

“Every Next level”
of life will demand a different
YOU

The Capt.’s have generated
all the possible key points
OF
“Semantics and Pragmatics” ENG508
FOR
Grand Quiz 2020

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Lesson 10

- ❖ 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..
- ❖ 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.

- ❖ 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.
- ❖ 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).
- ❖ 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.
- ❖ 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

- ❖ ☆Speakers assume certain information which is already known by their **listeners** and that information is called **presupposition**.
- ❖ ☆**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.
- ❖ ☆**Presupposition failure** is one phenomenon that caused problems for a truth relations approach.
- ❖ ☆**Presupposition triggers** are the types of **presupposition** produced by particular words or **construction**.
- ❖ ☆. Many **presuppositions** are produced by the presence of certain words (**lexical triggers**) mostly **=verbs'**.
- ❖ ☆there is a class of verbs like **'regret'** and **'realize'** called **factive verbs** because they presuppose the truth of their complement clause.
- ❖ ☆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**.

Lesson 12

- ❖ ☆**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**.
- ❖ ☆**Tense** is a category which allows a **speaker** to relate situations to time. For example, **'they will cut the grass tomorrow'** is future tense.

GRAND QUIZ

- ❖ ☆ **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).
- ❖ ☆ She is coming.' (**incomplete**), _She has come.' (**complete**)
- ❖ ☆ **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.)
- ❖ ☆ There are **two** types of **modality**.
- ❖ ☆ **Epistemic Modality** expresses the degree of knowledge how sure the speaker is in his **communication**
- ❖ ☆ **Deontic Modality** shows, where the verbs mark the speaker's attitude to **social factors** of obligation, responsibility, and permission.
- ❖ ☆ **Mood** is the quality of verb which conveys a **writer's** attitude or feelings towards a subject (Saeed, 2004).
- ❖ ☆ **Indicative** moods express a fact, opinion, or question based on **realist** form.
- ❖ ☆ **Imperative** moods make **direct** commands or requests. For example, _show me the money.'
- ❖ ☆ **Evidentiality** is a semantic category which allows a speaker to communicate his/her attitude to the source of his/her **information**.
- ❖ ☆ **Witness Evidentiality**: when an information source is obtained from the **direct** observation, e.g. _I saw him breaking the window'.

Lesson 13

- ❖ 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** (Givón, 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,
- ❖ **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**.
- ❖ **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**.

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.
- ❖ The **first** problem is really about **delimiting** particular roles. The extreme case would be to

theta-roles

identify individual thematic roles for each verb: thus we would say that a verb like 'beat' gives two 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

- ❖ **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.

- ❖ **Grammar** is **not restricted** to the study of form or function words.
- ❖ Grammar 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.

GRAND QUIZ

- ❖ **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**.
- ❖ 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.
- ❖ **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**.
- ❖ A system of grammatical description based on the **functional relations** that noun groups have to

Instrumental

the main verb of a sentence (Collins Dictionary Online). Palmer has given three cases ‘Agentive, 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 **Objective** is the **semantically** most neutral case.

Lesson 15

- ❖ 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.
- ❖ **Davidsonian Semanticists** agree with other **formal semanticists** that the meaning of a sentence consists in its **truth-conditions**
- ❖ **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.
- ❖ **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.
- ❖ **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.
- ❖ 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.
- ❖ 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** 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)
- ❖ **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**.

GRAND QUIZ

- ❖ **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.
- ❖ 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'**
- ❖ **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

- ❖ **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).
- ❖ **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.
- ❖ 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.
- ❖ **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'**.
- ❖ 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).

- ❖ **Lexical rules** take **general form**, within the same formula **-derivation of one lexical entry from another**.
- ❖ Lexical rules 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).
- ❖ **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

- ❖ Pragmatics is concerned with — **meaning in context** (Chapman, 2011).
- ❖ Pragmatics is the study of meaning **as communicated by the speaker and interpreted by the listener.**
- ❖ Pragmatics includes **background** knowledge context.
- ❖ **Pragmatics** is a relationship between the linguistic form and communicative function.
- ❖ 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.
- ❖ **Social pragmatics** is common with the fields such as conversational analysis and discourse analysis.
- ❖ 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. **Pragma linguistics** - deals with the more linguistic end of the pragmatic spectrum.
- ❖ 2. Sociopragmatics - see usage as primarily determined by **social factors** in communication.
- ❖ 3. **Applied** pragmatics - refers to practical problems of interaction in situations
- ❖ 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**.
- ❖ Pragmatics can perhaps be seen as an adjunct to **linguistic theory**.
- ❖ 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.**
- ❖ 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'.**
- ❖ 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. '

Lesson 18

- ❖ Modern use and practice of pragmatics is credited to the **American philosophical doctrine** of pragmatism.
- ❖ **Grice's (1975)** concern of conversational meanings enlightened the modern treatment of meaning by distinguishing two kinds of meaning, natural and non-natural.
- ❖ Pragmatics should center on a more practical **dimension of meaning** (conversational meaning) which was later formulated in several ways (Levinson, 1983; Leech, 1983).

GRAND QUIZ

- ❖ Practical concerns also resulted in hallmark discoveries of the Cooperative Principle by Grice (1975) and the Politeness Principle by Leech (1983).
- ❖ Austin organized a group of philosophers whose work is known as ordinary language philosophy.
- ❖ According to Strawson, Austin's interest led him to neglect the important point that many speech acts are not in this sense social.
- ❖ 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.
- ❖ 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.
- ❖ 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.
- ❖ 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'.
- ❖ 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.
- ❖ 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.

Lesson 19

- ❖ 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.
- ❖ 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.
- ❖ **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 **50 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?“
- ❖ 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“?

GRAND QUIZ

- ❖ 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.
- ❖ **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

- ❖ 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**.
- ❖ The term 'reference deals with the relationship which holds between **an expression** and what that expression stands for.

- ❖ **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.
- ❖ **Coherence and Cohesion** at text level can help the hearer to interpret the text looking at interpersonal, situational, cultural knowledge.
- ❖ **Deixis** is referring expression which points to the **referent in the context**.
- ❖ There are **three** types of deixis: **Person, Place, Time**.
- ❖ The expressions which are used to refer an item within the **same text** is known as **endophoric reference**.
- ❖ If the expressions 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.
- ❖ **Cataphoric** type is opposite to **anaphora**.
- ❖ 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**

- ❖ **Substitution** helps the writer or speaker to hold the text together and avoid repetition.
- ❖ The other form of grammatical cohesion is **Ellipsis**.
- ❖ Lexical devices help to maintain **cohesion** in the text.
- ❖ Of all the lexical cohesion devices, the most common form is **repetition**.
- ❖ **Superordinate** is an **umbrella term** which hides subordinate terms in it.
- ❖ The **general word** is a **higher level** superordinate.

Lesson 21

- ❖ The British Philosopher **H. Paul Grice (1913–1988)** argued for an **intention-based theory of meanings**.
- ❖ **Grice** was the first to illustrate the distinction between **semantic and pragmatic** meanings.
- ❖ **Semantic** utterance means in the **abstract**, and **Pragmatic** 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)**.
- ❖ “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” **stated by Grice**.
- ❖ He described despite the haphazard or even agonistic nature of **human communication** – most discourse participants are **quite capable** of making themselves understood.

- ❖ Grice identified the **Cooperative Principle** as a **super principle** or a **supreme principle** (1989)
- ❖ He generalized **four conversational maxims**.
- ❖ **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.
- ❖ Speakers observe the **cooperative principle** and maxims that allows hearers to **draw inferences** about the **speakers' intentions** and **applied meaning**.
- ❖ **Flouting** is when speakers appear not to follow the **maxims** but expect hearer to appreciate the **meaning implied**. (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.
- ❖ **Violation** takes place by speaker intentionally or when the speaker knows that the hearer will not know the truth and will only understand the **surface meaning**.
- ❖ Maxim violation is unostentatiously, quiet **deceiving**.
- ❖ **Violating the maxim Quantity** –not giving the required information and violating maxim of quantity.
- ❖ **Violating the maxim Quality** –by not being sincere and giving him the wrong information

- ❖ **Violating the maxim relation** –distracting and changing the topic shows the violation of the maxim of relation.
- ❖ **Violating the maxim manner** lying is violating the maxim of manner.
- ❖ **Grice** is regularly accused of promulgating a theory that assumes too friendly a spirit of communicative interaction among people.
- ❖ **Tannen (1986)** claims that Grice’s maxims of cooperative discourse can’t apply to **real conversations**“.
- ❖ **(Tannen, 1986)** stated that in conversation, —we wouldn’t want to simply blurt out what we mean, because we’re judging the needs for **involvement and independence**.
- ❖ He assumes that Grice’s maxims are **prescriptions, overlap between the four maxims**, and major objection to Grice’s model is **different cultures**.

Lesson 22

- ❖ **Wilson and Sperber** proposed Relevance theory in 1980s.
- ❖ 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.
- ❖ **Relevance theory** is seen as a pragmatic theory as well as cognitive theory .
- ❖ 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)

- ❖ 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.
- ❖ 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.
- ❖ The **"explicature,"** or **"explicit content"**, of an utterance of a sentence is a —development of the sentence's —logical form.
- ❖ An **implicature** is built from what the speaker says in **uttering** the sentence.
- ❖ **Explicatures and implicatures** (implicit premises and conclusions) are arrived at by a **process** of **mutual parallel adjustment**.
- ❖ Explicature and implicature **sound similar**, but these both are **different** from each other.
- ❖ Explicature, **conveyed content** - —orally and graphologically form of an utterance.
- ❖ Implicature is something which is **implied in an utterance**. (hidden concept).
- ❖ The **conceptual-procedural** distinction was introduced into relevance theory by **Diane Blakemore (1987)** to account for differences between regular content' words and discourse connectives .
- ❖ The vast majority of **lexical items** have **conceptual meaning**, including common nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs and prepositions.

GRAND QUIZ

- ❖ **Relevance theorists** have claimed that words such as **‘but’**, **‘however’**, and inferential **‘so’** encode procedures indicate something about the **context** in which they are to be processed.
- ❖ Two ways to distinguish between conceptual and procedural meaning (Wilson and Sperber, 1993: 16): Conceptual meaning is available to **consciousness, and is compositional**, whereas procedurally encoded information is none of them
- ❖ **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**.
- ❖ The theory says that the **less effort** it takes to **recover a fact**, the greater the **relevance**.
- ❖ 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: **Lack of interaction** and does not include **cultural or social dimensions**.