

ENG 508 RECENT FILE FINALS 2020

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Final Exams 2020 ENG 508 Recent File

Q. Driving force behind the Grice, s work (Topic#114)

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

Q. What is implicature? (Topic#114)

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.

Example:

Sara: My brother has just told me that he cannot look after our daughter after all.

Irum: He's such a considerate man!

Explanation:

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: What is the difference between generalized and particular conversational implicature? (Topic#116)

Generalized Particular: It is a conversational implicature that is inferable without reference to a special context (no special knowledge is required to figure out the additional meaning). It means that a generalized conversational implicature is one which does not depend on particular features of the context, but is instead typically associated with the proposition expressed. A particularized conversational implicature occurs when a conversation takes place in a very specific context in which locally recognized inferences are assumed.

EXAMPLE:

1) “Fred thinks there is a meeting tonight”.

Fred doesn't know for sure that there is a meeting tonight.

2) A: Did you invited bella and Cathy?

B: I invited Bella.

EXAMPLE:

1. Where is my book?

Your young sister is drawing something. The action “draw “of young sister would ordinarily not convey anything about her book, so implicature in this case depends on the context as well as the utterance itself.

2.A: hey, coming to the party tonight?

B: My parents are visiting.

Occur when a conversation takes place in a very specific context in which locally recognized inferences are assumed. The particularized conversational implicature is used widely, because it can provide with more contents, more aspects of speech than generalized conversational implicature.

Q: What is scalar implicature? (Topic#117)

A scalar implicature is a quantity implicature based on the use of an informationally weak term in an implicational scale. Example 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, give 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 (<necessarily, possibly>, <must, should, may>), **connectives (<and, or>), adverbs (<always, often, sometimes>), degree adjectives (<hot, warm>)** and verbs of ranking (<know, believe>, <love, like>) or completion (<start, finish >).

Q: Write the Properties of conversational implicature. (Topic#119)

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. Define cancellability. (Topic#119)

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.

Example

- 1) John has 3 cows.
- 2) John has only three cows.
- 3) John has 3 cows, if not more.
- 4) John has at least 3 cows.

Q: Define non-truth conditionality of conventional implicature. (Topic#121)

Non-truth-conditionality of 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.

Q Conversational Implicature

Conversational Implicature is implied by the speaker in making an utterance; it is part of the content of the utterance; it does not contribute to direct (or explicit) utterance content, and it is not encoded by the linguistic meaning of what has been uttered. For example, Sara: *will you eat some of this chocolate cake?* Amna: *I'm on a diet.* Here, Amna asserts that she is on a diet, and implicates that she will not cake. Conversational Implicature is a subset of the implications of an utterance: namely those that are part of utterance content.

Q Conventional Implicature

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. Give examples of deictic expression 'this' and 'that. (topic #124 but exp from google)

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 social deixis?(Topic#127)

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. It may include social class, kin relationship, age, sex, profession, and ethnic group. The pronoun systems of some languages also grammaticalized 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.

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's speech act theory (Topic#141)

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: **Commissive** 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: Two preparatory conditions of promise (Topic#142)

There are two preparatory conditions:

First, the event will not happen by itself. Second, the event will have a beneficial effect. 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 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 Raising Pragmatic Awareness

In order to understand the relation of language to its point of origin, let's practice this activity. 1) Form a small group which includes at least one person with a good knowledge of a language other than English. Ask this person to translate utterances containing a range of deictic phenomena into their other language and explain any problems or differences to you. 2) This exercise will work well in tutorial groups.

Ask each member of the group to come with two consecutive sentences. These sentences can be chosen from any book whose *'indexical properties'* may be discussed. 3) This makes a good vacation task.

If you get the opportunity to travel, watch out for uses of deictics that surprise you. If you aren't able to travel, try to mix with unfamiliar groups and see how they use *'we'* to show membership, or listen out for uses of *'this'* and *'that'* to encode psychological distance.

Try to note down exactly what you heard or read and then report it to your tutorial group at the first meeting of new term. 4) Identify an occasion when you might expect to hear a variety of deictic ways of communicating what appears to be the same message – in Britain, the announcements on trains are interesting as each company, even individual announcers, tries to encode their own notion of the common ground you and they share. Note down what you hear and present an analysis to your tutorial group.

Q Define 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.

Whereas, the sentence in (1) will be treated as having the **entailments** that: Mary's brother bought something, bought three animals, bought three horses, and many other similar logical consequences. These entailments follow from the sentence, regardless of whether the speaker's beliefs are right or wrong, in fact.

Q Types of Presupposition

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. **(3) Non Factive Presupposition** refers to something that is not true. **(4) Lexical Presupposition** is an assumption that, in using one word, the speaker can act as another meaning (word). 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 Speech Acts Theory:

Speech act theory is similar to physical acts. People also perform acts by using language – e.g. to give orders, to make requests, to give warnings or to give advice, etc.

Speech acts are acts of communication (such as an apology, complaint, compliment etc.) E.g. 'It's hot here' may be a 'request' instead of mere information about weather. Every time a speaker utters a sentence, he attempts to accomplish something with the words. Specifically, he intends to have some effect on the listener and he wants the listener to recognize this intention. Speaker and hearer are usually helped in this process by the context called speech events; determine the interpretation of an utterance as performing a particular speech act.

Q Difference between explicit and implicit performance:

Explicit performatives are performative utterances that contain a performative verb that makes explicit what kind of act is being performed and tend to begin with a first person singular 'I'

Implicit performatives are performative utterances in which there is no such verb. Constatives – are the statements that attempt to describe reality and can be judged true or false.

Q. What is face saving act? (Topic#150)

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 **FACE THREATENING ACT (FTA)** : 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.

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. **Negative face-threatening acts** occur when the speaker impinges on the listener's negative face. The speaker requires a verbal response or an action from the person s/he is addressing.

Q What is Politeness Theory?

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. What happens when a polite form is used un appropriately? (Topic#159)

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 Positive and Negative Politeness

A **positive politeness** strategy leads the requester to appeal to a common goal, even friendship, via expressions such as: [a] How about letting me use your pen? [b] Hey, buddy, I'd appreciate it if you'd let me use your pen. These expressions do represent a greater risk for the refusal. It may be proceeded by some getting to know you' talk, designed to establish the necessary common ground for this strategy.

For instance, Hi. How's it going? Okay if I sit here? We must be interested in the same crazy stuff. You take a lot of notes too, huh? Say, do me a big favor and let me use one of your pens'.

Moreover, positive politeness is a strategy used when the speaker is at least familiar with the listener. It recognizes the person's status while also acknowledging the familiarity.

Negative politeness is also used when speakers know they are impinging on a person's time and want to show respect. For example, stopping a person on the street for instance, to ask for directions requires negative politeness.

Q Note on the concept of friendliness and solidarity in Politeness Strategies:

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. What is meant by adjacency pairs in conversational analysis? (Topic#163)

"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: IA: You left the light on. I, [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. Five features of conversational analysis (Topic#160)

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

Q. Degree of formality in the politeness (Topic#157)

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, then those with higher status and so on do.

Q. Status as reference with social factors of politeness? (Topic#157)

The choice of the politeness formulation depends on the social distance and the power relation between speakers. When there is social distance, politeness is encoded and there is more indirectness. When there is

less social distance, there is less negative politeness and indirectness. Variables that determine social distance are: degree of familiarity and differences of status, roles, age, gender, education, class, occupation and ethnicity.

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Q What Is Conversational Analysis?

Conversational analysis looks at ordinary everyday spoken discourse and aims to understand how people manage their interactions. It is the study of social interaction embracing both verbal and non-verbal conduct in everyday life. It is a rigorous investigation of features of a conversation,

how it is generated and constructed, how it operates, what its distinguishing features are, and how participants construct their own meanings in the conversational situation. Conversations are multi-layered/multi-leveled. It examines different levels of meaning within a text. It also looks at the contents, sequence, evolution and, forms of the conversation.

In this analysis, we study how speakers decide when to speak during a conversation, how the utterances of two are related, and different functions that conversation is used for. Features of conversational analysis include, turn-taking, pauses, overlaps and backchannels, adjacency pairs, preference structures, and sequences expansion.

Q Cross-cultural Pragmatics

Cross cultural pragmatics is a subfield of pragmatics. Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993) defined CCP as the study of linguistic acts by language users from different cultural backgrounds. Cross-cultural pragmatics aims at understanding the extent to which non-shared knowledge or in simple terms our schemas affect or modify the retrieval of intended meaning.

CCP looks at issues outside classrooms and concentrates on environments where participants are not explicitly learners, but rather full members of the target language community. In pragmatics, —culture|| is not Culture, with a capital C – that is, the literature, music, and art. Rather, it is culture as a reflection of the values and beliefs about the world, held by the members of a community which forms, in effect, the substratum of their everyday life.

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. Interlanguage pragmatics (Topic#168)

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. role of computer in the development of linguistics? (Topic#171)

Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is defined as —the search for and study of applications of the computer In language teaching and learning (Levy, 1997: 1). CALL covers a

broad range of activities which makes it difficult to describe it as a single idea or simple research agenda. CALL has come to encompass issues of materials design, technologies, pedagogical theories and modes of instruction. Computational Linguistics on the other hand, is the study of language from a computational perspective. CL is concerned with the study of computer systems for understanding and generating natural language (Grisham, 1986). The process of dictionary making today is undergoing dramatic change. It is largely owing to advances in computers and the availability of machine-readable collections of texts known as corpora. Corpus linguistics is the term used for compiling collections of texts and using them to probe language use. In this context, a corpus is a representative body of texts (corpus is the Latin word for body'). More recent corpora contain over 100 million words, and corpora of texts in many languages are being compiled. It is also very essential for twenty-first-century dictionary making and in many other ways, including speech recognition and artificial intelligence.

Q. What are the reasons of the failure of word for word translation? (Topic#173)

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. 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.

Q. Transcription of conversation (Topic#183)

Conventional transcriptions of conversations use a standard orthographic script rather than phonemic transcription. They show how items e.g. and you 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 tenths 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. lexical and structural ambiguity (Topic#186)

Lexical ambiguity that occurs when one form corresponds to more than one words with different meanings. This type of ambiguity, in written texts, results from multiple meanings of a word, and in spoken language, results from different word forms of the same sounds. With respect to a written text, in a sentence e.g. (1), the word bank can refer to a slope side of a river or a business establishment. The word captain has one meaning of 'the person in command of a ship, aircraft,

or spacecraft' or another meaning of 'a leader of a team or group, so this sentence may be also ambiguous without context.

Structural ambiguity

Structural ambiguity is due to the syntactic structure of the utterance, as in: They are fighting fish (Nicholas Allott, 1988). Structural ambiguity refers to the situation in which 'a sentence may have different meanings because the words of a sentence are related to each other in various ways, even though each word is clear. A sentence like (2) illustrates two different possibilities - one is that Ted saw a girl with his glasses; the other one is that Ted saw a girl with her glasses. Distinguishing from lexical ambiguity, all the words in this sentence are clear on their individual meanings. Thus, a simple test for differentiating these two types is that the sentence which includes more than one structure trees without individually ambiguous words is a structurally ambiguous sentence.

Q. Note on argumentation theory (Topic#187)

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. What is code theory (Topic#188)

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. Experimental pragmatics (Topic#193)

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. Three fundamental concepts of mental process (Topic#194)

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

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

Q: Hyperbole (Topic#197)

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.

Q. What is the coordination problem at the level of local joint action. Explain briefly with reference to action. (Topic#211)

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. Active theory (Topic#211)

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 consist of speech events, in which conversant —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). Miscoordination 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. Clarks 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. Tennen gender theory (Topic#215)

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). Deborah Tannen believes the reason there is a difference in language between men and women is because parents used words of emotion to girls and verbs to boys. She says men and women belong to different sub-cultures. She believes the difference starts in childhood, where parents use more

words about feelings to girls and use more verbs to boys. Males and females belong to different sub-cultures and therefore speak differently. Her book, *You Just Don't Understand*, claims that there are six main differences between the ways males and females use language:

1. **Status vs. support** – men see language as a means of asserting dominance; women see it as a way of confirming/supporting ideas.
2. **Independence vs. intimacy** men go it alone; women seek support.
3. **Advice vs. understanding** men see language as problem solving; women see it as a means of empathy.
4. **Information vs. feelings** – males are concerned with the facts; women with emotions.
5. **Orders vs. proposals** – men use imperatives; females use hidden directives.
6. **Conflict vs. compromise** – men will argue; women will try to find a middle ground.

Q. Can pragmatic competence be taught and learnt in instructed context? (Topic#222)

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 Kanaggy (1999), the children in Japan are taught the cultural practices and the pragmatic meanings 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 influence (Kasper and Rose, 2002).

Q. Enlist six words which may indicate 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 five types of implicature?

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

Q: Three Facets of speech act

- 1) Locutionary speech act
- 2) Illocutionary speech act
- 3) Perlocutionary speech act

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 Introduction to Information Structure

We use language to state one thing or other. It runs counter to our expectations of how information should be presented in a text. Somehow, it emphasizes the wrong elements or emphasizes the right elements at the wrong time. Speakers and writers are responsible for foregrounding certain elements and back-grounding others, just as a painter uses contrasts of color, shape, and value to highlight some details and deemphasize others.

In language texts, such highlighting and deemphasizing is called information structure. Unlike syntax and semantics, which are sentence-based aspects of language, information structure requires consideration of discourse - coherent sequences of sentences rather than isolated ones.

Q 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 Define Ambiguity

Ambiguity is a sequence of linguistic signs (written, spoken or signed) is ambiguous if and only if it is assigned more than one meaning by the grammar. In other words, ambiguous expressions are expressions that have more than one meaning in the language. Types of Ambiguity are:

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

Disambiguation is the process of selecting the intended sense of an ambiguous word, phrase or sentence from among the senses allowed by the grammar. Disambiguation is largely unconscious and automatic, and most of the ambiguity, therefore goes unnoticed by the speaker or the hearer.

Q Metaphor and Synecdoche

Metaphor is a type of figurative speech. Typically, a metaphor ascribes to an entity a property that it does not, strictly and literally speaking, possess, although not all metaphors fit this definition. Metaphors are not restricted to any particular type of word or phrase (Allott, 1988). The metaphorical element of a sentence can be a noun phrase, as in John is an iceberg. Verbs can also be used metaphorically, as in Flintoff drilled the ball to the boundary.

Synecdoche is a figure of speech in which an expression that denotes the part of something is used to refer to the whole. For example, mouth in I've got six hungry mouths to feed. For example: willow for cricket bat in such phrases as to wield the willow (Allott, 1988).

The term **synecdoche** is sometimes also regarded as including the use of an expression denoting a smaller class to refer to a larger class, and for the converse situation. This is a very broad definition since it would include within synecdoche obvious metaphors such as that animal for that man. Many cases of polysemy are regarded as related through synecdoche. One example is the two senses of chicken: the type of bird, and the meat (Allott, 1988).

Q Define Tautology:

Tautology is a statement that expresses a proposition that is necessarily true is called a tautology. For example: $[2 + 2 = 4]$, $[\text{War is war.}]$, $[\text{If it rains, it rains.}]$. 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? Not all utterances of tautologies convey inevitability: Archie: $[\text{Can I borrow your pen?}]$, Brenda: $[\text{Here you are. It's only a biro, though.}]$, Archie: $[\text{A pen is a pen.}]$. 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 Noam Avram Chomsky

Chomsky's views on meaning, in particular, are of direct relevance to pragmatics. He has said that there is no such thing as semantics, only syntax, and pragmatics, and has been taken to suggest that a theory of language use is an impossibility since it would have to be a theory of everything. A fundamental of Chomskyan linguistics is a distinction between competence, what is (unconsciously) known about language, and performance, what is done with that knowledge.

This distinction allows linguists to focus on the properties of the grammatical system, abstracting away from how it is used. Principles shared by all languages are taken to be the aspects of Universal Grammar, innately specified. For example, natural language is recursive in the sense that it allows a phrase to be embedded in another phrase with no principled limit on the depth of embedding.

All languages also have structural dependencies between elements within sentences. These are structural limitations on which words can be linked (Allott, 1988). 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 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.

positioned as a typical teaching assistant, often denigrated at the university by regular faculty, students, and administrators (LoCastro, 2012).

Q Western Perspectives

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 either Mrs. or Miss plus their family name.

Q Why Is Pragmatic Competence Important for 2nd Language Learners?

According to LoCastro (2012), pragmatic competence for second language learners is important even more than acquiring high linguistic proficiency in the L2. Pragmatic Competence helps the learners to use the correct phrases in a particular situation. In this situation, a well-phrased question, asking for information about what bus to take, not only goes far to obtain the correct information, but also can help to break down barriers.

According to LoCastro (2012), during learning, the learners should be given a chance to bring in personal experience and make connections with the real world of conversational interactions. To sum up, we can say that Pragmatic Competence cannot be ignored in everyday conversation.

Q Training in pragmatic outside the class room, in raising pragmatic awareness.

Awareness raising among teachers because is lack of teachers programs. Teachers should be properly guided about the selection of material, the choice of activities and the important 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.