

Linguistics: 4th. Year Morning and Evening studies

Text book: The Study of Language, George Yule 4th. Edition and above

1st. Semester 2021/2022

Syllabus Required: Semantics, Pragmatics, and Discourse Analysis

Week one: Introduction and definition of semantics. Semantics as the study of meaning of words and sentences. The 2nd. Item is semantic features which relate the crucial element or feature of meaning that any noun must have in order to be used as the subject of the verb ate. Such an element may be as general as “animate being.” We can then use this idea to describe part of the meaning of words as having either plus (p) or minus (–) that particular feature. So, the feature that the noun boy has is “–animate” (1/4 denotes an animate being) and the feature that the noun hamburger has is “–animate” (1/4 does not denote an animate being).

The 2nd. Item is semantic rules. In this item, instead of thinking of words as containers of meaning, we can look at the “roles” they fulfill within the situation described by a sentence. If the situation is a simple event, as in The boy kicked the ball, then the verb describes an action (kick). The noun phrases in the sentence describe the roles of entities, such as people and things, involved in the action. We can identify a small number of semantic roles (also called “thematic roles”) for these noun phrases.

Week two: This week is about Semantic features:

Agent and theme:

Agents and themes are the most common semantic roles. Although agents are typically human (The boy) they can also be non-human entities that cause actions, as in noun phrases denoting a natural force (The wind), a machine (A car), or a creature (The dog), all of which affect the ball as theme in examples. The theme is typically non-human, but can be human (the boy), as in the last sentence.

Instrument and experiencer:

If an agent uses another entity in order to perform an action, that other entity fills the role of instrument. In the sentences The boy cut the rope with an old razor and He drew the picture with a crayon, the noun phrases an old razor and a crayon are being used in the semantic role of instrument. When a noun phrase is used to designate an entity as the person who has a feeling, perception or state, it fills the semantic role of experiencer.

Location, source and goal:

A number of other semantic roles designate where an entity is in the description of an event. Where an entity is (on the table, in the room) fills the role of location. Where the entity moves from is the source (from Chicago) and where it moves to is the goal (to New Orleans), as in We drove from Chicago to New Orleans. When we talk about transferring money from savings to checking, the source is savings and the goal is checking.

Week three: Lexical relations1:

Synonymy:

Two or more words with very closely related meanings are called synonyms. They can often, though not always, be substituted for each other in sentences. For example:

almost/nearly	big/large	broad/wide	buy/purchase
cab/taxi	car/automobile	couch/sofa	freedom/liberty

Antonymy

Two forms with opposite meanings are called antonyms. Some common examples are the pairs:

alive/dead	big/small	enter/exit	fast/slow	happy/sad
hot/cold				
long/short	male/female	married/single	old/new	rich/poor
true/false				

Antonyms are usually divided into two main types, “gradable” (opposites along a scale) and “non-gradable” (direct opposites).

Week four: Lexical relations 2:

Hyponymy:

When the meaning of one form is included in the meaning of another, the relationship is described as hyponymy. Examples are the pairs: animal/horse, insect/ant, flower/ rose.

Prototypes:

While the words canary, cormorant, dove, duck, flamingo, parrot, pelican and robin are all equally co-hyponyms of the superordinate bird, they are not all considered to be equally good examples of the category “bird.” According to some researchers, the most characteristic instance of the category “bird” is robin. The idea of “the characteristic instance” of a category is known as the prototype.

Homophones and homonyms:

When two or more different (written) forms have the same pronunciation, they are described as homophones. Common English examples are bare/bear, meat/meet, flour/flower, pail/pale, right/write, sew/so, to/too/two.

Week Five: Pragmatics:

This week presents introductory elements about pragmatics.

Introduction and definitions to pragmatics. Pragmatics as the study of language use or the study of the intended speaker meaning.

Context and meaning: the importance of context in the interpretation of meaning. There are 2 types of context: linguistic context and physical context.

Deixis: there are some words that cannot be interpreted unless used in their appropriate context. There are three types of deixis: personal, special and temporal.

Week six:

Reference: is an act by which a speaker (or writer) uses language to enable a listener (or reader) to identify something. To perform an act of reference, we can use proper nouns (Chomsky, Jennifer, Whiskas), other nouns in phrases (a writer, my friend, the cat) or pronouns (he, she, it).

Inference: An inference is additional information used by the listener to create a connection between what is said and what must be meant. In the last example, the listener has to operate with the inference: "if X is the name of the writer of a book, then X can be used to identify a copy of a book by that writer." Similar types of inferences are necessary to understand someone who says that Picasso is in the museum or We saw Shakespeare in London or Jennifer is wearing Calvin Klein.

Week seven:

Anaphora: Anaphora can be defined as subsequent reference to an already introduced entity. Mostly we use anaphora in texts to maintain reference. The connection between an antecedent and an anaphoric expression is created by use of a pronoun (it), or a phrase with the plus the antecedent noun (the puppy), or another noun that is related to the antecedent in some way (The little dog ran out of the room). The connection between antecedents and anaphoric expressions is often based on inference.

Presupposition: When we use a referring expression like this, he or Shakespeare, we usually assume that our listeners can recognize which

referent is intended. In a more general way, we design our linguistic messages on the basis of large-scale assumptions about what our listeners already know. Some of these assumptions may be mistaken, of course, but mostly they're appropriate. What a speaker (or writer) assumes is true or known by a listener (or reader) can be described as a presupposition.

Week eight:

Speech acts: We use the term speech act to describe actions such as "requesting," "commanding," "questioning" or "informing." We can define a speech act as the action performed by a speaker with an utterance. If you say, I'll be there at six, you are not just speaking, you seem to be performing the speech act of "promising". There are 2 types of speech acts: direct and indirect.

Presupposition: We can think of politeness in general terms as having to do with ideas like being tactful, modest and nice to other people. In the study of linguistic politeness, the most relevant concept is "face." Your face, in pragmatics, is your public self-image. This is the emotional and social sense of self that everyone has and expects everyone else to recognize. Politeness can be defined as showing awareness and consideration of another person's face.

Week nine: Discourse Analysis

Definition and introduction of discourse analysis: The word "discourse" is usually defined as "language beyond the sentence" and so the analysis of discourse is typically concerned with the study of language in texts and conversation.

Interpreting discourse: The way we react to language that contains ungrammatical forms rather than simply reject the text as ungrammatical, we try to make sense of it. That is, we attempt to arrive at a reasonable interpretation of what the writer intended to convey.

Week ten:

Cohesion and coherence: texts must have a certain structure that depends on factors quite different from those required in the structure of a single sentence. Some of those factors are described in terms of cohesion, or the ties and connections that exist within texts. On the other hand, the key to the concept of coherence (“everything fitting together well”) is not something that exists in words or structures, but something that exists in people. It is people who “make sense” of what they read and hear. They try to arrive at an interpretation that is in line with their experience of the way the world is.

Speech events: the events or circumstances we understand language.

Week eleven:

Conversation analysis: In simple terms, English conversation can be described as an activity in which, for the most part, two or more people take turns at speaking. Typically, only one person speaks at a time and there tends to be an avoidance of silence between speaking turns. (This is not true in all situations or societies.)

Turn taking: There are different expectations of conversational style and different strategies of participation in conversation. Some of these strategies seem to be the source of what is sometimes described by participants as “rudeness” (if one speaker cuts in on another speaker) or “shyness” (if one speaker keeps waiting for an opportunity to take a turn and none seems to occur). The participants characterized as “rude” or “shy” in this way may simply be adhering to slightly different conventions of turn-taking.

Week twelve:

The cooperative principle: An underlying assumption in most conversational exchanges seems to be that the participants are co-operating with each other. This principle, together with four maxims (quantity, quality, relation and manner) that we expect our conversational partners to obey, was first described by the philosopher Paul Grice. The co-operative principle is stated in the following way: “Make your conversational contribution such as is

required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged” (Grice, 1975: 45).

Hedges: We use certain types of expressions, called hedges, to show that we are concerned about following the maxims while being co-operative participants in conversation. Hedges can be defined as words or phrases used to indicate that we’re not really sure that what we’re saying is sufficiently correct or complete. We can use sort of or kind of as hedges on the accuracy of our statements, as in descriptions such as His hair was kind of long or The book cover is sort of yellow (rather than It is yellow).

Week thirteen:

Implicature: an additional conveyed meaning that cannot be interpreted in terms of what is said.

Background knowledge: the knowledge stored in the mind of interlocutors in terms of which they can interpret utterances easily.

Schemas and scripts: A schema is a general term for a conventional knowledge structure that exists in memory. We were using our conventional knowledge of what a school classroom is like, or a “classroom schema.”. On the other hand, a script is essentially a dynamic schema. That is, instead of the set of typical fixed features in a schema, a script has a series of conventional actions that take place.

Week fourteen: written exam and revision