



ENG508

Final-Term (Solved)

ABSTRACT

This comprehensive collection of notes is accurately crafted to empower students to excel academically, ensuring they achieve a minimum of 80% marks in their examinations. The content is organized with clarity and precision, focusing on key concepts, critical analyses, and practical applications tailored to the syllabus. These notes serve as a reliable resource for both thorough preparation and last-minute revision. Designed to inspire confidence and mastery, this guide is an essential tool for students striving for academic excellence.

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Semantics and Pragmatics

(03 Marks Questions)

Q. Training in pragmatics outside the classroom

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

Q. conditions for promise 3

When the speaker promises to do something, there are two preparatory conditions: First, the event will not happen by itself. Second, the event will have a beneficial effect.

Q. Conditions for warning

When the speaker utters a warning, there are the following preparatory conditions: It is not clear that the hearer knows the event will occur. The speaker does think the event will occur. The event will not have a beneficial effect.

Q. describes Macro function of languages?

Brown and Yule (1983) describe the 'transactional' functions and the 'interactional' function of language. The 'transactional' is the function which language serves in the expression of content and the transmission of factual information. The 'interactional' is the function involved in expressing social relations and personal attitudes, showing solidarity and maintaining social cohesion. At the extreme end of the interactional is 'phatic communion' - language with no information content used purely to keep channels of communication open. Brown and Yule pointed out that much of the everyday human interaction is characterized by the primary interpersonal rather than the primarily transactional use of language.

Q. kinds of sequences 3

pre-sequences, insertion sequences, and opening and closing sequences.

Q. note on the concept of friendliness n solidarity in politeness with examples

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

Q. driving force behind the Grice's work

The fact that —what we literally say and what we clearly mean often differ is intuitively obvious but difficult to describe or explain systematically— was the driving force behind Grice's work. He

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was interested in developing a systematic explanation of how and why literal and intended meaning differs. Implicatures are context-dependent

Q. cognitive pragmatics 3

According to Bruno G. Bara (2010), Cognitive pragmatics focuses on the mental states and, to some extent, the mental correlates of the participants of a conversation. The mental processes of human communication are based on three fundamental concepts: cooperation, sharedness, and communicative intention. These three fundamentals were proposed by Grice in 1975, though each has since been refined by other scholars. The cooperative nature of communication is justified by the evolutionary perspective through which the cooperative reasoning underlying a conversation is explained. Sharedness accounts for the possibility of comprehending non-standard communication such as deceit, irony, and figurative language (Bruno G. Bara, 2010).

Q. Make sentence of face saving

1. Could you pass me that paper' or
2. I'm dying for a drink.
3. Yes, it's really hot. Isn't it?'

Q. on what grounds social construction based.

Social constructionism is based on the assumption that gender, like identity, is not a fixed characteristic of human beings.

Q. Give examples of deictic expression 'this' and 'that.

Deictic expressions this and that are demonstrative pronouns come under the category of spatial deixis. The demonstrative this and that are used to mark the movement towards the speaker.

Examples

- 1) Have you seen this?
- 2) You asked me that before.

Q. What is deictic reference?

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

Indexical: the role of context in helping to determine reference For instance, if in a lecture, I were to deliver (2), the three stressed you in the second part of the utterance would be accompanied by gestures and/or eye contact of some kind. Each would pick out a different referent whose identity would be known only by those present at the time of my utterance. But in (3) you have a much more general the reference. In fact, being present when the sentence was uttered would not help you to identify a referent. Thus, this generalized use of you is sometimes said to be non-deictic.

Q. What is implicature?

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Accounts for what a speaker can imply, suggest or mean, as distinct from what the speaker literally says (Grice, 1975). Any meaning conveyed indirectly or through hints, and understood implicitly without ever being explicitly stated.

Example

Sara: My brother has just told me that he cannot look after our daughter after all. Irum: He's such a considerate man!

Q. Grice's claim of predominant principal of human interaction?

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.

Q. Heritage (1984) view about the understanding of a speakers action

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

Q. Why third person not marked grammatically in discourse communication

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

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

Q. Searle speech act theory

Searle (1976), proposed that all acts fall into following five main types: Representatives commit the speakers to the truth of the expressed proposition – state what the speaker believes to be the case or not (e.g. asserting, concluding, statements of fact) 'The earth is flat'. (statement of fact). Directives are attempts by the speaker to get the addressee to do something – what the speaker wants (requesting, questioning). Commissives commit the speaker to some future course of action – what s/he intends (promising, threatening, offering, refusing). Expressives express a psychological state or what a speaker feels (thanking, apologizing, welcoming, congratulating). Declarations effect immediate changes in the institutional state of affairs and which tend to rely

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on elaborate extra-linguistic institutions (marrying, declaring war, firing from employment). These speech acts change the world via their utterance.

Q. Deictic words this and that

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

Q. Formation of expressive thanking speech act

The expressive thanking speech act is presumably used because it sounds more polite and friendly to all the strangers reading the sign than the impersonal directive prohibiting —No smoking!.

Q. Notion of transcription of conversation during the collection of data

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

Q. deictic center

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

Q. why has Austin’s work on speech acts appealed more to pragmatic theorists

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

Q. how does identity become transparent?

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

Q. lists three reasons the ELT field has had to revise its goals and teachers their practices

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

Q. M-Principle

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

Q. write 6 words that make relation between 2 sentence? 3 marks

- ♣ Despite
- ♣ In spite
- ♣ Such as
- ♣ However
- ♣ On the other hand
- ♣ Furthermore

Q. write short note on save face act?3 marks

Face-saving Act gives the possibility that some action might be interpreted as a threat to another's face, the speaker can say something to lessen the possible threat, e.g. _Could you pass me that paper' or _I'm dying for a drink. Yes, it's really hot. Isn't it?' In situations where a face-threatening act (FTA) could arise, the politeness strategy used will depend largely on the relationship between the speaker and the listener. FTAs are sometimes unavoidable in conversation; they can damage the face of the person spoken to because it opposes her wants or needs. An FTA can be either a positive or negative one and can damage the speaker or the hearer.

Q. The ways of expressing speech Act vary from culture to culture. Discuss.

Speech acts and their linguistic realizations are culturally bound. The ways of expressing speech acts vary from country to country and from culture to culture. In India, for example, the expressive speech act of praising and congratulating a person on their appearance can be realized by the words such as: —How fat you are!! because the weight is an indicator of personality and health in a country where there is malnutrition. In Britain, these words express _deploring' or _criticizing', since the fashion and diet foods industries, and possibly health education have conditioned many into thinking that —slim is beautiful. Differences in speech acts can cause difficulties cross-culturally.

Q. Differentiate between online measures and offline measures with reference to the experimental pragmatics.

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

Q. Three facets of speech act

Facets of a speech act are Locutionary Act and Perlocutionary Act, "illocutionary act",

Q. how cross culture pragmatic investigate human behavior

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

Q. topic notion and comment notion

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

Q. difference between definite and indefinite article?

Definiteness in English is marked by the choice of articles (definite the versus indefinite 'a' or by demonstratives (this and that, both definite). Indefinite noun phrases in English are marked by a or an (a furnace, an apartment building) or by the absence of any article (oil, fire, apartment buildings).

Q. Austin's speech act theory

The work of J. L. Austin-How to Do Things with Words - led philosophers to pay more attention to the non declarative uses of language. The terminology he introduced, especially the notions "locutionary act", "illocutionary act", and "perlocutionary act", occupied an important role in what was then to become the "study of speech acts". For instance, (1) I bet you six pence it will rain tomorrow. (2) I apologize. (3) I sentence you to ten years of hard labor. (4) I give my word. These sentences are not used to describe some states of affairs, but to do certain things: to bet, to apologize, to pass sentence, and to promise, respectively. Facets of a speech act are Locutionary Act and Perlocutionary Act.

Q. online measure and offline measure.

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

Q. negative polarity?

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

Q. What happens when a polite form is used unappropriately?

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

Q. Differentiate between structural ambiguity and lexical ambiguity?

Structural ambiguity is due to the syntactic structure of the utterance, as in: They are fighting fish (Nicholas Allott, 1988). Lexical ambiguity that occurs when one form corresponds to more than one words with different meanings, like 'bank' in I pass the bank on the way to work.

Q. Differentiate between illocutionary and perlocutionary speech acts?

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Q. What are the reasons of the failure of word for word translation?

Word-for-word translation does not do the trick because, for one thing, languages differ in their word orders and, for another, the metaphors of one language may not translate into the relevant

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

Q. What is driving force behind the Grice work on implicature

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Q. Note on Searle representative act'

Searle (1976), proposed that all acts fall into following five main types: Representatives commit the speakers to the truth of the expressed proposition – state what the speaker believes to be the case or not (e.g. asserting, concluding, statements of fact) _The earth is flat'. (statement of fact).

Q. Prosody with example

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

Q. categories used to describe the features of human beings

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

Q. Enlist six words which may indicates relationship between utterance and prior discourse?

1. but,
2. therefore,
3. in conclusion,
4. to the contrary,
5. still,
6. however,

+ anyway, well, besides, actually, all in all, so, after all, etc

Q. Write any two types of Presuppositions

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- 1) Existential Presupposition is the assumption of the existence of the entities named by the speaker. They can be found in (i) Noun phrase, and (ii) Possessive constructions. For example, i) Noun phrase - —The car was broken (Presupposes that the existence of the entity it refers to, in this case, is the —Car —). (ii) Possessive construction

e.g. "Tom's car is new (we can presuppose that Tom exists and that he has a car).

- 2) Factive Presupposition is the assumption that something is true due to the presence of some verbs such as "know", "realize" and —glad, etc.

Q. write a short note on interactional function of language?

Brown and Yule (1983) describe the 'transactional' functions and the 'interactional' function of language. The 'interactional' is the function involved in expressing social relations and personal attitudes, showing solidarity and maintaining social cohesion.

Q. Conventional implicature does not depend on social content for their interpretation, however, they can associate with specific words.. Elaborate this concept with the word such as even and yet.

Conventional implicature is not based on the cooperative principle or the maxims. They do not have to occur in a conversation. They do not depend on special contexts for their interpretation. However, they are associated with specific words that result in additional conveyed meanings when used. The English conjunction 'but' is one of these words. The interpretation of any utterance of the type 'p but q' will be based on the conjunction 'p & q' plus an implicature of 'contrast' between the information in 'p' and the information in 'q'. Other English words such as 'even' and 'yet' also have conventional implicatures.

Q. Enlist the three maxims of politeness.

1. tact,
2. generosity,
3. approbation,
4. modesty,
5. agreement, and
6. sympathy.

Q. Write a short note on the usage of transfer translation model of translating text.

Translation is a mental activity in which a meaning of given linguistic discourse is rendered from one language to another. It is the act of transferring the linguistic entities from one language into their equivalents in another language. Translation is an act through which the content of a text is transferred from the source language into the target language (Foster, 1958). The language to be translated is called the source language (SL), whereas the language to be translated into or arrived at is called the target language (TL). The translator needs to have good knowledge of both the source and the target language, in addition to a high linguistic sensitivity as he should transmit

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the writer's intention, original thoughts and opinions in the translated version as precisely and faithfully as possible.

Q. What sort of relationship is generated b/w the signals in code model theory.

Code Model is a model of communication according to which communication involves the transmission of meaning

– the message – by encoding it in language or some other codes. The transmitter encodes and transmits the message as a linguistic signal, which the receiver then decodes.

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

Q. What is the coordination problem at the level of local joint action. Explain briefly with reference to action.

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

Q. Write a note on the characteristics of stress pattern in a sentence which entail something.

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

Q. What is meant by off record with reference to politeness theory. Support ur answer with an example

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

Q. detailed note on i principle

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In neo-Gricean pragmatics, the I principle or Informativeness-principle is one of a small number of principles that govern communicative behaviour. The I-principle enjoins speakers to say as little as necessary (while bearing in mind the opposing Q- principle). If a speaker's utterance appears to be governed by the I-principle, then the hearer can take it that the speaker expressed herself economically. The speaker can take the utterance as implicating information that is more specific than what is said along stereotypical or expected lines (Allott, 1988).

Q. note on usage of interlingual translation model.

An interlingual translation model - in which the basic semantic elements of each language can be represented abstractly and then encoded into other languages. This would require twelve procedures - one decoding procedure and one encoding procedure for each of the six languages. This model is simpler than the transfer translation model that requires 30 procedures.

Q. note on structural presuppositions and counterfactual presuppositions

Structural Presupposition - associated with the use of certain structures, e.g. Wh-question constructions. The listener perceives that the information presented is necessarily true, or intended to be true by the speaker. Counterfactual Presupposition is an assumption that what is presupposed is not only untrue but is the opposite of what is true, or contrary to facts.

Q. three fundamental concepts of mental process

The mental processes of human communication are based on three fundamental concepts:

1. cooperation,
2. sharedness, and
3. communicative intention.

Q. note on argumentation theory

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

Q. Social Deixis (3)

Social deixis is concerned with the codification of the social status of the speaker, addressee, or a third person or entity referred to as well as the social relationships holding between them (Levinson 1983; Fillmore 1997; Manning 2001). It may include social class, kin relationship, age, sex, profession, and ethnic group. The pronoun systems of some languages also grammaticalize the information about the social identities or relationships of the participants in the conversation, Levinson (1983) call this phenomenon a social deixis. Social deixis refers to expressions which clearly encode social meaning. —Address terms|| i.e. social status is indexicalized through the linguistic terms, for example, _Madam', _Sir', _Professor', _Doctor'.

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Q. Status as reference with social factors of Politeness (3)

Politeness generally refers to the ideas like being tactful, modest and nice to other people. In pragmatics, politeness can be defined as ‘showing awareness and consideration of another person’s face’ (Yule, 2010). —Politeness means having or showing good manners and respect for the feelings of others (Wehmeier 2000, p. 976). According to Yule (2010), politeness can be treated as a fixed concept, as in the idea of ‘polite social behavior’, or etiquette, within a culture. Within interaction, a specified type of politeness is at work, for which we need the concept of ‘Face’ – public self-image of a person – emotional and social sense of self that one expects everyone else to recognize. For example, ‘Don’t impose’ – ‘I’m sorry to bother you but....’ is a polite way. Politeness may not always be a matter of words but how you say them.

Q. Define non-truth conditionality of conventional Implicature. (3)

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

Q. Properties of conversational implicature?

- ❖ **Non-detachability** - a conversational implicature is attached to the semantic content of what is said, not to the linguistic form i.e. it is possible to use a synonym and keep the implicature intact. It will not be detached from the utterance as a whole, even though the specific words may be changed.
- ❖ **Reinforceability** - Implicatures can be reinforced, e.g. John answered most of the questions. But he wasn’t able to answer the last question. (not redundant)
- ❖ **Non-conventionality** - implicature is not carried by what is said, but only by the saying of what is said, or by ‘putting it that way.’
- ❖ **Calculability** – speakers try to convey conversational implicatures and hearers are able to understand them suggests that implicatures are calculable.

Q. CALL in developing the linguistics.

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

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Q. temporal deixis

Temporal deixis is also known as ‘time deixis’. It is concerned with the encoding of the temporal points and spans relative to the time at which an utterance is produced in a speech act (Huang, 2014). It includes time adverbs e.g. now, then, soon, last week, today, tonight, yesterday, tomorrow, etc. ‘Now’ indicates both the time coinciding with speaker’s utterance and the time of the speaker’s voice being heard. However, ‘then’ applies to both past as in (a) and future in (b) time relative to the speaker’s present time, e.g. (a) November 22nd, 1963? I was in Scotland then. (b) Dinner at 8:30 on Saturday? Ok, I’ll see you then. Temporal deictic expressions e.g. yesterday, next week, last week etc. depend for the interpretation on knowing the relevant utterance time.

Q. positive face threatening act:

Positive face-threatening acts are a direct challenge to the face of the listener. They contain an indifference to the listener’s self-image and include things such as threats, insults, and belittling the listener.

Q. similar to the physical act, people also perform acts by using languages. Enlist at least three acts

1. to give orders,
2. to make requests,
3. to give warnings or
4. to give advice, etc.

Q. write short note on cancellability. 3

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

Q. What two aspects of people have been described in Stephen C Levinson politeness phenomenon

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

Q.

1) [It describes the bombardier beetle, which squirts a lethal mixture into the face of its enemy.] 2) [The giraffe bent slowly forward and gingerly took a carrot from my palm.]

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

Q. make following sentence pp and NP.. (Please do check this one)

- i. Im sorry to bother you, but i ask u for pen.

"sorry to bother you"

sorry for bothering you

- ii. Okay, if i sit here

I sit here

It is okay to sit here.

Q. describe dos and don'ts difference in data collection

You may be collecting your data because you wish to test a hypothesis. Data will usually be elicited: by designing the experiments very carefully to make sure that you are collecting data that enable you to measure what you seek to measure rather than some other phenomenon. This means that all the non-relevant variables need to be eliminated. It wouldn't be very useful; for example, if a linguist measured two years old responses to indirect requests only to realize afterwards that the results reflected the extent to which the requests themselves were palatable. There are some ‘_dos’ and ‘_don'ts’ when it comes to data collection.

Q. Define 'irony'

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

Q. Hyperbole

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

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Q. why are pronouns like you, me and us are called empty tokens, explain with the reference to the limits of indexicality

Thus the pronouns _you‘ and _me‘ and _us‘ are semantically empty tokens in the sense that they lack descriptive power that the names of the people they refer to have.

Q. describe the concept of indicators of potential presuppositions

For example, the expressive speech act of praising and congratulating a person on their appearance can be realized by the words such as: —How fat you are!! because the weight is an indicator of personality and health in a country where there is malnutrition.

Q. interactional functions of language

The „interactional“ is the function involved in expressing social relations and personal attitudes, showing solidarity and maintaining social cohesion. At the extreme end of the interactional is „phatic communion“ - language with no information content used purely to keep channels of communication open. Brown and Yule pointed out that much of the everyday human interaction is characterized by the primary interpersonal rather than the primarily transactional use of language.

Q. linguistic device of social deixis.

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

Q. weaker implicature

Weak Implicature is a communicated implication of an utterance which is not by itself the main communicative point of the utterance. The idea is that for some utterances a hearer can understand what a speaker is trying to communicate even if he fails to get one or more implicatures. Weak implicature is the weaker the encouragement, and the wider the range of possibilities among which the hearer can choose, the weaker the implicatures. For example, John: What are you planning to do today? Mary: I‘m tired. There is no single implicature which the hearer must take Mary to be communicating in order to understand her utterance here. Instead, there are several assumptions that he might supply as an implicated premise, each of which would lead to a different implicature e.g. If Mary is tired, she doesn‘t want to go out. The weaker the implicature, the less responsibility the speaker takes for their truth, i.e. the more they are the responsibility of the hearer.

Q. tautology

Tautology is a statement that expresses a proposition that is necessarily true is called a tautology. For example: [2 + 2 = 4], [War is war.], [If it rains, it rains.]. Since tautologies are necessarily true, it is hard to see how uttering one can be informative, relevant or cooperative. Yet people do utter tautologies and are understood. An utterance of _War is war‘ might implicate that terrible thing inevitably happen during wartime. What is communicated by a tautology can vary widely, though?

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Not all utterances of tautologies convey inevitability: Archie: [Can I borrow your pen?], Brenda: [Here you are. It's only a biro, though.], Archie: [A pen is a pen.]. Here the tautology has been used to implicate that any pen, including Brenda's biro, will do for the task at hand, perhaps via another implicature that all (functioning) pens can be used for writing. The challenge is to show how such disparate implicatures can be derived.

Q. "Amina's brother bought three horses", read the given sentence carefully and identify some of potentially assumed information associated with the utterance.

1. Amna exists and has a brother.
2. Amna has only one brother and he has a lot of money.

Q. Deference strategy of politeness

Deference strategy is the tendency to use negative politeness forms, emphasizing the hearer's right to freedom. A deference strategy is involved in what is called formal politeness. It is impersonal, as if nothing is shared, and can include expressions that refer to neither the speaker nor the hearer

E.g. Customers may not smoke here, sir.

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

Q. Western perspective of gender

LoCastro (2012) highlights a speech variable found in an individual's speech in Australia and the U.K., i.e. women may drop their h's. The practice of h-dropping occurs in everyday words like _ouse (house), _ome (home), Trudgill (1972) and Milroy (1989). In Western cultural contexts, stereotypically, it is men who are viewed as being more likely to dominate in mixed-gender groupings. Or sometimes, female participants exclude men from the conversation by selecting topics such as _choices of dresses, personal feelings or house chores_. In Western Societies, researches have been conducted to differentiate between male/female behavior, verbal and non-verbal both. Historically, in efforts to describe and explain the discrimination against women in U.S. society, one focus was women's use of language. One more perspective is, women in the U.S. experience the binary choice between being addressed by Mrs. or Miss plus their family name.

Q. Experimental pragmatics

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

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work on disambiguation, semantic illusions and other aspects of interpretation is relevant (Allott, 1988).

Q. Why pragmatics less explored in computational linguistics?

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

Q. Degree of formality in the politeness

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

Q. What is fragment?

Linguistic material that is less than a complete sentence is called a fragment. Many utterances are fragments. For example: [- Over here!], [Water!], [On the second shelf down, behind the jam. - Nice one!], [- A: How many cats do you have?], [- B: Five.]. Fragments are generally, not always, linguistic constituents: preposition phrases, noun phrases and so on. Fragments can be used to express complete propositions (Allott, 1988). For example, a speaker uttering —On the top shelf might mean: The jar is on the top shelf. Or [Where are you going?] Answer can be -to school. [Did you eat something?] The answer can be -ate nothing. It is controversial whether fragments are sometimes or never syntactically elliptical. Example: Are you writing something? a letter to my friend.

(05 Marks Questions)

Q. write short note on use of maxims of tact and generosity

The tact maxim states: "Minimize the expression of beliefs which imply cost to other; maximize the expression of beliefs which imply benefit to other." The first part of this maxim fits in with Brown and Levinson's negative politeness strategy of minimising the imposition, and the second part reflects the positive politeness strategy of attending to the hearer's interests, wants, and needs. For example:

- ♣ Could I interrupt you for a second?
- ♣ If I could just clarify this then.

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Leech's generosity maxim states: "Minimize the expression of beliefs that express or imply benefit to self; maximize the expression of beliefs that express or imply cost to self." Unlike the tact maxim, the maxim of generosity focuses on the speaker, and says that others should be put first instead of the self. For example:

- ♣ You relax and let me do the dishes.
- ♣ You must come and have dinner with us.

Q. Fixedness of deictic center

Fixedness of deictic center poses a particular problem when we want to quote what others have said to us. Imagine my son says to my daughter:

(2) Why don't you want to come to the park with me?

When she reports his utterance to me, she has a choice of several ways to represent this deictic property as:

(3) Eddie said, why don't you want to come to the park with me?

(4) Eddie asked why I didn't want to come to the park with him. (4) Eddie complained that I didn't want to go to the park with him.

In (3) the deictic center is partly projected from Eddie's original perspective – she encodes this projection in her use of I' and him' and didn't' while her retention to come' is still faithful to the deictic center of Eddie's utterance. Reported speech, like in (4), is important evidence of the existence of an unmarked deictic center, which as (1) and (4) show, is that of speaker's perspective even when the speaker is representing the speech of another person. The identification of this fixed center reveals an important pragmatic principle i.e. we are able to assume shared knowledge and to foreground what is new in each particular utteranceso that what is new appears as a kind of figure in relation to the ground. Because of the role of assumed knowledge in determining reference, deictic referents are typically denotations with limited descriptive power. Thus the pronouns you'and me'and us'are semantically empty tokens in the sense that they lack descriptive power that the names of the people they refer to have.

Q. Enlist 5 example of scale?

Numerals (< ... three, two, one>), modals (,), connectives (,), adverbs (,), degree adjectives () and verbs of ranking (,) or completion ().

Q. non Western perspective on the gender and usage of language?

According to Ide and Inoue (1991), Japanese women of higher social status tend to use more elaborated honorifics to signal beauty, grace, and dignity. Ide(2005) uses the term —beautification| honorifics, a form of gendered language use that, in her view, does not correlate with dominance in Japan. ENG508 (Finals) Solved Fall2019 Maha Malik's Compilation Page 20 It has been observed in India and Pakistan that English is used as a dominant language in the elite class which shows that this class is influenced by western culture. Errington states that language is sometimes

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—gender-neutrall in Asian Culture. Examples of the gender-neutral features are: The lack of gender marking with articles, or morphemes on nouns; specific lexemes like —humanll or —personll are not marked for feminine or masculine. The local greeting is how many —older and younger siblings do you havell rather than how many —brothers and sisters do you havell (Atkinson and Errington 1990).

Q. Chomsky work

Most of Chomsky's work within linguistics is directed towards understanding the organizing principles of grammar which underlie such facts, with an emphasis on explaining rather than simply cataloguing and describing. Generative Grammar is also a term introduced by Noam Chomsky. This work on the nature and acquisition of grammar has to be supplemented with an account of the acquisition of individual lexical items. Such as the word 'cat' somehow links the speech sounds /kæt/ to a certain concept. Chomsky describes Descartes' view of language use, which he shares, as follows: 'Normal human speech is unbounded, free of stimulus control, coherent and in the same way – what we might call the creative aspect of language use.' appropriate, evoking thoughts that the listener might have expressed. He thinks; pragmatics, systematic study of the use of language, is pointless or impossible.

Q. What is 'demonstrative Explain'?

A group of indexical words or phrases that are used to refer, include this, that, these and those (in English). These words are used to make demonstrative phrases, for example, this pen, that car, these keys, those penguins (Allott, 1988). Demonstratives are often accompanied by a gesture that demonstrates the object referred to, pointing, or gazing at the object, i.e. 'that boy'. As with other indexical, the referent of a demonstrative must be worked out to know what proposition the speaker is expressing. The particular demonstrative used restricts the search for referents, in subtle ways. If there is one book on a table the speaker may refer to it with 'this book' or 'that book', But if it is the nearer of two, then 'this book' is preferred, except if both books are nearer the hearer, when again 'that book' is acceptable. In English and other languages, the demonstratives encode a two-way proximal/distal distinction, but other languages have a three way or four-way distinction. For space deixis, demonstratives are frequently used for discourse deixis, as in: —I am glad you told me thatll and —This is what I'll be talking about todayll.

Q. Write five types of implicature

1. Conventional implicature
2. Conversational implicature
3. Generalized conversational implicature
4. Scalar implicature
5. Particularized conversational implicature

Q. Explain formality with regard to the politeness in cultural pragmatics

A formality is an established procedure or set of specific behaviors and utterances, conceptually similar to a ritual although typically secular and less involved. A formality may be as simple as a

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handshake upon making new acquaintances in Western culture to the carefully defined procedure of bows, handshakes, formal greetings, and business card exchanges that may mark two businessmen being introduced in Japan. In legal and diplomatic circles, formalities include such matters as greeting an arriving head of state with the appropriate national anthem. Cultures and groups within cultures often have varying degrees of formality which can often prove a source of frustration or unintentional insult when people of different expectations or preferences interact. Those from relatively informal backgrounds may find formality to be empty and hypocritical, or unnecessarily demanding. Those from relatively formal backgrounds may find informal cultures hard to deal with, as their carefully refined and nuanced behaviors go completely unnoticed.

Q. Preferred and not preferred

Adjacency pairs represent social actions, and not all social actions are equal when they occur as second parts of some pairs, for example, [a question], [a partial answer], [a statement of ignorance], [a denial of the relevance of the question.], [a denial of its presupposition.]. For instance: [What does Joe do for a living?], [Do you need to know?], [Oh, this and that.], [I've no idea.], [What's that got to do with it?], [He does not do anything.] A first part that contains a request or an offer has an expectation that the second part will be an acceptance; structurally more likely than refusal. This structural likelihood is called preference. Technically, preference is an observed pattern in talk and not a personal wish. Preference structure divides second parts into preferred (structurally expected next act) and dis-preferred (structurally unexpected next act) social acts.

Q. Imposition 5

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

Q. Referential and attribute 5

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

Q. Holly R. Cashman's study about local talk 5

One study that clearly demonstrates the ways in which participants in local talk-in-interaction enact their identities in the flow of playing a game at a senior citizens' program was carried out by Cashman (2005). Rather than follow the more traditional or classic view of code switching. It is

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

Q. Generic and Specific expressions.

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

- (1) a. Tigers are striped. b. Tigers are on the front lawn.
(2) a. A tiger is striped. b. A tiger is on the front lawn.
(3) a. The tiger is striped. b. The tiger is on the front lawn.

The interpretation of the first sentence of each pair is intuitively quite different from the interpretation of the second sentence in the pair. In the second sentences, we are talking about some particular tigers: a group of tigers in (1b), some individual tiger in (2b), and some unique salient or familiar tiger in (3b)—a beloved pet, perhaps. In the first sentences, however, we are saying something general. There is/are no particular tiger or tigers that we are talking about. A noun phrase may be generic or specific depending on whether it refers to a category or to particular members of a category. For instance:

- 1) [It describes the bombardier beetle, which squirts a lethal mixture into the face of its enemy.]
- 2) [The giraffe bent slowly forward and gingerly took a carrot from my palm.]

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

Q. reasons that speaker use indirect directives? 5 marks

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

Q. write note on formal pragmatic

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Formal Pragmatics is the study of pragmatic phenomena using techniques and notations from logic and mathematics. Formal pragmatics is largely an extension from formal, model-theoretic semantics into the domain of more context sensitive elements of speaker meaning (Allott, 1988). Formal pragmatics and dynamic approaches to semantics such as Discourse Representation Theory are closely related to date, work in formal pragmatics has only been concerned with a subset of pragmatic topics (Allott, 1988). The topics on the semantic-pragmatics interface, include definiteness and indefiniteness, presupposition, scalar implicature, conventional implicature, and focus. Formal pragmatics serves two important functions in Habermas's philosophy. (Philosophymasters.com). First, it is the theoretical underpinning of the theory of communicative action, this being a crucial element of his theory of society. Second, it contributes to ongoing philosophical discussions regarding truth, meaning, rationality and action. (Philosophymasters.com).

Q. Component of socioprgmatics...5

1. Word choice,
2. prosody,
3. tone of voice,
4. degree of grammatical complexity, and i
5. interactional routines

are components of socio-pragmatics

Q. corpora dictioner ...5

process of dictionary making today is undergoing dramatic change. It is largely owing to advances in computers and the availability of machine-readable collections of texts known as corpora. Corpus linguistics is very essential for twenty-first-century dictionary making and in many other ways, including speech recognition and artificial intelligence. Computerized corpora are useful to dictionary makers and others in establishing patterns of language that are not apparent from mere introspection. For example, patterns of collocation - which words go together - are much more readily understood with the help of a computerized corpus of natural language texts. Such patterns can be helpful in highlighting meanings, parts of speech, and words that co-occur with frequency.

Q. turn taking

Turn-taking operates in accordance with a local management system that is conventionally known by the members of a social group. This system is essentially a set of conventions for getting turns, keeping them, or giving them away; it is needed most at those points where there is a possible change in who has the turn. Turn-taking can be applied to conversations where speakers cooperate and share the floor equally. Also be applied to conversations where there is competition, fighting to keep the floor and preventing others from getting it. Moreover, different cultures have their own preferences as to how long a speaker should hold the floor, how they indicate that they have finished and another speaker can take the floor. For example, Latin Americans have pauses of a fraction of a second and it is socially acceptable to overlap and interrupt, whereas North American

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Indians expect a two-second pause between turns, and for the Japanese, it is unacceptable to interrupt

Q. Ordered entailment

Crystal (1998: 136) defines entailment as "a term refers to a relation between a pair of sentences such that the truth of the second sentence necessarily follows from the truth of the first. For instance: I can see a dog. I can see an animal. Generally speaking, entailment is not a pragmatic concept, because it has nothing to do with the speaker's intended meaning. It is considered a purely logical concept, symbolized by Π - Examples of entailment for the [1] are presented below in [2]:
[1] Rover chased three squirrels. ($=p$) [2]

- a. Something chased three squirrels. ($= q$)
- b. Rover did something to three squirrels. ($= r$)
- c. Rover chased three of something. ($= s$)
- d. Something happened. ($= t$)

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

Q. presupposition

A presupposition is something the speaker assumes to be the case prior to making an utterance. Speakers, not sentences, have a presupposition. An entailment is something that logically follows from what is asserted in the utterance. Sentences, not speakers, have entailments. We can identify some of the potentially assumed information associated with the utterance as in 1) Mary's brother bought three horses. Here, the speaker will normally be expected to have the presupposition that a person called Mary exists and that she has a brother. A more specific presupposition is that Mary has only one brother and he has a lot of money. All of these presuppositions are the speaker's and all of them can be wrong, in fact.

Q. role of computer in the development of linguistics?

Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is defined as —the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning. (Levy, 1997: 1). CALL covers a broad range of activities which makes it difficult to describe it as a single idea or simple research agenda. CALL has come to encompass issues of materials design, technologies, pedagogical theories and modes of instruction. Computational Linguistics on the other hand, is the study of language from a computational perspective. CL is concerned with the study of computer systems for understanding and generating natural language (Grisham, 1986). The process of dictionary making today is undergoing dramatic change. It is largely owing to advances in computers and the

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

Q. What is meant by adjacency pairs in conversational analysis?

A sequence of two related utterances by two different speakers is known as adjacency pairs. The second utterance is always a response to the first. For instance: [A: You left the light on.], [B: It wasn't me!], [the sequence of complaint-denial = is an adjacency pair]. Types of Adjacency pairs are question-answer, greeting-greeting, Invitation or offer/acceptance/non-acceptance, complaint-apology/denial, summons-response, request-acceptance, promise or thanks-acknowledgement, and goodbye-goodbye. An insertion sequence is one adjacency pair within another; a number of insertion sequences can be infinite, but the limit of human memory does not allow that. Delay in response marks potential unavailability of the immediate expected answer; it represents the distance between what is expected and what is provided

Q. Can pragmatic competence be taught and learnt in instructed context?

LoCastro (2012) has focused on instructed development, that is, in classrooms, or other contexts organized for learning, as the acquisition of pragmatic competence in a naturalistic environment. Kasper and Rose (2002) argue that L2 pragmatics can be taught. According to Kanagy (1999), the children in Japan are taught the cultural practices and the pragmatic meanings of the routines in classrooms including nonverbal behaviors. Children cannot learn to say —thank you! without an adult in their immediate environment instructing them about the phrase and its context of use. Local teachers can teach pragmatic competence in a better way because, sometimes, native speakers of the target language may shy away from making learners aware of miscommunication due to local sociocultural influences (Kasper and Rose, 2002).

Q. Relationship among language, power and political discourse.

Political discourse is a genre of language in use which is often viewed as a transparent vehicle used by politicians to preserve or to seek to create their own power. Speech of president of a country is supposed to maintain the face of the speaker as the main governmental leader of the country (LoCastro 2012). The study of language and power also looks at how linguistic structures create reality, a reality that maintains and extends power relations in a society. The study of language and power is often designated as CDA (LoCastro, 2012). There are numerous ways in which power is enacted in discourse: doctor– patient interactions, immigration checkpoints, and political campaigns. Or the use of tag questions, turn taking, adjacency pairs, introduction and uptake of topics, politeness strategies, and choice of formal or informal speaking styles. According to LoCastro (2012), power is often expressed through language. Power cannot be explained without contextualization. The exercise of power involves a latent conflict and clash of interest, which can be obscured because of society's ideologies

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Q. Difference between generalized and scalar implicature Or Q. What is difference b/w generalized implicature and particularized. (v.v.v.v. imp)

Generalized Implicature	Scalar Implicature	Particularized Conversational Implicature
<p>In generalized conversational implicature - —no special background knowledge of the context of utterance is required in order to make the necessary inferences (Yule, 1996). It is a conversational implicature that is inferable without reference to a special context (glossary of English terms). One common example in English involves the expressions with the form an X, usually imply that X is not closely related to the speaker or subject, as in the following expression: John walked into a house yesterday and saw a tortoise. This expression implies that the house is not John's house.</p>	<p>A scalar implicature is a quantity implicature based on the use of an informationally weak term in an implicational scale. Scalar implicatures arise in examples e.g. 'Some professors are famous' where the speaker's use of 'some' typically indicates that s/he had reasons not to use a more informative term, e.g. 'all'. 'Some professors are famous, therefore, gives rise to the implicature that not all professors are famous. Similarly, in the utterance, 'Some of the boys went to the party', the word 'some' implicates "not all of the boys went to the party." Classic examples of scales include numerals (< ... three, two, one>), modals (,), connectives (,), adverbs (,), degree adjectives (,) and verbs of ranking (,) or completion (,)</p>	<p>Particularized conversational implicatures (PCIs) are the inferences which are worked out while drawing totally on the specific context of the utterance. Most of the time, our conversations take place in a very specific context in which locally recognized inferences are assumed (Yule, 2002). Consider an example: A: I'm going to the prison tomorrow. B: Will 200 Dollars do? [context: A is visiting a prison and proposing to B to help in funding the shopping for that prison]</p>

Q. Note on communicative competence (5)

Communicative Competence is the ability to communicate in a language. It includes competence with the grammatical forms of the language and the ability to put forms of the language to use in communication (Allott, 1988). This term was invented by the anthropologist and sociolinguist Dell Hymes. Now a popular notion in applied linguistics and language teaching, where the aim is to teach not just grammar and speech sounds, but also strategies for communicating in that language. This teaching tends not so much to be concerned with pragmatics in a narrow sense (implicatures, reference assignment, etc.) as with teaching social conventions about how the language is used (Allott, 1988). A speaker should have the competence to talk to a lady, old man, a professional differently. This is communicative competence how perfectly you answer after analyzing the situation!

Q. how can declarative statement direct and in direct speech

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In everyday situations, we often do not directly express what we intend, but instead, formulate our utterances in ways which appear more polite to hearers. That utterance can be direct speech acts or indirect speech acts. For example: Pass me the salt! Can you pass me the salt? Distinction between these speech acts is based on their structure. Whenever there is a direct relationship between a structure and a function, we have a direct speech act. Whenever there is an indirect relationship between a structure and a function, we have an indirect speech act. A declarative used to make a statement is a direct speech act, but used to make a request is an indirect speech act. One of the most common types of indirect speech acts in English has the form of an interrogative. Examples of Direct Speech Act - when a specific sentence structure performs its direct function. ‘Did you eat the pizza?’ Interrogative – Question, ‘Eat the pizza’ (please)! Imperative – Command (Request). ‘You ate the pizza’ is Declarative – Statement

Q. deictic REFERENCE

Deictic Reference is the use of gestures or other means of pointing to specify an ambiguous utterance, for instance, pointing at a place in a map and saying —here. This property of language is called ‘indexicality’, and the lexical items that encode context in the way are called ‘deictics’. Indexical: the role of context in helping to determine reference For instance, if in a lecture, I were to deliver (2), the three stressed ‘yous’ in the second part of the utterance would be accompanied by gestures and/or eye contact of some kind. Each would pick out a different referent whose identity would be known only by those present at the time of my utterance. But in (3) ‘you’ has a much more general the reference. In fact, being present when the sentence was uttered would not help you to identify a referent. Thus, this generalized use of ‘you’ is sometimes said to be non-deictic.

Q. What are the main categories of information structure? (Please do check it.) OR Q. explain the term 'given information' and 'new information'

Given and New Information

Given information is information currently in the forefront of an addressee’s mind. New information is information just being introduced into the discourse. Consider the following two-turn interaction: Alina: [Who ate the biscuits?], [Maria: Hassan ate the biscuits.] In Maria’s answer, the noun phrase ‘Hassan’ represents new information because here it is being introduced into the discourse. By contrast, ‘the biscuits’ in the reply is given information because it can be presumed to be in the mind of Alina who has introduced it in the previous turn. Given information can be realized in sentences in condensed form, e.g. instead of saying Hassan ate the biscuits, the speaker could simply say Hassan did, Hassan did it, or Hassan. A piece of information need not be explicitly mentioned in order for it to be the given information. Information is sometimes taken as given because of its close association with something that has been introduced into the discourse. When a noun phrase is introduced into a discourse, all the subparts of the referent can be treated as given information. For Example, when Kent returned my car last night, the gas tank was nearly empty and the glove compartment was stuffed with candy wrappers

Q. Facilitate the teaching and learning LG Pragmatic competence?

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According to LoCastro (2012), teachers do not take the pain to develop pragmatic competence because they are non-natives and have not experienced the environment of the target language. If ESL teachers are given a chance of one or two-months training abroad in that environment, they can be beneficial for the learners. Second point that LoCastro has mentioned is —Awareness Raising among teachers because there is a lack of teacher training programs. Teachers should be properly guided about the selection of material, the choice of activities and the importance of pragmatic competence. In the next step, language teachers would build the awareness in the learners. For example, the skills in the primary language and culture to help them become more capable of understanding and enacting pragmatic meanings in the target language (LoCastro, 2012). Teachers and students can promote discussion of diversity, difference, and tolerance towards language use variation as well as nonlinguistic behaviors to create mindfulness regarding a non-deficit view of self and others. The students can also collect examples from the public mass media (LoCastro, 2012).

Q. interlanguage pragmatics? (5)

Interlanguage pragmatics focuses on the pragmatic development of second/ foreign languages learners as they seek to become proficient, successful users of the target language. ILP may be considered a sub-area of second language acquisition (SLA) and thus is inherently anchored in acquisition contexts. Learners and teachers need to understand interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) to facilitate our understanding of how people comprehend and communicate meaning beyond what is said in the target language. The interlanguage is a reduced system at the early stages of development. Interlanguage refers to intermediate, dynamic, and transient linguistic systems that, according to the theory, continue to develop over time as learners move closer and closer to attaining native-like proficiency. Learners progress along a trajectory towards their desired goal, sometimes regressing and sometimes making rapid progress. For instance, in academic speaking skills, the learners may struggle with conversational chat unless they live with a native speaker.

Q. enhancement of gender in language use? (5)

The term —gendered clearly communicates the notion that gender is an action, something that one does, i.e. gender in the media, in the workplace, in religion, and in the family (LoCastro, 2012). To understand ‘Gender’ we need to consider that how children acquire an awareness of gender at very early ages. Female children learn that pink is the color for girls. This starts as nonverbal cues of femaleness translates into differences in language use. Tannen (1993) claimed that, though there is no question that dominance by men of women exists, it is not possible to attribute the cause of the enactment of dominance to specific linguistic realizations, For example, indirectness, interruptions, or topic shifts (LoCastro, 2012). According to LoCastro (2012) many books have been written on the gender-biased language in English, i.e. excessive use of ‘_He’ rather than ‘_She’. Certain uses of language from word choice to speaking styles are still linked negatively to female gender and serve to construct and reinforce social differences. Cultural differences abound in this regard as well, resulting in markers of being female as highly valued and therefore desirable (LoCastro, 2012).

Q. Five features of conversational analysis

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Features of conversational analysis include, turn-taking, pauses, overlaps and backchannels, adjacency pairs, preference structures, and sequences expansion.

Q. detail note on folk pragmatics

The term ‘folk pragmatics’ is modeled on folk physics are pre-theoretical expectations about heat, light, how objects move, etc. (Allott, 1988). Folk psychology is pre-theoretical expectations about how behavior relates to thoughts and aims. One source of evidence about folk beliefs is how we talk about the domain in question. Ordinary language is rich with words to talk about communication, including: topic, interruption, say, means, i.e. ‘Did you mean that?’ The vocabulary available for talking about communication differs somewhat from language to language. For example, positive feedback to a conversational partner through short words or encouraging noises is important in conversation, across languages and cultures. Systematic investigation sometimes begins with folk words and transforms them to technical terms.

Q. intercultural pragmatics

Intercultural pragmatics is based on the socio-cognitive approach according to which, our mind exists simultaneously both in the head and in the world. Cross-cultural comparative studies of discourse have shown that rules of appropriateness vary across cultures. Thus, for learners to become truly effective communicators in a second language, they need to acquire these rules of appropriateness in addition to what we have come to call linguistic competence. Modern language courses include elements of ‘communicative competence’ (Hymes, 1964); providing them with knowledge about and experience in using the sociocultural rules of the new language. Intercultural pragmatics studies speech acts across various cultures to study how language is manifested in a society and is a medium of differentiation between different cultures. The difference in culture causes a number of intercultural failures such as socio-pragmatic failure and pragma-linguistic failure.

Q. Paul influence development in pragmatics 5

Of all thinkers – linguists and philosophers – it is Grice who has had the greatest influence on the development of pragmatics. Two connected parts of Grice’s work have been profoundly influential in the field: his theory of meaning and his theory of conversation. Grice introduces his distinction between natural and non-natural meaning by way of a bit of ‘linguistic botanizing’ (as he later described this characteristic move of the ordinary language style). He notes that the words ‘mean’ and ‘meaning’ can be used in different ways (Allott, 1988). One way is exemplified by expressions such as ‘Those spots mean measles.’ Grice calls this natural meaning. The other use he finds in expressions such as ‘Those three rings on the bell mean that the bus is full.’ This is non-natural meaning.

Q. What is implicature?

The term Implicature accounts for what a speaker can imply, suggest or mean, as distinct from what the speaker literally says (Grice, 1975). Any meaning conveyed indirectly or through hints, and understood implicitly without ever being explicitly stated.

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Example

Sara: My brother has just told me that he cannot look after our daughter after all. Irum: He's such a considerate man!

Here, we have clear sense that literal meaning of irum's word cannot tell us everything what she meant, without particular knowledge of the talk. It perhaps most likely that she is speaking sarcastically or she might genuinely believe that he is a considerate man.

Q. Searle's speech act theory

Searle (1976), proposed that all acts fall into following five main types:

1. **Representatives** commit the speakers to the truth of the expressed proposition – state what the speaker believes to be the case or not (e.g. asserting, concluding, statements of fact) _The earth is flat_. (statement of fact).
2. **Directives** are attempts by the speaker to get the addressee to do something – what the speaker wants (requesting, questioning).
3. **Commissives** commit the speaker to some future course of action – what s/he intends (promising, threatening, offering, refusing).
4. **Expressive** express a psychological state or what a speaker feels (thanking, apologizing, welcoming, congratulating).
5. **Declarations** effect immediate changes in the institutional state of affairs and which tend to rely on elaborate extra-linguistic institutions.

Q. Training of ELT outside the traditional classroom

Teaching to develop pragmatic competence does not end for L2 learners in language focused classrooms. Indeed, there exist advanced communicative needs, particularly regarding workplace literacy skills, job interviews, and business letter writing tasks, etc. LoCastro (2012) has mentioned some factors which are highly important to find a good job. For example, self-presentation, grammatical and lexical accuracy and appropriacy, and the ability to produce synthesized talk about personal and professional experiences and interests, etc. In this regard, Louw, Derwing, and Abbott (2010) have developed a research-based pedagogical process to help L2 learners improve their job-interviewing skills. A combination of videos of simulated job interviews, critiquing by experts on the needed skills, and trial runs by students led to improve their skills. Small talk, enthusiasm, body language, evidence of crosscultural misunderstanding, intelligibility, and a positive demeanor are also focused. The instructional process outside of the traditional classroom comprised three phases such as: Students would observe native speaker discourse for job interviews; becoming aware of differences and salient features, and having lots of practice using new discourse and sociopragmatic strategies. Such training for the workplace context can be a challenge for employers or new employees.

Q. Active theory

All theories of pragmatic meaning include a basic notion, labeled shared background knowledge, world knowledge, or, common ground (LoCastro 2012). Action and Activity Joint actions can

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consist of speech events, in which conversants —negotiate deals, gossip, get to know each other (Clark 1996: 17). However, when the frame for a joint activity is not shared, then the participants even at a supermarket may not be able to achieve their goals. Coordination problems at the level of local joint actions are multiple, the primary one being —what the speakers mean and what their addressees understand them to mean (Clark, 1996: 73). Mis-coordination can be wiped out through language, the conventional signaling system par excellence, or through coordination devices such as gestures. Features of language in use – the length of clauses, the rhythmic placement of turn-taking cues, and tag questions – develop out of the need to achieve joint activities of joint action. Clark's theory provides a framework for studying how speakers and listeners embed signals regarding their identities in their talk. The only evidence to support action theory involves the sociolinguistic dimensions of interactional discourse.

Q. Transcription of conversation

Conventional transcriptions of conversations use a standard orthographic script rather than phonemic transcription. They show how items e.g. 'and' and 'your' are actually spoken since their realization may vary in obvious ways. You might expect to indicate hesitations e.g. 'er' and 'umm'. Other fillers and uptake signals e.g. 'uh-uh' and 'yeah' and audible breathing (hh) and indrawn breath (hh) can be indicated. A more difficult issue is whether and how to represent intonation and pitch; the easiest solution for distinctive pitch prominence might be marked by capitalizing the appropriate segment (e.g. you WHAT). More important in many ways is marking features of conversational sequences. For instance, you will always need to mark pauses in the talk. The widely used convention is parentheses, with the length of pause indicated in tenth of seconds, so that (2.5) would represent a pause of two and-a-half seconds. Short pauses can also be marked with parentheses and points, with (.) equal to a one-syllable length pause, and (..) equal to a two-syllable length pause. Another sequencing phenomenon that needs to be marked is the overlap of two speakers.

Q. Nature of pragmatics investigation

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

- (i) Designing an experiment that enables you to collect data which test this hypothesis.
- (ii) Collecting the data under experimental conditions.
- (iii) Quantifying the data in order to determine whether or not the hypothesis is proved.
- (iv) Considering the implications of the findings and whether follow-up experiments would be useful

Q. what are the reason that contribute to the frailer of word-for-word translation 5

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For more than half a century researchers have been trying to craft devices that can translate between languages. Except in limited ways, however, that goal has eluded even the best attempts thus far. Word-for-word translation does not do the trick because, for one thing, languages differ in their word orders and, for another, the metaphors of one language may not translate into the relevant metaphor of another language. If a machine translation (MT) device were established for even six languages, then $6 \times 5 = 30$ sets of procedures would be needed to translate each language into all of the other five. It is an alternative system -an interlingual translation model - in which the basic semantic elements of each language can be represented abstractly and then encoded into other languages. This would require twelve procedures - one decoding procedure and one encoding procedure for each of the six languages. This model is simpler than the transfer translation model that requires 30 procedures. Unfortunately, we don't know the extent to which sentences can be decomposed into the kinds of abstract semantic representations needed for an interlingual model, especially in making a language-neutral intermediate representation. Difficulties related to translation in either model concern what one language encodes that another may not encode.

BS English

<https://whatsapp.com/channel/0029VaazKAVBfxoDMH4I9U0u>

**Maha
Malik's**

Compilation