

# **SEMANTICS AND PRAGMATICS (ENG508)**

**Notes based on  
Short Question  
Lesson 1 to 20**



**VIRTUAL UNIVERSITY OF PAKISTAN**

### **Important Note**

Every person has his own mentality to conclude any matter. Every person has his own opinion according to his own perception. Here I am going to post some of my experiences regarding VU syllabus for MA ELT because I observed a lot of discrepancies which should be remedied. The handouts of MA ELT are not sufficient to hold a master level knowledge. There is no doubt that most of the lectures are elaborated in video lessons but books have no match. Firstly, there should be proper books of each syllabus. Secondly, if we consider handouts, then handouts are always in bullet form and do not provide explanation. In master classes, due to shortage of time and due to a lengthy syllabus, a skimming technique is applied because main points mostly slipped after some period while in video lectures it is not possible. Due to non availability of books we are facing lot of problems. In VU content library there is a multitude of books for additional study material and each book contains more than 500 pages. Firstly many students can't afford to purchase these books secondly study is impossible if book is in softcopy.

In context to above paragraph, all students are requested to post their proper comments when asked by VU as after exams. Place your solid argument that handouts should be revised and in elaborated form until books are not published from VU.

Notes are always a shortcut to pass the exam but it is not a proper solution to get a degree. All students are requested to go through the handouts and lectures. These notes are only for extreme cases when time is too short or for revising some important points before appearing for paper. Most of the questions were elaborated by taking help from different resources yet some are still copy paste because if original text is totally excluded so student may miss some MCQs. Due to shortage of time I have no time to revise it for vetting or proof study to be errorless. All students are requested that if they found any material suspicious they are to check at their own and also inform to other students to amend it.

Regards

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### A Comparative Table of Semantics & Pragmatics

<b>Semantics Vs Pragmatics</b>	
<b>Semantics</b>	<b>Pragmatics</b>
Study of the relationships between signs and symbols and what they represent.	study of meaning as communicated by the speaker and interpreted by the listener
Literal (lafzi matlab) (e.g. "God is one" show clear meaning, no confusion)	Invisible / non-literal (e.g. Khuda ganjy ko nakhan na day)
de-contextualized	Contextualized (background knowledge context)
Grammatical (e.g.as we say yes for consent)	Expression-based (e.g. as we show thumb up to give consent with smile)
is always an attempt to focus on what the words mean	is always an attempt to focus on what the speaker/listener mean
relationships between signs and symbols	Relationship between speaker and listener
In the semantic analysis, there is always an attempt to focus on what the words conventionally mean	Pragmatics is the study of "invisible" meaning, or how we recognize what is meant even when it isn't actually said or written
Linguistic semantics is the study of how languages organize and express meanings (Kreidler, 1998).	The relationship between the linguistic form and communicative function is of central interest in "Pragmatics".
	pragmatics is concerned with what is conveyed by a particular utterance of a phrase, by a speaker, in a context.
Sentence meaning	Speaker meaning
Truth-conditional	Non-truth-conditional
Encoded	Inferred
Sentences are abstract linguistic structures	Utterance will have spatio-temporal and physical properties
Sentences are linguistic entities	An utterance is an instance of the production of a sentence or a fragment of a sentence

### Q What is Semantics?

The field of linguistics which is concerned with the study of meaning in language is called **Semantics**. **Semantics** is the part of linguistics that is concerned with the study of literal, de-contextualized and grammatical meaning (Frawley, 1992). Semantics can also refer to the branch of study within linguistics that deals with language and how we understand meaning. This has been a particularly interesting field for philosophers as they debate the essence of meaning, how we build meaning, how we share meaning with others, and how meaning changes over time. **Linguistic semantics** is the study of how languages organize and express meanings (Kreidler, 1998)..

### Q What is Pragmatics?

Pragmatics is a branch of linguistics, which is the study of language. Pragmatics focuses on conversational implicature, which is a process in which the speaker implies and a listener infers. Simply put, pragmatics studies language that is not directly spoken. Instead, the speaker hints at or suggests a meaning, and the listener assumes the correct intention.

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

### Q Differentiate Utterances, Sentences, and Proposition.

#### ➤ Utterance

**Definition:** An utterance is any stretch of talk, by one person, before and after which there is silence on the part of that person.

**Rule:** An utterance is the use by a particular speaker, on a particular occasion, of a piece of language, such as a sequence of sentences, or a single phrase, or even a single word.

**Example:** 'Hello', 'Not much' are utterances. Where as, 'Pxgotmgt' and 'Schplotzenpflaaaaaargh!' are not utterances because these strings of sounds is not from any language.

#### ➤ Sentence

**Definition:** A sentence is neither a physical event nor a physical object. It is, conceived abstractly, a string of words put together by the grammatical rules of a language. A sentence can be thought of as the *ideal* string of words behind various realizations in utterances and inscriptions.

**Rule:** We have defined a sentence as a string of words. A given sentence always consists of the same words, and in the same order. Any change in the words, or in their order, makes a different sentence, for our purposes.

**Example:**

- a) Helen rolled up the carpet
- a) Sincerity may frighten the boy

#### ➤ Proposition

**Definition:** A proposition is that part of the meaning of the utterance of a declarative sentence which describes some state of affairs.

The state of affairs typically involves persons or things referred to by expressions in the sentence and the situation or action they are involved in. In uttering a declarative sentence a speaker typically asserts a proposition. It contains predicate (Aspect of entity, quality, state, activity, relation with other entity/ things) + Argument (entity, some sort of thing).

**Rule:** The notion of truth can be used to decide whether two sentences express different propositions. Thus if there is any conceivable set of circumstances in which one sentence is true, while the other is false, we can be sure that they express different propositions.

True propositions correspond to facts, in the ordinary sense of the word fact. False propositions do not correspond to facts.

### Example

In the present-day world,

- a) Is it a fact that there are lions in Africa? **Yes** / No
- b) Is the proposition that there are lions in Africa a true proposition? **Yes** / No

### Q Differentiate Language and Logic

The difference between language and logic is that language is (countable) a form of communication using words either spoken or gestured with the hands and structured with grammar, often with a writing system while logic is (uncountable) a method of human thought that involves thinking in a linear, step-by-step manner about how a problem can be solved logic is the basis of many principles including the scientific method. The difference between language and logic is that language is to communicate by language; to express in language while logic is (pejorative) to engage in excessive or inappropriate application of logic.

### Q What is Compositionality?

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

### Q Define Explicit and the Implicit meanings.

**Explicit** concern obvious meaning and **Implicit** concern unobvious meaning. So if something was explicit in a text, it means that the information is clearly stated for you. *E.g. Josh was wearing a blue, woolly hat yesterday morning.* The colour of his hat is explicit information that we have learnt. However, implicit information is what we are not told but we can guess. *E.g. Josh was wearing a blue, woolly hat yesterday morning.* We could guess that it was cold yesterday morning because Josh is wearing a blue, woolly hat. The sentence doesn't tell us this information directly, but we know that when it's cold, people often wear warm, woolly hats. So explicit is something we **KNOW**, implicit is something that is **SUGGESTED**.

Pragmatists are interested in cases where what the speaker intends to convey is different from the words one chooses literally mean. The former is generally known as the implicit meaning and the latter as the explicit meaning.

### Q What is relation between semantics and grammar?

According to Palmer (1997), almost all the linguists, overtly or covertly, admit that in a linguistic model, semantics is on one end and phonetics on the other, while grammar is at

somewhere in the middle. Many other linguists argue that the aim of doing semantics is to set up a component of the grammar which is parallel to the other ones, e.g. syntax or phonology.

### Q What is the difference between word meaning and the phrase and sentence meanings

A “word” is a string of characters that can have different meanings (*jaguar*: car or animal?; *driver*: one who drives a vehicle or the part of a computer?; *rows*, the plural noun or the third singular person of the verb *to row*?). A “sentence” is a group of words that express a specific thought: to capture it, we need to understand how words relate to other words (“*Paul, Jack’s brother, is married to Linda*“. Linda is married to Paul, not Jack.).

### Q What is creativity according to Chomsky?

Chomsky, in particular, has commented on the creativity of the sentence formation. It is one of the generative grammar’s most important insights that relatively a small number of combination rules allow the speakers to use a finite set of words to create a very large and infinite number of sentences.

### Q What is semantic changes?

Changes in word meanings (a process called *semantic shift*) happen for various reasons and in various ways. Four common types of change are *broadening*, *narrowing*, *amelioration*, and *pejoration*.

- **Broadening**

Also known as *generalization* or *extension*, broadening is the process by which a word's meaning becomes more inclusive than an earlier meaning. In Old English, for instance, the word *dog* referred to just one particular breed, and *thing* meant a public assembly. In contemporary English, of course, *dog* can refer to many different breeds, and *thing* can refer to, well, anything.

- **Narrowing**

The opposite of broadening is narrowing (also called *specialization* or *restriction*), a type of semantic change in which a word's meaning becomes *less* inclusive. For example, in Middle English, *deer* could refer to any animal, and *girl* could mean a young person of either sex. Today, those words have more specific meanings.

- **Amelioration**

Amelioration refers to the upgrading or rise in status of a word's meaning. For example, *meticulous* once meant "fearful or timid," and *sensitive* meant simply "capable of using one's senses."

- **Pejoration**

More common than amelioration is the downgrading or depreciation of a word's meaning, a process called *pejoration*. The adjective *silly*, for instance, once meant "blessed" or "innocent," *officious* meant "hard working," and *aggravate* meant to "increase the weight" of something.

### Q What is Etymology?

The study of the origin and uses of particular words is called etymology. It includes observations about previous meanings of a word or its precursors. Etymological dictionaries attempt to quote at least the most recent origin of each word.

**Q What is the relation of Semantic with other discipline?**

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

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

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

**Q What is Semiotics?**

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

**Q Differentiate Signs, Signifiers, and Signified**

Semiotics is concerned with signs and their relationship with objects and meaning. One way to view signs is to consider them composed of a signifier and a signified. Simply put, the signifier is the sound associated with or image of something (e.g., a tree), the signified is the idea or concept of the thing (e.g., the idea of a tree), and the sign is the object that combines the signifier and the signified into a meaningful unit. Stated differently, the sign is the relationship between the concept and the representation of that concept.

**Q What is Signifier?**

Any material thing that signifies, e.g., words on a page, a facial expression, an image.

**Q What is Signified?**

Signifier refers to a meaningful idea or concept conveyed by signifier.

**Q What is Sign?**

The smallest unit of meaning is sign. Anything that can be used to communicate

**Q What are the types of Sign?**

Types of signs are given below:

- Distinction, highlighted by C. S. Peirce, between Icon, Index and Symbol.

- Iconic signs: Signs where the signifier resembles the signified.
- Similarity between a sign and what it represents. e.g., between a picture and its real-life subject.
- Indexical Signs: Signs where the signifier is caused by the signified.

### Q Who introduced the term Reference and Sense and in which treatise?

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

### Q What is difference between Sense and reference?

The **reference** of a word is the relation between the linguistic expression and the entity in the real world to which it refers. In contrast to reference, **sense** is defined as its relations to other expressions in the language system. Thus, there are words that have a sense, but no referents in the real world. Other words may differ in sense, but not necessarily in reference, and vice versa.

“Reference has to do with the relationship which holds between an expression and what that expression stands for on particular occasions of its utterance” (Lyons, 1977). According to Saeed (2004), Reference is “relationship by which language looks onto the world is usually called reference”. Thus, reference can be concluded **as** the meanings of a word in any language which exist in the real world. Allan describes that “**Sense** is a de-contextualized meaning, abstracted from innumerable occurrences in texts”. Sense relates to the complex system of relationships between the linguistic elements themselves (mostly the words). Concerned only with intra-linguistic relations” (Palmer, 1981).

### Q Define Proposition.

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

### Q Define Sentence.

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

### Q Define Utterance.

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

**Q Differentiate Literal and Non-Literal Meaning.**

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

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

**Q Write a detailed note on different schools of thoughts of semantics/pragmatics.**

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

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

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

**Q Define compositional meanings.**

Sometimes, we need to see meaning within the framework of an academic or scientific discipline; called **compositional meanings**.

**Q What is meaning holism?**

Holism is the idea that something can be more than the sum of its parts; more specifically holism usually refers to reality. It contends that one must understand reality as a whole; that one can't start by examining the parts of reality and end up with an accurate picture. This is more easily seen if we look at biological holism. For example, a duck is more than simply a collection of "duck parts", and thus we can not break a duck down into "duck parts" and end up with an accurate picture of a duck.

A word is defined in terms of some of the very words which help us to define. This view is similar to 'meaning holism' (Quine, 1960) – the meaning of a word/phrase/ sentence depends on its relationship with other words, e.g. part of what makes up the meaning of 'tall' is that it is opposed to the meaning of 'short'.

**Q What is Holist Theory?**

**Semantic holism** is a theory in the philosophy of language to the effect that a certain part of language, be it a term or a complete sentence, can only be understood through its relations to a (previously understood) larger segment of language.

Holist theory tends to be functional in the sense that it is some aspect of the uses of a piece of language which makes for its meaning. If you call something 'tall', you should be willing to call it 'not short'. The critics of this theory also argue that the way language express thought is not as arbitrary as the holist's view predicts. There may be deep, consistent and sophisticated patterns in how languages express meaning. Meaning holism may be correct in a way, it does not provide a basis for the scientific study of linguistic meaning. That is why; it has not been appreciated by formal semanticists (Portner, 2005, p. 3-5)

**Q Write a note on “Idea Theory of Meaning”.**

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

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

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

**Q Define theory of “Meanings Are out in the World”**

There are certain philosophical views/theories which lead us to think that 'meanings are out in the world'. Some theorists believe that **meanings are social practices**. When somebody says something, it should be thought as a kind of move in a giant language game we play. This game has rules which imply that if somebody asks: 'What time is it?' The reasonable move for you is to say 'It is X o'clock'. This theory failed to influence semanticists.

**Q Define “Reference as a theory of meaning”.**

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

**Q Explain Truth condition.**

There can be some possible ways in which a sentence or sentences may be true or false. The knowledge of meaning involves (at least) the knowledge of conditions under which it is true or false. All there to the meaning of a sentence is its truth conditions instead of knowing, in fact, it is true or false. The notion of possible worlds does not mean something imaginary and disconnected from reality. Rather the possible worlds are specific and closer to the real world. In this theory, the meaning of a sentence is called a proposition. The proposition expressed by a sentence amounts simply to its truth-conditions – a set of possible worlds. **Truth Conditions** help us explain logical words (and, or, not) and semantic relations. But it also seems impossible for some scholars that the meaning of a question may be defined in terms of its possible

answers. The meaning of imperatives may be seen as ‘satisfactory’ or ‘unsatisfactory’ instead of ‘true’ or ‘false’ (Portner, 2005, p. 12- 24).

### Q What is Compositional Theory?

A language is an infinite collection of phrases, sentences and, discourses. Any sentence can be made longer by adding another sentence. In addition, semanticists also have to consider the fact that language is creative – we constantly hear new phrases and sentences never heard before. They seek to explain the infinity and creativity of human language by including the **principle of compositionality**. This theory says that the meaning of a piece of language is based solely on the meaning of its parts, and the way they are put together. With this theory we come to know that semantics has a very strong relation with syntax. To understand the structure of a sentence we need to have enough knowledge about its components such as noun, verb, adjective etc.

Q Write a Note on different types of meaning in Semantics.

There are at least seven types of **meaning** (many linguists state their different categories of **meaning**) in semantics according to Geoffrey Leech (1974), those are:

#### 1. Conceptual meaning (logical, cognitive, or denotative content)

It refers to the dictionary meaning which indicates the concepts. In reading we can find many different words have the same conceptual meanings. Take the word walk as an example, the conceptual meaning or the primary dictionary meaning is to move forward by placing one foot in front of the other. There are also a few other words that, according to the dictionary, mean to move forward on foot, etc.

#### 2. Connotative meaning (what is communicated by virtue of what language refers to)

It refers to the associations that are connected to a certain word or the emotional suggestions related to that word. The connotative meanings of a word exist together with the denotative meanings. The connotations for the word snake could include evil or danger.

#### 3. Social meaning (what is communicated of the social circumstances of language use)

It refers to the usage of language in and by society which has big proportions in determining the meaning that certain speaker has to use and wants to convey, those factors include social class of the speaker and hearer and the degree of formality. Only part of the social meaning of a conversation is carried by words. Take saying hello or talking about the weather. Often such talk has little dictionary meaning. It is a way of being friendly or polite.

#### 4. Affective meaning (what is communicated of the feeling and attitudes of the speaker/writer)

It refers to the speaker’s feeling / attitude towards the content or the ongoing context. It is important to remember that each individual will have a different affective meaning for a word. As such, only the person using a word will be aware of the particular affective meaning that they hold with the word. For example, we can discuss the word winter further. The word winter denotatively refers to a time period during which either the northern or southern hemisphere is furthest away from the sun. Different use of stress and intonation also provides a striking contrast in the feelings and attitudes communicated through an utterance.

**5. Reflected meaning** (what is communicated through association with another sense of the same expression)

It refers to terms which have more than one meaning surfaces at the same time, so there is a kind of ambiguity. It is as if one or more unintended meanings were inevitably thrown back rather like light or sound reflected on a surface. For instance, if I use the medical expression chronic bronchitis, it is difficult for the more colloquial emotive meaning of chronic, 'bad,' not to intrude as well. . . . Sometimes, such coincidental, 'unwanted' meanings cause us to change a lexical item for another.

**6. Collocative meaning** (what is communicated through association with words which tend to occur in the environment of another word)

It refers to the associations a word acquires on account of the meanings of words which tend to occur in its environment. In other words, it is that part of the word-meaning suggested by the words that go before or come after a word in question, for instance, heavy news (a piece of sad news); heavy schedule (a very tight schedule); fast color (the color that does not fade); fast friend (a reliable friend); fast woman (a lady of easy virtue), etc.

**7. Thematic meaning** (what is communicated by the way in which the message is organized in terms of order and emphasis).

It relates to or constitutes a topic of discourse, the meaning that the word conveys is that of something that is connected with the theme of something

Types 2-6 are also categorized as associative meaning.

According to Charles Morris, there are three **types of meanings**: referential meaning (the relationship between signs and entities in the world), pragmatic meaning (the relationship between signs and their users; it includes identificational meaning, expressive meaning, associative meaning, social meaning, and imperative meaning), and intralingual meaning (the relationship between different signs; it includes phonological meaning, graphemic meaning, morphological or lexemic meaning, syntactic meaning, and discoursal or textual meaning).

### **Q Define levels of Linguistic Competence.**

Any piece of language is structured simultaneously on more than one level – at least three levels are necessary for linguistic competence. These levels are necessary to generate or understand linguistic utterances. For the analysis of any sentence, we need to establish a **phonological** representation, a **syntactic** representation, and a **semantic** representation.

### **Q What is the difference between the conceptual and connotative meaning?**

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

### **Q Differentiate Sense and Concepts.**

**Sense** places a new level between the words and the world: a level of mental representation. Thus, a noun is said to gain its ability to denote because it is associated with

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

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

### Q What is “Necessary and Sufficient Conditions”?

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

### Q What is Prototypes in semantics?

A **prototype** is a cognitive reference point, i.e. the proto-image of all representatives of the meaning of a word or of a category. Thus, a robin or a sparrow can be regarded as a prototype or a "good example" of the category *bird*, whereas a penguin or an ostrich is a rather "bad example" of this category.

Accordingly, the members of a category can be graded according to their **typicality**. A "good" example only becomes such a one by virtue of its typical features. Defining a prototype as the bundle of typical features of a category, we can thus imagine *birds* as 'creatures that are covered with feathers, have two wings and two legs, and the majority of which can fly'. Therefore, a penguin is a less "good" bird, as it lacks some of the typical features, such the ability to fly. The features themselves can also be more or less typical, for example 'twittering' is less typical and specific to birds than 'flying'.

### Q What is Linguistic Relativity?

Linguistic relativity (also known as the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis) is a general cover term for the conjunction of two basic notions. The first notion is that languages are relative, that is, that they vary in their expression of concepts in noteworthy ways. The second notion is that the linguistic expression of concepts has some degree of influence over conceptualization in cognitive domains, which need not necessarily be linguistically mediated. This article explores the treatment of linguistic relativity within works generally representative of cognitive linguistics and presents a survey of classic and more modern (pre- and post-1980s) research within linguistics, anthropology, and psychology. First, it provides a brief overview of the history of linguistic relativity theorizing from Wilhelm von Humboldt through to Benjamin Whorf. It then

discusses the role of literacy to cognitive and cultural development, folk classification, and formulations of linguistic relativity.

### **Topic – 32 The Language of Thought Hypothesis**

*The language of thought hypothesis* (LOTH) proposes that thinking occurs in a mental language. Often called *Mentalese*, the mental language resembles spoken language in several key respects: it contains words that can combine into sentences; the words and sentences are meaningful; and each sentence's meaning depends in a systematic way upon the meanings of its component words and the way those words are combined. For example, there is a Mentalese word WHALE that denotes whales, and there is a Mentalese word MAMMAL that denotes mammals. These words can combine into a Mentalese sentence WHALES ARE MAMMALS, which means that whales are mammals. To believe that whales are mammals is to bear an appropriate psychological relation to this sentence. During a prototypical deductive inference, I might transform the Mentalese sentence WHALES ARE MAMMALS and the Mentalese sentence MOBY DICK IS A WHALE into the Mentalese sentence MOBY DICK IS A MAMMAL. As I execute the inference, I enter into a succession of mental states that instantiate those sentences.

### **Q Define Lexical semantics.**

Branch of semantics that deals with word meanings is called lexical semantics (Yule, 1994).

### **Q What Are Lexical Relations?**

The Lexical relations are relationships of the meanings of the words to other words (Bolinger, 1968:11). Lexical relations are central to the way speakers and hearers construct meaning. The lexical relation is used to indicate any paradigmatic relation among words. It is not just a semantic relation; so, it includes phonetic relations such as rhyme and alliteration, morphological relations such as inflectional variations and morpho-syntactic relations such as co-membership in a grammatical category.

### **Q Write down the different definitions of the Word.**

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

### **Q Define Homonymy.**

**Homonyms** are unrelated senses of the same phonological words. Different types of homonyms can be distinguished by their syntactic behaviors and spellings, for instance: lexemes of the same syntactic category with same spellings, e.g. lap - 'circuit of a course' and lap - 'part of the body when sitting down' or, lexemes of the same syntactic category with different spellings e.g. the verb 'ring' and 'wring' or, lexemes of the different syntactic category

with same spellings e.g. the verb ‘keep’ and the noun ‘keep’ or, lexemes of the different syntactic category with different spellings e.g. not, knot.

### **Q Define Polysemy**

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

### **Q Define Synonyms.**

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

### **Q Define and Antonyms**

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

### **Q Write Different types of relationships among Antonyms.**

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

### **Q Define Hyponymy.**

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

**Q Define Meronymy and how it is different from Hyponymy?**

Meronymy is a term used to describe a part-whole relationship between lexical items, e.g. we can identify this relationship by using sentence frames like X is part of Y or Y has X, as 'in a page is part of a book, or a book has pages'. Meronyms vary in three ways:

First, how necessary the part is to the whole. e.g. nose as a meronym of the face.

Others are usual but not obligatory, e.g. collar as a meronym of the shirt.

Third are optional, e.g. cellar for the house.

Meronymy differs from hyponymy in transitivity. Hyponymy is always transitive but meronymy may or may not be.

Transitive: nail as a meronym of finger and finger of the hand.

Non-transitive: hole is a meronym of button and button of shirt, but hole is not a meronym of shirt (A shirt has holes!).

**Q What are Causative Verbs?**

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

**Q What are Agentive Nouns?**

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

**Q What is Core Vocabulary?**

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

**Q What is Universal Lexeme?**

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

**Q Write a note on Paradigmatic 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), e.g. read the following sentence: "The cat was sitting on the rug." Now, imagine the words 'the' can be replaced with. The word "the" is chosen from among a number of words such as "a," "their," "his," and "my" that could have filled the same slot, that is, "the 'vertical axis' of selection." And also, "cat" is chosen instead of "dog," "boy," or "baby," and "was" instead of "is," and so on.

### **Q Write a note on Syntagmatic Relations.**

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

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

### **Q Define Collocations.**

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

### **Q Explain Idioms.**

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

**Q What is Propositional Logic?**

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

**Q What is Predicate Logic?**

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

**Q What is Entailment? Quote an example.**

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

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

**Q What is 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).. Speakers assume certain information which is already known by their listeners and that information is called presupposition. Presupposition is treated as a relationship between two propositions.

**Q What are the two Approaches to Presupposition?**

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

Second approach views sentences as the utterances of individuals engaged in a communication act. The aim is to develop the strategies that speakers and hearers use to communicate with one another. Thus, we might look at communication from the speaker’s

viewpoint. Presupposition is one of a number of inferences that the listener might make on the basis of what the speaker has just said.

The first approach is essentially semantic and the second pragmatic.

### **Q What are Presupposition Triggers?**

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

### **Q What are the two type of situation?**

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.

### **Q Define Tense and Aspect.**

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

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

### **Q Expalin Modality?**

Modality is a linguistic category (like aspect or tense) that modifies the meaning of the event or action we talk about to include ways to “influence” the event described. Modality may express what the speaker wants to do (give permission, describe ability, suggest, request, offer, prohibit, express desires or necessity, etc.) It also expresses whether the speaker believes, or is sure that what he or she is saying is true.

### **Q Define the types of Modality.**

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.

### **Q What is Mood?**

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

### **Q Write down the different types of mood.**

There are different types of moods:

- Indicative moods express a fact, opinion, or question based on realist form.
- Potential moods: The word 'Potential' stands for probability. So, potential moods may have specific verb ending. Conditional uses infinitives with auxiliary verbs such as have, be, etc.
- Subjunctive moods contrast with indicative moods because there is an element of uncertainty in subjunctive moods. These are used for wishes, beliefs, etc. e.g. 'May you live long!'
- Imperative moods make direct commands or requests. For example, 'show me the money.'

### Q What is Evidentiality?

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

### Q Write down the different types of mood.

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.

### Q Write a brief note on Thematic Role.

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.

### Q Write Down the definitions of under mentioned terms

**Agent, Patient, Theme, Experiencer, Beneficiary, Instrument, Location, Goal, Source, Stimulus**

**Agent** is the initiator of some action, capable of acting with volition. For example, Rashid cooked the meat.

**Patient** is the entity/person undergoing the effect of the main action of a verb or undergoing some change in state, for example, John cut down these bushes.

**Theme** is the entity (person or thing) which is changed or moved by an action of a verb, or whose location is described by verb. For example, the book is in the library.

**Experiencer** is the entity which is aware of the action or state described by the predicate but which is not in control of the action or state. For example, Kamran heard the door shut.

**Beneficiary** is the entity for whose benefit the action was performed. For example, they baked me a cake.

**Instrument** is the means by which an action is performed or something comes about. For example, I write a letter with the pen.

**Location** is the place where something is situated or has taken place. For example, the baby was hiding behind the curtain.

**Goal** is the entity towards which something is moved, either literally or metaphorically. For example, the driver handed his license to the policeman.

**Source** is the entity from which something moves, either literally or metaphorically. For example, I took the pen from the drawer.

**Stimulus** is the entity causing an effect (usually psychological) during an experience. For example: The noise of the horn frightened the passengers.

### Q What are the problems with Thematic Roles?

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

### Q Define Formal Grammar.

Formal grammar is the study or the use of rules about how words change their form and combine with other words to express meaning (Cambridge Dictionary). This is a fact about English that sequence of sounds conveys meaning differently. 'Man' /mæn/ is singular grammatically and 'Men' /men/ is plural grammatically

### Q What are Grammatical Categories?

Grammar is not restricted to the study of form or function words. It is concerned, more widely, with categories such as tense, gender, number and with syntactic functions such as subject and object, e.g. 'Ali' (Noun/Subject, etc.). These categories can be on 'phrasal level' as well, e.g. 'Ali the son of John' is a noun phrase. According-- to Palmer, there are two familiar grammatical categories, 'Gender' and 'Number' but English has strictly no grammatical gender at all. It has, of course, pronouns he, she, it but, these are essentially the markers of sex. Noun class of **countable** and **uncountable**, or **count** and **mass**. Examples of count nouns are a cat, a book, an apple, etc. Mass nouns may occur with no article or with some indefinite quantifiers. For example, some butter, some milk, little water etc. The category of person (first person I, we, second person you, and the third person he, she, it, they) is often closely associated with the number and with gender in the verbal forms of languages. The first person relates to a speaker while, the second person relates to the hearer.

### Q Differentiate Grammar and Lexicon?

It is irrelevant for semantics whether a grammatical category is indicated by a form of the word, by a morpheme or the order of the words. For example, Past tense is marked by the past tense morpheme (-ed) but there is no similar morpheme to indicate the future; future is marked by 'shall, will, or be going to'. The distinction between 'Grammar and Lexicon' can be posed in terms of the distinction between 'grammatically unacceptable sentence' and 'those that are excluded on lexical grounds'. \*The boys are in the room. is incorrect but the meaning is not vague. Chomsky invented the sentence Colorless green ideas sleep furiously, which seems faultless grammatically, yet is completely unacceptable lexically. Therefore, if a sentence conforms to grammar, but be completely deviant lexically, it would seem that grammar and lexicon are distinct.

### Q Write down relationships of formal semantics with other Varieties of Semantics.

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

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

### Q Write down relationships of formal semantics with other Fields

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

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

### Q Write a detailed note on Semantics and Society.

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

### Q What is Practical Dictionary?

Dictionary may be seen as a reference book which is the inbuilt dictionary that everyone of us carries around as part of his mental equipment as a speaker of a language.

### Q What are lexical entries and how they are represented?

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

### Q Write a note on Lexical Rules?

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 **partial** Acceptability; and those which are totally unacceptable. **Actual acceptability** is a graded concept If, for example, we take the suffix 'less' with a list of English nouns. The principle of **partial productivity** that we have seen to operate in suffixation can be observed equally clearly not only in other types of word-formation, such as prefixation and compounding but in semantic transfer. The

**unacceptability** of a lexical entry not allowed for in the lexical rules at all. For example, \*sheapable (suffix -able is added should be added to a verb, i.e. adjustable, gradable).

### Q Write a note on lexical derivatiomn.

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

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

### Q What Is Pragmatics?

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

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

### Q What are the types of Pragmatics?

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

### Q What is the difference between Theoretical pragmatics and Social pragmatics?

**Theoretical pragmatics** 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.

### Q Describe three sub-group of Pragmatics.

1. **Pragmalinguistics** - deals with the more linguistic end of the pragmatic spectrum. Usage is seen from the viewpoint of structural resources of a language, i.e. concerns aspects of context which are formally encoded in the structure of a language.
2. **Sociopragmatics** - see usage as primarily determined by social factors in communication.

3. **Applied pragmatics** - refers to practical problems of interaction in situations where successful communication is critical, e.g. medical interviews, law courts, interrogations, official counseling etc.

### Q How Pragmatics is different from linguistics?

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

### Q What is the relation between Pragmatics and Discourse analysis?

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.

### Q Define under-mentioned terms.

#### Cohesion, Relevance theory, Function, Speech Acts,

**Cohesion** refers how words relate to each other within the text, referring backward or forwards to other words in the text.

**Relevance theory** is the study of how the assumption of relevance holds texts together meaningfully.

**Function** is the speakers' short-term purposes in speaking, and long-term goals in interacting verbally. In the example of Queen, the purpose was to stop the courtiers trying to make her laugh.

Units that cover function are called '**Speech Acts**' which describe what utterances are intended to do, such as promise, apologize and threaten etc.

### Q What is Situational Context?

The situational context is the immediate physical correspondence, the situation where the interaction is taking place at the moment of speaking e.g. people talking on the phone and making gestures with their hands or face. For example, 'Go right John'. (Indicating to right side) The hearer and speaker do not share the situational context, so the gestures do not add meaning to the words

### Q What is Background Knowledge Context?

Background knowledge context is considered second type of context and refers to 'mutual knowledge' of a group, community or persons, at the time of speaking. It can be further divided into 'Culture Knowledge' and 'Interpersonal Knowledge'.

### Q What is cultural 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'.

### Q What is Interpersonal knowledge?

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

### Q What is Co-textual Context?

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

### Q What is 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. For example: 'Mr. Aftershave is late today'.

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

### Q What is Exophora?

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

### Q Define Deixis

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.

**Q What is endophoric reference? Describe its types.**

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

There are two types of endophora: Anaphora and Cataphora.

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

**Topic – 102 Grammatical Cohesion**

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

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

**Q Define Lexical Cohesion?**

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

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

**Q What is Superordinate?**

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