



Modul Mata Kuliah

Pragmatics

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Kata Pengantar

Ass. wr.wb

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Buku ini ditulis sebagai media belajar siswa mengenai kajian Pragmatics. Keberhasilan buku ini tentu tidak akan terwujud tanpa adanya dukungan dan bantuan dari berbagai pihak.

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Buku ini tidak luput dari kekurangan dan kesalahan. Jika pembaca menemukan kesalahan apapun, penulis mohon maaf setulusnya. Selalu ada kesempatan untuk memperbaiki setiap kesalahan, karena itu, dukungan berupa kritik & saran akan selalu penulis terima dengan tangan terbuka.

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Chapter 1

Semantics and Pragmatics

1.1 Definition of Semantics

What is Semantics?

- The study of meaning of words, phrases, and sentences.
 - Lexical semantics (words and meaning relationship among words)
 - Phrasal/ sentential semantics (syntactic units larger than a word)
- What a speaker conventionally means (objective or general meaning)- *not what he is trying to say* (subjective or local meaning)

Some typical semantic roles

Thematic Role	Example
AGENT	<i>The waiter</i> spilled the soup.
EXPERIENCER	<i>John</i> has a headache.
FORCE	<i>The wind</i> blows debris from the mall into our yards.
THEME	Only after Benjamin Franklin broke <i>the ice</i> ...
RESULT	The French government has built a <i>regulation-size baseball diamond</i> ...
CONTENT	Mona asked " <i>You met Mary Ann at a supermarket?</i> "
INSTRUMENT	He turned to poaching catfish, stunning them <i>with a shocking device</i> ...
BENEFICIARY	Whenever Ann Callahan makes hotel reservations <i>for her boss</i> ...
SOURCE	I flew <i>in from Boston</i> .
GOAL	I drove <i>to Portland</i> .

1.2 Differences Semantics and Pragmatics

SEMANTICS VERSUS PRAGMATICS

SEMANTICS	PRAGMATICS
Study of words and their meanings in a language	Study of words and their meaning in a language with concern to their context
Focuses mainly on the significance of the meaning of words in a literal sense	Additionally focuses on the meaning of words according to the context and their inferred meanings as well
Studies the literal meaning	Studies the intended or the inferred meaning as well

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• Semantics in Everyday Life

- One part of studying language is understanding the many meanings of individual words. Once you have a handle on the words themselves, context comes into play. The same word can be said to two people and they can interpret them differently.
- For example, imagine a man told a woman, "I care for you... a lot." Wouldn't that make the woman's heart melt? Sure, if he just said that out of the blue, walking down the beach one day. But, what if the woman told the man, "I love you," and, after a long pause, all he said was, "I care for you... a lot." She'd be crushed. So, context (the current situation) will always play a role in everyday semantics.

Here are some examples of everyday words that can have more than one meaning:

- A water pill could be a pill with water in it but it is understood to be a diuretic that causes a person to lose water from his body.
- "Crash" can mean an auto accident, a drop in the Stock Market, to attend a party without being invited, ocean waves hitting the shore, or the sound of cymbals being struck together.
- Depending on context, a flowering plant could be referred to as a weed or a flower.
- A human can be referred to as a male, female, child, adult, baby, bachelor, father or mother.
- To call someone a lady means more than simply being female. Semantics tell us that, if she's a lady, she possesses elegance and grace.
- "Young" can allude to a colt, filly, piglet, baby, puppy, or kitten.
- To say something was challenging leads us to believe it was not a good experience. It wasn't just difficult, it was also unpleasant.
- The verb "move" can mean change place, push, pull or carry, or stir emotion.
- To call someone an angel doesn't mean they inhabit heaven. Semantics leads us to believe they have a lovely disposition.
- The word "create" can mean build, make, construct, erect, compose or imagine.
- The simple word "on" can have many meanings, such as: on call, on the roof, on cloud nine, on edge, on fire, on purpose, on demand, on top, or on the phone.

I. Conceptual or Denotative Meaning

- Conceptual meaning is also called logical or cognitive meaning. It is the basic propositional meaning which corresponds to the primary dictionary definition.
- It is the essential or core meaning.
- E.g.
/P/ can be described as- **voiceless + bilabial + plosive.**
- Similarly
Boy = + human + male -adult.
The hierarchical structure of '**Boy**' = + Human + Male -Adult

- Conceptual meaning deals with the core meaning of expression. It is the denotative or literal meaning. It is essential for the functioning of language. For example, a part of the conceptual meaning of '**Needle**' may be "**thin**", "**sharp**" or "**instrument**".
- The aim of conceptual meaning is to provide an appropriate semantic representation to a sentence or statement.
- The conceptual meaning is the base for all the other types of meaning.

3. Social Meaning

- The meaning conveyed by the piece of language about the social context of its use is called the social meaning.
- The decoding of a text is dependent on our knowledge of stylistics and other variations of language.
- We recognize some words or pronunciation as being dialectical i.e. as telling us something about the regional or social origin of the speaker.
- Social meaning is related to the situation in which an utterance is used.

5. Reflected Meaning

- Reflected meaning arises when a word has more than one conceptual meaning or multiple conceptual meaning.
- In church service 'the comforter and the Holy Ghost' refer to the third in Trinity. They are religious words. But unconsciously there is a response to their non-religious meanings too. Thus the 'comforter' sounds warm and comforting while the 'Ghost' sounds 'awesome' or even 'dreadful'. One sense of the word seems to rub off on another especially through relative frequency and familiarity (e.g. a ghost is more frequent and familiar in no religious sense.).

6. Collocative Meaning

- Collocative meaning is the meaning which a word acquires in the company of certain words. Words collocate or co-occur with certain words only e.g. Big business not large or great.
- Collocative meaning refers to associations of a word because of its usual or habitual co-occurrence with certain types of words. **'Pretty'** and **'handsome'** indicate **'good looking'**.

Linguistics meaning vs. use

Linguistics meaning atau makna linguistik (bahasa) dibedakan dengan use atau pemakaiannya. Secara sepintas, semantik dan pragmatik adalah cabang ilmu bahasa yang sama-sama menelaah makna-makna satuan lingual.

Perbedaannya, semantik mempelajari makna linguistik atau makna bersifat internal, sedangkan pragmatik mempelajari makna penutur atau makna dalam penutur dan bersifat eksternal yang berhubungan dengan konteks. Dengan kata lain, semantik mempelajari arti harfiah dari sebuah ide sedangkan pragmatik adalah makna tersirat dari ide yang diberikan.

Contoh:

Dalam kalimat berikut, B menjawab pertanyaan A dengan setidaknya tiga kemungkinan cara untuk menyatakan "belum" atau "tidak ingin makan".

A : siang ini kamu sudah makan?

B(1) : saya belum makan. Tapi saya tidak ingin makan.

B (2) : saya sudah makan barusan. (berbohong)

B(2) : saya masih kenyang, kok.

Chapter 2 PRAGMATICS

2.1 Definition of Pragmatics

DEFINITION

- the study of the practical aspects of human action and thought.
- the study of the use of linguistic signs, words and sentences, in actual situations.
- Pragmatics outlines the study of meaning in the interactional context
- It looks beyond the literal meaning of an utterance and considers how meaning is constructed as well as focusing on implied meanings. It considers language as an instrument of interaction, what people mean when they use language and how we communicate and understand each other.

Pragmatics

Studying Speech in Cultural Context (Ethnographic Study of Speech)

1. *Speech Situation (Context)*
The social setting in which speech takes place (a party, a religious ceremony, etc.)
2. *Speech Act*
Minimal unit of speech has a specified function.
3. *Speech Event*
A series of interrelated speech acts that comprise a unit (Conversation, lecture, joke)

Presuppositions

An implied truth that is taken for granted by all parties to a speech act.

2.2 If Pragmatics Did Not Exist

WHAT WOULD HAPPEN TO LANGUAGE IF PRAGMATICS DID NOT EXIST?

- We would like to demonstrate this by showing you how life would be WITHOUT Pragmatics:

Example: 'Can you pass the salt?'

Literal Meaning: Are you physically able to do this task?

Literal Response: 'Yes'

- (Pragmatic Meaning: Will you pass me the salt?
Pragmatic Response: pass the salt to the speaker.)

Example: What time do you call this?'

Literal Meaning: What time is it?

Literal Response: A time (e.g. 'twenty to one.')

- (Pragmatic Meaning: a different question entirely, e.g. Why are you so late?
Pragmatic Response: Explain the reason for being so late.)

Chapter 3 SPEECH ACTS

DEFINITION

What is speech act?

Speech acts are the speaker's utterances which convey meaning and make listeners do specific things (Austin, 1962). According to Austin (1962), when saying a performative utterance, a speaker is simultaneously doing something.`

There are three types of speech act:

1. A **locutionary speech act** occurs when the speaker performs an utterance (locution), which has a meaning in the traditional sense.
2. An **illocutionary speech act** is the performance of the act of saying something with a specific intention.
3. A **perlocutionary speech act** happens when what the speaker says has an effect on the listener.

- ◉ In linguistics, a **speech act** is an utterance defined in terms of a speaker's intention and the effect it has on a listener. Essentially, it is the action that the speaker hopes to provoke in his or her audience. **Speech acts** might be requests, warnings, promises, apologies, greetings, or any number of declarations.

Three kinds of meaning of speech acts

- **Locutionary**: the **literal meaning** of the utterance
- **Illocutionary**: the **social function** that the utterance or written text has (e.g. informing, ordering, warning, undertaking.)
- **Perlocutionary**: the **result or effect** that is produced by the utterance in that given context (e.g. convincing, persuading, deterring.)

Classification of illocutionary speech acts according to Searle (1975)

- **assertives** = speech acts that commit a speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition
- **directives** = speech acts that are to cause the hearer to take a particular action, e.g. requests, commands and advice
- **commissives** = speech acts that commit a speaker to some future action, e.g. promises and oaths
- **expressives** = speech acts that expresses on the speaker's attitudes and emotions towards the proposition, e.g. congratulations, excuses and thanks
- **declarations** = speech acts that change the reality in accord with the proposition of the declaration, e.g. baptisms, pronouncing someone guilty or pronouncing someone husband and wife

Chapter 4
IFID's AND FELICITY CONDITION

6.2 IFIDS

Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices

- IFIDs: are supposed to be elements, or **aspects of linguistic devices** which indicate either that the utterance is made with a certain illocutionary force, or else that it constitutes the performance of a certain illocutionary act.

- In **English**, for example,
 - **the interrogative mood: question**

A man trying to contact Mary	:	Can I talk to Mary?
Mary's friend	:	No, she's not here
A man trying to contact Mary	:	I'm asking you- can I talk to her?
Mary's friend	:	and I'm telling you-SHE'S NOT HERE!

Felicity Condition

- In **pragmatics** (the study of how to do things with words) and **speech-act theory**, the term **felicity conditions** refers to the conditions that must be in place and the criteria that must be satisfied for a **speech act** to achieve its purpose.

- [English Language and Linguistics Online \(ELLO\)](#) gives the example of a marriage scene in a movie:

"Have you ever asked yourself why the words 'I now pronounce you husband and wife' do not create a legal marriage between two people when uttered in the context of a film set?"

Of course, the actors in the scene **are not really legally married**, even if they both say "I do," before the thespian justice of the peace or clergyperson recites these words. **The conditions are not in place and the criteria are not satisfied for this speech act to achieve its purpose**—namely that the "bride" and "groom" enter into a marriage that is legally binding. And the person officiating has no legal authority to pronounce the two husband and wife. Thus, the speech act in the movie marriage scene is not felicitous.

Types of Felicity Conditions

There are several types of felicitous conditions, notes ELLÖ, including the following:

- **Propositional content**, which requires participants to understand language, not to *act* like actors
- **Preparatory**, where the authority of the speaker and the circumstances of the speech act are appropriate to its being performed successfully
- **Sincerity**, where the speech act is being performed seriously and sincerely
- **Essential**, where the speaker intends that an utterance be acted upon by the addressee

Chapter 5 COOPERATIVE PRINCIPLES

DEFINITION

- The **cooperative principle** is a **principle** of conversation that was proposed by Grice 1975, stating that participants expect that each will make a "conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange."
- Cooperative in pragmatics: both speaker and listeners has similar understanding to their conversation. Implicature: Expression of the listeners in responding the speaker. Another description is less and general of the statement but the meaning is general.



EXAMPLE

- Consider the following scenario:

There is a woman sitting on a park bench and a large dog lying on the ground in front of the bench. A man comes along and sits down on the bench.

Man : does your dog bite?


Woman : No. *(the man reaches down to pet the dog. The dog bites the man's hand).*

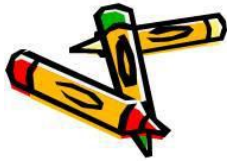
Man : Ouch! Hey! You said your dog doesn't bite.

Woman : He doesn't. But that's not my dog.


The problem in the scenario caused by the man's assumption.



- 
- The concept of the conversation being expected amount of information provided in conversation is just one aspect of more general idea that people involved in a conversation will cooperate each other.
 - both speaker and listeners has similar understanding to their conversation.



COOPERATIVE PRINCIPLES

- 
- Cooperatives are based on the values of **self-help, self-responsibility, democracy, equality, equity, and solidarity**. In the tradition of their founders, cooperative members believe in the ethical values of honesty, openness, social responsibility and caring for others.



POLITENESS AND INTERACTION

- Face means the public self-image of a person. Ace refers to that emotional and social sense of self that everyone has and expects everyone else to recognize.
- In term of interaction, politeness can defined as the means employe4d to show awareness for another person's face. Showing awareness for another person's face when that other seems socially distant is often described in terms of respect or deference.



Some factor determined the politeness:

- a) Lexical choice: Use the word *could*, *would*, or etc.
- b) Sentence structure: We can use command sentence by using asking sentence.
- c) Gesture and Posture: Use our part of body to support to our speech. We can not use freely all part our body to support our speech act.
- d) Intonation

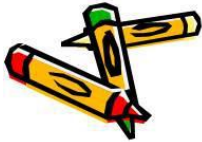
Example of Politeness

- a. Excuse me, Mr. Buckingham, but can I talk to you for a minute?
- b. Hey, Bucky, got a minute?



FACE WANTS

- Face wants: people generally behave as if their expectations concerning their public self-image will be respected within their everyday social interaction.
- Face threatening act: speaking of speakers that represents a threat to another individual's expectations regarding self image.
- Face is *citra* or image.
- Politeness is use to keep person's face.



FACE SAVING ACTS

- Face saving act (*menghargai orang lain*): given 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.

Example:

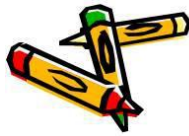
- Him: I'm going to tell him to stop that awful noise right now!
- Her: Perhaps you could just ask him if he is going to stop soon because it's getting a bit late and people need to get to sleep.

There are many different ways of performing face saving acts, since each person will attempt to respects the face wants of others.



NEGATIVE AND POSITIVE FACE

- Negative face is the need to be independent and positive face is the need to be connected.
- **Negative Face:** The need of the person to be independent, to have freedom of action, and not to be imposed of by others.
- **Positive Face:** The need of the person to be accepted, even liked, by others, to be treated as a member of the same group, and to know that his or her wants are shared by others.



- **Negative politeness:** a face saving act which is oriented to the person's negative face will tend to show deference, emphasized the importance of the other's time or concerns, and even include an apology for the for the imposition or interruption
- **Positive Politeness:** a face saving act which is concerned with the person's positive ace will tend to show solidarity, emphasize that both speakers want the same thing, and that they have a common goal.



Chapter 6 MAXIM

Implicature



- ☞ An **implicature** is something the speaker suggests or implies with an **utterance**, even though it is not literally expressed. Implicatures can aid in communicating more efficiently than by explicitly saying everything we want to communicate.



- ☞ Implicature learns about how to understand implied meaning. Sometimes interlocutor hides a meaning in an utterance and expects the implied meaning reached by hearer. Implicature is divided into
 - a. **Conventional**: Conventional implicature is a situation in conversation, which the meaning of an utterance does not rely on special context
 - b. **conversational implicature**: Conversational implicature is used when someone speaks with additional meaning

DEFINITION



∞ Dalam pragmatika, **implikatur percakapan** adalah maksud yang terkandung di dalam suatu ujaran, tetapi kurang atau tidak dinyatakan secara langsung. Istilah ini dicetuskan oleh Grice (1975) yang mengemukakan empat maksim atau prinsip kerja sama (*cooperative principles*) yang harus ditaati oleh peserta pertuturan dalam upaya melancarkan jalannya proses komunikasi. Keempat maksim tersebut adalah kuantitas, kualitas, relevansi, dan cara (*manner*).

MAXIM



- ☞ Maksim adalah suatu prinsip yang harus dipahami oleh dua belah pihak, penutur dan pendengar, saat berkomunikasi supaya proses komunikasi dapat berjalan dengan baik.
- ☞ agar tuturan dapat dimengerti lawan tutur, maka penutur akan mempertimbangkan secara seksama berbagai aspek yang terlibat atau mungkin terlibat dalam komunikasi tersebut. Hal inilah yang menimbulkan bentuk-bentuk pragmatik dalam prinsip kerjasama.

Maxim of Quantity



- ☞ **The maxim of quantity**, where one tries to be as informative as one possibly can, and gives as much information as is needed, and no more.
- ☞ **Contoh yang sesuai:**
 - A : Apakah Anda sudah mengerjakan tugas?
 - B : Ya, sudah.
- ☞ **Contoh yang tidak sesuai:**
 - A : Apakah Anda sudah mengerjakan tugas?
 - B : Belum. Kemarin saya berlibur di rumah nenek di Yogya. Sampai rumah sudah larut sehingga saya tidak sempat mengerjakan tugas.

Maxim of Quality



☞ **The maxim of quality**, where one tries to be truthful, and does not give information that is false or that is not supported by evidence.

☞ **Contoh yang sesuai:**

A : Kamu tahu, Eko kuliah dimana?

B : di ITB.

☞ **Contoh yang tidak sesuai:**

A : Kamu tahu, Eko kuliah dimana?

B : Dia tidak kuliah di UNJ seperti kita, tapi di ITB.

Maxim of Relevance



☞ **The maxim of relation**, where one tries to be relevant, and says things that are pertinent to the discussion.

☞ The **maxim of relevance** originally called the '**maxim of relation**'(Grice) is one of Grice's four conversational **maxims**, which jointly constitute the cooperative principle. Grice defines it as follows: "I expect a partner's contribution to be appropriate to immediate needs at each stage of the transaction"

Maxim of Relevance



☞ Contoh yang sesuai:

A : Dimana kotak permenku?

B : Di kamar belajarmu.

☞ Contoh yang tidak sesuai:

A : Dimana kotak permenku?

B : Saya harus segera pergi kuliah.

Maxim of Manner



☞ **The maxim of manner**, when one tries to be as clear, as brief, and as orderly as one can in what one says, and where one avoids obscurity and ambiguity.

☞ Maksim pelaksanaan atau maksin cara mengharuskan setiap peserta percakapan berbicara secara langsung, jelas tidak kabur, dan tidak berlebih-lebihan.

☞ Contoh

A : "Ayo, cepat dibuka!" (ucapannya jelas)

B : "Sebetar dulu, masih dingin"

Flouting of Maxim



- ☞ A cooperative speaker can intentionally disobey a **maxim**, as long as (s)he or the context provides enough indicators for the hearer to notice it. This is called **flouting a maxim** and is used to indirectly convey information (e.g., using sarcasm or irony). **Example:** (4) What an amazing baseball player John is!
- ☞ In flouting, speakers do not give right information as required by maxims, but still, the hearer can reach the meaning because of the implicature. Flouting can happen in four sub-principles of maxim. There are flouting the maxim of quantity, flouting the maxim of quality, flouting the maxim of relation, and flouting the maxim of manner.

Flouting A Maxim Maxim



- ☞ **Flouting the maxim of quantity** happens when a speaker gives too little or much information. Thomas (2013) explains “flouting of the maxim of quantity is a situation when a speaker blatantly gives more or less information than the situation requires”.
- ☞ **Flouting the maxim of quality** happens when an utterance cannot be interpreted in literal. According to Cruse (2000) flouting the maxim of quality is not literally true, but not is likely to mislead hearers because of the context of use in the utterance.



- ❧ **Flouting the maxim of relation** happens when a speaker changes the topic of conversation, but still expects a hearer to realize and know about the alteration.
- ❧ **Flouting the maxim of manner** happens when a speaker says something unclearly. Cutting (2002) states that flouting the maxim of manner happens when a speaker does not talk clearly, appearing to obscure and tend to ambiguity.

Violating



Violating towards maxims can mislead a hearer. Grice states (as cited in Peter and Morgan, 1975) “people may quietly and unostentatiously violate a maxim, if so, in some cases he will be liable to mislead” (p.49). Violating can also happen in four sub-principles of maxim. There are violating towards maxim of quantity, quality, relation, and manner.



- ❧ violating towards maxim of quantity happens when a speaker does not give enough information to a hearer about the whole picture or the topic being discussed.
- ❧ violating towards maxim of quality is a situation where a speaker is not sincere and gives wrong information to a hearer, which can be said as lie.
- ❧ violating towards maxim of relation happens when a speaker change the topic to avoid the answer or topic that brought by other interlocutors in conversation.
- ❧ violating towards maxim happens when someone gives obscure reference, and vague reference, in order to avoid a brief and orderly answer in a conversation

Chapter 7
PRESUPPOSITION AND ENTAILMENT

Introduction

- Entailment is a relation between sentence meanings, or propositions. (Sometimes, speaking loosely, we talk as though it were a relation between sentences.)
- Presupposition can also be seen as a relation between propositions, although many linguists (including George Yule) prefer to see presupposition as strictly pragmatic, and a relation between a speaker and a proposition. In any case it is important to see that these are two independent kinds of relations. A proposition which is presupposed in a particular utterance may or may not also be entailed.

ENTAILMENT

Not a pragmatic concept but pure logically concept.

A sentence (meaning) A entails B ($A \models B$) if whenever A is true, then B must also be true. Entailment is a very strong kind of implication. It is a semantic relation — thus, it holds no matter what the facts of the world happen to be (it holds in all possible worlds).

In **pragmatics** (linguistics), **entailment** is the relationship between two sentences where the truth of one (A) requires the truth of the other (B). For example, the sentence (A) The president was assassinated. entails (B) The president is dead.

Contoh Entailment

- a. Mary broke the window \models - The window broke

Asumsi dari pendengar adalah ada orang bernama Mary dan ada kaca yang pecah

- b. Sue and Fred went to the party \models - Sue went to the party

TYPES OF ENTAILMENT

1. Background Entailment

- a. logical concept of entailment
- b. a very large number of them exist of an utterance

2. Foreground Entailment

The speaker can communicate, usually by means of stress, more important for interpreting intended meaning than any other.

PRESUPPOSITION

- A presupposition is a speaker assumes to be the case prior to making an utterance.
- Presuppositions are implications that are often felt to be in the background — to be assumed by the speaker to be already known to the addressee.

- A good diagnostic: presuppositions are shared by members of ‘the S family’ — that is, they remain constant under
 1. Negation (denial)
 2. Questioning
 3. Embedding under modals (e.g. *might*, *it is possible that*)
 4. Embedding as the antecedent of a conditional (i.e. in an *if*-clause).Example: A speaker of any of the sentences below would be presupposing that there is a king of France.
 2. **The king of France is bald.**
 - b. The king of France is not bald.
 - c. Is the king of France bald?
 - d. The king of France might be bald/Possibly the king of France is bald.
 - e. If the king of France is bald, he should wear a hat in the winter.

- A Relationship Between Two Propositions

- a. Mary's dog is cute. ($= p$)

- b. Mary has a dog. ($=q$)

- c. $p \gg q$ (p presuppose q)

- Constancy Under Negation

- a. Mary's dog is not cute. ($= \text{NOT } p$)

- b. Mary has a dog. ($=q$)

- c. $\text{NOT } p \gg q$.

Differences

Presupposition	Entailment
The speaker assumes to be the case prior to making an utterance	Something logically follows from what is asserted in utterance.
Speakers, not sentences have it.	Sentences, not speakers have it.
More speaker dependent notion.	Naturally logic and not discussed.

EXAMPLE

“Mary’s brother bought three horses”

Presuppositions are:

- Mary exists.
- Mary has brothers.
- Mary has only one brother.
- He has a lot of money.

Entailment:

- Mary’s brother bought something.
- He bought three animals
- He bought two horses.
- He bought one horse.
- Etc.

Chapter 8

Types of Presupposition

PRESUPPOSITION

Levinson (1983:179-180) said that a presupposition is a background belief, relating to an utterance, that:

- 1. Must be mutually known or assumed by the speaker and addressee or utterances to be considered appropriate in context.
- 2. Generally will remain a necessary assumption whether the utterance is placed in the form of an assertion, denial, or question.
- 3. Generally, will be associated with a specific lexical item or grammatical feature (presupposition trigger) in the utterance.

Example:

- Positive sentence:
 - a. Benny's dog is cute(p)
 - b. Benny has a dog(q)
 - c. $p \gg q$ (p presupposes q)

Negative sentences:

- a. Benny's dog is not cute(=NOT q)
- b. Benny has a dog(=q)
- c. NOT $p \gg q$ (NOT p presupposes q)

Presupposition of the listener is Benny has a dog

TYPES

1. Potential Presupposition:

Yule described "A potential presupposition is an assumption typically associated with the use of a linguistic form (words, phrases, structure)" (1996:27).

2. Existential Presupposition:

It is the assumption assumed to be committed to the existence of the entities names by the speaker and assumed to be present in the noun phrase. For example:

- Your car'(>> you have a car)'
- My mother's dress is dirty'(>> my mother exists and that she has a dress)

Presupposition (pra-anggapan) untuk kalimat pertama adalah mobilnya ada, dan untuk kalimat kedua adalah "ibu" itu ada dan punya baju.

3. Factive Presupposition

- It is the assumption that is true and can identify by some verbs such as 'know', 'realize', 'regret', 'be', 'aware', 'odd', and 'glad'. For examples:
 - a. Michael didn't realize that Cano was wrong(>> Cano was wrong)
 - b. Cano regrets telling us(>>Cano told us)
 - c. Hawila is glad that is over(>> It is over).

4. Lexical Presupposition

It is the presupposition that use of one word with is asserted meaning is conventionally interpreted with the presupposition that another (non; asserted) meaning is understood. Other examples involving the lexical presupposition are, 'stop', 'start', 'again'".

- She stopped smoking(>> he used to smoke)
- You're late again(>> you are late before)

5. Structural Presupposition

It is the assumption associated with the use of certain words and phrase and assumed to be true, for example, WH question construction in English are conventionally interpreted with the presupposition that the information after the WH-form is already known to be case. For example:

- When did he leave?(>> he left)
- Where did you buy the bike?(>> you bought the bike)

6. Non Factive Presupposition

It is the assumption that is assumed not to be true and which is identified by presence of some verb such as 'dream', 'image', 'pretend'. Those are used with presupposition that what is not true. For example:

- I dream that I was rich(>> I was not rich)
- We imagine that we were in Hawaii(>> you are not in Hawaii)
- He pretends to be ill(>> he is not ill)

5. Counterfactual Presupposition

- It is the assumption that what is presupposition is not only untrue, but it is opposite of what is presupposed is not only untrue, but it is opposite of what is true, or contrary to fact. For instance, some conditional structure, generally called counterfactual conditionals presuppose that the information in if-clause is not at the time of utterances

Chapter 9 Reference

Definition

- Reference, as the act of the speaker/writer using a linguistic form to enable a listener/reader to identify something, depends on the speaker's intentions (e.g. to refer to sth.) and on the speaker's beliefs (e.g. so the listener can identify the speaker's intention).
- In **linguistics**, a referring expression (RE) is any noun phrase, or surrogate for a noun phrase, whose function in discourse is to identify some individual object. The technical terminology for *identify* differs a great deal from one school of linguistics to another. The most widespread term is probably *refer*, and a thing identified is a *referent*, as for example in the work of John Lyons. In linguistics, the study of reference relations belongs to pragmatics, the study of language use, though it is also a matter of great interest to philosophers, especially those wishing to understand the nature of knowledge, perception and cognition more generally.

Kinds of expressions

- a noun phrase of any structure, such as: *the taxi* in *The taxi's waiting outside*; *the apple on the table* in *Bring me the apple on the table*; and *those five boys* in *Those five boys were off school last week*. In those languages which, like English, encode definiteness, REs are typically marked for definiteness. In the examples given, this is done by the definite article *the* or the demonstrative adjective, here *those*.
- a noun-phrase surrogate, i.e. a pronoun, such as *it* in *It's waiting outside* and *Bring me it*; and *they* in *They were off school last week*. The referent of such a pronoun may vary according to context - e.g. the referent of *me* depends on who the speaker is - and this property is technically an instance of deixis.

- a proper name, like *Sarah*, *London*, *The Eiffel Tower*, or *The Beatles*. The intimate link between proper names and type (1) REs are shown by the definite article that appears in many of them. In many languages this happens far more consistently than in English. Proper names are often taken to refer, in principle, to the same referent independently of the context in which the name is used and in all possible worlds, i.e. they are in Saul Kripke's terminology rigid designators.

Types of References

1. Coreference

In linguistics, **coreference**, sometimes written **co-reference**, occurs when two or more expressions in a text refer to the same person or thing; they have the same referent, e.g. *Bill said he would come*; the proper noun *Bill* and the pronoun *he* refer to the same person, namely to Bill. Coreference is the main concept underlying binding phenomena in the field of syntax. The theory of binding explores the syntactic relationship that exists between coreferential expressions in sentences and texts. When two expressions are coreferential, the one is usually a full form (the antecedent) and the other is an abbreviated form (a proform or anaphor). Linguists use indices to show coreference, as with the *i* index in the example *Bill_i said he_i would come*. The two expressions with the same reference are *coindexed*, hence in this example *Bill* and *he* are coindexed, indicating that they should be interpreted as coreferential.

2. Endophora

Endophora refers to the phenomenon of expressions that derive their reference from something within the surrounding text (endophors).

For example, in the sentences "**I saw Sally yesterday. She was lying on the beach**", "**she**" is an **endophoric expression** because it refers to something mentioned elsewhere in the text, i.e. "**Sally**".

By contrast, "She was lying on the beach," if it appeared by itself contains an **exophoric** expression; "she" refers to something that is not present in the surrounding text, so there is not enough information given within the text to independently determine to whom "she" refers. It can refer to someone the speaker assumes his audience has prior knowledge of, or it can refer to a person he is showing to his listeners. Without further information, in other words there is no way of knowing the exact meaning of an exophoric term.



- 3. exophora

- In pragmatics, **exophora** is reference to something extralinguistic, i.e. **not in the same text**, and contrasts with endophora. Exophora can be deictic, in which special words or grammatical markings are used to make reference to something in the context of the utterance or speaker. For example, pronouns are often exophoric, with words such as "this", "that", "here", "there", as in *that chair over there is John's* said while indicating the direction of the chair referred to. Given "Did the gardener water those plants?", it is quite possible that "those" refers back to the preceding text, to some earlier mention of those particular plants in the discussion. But it is also possible that it refers to the environment in which the dialogue is taking place—to the "context of situation", as it is called—where the plants in question are present and can be pointed to if necessary. The interpretation would be "those plants there, in front of us". This kind of reference is called exophora, since it takes us outside the text altogether. Exophoric reference is not cohesive, since it does not bind the two elements together into a text.

Chapter 10

REFERENCE (part 2)

COREFERENCE

When exploring coreference, there are numerous distinctions that can be made, e.g. anaphora, cataphora, split antecedents, coreferring noun phrases, etc.^[2] When dealing with proforms (pronouns, pro-verbs, pro-adjectives, etc.), one distinguishes between anaphora and cataphora. When the proform follows the expression to which it refers, anaphora is present (the proform is an anaphor), and when it precedes the expression to which it refers, cataphora is present (the proform is a cataphor). These notions are illustrated as follows:

Anaphora

- a. The music_i was so loud that it_i couldn't be enjoyed. – The anaphor *it* follows the expression to which it refers (its antecedent). b. Our neighbors_i dislike the music. If they_i are angry, the cops will show up soon. – The anaphor *they* follows the expression to which it refers (its antecedent).



Cataphora

- a. If they_i are angry about the music, the neighbors_i will call the cops. – The cataphor *they* precedes the expression to which it refers (its postcedent). b. Despite her_i difficulty, Wilma_i came to understand the point. – The cataphor *her* precedes the expression to which it refers (its postcedent)

Split antecedents

- a. Carol_i told Bob_i to attend the party. They_i arrived together. – The anaphor *they* has a split antecedent, referring to both *Carol* and *Bob*. b. When Carol_i helps Bob_i and Bob_i helps Carol_i, they_i can accomplish any task. – The anaphor *they* has a split antecedent, referring to both *Carol* and *Bob*.

Coreferring noun phrases

- a. The project leader_i is refusing to help. The jerk_i thinks only of himself. – Coreferring noun phrases, whereby the second noun phrase is a predication over the first. b. Some of our colleagues_i are going to be supportive. These kinds of people_i will earn our gratitude. – Coreferring noun phrases, whereby the second noun phrase is a predication over the first.



A classic problem for coreference resolution in English is the pronoun *it*, which has many uses. *It* can refer much like *he* and *she*, except that it generally refers to inanimate objects (the rules are actually more complex: animals may be any of *it*, *he*, or *she*; ships are traditionally *she*; hurricanes are usually *it* despite having gendered names). *It* can also refer to abstractions rather than beings, e.g. *He was paid minimum wage, but didn't seem to mind it*. Finally, *it* also has pleonastic uses, which do not refer to anything specific:

- a. It's raining.
- b. It's really a shame.
- c. It takes a lot of work to succeed.
- d. Sometimes it's the loudest who have the most influence. Pleonastic uses are not considered referential, and so are not part of coreference.^[5]

Approaches to coreference resolution can broadly be separated into mention-pair, mention-ranking or entity-based algorithms. Mention-pair algorithms involve binary decisions if a pair of two given mentions belong to the same entity. Entity-wide constraints like gender are not considered, which leads to error propagation. For example the pronouns *he* or *she* can both have a high probability of coreference with *the teacher*, but cannot be coreferent with each other. Mention-ranking algorithms expand on this idea but instead stipulate that one mention can only be coreferent with one (previous) mention. As a result, each previous mention must be given assigned a score and the highest scoring mention (or no mention) is linked. Finally, in entity-based methods mentions are linked based on information of the whole coreference chain instead of individual mentions. The representation of a variable-width chain is mo



ENDOPHORA

a. Anaphora

In linguistics, anaphora (/əˈnæfərə/) is the use of an expression whose interpretation depends upon another expression in context (its antecedent or postcedent). In a narrower sense, anaphora is the use of an expression that depends specifically upon an antecedent expression and thus is contrasted with cataphora, which is the use of an expression that depends upon a postcedent expression. The anaphoric (referring) term is called an anaphor. For example, in the sentence *Sally arrived, but nobody saw her*, the pronoun *her* is an anaphor, referring back to the antecedent *Sally*. In the sentence *Before her arrival, nobody saw Sally*, the pronoun *her* refers forward to the postcedent *Sally*, so *her* is now a cataphor (and an anaphor in the broader, but not the narrower, sense). Usually, an anaphoric expression is a proform or some other kind of deictic (contextually-dependent) expression.^[1] Both anaphora and cataphora are species of endophora, referring to something mentioned elsewhere in a dialog or text.



b. Cataphora

In linguistics, cataphora is the use of an expression or word that co-refers with a later, more specific, expression in the discourse. The preceding expression, whose meaning is determined or specified by the later expression, may be called a cataphor.

Cataphora is a type of anaphora, although the terms *anaphora* and *anaphor* are sometimes used in a stricter sense, denoting only cases where the order of the expressions is the reverse of that found in cataphora.

An example of cataphora in English is the following sentence:

-When he arrived home, John went to sleep.

In this sentence, the pronoun *he* (the cataphor) appears earlier than the noun *John* (the postcedent) that it refers to. This is the reverse of the more normal pattern, "strict" anaphora, where a referring expression such as *John* or *the soldier* appears before any pronouns that reference it. Both cataphora and anaphora are types of endophora.



c. Self-reference

Self-reference occurs in natural or formal languages when a sentence, idea or formula refers to itself. The reference may be expressed either directly—through some intermediate sentence or formula—or by means of some encoding. In philosophy, it also refers to the ability of a subject to speak of or refer to itself, that is, to have the kind of thought expressed by the first person nominative singular pronoun "I" in English.

Self-reference is studied and has applications in mathematics, philosophy, computer programming, and linguistics. Self-referential statements are sometimes paradoxical, and can also be considered recursive.



EXOPHORA

In pragmatics, exophora is reference to something extralinguistic, i.e. not in the same text, and contrasts with endophora. Exophora can be deictic, in which special words or grammatical markings are used to make reference to something in the context of the utterance or speaker. For example, pronouns are often exophoric, with words such as "this", "that", "here", "there", as in *that chair over there is John's* said while indicating the direction of the chair referred to. Given "Did the gardener water those plants?", it is quite possible that "those" refers back to the preceding text, to some earlier mention of those particular plants in the discussion. But it is also possible that it refers to the environment in which the dialogue is taking place—to the "context of situation", as it is called—where the plants in question are present and can be pointed to if necessary. The interpretation would be "those plants there, in front of us". This kind of reference is called exophora, since it takes us outside the text altogether. Exophoric reference is not cohesive, since it does not bind the two elements together into a text.



Chapter 11

INFERENCE

INFERENCES

Inferences are steps in reasoning, moving from premises to logical consequences; etymologically, the word *infer* means to "carry forward".

The term "**inference**" refers to the process of using observation and background knowledge to determine a conclusion that makes sense.

- ◉ Two possible definitions of "inference" are:
 - A conclusion reached on the basis of evidence and reasoning.
 - The process of reaching such a conclusion.

- ◉ **Scientific Definition of Inference**

In science, there are a few different types of inferences, but in general an inference is:
"An educated guess made through observation."

- ◉ **Literary Definition of Inference**

When you are reading, you can make inferences based on information the author provides. The literary definition of "inference" is more specifically:

"Using clues provided by the author to figure things out."

DEDUCTION AND INDUCTION

- ◉ Deduction is inference deriving logical conclusions from premises known or assumed to be true, with the laws of valid inference being studied in logic.
- ◉ Induction is inference from particular premises to a universal conclusion. A third type of inference is sometimes distinguished, notably by Charles Sanders Peirce, distinguishing abduction from induction.

RULES OF INFERENCE

- ⦿ There are 9 rules of Inference:
 - a. Implication introduction / elimination (modus ponens)
 - b. Biconditional introduction / elimination.
 - c. Conjunction introduction / elimination.
 - d. Disjunction introduction / elimination.
 - e. Disjunctive / hypothetical syllogism.
 - f. Constructive / destructive dilemma.
 - g. Absorption / modus tollens / modus ponendo tollens.

EVERYDAY EXAMPLES OF INFERENCES

- ◉ You might not realize how often you derive conclusions from indications in your everyday life. These inferences help you make decisions about things like what you'll say or how you'll act in a given situation.

- a. Sally arrives at home at 4:30 and knows that her mother does not get off of work until 5. Sally also sees that the lights are off in their house.

Sally can infer that her mother is not yet home

- b. Sherry's toddler is in bed upstairs. She hears a bang and crying.

Sherry can infer that her toddler is hurt or scared

- c. John hears a smoke alarm next door and smells burnt bacon.

John can infer that his neighbor burnt her breakfast.

- d. *Jennifer hears her mailbox close and her dog is barking.*

Jennifer can infer that the postal carrier has delivered her mail.

EXAMPLES OF INFERENCES IN READING COMPREHENSION

- a. **The main character is getting ready for her first day of high school.**

- ◉ You can infer the main character is a teenage girl because of the word "her" and the fact that she's in high school where kids are usually 14 to 18 years old.

- b. **"I can't wait to get back to Maine," says John as he packs his life jacket and fishing tackle.**

- ◉ You can infer that John has been to Maine before because he says he wants to "get back" there. You can infer that he's planning to go fishing on a boat because of what he's packing.

- c. **The birds were chirping, flowers were blooming, and the rain was a daily occurrence. The green fields go on forever, this is home.**

- ◉ You can infer that it is spring because that's when you typically see - a lot of rain and flowers blooming. You can also infer the narrator lives somewhere rural because they talk about large fields, which you don't usually find in urban areas.

- d. **Harry lives with his aunt and uncle. His room is a cupboard under the stairs.**

- ◉ You can infer that Harry's parents have died because he doesn't live with them. You can infer that his aunt and uncle don't like him because of where he sleeps.

REFERENCE VS INFERENCE

Reference	Inference
<p>“Mr. Kawasaki”</p> <p>Used to refer to a man who always rode loud and fast in his motorcycle. A brand name is used to refer to a person here</p>	<p>“Can I look at your Chomsky?” “I enjoy listening to Mozart.”</p> <p>This process where additional information is needed to connect what is said to what is meant, is inference.</p>

Chapter 12

DEIXIS

Definition

What is deixis?

- Deixis is reference by means of an expression whose interpretation is relative to the extralinguistics context of the utterance such as , who is speaking, the time or place of speaking, the gestures of the speaker or the current location in the discourse
- It concerns on the interpretation of utterances depends on the analysis of that context of utterance (Levinson, 1983: 54).
- The deictic devices in a language commit a speaker to set up a frame of reference around herself (Saeed, 1997:173)

KINDS OF DEIXIS

There are three kinds of deixis:

- Person deixis
- Place deixis
- Time deixis

Person Deixis

- Person deixis encodes the different persons involved in a communicative event. Moreover, the participants need to be encoded which means that you have to find out who the speaker and who the addressee is (Giergji, 2015: 136). Person deixis refers to the person who the speakers intend to refer to that means that person deixis is realised with personal pronouns. The utterance is directed from the first person (*I*) to the listener, the second person (*you*) and the person the speaker is talking about is the third person (*he, she, it*) (Renkema, 1993: 77).

Place Deixis

Place deixis is also called as spatial deixis and describes where the relative location of people and objects are being indicated (Gjergji, 2015: 137f.). Demonstrative adverbs for place deixis are *here, this, these, that, those, there*. There is a gestural use for spatial deixis as well as a non-gestural use. The gestural use can be shown through an eye-glaze or a head movement for example “I dislike the color of the picture there.” (points to the picture). The non-gestural use refers to an area an example would be saying “I love it here!” whilst walking through a park (Gjergji, 2015: 137).

Time Deixis

The third one out of the three deixis types is time deixis which is an expression that is being used to point to a point while the speaker is speaking (Gjergji, 2015: 138). I will explain this type of deixis further in the next point. The deictic center or also called origo for time deixis is “now”, “yesterday” or “the day before” if you count backwards and “tomorrow” or “next Thursday” if you count forward (Levinson, 2004: 114). The most important aspect of time deixis is tense.

SOCIAL DEIXIS

Definition

- Social deixis is reference to the social characteristics of, or distinctions between, the participants or referents in a speech event.
- Social deixis marks "social relationships in linguistic expressions with reference to the social status or role of participants in the speech event" ([Levinson 2005, 119](#)).
- Some linguistics therefore see social deixis as a part of person deixis.

Kinds of Social Deixis

- **Absolute Social Deixis**

Absolute social deixis is deictic reference to some social characteristic of a referent (especially a person) apart from any relative ranking of referents.

Often absolute social deixis is expressed in certain forms of address. The form of address will include no comparison of the ranking of the speaker and addressee; there will be only a simple reference to the absolute status of the addressee.

Examples:

(English)

- *Mr. President*
- *Your Honor*

○ Relational Social Deixis

Relational social deixis is deictic reference to a social relationship between the speaker and an addressee, bystander, or other referent in the extra linguistic context