Semantics and Pragmatics (ENG508)

VIRTUAL UNIVERSITY OF PAKISTAN

Table of Contents

Lesson 01

INTRODUCTION TO SEMANTICS AND PRAGMATICS

Topic-001: Definition of Semantics and Pragmatics

Semantics is the part of linguistics that is concerned with the study of literal, de-contextualized and grammatical meaning (Frawley, 1992). **Linguistic semantics** is the study of how languages organize and express meanings (Kreidler, 1998). The language uses a system of linguistic signs, each of which is a combination of meaning and phonological and/or orthographic forms. In the semantic analysis, there is always an attempt to focus on what the words conventionally mean, rather than on what an individual speaker might want hearer to mean on a particular occasion. Therefore, we can say, it is the study of the relationships between signs and symbols and what they represent.

Pragmatics is the study of meaning as communicated by the speaker and interpreted by the listener". According to Yule (2010), 'Pragmatics is the study of "invisible" meaning, or how we recognize what is meant even when it isn't actually said or written'. This includes background knowledge context i.e. people know about each other and the world. Pragmatics may vary from culture to culture.

The relationship between the linguistic form and communicative function is of central interest in "**Pragmatics**".

Topic – 002 The Borderline between Semantics and Pragmatics

Both **semantics** and **pragmatics** involve studying meaning, but they are generally seen as different fields. **Semantics** is the study of the contribution made to meaning by the meanings of linguistic items and the way they are combined. Lexical semantics deals with word meaning, and compositional semantics deals with the way the meanings of lexical items combine to give phrase and sentence meaning. On this view of semantics, pragmatics takes up where semantics leaves off. Whereas, **pragmatics** is concerned with what is conveyed by a particular utterance of a phrase, by a speaker, in a context.

The borderline can be seen as falling at the division between encoded and inferred aspects of meaning, between truth-conditional and non-truth-conditional aspects of meaning, or between sentence meaning and speaker meaning.

Topic – 003 Sentences and Utterances

According to Chapman (2011), **Semantics** is concerned with sentences and **Pragmatics** is concerned with utterances. **Sentences** are linguistic entities and there are semantic facts about any language concerning the meanings of its words and the ways in which they can combine together to give meaning. However, an **utterance** is an instance of the production of a sentence or a fragment of a sentence. The most obvious distinction between the sentence and utterance is that utterance will have spatio-temporal and physical properties while, the sentence does not. Sentences are abstract linguistic structures; they do not have contexts and they are not produced by speakers or received by hearers.

Topic – 004 Language and Logic

Logic is concerned with ways in which ideas relate to each other, can be combined together and can be used to derive other ideas with confidence. Logicians tend not to talk about 'ideas' though; the basic unit of traditional logic is the 'proposition'; a significant term in the discussions of meanings in linguistics.

Propositions are the meanings that are expressed by declarative sentences; can be the contents of thoughts. The logical meaning of simple propositions is determined by the principle of compositionality. Compositionality holds that the meaning of a whole is made up by combining together, by 'adding', the meaning of its parts. Thus, the meaning of a proposition is composed of the meaning of subject plus meaning of the predicate.

Topic – 005 The Explicit and the Implicit

Pragmatists are interested in cases where what the speaker intends to convey is different from the words one chooses literally mean. The former is generally known as the implicit meaning and the latter as the explicit meaning. The fact that both implicit and explicit meanings are so different, suggests that there are some 'pragmatic principles' that are shared by the speakers and the hearers towards intended interpretations. Pragmatists are interested to determine the nature and extent of these principles and to answer a question why speakers rely so much on implicit meaning.

In nearly all cases, where there is a difference between implicit and explicit meaning, the implicit meaning conveys a lot more than what is literally expressed; and literal meaning underdetermines the meaning conveyed.

Lesson 02

SEMANTICS AND LINGUISTICS

Topic – 006 Semantics in Linguistics

Semantics is a technical term used to refer to the study of meanings. The meaning covers a variety of aspects of the language but unfortunately, there is no general consideration to describe it (Palmer, 1997). Modern linguistics includes various meditations regarding the knowledge of linguistics, i.e. how to pronounce the words, construct sentences and meanings (Saeed, 2004). Since the linguistic description is an attempt to show a speaker's knowledge, semantics is ascribed to elaborate semantic knowledge.

Semantics has an association with the other fields of studies i.e. philosophy and psychology, as they also investigate the creation and transmission of the meanings (Saeed, 2004). One thing to keep in mind is that an individual's meaning is not a part of the general study of semantics.

Topic – 007 Semantics in a Model of Grammar

According to Palmer (1997), almost all the linguists, overtly or covertly, admit that in a linguistic model, semantics is on one end and phonetics on the other, while grammar is at somewhere in the middle. Many other linguists argue that the aim of doing semantics is to set up a component of the grammar which is parallel to the other ones, e.g. syntax or phonology.

According to Saeed (2004), **phrases** and **sentences** also have the meanings, of course, but an important difference between word meaning on one hand, and the phrase and sentence meanings on the other, concerns productivity. There is always a possibility to create new words, but relatively it is not much frequent to occur.

Chomsky, in particular, has commented on the creativity of the sentence formation. It is one of the generative grammar's most important insights that relatively a small number of combination rules allow the speakers to use a finite set of words to create a very large and infinite number of sentences. To allow this, the rules for sentence formation must be recursive, allowing the repetitive embedding or coordination of syntactic categories (Saeed, 2004).

Topic – 008 Historical Semantics

According to Palmer (1997), the term 'semantics was first used to refer to the development and change of meaning'. There are different reasons for semantic changes. **Generalization of meaning,** for example, 'arrive' originates in Latin 'arripare' - 'movement that ends at the banks of a river'. Specialization of meaning, for example, 'girl' originally referred to 'children in general' and was later restricted to 'female children' only (Krifka). Some changes are merely fortuitous – e.g. 'money' is related to Latin 'moneo' (warn) because money was made in the temple of the goddess Juno Moneta (Rome). Some changes arise from new needs – e.g. 'car' was an obsolete word for 'chariot', until the motor-car

was invented.
One powerful source for meaning change is taboo (Palmer, 1997).

A word that is used for something unpleasant is replaced by another time and again.
For example, English has had the terms privy, lavatory, toilet, bathroom, loo, etc. Historical linguistics or Comparative Philology attempts both to reconstruct the history of Languages and to relate languages apparently coming from a common source (Palmer, 1997).

The study of the origin and uses of particular words is called etymology. It includes observations about previous meanings of a word or its precursors. Etymological dictionaries attempt to quote at least the most recent origin of each word. Synchronic study must precede the diachronic study of language because we cannot study the change in a language until we have first established what the language was like at the time during which it changed (Palmer, 1997).

Topic – 009 Semantics in other Disciplines

Semantics has not been the only concern of linguists; philosophers, anthropologists, and psychologists have also shown their interest in this subject. Some philosophers have suggested that many philosophical problems may be solved by the study of ordinary language.
E.g. the problems of the nature of 'good' and 'evil', of right and wrong, in moral philosophy. Traditional logic is also concerned with semantics as some of its proposals range from simple syllogism to highly complex logical syntax. Logic makes use of concepts found in ordinary language ('and', 'or', etc.).

Anthropologists are also concerned with language as an essential part of the cultural and behavioural patterns of the people - a linguist should not ignore this. The importance of these patterns has been established by Malinowski in his proposals concerning the CONTEXT OF SITUATION (Palmer, 1997, p. 14). The relation between Psychology and Linguistics has given rise to Psycholinguistics.

It is also focused that how we process language both in its production and reception. It is largely through the influence of certain psychologists that behaviourist analyses of meaning have been proposed. One example is to be found in the work of Charles Morris, his book, *Sign, Language and Behavior published in 1946*. He is more concerned with the signs and what they denote or signify.

Topic – 10 Semantics and Semiotics

Linguistic meaning is a special subset of the more general human ability to use signs to convey meanings, e.g. traffic lights are the combination of colours to instruct the drivers and even to warn them. It is believed that human language differs in kind more than a degree from other languages (Palmer, 1997).

Scholars (e.g. Ferdinand de Saussure, 1974) are of the view that linguistics is a part of the general study of the use of the sign system, which is called Semiotics. Semioticians have probed the relationship that may be between the sign and the object it represents or in Saussure's terminology, between signifier and its signified (Saeed, 2004).

There are some important terminologies:

- **Signifier**: Any material thing that signifies, e.g., words on a page, a facial expression, an image.
- **Signified**: The concept that a signifier refers to
- Together, the signifier and the signified make up a meaning.
- **Sign**: The smallest unit of meaning. Anything that can be used to communicate

Types of signs are given below:

- Distinction, highlighted by C. S. Peirce, between Icon, Index and Symbol.
- Iconic signs: Signs where the signifier resembles the signified.
- Similarity between a sign and what it represents. e.g., between a picture and its real-life subject.
- Indexical Signs: Signs where the signifier is caused by the signified.

Lesson 03

IMPORTANT ASSUMPTIONS ABOUT SEMANTICS

Topic – 11 Reference and Sense

These terms were introduced by Friedrich Ludwig Gottlob Frege (1848 -1925) in his treatise entitled "Über Sinn und Bedeutung" from 1892, translated into English as "On sense and reference".

"Reference has to do with the relationship which holds between an expression and what that expression stands for on particular occasions of its utterance" (Lyons, 1977). According to Saeed (2004), Reference is "relationship by which language looks onto the world is usually called reference". Thus, reference can be concluded as the meanings of a word in any language which exist in the real world.

Allan describes that "**Sense** is a decontextualized meaning, abstracted from innumerable occurrences in texts". Sense relates to the complex system of relationships between the linguistic elements themselves (mostly the words). Concerned only with intra-linguistic relations" (Palmer, 1981). According to Saeed (2009), the "semantic links between elements within the vocabulary system is an aspect of their sense". It can be concluded that "sense" exists in the word and this is a word to word relation.

Topic – 12 Utterance, Sentence and Proposition

According to Haung (2014), **proposition** is a declarative sentence, when uttered to make a statement, that is, to say something true or false, about some state of affairs in the external world. The word **proposition** has come from philosophy and is the lowest level of language. **Propositions** are words that exist in the lexicon and have a meaning.

A sentence is a group of abstract grammatical elements obtained from utterances. A well-formed string of words put together by the grammatical rules of language (Huang, 2014). The sentence is some higher level of language, it may have many propositions. When a proposition is combined with grammar, it becomes a sentence. We can say that a sentence is a complete expression while proposition is partial.

According to Leach (1981), "**Utterance** is a natural unit of speech bounded in articulation". According to Huang (2014), it is a particular piece of language that can be a word, a phrase, a sentence, or a sequence of sentences- spoken or written by a particular speaker or writer in a particular context on a particular situation. It is the most concrete level of language. Utterance is always written in inverted commas to indicate that what is put between them is taken from a specific context on a specific occasion of use. For instance, "I am reading the novel.", "Hello!", "A Cappuccino, please."

Topic – 13 Activities on Utterance, Sentence and Proposition

Utterance: Practice - Decide whether the following could represent utterances. Indicate your answer by circling Yes or No.

(1) 'Hello' Yes / No

(2) 'Not much' Yes / No

(3) Utterances may consist of a single word, a single phrase or a single sentence. Yes / No

(4) They may also consist of a sequence of sentences. Yes / No

(5) It is also not unusual to find utterances that consist of one or more grammatically incomplete sentence-fragments. Yes / No

(6) No simple relation of correspondence between utterances and sentences. Yes / No

Sentence: Practice -Practice – Following are some sample conversations. In each case, the second utterance is not a token of a sentence. Write out a full sentence expressing the intended meaning.

(1) Magnus: 'When did Goethe die?'

Fred: 'In 1832' ....

(2) Hostess: 'Would you like tea or coffee?'

Guest: 'Coffee, please'..

(3) A: 'Who won the battle of Waterloo?'

B: 'Wellington' ....

Proposition: Practice – Take a news story from a newspaper and underline the propositions.

Topic – 14 Literal and Non-Literal Meaning

According to Saeed (2003), **Literal Meanings -** told by a dictionary of that language are called conventional meanings. These meanings are a description of the word to which it refers to in the real world. These are Instances where the speaker speaks in a neutral, factually accurate way. E.g. "I am hungry or I am starving." The source of these meanings is a society which gives meaning to the words. These meanings are also called conceptual meaning.

Non-Literal Meanings are Instances where the speaker deliberately describes something in untrue or impossible terms in order to achieve special effects. For instance, "I could eat a horse" or "my stomach is screaming for food". Non-Literal Meanings are also traditionally called **figurative** and are described by a host of rhetorical terms including metaphor, irony, metonymy, etc." (Saeed, 2003, p.17). These are associated meaning of the words - symbolic meaning.

Topic – 15 Semantics and Pragmatics

There are three different schools of thoughts on the distinction between semantics and pragmatics. One group of linguists says that only three fields of linguistics are pure linguistics i.e. semantics, morphology, and syntax. They do not include pragmatics in pure linguistics as it does not rely on logic and ignore it by saying that anyone can interpret language according to his own desire. This school of thought is known as semanticism.

While other group, of linguists holds that semantics is only a study of conceptual meaning but real conversation takes place within pragmatics. Without pragmatics, everything is useless because without it meaning will be partial and incomplete. This school of thought is called pragmatism.

While the third and most recent school of thought is of the view that both semantics and pragmatics are important. According to them, Pragmatics gives non-literal meaning and semantics gives literal meanings. By concluding this, we can say that Semantics is concerned with sentence meaning - meaning in language and Pragmatics is concerned with the speaker's meaning - meaning in social context.

Lesson 04

THEORIES OF MEANING

Topic – 16 What Is Meaning?

Semantics deals with the study of meaning. The verb 'mean' has multiple meanings/ senses in dictionary. Have a look at the following sentences:

- 'I mean to be there tomorrow'.
- 'What I mean to do'. (Intention)
- 'That cloud means thunder'
- 'A red light means 'Stop''. (Sign both natural and conventional)
- The most relevant use of the term for our purpose may be found in the following sentence:
- 'What does calligraphy mean?
- Words, phrases or ideas which are given to understand a certain idea – same meaning
- Finding sameness may be a problem (Palmer, 1997, p. 3)

Meaning is connected to language via the lexicon and grammar and also to what we do with the language. Sense relations are *synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, etc.* The meaning of an expression is a function of the meaning of its parts and the way they are put together. Sometimes, we need to see meaning within the framework of an academic or scientific discipline; called **compositional meanings**.

Topic – 17 Meaning Holism – Meaning within Language

A word is defined in terms of some of the very words which help us to define. This view is similar to 'meaning holism' (Quine, 1960) – the meaning of a word/phrase/ sentence depends on its relationship with other words, e.g. part of what makes up the meaning of 'tall' is that it is opposed to the meaning of 'short'. Holist theory tends to be functional in the sense that it is some aspect of the uses of a piece of language which makes for its meaning. If you call something 'tall', you should be willing to call it 'not short'.

The critics of this theory also argue that the way language express thought is not as arbitrary as the holist's view predicts. There may be deep, consistent and sophisticated patterns in how languages express meaning. Meaning holism may be correct in a way, it does not provide a basis for the scientific study of linguistic meaning. That is why; it has not been appreciated by formal semanticists (Portner, 2005, p. 3-5)

Topic – 18 Idea Theory of Meaning

If meanings are not words, our next guess might be that meanings are something in the mind: concepts, thoughts or ideas. This theory explains the patterns in how languages express meaning in terms of the nature of concepts – ultimately, the way the brain is structured.

There are some challenges faced by the Idea Theory to come up with a sound psychological theory of what concepts or ideas are. Secondly, it needs to provide a concept for every meaningful piece of language (Portner, 2005, p. 5)

If idea theory is to work, ideas will have to have a language-like nature – grammar. Ideas act as a language of thought. According to Portner (2005), concepts are formed by the experiences of people – experiences may vary from person to person. These arguments weaken idea theory.

Topic – 19 Meanings Are out in the World

There are certain philosophical views/theories which lead us to think that 'meanings are out in the world'. Some theorists believe that **meanings are social practices.** When somebody says something, it should be thought as a kind of move in a giant language game we play. This game has rules which imply that if somebody asks: 'What time is it?' The reasonable move for you is to say 'It is X o'clock'. This theory failed to influence semanticists. In conflict with one of the basic ideas of modern linguistics - our languages are not arbitrary social conventions rather reveal deeper universal patterns which spring from the way our minds are built. It also ignores the key role of intuition in meaning making.

Secondly, reference as a theory of meaning, the simplest theory of meaning is to claim that semantics is a reference (Saeed, 2004). To give the meaning of a word one shows what it denotes. Proper names denote individuals, whereas, common nouns denote sets of individuals. 'Reference' picks out elements in the real world.

Topic – 20 Meaning of Sentences and Truth Conditions

There can be some possible ways in which a sentence or sentences may be true or false. The knowledge of meaning involves (at least) the knowledge of conditions under which it is true or false. All there to the meaning of a sentence is its truth conditions instead of knowing, in fact, it is true or false. The notion of possible worlds does not mean something imaginary and disconnected from reality. Rather the possible worlds are specific and closer to the real world. In this theory, the meaning of a sentence is called a proposition. The proposition expressed by a sentence amounts simply to its truth-conditions – a set of possible worlds.

Truth Conditions help us explain logical words (and, or, not) and semantic relations. But it also seems impossible for some scholars that the meaning of a question may be defined in terms of its possible answers. The meaning of imperatives may be seen as 'satisfactory' or 'unsatisfactory' instead of 'true' or 'false' (Portner, 2005, p. 12- 24).

Topic – 21 Putting Meaning Together from Pieces -Compositional Theory

A language is an infinite collection of phrases, sentences and, discourses. Any sentence can be made longer by adding another sentence. In addition, semanticists also have to consider the fact that language is creative – we constantly hear new phrases and sentences never heard before. Semantic theory has to provide an account of the knowledge of meaning which language users have and which allows for their ability to quickly and easily understand novel pieces of language (Portner, 2005, p. 34).

They seek to explain the infinity and creativity of human language by including the **principle of compositionality.**

This theory says that the meaning of a piece of language is based solely on the meaning of its parts, and the way they are put together. With this theory we come to know that semantics has a very strong relation with syntax. To understand the structure of a sentence we need to have enough knowledge about its components such as noun, verb, adjective etc.

Lesson 05

KINDS OF MEANING

Topic – 22 Linguistic/ Conceptual Meaning

Linguistic meaning is called ‘denotative’, ‘logical’ or ‘cognitive’ meaning. This refers to the definition given in the dictionary. Any piece of language is structured simultaneously on more than one level – at least three levels are necessary for linguistic competence. These levels are necessary to generate or understand linguistic utterances. For the analysis of any sentence, we need to establish a phonological representation, a syntactic representation, and a semantic representation. One level may be derived from another at a certain stage.

The aim of conceptual semantics/ meaning is to provide the semantic representation of a given sentence using the configuration of abstract symbols and contrastive features. This will help one to distinguish the particular meaning of a sentence from all other possible sentence meanings in the language. Therefore, conceptual meaning is an inextricable part of what language is (Leech, 1981: 11-12)

Topic – 23 Connotative/ Referential Meaning

This is the communicative value attributed to an expression, by virtue of what it refers to, over and above its purely conceptual meaning. To a large extent, the notion of ‘reference’ overlaps with conceptual meaning (Leech, 1981: 12). Connotative meanings include not only physical characteristics but also psychological and social properties (sociability, maternal instinct). These may also include the putative properties of the referent based on certain social viewpoints. Connotative meanings are concerned with the real-world experiences, one associate with the expressions one uses or hears.

The boundary between the conceptual and connotative meaning is based on the distinction between ‘language’ and the ‘real world’. Connotative meanings are peripheral. These are relatively unstable as it varies according to culture, historical periods and experience of the individual. Connotative meanings, compared with conceptual meanings, are indeterminate and open-ended that may belong to any characteristics of the referent, real or imaginary.

Topic – 24 Social Meaning

Social meanings are those which a piece of language conveys about the social circumstances of its use. We decode the social meaning of a text through our recognition of various dimensions and levels of style within the same language. We recognize some words or pronunciations as being dialectal – specific origin. Social meanings tell us about the geographical or social background of the speaker. Other features of language may disclose something concerning the social relationship between the speaker and the hearer.

About the scale of 'Status' usage – from formal and literary to colloquial, familiar and eventually slang. A sentence may differ from its conceptual meaning due to some social force. The usage of language by the society which determines its meaning based on multiple individual and social factors – e.g. social class of users, the degree of formality, etc. Domicile (Very Formal), Residence (Formal), Abode (Poetic), Home (General).

Topic – 25 Affective Meaning

Affective meanings reflect personal feelings of the speaker including the attitude to the listener or to the content of the talk (Leech, 1981). These are often explicitly conveyed through the conceptual or the connotative content of the words used. Social norms of politeness may vary from society to society. Other factors (e.g. intonation, tone of voice) may also be crucial in the making of these meanings. Affective meanings are largely a parasitic category in a way.

Further, we can use some other elements of the language to express our emotions, e.g. interjections, like Aha! And Yippee! that show emotions. While using these elements, we communicate feelings and attitude without the meditation of any other kind of meaning.

Topic – 26 Reflected and Collocative Meaning

Reflected meanings are the meanings when we associate one sense of expression with another. Meaning which arises in cases of multiple conceptual meaning, when one sense of a word forms part our response to another sense (Leech, 1981). One sense of a word seems to 'rub of' on another sense when it has a dominant suggestive power either through relative frequency and familiarity or through the strength of its associations. The case where the reflected meanings intrude through the sheer strength of emotive suggestion is most strikingly illustrated by words which have a taboo meaning. (Leech, 1981: 16)

Collocative meanings consist of the associations a word acquires on account of the meaning of words which tend to occur in its environment, e.g. 'pretty' and 'handsome' share the similar ground in the meaning, 'good-looking' but may be distinguished by the range of nouns with which they co-occur or collocate. The collocative meaning may simply be an idiosyncratic property of individual words.

Topic – 27 Thematic Meaning

Sentences with similar conceptual meanings may have different communicative values based on their contexts of organization. What is communicated by the way in which a speaker or the writer organizes the message, in terms of the order, focus, and emphasis (Leech, 1981). Thematic meaning is mainly a matter of choice between alternative grammatical constructions. In other cases, thematic meanings may be stress and intonation rather than grammatical construction that highlights the information in one part of a sentence.

Lesson 06

MEANING, THOUGHT AND REALITY

Topic – 28 Sense and Concepts

Sense places a new level between the words and the world: a level of mental representation. Thus, a noun is said to gain its ability to denote because it is associated with something in the speaker/hearer's mind. This is the relationship between the image and the real world entity would be then one of resemblance. Sense is variation in images that different speakers might have depending on their experience. For instance, the word 'triangle' many have a mental image of an equilateral triangle, another may have an image of a scalene triangle. It is a usual modification of the image theory is to hypothesize that the sense of some words, while mental, is not visual but a more abstract element.

Concept might be able to contain the non-visual features, e.g. a definition of triangle, may include a 'three-sided polygon, classifiable by its angles or sides'. Describing some concepts might be simple and related to perceptual stimuli – e.g. sun, water, etc. Other concepts may be complex, e.g. marriage or retirement which involve whole theories or cultural complexities.

Topic – 29 Necessary and Sufficient Conditions

Necessary and sufficient conditions are one traditional approach to describe concepts. This approach comes from thinking about concepts as follows: If we have a concept like WOMAN, it must contain the information necessary to decide when something in the world is a woman or not. One can see these attributes as conditions: if something must have them to be a woman, then they can be called necessary conditions. In addition, if we can find the right set, so that just that set is enough to define a woman, then they can be called sufficient conditions, i.e. the right amount of information for the concept. Thus, this theory views concepts as lists of bits of knowledge: the necessary and sufficient conditions for something to be an example of that concept

Topic – 30 Prototypes

There is a model of concepts which views them as structured so that there are central or typical members of a category, such as BIRD or FURNITURE, but then shading off into less typical or peripheral members. This approach seems to have been supported by Rosch's experimental evidence: speakers tend to agree more readily on typical members than on less typical members. These members come to mind more quickly. "What kind of bird are you, if you cannot fly", said the little bird to the duck. "What kind of bird are you, if you cannot swim", said the duck and dived (Prokofiér, Peter Wolf). This quote is the essence of the prototypical conception of the structures of categories.

The experiments show that prototype theory involves a psycholinguistic notion that aids human categorization. Prototypes provide some insight into the way we conceive of certain ideas/objects. Prototypes may help children learn the meanings of new words. Culturally and socially dependent prototypes can vary across populations. Many words have no clear mental images such as ‘forget, things, without, concept’.

Topic – 31 Linguistic Relativity

The notion of linguistic relativity, associated with Edward Sapir and Benjamin Lee Whorf, is an idea that has spread far outside the fields of anthropology and linguistics, where it began. One reason perhaps is that it provides an explanation for a common experience when dealing with different languages. Writers translating between languages have often remarked on the lack of fit between words in two languages, e.g. color words might not have exactly the same range in different languages. The fact that language mirrors cultural differences followed to the work of Franz Boas, an anthropologist.

Sapir (1949) proposed that the particular language we speak conditions our conceptualization. Similarly, Whorf (1956) strengthened the idea of the link between language and thought into the notion he called linguistic relativity. Its basic premise is that the way we think about the world is determined by our culture and linguistic background.

Topic – 32 The Language of Thought Hypothesis

The cognitive science (the interdisciplinary study of intelligence), rejected the idea of linguistic relativity. It is a typical response is to dismiss as a fallacy such a strict identification of thought and language. Two main types of arguments are used to support this view. First, there is evidence of thinking without language. Second, language underspecifies meaning. Artists and scientists also claim that their creativity sometimes derives from ideas which are non-linguistic images. Such evidences argue that cognitive processes do not employ a spoken language such as English or Arabic but may use a separate computational system in the mind: a language of thought. These different types of arguments are often taken in cognitive science, to support the view that we think in a language of thought, sometimes called ‘Mentalese’. When we want to speak, we translate from Mentalese into our spoken language, be it Punjabi or Russian.

Lesson 07

Lexical Relations - I

Topic – 33 What Are Lexical Relations?

The branch of semantics that deals with word meanings is called lexical semantics (Yule, 1994). Lexical relations are relationships of the meanings of the words to other words (Bolinger, 1968:11). Lexical relations are central to the way speakers and hearers construct meaning. The lexical relation is used to indicate any paradigmatic relation among words. It is not just a semantic relation; so, it includes phonetic relations such as rhyme and alliteration, morphological relations such as inflectional variations and morpho-syntactic relations such as co-membership in a grammatical category. These relations also examine the network-like structure given to our mental lexicon.

Topic – 34 Words and Lexical Items

Our interest in semantic relations is with lexemes or semantic words. First, we should examine this unit “word”. Words can be identified at the level of writing, where we are familiar with them being separated by white space, where we can call them orthographic words. In phonology, they are strings of sounds which may show internal structuring. In syntax, where the same semantic word can be represented by several grammatical distinct variations e.g. walk, walking walked. However, for semantics, these are instances of the same lexeme, the verb ‘walk’. “A word is a minimum free form… for the purposes of ordinary life; the word is the smallest unit of the speech” (Bloomfield, 1984: 178). Thus, words are independent entities that are being able to occur in isolation.

Topic – 35 Problems with Pinning Down Word Meaning

The difficulty arises from the influence of context on the word meaning. Usually, it is easy to define a word if you are given the phrase or sentence it occurs in. These contextual effects seem to pull word meanings in two opposite directions. First, restricting influence is the tendency for words to occur together repeatedly, called “Collocation”. Let’s compare the collocation patterns of two adjectives strong and powerful; which might give similar meanings. Though both of them can be used with same items, e.g. strong arguments and powerful arguments elsewhere there are collocation effects such as when we talk of a strong tea rather than a powerful tea; but a powerful car rather than a strong car. These collocations also undergo the process of fossilization - fixed expressions. e.g. saying ‘they’re husband and wife’ rather than ‘wife and husband’. Second, the contextual effects can pull word meanings towards creativity and semantic shift. Problem with word meanings is to decide, for any given example, whether one is dealing with ambiguity or vagueness.

Topic – 36 Homonymy and Polysemy

Homonyms are unrelated senses of the same phonological words. Different types of homonyms can be distinguished by their syntactic behaviors and spellings, for instance: lexemes of the same syntactic category with same spellings, e.g. lap - ‘circuit of a course’ and lap - ‘part of the body when sitting down" or, lexemes of the same syntactic category with different spellings e.g. the verb 'ring' and 'wring' or, lexemes of the different syntactic category with same spellings e.g. the verb 'keep' and the noun 'keep' or, lexemes of the different syntactic category with different spellings e.g. not, knot.

Polysemy is identified using the criteria of "relatedness"; when the senses are judged to be related under the same lexical entry, e.g. hook n. 1. a piece of material, usually metal, curved or bent and used to suspend, catch, hold, or pull something. 2. short for fish-hook. 3. a trap or snare. These are the various senses of hook that are treated as polysemy and therefore listed under one lexical entity. However, there is a distinction made in lexicology between homonymy and polysemy; both deal with multiple senses of the same phonological words.

Topic – 37 Synonyms and Antonyms

Synonymy is the notion of sameness of meaning. According to Saeed (2014), synonyms are different phonological words which have the same or very similar meanings e.g. couch/sofa, boy/lad, lawyer/attorney. Two words are synonymous: if the substitution of one for the other does not change the truth value of a sentence. Synonyms are almost never truly substitutable. These often have different distributions along a number of parameters. They may belong to different dialects, registers, styles of language, colloquial, formal, literary etc. or these may belong to different situations, e.g. wife or spouse is more formal than old lady or missus.

Antonyms are words which are opposite in meaning. Different types of relationships that seem to involve words which are at a time related in meaning yet incompatible or contrasting, some of them are as follow:

1. Simple Antonyms - the negative of one implies the positive of the other - complementary pairs or binary pairs.
2. Gradable Antonyms - this is a relationship between opposites where the positive of one term does not necessarily imply the negative of the other.
3. Taxonomy Sisters -antonym sometimes describe words which are at the same level in taxonomy. Taxonomies are classification systems e.g. the color adjectives in English (i.e. red, orange, yellow, green, blue, purple, brown).
4. Reverses - shows reverse relation in between terms describing movements, where one term describes movement in one direction, and the other the same movement in the opposite direction, e.g. push/pull, come/go, up/down, in/out, right/left.
5. Converses - describe a relation between two entities from alternate viewpoints, e.g. own/belong to, above/ below, employer/ employee.

Lesson 08

Lexical Relations II

Topic – 38 Hyponymy

Hyponymy is a relation of inclusion. It includes the meaning of a more general word. E.g. dog and cat are hyponyms of ‘animal’, sister and mother are hyponyms of ‘woman’. The more general term is called superordinate. Much of the vocabulary is linked by such systems of inclusion, and the resulting semantic networks form the hierarchical taxonomies. When the meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another, the relationship is described as hyponymy. Examples are the pairs: animal/dog, dog/poodle, vegetable/carrot, flower/rose, tree/banyan. The concept of “inclusion” involved in this relationship is the idea that if an object is a rose, then it is necessarily a flower, so the meaning of the flower is included in the meaning of rose. Or, the rose is a hyponym of flower.

Topic – 39 Meronymy

Meronym is a term used to describe a part-whole relationship between lexical items, e.g. we can identify this relationship by using sentence frames like X is part of Y or Y has X, as ‘in a page is part of a book, or a book has pages’. Meronyms vary in three ways: First, how necessary the part is to the whole. e.g. nose as a meronym of the face. Others are usual but not obligatory, e.g. collar as a meronym of the shirt. Third are optional, e.g. cellar for the house. Meronymy differs from hyponymy in transitivity. Hyponymy is always transitive but meronymy may or may not be.

> Transitive: nail as a meronym of finger and finger of the hand. Non-transitive: hole is a meronym of button and button of shirt, but hole is not a meronym of shirt (A shirt has holes!).

Topic – 40 Causative Verbs and Agentive Nouns

Causative verbs identify a relationship between an adjective describing a state and a verb describing a beginning or change of state (inchoative). For example, ‘wide’ as in ‘the road is wide’ and ‘widen’ as in ‘the road widened’. The verb which describes this change of state is known as a causative verb, e.g. ‘widen’ as in ‘the City Council widened the road’.

Agentive nouns have the meaning ‘the entity who/which performs the action of the verb’. There are several types of agentive nouns. One well-known type is derived from verbs and ends in the written forms –er or –or, e.g. skier, walker, whaler, toaster, commentator, dictator, calculator.

Topic – 41 Colour Terms

Berlin and Kay (1969) investigated that languages vary in the number and range of their basic color terms. To them, there are various ways of describing colors, including comparison to objects, languages have some lexemes which are basic in the following sense:

Firstly, the term is monolexemic, i.e. not build up from the meaning of its parts - the term blue-grey are not basic. Secondly, the term is not a hyponym of any other color, i.e. the color is not a kind of another color. Thus, English red is basic, scarlet is not. Thirdly, the term has wide applicability. This excludes terms like English blonde. Fourthly, the term is not a semantic extension of something manifesting that color. So turquoise, gold, taupe, and chestnut are not basic. English has eleven – white, black, red, green, yellow, blue, brown, purple, pink, orange, and grey – color terms in its system.

Topic – 42 Core Vocabulary and Universal Lexemes

Each language has a core vocabulary of more frequent and basic words are widely used in foreign language teaching. The core vocabulary could be used to trace lexical links between languages to establish family relationships among them. The implication of this approach is that the membership of core vocabulary will be the same or similar for all languages. Swadesh originally proposed a 200-word list which was later narrowed down to the 100-word list (see Saeed, 2014: 77).

Universal Lexemes were investigated by Anna Wierzbicka and her colleagues (Wierzbicka 1992, 1996; Goddard and Wierzbicka 1994; Goddard 2001). They analyzed a large range of languages to try to establish a core set of universal lexemes. One feature of their approach is the avoidance of formal metalanguages. Instead, they rely on what they call 'reductive paraphrase in natural language'. They are reminiscent of Swadesh's notion of core vocabulary but they are established in a different way: by the in-depth analysis of individual languages. They claimed that the semantic primes of all languages coincide; which is a very strong claim about an admittedly limited number of lexical universals.

Lesson 09

Lexical Semantics: Fields and Collocations

Topic – 43 Introduction

Many of the basic ideas in this topic are derived from de Saussure's notion of 'value'. He pointed out that a knight on a chess board is a knight not because of any inherent quality (shape, size, etc.), but because of what it can do in relation to the other pieces on the board (Saussure, 1959:110). He stressed this relational aspect of language, saying that there were 'only differences and no positive terms'. As differences are in some way related. For instance, he argued that 'sheep' in English has a different value from 'mouton' in French because English has also the word 'mutton'. Meanings of words have their association with other words which can be in the form of paradigmatic/ syntagmatic relations, sense relations, collocation and idiomatic relations.

Topic – 44 Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic Relations - I

Paradigmatic relations hold between concepts belonging to the same grammatical category. These relations cover a wide variety of associations between words, including morphological and phonetic. For instance, in a 'red door' and 'green door', 'red' and 'green' are in a paradigmatic relation to each other.

A paradigm is a set of linguistic or other units that can be substituted for each other in the same position within a sequence or structure. In this sense, it may be constituted by all words sharing the same grammatical function, since the substitution of one for another does not disturb the syntax of a sentence.

Linguistics often refers to the paradigmatic dimension of language as the 'vertical axis' of selection (Oxford Concise Dictionary), e.g. read the following sentence: "The cat was sitting on the rug." Now, imagine the words 'the' can be replaced with. The word "the" is chosen from among a number of words such as "a," "their," "his," and "my" that could have filled the same slot, that is, "the 'vertical axis' of selection." And also, "cat" is chosen instead of "dog," "boy," or "baby," and "was" instead of "is," and so on.

Topic – 45 Paradigmatic and Syntagmatic Relations - II

Syntagmatic relations hold between two or more words co-present in a sequence. Combinations based on sequential relations are called syntagms. The notion of a syntagm applies among others to a group of words and to complex units of every size and kind, for example, phrases, sentences. For instance, in a 'red car' and 'green car', 'red' and 'green' are in syntagmatic relation with 'car'.

Syntagm is a linguistic term designating any combination of units which are arranged in a significant sequence. A sentence is a syntagm of words. For instance, both the sentences "I write what I know" and "I know what I write" consist of the same units, "I," "write," "what," and, "know." However, the meanings of these two sentences are different because the units that compose the sentences are arranged differently based on the syntagmatic system - the 'horizontal' axis.

Topic – 46 Semantic Fields

A meaning of a word is dependent partly on its relation to other words in the same conceptual area. The kinds of semantic fields vary from culture to culture. Anthropologists use them to study belief systems and reasoning across cultural groups. According to Brinton (2000), a semantic field denotes a segment of reality symbolized by a set of related words. The words in a semantic field share a common semantic property.

Most often, fields are defined by subject matter, such as body parts, landforms, diseases, colors, foods, or kinship relations (Brinton, 2000). The words in a particular semantic field are "incompatible" (Palmer, 1996). A creature cannot be denoted both as a lion and an elephant at the same time. Words in a semantic field are not synonymous, but are all used to talk about the same general phenomenon. The words anger, happiness, and sadness are not synonymous, but they are a part of the semantic field called "emotional state".

Topic – 47 Collocations

A collocation is either a highly frequent co-occurrence of two or more words or a combination of words which represents a fully grammatical structure, e.g. a noun phrase (Sinclair 2003: 173). Firth argued that "you shall know a word by the company it keeps" (1957: 11). Collocation is a familiar grouping of words, especially words that habitually appear together and thereby convey meaning by association. Collocations also define a sequence of words or terms that co-occur more often than would be expected by chance. e.g., Strong tea is a correct expression and Powerful tea is considered as the wrong expression.

Topic – 48 Idioms

Idioms are expressions whose meaning cannot be inferred from the meaning of its parts. Usually, these are translated with semantically and not necessarily lexically equivalents in the target language. Majority of idioms are homophonous, such as 'by and large' or 'far and away' (Cruse, 1986: 37). They are grammatically well-formed and semantically transparent expressions. We cannot replace its parts with other semantically or syntactically equivalent lexemes. An idiom is a rigid word combination to which no generalities apply; neither can its meaning be determined from the meaning of its parts; nor can it participate in the usual word-order variations. Idioms involve collocation of a special kind, for instance, 'kick the bucket', fly off the handle' and 'red herring'.

Lesson 10

Sentence Relations and Truth

Topic – 49 Logic and Truth

Montague (1974) has hypothesized that the tools of logic can help us to represent sentence meaning. The study of logic comes down from the Classical Greek world, famously from Aristotle. The beginnings of logic lie in a search for the principles of valid argument and inference. A part of this study is a concern for the truth of statements and whether truth is preserved or lost by putting sentences into different patterns. Truth here is taken to mean a correspondence with facts, or the correct description of the states of affairs in the world. Mostly, the truth is said to be empirical as we need some facts of the world to know whether a statement is true or not. For instance, the truth of the sentence ‘My father was the first man to visit Mars’ depends on the facts about the life of speaker’s father: If her father did go to Mars and was the first man there then the sentence is true; otherwise, it is false. Similarly, the empirical truth of ‘the earth revolves around the sun’ depends upon the facts of the universe.

Topic – 50 Propositional Logic

The term ‘propositional logic’ is also known as ‘propositional calculus’ and ‘sentential calculus’. Here, we are concerned with the relations that hold between sentences, involving complex sentences, irrespective of the internal structure of the sentences themselves. For example, we have two sentences i.e. ‘John is in his office’ and ‘John is at home’. Between them, one is true; if the second is false, it can be concluded that the first is true. This conclusion can be drawn irrespective of the form of the sentences themselves. Semanticists call a sentence’s being true or false based on its truth value, and call the facts that would have to obtain in reality to make a sentence true or false, its truth conditions.

Topic – 51 Predicate Logic

The study of the truth behavior of sentences with quantifiers e.g. ‘all, every, each, some, one’ gave rise to predicate logic. The propositional logic cannot account for inferences that depend upon relations within sentences and cannot deal with an example such as ‘All men are mortal’, ‘Socrates is a man’, ‘and therefore, Socrates is mortal’. For this we need ‘predicate logic’ or ‘predicate calculus’, but as we need to deal with relations between sentences, predicate logic is not wholly distinct from propositional logic, but includes it. It is possible to symbolize this with M(a), where M stands for the predicate ‘is a man’ and (a) refers to the individual ‘John’. We can extend this symbolism to deal with relations where more than one individual is concerned. Thus ‘John loves Mary’ may be symbolized as L (a, b), where L stands for the predicate ‘loves’ and (a) and (b) for ‘John’ and ‘Mary’.

Topic – 52 Entailment

Entailment defined by truth – “A sentence p entails a sentence q when the truth of the first (p) guarantees the truth of the second (q), and the falsity of the second (q) guarantees the falsity of the first (p). Let’s take an example of the sentences below, where a is said to entail b:

a. The anarchist assassinated the emperor.
b. The emperor died.

Assuming as usual that the same individual is denoted by ‘the emperor’ here, there are a number of ways of informally describing this relationship. If somebody tells us ‘a’ and we believe it, then we know ‘b’ without being told any more. Or it is impossible for somebody to assert ‘a’ but deny ‘b’. What such definition have to try to capture is that entailment is not an inference in the normal sense: we do not have to reason to get from ‘a’ to ‘b’, we just know it instantaneously because of our knowledge of English.

Topic – 53 Truth Conditional Semantics

This is seen as a matter of meaning or semantics, since, it is claimed, to know the meaning of the sentence is to know the conditions under which it is true. Tarski’s (1956:155) definition is ‘a true sentence is one which states that the state of affairs is so and so, and the state of affairs is so and so’. For instance, ‘Snow is white’ if and only snow is white. In fact, he proposed this as the basis of a theory of truth, but it is easy to see how it can be converted into a theory of meaning. At first, this dictum may seem to be completely uninformative. Of course, snow is white if snow is white. But that misses the point of what is being suggested. This makes sense only if we clearly distinguish between the sentence that we are talking about (object language) and what we are saying about it(meta-language).

Thus, we match a bit of language with a set of conditions in the world, and it does not matter if the words ‘snow is white’ appear in both (object language and metalanguage) in this case, English. However, much of the work in truth-conditional semantics is of a highly technical nature, and it cannot be rightly evaluated without a detailed exposition.

Lesson 11

PRESUPPOSITION

Topic – 54 Introduction

In an ordinary language, of course, to presuppose something means to assume it, and the narrower technical use in semantics is related to this. Presupposition refers to the assumptions implicitly made by the speakers and the listeners that are necessary for the correct interpretation of utterance (Leech). It allows us the freedom not to state everything in our communication. Speakers assume certain information which is already known by their listeners and that information is called presupposition. Presupposition is treated as a relationship between two propositions.

Topic – 55 Two Approaches to Presupposition

In the first approach, sentences are viewed as external objects. We do not worry too much about the process of producing them, or the individuality of the speaker or writer and their audience. Meaning is seen as an attribute of sentences rather than something constructed by the participants.

Second approach views sentences as the utterances of individuals engaged in a communication act. The aim is to develop the strategies that speakers and hearers use to communicate with one another. Thus, we might look at communication from the speaker's viewpoint. Presupposition is one of a number of inferences that the listener might make on the basis of what the speaker has just said. The first approach is essentially semantic and the second pragmatic.

Topic – 56 Presupposition Failure

Presupposition failure is one phenomenon that caused problems for a truth relations approach. It has been observed that using a name or a definite description to refer, presupposes the existence of the named or described entity. Thus, the 'a' sentence presupposes the 'b' sentences in the following examples.

a. Ronald is a vegetarian.

b. Ronald exists.

a. The King of France is bald.

b. There is a King of France.

The problem occurs when there exists no referent for the nominal. If the 'b' sentences above are false, what is the status of the sentences? Are they false, or they are in a grey-area, neither true nor false? In grey-area analysis, we need to add a line to our truth table, as follows:

p		q
T	→	T
F	→	T
T or F	←	T
? (T v F)	←	F

It shows that if q is false, the status of p is dubious, possibly neither true nor false. This problem for truth-based theories is known as a truth-value gap.

Topic – 57 Presupposition Triggers

Presupposition triggers are the types of presupposition produced by particular words or constructions. Some of these triggers derive from syntactic structures. Many presuppositions are produced by the presence of certain words (lexical triggers) mostly ‘verbs’. For example, there is a class of verbs like ‘regret’ and ‘realize’ called factive verbs because they presuppose the truth of their complement clause.

Topic – 58 Presupposition and Context

One of the problems for a simple truth-based account is that the presuppositional behavior seems sensitive to context. Levinson (1983) gives an example the type of presupposition usually triggered by time adverbial clauses. For example, 1a presupposing 1b below:

1. a. She cried before she finished her thesis.

b. She finished her thesis.

However, if we change the verb, as in example 2a below, the presupposition 2b is no longer produced:

2. a. She died before she finished her thesis.

b. She finished her thesis.

Why is this? It is argued that in example 2, the presupposition is cancelled by our general knowledge of the world: we know that dead people do not normally complete unfinished theses. This characteristic is known as defeasibility i.e. cancelling of presupposition. These examples show that presuppositional behavior is related to context.

Lesson 12

SENTENCE SEMANTICS - I: SITUATIONS

Topic – 59 Introduction: Classifying Situations

Language allows the speaker to classify situations by using semantic distinctions of actions, states, processes, tenses and, aspects. Classification of situations helps us to understand the meaning of a discourse deeply. Two common situation types are Static and Dynamic which create different situations with the help of lexical categories in verbs. Knows, thinks, loves, like, have, remains etc. are stative verbs and do not contain physical actions. Dynamic type contains action verbs such as eat, drive, walk.

In events, the speaker views the situation as a whole, e.g. 'the mine blew up.' While, in processes, the speaker views, as it were, the internal structure of a dynamic situation, e.g. 'he ran to the forest. Processes can be divided into inchoatives and resultatives.

Topic – 60 Tense and Aspect

Tense is a category which allows a speaker to relate situations to time. For example, 'they will cut the grass tomorrow' is future tense. Aspect System allows the speaker to relate situation and time, and to view an event in various ways: as complete or incomplete.

Aspects have to do not with the location of an event in time, but with its temporal distribution or contour (Saeed, 2004). For example: 'She is coming.' (incomplete), 'She has come.' (complete).

Topic – 61 Modality

Modality is a linguistic category (like aspect or tense) that modifies the meaning of the event or action we talk about to include ways to "influence" the event described. Modality may express what the speaker wants to do (give permission, describe ability, suggest, request, offer, prohibit, express desires or necessity, etc.) It also expresses whether the speaker believes, or is sure that what he or she is saying is true. There are two types of modality: Epistemic Modality expresses the degree of knowledge how sure the speaker is in his communication and Deontic Modality shows, where the verbs mark the speaker's attitude to social factors of obligation, responsibility, and permission.

Topic – 62 Mood

Mood is the quality of verb which conveys a writer's attitude or feelings towards a subject (Saeed, 2004). Mood also shows the feelings of a speaker at time of speaking. For example, 'it may rain tomorrow.' In this example, the speaker's attitude is uncertain about the rain. There are different types of moods:

- Indicative moods express a fact, opinion, or question based on realist form.

- Potential moods: The word ‘Potential’ stands for probability. So, potential moods may have specific verb ending. Conditional uses infinitives with auxiliary verbs such as have, be, should, etc.
- Subjunctive moods contrast with indicative moods because there is an element of uncertainty in subjunctive moods. These are used for wishes, beliefs, exhortations, etc. e.g. ‘May you live long!’ (Saeed,2004)
- Imperative moods make direct commands or requests. For example, ‘show me the money.’

Topic – 63 Evidentiality

Evidentiality is a semantic category which allows a speaker to communicate his/her attitude to the source of his/her information. It further allows the speaker to say whether the statement relies on personal first-hand knowledge, or was acquired from another source (Saeed, 2004). There are different types of evidentiality:

- Witness Evidentiality: when an information source is obtained from the direct observation, e.g. ‘I saw him breaking the window’. It is usually visual information (Eyewitness)
- Sensory Evidentiality: indicates that the speaker’s evidence for truth is derived from the speaker’s own sensory experience.
- Inferential Evidentiality: Indicates that the speaker makes his/her statement based on a deduction from facts and not on a direct observation of the action itself. (Aikhenvald, 2004, 2006)
- Reportative Evidentiality: Indicates that the information was reported to the speaker by another person. It can be quotes, rumours or a news report.
- An assumed evidential indicates that the information source is not based on a mere guess but is rather based on the general knowledge or habitual activities.

Lesson 13

SENTENCE SEMANTICS - II: PARTICIPANTS

Topic – 64 Introduction: Classifying Participants

A set of semantic choices which face a speaker seeking to describe a situation how to portray the roles of any entities involved. Some roles have a number of labels in semantics such as: participant roles (Allan, 1986), deep semantic cases (Fillmore, 1968), semantic roles (Givon, 1990), and thematic roles (Dowty, 1991; Jackendoff, 1990).

Thematic roles were introduced in generative grammar during the mid-1960s and early 1970s. In thematic roles, entities are described by the action of the verb. Thematic roles can be defined as: the roles that referents of the arguments of a verb play in the event or as the state that the verb denotes. A semantic role is the underlying relationship that a participant has with the main verb in a clause. Grammatical relations (subject, object, etc.) are morphosyntactic, whereas semantic roles (agent, patient, instrument…) are conceptual notions. Semantic roles do not correspond directly to grammatical relations.

Topic – 65 Thematic Roles – I (Agent, Patient, Theme, Experiencer)

Agent is the initiator of some action, capable of acting with volition. For example, Rashid cooked the meat. **Patient** is the entity/person undergoing the effect of the main action of a verb or undergoing some change in state, for example, John cut down these bushes. **Theme** is the entity (person or thing) which is changed or moved by an action of a verb, or whose location is described by verb. For example,: the book is in the library. **Experiencer** is the entity which is aware of the action or state described by the predicate but which is not in control of the action or state. For example, Kamran heard the door shut.

Topic – 66 Thematic Roles – II (Beneficiary, Instrument, Location, Goal, Source, Stimulus

Beneficiary is the entity for whose benefit the action was performed. For example, they baked me a cake. **Instrument** is the means by which an action is performed or something comes about. For example, I write a letter with the pen. **Location** is the place where something is situated or has taken place. For example, the baby was hiding behind the curtain. **Goal** is the entity towards which something is moved, either literally or metaphorically. For example, the driver handed his license to the policeman. **Source** is the entity from which something moves, either literally or metaphorically. For example, I took the pen from the drawer. **Stimulus** is the entity causing an effect (usually psychological) during an experience. For example: The noise of the horn frightened the passengers.

Topic – 67 Identifying Thematic Roles

Some writers suggested that an ‘agent’ displays volition and is a particular type of a more general thematic role ‘actor’, where actor expresses the participants which perform, effect or control the situation denoted by the predicate. Actor is not an animate entity. While comparing **Patient** and **Theme**, Patient is reserved for an entity acted upon and changed by the verb's action. Theme is an entity moved in literal and figurative sense by the action of the verb but constitutionally unchanged. E.g. Awais shattered the rock. Awais throw the rock.

Sometimes a role of force is used instead of instrument for an inanimate entity which causes something. For example: The wind flattened the crops. The sea wall was weakened by the waves. While these roles may intuitively clear, however, in practice, it is sometimes difficult to know which role to assign to a particular noun phrase.

Topic – 68 Problems with Thematic Roles

The first problem is really about delimiting particular roles. The extreme case would be to identify individual thematic roles for each verb: thus we would say that a verb like 'beat' gives two theta-roles - a 'beater' role and a 'beaten' role. Second problem: how do we define theta-roles in general? That is, what semantic basis do we have for characterizing roles? Facing both these problems, Dowty (1991) proposes a solution where theta-roles are not semantic primitives but are defined in terms of entailment of the predicate.

Lesson 14

SEMANTICS AND GRAMMAR

Topic – 69 Formal Grammar

Formal grammar is the study or the use of rules about how words change their form and combine with other words to express meaning (Cambridge Dictionary). This is a fact about English that sequence of sounds conveys meaning differently. ‘Man’ /mæn/ is singular grammatically and ‘Men’ /men/ is plural grammatically. Most of the traditional grammarians assumed that grammatical categories were essentially semantic. Some linguists argued that grammar must be distinct from semantics and grammatical categories must be wholly defined in terms of the FORM of the language (Palmer, 1976).

In English, tense is not directly related to time since the past tense may be used for future, e.g. ‘If he came tomorrow’. ‘Hair’ is used for singular and plural as well. Why have we skipped lexical rule ‘adding –s’ at the end? Therefore, basic grammatical categories may be established independently of their meaning.

Topic – 70 Grammatical Categories

Grammar is not restricted to the study of form or function words. It is concerned, more widely, with categories such as tense, gender, number and with syntactic functions such as subject and object, e.g. ‘Ali’ (Noun/Subject, etc.). These categories can be on ‘phrasal level’ as well, e.g. ‘Ali the son of John’ is a noun phrase. According to Palmer, there are two familiar grammatical categories, ‘Gender’ and ‘Number’ but English has strictly no grammatical gender at all. It has, of course, pronouns he, she, it but, these are essentially the markers of sex.

Noun class of **countable** and **uncountable**, or **count** and **mass**. Examples of count nouns are a cat, a book, an apple, etc. Mass nouns may occur with no article or with some indefinite quantifiers. For example, some butter, some milk, little water etc.

The category of person (first person I, we, second person you, and the third person he, she, it, they) is often closely associated with the number and with gender in the verbal forms of languages. The first person relates to a speaker while, the second person relates to the hearer.

Topic – 71 Grammar and Lexicon

It is irrelevant for semantics whether a grammatical category is indicated by a form of the word, by a morpheme or the order of the words. For example, Past tense is marked by the past tense morpheme (–ed) but there is no similar morpheme to indicate the future; future is marked by ‘shall, will, or be going to’.

The distinction between ‘Grammar and Lexicon’ can be posed in terms of the distinction between ‘grammatically unacceptable sentence’ and ‘those that are excluded on lexical grounds’. *The boys are in the room. is incorrect but the meaning is not vague. Chomsky invented the sentence Colorless green ideas sleep furiously, which seems faultless grammatically, yet is completely unacceptable lexically. Therefore, if a sentence conforms to grammar, but be completely deviant lexically, it would seem that grammar and lexicon are distinct.

Topic – 72 Grammatical Relations

Grammatical categories of the verb, tense, aspect, phase and voice are linked with each other and a small alteration in the order of these categories completely changes the meaning of a sentence. For example, ‘John plays the piano’ can be transformed into ‘the piano is played by John’.

Transformation is where the grammatical categories not only affect one element (verb), but also affect the whole sentence. For example, ‘He ate food’ is changed into ‘Food was eaten by him,’ (Passive). Subject and objects are marked by position, the subject precedes the verb e.g. ‘She laughed.’ and the object follows the verb e.g ‘She –killed a snake.’

Verbs that have objects are called transitive verbs and those without objects are called intransitive verbs, e.g. He ate food. (Transitive), He laughed. (Intransitive). Another term called causitivity, is closely related to transitivity where an actor becomes the reason for doing an action.

Topic – 73 Case Grammar

A system of grammatical description based on the functional relations that noun groups have to the main verb of a sentence (Collins Dictionary Online). Palmer has given three cases ‘Agentive, Instrumental and Object’. Fillmore has suggested six cases, ‘Agentive, Instrumental, Dative, Factitive, Locative, Objective.

Agentive is typically animate perceived instigator, Instrumental is inanimate force or object causally involved. Dative is animate being affected. Factitive is object resulting from the action or state. Locative is location or spatial orientation. The Oobjective is the semantically most neutral case.

Lesson 15

FORMAL SEMANTICS TODAY

Topic – 74 Diversity within Formal Semantics

Portner (2005) has used 'Possible Worlds' one of the most popular tools for representing diversity within semantics. **Model-Theoretic Semantics Model** is based on 'what reality is like which is useful for semantic purposes' i.e. truth, falsity or inadmissible. Truth-conditions of sentences are defined in terms of a model of reality appropriate to how language works, with it being a further issue how that model relates to reality itself "intended model'' and the "intended interpretation''.

Davidsonian Semanticists argues that we can do semantics without possible worlds. They agree with other formal semanticists that the meaning of a sentence consists in its truth-conditions, but think that possible worlds and the like are not the right way to think about truth –conditions. Rather, they say that it's better to simply and directly express truth-conditions with statements like, snow is white is true if, and only if, snow is white.

Many formal semanticists have used the concept of a "situation'' in their work - the idea that we want to have something less than a complete possible world to base our notion of meaning on. A semanticist talking about situations has in mind a partial reality (or partial model of reality). The role of a sentence is to classify situations according to some more general features of reality. There are constraints which relate situations of one kind to situations of another kind.

Topic – 75 Relationships with other Varieties of Semantics

Formal semantics relates to other varieties such as semiotics, reference, lexicology, etc. Not all semanticists are formal semanticists. There are perspectives on semantics within linguistics which don't accept the formal semantic-commitment to truth-conditional meaning (Portner, 2005). There are some approaches which argue as strongly as they can that the others are wrong, so that whichever theory is actually right (it's formal semantics!) will eventually be proven so. On the other hand, no approach yet invented is right, and so at some points, we should be ready to synthesize apparently incompatible ideas.

There should be more sharing of ideas at the level of individual linguistic topics. Often, advocates of one approach simply ignore the results of research in others, and this leads to the duplication of effort and to avoidable mistakes (Portner, 2005). In contrast, to suggest a case which highlights an area of relative weakness in formal semantics, it is wise for formal semanticists to remain attuned to the mass of work on lexical meaning developed within other perspectives (Portner, 2005).

Topic – 76 Relationship with other Fields

Syntax, Pragmatics, and the Philosophy of language are intellectual areas with which formal semantics makes the closest relation. New ideas in any of these fields can have a direct impact on how semanticists think about language, both in a general way and in studying a particular feature of the language (Portner, 2005). Formal semantics has also connections to the other three areas of intellectual inquiry. i.e logic, computer science, and cognitive science.

The fundamental goal of **logic** is to characterize valid patterns of reasoning, steps of inference which will lead from true premises to true conclusion. As human language is ambiguous and vague,, logicians have developed artificial and 'logical' language. Formal semantics is linked with **computer science** for both intellectual and practical reasons. **Cognitive Science** focuses on the understanding of the human mind. The most important component disciplines of cognitive science are linguistics, psychology, neuroscience, philosophy, and computer science. (Potner, 2005)

Topic – 77 Semantics and Society - I

Leech has given five functions of a language which play a major role in human society. **Informational Function** is linked with the subject matter. **Expressive Function** can be used to express its originator's feelings and attitudes. **Directive Function**; we aim to influence the behavior or attitudes of others, e.g. commands and requests.

Aesthetic Function is for poetic expressions - the use of language for the sake of the linguistic artefact itself, and for no ulterior purpose, e.g. the message is often conceptual as with effective meaning. In aesthetic function, both the poet and the reader bring a heightened sensitivity to bear on the act of communication. **Phatic Function** is a function which keeps communication lines open, and keeps social relationships in good repair, e.g. 'to show that intentions in communication are sincere and friendly, e.g. greetings, farewells, and routine polite questions.

Topic – 78 Semantics and Society - II

According to Leech, the associative meaning of an expression has to do with individual mental understandings of the speaker. Conceptual meanings are based on the idea that the speaker wants to deliver. Two dangers can arise if attitudes and emotions are conveyed by the associative meanings of words (Leech, 1981). One is 'misconception and misunderstanding' because associative meanings tend to vary from person to person. The second danger is that if the affective meaning of the message predominates over the conceptual meaning, the listener or reader will not be able to understand what is being said.

Certain feelings may be difficult to put into words, e.g. 'I love my mother' or 'my mother is my love'. Both give different emotions. Euphemism (Greek: 'well-speaking') is the practice of referring to something offensive or indelicate in terms that make it sound more pleasant or becoming than it really is. **Associative engineering** is also used as a positive term in advertising. When different words are used which have the same conceptual meanings, for example, one might call someone a lady rather than a woman.

Lesson 16

SEMANTICS AND DICTIONARY

Topic – 79 Practical Dictionary

Dictionary may be seen as a reference book which is the inbuilt dictionary that everyone of us carries around as part of his mental equipment as a speaker of a language. **'Semantic Competence'** is how a native speaker knows about lexical items to understand the meaning. Leech (1981) has used different terminologies for dictionaries such as: 'Theoretical dictionaries, 'flesh-and-blood dictionaries or practical dictionaries', such as the Concise Oxford Dictionary, compiled by lexicographers – we all consult regularly.

It has been argued that the lexical definition, as part of the native speaker's linguistic equipment, can be precisely represented only by a special formal language (Leech, 1981). But practical lexicographers cannot use this method of explanation, if they do, they would convey nothing to the average dictionary-users. There is no guarantee that the expression rules of the language furnish paraphrases for every word in the language. In Johnson's own words: Many words cannot be explained by synonyms, because the idea signified by them has not more than one appellation; nor by paraphrase, because simple ideas cannot be explained.

Topic – 80 Theoretical Dictionary

The lexicon will be considered as an unordered list or set of lexical entries. A lexical entry is considered to be a combination of Morphological specification, Syntactic Specification and Semantic Specification (or definition). **'Morphological Specification'** breaks the word down into a structure of morphemes, i.e. stems and affixes. **Syntactic Specification** consists of a set of features which classify it in terms of primary categories e.g. (Noun, Verb, Adjective) and secondary categories (Countable Nouns, Predicative Adjectives). **Semantic Specification** is a representation of its meaning in terms of componential or predicational analysis.

Topic – 81 Lexical Rules (Graded accessibility)

Lexical rules are rules accounting for the 'creative' or 'productive' aspect of the lexicon which allows us to form new words (word formation). Or to derive new meanings from existing words (transfer of meaning). Lexical rules not only explain how new lexical entries come into existence on the basis of old ones e.g., to form a verb 'googling/googled' by a noun 'google. But also explain the interrelationships of derivation that we recognize between lexical entries already established in the language. (Leech, 1981)

Lexical Rules can be divided into three grades: Actual and Potential Acceptability; and those which are totally unacceptable. **Actual acceptability** is a graded concept If, for example, we take the suffix 'less' with a list of English nouns. The principle of **partial productivity** that we have seen to operate in suffixation can be observed equally clearly not only in other types of word-formation, such as prefixation and compounding but in semantic transfer. The **unacceptability** of a lexical entry not allowed for in the lexical rules at all. For example, *sheapable (suffix –able is added should be added to a verb, i.e. adjustable, gradable).

Topic – 82 Types of Lexical Rules

Lexical rules take general form, within the same formula -derivation of one lexical entry from another. Major types: Morphological derivation, conversion, and semantic transfer.

Morphological derivation involves a change in the morphological specification. For example, the addition of an affix to the original morphological specification, which is called the base? Base= Base + Suffix (less). **Conversion** is a change in the syntactic function (and usually the meaning) of an item without a corresponding change in morphological form. For example, 'catch [verb] might have been changed into catch[noun]. Other type **Semantic transfer** often designated metonymy in traditional terminology, for examples, 'Neighborhood objected to his plans' and (Neighborhood=people in the neighborhood).

Topic – 83 Other observations about lexical rules

Leech discussed some other points to explain the meaning generating power of lexical rules such as Diversity, Open-Endedness, Recursiveness, Bi-directionality, and Petrification.

The diversity of lexical rules is such as to allow the possibility of applying a large number of different rules to the same lexical entry (Leech, 1981). **Open-Endedness**; Lexical rules are open ended which allow the language-user freedom to read into a new lexical entry whatever information he finds necessary to the understanding of it. There may be not just a single path of semantic connection to be traced, but a whole range of possibilities. **Recursiveness** is property is the ability of a lexical entry which is the output of one lexical rule to be also the input to another lexical rule. **Bi-directionality** is yet another factor produces new entries and underlines the gap of unused 'capacity' between the theoretically enormous generative powers of lexical rules, and the comparatively limited use that is made of them in practice Leech (1981). Petrification is the process by which an institutionalized lexical meaning diverges from the 'theoretical' meaning specified in a lexical rule.

Lesson 17

INTRODUCTION TO PRAGMATICS

Topic – 84 What Is Pragmatics?

Pragmatics is concerned with "meaning in context (Chapman, 2011). It is the study of meaning as communicated by the speaker and interpreted by the listener. 'It is the study of "invisible" meaning, or how we recognize what is meant even when it isn't actually said or written' (Yule, 2010).

It includes background knowledge context. It is a relationship between the linguistic form and communicative function. Inter and intra-culture pragmatics, people's intended meanings, their assumptions, purposes, goals, and kinds of actions (e.g. requests, complaints etc.) when they speak. Pragmatics is appealing as it's about how people make sense of each other linguistically, and a frustrating area of study as it requires us to make sense of people and what they have in mind.

Topic – 85 Types of Pragmatics

According to Chapman (2005:11), Pragmatics can be divided into two types. First is theoretical pragmatics that concentrates on the analysis of particular aspects of meaning and how these might be explained within more general formal accounts of language use. Second is **social pragmatics** which focuses on various aspects of the relationship between language use and more general social and cultural factors.

Theoretical pragmatics is not centrally concerned with describing and analyzing what people do in specific communicative situations. It is concerned with the question of how meaning can, in general, be communicated between speakers and hearers, given the finite resources of a language and the context. On the other hand, **Social pragmatics** is common with the fields such as conversational analysis and discourse analysis.

Topic – 86 What Does Pragmatics Study?

As semantics covers a range of levels (grammar, syntax, lexicon) – so pragmatics is spread across a number of fields within linguistics and mostly interfaces with semantics and sociolinguistics. In pragmatics, three subgroups can be recognized.

1. **Pragmalinguistics -** deals with the more linguistic end of the pragmatic spectrum. Usage is seen from the viewpoint of structural resources of a language, i.e. concerns aspects of context which are formally encoded in the structure of a language.
2. **Sociopragmatics -** see usage as primarily determined by social factors in communication.
3. **Applied pragmatics -** refers to practical problems of interaction in situations where successful communication is critical, e.g. medical interviews, law courts, interrogations, official counseling etc.

Topic – 87 Pragmatics and Linguistics

Linguistics is the academic subject that is concerned with the analysis, description and explanation of human language while **Pragmatics** is often described as being a branch or field of linguistics that focuses on the interaction between language and context. Strictly speaking, pragmatics is described as outside of mainstream or 'core' linguistics (i.e. phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics) that are concerned with the analysis of language as a formal, isolated and identifiable system in its own right. Pragmatics stands apart because its not, exclusively, a language itself.

Rather, it is the production and interpretation of language in relation to the context of use. Pragmatics can perhaps be seen as an adjunct to linguistic theory. A phrase that becomes associated with the description of pragmatics was the 'wastebasket of linguistics'. To Kasher (1998:104), "Chomskey's own work has largely been restricted to syntax, 'but its conception of objective, scientific methodology transcend syntax and lend themselves to interesting applications', including pragmatics".

Topic – 88 The Emergence of Pragmatics as a Distinct Field

The use of the word **pragmatics** to describe a separate field of study, on a par with syntax and semantics, was established during the 1970s. Around that time, the term was being used in a different way by different philosophers concerned with formal languages. The formal semanticist, Montague, wrote in the late 1960s and Bar-Hillel used this term in the 1950s, 'pragmatics was the study of any language containing indexical terms'.

Similarly, as Levinson observed it, this would make the study of all natural language fall under pragmatics since all natural languages have indexical elements. The modern use of the term **pragmatics** was emerged by the late 1960s in philosophy. According to Gazdar, 'pragmatics had become a legitimate sub-discipline in linguistics by the late 1970s but it wasn't in the early 1970s.' The key factors in the emergence of linguistic pragmatics appear to be the impact of Grice's Logic and Conversation lectures, circulated in mimeograph form from the late 1960s.

Lesson 18

HISTORY OF PRAGMATICS

Topic – 89 Development and Expansion of Pragmatics

Pragmatics is a relatively new branch of linguistics, research on it can be dated back to ancient Greece and Rome where the term ‘pragmaticus’ is found in late Latin and ‘pragmaticos’ in Greek, both meaning of being ‘practical’. Modern use and practice of pragmatics is credited to the American philosophical doctrine of pragmatism. The pragmatic interpretation of semiotics and verbal communication studies in Foundations of the Theory of Signs by Charles Morris (1938), for instance, helped to neatly expound the differences of mainstream enterprises in semiotics and linguistics.

Grice’s (1975) concern of conversational meanings enlightened the modern treatment of meaning by distinguishing two kinds of meaning, natural and non-natural. To him, pragmatics should center on a more practical dimension of meaning (conversational meaning) which was later formulated in several ways (Levinson, 1983; Leech, 1983). Practical concerns also resulted in hallmark discoveries of the Cooperative Principle by Grice (1975) and the Politeness Principle by Leech (1983). The impact of pragmatism has led to cross-linguistic international studies of language use, resulted in Sperber and Wilson's (1986) relevance theory.

Topic – 90 Pragmatics and Ordinary Language

Austin organized a group of philosophers whose work is known as ordinary language philosophy. The prevailing method was ‘linguistic botanizing’; to see the distinctions made by ordinary language on the assumption that the way people speak makes many subtle distinctions, worthy of philosophical investigation. These philosophers were drawn into thinking about questions such as ‘what saying or stating involves’ and ‘what else speakers do with language’.

According to Strawson, Austin’s interest led him to neglect the important point that many speech acts are not in this sense social. A more Gricean view is that what is important for successful communication is the recognition of the intention of the speaker to perform a particular speech act. For example, if a speaker utters an interrogative sentence, did she mean what she said as a genuine request for information, or a rhetorical question, or with some other force?

Topic – 91 The Term ‘Pragmatics’

The post-war Oxford philosophers did not generally use the term ‘pragmatics’ in their work on language use, although it had already been proposed as a label for the study of meaning in use by the American philosopher, Charles Morris. In his Foundations of the Theory of Signs (1938) he distinguished between syntax, the study of the formal relations of signs to each other, semantics, the study of the meaning of signs in terms of the objects that they denote or might denote and pragmatics, ‘the science of the relation of signs to their users’ (p. 29). He expanded on this in his Signs, Language, and Behavior (1946): pragmatics 'deals with the origins, uses, and effects of signs within the total behavior of the interpreters of signs' (p. 219).

The use of the word **pragmatics** to describe a separate field of study, on a par with syntax and semantics, was established during the 1970s. Around this time the term was being used in a different way by philosophers concerned with formal languages. For the formal semanticist Richard Montague, writing in the late 1960s and following the way the linguist and philosopher Yehoshua Bar-Hillel used the term in the 1950s, pragmatics was the study of any language containing indexical terms.

Topic – 92 The Prehistory of Pragmatics

The linguist, Larry Horn has traced some of the central concerns of modern pragmatics back to the work of earlier writers, for example in his book 'A Natural History of Negation' and a more recent article, 'Presupposition and implicature'. According to Horn, the distinction between what is said and what is meant but not said, goes back at least to the fourth century rhetoricians, Servius and Donatus, whose description of understatement is as a figure of speech in which we say less but mean more. Horn has shown that in the nineteenth century, John Stuart Mill and Augustus de Morgan distinguished between the strict logical sense of 'some', which is compatible with 'all', and its use in common conversation, where the use of 'some' often suggests not all, and that their explanations for the difference are thoroughly Gricean as: If I say, 'I saw some of your children', it might be inferred that I did not see them all, not because the words mean it, but because, if I had seen them all, it is most likely that I should have said so: even though this cannot be presumed unless it is presupposed that I must have known whether the children I saw were all or not. (Mill, 1867: 501)

There is also prehistory to the concept of presupposition. Before Strawson, Gottlob Frege thought that use of a singular referring expression presupposed the existence of the individual described, and Horn has shown that nineteenth-century philosopher, Christoph von Sigwart, had a rather modern view of the subject.

Topic – 93 Modern Pragmatics

The current state and recent history of pragmatics are too diverse and complex to describe briefly; A few areas of interest may be picked out. Early in the modern period, disagreement on the principles that govern communication led to fragmentation of the field into Griceans, neo-Griceans and relevance theorists. There are also pragmatic theorists who work primarily on speech acts. From the 1970s, many theorists have been interested in developing formal accounts of phenomena, particularly scalar implicature, presupposition, and conventional implicature. This work is now known as formal pragmatics and has close links to dynamic approaches to semantics such as Discourse Representation Theory.

In cognitively oriented work, including relevance theory, there has been interest in the structure of the mind and in how pragmatic inference is performed. Work in psychology on mind reading (or 'theory of mind'), the ability humans have to infer other's mental states from observation of their actions, has direct relevance to pragmatics. Another very recent development is the new field of experimental pragmatics, coming into being at the intersection of pragmatics, psycholinguistics, the psychology of reasoning and developmental pragmatics, the last of which is itself a relatively new area of work.

Lesson 20

CONTEXT AND PRAGMATICS

Topic – 94 Introduction to Context and Pragmatics

Pragmatics and **Discourse analysis** are approaches to studying language's relation to the contextual background features. They have much in common: they both study, context, text, and function. We analyze the parts of meaning that can be explained by knowledge of the physical and social world, and the socio-psychological factors influencing communication. We also interpret meaning by analyzing the knowledge of the time and place in which the words are uttered or written. (Peccei 1999; Yule 1996). The speaker constructs the linguistic message and intends or implies a meaning, and the hearer interprets the message and infers the meaning (Brown and Yule, 1983; Thomas, 1995).

Pragmatics and discourse analysis concentrates on how stretches of language and text become meaningful and unified for their users (Cook, 1989). The quality of being meaningful and unified is called 'Coherence' in Discourse Analysis while 'Relevance' in pragmatics. **Cohesion** refers how words relate to each other within the text, referring backward or forwards to other words in the text. **Relevance theory** is the study of how the assumption of relevance holds texts together meaningfully. **Function** is the speakers' short-term purposes in speaking, and long-term goals in interacting verbally. In the example of Queen, the purpose was to stop the courtiers trying to make her laugh. Units that cover function are called **'Speech Acts'** which describe what utterances are intended to do, such as promise, apologize and threaten etc.

Topic – 95 Situational Context

The situational context is the immediate physical correspondence, the situation where the interaction is taking place at the moment of speaking e.g. people talking on the phone and making gestures with their hands or face. For example, 'Go right John'. (Indicating to right side). The hearer and speaker do not share the situational context, so the gestures do not add meaning to the words. Consider an example, in ESL classroom, a lecturer creates an imaginary situation i.e. robbery of a bank. The lecturer asks his pupils to write a news story which should contain 'what happened? Where and when did the robbery occur? Who did that? Why and how it was made possible?' and conclusion at the end. Here, the physical situation would be a classroom, presumably the lecturer and the pupils who are involved in the activity. Situational Context also involves 'setting' as we see setting of a talk show, a drama or a movie.

Topic – 96 Background Knowledge Context

Background knowledge context is considered second type of context and refers to 'mutual knowledge' of a group, community or persons, at the time of speaking. It can be further divided into 'Culture Knowledge' and 'Interpersonal Knowledge'. Cultural knowledge is general knowledge that most of the people carry with them in their minds about areas of life, e.g. religion, ethics; good vs bad, manners, etc. For example, I say to my friend 'Let's go to Masjid'. In a Muslim Community, I surely mean 'to go for prayer'. Considering 'discourse community' we can say that 'cultural differences' become communication barriers sometimes. Suppose that, 'Let's go to Mosque' is spoken in a non-

Muslim community, the hearer may ask about the purpose of going to the mosque because he doesn't have particular cultural knowledge about this.

Interpersonal knowledge is knowledge acquired through previous verbal interactions or joint activities and experiences. It includes privileged personal knowledge about the interlocutor. for example, I ask my friend, 'Do you have a watch?' In this example, 'do you have a watch?' can be interpreted as 'what's the time by your watch?'

Topic – 97 Co-textual Context

The context of the text itself is known as co-text. For example, 'She is talking to her boss.' We see, in this example 'her' is pointing back to 'She'. The words used in the conversation give enough knowledge about 'what has been mentioned before? and what is going to be'? The co-text of a word is the set of other words used in the same phrase or sentence. Co-text limits the range of possible interpretations we might have for a word. Consider a complicated example to understand co-textual context. 'She met (her) school teacher.'

We get two situations here: First, 'She' may have been used for a mother who met school teacher of 'her' (her daughter). Secondly, 'She' may have been used for a lady who met her own teacher. 'I met a boy who was very brilliant.' In this example, 'who' is pointing back to 'the boy whom I met'. With the analysis of previous examples, we can say, Co-Textual Context cannot be ignored in pragmatics to interpret the meaning of the text. Co-textual context can be in a sentence or within sentences.

Topic – 98 Exploring Context

Exploration in the text is not possible until we understand each and every factor separately. Here, we will study some of the factors. The text usually contains sociolinguistic aspect of speech acts; and affected by the social differences, i.e. gender, class, religion. For example, a person with limited social exposure can't understand an elite communication about cars-brands, etc. because he has never heard these names in his community.

The exploration of the text focuses on three points: conversation analysis, international sociolinguistics and social context. In conversation analysis, we focus on 'how people speak and interact orally', but not how people write to each other, for example.

For instance, a dialogue between a journalist and a political person can be transcribed on a paper and later analysis would be made possible on the basis of 'interactional sociolinguistics' and 'social context' 'Cooperative Principle', relevance theory and cultural variables are considered very important to explore any kind of script.

Lesson 20

Language in Context: Reference

Topic – 99 Introduction

In pragmatics, an act in which a speaker uses linguistic forms to enable the hearer to identify something is known as a **reference**. Reference is a broader term which covers Exophora, Endophora, Anaphora, Cataphora and Grammatical Cohesion. The speaker uses linguistic forms, known as referring expressions, to enable the hearer to identify the entity being referred to, which is known as the referent. Words themselves do not refer to anything, people refer. For example: 'Mr. Aftershave is late today'.

By means of reference, a speaker indicates which things in the world (including persons) are being talked about. The term 'reference' deals with the relationship which holds between an expression and what that expression stands for on a particular occasion of its utterance. For example, 'My son (person) is in the beech tree' (thing).

Among referring expressions, we can distinguish between **those** that refer to individuals (singular – He, she, it) and **those** that refer to classes of individuals (general expressions – They, those). Other expressions such as Definite (The City) and indefinite (a place, a man); Referential and Attributive Uses; and Collaboration are also important to consider.

Topic – 100 Referring to the context outside: Exophora

Exophora refers to the context which does not exist inside the text. When there is no previous mention of the reference in the preceding text, we call it exophoric reference. Exophora is dependent on the context outside the text, e.g. proper nouns, etc. Consider an example: *Ronaldo is a great player.* 'Ronaldo' is a proper noun and it is being mentioned the first time. While, player is a common noun and does not clarify which sports does Ronaldo play? therefore, situational or interpersonal knowledge can easily help to identify 'Ronaldo' is a footballer. Outside context can be 'Situational context, background knowledge, cultural or interpersonal knowledge. (de Beaugrand and Dressler 1981).

Coherence and Cohesion at text level can help the hearer to interpret the text looking at 'interpersonal, situational, cultural knowledge etc. For example: 'I joined a party. That was great'. This is a good example of intertextuality. If the speaker skips 'I joined a party', the hearer may ask, 'what was great?'

Deixis is referring expression which points to the referent in the context (whether interlocutors can see it or not), it is known as deixis. There are three types of deixis: Person, Place, Time.

Topic – 101 Referring to the Context Inside: Cohesion

The expressions which are used to refer an item within the same text is known as **endophoric reference.** For example, 'I met John, he has just come from England.' In this example, 'He' is referring back to John within the same text. It is also known as 'co-textual context'. There are two types of endophora: Anaphora and Cataphora.

Anaphora: If the expressions i.e. them, this, us link back to something that went before in the preceding text, it is known as anaphoric reference. **Cataphoric** expressions link forward to a referent in the text that follows. This type is opposite to anaphora.

Topic – 102 Grammatical Cohesion

"When a referring expression links with another referring expression within the co-text, we say that it is cohesive with the previous mention of the referent in the text" it is known as grammatical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is what keeps the text together. Example 'I had called the both John and Liza but she remained absent' shows the importance of grammatical cohesion. If the speaker skips pronoun 'she', the hearer would not be able to infer 'who is being talked about? i.e. 'I had called the both but__ was absent' seems ambiguous.

Substitution helps the writer or speaker to hold the text together and avoid repetition. So, also, as well, too, etc. are sometimes used as substitute words. **Ellipsis:** The other form of grammatical cohesion is Ellipsis. It is omitting a word that is not necessary for the text. Just like substitution, ellipsis avoids repetition and depends on the hearer or reader's ability to retrieve the missing words from the surrounding co-text.

Topic – 103 Lexical Cohesion

Lexical devices help to maintain cohesion in the text; i.e. Repetition, Synonyms, Subordinates, and General words. Consider an example, 'I met a person who believes in Allah, Prophets, Holy Books, Angels and the Day of Judgement.' The alternate sentence can be 'I met a Muslim.'

Of all the lexical cohesion devices, the most common form is **repetition**; repeated words or word-phrases, threading through the text. Substitution and Ellipsis avoid repetition; lexical repetition exploits it for stylistic effect. **Synonym** is; instead of repeating the same exact words, a speaker or writer can use another word that means the same or almost the same.

Superordinate is an umbrella term which hides subordinate terms in it. For example, bird is an umbrella term and can be used for 'Sparrow, pigeon, eagle etc. The word flower is superordinate of 'pansies, tulips, roses and so on. The **general word** is a higher level superordinate: it is the umbrella term that can cover almost everything. These can be **general nouns,** i.e. person, place, thing; general verb, i.e. do and happen, etc. For example, 'do it.' may be inferred as 'killing, cooking or purchasing.

Lesson 21

COOPERATIVE PRINCIPLE

Topic – 104 Introduction

The British Philosopher H. Paul Grice (1913–1988 argued for an intention-based theory of meaning, and was the first to illustrate the distinction between what came to be called semantic and pragmatic meaning, that is, between what a speaker's utterance means in the abstract, and what else a speaker can mean by uttering it in a particular context.

Grice (1975) posited a general set of rules, contributors to the ordinary conversation; called Cooperative Principle (CP). He (1989) stated, 'Make your conversational contribution such as, is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged'. Grice never intended his use of the word 'cooperation' to indicate an ideal view of communication.

Rather, he was trying to describe how it happens that – despite the haphazard or even agonistic nature of human communication – most discourse participants are quite capable of making themselves understood.

Topic – 105 Observing the Maxims

Grice identified the Cooperative Principle as a 'super principle' or a 'supreme principle' (1989) that he generalized from four conversational 'maxims'. He identifies these maxims as follow:

Maxim of quantity – says that speaker should be as informative as is required. They should give neither too little information nor too much. **Maxim of Quality** – information provided in conversation to be genuine and justified. **Maxim of relation** – says that speakers are assumed to be saying something that is relevant to what has been said before. **Maxim of manner** – says that we should be brief and orderly, and avoid obscurity and ambiguity.

Grice said that hearers assume that speakers observe the cooperative principle and that it is the knowledge of the maxims that allows hearers to draw inferences about the speakers' intentions and applied meaning.

Topic – 106 Flouting the Maxims

When speakers appear not to follow the maxims but expect hearer to appreciate the meaning implied, we say that they are 'flouting '. For instance, in Britain, its quite common to say, ***'Do you find it's getting a bit chilly in here?***' and mean ***'I want to put the fire on'.*** When flouting a maxim, the speaker assumes that the hearer knows that their words should not be taken at face value and they can infer the implicit meaning (Cutting, 2002).

Flouting quantity – the speaker who flouts this maxim seems to give too little or too much information. **Flouting quality** – speaker may do it in several ways e.g. exaggerating as in hyperbole, using metaphor, irony, and banter. **Flouting relation -** the hearer will be able to imagine what the utterances did not say, and make the connection between their utterances, **Flouting manner** – speaker appears to be obscure, often trying to exclude a third party.

Topic – 107 Violating the Maxims

Violation takes place by speaker intentionally or when thr speaker knows that the hearer will not know the truth and will only understand thr surface meaning. People tend to tell lies for different reasons, e.g. hide the truth, feel jealousy, cheer the hearer, etc.

Maxim violation is unostentatiously, quiet deceiving. **Violating the maxim Quantity** – Husband: ***How much did that new dress cost? Wife: Less than the last one.*** Here, the wife covers up the price of the dress by not saying how much; thus, not giving the required information to the husband and violating maxim of quantity.

Violating the maxim Quality – Considering the same example, the wife when asked 'How much did that new dress cost?' It could have violated the maxim of quality by not being sincere and giving him the wrong information i.e. thirty-five hundred rupees'.

Violating the maxim relation – Similarly, in answer to 'How much did that new dress cost?' the wife tries to distract him and change the topic saying: I know, let's go out tonight. Now, where would you like to go? This shows the violation of the maxim of relation.

Violating the maxim manner – In answer to 'How much did that new dress cost?', if she said that 'a tiny fraction of my salary, though probably a bigger fraction of the salary of the women that sold it to me', Hoping that it could be taken as an answer and the matter could be dropped. It is, thus, like the wife answers the question in a way that could be said to be violating the maxim of manner, in that she says everything except what the husband wants to know.

Topic – 108 Limitations of the Cooperative Principle

Despite the care with which he used the term ''cooperation,'' Grice is regularly accused of promulgating a theory that assumes too friendly a spirit of communicative interaction among people. For example, Tannen (1986) claims that Grice's maxims of cooperative discourse can't apply to ''real conversations''. In conversation, "we wouldn't want to simply blurt out what we mean, because we're judging the needs for involvement and independence" (Tannen, 1986).

He assumes that Grice's maxims are prescriptions that conversations must follow strictly in order to be considered cooperative. Another problem with the cooperative principle is that there is often an overlap between the four maxims. It can be difficult to say which one is operating or there are two or more operating at once. Another major objection to Grice's model is different cultures, counties and communities have their own ways of observing and expressing maxims for particular situations.

For instance, in Britain it is not acceptable to say' "we'll call you in about two weeks" and then not call, as this will be considered a violation of maxim of quality. Whereas, in some countries, this is quite a normal way of flouting the maxim and saying "we are not interested".

Lesson 22

RELEVANCE THEORY

Topic – 109 What is Relevance Theory?

Relevance theory emerged in 1980s in the collaborative work of Wilson and Sperber proposes that conversational implicature is understood by hearers simply by selecting the relevant features of context and recognizing whatever speakers say as relevant to the conversation. This theory is seen as a pragmatic theory because of its focus on the use of language in communication specifically, on the relationship between meaning and context. It is also a cognitive theory, in that it is concerned with the relationship between language and mind.

The core of the theory is the communicative principle of relevance. When hearers and readers make sense of a text, they interpret the connections between utterances as meaningful, making inferences by drawing on their own background knowledge of the world (Cutting, 2010: 41). The purpose of communication is not to 'duplicate thoughts' but to 'enlarge mutual cognitive environments' (Sperber & Wilson, 1995: 193). The degree of relevance is governed by 'contextual effects' and 'processing effort' (Cutting, 2010: 41).

Topic – 110 Principles of Relevance Theory

Wilson and Sperber classified Relevance theory into two main principles: Cognitive Principle and Communicative Principle of Relevance.

Any external stimulus or internal representation which provides an input to cognitive processes may be relevant to an individual at some time. Utterances raise expectations of relevance, not because speakers are expected to obey a cooperative Principle and maxims, but because the search for relevance is a basic feature of human cognition.

Communicative Principle of Relevance is an attempt to work out one of Grice's central claims that an essential feature of most human communication, both verbal and non-verbal, is the expression and recognition of intentions. We keep on producing stimuli which gain other people's attention and thus lay the ground for communication. It is the tendency to maximize relevance that makes it possible to predict and manipulate the mental states of others knowing your tendency to pick out the most relevant inputs.

Topic – 111 Explicatures and Implicatures

According to relevance theorists, the **"explicature,"** or **"explicit content"**, of an utterance of a sentence is a "development" of the sentence's "logical form".

An implicature is something that is built from what the speaker says in uttering the sentence. These conceptions sound similar enough, so how do they differ? Explicatures and implicatures (i.e.

implicit premises and conclusions) are arrived at by a process of mutual parallel adjustment, with hypotheses about both being considered in order of accessibility.

Apparently both explicature and implicature sound similar, but these both are different from each other. Explicature, in simple terms, is directly conveyed content - "orally and graphologically form of an utterance. On the other hand, implicature is something which is implied in an utterance. It could mean that a speaker means one thing and conveys something else in addition. It is a hidden concept.

Topic – 112 Conceptual and Procedural Meaning

The **conceptual–procedural** distinction was introduced into relevance theory by Diane Blakemore (1987) to account for differences between regular 'content' words (such as dog, red, think or know, on the one hand) and discourse connectives (such as but, so, also, and after all, on the other). The vast majority of lexical items have conceptual meaning, including common nouns ('chair', 'water', etc.), verbs ('consider', 'leap', etc.), adjectives (e.g. 'red', 'slow', etc.), adverbs ('sadly', 'quickly', etc.), and prepositions ('behind', 'under', etc.).

Relevance theorists have claimed that words such as 'but', 'however', and inferential 'so' encode procedures. These items indicate something about the context in which they are to be processed. They guide the hearer towards intended contextual effects, and hence reduce the overall effort required to process the discourse. Two ways to distinguish between conceptual and procedural meaning (Wilson and Sperber, 1993: 16): (a) Conceptual meaning is available to consciousness, whereas procedurally encoded information is not. (b) Conceptual meaning is compositional, whereas procedurally encoded information is not.

Topic – 113 Accessibility and Limitations of Relevance Theory

The degree of relevance is related to Contextual effects and processing effort. Contextual effects include such things as adding new information, strengthening or contradicting an existing assumption, or weakening old information. The more contextual effects, the greater the relevance of a fact. A new fact unconnected to anything already known is not worth processing, whereas a new fact taken with something already known is worth processing.

As far as the processing effort is concerned, the theory says that the less effort it takes to recover a fact, the greater the relevance. The speaker assumes which facts are accessible for the hearer and speaks in such a way that the hearer can make the correct inferences without too much effort. The context for the interpretation of an utterance is chosen by the hearer, and the speaker assumes that the facts are relatively accessible for the hearer. The hearer interprets what is said by finding an accessible context that produces 'the maximum amount of new information with the minimum amount of processing effort' (Trask 1999: 58).

Limitations of Relevance Theory are: This theory says nothing about interaction. It does not include cultural or social dimensions, such as age, gender, status, and nationality. An objection that one may have to Sperber and Wilson’s model, as with Grice’s Cooperative Principle model, is that different cultures, countries and communities have their own ways of observing, and expressing maxims.

Lesson 23

IMPLICATURE – I

Topic – 114 What Is Implicature?

The term **"Implicature"** accounts for what a speaker can imply, suggest or mean, as distinct from what the speaker literally says (Grice, 1975). Implicature - "any meaning conveyed indirectly or through hints, and understood implicitly without ever being explicitly stated" (Grundy, 2000). It covers the family of verbs such as 'imply, suggest, mean', which refer to the meaning of an utterance as understood in a given context.

Implicature: a neology by Paul Grice (1913- 1988) - British language philosopher who made remarkable contributions to the field of pragmatics. His most influential work relates to his analysis of speaker meaning and his account of conversational implicature. The fact that "what we literally say and what we clearly mean often differ is intuitively obvious but difficult to describe or explain systematically" was the driving force behind Grice's work. He was interested in developing a systematic explanation of how and why literal and intended meaning differs. Implicatures are context-dependent -

Topic – 115 Conversational Implicature

Conversational Implicature is implied by the speaker in making an utterance; it is part of the content of the utterance; it does not contribute to direct (or explicit) utterance content, and it is not encoded by the linguistic meaning of what has been uttered. For example, Sara: *will you eat some of this chocolate cake?* Amna: *I'm on a diet.* Here, Amna asserts that she is on a diet, and implicates that she will not cake. Conversational Implicature is a subset of the implications of an utterance: namely those that are part of utterance content.

Topic – 116 Generalized Conversational Implicature

In **generalized conversational implicature -** "no special background knowledge of the context of utterance is required in order to make the necessary inferences" (Yule, 1996). It is a conversational implicature that is inferable without reference to a special context (glossary of English terms). One common example in English involves the expressions with the form an X, usually imply that X is not closely related to the speaker or subject, as in the following expression: John walked into a house yesterday and saw a tortoise. This expression implies that the house is not John's house.

Topic – 117 Scalar Implicature

A **scalar implicature** is a quantity implicature based on the use of an informationally weak term in an implicational scale. Scalar implicatures arise in examples e.g. 'Some professors are famous' where the speaker's use of 'some' typically indicates that s/he had reasons not to use a more informative term, e.g. 'all'. Some professors are famous, therefore, gives rise to the implicature that not all professors are famous. Similarly, in the utterance, ‘Some of the boys went to the party’, the word ‘some’ implicates "not all of the boys went to the party."

Classic examples of scales include numerals (< … three, two, one>), modals (<necessarily, possibly>, <must, should, may>), connectives (<and, or>), adverbs (<always, often, sometimes>), degree adjectives (<hot, warm>) and verbs of ranking (<know, believe>, <love, like>) or completion (<start, finish >).

Topic – 118 Particularized Conversational Implicature

Particularized conversational implicatures (PCIs) are the inferences which are worked out while drawing totally on the specific context of the utterance. Most of the time, our conversations take place in a very specific context in which locally recognized inferences are assumed (Yule, 2002).

Consider an example:

A: I’ m going to the prison tomorrow.

B: Will 200 Dollars do?

[context: A is visiting a prison and proposing to B to help in funding the shopping for that prison].

Lesson 24

IMPLICATURE – II

Topic – 119 Properties of Conversational Implicature

Cancellability is one of the properties of conversational implicature. It is also known as defeasibility. Presence of a conversational implicature relies on a number of factors such as the conventional meaning of words used, the linguistic and situational contexts, etc. So if any of them changes, the implicature will also change.

Non-detachability - a conversational implicature is attached to the semantic content of what is said, not to the linguistic form i.e. it is possible to use a synonym and keep the implicature intact. It will not be detached from the utterance as a whole, even though the specific words may be changed.

Reinforceability - Implicatures can be reinforced, e.g. John answered most of the questions. But he wasn't able to answer the last question. (not redundant)

Non-conventionality - implicature is not carried by what is said, but only by the saying of what is said, or by 'putting it that way.'

Calculability – speakers try to convey conversational implicatures and hearers are able to understand them suggests that implicatures are calculable.

Topic – 120 Conventional Implicature

Conventional implicature is not based on the cooperative principle or the maxims. They do not have to occur in a conversation. They do not depend on special contexts for their interpretation. However, they are associated with specific words that result in additional conveyed meanings when used. The English conjunction 'but' is one of these words.

The interpretation of any utterance of the type 'p but q' will be based on the conjunction 'p & q' plus an implicature of 'contrast' between the information in 'p' and the information in 'q'. Other English words such as 'even' and 'yet' also have conventional implicatures.

Topic – 121 Properties of Conventional Implicature

Following are the properties of Conventional Implicature.

Non-truth-conditionality - conventional implicature do not make any contribution to truth conditions e.g. *a) we want peace and they want war. b) we want peace but they want war.* Both 'a' and 'b' shares the same truth conditions**. Conventional implicature** is associated with speaker or utterance rather than a sentence. **Conventional implicatures** are not derived from Grice's Cooperative principle and its component maxims but are attached by convention to a particular lexical item or linguistic construction. They are, therefore, an arbitrary part of the meaning, and must be learned ‘ad hoc’. **Conventional implicatures** are not calculable via any natural procedure but are rather given by convention, thus they must be stipulated. They are not cancelable i.e. they cannot be defeated. They are (arguably) detachable because they are depending on the particular linguistic items used.

Topic – 122 Strong Implicature

Strong implicature is a communicated implication of an utterance which is the main communicative point of the utterance. The idea is that sometimes a speaker intends that her hearer grasp a particular implication without which the utterance would not be relevant. Bill’s utterance has a strong implicature:

Albert: Can you give me a hand with this work?

Bill: I’ve a huge amount of my own work to do, and I promised the boss I’d give it priority.

If Albert does not understand that Bill is implicating that he can’t help him then he has missed the main point of Bill’s utterance. **Strong implicature** is implicature that is related directly by the spoken utterances or is that premises and conclusions which the hearer is strongly encouraged but not actually forced to supply.

Topic – 123 Weak Implicature

Weak Implicature is a communicated implication of an utterance which is not by itself the main communicative point of the utterance. The idea is that for some utterances a hearer can understand what a speaker is trying to communicate even if he fails to get one or more implicatures. Weak implicature is the weaker the encouragement, and the wider the range of possibilities among which the hearer can choose, the weaker the implicatures. For example, *John: What are you planning to do today? Mary: I’m tired.*

There is no single implicature which the hearer must take Mary to be communicating in order to understand her utterance here. Instead, there are several assumptions that he might supply as an implicated premise, each of which would lead to a different implicature e.g. If Mary is tired, she doesn’t want to go out. The weaker the implicature, the less responsibility the speaker takes for their truth, i.e. the more they are the responsibility of the hearer.

Lesson 25

DEIXIS- I

Topic – 124 What Is Deixis?

Any linguistic form that we use to accomplish this task of 'pointing out' is called deixis expressions. When you notice a strange object and ask, 'What is that?', you are using a deictic expression (that) to indicate something in the immediate context. Deixis is also called indexical expressions. The function of indexical expressions is to tell us where to look for a reference. This reference is mostly related to a particular person, place or time.

Deixis is also known as the 'Indexicality of language' as it operates as indexes of specific meaning in a context. These are the common words in our language that can't be interpreted at all if we don't know the context, especially, the physical context e.g. spatial deixis (here, there, this, that), temporal deixis (now, then), person deixis (you, me, she, him), etc.

Some modifiers with deictic reference are used alongside referring expressions such as demonstrative pronouns, as in 'this dog', 'that woman', 'these tables', 'those helicopters', in order to help interlocutors identify the particular referents of referring expression.

Topic – 125 Spatial Deixis

Spatial deixis are used to indicate the relative location of people and things. Also known as 'place deixis'. Some pure place deictic words are: here and there (adverbs); this and that (demonstrative pronouns).

A deictic projection is accomplished via dramatic performance when we use direct speech to represent the person, location and feelings of someone or something else e.g. while visiting a pet store, says, I was looking at this little puppy in a cage with such a sad look on its face. It was like, 'oh, I am so unhappy here, will you set me free?' The 'here' of the cage is not the actual physical location of the person uttering the words, but the location of that person performing in the role of the puppy.

Pragmatic basis of spatial deixis is actually psychological distance. Physically close objects will tend to be treated by the speaker as psychologically close. Sometimes, speaker marks physically distant thing, generally, as psychologically distant e.g. that man over there. However, a speaker may also mark something physically close as psychologically distant e.g. (a perfume being sniffed by the speaker) 'I don't like that'.

Topic – 126 Person Deixis

Person Deixis an expression used to point to a person (me, you, him, them) is an example of person deixis. Person deixis operates on a basic three part division, exemplified by the pronouns for first person ("I , me, mine"), second person (you, your, yours), and third person (he, she, it). A speech event includes at least two persons: First person = speaker and Second person = addressee.

Usually, the third person is not grammatically marked, because the only two persons of importance are the first person and the second person. It is possible to have deictic pronouns for the third person as in:

There is, in English, a **potential ambiguity** in the uses which allows two different interpretations. There is an **exclusive** 'we' (speaker plus other(s), excluding addressee), and, **Inclusive** 'we' (speaker and addressee included). For instance, the **inclusive-exclusive** distinction may also be noted in the difference between saying, 'Let's go' (to some friends), and, 'Let us go' (to someone who has captured the speaker and friends. The action of going is inclusive in the first, but exclusive in the second.

Topic – 127 Social Deixis

Social deixis is concerned with the codification of the social status of the speaker, addressee, or a third person or entity referred to as well as the social relationships holding between them (Levinson 1983; Fillmore 1997; Manning 2001). It may include social class, kin relationship, age, sex, profession, and ethnic group.

"The pronoun systems of some languages also grammaticalize the information about the social identities or relationships of the participants in the conversation" , Levinson (1983) call this phenomenon a social deixis. Social deixis refers to expressions which clearly encode social meaning. "Address terms" i.e. social status is indexicalized through the linguistic terms, for example, 'Madam', 'Sir', 'Professor', 'Doctor'.

Social relations concern the relation between the speaker and the addressee. Social deixis can be accomplished by a wide range of linguistic devices including personal pronouns (marking of respect and marking of kinship relations), forms of address (Ali, Sir, Madam etc.), affixes, clitics and particles (verb forms attached to intimacy, formality etc.) and the choice of vocabulary.

Topic – 128 Temporal Deixis

Temporal deixis is also known as 'time deixis'. It is concerned with the encoding of the temporal points and spans relative to the time at which an utterance is produced in a speech act (Huang, 2014). It includes time adverbs e.g. now, then, soon, last week, today, tonight, yesterday, tomorrow, etc. 'Now' indicates both the time coinciding with speaker's utterance and the time of the speaker's voice being heard.

However, 'then' applies to both past as in (a) and future in (b) time relative to the speaker's present time, e.g. (a) November 22nd, 1963? I was in Scotland then. (b) Dinner at 8:30 on Saturday? Ok, I'll see you then. Temporal deictic expressions e.g. yesterday, next week, last week etc. depend for the interpretation on knowing the relevant utterance time.

Lesson 26

DEIXIS- II

Topic – 129 Discourse Deixis

Discourse deixis is also called text deixis. In **discourse deixis**, there are words that make reference to some statement or utterance to point to the current, preceding or following utterances in the same spoken or written discourse, e.g. 'the next chapter', 'in the last paragraph', etc. (Haung, 2014). There are many words and phrases, in English, that indicate the relationship between utterance and the prior discourse such as but, therefore, in conclusion, to the contrary, still, however, anyway, well, besides, actually, all in all, so, after all, etc.

Some languages have morphemes that mark such discourse notions. According to Levinson (1983), a major function of the utterances-initial usage of these words is to indicate that there is a relation between the utterance that contains them and some portion of the prior discourse. According to Lyons (1977); Fillmore (1997); Diessel (1999), discourse deixis can be said to refer to propositions. The use of discourse deictics can be found in most, if not all, languages in the world.

Topic – 130 Deictic Reference

Deictic Reference is the use of gestures or other means of pointing to specify an ambiguous utterance, for instance, pointing at a place in a map and saying "here." This property of language is called 'indexicality', and the lexical items that encode context in the way are called 'deictics'. Indexical: the role of context in helping to determine reference

For instance, if in a lecture, I were to deliver (2), the three stressed 'yous' in the second part of the utterance would be accompanied by gestures and/or eye contact of some kind. Each would pick out a different referent whose identity would be known only by those present at the time of my utterance. But in (3) 'you' has a much more general the reference.

In fact, being present when the sentence was uttered would not help you to identify a referent. Thus, this generalized use of 'you' is sometimes said to be non-deictic.

Topic – 131 Deictic Center

Deictic Center is when we hear a deictic, we typically make a number of assumptions about the context. For instance, when we hear an utterance like 'The postbox is on the left' we have to decide whether the postbox is on the left in relation to the speaker or the hearer. The default deictic center is the speaker's location at the time of utterance.

Sometimes, the context itself is sufficient to prompt the addressee to draw the inference that 'their location' rather than 'the speaker's location' in the deictic center. For instance, if Ali is the hider in a game of hide-and-seek, and gives a clue to seeker by calling out 'behind the tree' it is to be hoped that an inference will be made here. It is very common for the speaker to update the deictic center in more extended discourse.

Topic – 132 The Limits of Indexicality

Fixedness of deictic center poses a particular problem when we want to quote what others have said to us. Imagine my son says to my daughter: (1) *Why don't you want to come to the park with me?*

When she reports his utterance to me, she has a choice of several ways to represent this deictic property as: (2) Eddie said, why don't you want to come to the park with me? (3) Eddie asked why I didn't want to come to the park with him. (4) Eddie complained that I didn't want to go to the park with him.

In (3) the deictic center is partly projected from Eddie's original perspective – she encodes this projection in her use of 'I' and 'him' and 'didn't' while her retention to 'come' is still faithful to the deictic center of Eddie's utterance. Reported speech, like in (4), is important evidence of the existence of an unmarked deictic center, which as (1) and (4) show, is that of speaker's perspective even when the speaker is representing the speech of another person.

The identification of this fixed center reveals an important pragmatic principle i.e. we are able to assume shared knowledge and to foreground what is new in each particular utteranceso that what is new appears as a kind of figure in relation to the ground. Because of the role of assumed knowledge in determining reference, deictic referents are typically denotations with limited descriptive power.

Thus the pronouns 'you' and 'me' and 'us' are semantically empty tokens in the sense that they lack descriptive power that the names of the people they refer to have.

Topic – 133 Raising Pragmatic Awareness

In order to understand the relation of language to its point of origin, let's practice this activity. 1) Form a small group which includes at least one person with a good knowledge of a language other than English. Ask this person to translate utterances containing a range of deictic phenomena into their other language and explain any problems or differences to you. 2)This exercise will work well in tutorial groups.

Ask each member of the group to come with two consecutive sentences. These sentences can be chosen from any book whose 'indexical properties' may be discussed. 3) this makes a good vacation task.

If you get the opportunity to travel, watch out for uses of deictics that surprise you. If you aren't able to travel, try to mix with unfamiliar groups and see how they use 'we' to show membership, or listen out for uses of 'this' and 'that' to encode psychological distance.

Try to note down exactly what you heard or read and then report it to your tutorial group at the first meeting of new term. 4) Identify an occasion when you might expect to hear a variety of deictic ways of communicating what appears to be the same message – in Britain, the announcements on trains are interesting as each company, even individual announcers, tries to encode their own notion of the common ground you and they share. Note down what you hear and present an analysis to your tutorial group.

Lesson 27

PRESUPPOSITION AND ENTAILMENT IN PRAGMATICS

Topic – 134 Introduction

A presupposition is something the speaker assumes to be the case prior to making an utterance. Speakers, not sentences, have a presupposition. **An entailment** is something that logically follows from what is asserted in the utterance. Sentences, not speakers, have entailments. We can identify some of the potentially assumed information associated with the utterance as in *1) Mary's brother bought three horses.*

Here, the speaker will normally be expected to have the presupposition that a person called Mary exists and that she has a brother. A more specific presupposition is that Mary has only one brother and he has a lot of money. All of these presuppositions are the speaker's and all of them can be wrong, in fact.

Whereas, the sentence in (1) will be treated as having the **entailments** that: Mary's brother bought something, bought three animals, bought three horses, and many other similar logical consequences. These entailments follow from the sentence, regardless of whether the speaker's beliefs are right or wrong, in fact.

Topic – 135 Types of Presupposition

1) Existential Presupposition is the assumption of the existence of the entities named by the speaker. They can be found in (i) Noun phrase, and (ii) Possessive constructions. For example, i) **Noun phrase -** "The car was broken" (Presupposes that the existence of the entity it refers to, in this case, is the "Car "). (ii) **Possessive construction** – e.g. "Tom's car is new" (we can presuppose that 'Tom' exists and that he has a car).

2) Factive Presupposition is the assumption that something is true due to the presence of some verbs such as "know", "realize" and "glad", etc. **(3) Non Factive Presupposition** refers to something that is not true. **(4) Lexical Presupposition** is an assumption that, in using one word, the speaker can act as another meaning (word). Structural Presupposition - associated with the use of certain structures, e.g. Wh-question constructions. The listener perceives that the information presented is necessarily true, or intended to be true by the speaker. **Counterfactual Presupposition** is an assumption that what is presupposed is not only untrue but is the opposite of what is true, or contrary to facts.

Topic – 136 The Projection Problem

There is a basic expectation that the presupposition of a simple sentence will continue to be true when that simple sentence becomes part of a more complex sentence. This is one version of the general idea that meaning of the whole sentence is a combination of the meaning of its parts.

However, the meaning of some presuppositions (as parts) doesn't survive to become the meaning of some complex sentences (as wholes), this is known as projection problem. look at this sentence: I imagined that Kelly was ill and nobody realized that she was ill.

r & p >> Not q

At this point, after combining r & p, the presupposition q can no longer be assumed to be true. This is an example of projection problem in presupposition.

Topic – 137 Ordered Entailments

Crystal (1998: 136) defines entailment as "a term refers to a relation between a pair of sentences such that the truth of the second sentence necessarily follows from the truth of the first. For instance: I can see a **dog**. I can see an **animal.** Generally speaking, entailment is not a pragmatic concept, because it has nothing to do with the speaker's intended meaning.

It is considered a purely logical concept, symbolized by II- Examples of entailment for the [1] are presented below in [2]:

[1] Rover chased three squirrels. (=p)

[2] a. Something chased three squirrels. (= q)

b. Rover did something to three squirrels. (= r)

c. Rover chased three of something. (= s)

d. Something happened. (= t)

In representing the relationship of entailment between [1] and [2a] as p II- q, we have simply symbolized a logical sequence. Let us say that in uttering the sentence [1], the speaker is necessarily committed to the truth of a very large number of background entailments (some are presented in [2a-d]. On any occasion of utterance [1], however, the speaker will indicate how these entailments are to be ordered. That is, the speaker will communicate, typically by stress, which entailment is assumed to be in the foreground, or more important for interpreting intended meaning, than any others.

Topic – 138 Presupposition in the Real World

You may have noticed that small children acquiring English as a first language and some second language learners frequently produce utterances like, 1. 'I have locked the door so someone does not get in' rather than 'I have locked the door so no one gets in'. Similarly, see the use of 'some' and 'any' below:

Example 2:

Waiter: Would you like something to drink?

Lady: <reading>

Waiter: Madam would you like something to drink

Lady: Sorry

Waiter: Something to drink

Lady: Yes, please I'd like coffee.

The use of 'someone' in example 1, and the use of 'something to drink' in example 2, triggers an existential presupposition in a way that 'anything to drink' doesn't. It is, therefore, more inviting. For this reason, the hospitable host asks whether guests would like 'some more x' rather than 'any more x'.

'Anything' is also less inviting for another reason that it is a negative polarity item which can only occur in negative or hypothetical constructions (conditionals, interrogatives, etc.). Because of the hypothetical context required by negative polarity 'any', during the road construction, we expect the road-sign as: 'Sorry for any delay' rather than the anomalous 'sorry for some delay'.

Lesson 28

SPEECH ACTS THEORY

Topic – 139 Introduction to Speech Acts

Speech act theory is similar to physical acts. People also perform acts by using language – e.g. to give orders, to make requests, to give warnings or to give advice, etc. It aims to answer this question: “What do we do when using language?”

Speech acts are acts of communication (such as an apology, complaint, compliment etc.) E.g. ‘It’s hot here’ may be a ‘request’ instead of mere information about weather. Every time a speaker utters a sentence, he attempts to accomplish something with the words. Specifically, he intends to have some effect on the listener and he wants the listener to recognize this intention. Speaker and hearer are usually helped in this process by the context called speech events; determine the interpretation of an utterance as performing a particular speech act.

Explicit performatives are performative utterances that contain a performative verb that makes explicit what kind of act is being performed and tend to begin with a first person singular ‘I’ **Implicit performatives** are performative utterances in which there is no such verb. Constatives – are the statements that attempt to describe reality and can be judged true or false.

Topic – 140 Austin’s Speech Act Theory

The work of J. L. Austin-How to Do Things with Words - led philosophers to pay more attention to the non-declarative uses of language. The terminology he introduced, especially the notions "locutionary act", "illocutionary act", and "perlocutionary act", occupied an important role in what was then to become the "study of speech acts". For instance, (1) I bet you six pence it will rain tomorrow. (2) I apologize. (3) I sentence you to ten years of hard labor. (4) I give my word.

These sentences are not used to describe some states of affairs, but to do certain things: to bet, to apologize, to pass sentence, and to promise, respectively. Facets of a speech act are Locutionary Act and Perlocutionary Act.

Topic – 141 Searle’s Speech Act Theory

Searle (1976), proposed that all acts fall into following five main types: **Representatives** commit the speakers to the truth of the expressed proposition – state what the speaker believes to be the case or not (e.g. asserting, concluding, statements of fact) ‘The earth is flat’. (statement of fact). **Directives** are attempts by the speaker to get the addressee to do something – what the speaker wants (requesting, questioning). **Commissives** commit the speaker to some future course of action – what s/he intends (promising, threatening, offering, refusing). **Expressives** express a psychological state or what a speaker feels (thanking, apologizing, welcoming, congratulating). **Declarations** effect immediate changes in the institutional state of affairs and which tend to rely on elaborate extra-linguistic institutions (marrying, declaring war, firing from employment). These speech acts change the world via their utterance.

Topic – 142 Felicity Conditions

In everyday contexts, there are general conditions on the participants, for example, that they can understand the language being used and they are not being nonsensical. Then there are content conditions, for example, for both a promise and a warning, the content of the utterance must be about a future event. For a promise, the preparatory conditions are significantly different from those of for a warning.

When the speaker promises to do something, there are two preparatory conditions: First, the event will not happen by itself. Second, the event will have a beneficial effect. When the speaker utters a warning, there are the following preparatory conditions: It is not clear that the hearer knows the event will occur. The speaker does think the event will occur. The event will not have a beneficial effect.

Topic – 143 Direct and Indirect Speech Acts

In everyday situations, we often do not directly express what we intend, but instead, formulate our utterances in ways which appear more polite to hearers. That utterance can be direct speech acts or indirect speech acts. For example: Pass me the salt! Can you pass me the salt?

Distinction between these speech acts is based on their structure. Whenever there is a direct relationship between a structure and a function, we have a direct speech act. Whenever there is an indirect relationship between a structure and a function, we have an indirect speech act. A declarative used to make a statement is a direct speech act, but used to make a request is an indirect speech act.

One of the most common types of indirect speech acts in English has the form of an interrogative. Examples of Direct Speech Act - when a specific sentence structure performs its direct function. ‘Did you eat the pizza?’ **Interrogative – Question,** ‘Eat the pizza’ (please)! **Imperative – Command (Request).** ‘You ate the pizza’ is **Declarative – Statement**

Lesson 29

SPEECH ACTS AND SOCIETY

Topic – 144 Social Dimensions

Indirect speech acts constitute one of many forms of politeness. Indirectness is so much associated with a politeness that directives are more often expressed as interrogatives than imperatives. This is especially the case with people with whom one is not familiar. In many British restaurants, book shops and petrol stations, a general sign says "thank you for not smoking". The expressive thanking speech act is presumably used because it sounds more polite and friendly to all the strangers reading the sign than the impersonal directive prohibiting "No smoking".

The other factors that can make speaker use indirect directives, in addition to lack of familiarity, are the reasonableness of the task, the formality of the context and social distance (difference of status, roles, age, gender, education, class, occupation, and ethnicity). Social distances can give speakers power and authority and it is generally those of the less dominant role and so on who tend to use indirectness.

Topic – 145 Cultural Dimensions

Speech acts and their linguistic realizations are culturally bound. The ways of expressing speech acts vary from country to country and from culture to culture. In India, for example, the expressive speech act of praising and congratulating a person on their appearance can be realized by the words such as: "How fat you are!" because the weight is an indicator of personality and health in a country where there is malnutrition.

In Britain, these words express 'deploring' or 'criticizing', since the fashion and diet foods industries, and possibly health education have conditioned many into thinking that "slim is beautiful". Differences in speech acts can cause difficulties cross-culturally.

Topic – 146 Limitations of Speech Act Theory

When we try to categorize utterances in terms of speech acts, we often find that there is 'overlap'. That one utterance can fall into more than one macro- class.

Utterances such as 'so there you go' and 'you know' amount to filters that say very little; this lack of semantic contents makes it difficult to put in any of the classifications, as neither expressive nor representatives speech acts. Another similar example could be related to "Backchannel" and "feedback", the responses that show that the hearer is listening and encouraging a speaker to continue talking, such as 'was it?' and 'oh really' do not fit neatly into the speech act model either.

Similarly, see incomplete sentences as: 'But she didn't do the – er – no' does not fit neatly into any category. A lot of what we say in everyday speech is left unfinished either because we have no need to complete the sentence or because we are interrupted.

Topic – 147 Macro-Functions

Brown and Yule (1983) describe the ‘transactional’ functions and the ‘interactional’ function of language.

The **‘transactional’** is the function which language serves in the expression of content and the transmission of factual information. The **‘interactional’** is the function involved in expressing social relations and personal attitudes, showing solidarity and maintaining social cohesion.

At the extreme end of the interactional is **‘phatic communion’ -** language with no information content used purely to keep channels of communication open. Brown and Yule pointed out that much of the everyday human interaction is characterized by the primary interpersonal rather than the primarily transactional use of language.

Topic – 148 Exploring Speech Acts

Here are some activities. Analyzing text using concepts: 1) Direct and indirect speech acts 2) Facets/ types of speech acts (Austin and Searle). Text – Fox Hunting Under Cover (excerpt taken from a BBC thriller series):

Boss: Under cover? This isn’t your private army. Is she OK?

Dalziel: She is good (0.5) in fact she spent half her childhood on a horse.

Boss: How do you’re lying to me, Andy?

Dalziel: Look, we’ve even given her a full story; set up a liaison point. Visitors often go on a ride with another hunt. They come for a few days, stay a local club, borrow a horse. And since hunting is about drinking as it is riding, it shouldn’t be long before someone becomes indiscreet. (0.5)

Boss: All right. But don’t upset the locals.

Picking out the examples of Illocutionary and per-locutionary speech acts, Direct and indirect speech acts, Declaratives, representatives etc. and inexplicit or vague language used by the author can also help the students in the exploration of the text.

Lesson 30

POLITENESS THEORY

Topic – 149 What is Politeness Theory?

Politeness generally refers to the ideas like being tactful, modest and nice to other people. In pragmatics, politeness can be defined as 'showing awareness and consideration of another person's face' (Yule, 2010). "Politeness means having or showing good manners and respect for the feelings of others" (Wehmeier 2000, p. 976).

According to Yule (2010), politeness can be treated as a fixed concept, as in the idea of 'polite social behavior', or etiquette, within a culture. Within interaction, a specified type of politeness is at work, for which we need the concept of 'Face' – public self-image of a person – emotional and social sense of self that one expects everyone else to recognize. For example, 'Don't impose' – 'I'm sorry to bother you but…. is a polite way. Politeness may not always be a matter of words but how you say them.

Topic – 150 Face Wants

Within everyday social interactions, people generally behave as if their expectations concerning their public self-image, or their face wants, will be respected. **Face-threatening Act** is if you say something that represents a threat to another person's self-image, that is called a face-threatening act, e.g. 'Give me that paper'.

Face-saving Act gives the possibility that some action might be interpreted as a threat to another's face, the speaker can say something to lessen the possible threat, e.g. 'Could you pass me that paper' or 'I'm dying for a drink. Yes, it's really hot. Isn't it?' In situations where a face-threatening act (FTA) could arise, the politeness strategy used will depend largely on the relationship between the speaker and the listener.

FTAs are sometimes unavoidable in conversation; they can damage the face of the person spoken to because it opposes her wants or needs. An FTA can be either a positive or negative one and can damage the speaker or the hearer.

Positive face-threatening acts are a direct challenge to the face of the listener. They contain an indifference to the listener's self-image and include things such as threats, insults, and belittling the listener. **Negative face-threatening acts** occur when the speaker impinges on the listener's negative face. The speaker requires a verbal response or an action from the person s/he is addressing.

Topic – 151 Negative and Positive Face

Under politeness theory, there is a positive and a negative face. **Positive face** reflects the desire to have one's self-image approved of by others. It is the need to be connected, to belong, to be a member of the group whereas, here, negative doesn't mean 'bad'. Negative is simply the opposite of 'positive'. **Negative face** is the need to be independent and free from imposition.

Independence refers to a person's right not to be dominated by others – to act with some sense of individuality or autonomy (e.g. by giving people options, by apologizing for interruptions, etc.). Involvement refers to the need people have to be involved with others and to show this involvement – a person's right to be considered a normal, contributing, and supporting member of a society/group. (e.g. by agreeing with them, showing our interest in someone, etc.) Politeness strategies will differ depending on whether a person is dealing with another's positive or negative face.

Face and politeness vary from society to society and culture to culture (e.g. the idea of personal space and independence; parents' interference in the domestic affairs of adult children; the sanctity of places).

Topic – 152 Say Something: Off and On Record

Off record is when you decide to say something, you simply produce statement such as: [a] Uh, I forgot my pen. [b] Hmm, I wonder where I put my pen. These type of statements are not directly addressed to the other and the other can act as if the statements have not even been heard by them. Such indirect statements are technically described as being off-record. They might be referred to as 'hints'. Indirect statement involves the speaker requesting something without directly asking the listener to do it. The approach is more deferential and places the burden on the speaker. For example, a speaker might comment on something that needs to be done rather than asking the listener to do it directly.

Bald **on-record** – where you can directly address the other as a means of expressing your needs. The most direct approach, using imperative forms is known as bald on record. For instance, a person is directly asked: [a] Give me a pen. [b] Lend me your pen. Bald on record forms may be followed by expressions like 'please' and 'would you?' which serve to soften the demand and called mitigating devices.

Generally speaking, bald on record expressions are associated with speech events where the speaker assumes that he or she has power over the other (e.g. in military contexts) and can control the other's behavior with words.

Topic – 153 Positive and Negative Politeness

A **positive politeness** strategy leads the requester to appeal to a common goal, even friendship, via expressions such as: [a] How about letting me use your pen? [b] Hey, buddy, I'd appreciate it if you'd let me use your pen. These expressions do represent a greater risk for the refusal. It may be proceeded by some 'getting to know you' talk, designed to establish the necessary common ground for this strategy.

For instance, 'Hi. How's it going? Okay if I sit here? We must be interested in the same crazy stuff. You take a lot of notes too, huh? Say, do me a big favor and let me use one of your pens'.

Moreover, positive politeness is a strategy used when the speaker is at least familiar with the listener. It recognizes the person's status while also acknowledging the familiarity.

Negative politeness is also used when speakers know they are impinging on a person's time and want to show respect. For example, stopping a person on the street for instance, to ask for directions requires negative politeness.

Topic – 154 Politeness Strategies

Solidarity strategy is the tendency to use positive politeness, emphasizing closeness between the speaker and the hearer. It will include personal information, use of nicknames, sometimes even abusive terms (particularly among males), and shared dialect or slang expressions. A solidarity strategy will be marked via inclusive terms such as 'we' and 'let's', for example in the party invitation as in: 'Come on, let's go to the party. Everyone will be there. We'll have fun'.

Deference strategy is the tendency to use negative politeness forms, emphasizing the hearer's right to freedom. A deference strategy is involved in what is called 'formal politeness'. It is impersonal, as if nothing is shared, and can include expressions that refer to neither the speaker nor the hearer e.g. 'Customers may not smoke here, sir'.

The language associated with this strategy emphasizes the speaker's and hearer's independence. This independence is marked via an absence of personal claims, as in an alternative version of the party invitation: There's going to be a party if you can make it. It will be fun. These general types of strategies are illustrated here via utterances which are actually central to the speech event (e.g. invitation).

Pre-sequences is an assumption says that face is typically at risk when the other is involved with it. **Pre-request** is a way to avoid this risk. It can help to know the answer either with 'go-ahead' or a 'stop' response in these sentences (a) Him: Are you busy? (=pre-request), (b) Her: Oh, sorry. (=stop). Moreover, children often use **pre-announcements** to check if their parents are willing to pay attention.

Lesson 31

POLITENESS AND CONTEXT

Topic – 155 Form and Function

Politeness is a pragmatic phenomenon; it lies not in the form and the words themselves, but in their function and the intended social meaning. Let's consider following examples, where the form is polite but the intention is not. So, if, you'd be as kind as to shut up, I'd appreciate it' (Elmore: Hombre, 1989). If the speaker uses more polite forms than the context requires, hearer might suspect that there is an intention other than that of redressing a face-threatening act (FTA).

Another example of an inappropriate use of polite forms is the man's request to his pet, 'Cat, I wonder if you could possibly let me have my seat back?', meant to entertain whosever listens it. Politeness is not the same as deference, which is a polite form expressing distance from and respect for people of a higher status. It is rare to find it grammatically signaled in English, although it is present in honorifics such as 'Sir' and 'Madam'.

Topic – 156 Situational Context

Politeness is influenced by the elements of the context. There are two situational context factors that influence the way that we make a request. One is the size of imposition, the routines and the reasonableness of the task, and the rule seems to be 'the greater the imposition, the more indirect the language is'. For example, to borrow a large amount of money, one might employ a series of hedges and other negative politeness phenomena, as in: 'I couldn't borrow Rs.50,000/-, could I, if you don't need it right now?' On the other hand, to borrow a small sum, one's request could be bald on record, as in: 'Give me 10 rupees.'

The second factor is the formality of the context, and here the tendency is 'the greater the formality, the more indirect language is' whereas, a student sitting informally in the common room over a coffee might stop a colleague from interrupting her with a direct directive bald on record. She might say, 'Hang on – I haven't finished!'.

To Heritage (1984), a speaker's action is context-shaped in that its contribution to an ongoing sequence of actions cannot be understood except by reference to the context. This contextualization of utterances is a major and unavoidable procedure which hearers use to rely on to interpret conversational contributions.

Topic – 157 Social Context

The choice of the politeness formulation depends on the social distance and the power relation between speakers. When there is social distance, politeness in encoded and there is more indirectness. When there is less social distance, there is less negative politeness and indirectness. Variables that determine social distance are: *degree of familiarity and differences of status, roles, age, gender, education, class, occupation and, ethnicity.*

The degree of familiarity is that speakers know each other, do not need to use politeness strategies; if they use them, it can imply quite opposite of politeness. It is those of the lower status, the less dominant role and so on who use more indirectness and more negative politeness features, such as hedges and mitigation, than those with higher status and so on do. Expressions with bald on record are used by people who assume that they have got power.

Topic – 158 Cultural Context

According to Tannen (1994), the use of indirectness can hardly be understood without the cross-cultural perspective'. For example, in Cuba, friends should not show any distance at all, and to say 'thank you' for a cup of coffee, 'maximizing praise of other', can cause offense as it appears to put up barriers.

Thomas (1995) mentions that Chinese hosts will choose a guest's menu for them and put the 'choicest pieces' on their plate, to show positive politeness. Similarly, in some Western cultures, refusal demands a specific excuse, if speakers are to avoid threatening positive face and 'minimize dispraise of other', whereas, in other cultures, this is not necessary.

Topic – 159 Applying Politeness

Here is an activity for the students. You are supposed to find **requesting strategies** ranging from the more direct to the more indirect ones: [Can you……..?], [Do you think you could…..?], [I wonder if you could……..?], [Could you………?], [I wonder if you could……..?], [Would you…………?], [Would it be possible for you to……?]

If the strategies presented do not appear appropriately contextualized it may be difficult to know how to use them. If a context is provided the learner has a better idea of how and when to use them, for example: To find out different pragmatic parameters involved behind all these pragmatic choices; write, the answers to these questions: [1) Where are the people?], [2) What is the relationship between them?]

Moreover, meanings emerge from the discoursal context where politeness strategies are used. For example, take the following dialogue:

[FATHER: What sort of time do you call this?], [Boy: I´m sorry.], [FATHER: So you should be! It's 2 a.m.!], [Buy: Oh Dad, do stop nagging. I'm over seventeen. It's up to me what time I come in.], [FATHER: Not while you are living here, it isn't. Anyway, what on earth were you doing until 2 in the morning?], [Boy: We weren't doing anything. We were just talking.], [FATHER: I was worried about you.], [Boy: Honestly, Dad, I really am sorry, but you don't have to wait up for me, you know………]

Find out that what type of politeness strategies are used in this dialogue? Also highlight the bald on-record, off record, positive politeness/negative politeness techniques.

Lesson 32

CONVERSATIONAL ANALYSIS

Topic – 160 What Is Conversational Analysis?

Conversational analysis looks at ordinary everyday spoken discourse and aims to understand how people manage their interactions. It is the study of social interaction embracing both verbal and non-verbal conduct in everyday life. It is a rigorous investigation of features of a conversation, how it is generated and constructed, how it operates, what its distinguishing features are, and how participants construct their own meanings in the conversational situation. Conversations are multi-layered/multi-leveled. It examines different levels of meaning within a text. It also looks at the contents, sequence, evolution and, forms of the conversation.

In this analysis, we study how speakers decide when to speak during a conversation, how the utterances of two are related, and different functions that conversation is used for. Features of conversational analysis include, turn-taking, pauses, overlaps and backchannels, adjacency pairs, preference structures, and sequences expansion.

Topic – 161 Turn-Taking

Turn-taking operates in accordance with a local management system that is conventionally known by the members of a social group. This system is essentially a set of conventions for getting turns, keeping them, or giving them away; it is needed most at those points where there is a possible change in who has the turn. Turn-taking can be applied to conversations where speakers cooperate and share the floor equally. Also be applied to conversations where there is competition, fighting to keep the floor and preventing others from getting it.

Moreover, different cultures have their own preferences as to how long a speaker should hold the floor, how they indicate that they have finished and another speaker can take the floor. For example, Latin Americans have pauses of a fraction of a second and it is socially acceptable to overlap and interrupt, whereas North American Indians expect a two-second pause between turns, and for the Japanese, it is unacceptable to interrupt.

Topic – 162 Pauses, Overlaps and Backchannels

When two people attempt to have a conversation and discover that there is no ‘flow’, or smooth rhythm to their transition, much more is being communicated than is said; there is a sense of distance, an absence of familiarity or ease.

Here, very short pauses (marked with a dash) are simply hesitations, but longer pauses become silence; the silences are not attributable to either speaker because each has completed a turn. The final two lines in this example illustrated overlaps, conventionally marked by a double slash (//) at the beginning of the overlapping talk. Typically, the first overlap occurs as both speakers attempt to initiate the talk.

In accordance with the local management system, one speaker will stop to allow the other to have the floor. **Backchannels** are head nods, smiles and other facial expressions and gestures that indicate that hearer is listening. These types of signals (uh – uh, yeah, mmm) provide feedback to the current speaker that the message is being received; known as backchannel signals or simply backchannels.

Topic – 163 Adjacency Pairs

‘A sequence of two related utterances by two different speakers’ is known as adjacency pairs. The second utterance is always a response to the first. For instance: [A: You left the light on.], [B: It wasn’t me!], [the sequence of complaint-denial = is an adjacency pair].

Types of Adjacency pairs are question-answer, greeting-greeting, Invitation or offer-acceptance/non-acceptance, complaint-apology/denial, summons-response, request-acceptance, promise or thanks-acknowledgement, and goodbye-goodbye.

An insertion sequence is one adjacency pair within another; a number of insertion sequences can be infinite, but the limit of human memory does not allow that. Delay in response marks potential unavailability of the immediate expected answer; it represents the distance between what is expected and what is provided.

Topic – 164 Preference Structure

Adjacency pairs represent social actions, and not all social actions are equal when they occur as second parts of some pairs, for example, [a question], [a partial answer], [a statement of ignorance], [a denial of the relevance of the question.], [a denial of its presupposition.]. For instance: [What does Joe do for a living?], [Do you need to know?], [Oh, this and that.], [I’ve no idea.], [What’s that got to do with it?], [He does not do anything.]

A first part that contains a request or an offer has an expectation that the second part will be an acceptance; structurally more likely than refusal. This structural likelihood is called **preference**. Technically, preference is an observed pattern in talk and not a personal wish. Preference structure divides second parts into preferred (structurally expected next act) and dis-preferred (structurally unexpected next act) social acts.

Topic – 165 Sequences

Conversation analysts claim that as speakers are mutually constructing and negotiating their conversation in time, certain sequences, which are stretches of utterances or turns, emerge. These can be pre-sequences, insertion sequences, and opening and closing sequences.

Pre-sequences are the opening sequences that are used to set up some specific potential actions. Conversations are opened in socially recognized ways. In the beginning of the conversation speakers normally greet each other, e.g. when two office workers meet in the morning: Ali: [Morning, Salman!], Salman: [Hi. How's it going?], Ali: [Oh, can't complain, I guess. Ready for the meeting this afternoon?], Salman: [Well, I don't have much choice!]

Greetings exemplify opening sequences, utterances that ease people into a conversation. They convey the message "I want to talk to you". There are **pre-invitations** (I've got two tickets for the football match), pre-requests (are you busy right now?) and pre-announcements (You'll never guess!).

Finally, there are opening structures and closing structures; e.g. Iqra, a 34-year old housewife greets Laiba, a 15-year-old student, with a formulaic health enquiry: Iqra: [Hi. Laiba.], Laiba: [Hi, Hi, Iqra.], Iqra: [Hi, hi, how are you?], Laiba: [Not bad. I'll be in, in a minute.].

The British and North Americans have a pre-closing sequence rather than just ending with a farewell, e.g. A: [anyway, I'm gonna, have to go.], B: [Yeah, see you.], A: [See you tomorrow.], C: [What time is it?], D: [Oh. I've my lights on.], E: [Half three.], C. [Three.]

Lesson 33

CULTURE AND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Topic – 166 Cross-cultural Pragmatics

Cross cultural pragmatics is a subfield of pragmatics. Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993) defined CCP as the study of linguistic acts by language users from different cultural backgrounds. Cross-cultural pragmatics aims at understanding the extent to which non-shared knowledge or in simple terms our schemas affect or modify the retrieval of intended meaning.

CCP looks at issues outside classrooms and concentrates on environments where participants are not explicitly learners, but rather full members of the target language community. In pragmatics, "culture" is not Culture, with a capital C – that is, the literature, music, and art. Rather, it is culture as a reflection of the values and beliefs about the world, held by the members of a community which forms, in effect, the substratum of their everyday life.

CCP investigates how human behavior is translated into instances of language in use. Research has shown that a speaker's intended meaning, mediated by linguistic symbols, may be interpreted or misinterpreted in cross-cultural contexts due to each interactant's own norms of interpretation. CCP examines behaviors that are manifest or overt and others that are latent or covert. The values and beliefs are embedded in talk both at the micro and the macro level. Micro features include prosodic cues, turn taking, indirectness, nonverbal cues, etc.

Topic – 167 Intercultural Pragmatics

Intercultural pragmatics is based on the socio-cognitive approach according to which, our mind exists simultaneously both in the head and in the world. **Cross-cultural** comparative studies of discourse have shown that rules of appropriateness vary across cultures. Thus, for learners to become truly effective communicators in a second language, they need to acquire these rules of appropriateness in addition to what we have come to call linguistic competence.

Modern language courses include elements of 'communicative competence' (Hymes, 1964); providing them with knowledge about and experience in using the sociocultural rules of the new language. Intercultural pragmatics studies speech acts across various cultures to study how language is manifested in a society and is a medium of differentiation between different cultures. The difference in culture causes a number of intercultural failures such as socio-pragmatic failure and pragma-linguistic failure.

Topic – 168 Inter-language Pragmatics

Interlanguage pragmatics focuses on the pragmatic development of second/ foreign languages learners as they seek to become proficient, successful users of the target language. ILP may be considered a sub-area of second language acquisition (SLA) and thus is inherently anchored in acquisition contexts. Learners and teachers need to understand interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) to facilitate our understanding of how people comprehend and communicate meaning beyond what is said in the target language.

The **interlanguage** is a reduced system at the early stages of development. Interlanguage refers to intermediate, dynamic, and transient linguistic systems that, according to the theory, continue to develop over time as learners move closer and closer to attaining native-like proficiency. Learners progress along a trajectory towards their desired goal, sometimes regressing and sometimes making rapid progress. For instance, in academic speaking skills, the learners may struggle with conversational chat unless they live with a native speaker.

Learner language use is informed by underlying systems that overlap and are constantly being revised by learners, usually out of awareness, as long as there are regular exposure and tutoring. ILP is essentially interested in how L2 learners use their developing abilities in L2 to communicate successfully despite gaps in their knowledge and socio-pragmatics of the L2.

Topic – 169 Listener Behavior in CCP

One aspect of interactional talk is the relative lack of attention given to the role of the listener in the co-construction of meaning in conversation. Yet it is important not only cross-culturally, but also within a pluricultural society.

Erickson and Schultz (1982) found that African-American students displayed attention and listenership in less overt ways than those expected by the white counselors, even when there were no gender differences. Listener cues are also called “back channel cues”. Cues are believed to be given by the listener while the speaker, often in the context of telling a story or narrating recent events (Yngve 1970).

Cultural values are attached to cues more explicitly in one culture than another. E.g. Japanese culture does transparently discuss the need for the listener to “chime in” in a patterned manner. The cross-cultural mismatches between interlocutors of different languages may arise regarding the location and frequency of listener responses.

Topic – 170 Referential Communication

Tarone and Swierzbin (2009: 68) chose to study how learners used language resources to signal given and new information to achieve effective referential communication: “Effective referential communication is inherently interactive. Speakers must take into account any information the listener already has, and any information the listener needs to know in order to identify the entity being referred to”. It is also an aspect of language use that depends on careful decisions by speakers regarding linguistic forms, for example, in Academic Speech Events.

Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1990, 1993) focused their analysis on status-preserving strategies in the interactions between the advisors and advisees (international students) particularly an educational setting where the pragmatic competence of native and non-native speakers of the L2 are tested. They are of the view that highly proficient nonnative speakers may lack the ability to negotiate an advisement interview that is dependent on appropriate speech acts and communication strategies. At issue in the study is impression management, important to graduate students who seek to be well regarded by their advisors.

Lesson 34

COMPUTER SEMANTICS AND PRAGMATICS

Topic – 171 Computers and Linguistics

Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is defined as "the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning." (Levy, 1997: 1). CALL covers a broad range of activities which makes it difficult to describe it as a single idea or simple research agenda. CALL has come to encompass issues of materials design, technologies, pedagogical theories and modes of instruction.

Computational Linguistics on the other hand, is the study of language from a computational perspective. CL is concerned with the study of computer systems for understanding and generating natural language (Grisham, 1986). The process of dictionary making today is undergoing dramatic change. It is largely owing to advances in computers and the availability of machine-readable collections of texts known as corpora.

Corpus linguistics is the term used for compiling collections of texts and using them to probe language use. In this context, a corpus is a representative body of texts (corpus is the Latin word for 'body'). More recent corpora contain over 100 million words, and corpora of texts in many languages are being compiled. It is also very essential for twenty-first-century dictionary making and in many other ways, including speech recognition and artificial intelligence.

Topic – 172 Computers Corpora and Semantics

Computerized corpora are useful to dictionary makers and others in establishing patterns of language that are not apparent from mere introspection. For example, patterns of collocation - which words go together - are much more readily understood with the help of a computerized corpus of natural-language texts. Such patterns can be helpful in highlighting meanings, parts of speech, and words that co-occur with frequency.

Further, while it may appear that synonymous words can be used in place of one another, corpora can show that it is not common for words to be readily substitutable for one another. For example, little and small, big and large, and fast and quick are generally considered synonyms. But a cursory examination of key word in context (KWIC) concordances for these pairs shows that they are not straightforwardly substitutable. Corpora help us understand the meaning and use of words.

Topic – 173 Computers and the Study of Translation

For more than half a century researchers have been trying to craft devices that can translate between languages. Except in limited ways, however, that goal has eluded even the best attempts thus far. Word-for-word translation does not do the trick because, for one thing, languages differ in their word orders and, for another, the metaphors of one language may not translate into the relevant metaphor of another language.

If a machine translation (MT) device were established for even six languages, then 6 × 5 - 30 sets of procedures would be needed to translate each language into all of the other five. It is an alternative system -an interlingual translation model - in which the basic semantic elements of each language can be represented abstractly and then encoded into other languages. This would require twelve procedures - one decoding procedure and one encoding procedure for each of the six languages. This model is simpler than the transfer translation model that requires 30 procedures.

Unfortunately, we don't know the extent to which sentences can be decomposed into the kinds of abstract semantic representations needed for an interlingual model, especially in making a language-neutral intermediate representation. Difficulties related to translation in either model concern what one language encodes that another may not encode.

Topic – 174 Computers and Pragmatics

As compared to morphological, lexical, phonological, grammatical, and semantic features of texts, the features of pragmatics have been less well explored in **computational linguistics**.

One reason for the relative neglect of pragmatics is that modeling the world knowledge and discourse knowledge that speakers rely on when producing and understanding texts is even more challenging than creating models of structural aspects of language. Another is that the kinds of linguistic features by which some pragmatic categories are realized are not always expressed in ways that computers can readily track. We have seen, speakers base some aspects of expression on their beliefs about what addressees know and are thought to have in the forefront of their minds.

Topic – 175 Computers, Speech Acts and Conversation

It is necessary to create models of politeness, turn taking, and the other phenomena before many of the applications of computer technology to speech will be mastered. The building of corpora of written language has proceeded more quickly than the compilation of spoken corpora, and the reasons are obvious.

Especially in recent years, machine-readable texts initially published as books, magazines, and newspapers have been widely available, as is the Web. There are ways to develop corpora through different methods, for instance: scanners can effectively transform many older printed materials into machine-readable text.

However, creating electronic representations of transcribed spoken language is quite a different matter. First of all, it must be captured, on audio or video. Then it must be transcribed - a challenging and expensive task, and one partly dependent on the quality of the recording and the degree of ambient noise in the original environment. Still, a substantial part of the British National Corpus is based on speech. About one hundred volunteers throughout Britain carried recorders in a course

Lesson 35

INFORMATION STRUCTURE AND PRAGMATICS

Topic – 176 Introduction to Information Structure

We use language to state one thing or other. It runs counter to our expectations of how information should be presented in a text. Somehow, it emphasizes the wrong elements or emphasizes the right elements at the wrong time. Speakers and writers are responsible for foregrounding certain elements and back-grounding others, just as a painter uses contrasts of color, shape, and value to highlight some details and deemphasize others.

In language texts, such highlighting and deemphasizing is called information structure. Unlike syntax and semantics, which are sentence-based aspects of language, information structure requires consideration of discourse - coherent sequences of sentences rather than isolated ones.

Topic – 177 Given and New Information

Given information is information currently in the forefront of an addressee's mind. New information is information just being introduced into the discourse. Consider the following two-turn interaction: Alina: [Who ate the biscuits?], [Maria: Hassan ate the biscuits.]

In Maria's answer, the noun phrase 'Hassan' represents new information because here it is being introduced into the discourse. By contrast, 'the biscuits' in the reply is given information because it can be presumed to be in the mind of Alina who has introduced it in the previous turn. Given information can be realized in sentences in condensed form, e.g. instead of saying Hassan ate the biscuits, the speaker could simply say Hassan did, Hassan did it, or Hassan.

A piece of information need not be explicitly mentioned in order for it to be the given information. Information is sometimes taken as given because of its close association with something that has been introduced into the discourse. When a noun phrase is introduced into a discourse, all the subparts of the referent can be treated as given information. For Example, when Kent returned my car last night, the gas tank was nearly empty and the glove compartment was stuffed with candy wrappers.

Topic – 178 Topics and Contrast

The topic of a sentence is its center of attention - what it is about and its point of departure. The notion of the topic is contrasted with the notion of comment, which is the element of a sentence that says something about the topic. Given information in the sentence about which we say something, called the topic; new information shows what we say about the topic, called the comment. For example, if 'Hassan ate the biscuits' is offered in answer to the question 'What did Hassan do?' The topic would be 'Hassan' (given information) and the comment would be 'ate the biscuits' (new information).

Contrast is a noun phrase is said to be contrastive when it occurs in opposition to another noun phrase in the discourse. For example, Alan: Did Matt see the accident? Beth: No, Sara did. Here, Sara in Beth's answer is contrasted with Matt in Alan's question. The contrast of Beth's answer with another possible one in which the noun phrase would not be contrastive: Yes, he did. **Contrast** is also marked in sentences that express the narrowing down of a choice from several candidates to one. In such sentences, the noun phrase that refers to the candidate thus chosen is marked contrastively.

Topic – 179 Definite and Referential Expressions

Among other reasons, speakers mark a noun phrase as 'definite' when they assume that the addressee can identify its referent. Otherwise, the noun phrase is marked as indefinite. For instance, Andrea: Who's at the door? Bundy: It's the neighbor. In this example, the definite noun phrase 'the neighbor' in Bundy's answer presupposes that Andrea can determine which neighbor Bundy is talking about. Bundy's answer is appropriate if she and Andrea have only one neighbor or have reason to expect a particular neighbor at the door. If they have several neighbors and Bundy cannot assume that Andrea will be able to identify which neighbor is at the door, the answer to Andrea's question would be indefinite: It's a neighbor.

Proper nouns and pronouns are generally definite. Pronouns such as 'you' and 'we' usually refer to individuals who are identifiable in the discourse context. Definiteness in English is marked by the choice of articles (definite the versus indefinite 'a') or by demonstratives (this and that, both definite). Indefinite noun phrases in English are marked by a or an (a furnace, an apartment building) or by the absence of any article (oil, fire, apartment buildings).

Topic – 180 Generic and Specific Expressions

Generic sentences express generalizations about kinds and are an important tool for the transmission of knowledge (Gelman, 2003). Consider the following pairs of sentences:

(1) a. Tigers are striped.

b. Tigers are on the front lawn.

(2) a. A tiger is striped. b. A tiger is on the front lawn.

(3) a. The tiger is striped. b. The tiger is on the front lawn.

The interpretation of the first sentence of each pair is intuitively quite different from the interpretation of the second sentence in the pair. In the second sentences, we are talking about some particular tigers: a group of tigers in (1b), some individual tiger in (2b), and some unique salient or familiar tiger in (3b)—a beloved pet, perhaps. In the first sentences, however, we are saying something general. There is/are no particular tiger or tigers that we are talking about. A noun phrase may be generic or specific depending on whether it refers to a category or to particular members of a category. For instance: 1) [It describes the bombardier beetle, which squirts a lethal mixture into the face of its enemy.] 2) [The giraffe bent slowly forward and gingerly took a carrot from my palm.]

In the first example, the ‘bombardier beetle’ is generic because it refers to the set of all bombardier beetle; but in the second, which could have been uttered during a visit to a zoo, ‘the giraffe’ refers to a particular animal and is, thus, specific. In the first sentence, the bombardier beetle is generic and definite, while a lethal mixture is generic and indefinite. In the second sentence, the giraffe is specific and definite, and a carrot is specific and indefinite. Thus, the generic/ specific contrast differs from the definite/indefinite contrast.

Lesson 36

RESEARCH IN PRAGMATICS

Topic – 181 The Nature of Pragmatic Investigation

In the linguistic investigation, a favored method is to frame and test the hypotheses. To take a quite arbitrary example, someone says to a two-year-old "Why don't you use your spoon?" whereupon the two-year-old obligingly picked up her spoon and tried to feed herself with it. Thus, it can be hypothesized that two-years-old can understand indirect speech acts.

We can imagine investigable topics that might be turned into testable hypotheses, such as family members show that they are displeased with one another by responding to propositional content rather than the illocutionary force of each other's utterances, treating indirect speech acts as though they were direct speech acts. For example, the case of two-years old to a series of direct and indirect requests. The research method here involves following procedures: Frame a testable hypothesis suggested by some observation about the way that world appears to work.

Here are the steps to investigate (1) designing an experiment that enables you to collect data which test this hypothesis, (ii) collecting the data under experimental conditions, (iii) quantifying the data in order to determine whether or not the hypothesis is proved, and (iv)considering the implications of the findings and whether follow-up experiments would be useful.

Very often empirical research of this sort tries to determine whether there is a significant, as opposed to a chance, association between two variables. For example: whether there is a significant association between age and understanding of indirect speech acts as demonstrated by the compliance with indirect requests.

Topic – 182 Collecting Data for Pragmatic Analysis

You may be collecting your data because you wish to test a hypothesis. Data will usually be elicited: by designing the experiments very carefully to make sure that you are collecting data that enable you to measure what you seek to measure rather than some other phenomenon.

This means that all the non-relevant variables need to be eliminated. It wouldn't be very useful; for example, if a linguist measured two years old responses to indirect requests only to realize afterwards that the results reflected the extent to which the requests themselves were palatable. There are some 'dos' and 'don'ts' when it comes to data collection.

Similarly, if you tell your friends to have a natural conversation while you record it on tape, you will get anything but a natural conversation. However, there is an ethical issue (i.e. not to use the data provided by the informants without their consent).

Other points to keep in mind are as following: Do a pilot study as it enables you to see whether the data is (a) audible and transcribable; and (b) useful of the purpose you have in mind. One solution can be to record data on video but this is usually impractical. Another option is note the opening words of each speaker and can be a foolproof method.

Topic – 183 Transcription of Conversation

Conventional transcriptions of conversations use a standard orthographic script rather than phonemic transcription. They show how items e.g. 'and' and 'your' are actually spoken since their realization may vary in obvious ways. You might expect to indicate hesitations e.g. 'er' and 'umm'. Other fillers and uptake signals e.g. 'uh-uh' and 'yeah' and audible breathing (hh) and indrawn breath (hh) can be indicated.

A more difficult issue is whether and how to represent intonation and pitch; the easiest solution for distinctive pitch prominence might be marked by capitalizing the appropriate segment (e.g. you WHAT). More important in many ways is marking features of conversational sequences. For instance, you will always need to mark pauses in the talk.

The widely used convention is parentheses, with the length of pause indicated in tenth of seconds, so that '(2.5)' would represent a pause of two-and-a-half seconds. Short pauses can also be marked with parentheses and points, with '(.)' equal to a one-syllable length pause, and '(..)' equal to a two-syllable length pause. Another sequencing phenomenon that needs to be marked is the overlap of two speakers.

Topic – 184 Investigable Topics

There are many areas that can be investigated besides the few suggested below:

1) **Conversational strategies** show how does turn-taking work – in general terms and in a particular conversation? According to what principles and by what means does the speaker select the next speaker? Who self-selects at TRPs and with what effects? What are the mechanics of interruption – is interruption projected? Is topic a viable unit of analysis? Do discussions of the topic have internal structure? The units of conversation are insertion sequences, adjacency pairs, pre-sequences. How are contributions cued and how does any contribution project beyond its moment of utterance?

2) Activity types and the institutional use of language: the structure and pragmatic properties of seminars, interviews, etc. also talk types: the structure of telephone conversations, ordering sequences in restaurants, contributions to radio phone-ins, etc. To what extent these speech events are goal-oriented? And to what extent do they determine their own structures? How is talk constrained and how do participants indicate constraints on allowable contributions?

3) Focusing on power and distance, 'relation indicating devices' (Matsumoto, 1988): how speakers encode these; how speakers get their own way. Face work- how speakers use politeness strategies to acknowledge the face wants of others.

4) Intercultural pragmatics: How members of different cultural groups accommodate and react to socio-pragmatic differences.

5) Context: Does the external social structure determine the way talk is organized and the type of contributions that occur, or is the context created by the talk itself?

6) Folk views of talk: Investigating the extent to which people's beliefs about pragmatic uses of language (politeness and interruption, etc.) are oriented to in the talk.

Topic – 185 Learning by Doing

Grundy made some comments about ways of learning pragmatics by doing the data-driven pragmatic analysis. Students usually do this at the end of the year. Their work consists of recording naturally occurring data such as conversations, meetings talk, institutional talk, media talk, an instruct sequence, classroom talk, an interview – in fact, whatever interests them.

They may select two minutes of this recording and may describe both the distal context and the immediate talk context in which it occurs. If the data are transcribable and analyzable, students move to the next stage - actually transcribing it. They bring their data to class to try out suggestions from their classmates and to get feedback. When their approach is decided, they write about the analytic parameters they intend to use. For example, a student recorded a mother/small child exchange in which the child was complaining vigorously about having to leave a place she was visiting earlier than she had expected in order to go back home.

Lesson 37

KEY TERMS IN PRAGMATICS

Topic – 186 Ambiguity, Disambiguation and Vagueness

Ambiguity is a sequence of linguistic signs (written, spoken or signed) is ambiguous if and only if it is assigned more than one meaning by the grammar. In other words, ambiguous expressions are expressions that have more than one meaning in the language. Types of Ambiguity are: **Structural ambiguity** is due to the syntactic structure of the utterance, as in: They are fighting fish (Nicholas Allott, 1988). **Lexical ambiguity** that occurs when one form corresponds to more than one words with different meanings, like ‘bank’ in I pass the bank on the way to work.

Disambiguation is the process of selecting the intended sense of an ambiguous word, phrase or sentence from among the senses allowed by the grammar. Disambiguation is largely unconscious and automatic, and most of the ambiguity, therefore goes unnoticed by the speaker or the hearer.

Vagueness is a vague meaning is one that is not clearly defined. Much attention has focused on vague predicates. For example, it has been argued that the predicate bald is vague. If someone says ‘John is bald’ we may not know whether the proposition expressed by the utterance is true or false, even though we know all the relevant facts.

Topic – 187 Attributive Concept and Argumentation Theory/Referential/Attributive Distinction

In relevance theory, **attributive use of a concept** is where a word or phrase is used to express a concept that a speaker attributes to someone else and which she need not endorse herself. A concept used in this way is sometimes called an attributive concept. Attributive use is a type of interpretive use: specifically, it is interpretive use in which there is attribution of a thought or utterance to another. For example, ‘An amazing thought entered into my brain’, Amazing is an attribute of thought.

Argumentation Theory: The systematic study of discourse that is intended to persuade rationally, including the study of logical arguments and fallacies and their uses. Argumentation theory is a sub-field of pragmatics since persuading by the use of arguments is one use of language, i.e. Media communication. Argumentation theorists also investigate normative as well as descriptive aspects of language use.

Referential /Attributive Distinction is a distinction between two apparently different ways of using definite descriptions, made by the philosopher Keith Donnellan (Allott, 1988). One way of using a definite description is to talk about whichever individual (or individuals, for plural definite descriptions) satisfies the material in the nominal restrictor. This is the attributive use. Another way of using a definite description is to pick out and talk about a certain individual (or individuals, for plural definite descriptions).

Topic – 188 Code Model

Code Model is a model of communication according to which communication involves the transmission of meaning – the message – by encoding it in language or some other codes. The transmitter encodes and transmits the message as a linguistic signal, which the receiver then decodes.

According to the model, a coding/decoding process will lead to perfect transmission of the message if the code is shared, encoding and decoding are carried out successfully, and the signal is not degraded by noise or interrupted (Allott, 1988). The terms message, signal, transmitter and receiver are from information theory. For example, A speaker says 'Tree'. The hearer would encode it into 'Stem, branches, leaves and other parts of a tree' Encoding can also be on the sentence level.

Topic – 189 Communicative Competence

Communicative Competence is the ability to communicate in a language. It includes competence with the grammatical forms of the language and the ability to put forms of the language to use in communication (Allott, 1988). This term was invented by the anthropologist and sociolinguist Dell Hymes.

Now a popular notion in applied linguistics and language teaching, where the aim is to teach not just grammar and speech sounds, but also strategies for communicating in that language. This teaching tends not so much to be concerned with pragmatics in a narrow sense (implicatures, reference assignment, etc.) as with teaching social conventions about how the language is used (Allott, 1988).

A speaker should have the competence to talk to a lady, old man, a professional differently. This is communicative competence how perfectly you answer after analyzing the situation!

Topic – 190 Demonstrative

A group of indexical words or phrases that are used to refer, include this, that, these and those (in English). These words are used to make demonstrative phrases, for example, this pen, that car, these keys, those penguins (Allott, 1988). Demonstratives are often accompanied by a gesture that demonstrates the object referred to, pointing, or gazing at the object, i.e. 'that boy'.

As with other indexical, the referent of a demonstrative must be worked out to know what proposition the speaker is expressing. The particular demonstrative used restricts the search for referents, in subtle ways. If there is one book on a table the speaker may refer to it with 'this book' or 'that book',

But if it is the nearer of two, then 'this book' is preferred, except if both books are nearer the hearer, when again 'that book' is acceptable. In English and other languages, the demonstratives encode a two-way proximal/distal distinction, but other languages have a three way or four-way distinction. For space deixis, demonstratives are frequently used for discourse deixis, as in: "I am glad you told me that" and "This is what I'll be talking about today".

Topic – 191 Ellipsis

When linguistic material is missing from the pronounced form of a phrase or sentence, that phrase/sentence is said to be (syntactically) elliptical. For example, Mary kicked John, and Jane, Bill. Here the verb 'kicked' has been ellipted. In the next two examples the ellipted material is in brackets. 'Jane fought because Mary did (fight)'. 'She has stopped now but I don't know why (she stopped).'

Recovery of elided elements is necessary to work out what proposition is being expressed by an utterance of a sentence (Allott, 1988). The missing material is recovered from the linguistic antecedent. This is usually regarded as a task for parsing and thus in a sense pre-pragmatic.

There may be more than one possible reconstruction, as in the following example: John noticed that Mary left and Jane did too. Selection of the speaker's intended sense in such examples is a pragmatic task: a form of disambiguation. 'semantic' or 'pragmatic' ellipsis. The questions in brackets illustrate in what way the meaning seems unspecific: [Marvellous! (what is marvellous?)], [The door is open. (which door?)], [He finished his book. (finished doing what with it?)], [On the top shelf. (what is on the top shelf?)]

Lesson 39

KEY TERMS IN PRAGMATICS-II

Topic – 192 Folk Pragmatics

The term 'folk pragmatics' is modeled on **folk physics** are pre-theoretical expectations about heat, light, how objects move, etc. (Allott, 1988). **Folk psychology** is pre-theoretical expectations about how behavior relates to thoughts and aims.

One source of evidence about folk beliefs is how we talk about the domain in question. Ordinary language is rich with words to talk about communication, including: topic, interruption, say, means, i.e. 'Did you mean that?'

The vocabulary available for talking about communication differs somewhat from language to language. For example, positive feedback to a conversational partner through short words or encouraging noises is important in conversation, across languages and cultures. Systematic investigation sometimes begins with folk words and transforms them to technical terms.

Topic – 193 'Formal' and 'Experimental Pragmatics'

Formal Pragmatics is the study of pragmatic phenomena using techniques and notations from logic and mathematics. Formal pragmatics is largely an extension from formal, model-theoretic semantics into the domain of more context sensitive elements of speaker meaning (Allott, 1988).

Formal pragmatics and dynamic approaches to semantics such as Discourse Representation Theory are closely related to date, work in formal pragmatics has only been concerned with a subset of pragmatic topics (Allott, 1988). The topics on the semantic-pragmatics interface, include definiteness and indefiniteness, presupposition, scalar implicature, conventional implicature, and focus.

Formal pragmatics serves two important functions in Habermas's philosophy. (Philosopymasters.com). **First,** it is the theoretical underpinning of the theory of communicative action, this being a crucial element of his theory of society. **Second,** it contributes to ongoing philosophical discussions regarding truth, meaning, rationality and action. (Philosopymasters.com).

In **Experimental Pragmatics**, the application of experimental techniques largely forms psycholinguistics to the areas of interest in pragmatics. Techniques used include on-line measures and off-line measures. On-line measures contain eye-tracking and timed responses to stimuli and off-line measures such as the choice from a set of candidates of the best sentence to describe a scene. Experimental pragmatics is a very recent development, although existing psycholinguistic work on disambiguation, semantic illusions and other aspects of interpretation is relevant (Allott, 1988).

Topic – 194 Cognitive Pragmatics

According to Bruno G.Bara (2010), Cognitive pragmatics focuses on the mental states and, to some extent, the mental correlates of the participants of a conversation. The mental processes of human communication are based on three fundamental concepts: cooperation, sharedness, and communicative intention. These three fundamentals were proposed by Grice in 1975, though each has since been refined by other scholars.

The cooperative nature of communication is justified by the evolutionary perspective through which the cooperative reasoning underlying a conversation is explained. Sharedness accounts for the possibility of comprehending non-standard communication such as deceit, irony, and figurative language (Bruno G.Bara, 2010).

According to Nicholas Allott (1988), the role of language is to allow the communication of thoughts. For cognitive linguists, language and the way we think are not to be artificially separated, and the study of language is expected to yield insights into cognition in general: 'language is a window into the mind' (Fauconnier).

Topic – 195 Fragment

Linguistic material that is less than a complete sentence is called a fragment. Many utterances are fragments. For example: [- Over here!], [- Water!], [- On the second shelf down, behind the jam. - Nice one!], [- A: How many cats do you have?], [- B: Five.].

Fragments are generally, although not always, linguistic constituents: preposition phrases, noun phrases and so on. Uttering a non-constituent is usually strange: [∗ shelf down ∗ cats do you]

Fragments can be used to express complete propositions (Allott, 1988). For example, a speaker uttering "On the top shelf" might mean: The jar is on the top shelf. Or ['Where are you going?] Answer can be '-to school'. ['Did you eat something?]' the answer can be '-ate nothing'. It is controversial whether fragments are sometimes or never syntactically elliptical. Example: Are you writing something? -'a letter to my friend.

Topic – 196 Metaphor and Synecdoche

Metaphor is a type of figurative speech. Typically, a metaphor ascribes to an entity a property that it does not, strictly and literally speaking, possess, although not all metaphors fit this definition. Metaphors are not restricted to any particular type of word or phrase (Allott, 1988). The metaphorical element of a sentence can be a noun phrase, as in 'John is an iceberg.' Verbs can also be used metaphorically, as in 'Flintoff drilled the ball to the boundary.'

Synecdoche is a figure of speech in which an expression that denotes the part of something is used to refer to the whole. For example, 'mouth' in 'I've got six hungry mouths to feed'. For example: 'willow' for cricket bat in such phrases as 'to wield the willow' (Allott, 1988).

The term '**synecdoche'** is sometimes also regarded as including the use of an expression denoting a smaller class to refer to a larger class, and for the converse situation. This is a very broad definition since it would include within synecdoche obvious metaphors such as 'that animal' for 'that man'. Many cases of polysemy are regarded as related through synecdoche. One example is the two senses of 'chicken': the type of bird, and the meat (Allott, 1988).

Topic – 197 Hyperbole and Irony

Hyperbole is a figure of speech also known as an overstatement, in which a speaker expresses an exaggerated meaning than his words carry in themselves. Intuitively, this is a very common figure of speech. People often say 'I am starving' when they mean that they are merely rather hungry. 'It's miles and miles' is a common way of complaining about even quite short distances. On a Gricean analysis, hyperbole is a blatant violation of the first maxim of quality. For example, the speaker is not literally starving. Or in the second example, the destination might be in the next street but the speaker is just trying to exaggerate.

Irony is a figure of speech seen in the following example: Alistair (stepping out into heavy rain): Another lovely day! The classical conception of irony is that it is a figure of speech in which the speaker means the opposite of what her words mean, and this has been taken as defining. However, this condition is neither necessary nor sufficient for irony. For example, someone sees a car with a broken window and, attempting to draw attention to it in an ironic way says, 'Look! That car hasn't got a broken window' (Allott, 1988).

Lesson 39

KEY TERMS IN PRAGMATICS-III

Topic – 198 I-Principle and M-Principle

In neo-Gricean pragmatics, the **I principle** or Informativeness-principle is one of a small number of principles that govern communicative behaviour. The **I-principle** enjoins speakers to say as little as necessary (while bearing in mind the opposing Q- principle). If a speaker's utterance appears to be governed by the I-principle, then the hearer can take it that the speaker expressed herself economically.

The speaker can take the utterance as implicating information that is more specific than what is said along stereotypical or expected lines (Allott, 1988). However, when marked expressions are used the M-principle comes into play.

In neo-Gricean pragmatics, the **M-principle** or Manner principle is one of a small number of heuristics governing communicative behaviour. A brief formulation of the M-principle in terms of instructions to speaker and hearer is as follows: Speaker: Do not say things in an abnormal way without reason. Addressee: What is said in an abnormal way indicates an abnormal situation.

Topic – 199 Q-Principle and R-Principle

In neo-Gricean pragmatics, the **Q principle** or Quantity Principle is one of a small number of principles thought to govern communicative behaviour and the production of implicatures. Q-principle is: Make your contribution sufficient; Say as much as you can (Given R).

The Q-principle is intended to subsume Grice's first maxim of quantity and his first and second manner maxims. The Q-principle enjoins the speaker to maximize the amount of information encoded. It is, therefore, described as a lower-bounding principle, and is postulated to be what is responsible for implicatures.

In Neo-Gricean pragmatics, the **R principle** or 'Relation-principle' is one of the small set of principles which govern communicative behaviour. On one formulation, the R-principle is: Make your contribution necessary; Say no more than you must (given the Q-principle). The R-principle enjoins the speaker to minimize the amount of linguistic material uttered, or more generally to minimize the effort involved in speech. It is, therefore, described as an 'upper-bounding' principle.

Topic – 200 Linguistic Under - Determinacy Thesis

This **expression** (and also the related expressions 'semantic underdeterminacy thesis' and 'underdeterminacy thesis') is **used** for several distinct but related hypotheses. One of these is that no sentences, or very few, encode a unique proposition: There are no 'eternal sentences', or only a small proportion of sentences are 'eternal'.

A second version is that in all or most cases when a sentence is uttered, what is encoded by the sentence falls short of the proposition expressed by the speaker. Both claims are controversial (Allott, 1988). In the **linguistic underdeterminacy thesis**, there is general agreement that for a hearer to arrive at the proposition expressed, reference must be assigned to indexicals and ambiguities must be resolved in examples like: ‘I decided to sell the bat here last week.’ (Allott, 1988).

The linguistic underdeterminacy thesis is the claim that even abstracting away from indexicals and ambiguity, the proposition expressed by the speaker in uttering a sentence goes beyond the linguistic meaning of the sentence.

The linguistic underdeterminacy thesis is correct and that generally sentences uttered must be enriched by pragmatic inference to arrive at the proposition expressed (Allott, 1988). On either view, the proposition expressed by a speaker cannot be read off the sentence uttered, therefore, it must be inferred partly on the basis of the sentence uttered. It is also important to take into account the background knowledge and other clues to the speaker’s intentions. (Allott, 1988)

Topic – 201 Manifestness and Markedness

In relevance theory, **manifestness** is the degree to which an assumption is accessible in a context on the basis of perception or of inference. An assumption is manifest to a given individual whether he is capable to make an assumption about false or true. The assumption need not, in fact, to be true: false assumptions can be entertained as true. Therefore, **manifestness** is a weaker notion than knowledge. **Manifestness** is a matter of degree. The more likely an assumption is to be entertained, the more highly manifest it is (Allott, 1988).

Mutual-Manifestness is a shared cognitive environment in which it is manifest which people share is a mutual cognitive environment. Mutual manifestness plays a role in relevance theory analogous to the role that some other pragmatic theorists have assigned to mutual knowledge. It explains how speaker and hearer can coordinate on an interpretation of an utterance. (Allott, 1988)

Markedness is the extent to which an item in a language is out-of-the-ordinary. Unmarked items are normal, whereas marked items are relatively unusual. For example, the word ‘kine’ is marked, while the word ‘cattle’ is relatively unmarked. The idea that some linguistic items are more natural and common than others was an important feature of the linguistic theory of Roman Jakobson. In pragmatics, it has been argued that an utterance containing marked items should have a marked meaning.

Topic – 202 Misfire

In Austin’s work, a **misfire** is one of the two ways in which a speech act can be unsuccessful. According to speech-act theory, there are felicity conditions on speech acts. If certain conditions are not met, then no speech act is performed. The relevant conditions are that: There is a conventional procedure with a conventional effect and the participants and situation are appropriate, according to that procedure; and the procedure is carried out correctly and completely (Allott, 1988).

Consider this example: ‘The tailor pressed one suit in the municipal court’. The reader may think that suit is a piece of clothing but here it refers to legal action. Consider ‘Stolen gun found by the victim’. Here the reader interprets that the gun was found beside the victim (and not that the victim had found it -which was the intended meaning). However, misfires are rare, and normally speakers are able to convey the meanings they intend with remarkable consistency.

Topic – 203 Prosody and Tautology

Prosody is a variation in the rhythm, stress, and intonation of speech at the level of utterances, rather than at the lexical level. The interaction of prosody with syntactic structure, and the effect that prosody has on the interpretation of utterances are not well understood in general. For example, the difference in stress between ‘REcord’ (the noun) and ‘reCORD’ (the verb) is not a prosodic difference. But the difference in stress positions in the following examples is prosodic: Alice eats GRASS. Alice EATS grass.

Tautology is a statement that expresses a proposition that is necessarily true is called a tautology. For example: [2 + 2 = 4], [War is war.], [If it rains, it rains.]. Since tautologies are necessarily true, it is hard to see how uttering one can be informative, relevant or cooperative. Yet people do utter tautologies and are understood.

An utterance of ‘War is war’ might implicate that terrible thing inevitably happen during wartime. What is communicated by a tautology can vary widely, though? Not all utterances of tautologies convey inevitability: Archie: [Can I borrow your pen?], Brenda: [Here you are. It’s only a biro, though.], Archie: [A pen is a pen.]. Here the tautology has been used to implicate that any pen, including Brenda’s biro, will do for the task at hand, perhaps via another implicature that all (functioning) pens can be used for writing. The challenge is to show how such disparate implicatures can be derived.

Lesson 40

KEY THINKERS IN PRAGMATICS

Topic – 204 John Langshaw Austin

J. L. Austin, author of a book, 'How to Do Things with Words', focuses on actions that can be performed with language apart from making statement`s, and effectively founded speech act theory. He has given three justifications for this approach (Allott, 1988). First, how to use words? Secondly, words are distinct from the facts and things they are used to talk about. The third justification is that our common stock of words embodies all the distinctions men have found worth drawing. He examined several tests, none of which reliably discriminates. A decisive consideration is that the same form of words can be used as a performative or a constative, depending on intention and context.

Austin preferred to see all utterances as performative, including such apparent constatives as assertions and statements (Allott, 1988). According to Austin, if the force of an utterance is not determined by its linguistic structure, just as actions are not merely physical bodily movements, the question arises what else comes in to determine the type of action performed.

Austin considered both (the speaker's) intentions and (social) conventions as possible candidates. In his discussion of performatives, he seems to have been more attracted to the idea that conventions are what decide the illocutionary force of an utterance (Allott, 1988). He had in mind speech acts which are embedded in fixed social routines, such as the example he gives, naming a ship.

Topic – 205 Noam Avram Chomsky

Chomsky's views on meaning, in particular, are of direct relevance to pragmatics. He has said that there is no such thing as semantics, only syntax, and pragmatics, and has been taken to suggest that a theory of language use is an impossibility since it would have to be a theory of everything. A fundamental of Chomskyan linguistics is a distinction between competence, what is (unconsciously) known about language, and performance, what is done with that knowledge.

This distinction allows linguists to focus on the properties of the grammatical system, abstracting away from how it is used. Principles shared by all languages are taken to be the aspects of Universal Grammar, innately specified. For example, natural language is recursive in the sense that it allows a phrase to be embedded in another phrase with no principled limit on the depth of embedding.

All languages also have structural dependencies between elements within sentences. These are structural limitations on which words can be linked (Allott, 1988). Most of Chomsky's work within linguistics is directed towards understanding the organizing principles of grammar which underlie such facts, with an emphasis on explaining rather than simply cataloguing and describing.

Generative Grammar is also a term introduced by Noam Chomsky. This work on the nature and acquisition of grammar has to be supplemented with an account of the acquisition of individual lexical items. Such as the word 'cat' somehow links the speech sounds /kæt/ to a certain concept.

Chomsky describes Descartes' view of language use, which he shares, as follows: 'Normal human speech is unbounded, free of stimulus control, coherent and in the same way – what we might call the creative aspect of language use.' appropriate, evoking thoughts that the listener might have expressed. He thinks; pragmatics, systematic study of the use of language, is pointless or impossible.

Topic – 206 Herbert Paul Grice

Of all thinkers – linguists and philosophers – it is Grice who has had the greatest influence on the development of pragmatics. Two connected parts of Grice's work have been profoundly influential in the field: his theory of meaning and his theory of conversation. Grice introduces his distinction between natural and non-natural meaning by way of a bit of 'linguistic botanizing' (as he later described this characteristic move of the ordinary language style).

He notes that the words 'mean' and 'meaning' can be used in different ways (Allott, 1988). One way is exemplified by expressions such as 'Those spots mean measles.' Grice calls this natural meaning. The other use he finds in expressions such as 'Those three rings on the bell mean that the bus is full.' This is non-natural meaning.

A borrowed term 'maxim' is a principle that motivates an agent to act in a certain way. The conversational maxims outline how an agent should behave in order to be cooperative in a conversation. Speakers know that hearers can do this, and therefore a speaker can make an utterance with the rational intention to convey an implicature (Allott, 1988). The conversational maxims outline how an agent should behave in order to be cooperative in a conversation.

Speakers know that hearers can do this, and therefore a speaker can make an utterance with the rational intention to convey an implicature (Allott, 1988). Grice's focus was to understand humans as rational agents, that is, as beings who have reasons for their actions and attitudes. He tried to understand actions and attitudes partly in terms of the reasons people might give for them and the reasoning they might follow to work out which attitude to adopt or action to take.

Topic – 207 Stephen C. Levinson

Levinson describes politeness phenomena in the use of language which is largely responsible for the proliferation of cross linguistic and cross cultural studies of politeness in speech. Levinson's theory describes two aspects of people's face: negative face and positive face. He introduces a term Face Threatening Acts (FTAs). Positive politeness is directed towards the addressee's positive face and negative politeness is directed towards the negative face of the addressee (Allott, 1988). Levinson argued that a distinction between utterance-type and utterance-token meaning is necessary to capture the facts about implicatures.

Generalized conversational implicatures (GCIs) are defined as those that are normally carried without any reference to the context (Allott, 1988). Particularized conversational implicatures (PCIs), on the other hand, require special circumstances: they are not conveyed just by a certain way of saying something, but the saying of it in a certain context. According to Levinson, the I-principle and the M-principle also give rise to GCIs. The claim is that default interpretations are necessary for efficient communication given the limitations on the physical channel of communication, that is, that we speak slowly and sequentially.

Levinson also explores possible connections between default interpretations and the defeasible inferences. In 'Presumptive Meanings', Levinson also contributes to the ongoing debate about the linguistic under-determinacy of the proposition expressed. He suggests that GCIs contribute to the truth conditions of utterances. These constructions include those formed by the logical operators: conjunction, disjunction, conditionals and so on.

Topic – 208 John Rogers Searle

John Searle is an American philosopher best known in pragmatics for his work on speech acts. Searle's notion of 'the Background' is also relevant to pragmatics. Searle's contributions are also in 'philosophy of mind' and social philosophy as well as the philosophy of language. Searle tried to answer these questions about speech acts: Why are speech acts grouped together in classes? Why there are five classes; and not more or fewer? He proposed that the classes of speech acts can be distinguished from each other by two properties of speech acts, the 'direction of fit' and 'what it is that they express'. Searle uses the phrase 'direction of fit' as a label for a distinction inspired by something.

According to Searle, there are four possible directions of fit. As well as word-to-world and world-to-word, there is the double direction of fit – both word-to-world and world-to-word – and the null direction of fit. Searle proposes that declarations have the double direction of fit.

Expressives have the null direction of fit: they express an emotional attitude towards a fact presumed to be true: for example, 'I am sorry that I tripped you.' (Allott, 1988). **Commissives** share the world-to-word direction of fit with directives and intention belonging to the speaker. This taxonomy of speech acts has been influential but has come in for serious criticism. (Allott, 1988). Searle wrote that it is 'pointless and perverse' to study language abstracting away from its use in communication (Allott, 1988).

Lesson 41

INTERACTIONAL CONSTRUCTION OF IDENTITY

Topic – 209 Introduction

Sociopragmatics focuses primarily on the social rules of speaking. How communication of pragmatic meaning involves speakers' presentation of their identities (LoCastro, 2012). Convergence to the social norms occurs where the speaker indicates a desire to be a member of a community. While interacting with other community members, the speaker adapts norms and nonstandard language unwillingly.

The categories used to describe the features of human beings, such as ethnicity, race, gender, socioeconomic background/class, are abstractions. Those abstractions become real or transparent as they are enacted through our choices of clothing, hairstyles, posture, lifestyles, and most assuredly how we use language. Word choice, prosody, tone of voice, degree of grammatical complexity, and interactional routines are components of socio-pragmatics. Linguistic strategies and cues convey and build identities of speakers/listeners as they "perform identity."

While individuals are likely to use more than one cue to display their identities in doing relational work in a group setting, one may suffice to signal one aspect of a person (LoCastro, 2012). For instance, pronouncing 'hotpot' in Pakistani rural areas shows the involvement of other culture in native accent. Interesting to see the enactment of identity in the construction of interactional meaning and how can it be important in pragmatics for second language learners.

Topic – 210 Role of Sociocultural Factors in Identity

Language learners may experience difficulties in relation to their L1 identities in acquiring a second language. For instance, American women who were working or studying in Japan realized that their culture was the major language barrier. They had to face unexamined, external expectations, both at the individual and group level. Even their teaching materials reproduced the gender assumptions of the local, Japanese cultural values.

Non-native speakers of an L2 may seek to maintain their ethnolinguistic identity owing to pressures from their L1 community as many speakers use English as Lingua Franca. Maintaining a "foreign" accent allows the speakers to avoid heavy sanctions for inappropriately signaling pragmatic meaning as a nonnative speaker. Examples of ethnolinguistic identity maintenance: code switching and maintenance of sociolinguistic markers in speech.

Al-Issa (2003: 594) analyzed a conversation of three interviewees who used "God willing" (in Sha'Allah) in their English refusal responses (LoCastro, 2012). When asked about the use of the expression, all seemed to emphasize the role of Islam in their lives and how Muslims should obey its rules. To understand Sociocultural factors, think about some quotes you mention in your daily life – religious, historical, socio-cultural, etc. or of any person who has an impact on your identity.

Topic – 211 Action Theory

All theories of pragmatic meaning include a basic notion, labeled shared background knowledge, world knowledge, or, common ground (LoCastro 2012). Action and Activity Joint actions can consist of speech events, in which conversants "negotiate deals, gossip, get to know each other" (Clark 1996: 17).

However, when the frame for a joint activity is not shared, then the participants even at a supermarket may not be able to achieve their goals. Coordination problems at the level of local joint actions are multiple, the primary one being "what the speakers mean and what their addressees understand them to mean" (Clark, 1996: 73).

Mis-coordination can be wiped out through language, the conventional signaling system par excellence, or through coordination devices such as gestures. Features of language in use – the length of clauses, the rhythmic placement of turn-taking cues, and tag questions – develop out of the need to achieve joint activities.

Pragmatic meaning, that "extra" meaning that goes beyond the linguistic signals, is created in the course of joint action. Clark's theory provides a framework for studying how speakers and listeners embed signals regarding their identities in their talk. The only evidence to support action theory involves the sociolinguistic dimensions of interactional discourse (LoCastro, 2012).

Topic – 212 Studies of Identities

One study that clearly demonstrates the ways in which participants in local talk-in-interaction enact their identities in the flow of playing a game at a senior citizens' program was carried out by Cashman (2005).

Rather than follow the more traditional or classic view of code switching. It is based on language code change as a reflection of the social structure of the urban Latino community. Cashman observed members of the community as they did "identity work," embedded in the social activity of playing lotería, a Mexican version of bingo that uses pictures rather than numbers or letters. The players of the Lotería had varying degrees of Spanish - English bilingual proficiency and they used language preference and alternation as a resource to do identity work.

In the following example, Ednita signals she is Spanish-dominant (LoCastro, 2012). Ednita is calling a game of lotería, which entails, first, shaking a jar full of bottle caps, and then taking a cap out of the jar, saying aloud to everyone what the picture is on the cap she is holding. She is bilingual, she tells the participants in Spanish that the bottle cap has a picture of the world with a man below holding the globe up. Yesenia, who is the program coordinator at the center, translates Ednita's talk and then elaborates in Spanish. Cashman claims that she does so, i.e. uses both languages, because, in her role as coordinator, she needs to attend to the needs of both groups, the Spanish - and English speaking senior citizens. This "preference-related code-switching" is not necessarily related to the speakers' communicative ability in the language varieties in the community's linguistic repertoire (Cashman 2005: 306).

Topic – 213 Occasioning Identity Work

Identity becomes transparent in the course of conversations, where an unexpected intonation contour provides a clue that the speaker is, despite fluency in English, originally from Italy, and this background information is a feature of that person's identity. Identity also becomes noticeable in the course of a discussion of content where an individual contributes information about Middle Eastern food preparation.

The focus is on the identity work he did while talking about his teaching practices during the interview (LoCastro, 2012). The researcher posed open-ended questions so that he could communicate his own thinking about his membership in the category of a professional, responsible teacher in the cultural context of teaching U.S. undergraduates (LoCastro, 2012). The noticeable topic of the talk that evidences his doing identity work is the comparisons he makes between "other" graduate teaching assistants and himself.

He focuses on how many other teachers talk or dominate in the classrooms. Seemingly, out of awareness, he distances himself from the others and tries to demonstrate how he is better than they are. He puts himself into the category of being a "good" teacher by modeling his behavior on the "cool" Caucasian or American teaching assistants. Within the discourse of discussing his teaching practices with the researcher, he is expressing his resistance to being positioned as a typical teaching assistant, often denigrated at the university by regular faculty, students, and administrators (LoCastro, 2012).

Topic – 214 Identity Work in an Educational Context

Identity in an L2 context may be problematic for learners of the L2, even in the foreign language learning environment. The word "identity" does not commonly come into the media talk, yet it is clearly part of the discourse, unexamined though it may be even by the participants. It is such populations, of international or nonnative speakers as residents within the receiving country/ culture. Particularly, if the language is that of a high prestige country, it experiences the most problems revolving around the notion of identity and accommodation to the local context. Talmy's study (2009) provides a lead-in for discussion regarding the relevance of identity studies for language educators. It depicts the learning environment of ESL students at a Honolulu high school, but the situation is by no means unique to that school (LoCastro, 2012). Menard-Warwick (2009) states that resistance to learning develops when educational systems fail to take into account identity.

Language educators can facilitate linguistic and pragmatic competence development of such students by going beyond the regular curriculum to promote motivation and encouraging further learning of a language. Online exchanges may also address the important question of identity in an instructed learning environment. Teachers may function as role models and encourage outside of the classroom activities to foster learners' ongoing L2 identity construction (LoCastro, 2012).

Lesson 42

LANGUAGE, GENDER, AND POWER

Topic – 215 Enactment of Gender in Language Use

The term “gendered” clearly communicates the notion that gender is an action, something that one does, i.e. gender in the media, in the workplace, in religion, and in the family (LoCastro, 2012). To understand ‘Gender’ we need to consider that how children acquire an awareness of gender at very early ages.

Female children learn that pink is the color for girls. This starts as nonverbal cues of femaleness translates into differences in language use. Tannen (1993) claimed that, though there is no question that dominance by men of women exists, it is not possible to attribute the cause of the enactment of dominance to specific linguistic realizations, For example, indirectness, interruptions, or topic shifts (LoCastro, 2012).

According to LoCastro (2012) many books have been written on the gender-biased language in English, i.e. excessive use of ‘He’ rather than ‘She’. Certain uses of language from word choice to speaking styles are still linked negatively to female gender and serve to construct and reinforce social differences. Cultural differences abound in this regard as well, resulting in markers of being female as highly valued and therefore desirable (LoCastro, 2012).

Topic – 216 Western Perspectives

LoCastro (2012) highlights a speech variable found in an individual’s speech in Australia and the U.K., i.e. women may drop their h’s. The practice of h-dropping occurs in everyday words like ’ouse (house), ’ome (home), Trudgill (1972) and Milroy (1989).

In Western cultural contexts, stereotypically, it is men who are viewed as being more likely to dominate in mixed-gender groupings. Or sometimes, female participants exclude men from the conversation by selecting topics such as ‘choices of dresses, personal feelings or house chores’. In Western Societies, researches have been conducted to differentiate between male/female behavior, verbal and non-verbal both. Historically, in efforts to describe and explain the discrimination against women in U.S. society, one focus was women’s use of language. One more perspective is, women in the U.S. experience the binary choice between being addressed by either Mrs. or Miss plus their family name.

Non-Western Perspectives

In Japan, women use ‘’Respectful Prefixes’’ known as honorifics which are based on ‘politeness’ in a formal context (Maynard, 1990). According to Ide and Inoue (1991), Japanese women of higher social status tend to use more elaborated honorifics to signal beauty, grace, and dignity. Ide

(2005) uses the term “beautification” honorifics, a form of gendered language use that, in her view, does not correlate with dominance in Japan.

It has been observed in India and Pakistan that English is used as a dominant language in the elite class which shows that this class is influenced by western culture. Errington states that language is sometimes “gender-neutral” in Asian Culture. Examples of the gender-neutral features are: The lack of gender marking with articles, or morphemes on nouns; specific lexemes like “human” or “person” are not marked for feminine or masculine. The local greeting is how many “older and younger siblings do you have” rather than how many “brothers and sisters do you have” (Atkinson and Errington 1990).

Topic – 217 Power: Language and Gender

According to LoCastro (2012) power has a role to play in any consideration of gender, race, ethnicity, and class. Keating (2009) defines power “as the ability or capacity to perform or act effectively; to exert control over others” (LoCastro, 2012). For example, participants enact their background knowledge, beliefs, cast or status, i.e. political background while talking to friends. They do so because they want to create an impact on the friends. Language can play a great role in producing and reproducing the underlying structures of power and control in a society (LoCastro, 2012).

Power: Language and Gender

Tannen (1993) sees the differences arising from the way female and male children are raised and socialized in their local communities. Female/male behavior is different in interaction and communication strategies and the use of power in the workplace. LoCastro 2012)

One marker of the lower status of women has been their use of language, such as the tentativeness; Lakoff claimed signaled uncertainty and the need for approval, both pragmatic meanings that are inferred from interactions. LoCastro 2012). Particularly in the context of cross-cultural and intercultural pragmatics, it makes sense to recognize that gender may vary as an issue (LoCastro, 2012). The postmodern stance sees gender not as a static, unchanging characteristic, but rather as “performed” in local contexts (Butler, 1990).

Social constructionism is based on the assumption that gender, like identity, is not a fixed characteristic of human beings. Rather, it is created in the context of everyday talk and interaction. Cameron (2005) claims the real worldview of gender, nor the institutionalized support for discrimination on the basis of gender. Cameron argues “the alleged problem of male–female misunderstanding appears to be common in societies where the influence of feminism has made gender relations a matter of contestation”.

Some variables as gender, age, social class, and race cannot be ignored (LoCastro, 2012). Individuals cannot be free of the wider social, political, and economic pressures from dominant beliefs and practices that continue to stereotype one gender or the other. For example, women as being more polite than men, or associate an aggressive speech style as typical only of men (LoCastro, 2012).

Topic – 218 Working of Language and Power: Political Discourse

Political discourse is a genre of language in use which is often viewed as a transparent vehicle used by politicians to preserve or to seek to create their own power. Speech of president of a country is supposed to maintain the face of the speaker as the main governmental leader of the country LoCastro 2012). The study of language and power also looks at how linguistic structures create reality, a reality that maintains and extends power relations in a society.

The study of language and power is often designated as CDA (LoCastro, 2012). There are numerous ways in which power is enacted in discourse: doctor– patient interactions, immigration checkpoints, and political campaigns. Or the use of tag questions, turn taking, adjacency pairs, introduction and uptake of topics, politeness strategies, and choice of formal or informal speaking styles.

According to LoCastro (2012), power is often expressed through language. Power cannot be explained without contextualization. The exercise of power involves a latent conflict and clash of interest, which can be obscured because of society's ideologies.

Topic – 219 Working of Language and Power: Political Discourse

The researchers emphasize on language use in context, which includes extra-textual variables such as age, socioeconomic background, and social status as well as gender. Research emphasizes on co-construction of gender identities in everyday talk. For example, a woman tries to prove herself the most beautiful among her friends; and for this, she gives arguments & comparison with other siblings.

According to Vine (2009), the purpose of each interaction considers the effects on the participants as well as the frequency and choice of speech act. Suppose if the purpose of interaction is problem solving, then the imperatives can be "softened".

Consider these two examples (Vine 2009: 1400):

1) "You finish doing it and make some notes" 2) "Well um put a real- a really simple brief what we need to know in order to respond to that". In this example, we can see that the participants in the interaction tolerated these direct imperatives in the context of a high-involvement, long planning meeting where they summarized actions to be taken to solve an urgent problem (LoCastro, 2012).

Lesson 43

CLASSROOM PRAGMATIC DEVELOPMENT

Topic – 220 Introduction

The main concern is when teaching a foreign language, that is, outside the target language community, where there may be virtually no opportunities for contact with speakers of the foreign languages or exposure through local media sources such as newspapers, radio, and TV programs (LoCastro, 2012).

Some argue that the Internet has solved that problem for anyone in cross-cultural communication for those who interact with different nations on social media. However, those sources lack the important dimension of learners actually producing talk in interactional contexts (LoCastro, 2012).

The main focus of this module is on instructional settings, primarily Pragmatic Development Classrooms, for second/foreign language learners. Why pragmatic competence is important for ESL learners? Can it be taught in instructional context? What factors influence the learning?

Topic – 221 Why Is Pragmatic Competence Important for 2nd Language Learners?

According to LoCastro (2012), pragmatic competence for second language learners is important even more than acquiring high linguistic proficiency in the L2. Pragmatic Competence helps the learners to use the correct phrases in a particular situation. In this situation, a well-phrased question, asking for information about what bus to take, not only goes far to obtain the correct information, but also can help to break down barriers.

According to LoCastro (2012), during learning, the learners should be given a chance to bring in personal experience and make connections with the real world of conversational interactions. To sum up, we can say that Pragmatic Competence cannot be ignored in everyday conversation.

Topic – 222 Can Pragmatic Competence be Taught or Learnt in Instructed Contexts?

LoCastro (2012) has focused on instructed development, that is, in classrooms, or other contexts organized for learning, as the acquisition of pragmatic competence in a naturalistic environment. Kasper and Rose (2002) argue that L2 pragmatics can be taught.

According to Kanaggy (1999), the children in Japan are taught the cultural practices and the pragmatic meanings of the routines in classrooms including nonverbal behaviors. Children cannot learn to say "thank you" without an adult in their immediate environment instructing them about the phrase and its context of use.

Local teachers can teach pragmatic competence in a better way because, sometimes, native speakers of the target language may shy away from making learners aware of miscommunication due to local sociocultural influences (Kasper and Rose, 2002).

Topic – 223 Difficulty in the Development of Pragmatic Competence in a Classroom

According to LoCastro (2012), it is particularly difficult for non-native teachers to develop pragmatic competence in a foreign language context. They may have had no experience abroad in the target language environment. McKay (2002) lists three reasons the ELT field has had to revise its goals and teachers their practices:

- Learners of English as a second/foreign language do not have to also learn the cultures of native speakers of English;
- English is not "owned" by native speakers only; and
- The main goal of learners is to communicate their own ideas and cultures to others, not become native speakers of the language.

Another factor is lack of materials: textbooks, dictionaries, videos, multimedia, and tests. Unfortunately, the materials may misrepresent the target language culture and its social rules of speaking. Another factor which gets in a way to develop pragmatic competence is ''Learns themselves''.

Topic – 224 What can be Done to Facilitate the Teaching and Learning of Pragmatic Competence?

According to LoCastro (2012), teachers do not take the pain to develop pragmatic competence because they are non-natives and have not experienced the environment of the target language. If ESL teachers are given a chance of one- or two-months training abroad in that environment, they can be beneficial for the learners.

Second point that LoCastro has mentioned is "Awareness Raising" among teachers because there is a lack of teacher training programs. Teachers should be properly guided about the selection of material, the choice of activities and the importance of pragmatic competence. In the next step, language teachers would build the awareness in the learners. For example, the skills in the primary language and culture to help them become more capable of understanding and enacting pragmatic meanings in the target language (LoCastro, 2012).

Teachers and students can promote discussion of diversity, difference, and tolerance towards language use variation as well as nonlinguistic behaviors to create mindfulness regarding a non-deficit view of self and others. The students can also collect examples from the public mass media (LoCastro, 2012).

Topic – 225 Training in Pragmatics Outside the Traditional Language Classroom

Teaching to develop pragmatic competence does not end for L2 learners in language-focused classrooms. Indeed, there exist advanced communicative needs, particularly regarding workplace literacy skills, job interviews, and business letter writing tasks, etc. LoCastro (2012) has mentioned some factors which are highly important to find a good job.

For example, self-presentation, grammatical and lexical accuracy and appropriacy, and the ability to produce synthesized talk about personal and professional experiences and interests, etc. In this regard, Louw, Derwing, and Abbott (2010) have developed a research-based pedagogical process to help L2 learners improve their job-interviewing skills. A combination of videos of simulated job interviews, critiquing by experts on the needed skills, and trial runs by students led to improve their skills. Small talk, enthusiasm, body language, evidence of cross-cultural misunderstanding, intelligibility, and a positive demeanor are also focused.

The instructional process outside of the traditional classroom comprised three phases such as: Students would observe native speaker discourse for job interviews; becoming aware of differences and salient features, and having lots of practice using new discourse and socio-pragmatic strategies. Such training for the workplace context can be a challenge for employers or new employees (LoCastro, 2012).