

Lesson 34

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 no 171

In contemporary learning and teaching computers and linguistics go hand in hand. There are two main branches of linguistics which are concerned with the study of language in relation to computers.

1. Computational linguistics
2. Computer Assisted Language Learning

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Computer and machine –readable texts

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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.

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Corpora help us understand 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 $6 \times 5 = 30$ 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.

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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 metaphors or another language.

Countless other reasons also contribute to the failure of word-for-word translation.

There are two models of translation

In a transfer translation model, one set of rules or procedures is established for translating from language A into language B and a second set for translating in reverse that is from B into A.

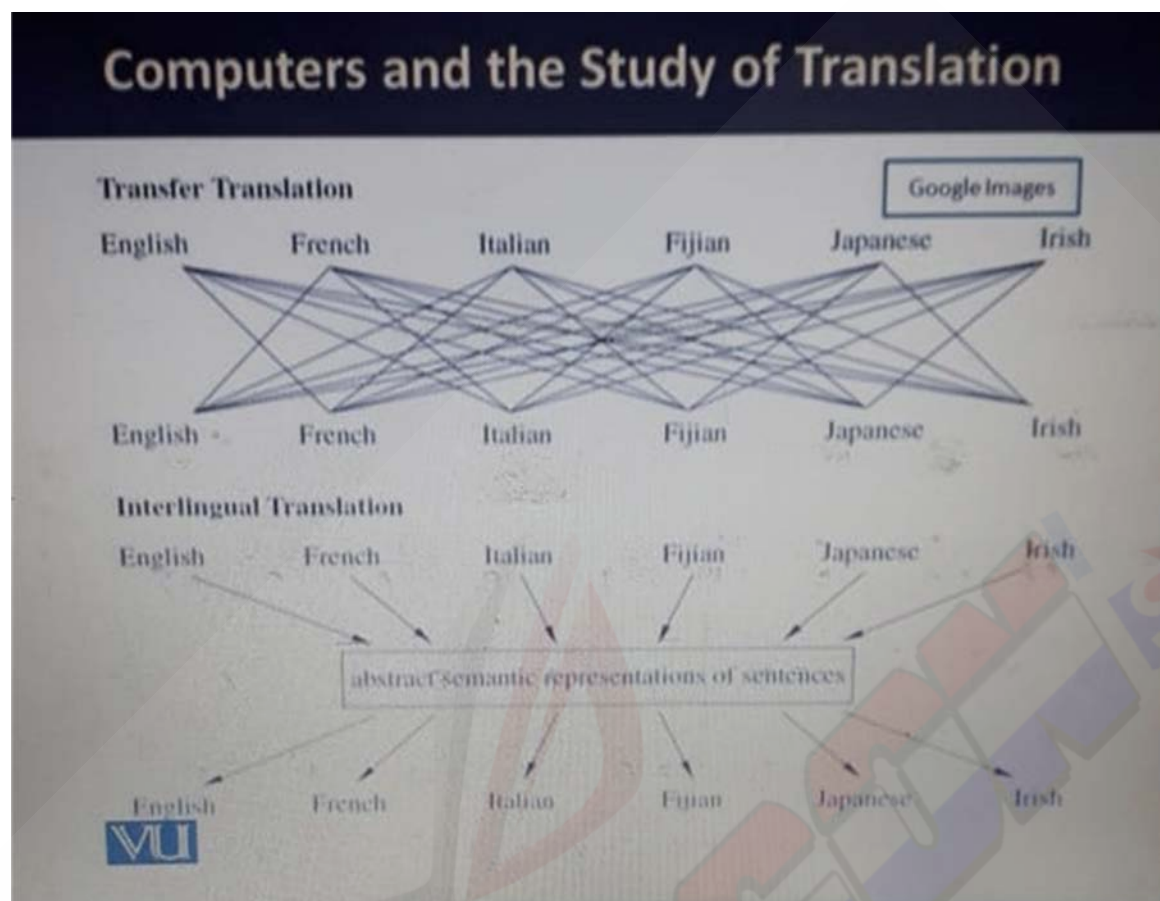
The rules would have to be completely explicit, and a set of procedures in each direction would be needed, because it is not symmetrical.

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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 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.

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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.

My work in marking noun phrase as definite or indefinite, in choosing between active and passive structures, and in indicating contrast by intonation, for example

Other aspects of texts such as given and new information have little or no textual realization and would be extremely challenging or even impossible for a computer to identify.

If you have ever used a grammar checker, you know that even rudimentary ones readily spot passive verbs. What checkers cannot do is distinguish between those passive that effectively serve a pragmatic function such as topicalization and those that do not.

Computer programs can identify pragmatic categories only if they are somehow marked in the text.

Example: most English noun phrase can be automatically identified as definite or indefinite.

But other categories-for example-topic, givenness and referentiality- cannot be identified automatically.

If researchers wanted to make use of such categories, their texts would have to be manually tagged to reflect those categories.

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.

Topic no: 175

As we know, pragmatics has not been yet thoroughly explored in computational linguistics and corpus studies.

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Lesson 35

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# 176

Introduction to information structure

We use language to state one thing or other

☐ There are instances when the same words are used into two different versions.

❑ Although every sentence in various version is grammatically and semantically well formed, still something is strikingly different from these version

Example: Version 1

1. At 3am my Santa Clara fire department evacuated two department buildings at the corner of the Country Club Drive at Fifth Avenue
2. Oil had been discovered leaking from a furnace in the basement of one of the buildings.
3. Firefighters sprayed chemical foam over the oil for several hours
- 4 .By 8 am situation was under control
5. Any danger or explosion of fire had been averted and the leaky furnace was sealed.
6. Residents of the two apartments of building were given temporary shelter to Country Club High School Gymnasium.
7. They regained possession of their apartments at 5.pm.

Example: Version 2

At 3am my Santa Clara fire department evacuated two department buildings at the corner of the Country Club Drive at Fifth Avenue

Oil had been discovered leaking from a furnace in the basement of one of the buildings. Firefighters sprayed chemical foam over the oil for several hours By 8 am situation was under control

Any danger or explosion of fire had been averted and the leaky furnace was sealed. Residents of the two apartments of building were given temporary shelter to Country Club High School Gymnasium. They regained possession of their apartments at 5.pm

- ❑ 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 element at the wrong
- ❑ Though, grammatical correct the sentence structure of version 2 seems to be inappropriate to this news report.
- ❑ Speakers and writers are responsible for foregrounding certain elements and backgrounding others
- ❑ In language text 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#177

☐ There are two main categories of information structure

- Given information
- 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.

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☐ Given information can be realized in sentences in condensed form, e.g. instead of saying Hassan ate the biscuits, the speaker could s ☐

☐ Given information can be realized by a single speaker, in a single sentence, For instance:

Speaker; A man called while you were on your break .He said He'll call you later.

☐ Use of HE represents given information as it has just been introduced in the previous sentence thus, as it assumed to be in the addressee's mind.

☐ 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 its 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.

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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.

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- ? 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).
- ? The topic is not always the given information

For example

- ? Hassan ate the pizza and for his little sister, he preferred the ice-cream.
- ? In the second sentence the noun phrase his little sister is new not given information but it is the topic

Contrast

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- ? 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.

Test for contrast: If a noun phrase can be followed by rather than, its contrastive.

Speaker A: Did Matte see the accident /

Speaker B: No Sara, rather than Matt saw the accident.

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 – 179

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Andrea: Who 's at the door?

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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.

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Proper nouns and pronouns

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- Moreover, see this example
- I' have a Susie who here hasn't paid her taxes since 2008.
- Use the mark of the indefinite article 'a' marks "Susie" as indefinite
- It marks the fact that neither the speaker nor the addressee knows the particular individual who goes by the name of Susie is the new information in the discourse.
- . 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.

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

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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.

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instance: 1)

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☐ 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

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 181 :-

The nature of pragmatic investigation

- Mainly linguistic although not all pragmatics, view their subject as science
- They see the purpose of linguistics as bringing order to the untidy set of data that we call "language"
- In linguistics investigation, a favored method is to frame and test the hypothesis
- To take quite arbitrary examples, someone say 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 hypothesis that two-year-old can understand indirect speech acts.
- We can imagine investigable topics that might be turned into testable hypothesis, such as

1. Family members show that they are displeased with one another by responding to prepositional content rather than illocutionary force of each other utterances, treating indirect speech acts as though they were direct speech acts.

2. When parents and children talk to each other, indirect request are more commonly associated with money talk than with personal hygiene and bedroom tidying talk
 3. When two years old do not complain with indirect requests, this is matter of choice rather than result of lack of pragmatics understanding.
- The kind of research that studies real, observable phenomena, usually known as 'empirical'.
 - For example; the case of two-year-old to a series of direct and indirect requests.
 - The research method here involves following procedure
 - Frame of testable hypothesis suggested by some observation about the way that world appears to work
 - Design an experiment that enable you to collect data which test this hypothesis
 - Collect the data under experimental conditions
 - Quantify the data in order to determine whether or not the hypothesis is proved
 - Consider the implications of the findings and whether follow-up experiments would be useful
 - Very often empirical research of his sort tries to determine whether there is a significant, as opposed to a chance, association between two variables.
 - For example: whether there is significant association between age and understanding of indirect speech acts as demonstrated by the compliance with indirect request.

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:- 182

Collecting data for pragmatics analysis

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- Your data will usually be elicited
- By designing the experiments very carefully to make sure that you are collecting data that enables 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 response to indirect requests only to realize afterwards that the result reflected the extent to which the requests themselves were palatable.
- There are some 'dos' and don'ts when it comes to data collection
- One of the most obvious is the 'observer's paradox', or affect that the observer or collector has on the nature of the data itself
- 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 point 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
- Give some thought to whether you need to use all the data or just some part of them
- Don't be ambitious: one hour of conversation involving several speakers can take days or weeks to transcribe, thus, limit the amount of data that you can transcribe and usefully analyze- two or three minutes of talk can keep you occupied for hours
- If you collect data featuring more than two or three speakers, you are guaranteed to have problems determining who the speaker is
- One solution can be to record data on video but this is unusually impractical
- Another option is note the opening words of each speakers, and can be 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.

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Transcription of conversation

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- Other fillers and uptake signals e.g. 'uh-uh' and 'yeah' and audible breathing (.hh) can be indicated
- A more difficult issue is whether and how to represent intonation and pitch; easiest solution for distinctive pitch prominence might be 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 talk
- Widely used conventions is parenthesis, 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 parenthesis and points, with '(.)' equal to one syllable length pause, and '(..)' equal to two syllable length pause.

- Another sequencing phenomenon that needs that need is to be marked is the overlap of two speakers
- The start of an overlap marked by double slash '//'.
The end of the overlap can be marked by an asterisk'', which may be indicating in both speakers' utterances.
- An alternative is to use deep brackets '[]'
- You may also want to indicate an important non-linguistic feature.
- This may be done with square or angled brackets as in:
John: yeah somebody with a cheese toasties machine
Susie: <laughs>yeah
- Although these are relatively widely agreed conventions, there is considerable minor variation in the way that different linguists use and adapt them to their own purposes.

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:-184

Investigable topics

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

1. Conversational strategies

how does turn-taking works- in general terms and in a particular conversation?

According to what principal 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 topic have internal structure? The unit of conversation-insertion sequences, adjacency pairs, pore-sequences. How are contributions cued and how does any contribution project beyond its moment of utterance?

2. Activity types and institutional use of language

The structure and pragmatic properties of seminars, interview, etc. also talk types; the structure of telephone, conversations, ordering sequences in restaurants, contributions to radio phone-ins, etc. to what extend these speech events goal oriented?

And to what extend do they determine their own structure? How is talk constrained and how do participants indicate constraints on allowable contribution?

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 to others

4. Intercultural pragmatics

How members of different cultural groups accommodate and react to socio-pragmatics differences

5. Context

Does the external social structure determine the way talk is organized and the type of contribution that occur, or is the context created by the talk itself?

6. Folk view 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.

Topic: -185

Learning by doing

- Grundy made some comments about ways of learning pragmatics by doing data-driven pragmatic analysis.
- Generally speaking, students 'do' empirical pragmatics in the last year of their course
- Their work consists of recording naturally occurring data such as;
- Conversation, meetings, talk, institutional talk, media talk, an instruct sequence, classroom talk, an interview, in fact, whether interest 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 suggestion from there 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.
- Amid the shouting and the tears, two things become clear the mother was constantly presupposing that they were going to leave and the child was constantly striving for different ways of making what had been implicature in the early part of exchange more and more explicit.
- Therefore, you could see a constancy in the mother's contribution and progressive development in the child's contribution as she became more and more engaged
- Put like this, it seems simple, but it takes a lot of hard study and careful analysis to uncover such patterns from complex data.
- Now imagine you had collect the data and try to find out how can you find a key to unravel what's going on in it?

Lesson 37

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: 186

Ambiguity, Disambiguation and Vagueness

AMBIGUITY

- 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
- For example, she hit a man with umbrella
- This sentence gives two meanings
- First, the lady used umbrella to hit the man. Second, the man was holding an umbrella and the lady hit him

TYPES OF AMBIGUITY

- Structural ambiguity is due to the syntactic structure of the utterance, as in :They are fighting fish
- Lexical ambiguity 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

- 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
- For example, if the speaker utters 'I've got to go to the bank before we go shopping', it is unlikely that either the hearer or the speaker will become consciously aware that.
- Bank might refer to a geographical feature by a river rather than a branch of a financial institution

Vagueness

- 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
- If he has no hair then he is bald
- Vagueness in this example is, on what proposition we are calling him bald

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: 187

Attributive, Argumentation, Referential

Attributive Concept

- The term 'attributive' is used in different ways in pragmatics and related fields.
- 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: specially, it is interpretive use in which there is an 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 there 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

- This is a distinction between two apparently different ways of using definite descriptions, made by the philosopher Keith Donnellan
- 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)
- For example, suppose two people are talking about tomorrow's race, in which there is just one jaguar, they know that the jaguar is faster than the other cars. They have no idea who will be driving the jaguar. One says to the other (The jaguar driver has an unfair advantage. What he means can be glossed as) The jaguar driver, whoever he is, has an unfair advantage

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: 188

Code model

What is a code model?

- A model of communication according to which communication involves the transmission of a 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
- The terms message, signal, transmitter and receiver are from information theory
- Are 20th century mathematical version of the code model, but the code model itself has been the default or 'common sense' model of communication for much longer

- In a code, the relationship between the signal and what it encodes is logically arbitrary. In this sense, natural language is indeed a code
- 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 sentence level
- For example, two different hearer can encode this sentence differently:
- Woman without her man is nothing
- (A) Woman; without her, man is nothing (B) Woman is nothing without her man

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: 189

Communicative competence

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- This teaching tends not so much to be concerned with pragmatics in a narrow sense (implicatures, reference assignment, etc.) As with teaching social convention about how the language is used

- For example, a speaker should have competence to talk to a lady, old man, a professional differently.
- Any example from a job interview:
- Our company is in crises. How can you manage it?
- You can ask what kind of crises your company is facing? Are they economic or related to image-building?
- This is communicative competence how perfectly you answer after analyzing the situation!

Activity

- Consider that, you are in a job interview.
- Owner: Why are you applying for this job?
- Owner: Why did u chose our company?
- Is there any other option if you are rejected from this job?
- How would you compete with the competitors?

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: 190

Demonstrative

Demonstrative

- A group of indexical words or phrases that are used to refer, including 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
- 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 the nearer of two, then 'this book' is preferred are nearer the hearer, when again 'that book' is acceptable
- In English and other languages the demonstratives are frequently used for discourse deixis, an in: "I am glad you told me that" and " This is what I'll be talking about today"

Activity

- Find a partner and give him a sentence along with a question and practice the demonstrative. For example
- Sentence: She bought a pair of shoes. The shoes were fantastic?
- Answer: Those shoes which were bought.

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 38

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.

Folk Pragmatics (Topic -192)

Folk Pragmatics

- Pre-theoretical knowledge, beliefs and expectations about communication and use of language
- The term 'folk pragmatics' is modelled on 'folk physics' (pre- theoretical expectations about heat, light, how objects move, etc. (Allott, 1988)
- 'Folk psychology' (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, mean, 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. In physics this transition was underway several centuries ago (e.g. force, energy).
- In pragmatics, a younger science, we can see it happening in Grice's use of 'what is said' in a 'favoured sense'.

- It is possible that the dominant folk theory of communication is the code model. If so, Grice's work makes a considerable break from folk pragmatics (Allott, 1988).

TOPIC: 191

Ellipsis

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. The next two examples the ellipted materials 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.
- 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 form of disambiguation
- 'Semantic' and 'pragmatic' ellipsis. The question in brackets illustrate in what the meaning seems unspecific:
- Marvelous! (What is Marvelous?)
- The door is open. (which door)
- He finished his book. (Finished doing what with it?)
- On the top shelf. (What is o the top shelf?)
- It is some time argued that all utterances that are elliptical in this loose sense are in fact syntactically elliptical

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. (Philosophymasters.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. (Philosophymasters.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-193

Formal and Experimental Pragmatics

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Formal pragmatics is largely an extension from formal, model-theoretic semantics into the domain of more context sensitive elements of speaker meaning (Allott, 1988).

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- 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, including definiteness and indefiniteness, presupposition, scalar implicature, conventional implicature and focus.

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- 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.

Experimental Pragmatics

- The application of experimental techniques, largely from psycholinguistics, to 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.
- 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).

- Typical experimental work has investigated the timing and order of events in interpretation.
- Some experiments have concerned the development of pragmatic ability.

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-194

Cognitive Pragmatics

- If pragmatics is the study of meaning-in-context, then cognitive pragmatics can be broadly defined as encompassing the study of the cognitive principles and processes involved in the construction of meaning-in-context.

- Cognitive pragmatics focuses on the mental states and, to some extent, the mental correlates of the participants of a conversation. (Bara, 2010)
- The mental processes of human communication is 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 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)
- Cognitive linguists examine the cognitive basis of language and language use.
- pragmatics, relevance theorists and Others work on the assumption that human cognition has specializations for language use.
- cognitive linguists do not make Sharp distinctions between language and its uses, or between semantics and pragmatics.

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# 195 Fragment

• Linguistic material that is less than a complete sentence. Many utterances are of 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?’ 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.

Activity

• Keeping fragment in mind, answer these questions.

• Who are you waiting for?

• Where are you at the moment?

• How was the weather yesterday?

• Are you well?

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#196

Metaphor

- A type of figurative speech. Typically, a metaphor ascribes to an entity a property that it does not, strictly and literally speaking, possesses, 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.'
- Sometimes a complete sentence may be used metaphorically, as in Mary's response in this example:
 - John: how is the banking system these days?
 - Mary: Big beasts are stumbling and falling all around. (Allott, 1988)

Synecdoche

- A figure of speech in which an expression that denotes part of something is used to refer to the whole.
- For example 'mouth' in the 'I've got six hungry mouths to feed' or an expression denoting a whole is made to refer to a part of that whole, i.e. 'all of Scotland is up in arms over the poll tax'.
- This sentence means that 'people' in Scotland are....
- Another form of synecdoche is using an expression denoting the material that something is made from to stand for that thing.
- For example: 'willow' for cricket bat is 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 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).

Topic# 197

Hyperbole

- The figure of speech also known as 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, a hyperbole is a blatant violation of the first maxim of quality.
- For example, the speaker is not literally starving. Or in 2nd example, the destination might be in the next street but the speaker is just trying to exaggerate.

Irony

- 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)