Nhà xuất bản Đại học Quốc gia
TP Hồ Chí Minh — 2007
LỜI NÓI ĐẦU

Giáo trình Ngữ nghĩa học tiếng Anh được biên soạn một cách có hệ thống, dựa trên cơ sở tham khảo cơ chồn lộc những tư liệu của nước ngoài, kết hợp với kinh nghiệm giảng dạy nhiều năm về môn học này của tác giả và tập thể giảng viên trong Bộ môn Ngữ học Anh. Đây là tập giáo trình được biên soạn đúng để giảng dạy môn học Ngữ nghĩa học tiếng Anh (English Semantics) cho sinh viên năm thứ tư Khoa Ngữ văn Anh, Trường Đại học Khoa học xã hội và Nhân văn, Đại học Quốc gia Thành phố Hồ Chí Minh.

Giáo trình gồm bốn phần:

1. Introduction (phần dẫn nhập)
2. Word meaning (nghĩa của từ);
3. Sentence meaning (nghĩa của câu);
4. Utterance meaning (nghĩa của phát ngôn)

Lần đầu tiên biên soạn giáo trình này, chúng tôi không tránh khỏi những sai sót, những khuyết điểm. Rất mong nhận được nhiều ý kiến đóng góp của bạn đọc và của bạn bè đồng nghiệp để giáo trình ngày càng hoàn thiện hơn, phục vụ giảng dạy sinh viên đạt chất lượng tốt hơn. Ý kiến đóng góp về tập giáo trình này xin gửi về Hội đồng Khoa học Khoa Ngữ văn Anh, Trường Đại học Khoa học xã hội và Nhân văn, Đại học Quốc gia Thành phố Hồ Chí Minh, số 10-12 Đình Tiến Hoàng Quận 1, Thành phố Hồ Chí Minh. Điện thoại: (08)8243328.

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NOTATIONAL SYMBOLS

Most of the symbols used in this text follow conventions, but since conventions vary, the following list indicates the meanings assigned to them here.

\[A\]: adjunct
\[\text{AdjP}\]: adjective phrase
\[\text{AdvP}\]: adverb phrase
\[\text{C}\]: countable
\[\text{dO}\]: direct object
\[\text{Ex}\]: example
\[\text{mono-trans}\]: mono-transitive verb
\[\text{n}\]: noun
\[\text{NP}\]: noun phrase
\[\text{op}\]: optional
\[\text{opA of Means}\]: optional adjunct of means
\[\text{Pro}\]: pronoun
\[\text{PP}\]: prepositional phrase
\[\text{RP}\]: Received Pronunciation
\[\text{S}\]: sentence
\[\text{Vgrp}\]: verb group
\[\text{VP}\]: verb phrase
\[\ast\]: unaccepted form
-- : related in some way
[ ] : embedded unit
/: or
⇒ : one-way dependence
⇔ : two-way dependence
= : be equivalent to
+: with the semantic feature specified
−: without the semantic feature specified
±± : with or without the semantic feature specified
INTRODUCTION

1.1 What is semantics?

Semantics is a branch of linguistics which deals with meaning. In order to understand this definition, we need to know what meaning is. However, before we discuss the “meaning” of meaning, it is necessary to talk about the main branches of linguistics.

Linguistics has three main branches: syntax, semantics and pragmatics. Syntax is the study of grammar (consisting of phonology, morphology, syntax, and textual grammar) whereas semantics and pragmatics deal with meaning. Semantics is the study of meaning in language (i.e. what language means) while pragmatics is concerned with meaning in context (i.e. what people mean by the language they use). Although this is a semantics course, part of what we are going to discuss is concerned with pragmatics, for semantics and pragmatics are closely related.

Take the distinction between semantic meaning and pragmatic meaning as an illustration of how semantics is different from but, at the same time, closely related to pragmatics.

Semantic meaning is context-free whereas pragmatic meaning is context-dependent.

(1) A: ‘Would you like a piece of cake?’
B: ‘I’m on a diet.’
The semantic meaning of ‘I’m on a diet’ in (1) is ‘I want to lose weight by eating the food which is not rich in fat, sugar, etc.’

The pragmatic meaning of ‘I’m on a diet’ in (1) is ‘I don’t want any piece of cake’ or ‘I’m afraid that I have to refuse your invitation.’

2. Tom: ‘Do you like the wine I picked out?’
   Gina: ‘It’s Italian, isn’t it?’

The semantic meaning of ‘It’s Italian, isn’t it?’ in (2) is ‘Is it right that the wine is made in Italy?’

The pragmatic meaning of ‘It’s Italian, isn’t it?’ in (2) is ‘I don’t like the wine you picked out.’

1.2 Semantics and its possible included aspects

“Semantics is a technical term used to refer to the study of meaning, and since meaning is part of language, semantics is part of linguistics. Unfortunately, ‘meaning’ covers a variety of aspects of language, there is no general agreement about the nature of meaning, what aspects of it may properly be included in semantics, or the way in which it should be described.” [Palmer, 1981: 1] This little textbook will try to show three main aspects that are commonly considered as included in semantics: word meaning (or, to be more precise, lexical meaning) [Lyons, 1995: 33], sentence meaning and utterance meaning.1

1 In semantics it is necessary to make a careful distinction between utterances and sentences. In particular we need some way of making it clear when we are discussing sentences and when utterances. We adopt the convention that anything
The meaning of *remarried*, for example, can be analysed in the three different levels.

At the word level, *remarried* may be regarded a set of the four following semantic features: [+human], [±male], [+used to be married], and [+married again].

At the sentence level when *remarried* occurs in *She is not remarried*, only the fourth semantic feature of the word, namely [+married again], is informative, i.e. it is part of the statement.

At the utterance level within the particular context of the following conversation when *remarried* occurs in B’s response, it is the word that helps the utterance presuppose that pastors are allowed by rule to get married and implicate that the pastor was once married.

A: ‘How is the pastor?’
B: ‘He is remarried.’

Because of the nature of the subject and the variety of views on semantics and its possible included aspects, the little textbook cannot hope to be more than an introductory survey.

Written between single quotation marks represents ‘an utterance’, and anything italicized represents a sentence or (similarly abstract) part of a sentence, such as a phrase or a word:

*‘She is not remarried’ represents an utterance.*
*She is not remarried’ represents a sentence.*
*Married’ represents a word conceived as part of a sentence.*
WORD MEANING is what a word means, i.e. “what counts as the equivalent in the language concerned.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 3]

2.1 Semantic features

2.1.1 Definition

Semantic features\(^2\) are “the smallest units of meaning in a word.” [Richards et al, 1987: 254]

We identify the meaning of a word by its semantic features. For example, father may have the following semantic features: [+human], [+male], [+mature], [+parental] and [+paternal]. And hen may be described as a set of the following semantic features: [+animate], [+bird], [+fowl], [+fully grown] and [+female].

2.1.2 Characteristics

2.1.2.1 Some semantic features need not be specifically mentioned. For example, if a word is [+human] it is “automatically” [+animate]. This generalization can be expressed as a redundancy rule:

\(^2\) Semantic features are also referred to as semantic components or semantic properties.
A word that is [+human] is [+animate].

That is why [+animate] need not be specified as a semantic feature of father, girl, professor, etc. since the semantic feature can be inferred from [+human].

Some redundancy rules infer negative semantic features. Thus, semantic features are often shown in the form of binary oppositions, which can be stated in terms of pluses and minuses (that is, [+] and [-]:

If father is [+human], it is therefore [−inhuman];

If father is [+male], it is therefore [−female];

If father is [+mature], it is therefore [−immature];

If father is [+paternal], it is therefore [−maternal].

Notice that we identify the meaning of a word according to its primitive semantic features first, e.g. [+animate], [+human], [+male], etc.; and then with the assistance of its other semantic features, e.g. [+parental], [+paternal], etc.

2.1.2.2 Different words may share the same semantic feature. In other words, the same semantic feature can be found in many different words.

Ex1: Doctor, engineer, teacher, physicist, chemist, tailor, hairdresser, etc. all share the same semantic feature [+professional].

Ex2: Mother, father, son, daughter, brother, sister, grandparent, aunt, uncle, etc. are all [+kinship].
2.1.2.3 The same semantic feature can occur in words of different parts of speech. In other words, words of different parts of speech may share the same semantic feature.

For example, [+female] is part of the meaning of the noun mother, the verb breast-feed and the adjective pregnant. And [+educational] is a semantic feature found in the nouns school, teacher, textbook, etc. and in the verbs teach, educate, instruct, etc.

2.1.2.4 Fromkin and Rodman [1993: 148-149] confirm that “the semantic properties of words determine what other words they can be combined with.” These authors give the two following sentences that are grammatically correct and syntactically perfect but semantically anomalous:

(1) My brother is an only child.

(2) The bachelor is pregnant.

(1) is strange, or semantically anomalous, because this sentence represents a contradiction: brother is [+having at least one sibling] while an only child is [+having no other sibling]; (2) is semantically anomalous for a similar reason: bachelor is [+male] whereas pregnant is [+female].

Here, Fromkin and Rodman also cite Noam Chomsky’s famous classic example of semantically anomalous sentences:

(3) Colorless green ideas sleep furiously.

This sentence seems to obey all the syntactic rules of English: its subject is colorless green ideas and its predicate is sleep furiously, but there is obviously something semantically wrong
with the sentence. The adjective \textit{colorless} is [−colour], but it occurs with the adjective \textit{green} the semantic feature of which [+green in colour]. How can something be [−colour] and [+green in colour] at the same time? In the same way, the noun \textit{ideas}, which is [+abstract], is \textit{semantically incompatible} with the verb \textit{sleep} the noun phrase subject of which must be [+concrete] and [+animate]. How can an abstract notion like \textit{ideas} sleep? Then, the verb \textit{sleep}, whose \textit{adverbial collocations}\footnote{Collocations are regular combinations of words, e.g. \textit{by accident} and \textit{strong tea} are English collocations.} are \textit{well, badly} and \textit{soundly}, is semantically incompatible with the adverb \textit{furiously}. How can a living being sleep when he is full of violent anger?

In conclusion, knowing all the possible semantic features of a word enables us to combine \textit{semantically compatible} words together to form larger but meaningful linguistic units such as phrases, clauses and sentences.

Fromkin and Rodman [1993:134] also believe that “because we know the semantic properties of words, we know when two words are \textit{antonyms, synonyms} or \textit{homonyms}, or are \textit{unrelated in meaning}.”

\textbf{Exercise 1}: For each group of words given below, state what \textit{semantic features} are shared by the (a) words and the (b) words, and what \textit{semantic features} distinguish between the classes of (a) words and (b) words. The first one is done as an example.

---

\footnote{Adverbial collocations refer to the adverbs regularly used together with a certain verb.}
1. (a) *lobster, shrimp, crab, oyster, mussel*
   (b) *trout, sole, herring, salmon, mackerel*
   The (a) and (b) words are [+edible water animal].
The (a) words are [+shellfish].
The (b) words are [+fish].

2. (a) *widow, mother, sister, aunt, seamstress*
   (b) *widower, father, brother, uncle, tailor*
   The (a) and (b) words are ___________________________
The (a) words are _________________________________
The (b) words are __________________________________

3. (a) *bachelor, son, paperboy, pope, chief*
   (b) *bull, rooster, drake, ram, stallion*
   The (a) and (b) words are ___________________________
The (a) words are __________________________________
The (b) words are _________________________________

4. (a) *table, pencil, cup, house, ship, car*
   (b) *milk, tea, wine, beer, water, soft drink*
   The (a) and (b) words are ___________________________
The (a) words are _________________________________
The (b) words are _________________________________

5. (a) *book, temple, mountain, road, tractor*
   (b) *idea, love, charity, sincerity, bravery, fear*
The (a) and (b) words are ____________________________
The (a) words are __________________________________
The (b) words are __________________________________

6. (a) rose, lily, tulip, daisy, sunflower, violet
    (b) ash, oak, sycamore, willow, beech
    (c) pine, cedar, jew, spruce, cypress
The (a) (b) and (c) words are _________________________
The (a) words are __________________________________
The (b) words are __________________________________
The (c) words are __________________________________

7. (a) book, letter, encyclopaedia, novel, notebook, dictionary
    (b) typewriter, pencil, ballpoint, crayon, quill, charcoal, chalk
The (a) and (b) words are ____________________________
The (a) words are __________________________________
The (b) words are __________________________________

8. (a) walk, run, skip, jump, hop, swim
    (b) fly, skate, ski, ride, cycle, canoe, hang-glide
The (a) and (b) words are ____________________________
The (a) words are __________________________________
The (b) words are __________________________________

9. (a) ask, tell, say, talk, converse
    (b) shout, whisper, mutter, drawl, holler
The (a) and (b) words are ____________________________
The (a) words are ________________________________
The (b) words are ________________________________
10. (a) alive, asleep, awake, dead, half-dead, pregnant
   (b) depressed, bored, excited, upset, amazed,
       surprised
The (a) and (b) words are ____________________________
The (a) words are ________________________________
The (b) words are ________________________________

Exercise 2: Identify the semantic features in each of the following words.

1. Child: _________________________________________
2. Aunt: __________________________________________
3. Hen: __________________________________________
4. Oak (-tree): ____________________________________
5. Flower: _______________________________________
6. Palm: _________________________________________
7. Bachelor: _____________________________________
8. Actress: _______________________________________
9. Plod: _________________________________________
10. Ewe: _________________________________________
11. Fly: _________________________________________
Exercise 3: How can you distinguish the words given in the following table from one another, considering their *semantic features*?
### 2.2 Componential analysis

In Semantics, *componential analysis* is “an approach to the study of meaning which analyses a word into a set of meaning components or semantic features.” [Richards *et al*, 1987: 53]

For example, the meaning of *boy* may be shown as [+human], [+male] and [−adult] while that of *man* may be a combination of [+human], [+male] and [+adult]. Thus, *man* is different from *boy* basically in one primitive semantic feature: [±adult].
Generally speaking, *componential analysis* is applied to a *group of related words* which may differ from one another only by one or two semantic features.

### 2.3 Semantic fields

#### 2.3.1 Definition

*A semantic field* is “the organization of related words and expressions into a system which shows their relationship to one another.” [Richards *et al.*, 1987: 53]

*A semantic field* can also be defined as “a set of words with identifiable semantic affinities.” [Finegan, 1994: 164]

Ex1. The semantic field of *kinship terms*: father, mother, brother, sister, uncle, aunt, etc.

Ex2. The semantic field of *adjectives describing human emotional states*: angry, sad, happy, exuberant, depressed, afraid, etc.

Ex3. The semantic field of *drinking vessels*: cup, mug, tumbler, wine glass, beer glass, etc.

#### 2.3.2 Ways of organising *semantically similar items* into semantic fields

There are various ways according to which *semantically similar items* are related to one another:

(a) *Items related by topics*:

---

4 A semantic field is also referred to as a lexical field or a lexical set.
• Types of fruit: apples, oranges, grapes, bananas, pears, plums, etc.

• Pieces of furniture: seats, tables, beds, storage, etc.

• Terms of colour: blue, red, yellow, green, black, white, etc.

  (b) Items similar in meaning:

• Ways of cooking: stew, boil, fry, steam, roast, grill, smoke, etc.

• Ways of looking5: gaze, glance, peer, squint, stare, etc.

• Ways in which a liquid escapes from its container6: drip, leak, ooze, run, seep, etc.

---

5 Gaze = look long and steadily (at somebody/something) usually in surprise or admiration: She gazed at me in disbelief when I told her the news.

Glance = take a quick look at: She glanced shyly at him and then lowered her eyes.

Peer (at, through, up, etc.) = look closely and carefully, especially as if unable to see well: peer at somebody, peer out of the window, peer over the wall, peer through the gap, peer over one’s spectacles, etc.

Squint (at, through, up, etc.) = look (at somebody/something) with eyes half shut or turn sideways, or through narrow opening: squint in the light of sunshine, squint through the letter box.

Stare = look (at somebody/something) with the eyes wide open in a fixed gaze (in astonishment, wonder, fear, etc.): They all stared in/with amazement. It’s rude to stare.

6 Drip (allow liquid to) fall in drops: Rain was dripping down from the trees. Is that roof still dripping?

Leak (allow liquid or air to) get in or out wrongly: The boat leaks like a sieve. Air leaked out of the balloon.

Ooze (from/out of something; out/away) = (allow a thick liquid to) come or flow out slowly: Black oil was oozing out of the engine. All the toothpaste has oozed out.

Run = (allow a liquid to) flow: The River Rhine runs into the North Sea. Water was running all over the bathroom floor. The bathroom floor was running with water.

Seep (through/into/throughout of something; through/out) = (of a liquid) flow slowly and in small quantities through a substance: Water seeped through the roof of the tunnel.
(c) Terms describing people whose weight is below normal: thin, bony, skinny, scrawny, underweight, emaciated, slender, slim, etc.

(d) Items which form pairs of antonyms: long/short, light/heavy, alive/dead, love/hate, approve/disapprove, approve/disapprove, begin/end, inside/outside, upstairs/downstairs, etc.

Oil is seeping through a crack in the tank.

“Drip, leak, ooze, run, seep indicate the way in which a liquid escape from a container or tap. Most (not seep) also indicate the way in which a container or tap allows a liquid to escape. 1 Drip = (allow sth to) fall in regular drops: Water is dripping from the pipe. The pipe is dripping (water). 2 Leak = (allow sth to) get out (through a hole in sth): Wine is leaking from the barrel. The barrel is leaking (wine). 3 Ooze = (allow sth to) move slowly (out of sth) because thick: Blood is oozing from the wound. The wound is oozing (blood). 4 Run = (allow sth to) flow continuously (from sth): Water is running from the tap. The tap is running. 5 Seep = move slowly (through a small opening in sth) because thick: Oil is seeping from the engine.” [Crowther (ed.), 1992: 272]

7 “When describing people whose weight is below normal, thin is the most general word, It may be negative, suggesting weakness or lack of health: She’s gone terribly thin since operation. Bony is often applied to parts of the body such as hands or face; skinny and scrawny are negative and can suggest lack of strength: He looks much too skinny/scrawny to be a weight-lifter. Underweight is the most neural: The doctor says I’m underweight. Emaciated indicates a serious condition resulting from starvation. It is often thought desirable to be slim or slender, slim being used especially of those who have reduced their weight by diet or exercise: I wish I was as slim as you. You have a beautifully slender figure." [Crowther (ed.), 1992: 947]
(e) Items which form pairs or trios of synonyms:
- smart/bright/intelligent, conserve/preserve/safeguard
- fix/repair/mend, kind/sort/type/variety, happy/glad, etc.

(f) Items grouped as an activity or a process:
- Do the housework: clean the rooms, do the washing, iron the clothes, get the food, prepare a meal, wash up, etc.
- Do research: make hypotheses, collect data, analyze data, get results and come to conclusions.

(g) Items classified according to:

- Sex
  - Male: waiter, tiger, actor, host, landlord, sir, etc.
  - Female: waitress, tigress, actress, hostess, landlady, madam, etc.

- Age: grown-ups, adults, elderly people, middle-aged people, teenagers, children, infants, babies, etc.

- Age and sex:

  horse ⇒ stallion: [+male], [+fully grown]  
dog ⇒ dog: [+male], [+fully grown]  
  mare: [+female], [+fully grown]  
bitch: [+female], [+fully grown]  
  foal: [+male], [−fully grown]  
puppy: [+male], [−fully grown]

Exercise 4: Organise the given words (and probably those of your own) into three semantic fields: shirts, end, forward(s), new, hats, lend, coats, shorts, beginning, trousers, amble, out,
limp, tiptoe, plod, socks, trudge, borrow, stomp, in, stump, old, backward(s), and tramp.

1. __________________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________________

2. __________________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________________

3. __________________________________________________________
   __________________________________________________________

2.4 Lexical gaps

“The absence of a word in a particular place in a lexical field of a language” is called a lexical gap. [Richards et al, 1987: 164]

For example, in English there is no singular noun that covers bull, cow and calf either as horse covers stallion, mare and foal or as goat covers billy-goat, nanny-goat and kid.

```
<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>horse</td>
<td>goat</td>
<td>?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
```

```
stallion  mare  foal  billy-goat  nanny-goat  kid  bull  cow  calf
```

**Exercise 5:** Try to fill in each of the two blanks with an appropriate word to prove that there is no lexical gap in the given semantic fields.
2.5 Referent, reference and sense

2.5.1 Distinction between referent, reference and sense

In Semantics, a distinction is often made between referent, reference and sense:

2.5.1.1 A referent is an object or an entity in the real world or in the world of your imagination, e.g. your school, your classmates, your teacher, any thing you can see in the classroom right now, the idealistic working conditions you have ever dreamed of, etc. that is talked about.

Several words, especially the so-called function words\(^8\), have no obvious referents: the, could, in, since, and, etc.

2.5.1.2 The reference of a word\(^9\) or a linguistic expression is the relationship between that word or expression and the thing (book), the action (read), the event (graduate from university), the quality (sincerity), etc. it refers to.

---

\(^8\) It is commonly believed that function words like prepositions (of, in, etc.), definite and indefinite articles (the, a/an), conjunctions (if, however, or, etc.), and auxiliaries (may, should, will, etc.) only “signal grammatical relations.” [Finegan, 1994: 175]

\(^9\) Or, to be more precise, a lexical item
For example, the reference of *Peter’s house* is the relationship between *this English noun phrase* and *the house that belongs to Peter*.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{Peter’s house} & \text{the house that belongs to Peter} \\
\text{(in the Eng. language)} & \text{REFERENCE} & \text{(in the real world)}
\end{array}
\]

2.5.1.3 The *sense*\(^\text{10}\) of *a word* or *a linguistic expression*\(^\text{11}\) shows the *internal* relationship between *that word or expression* and *others* in the vocabulary of a language.

Ex1. *Teacher* and *student* have the sense relationship of the former is *the one who gives a lesson* and the latter is *the one who has the lesson given by the former*.

Ex2. *A dog is chasing a cat* has some sense. However, *a dog is human* has no sense.

Ex3. *The King of Vietnam is bald* has some sense: its sense is constructed by its individual lexical components and its syntactic structure. However, *this sentence* has no reference: *it does not refer to any real person because the King of Vietnam does not exist nowadays. *

Consider the following table and identify referent, reference and sense via their main features.

\(^{10}\) It is necessary to notice that the two linguistic terms *sense* and *meaning* will be used interchangeably from now on in this text.

\(^{11}\) “The SENSE of an expression is its indispensable hard core of meaning.”

[Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 91]
2.5.2 Distinction between variable reference, constant reference and co-reference

2.5.2.1 When the same linguistic expression refers to different referents, it has variable reference.

Ex1. There are as many potential referents for the phrase your left ear as there are people with a left ear in the world.

Ex2. The referent of the phrase the present prime minister used in Britain in 1944 is Mr. Churchill and in 1982 is Mrs. Thatcher.
2.5.2.2 When one linguistic expression refers to one and the same referent, it has constant reference: the sun, the moon, Halley's comet\textsuperscript{12}, the People's Republic of China, Angola, the United Nations, FIFA, UNESCO, etc.

2.5.2.3 When two or more linguistic expressions share the same referent, they have co-reference.

Ex1. The morning star and the evening star both refer to the planet called Venus.

Ex2. In a conversation about Britain in 1982, the Prime Minister and the leader of the Conservative Party share the same referent: Mrs Thatcher.

Ex3. If we are talking about a situation in which John is standing alone in the corner, John and the person in the corner share the same referent.

Exercise 6: What is identified by the word mean or meaning in the following examples, i.e. reference or sense? Write R for reference and S for sense.

_____ 1. When Albert talks about “his former friend”, he means me.
_____ 2. Daddy, what does logic mean?
_____ 3. Purchase has the same meaning as buy.

\textsuperscript{12} Halley's comet is the bright comet which reappears about every 76 years. It was first recorded in 240 BC, and the fact of its regular return was established by Edmond Halley. Its next reappearance is due in 2061.
4. Look up the meaning of democracy in your dictionary.

5. If you look out of the window now, you’ll see who I mean.

2.6 Denotation\(^\text{13}\) and connotation\(^\text{14}\)

2.6.1 Definition

The denotation of a word is the core, central or referential meaning of the word found in a dictionary. In English, a content word\(^\text{15}\) may have its denotation described in terms of a set of semantic features that serve to identify the particular concept associated with the word.

The connotation of a word is the additional meaning that the word has beyond its denotative meaning. It shows people’s emotions and/or attitudes\(^\text{16}\) towards what the word refers to.

---

\(^{13}\) Denotation is also referred to as denotative meaning.

\(^{14}\) Connotation is also referred to as connotative meaning.

\(^{15}\) Content words — principally nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs like democracy, mother, stir-fry, happy, and totally — “have meaning in that they refer to objects, events, and abstract concepts” [Finegan, 1994: 161] while function words specifically articles, prepositions, conjunctions and auxiliaries like a/an, including, nevertheless, but, should, etc. also carry meaning, though in a different way from content words: “to signal grammatical relations.” [Finegan, 1994: 175]

\(^{16}\) “The referential meaning of a word or sentence is frequently called its denotation, in contrast to the connotation, which includes both its social and affective meaning.” [Finegan, 1994: 161]
Ex1. *Child* is denotatively described as [+human], [−mature] and [±male].

Under a certain circumstance, *child* may positively be connoted as [+affectionate] or [+innocent].

Under another circumstance, *child* may negatively be connoted as [+noisy] or [+irritating].

Ex2. *Woman* is denotatively described as [+human], [+mature] and [+female].

Under a certain circumstance, *woman* may positively be connoted as [+devoted] or [+patient].

Under another circumstance, *woman* may negatively be connoted as [+wicked] or [+talkative].

The denotation of a word can easily be found in a dictionary while its connotation(s) may probably depend on such factors as (1) the culture in which the word is used; (2) the language user’s family and/or educational background; (3) the language user’s social and/or political class; (4) the language user’s speech community and/or ethnic group; etc. In brief, these factors are by virtue of personal and cultural associations.

2.6.2 Distinction between *denotation* and *connotation*

Consider the following table and identify *denotation* and *connotation* via their main features.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DENOTATION</th>
<th>CONNOTATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>what a lexical item means</td>
<td>emotions and/or attitudes towards what a lexical item refers to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>core, central</td>
<td>peripheral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>referential</td>
<td>social, affective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bachelor</td>
<td>unmarried man</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- still single after the usual age for marrying</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- decided by himself to stay single</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- enjoying freedom, friendship, life, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- ready for his impending marriage</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spinster</td>
<td>unmarried woman</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- still single after the usual age for marrying</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- not decided by herself to stay single</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- left in an unfavourable state</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- a symbol for some failure in life</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December</td>
<td>the twelfth month of the year, next after November</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bad weather (usually rainy or snowy), dark evening, grey sky, slippery streets, holiday season, Christmas, winter break, loneliness, separation from the beloved</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ex1. The word *fox* almost always has a negative connotation in English when it is associated with any person who is *cunning* or *deceitful*.
Ex2. Some English words usually have *positive connotations* (+); others usually have *neutral connotations* (∅); still others usually have *negative connotations* (−):

- *mother/mom* (+), *woman* (∅), *witch* (−);
- *father/dad* (+), *man* (∅), *the old man* (−);
- *slender* (+), *thin* (∅), *skinny* (−);
- *plump* (+), *overweight* (∅), *fat* (−).

Ex3. **Synonyms**, words that have the same basic meaning, do not always have the same emotional meaning. For example, the words *stingy* and *frugal* both mean ‘careful with money.’ However, to call a person *stingy* is an insult, while the word *frugal* has a much more positive connotation. Similarly, a person wants to be *slender* but not *skinny*, and *aggressive* but not *pushy*. Therefore, you should be careful in choosing words because many so-called *synonyms* are not really synonyms at all.

**Exercise 7**: Identify all the possible connotations associated with the word *Christmas*.

---

17 *Aggressive* (often approved) = *forceful* = *(self-)*assertive = showing strong and confident personality; expressing one’s views; demands; etc. confidently:

A good salesman must be *aggressive* if he wants to be succeeded.

*Pushy* (also *pushing*, informally derogative) = *trying constantly to draw attention to oneself and gain an advantage*:

*He made himself unpopular by being so pushy.*
2.7 Multiple senses of lexical items

2.7.1 Primary meaning vs. secondary meaning

The first and foremost distinction made in multiple senses of a word is between its primary and secondary meanings.

2.7.1.1 *The primary meaning* of a word (or, to be more precise, a lexical item) is the first meaning or usage that the word will suggest to most people when it is said in isolation.

*The primary meaning* of the English noun *wing*, for instance, is ‘either of the pair of feathered limbs that a bird uses to fly.’

2.7.1.2 *Secondary meanings* of a word are the meanings besides its primary meaning. They are said to be not central but peripheral.

In addition, secondary meanings of a word are context-bound whereas its primary meaning is not.

In *He usually plays on the wing*, for example, *wing* means ‘side part of the playing area in football, hockey, etc.’ Such a secondary meaning is derived from the context denoted by the verb *plays*.

2.7.2 Literal meaning vs. figurative meaning

It is time to distinguish then within all the possible meanings of the English noun *wing*, for example, those that are literal and those that are figurative.

2.7.2.1 “The basic or usual meaning of a word” [Crowther (ed.), 1992: 527] is usually referred to as its literal meaning.
Some literal meanings are identified via context in the noun wing:

1. Part that projects from the side of an aircraft and supports it in the air: the two wings of an airplane;
2. Part of a building that projects from the main part:
   \[ \text{the east/west wing of a house} \];
3. Projecting part of the body of a motor vehicle above the wheel:
   \[ \text{The left wing of his car was damaged in the collision} \];
4. Part of a political party that holds certain views or has a particular function: the radical wing of the Labour Party.

2.7.2.2 The figurative meaning of a word is one which is different from its usual (literal) meaning and which create vivid mental images to readers or listeners.

   Below are some figurative meanings of the noun wing:
   - We hope college life will help him to spread his wings a bit.  
     \[ (= \text{extend his activities and interests}) \]
   - Having a new baby to look after has clipped her wings a bit.
     \[ (= \text{has prevented her from achieving her ambition}) \]
   - She immediately took the new arrivals under her wing.
     \[ (= \text{looked after the new arrivals}) \]
   - He retires as chairman next year; his successor is waiting in the wings.  \[ (= \text{is ready to replace him}) \]

Wing is an English word that has several closely related but slightly different meanings. It is said to be polysemous.
2.8 Figures of speech

A figure of speech is “a word or phrase which is used for special effect, and which does not have its usual or literal meaning.” [Richards et al, 1987: 105]

2.8.1 Simile and metaphor

2.8.1.1 Definition

Simile is “the use of comparison of one thing with another, eg. as brave as a lion, a face like a mask. [Crowther (ed.), 1992: 848]

It is incredible to notice that not all comparisons belong to simile, eg. He is much taller than his elder brother. Only the comparisons clearly employed as examples of figures of speech do.

Metaphor is “the use of a word or phrase to indicate something different from (though related in some way to) the literal meaning, as in I’ll make him eat his words or She has a heart of stone.” [Crowther (ed.), 1992: 564]

2.8.1.2 Distinction between a simile and a metaphor

A simile is an explicit or direct comparison in which something is compared to something else by the use of a function word such as like or as:

- My hands are as cold as ice. (= My hands are very cold.)

- Tom eats like a horse.

(= Tom eats as much as a horse does. In other words, Tom’s appetite IS explicitly COMPARED TO that of a horse.)
A metaphor is *an implicit or indirect comparison* in which no function word is used. Something is described by stating another thing with which it can be compared:

- *She has a heart of stone.*
  
  (= *She has a pitiless and unfeeling nature.*)

- *I’ll make him eat his word.*
  
  (= *I’ll make him admit that what he’s said is wrong.*)

- *He was a lion in the fight.*
  
  (= *He fought bravely and successfully just like a lion in the fight for food.*)

- *His words stabbed at her heart.*
  
  (= *Like a knife, his words are so sharp that they can cause great pain or much unhappiness for her. In other words, his words did not actually stab, but their effect is implicitly compared to the stabbing of a knife.*)

2.8.1.3 Distinction between *dead metaphors*\(^\text{18}\) and *live metaphors*

*Dead metaphors* are used so often that they have lost their metaphoric characteristics: *the leg/face of the table, the back of the chair, the mouth of the river, the head of the state, the childhood of the earth*, etc.

*Dead metaphors* are in fact *idioms*\(^\text{19}\) or fixed expressions that native speakers of a language give special meanings and use

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\(^{18}\) Dead metaphors are also called either unconscious or fossilized metaphors.

\(^{19}\) An idiom is an expression which functions as a single unit and whose meaning cannot be worked out from its separate parts. Thus, we cannot understand *an*
naturally and unconsciously: these speakers do not pay attention to the implicit comparison found in any dead metaphor; they just think directly of its meaning used in a given context:

- *He looks as though he hasn’t had a square meal for months.*
  
  (= a large and satisfying meal)

- *He washed his hand out of the matter.*
  
  (= refused to have anything more to do with the matter)

Live metaphors\textsuperscript{20} are implied or indirect comparisons which have a variety of figurative meanings through their endless use: Tom is a pig may be interpreted as Tom is short and fat, Tom is slow and lazy, Tom is greedy, Tom is not intelligent, Tom is neither intelligent nor ambitious, etc.

Live metaphors can only be understood after the implicit comparison found in any of them is seriously considered and fully appreciated. Native speakers of a language use live metaphors intentionally and creatively in order to make their speech more vivid, figurative, concise, etc.: You are a mist that appears for a little time and then vanishes.

  (= You are implicitly compared to a mist that does not last long, i.e. you come and leave quickly.)

\textit{Idiom} just by looking at the separate meanings or the word classes of its members. We have to consider an idiom as a whole and figure out its meaning in context.

- *His excuses cut no ice with me.* (= had little or no effect on me)
- *The project has been going great guns.* (=proceeding vigorously & successfully)

\textsuperscript{20} Live metaphors are also called conscious metaphors.
2.8.2 Personification

Personification is a special kind of metaphor in which some human characteristic is attributed to an inanimate object or abstract notion, that is, a lifeless thing or quality is stated as if it were living, as in pitiless cold, cruel heat, a treacherous calm, a sullen sky, a frowning rock, the thirsty ground, the laughing harvest, the childhood of the world, the anger of the tempest, the deceitfulness of riches, etc.

2.8.3 Metonymy

2.8.3.1 Definition

Metonymy is the substitution of the name of one thing for that of another to which it is related/with which it is associated. (In Greek, meta- means ‘substitution’ and onyma means ‘name’.)

(a) A sign substitutes for the person or the object it signifies or symbolizes.

- He succeeded to the crown (= the royal office).
- She is a fighter against red tape (= bureaucracy, office routine).
- The new proposal might affect the cloth (= the clergy) in some way.
- Backstairs did influence.
  (= intrigues, secret plans to do something bad, secret arrangements)
- Can you protect your children from the cradle to the grave?
  (= from childhood to death)
(b) *An instrument* substitutes for an *agent*.
- *The pen (= the writer)* has more influence than *the sword* (= the soldier).
- *He is the best pen (= the best writer) of the day.*
- *Who brought fire and sword (= a destructive war) into our country?*
- *We need a force of a thousand rifles (= soldiers).*
- *Sceptre and crown (= kings)*
  
  Must tumble down,
  
  And in the dust be equal made
  
  With the poor crooked scythe and spade (= peasants).

  [James Shirley]

  (= *Like peasants, kings must die.*)

(c) *A container* substitutes for the *thing contained*.
- *The kettle (= the water in the kettle) is boiling.*
- *He drank the cup.*
  
  (= the coffee, the tea, the chocolate, etc. *in the cup*)
- *He is too fond of the bottle (= the liquor in the bottle).*
- *The conquerors smote the city (= the inhabitants of the city).*
- *Why don’t you recognize the power of the purse?*
  
  (= the money *kept in the purse*)

(d) *The concrete*, like *an organ of the human body*, substitutes for the *abstract* such as *love, hatred, sincerity, a mental ability, a natural talent, etc.*
- She has an ear for music. (= She possesses a remarkable talent for learning, imitating, appreciating, etc. music.)

- She has a good head of business.
  (= She is gifted in/is clever at dealing with business.)

(e) The abstract substitutes for the concrete:
- His Majesty (= the king) died a year ago.
- His Holiness (= the Pope) has just come back to Rome.
- The authorities put an end to the riot.
  (= the group of people who have the power to give orders or take action)

(f) The material substitutes for the thing made.
- The marble (= the marble statue) speaks.
- All our glass is kept in the cupboard.
  (= vessels and articles made of glass)
- He was buried under this stone.
  (= this tomb made of stone, this tombstone)

(g) An author/a producer/a place where goods are made substitutes for his work(s)/its product(s).
- I have never read Keat (= Keat’s poems).
- Have you ever read Homer (= the works of Homer)?
- I love old china (= crockery made in China).

21 A scene found in a fairly tale shows the prince of a kingdom going for a walk in his garden. When passing by the marble statue, he notices a sweet call: “My dear prince!”
2.8.3.2 Distinction between metaphor and metonymy

On the one hand, metaphor is based on the associated similarity shared by the two things being implicitly compared. In other words, only if A and B are similar to each other in some way can the name commonly referred to A be metaphorically used to refer to B.

On the other hand, metonymy does not depend on such similarity.

Let’s consider the two following sentences:

(1) The organization is keeping the brake on pay rises.
(2) No man is an island: entire of itself; every man is a piece of the continent.

The sentence marked (1) exemplifies a metaphor: the core meaning of keep the brake on a certain vehicle in order to reduce its speed or to stop it has been changed to its metaphoric meaning: control pay rises or cause pay rises to slow down.

The whole sentence means the organization is controlling the increase in the amounts/sums of money paid for its current activities.

This sentence marked (2) consists of two metonymies: respectively, an island and the continent, which are both [+concrete], stand for isolation and community, which are both [+abstract].

The whole sentence means no one can isolate himself from the community he has been living in.
2.8.4 Synecdoche

2.8.4.1 Definition

*Synecdoche* is a special kind of metonymy in which “a part or aspect of a person, object, etc. is meant to refer to the whole person, object, etc.” [Crowther (ed.), 1992: 925]

- They organized a fleet of fifty *sails* (= ships).
- He is a man of seventy *winters* (= years of age).
- He managed to earn his *bread* (= necessaries).
- This is a village of only more than one hundred *souls* (= people).
- Gray hairs (= old or elderly people) should be respected.

*Synecdoche* also involves a whole or genus used to substitute for a part or species: vessel for ship, *the smiling year* for the smiling season *of the year*, especially the spring, *the Christian world* for the Christian Church *as a whole*, etc.

2.8.4.2 Distinction between *metonymy* and *synecdoche*

Let’s consider the four following sentences:

(1) *The princess captures the hearts of the nation.*

*The hearts*, which is [+organ of the human body] and thus [+concrete], is used to stand for *the love*, which is [+emotional experience] and thus [+abstract]. *The hearts* in this case is a *metonymy*. The sentence means *all the people of that country love the princess.*
(2) *He has a kind heart.*

A heart, which is [+organ of the human body], [+concrete] and [+part], is used to stand for a person, which is [+human], [+concrete] and [+whole]. A *kind heart* in this case is a *synecdoche*. The sentence means *he is a kind/kind-hearted person who is concerned for others around him.*

(3) *Spare the rod and spoil the child.*

The rod, which is [+thing] and thus [+concrete], is used to stand for the punishment, which is [+human activity], [+intention] and thus more or less [+abstract]. The *rod* in this case is a *metonymy*. The sentence means *if you do not punish a child when he does wrong, you will spoil his character.*

(4) *All hands on deck did help.*

Hands, which is [+organ of the human body], [+concrete] and [+part], is used to stand for people, which is [+human], [+concrete] and [+whole]. In this case, *hands* must be a *synecdoche*. This sentence means *all the people on one of the floors of the ship worked hard to accomplish a certain task.*

2.8.5 *Hyperbole*

Hyperbole, which is also called *overstatement*, is the use of “exaggerated statement that is made for special effect and is not meant to be taken literally.” [Crowther (ed.), 1992: 446]
Below are a few hyperboles or overstatements:
- I’ve invited millions of (= a lot of) people to my party.
- She sheds floods of tears (= cries a lot) whenever she is upset.
- Don’t live in such a sea of doubt! (= Don’t be too suspicious!)
- Never in a million years will he admit defeat. (= He will never admit defeat.)
- I haven’t seen you for ages. (= for a few weeks, for a couple of months, for a while)

2.8.6 Litotes

Litotes, which is also called meiosis, is the use of deliberately gentler, milder or weaker statements to express something in a controlled way.

- I don’t think I would agree with you. (= I disagree with you.)
- I am afraid that no passenger is allowed to smoke in here. (= You are not allowed to smoke in here.)

Quite often, an expression of litotes is an “ironical understatement, especially using a negative to emphasize the contrary.” [Crowther (ed.), 1992: 527]

- It’s not bad. (= It is fine.)
- It wasn’t easy. (= It was very difficult.)
- Always remember that she is no fool. (= She is worldly-wise, in fact.)
- Jim was rather upset when he again failed in the final exam. (= very upset)
2.8.7 Irony

I *rony* is the “expression of one’s meaning by saying the *direct opposite of one’s thoughts* in order to be emphatic, amusing, sarcastic, etc.” [Crowther (ed.), 1992: 479]

Below are a few *expressions of irony*:

- *What a lovely day it was!* Everything I had *went wrong*.
- *He is so intelligent* that no examiner has agreed to pass him so far.
- *He is lucky* to have such an *ugly and awkward* wife.
- *She is extremely unlucky* to be born in such a *prosperous* family in a *developed European* country.
- *Your plan is really tricky*. The other team will *figure it out* in about one play.

2.8.8 Euphemism

2.8.8.1 Definition

Euphemism is “the use of pleasant, mild or indirect words or phrases in place of more accurate or direct ones.” [Crowther (ed.), 1992: 305] Respectively, *morticians* (also called *undertakers*) and *a garbage man* may be euphemistically replaced by *funeral directors* and *a sanitation engineer*.

2.8.8.2 Distinction between a *taboo word* and a *euphemism*.

A *taboo word*, a ‘dirty’ word, is the word or the linguistic expression that refers to a taboo act or behaviour in a society, a culture or a speech community while a *euphemism* is the word or the linguistic expression that replaces a taboo word or serves to avoid a frightening or unpleasant subject.
It is crucial to recognize that a **taboo word** and its **euphemism** share the same denotative meaning but they differ in their connotative meanings: the **taboo word** has a **negative connotation** whereas its **euphemism** has a **positive connotation**.

Below are a number of common euphemisms and their taboo words:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Euphemisms</th>
<th>Taboo words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>social disease</strong></td>
<td>syphilis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>criminal assault</strong></td>
<td>rape</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>handicapped</strong></td>
<td>crippled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>mentally ill</strong></td>
<td>insane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>underprivileged</strong></td>
<td>poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>developing or less developed (country)</strong></td>
<td>poor (country)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>(more) developed (country)</strong></td>
<td>rich (country)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>senior citizens</strong></td>
<td>the aged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>laid to rest</strong></td>
<td>buried</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>perspiration</strong></td>
<td>sweat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>intoxicated</strong></td>
<td>drunk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>abdomen</strong></td>
<td>belly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>odour</strong></td>
<td>stink or smell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>expectorate</strong></td>
<td>spit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>retarded or unusual</strong></td>
<td>mentally defective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>hard of hearing</strong></td>
<td>deaf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>love child</strong></td>
<td>bastard</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Below are a few expressions of euphemism:

- *Pass away* is a euphemism for *die*.

- *He was his Majesty's guest for two years* is a euphemism for *He was in jail for two years*.

2.8.9 Onomatopoeia

*Onomatopoeia* is the imitation of natural sounds by means of words or groups of words. *Hiss, cuckoo, thud, moo, baa, hush, pop*, etc. are *onomatopoeic words*. *Growl, splash, crackle*, etc. exemplify *semi-onomatopoeia*.

Onomatopoeia can be identified in the following sentences:

- *She is always squeaking and squawking*.

- *We could hear the enemy guns booming (away) in the distance*.

- *He felt a tap on his shoulder*.

- *Rain was dripping down from the trees. Its steady drip kept me awake all night long*.

**Exercise 8**: Interpret the meaning the following sentences and state what kind of *figures of speech* (also called *figurative language*) used in each of them.

1. *When he gets going, Jack is a streak of lightning*.
2. I found the fifty-two pounds of books you left for me to carry. Your kindness really moved me.

3. The man is a demon for work.

4. When you take that course, plan to study thirty hours a day.

5. The wind howled angrily around the house all night.

6. When the White House called, the ambassador went at once.

7. My dormitory room is like a cave.
8. Come to the dormitory and see what a cave I live in.

9. Dick was fairly pleased when he won the brand-new car in the contest.

10. If you are not happy with the service, go and talk to the City Hall.

11. Man does not live by bread alone.

12. We now live under the same roof.

13. Albert was as sharp as a tack this morning. He answered every question as soon as it was asked.
14. *The river ate the bank away.*

15. *Keep overeating like that and pretty soon you’ll weigh a thousand pounds.*

16. *After she heard the good news, she grinned like a mule eating briars.*

17. *The captain was in charge of one hundred horses.*

18. *Joe cried a little when he lost the thousand dollars.*

19. *You can depend on Gina; she is a rock when trouble comes.*
20. Life is a dream.

21. He’s so hardheaded that he won’t listen to anyone.

22. Research says that these methods are best.

23. Right at this minute, I could drink a barrel of water without stopping.

24. It is amazing what a great mind he is.

25. Alice came in gently, like a May breeze.
26. Susie is a picture of loveliness in her new dress.

27. A thousand thanks are for your kindness.

28. I walked past the big sad mouth which didn’t know what to say then.

29. We are tired to death of such movies.

30. Give every man thine ears, bid a few thy voice.

31. There was a storm in Parliament last night.
32. I’m afraid he has misrepresented the facts.

33. He worked and worked until he breathed his last.

34. We’ll just have to go our separate ways.

35. They were vital, unforgettable matches that gave us a new window on the game.

36. I’ve told you a thousand times not to touch that again.

37. He is as mute as a fish.
38. We stopped to drink in the beautiful scenery.

39. His words can be trusted.

40. The police team has cemented close ties with the hospital staff.

41. The boss gave her a hot look.

42. He could not bridle his anger.

43. He attacked every weak point in my argument.
44. In 1940, after the fall of France, England had no defense left but her ancient valor.

45. The fire snaps and crackles like a whip; its sharp acrid smoke stings the eyes. It is the fire that drives a thorn of memory in my heart.

46. The organization is keeping the brake on pay rises.

47. Her father is a captain of industry.

48. I am the captain of my soul.

49. To fall out of a tree in one’s early childhood is not a particularly reassuring experience.
No man is an island: entire of itself; every man is a piece of the continent.

2.9 Hyponymy

2.9.1 Definition

Hyponymy is a relation in which the referent of a word is totally included in the referent of another word. In other words, hyponymy is the relationship between each of the hyponyms\(^\text{22}\) (the “lower” word) and its superordinate\(^\text{23}\) (the “higher” word):

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{cook} \\
\text{grill toast boil fry}^{\text{24}} \text{ roast bake smoke} \ldots...
\end{array}
\]

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{stir-fry sauté deep-fry}
\end{array}
\]

2.9.2 Distinction between a hyponym and a superordinate

\(^{22}\) Hyponyms are also referred to as subordinates or specific lexical items.

\(^{23}\) Superordinates are also referred to as hyper(o)nyms or generic lexical items.

\(^{24}\) stir-fry = fry (vegetables, meat, etc.) for a short time in very hot oil while stirring them

sauté = fry (food like potatoes) quickly in a little fat

deep-fry = fry (food like potatoes) quickly in hot fat that completely covers them
A hyponym is a word “whose referent is totally included in the referent of another word (the prefix hypo- in hyponym means ‘below’).” [Finegan, 1994: 165]

Accordingly, a superordinate is a word whose referent covers all the referents of its hyponyms. (The prefix hyper- in hyper(o)nym means ‘over’.)

Ex1. plant

\[\text{tree} \quad \text{bush (shrub)} \quad \text{flowering plant} \quad \text{moss} \quad \text{grass} \quad \ldots \ldots\]

Hyponyms often exist at more than one level, resulting in multiple layers of hyponymic relationships:

Ex2. colour

\[\text{blue} \quad \text{red} \quad \text{yellow} \quad \text{green} \quad \text{black} \quad \ldots \ldots\]

\[\text{turquoise}^{25} \quad \text{aquamarine} \quad \text{royal blue}\]

In this case, blue is a word that has a hyponym and a superordinate at the same time. Since turquoise, aquamarine and royal blue refer to different shades of blue, these words are IMMEDIATE hyponyms [Palmer: 1981: 87] of blue. The word blue in its turn is, along with many other colour terms, an IMMEDIATE hyponym of colour. We thus obtain a hierarchy of

---

25 Turquoise = greenish blue; aquamarine = bluish green; royal blue = deep bright blue

58
terms related to each other through **hyponymic relationships**. Similar hierarchies can be established for many lexical fields:

```
Ex3.

physical entity

plant  animal  rock

fish  bird  insect  bug  reptile  mammal

sparrow  hawk  crow  fowl

human  animal

chicken  turkey  quail  ……

dog  cat  cow  ……
```

Note in this case that the word *animal* appears on two different levels. English speakers indeed use the word to refer to at least two different referents: *animals* as distinct from *plants* and *rocks*, and *animals* (generally *mammals other than humans*) as distinct from *humans*.

2.9.3 **Hyponymy and inclusion**

“**HYponomy** involves us in the notion INCLUSION in the sense that *tulip* and *rose* are included in *flower*, and *lion* and *elephant* in *mammal* (or perhaps *animal*). Similarly, *scarlet* is included in *red*. **Inclusion** is thus a **matter of class membership**. The ‘super’ term is the SUPERORDINATE and the ‘lower’ term is the HYponym.” [Palmer, 1981: 85]
**Exercise 9:** Each of the following sentences presents a pair of words. Which of them is *a superordinate* and which, *a hyponym*?

1. *She reads books all day – mostly novels.*
2. *A crocodile is a reptile.*
3. *There’s no flower more beautiful than a tulip.*
4. *He likes all vegetables except carrots.*

---

**Exercise 10:** Draw a chart to show the relationship between *a superordinate* and *a hyponym*.

1. *luggage* and *suitcase*

---

2. *green vegetable* and *bean*
3. *animal* and *foal*

4. *animal* and *child*

5. *fowl* and *rooster*

6. *plant* and *coconut*

7. *plant* and *rose*
8. *vocal organ* and *tongue tip*

9. *head* and *eyelash*

10. *furniture* and *dressing table*

11. *vehicle* and *convertible*

12. *vocalize* and *croon*
2.10 Synonymy

2.10.1 Definition

*Synonymy* is a relation in which various words have different (written and sound) forms but have the same or nearly the same meaning.

Ex1: The two English verbs *hide* and *conceal* are synonyms; they both mean *keep somebody/something from being seen or known about.*

Ex2: The four English nouns *kind, type, sort* and *variety* are synonyms; they all refer to *a group having similar characteristics.*

2.10.2 Distinction between *true synonymy* and *partial synonymy*

2.10.2.1 True synonymy

There are few true synonyms in the lexicon of a language.

Ex1. *Movie, film, flick* and *motion picture* may be considered as synonyms because they all refer to the same set of referents in the real world. In other words, they have the same denotative meaning. However, these lexical items differ in their connotative meanings: *movie* may strike you as American while *film* may strike you as British or as appropriate for movie classics or art movies; *flick* is used chiefly in very informal contexts whereas *motion picture* is quaintly outdated and has connotations as a term from the thirties or forties of the 20th century.

---

\[26\] *flick* n [C] (dated, informal) *cinema film*
In brief, *movie, film, flick* and *motion picture* are not true synonyms.

Ex2. *Fast, quick* and *rapid* may be considered as synonyms because they may be used interchangeably in reference to someone’s *running speed*: *He’s a fast/quick/rapid runner.* However; *a fast talker,* one who is able to get out of trouble by talking cleverly, is different from *a quick talker,* one who usually *talks in a rapid manner:* some people may lead their lives *in the fast lane,* not in the *rapid lane* or in the *quick lane:* he has *a quick mind,* not a *rapid mind* or a *fast mind:* he gave her *a quick glance,* not a *rapid glance* or a *fast glance:* and *rapid* is the usual term when reference is made to a person’s *strides,* especially metaphorical strides: *Tom has made rapid strides in his math this term.* In brief, *fast, quick* and *rapid* are not true synonyms.

Quite often, words that appear synonymous at first glance actually refer to slightly different sets of concepts or are used in different situations. “The fact that there are *few true synonyms* in the lexicon of a language reflects the general tendency of language users to make most of what is available to them. If two terms have the same referent, the meaning of one of them is usually modified to express differences in referential, social or affective meaning. Although *true synonymy* is rare, the notion is useful because it helps describe similarities between the meanings of different terms in the lexicon.” [Finegan, 1994: 168]

---

27 In other words, synonyms usually have different connotations: *mother, Mum, Mom, Mummy,* and *Mommy.*
2.10.2.2 Partial synonymy

Partial synonymy is a relation in which a polysemous word shares one of its meanings with another word.

For example, one meaning of deep is synonymous with profound in the pair of sentences marked (1)a-b. In other words, deep and profound can be used interchangeably in (1)a-b. No such interchange can be found in (2)a-b:

(1)a. You have my deep sympathy.
(1)b. You have my profound sympathy.
(2)a. The river is very deep at this point.
(2)b. *The river is very profound at this point.

Partial synonymy leads to collocations: a bunch of keys, a herd of sheep, a school of ants, a flock of birds, a group of teachers, a gang of thieves, etc.

**Exercise 11**: The following pairs of words are partial synonyms, i.e. they do not share all their senses. For each pair, (a) gives a sentence in which the two can be used interchangeably; (b) gives another sentence in which only one of them can be used.

1. strong/powerful
   (a) __________________________________________________
   (b) __________________________________________________

2. ripe/mature
   (a) __________________________________________________
   (b) __________________________________________________
3. **broad/wide**
   (a) __________________________________________________
   (b) __________________________________________________

4. **soil/earth**
   (a) __________________________________________________
   (b) __________________________________________________

5. **edge/side**
   (a) __________________________________________________
   (b) __________________________________________________

6. **permit/allow**
   (a) __________________________________________________
   (b) __________________________________________________

**Exercise 12**: Identify various meanings of each of the two given polysemous words and then point out which meaning exemplify *partial synonymy*.

1. **deep**
   (i) *This is a deep well.*
   (ii) *He only gave a deep sigh.*
   (iii) *You have my deep sympathy.*
   (iv) *With his hands deep in his pockets, he went away.*

The _______ meaning of *deep* is synonymous with ________.
2. *broad*

(i) *The river is very* *broad* *at this point.*

(ii) *He just gave a* *broad* *smile.*

(iii) *Luckily, my boss is a man of* *broad* *views.*

(iv) *He speaks English with a* *broad* *Yorkshire accent.*

The _________ meaning of *broad* is synonymous with ________.

### 2.11 Antonymy

#### 2.11.1 Definition

*Antonymy* is a relation in which two words have different (written and sound) forms and are opposite in meaning.

*Example 1:* *Pass--fail, hot--cold* and *thinner--fatter* are three pairs of *antonyms*.

*Example 2:* *True--false, big--small* and *buy--sell* are three pairs of *antonyms*.

#### 2.11.2 Classification

2.11.2.1 *Binary antonymy* and *gradable antonymy*

2.11.2.1.1 Below is probably a common way of telling binary antonymy from *gradable antonymy*:

*Binary antonymy* is a relation in which two members of a pair of antonyms:

---

28 Binary antonymy is also referred to as *complementary antonymy*. 

67
(a) are mutually exclusive: *not alive* is *dead* and *not dead* is *alive*.

(b) *cannot* be used in a comparative or superlative sense:

*He is more single/more married than his brother.*

(c) *cannot* be used in questions with *how* to ask about degrees:

*How single/How married is he?*

Thus, *alive--dead* and *married--single* are two pairs of binary antonyms.

**Grades antonymy** is a relation in which two members of a pair of antonyms:

(a) are gradable: between *hot* and *cold* are three “intermediate terms” [Palmer, 1981: 95] *warm, tepid* (or *lukewarm*) and *cool*.

(b) *can* be used in a comparative or superlative sense: *wider* is *less narrow, more difficult* is *less easy*, etc.

(c) *can* be used in questions with *how* to ask about degrees:

*How difficult is the test?* 29

Thus, *hot--cold* and *difficult--easy* are two pairs of gradable antonyms.

2.11.2.1.2 The distinction between binary antonymy and gradable antonymy is sometimes blurred by language users. In English, for example, it is reasonable to assume that whatever is *alive* is *not dead* and that whatever is *dead* is *not alive*, and thus

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29 *How easy is the test?* is also possible, but its context is very restricted, e.g. to show that one can manage to pass the test without any difficulty.
that the adjectives dead and alive form a pair of binary antonyms. However, we do have expressions like half-dead, barely alive, and more dead than alive, which suggest that, in some contexts, we see alive and dead as gradable antonyms. Nevertheless, the distinction between the two types of antonyms is useful in that it describes an important distinction between two types of word relationships.

2.11.2.2 Relational antonym

Two members of a pair of relational antonyms display symmetry in their meaning. The "if..., then..." formula can be used to test and identify relational antonyms: if Mr. Brown is Jack’s employer, then Jack is Mr. Brown’s employee; if Jenny is thinner than Mary, then Mary is fatter than Jenny; if John bought a car from Fred, then Fred sold a car to John; etc.

Thus, buy--sell, employer--employee, and thinner--fatter are three pairs of relational antonyms.

Relational antonyms belong to various word classes:

1. **Verbs**: buy--sell, give--receive, lend--borrow, import--export, own--belong to, etc.

2. **Nouns**: employer--employee, grandparent--grandchild, father/mother--son/daughter, fiancé--fiancée, parent--child/offspring, professor--student, teacher--pupil, doctor--patient, debtor--creditor, landlord/landlady--tenant, husband--wife, uncle/aunt--nephew/niece, etc.

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30 Relational antonyms are also called converses.
Comparative adjectives: thinner--fatter, cheaper -- more expensive, greater than--less than, etc.

Comparative adverbs: more efficiently--less efficiently, faster--more slowly, etc.

Prepositions: above--below, in front of--behind, over--under, before--after, north of--south of, west of--east of, etc.

2.11.3 Antonymy and (un)markedness

Words that are in an antonymous relationship often do not have equal status with respect to markedness. In a pair of antonyms, one member is more unmarked (or less marked) and the other is more marked (or less unmarked), e.g. high--low, tall--short, heavy--light, far--near, expensive--cheap, hot--cold, long--short, wide--narrow, deep--shallow, difficult--easy, married--single, well--badly, etc.

The unmarkedness of one member of any pair of antonyms enables it to occur in questions of degree like How heavy is it? (not How light is it?), How tall are you? (not How short are you?), How deep is the canal? (not How shallow is the canal?), How expensive is this bracelet? (not How cheap is this bracelet?), How well can you speak English? (not How badly can you speak English?), etc.

Similarly, since married is less marked than single, we say we talk about one’s marital status, and not about one’s single status.
Exercise 13: Are the following pairs of words binary antonyms?

(1) chalk--cheese    Yes/No    (4) dead--alive    Yes/No
(2) same--different Yes/No    (5) married--unmarried Yes/No
(3) copper--tin      Yes/No    (6) cheap--expensive Yes/No

Exercise 14: Are the following pairs of words relational antonyms?

(1) below--above Yes/No    (4) grandparent--grandchild Yes/No
(2) love--hate Yes/No    (5) greater than--less than Yes/No
(3) conceal--reveal\(^{31}\) Yes/No    (6) own--belong to Yes/No

Exercise 15: Identify the continuous scale of values between the two given words.

1. love--hate: __________________________________________
2. hot -- cold: __________________________________________
3. big -- small: __________________________________________
4. rich -- poor: __________________________________________
5. none -- all: __________________________________________
6. possibly -- certainly: _________________________________
7. never--always: ________________________________________

\(^{31}\) Conceal sb/sth (from sb/sth) = keep sb/sth from being seen or known about:
- He tried to conceal/did not reveal his heavy drinking from his family.
Reveal sth (to sb) = make sth known (to sb):
- The doctor did not reveal the truth to him/concealed the truth from him.
**Exercise 16:** State whether the following pairs of antonyms are binary, gradable or relational by writing B (binary), G (gradable) or R (relational):

1. good--bad: __________
2. pass--fail: __________
3. deciduous--evergreen: ___
4. expensive--cheap: ______
5. parent--offspring: ______
6. beautiful--ugly: ______
7. false--true: __________
8. lessor--lessee: ________
9. import--export: __________
10. better than--worse than: ___
11. easy--difficult: ______
12. hot--cold: __________
13. legal--illegal: ______
14. asleep--awake: ______
15. rude--polite: __________
16. husband--wife: __________

**2.12 Homonymy**

2.12.1 Distinction between homonymy, homophony and homography

2.12.1.1 Homonymy is a relation in which various words have the same (sound and written) form but have different meanings.

Ex1: Classified as two homonyms are the noun *bank₁*, which means a financial institution, and the noun *bank₂*, which means the shore of a river; both being pronounced /bæŋk/ in RP.\(^{32}\)

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\(^{32}\)Received Pronunciation (usually abbreviated to RP) “is most familiar as the accent used by most announcers and newsreaders on serious national and international BBC broadcasting channels.” Also, it “is often most recommended for foreign learners studying British English.” [Roach, 1991: 4]
Ex2: Classified as three homonyms are the noun bear, which refers to a large heavy animal with thick fur, the verb bear, which means give birth to, and the verb bear, which means tolerate; all being pronounced /beə(r)/ in RP.

2.12.1.2 Homophony is a relation in which various words have the same sound form\(^{33}\) but have different meanings and written forms.

Ex1: Classified as two homophones are the noun hour, which means a twenty-fourth part of a day and night, and the possessive adjective our, which means belonging to us; both being pronounced /aʊə(r)/ in RP.

Ex2: Classified as two homophones are the noun place, which means a particular area or position in space, and the noun plaice, which means a type of fish; both being pronounced /pleɪs/ in RP.

2.12.1.3 Homography is a relation in which various words have the same written form\(^{34}\) but have different meanings and sound forms.

Ex1: Classified as two homographs are the verb lead /liːd/ in Does this road lead to town and the noun lead /lɛd/ in Lead is a heavy metal.

Ex2: Classified as two homographs are the bare infinitive form read /riːd/ and the past tense form read /red/.

---

\(^{33}\) also referred to as pronunciation

\(^{34}\) also referred to as spelling
2.12.2 Homophones as a distinct type of homonyms

“The terminological relationship between homonymy, homography, and homophony is not entirely clear. For instance, homophones that are not homographs are sometimes classified as a distinct type of homonyms, but the formal identity of homonyms may also be defined so strictly as to exclude non-homographic homophones from the class of homonyms (at least for those languages that have written records). The very fact that homonyms are different words (i.e., that they are distinct entities in the lexicon) implies that they are semantically distinct.” [Asher and Simpson, 1994: 1595]

Consider the following table and identify antonymy, synonymy, homonymy, homophony, and homography via their main features.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Written form</th>
<th>Sound form</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>antonymy</td>
<td>−</td>
<td>−</td>
<td>−</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>synonymy</td>
<td>−</td>
<td>−</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>homonymy</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>−</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>homophony</td>
<td>−</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>−</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>homography</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>−</td>
<td>−</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

+: the same or nearly the same;

−: different or opposite
Among a number of linguists who regard non-homographic homophones as a distinct type of homonyms are Fromkin and Rodman [1993: 129]: “Homonyms are different words that are pronounced the same, but may or may not spelled the same. To, two and too are homonyms because they are pronounced the same, despite their spelling differences.”

These authors and many others may require homonymy re-defined:

Homonymy is a sense relation in which various words are written the same way and/or sound alike but have different meanings, e.g. feat (strength or courage) and feet (plural of foot), know (have something in one’s mind) and no (not any), row (a quarrel) and row (a line), wound (an injury) and wound (past of wind), etc.

Exercise 17: Give the phonemic transcription shared by two members of each of the given pairs of words to identify them as a pair of homophones.

The first one is done as an example.

1. altar /ɔ:ltə(r)/ alter 11. herd ________ heard
2. beech ________ beach 12. knight ________ night
3. boar ________ bore 13. nose ________ knows
4. coarse ________ course 14. leek ________ leak
5. crews ________ cruise 15. maid ________ made
6. deer ________ dear 16. pail ________ pale
7. draft ________ draught 17. reign ________ rain
Exercise 18: Give the phonemic transcription shared by two members of each of the given pairs of words to identify them as a pair of homonyms. The italic words in bracket are to clarify the meaning in question of the given words.

The first one is done as an example.

1. \textit{lie}_1 (meaning \textit{tell lies})
\textit{lie}_2 (meaning \textit{put one’s body on a horizontal surface})

Classified as two homonyms are the verb \textit{lie}_1, which means \textit{tell lies,} and the verb \textit{lie}_2, which means \textit{put one’s body on a horizontal surface;} both being pronounced /lai/ in RP.

2. \textit{bat} (meaning \textit{a tool for hitting in baseball})
\textit{bat} (meaning \textit{the small mouse-like animal that flies at night and feeds on fruit and insects})

3. \textit{too} (meaning \textit{more than should be})
\textit{too} (meaning \textit{also})

8. \textit{fare} ________\textit{fair}  
18. \textit{scene} ________\textit{seen}  
9. \textit{flour} ________\textit{flower}  
19. \textit{thrown} ________\textit{throne}  
10. \textit{grate} ________\textit{great}  
20. \textit{whole} ________\textit{hole}
4. *might* (meaning *great strength or power*)

   *might* (expressing *possibility*)

   _________________________________________________________

5. *bare* (meaning *without the usual covering or protection*)

   *bare* (meaning *uncover or reveal something*)

   _________________________________________________________

6. *sound* (meaning *thing that can be heard*)

   *sound* (meaning *healthy or in good condition*)

   _________________________________________________________

7. *lead* (as in *Does this road lead to town*)

   *lead* (as in *He’s the chief trouble-maker; the others just follow his lead*)

   _________________________________________________________

   _________________________________________________________

**Exercise 19**: What is the relationship between the words in the following pairs? If the words are antonyms, specify what kind of antonyms they are. *The italic words* in bracket are to clarify *the meaning in question* of the given words.
The first one is done as an example.

1. **true** -- **false**: binary antonymy

2. **gloom** -- **darkness**: ________________

3. **dark** (as in a **dark** room) -- **dark** (as in Don’t look on the **dark** side of things): ________________

4. **wind** (as in The **wind** is blowing hard) -- **wind** (as in **wind** one’s watch): ________________

5. **deny** -- **admit**: ________________

6. **host** -- **guest**: ________________

7. **sow** (as in **sow** a field with wheat) -- **sow** (meaning a female **pig**): ________________

8. **pupil** (at a school) -- **pupil** (of an eye): ________________

9. **cheap** -- **expensive**: ________________

10. **coarse** -- **course**: ________________

2.13 Polysemy

2.13.1 Definition

**Polysemy** is a relation in which a single word has two or more slightly different but closely related meanings.

Ex1: The noun **chip** has the three following meanings:

(i) a small piece of some hard substance which has been broken off from something larger: a **chip** of wood/glass.
(ii) a **small cut** piece of potato which is fried for eating: *Can I try one of your chips?*

(iii) a **small but vital** piece of a computer: *This computer has got a faster chip than the old one.*

The three meanings are closely related because they all contain the semantic feature [+**small piece**].

Ex2: The verb *break* has the two following meanings:

(i) *separate into two or more parts as a result of force or strain (but not cutting):* *He broke that cup.*

(ii) *become unusable by being damaged; make (something) unusable by damaging:* *My watch is broken.*

The two meanings are closely related because both contain the semantic feature [+**can no longer be used**].

2.13.2 Distinction between *polysemy* and *homonymy*

A well-known problem in semantics is how to decide whether we are dealing with a single polysemous word (like *plain*) or with two or more homonyms (like *port*₁, as in *The ship left port*, and *port*₂, as in *He drank port*). In other words, how do you know when you have separate lexical items rather than a single word with different meanings?

Using SPELLING as a criterion is misleading: many sets of words are obviously distinct but have the same spelling as, for example, the noun *sound* meaning *noise* and the adjective *sound* meaning *healthy*, or the noun *bank*₁ meaning *financial institution* and the noun *bank*₂ meaning *shore of a river.*
One modestly reliable criterion is the word’s ETYMOLOGY, or historical origin. Take as an example the two English words which derive from different Anglo-Saxon roots: \textit{bank}_1 meaning \textit{financial institution} is an early borrowing from French while \textit{bank}_2 meaning \textit{shore of a river} has a Scandinavian origin.

The various ANTONYMS and SYNONYMS of a word provide a different kind of criterion that can be useful in distinguishing between HOMONYMY and POLYSEMY. Since the two senses of \textit{plain}, which are (1) clear or easy and (2) undecorated, share a synonym in \textit{simple} and an antonym in \textit{complex}. This fact suggests that they are indeed \textit{two meanings of one and the same POLYSEMIC word}. No such shared synonym or antonym can be identified for the two meanings of \textit{sound}, which is, by chance, the form of \textit{two different words}, \textit{sound}_1 and \textit{sound}_2, which have the same spelling and thus, also sound alike.

Another interesting question is whether there is \textit{any COMMONALITY between the different meanings of what appears to be the same word}. The two meanings of \textit{plain} can be characterized as \textit{devoid of complexity}, which suggests that they are related, but no such description exists for \textit{bank}_1 and \textit{bank}_2. Thus \textit{plain} in these two senses is POLYSEMIC, while the two senses of \textit{bank} reflect HOMONYMIC lexical items.

There is no doubt that it is often difficult to decide whether a particular pair of \textit{look-alike and sound-alike word forms} are \textit{two separate homonymous words} or simply \textit{a polysemic word with different meanings}. Though HOMONYMY and POLYSEMY can be distinguished as different notions, the boundary between them is not clear-cut.
Also notice that homonyms like \( \text{bank}_1 \), \( \text{bank}_2 \), \( \text{port}_1 \), \( \text{port}_2 \), \( \text{sound}_1 \), and \( \text{sound}_2 \), etc., are treated in distinct dictionary entries whereas two or more closely related meanings of the polysemous word \( \text{foot} \), \( \text{chip} \), or \( \text{plain} \) are linked together within only one dictionary entry.

### 2.14 Ambiguity

#### 2.14.1 Structural ambiguity

A sentence is considered as *structurally ambiguous* when its structure permits more than one interpretation.

For example, we can consider the prepositional phrase *with binoculars* in *We watched the hunters with binoculars* either as an adjectival to be the post-nominal modifier of the noun phrase *the hunters* or as an adverbial to be the optional adjunct of means of the verb *watched*.

![Syntax Tree](image_url)

*We watched the hunters with binoculars. We watched the hunters with binoculars.*
2.14.2 Lexical ambiguity

Any ambiguity resulting from the ambiguity of a word is lexical ambiguity.

Ex1. We can interpret the sentence They were waiting at the bank in two different ways because the two nouns bank — bank₁, which means financial institution and bank₂, which means shore of the river — are two homonyms.

Ex2. We can interpret the sentence That robot is bright in two different ways because the adjective bright is a polysemous word which has two slightly different but closely related meanings: shining and intelligent.

Thus, both polysemy and homonymy contribute to lexical ambiguity.

Exercise 20: Explain the lexical ambiguity in each of the following sentences by providing two sentences that paraphrase its two different meanings.

The first one is done as an example.

1. They were waiting at the bank.
   Meaning one: They were waiting at the financial institution.
   Meaning two: They were waiting at the shore of the river.

2. The long drill is boring.
   Meaning one: ___________________________
   Meaning two: ___________________________
3. When he got the clear title to the land, it was a good deed.
Meaning one: ________________________________
Meaning two: ________________________________

4. The proprietor of the fish store was the sole owner.
Meaning one: ________________________________
Meaning two: ________________________________

5. We like the ball.
Meaning one: ________________________________
Meaning two: ________________________________

6. They passed the port at night.
Meaning one: ________________________________
Meaning two: ________________________________

7. The captain corrected the list.
Meaning one: ________________________________
Meaning two: ________________________________

8. He was knocked over by the punch.
Meaning one: ________________________________
Meaning two: ________________________________

9. The camel swallowed the chocolate and then ate it.
Meaning one: ________________________________
Meaning two: ________________________________
Exercise 21: Does polysemy or homonymy contribute to the lexical ambiguity in each of the two given sentences.

(1) She cannot bear children.

(2) The cat sat on the mat.

Exercise 22: In what way are homonyms related to lexical ambiguity?

Exercise 23: In what way is a polysemous word related to lexical ambiguity?
**Exercise 24:** Explain *the structural ambiguity* in each of the following sentences:

1. *The drunkard visitor rolled up the carpet.*
2. *Is he really that kind?*
3. *My fiancée is reserved.*
4. *I saw her slip.*
5. *I saw her duck.*
6. *They are cooking bananas.*
7. *They are moving sidewalks.*
8. *John loves Richard more than Martha.*
9. *Old men and women will be served first.*
10. *The thing that bothered Bill was crouching under the table.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1(a) The drunkard visitor rolled up the carpet.</th>
<th>1(b) The drunkard visitor rolled up the carpet.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2(a)</td>
<td>Is he really that kind?</td>
<td>2(b) Is he really that kind?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3(a)</td>
<td>My fiancée is reserved.</td>
<td>3(b) My fiancée is reserved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4(a) I saw her slip.</td>
<td>4(b) I saw her slip.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5(a) We saw her duck.</td>
<td>5(b) We saw her duck.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6(a) They are cooking bananas.</td>
<td>6(b) They are cooking bananas.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7(a) They are moving sidewalks.</td>
<td>7(b) They are moving sidewalks.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8(a) John loves Richard more than Martha.</td>
<td>8(b) John loves Richard more than Martha.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.15 Anomaly

2.15.1 Definition

Anomaly is “a violation of semantic rules to create nonsense.” [Finegan, 1993: 148]

Ex1. That bachelor is pregnant is semantically anomalous because bachelor is [+male] whereas pregnant is [+female].

Ex2. My brother is the only child in the family is an English sentence that is grammatically correct and syntactically perfect; however, it is semantically anomalous because it represents a contradiction. The meaning of brother includes the semantic feature [+having at least one sibling] whereas the only child in the family is [+having no other sibling].
2.15.2 Anomaly and contradiction

Anomaly involves us in the notion contradiction in the sense that semantically anomalous sentences constitute a type of contradictory sentences. For example, John killed Bill, who remained alive for many years after is semantically anomalous because the so-called sentence represents a contradiction: no living organism can remain alive after being killed. In fact, Bill died right at the moment John killed him.

Exercise 25: Explain the anomaly of each of the following sentences.

1. Christopher is killing phonemes.

2. My brother is a spinster.

3. The boy swallowed the chocolate and then chewed it.

4. Babies can lift one ton.

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5. Puppies are human.

6. My unmarried sister is married to a bachelor.

7. The bigger key and John opened the door.

8. James sliced the ideas.

9. Jack’s courage chewed the bones.

10. I hear the cloud.

11. The tiger remained alive for an hour after the hunter killed it.
Exercise 26: How can each of the given sentences be changed to avoid anomaly?

1. ____________________________________________________
2. ____________________________________________________
3. ____________________________________________________
4. ____________________________________________________
5. ____________________________________________________
6. ____________________________________________________
7. ____________________________________________________
8. ____________________________________________________
9. ____________________________________________________
10. _____________________________________________________
11. ____________________________________________________
“SENTENCE MEANING is what a sentence means, regardless of the context and situation in which it may be used.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 269]

3.1 Proposition, utterance and sentence

3.1.1 “A PROPOSITION is that part of the meaning of the utterance of a declarative sentence which describes some state of affairs. The state of affairs typically involves persons or things referred to by expressions in the sentence. In uttering a declarative sentence a speaker typically asserts a proposition.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 19]

Ex1. The following pair of sentences expresses the same proposition:

1(a) Harry took out the garbage.
1(b) Harry took the garbage out.

The following pair of sentences expresses different propositions:

2(a) Isobel loves Tony.
2(b) Tony loves Isobel.
Ex2. The following pair of sentences expresses the same proposition:

3(a) John gave Mary a book.

3(b) Mary was given a book by John.

The following pair of sentences expresses different propositions:

4(a) George danced with Ethel.

4(b) George didn’t dance with Ethel.

**Exercise 27**: Do the two following sentences have the same proposition?

(1) Mr Dindlay killed Janet.

(2) Mr Dindlay caused Janet to die.

Exercise 28: Explain why the two members of each of the following pairs of sentences do not share the same proposition.

---

35 This means the two members of each pair are not paraphrases of each other.

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3.1.2 Distinction between a proposition and a sentence

“Propositions, unlike sentences, cannot be said to belong to any particular language. Sentences in different languages can correspond to the same proposition, if the two sentences are perfect translations of each other.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 21-22] For example, English *I'am cold*, French *J'ai froid*, German *Mir ist kalt* and Vietnamese *Tôi lạnh* can, to the extent to which they are perfect translations of each other, be said to correspond to the same proposition.
3.1.3 Distinction between *an utterance* and *a sentence*

“An UTTERANCE is the USE by a particular speaker, on a particular occasion, for a particular purpose, of a piece of language, such as a sequence of sentences, or a single phrase, or even a single word.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 15]

“A SENTENCE is neither a physical event nor a physical object. It is conceived abstractly, a string of words put together by the grammatical rules of a language. A sentence can be thought of as the IDEAL string of words behind various realizations in utterances and inscriptions.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 16]

Jane: ‘Coffee?’ ← *Would you like some coffee?*
Steve: ‘Sure!’ ← *I’m sure to love it.*
Jane: ‘White?’ ← *Would you like (black coffee or) white coffee?*
Steve: ‘Black.’ ← *I’d like black coffee, please.*

(One-word utterances)             (Well-formed sentences)

“The distinction between *sentence* and *utterance* is of fundamental importance to both semantics and pragmatics. Essentially, we want to say that a sentence is an abstract theoretical entity defined within a theory of grammar, while utterance is the issuance of a sentence.” [Levinson, 1983: 18]

“Utterances of non-sentences, e.g. short phrases or single words, are used by people in communication all the time. People do not converse wholly in (tokens of) well-formed sentences. But the abstract idea of a sentence is the basis for understanding even those expressions, which are not
sentences. In the overwhelming majority of cases, the meaning of non-sentences can be best analysed by considering them to be abbreviations, or incomplete versions, of whole sentences.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 18]

“The term ‘utterance’ can be used to refer either to the process (or activity) of uttering or to the product of that process (or activity). Utterances in the first of these two senses are commonly referred to nowadays as speech acts; utterances in the second sense may be referred to — in a specialized sense of the term — as inscriptions.” [Lyons, 1995: 235]

3.1.3 Distinction between a proposition, a sentence and an utterance

3.1.3.1 “It is useful to envisage the kind of family tree relationship between the three notions shown in the diagram. For example, a single proposition could be expressed by using several sentences (say The Monday Club deposed Mrs Thatcher, or Mrs Thatcher was deposed by The Monday Club) and each of these sentences could be uttered an indefinite number of times.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 23]

36 The term ‘inscriptions’ is “not widely used by linguists. It must be interpreted as being more appropriate to the written than it is to the spoken language.” [Lyons, 1995: 235]
3.1.3.2 Also, it is interesting to note that the same proposition can be expressed by different sentences and that the same sentence can be realised by different utterances on particular occasions.

Exercise 29: Fill in the following chart given by Hurford and Heasley [1984: 23] with ‘+’ or ‘–’ as appropriate. Thus, for example, if it makes sense to think of a proposition being a particular regional accent, put a ‘+’ in the appropriate box; if not put a ‘–’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Utterances</th>
<th>Sentences</th>
<th>Propositions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Can be loud or quiet</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can be grammatical or not</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can be true or false</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In a particular regional accent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In a particular language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2 Sentence types (classified according to truth value\(^{37}\))

\(^{37}\)“You can understand well-formed sentences of your language without knowing their truth value. Knowing the truth conditions is not the same as knowing the actual facts. Rather, the truth conditions, the meaning, permit you to examine the world and learn the actual facts ... Knowing a language includes knowing the semantic rules for combining meanings and the conditions under which sentences are true or false.” [Fromkin and Rodman, 1993: 146]
3.2.1 “An ANALYTIC sentence is one that is necessarily TRUE, as a result of the senses of the words in it.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 91-92]

Ex1. *All elephants are animals.*

The truth of this sentence follows from the senses of *elephants* and *animals*.

Ex2. *Sam’s wife is married.*

The truth of this sentence follows from the senses of *wife* and *married*.

3.2.2 A *contradictory sentence*, which is also called “A CONTRADICTION”[^38], is a sentence that is necessarily FALSE, as a result of the senses of the words in it. Thus a contradiction is in a way the opposite of an analytic sentence.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 93]

Ex1. *This animal is a vegetable* is a contradictory sentence; it must be false because of the senses of *animal* and *vegetable*.

Ex2. *Sam is older than himself*[^39] is a contradictory sentence; it must be false because of the senses of *older than* and *himself*. In fact, Sam can be older (or younger) than somebody else, but not than himself.

[^38]: A *contradictory sentence* is also referred to as a *contradiction* by Peccei [1999: 9] and Hurford and Heasley [1984: 93]. Goddard [1998: 17] uses the term *contradiction* to refer to a somewhat different notion: “Contradiction is where a sentence must be false because of the meanings involved.”

[^39]: Notice that *Sam looks older than he is* proves to be a *synthetic sentence*. 97
3.2.3 “A SYNTHETIC sentence is one which is NOT analytic, but may be either true or false, depending on the way the world is.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 92]

Ex1. John is from Ireland.

There is nothing in the senses of John, Ireland or from which makes the sentence necessarily true or false.

Ex2. Sam’s wife is German.

There is nothing in the senses of Sam’s, wife or German which makes the sentence necessarily true or false.

**Exercise 30**: Circle the following sentences A for *analytic*, S for *synthetic* or C for *contradiction*, as appropriate.

1. John’s nine-year-old brother is a boy.  
A / S / C
2. John’s brother is nine years old.  
A / S / C
3. Cats are not vegetables.  
A / S / C
4. No cats like to bathe.  
A / S / C
5. Cats never live more than 20 years.  
A / S / C
6. My watch is slow.  
A / S / C
7. My watch is a device for telling the time.  
A / S / C
8. That girl is her own mother’s mother.  
A / S / C
9. That boy is his own father’s son.  
A / S / C
10. Alice is Ken’s sister.  
A / S / C
11. Some typewriters are dusty.  
A / S / C
12. If it breaks, it breaks.  
A / S / C
13. John killed Bill, who remained alive for many years after.  
A / S / C
A / S / C
15. Bachelors are lonely.  
A / S / C

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3.3 Paraphrase

3.3.1 Definition

3.3.1.1 PARAPHRASE is “the relationship between a word and a combination of other words with the same meaning. For instance, many people would agree that loud means something like can be heard from far away. Ultimately, the whole project of describing or explaining word-meanings depends on paraphrase because we must use words — or other equivalent symbols — to explain other words.” [Goddard, 1998: 18]

3.3.1.2 “When asked what a sentence means, people usually provide another sentence that has virtually the same meaning, a paraphrase.” [Peccei, 1999: 3]

3.3.1.3 “A sentence which expresses the same proposition as another sentence is a paraphrase of that sentence.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 104]

3.3.1.4 “Sentences are paraphrases if they have the same meaning (except possibly for minor differences in emphases).” [Fromkin and Rodman, 1993: 132]

Consider the two following sentences:

(1) The girl kissed the boy.

(2) The boy was kissed by the girl.

Although there may be a difference in the emphasis in these two sentences — in the second the emphasis is on what happened to the boy, whereas in the first the emphasis is on what the girl did — the meaning relations between the verb kiss and the two noun
phrases *the girl* and *the boy* are the same in both cases, and on this basis the two sentences are **paraphrases of each other**.

### 3.3.2 Possible ways to *paraphrase* a sentence

There are a variety of ways that we could paraphrase a sentence:

1. **Change individual words:**
   
   1(a) using *synonyms*:
   
   *Cats* DRINK *cream* $\iff$ *Domestic felines* CONSUME
   
   the liquid fat of milk.
   
   1(b) using *relational antonyms* (also called *converses*):
   
   I LENT *that book* to *Jim*. $\iff$ *Jim* BORROWED *that book* from *me*.

2. **Change sentence structure:**

   *Cats* DRINK *cream*. $\iff$ *Cream* IS DRUNK by *cats*.

3. **Change both individual words and sentence structure:**

   *Cats* DRINK *cream*. $\iff$ *The liquid fat of milk* IS DRUNK
   
   by *domestic felines*.

To provide a paraphrase we use our knowledge of both the meanings of individual words and of the English grammar.

**Exercise 31**: The following pairs are **paraphrases** of each other. Identify the way employed to paraphrase them.

1(a) *The house was CONCEALED* by the tree.

1(b) *The house was HIDDEN* by the tree.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>(a) The needle is too short.</th>
<th>(b) The needle is not long enough.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>(a) Some countries have no coastline.</td>
<td>(b) Not all countries have a coastline.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>(a) Watching television is not a waste of time.</td>
<td>(b) Watching television is a good way to spend one’s time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>(a) My friend LOATHES string beans.</td>
<td>(b) My pal HATES pole beans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>(a) I’ll LOOK FOR that book right now.</td>
<td>(b) I’ll SEEK FOR that book at once/immediately.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>(a) Steve HUGGED Jane.</td>
<td>(b) Steve GAVE Jane a hug.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>(a) John is the parent of James.</td>
<td>(b) James is the child of John.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>(a) My father OWNS this car.</td>
<td>(b) This car BELONGS TO my father.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>(a) John SOLD the book to David.</td>
<td>(b) David BOUGHT the book from John.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>(a) Steve HUGGED Jane.</td>
<td>(b) Jane WAS HUGGED by Steve.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence</td>
<td>Corrected Sentence</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12(a) We <strong>HAD hardly</strong> BEGUN our work when it rained.</td>
<td><strong>Hardly</strong> HAD we BEGUN our work when it rained.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13(a) <strong>Sitting in one place for so long is very uncomfortable.</strong></td>
<td>It is very uncomfortable <strong>to sit</strong> in one place for so long</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14(a) I saw Ted at the party.</td>
<td><strong>It</strong> was Ted that I saw at the party.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15(a) The nearest service station is 50 miles <strong>away.</strong></td>
<td>It is 50 miles <strong>to</strong> the nearest service station</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16(a) <strong>Jenny and Kevin</strong> are twins.</td>
<td><strong>Kevin and Jenny</strong> are twins.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17(a) They had a wonderful holiday <strong>even though</strong> the weather was bad.</td>
<td>Despite/In spite of the bad weather, <strong>they had a wonderful holiday.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17(b) Despite/In spite of the bad weather, <strong>they had a wonderful holiday.</strong></td>
<td>They had a wonderful holiday, <strong>despite</strong> the bad weather.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17(c) They had a wonderful holiday, despite the bad weather.</td>
<td>They had a wonderful holiday <strong>in spite of</strong> the bad weather.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18(a) Bachelors PREFER red-haired girls.</td>
<td>Girls with red hair ARE PREFERRED by unmarried men.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19(a) Sam SLICED the salami with a knife.</td>
<td>Sam <strong>USED</strong> a knife to slice the salami.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20(a) <strong>Considering</strong> your condition, we won’t press charges.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20(b) <strong>Under</strong> the circumstances, we won’t press charges.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 21(a) The laser **HAS** a wide variety of applications. |
|-------------|----------------------------------------------------------|
| 21(b) As we have seen, **the use of** the laser **IS** numerous. |

| 22(a) In order to make a good impression at a job interview, you should prepare well for the interview. |
|------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 22(b) As you can see, it is necessary to be well prepared for the job interview. |

| 23(a) **Synonyms**, words that have the same basic meaning, do not always have the same emotional meaning. |
|--------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 23(b) Many so-called **synonyms** are not really **synonyms** at all. |

| 24(a) **The composition proficiency requirements** as now stated should not apply. |
|------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 24(b) I would propose that **the standard** used to judge international student papers be relaxed or done away with. |

| 25(a) **Although** Grants Pass, Oregon, is a fairly small town, it offers much to amuse summer visitors. |
|------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 25(b) If you want to give your family a nice, wholesome **vacation**, try visiting Grants Pass, Oregon. |
3.4 Entailment

3.4.1 Definition

3.4.1.1 “Entailment is a relationship that applies between two sentences\textsuperscript{40}, where the truth of one implies the truth of the other because of the meanings of the words involved.” [Goddard, 1998: 17]

For example, John was killed entails John died. Obviously, John died could not be true any time before it was true that John was killed.

3.4.1.2 “An entailment is something that logically follows from what is asserted in the utterance.” [Yule, 1996: 25]

Shirley: ‘It’s so sad. George regrets getting Mary pregnant.’

Jean: ‘But he didn’t get her pregnant. We know that now.’

In the above conversation, Jean’s utterance of ‘he didn’t get her pregnant’ actually entails ‘George didn’t get Mary pregnant’ as a logical consequence. “The entailment (a necessary consequence of what is said) is simply more powerful than the presupposition (an earlier assumption\textsuperscript{41}).” [Yule, 1996: 32]

3.4.1.3 “Entailments are inferences that can be drawn solely from our knowledge about the semantic relationships

\textsuperscript{40} For brevity here, as elsewhere in the little textbook, we speak of entailment between sentences, rather than, more strictly, between the propositions underlying sentences.

\textsuperscript{41} Quite contrary to the entailment ‘George didn’t get Mary pregnant’ is the earlier assumption that ‘George got Mary pregnant’.
3.4.2 Characteristics

3.4.2.1 “Entailment applies cumulatively. Thus if X entails Y and Y entails Z, then X entails Z.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 108]

Take the following as an example:

X, Some boys ran down the street entails Y, Some kids ran down the street.

Y, Some kids ran down the street entails Z, Some kids went down the street.

Therefore

X, Some boys ran down the street entails Z, Some kids went down the street.

3.4.2.2 “Hyponymy involves entailment. To say This is a tulip entails This is a flower, and This is scarlet entails This is red.” [Palmer, 1981: 87] The relation between tulip and flower and between scarlet and red brings out the HIERARCHICAL CLASSIFICATION involved in hyponymy.

3.4.3 Types of entailment

There are two types of entailment:

(i) One-way entailment:

The entailments of this first type come about because of hyponymic relations between words:

Ex1. Alfred saw a bear asymmetrically entails Alfred saw an animal.
If Alfred saw *a bear* then he necessarily saw *an animal*; but if Alfred saw *an animal*, he could have seen *a bear* but not necessarily. It could be *a big bad wolf*, for example.

Ex2. Max *ate the pizza* asymmetrically entails

\[
Max \text{ did something to the pizza.}
\]

Since the meaning *do something to* is found in *eat*, the sentence *Max ate the pizza* asymmetrically entails *Max did something to the pizza*; but if Max *did something to the pizza*, he could have *eaten it* but not necessarily. He could have *baked or bought it*, for example.

(ii) Two-way entailment\(^{42}\):

The entailments between a pair of sentences are *mutual* since the truth of either sentence guarantees the truth of the other.

Ex1. Paul *borrowed a car from Sue* symmetrically entails

\[
Sue \text{ lent a car to Paul.}
\]

Ex2. The police *chased the burglar* symmetrically entails

\[
The \text{ burglar was chased by the police.}
\]

It is interesting to notice that (1) *hyponymic relations* between words result in a great number of *one-way entailments*; (2) *paraphrases* are *two-way entailments*; and (3) *relational pairs of antonyms* such as *sell--buy, lend--borrow, own--belong to*, etc. do contribute to *two-way entailments*.

---

\(^{42}\) Two-way entailment is also referred as *mutual entailment* by Peccei [1999: 12].
**Exercise 32:** Use $\Rightarrow$ to show *one-way entailment* and $\Leftrightarrow$ to show *two-way entailment* in each of the following pairs of sentences:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exercise 32</th>
<th>1(a) John is a bachelor.</th>
<th>11(a) Eliza plays the flute.</th>
<th>11(b) Someone/Eliza plays a musical instrument.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1(b) John is a man.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2(a)</td>
<td>I’m wearing black boots.</td>
<td>12(a) Alan planted roses.</td>
<td>12(b) Someone/Alan planted flowers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2(b) I’m wearing black footwear.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3(a)</td>
<td>Mary owns three houses.</td>
<td>13(a) All dogs have fleas.</td>
<td>13(b) My dog has fleas. Someone/Alan plants flowers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3(b) Mary owns a house.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4(a)</td>
<td>Alvin is Mary’s husband.</td>
<td>14(a) My uncle teaches at the community college.</td>
<td>14(b) My uncle is a teacher.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4(b) Mary is married.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5(a)</td>
<td>The wolf killed the bear.</td>
<td>15(a) My pet cobra likes the taste of chocolate.</td>
<td>15(b) My pet cobra finds chocolate tasty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5(b) The bear is dead.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6(a)</td>
<td>My father owns this car.</td>
<td>16(a) The Jones sold their house to the Cruses.</td>
<td>16(b) The Cruses bought the house from the Jones.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6(b) This car belongs to my father.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7(a)</td>
<td>I gave Erin the summons.</td>
<td>17(a) Some countries have no coastline.</td>
<td>17(b) Not all countries have a coastline.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7(b) I gave the summons to Erin.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8(a)</td>
<td>John is the parent of James.</td>
<td>18(a) I saw Ted at the party.</td>
<td>18(b) It was Ted that I saw at the party.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8(b) James is the child of John.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9(a)</td>
<td>Jenny and Kevin are twins.</td>
<td>19(a) It is 50 miles to the nearest service station.</td>
<td>19(b) The nearest service station is 50 miles away.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9(b) Kevin and Jenny are twins.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10(a)</td>
<td>The bear killed the wolf.</td>
<td>20(a) Bachelors prefer red-haired girls.</td>
<td>20(b) Girls with red hair are preferred by unmarried men.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10(b) The wolf was killed by the bear</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Exercise 33**: What **sense relation** holds between the **two sentences** in each of the following pairs:

<p>| | | |</p>
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</thead>
</table>
| 1(a) **Tom** is married to Mary. | 6(a) **Jim** is fatter than **Ed**
| 1(b) **Mary** is married to Tom. | and **Ed** is fatter than **Bob**. |
| 2(a) **John** is the father of Neil. | 7(a) **Some** of the students came to my party. |
| 2(b) **Neil** is the father of John. | 7(b) **Not all** of the students came to my party. |
| 3(a) **Dick** is a bachelor. | 8(a) The fly was over the wall. |
| 3(b) **Dick** is a man. | 8(b) The wall was under the fly. |
| 4(a) **Gina** plays **tennis**. | 9(a) **Jane** is a spinster. |
| 4(b) **Someone/Gina** plays **sports**. | 9(b) **Jane** is married. |
| 5(a) **Kevin** boiled an egg. | 10(a) The beetle is alive. |
| 5(b) **Kevin** cooked an egg. | 10(b) The beetle is dead. |
“UTTERANCE MEANING is what a speaker means when he makes an utterance in a particular situation.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 269]

4.1 Presupposition

4.1.1 Definition and characteristics

4.1.1.1 Presupposition is “what a speaker or writer assumes that the receiver of the message already knows.” [Richards et al, 1987: 228] Thus, ‘John doesn’t write poems anymore’ presupposes that John once wrote poetry. And ‘Would you like another beer?’ presupposes that the person called you here has already had at least one beer.

4.1.1.2 “Presuppositions are inferences about what is assumed to be true in the utterance rather than directly asserted to be true:

‘Faye has looked for the keys’ directly asserts Faye has looked for the keys

43“It is proved very difficult for authors in the area to agree on a definition for it. This definition problem is partly a reflection of the fuzzy boundary between pragmatics and semantics.” [Peccei, 1999: 19]
Where has Faye looked for the keys? ’ presupposes Faye has looked for the keys

‘Annie has a sofa’ directly asserts Annie has a sofa

‘Don’t sit on Annie’s sofa’ presupposes Annie has a sofa.” [Peccei, 1999: 19]

4.1.1.3 “Speakers often make implicit assumptions about the real world, and the sense of an utterance may depend on those assumptions, which some linguists term presuppositions.” [Fromkin and Rodman, 1993: 161]

In the following dialogue, for example, both A and B know (1) who Simon and Monica are; that (2) Simon has a vehicle, most probably a car; and that (3) Monica has no vehicle at the moment.

A: ‘What about inviting Simon tonight?’

B: ‘What a good idea; then he can give Monica a lift.’

4.1.1.4 Presuppositions can be used to communicate information indirectly. If someone says My brother is rich, we assume that the person has a brother, even though that fact is not explicitly stated. Much of the information that is exchanged in a conversation or discourse is of this kind. Often, after a conversation has ended, we will realize that some fact imparted to us was not specifically mentioned. That fact is often a presupposition.

44“Other linguists describe the same phenomenon as implication. Presupposition is used here because it seems to be more widely accepted usage.” [Fromkin et al, 1990: 193]
4.1.2 Characteristics

4.1.2.1 The presupposition of an utterance remains the same under its NEGATION:

(1)a. ‘John stopped smoking.’
(1)b. ‘John didn’t stop smoking.’

(1)a-b both presuppose that John once smoked cigarettes.

(2)a. ‘The dog’s tail was cut.’
(2)b. ‘The dog’s tail wasn’t cut.’

(2)a-b both presuppose that the dog had a tail.

(3)a. ‘I like his car.’
(3)b. ‘I don’t like his car.’

(3)a-b both presuppose that he owns a car.

4.1.2.2 The presupposition of an utterance remains the same under its INTERROGATION:

(4)a. ‘John stopped smoking.’
(4)b. ‘Did John stop smoking?’
(4)c. ‘Why did John stop smoking?’

(4)a-c all presuppose that John once smoked cigarettes.

4.1.2.3 The presupposition of an utterance may be cancelled under its EXTENSION:

(5)a. ‘She didn’t feel regret at the over-cooked meat.’
(5)b. ‘She didn’t feel regret at the over-cooked meat because it was in fact well-done.’
(5)a presupposes that the meat was overcooked while (5)b presupposes that the meat was well-done.

4.1.3 Classification
There exist a number of different types of presupposition.

4.1.3.1 The existential presupposition

A possessive noun phrase (abbreviated to NP)⇒ a complete statement: X had / has / will have + an indefinite NP

1. ‘They haven’t spoken to each other since their last week’s quarrel.’
   (countable noun: singular) their last week’s quarrel
   The utterance presupposes that they had a quarrel last week.

2. ‘I lost my watch yesterday at Bến Thành market.’
   (countable noun: singular) my watch
   The utterance presupposes that I had a watch.

3. ‘That her turtle ran away made Emily very sad.’
   (countable noun: singular) her turtle
   The utterance presupposes that Emily had a (pet) turtle.

4. ‘John’s sister has been in hospital for a week.’
   (countable noun: singular) John’s sister
   The utterance presupposes that John has a sister.

45 My, your, their, John’s, the book’s, etc. make a noun phrase possessive.

46 The indefinite article a/an makes a singular noun phrase indefinite. Respectively, to signal that a noun phrase whose head noun is either uncountable or plural is indefinite, one may use some or a number of instead of a/an.
5. ‘Could you come to our party this weekend?’

   our party (countable noun: singular)

   The utterance presupposes that
   
   we are going to\(^{47}\) have a party this weekend.

6. ‘This is my youngest sister.’

   my youngest sister

   The utterance presupposes that I have a number of younger sisters.

7. ‘I try to hand in this assignment on time.’ (countable noun: singular)

   an assignment of mine = my assignment = this assignment

   The utterance presupposes that I have an assignment.

8. ‘Her mother’s death was a great blow to Mary.’

   ‘Mary can’t get over her mother’s death.’

   The utterance presupposes that

   Mary’s mother died. (intransitive verb)

   Mary’s mother is dead. (be + adjective)

A definite\(^{48}\) NP ⇒ a complete statement

There is/was/are/were (not)+ an indefinite NP (+adjunct of place)

There exist/exists/existed + an indefinite NP (+adjunct of place)

\(^{47}\) Are going to is [+future], [+near], and [+arrangement].

\(^{48}\) The definite article the as well as the demonstrative adjectives this, that, these, and those make a noun phrase definite.
9. ‘The American girl next door is having a party.’

   the American girl next door (countable noun: singular)

   The utterance presupposes that

   there is an American girl next door.

   there is a girl from the USA living next door.

10. ‘Children like all the pictures in this book very much.’

    all the pictures in this book (countable noun: plural)

    The utterance presupposes that

    there are/exist a number of pictures in this book.

    a number of pictures can be found in this book.

11. ‘The king of Sweden has just left for France.’

    (countable noun: plural) the king of Sweden

    The utterance presupposes that there is/exists a king in Sweden.

    The utterance presupposes that the king of Sweden exists.

12. ‘They searched everywhere for the missing child.’

    (countable noun: singular) the missing child

    The utterance presupposes that there was a child who was missing.

    The utterance presupposes that a child was missing.

A definite NP ⇒ an indefinite NP

13. ‘The book you gave me is worth reading.

   the book (= which/that) you gave me

   The utterance presupposes that you gave me a book.
4.1.3.2 The factive presupposition

14. ‘Nobody realized that Kelly was ill.’

The utterance presupposes that Kelly was ill.
15. ‘Ed realized/didn’t realize that he was in debt.’

The utterance presupposes that Ed was in debt.
16. ‘I was aware/wasn’t aware that she was married.’

The utterance presupposes that she was married.
17. ‘It is odd/isn’t odd that he left early.’

The utterance presupposes that he left early.
18. ‘I am glad that it’s over.’

The utterance presupposes that it’s over.
19. ‘We regret(ted) telling him the truth.’

The utterance presupposes that we told him the truth.
20. ‘He regretted/didn’t regret not booking the ticket in advance.’

The utterance presupposes that he did not book the ticket in advance.

( The speaker assumes that

the hearer already knows what the ticket is.)

4.1.3.3 The non-factive presupposition

21. ‘I imagined that Kelly was ill.’

The utterance presupposes that Kelly was not ill.
22. ‘I dreamed that I was rich.’

The utterance presupposes that I was not rich.
23. ‘We imagined that we were in Hawaii.’
   The utterance presupposes that we were not in Hawaii.
24. ‘He pretends to be ill.’
   The utterance presupposes that he is not ill.
25. ‘She pretended that he had understood what she meant.’
   The utterance presupposes that
   he did not understand what she meant.

4.1.3.4 The lexical presupposition
26. ‘You’re late again.’
   The utterance presupposes that you were late before.
27. ‘The Brazilian team beat the French team again.’
   The utterance presupposes that
   the Brazilian team beat/had beaten the French team before.
28. ‘I’m not going to let him come under my roof anymore.’
   The utterance presupposes that
   he often comes under my roof/to my house.’
29. ‘I’m going to change job.’
   The utterance presupposes that I have a job already.
30. ‘My sister’s going to change job.’
   The utterance presupposes that my sister has a job already.
   The utterance presupposes that
   I have a sister and she has a job already.
31. ‘I’ve just got a driving license.’
The utterance presupposes that *I had no driving license before.*
The utterance presupposes that

*I did not have a driving license before.*

32. ‘Jim wants more popcorn.’
The utterance presupposes that

*Jim has had/has eaten some popcorn.*

33. ‘She managed/didn’t manage to pay her debt.’
The utterance presupposes that *she tried to pay her debt.*
The utterance presupposes that

*she owed a debt and she tried to pay it.*

34. ‘Can you stop making that noise?’
The utterance presupposes that *you are making that noise.*
The utterance presupposes that

*there is some noise and you are making it.*

35. ‘He stopped smoking.’
The utterance presupposes that

*he used to smoke/he once smoked.*

36. ‘After a while they stopped arguing.’
The utterance presupposes that *they had been arguing.*

37. ‘The police ordered the teenagers to stop drinking.’
The utterance presupposes that

*the teenagers had been drinking.*

(The speaker assumes that

*the hearer already knows who the teenagers are.*)
38. ‘They started complaining.’
   The utterance presupposes that
   \[\text{they had never complained before.}\]

4.1.3.5 The structural presupposition

\[
A \text{ Wh-question } \Rightarrow \text{ a complete statement}
\]

39. ‘Where did you buy the bike?’
   The utterance presupposes that you bought a bike.
   (The speaker assumes that
   \[\text{the hearer already knows what the bike is.}\])

40. ‘How long has your grandfather been in hospital?’
   The utterance presupposes that
   \[\text{your grandfather has been in hospital.}\]

41. ‘When did he leave?’
   The utterance presupposes that he left.

42. ‘What do you usually do in your free time?’
   The utterance presupposes that you have some free time
   and that you do something at leisure.

43. ‘When did you get your bachelor degree?’
   The utterance presupposes that you got a bachelor degree.

44. ‘How long have you been selling cocaine?’
   The utterance presupposes that you have been selling cocaine.
45. ‘Why don’t pigs have wings?’

The utterance presupposes that pigs don’t have wings.

46. ‘How did you know the defendant had bought a knife?’

The utterance presupposes that you knew the defendant had bought a knife.

(The speaker assumes that the hearer already knows who the defendant is.)

47. ‘Who is going to give me a lift to the airport?’

The utterance presupposes (1) that the speaker needs to go to the airport, (2) that the hearers already know what the airport is and where it is located, and (3) that the hearers own a vehicle, most probably a car, and are able to drive.

48. ‘I was eating popcorn when Mike smashed the television set.’

The utterance presupposes that Mike smashed the television set.

(The speaker assumes that the hearer already knows what the television set is.)

49. ‘I don’t know why I’ve got an average mark.’

The utterance presupposes that I’ve got an average mark.

50. ‘How fast was the car going when it ran the red light?’

The utterance presupposes that the car ran the red light.

(The speaker assumes that the hearer already knows what the car is.)
51. ‘It is odd how proud he was.’

The utterance presupposes that *he was proud.*

52. ‘I wonder how he managed to get the job.’

The utterance presupposes that *he managed to get a job.*

(The speaker assumes that *the hearer* already knows what the job is.)

4.1.3.6 The counter-factual presupposition

An if clause ⇒ a complete statement

53. ‘If I had enough money, I would buy that house.’

if I had enough money

The utterance presupposes that *I do not have enough money.*

54. ‘If I had had enough money, I would have bought that house.’

if I had had enough money

The utterance presupposes that *I did not have enough money.*

55. ‘If you were my friend, you’d have helped me.’

if you were my friend

The utterance presupposes that *you are not my friend.*

56. ‘If he hadn’t made such a terrible mistake, we would be very happy now.’

if he hadn’t made such a terrible mistake

49 The utterance ‘He managed to get the job’ presupposes that *he tried to get the job.*
The utterance presupposes that

\[ \text{he did make/made a terrible mistake.} \]

An embedded clause after ‘wish’ ⇒ a complete statement

57. ‘They wish they could go on vacation now.’

\[ \text{they could go on vacation now} \]

The utterance presupposes that they cannot go on vacation now.

58. ‘I wish I had studied medicine.’

\[ \text{I had studied medicine} \]

The utterance presupposes that I did not study medicine.

A clause with a modal perfect verb form ⇒ a complete statement

59. ‘You shouldn’t have seen such a horror film.’

The utterance presupposes that

\[ \text{you did see/saw a horror film.} \]

60. ‘You could have talked to the dean.’

The utterance presupposes that you did not talk to the dean.

In brief, it is believed that “presuppositions are closely linked to the words and grammatical structures that are actually used in the utterance and our knowledge about the way language users conventionally interpret them” and that “presuppositions can be drawn when there is little or no surrounding context.” [Peccei, 1999: 22]
**Exercise 34:** Identify the presupposition(s) in each of the following sentences.

1. ‘I am sorry I cannot find your book right now.’
   The utterance presupposes that ____________________________
   ______________________________________________________

2. ‘On the occasion of my friend's birthday, I intend to buy her a new vase.’
   The utterance presupposes that ____________________________
   ______________________________________________________

3. ‘The exam is not so difficult.’
   The utterance presupposes that ____________________________
   ______________________________________________________

4. ‘She is not happy about the chemistry course she's taking.’
   The utterance presupposes that ____________________________
   ______________________________________________________

5. ‘We haven't heard anything from Barbara.’
   The utterance presupposes that ____________________________
   ______________________________________________________

6. ‘They were rich.’
   The utterance presupposes that ____________________________
   ______________________________________________________

7. ‘Can you stop playing with your cat?’
The utterance presupposes that 

8. ‘She was not aware that her son had an accident.’
The utterance presupposes that 

9. ‘The explosion was so loud that it could be heard from miles away.’
The utterance presupposes that 

10. ‘I wish I had not booked the tickets.’
The utterance presupposes that 

11. ‘Tom might find the chocolate cake in the kitchen.’
The utterance presupposes that 

12. ‘You will be amazed when you see the view.’
The utterance presupposes that 

13. ‘I am so sorry, I am in a hurry and I can't answer your question right now.’
The utterance presupposes that 

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14. ‘She was not aware that it would hurt her so much.’
The utterance presupposes that _______________________

16. ‘Could you drive me to the airport?’
The utterance presupposes that _______________________

17. ‘It took us two days to come back from Hanoi by train.’
The utterance presupposes that _______________________

18. ‘It is going to rain for a long time.’
The utterance presupposes that _______________________

19. ‘I am going to have a final examination in Semantics.’
The utterance presupposes that _______________________

20. ‘We are going to be teachers of English.’
The utterance presupposes that _______________________

21. ‘I think I will pass the exam.’
The utterance presupposes that _______________________

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22. ‘I hope to have a good result for this exam.’
The utterance presupposes that 

23. ‘But before your encouragement, we would have given up.’
The utterance presupposes that 

24. ‘I got an excellent mark for my essay last time.’
The utterance presupposes that 

25. ‘I missed my class on Monday because I overslept.’
The utterance presupposes that 

26. ‘My sister is going to graduate from university.’
The utterance presupposes that 

27. ‘I've got a good mark for the exam in American Literature.’
The utterance presupposes that 

28. ‘I am going to have a new grammar book.’
The utterance presupposes that
29. ‘When did you give up teaching?’
The utterance presupposes that ____________________________

30. ‘When did you stop beating your wife?’
The utterance presupposes that ____________________________

31. ‘Fred continued/didn't continue speaking.’
The utterance presupposes that ____________________________

32. ‘I cleaned/didn't clean the room.’
The utterance presupposes that ____________________________

33. ‘He killed/didn't kill the bird.’
The utterance presupposes that ____________________________

34. ‘What was John worried about?’
The utterance presupposes that ____________________________

35. ‘Bill drank another glass of beer?’
The utterance presupposes that ____________________________
36. ‘Could you lend me the novel when you finish it?’

The utterance presupposes that

37. ‘I can't guess when the rain stops?’

The utterance presupposes that

38. ‘Please take me to the circus again.’

The utterance presupposes that

39. ‘He pretended to be pleased with the gift.’

The utterance presupposes that

40. ‘If only you had taken his offer.’

The utterance presupposes that

Exercise 35: Which of the following utterances share the same presupposition?

(1) ‘Did Mike smash the television set?’
(2) ‘When did Mike smash the television set?’
(3) ‘I was eating popcorn when Mike smashed the television set.’
(4) ‘Why did Mike smash the television set?’
(5) ‘I don’t understand why Mike smashed the television set.’

(6) ‘I wonder if Mike smashed the television set.’

(7) ‘I wonder how Mike smashed the television set.’

4.2 Conversational implicature

4.2.1 Introduction

In the middle of their lunch hour, one woman asks another how she likes the hamburger she is eating, and receives the answer in (1):

   (1) ‘A hamburger is a hamburger.’

When the listener hears the utterance marked (1), she first has to assume that the speaker is being co-operative and intends to communicate something. “That something must be more than just what the words mean. It is an additional conveyed meaning, called an implicature.” [Yule, 1996: 35]

The notion implicature, which is the shortened form of the notion conversational implicature (although distinctions between this and another kind of implicature namely conventional implicature should be introduced later, in Section 4.3), provides some explicit account of how it is possible to mean more than what is really ‘said’.
(2) A: ‘I hope you brought the bread and the cheese.’

B: ‘Ah, I brought the bread.’

B’s utterance may implicate that B did not bring the cheese, since what is not mentioned was not brought.

4.2.2 Definition

Conversational implicature promises to bridge “the gap between what is literally said and what is conveyed.” [Levinson, 1983: 98]

(3)a A: ‘Coffee?’

B: ‘It would keep me awake all night.’

B’s utterance may implicate that B would rather not drink coffee.

(4)a A: ‘Have you finished the student’s evaluation form and reading list?’

B: ‘I’ve done the reading list.’

B’s utterance may implicate that B has not done the evaluation form, since what is not mentioned has not been done yet.

(5)a Phil: ‘Are you going to Mark’s barbecue?’

Jean: ‘Well, Mark’s got those dogs now.’

Jean’s utterance may implicate that she is not going to Mark’s barbecue.

4.2.3 Characteristics
4.2.3.1 People may draw somewhat different conversational implicature from a certain utterance. For example, not everyone infers from (6)a that Mike was not very keen on the dessert and from (7)a that Mary does not like the hat:

(6)a Annie: ‘Was the dessert any good?’

Mike: ‘Annie, cherry pie is cherry pie.’

Mike’s utterance may implicate that he was not very keen on the dessert.

(7)a Virginia: ‘Do you like my new hat?’

Mary: ‘It’s pink.’

Mary’s utterance may implicate that she does not like the hat.

Respectively compare (3-7)a with (3-7)b to see that a different conversation implicature may be drawn despite the fact that the content of the second speaker’s utterance remains the same.

(3)b A: ‘We went to see The Omen last night but it wasn’t very scary.’

B: ‘It would keep me awake all night.’

B’s utterance may implicate that B thinks The Omen is scary.

(4)b A: ‘You look very pleased with yourself.’

B: ‘I’ve done the reading lists.’

B’s utterance may implicate that B’s pleased with himself because he’s done the reading lists.
(5)b Phil: ‘*His garden* looks awful.’

Jean: ‘Well, Mark’s got *those dogs* now.’

Jean’s utterance may implicate that *Mark’s dogs have wrecked the garden.*

(6)b Annie: ‘I thought the pie would cheer you up.’

Mike: ‘Annie, cherry pie is cherry pie.’

Mike’s utterance may implicate that *it takes more than cherry pie to cheer him up.*

(7)b Virginia: ‘Try the roast pork.’

Mary: ‘It’s pink.’

Mary’s utterance may implicate that *she is not having the roast pork.*

In brief, “unlike presuppositions and entailments, implicatures\(^{50}\) are inferences\(^{51}\) that cannot be made in isolated utterances. They are dependent on the context of the utterance and shared knowledge between the speaker and the hearer.” [Peccei, 1999: 30]

4.2.3.2 Conversational implicature can be suspended or denied. Since conversational implicature is part of what is

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\(^{50}\) This is true only for conversational implicatures, not for conventional implicatures.

\(^{51}\)”An INFERENCE is any conclusion that one reasonably entitled to draw from a sentence or utterance. All entailments are inferences, but not all inferences are entailments. Implicature ... is another kind of inference, distinct from entailment.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 279-280]
communicated and not said, the speaker can explicitly suspend or deny that he/she intended to communicate such meaning in different ways.

The speaker can suspend the implicature that the hearer only won five dollars by using the expression at least, as in (8)b; the speaker can deny the implicature by either adding further information, often following the expression in fact, as in (8)c or reinforcing the implicature with additional information, as in (8)d:

(8)a. ‘You have won five dollars.’

b. ‘You have at least won five dollars.’

c. ‘You have won five dollars, in fact, you’ve won ten!’

d. ‘You have won five dollars, that’s four more than one.’

4.2.3.3 Conversational implicatures are “conclusions drawn from utterances on particular occasions and not from isolated sentences ... In this respect the problem of implicature resembles the problem of how a hearer arrives at the indirect illocutions of utterances.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 280]

4.2.4 Grice’ theory of conversational implicature

Grice [1975, 1978]\(^5\) has proposed a way of analysing conversational implicature based on the co-operative principle and its four basic maxims of Quality, Quantity, Relevance, and Manner.

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\(^5\)The key ideas concerning conversational implicature “were proposed by Grice in the William James lectures delivered at Harvard in 1967 and still only partially published.” [Levinson, 1983: 100]
The co-operative principle, which can be stated simply as “be as helpful to your hearer as you can” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 281] and which “controls the way in which a conversation may proceed” [Palmer, 1981: 173], and its maxims, which are “guidelines for the efficient and effective use of language in conversation” [Levinson, 1983: 101], are expressed as follows:

“The co-operative principle

make your 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

The maxim of Quality

try to make your contribution one that is true, specifically:
(i) do not say what you believe to be false
(ii) do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence

The maxim of Quantity

(i) make your contribution as informative as required for current purposes of the exchange
(ii) do not make your contribution more informative than is required

The maxim of Relevance

make your contribution relevant

The maxim of Manner

be perspicuous, and specifically:
(i) avoid obscurity
(ii) avoid ambiguity
(iii) be brief
(iv) be orderly

53 Be perspicuous means ‘express yourself clearly’.
54 Obscurity means ‘state of being unclear’.
In short, these maxims specify what participants have to do in order to converse in a maximally efficient, rational, co-operative way: they should speak sincerely, relevantly and clearly, while providing sufficient information.” [Levinson, 1983: 101-102] In fact, these conversational maxims are not always observed.

One way, Grice believes, in which conversational implicatures may be derived is where the speaker observes the maxims in a fairly direct way: he may amplify what he says by some straightforward inferences:

(9) A (to a passer-by): ‘I am out of petrol.’

B: ‘Oh; there is a garage just around the corner.’

B’s utterance may implicate that the garage is probably open and A may obtain petrol there.

Another way in which implicatures may be derived is where the speaker deliberately and ostentatiously breaches or (as Grice put it) flouts the maxims:

(10) A: ‘Let’s get the kids something.’

B: ‘Okay, but I veto I-C-E-C-R-E-A-M-S.’

B’s utterance may implicate that it is not allowed to mention ice-cream directly in front of the kids.

In this example, “B ostentatiously infringes the maxim of Manner (be perspicuous) by spelling out the word ice-creams, and thereby conveys to A that B would rather not have ice-creams mentioned directly in the presence of the children, in case they are thereby prompted to demand some.” [Levinson, 1983: 104-105]

4.2.5 Classification

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The two following types of conversational implicature are both of great interest.

4.2.5.1 Those that derive from the observation of conversational maxims:

Maxim of Quantity: Make your contribution as informative as required and do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

(11) Mother: ‘Have you finished your homework and put your books away?’

Son: ‘I have finished my homework.’

B’s utterance may implicate that B has not put his books away or the books have not been put away yet.

Maxim of Relevance: Make your contribution relevant.

(12) A: ‘Can you tell me the time?’

B: ‘Well, the milkman has come.’

B’s utterance may implicate that B does not know the exact time of the present moment, but B can provide some information from which A may be able to deduce the approximate time, namely the milkman has come.

4.2.5.2 Those that derive from the violation of conversational maxims:

Maxim of Quality: Make your contribution one that is true.

(13) A: ‘John has two PhDs.’

B: ‘John has two PhDs but I don’t believe he has.’

B’s utterance may implicate that A should be suspicious of the true value of John’s two PhDs.
Here B’s contribution, taken literally, is *pragmatically anomalous* because, by **violating** the maxim of Quality, “it contradicts the standard Quality implicature\(^{55}\) that one believes what one asserts.” [Palmer, 1981: 105] At some deeper (non-superficial) level, however, B’s contribution should not in fact be anomalous for “implicatures (as we shall see) are deniable.” [Levinson, 1983: 105]

(14) A: ‘Does your farm contain 400 acres?\(^{56}\)?’

B: ‘I don’t know that it does, and I want to know if it does.’

B’s utterance may implicate that *B does not think* that his/her farm contains 400 acres.

B’s contribution violates the maxim of Quality by pointing out that since A does not ask sincerely and hence does not lack and require the requested information, B does not need to try to make his/her response one that is true, i.e. B is also free to say what he/she believes to be false.

**Maxim of Relevance**: Make your contribution relevant.

(15) A: ‘Where’s Bill?’

B: ‘There’s a yellow VW outside Sue’s house.’

B’s utterance may implicate that *if Bill has a yellow VW, he is now in Sue’s house*.

B’s contribution, taken literally, fails to answer A’s question, and thus seems to violate at least the maxims of Quantity and Relevance. Despite this apparent failure of co-operation, there could be possible connection between the location of Bill and that

---

\(^{55}\) Levinson [1983: 104] calls the **inferences** that arise from observing the four basic maxims of conversation ‘standard implicatures’.

\(^{56}\) An **acre** is a measure of land which equals 4,050 square meters or 4,840 square yards.
of a yellow VW. Thus, at some deeper (non-superficial) level, B’s contribution is in fact co-operative since it implicates that Bill is probably in Sue’s house.

**Exercise 36** Write down one implicature that can be drawn from the second speaker’s response in each of the following conversations:

(1) Mary: ‘Did you manage to fix that leak?’
   Jim: ‘I tried to.’
   Jim’s utterance may implicate that ________________

(2) Steve: ‘What happened to your flowers?’
   Jane: ‘A dog got into the garden.’
   Jane’s utterance may implicate that ________________

(3) Laura: ‘Who used all the printer paper?’
   Dick: ‘I used some of it.’
   Dick’s utterance may implicate that ________________

(4) Gina: ‘I hear you’re always late with the rent.’
   Robin: ‘Well, sometimes I am.’
   Robin’s utterance may implicate that ________________

(5) Jenny: ‘Mike and Annie should be here by now. Was their plane late?’
   Alfred: ‘Possibly.’

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Alfred’s utterance may implicate that ____________________________

(6) Gwen: ‘This cheese looks funny. The label said not to store the cheese in the freezer.’
   Alvin: ‘Yeah, I did see the label.’
   Alvin’s utterance may implicate that ____________________________

(7) Mat: ‘What’s with your mother?’
   Bob: ‘Let’s go to the garden.’
   Bob’s utterance may implicate that ____________________________

(8) Carmen: ‘Did you buy the car?’
   Maria: ‘It cost twice as much as I thought it would.’
   Patricia’s utterance may implicate that ____________________________

(9) Robert: ‘Where’s the salad dressing?’
   Gabriela: ‘We’ve run out of olive oil.’
   Gabriela’s utterance may implicate that ____________________________

(10) Maggie: ‘The bathroom’s flooded!’
    Jim: ‘Someone must have left the tap on.’
    Jim’s utterance may implicate that ____________________________

(11) Austin: ‘Want some fudge brownies?’
    Jenny: ‘There must be 20,000 calories there.’
Jenny’s utterance may implicate that

(12) Alice: ‘Have you seen my sweater?’
  Max: ‘There’s a sweater on the sofa.’
  Max’s utterance may implicate that

(13) Phil’s mother: ‘How did you do on these exams?’
  Phil: ‘I failed physics.’
  Phil’s utterance may implicate that

(14) Paul: ‘I didn’t take it.’
  Virginia: ‘Why do you always lie?’
  Virginia’s utterance may implicate that

(15) Tom: ‘It works now.’
  Janet: ‘When did Eric fix it?’
  Janet’s utterance may implicate that

(16) Liza: ‘I hear you’ve invited Mat and Chris.’
  Ed: ‘I didn’t invite Mat.’
  Ed’s utterance may implicate that

(17) A: ‘What are the Nelsons like?’
  B: ‘They were rich.’
B’s utterance may implicate that ________________

(18) A: ‘What is this examination in Semantics like?’
   B: ‘It is so easy this time.’
   B’s utterance may implicate that ________________

(19) A: ‘Did you get the milk and the eggs?’
   B: ‘I got the milk.’
   B’s utterance may implicate that ________________

(20) A: ‘Did Carmen like the party?’
   B: ‘She left after an hour.’
   B’s utterance may implicate that ________________

Exercise 37: In each case below decide which maxim has not been observed and what conversational implicature might be drawn. Background information is given in square brackets.

(1) A: ‘I really like that dinner.’
   B: ‘I’m a vegetarian.’

(2) A: ‘Would you like a cocktail? It’s my own invention.’
   B: ‘Well, mmm uh it’s not that we don’t drink.’
(3) A: ‘How are you?’
   B: ‘I’m dead.’

(4) A: ‘We’re going to the movies.’
   B: ‘I’ve got an exam tomorrow.’

(5) A: ‘Are you going to Steve’s barbecue?’
   B: ‘A barbecue is an outdoor party.’

(6) Teacher [towards the end of a lecture]: ‘What time is it?’
   Student: ‘It is 10:44 and 35.6 seconds.’

(7) Policeman [at the front door]: ‘Is your father or your mother at home?’
   Small boy [who knows that his father is at home]: ‘Either my mother’s gone out shopping or she hasn’t.’
(8) Mother: ‘Now tell me the truth. Who put the ferret in the bathtub?’

Son [who knows who did it]: ‘Someone put it there.’

4.2.6 Distinction between presupposition and conversational implicature

4.2.6.1 A presupposition is “anything the speaker assumes to be true before making the utterance” [Peccei, 1999: 19] while a conversational implicature is an inference or an additional unstated meaning drawn from any conversation.

(1) A: ‘What happened to my calculator?’

B: ‘Someone used it this morning.’

A’s utterance presupposes that A has a calculator and that the calculator worked well before.

B’s utterance may implicate that it is not B who broke the calculator.

(2) A: ‘Will your brother go to the conference this afternoon?’

B: ‘He’s gone to Hanoi.’

A’s utterance presupposes that B has a brother and that there will be a conference this afternoon.
B’s utterance may implicate that *B’s brother will not go to the conference.*

4.2.6.2 Compare their few main properties to distinguish *presupposition* from *conversational implicature*:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRESUPPOSITION</th>
<th>CONVERSATIONAL IMPLICATURE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Presupposition is more straightforward and more objective. It is easily drawn <strong>before making an utterance.</strong></td>
<td>Conversational implicature is less straightforward and more subjective/personal. It is derived from observing or violating one or more maxims and drawn <strong>after a conversation is over.</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Ex: ‘Is the Pope Catholic?’
The utterance presupposes that *the Pope does exist in the world.*

Ex: A: ‘Do you like apples?’
B: ‘Is the Pope Catholic?’
B’s utterance may implicate that *he/she does like apples.*

**Exercise 38:** In each of the following decide whether each of the inferences in brackets is a presupposition (P) or an implicature (I) derived from the underlined utterance.

(1) A: ‘My girlfriend lives in New York.’
   B: ‘*My girlfriend lives in Boston.*’ *(I have a girlfriend.)*

(2) A: ‘What?’
   B: ‘*Why are you laughing at me?*’ *(You are laughing at me.)*

(3) A: ‘Why is she eating those?’
   B: ‘*Her father didn’t give her any supper.*’ *(She didn’t have any supper.)*
Exercise 39: In each of the following decide whether each of the inferences in brackets is a presupposition (P) or an implicature (I).

(1) A: ‘What’s with Jean?’
   B: ‘She discovered that her central heating is broken.’
   (Her central heating is broken.)

(2) A: ‘How do you like your bath?’
   B: ‘Warm.’ (I don’t like it hot.)

(3) A: ‘What do you think of this necklace and bracelet?’
   B: ‘The bracelet is beautiful.’ (The necklace is not beautiful.)

(4) A: ‘Has the kitchen been painted?’
   B: ‘Tom’s away.’ (No.)

(5) A: ‘How come Mary’s all dressed up?
   B: ‘We’re going to the D-E-N-T-I-S-T.’
   (Mary hates the dentist.)
A: ‘It works now.’

B: ‘When did Eric fix it?’ (Eric fixed it.)

4.3 Conventional implicature

Unlike conversational implicatures, conventional implicatures “don’t have to occur in conversation, and they don’t depend on special contexts for their interpretation. Not unlike lexical presuppositions, conventional implicatures are associated with specific words and result in additional conveyed meanings when those words are used.” [Yule, 1996: 45] Among these words are and, but, even, and yet.

(1) ‘Linda suggested black, but I chose white.’

The utterance may implicate that the speaker does something in contrast to what has been suggested.

(2) ‘Even John came to the party.’

The utterance may implicate that contrary to the speaker’s expectation, John came.

(3) ‘Jenny isn’t here yet.’

The utterance may implicate that the speaker expects that Jenny should be there by then.

(4) ‘She put on her clothes and left the house.’

The utterance may implicate that there are two actions occurring in sequence, i.e. one after another.
4.4 Speech acts

“An important part of the meaning of utterances is what speakers DO by uttering them.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 334]

4.4.1 Definition

“A speech act is an UTTERANCE as a functional unit in communication.” [Richards et al, 1985: 265]

“Quite contrary to the popular belief that actions and words are entirely distinct, many actions can actually be performed with words.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 235]

4.4.2 Characteristics

A speech act has two kinds of meaning:

(a) locutionary meaning (also known as propositional meaning), which is its basic literal meaning conveyed by its particular words and structure(s);

(b) illocutionary meaning (also known as illocutionary force), which is the effect the utterance might have on the hearer. [Richards et al, 1985: 265]

Consider the two following sample dialogues:

(1) Sam: ‘I am thirsty.’

(= ‘Give me something to drink, please.’)

Annie: ‘I’ll bring you a glass of water.’

The locutionary meaning of ‘I am thirsty’ is

I am suffering from my thirst.

The illocutionary meaning of ‘I am thirsty’ is Sam indirectly requests Annie to give him something to drink.
(2) Jane: ‘Can you shut the window?’
   (= ‘Shut the window, please.’)

   Jane’s husband: ‘Certainly.’

   The locutionary meaning of ‘Can you shut the window?’ is
   
   I wonder whether you are able to shut the window.

   The illocutionary meaning of ‘Can you shut the window?’ is
   
   Jane indirectly requests her husband to shut the window.

4.4.3 Classification

There are five main types of speech acts, according to Searl [1981]:

4.4.3.1 The representative describes a state of affairs in the world: asserting, stating, claiming, affirming, making hypotheses, describing, predicting, reporting, etc. The representative can generally be characterized as being true or false.

(3) Tom: ‘Where are you from?’

   David: ‘I’m from Canada.’

   ‘I’m from Canada’ is a representative: David directly gives a piece of information concerning where he was born and grew up.

57 Describing a state of affairs requested by its preceding question, a response is usually classified as a representative.
(4) Teacher: ‘There are only two seasons in the south: the dry season and the rainy season.’

   Student 1: ‘Then, each season is exactly six months long?’
   Student 2: ‘Is there any transitional period between them?’

‘There are only two seasons in the south: the dry season and the rainy season’ is a representative: the teacher directly informs his/her students of what the weather is like in the south.

4.4.3.2 The commissive commits the speaker to a course of action: promising, vowing, threatening, offering, etc.

(5) Jenny: ‘If you don’t stop fighting, I’ll call the police.’

   Bill: ‘Call them at once to turn your brother in.’

‘I’ll call the police’ is a commissive: Jenny directly threatens to call the police if Bill and her brother don’t stop fighting.

(6) Alice: ‘When will I receive my reimbursement?’

   Victor: ‘Authors always pay their debts.’

   (= ‘I’ll pay you back later.’)

‘Authors always pay their debts’ is a commissive: Victor indirectly promises to pay Alice back later.

4.4.3.3 The declarative changes the world by bringing about or altering the state of affairs it names: dismissing, sentencing, naming, announcing marriage, etc.

58 The teacher’s statement is true when it is used to describe the weather in the south of Vietnam, for example. This statement may be false when it refers to the weather in the south of China.
(7) Vicar: ‘I now pronounce you man and wife.’

[at the wedding ceremony held in a church]

‘I now pronounce you man and wife’ is a declarative: the vicar is directly announcing the legal and permanent union between a man and a woman as husband and wife, simultaneously changing their marital status.

(8) Minister of Education: ‘I resign.’

Prime Minister: ‘You’ll be free from tomorrow.’

(= ‘I dismiss you from your current position.’)

‘I resign’ is a declarative: the Minister of Education directly declares to give up his/her current position.

‘You’ll be free from tomorrow’ is also a declarative: the Prime Minister indirectly declares to dismiss the Minister of Education from his/her current position.

This type of speech acts is quite special that it can only count if the speaker has the appropriate authority to perform the type of acts.

4.4.3.4 The directive intends to get the listener to carry out an action: commanding, requesting, begging, warning, challenging, inviting, suggesting, giving advice, etc.

(9) Ed: ‘The garage is a mess.’

Faye: ‘Clean it up.’

‘Clean it up’ is a directive: Faye directly orders Ed to make the garage tidy.
(10) George: ‘How about a dinner out?’

Beth: ‘My essay is due tomorrow morning.’

(= ‘Leave me alone to write my essay.’)

‘My essay is due tomorrow morning’ is a directive: Beth indirectly asks/requests George to leave her alone, writing her essay.

4.4.3.5 The expressive indicates the speaker’s psychological state(s) or feeling(s)/attitude(s) about something: greeting, apologizing, complaining, thanking, etc.

(11) Desk clerk: ‘I beg your pardon. I’ll be right back.’

Client: ‘No problem.’

‘I beg your pardon’ is an expressive: the desk clerk directly apologizes to the client for his/her absence for a while.

(12) Jack’s friend: ‘This beer is disgusting.’

Jack: ‘Why don’t you learn to take the bad with the good?’

‘This beer is disgusting’ is an expressive: Jack’s friend directly shows that he/she extremely dislikes the beer.

Leech (1983) proposed an extra category, which is called the rogative.

4.4.3.6 The rogative refers to a special kind of directives which deals with requests for information and which is typically in form of a question.

(13) Tom: ‘Where are you from?’

David: ‘I’m from Canada.’
‘Where are you from’ is a rogative: Tom directly asks/requests David for some information on his nationality or origin.

Peccei [1999: 54] gives the following linguistic expressions typically related to various types of speech acts:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speech-act category</th>
<th>Typical expression</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Declaratives        | declarative structure with speaker as subject and a performative verb in simple present tense | We find the defendant guilty.  
I resign. |
| Representatives     | declarative structure                                                               | Tom’s eating grapes.  
Bill was an accountant. |
| Expressives         | declarative structure with words referring to feelings                               | I’m sorry to hear that.  
This beer is disgusting. |
| Directives          | imperative sentence                                                                 | Sit down!  
Fasten your seat belts. |
| Rogatives           | interrogative sentence                                                               | Where did he go?  
Is she leaving? |
| Commissives         | declarative structure with speaker as subject and future time expressed              | I’ll call you tonight.  
We’re going to turn you in. |

4.4.4 Distinction between direct and indirect speech acts

“Speech acts can be classified as direct or indirect. In a direct speech act there is a direct relationship between its linguistic structure and the work it is doing. In indirect speech acts the speech act is performed indirectly through the performance of another speech act.” [Peccei, 1999: 56]

Performing a direct speech act, the speaker utters a sentence which means exactly what he or she says:
1(a) ‘Come in, please.’ is a direct request.

2(a) ‘It is quite wrong to condone robbery.’ is a direct assertion against robbery.

3(a) ‘You should go to the doctor.’ is a direct piece of advice.

Performing an indirect speech act, the speaker utters a sentence which does not mean exactly what he or she says:

1(b) ‘Won’t you come in?’ is not merely a Yes-No question. It is an indirect request made in a very concerned manner.

2(b) ‘Is it right to condone robbery?’ is an indirect assertion against robbery though it is in form of a Yes-No question.

3(b) ‘Why don’t you go to the doctor?’ is not used to ask for any reason. Instead, it is used to give an indirect piece of advice though it is in form of a Wh-question.

Indirect speech acts are often felt to be more polite ways of performing certain kinds of speech acts, such as requests and refusals. It is crucial for any language learner to approach indirect speech acts and learn how to recognize them and then use them in context.

Exercise 40: Give a situation in which each of the following utterances occurs, interpret its meaning and then classify it according to different types of speech acts.

1. ‘Let’s go to our place for a beer.’
   
   A: ________________________________
   
   B: ________________________________
   
   __________________________________________

2. ‘I don’t know how to answer this question.’

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3. ‘Mind your head!’
   A: _____________________________________________
   B: _______________________________________________

4. ‘How nice to see you!’
   A: _____________________________________________
   B: _______________________________________________

5. ‘Who will believe this story?’
   A: _____________________________________________
   B: _______________________________________________

6. ‘Is it right to cheat in any exam?’
   A: _____________________________________________
   B: _______________________________________________

7. ‘Would you like a cup of coffee?’
   A: _______________________________________________
8. ‘I was so sorry to hear about your loss.’
   A: _____________________________________________
   B: _____________________________________________

9. ‘I’m dead tired now!’
   A: _____________________________________________
   B: _____________________________________________

10. ‘I’m awfully sorry I wasn’t at the meeting this morning.’
   A: _____________________________________________
   B: _____________________________________________

11. ‘If you don’t try your best, you’ll fail in the exam.’
   A: _____________________________________________
   B: _____________________________________________

12. ‘Why don’t you take a seat?’
   A: _____________________________________________
   B: _____________________________________________
13. ‘How dare you speak to her like that?’
   A: ________________________________
   B: ________________________________

14. ‘You look lovely today in your new dress.’
   A: ________________________________
   B: ________________________________

15. ‘I’d sell it if I were you.’
   A: ________________________________
   B: ________________________________

16. ‘I’ll be right back.’
   A: ________________________________
   B: ________________________________

17. ‘I beg you to reconsider your decision.’
   A: ________________________________
   B: ________________________________

18. ‘Do you think I’m an idiot?’
   A: ________________________________
19. ‘May I hand in my final paper the day after tomorrow.’
   A: _____________________________________________
   B: _____________________________________________

20. ‘We select Alfred as the head of our group.’
   A: _____________________________________________
   B: _____________________________________________

21. ‘I’ll pay you back in two days.’
   A: _____________________________________________
   B: _____________________________________________

22. ‘We are going to turn you in.’
   A: _____________________________________________
   B: _____________________________________________

23. ‘I would appreciate it if you went away.’
   A: _____________________________________________
   B: _____________________________________________

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24. ‘Can I help you?’
   A: _____________________________________________
   B: _____________________________________________

25. ‘I’ve stopped smoking.’
   A: _____________________________________________
   B: _____________________________________________

26. ‘Goodness!’
   A: _____________________________________________
   B: _____________________________________________

27. ‘Drink a cup of coffee.’
   A: _____________________________________________
   B: _____________________________________________

28. ‘That doesn’t sound very serious.’
   A: _____________________________________________
   B: _____________________________________________

29. ‘I’ve got to go now.’
   A: _____________________________________________

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30. ‘Someone said you got fired.’

A: _____________________________________________

B: _____________________________________________

Exercise 41: For each of the following utterances, provide two situations so that one utterance performs two different acts. Interpret the utterances and identify the acts performed in the light of the situations you provide.

1. ‘Do you feel better today?’

SITUATION 1:

A: _____________________________________________

B: _____________________________________________

SITUATION 2:

A: _____________________________________________

B: _____________________________________________

2. ‘I beg your pardon.’

SITUATION 1:

A: _____________________________________________

SITUATION 2:

A: _____________________________________________

B: ______________________________________________

3. ‘It’s going to rain.’

SITUATION 1:

A: ______________________________________________

B: ______________________________________________

SITUATION 2:

A: ______________________________________________

B: ______________________________________________

4. ‘It’s snowing.’

SITUATION 1:

A: ______________________________________________

B: ______________________________________________

SITUATION 2:

A: ______________________________________________
5. ‘I said I didn’t.’

SITUATION 1:
A: ________________________________
B: ________________________________

SITUATION 2:
A: ________________________________
B: ________________________________

6. ‘There’s a bend ahead.’

SITUATION 1:
A: ________________________________
B: ________________________________

SITUATION 2:
A: ________________________________
B: ________________________________

7. ‘Keep off the grass.’

SITUATION 1:
8. ‘I’m very upset that so many of you are talking.’

SITUATION 1:
A: _____________________________________________
B: _____________________________________________

SITUATION 2:
A: _____________________________________________
B: _____________________________________________

9. ‘Be aware of dogs.’

SITUATION 1:
A: _____________________________________________
B: _____________________________________________

SITUATION 2:
10. ‘What else do you want?’

SITUATION 1:

A: _____________________________________________

B: __________________________________________________________________________

SITUATION 2:

A: _____________________________________________

B: __________________________________________________________________________

4.4.5 Distinction between locution, illocution and perlocution

4.4.5.1 “A locutionary act is the saying of something which is meaningful and can be understood. For example, saying the sentence *Shoot the snake* is a locutionary act if hearers understand the words *shoot, the, snake* and can identify the particular snake referred to.

4.4.5.2 An illocutionary act is using a sentence to perform a function. For example, ‘Shoot the snake’ may be intended as an order or a piece of advice.

4.4.5.3 A perlocutionary act is the results or effects that are produced by means of saying something. For example, shooting the snake would be a perlocutionary act.

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The above-mentioned three-part distinction by Austin [1962] is less frequently used than a two-part distinction between the propositional content of a sentence (the PROPOSITION(S) which a sentence expresses or implies) and the illocutionary force or intended effects of speech acts.” [Richards et al, 1985: 168-169]

In brief, the LOCUTION of an utterance is producing an utterance, which is “a meaningful linguistic expression” [Jule, 1996: 48]; the ILLOCUTION of an utterance is using such an utterance “to perform a function” [Richards et al, 1985: 168]; the PERLOCUTION of an utterance is “causing a certain effect on the hearer or others.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 243]

**Exercise 42**: Using the locution, illocution, perlocution analysis, analyse the underlined utterance in each of the following dialogues.

(1) Mrs Smith’s neighbour: ‘I was so sorry to hear about your loss.’

Mrs Smith: ‘Thank you. It was a great shock, but I must get used to it.’

**Locution:**

**Illocution:**
(2) A: ‘Would you like a cup of coffee?’
   B: ‘Yes, please.’

Locution: ________________________________________________
________________________________________________________

Illocution: ______________________________________________
________________________________________________________

Perlocution: _____________________________________________
________________________________________________________

(3) Son: ‘Can I go out for a while, Mum?’
   Mother: ‘You can play outside for half an hour.’

Locution: ________________________________________________
________________________________________________________

Illocution: ______________________________________________
________________________________________________________

Perlocution: _____________________________________________
________________________________________________________
4.4.6 Felicity conditions

“FELICITY CONDITIONS are the conditions which must be fulfilled for a speech act to be satisfactorily performed or realized.

The felicity conditions necessary for promises are:
(a) A sentence is used which states a future act of the speaker.
(b) The speaker has the ability to do the act.
(c) The hearer prefers the speaker to do the act rather than not to do it.
(d) The speaker would not otherwise usually do the act.
(e) The speaker intends to do the act.” [Richards et al, 1987: 104]

4.5 Performatives and constatives

4.5.1 Definition

A performative is “one that actually describes the act that it performs, i.e. it PERFORMS some act and SIMULTANEOUSLY DESCRIBES that act.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 235]

For example, ‘I promise to repay you tomorrow’ is a performative because in saying it the speaker actually does what the utterance describes, i.e. he promises to repay the hearer the next day. The utterance both describes and is a promise.

A constative asserts something that is either true or false.
For example, ‘John promised to repay me tomorrow’ is a constative because the utterance does not simultaneously do what it describes, i.e. John promised to repay the hearer the next day. The utterance describes a promise but is not itself a promise.

**Exercise 43**: Are the following utterances performative $(P)$ or constative $(C)$?

1. ‘I NAME this ship Hibernia.’ $\quad P / C$
2. ‘I BELIEVE in the dictatorship of the Proletariat.’ $\quad P / C$
3. ‘I ADMIT I was hasty.’ $\quad P / C$
4. ‘I THINK I was wrong.’ $\quad P / C$
5. ‘I hereby INFORM you that you are sacked.’ $\quad P / C$
6. ‘I GIVE you supper every night.’ $\quad P / C$
7. ‘I WARN you not to come any closer.’ $\quad P / C$
8. ‘I TRY to get this box open with a screwdriver.’ $\quad P / C$
9. ‘I PRONOUNCE you man and wife.’ $\quad P / C$
10. ‘I SENTENCE you to be hanged by the neck.’ $\quad P / C$

**Exercise 44**: Also note that the most reliable test to determine whether an utterance is performative is to insert the word hereby and see if the modified utterance is acceptable. Can hereby be acceptably inserted in the following utterances?

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59 Note that direct performative utterances contain a performative verb, “one which, when used in a simple positive present tense sentence, with a 1st person singular subject, can make the utterance of that sentence performative.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 237]
1. ‘I ( ) GIVE notice that I will lock these doors in 60 seconds.’ Yes/No
2. ‘I ( ) PROMISED him that I would be at the station at 3:00 pm.’ Yes/No
3. ‘It ( ) GIVES me great pleasure to open this building.’ Yes/No
4. ‘I ( ) WARN you not to talk to my sister again.’ Yes/No
5. ‘I ( ) WARN you that you will fail.’ Yes/No
6. ‘They ( ) WARN her that she will fail.’ Yes/No
7. ‘I ( ) COMMAND you to teach first-year Semantics.’ Yes/No
8. ‘Tokyo ( ) IS the captain of Japan.’ Yes/No
9. ‘I ( ) ASK you to mind your head.’ Yes/No
10. ‘I ( ) BELIEVE in God the Father Almighty, Creator of Heaven and Earth.’ Yes/No

4.5.2 Characteristics

“Performative utterances contain a performative verb and many have 1st person singular subjects and are in the present tense.” [Hurford and Heasley, 1984: 238] But there are exceptions to this pattern. Some performatives do not have a 1st person singular subject.

4.5.2.1 To make his/her utterance more polite, the speaker tends to replace an active performative with the 1st person singular subject by its passive version with the 2nd or 3rd person singular/plural subject:

1(a) ‘You ARE hereby FORBIDDEN to leave this room.’
1(b) ‘I hereby FORBID you to leave this room.’
2(a) ‘Spitting IS hereby FORBIDDEN.’

2(b) ‘I hereby FORBID you to spit.’

3(a) ‘All passengers on flight number forty-seven ARE REQUESTED to proceed to gate ten.’

3(b) ‘I REQUEST all passengers on flight number forty-seven to proceed to gate ten.’

4(a) ‘Listeners ARE (hereby) REMINDED that BBC wireless licenses expire on April 9th.’

4(b) ‘I (hereby) REMIND listeners that BBC wireless licenses expire on April 9th.’

4.5.2.2 The 1st person singular subject, which is I, can be replaced by the 1st person plural subject, which is we:

5(a) ‘We hereby THANK you for the compliments you have paid us.’

5(b) ‘My wife and I hereby THANK you for the compliments you have paid us.’

4.5.2.3 The 1st person singular subject, which is I, can be replaced by the 3rd person plural subject, which is the management, for example:

6(a) ‘The management hereby WARN customers that mistakes in change cannot be rectified once the customer has left the counter.’
6(b) ‘I hereby WARN customers that mistakes in change cannot be rectified once the customer has left the counter.’

4.5.3 Distinction between *explicit performatives* and *implicit performatives*

*Explicit performatives* are those that contain a PERFORMATIVE VERB while *implicit performatives* are those that do not contain a PERFORMATIVE VERB.

Ex1. ‘I hereby WARN you that you will fail’ is an explicit performative (i.e. a verbalized warning) while ‘If you do not try your best, you’ll fail in the exam’ is an implicit performative (i.e. an implied warning).

Ex2. ‘I PROMISE to give you a helpful hand when you are in need’ is an explicit performative (i.e. a verbalized promise) while ‘If you need me at any time, just call’ is an implicit performative (i.e. an implied promise).

**Exercise 45**: Fill in each of the blanks with *an appropriate word*.

The first one is done as an example.

1. **Semantics** is a branch of linguistics which deals with meaning.

2. __________ is a relation in which various words have the same written form but have different meanings and sound forms.

3. A _________ is a sentence that is necessarily false, as a result of the senses of the words in it.

4. __________ is a relation in which the referent of a word is totally included in the referent of another word.
5. A _______ is an ideal string of words put together by the grammatical rules of a language.

6. _______ is a relation in which two words have different (written and sound) forms and are opposite in meaning.

7. A _______ is that part of the meaning of the utterance of a declarative sentence which describes some state of affairs.

8. _______ is a relation in which various words have the same sound form but have different meanings and written forms.

9. An _______ is the use by a particular speaker, on a particular occasion, for a particular purpose, of a piece of language, such as a sequence of sentences, or a single phrase, or even a single word.

10. The _____ of a word or an expression is the relationship between that word or expression and the thing, the action, the event, the state of affairs, etc. it refers to.

11. _______ is a violation of semantic rules to create nonsense.

12. Semantic _______ are the smallest units of meaning in a word.

13. _______ is a relation in which various words have the same (sound and written) form but have different meanings.

14. Any ambiguity resulting from the ambiguity of a word is _______ ambiguity.

15. _______ synonymy is a relation in which a polysemous word shares one of its meanings with another word.

16. A sentence is considered as _______ ambiguous when its structure permits more than one interpretation.

17. _______ is a relation in which a single word has two or more slightly different but closely related meanings.
18. An _____ sentence is one that is necessarily true, as a result of the senses of the words in it.

19. Semantic meaning is context-free whereas ____________ meaning is context-dependent.

20. _________ is a relation in which various words have different (written and sound) forms but have the same or nearly the same meaning.

21. A ______ performs some act and simultaneously describes that act.

4.6 Politeness, co-operation and indirectness

4.6.1 The principle of politeness

Leech [1983] proposes two maxims concerning the principle of politeness:

- The approbation maxim: Minimize dispraise of the other; maximize praise of the other.

- The tact maxim: Minimize the cost to the other; maximize the benefit to the other.

Accordingly, some utterances seem more polite than others. The higher the cost of the direct act, the more likely it is for the speaker to use an indirect form.

(1) ‘Set the table.’ (the least polite)

(2) ‘Can you set the table?’

(3) ‘Could I possibly ask you to set the table?’ (the most polite)
4.6.2 Politeness and co-operation

There is no doubt that politeness and co-operation are often in conflict with each other. Language users must be consciously aware of this conflict and flexibly apply both of the principles in face-to-face conversation.

(1) Tom: ‘Do you like the wine I picked out?’
   Gina: ‘Not really.’ (+direct, +negative)

(2) Tom: ‘Do you like the wine I picked out?’
   Gina: ‘It’s Italian, isn’t it?’ (−direct, +negative)

In (2), ‘It’s Italian, isn’t it?’ implies a less than whole-hearted endorsement of the wine by failing to be relevant since the topic was the wine’s taste not its country of origin. Still, Gina was being more polite than coming right out with the fact that she did not like the wine as in (1), though she has proved to observe the maxim of Relevance of the co-operation principle strictly.

4.6.3 Politeness and indirectness

Politeness and indirectness are closely related to each other and that is why indirect negative responses are more polite than direct ones:

(1) Jenny: ‘Well, I’ve done this. I’ve dyed my hair blonde.’
   Ed: (a) ‘You look awful.’ (+direct, +negative)
   (b) ‘You look amazing.’ (−direct, ±negative)
Jean: ‘What did the students say about my teaching?’

Kate: (a) ‘Pretty bad.’ (+direct, +negative)

(b) ‘Let’s hope none of them are lawyers.’

(−direct, +negative)

(c) ‘Some students are very positive.’

(−direct, +negative)

In (1), the ambiguity of amazing (amazing for its beauty or amazing for its awfulness) in ‘You look amazing’ allows the speaker to be truthful and yet somewhat more polite than the direct answer ‘You look awful.’

In (2), ‘Let’s hope none of them are lawyers’ and ‘Some students are very positive’ both imply rather than directly state that overall the student evaluations were not good and therefore are more polite than ‘Pretty bad.’

4.7 Deixis

4.7.1 Definition

“Deixis is a technical term (from Greek) for one of the most basic things we do with utterances. It means ‘pointing’ via language. Any linguistic form used to accomplish this ‘pointing’ is called a deictic expression. When you notice a strange object and ask, ‘What’s that?’, you are using a deictic expression (‘that’) to indicate something in the immediate context. Deictic expressions are also sometimes called indexicals.” [Yule, 1996: 9]

4.7.2 Classification
Deixis consists of three notions:

(i) **Personal deixis** “can mark a number of overlapping distinction: person, gender, number, and social relations.” [Finegan, 1994: 178] Pronouns and their alternative forms are usually markers of personal deixis. The system of English pronouns contrasts in **person** between first person, second person and third person and in **number** between singular and plural. The **gender** distinction is made in English in the third person singular only: he for masculine referents and she for feminine referents. Unlike French, for example, the choice of an English pronoun in the second person does not clearly reflect the social status of referents:

(1) ‘In this family, we rarely smoke or drink.’

(2) ‘Did you get the carton of milk I asked you to?’

(ii) **Spatial deixis** is “the marking in language of the orientation or position in space of the referent of a linguistic expression.” [Finegan, 1994: 179] Common markers of spatial deixis in English are **demonstratives** (*this* vs. *that*) and such adverbs of place as *here, there* and the like:

(3) ‘I’m over here.’

(4) ‘Would you like this one or that one?’

(iii) **Temporal deixis** is “the orientation or position of the reference of actions and events in time.” [Finegan, 1994: 180] In English, temporal deixis can be marked either by such **words and phrases** as *before, last time, now, then, tomorrow,* and the like or through **tense**, encoded on the verb with **affixes** or expressed in an independent morpheme:
(5) ‘I walked to school every day.’

(6) ‘Tomorrow is a holiday.’

4.7.3 Complexity in the use of deictic expressions

4.7.3.1 As for the first person plural in (7), “there is, in English, a potential ambiguity in such uses which allows two different interpretations. There is an exclusive ‘we’ (speaker plus other(s), excluding addressee) and an inclusive ‘we’ (speaker and addressee included).” [Yule, 1996: 11]

(7) ‘We clean up after ourselves around here.’

4.7.3.2 “The distance associated with third person forms” [Yule, 1996: 11] is also used to make potential accusations (for example, ‘you didn’t clean up’) less direct, as in 8(a), or make a potential personal issue seem like an impersonal one, based on a general rule, as in 8(b):

8(a) ‘Somebody didn’t clean up after himself.’

8(b) ‘Each person has to clean up after him or herself.’

4.7.3.3 If here means the place of the speaker’s utterance and now means the time of the speaker’s utterance, an utterance such as (9) should be nonsense:

(9) ‘I am not here now.’

However, one can say (9) into the recorder of a telephone answering machine, projection that now will apply to anytime someone tries to call him/her, not to when he/she actually records the word.
4.7.3.4 *Then* applies to both *past* in 10(a) and *present* in (10)b *time* relative to the speaker’s present time:

(10)a ‘April 29th, 1999? I was in Hanoi *then.*’

(10)b ‘Dinner at 8:30 on Friday? Okay, I’ll see you *then.*’

4.7.3.5 “The present tense is the proximal form and the past tense is the distal form.” [Yule, 1996: 15] Treated as distant from the speaker’s current situation are both, typically, *something that has taken place in the past*, as in 11(a), and, less obviously, *something that is treated as extremely unlikely*, as in 11(b):

(11)a ‘At ten, I *could* ride a bicycle.’

(11)b ‘I *could* buy the house, if I *had* enough money.’

4.7.3.6 “There exists in English a distinction between “the ‘near speaker’ meaning of direct speech and the ‘away from speaker’ meaning of indirect speech.” [Yule, 1996: 16]

(12)a ‘I’ll call you *tonight.*’

(12)b ‘He promised to call me *that night.*’
ANSWER KEYS

**Exercise 1:** For each group of words given below, state what semantic features are shared by the (a) words and the (b) words, and what semantic features distinguish between the classes of (a) words and (b) words.

The first is done as example.

1. (a) lobster, shrimp, crab, oyster, mussel  
   (b) trout, sole, herring, salmon, mackerel  
   The (a) and (b) words are [+edible water animal].  
   The (a) words are [+shellfish].  
   The (b) words are [+fish].

2. (a) widow, mother, sister, aunt, seamstress  
   (b) widower, father, brother, uncle, tailor  
   The (a) and (b) words are [+human].  
   The (a) words are [+female].  
   The (b) words are [+male].

3. (a) bachelor, son, paperboy, pope, chief  
   (b) bull, rooster, drake, ram, stallion  
   The (a) and (b) words are [+animate] and [+male].  
   The (a) words are [+human].  
   The (b) words are [+animal].

4. (a) table, pencil, cup, house, ship, car  
   (b) milk, tea, wine, beer, water, soft drink  
   The (a) and (b) words are [+inanimate] and [+concrete].  
   The (a) words are [+solid].  
   The (b) words are [+liquid].

5. (a) book, temple, mountain, road, tractor  
   (b) idea, love, charity, sincerity, bravery, fear  
   The (a) and (b) words are [+inanimate].  
   The (a) words are [+concrete thing].  
   The (b) words are [+abstract notion].
6. (a) rose, lily, tulip, daisy, sunflower, violet
   (b) ash (tần bì), oak (sồi), sycamore (sung dâu), willow (liễu), beech (sồi)
   (c) pine (thông), cedar (tuyệt tùng), juj (thụy tùng), spruce (vần sam), cypress (bách)

   The (a) (b) and (c) words are [+plant].
   The (a) words are [+flowering plant].
   The (b) words are [+deciduous tree].
   The (c) words are [+evergreen tree].

7. (a) book, letter, encyclopedia, novel, notebook, dictionary
    (b) typewriter, pencil, ballpoint, crayon, quill, charcoal, chalk

   The (a) and (b) words are [+non-living thing].
   The (a) words are [+thing to read or write].
   The (b) words are [+thing used to write or draw with].

8. (a) walk, run, skip, jump, hop, swim
    (b) fly, skate, ski, ride, cycle, canoe, hang-glide

   The (a) and (b) words are [+motion] or [+way of movement].
   The (a) words are [+movement made without the help of any means].
   The (b) words are [+movement made with the help of a certain kind of means].

9. (a) ask, tell, say, talk, converse
    (b) shout, whisper, mutter, drawl, holler

   The (a) and (b) words are [+way of talking].
   The (a) words are [+generic].
   The (b) words are [+specific].

10. (a) alive, asleep, awake, dead, half-dead, pregnant
    (b) depressed, bored, excited, upset, amazed, surprised

   The (a) and (b) words are [+state closely associated with living things].
   The (a) words are [+physical state].
   The (b) words are [+emotional state].

**Exercise 2:** Identify the semantic features in each of the following words.

1. Child: [+human], [−mature], [+male], [+innocent]

---

1 This semantic feature is optional.
2. Aunt: [+human], [+mature], [+female], [+father’s/mother’s sister (-in-law)]
3. Hen: [+animate], [+bird], [+fowl], [+fully grown], [+female]
4. Oak (-tree): [+plant], [+deciduous tree], [+tough hard wood]
5. Flower: [+part of a plant], [+colored], [+usually good-smelling],
   [+bloom/blossom], [+fruit or seed is developed]
6a. Palm: [+part of a hand], [+inner surface], [+between the wrist and the fingers]
6b. Palm (-tree): [+plant], [+tree] [+branches] [+a mass of large wide leaves at the top], [+in warm or tropical climates]
7. Bachelor: [+human], [+mature], [+male], [+stay single]²
8. Actress: [+human], [+female], [+professionally artistic], [+perform a role]
9. Plod: [+motion], [+walk], [+slowly and laboriously]
10. Ewe: [+animate], [+sheep], [+fully grown], [+female], [+producing wool and meat]
11a. Fly: [+motion], [+through air or space], [+fast], [+wings or a means of transport]
11b. Fly: [+animate], [+insect], [+two wings], [+in and around houses]
12. Stallion: [+animate], [+horse], [+fully grown], [+male], [+for breeding]
13. Police-officer: [+human], [+male], [+member of the police force], [+disciplined]
14. Beauty: [+attractive feature], [+combination of shape, color, behavior, etc.], [+giving pleasure to senses]
15. Imagine: [+mental state], [+form a concept or an image], [+thoughtfulness]
16. Doe: [+animate], [+deer, reindeer, rabbit or hare], [+fully grown], [+female]
17. Drive: [+motion], [+operate/direct], [+related to a vehicle]
18. Home: [+thing], [+place for human habitation], [+closely related to a family or its life]
19. Elm: [+plant], [+deciduous tree], [+large rough-edged leaves], [+tough hard wood]
20. Chalk: [+thing], [+limestone], [+soft], [+white or colored], [+for writing or drawing]

² This semantic feature is required.
21. **Rose**: [+plant], [+bush/shrub], [+sweet-smelling flowers], [+different colors, usually pinkish or red], [+thorns], [+symbol for love]
22. **Chick**: [+animate], [+bird], [+fowl], [+fully grown], [+male]
23. **Pap**: [+thing], [+food], [+soft or semi-liquid], [+for babies or invalids]
24. **Tiptoe**: [+motion], [+walk], [+on toes], [+silently]
25. **Pine-tree**: [+plant], [+evergreen tree], [+needle-shaped leaves], [+pale soft wood]
26. **Owe**: [+state], [+be in debt], [+obligation/duty], [+pay/repay]
27. **Computer**: [+thing], [+electric/electronic device], [+storing/processing data], [+making calculations], [+controlling machinery]
28. **Honesty**: [+abstract notion], [+virtue], [+trustfulness], [+hard to evaluate]
29. **Maid**: [+human], [+mature], [+female], [+servant]
30. **Spinster**: [+human], [+mature], [+female], [+stay single]

**Exercise 3**: How can you distinguish the words given in the following table from one another, considering their semantic features?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Malay</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Vietnamese</th>
<th>Chinese</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sadara</td>
<td>brother</td>
<td>anh</td>
<td>huynh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sister</td>
<td>em</td>
<td>dù</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>chi</td>
<td>ty</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To distinguish the given words, their one or more prominent semantic features must be considered with care:

- **Sadara** has one prominent semantic feature: [+born by the same parents].
- **Brother** and **sister** share their two prominent semantic features: [+born by the same parents] and [+male].
- **Anh** and **chi** share their three prominent semantic features: [+born by the same parents], [+male] and [+older] while **em** is marked by its two prominent semantic features: [+born by the same parents] and [+younger]. That is, to the Vietnamese people, it is unnecessary to distinguish the sex of younger siblings though it is a must whenever they deal with their older siblings.
• Huynh, ðê, tý and muî all share their three prominent semantic features: [+born by the same parents], [±male] and [±older].

**Exercise 4**: Organise the given words (and probably those of your own) into three semantic fields: *shirts, end, short, forward(s), long, hats, lend, coats, shorts, beginning, trousers, amble, out, limp, tiptoe, plod, socks, trudge, borrow, stomp, in, stump, backward(s), and tramp*.

**ANSWER**:

1. **Articles of clothing**: *shirts, socks, hats, coats, shorts, trousers, etc.*
2. **Ways of walking**

   3. *Amble* = ride or walk *at a slow, leisurely pace*: He came *ambling down* the road.
   
   4. *Limp* = walk *unevenly*, as when one foot or leg is hurt or stiff:
      
      That dog must be hurt — he’s limping.

   5. *Plod* (along/on) = walk *with* heavy steps or *with* difficulty:
      
      Labourers plodded home through the muddy fields.

   6. *Tiptoe* = walk *quietly* and *carefully* on the tips of one’s toes/with one’s heels not touching the ground: She tiptoed to the bed where the child lay asleep.

   7. *Trudge* = walk *slowly* or *with difficulty* because one is tired, on a long journey, etc.:
      
      He trudged along for more than 2 miles.

   8. *Stump* = walk stiffly or noisily: They stumped up the hill. He stumped out in fury.

   9. *Stomp* (about, around, off, etc.) = move, dance, or walk *with* a heavy step *in a specified direction*: She stomped about noisily.

   10. *Tramp* = walk *with* heavy or noisy steps: We could hear him tramping about upstairs.

   Additionally, *stomp*, *stump*, *plod*, *trudge*, and *tramp* all indicate styles of walking with heavy steps. *Stomp* and *stump* can both suggest making noise while walking in order to show anger: She slammed the door and stomped/stumped upstairs.

   Furthermore, *stomp* can suggest clumsy and noisy walking or dancing: He looked funny stomping around the dance floor. *Plod* and *trudge* indicate a slow weary walk towards a particular destination. *Plod* suggests a steady pace and *trudge* suggests greater effort: They had to plod wearily on up the hill. We trudged home through deep snow. *Tramp* indicates walking over long distances, possibly with no specified destination: They tramped the streets, looking for somewhere to stay the night.” [Crowther (ed.), 1992: 908]
Items which form pairs of antonyms: long/short, forward(s)/backward(s), in/out, beginning/end, lend/borrow, etc.

Exercise 5: Try to fill in the each of the two blanks with an appropriate word to prove that there is no lexical gap in the given semantic fields.

sheep   giraffe
| ram    | ewe   | lamb | male giraffe | female giraffe | baby giraffe |

Exercise 6: What is identified by the word mean or meaning in the following examples, i.e. reference or sense? Write R for reference and S for sense.


Exercise 7: Identify all the possible connotations associated with the word Christmas.

The word Christmas could call up “images of Christ trees, family gatherings, presents and carols”; “these associations may be specific for a particular culture or group of people; they may even be individual. [Asher and Simpson, 1994: 2155].

Exercise 8: Interpret the meaning the following sentences and state what kind of figure of speech (also called figurative language) used in each of them.

1. When he gets going, Jack is a streak of lightning.
   Jack is a streak of lightning is a metaphor which means Jack is very fast.

2. I found the fifty-two pounds of books you left for me to carry.
   Your kindness really moved me.
   Your kindness really moved me is an expression of irony which means you were not kind to me at all.

3. The man is a demon for work.
The man is a demon for work is a metaphor which means the man is an energetic person who works very hard.

4. When you take that course, plan to study thirty hours a day.
   Study thirty hours a day is an overstatement/a hyperbole which means study for a long time every day.

5. The wind howled angrily around the house all night.
   The wind is [-animate] and/or [-human] while howled angrily is [+animate] and/or [+human]. Therefore, howled angrily is an expression of personification which means blew strongly.

6. When the White House called, the ambassador went at once.
   The White House, which is [+sign], is a metonymy meaning the US President, which is [+person].

7. My dormitory room is like a cave.
   My dormitory room is like a cave is a simile which means my dormitory room is small and uncomfortable. In this case, my dormitory room is explicitly compared to a cave.

8. Come to the dormitory and see what a cave I live in.
   A cave is a metaphor which means a small and uncomfortable room. In this case, my dormitory room is implicitly compared to a cave.

9. Dick was fairly pleased when he won the brand-new car in the contest.
   Fairly pleased is an ironical understatement which means very pleased.

10. If you are not happy with the service, go and talk to the City Hall.
    The City Hall, which is [+sign], is a metonymy meaning the city's Mayor, which is [+person].

11. Man does not live by bread alone.
Bread, which is [+part], is a synecdoche which means necessaries or things needed for living, which is [+whole].

12. We now live under the same roof.
   Roof is [+part] while house is [+whole]. Therefore, live under the same roof is a synecdoche which means live in the same house.

13. Albert was as sharp as a tack this morning. He answered every question as soon as it was asked.
   Albert was as sharp as a tack is a simile which means Albert was quick-minded.

14. The river ate the bank away.
   The river is [−animate] and/or [−human] while ate away is [+animate] and/or [+human]. Therefore, ate the bank away is an expression of personification which means eroded the bank or gradually destroyed the bank.

15. Keep overeating like that and pretty soon you’ll weigh a thousand pounds.
   Weigh a thousand pounds is an overstatement/a hyperbole which means be too heavy or get too fat.

16. After she heard the good news, she grinned like a mule eating briars.
   Grinned like a mule eating briars is a simile which means smiled broadly.

17. The captain was in charge of one hundred horses.
   Horses, which is [+instrument], is a metonymy which means cavalries or soldiers fighting on horseback, which is [+agent].

18. Joe cried a little when he lost the thousand dollars.
   Cried a little is an ironical understatement which means cried a lot.

19. You can depend on Gina; she is a rock when trouble comes.
She is a rock is a metaphor which means she is strong-minded or she has strong nerves.

20. Life is a dream.

There may be two possible ways to interpret this sentence:
Life is a dream is a metaphor which means life is short or life passes quickly.
Life is a dream is a metaphor which means life is as beautiful as a dream.

21. He’s so hardheaded that he won’t listen to anyone.

Hardheaded is an idiom/a dead metaphor which means obstinate or stubborn.

22. Research says that these methods are best.

There may be two possible ways to interpret this sentence:
- The first way: Research is [-animate] and/or [-human] while says is [+animate] and/or [+human]. Therefore, the whole sentence is an expression of personification which means researchers say that these methods are best.
- The second way: Research, which is [+controlled], stands for/substitutes for researchers, which is [+controller]. This is a metonymy. The whole sentence means researchers say that these methods are best.

23. Right at this minute, I could drink a barrel of water without stopping.

A barrel of water is an overstatement/a hyperbole which means a lot of water.

24. It is amazing what a great mind he is.

A great mind, which is [+part], stands for/substitutes for an erudite scholar, which is [+whole]. This is a synecdoche. The whole sentence means I am amazed by his intellectual power.
25. Alice came in gently, like a May breeze.
   Alice is like a May breeze is a simile which means Alice is as young, fresh, sweet and warm as a breeze signaling the beginning of a summer.

26. Susie is a picture of loveliness in her new dress.
   Susie is a picture of loveliness is a metaphor which means Susie is very lovely.

27. A thousand thanks are for your kindness.
   A thousand thanks are for your kindness is an overstatement/a hyperbole which means thank you very much for your kindness.

28. I walked past the big sad mouth which didn’t know what to say then.
   Mouth, which is [+part], stands for person, which is [+whole]. This is a synecdoche.
   The whole sentence means I passed by the talkative person who was then too upset to give an immediate response.

29. We are tired to death of such movies.
   Tired to death is an overstatement/a hyperbole which means extremely bored with.

30. Give every man thine ears, bid a few thy voice.
   This sentence consists of two metonymies: give every man thine ears which means listen to everyone, and bid a few thy voice which means talk to only a few people. The whole sentence means you should listen to everyone but talk to only a few people.

31. There was a storm in Parliament last night.

---

4 Both thine and thy mean your. Respectively, thine and thy occur before a noun beginning with a vowel and a consonant.
A storm is a metaphor which means a heated argument, a bitter disagreement or a terrible conflict.

32. I’m afraid he has misrepresented the facts.
   He has misrepresented the facts is a euphemism which means he has lied or he has told lies.

33. He worked and worked until he breathed his last.
   Breathed his last is a euphemism which means died.

34. We’ll just have to go our separate ways.
   Go our separate ways is a metaphor which implies that life is a journey.

35. They were vital, unforgettable matches that gave us a new window on the game.
   A new window on the game is a metaphor meaning a new understanding of the game.

36. I’ve told you a thousand times not to touch that again.
   A thousand times is an overstatement/a hyperbole which means more than one time.

37. He is as mute as a fish.
   He is as mute as a fish is a simile which means he rarely speaks or he is quiet.

38. We stopped to drink in the beautiful scenery.
   Drink in is a metaphor which means enjoy or admire. In other words, the beautiful scenery is implicitly compared to a delicious drink.

39. His words can be trusted.

---

5 Mis- is a verb-forming prefix meaning ‘wrongly.’ Re- is another verb-forming prefix meaning ‘again.’
His words stands for/substitutes for that person himself. This is a metonymy. The whole sentence means you can trust him.

40. The police team has cemented close ties with the hospital staff.
- Cemented literally means joined (the police team and the hospital staff) together as with cement.
- Cemented in this context is a metaphor which means firmly established or strengthened.
The whole sentence means close connections have been established between the police team and the hospital staff.

41. The boss gave her a hot look.
A hot look is a metaphor which means an angry look.
The whole sentence means the boss looked at her angrily.

42. He could not bridle his anger.
- Bridle literally means put on a horse part of a harness, including the metal bit for the mouth, the straps and the reins.
- Bridle in this context is a metaphor which means control or restrain.
The whole sentence means he failed to control his anger.

43. He attacked every weak point in my argument.
- Attacked literally means made a violent attempt to defeat (somebody).
- Attacked is a metaphor which means criticized (somebody) severely.
- Attacked every weak point in my argument is another metaphor which implies that argument is war.
The whole sentence means he severely criticized every weak point in my argument.
44. In 1940, after the fall of France, England had no defense left but her ancient valor.

The fall of France is a metaphor which means the failure of France. England is compared to a woman who had no defense left but her former bravery in war. This is an expression of personification. The whole sentence means after the failure of France in 1940, England could not defend herself against her war enemy/enemies.

45. The fire snaps\(^6\) and crackles\(^7\) like a whip\(^8\); its sharp\(^9\) acrid\(^10\) smoke stings\(^11\) the eyes. It is the fire that drives\(^12\) a thorn\(^13\) of memory in my heart.
- In the fire crackles like a whip, the sound of fire is explicitly compared to that of a whip. This is a simile.
- Smoke and fire are each given a human act: sting the eyes and drives a thorn in the heart. These are two expressions of personification.

---

\(^6\) Snaps = makes sudden sharp sounds \\
\(^7\) Crackles = makes small cracking sounds as when dry sticks burn \\
\(^8\) A whip = a length of cord or a strip of leather fastened to a handle, used especially for urging on an animal (especially a horse) \\
\(^9\) Sharp (adj., usually attributive, of sounds) = shrill, piercing: a sharp cry of distress, the sharp raucous cawing of a crow \\
\(^10\) Acrid (adj) = having a strong bitter smell or taste: acrid fumes from burning rubber \\
\(^11\) A sting = a sharp pointed organ of some insects, e.g. bees, wasps, etc., used for wounding or injecting poison \\
Stings = pricks or wounds (somebody) with or as if with a sting; causes (somebody) to feel sharp pain: A bee stung me on the cheek. \\
\(^12\) Drives = forces (something) to go in a specified direction or into a specified position: drive a nail into wood \\
\(^13\) A thorn = a sharp pointed growth on the stem of a plant: The thorns on the roses scratch her hands
- A thorn of memory is a metaphor which means some unpleasant thing, event, situation, etc. that one can hardly forget. The whole sentence means the fire, with its sharp acrid smoke and small crackling sounds, reminds me of some unpleasant thing that I can hardly forget.

46. The organization is keeping the brake on pay rises.
Keep the brake on pay rises is a metaphor which means control pay rises.
The whole sentence means the organization is controlling the increase in the amounts/sums of money paid for its current activities.

47. Her father is a captain of industry.
This sentence consists of an idiom/a dead metaphor — a captain of industry, which means one who manages a large industrial company.

48. I am the captain of my soul.
This sentence consists of two metonymies:
(1) The captain, which is [+specific]14, stands for the leader, which is [+generic].
(2) My soul, which is [+more abstract], stands for my life, which is [+less abstract].
The whole sentence means I can decide my own life or I can control myself.

49. To fall out of a tree in one’s early childhood is not a particularly reassuring experience.
To fall out of a tree is a metaphor which means to be exposed to real life.

14 Captain (n) 1 person in charge of a ship or civil aircraft. 2 (a) officer in the British Army between the ranks of lieutenant and major; (b) officer in the British Navy between the ranks of commander and admiral. 3 person given authority over a group or team: He was (the) captain of the football team for five years.
The whole sentence means it is terrible to be exposed to real life in one’s early childhood without any parental protection.

50. No man is an island; entire of itself; every man is a piece of the continent.
   This sentence consists of two metonymies:
   (1) An island, which is [+concrete], stands for isolation, which is [+abstract];
   (2) The continent, which is [+concrete], stands for community, which is [+abstract].
   The whole sentence means no one can isolate himself from the community he has been living in.

Exercise 9: Each of the following sentences presents a pair of words. Which of them is a superordinate and which, a hyponym?

1. She reads books all day – mostly novels.
2. A crocodile is a reptile.
3. There’s no flower more beautiful than a tulip.
4. He likes all vegetables except carrots.

ANSWER:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUPERORDINATE</th>
<th>HYPONYM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>books</td>
<td>novels</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reptile</td>
<td>crocodile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flower</td>
<td>tulip</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vegetables</td>
<td>carrots</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exercise 10: Draw a chart to show the relationship between a superordinate and a hyponym.
1. luggage and suitcase

   luggage

   suitcase  briefcase  handbag (or purse)  trunk  rucksack (or backpack) ......

2. green vegetable and bean

   green vegetable

   cabbage  lettuce  Brussels sprout  bean  broccoli ......

3. animal and foal

   animal

   fish  bird  insect  bug  mammal  reptile ......

   human  animal (beast)

   dog  horse  sheep ......

   stallion  mare  foal

4. animal and child

   animal

   fish  bird  insect  bug  mammal  reptile ......

   human  animal (beast)

   man  woman  child

5. fowl and rooster

   fowl

   turkey  chicken  goose  duck ......

   rooster (American)/cock (British)  heh  chick

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6. **plant** and **coconut**

```
  plant

  flowering plant  bush/shrub  tree  moss  grass  ........

  pine  palm  gum  ........

  palm

  coconut  betel nut  sago  ........
```

7. **plant** and **rose**

```
  plant

  tree  bush/shrub  flowering plant  moss  grass  ........

  lily  daisy  violet  tulip  rose  ........
```

8. **vocal organ** and **tongue tip**

```
  vocal organ

  lip  tongue  nose  larynx  lower jaw  ........

  tongue tip  tongue blade  tongue front  tongue back  tongue root
```

9. **head** and **eyelash**

```
  head

  face  hair  skull  brain  ........

  mouth  nose  eye  cheek  forehead  chin  ........

  eyeball  eyehole  eyelash  eyelid  pupil  ........
```
10. furniture and dressing table

- **furniture**
  - seat
  - table
  - bed
  - storage

- wardrobe
dressing table
chest of drawers
writing desk
Welsh dresser

11. vehicle and convertible

- **vehicle**
  - bus
  - truck
  - car
  - lorry
  - bicycle
  - train

  hardtop
convertible
sports car

12. vocalize\(^{15}\) and croon\(^{16}\)

- **vocalize**
  - speak
  - read aloud
  - sing
  - articulate

  croon
yodel
hum

**Exercise 11**: The following **pairs of words** are **partial synonyms**, i.e. they do not share all their senses. For each pair, (a) gives a sentence in which the two can be used interchangeably; (b) gives another sentence in which only one of them can be used.

---

\(^{15}\) **Vocalize** = say or sing (sounds or words); utter

\(^{16}\) **Croon** (sth) (to sb) = sing or say (sth) softly and gently: croon a sentimental tune; croon soothing to a child.

**Yodel** (also yodle) = sing (a song) or utter a musical call, with frequent changes from the normal voice to high falsetto notes, in the traditional Swiss manner.

**Hum** (sth) (to sb) = sing (a tune) with close lips: I don’t know the words of the song but I can hum it to you.
1. **strong/powerful**
   (a) There are **strong/powerful** arguments for and against capital punishment.
   (b) He loves **strong** coffee.

2. **ripe/mature**
   (a) This cheese is **ripe/mature** enough for us to eat.
   (b) We cannot eat this fruit because it isn’t **ripe** yet.

3. **broad/wide**
   (a) The Thames is a **broad/wide** river.
   (b) My boss is not **broad-minded**.

4. **soil/earth**
   (a) We can plant the trees on this good **soil/earth**.
   (b) The rocket fell back to **earth**.

5. **edge/side**
   (a) This house is at the **edge/side** of the forest.
   (b) I will be on your **side**.

6. **permit/allow**
   (a) Photography is not **permitted/allowed** in this area.
   (b) If the weather **permits**, we’ll go boating.

**Exercise 12**: Identify various meanings of each of the two given polysemous words and then point out which meaning exemplify **partial synonymy**.

**ANSWER:**

1. **deep**
   (i) This is a **deep** well. (**Deep** means extending a long way from top to bottom)
   (ii) He only gave a **deep** sigh. (**Deep** means taking in or going out a lot of air)
   (iii) You have my **deep** sympathy. (**Deep** means **profound**)
   (iv) With his hands **deep** in his pockets, he went away.
      (**Deep** means far down in something)

The **third** meaning of **deep** is synonymous with **profound**.
2. **broad**
   (i) The river is very **broad** at this point.  
       (**Broad** means **wide** or **large in size from one side to the other**.)
   (ii) He just gave a **broad** smile. (**Broad** means **clear, obvious or unmistakable**)
   (iii) Luckily, my boss is a man of **broad** views. (**Broad** means **liberal, tolerant**)
   (iv) He speaks English with a **broad** Yorkshire accent.  
       (**Broad** means **having many sounds typical of a particular region**)

The first meaning of **broad** is synonymous with **wide**.

**Exercise 13:** Are the following pairs of words binary antonyms?
   1. No; 2. Yes; 3. No; 4. Yes; 5. Yes; 6. No (Gradable)

**Exercise 14:** Are the following pairs of words relational antonyms?
   1. Yes; 2. No (Gradable); 3. No (Binary); 4. Yes; 5. Yes; 6. Yes

**Exercise 15:** Identify the continuous scale of values between the two given words.
   1. **love** -- **hate**: love, like, be indifferent to, dislike, hate
   2. **hot** -- **cold**: hot, warm, tepid (also called lukewarm), cool, cold
   3. **big** -- **small**: big, **rather** big/fairly big, medium-sized, **rather** small/fairly small, small
   4. **rich** -- **poor**: rich, wealthy, meager, poor
   5. **none** -- **all**: none, few/little, some (=a few/a little), half, most, almost all, all
   6. **possibly** -- **certainly**: possibly, probably, quite probably, almost certainly, certainly
   7. **never**--**always**: never, rarely/seldom, occasionally, sometimes, often, usually/frequently, **always**

**Exercise 16:** State whether the following pairs of antonyms are binary, gradable or relational by writing B (binary), G (gradable) or R (relational):

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Exercise 17: Give the phonemic transcription shared by two members of each of the given pairs of words to identify them as a pair of homophones.

The first one is done as an example.

1. altar /ɔ:ltə(r)/
2. beechn /bi:ʃ/ beach
3. boar /bo: (r)/ bore
4. coarse /kɔːs/ course
5. crews /kruːz/ cruise
6. deer /dɪə(r)/
7. draft /draːft/ draught
8. fare /fɛə(r)/
9. flour /ˈflaʊə(r)/
10. grate /ɡreɪt/ great
11. herd /hɜːd/ heard
12. knight /naɪt/ night
13. nose /nɔz/ knows
14. leek /liːk/ leak
15. maid /meɪd/ made
16. pail /peɪl/ pale
17. reign /reɪn/ rain
18. scene /sɪːn/ seen
19. thrown /θrəʊn/ throne
20. whole /həʊl/ hole

Exercise 18: Give the phonemic transcription shared by two members of each of the given pairs of words to identify them as a pair of homonyms. The first one is done as an example.

1. Classified as two homonyms are the verb lie\textsubscript{1}, which means tell lies, and the verb lie\textsubscript{2}, which means put one's body on a horizontal surface; both being pronounced /liː/ in RP.

2. Classified as two homonyms are the noun bat\textsubscript{1}, which means the small mouse-like animal that flies at night and feeds on fruit and insects, and the noun bat\textsubscript{2}, which means a tool for hitting in baseball; both being pronounced /bæt/ in RP.

3. Classified as two homonyms are the adverb too\textsubscript{1}, which means more than should be, and the adverb too\textsubscript{2}, which means also; both being pronounced /ˈtuː/ in RP.

4. Classified as two homonyms are the noun might, which means great strength or power, and the modal verb might, which expresses possibility; both being pronounced /mɪt/ in RP.
5. Classified as two homonyms are the adjective bare, which means without the usual covering or protection, and the verb bare, which means uncover or reveal (something); both being pronounced /beə(r)/ in RP.

6. Classified as two homonyms are the noun sound, which means thing that can be heard, and the adjective sound, which means healthy or in good condition; both being pronounced /saʊnd/ in RP.

7. Classified as two homonyms are the verb lead in Does this road lead to town and the noun lead in He’s the chief trouble-maker; the others just follow his lead; both being pronounced /liːd/ in RP.

Exercise 19: What is the relationship between the words in the following pairs? If the words are antonyms, specify what kind of antonyms they are. The italic words in bracket are to clarify the meaning in question of the given words.

   The first one is done as an example.

1. true -- false: binary antonymy
2. gloom -- darkness: synonymy
3. dark (as in a dark room) -- dark (as in Don’t look on the dark side of things): poslysemy
4. wind (as in The wind is blowing hard) -- wind (as in wind one’s watch): homography
5. deny -- admit: binary antonymy
6. host -- guest: relational antonymy
7. sow (as in sow a field with wheat) -- sow (meaning a female pig): homography
8. pupil (at a school) -- pupil (of an eye): homonymy
9. cheap -- expensive: gradable antonymy
10. coarse -- course: homophony

Exercise 20: Explain the lexical ambiguity in each of the following sentences by providing two sentences that paraphrase its two different meanings. The first one is done as an example.
1. They WERE WAITING at the **bank**.
   Meaning one: They WERE WAITING at the **financial institution**.
   Meaning two: They WERE WAITING at the **shore of the river**.

2. The long **drill** IS boring.
   Meaning one: The long **tool for drilling** MAKES me bored/tired.
   In other words, the **tool for drilling** IS blunt/not sharp enough.
   Meaning two: The long **training exercise** IS uninteresting/dull/tedious.

3. When he got the clear title to the land, it WAS a good **deed**.
   Meaning one: When he got the clear title to the land, it WAS a good **act**.
   Meaning two: When he got the clear title to the land, it WAS a great **achievement**.

4. The proprietor of the fish store WAS the **sole** owner.
   Meaning one: The proprietor of the fish store WAS the **only** owner.
   Meaning two: The proprietor of the fish store WAS **single/unmarried**.

5. We LIKE the **ball**.
   Meaning one: We LIKE the **sphere**.
   Meaning two: We LIKE the **formal social gathering for dancing**.

6. They **PASSED** the **port** at night.
   Meaning one: They **WENT** by the **harbour** at night.
   Meaning two: They **DELIVERED** the **Portuguese wine**\(^{17}\) at night.

7. The captain **CORRECTED** the **list**.
   Meaning one: The captain **CORRECTED** the **tilt**\(^{18}\).
   Meaning two: The captain **CORRECTED** the **inventory**\(^{19}\).

8. He WAS **KNOCKED OVER** by the **punch**.

---

\(^{17}\) Strong, sweet (usually dark red) wine made in Portugal
\(^{18}\) the listing position = the position of a ship that leans over one side
\(^{19}\) the detailed list of task done during a journey
Meaning one: He WAS KNOCKED OVER because of a blow given with the fist.
Meaning two: He WAS KNOCKED OVER near/beside the tool/the machine for cutting holes in leather, metal, paper, etc.

9. The camel SWALLOWED the chocolate and then ate it.
Meaning one: The camel GULPED the chocolate down and then ate it.
Meaning two: The camel easily BELIEVED something to be chocolate and then ate it.

Exercise 21: Explain the lexical ambiguity in each of the two given sentences. Does polysemy or homonymy contribute to such ambiguity.

(1) She cannot bear children.
(2) The cat sat on the mat.

We can interpret (1) in two different ways because the two verbs bear — bear1, which means give birth to and bear2, which means tolerate — are two homonyms.

We can interpret (2) in two different ways because the noun mat is a polysemous word which has two slightly different but closely related meanings:

(i) piece of material, made of straw, fibre, rushes, etc. used to cover part of a floor;
(ii) small piece of material placed under a hot dish, a glass, a vase, etc.

Exercise 22: In what way are homonyms related to lexical ambiguity?

Homonyms can create lexical ambiguity. She cannot bear children, for example, is lexically ambiguous because the sentence contains one ambiguous word — bear. The sentence may mean either she is unable to give birth to children or she cannot tolerate children.

The lexical ambiguity of the sentence in question is due to the two homonyms, bear1 and bear2, with two quite different meanings.

Exercise 23: In what way is a polysemous word related to lexical ambiguity?

A polysemous word can create lexical ambiguity. That robot is bright, for example, is lexically ambiguous because it contains one ambiguous word — bright. The sentence may mean either that robot is shining or that robot is intelligent.
The lexical ambiguity of the sentence in question is due to the two slightly different but closely related meanings of the polysemous word bright — shining and intelligent.

**Exercise 24**: Explain the *structural ambiguity* in each of the following sentences.

1. The drunkard visitor rolled up the carpet. 6. They are cooking bananas.
2. Is he really that kind? 7. They are moving sidewalks.
3. My fiancée is reserved. 8. John loves Richard more than Martha.
4. I saw her slip. 9. Old men and women will be served first.
5. I saw her duck 10. The thing that bothered Bill was crouching under the table.

1(a) The drunkard visitor FOLDED the carpet *over on itself*.

 (*Rolled up* is a *transitive separable phrasal verb* and *the carpet* is a *noun phrase* functioning as the *direct object* of the verb head.)

1(b) The drunkard visitor TURNED over and over up the carpet.

 (*Rolled* is an *intransitive verb* and *up the carpet* is a *prepositional phrase* functioning as the *adverbial adjunct of place* of the verb head.)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2(a) Is he really that kind?</th>
<th>2(b) Is he really that kind?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>That</em> is a demonstrative adjective, a pre-nominal modifier of the noun <em>kind</em>.</td>
<td><em>That</em> is an adverb of degree meaning ‘to such a degree’, pre-modifying the adjective <em>kind</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2(a) means ‘Does he really belong to that kind of people?’</td>
<td>2(b) means ‘Is he really so kind?’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3(a) My fiancée IS RESERVED.</th>
<th>3(b) My fiancée IS reserved.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Reserved</em> is a past participle, part of the finite verb <em>is reserved</em>.</td>
<td><em>Reserved</em> is an adjective meaning ‘quiet’.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3(a) means ‘My fiancée is kept only for me.’ In other words, you should always stay away from her.</td>
<td>3(b) means ‘My fiancée rarely talks.’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>4(a) I SAW her slip.</th>
<th>4(b) I SAW her SLIP.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Slip</em> is a noun meaning ‘petticoat: loose sleeveless garment worn under a dress.’</td>
<td><em>Slip</em> is a verb meaning ‘lose one’s balance and (nearly) fall in this way.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4(a) means ‘We saw the petticoat that belongs to her.’</td>
<td>4(b) means ‘We saw her lose her balance and nearly fall.’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>5(a) We SAW her duck.</th>
<th>5(b) We SAW her DUCK.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Duck</em> is a noun meaning ‘domestic water bird.’</td>
<td><em>Duck</em> is a verb meaning ‘move (one’s head) down quickly, to avoid being seen or hit.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5(a) means ‘We saw the domestic water bird that belongs to her.’</td>
<td>5(b) means ‘We saw her lower her head.’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6(a) They ARE COOKING bananas.</th>
<th>6(b) They ARE cooking bananas.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Cooking</em> is a present participle, part of the finite verb <em>are cooking</em>.</td>
<td><em>Cooking</em> is a gerund, a pre-nominal modifier of <em>bananas</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6(a) means ‘Bananas are cooked.’</td>
<td>6(b) means ‘They are bananas for cooking.’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7(a)</td>
<td>They ARE MOVING sidewalks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moving is a present participle, part of the finite verb are moving.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7(a)</td>
<td>means ‘the sidewalks are moved.’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>7(b)</th>
<th>They ARE moving sidewalks.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Moving is a present participle, a pre-nominal modifier of sidewalks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7(b)</td>
<td>means ‘they are the sidewalks that are movable.’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>8(a)</th>
<th>John LOVES Richard more than Martha (LOVES Richard).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S₁   V₁  dO₁</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S₂   V₂  dO₂</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In 8(a), loves Richard is omitted.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>8(b)</th>
<th>John LOVES Richard more than (he LOVES) Martha.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S₁   V₁  dO₁</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>S₂   V₂  dO₂</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In 8(b), he loves is omitted.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>9(a)</th>
<th>Old men and women WILL BE SERVED first.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Old only modifies men.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9(a)</td>
<td>means ‘we first serve the men who are old and all of the women, irrespective of their age.’</td>
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</tbody>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>9(b)</th>
<th>Old men and women WILL BE SERVED first.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Old modifies men and women.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9(b)</td>
<td>means ‘we first serve the men and women who are all old.’</td>
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</table>

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>10(a)</th>
<th>The thing that bothered Bill WAS CROUCHING under the table.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Crouching is a present participle, part of the finite verb was crouching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10(b)</td>
<td>means ‘Bill was annoyed by the thing that was crouching under the table.’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>10(b)</th>
<th>The thing that bothered Bill WAS crouching under the table.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Crouching is a gerund, head of the phrase crouching under the table.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10(b)</td>
<td>means ‘it is crouching under the table that annoyed Bill.’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Exercise 25:** Explain the anomaly of each of the following sentences.

1. *Christopher is killing phonemes.*

   This sentence is semantically anomalous because *killing* and *phonemes* are not semantically compatible to be combined in this way. *Kill* means ‘cause the death of a living organism’ whereas *phonemes* are non-living things — things that cannot be killed.
2. My brother is a spinster.

This sentence is semantically anomalous because my brother is [+male] whereas a spinster is [+female].

3. The boy swallowed the chocolate and then chewed it.

This sentence is semantically anomalous because of the wrong order of the two verb phrases — swallowed the chocolate and chewed it.

4. Babies can lift one ton.

This sentence is semantically anomalous because babies are [+young] and [-strong]. How can they lift a weight of 2,240 pounds in Britain or of 2,000 pounds in the U.S.A.?

5. Puppies are human.

This sentence is semantically anomalous because puppies are [+animate] and thus [-human].

6. My unmarried sister is married to a bachelor.

This sentence is semantically anomalous because both my unmarried sister and a bachelor are [+single], and thus they can’t be husband and wife.

7. The bigger key and John opened the door.

This sentence is semantically anomalous because its instrument (the bigger key) cannot be conjoined with its agent (John).

8. James sliced the ideas.

This sentence is semantically anomalous because the ideas are [+abstract notion] while only concrete things that are long, round, and soft enough like a sausage or a tomato can be sliced.

9. Jack’s courage chewed the bones.

This sentence is semantically anomalous because Jack’s courage is [+abstract notion], and thus it could not chew anything.
10. *I hear the cloud.*

This sentence is semantically anomalous because “*hear*, presumably, presupposes that its object is *audible*” [Palmer, 1981: 170] while *the cloud* is [−audible].

11. *The tiger remained alive for an hour after the hunter killed it.*

This sentence is semantically anomalous because no living organism can remain alive after being killed. In fact, *the tiger died right at the moment the hunter killed it.*

**Exercise 26:** How can each of the given sentences be changed to avoid *anomaly*?

1. *Christopher* is killing *himself*.
2. *My brother* is a *bachelor*.
3. The boy *chewed the chocolate* and then *swallowed it*.
4. *This crane* can lift one ton.
5. Puppies are *not human*.
6. My unmarried sister *will be married* to a bachelor.
7. *John* (the *agent*) opened the door *with the bigger key* (the *instrument*).
8. James *sliced the tomatoes* or James *raised/ could finally come up with the ideas*.
9. *Jack* chewed the bones.
10. *I hear the piece of news already / I see the cloud*.
11. The tiger *remained alive for an hour after the hunter injured it*.
Exercise 27: Do the two following sentences have the same proposition?

(1) Mr Dindlay killed Janet.
(2) Mr Dindlay caused Janet to die.

No, they don’t. Killed somebody in (1) implies [+intentionally] whereas caused somebody to die in (2) implies [+accidentally]. The semantic feature [±intention] is crucial in distinguishing the different propositions in (1-2).

Exercise 28: Explain why the two members of each of the following pairs of sentences do not share the same proposition.

| 1(a) John is the parent of James. | 1(b) James is the parent of John. |
| 2(a) The hunter bit the lion. | 2(b) The lion bit the hunter. |
| 3(a) The fly was on the wall. | 3(b) The wall was under the fly. |
| 4(a) Jack was injured by a stone. | 4(b) Jack was injured with a stone. |

ANSWER:

1. The two pairs of sentences marked 1(a-b) and 2(a-b) are not related to each other. In other words, they indicate different states of affairs: 1(a) tells us about John, 1(b) tells us about James, 2(a) tells us about the hunter, and 2(b) tells us about the lion.

2. The pair of sentences marked 3(a-b) expresses different propositions. On the one hand, the preposition on in 3(a) indicates that the fly was in a position that allows it to touch the wall. On the other hand, the preposition under in 3(b) indicates that though the wall was in a position directly below the fly, there was no touching between them. The semantic feature [±touching] is crucial in distinguishing different propositions in 3(a-b).

3. The preposition by in 4(a) tells us that a stone fell and accidentally injured Jack whereas the preposition with in 4(b) implies that somebody intentionally used a stone as a means to injure Jack. The semantic feature [±intention] is crucial in distinguishing different propositions in 4(a-b).
Exercise 29: Fill in the following chart given by Hurford and Heasley [1984: 23] with ‘+’ or ‘–’ as appropriate. Thus, for example, if it makes sense to think of a proposition being in a particular regional accent, put a ‘+’ in the appropriate box; if not put a ‘–’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Utterances</th>
<th>Sentences</th>
<th>Propositions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Can be loud or quiet</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can be grammatical or not</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can be true or false</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In a particular regional accent</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In a particular language</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exercise 30: Circle the following sentences A for analytic, S for synthetic or C for contradiction, as appropriate.


Exercise 31: The following pairs are paraphrases of each other. Identify the way employed to paraphrase them.

- Change individual words by using synonyms: 1-7(a-b)
- Change individual words by using relational antonyms: 8-10(a-b)
- Change sentence structure: 11-16(a-b) and 17(a-d)
- Change both individual words and sentence structure: 18-25(a-b)

Exercise 32: Use ⇒ to show one-way entailment and ⇔ to show two-way entailment in each of the following pairs of sentences:

- One-way entailment (⇒): 1-5(a-b) and 11-15(a-b)
- Two-way entailment (⇔): 6-10(a-b) and 16-20(a-b)

Exercise 33: What sense relation holds between the two sentences of each pair:

- 1(a-b) and 7-8(a-b) are the paraphrases of each other.
- 2(a-b) and 9-10(a-b) contradict each other.
- Respectively, 3-6(a) asymmetrically entail 3-6(b)
Exercise 34: Identify the presupposition(s) in each of the following sentences.

1. ‘I am sorry I cannot find your book right now.’
The utterance presupposes that you have/own a book, and you have lent it to me.

2. ‘On the occasion of my friend’s birthday, I intend to buy her a new vase.’
The utterance presupposes that (1) I have a friend, (2) soon comes her birthday, and (3) she has a vase already.

3. ‘The exam is not so difficult.’
The utterance presupposes that there is an exam
and that the hearer already knows what the exam is.
The speaker assumes that the hearer already knows what the exam is.

4. ‘She is not happy about the chemistry course she’s taking.’
The utterance presupposes that she’s taking a chemistry course.
The utterance presupposes that there is a chemistry course and she’s taking it.

5. ‘We haven’t heard anything from Barbara.’
The utterance presupposes that the hearer already knows who Barbara is.
The speaker assumes that the hearer already knows who Barbara is.

6. ‘They were rich.’
The utterance presupposes that the hearer already knows who they are.
The speaker assumes that the hearer already knows who they are.

7. ‘Can you stop playing with your cat?’
The utterance presupposes that you have a cat, and you’re playing with him/her.

8. ‘She was not aware that her son had an accident.’
The utterance presupposes her son had an accident.
The utterance presupposes that she has a son, and he had an accident.

9. ‘The explosion was so loud that it could be heard from miles away.’
The utterance presupposes that there was an explosion somewhere.

10. ‘I wish I had not booked the tickets.’
The utterance presupposes that *I booked the tickets.*

( *The speaker* assumes that *the hearer* already knows *what the tickets are.*)

11. ‘Tom might find the *chocolate cake* in the kitchen.’

The utterance presupposes that *there is a chocolate cake in the kitchen.*

12. ‘You will be amazed when you see the *view.*’

The utterance presupposes that *you will see a beautiful view.*

The utterance presupposes that

*there is a beautiful view somewhere* and that you will see the *view* soon.

13. ‘I am so sorry, I am in a hurry and I can’t answer your *question* right now.’

The utterance presupposes that *you’ve asked me a question.*

14. ‘She was not aware that it would hurt her so much.’

The utterance presupposes that *it (did) hurt her very much.*

16. ‘Could you drive me to the *airport*?’

The utterance presupposes that

*the hearer* already knows *what the airport is* and *where it is located.*

17. ‘It took us two days to come back from Hanoi by train.’

The utterance presupposes that we once went to Hanoi.

18. ‘It is going to rain for a long time.’ (a prediction)

The utterance presupposes that *it is raining now* or *it has been raining.*

19. ‘I am going to have a final examination in Semantics.’

(Near future with arrangement)

The utterance presupposes that *I haven’t taken the final exam in Semantics yet.*

20. ‘We are going to be teachers of English.’

The utterance presupposes that *we haven’t been teachers of English yet.*

The utterance presupposes

(1) that *the hearer* already knows *who the other members of this group are* and (2) that *the persons in question haven’t been teachers of English yet.*

21. ‘I think I will pass the *exam.*’
The utterance presupposes that there was an exam, and I have taken it.
The utterance presupposes that

there will be an exam soon, and I'm going to take it.

22. ‘I hope to have a good result for this exam.’
The utterance presupposes that there was an exam, and I have taken it.
The utterance presupposes that

there will be an exam soon, and I'm going to take it.

23. ‘But before your encouragement, we would have given up.’
The utterance presupposes that you encouraged us.

24. ‘I got an excellent mark for my essay last time.’
The utterance presupposes that I wrote/I had written an essay.

25. ‘I missed my class on Monday because I overslept.’
The utterance presupposes that I had a class on Monday.

26. ‘My sister is going to graduate from university.’
The utterance presupposes that

I have a sister, and she hasn’t graduated from university yet.

27. ‘I've got a good mark for the exam in American Literature.’
The utterance presupposes that

there was an exam in American Literature, and I have taken it.

28. ‘I am going to have a new grammar book.’
The utterance presupposes that

I have a grammar book, and I haven’t bought any new one yet.

29. ‘When did you give up teaching?’
The utterance presupposes that you gave up teaching.

30. ‘When did you stop beating your wife?’
The utterance presupposes that

you once beat your wife, and you stopped beating her.

31. ‘Fred continued/didn’t continue speaking.’
The utterance presupposes that Fred was speaking previously. (The speaker assumes that the hearer already knows who Fred is.)

32. ‘I cleaned/didn’t clean the room.’
The utterance presupposes that the room was dirty. (The speaker assumes that the hearer already knows what the room is.)

33. ‘He killed/didn’t kill the bird.’
The utterance presupposes that the bird was alive. (The speaker assumes that the hearer already knows what the bird is.)

34. ‘What was John worried about?’
The utterance presupposes that John was worried. (The speaker assumes that the hearer already knows who John is.)

35. ‘Bill drank another glass of beer?’
The utterance presupposes that Bill had drunk at least one. (The speaker assumes that the hearer already knows who Bill is.)

36. ‘Could you lend me the novel [when you finish it]?’
       (non-fact → fact: + → −) you finish the novel
The utterance presupposes that you haven’t finished (reading) the novel yet. (The speaker assumes that the hearer already knows what the novel is.)

37. ‘I can’t guess when the rain stops?’
       the rain stops (non-fact → fact: − → +)
The utterance presupposes that rain is falling | it is raining.

38. ‘Please take me to the circus again.’
The utterance presupposes that the speaker was at the circus before. The utterance presupposes that the speaker has been to the circus before/ at least once.
The utterance presupposes that the speaker has taken the speaker to the circus before/ at least once.
       (The speaker assumes that the hearer already knows what the circus is.)
39. ‘He pretended to be pleased with the gift.’
   The utterance presupposes that he was not pleased with the gift.
40. ‘If only you had taken his offer.’
   The utterance presupposes that you didn’t take his offer.

Exercise 35: Which of the following utterances share the same presupposition?

The utterances marked (2), (3), (4), (5), and (7) all presuppose that Mike smashed the television set whereas the utterances marked (1) and (6) both presuppose that the speaker does not know whether (or not) Mike smashed the television set.

Exercise 36: Write down one implicature that can be drawn from the second speaker’s response in each of the following conversations:

(1) Mary: ‘Did you manage to fix that leak?’
   Jim: ‘I tried to.’
   His utterance may implicate that Jim did not fix the leak.
(2) Steve: ‘What happened to your flowers?’
   Jane: ‘A dog got into the garden.’
   Jane’s utterance may implicate that the dog was not Jane’s and that her flowers got destroyed.
(3) Laura: ‘Who used all the printer paper?’
   Dick: ‘I used some of it.’
   His utterance may implicate that Dick did not use all the paper.
(4) Gina: ‘I hear you’re always late with the rent.’
   Robin: ‘Well, sometimes I am.’
   His utterance may implicate that Robin is not always late with the rent.
(5) Jenny: ‘Mike and Annie should be here by now. Was their plane late?’
   Alfred: ‘Possibly.’
   His utterance may implicate that Alfred’s not certain that the plane was late.
(6) Gwen: ‘This cheese looks funny. The label said not to store the cheese in the freezer.’
   Alvin: ‘Yeah, I did see the label.’
   His utterance may implicate that Alvin did not freeze the cheese.
(7) Mat: ‘What’s with your mother?’
   Bob: ‘Let’s go to the garden.’
   His utterance may implicate that Bob cannot talk about his mother’s problem in the very place.
(8) Carmen: ‘Did you buy the car?’
   Maria: ‘It cost twice as much as I thought it would.’
   Her utterance may implicate that Maria did not buy the car.
(9) Robert: ‘Where’s the salad dressing?’
   Gabriela: ‘We’ve run out of olive oil.’
   Gabriela’s utterance may implicate that there is not any salad dressing left.
(10) Maggie: ‘The bathroom’s flooded!’
    Jim: ‘Someone must have left the tap on.’
    His utterance may implicate that Jim did not leave the tap on.
(11) Austin: ‘Want some fudge brownies?’
    Jenny: ‘There must be 20,000 calories there.’
    Her utterance may implicate that Jenny does not want any fudge brownies.
(12) Alice: ‘Have you seen my sweater?’
    Max: ‘There’s a sweater on the sofa.’
    His utterance may implicate that Max is not sure whether the sweater on the sofa is Alice’s.
(13) Phil’s mother: ‘How did you do on these exams?’
    Phil: ‘I failed physics.’
    His utterance may implicate that Phil passed/did not fail the other exams.
(14) Paul: ‘I didn’t take it.’
    Virginia: ‘Why do you always lie?’
    Virginia’s utterance may implicate that it is Paul who took it.
(15) Tom: ‘It works now.’
    Janet: ‘When did Eric fix it?’
    Janet’s utterance may implicate that it is Eric, not Tom, who fixed it.

(16) Liza: ‘I hear you’ve invited Mat and Chris.’
    Ed: ‘I didn’t invite Mat.’
    His utterance may implicate that Ed invited Chris.

(17) A: ‘What are the Nelsons like?’
    B: ‘They were rich.’
    B’s utterance may implicate that the Nelsons are not rich any more.

(18) A: ‘What is this examination in Semantics like?’
    B: ‘It is so easy this time.’
    B’s utterance may implicate that the last examination in Semantics was really difficult.

(19) A: ‘Did you get the milk and the eggs?’
    B: ‘I got the milk.’
    B’s utterance may implicate that he/she did not get the eggs.

(20) A: ‘Did Carmen like the party?’
    B: ‘She left after an hour.’
    B’s utterance may implicate that Carmen did not like the party.

Exercise 37: In each case below decide which maxim has not been observed and what conversational implicature might be drawn. Background information is given in square brackets.

(1) is a flouting of the maxim of Relevance. If meat had been the main course, A would probably draw the implicature that B didn’t like the dinner.

(2) is a flouting of the maxim of Manner. Since B could not help being unclear, A would probably draw the implicature that B is a bit dubious about drinking that cocktail.

(3) is a flouting of the maxim of Quality. B can only be co-operative if A would draw the implicature that B was very tired.
(4) is a flouting of the maxim of Relevance. B’s exam is not apparently relevant to a discussion about going to the movies. A would draw the implicature that B is not going to the movies.

(5) is a flouting of the maxim of Quantity. Stating that a barbecue is an outdoor party is apparently both too informative (since people all know that a barbecue is an outdoor party) and not informative enough since B has not directly answered the question. A would draw the implicature that B is possibly not coming to the barbecue.

(6) is a flouting of the maxim of Quantity. The student is providing much more information than is normally required in this situation. The teacher would probably draw the implicature that the student was bored and "counted the minutes" until the end of the lecture.

(7) is a flouting of the maxim of Quantity. The small boy is unhelpful in someway because he fails to give enough information explicitly requested by the policeman, i.e. the boy does not say anything about his father, who is in fact at home.

(8) is a flouting of the maxim of Quality. The son refused to release the name of the one who put the ferret in the bathtub though he certainly knows who did it. A would draw the implicature that it is not B who put the ferret in the bathtub.

Exercise 38: In each of the following decide whether each of the inferences in brackets is a presupposition (P) or an implicature (I) derived from the underlined utterance.

Exercise 39: In each of the following decide whether each of the inferences in brackets is a presupposition (P) or an implicature (I).
**Exercise 40:** Give a situation in which each of the following utterances occurs, interpret its meaning and then classify it according to different types of speech acts.

1. ‘Let’s go to our place for a beer.’
   A: ‘Let’s go to our place for a beer.’
   B: ‘All right.
   A informally invites B to go and have a glass of beer.
   This is A DIRECTIVE.

2. ‘I don’t know how to answer this question.’
   A: ‘Why did you divorce her?’
   B: ‘I don’t know how to answer this question.’
   (By acknowledging his failure to give an appropriate answer to A’s question.)
   B indirectly conceals the real reason of the divorce from his ex-wife.
   This is AN EXPRESSIVE.

3. ‘Mind your head!’
   A: ‘Mind your head!’
   B: ‘Thanks for your timely warning.’
   A directly warns B of a danger.
   This is A DIRECTIVE.

4. ‘How nice to see you!’
   A: ‘How nice to see you!’
   B: ‘Yes, it’s been quite a while.’
   A greets B in a friendly and somewhat surprising manner.
   This is AN EXPRESSIVE.

5. ‘Who will believe this story?’
   A: ‘To make a long story short, Ed’s girlfriend falls in love with Ed’s younger brother.’
   B: ‘Who will believe this story?’
   (By making a Wh-question which needs no answer.)
   B indirectly shows his or her doubt about such a crazy story.
   This is AN EXPRESSIVE.

6. ‘Is it right to cheat in any exam?’

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Student [taking an exam]: ‘I’ve just asked my neighbor for a correction pen.’
Teacher: ‘Is it right to cheat in any exam?’

(= ‘It is quite wrong to cheat in any exam.’)

The teacher indirectly says that cheating is not accepted in any exam.
This is A REPRESENTATIVE.

7. ‘Would you like a cup of coffee?’
   A: ‘Would you like a cup of coffee?’ (= ‘Have some coffee, please.’)
   B: ‘Yes, please.’

   As the hostess, A indirectly invites B, her honored guest, to have a cup of coffee. This is A DIRECTIVE.

8. ‘I was so sorry to hear about your loss.’
   A: ‘I was so sorry to hear about your loss.’
   B: ‘Thank you for your great sympathy.’

   A directly shows his/her willingness to share B’s suffering.
   This is AN EXPRESSIVE.

9. ‘I’m dead tired now!’
   Wife: ‘Dinner is almost ready. Can you set the table, dear?’
   Husband [complaining about his tiredness]: ‘I’m dead tired now!’

   The husband indirectly refuses to set the table for dinner.
   This is AN EXPRESSIVE.

10. ‘I’m awfully sorry I wasn’t at the meeting this morning.’
    A: ‘I’m awfully sorry I wasn’t at the meeting this morning.’
    B: ‘You don’t need to apologize.’

    A directly apologizes to B. This is AN EXPRESSIVE.

11. ‘If you don’t try your best, you’ll fail in the exam.’
    Professor: ‘If you don’t try your best, you’ll fail in the exam.’

    (= ‘I’ll refuse to pass those who have not tried their best to take the course.’)
    Student 1: ‘Oh, my goodness!’
    Student 2: ‘There is no doubt about that.’
    Student 3: ‘I’m sure to take the make-up exam.’

    The professor indirectly commits to fail those who have not tried their best to take the course. This is A COMMISSIVE.
12. ‘Why don’t you take a seat?’
   A: ‘Can I talk to you for a while?’
   B: ‘Certainly. *Why don’t you take a seat?* (= *Sit down, please.*)’
   
   B indirectly requests A to sit down. This is a DIRECTIVE.

13. ‘How dare you speak to her like that?’
   Tom: ‘I told Jane that she was a talented liar.’
   Jack: ‘*How dare you speak to her like that?*’
   
   Jack is annoyed by Tom’s rudeness. This is an EXPRESSIVE.

14. ‘You look lovely today in your new dress.’
   Manager: ‘*You look lovely today in your new dress.*’
   Secretary: ‘Thanks/Thank you for your nice compliment.’
   
   The manager directly compliments his secretary on her new dress. This is an EXPRESSIVE.

15. ‘I’d sell it if I were you.’
   Gordon’s friend: ‘My car breaks down again.’
   Gordon: ‘*I’d sell it if I were you.*’ (= *You should sell it.*)’
   
   Gordon indirectly advises his friend to get rid of the frustrating car. This is a DIRECTIVE.

16. ‘I’ll be right back.’
   Desk clerk: ‘I beg your pardon. *I’ll be right back.*’
   Client: ‘No problem.’
   
   The desk clerk directly promises to return in a few minutes. This is a COMMISSIVE.

17. ‘I beg you to reconsider your decision.’
   Mrs. Brown: ‘*I beg you to reconsider your decision.*’
   (= *Please think it over.*)’
   Mr. Brown: ‘I have nothing to reconsider.’
   
   Mrs. Brown earnestly asks her husband to give his decision a second thought. This is a DIRECTIVE.

18. ‘Do you think I’m an idiot?’
   Paul: ‘Why don’t you marry her?’
   Morris: ‘*Do you think I’m an idiot?*’
(By making a Yes-No question the answer of which must be no.)
Morris indirectly rejects Paul’s suggestion. This is AN EXPRESSIVE.

19. ‘May I hand in my final paper the day after tomorrow?’
   Student: ‘May I hand in my final paper the day after tomorrow?’
   Professor: ‘I’m afraid that I cannot give you any more time.’
   The student directly asks for permission to hand in his/her final paper in two days. This is A DIRECTIVE.

20. ‘We select Alfred as the head of our group.’
   Teacher: ‘Who is the head of Group 2?’
   Doris: ‘We select Alfred as the head of our group.’
(On behalf of all the members of Group 2, who have just selected Alfred to be their head,) Doris is directly announcing her group’s selection.
This is A DECLARATIVE.

21. ‘I’ll pay you back in two days.’
   Carol: ‘I’ll pay you back in two days.’
   Laura: ‘Can I trust your words?’
   Carol directly promises to pay Laura back in two days.
This is A COMMISSIVE.

22. ‘We are going to turn you in.’
   A drunken relative: ‘Just bring me another bottle of red wine.’
   The host: ‘If you keep on misbehaving, we are going to turn you in.’
   On behalf of his wife, the speaker, who is the host of a party, threatens to let the police arrest the hearer, who is a drunken irritating relative.
   This is A COMMISSIVE.

23. ‘I would appreciate it if you went away.’
   A: ‘I can’t live without your love.’
   B: ‘I would appreciate it if you went away.’ (= ‘Go away.’)
   B indirectly orders A to go away.
This is A DIRECTIVE.

24. ‘Can I help you?’
   Shop assistant: ‘Can I help you?’
   Customer: ‘Yes, I’m looking for some cheap shoes.’
The shop assistant directly asks the customer for some information. This is A ROGATIVE.

The shop assistant indirectly offers the customer some help. This is A COMMISSIVE.

25. ‘I’ve stopped smoking.’
   A: ‘Have a cigarette!’
   B: ‘No, thanks. I’ve stopped smoking.’
   B directly explains why he/she refuses A’s invitation.
   This is A REPRESENTATIVE.

26. ‘Goodness!’
   John’s mother [talking on the phone]: ‘John had thirteen friends to tea on his birthday yesterday.’
   John’s grandmother: ‘Goodness! I didn’t think a three-year-old like him had as many as thirteen friends.’
   John’s grandmother directly cries out in surprise.
   This is AN EXPRESSIVE.

27. ‘Drink a cup of coffee.’
   A: ‘I can’t keep awake.’
   B: ‘Drink a cup of coffee.’
   B directly advises A to drink a cup of coffee. This is A DIRECTIVE.

28. ‘That doesn’t sound very serious.’
   A: ‘I’ve got a sore throat.’
   B: ‘That doesn’t sound very serious.’
   B directly shows no sympathy towards A’s sore throat.
   This is AN EXPRESSIVE.

29. ‘I’ve got to go now.’
   A: ‘I’ve got to go now.’
   B: ‘OK. See you later.’
   A: ‘See you.’
   A indirectly pre-closes the conversation between him/her and B.
   This is AN EXPRESSIVE.

30. ‘Someone said you got fired.’
Mother: ‘Someone said you got fired.’ (= ‘Did you get fired?’)
Daughter: ‘Yes, but I’ve already applied for another job.’
The mother indirectly asks her daughter for some information.
This is a ROGATIVE.

**Exercise 41**: For each of the following utterances, provide two situations so that one utterance performs two different acts. Interpret the utterances and identify the acts performed in the light of the situations you provide.

1. ‘Do you feel better today?’

**SITUATION 1:**
Doctor: ‘Do you feel better today?’
Patient: ‘Yes, I do.’
The doctor directly asks her patient for some information.
This is a ROGATIVE.

**SITUATION 2:**
Mother [in hospital for a while]: ‘I’m glad that you’re here with me again.’
Son [in a very concerned manner]: ‘Do you feel better today?’
The son indirectly expresses his worry about his mother’s health.
This is an EXPRESSIVE.

2. ‘I beg your pardon.’

**SITUATION 1:**
A: ‘Take this paper to the lady over there and ask for her signature.’
B: ‘I beg your pardon (= Repeat, please). I didn’t hear what you said.’
B indirectly requests A to repeat what he/she has just said.
This is a DIRECTIVE.

**SITUATION 2:**
A: ‘You’ve taken my seat.’
B: ‘Oh, I beg your pardon.’ (= ‘I’m terribly sorry.’)
B directly apologizes to A for taking A’s seat by mistake.
This is an EXPRESSIVE.

3. ‘It’s going to rain.’

**SITUATION 1:**
Wife: ‘It’s going to rain.’
(= ‘Remember to bring the new raincoat with you.’)
Husband: ‘I’ll bring the new raincoat with me.’ (= ‘I will.’)
The wife **indirectly reminds** her husband **to bring** the new raincoat with him.
This is A DIRECTIVE.

**SITUATION 2:**
Wife: ‘The weatherman says that it’s going to rain.’
Husband: ‘I heard that on the radio this morning, too.’
The wife **directly reports** what the weatherman has said.
This is A REPRESENTATIVE.

4. ‘It’s snowing.’

**SITUATION 1:**
Mary: ‘What’s the weather like in Boston?’
Steve: ‘It’s snowing.’
Steve **directly gives a piece of information** (to answer Mary’s question). This is A REPRESENTATIVE.

**SITUATION 2:**
Hazel: ‘Could you go and post this letter?’
Glen: ‘It’s snowing.’ (= ‘I’m afraid that I have to say ‘no’ to your request.’)
(By stating the fact that it’s snowing,) Glen **indirectly refuses to go and post the letter** for Hazel.
This is AN EXPRESSIVE.

5. ‘I said I didn’t.’

**SITUATION 1:**
A: ‘Did you go to the theater last night?’
B: ‘I didn’t.’
A: ‘Tell me the truth. Did you go to the theater last night?’
B: ‘I said I didn’t.’
B is **annoyed** by A’s repetition of the same question.
This is AN EXPRESSIVE.

**SITUATION 2:**
Jane: ‘Mum asked me if I knew your new address.’
Jane’s sister: ‘And what did you say?’
Jane: ‘I said I didn’t.’
Jane **directly gives a piece of information** (to answer her sister’s question).
This is A REPRESENTATIVE.

6. ‘There’s a bend ahead.’

SITUATION 1:
A: ‘Is there any bend near here?’
B: ‘There’s a bend ahead.’
B directly informs A of the fact that there is a bend ahead of them.
This is A REPRESENTATIVE.

SITUATION 2:
A: ‘Be careful. There’s a bend ahead.’
(= ‘Drive carefully and slow down a bit.’)
B: ‘Thanks for your timely warning.’
A indirectly asks B to drive carefully and slow down a bit (because there’s a bend ahead). This is A DIRECTIVE.

7. ‘Keep off the grass.’

SITUATION 1:
Son: ‘What does the sign say, Mum.’
Mother: ‘Keep off the grass.’
The mother directly gives a piece of information (to answer her son’s question). This is A REPRESENTATIVE.

SITUATION 2:
A: ‘How smooth the lawn is!’
B: ‘Keep off the grass.’
B directly orders A not to walk on the lawn. This is A DIRECTIVE.

8. ‘I’m very upset that so many of you are talking.’

SITUATION 1:
Joe: ‘It’s my book.’
Jenny: ‘Your book is over there. This one’s mine.’
Jack: ‘Your book is there and over there is Joe’s. This one’s mine.’
Mother: ‘I’m very upset that so many of you are talking.’
The mother of three young children directly shows that she is extremely annoyed by her children’s talkativeness.
This is AN EXPRESSIVE.

SITUATION 2:
Teacher: ‘I’m very upset that so many of you are talking.’
Class monitor: ‘Be quiet, please.’
The teacher of a big class indirectly orders her pupils to stop talking
(and the monitor just paraphrases what the teacher has really said).
This is A DIRECTIVE.

9. ‘Be aware of dogs.’
SITUATION 1: [There are some dogs in the street. A sees the dogs approaching B.]
   A: ‘Be aware of dogs.’
   B: ‘Thanks for your timely warning.’
   A directly warns B of the dogs’ approaching. This is A DIRECTIVE.

SITUATION 2:
   Daughter: ‘What does the sign mean, Mum?’
   Mother: ‘Be aware of dogs.’
   The mother directly provides her daughter with a piece of information.
   This is A REPRESENTATIVE.

10. ‘What else do you want?’
SITUATION 1: [Mary goes shopping. She’s already chosen a fashionable blouse and a well-formed skirt.]
   Shop assistant: ‘What else do you want?’
   Mary: ‘That’s all. Thanks.’
   The shop assistant directly asks Mary for some information.
   This is A ROGATIVE.

SITUATION 2:
   A misbehaved seven-year-old boy keeps asking his mother to do this or that for him while she is busy with a lot of housework. Being annoyed, the mother shouts: ‘What else do you want?’ The mother indirectly expresses her annoyance.
   This is AN EXPRESSIVE.

Exercise 42: Use the locution, illocution, and perlocution analysis to analyse the underlined utterance in each of the following dialogues.
(1) Mrs Smith’s neighbour: ‘I was so sorry to hear about your loss.’
Mrs Smith: ‘Thank you. It was a great shock, but I must get used to it.’

**Locution:** Mrs Smith’s neighbour uttered the words ‘I was so sorry to hear about your loss’, which can be semantically paraphrased as ‘You have my great sympathy’, with I referring to the neighbour.

**Illocution:** The neighbour performed the act of **condoling**.

**Perlocution:** Mrs Smith, who is a recently bereaved widow and who expects the neighbour’s utterance, gives a prepared reply: ‘Thank you. It was a great shock, but I must get used to it.’

(2) A: ‘Would you like a cup of coffee?’
B: ‘Yes, please.’

**Locution:** A uttered the words ‘Would you like a cup of coffee’, which can be semantically paraphrased as ‘Have a cup of coffee, please’, with you referring to B.

**Illocution:** A performed the act of **offering**.

**Perlocution:** The utterance may cause B, who is the hearer, to think the speaker, who is A, is more generous than he/she thought.

(3) Son: ‘Can I go out for a while, Mum?’
Mother: ‘You can play outside for half an hour.’

**Locution:** The mother uttered the words ‘You can play outside for half an hour’, which can be semantically paraphrased as ‘You have my permission to go out for a while’, with you referring to the son.

**Illocution:** The mother performed the act of **giving permission**.

**Perlocution:** The utterance may cause the son to race out of the room, picking up his football on the way.

**Exercise 43:** Are the following utterances **performative** (P) or **constative** (C)?
Exercise 44: Also note that the most reliable test to determine whether an utterance is performative is to insert the word hereby and see if the modified utterance is acceptable. Can hereby be acceptably inserted in the following utterances?

Exercise 45: Fill in each of the blanks with an appropriate word.
The first one is done as an example.

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cách biểu đạt có định, ngữ cổ định  
vi phạm, bất chấp (phương phạm hội thoại)  
vi phạm, việc bất chấp  
(hiệu phạm hội thoại)  
hình thái, hình thức, dạng  
án ngữ hóa thạch  
hư tử, từ chức năng  
(có tính) tổng loại  
từ ngữ có nghĩa tổng loại
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**LIST OF ENGLISH-VIETNAMESE EQUIVALENT LINGUISTIC TERMS**

(in related groups of notions as well as in alphabetical order)

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quận hệ/tính trái nghĩa
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(có tính) tương hợp
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(có tính) cụ thể
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(có tính) nhận định
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ngôn cảnh
bi ngôn cảnh ràng buộc
không bị ngôn cảnh ràng buộc
(thuộc/có tính) ngôn cảnh
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maxim of Relevance

maxim of Quality

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distinction

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one-way entailment

two-way entailment
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| <strong>entity</strong> | thực thể |
| <strong>etymology</strong> | từ nguồn (học) |
| <strong>exclusive</strong> | loại trừ |
| <strong>exclusive ‘we’</strong> | chúng tôi |
| <strong>explicit/verbalized</strong> | (có tính) hiện ngôn |
| <strong>explicitly</strong> | (một cách) hiện ngôn |
| <strong>explicitness</strong> | tính hiện ngôn |
| <strong>extension</strong> | sự/quá trình mở rộng |
| <strong>felicity condition</strong> | điều kiện hiệu hiệu |
| <strong>figurative language</strong> | ngôn ngữ tượng/gợi hình |
| <strong>simile</strong> | phép tỷ dụ |
| <strong>metaphor</strong> | phép ẩn dụ |
| <strong>personification</strong> | phép nhân cách hóa |
| <strong>metonymy</strong> | phép hoàn dụ |
| <strong>synecdoche</strong> | phép cái dùng |
| <strong>hyperbole/overstatement</strong> | phép nói khoa trương, ngoài dự |
| <strong>litotes/meiosis/understatement</strong> | phép nói giảm, khiêm dự |
| <strong>irony</strong> | phép nói mỉa |
| <strong>euphemism</strong> | phép nói khoẻ |
| <strong>onomatopoeia</strong> | phép dùng từ tượng thanh |
| <strong>semi-onomatopoeia</strong> | phép dùng từ bán tượng thanh |
| <strong>figure of speech</strong> | hình thái từ từ |
| <strong>simile</strong> | tỷ dụ |
| <strong>metaphor</strong> | ẩn dụ |
| <strong>dead metaphor</strong> | ẩn dụ chết |
| <strong>fossilized metaphor</strong> | ẩn dụ hóa thạch |
| <strong>unconscious metaphor</strong> | ẩn dụ vô thức |
| <strong>idiom</strong> | thành ngữ |</p>
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BIBLIOGRAPHY


