

Lesson-9

Lexical Semantics: Fields and Collocations

- ❖ Many of the basic ideas in this topic are derived from de Saussure's notion of 'value'.
- ❖ He pointed out that a knight on a chess board is a knight not because of any inherent quality (shape, size, etc.), but because of what it can do in relation to the other pieces on the board (Saussure, 1959:110).
- ❖ He stressed this relational aspect of language, saying that there were 'only differences and no positive terms'.
- ❖ As differences are in some way related. For instance, he argued that 'sheep' in English has a different value from 'mouton' in French because English has also the word 'mutton'.
- ❖ Meanings of words have their association with other words which can be in the form of paradigmatic/syntagmatic relations, sense relations, collocation and idiomatic relations.
- ❖ Paradigmatic relations hold between concepts belonging to the same grammatical category.
- ❖ These relations cover a wide variety of associations between words, including morphological and phonetic.
- ❖ For instance, in a 'red door' and 'green door', 'red' and 'green' are in a paradigmatic relation to each other.
- ❖ A paradigm is a set of linguistic or other units that can be substituted for each other in the same position within a sequence or structure.
- ❖ In this sense, it may be constituted by all words sharing the same grammatical function, since the substitution of one for another does not disturb the syntax of a sentence.
- ❖ Linguistics often refers to the paradigmatic dimension of language as the 'vertical axis' of selection (Oxford Concise Dictionary),
- ❖ Syntagmatic relations hold between two or more words co-present in a sequence. Combinations based on sequential relations are called syntagms.
- ❖ The notion of a syntagm applies among others to a group of words and to complex units of every size and kind, for example, phrases, sentences.
- ❖ Syntagm is a linguistic term designating any combination of units which are arranged in a significant sequence.
- ❖ A sentence is a syntagm of words.
- ❖ A meaning of a word is dependent partly on its relation to other words in the same conceptual area. The kinds of semantic fields vary from culture to culture.
- ❖ Anthropologists use them to study belief systems and reasoning across cultural groups.
- ❖ According to Brinton (2000), a semantic field denotes a segment of reality symbolized by a set of related words.
- ❖ The words in a semantic field share a common semantic property.
- ❖ Most often, fields are defined by subject matter, such as body parts, landforms, diseases, colors, foods, or kinship relations (Brinton, 2000).
- ❖ The words in a particular semantic field are —incompatible! (Palmer, 1996).
- ❖ A creature cannot be denoted both as a lion and an elephant at the same time.
- ❖ Words in a semantic field are not synonymous, but are all used to talk about the same general phenomenon.
- ❖ The words anger, happiness, and sadness are not synonymous, but they are a part of the semantic field called —emotional state!.
- ❖ A collocation is either a highly frequent co-occurrence of two or more words or a combination of words which represents a fully grammatical structure, e.g. a noun phrase (Sinclair 2003: 173).
- ❖ Firth argued that "you shall know a word by the company it keeps" (1957: 11).
- ❖ Collocation is a familiar grouping of words, especially words that habitually appear together and thereby convey meaning by association.

- ❖ **Collocations** also define a sequence of words or terms that co-occur more often than would be expected by chance. e.g., Strong tea is a correct expression and Powerful tea is considered as the wrong expression.
- ❖ **Idioms** are expressions whose meaning cannot be inferred from the meaning of its parts.
- ❖ Usually, these are translated with **semantically** and not necessarily lexically equivalents in the target language.
- ❖ Majority of **idioms** are **homophonous**, such as ‘by and large’ or ‘far and away’ (Cruse, 1986: 37). They are **grammatically** well-formed and semantically transparent expressions.
- ❖ We cannot replace its parts with other **semantically or syntactically** equivalent lexemes.
- ❖ An **idiom** is a rigid word combination to which no generalities apply; neither can its meaning be determined from the meaning of its parts; nor can it participate in the usual word-order variations.
- ❖ **Idioms** involve collocation of a special kind, for instance, ‘kick the bucket’, ‘fly off the handle’ and ‘red herring’.

Lesson-10

Sentence relations and Truth

- ❖ **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.
- ❖ 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.
- ❖ 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’.
- ❖ **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’.
- ❖ **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).
- ❖ 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’.
- ❖ The sentence that we are talking about (**object language**) and what we are saying about it (**meta-language**).
- ❖ However, much of the work in **truth-conditional** semantics is of a highly technical nature, and it cannot be rightly evaluated without a detailed exposition.

Lesson-11

Presupposition

- ❖ In an **ordinary language**, of course, to presuppose something means to assume it, and the narrower technical use in semantics is related to this. Presupposition refers to the assumptions **implicitly** made by the speakers and the listeners that are necessary for the correct interpretation of utterance (**Leech**).
- ❖ It allows us the freedom not to state everything in our **communication**.

- ❖ **Speaker**s assume certain information which is already known by their listeners and that information is called **presupposition**.
- ❖ **Presupposition** is treated as a relationship between two propositions.
- ❖ In the first approach, sentences are viewed as **external** objects.
- ❖ **Meaning** is seen as an attribute of sentences rather than something constructed by the participants.
- ❖ Second approach views sentences as the **utterances** of individuals engaged in a communication act.
- ❖ The aim is to develop the strategies that **speakers and hearers** use to communicate with one another.
- ❖ Thus, we might look at **communication** from the speaker's viewpoint.
- ❖ **Presupposition** is one of a number of inferences that the listener might make on the basis of what the speaker has just said.
- ❖ The first approach is essentially **semantic** and the second pragmatic.
- ❖ **Presupposition** failure is one phenomenon that caused problems for a truth relations approach.
- ❖ It has been observed that using a name or a **definite** description to refer, presupposes the existence of the named or described entity.
- ❖ It shows that if q is false, the status of p is **dubious**, possibly neither true nor false.
- ❖ This problem for **truth-based** theories is known as a truth-value gap.
- ❖ Presupposition triggers are the types of presupposition produced by particular words or **constructions**. Some of these triggers derive from syntactic structures.
- ❖ Many presuppositions are produced by the presence of certain words (**lexical triggers**) mostly _verbs
- ❖ 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

Sentence Semantics - I : Situations

- ❖ **Language** allows the speaker to classify situations by using semantic distinctions of actions, states, processes, tenses and, aspects.
- ❖ **Classification** of situations helps us to understand the meaning of a discourse deeply.
- ❖ **Two** common situation types are **Static and Dynamic** which create different situations with the help of lexical categories in verbs.
- ❖ **Knows, thinks, loves, like, have, remains** etc. are **stative** verbs and do not contain physical actions.
- ❖ **Dynamic** type contains action verbs such as **eat, drive, walk**.
- ❖ In events, the speaker views the situation as a whole, e.g. _the mine blew up._ While, in processes, the speaker views, as it were, the internal structure of a **dynamic** situation, e.g. _he ran to the forest. Processes can be divided into **inchoatives and resultatives**.
- ❖ **Tense** is a category which allows a speaker to relate situations to time. For example, _they will cut the grass tomorrow_ is future tense. Aspect System allows the speaker to relate situation and time, and to view an event in various ways: as complete or incomplete.
- ❖ **Aspects** have to do not with the location of an event in time, but with its temporal distribution or contour (Saeed, 2004). For example: _She is coming._ (incomplete), _She has come._ (complete).
- ❖ **Modality** is a linguistic category (like aspect or tense) that modifies the meaning of the event or action we talk about to include ways to —influence the event described.
- ❖ **Modality** may express what the speaker wants to do (give permission, describe ability, suggest, request, offer, prohibit, express desires or necessity, etc.)
- ❖ It also expresses whether the speaker believes, or is sure that what he or she is saying is true. There are **two** types of modality:
- ❖ **Epistemic Modality** expresses the degree of knowledge how sure the speaker is in his communication and

- ❖ **Deontic Modality** shows, where the verbs mark the speaker's attitude to social factors of obligation, responsibility, and permission.
- ❖ **Mood** is the quality of verb which conveys a writer's attitude or feelings towards a subject (Saeed, 2004). Mood also shows the feelings of a speaker at time of speaking.
- ❖ **Indicative moods** express a fact, opinion, or question based on realist form.
- ❖ **Potential moods**: The word 'Potential' stands for probability. So, potential moods may have specific verb ending. Conditional uses infinitives with auxiliary verbs such as **have, be, should**, etc.
- ❖ **Subjunctive moods** contrast with indicative moods because there is an element of uncertainty in subjunctive moods. These are used for wishes, beliefs, exhortations, etc. e.g. 'May you live long!' (Saeed, 2004)
- ❖ **Imperative moods** make direct commands or requests. For example, 'show me the money.'
- ❖ **Evidentiality** is a semantic category which allows a speaker to communicate his/her attitude to the source of his/her information.
- ❖ It further allows the speaker to say whether the statement relies on personal first-hand knowledge, or was acquired from another source (Saeed, 2004). There are different types of evidentiality:
- ❖ **Witness Evidentiality**: when an information source is obtained from the direct observation, e.g. 'I saw him breaking the window'. It is usually visual information (**Eyewitness**)
- ❖ **Sensory Evidentiality**: indicates that the speaker's evidence for truth is derived from the speaker's own sensory experience.
- ❖ **Inferential Evidentiality**: Indicates that the speaker makes his/her statement based on a deduction from facts and not on a direct observation of the action itself. (Aikhenvald, 2004, 2006)
- ❖ **Reportative Evidentiality**: Indicates that the information was reported to the speaker by another person. It can be quotes, rumours or a news report.
- ❖ An assumed **evidential** indicates that the information source is not based on a mere guess but is rather based on the general knowledge or **habitual** activities.

Lesson-13

Sentence Semantics – II : Participants

- ❖ A set of **semantic** choices which face a speaker seeking to describe a situation how to portray the roles of any entities involved.
- ❖ Some roles have a number of labels in **semantics** such as: participant roles (Allan, 1986), deep semantic cases (Fillmore, 1968), semantic roles (Givon, 1990), and thematic roles (Dowty, 1991; Jackendoff, 1990).
- ❖ **Thematic roles** were introduced in generative grammar during the mid-1960s and early 1970s.
- ❖ In **thematic roles**, entities are described by the action of the verb.
- ❖ **Thematic roles** can be defined as: the roles that referents of the arguments of a verb play in the event or as the state that the verb denotes.
- ❖ A **semantic role** is the underlying relationship that a participant has with the main verb in a clause. Grammatical relations (subject, object, etc.) are **morphosyntactic**, whereas semantic roles (agent, patient, instrument...) are **conceptual** notions.
- ❖ **Semantic roles** do not correspond directly to grammatical relations.
- ❖ **Agent** is the initiator of some action, capable of acting with volition.
- ❖ **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.
- ❖ **Beneficiary** is the entity for whose benefit the action was performed.
- ❖ **Instrument** is the means by which an action is performed or something comes about.

- ❖ **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.
- ❖ 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.
- ❖ 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. Awaits shattered the rock. Awaits 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.
- ❖ **Dowty (1991)** proposes a solution where **theta-roles** are not semantic primitives but are defined in terms of entailment of the predicate.

Lesson-14

Semantics and Grammar

- ❖ **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
- ❖ Grammar is not restricted to the study of form or function words. It is concerned, more widely, with categories such as **tense, gender, number** and with syntactic functions such as subject and object
- ❖ **_Gender' and _Number'** but English has strictly no grammatical gender at all. It has, of course, pronouns he, she, it but, these are essentially the markers of sex.
- ❖ **Noun** class of countable and uncountable, or count and mass. Examples of count nouns are a cat, a book, an apple, etc.
- ❖ **Mass nouns** may occur with no article or with some indefinite quantifiers. For example, some butter, some milk, little water etc.
- ❖ The category of **person** (first person I, we, second person you, and the third person he, she, it, they) is often closely associated with the number and with gender in the verbal forms of languages.
- ❖ The **first** person relates to a speaker while, the second person relates to the hearer.
- ❖ 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'**.
- ❖ **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.
- ❖ **Transformation** is where the grammatical categories not only affect one element (verb), but also affect the whole sentence.
- ❖ **Subject and objects** are marked by position, the subject precedes the verb
- ❖ **Verbs** that have objects are called transitive verbs and those without objects are called intransitive verbs,
- ❖ Another term called **causativity**, 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 the main verb of a sentence (**Collins Dictionary Online**).
- ❖ **Palmer** has given three cases _Agentive, Instrumental and Object'.
- ❖ **Fillmore** has suggested six cases, _Agentive, Instrumental, Dative, Factitive, Locative, Objective.
- ❖ **Agentive** is typically animate perceived instigator, Instrumental is inanimate force or object causally involved.
- ❖ **Dative** is animate being affected.
- ❖ **Factitive** is object resulting from the action or state. Locative is location or spatial orientation.
- ❖ The **Objective** is the semantically most neutral case.

Lesson-15

Formal Semantics Today

- ❖ **Portner (2005)** has used _Possible Worlds' one of the most popular tools for representing diversity within semantics.
- ❖ **Model-Theoretic Semantics Model** is based on _what reality is like which is useful for semantic purposes' i.e. truth, falsity or inadmissible.
- ❖ **Truth-conditions** of sentences are defined in terms of a model of reality appropriate to how language works, with it being a further issue how that model relates to reality itself —intended model' and the —**intended interpretation**'.
- ❖ **Davidsonian** Semanticists argues that we can do semantics without possible worlds.
- ❖ They agree with other **formal** semanticists that the meaning of a sentence consists in its truth-conditions, but think that possible worlds and the like are not the right way to think about truth –conditions.
- ❖ Rather, they say that it's better to simply and directly express **truth-conditions** with statements like, snow is white is true if, and only if, snow is white.
- ❖ Many **formal** semanticists have used the concept of a —situation' in their work - the idea that we want to have something less than a complete possible world to base our notion of meaning on.
- ❖ A **semanticist** talking about situations has in mind a partial reality (or partial model of reality). The role of a sentence is to classify situations according to some more general features of reality.
- ❖ There are **constraints** which relate situations of one kind to situations of another kind.
- ❖ **Formal semantics** relates to other varieties such as semiotics, reference, lexicology, etc.
- ❖ Not all **semanticists** are formal semanticists.
- ❖ There are perspectives on semantics within linguistics which don't accept the formal semantic-commitment to truth-conditional meaning (**Portner**, 2005).
- ❖ There are some approaches which argue as strongly as they can that the others are wrong, so that whichever theory is actually right (it's **formal semantics**!) will eventually be proven so.
- ❖ On the other hand, no approach yet invented is right, and so at some points, we should be ready to **synthesize** apparently incompatible ideas.

- ❖ There should be more sharing of ideas at the level of **individual** linguistic topics.
- ❖ Often, **advocates** of one approach simply ignore the results of research in others, and this leads to the duplication of effort and to avoidable mistakes (**Portner**, 2005).
- ❖ In contrast, to suggest a case which highlights an area of relative weakness in formal semantics, it is wise for formal semanticists to remain attuned to the mass of work on lexical meaning developed within other perspectives (**Portner**, 2005).
- ❖ **Syntax, Pragmatics, and the Philosophy** of language are intellectual areas with which formal semantics makes the closest relation.
- ❖ New ideas in any of these fields can have a direct impact on how semanticists think about language, both in a general way and in studying a particular feature of the language (**Portner**, 2005).
- ❖ **Formal** semantics has also connections to the other three areas of intellectual inquiry. i.e logic, computer science, and cognitive science.
- ❖ The **fundamental** goal of logic is to characterize valid patterns of reasoning, steps of inference which will lead from true premises to true conclusion.
- ❖ As **human** language is ambiguous and vague, logicians have developed artificial and **logical** language.
- ❖ **Formal** semantics is linked with computer science for both **intellectual and practical** reasons.
- ❖ **Cognitive Science** focuses on the understanding of the **human mind**.
- ❖ The most important component disciplines of cognitive science are linguistics, psychology, neuroscience, philosophy, and computer science. (**Portner**, 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.
- ❖ **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** because associative meanings tend to vary from person to person.
- ❖ The second danger is that if the **affective** meaning of the message predominates over the conceptual meaning, the listener or reader will not be able to understand what is being said.
- ❖ Certain feelings may be difficult to put into words, 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.

Lesson-16

Semantics and Dictionary

- ❖ **Dictionary** may be seen as a reference book which is the inbuilt dictionary that everyone of us carries around as part of his mental equipment as a speaker of a language.
- ❖ „**Semantic Competence**“ is how a native speaker knows about lexical items to understand the meaning.
- ❖ **Leech** (1981) has used different terminologies for dictionaries such as: „Theoretical dictionaries, „flesh-and-blood dictionaries or practical dictionaries“, such as the Concise Oxford Dictionary, compiled by **lexicographers** – we all consult regularly.
- ❖ It has been argued that the lexical definition, as part of the native speaker’s linguistic equipment, can be precisely represented only by a special formal language (**Leech**, 1981).
- ❖ But practical **lexicographers** cannot use this method of explanation, if they do, they would convey nothing to the average dictionary-users.
- ❖ There is no **guarantee** that the expression rules of the language furnish paraphrases for every word in the language.
- ❖ In **Johnson’s** own words: Many words cannot be explained by synonyms, because the idea signified by them has not more than one appellation; nor by paraphrase, because simple ideas cannot be explained.
- ❖ 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 predication 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“.
- ❖ But also explain the **interrelationships** of derivation that we recognize between lexical entries already established in the language. (Leech, 1981)
- ❖ **Lexical Rules** can be divided into **three** grades: **Actual and Potential Acceptability**; and those which are **totally unacceptable**.
- ❖ **Actual acceptability** is a graded concept If, for example, we take the suffix „-less“ with a list of English nouns.
- ❖ The principle of **partial productivity** that we have seen to operate in suffixation can be observed equally clearly not only in other types of word-formation, such as prefixation and compounding but in semantic transfer.
- ❖ The **unacceptability** of a lexical entry not allowed for in the lexical rules at all.
- ❖ **Lexical rules** take general form, within the same formula -derivation of one lexical entry from another.
- ❖ **Major types: Morphological derivation, conversion, and semantic transfer.**
- ❖ **Morphological derivation** involves a change in the morphological specification.
- ❖ **Conversion** is a change in the syntactic function (and usually the meaning) of an item without a corresponding change in morphological form.
- ❖ Other type Semantic transfer often designated **metonymy** in traditional terminology,
- ❖ **Leech** discussed some other points to explain the meaning generating power of lexical rules such as **Diversity, Open-Endedness, Recursiveness, Bi-directionality, and Petrification.**
- ❖ The **diversity** of lexical rules is such as to allow the possibility of applying a large number of different rules to the same lexical entry (**Leech**, 1981).
- ❖ **Open-Endedness**; Lexical rules are open ended which allow the language-user freedom to read into a new lexical entry whatever information he finds necessary to the understanding of it.

- ❖ There may be not just a single path of **semantic** connection to be traced, but a whole range of possibilities.
- ❖ **Recursiveness** is property is the ability of a lexical entry which is the output of one lexical rule to be also the input to another lexical rule.
- ❖ **Bi-directionality** is yet another factor produces new entries and underlines the gap of unused ‘_capacity’ between the theoretically enormous generative powers of lexical rules, and the comparatively limited use that is made of them in practice Leech (1981).
- ❖ **Petrification** is the process by which an institutionalized lexical meaning diverges from the ‘_theoretical’ meaning specified in a lexical rule.

Lesson-17

Introduction to Pragmatics

- ❖ **Pragmatics** is concerned with —meaning in context (Chapman, 2011). It is the study of meaning as communicated by the speaker and interpreted by the listener.
- ❖ ‘_It is the study of —invisible meaning, or how we recognize what is meant even when it isn’t actually said or written’ (Yule, 2010).
- ❖ It includes background knowledge **context**.
- ❖ It is a relationship between the linguistic form and **communicative** function. **Inter and intra-culture** pragmatics, people’s intended meanings, their assumptions, purposes, goals, and kinds of actions (e.g. **requests, complaints** etc.) when they speak.
- ❖ **Pragmatics** is appealing as it’s about how people make sense of each other **linguistically**, and a frustrating area of study as it requires us to make sense of people and what they have in mind.
- ❖ According to Chapman (2005:11), Pragmatics can be divided into two types.
- ❖ First is **theoretical** pragmatics that concentrates on the analysis of particular aspects of meaning and how these might be explained within more general formal accounts of language use.
- ❖ Second is **social** pragmatics which focuses on various aspects of the relationship between language use and more general social and cultural factors.
- ❖ **Theoretical pragmatics** is not centrally concerned with describing and analyzing what people do in specific communicative situations.
- ❖ It is concerned with the question of how meaning can, in general, be **communicated** between **speakers and hearers**, given the finite resources of a language and the context.
- ❖ On the other hand, **Social** pragmatics is common with the fields such as conversational analysis and discourse analysis.
- ❖ As **semantics** covers a range of levels (grammar, syntax, lexicon) – so pragmatics is spread across a number of fields within linguistics and mostly interfaces with semantics and sociolinguistics. In pragmatics, **three** subgroups can be recognized.
- ❖ **Pragmalinguistics** - deals with the more linguistic end of the pragmatic spectrum. Usage is seen from the viewpoint of structural resources of a language, i.e. concerns aspects of context which are formally encoded in the structure of a language.
- ❖ **Sociopragmatics** - see usage as primarily determined by social factors in communication.
- ❖ **Applied pragmatics** - refers to practical problems of interaction in situations where successful communication is critical, e.g. medical interviews, law courts, interrogations, official counseling etc.
- ❖ **Linguistics** is the academic subject that is concerned with the analysis, description and explanation of human language while Pragmatics is often described as being a branch or field of linguistics that focuses on the interaction between language and context.
- ❖ Strictly speaking, **pragmatics** is described as outside of mainstream or ‘_core’ linguistics (i.e. phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics) that are concerned with the analysis of language as a formal, isolated and identifiable system in its own right.

- ❖ **Pragmatics** stands apart because its not, exclusively, a language itself.
- ❖ Rather, it is the production and **interpretation** of language in relation to the context of use. **Pragmatics** can perhaps be seen as an adjunct to linguistic theory.
- ❖ A **phrase** that becomes associated with the description of pragmatics was the ‘wastebasket of linguistics’.
- ❖ To **Kasher** (1998:104), —Chomsky’s own work has largely been restricted to **syntax**, ‘but its conception of objective, scientific methodology transcend syntax and lend themselves to interesting applications’, including pragmatics.
- ❖ The use of the word pragmatics to describe a separate field of study, on a par with syntax and semantics, was established during the **1970s**.
- ❖ Around that time, the term was being used in a different way by different **philosophers** concerned with **formal** languages.
- ❖ The **formal** semanticist, **Montague**, wrote in the late **1960s** and **Bar-Hillel** used this term in the **1950s**, ‘**pragmatics** was the study of any language containing indexical terms’.
- ❖ Similarly, as **Levinson** observed it, this would make the study of all natural language fall under pragmatics since all natural languages have indexical elements.
- ❖ The modern use of the term pragmatics was emerged by the late **1960s** in **philosophy**.
- ❖ According to **Gazdar**, ‘pragmatics had become a legitimate sub-discipline in linguistics by the late 1970s but it wasn’t in the early **1970s**.’
- ❖ The key factors in the emergence of linguistic pragmatics appear to be the impact of **Grice’s** Logic and Conversation lectures, circulated in mimeograph form from the late **1960s**.

Lesson-18

History of Pragmatics

- ❖ **Pragmatics** is a relatively new branch of linguistics, research on it can be dated back to ancient Greece and Rome where the term ‘pragmaticus’ is found in late **Latin** and ‘pragmaticos’ in **Greek**, both meaning of being ‘practical’.
- ❖ **Modern** use and practice of pragmatics is credited to the American philosophical doctrine of pragmatism.
- ❖ The **pragmatic** interpretation of semiotics and verbal communication studies in Foundations of the Theory of Signs by **Charles Morris** (1938), for instance, helped to neatly expound the differences of mainstream enterprises in semiotics and linguistics.
- ❖ **Grice’s (1975)** concern of conversational meanings enlightened the modern treatment of meaning by distinguishing two kinds of meaning, natural and non-natural.
- ❖ To him, **pragmatics** should center on a more practical dimension of meaning (conversational meaning) which was later formulated in several ways (**Levinson**, 1983; **Leech**, 1983).
- ❖ Practical concerns also resulted in hallmark discoveries of the Cooperative Principle by Grice (1975) and the Politeness Principle by **Leech** (1983).
- ❖ The impact of pragmatism has led to cross-linguistic international studies of language use, resulted in **Sperber and Wilson’s** (1986) relevance theory.
- ❖ **Austin** organized a group of philosophers whose work is known as ordinary language philosophy.
- ❖ The prevailing method was ‘**linguistic botanizing**’; to see the distinctions made by ordinary language on the assumption that the way people speak makes many subtle distinctions, worthy of philosophical investigation.
- ❖ These **philosophers** were drawn into thinking about questions such as ‘what saying or stating involves’ and ‘what else speakers do with language’.
- ❖ According to **Strawson**, **Austin’s** interest led him to neglect the important point that many speech acts are not in this sense social.

- ❖ A more **Gricean** view is that what is important for successful communication is the recognition of the intention of the speaker to perform a particular speech act.
- ❖ The **post-war Oxford** philosophers did not generally use the term ‘pragmatics’ in their work on language use, although it had already been proposed as a label for the study of meaning in use by the **American philosopher, Charles Morris**.
- ❖ In his *Foundations of the Theory of Signs* (1938) he distinguished between syntax, the study of the formal relations of signs to each other, semantics, the study of the meaning of signs in terms of the objects that they denote or might denote and pragmatics, ‘the science of the relation of signs to their users’ (p. 29).
- ❖ He expanded on this in his *Signs, Language, and Behavior* (1946): pragmatics ‘deals with the origins, uses, and effects of signs within the total behavior of the interpreters of signs’ (p. 219).
- ❖ The use of the word **pragmatics** to describe a separate field of study, on a par with syntax and semantics, was established during the 1970s.
- ❖ Around this time the term was being used in a different way by philosophers concerned with **formal** languages.
- ❖ For the **formal** semanticist Richard Montague, writing in the late 1960s and following the way the linguist and **philosopher Yehoshua Bar-Hillel** used the term in the 1950s, pragmatics was the study of any language containing indexical terms.
- ❖ The linguist, **Larry Horn** has traced some of the central concerns of modern pragmatics back to the work of earlier writers, for example in his book *A Natural History of Negation* and a more recent article, ‘Presupposition and implicature’.
- ❖ According to **Horn**, the distinction between what is said and what is meant but not said, goes back at least to the fourth century rhetoricians, **Servius and Donatus**, whose description of understatement is as a figure of speech in which we say less but mean more.
- ❖ There is also **prehistory** to the concept of presupposition.
- ❖ Before **Strawson, Gottlob Frege** thought that use of a singular referring expression presupposed the existence of the individual described, and Horn has shown that nineteenth-century philosopher, Christoph von Sigwart, had a rather modern view of the subject.
- ❖ The current state and recent history of **pragmatics** are too diverse and complex to describe briefly; A few areas of interest may be picked out.
- ❖ Early in the **modern** period, disagreement on the principles that govern communication led to fragmentation of the field into **Griceans, neo-Griceans** and relevance theorists.
- ❖ There are also **pragmatic** theorists who work primarily on speech acts.
- ❖ From the **1970s**, many theorists have been interested in developing formal accounts of phenomena, particularly scalar implicature, presupposition, and conventional implicature.
- ❖ This work is now known as formal pragmatics and has close links to dynamic approaches to semantics such as **Discourse Representation Theory**.
- ❖ In **cognitively** oriented work, including relevance theory, there has been interest in the structure of the mind and in how pragmatic inference is performed.
- ❖ Work in **psychology** on mind reading (or ‘theory of mind’), the ability humans have to infer other’s mental states from observation of their actions, has direct relevance to pragmatics.
- ❖ Another very recent development is the new field of experimental pragmatics, coming into being at the intersection of pragmatics, **psycholinguistics**, the psychology of reasoning and developmental pragmatics, the last of which is itself a relatively new area of work.

Lesson-19

Context and Pragmatics

- ❖ **Pragmatics and Discourse** analysis are approaches to studying language's relation to the contextual background features.
- ❖ They have much in common: they both **study, context, text, and function**.
- ❖ We analyze the parts of meaning that can be explained by knowledge of the physical and social world, and the **socio-psychological** factors influencing communication.
- ❖ We also interpret meaning by analyzing the knowledge of the time and place in which the words are **uttered or written**. (Peccei 1999; Yule 1996).
- ❖ The speaker constructs the linguistic message and intends or implies a meaning, and the hearer interprets the message and infers the meaning (Brown and Yule, 1983; Thomas, 1995).
- ❖ **Pragmatics** and discourse analysis concentrates on how stretches of language and text become meaningful and unified for their users (Cook, 1989).
- ❖ The quality of being meaningful and unified is called **Coherence** in Discourse Analysis while **Relevance** in pragmatics.
- ❖ **Cohesion** refers how words relate to each other within the text, referring backward or forwards to other words in the text.
- ❖ **Relevance theory** is the study of how the assumption of relevance holds texts together meaningfully.
- ❖ 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.
- ❖ The **hearer and speaker** do not share the situational context, so the gestures do not add meaning to the words.
- ❖ **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'.**
- ❖ Suppose that, **'Let's go to Mosque'** is spoken in a non **Muslim** community, the hearer may ask about the purpose of going to the mosque because he doesn't have particular cultural knowledge about this.
- ❖ **Interpersonal knowledge** is knowledge acquired through previous verbal interactions or joint activities and experiences. It includes privileged personal knowledge about the interlocutor.
- ❖ The context of the **text** itself is known as **co-text**.
- ❖ **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.'**
- ❖ **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.
- ❖ The text usually contains sociolinguistic aspect of speech acts; and affected by the **social** differences, i.e. **gender, class, religion**.
- ❖ The **exploration** of the text focuses on three points: conversation analysis, international sociolinguistics and social context.
- ❖ For instance, a **dialogue** between a journalist and a political person can be transcribed on a paper and later analysis would be made possible on the basis of **interactional sociolinguistics** and **social context**
- ❖ **Cooperative Principle**, relevance theory and cultural variables are considered very important to explore any kind of script.

Lesson-20

Language in context: Reference

- ❖ In **pragmatics**, an act in which a speaker uses linguistic forms to enable the hearer to identify something is known as a reference.
- ❖ **Reference** is a broader term which covers **Exophora, Endophora, Anaphora, Cataphora** and **Grammatical Cohesion**.
- ❖ The speaker uses linguistic forms, known as referring **expressions**, to enable the hearer to identify the entity being referred to, which is known as the **referent**.
- ❖ **Words** themselves do not refer to anything, people refer.
- ❖ The term '**reference**' deals with the relationship which holds between an expression and what that expression stands for on a particular occasion of its utterance.
- ❖ Among **referring** expressions, we can distinguish between those that refer to individuals (singular – He, she, it) and those that refer to classes of **individuals** (**general expressions** – They, those).
- ❖ Other expressions such as **Definite** (The City) and **indefinite** (a place, a man); **Referential and Attributive** Uses; and Collaboration are also important to consider.
- ❖ **Exophora** refers to the context which does not exist inside the text.
- ❖ When there is no previous mention of the **reference** in the preceding text, we call it exophoric reference.
- ❖ **Exophora** is dependent on the context outside the text, e.g. proper nouns, etc.
- ❖ **Coherence and Cohesion** at text level can help the hearer to interpret the text looking at _interpersonal, situational, cultural knowledge etc.
- ❖ **Deixis** is referring expression which points to the referent in the context (whether interlocutors can see it or not), it is known as deixis.
- ❖ There are **three** types of deixis: Person, Place, Time.
- ❖ The expressions which are used to refer an item within the same text is known as **endophoric** reference
- ❖ There are two types of endophora: **Anaphora and Cataphora**.
- ❖ **Anaphora**: If the expressions i.e. them, this, us link back to something that went before in the preceding text, it is known as anaphoric reference.
- ❖ **Cataphoric** expressions link forward to a referent in the text that follows.
- ❖ This type is opposite to **anaphora**.
- ❖ When a referring expression links with another referring expression within the **co-text**, we say that it is cohesive with the previous mention of the referent in the text! it is known as grammatical cohesion.
- ❖ **Grammatical cohesion** is what keeps the text together.
- ❖ **Substitution** helps the writer or speaker to hold the text together and avoid repetition. So, also, as well, too, etc. are sometimes used as substitute words.
- ❖ **Ellipsis**: The other form of grammatical cohesion is **Ellipsis**.
- ❖ It is omitting a word that is not necessary for the text.
- ❖ Just like substitution, **ellipsis** avoids repetition and depends on the hearer or reader's ability to retrieve the missing words from the surrounding co-text.
- ❖ **Lexical devices** help to maintain cohesion in the text; i.e. Repetition, Synonyms, Subordinates, and General words.
- ❖ Of all the **lexical cohesion** devices, the most common form is repetition; repeated words or word-phrases, threading through the text. Substitution and Ellipsis avoid repetition; lexical repetition exploits it for stylistic effect.
- ❖ **Synonym** is; instead of repeating the same exact words, a speaker or writer can use another word that means the same or almost the same.
- ❖ **Superordinate** is an umbrella term which hides subordinate terms in it.
- ❖ The general word is a higher level **superordinate**; it is the umbrella term that can cover almost everything

- ❖ These can be general nouns, i.e. **person, place, thing; general verb, i.e. do and happen**, etc.

Lesson-21

Cooperative Principle

- ❖ The **British Philosopher H. Paul Grice** (1913–1988) argued for an intention-based theory of meaning, and was the first to illustrate the distinction between what came to be called semantic and pragmatic meaning, that is, between what a speaker's utterance means in the abstract, and what else a speaker can mean by uttering it in a particular context.
- ❖ **Grice** (1975) posited a general set of rules, contributors to the ordinary conversation; called **Cooperative Principle (CP)**.
- ❖ He (1989) stated, 'Make your conversational contribution such as, is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are **engaged**'.
- ❖ **Grice** never intended his use of the word 'cooperation' to indicate an ideal view of communication.
- ❖ Rather, he was trying to describe how it happens that – despite the haphazard or even agonistic nature of **human communication** – most discourse participants are quite capable of making themselves understood.
- ❖ **Grice** identified the **Cooperative Principle** as a 'super principle' or a 'supreme principle' (1989) that he generalized from 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.
- ❖ Grice said that **hearers** assume that speakers observe the cooperative principle and that it is the knowledge of the maxims that allows hearers to draw inferences about the speakers' **intentions** and applied meaning.
- ❖ When speakers appear not to follow the maxims but expect hearer to appreciate the meaning implied, we say that they are **flouting**.
- ❖ For instance, in **Britain**, it's quite common to say, 'Do you find it's getting a bit chilly in here?' and mean 'I want to put the fire on'. When flouting a maxim, the speaker assumes that the hearer knows that their words should not be taken at face value and they can infer the implicit meaning (**Cutting**, 2002).
- ❖ **Flouting quantity** – the speaker who flouts this maxim seems to give too little or too much information.
- ❖ **Flouting quality** – speaker may do it in several ways e.g. exaggerating as in hyperbole, using metaphor, irony, and banter.
- ❖ **Flouting relation** – the hearer will be able to imagine what the utterances did not say, and make the connection between their utterances,
- ❖ **Flouting manner** – speaker appears to be obscure, often trying to exclude a third party.
- ❖ **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.
- ❖ People tend to tell lies for **different** reasons, e.g. hide the truth, feel jealousy, cheer the hearer, etc.
- ❖ **Maxim violation** is unostentatiously, quiet deceiving.
- ❖ **Violating the maxim Quantity** – Husband: How much did that new dress cost? Wife: Less than the last one. Here, the wife covers up the price of the dress by not saying how much; thus, not giving the required information to the husband and violating maxim of quantity.
- ❖ **Violating the maxim Quality** – Considering the same example, the wife when asked 'How much did that new dress cost?' It could have violated the maxim of quality by not being sincere and giving him the wrong information i.e. thirty-five hundred rupees'.

- ❖ **Violating the maxim relation** – Similarly, in answer to ‘How much did that new dress cost?’ the wife tries to distract him and change the topic saying: I know, let’s go out tonight. Now, where would you like to go? This shows the violation of the maxim of relation.
- ❖ **Violating the maxim manner** – In answer to ‘How much did that new dress cost?’, if she said that ‘a tiny fraction of my salary, though probably a bigger fraction of the salary of the women that sold it to me’, Hoping that it could be taken as an answer and the matter could be dropped.
- ❖ Despite the care with which he used the term **cooperation**, Grice is regularly accused of **promulgating** a theory that assumes too friendly a spirit of communicative interaction among people.
- ❖ He assumes that **Grice’s** maxims are prescriptions that conversations must follow strictly in order to be considered cooperative.
- ❖ Another problem with the cooperative principle is that there is often an overlap between the **four** maxims.
- ❖ It can be difficult to say which one is operating or there are two or more operating at once.
- ❖ Another major objection to **Grice’s** model is different cultures, countries and communities have their own ways of observing and expressing maxims for particular situations.
- ❖ For instance, **in Britain** it is not acceptable to say ‘—we’ll call you in about two weeks! and then not call, as this will be considered a violation of maxim of quality.
- ❖ Whereas, in some countries, this is quite a **normal** way of flouting the maxim and saying ‘—we are not interested!.

Lesson-22

Relevance Theory

- ❖ **Relevance** theory emerged in **1980s** in the collaborative work of Wilson and **Sperber** proposes that conversational implicature is understood by hearers simply by selecting the relevant features of context and recognizing whatever speakers say as relevant to the conversation.
- ❖ This theory is seen as a **pragmatic** theory because of its focus on the use of language in communication specifically, on the relationship between meaning and context.
- ❖ It is also a **cognitive** theory, in that it is concerned with the relationship between language and mind.
- ❖ The core of the theory is the communicative principle of relevance.
- ❖ When hearers and readers make sense of a text, they interpret the connections between utterances as meaningful, making inferences by drawing on their own background knowledge of the world (**Cutting**, 2010: 41).
- ❖ The purpose of communication is not to ‘duplicate thoughts’ but to ‘enlarge mutual cognitive environments’ (**Sperber & Wilson**, 1995: 193).
- ❖ The degree of relevance is governed by ‘contextual effects’ and ‘processing effort’ (Cutting, 2010: 41).
- ❖ **Wilson and Sperber** classified Relevance theory into two main principles: Cognitive Principle and Communicative Principle of Relevance.
- ❖ Any **external** stimulus or internal representation which provides an input to cognitive processes may be relevant to an individual at some time.
- ❖ **Utterances** raise expectations of relevance, not because speakers are expected to obey a cooperative Principle and maxims, but because the search for relevance is a basic feature of human cognition.
- ❖ **Communicative Principle** of Relevance is an attempt to work out one of Grice’s central claims that an essential feature of most human communication, both verbal and **non-verbal**, is the expression and recognition of intentions.
- ❖ We keep on producing **stimuli** which gain other people’s attention and thus lay the ground for communication.
- ❖ It is the tendency to **maximize** relevance that makes it possible to predict and manipulate the mental states of others knowing your tendency to pick out the most relevant inputs.

- ❖ According to relevance theorists, the “**explicature**,” or “explicit content”, of an utterance of a sentence is a —developmental of the sentence’s —logical form.
- ❖ An **implicature** is something that is built from what the speaker says in uttering the sentence.
- ❖ **Explicatures** and implicatures (i.e. implicit premises and conclusions) are arrived at by a process of mutual parallel adjustment, with hypotheses about both being considered in order of accessibility.
- ❖ Apparently both **explicature and implicature** sound similar, but these both are different from each other.
- ❖ Explicature, in simple terms, is directly conveyed content - —orally and **graphologically** form of an utterance.
- ❖ On the other hand, **implicature** is something which is implied in an utterance. It could mean that a speaker means one thing and conveys something else in addition. It is a hidden concept.
- ❖ The **conceptual–procedural** distinction was introduced into relevance theory by Diane Blakemore (1987) to account for differences between regular **‘content’** words (such as dog, red, think or know, on the one hand) and discourse connectives (such as but, so, also, and after all, on the other).
- ❖ The vast majority of **lexical** items have conceptual meaning, including **common nouns** (‘chair’, ‘water’, etc.), **verbs** (‘consider’, ‘leap’, etc.), **adjectives** (e.g. ‘red’, ‘slow’, etc.), **adverbs** (‘sadly’, ‘quickly’, etc.), and **prepositions** (‘behind’, ‘under’, etc.).
- ❖ **Relevance theorists** have claimed that words such as ‘but’, ‘however’, and inferential ‘so’ encode procedures.
- ❖ These items indicate something about the **context** in which they are to be processed.
- ❖ They guide the hearer towards intended contextual effects, and hence reduce the overall effort required to process the **discourse**.
- ❖ Two ways to distinguish between conceptual and procedural meaning (Wilson and Sperber, 1993: 16):
- ❖ (a) **Conceptual meaning** is available to consciousness, whereas procedurally encoded information is not.
- ❖ (b) Conceptual meaning is **compositional**, whereas procedurally encoded information is not.
- ❖ The degree of relevance is related to **Contextual** effects and processing effort.
- ❖ **Contextual** effects include such things as adding new information, strengthening or contradicting an existing assumption, or weakening old information.
- ❖ The more contextual effects, the greater the **relevance of a fact**.
- ❖ A new fact **unconnected** to anything already known is not worth processing, whereas a new fact taken with something already known is worth processing.
- ❖ As far as the processing effort is concerned, the theory says that the less effort it takes to recover a fact, the **greater** the relevance.
- ❖ The **speaker** assumes which facts are accessible for the hearer and speaks in such a way that the **hearer** can make the correct inferences without too much effort.
- ❖ The context for the **interpretation** of an utterance is chosen by the hearer, and the speaker assumes that the facts are relatively accessible for the hearer.
- ❖ The hearer interprets what is said by finding an accessible context that produces ‘the **maximum** amount of new information with the **minimum** amount of processing **effort**’ (Trask 1999: 58).
- ❖ Relevance theory says nothing about interaction.
- ❖ It does not include **cultural or social** dimensions, such as **age, gender, status, and nationality**.
- ❖ An objection that one may have to **Sperber and Wilson**’s model, as with Grice’s Cooperative Principle model, is that different cultures, countries and communities have their own ways of observing, and expressing **maxims**.