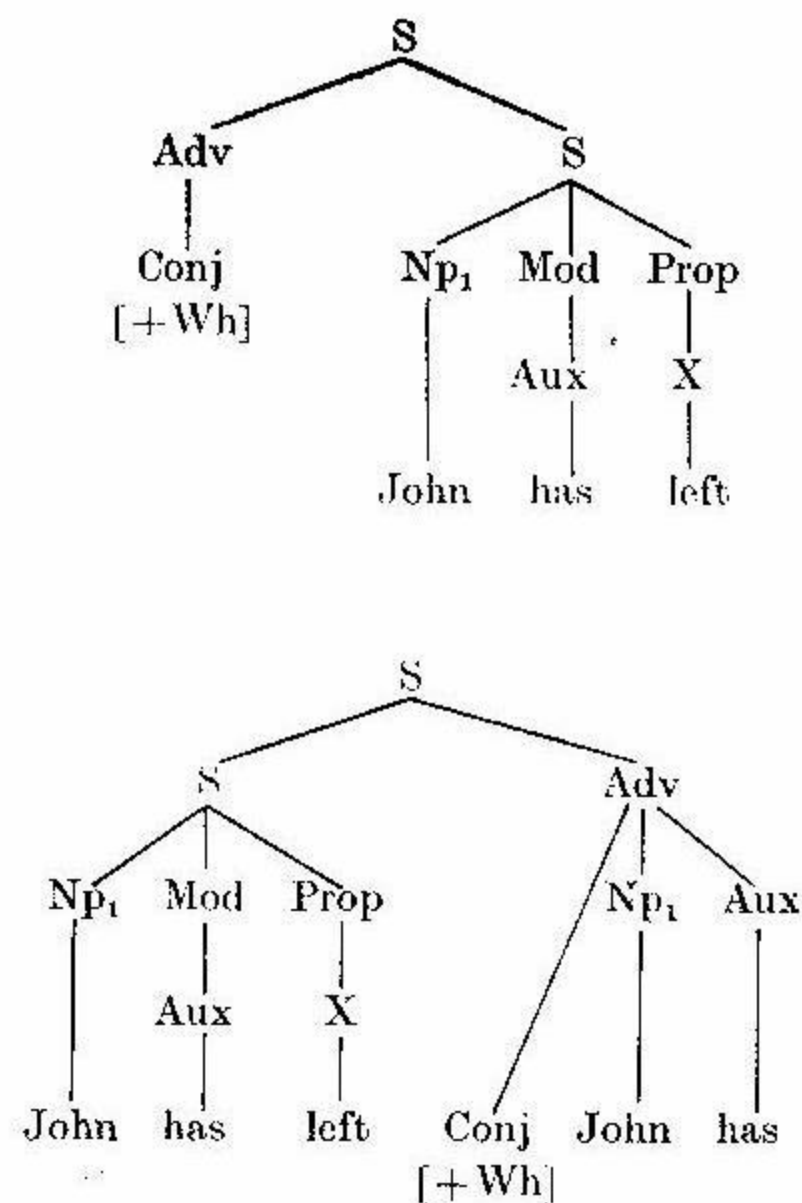
A similar formulation of the transformation in question may be found in Lester (1971: 164).

A slightly different version of the same simple-sentence-source approach is discussed in Stockwell et al. (1973:622 - 624). Declarative Tags are again deri-

⁵ Other types of tagged sentences have been discussed in Klima (1964), Arbin (1969), Huddleston (1970), Stockwell et al (1973), Bolinger (1967), Katz and Postal (1964), and Sadock (1971).

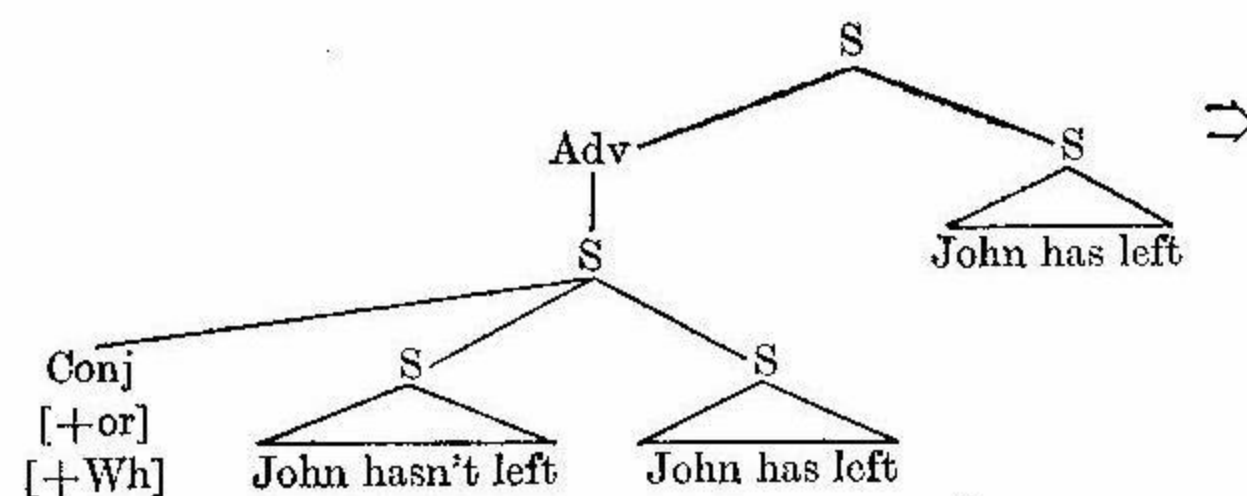
ved by means of a rule which copies the subject NP and the relevant parts of Aux after a sentence and makes the tag opposite to the main sentence with respect to negation. To avoid a situation where a separate trigger in the base is necessary to derive such sentences Stockwell et al (1973) suggested that WH should be generated as a sentence adverb. Thus, the copying rule would operate on (55a) and convert it to (55b); both examples are repeated here for convenience after Stockwell et al (1973:623).

55a.

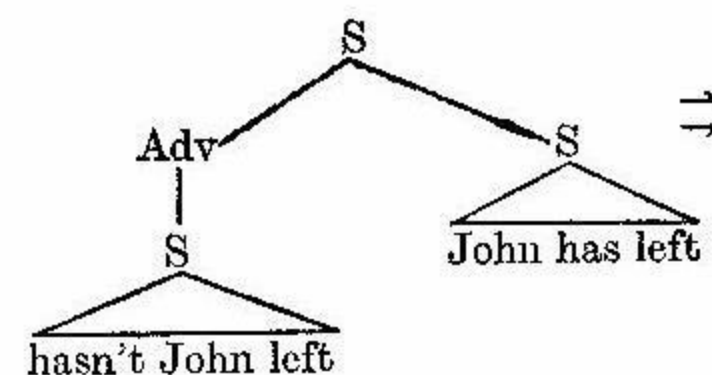


In the second approach Declarative Tags are derived from an underlying compound-sentence-source. According to Stockwell et al (1973:622) *John has left, hasn't he?* is derived from (54a) which is the deep structure representation of *John has left, hasn't he?* (54b) is an intermediate structure after the application of Conjunction Spreading, WH Spreading, Conjunction Deletion, Auxiliary Fronting, WH Deletion, and Alternative Q Reduction to (54a). Then, (54b) undergoes the tag rule which moves adverb to post-position and reduces the question. The final result is represented in (54c).

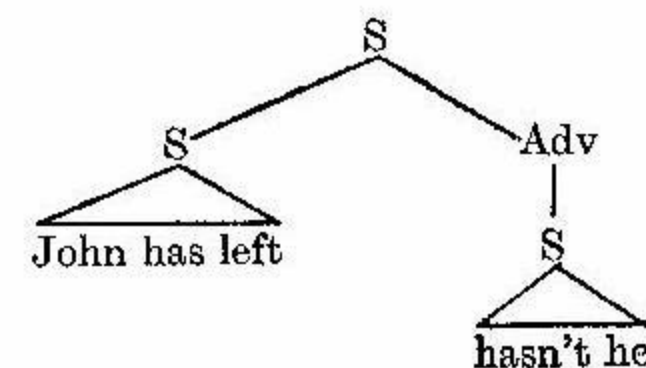
54a.



54b.



54c.



The above sketched approach is also advocated by Sadock (1971). He assumes that the surface form of tag questions mirrors a combination of both an assertive and an interrogative clause in deep structure (Sadock 1971:228). Sadock's approach is basically semantic and for this reason it will be discussed in some detail in the next section. So far we have attempted a presentation of what we think typical syntactic approaches towards the analysis of Declarative Tags within a transformational framework. It is not our purpose here to decide which of the two approaches is more adequate: arguments for and against both of the approaches may be found in the quoted literature. It suffices to say that both approaches are silent about semantic problems involved in the analysis of tagged sentences. This brings us to the second group of the analyses proposed for tagged sentences, i.e. semantic analyses.

Semantic analyses. Now the problem is not how to derive a tagged sentence transformationally but how to account for its meaning.

According to Cattell (1973) tags are used to convey the speaker's attitude towards what is expressed in the main clause (i.e. the clause on which the tag is formed: Cattell calls it a 'host clause'), and to ask whether the listener agrees with it. The analysis of sentences like (10) and (11) has led him to the conclusion that the problem of matching vs. contrastive polarity in tagged sentences (some linguists use other pairs, e.g. positive vs. negative polarity, or constant vs. reversed polarity) does not have to be related to syntactic phenomena but to a semantic nature of polarity. Thus, tag questions with contrastive polarity to their hosts represent the speaker's point of view and question tags with matching polarity do not represent the speaker's point of view. Let us now have a brief look at Cattell's analysis.

10. *The book is obscene, is it?*

11. *The book is obscene, isn't it?*

12. *Sally isn't pregnant, is she?*⁶

Under his analysis the point of view expressed in the host clause of (10) is not the speaker's. In (11), on the other hand, the speaker is offering his own opinion. In both cases, says Cattell, the speaker is asking the listener for agreement. Then, he argues that sentences like (12) may have three interpretations;

1. one where the host clause is the confident viewpoint of the speaker
2. one where the host clause is still the view-point of the speaker but only tentatively
3. one where the host clause is not the viewpoint of the speaker.

These differences in meaning are, according to Cattell, reflected in different intonation contours; the falling intonation contour for the first interpretation, the rising intonation contour for the second, and the rising intonation contour for the third. To explain an apparent contradiction to the effect that contrastive polarity tags express the speaker's point of view, which is not the case for the third interpretation Cattell assumes that

- a. the first and the second interpretations may be paraphrased as (13), and the third one as (14).
- b. the negative is part of the basic sentence for interpretations (1) and (2), and it is part of the question for interpretation (3).

13. *It is correct that Sally isn't pregnant, isn't it?*

14. *It isn't correct that Sally is pregnant, is it?*

There are four observations to be made about Cattell's analysis of (12). Firstly, if (13) is a paraphrase of (12) under interpretations (1) and (2), and if what Cattell calls the host clause in (12) is what he calls the underlying host

⁶ (10), (11), (12), as well as (13) and (14) are repeated here after Cattell where they appear as (12a), (12b), (21), (36a), and (36b), respectively. In (14) which is Cattell's (36b) the phrase ... *by any chance...* has been omitted as it is irrelevant for the discussion.

clause in (13) then Cattell contradicts himself since interpretations (1) and (2) both involve contrastive polarity, which is not the case in (13). However, Cattell's proposal works for (14) because here the host clause and the tag show matching polarity and therefore the host clause does not represent the speaker's point of view. Secondly, if, however, the host clauses for (13) and (14) are *It is correct that...*, and *It isn't correct that...* respectively, then the tags show contrastive polarity to their respective host clauses both in (13) and (14). The situation reverses now; Cattell's proposal is good for (13) but not for (14). Thirdly, it seems to us that both in (13) and (14) the tag has been formed on the first clause, i.e., *It is correct...* in the case of (13) and *It isn't correct...* in the case of (14) and not on the second clause, i.e., *Sally isn't pregnant...*, and *Sally is pregnant...*, respectively for (13) and (14). If the latter was the case the subject NP which is repeated in the tag would have to be *she*. Incidentally, English allows to form tags on both clauses. Langendoen (1970:10 - 20) reports on the results of an experiment in which his students were asked to play a game he called "The Walrus and the Alligator". The aim of the game is to practice tag formation. "Walrus" says any declarative sentence he pleases and "Alligator" must respond to it by adding the appropriate tag as if he were "Walrus" himself. For our purposes it is enough to quote two examples; figures to the right of "Alligator's" responses represent the number of students who selected the given tag. The total number of students participating in the experiment was forty six.

W: *I believe that Dr Spock is innocent.*

A: *Don't I?* 36

Isn't he? 10

W: *Dr Spock is innocent, I believe.*

A: *Isn't he?* 38

Don't I? 7

Isn't it? 1

The above examples clearly show that native speakers of English, at least native speakers of American English, form tags on the main clause though the formation on the subordinate clause or a parenthetical expression is also possible but less frequent. Finally, Cattell's account of tagged sentences seems to reveal more about the meaning of the host clause than of the tag, let alone the whole tagged sentence. Moreover, he makes no proposals about some sort of formalism that would relate structures like (13) and (14) to surface forms, i.e., to (12). The need for such formalism has been recently pointed out by Polański (1975:13) who states that:

"Explications may either be closely related to natural language sentences or to the formulae of mathematical logic. ... (loc cit) A much more important problem is the question of the manner of relating these structures to the surface structures. A consistent set of rules modelled on a formalised system is necessary in this field".

Another version of the semantic approach has been offered by Hudson (1975). He attempts an analysis of what he calls Tag-Questions in terms of illocutionary forces. However, by Tag-Question he means the constituent added after the comma, i.e., the tag alone. In his analysis sentences like (1) and (2) would consist of a declarative and an interrogative. The meaning of the whole sentence (in our terminology proposed above such a sentence is called a Declarative Tag) is, according to Hudson, an automatic consequence of the interaction between the meanings of the declarative and the interrogative. In other words, the illocutionary meaning of tagged declaratives is made up of the intersection of the possible illocutionary meanings of declaratives and interrogatives. Accordingly, Hudson assumes that the meaning of tags in tagged declaratives is identical with the ordinary meaning of interrogatives, whereas the meaning of declaratives in tagged declaratives is identical with the ordinary meaning of declaratives. Therefore, one of his conclusions is that there is no need for special statements in a grammar about the meaning of the whole tagged sentence. However, while discussing polar interrogatives (his term for Yes/No interrogatives) Hudson (1975:23) notices that they are different with respect to conductiveness: polar interrogatives may be non-conductive, positively-conductive, and negatively-conductive. The non-conductive interpretation for tagged declaratives must be ruled out. It follows, then, that tags with matching polarity are all positively-conductive, and these with contrastive polarity are negatively-conductive. Hudson then argues that declaratives with contrastive polarity tags (for example (1) and (2) given above) can be matched functionally by simple interrogatives with negative or positive polarity, similar to that in the tag. Under this analysis (1) could be matched by (15), and (2) by (16).

15. *Didn't John do it?*

16. *Did John do it?*

On the other hand, declarative tags with matching polarity correspond to positively-conductive interrogatives; (3), and (4) would correspond to (17), and (18) respectively.

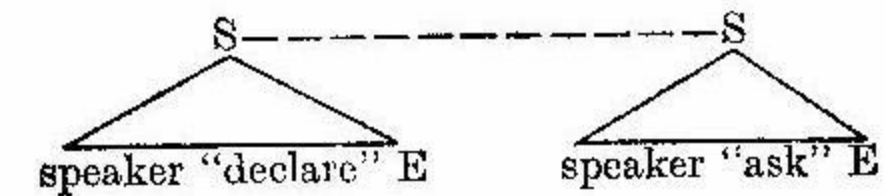
17. *Did John do it?*

18. *Didn't John do it?*

By way of commentary it may be said that Hudson's treatment of declarative tags is inconsistent, if not contradictory. As was mentioned above, he claims that the meaning of tagged declaratives is made up of the possible meanings of declarative and interrogative sentences that are members of the tagged sentence. However, it is difficult to imagine how one can state something in the declarative (which is characteristic of declaratives) and then express ignorance on the very same thing in the interrogative (which is characteristic of interrogatives). This has been pointed out by Sadock (1971:228) who claims

that (19) is ill-formed if it is to represent an underlying structure for tagged sentences.

19.



where "E" stands for a proposition.

Hudson's treatment of the functional relationship holding between interrogatives and tagged declaratives must also be rejected because it simply does not work.

If instead of the expression 'matches functionally' we use a mark of equality "=" we obtain the following pairs of sentences that match functionally under Hudson's analysis.

A. 1=15 B. 3=17
 2=16 4=18

But notice that (15) is identical with (18), and (16) is identical with (17); in fact, they are the same sentences. Therefore, we can postulate C employing "=" to stand for identical sentences as well.

C. 15=18
 16=17

It is easy to notice that if (1) is matched functionally by (15) and (15) is identical with (18) then (1) is also matched by (18). Then, since (18) matches functionally with (4) it follows that (4) matches functionally with (1) as well. The same reasoning may be applied to (2) and (3). Thus we arrive at D.

D. 1=4
 2=3

It seems to us that D is false because it is very unusual if possible at all for (1), i.e. *John did it, didn't he?* to match functionally with (4), i.e., *John didn't do it, didn't he?*

In connection with Hudson (1975) it may be added that he is unclear about the intersection of the possible illocutionary meanings of declaratives and interrogatives and that his understanding of 'illocutionary meaning' is closer to Cohen's (1971) idea of 'illocutionary meaning' than to Austin's (1962) 'illocutionary force'.

As we have seen the semantic analyses of Declarative Tags that were sketched above, as well as the syntactic analyses, all suffer from various inconsistencies and/or misinterpretations. In the above presented approaches the pro-

blems of intonation in tagged sentences are very often reduced to marginal observations. A more extensive study of intonation patterns in tagged sentences in English and their relation to syntactic/semantic features of the tagged sentences which contain these patterns may be found in Bolinger (1957), Sinclair (1971), Quirk et al (1971), and Cygan (1973). However, the authors of papers dealt with above should not be blamed for neglecting intonation in tagged sentences since their attention was concentrated on syntactic/semantic considerations. For similar reasons we shall have nothing more to say about intonation in tagged sentences here.

We have reviewed above what we think to be main tendencies in the analysis of Declarative Tags in English. It is time now to turn to Polish. However, there is a serious problem here. According to a common belief there are no Tags in Polish, and, indeed, the syntactic interpretations for Tags in English presented in the previous section would result in ungrammatical sentences if applied to Polish. For example, (20) and (21) as counterparts of (1) and (2) respectively, in Polish, are all ungrammatical.

20. **Jan to zrobił*, a. (czy) *nie on?*
b. (czy) *nie zrobił on?*

21. **Jan tego nie zrobił*, a. *czy on?*
b. (czy) *zrobił on?*

The semantic interpretations dealt with above are not helpful, either. What is more, the above presented approaches do not even allow for the identification of the proper equivalents of English tagged sentences in Polish. If pressed by this contention we assume that Tags are absent from Polish we may be happy as linguists but we are faced with an uneasy situation as teachers of English. We simply have to answer the following questions; What do we do, as speakers of Polish, in situations and/or contexts where the English use a Tag? And next, How are we to teach these English forms successfully to Polish learners? There is also another aspect of this situation; how to translate English Tags into Polish. Undoubtedly, answers to these questions would have some pedagogical validity. They would also bear on some theoretical issues relevant to the contrastive analysis. As to the latter, it has been pointed out by R. Lakoff (1972) that we should not be discouraged by superficial differences among languages. She argues, for example, that Tags in English formed on declaratives are intermediate between a statement and a question. The effect of a tag is to soften the declaration from an expression of certainty, demanding belief, to an expression of likelihood, merely requesting it. Lakoff, then, points out that the same distinction may be made in Japanese, though with different syntactic means.

It is, therefore, possible that similar effects may be achieved in different languages with different means. One language may employ syntactic processes to realize some effects and another language may employ morphological

processes to achieve the same or at least similar effects.⁷ The important thing is to have a linguistic theory that would make it possible to account for such differences in a systematic way.

We have seen above that the presented proposals to analyse English tagged sentences cannot be applied to Polish because they do not constitute a reliable 'tertium comparationis'. What we need is a linguistic theory that would allow us to analyse functions some elements of a language perform in linguistic communication.

It will be assumed here that the theory of speech acts might be a good candidate. The validity of this theory to linguistic research has been argued for quite convincingly by a number of linguists; we shall not repeat these arguments here. It seems that this theory has more to offer with respect to the analysis of tagged sentences than the approaches reviewed above.

Stemming from the theory of performative verbs and the theory of speech acts is the analysis of tagged sentences in English offered by R. Lakoff (1969).

Lakoff argues that sentences like (1) and (2) should be derived from underlying structures like (22) and (23), respectively.

22. *I suppose John did it.*

23. *I suppose John didn't do it.*

According to Lakoff, sentences like (1) and (2), though they share some syntactic properties of questions are not synonymous with them. In fact, they can be treated as statements of supposition of a positive answer with an implied request not for information (which is characteristic of normal questions) but for reassurance that the supposition is correct. All this is supposed to be expressed in (22), and (23), where *suppose* is an abstract performative verb.

Despite an obvious oversimplification, we shall assume, after Lakoff, tentatively, that the proposed structures i.e., (22) and (23) are correct sources accounting for the communicative functions of (1), and (2). We shall also assume that (22) and (23) can be rendered into Polish as (24) and (25), respectively.

24. *(Ja) przypuszczam, że Jan to zrobił.*

25. *(Ja) przypuszczam, że Jan tego nie zrobił.*

The above assumption has serious theoretical implications. It means that at some such level of analysis as is represented by (22) and (23) for English, and by (24) and (25) for Polish these two languages are comparable. In other words, English and Polish are comparable at the level of communicative functions, which (22-25) represent.

⁷ Both terms; 'syntactic' and 'morphological' processes are taken in the narrow sense.

In search of the exponents of the communicative functions expressed in (24) and (25) we propose (26 - 29):

26. *Jan to zrobił, a, prawda?*
 b. *co? co nie?*
 c. *no nie?*
 d. *nieprawdaż?*
27. *Chyba Jan to zrobił?*
28. *Jan tego nie zrobił, a, prawda?*
 b. *co? co nie?*
 c. *no nie?*
 d. *nieprawdaż?*
29. *Jan chyba tego nie zrobił?*

It is not difficult to notice that (26 a—d, and 27), as well as (28a—d, and 29), are very close in their communicative function to the English sentences (1), and (2).

Interestingly enough, the performative analysis of sentences like (1) and (2), which made it possible to propose sentences (26 - 29) as their Polish equivalents is confirmed by the data collected from various professional translations of English tagged sentences into Polish. Consider the following pairs:

30. *You are Rin Tin Tin, aren't you?* (I. Murdock 1958:198).
 31. *Prawda, że jesteś Rin Tin Tin?* (—, — 1975:227).
 32. *You're a pretty bright boy, aren't you?* (E. Hemingway 1961:72).
 33. *Cwaniak z ciebie, co?* (—, — 1974:280).
 34. *I have ears, don't I?* (I. Shaw 1957:20).
 35. *Bo mam uszy. Co, może nie?* (—, — 1975:24).
 36. *He comes here to eat every night, don't he?* (E. Hemingway 1961:84).
 37. *Przychodzi tu jeść co wieczór, no nie?* (—, — 1974:292).
 38. *But you are a Roman yourself, aren't you?* (R. Kipling 1924:144).
 39. *Ale ty chyba sam też jesteś Rzymianinem?* (—, — 1934:160).

The above examples should not create a false impression that it is always the case that English tags are translated into Polish as *prawda, co, etc.* Very often English tagged sentences appear as interrogatives in Polish translations, e.g.;

40. *Ridiculous, isn't it?* (J. Conrad 1923:188).
 41. *Czy to nie śmieszne?* (—, — 1973:192).

Even a superficial analysis of Declarative Tags in English and equivalent constructions in Polish allows for certain observations to be made. For ease of exposition and brevity *prawda, co, etc.*, will be referred to as 'tags'.

1. 'Tags' in Polish do not show the systematic relationship holding between the tag and the declarative on which it is built; characteristic of the tag formation in English.
2. 'Tags' in Polish seem to be neutral with respect to polarity; *prawda, co, etc.*, can be added freely after a declarative with or without a negative element.
3. *Prawda* occurs both finally and initially; in the latter case it is followed by 'ze-clause'.
4. *Chyba* does not occur finally.
5. 'Tags' in Polish do not display the variety of intonational patterns characteristic of tags in English.

On the basis of the above observations we can now conclude that Declarative Tags in English are significantly different from the equivalent constructions in Polish in their syntactic properties. This, at least in part, explains the inability of the syntactic approaches reviewed above to establish a basis that would allow one to perform an adequate contrastive analysis of tagged sentences in English and Polish. However, the facts presented in (30 - 41) allow to assume that the general line of analysis is correct and that the performative analysis of Declarative Tags in English may be successfully performed and it proves helpful in the identification of the equivalent constructions in Polish. We shall not discuss the type of equivalence that is at stake here. The problems of equivalent constructions have been extensively discussed in Krzeszowski (1974).

As was mentioned above the communicative functions of tagged sentences in English and Polish are very much the same. A question arises whether the analysis of tags proposed by R. Lakoff (1969) is adequate. Earlier in this paper we assumed, tentatively, that it had been; it allowed us to identify the communicatively equivalent forms in English and Polish. Now, we have to reject Lakoff's analysis for the following reasons:

1. *Suppose* cannot function as the performative predicate because it is not a verb of saying (cf. in this connection Karttunen 1974).
2. It is difficult to see how *suppose* can form a performative clause without being able to take *you* as its direct object.
3. *Suppose*, together with a number of other verbs such as e.g. *believe, think, guess, assume, etc.*, belongs to a class of verbs which express 'personal attitude' towards the proposition following them; we shall call these verbs 'attitudinal verbs'. This class of verbs is distinct from the class of 'performative verbs'.
4. Declarative Tags in English are complex semantically and functionally. Lakoff's analysis does not capture this complexity. Moreover, experimental data reported by Smackey and Beym (1970) point to the fact that tags

in English are very complex psycholinguistic patterns and the kinds of attitudinal meanings as well as emotional qualities they convey are more complex than has been suspected.

It seems reasonable to propose that one and the same Declarative Tag may be analysed as having different communicative functions. An adequate analysis of Declarative Tags in English should account for all communicative functions these tags signal in linguistic communication. Otherwise the analysis is partial. Needless to say most of the existing analysis of tagged sentences are only partial without being called so.

It will be proposed here that one such function of Declarative Tags in English is to express a request for confirmation of what was stated in the declarative constituent of the tagged sentence. This proposal may be represented as in (42);

42. *I request of you that you confirm 'S'*

(42) seems to indicate the following:

1. The person who utters something that may be represented by (42) is expecting some response: this has not been accounted for in Lakoff's analysis.
2. (42) contains a very clear indication that two persons are participating in the given linguistic situation.
3. The two clauses *I request of you that you confirm...* are the underlying source for the surface occurrence of the tag.

It is important to bear in mind that (42) represents only one possible function that may be carried out by a declarative tag; namely that of a request for confirmation of the proposition expressed in 'S'. The analysis is therefore, partial. This analysis can be easily extended to account for Polish sentences.

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