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A Study of Lexical Pragmatic Processes in English Children's Short Stories

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by

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بِسْمِ اللهِ الرَّحْمنِ الرَّحِيم

{نحْنُ نَقُصُّ عَلَيْكَ أَحْسَنَ الْقَصَصِ بِمَا أَوْحَيْنَا إِلَيْكَ هَذَا الْقُرْآنَ وَإِنْ كُنْتَ مِنْ قَبْلِهِ لَمِنَ الْغَافِلِينَ (٣) إِذْ قَالَ يُوسُفُ لأَبِيهِ يَا أَبَتِ إِنِّي رَأَيْتُ أَحَدَ عَشَرَ كَوْكَبًا وَالشَّمْسَ وَالْقَمَرَ رَأَيْتُهُمْ لِي سَاجِدِين (٤)}

صَدَقَ اللّهُ الْعَظِيمُ

(يوسف ٣،٤)

In the Name of Allah, the Most Gracious, the Most Merciful,

“Through the revelation of this Qur'an We narrate the best of histories of which you were unaware before. (3) When Joseph told his father: "O my father, I saw eleven stars and the sun and the moon bowing before me in homage," (4)”.

(Allah Almighty Has Told the Truth)

(Joseph 3,4),

(Ali, 2001:98).

The Supervisor's Declaration

I certify that this dissertation, which is entitled "**A Study of Lexical Pragmatic Processes in English Children's Short Stories**" has been prepared by **Khamail Ali Wheib Aziz Al-Azawi** under my supervision at the College of Education for Human Sciences, the University of Babylon, as partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in English Language and Linguistics.

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We certify that we have read this dissertation, which is entitled "**A Study of Lexical Pragmatic Processes in English Children's Short Stories**" and, as Examining Committee, examined the student **Khamail Ali Wheib Aziz Al-Azawi** in its content, and that, in our opinion, it is adequate as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in English Language and Linguistics.

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To My

Late Father, Great Mother,

Dear Husband and Sons,

Brothers and Sisters

With Genuine Gratitude and Love

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Abstract

This study is concerned with lexical pragmatic processes in English children's short stories. It studies the role of these processes in interpreting modified words meanings in various contexts in five English children's short stories; Mowgli's Brothers (1849), Half a Creature from the Sea (2007), Wasters (2009), Learn to Die (2014) and God's Eye (2016).

As most studies in lexical pragmatics investigate lexical pragmatic processes in adults' communication, less attention has been paid to studying the role these processes play in children's communication. Attempting to bridge this gap, the present study aims at (1) studying the influence of lexical pragmatic processes on children's interpretation of modified words meanings in English children's short stories, (2) identifying the most frequent types of lexical pragmatic processes children employ in interpreting modified words meanings in the selected data, (3) specifying the linguistic cases in which narrowing and broadening processes are engaged and (4) pinpointing the most common contextual factors children rely on to arrive at the intended meaning.

It is hypothesised that: (1) lexical pragmatic processes affect children's interpretation of modified words meanings, (2) broadening processes are used more than narrowing processes by children in interpreting English short stories, (3) narrowing the adjective in adjective-noun combination is most commonly identified case of narrowing process in the selected data, and approximation is the most commonly identified case of broadening process in English children's short stories and (4) children heavily rely on world knowledge and propositional attitude in the interpretation of modified words meanings.

The study adopts an eclectic model in the light of Blutner's (2000) and Wilson and Carston's (2007) models to anlayse the seventy-five

extracts of modified words meanings identified in the five mentioned short stories qualitatively and quantitatively. The study arrives at a variety of conclusions, the most important of which are: Lexical pragmatic processes has an influence on children's interpretation of modified words meanings in different contexts. Broadening cases are more commonly employed in English children's short stories than narrowing cases and narrowing the adjective in adjective-noun combination is the most commonly identified case of narrowing and metaphor is the most commonly identified case of broadening in English children's short stories.

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List of Abbreviations

BOT	Bidirectional Optimality Theory
C	Candidate
C_1	First Candidate
C_2	Second Candidate
CI	Conversational Impliature
E_1	Linguistic Complexity
E_2	Logical Complexity
E_3	Frequency and Percentage of Use
E_4	Accessibility of the Context
f	Form
GCI	Generalized Conversational Implicature
H	Hearer
LP	Lexical Pragmatics
LPPs	Lexical Pragmatic Processes
LS	Lexical Semantics
m	Meaning
OT	Optimality Theory
PCI	Particularized Conversational Impliature
R_1	Strengthening the Existing Assumption
R_2	Creating Contextual Implicature
R_3	Contradicting the Existing Assumption
RT	Relevance Theory
S	Speaker
UBT	Usage- Based Theory

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Problem

In her article "Relevance Theory and Lexical Pragmatics", Wilson (2003:273) discusses that in verbal communication native speakers of a language usually utilize words differently; they invent, blend and use words figuratively, yet, their words are most frequently understood by their audience. The contribution of semantics and pragmatics in determining the meaning of lexical items across contexts has been generally debated among scholars. Nevertheless, in the midst of the division, there is flourishing demand for lexical pragmatic processes which involved in the interpretation of modified word meanings.

Within lexical pragmatics, the processes of narrowing and broadening gain special attention due to their important consequences on cognitive inference and utterance interpretation where the communicated meaning is either more specific or more general than their linguistically encoded meaning as Blutner (2004:498) claims. Literature on lexical pragmatic processes has focused on lexical pragmatic processes in adults' communication. Less attention has been given to these processes in children's communication. Consequently, the present study is motivated to bridge this gap by studying lexical pragmatic processes in English children's short stories.

Unlike adults', children's interpretation of words meanings is influenced by their linguistic abilities, contextual factors and their ages, as Frank and Goodman (2014:80) explicate. Thus, to investigate lexical pragmatic processes in children's interpretation, one must consider these linguistic and contextual factors that affect their interpretation.

Children's short stories as a form of communication have been used as data for the present study since dealing with a real corpus as data for the study is not manageable. This literary genre is typically regarded a crucial part of children's literature and plays an eminent role in shaping the child's imagination, personality and education, as Shepard (2000:3) discusses. Hence, the study attempts to answer the following questions:

1. To what extent do lexical pragmatic processes influence children's interpretation of modified word meanings in different contexts?

2. Which is the most common type of lexical processes do children employ to interpret modified word meanings in children's short stories?

3.In which linguistic case do narrowing and broadening processes are most frequently engaged in the selected data?

4. What contextual factors do children rely on to arrive at the communicator's intended meaning of the modified word meanings?

5. What are the similarities/differences found in the employment of narrowing and broadening processes on the data under investigation?

1.2 The Aims

In accordance with the raised questions, the main aims of the present study are as follows:

1. Studying the influence of lexical pragmatic processes on children's interpretation of modified word meanings in different contexts.

2. Identifying the most frequent type of lexical pragmatic processes children utilise in interpreting modified word meanings involved in the data under scrutiny.

3. Distinguishing the most common types of linguistic cases lexical pragmatic processes are engaged in their interpretation of children's short stories.

4. Pinpointing the contextual factors which children rely on to arrive at the communicator's intended meaning of the modified words.

5. Determining the similarities/differences found in utilising narrowing and broadening processes in children's short stories.

6. Using a model to analyse lexical pragmatic processes in the selected data.

1.3 The Hypotheses

In relation to the questions and aims mentioned above, it is hypothesised that:

1. Lexical pragmatic processes significantly affect children's interpretation of modified cases of words meanings.

2. Broadening process is used more than narrowing process by children in interpreting modified word meanings in the selected data.

3. Narrowing the adjective in adjective-noun combination is the most commonly identified case of narrowing process and approximation is the most commonly identified case of broadening process in English children's short stories.

4. Children heavily rely on world knowledge and propositional attitude in the interpreting modified word meanings.

5. Lexical pragmatic processes differ in terms of contextual factors children rely on in using narrowing and broadening processes in interpreting the modified word meanings.

1.4 The Procedures

The following procedures are followed:

1. Reviewing the relevant literature of lexical pragmatics in general and lexical pragmatic processes in particular with special reference to the most main approaches and key notions.

2. Using an electing model of lexical pragmatic processes synthesised of Blutner (2000) and Wilson and Carston (2007) to analyse modified word meanings identified in five English short stories in accordance with the pragmatic aspects of this literary genre.

3. Using suitable statistical means, frequency and percentage, to objectively arrive at the findings of the analysis.

4. Discussing the findings obtained, drawing relevant conclusions, and providing suggestions for further research.

1.5 The Limits

The current study is limited to the following:

1. Identifying cases of modified of words meanings in the talk exchanges of the type 'utterance-response' in five English children's short stories selected to be the data of the study.

2. The selected short stories are written by famous English (British) writers for children aged from (8-12) years old.

4. Only content words (i.e. verbs, nouns, adjectives and adverbs) are to be considered in the analysis. Hence, functional words are not included.

6. Literary and ideological aspects of the stories lay outside the scope of the present study, although some literary details are mentioned to clarify the context in which the analysis takes place.

1.6 The Value

The current study is supposed to be valuable to lexical pragmatics and applied linguistics. As far as lexical pragmatics is concerned, this study investigates role of lexical pragmatic processes in children's communication which has get no adequate attention in this field. It also offers fruitful findings and implications to applied linguistics especially for curricula designers of primary education and those interested in teaching reading comprehension. Furthermore, it is thought to be advantageous to researchers and writers of children's short stories since it pays special attention to pragmatic aspects of children's communication.

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introductory Remarks

The present chapter is essentially intended to provide a theoretical framework of lexical pragmatic processes (henceforth, LPPs). As a point of departure, it starts with reviewing the literature of lexical pragmatics (henceforth, LP), the recent pragmatic approach that accounts for LPPs. Hence, an introductory account of this field, its nature, main theories and its relation to lexical semantics is demanded. Next, it clarifies LPPs of narrowing and broadening and their contributions to words meaning modifications and relevant linguistic phenomena, as well as their different accounts. After that, this chapter offers a theoretical overview of English children's short stories and linguistic features that are closely related to this literary genre. Finally, the present chapter reviews some previous studies to clarify how the contribution of the current study differs from theirs.

2.1 Preliminary

According to Blutner (2004:498), the collaboration of semantics and pragmatics and their contributions in determining the meaning of lexical items across contexts has been generally debated among scholars. Effectively, they differ in the nature of such collaboration in virtue of the role of the contexts and the linguistically encoded meaning/communicated meaning distinction. Nonetheless, in the midst of division, there is a flourishing emergence of LP which indicates the division of labour between semantics and pragmatics that has important consequences on cognitive semantics and utterance interpretation[1].

Thus, it seems worth starting with an overview of lexical semantics (henceforth, LS). This can be justified by taking into account Wilson's (2003:274) claim that states "any discussion of lexical pragmatics must make some assumptions about the nature of semantic representations that

provide the input to pragmatic processes". Hence, the nature of semantic representation and word meaning according to different semantic theories of LS in addition to eminent features will be established before discussing and surveying LP and other relevant topics.

It is widely known that LS is the field that studies the meaning of words. Cruse (1986:1) defines it as a branch of linguistics concerned with the systematic study of word meanings. Cruse believes that semantists usually address two main aspects; describing the meaning of words and accounting for meanings in various contexts (Paradis, 2012:1). It aims, as Cruse (2004:3) and Saeed (2008: 53-4) explicate, to identify the meaning of words in a language and to clarify how these meanings are interconnected. Nonetheless, illuminating the nature of word meaning is not always straightforward. The difficulty and elusiveness of word meaning lie in identifying what words are and what meaning is. Different views on what words are can be recognised: Words are not always linguistically expressed but rather conventionally defined. Some words are classified as grammatical by distinct grammatical derivations at the level of syntax; 'walk, walks, walking' are different grammatical words. Yet semantically they are representations of the same lexeme (Saeed, 2008:57-9). However, semantics is also not the solution since not all words have meanings (*full words* and *form words*), as Palmer (1981: 33) points out.

Identifying meaning also comes up with further problems for linguists. Meaning is viewed as the referent or the entity a word refers to (Hipkiss, 1995:1-2). Another view regards words as symbols which have no meaning on their own but by their relation to objects, actions or attributes and people's perception and experience whether immediate or recalled (Lubner, 2013:16). However, people differ critically in their knowledge about the meaning of certain words, yet the meaning of a full

word is mutual between members of the speech community (Goddard and Wierzbeika, 2014:3).

LS emerged as a discrete discipline within the scientific study of linguistics in the 19th century. It had witnessed several development stages in line with the successive theoretical schools of linguistics: *Historical–philological, Structural, Generative, Neo-Structural* and *Cognitive approaches* (Geeraerts, 2017:2).

Historical–philological approach to word meaning dominated the scene approximately from 1830 to 1930, on the hands of Michel Breal, Hermann Paul and many others, even though the study of word meaning is much older. Essentially, this approach is characterized by a diachronic orientation associated with lexicography and historical linguistics as it looks for the original meaning of words by comparing related words forms in different languages (Geeraerts, 2010:295).

Inspired by De Saussure and structuralist theory of language, Weisgerber's (1927) and Trier (1930) works posit the theoretical and descriptive foundations of structural semantic perspective. As structuralism views language to be a unique relational system, the relational approach to word meaning has resulted. Word meaning is viewed as a system of reciprocally affecting intra-linguistic relations (Kroeger, 2018:8) and (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 243). LS, within this paradigm, is based on three main types of structural relations among lexical items: first, a relationship of semantic similarity based in *lexical field analysis* which leads to *componential analysis* which is a method for defining the oppositions between lexical items within lexical fields (Allan, 2009:653-4) and (Riemer, 2010:155); *lexical relations* such as synonymy, antonymy, and hyponymy and *syntagmatic lexical relations* (Lyons, 1977:261).

Generative semantic approach, on the other hand, is typically regarded as an amalgamation of a structuralist method of analysis, a

formalist framework of description and a mentalist approach to meaning. It added two significant features to structural framework; the overt orientation towards describing meaning according to a formal grammar perspective and reintroducing psychological conception of meaning (Geeraets, 2010:102). The dominant theory of meaning within this paradigm is the *symbolic theory,* whereby language is principally viewed as a string of symbols governed by a set of grammatical rules (Acquaviva et al., 2020:354). The last theory of LS is cognitive semantics which appeared in the 1980s. One of the prominent features of this approach is that it makes no difference between encyclopedic (linguistic) knowledge and real-world knowledge[2] (Rambaud, 2012:187). Much of the research in cognitive semantics has addressed topics under the scope of pragmatics as it does not discriminate between semantic and pragmatic knowledge (Paradis, 2012: 5). It rather adopts the idea that both kinds of knowledge are complementary (Geeraets, 2015: 240-5).

More recently, the development of cognitive semantics and language philosophy has seeded the lands for the emergence of LP.

2.2 Lexical Pragmatics: Overview

LP is recent field of research in modern pragmatics that has attracted the attention of many scholars in linguistics, philosophers and cognitive scientists. Sperber and Wilson (2002:2) view it as a rather recent field of study that vastly developed in linguistics during the last decades of the twentieth century due to semantics/pragmatics distinction. Commenting on LP agenda, Carston (2002:2) claims that it affords a solution to problems raised in LS by contextualists as the distinction between pragmatics and mental lexicon and the phenomenon of *semantic underdetermination.* Hence, as she (ibid.) elaborates, LP tries to provide an adequate explanation of different linguistic phenomena relevant to word meanings.

Likewise, Wilson and Kolaiti (2017:147) claims that the significance of LP is due to the fact that it studies pragmatic processes involved in bridging the gap between the encoded and communicated meanings of a lexical item. The point which is justified by two chief observations; different uses people can perform (literally and non-literally) of the same words in different contexts, and children and adults can understand the meaning of new and unfamiliar words once they are uttered in context. This agenda is essentially based on *conversational implicature* (henceforth, CI) to stipulate a plausible representation of contextual and encyclopedic knowledge. In effect, such considerations have led pragmatists to study pragmatic mechanisms on the level of words and phrases (ibid.: 148).

Despite the fact that words meanings are the core of both LS and LP, they are dealt with differently by those two linguistic arenas. While the goal of LS is to investigate the relations between words and the concepts they encode, the goal of LP is to account for the fact that the concept communicated by a word differs from the encoded concept. Consequently, the chief concern of LP is to explain how linguistically specified 'literal' word meanings are adjusted in use through LPPs of narrowing and broadening (Sperber and Wilson 1995, 2008 and Wilson and Carston 2006, 2007), which is the main concern of the present study:

(1) Susan has a *temper.*

(2) Norfolk is *flat.*

(3) The politician is a *mouse.*

The point in statements (1-3) is that the meanings of the italicized words are underdetermined. Thus, they are modified to be interpreted as a 'bad' temper in (1), 'flattish' in (2) and 'timid person' in (3) (Wilson and Kolaiti, 2017:148).

2.2.1 Definitions of Lexical Pragmatics

To understand LPPs, it is worth exploring the nature of LP which studies them. Various definitions have been documented in LP literature. Some of the well-established definitions can be presented. Blutner (1998:115), for example, states that "LP is a research field that tries to give a systematic and explanatory account of pragmatic phenomena that are connected with the semantic underspecification of lexical items". By this definition, Blutner asserts the promising task of LP as it accounts for the fact that the meaning indicated by the lexical item is sometimes underdetermined by its semantics.

Another definition is provided by Huang (2009:118), who considers LP to be "the systematic study of aspects of meaning-related properties of lexical items that are modified in use, i.e. that part of lexical meaning which is parasitic on what is coded but is not part of what is coded". He affirms the nature of LP as a study that is interested in modified word meanings. Kolaiti and Wilson (2014:211), in turn, focus on the relationship of LP to semantics and pragmatics in their definition: "Lexical pragmatics explores the application of the semantics-pragmatics distinction at the level of the word or phrase rather than the whole utterance".

Hall (2017:85) refers in his definition to the aim of LP which is studying lexical processes which are the main concern of the current work: "Lexical pragmatics studies the processes by which word meanings are pragmatically modulated in context, resulting in communicated concepts that are different from the concepts encoded by the words used".

To sum up, LP can be defined as the field of study that provides a solution to lexical underdetermination by which word meanings are adjusted in use through studying LPPs to come up with more specific or general concepts than the ones encoded by the words used.

2.2.2 Theses of Lexical Pragmatics

In his seminal work (Lexical Pragmatics), Blutner (1998:145) proposes five theses to define the nature of LP. These theses can be summarized as follows:

1. Lexical pragmatics is systematic and explanatory.

The conceptual core of LP is represented by providing a pragmatic mechanism to deal with specific cases of semantic under-specification. Therefore, to achieve its goal, LP is paired with the general framework of conversational implicature to provide a systematic and explanatory account of various factors concerning the representation of linguistic and contextual knowledge as well as other mechanisms of enrichment (ibid.).

2. Lexical pragmatics is non-compositional.

The second thesis to be characterized by Blutner (ibid.:146), LP is non-compositional. He argues against the so-called pragmatic compositionality in which "it is possible to decompose the lexical items of a compound expression into conceptual components which are combined together to determine the conceptual interpretation of the whole expression". The fundamental goal of combining compositional semantics with a general mechanism of conversational implicature is to provoke the non-compositional thesis of LP. It inevitably provides an enrichment based on inferential induction rather than compositionality.

3. Lexical pragmatics crucially involves non-representational means.

Through inquiring the cognitive behaviour involved in manipulating representations, Blutner (ibid.:147) illuminates that terms such as salience, cue validity, diagnostic value, informativeness, surprise, relevance, frequency of use, etc. are non-representational means for manipulating representations. These means should not be mentally represented in order to be effective and to manipulate the cognitive activity.

4. Lexical pragmatics involves economy principles.

One of the basic assumptions within LP paradigm is cost-effect principles. Blutner (1998:148) proposes that "economy principles are crucially involved in determining how nonrepresentational parameters control the selection and suppression of representations." In other words, the theoretical framework of LP and the principles of *cost function* are intermingled with non-representational means to determine how these means or parameters affect cognitive activity.

5. Lexical pragmatics has to explain when conversational implicatures are cancellable and when not.

Blutner (ibid.:149) maintains that cancelability is not persevered for all kinds of CI, holding that the quality maxim is an exceptional case. However, some scholars claim cancellability is not required for CI, others claim the opposite. Each of them relied on particular cases. Therefore, LP should take the burden of explaining all cases when CIs are cancellable and when not, when the interpretation of the lexical item depends on the context or not.

2.2.3 Roots of Lexical Pragmatics

To have a clear look at the historical growth and development of LP, Walaszewska (2015:1) claims that the idea of word meaning departing its semantic meaning belongs to the days of Grice and Searle. Their works have paved the ground for the revival of LP as a distinct branch of pragmatics. Blutner (2004, 101), in his turn, illuminates that the idea of lexical pragmatics is introduced by McCawley (1978), who maintains that "a lexical item and a syntactically complex equivalent of it may make different contributions to the interpretation of a sentence without making different contributions to its semantic structure". McCawley (ibid.) concludes that the relation between two words with closely related meanings, 'kill and cause to die', for example, may contribute differently

to the interpretation of a sentence due to pragmatic reasons. Blutner (2004:102) further states that:

> Alluding to Grice's 1967 maxims of conversation, McCawley demonstrated that the difference between the linguistically encoded semantic structure and the suggested interpretation is a consequence of general principles of cooperative behaviour and as such is systematic and predictable. As a consequence, he claims, there is no need to formulate idiosyncratic restrictions that must be incorporated into the relevant lexical entries in order to restrict the system of interpretations.

Allott (2010:110), in turn, attributes the roots of LP to Searle 1980 who discussed the role of different contexts in interpreting a sentence or an expression with the same literal meaning. However, as a term, LP is thought to have been invented by Mercer (1991:224) who uses it to emphasise the difference between semantic and pragmatic aspects of lexical meaning. He argues that semantic meaning is characterized by monotonicity. That means the lexical item is constant no matter what context it is. Pragmatic meaning, on the other hand, is characterized by non-monotonicity; a lexical item is determined by the context in which it is used.

Nevertheless, Horn (2008:24) affirms that the first use for the term LP is made by Blutner (1998) who believes that LP has emerged as a reaction to problems raised by LS in its truth-functional static conception

2.2.4 Grice's Theory and Lexical Pragmatics

Interestingly, Carston (2002: 118) postulates that when a sentence is uttered within a particular context, part of the speaker's meaning is meant without being part of what is said in that utterance is mentioned at least at the 4th century by rhetoricians who depicted litotes, the figure of pragmatic understatement in which one says less, but he means more "minus dicimus et plus significamus". However, the real development of pragmatics begins with Grice's lectures at Harvard University and his philosophical notion of CI which has stimulated many works in pragmatics, philosophy of

language, theoretical linguistics, cognitive science and thereby LP. Grice's theory is considered a foundation upon which most prominent LP approaches and theories are based. Huang (2017:47) confirms this idea by propounding that LP is based on Grice's (1989) theory on meaning and communication. Given that, it seems mandatory to have a bird's eye on Grice's theory or program. Grice (1989:370-2) opens the way for an inferential alternative to the classical (code) view of communication. While comprehension in the classical view is achieved by interpreting the signals to arrive at the speaker's intention, in the inferential view it is obtained by inferring the speaker's meaning based on evidence provided by both the linguistic form of the utterance and the context. It is generally built on the idea that the explicit content of an utterance is underdetermined by the linguistically encoded meaning and that its interpretation engages pragmatic inference (Bataller, 2006:27 and Akmajian et al., 2001:370).

Grice (1989: 26-7), authorizes that the cooperative principle and its component maxims; truthfulness, informativeness, relevance, and clarity, should be achieved in a conversation. The cooperative principle states "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 component maxims of conversation that a speaker should follow to be cooperative are:

a. Quality maxims: Try to make your contribution one that is true.

(i) Do not say what you believe to be false.

(ii) Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

b. Quantity maxims:

(i) Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purposes of the exchange).

(ii) Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

c. Relation maxims: Be relevant.

d. Manner maxims: Be perspicuous.

(i) Avoid obscurity of expression.

(ii) Avoid ambiguity.

(iii) Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).

(iv) Be orderly.

Assuming that the cooperative principle and its component maxims are normally obeyed by both the speaker and the addressee in a conversational exchange, Grice proposes that a CI refers to any meaning or proposition implicitly expressed by a speaker in his or her utterance which is meant without being part of what is said. It can arise from either precisely observing or flouting the maxims (Huang, 2017:48).

2.2.4.1 Neo Gricean Approaches and Lexical Pragmatics

Recent revisions and development on Grice's theory of CI, including Atlas and Levinson, 1981; Leech, 1981; Sperber and Wilson, 1982; 1986;, Levinson, 1983, 1987; Horn, 1984, 1989, 1989 and Atlas, 1989, present different views where the classic Gricean framework is criticized and new approaches have been engendered as neo Gricean approaches and post Gricean approaches (Horn, 1989:130).

Discussing the general theoretical framework of neo Gricean approach, Carston (2007:19) argues that these approaches perceive several principles and maxims to be needed in linguistic communication as they reject the reduction of the Gricean maxims to only one principle. Though they believe that the conversational principle remains the main foundation of linguistic communication, they paid special attention to the rules developed by Grice relevant to the role of the context in meaning production and understanding in addition to grammaticalization and lexicalization processes.

Commenting on the contribution of these approaches, Gazdar (1979:49) points out that neo Gricean approaches pay more attention to

Generalized Conversational Implicature (henceforth, GCI) than *Particularized Implicature.* GCI can normally be assigned to all utterances of this form but cancelled only in certain circumstances as in (4):

(4) a. *Some* of my friends are philosophers.

b. *Not all of* my friends are philosophers (Sperber and Wilson: 2005:473).

Grice's particularized implicature depends on special features of the context as illustrated by the following utterance where the speaker of (a) does not implicate (b). Though, it does if the utterance is said in England as a response to the question:

(5) Are the pubs open?

a. It's midnight.

b. The pubs are closed.

The leading models of all neo Gricean approaches are Horn's two principled models and Levinson's three principled ones. Therefore, it is appropriate to present them as well as their contributions to LP.

2.2.4.1.1 Horn's (1989) Approach

The first neo Gricean model to be surveyed is Laurence Horn's (1989) two-principled model of reduction. In his attempt to develop the original theory of Grice, and to solve the problem of maxims clashes, Horn has issued influential publications which include his views and assumptions. Interestingly, the most salient feature of his model is his call for reducing all Grice's maxims (except the maxim of Quality) into two fundamental principles: The Q (Quantity) principle and the R (Relation) principle. These principles can be read as follows:

Q-principle: "Make your contribution sufficient: Say as much as you can (given the R-Principle)".

R-principle: "Make your contribution necessary: Say no more than you must (given the Q-Principle)" (Horn, 1989: 194).

An example of the Q-principle is CI which results from a prototype Horn-scale. Such principle can be exploited to implicate that what is said is not the optimal interpretation, so the hearer must infer the intended meaning. Prototype Horn-scales are described as follows:

For <S, W> to form a Horn-scale,

(i) A(S) entails A(W) for some arbitrary sentence frame A;

(ii) (S and W) are equally lexicalized, of the same word class, and from the same register;

(iii) (S and W) are "about" the same semantic relation or from the same semantic field, where S stands for "semantically strong expression" and W stands for "semantically weak expression".

a. <all, most, many, some>

b. <hot, warm>

c. <beautiful, pretty, attractive> (Huang, 2009:613).

The R-principle is a speaker-oriented principle. It embraces the second submaxim of Quantity with Relation and the last two submaxims of Manner. It designates that the speaker forms his words with the least efforts. There is a preference to the economy in forming linguistic forms to convey as much meaning as possible. In effect, Horn rejects Grice's view of cooperativity though he agrees with him on the presumption that verbal communication is a rational activity (Horn, 1989:178).

He describes the interaction between the two principles as 'the division of pragmatic labour'. He represents them as two opposing forces, one of 'unification minimizing the speaker's effort (R-principle), and one force of diversification minimizing the hearer's effort (Q-principle) (Blutner, 2004:18).

Correspondingly, the R principle generally takes precedence unless the use of marked expressions leads the Q principle to the non-applicability of the R principle. To consider the following example:

(6) a. He stopped the machine.

b. He got the machine to stop.

The word ‘stop’ implicates (based on the R-principle) that the machine was switched off in a conventional way. However, in (b), the use of the marked indirect causative expression leads to infer an implicature (based on the Q-principle) that it was stopped in a marked way by throwing something on it (Horn 2004: 16).

2.2.4.1.2 Levinson’s (2000) Approach

The other leading neo Gricean approach is Levinson’s three-principled model of pragmatics. Levinson (2000), in his book titled ‘Presumptive Meaning’, follows Grice in admitting the three levels of linguistic communication; intermediate level (utterance-type meaning) between semantics (sentence meaning) and pragmatics (speaker’s meaning) while recalling the contextualist assumptions between the ‘coded’ meaning and ‘occasional’ speaker meaning should be obtained (Levinson, 2000:21).

For him, the utterance-type meaning depends on the type of the utterance so it remains constant in different occasions. Inferences are derived by the speaker’s choice of the form of the utterance; simple, unmarked, complex, marked, etc. In effect, his theory gives the linguist regularities that may induce generalizations. Levinson (ibid.: 17) presents a pattern that any sentence of the form ‘Some x are G’, other things being equal, will have the default interpretation ‘Not all x are G.’

(7) a. "What time is it?"

b. "Some of the guests are already leaving."

PCI: It must be late.

GCI: Not all of the guests are already leaving.

Levinson offers a special attention to GCI. He considers GCI to be one kind of utterance-type meaning and one kind of *presumptive* meaning.

As such, Carston (2002:2) and Jaszczolt (2008:38) believe that his theory is close to Grice's characterization of conversational implicature. However, his theory of GCI seems to be distinguished from Grice's CI. For Grice, the pragmatic inference is operated on the basis of conversational maxims after delivering the logical form of the sentence based on syntactic processing. Levinson's GCIs are considered 'local': they operate whenever they are activated. For example, the word 'some' triggers the default inference 'not all' whenever it comes in the utterance unless the existence of other contextual assumptions. Likewise, Blutner and Zeevat (2004:16) comment that Levinson believes that the presumed meaning is based on background knowledge gained from the past, knowledge of the language and the world processed with the aid of human cognition.

Based on Grice's principle and maxims, Levinson's GCI is highlighted by the three proposed principles and heuristics introduced as *inferential heuristics* not as behavioral (normative) rules. These heuristics then stimulate the behavioral norms or rules, (Levinson, 2000:31-5).

Heuristic 1: What is not said, is not. (is not intended) (Q-principle)

Heuristic 2: What is simply described, is stereotypically exemplified. (I principle)

Heuristic 3: What's said in an abnormal way, isnot normal; or a marked message indicates a marked situation. (M-principle)

According to this model, each of the principles comprises two accounts: the speaker's maxim, what the principle tells the speaker to do, and the recipient's corollary, what the principle motivates the addressee to infer (Levinson, 1987: 67). The principles are offered as:

Q-principle (Levinson, 2000:76)

Speaker's maxim: "Do not provide a statement that is informationally weaker than your knowledge of the world allows".

Recipient's corollary: "Take it that the speaker made the strongest statement consistent with what he knows".

The Q-principle simply signifies that "what is not said, is not the case". That means; by using an informationally stronger expression, the speaker provokes the addressee to infer that the interpretation linked to the use of that expression does not obtain.

(8) Some of my best friends are linguists. +> Not all of my best friends are linguists.

I-Principle: Speaker's maxim: The maxim of Minimization. "Say as little as necessary" (bearing Q in mind).

Recipient's corollary: The Enrichment Rule. "Amplify the informational content of the speaker's utterance by finding the most specific interpretation, up to what you judge to be the speaker's m[eaning] intended point."

M-Principle: Speaker's maxim: "Indicate an abnormal, non-stereotypical situation by using marked expressions that contrast with those you would use to describe the corresponding normal, stereotypical situation".

Recipient's corollary: What is said in an abnormal way indicates an abnormal situation, or marked messages indicate marked situations (Levinson, 2000: 136-7).

(9) John caused the car to stop. (vs. John stopped the car.)

+> He did that in a non-stereotypical way, i.e. he stopped the car not by pressing the foot pedal but by using the emergency brake or bumping into the wall.

(10) He went to bed and slept and slept.

+> He slept longer than usual, (ibid.:152).

To avoid inconsistent implicatures in the case of the operation of the principles, Levinson (2000, 39) proposes an ordered set of priorities: Q >

M > I. Q-principle has priority over M-principle and I-principle. M-principle in turn, has precedence over I-principle.

2.2.4.2 Post Gricean Approaches (Relevance Theoretic Approach)

After discussing the main lines of neo Gricean approaches, their premises and methods of meaning interpretation, it is convenient to turn to post Gricean approach dominated by relevance theoretic approach.

The publication of Sperber and Wilson's (1986) book '*Relevance: Communication and Cognition'* in which they introduced a comprehensive understanding of human communication, cognition and language use, has been considered to be the starting point for relevance theory (henceforth, RT) which becomes one of the most dominant theories in pragmatics. Nevertheless, the roots of this theory, went back to the late 1970s and early 1980s when it was proposed as a cognitive alternative to Grice's theory (Clark, 2013:43).

As an approach, Yus (2006:313) points out that RT is a cognitive pragmatic in the sense that it is an inferential approach which has been highly developed to be applied to various linguistic research areas in general and to pragmatic ones in particular. In the same vein, Carston (2010:2) assumes that pragmatics within the RT paradigm is 'cognitive-scientific'. She elucidates that it diverges from other pragmatic theories based on philosophical, sociological or linguistic foundations.

Essentially, RT is based on the conception of relevance and its two principles. In origin, it is founded on two of Grice's fundamental assumptions; the goal of an inferential mode is to express and identify the communicator's intention by providing clues that will help the hearer infer the intended meaning. The other assumption is that the utterance potentially creates expectations that guide the hearer to infer the intended meaning. In Sperber and Wilson's (1986: vii) words:

> The individual must focus his attention on what seems to him to be the most relevant information available. …; hence to communicate is to imply that the information communicated is relevant. This fundamental idea … that communicated information comes with a guarantee of relevance, we call the principle of relevance.

That is to say, people automatically tend to maximize the relevance of the input they process as speakers formulate their utterances as best relevant to their hearers (Sperber and Wilson's, 1986: vii).

However, RT does not agree with Grice who accounts for rationality as the key to utterance interpretation though not providing an explicit mechanism to explain how inferential communication takes place. Instead, Grice provides complex conscious processing of CI. RT, in turn, developed as an inferential model based on the principle of relevance for utterance interpretation. It is founded on the cognitive science assumption; human mind is modular in which language is an 'autonomous' (Bataller, 2003:50).

The linguistic module is responsible for producing logical forms that are further enriched by the pragmatic module. These processes are to be performed at the same time, and that mental computing is unconsciously performed. These assumptions are sustained by the psychological evidence which demonstrates that children indulged in verbal communication in an early age (Carston, 2010:2).

For Sperber and Wilson (1986:119), the principle of relevance assumes that inferencing is essential to linguistic communication. It is dependent on the interplay of cognitive effects and processing efforts. Therefore, it is context-dependent. That means it depends on contextual effects (the positive cognitive effects) it has in a context. The greater the contextual effects are, the greater the relevance is. However, the smaller the efforts required, the greater the relevance of the input.

2.2.4.2.1 Principles of Relevance Theory

Sperber and Wilson (1986:119) suggest that RT is established on two principles of relevance; *the cognitive principle*, "human cognition

tends to be geared to the maximization of relevance", and *the communicative principle* "every act of ostensive communication communicates a presumption of its own optimal relevance". Human cognition tends to maximize relevance.

1. Cognitive Principle

According to RT, relevance is a natural feature of human cognition. Utterances and any other external stimulus or internal representation create expectations of relevance. Intuitively, an input is relevant when it is processed in a context. In other words, it is associated with background knowledge, thoughts and memories that draw conclusions or positive cognitive effects on a topic where a positive cognitive effect is a worthwhile conclusion (information that is actually relevant) to the communicator's representation of the world (Sperber and Wilson 1995: 248).

Several types of cognitive effect are achieved by processing input, as illustrated by Wilson and Sperber (2002: 602); combining with the context to yield contextual implication*s, strengthening, revision or abandonment of available assumptions*. The most effective type is contextual implication in which an inference is derived from both the input and the context; for instance, when someone sees a train arriving, and looks at his watch, accesses his knowledge of the train timetable, he derives the contextual implication that the train is late. Thus, such a conclusion is achieved by combining the input and the context.

2. Communicative Principle

Sperber and Wilson (1995: 260) maintain that "every act of ostensive communication communicates the presumption of its own best relevance". The fact that stimuli create some expectations of relevance highlights how hearers may recognise the intended interpretation. The related expectations can limit the search space. Based on cognitive

assumptions, they (ibid.) propose an explicit procedure to illustrate how the optimal interpretation can be derived.

The hearer expects that the first interpretation is tested to be the most relevant intended interpretation, and he stops processing. RT argues that the first interpretation is not always the most relevant one. Thus, Sperber and Wilson (1986:275) propose A *Relevance-theoretic Comprehension Procedure* and the *Presumption of Optimal Relevance* which conserve that the hearer follows a path of least effort in processing cognitive effects. He considers available assumptions to pick out the optimal ones. The addressee stops when the expectations of relevance are achieved. It follows that if the ostensive stimulus is relevant enough to be worth the hearer's effort to process it, it will be the most relevant one matching the communicator's abilities and preferences.

As it has been acknowledged earlier, all the above-mentioned approaches to LP have been inspired in one way or another by Grice's program of conversational principles and pragmatic maxims. Still, there are other approaches to LP among them *Cognitive Usage-Based Approach* which has been defended in cognitive pragmatics. It seems appropriate to have an idea on it to demonstrate the difference between this approach and other Gricean approaches.

2.2.4.3 Cognitive Usage-Based Approach to Lexical Pragmatics

This approach is based on cognitive semantic *usage-based theory* (henceforth, UBT) in which the language is learned through usage. According to (Chouinard and Clark, 2003: 638, cited in Lemmens (2017:104), children learn language in verbal exchange. They learn to express themselves and needs and interpret others' responses in contexts. This theory sees language to be social behaviour in context. It contrasts with the generative perspective that focuses on innate abilities role in acquiring language. Bybee and Beckner (2010:828) point out that this

perspective seeks to find evidence in the context to understand cognitive representations. Usage patterns, frequency of occurrence, variation, and change afford clues about cognitive representations. They further state that 'Usage-based theory seeks to derive the mechanisms of language from more general and basic capacities of the human brain, including *sequential and statistical learning, chunking, and categorization'.*

On the basis of UBT, cognitive usage-based approach to LP has been introduced by Lemmens (2017). The starting point in UBT is that there is no strict difference between linguistic meaning and encyclopedic meaning. It takes the cognitive view of lexical meaning. Lexical meaning in cognitive linguistics is the minimal literal meaning structured with encyclopedic information. That means, it accounts for any contextual modulation aspect in interpretation. It is an interdisciplinary view that integrates semantics, pragmatics and grammar (Escandell-vidal, 2012, cited in Lemmens, 2017:5).

She further explicates that there is a direct link between words and the concepts in mind. Words evoke conceptual structures when they are functionally motivated (Langacker, 1987:92). The semantic representation of a lexical item seems to be equivalent to explicature in RT (the contextually enriched underdetermined meaning). Yet, the difference between them lies in the fact that cognitive UBT considers literal meaning to be dynamic not stable, it can be enriched and contextually specified. The enrichment is arrived at through a process of generalization. The cognitive categorization process in which verbal communication depends on psychological and cultural factors in usage. The concept BANANA, for example, (given in Langacker, 1999) has a semantic representation in a dictionary that involves linguistic specification and encyclopedic information concerning its shape, colour, taste, smell, where it is grown, etc. Not all of these specifications are central to the semantic structure. The

point here is that not all information should be included in the linguistic semantic structure of a concept (Lemmens, 2017:6).

As an alternative model to ad hoc concepts advocated by RT, UBT deals with the view of 'clusters of features' in terms of a frame-semantic. "The modulated concept MILK* is part of the MILK-frame that it (usually) comes in containers one stores in the fridge (or a similar cool place)"[3]. It shares features with other frames such as water and juice. In this way, different frames are connected in the human knowledge system (ibid.:9).

Moreover, one of the basic premises of this approach is no distinction are there between semantics and pragmatics. All linguistic elements are parts (symbolic units) of language grammar (language system). According to Bybee (2006:711): "grammar is the cognitive organization of one's experience with language". Symbolic units, then, are combinations of form and meaning. Thus, through constant usage of a concept in different contexts progressively 'schematic meanings' that account for the similarities between these contexts can be interpreted. Cognitively, schematic meanings are structured hierarchically. In other words, underdetermined word meanings are conceptualized in a schematic network of related meanings. The verb 'kill' is underdetermined in different contexts and builds a schematic network in which different uses of the same concept are organized[4] (Tomasello, 2003 cited in ibid.:11).

2.2.5 Key Notions in Lexical Pragmatics

Before addressing lexical pragmatic processes, it seems appropriate to get a deeper look at relevant notions setting out some relevant background. Undoubtedly, not all the details are referred to, yet the most salient ones are indispensable.

2.2.5.1 Underdetermination Thesis

Underdetermination is one of the most important sources of controversy between semantics and pragmatics. According to Belleri

(2014:1), semantic underdetermination, underspecification or underdeterminacy, is a phenomenon where the meaning of sentences is underdetermined even though other things are specified such as disambiguation, indexicality, ellipsis or vagueness resolution. Some sentences are accounted to be underdetermined if they are conceptually shortened. That means, they fail to provide the hearer with the information he feels to be conceptually important as shown in (11).

(11) a. Jill is ready.

b. It's raining.

In (a.) the sentence is underdetermined as it fails to specify 'what Jill is ready for', (b.) is also undetermined because it could not specify where it is raining. Similarly, sentences like 'Jamal is tall' or 'Naomi is rich', are underdetermined since they contain gradable adjectives which depend on comparison standards.

The considerable gap between semantics and pragmatics is represented by the gap between sentence meaning and the speaker's meaning. This gap can be filled by pragmatic processes of enrichment (Levinson 2000, Horn, 2007 and Bach 2013,). Processes like *disambiguation and reference assignment, free enrichment, saturation* and *pragmatic strengthening* are employed to derive *explicature* the term that Sperber and Wilson introduced. It is emerged to avoid being confused with 'what is said' and it is created similar to *implicature* to designate what is explicitly communicated. RT scholars draw special attention to explicature. It is viewed to belong to a theory of communication rather than being a semantic construct. Accordingly, it incorporates a pragmatically inferred meaning in addition to linguistically encoded meaning (Sperber and Wilson, 1986:182).

Carston (2013:2-3) widens the scope of underdetermination as it is reflected by different manifestations; lexical or structural ambiguities,

referential indeterminacies, unspecified qualifiers, incomplete expressions, implicit clausal connections, approximation, loose uses and illocutionary indeterminacies. More importantly, she highlights that the nature of this phenomenon and the way to bridge it is mainly pragmatic. It speculates how hearers grasp a comprehensive interpretation of utterances with indeterminate expressions.

To illustrate what is meant by lexical underdetermination, Blutner (2002:4) presents an example from Katz and Fodor (1963):

(12) a. Should we take the lion back to the zoo?

b. Should we take the bus back to the zoo?

The lexical item 'take back' is unambiguous in itself, but it is used differently in (a) and (b). The lion is an object taken back to the zoo, whereas the bus is the instrument that takes people back to the zoo. Here comes the role of pragmatic enrichment to overcome lexical ambiguity.

For RT, the gap between linguistically encoded meaning and communicated meaning is filled by pragmatic inference. What is said is not fully propositional. Generally, a lexical item can be disambiguated using information enriched by the immediate context. Lexical underdetermination, on the other hand, requires inference to be determined. In other words, to arrive at the explicit communicated meaning, inference is required (Carston, 2013:4).

2.2.5.2 Words and Concepts

Based on their research on semantic representation, Vigliocco and Vinson (2005:3) elucidate that as language enables people to exchange their thoughts, needs and desires, word meanings need to be represented mentally mapping their objects, properties, actions and the like. To be exact, word meanings must be represented in human conceptual knowledge. This unquestionable assumption in cognitive linguistics has led scholars to explicitly or implicitly claim word meaning and concepts in

one way or another to be the same since concepts provide words with their meanings.

Walaszewska (2015: 93) points out that any discussion of LPPs needs a developed approach to concepts illustrating how conceptual meaning is mentally represented. In this concern, different views have been recognised to determine the nature and features of concepts. Concepts are seen as a structure of 'definitions, clusters of prominent properties derived from prototypes or interrelated explanatory schemas'.

Correspondingly, Eco et al. (1988:101) maintain that words are traditionally regarded as stimuli to mental representation to which a linguistic form associates with the object it corresponds. When one says 'a table', a mental image of a table would be stimulated in his mind. Although this view of association has prevailed in psychology at least, it has been rejected for several reasons; among them, not all lexical items have a real-world entity.

Cruse (1986:140), in turn, claims that concepts are definitely fundamental to our functioning as human beings. They are structured bundles of stored knowledge representing human experience concerning events, objects, settings, etc. Arranging these aspects into constant categories, humans would store, remember and recognise them as a unique experience. Furthermore, he (2004:142) elaborates that word meaning is linked to conceptual structure in multi-dimensional ways. The links are the properties the word activates as 'a kind of', 'part of', 'used to', etc. Under this assumption, a lexical item directly activates one concept and indirectly stimulates other concepts of different strengths. For example, the word 'horse' is directly linked to the concept 'HORSE' the animal. It follows that word meaning is linked to concepts in one of these mappings; *one to one* as in 'horse' and the concept HORSE, *one to many* as in 'bank' which

is linked to ‘financial institution’ and a ‘margin of a river’, and *many to one* as in ‘pass away’, ‘kick the packet’, and ‘die’ linked to the word ‘die’.

In RT, it is generally assumed that the meanings of words are mental concepts related to those words. They are thought to be distinct structures in human mind. Moreover, there are complex concepts, which are understood as ‘structured conceptual representations’. The word ‘chocolate’, for instance, encodes the concepts ‘CHOCOLATE’. Most content words are assumed to encode concepts, exclusively atomic concepts (ibid.:363).

Carston (2002:321) retains that RT follows Fodor’s 1980 view that mental concepts encoded by lexical items are atomic. They are not structured around ‘prototypes or stereotypes’. Sperber and Wilson (1986:92-93) argue that being incorporated to the Fodorian view, an atomic concept entails an ‘address in memory’ allowing numerous information categorized in three entries: logical, encyclopedic and lexical. The logical one consists of a set of logical properties of the concept which define its relation to other concepts. The encyclopedic entry encloses the concept denotation in addition to information about cultural beliefs and personal experiences. Its access depends on the time and the frequency of use of the item. Unlike the logical entry, encyclopedic entry is characterised by being open-ended and distinctive among users; no speakers have the same entry. The last entry is the lexical entry. It contains linguistic information about lexical items like their phonetic and grammatical structure. It can be illustrated below by Vega Moreno (2007:46):

Conceptual address: BIRD

Linguistic entry: Noun; [b ɔ: d]

Logical entry: one-way inferential links to other concepts.

Encyclopedic entry: information about the denotation: (flies, it has feathers, it typically sings, it can be of different colours, etc.)

It is worth observing that not all words have these three entries. Proper names, for example, are believed to have no logical entries. Likewise, some have no words rather they can be represented by a phrase as UNCLE-OR-AUNT (Sperber and Wilson, 1997:3 and Moreno, 2007:46). Moreover, within RT, words are considered to be heterogeneous. Some determine full-fledged concepts which can be pragmatically inferred, whereas others encode schematic semantically incomplete concepts 'pro-concepts'. Sperber and Wilson (1998: 185-200) claim that pro-concepts are typically words void of encyclopedic information; they encode procedural meaning as pronouns, discourse connectives, tense, aspect etc. functioning as constraints to pragmatic inference (Carston, 2010:166; Blakemore, 2002:83).

2.3 Lexical Pragmatic Processes

As it is acknowledged in (2.2.1), LP studies the processes by which linguistically encoded word meanings are pragmatically modulated in context. Two varieties of LPPs are there: narrowing and broadening which correspond to two types of pragmatic processes of comprehension. Such processes are approached differently by neo Gricean and post Gricean approaches to LP. The former focused on studying phenomena related to narrowing. The latter, on the other hand, accounted for the two verities. Yet, they are more engaged with metaphor, hyperbole, category extension, approximation and other non-literal cases of language use whose interpretation involves broadening (loosening) the lexical meaning as reported by Wilson (2003: 274).

These processes and how they have been approached will be the main concern of the following subsections.

2.3.1 Lexical Narrowing

Generally defined, lexical narrowing is a phenomenon by which a lexical expression is used to convey a more restricted meaning than its

linguistically encoded meaning. More precisely, Carston and Powell (2006:283) define it as a process whereby the communicated meaning of a word is a proper subpart of its linguistically encoded meaning which indicates that the literal meaning of a word is in fact, maintained in narrowing; the logical properties of the lexical concept which the word denotes, have not been dropped, but rather modified assuming its encyclopedic properties when it is used to communicate an occasion-specific concept as shown by Figure (2.1) below:

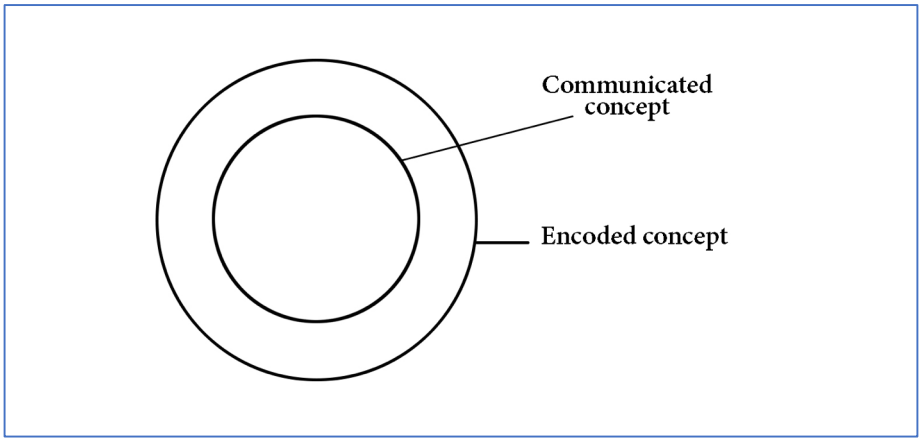

Figure (2.1) Narrowing, Adopted from Wilson (2003:3)

The following two examples presented by Wilson (2003: 274) can be utilised to illustrate this phenomenon:

(13) All doctors *drink.*

(14) Bill has a *reputation.*

The verb 'drink' is frequently used to mean 'drink liquid', but in (13) It is used to mean more specific meanings such as 'drink alcohol' or 'drink a significant amount of alcohol'. Similarly, 'reputation' in (14) is interpreted according to the utterance context to mean either 'good reputation' or 'bad reputation'.

According to neo Gricean approaches, two types of narrowing are to be realised: *Q-implicature-based lexical narrowing* and *I-implicature-based lexical narrowing*. That indicates the use of a specific narrower

hyponym. Horn (2004:541-2) highlights that 'finger' in (15) is narrowed to disregard its hyponym 'thumb':

(15) I hurt my *finger.*

The same thing can be said about 'rectangle' in the following example which is interpreted as 'discount square' in:

(16) a. John folded the newspaper neatly into a *rectangle.*

b. +>John did not fold the newspaper neatly into a square.

The latter is often viewed as a case of I-implicature, involving 'a default inference to stereotypical interpretation'. As Levinson (2000:37-8, 112) explicates, narrowing is a type of default inference managed by I-heuristic; "what is expressed simply is stereotypically exemplified". I-heuristic is said to be directed by I-principle guiding the hearer to expand the contextual effects provided (see, 2.2.4.2.2). The I-heuristic might account for it by narrowing with a case of stereotypical interpretation as in:

(17) John's book is *good*.

+> the one he read, wrote, borrowed, as appropriate.

(18) a. *bread knife*

+> kitchen knife / steel knife.

b. *a secretary*

+> female one.

Pursuing it further, Wilson and Carston (2007:3) assume that within RT framework, narrowing is far more innovative and flexible than what neo Gricean described as. It involves the construction of occasion-specific concepts on the bases of cognitive and contextual effects that lead the hearer to narrow the interpretation of a lexical item in different degrees and in different directions. They consider the following illustrations:

(19) *Buying* a house is easy if you've got money.

(20) Churchill was a *man.*

To understand (19) the hearer may suggest that the speaker makes a blatantly false assumption that buying a house is easy for anyone with any amount of money. The interpretation of the utterance is narrowed to produce a more reliable and relevant interpretation, claiming that buying a house is easy for someone with a proper amount of money. Concerning the interpretation of (20), narrowing is proved to take place in different directions; in different situations and contexts. The utterance can be narrowed to give more than an interpretation depending on the context in which it occurs.

Equally, Wilson and Koliati (2017:156) show that narrowing is directly influenced by encyclopedic information and pragmatic expectations without guiding by default interpretation stage. It is a local process in the sense that the narrowed proposition is not necessarily stronger than the one derived from (Carston, 1996:105 and Sperber and Wilson, 2002:11-5).

Based on the discussion above, lexical narrowing can be defined as a lexical pragmatic process that is involved in the interpretation of underdetermined words to arrive at a more specific reliable meaning. It has been dealt with differently by neo Gricean and post Gricean approaches to LP. The most salient pragmatic cases or phenomena where narrowing is involved in their interpretation can be summarized according to neo Gricean pragmatics as follows[5].

2.3.1.1 Narrowing the Adjectives in Adjective-noun Combinations

According to the classical view of semantics, the *intersectional operation* view forms the meaning of adjectives-noun combinations that entails the meaning of the compound expression results from the meaning of the adjective and the meaning of the noun. This view is challenged by LP approaches which claim their interpretation to involve lexical narrowing in their interpretation. Blutner (1998:118) propounds that in

deducing the meaning of larger combinations, the meaning of the adjective is loosed and its contribution to the meaning of the compound varies from context to context. The adjective 'brown' in a 'brown cow' is brown on most of its body's surface, in a 'brown book' it is brown if the color of its cover is brown, in a 'brown newspaper' it is brown if its pages are brown. Basing on such examples, Blutner (2004:102) resolves that interpreting the meaning of compounds does not necessarily result from the meaning of the modifier and the head even though the same adjective is used.

In the same vein, Wilson and Koliati (2017) in a corpus-based study demonstrate that narrowing in adjective-noun combinations is flexible. They assume that they are interpreted differently relying on contextual aspects in a variety of cases. They conclude that in the absence of relevant contextual expectations, hearers will narrow the interpretation to some extent or leave it open and do not make the effort to narrow at all (ibid.: 156).

2.3.1.2 Auto-hyponymy and Hyponymy

Another case to be discussed under narrowing is auto-hyponymy and hyponymy. To explain what is meant by this phenomenon, Cruse (1986:110) posits that this case involves the use of a word with its default subordinate reading; general meaning, as in the use of the verb 'drink' in (13) to indicate general meaning 'drink any liquid' and also can be used as its hyponym with a context-dependent to indicate specific meaning 'drink alcohol'. He further argues that the words used as auto-hyponymy will be narrowed to mean the meaning of their hyponyms. In simplicity, the narrowed meaning cannot be part of the linguistically encoded content of the lexical item.

Furthermore, Cruse (1986:120) maintains that auto-hyponymy differs from what he calls 'hyponymic enrichment' or 'contextual

modulation'. This type of modulation comprises adding information to make the meaning of the lexical item more specific as in:

(21) John cut his *finger*, if not his thumb.

By adding 'if not his thumb' the meaning of the word 'finger' becomes more specific. Thus, it is different from auto-hyponymy in which the same word can be used to mean more specific and more general sense as in: 'John cut his finger', which may be used to mean 'finger' and 'thumb'.

2.3.1.3 Lexical Blocking

As Huang (2017:64) defines it, lexical blocking "refers to the phenomenon whereby the appropriate use of a lexical expression formed by a relatively productive process is apparently prevented by the prior existence of a synonymous but distinct lexical item".

Following Blutner (1998:123), this phenomenon can be illustrated by various examples where the proper use of a lexical item formed by a quite productive process is blocked by the existence of a more lexicalised item.

(22) a. I ate *pork. (pig meat)*.

b. I don't eat *beef. (cow meat)*.

The existence of the specialised noun 'pork', 'beef' blocks the productive process of producing 'pig meat' and 'cow meat'.

Moreover, Blutner (ibid.) claims that lexical blocking is a pragmatic phenomenon not only a morphological one. In (23) below, the presence of 'cow' as 'cow derived substance' is reliable in the context of eating. Hence, it blocks the existence of 'beef' to be synonymy to 'cow meat', this type of blocking is called *deblocking* by Blutner (2004).

(23) Hindus are forbidden to eat *cow/ beef.*

This blocking may be attributed to the fact that not only cow meat but the whole animal is forbidden to Hindus. By such example, he calls for the important role context plays in narrowing the meaning of the lexical item.

In his study on lexical blocking, Huang (2017: 66) argues that it can be explained in terms of Horn's division of pragmatic labour or Levinson's resolution schema. The use of marked expression blocks the unmarked form in the same context due to the systematic interaction between the R/ I- and Q/ M- principles. The R/ I- principle allows the speaker to use the more productive form, because it is fairly obtainable. On the other hand, the Q/ M- principle states that he or she tends to use marked forms to have special effect on the addressee.

To investigate the role of CI in the lexicon, McCawley (1978) discusses a number of cases of blocking in the formulation of colour terms in English. He mentions that in English there are colours like pale blue, pale green, and pale yellow. However, pale red is less frequently used because of the existence of a lexical item for pale red which is 'pink'. Therefore, the use of pale red is blocked. It is sometimes used to refer to a colour graded between pale red and pink.

(24) a. Mary wore a *pink* skirt yesterday.

b. Mary wore a *pale red* skirt yesterday.

c. +> Mary wore a skirt yesterday whose colour cannot be described exactly as pink. This indicates a case of partial blocking as explicated by Huang (2017:67).

Partial blocking is referred to by McCawley (1978) as he notices that the use of productive causatives in languages such as English and Japanese is restricted by the existence of more lexicalized causatives in stereotypical situations. Yet, the former tends to be employed in marked situations:

(25) a. Black Bart *killed* the sheriff.

b. Black Bart *caused* the sheriff to die.

2.3.1.4 Contrastive Reduplication or Lexical Cloning

Another case of language use in which narrowing is involved, is referred to differently by scholars as 'lexical cloning, contrastive (focus)

reduplication, identical constituent compounding'. It is usually found in spoken American English, yet it can be found in a variety of English; British, Australian, Canadian, New Zealand, and South African English Walaszewiska (2015:25-6).

Furthermore, Ghomeshi et al., (2004) and (Hohenhaus, 2004) cited in Huang (2017: 44), propose that the use of lexical clones is usually found in a certain informal conversational register of spoken English. Still, lexical cloning is less frequently used in written English such as scripts for plays, films, and TV programmes. Remarkably, it is used as a manifestation of natural spoken language in written form.

As a pragmatic phenomenon, it is usually represented by the repeated occurrence of the same word with contrastive stress on the first item of the repeated words. It can be applied by the use of content words; nouns, verbs, adjectives, proper nouns, etc. The effect of using such a phenomenon is to narrow down the variety of interpretations of the repeated expressions as in the following example used by (Ghomeshi et al., 2004:308)cited in Walaszewiska (2015:26):

(26) I'll make the tuna salad, and make the *salad-salad*.

It follows that the use of contrastive reduplication represented by 'SALAD-salad' indicates a particular type of salad (prototypical plain green salad) not any other type. According to Huang (2015:3), Hohenhaus 2004 postulates two formulas, one for reduplicated nouns and the other for reduplicated adjectives, adverbs and verbs.

A. For reduplicated nouns

An XX is a proper/ prototypical/ precise/ just X

B. For reduplicated adjectives, adverbs, and verbs

An XX = really/ properly/ extremely X.

He (ibid.:4) claims that since lexical cloning functions as lexical entities that are associated with the proposition of lexical expressions as

exactly, perfectly and precisely, then lexical cloning is a special case of lexical narrowing. He elaborates that the interpretation of lexical cloning heavily relied on the context. Hence, in certain occasions, the speaker expects the hearer would not be able to understand his intention so he adds self-repair as paraphrases or explanations of some sort. It is usually presented in the linguistic form:

a. Not (just) X but(rather)XX

b. Not (just) XX but (rather) X.

(27) Frank is not just my colleague; he's my *colleague-colleague.* We work in the same department; in fact, we work in the same section.

In cases where the speaker expects the hearer can properly interpret his cloning, but in fact he cannot, he (the hearer) will form another self-repair to seek the speaker's clarification as pointed below:

(28)

Mike: I didn't really bring anything.

Geoff: So, you didn't bring any food!?

Mike: Not *food-food*.

Geoff: What's 'not *food-food'*, then?

Mike: Got bubble gum. . . (From: The Hole, Hohenhaus, 2005)

According to Huang (2009:137), there are four types of contrastive reduplication:

1-Prototypical Meaning: It is typically utilised to signal the default sense of the lexical item as in a.

(29) a. I've got a Job now.

b. What, part time ...?

a. No, no *a job-job*! (a proper Job, full-time, permanent and decently paid)

2- Literal Meaning: It refers to the literal meaning of the lexical item not the loose meaning of it as in:

(30) a. maybe you would like to come in and have some coffee?

b. Yeah, I'd like that.

a. Just *coffee-coffee*. (no double meaning).

3- Intensive Meaning: Concerning this type, adjectives and adverbs and even verbs are usually used to signal the strengthening of meaning.

(31) a. Are you nervous?

b. Yeah, but, you know, not *nervous-nervous*. (not extremely nervous).

4. Value-Added Meaning: It is repeated to enrich the meaning of the expressions with the context information used.

(32) a. I hear you guys are, um, living together now.

b1. Well, we're not *living together*-living together.

b 2. Well, we're only *living together*-living together.

The answer of (b1) intends to signal 'living as lovers', whereas, in (b2), the meaning is understood as 'living as roommates'. A last interesting point to be mentioned is that this phenomenon has heavily relied on the context in which it occurs. Phrased differently, it could be understood out of context. Therefore, it is usually evaluated in terms of the use of marked or uninformative expressions intended to achieve sarcastic, humor or other rhetorical effects (Huang, 2009:138).

2.3.1.5 Polysemy

Polysemy is usually defined as a linguistic phenomenon whereby a single word is associated with two or more distinct but related meanings. It is usually classified into systematic and non-systematic. Systematic or regular polysemy is where the relation between the set of senses of lexical items is the same.

(33) a. John put a *glass* on the table.

b. Mary enjoyed *a glass* of wine.

In (33 a) the word ‘glass’ is used to mean ‘a container’, while in (b) it indicates ‘a unit of liquid’. It is used in the same sense of bottle, cup, pot, etc. Though the same lexical item ‘glass’ is used to refer to two meanings, it establishes systematic polysemy with other mentioned unis of liquid. Likewise, systematic polysemy is traditionally used to distinguish between metonymic polysemy and inherent polysemy. Metonymic polysemy is where one of the related meanings is considered the main one and the others are metonymically resulting from it. Inherent polysemy assumes no difference in relation between the senses of the lexical item (Dölling, 2018:15).

Polysemy has conventionally drawn a lot of debate in linguistics and language philosophy in relation to lexical meaning representation, compositional semantics, and the semantics/pragmatics distinction. Early approaches dealt with polysemy in terms of sense enumeration: each meaning of a polysemous unit is manifested distinctly in the lexicon. This account has been rejected on the basis that the senses of many polysemous units result from a single meaning representation. Other approaches to polysemy in which meanings might be dealt with through semantic or pragmatic means such as coercion, modulation or ad hoc concept construction (Vincente and Falkum, 2017:1).

LP approaches generally account for polysemy in terms of semantic underdetermination that the literal meaning of a polysemous expression is used as a starting point for its interpretation based on contextual inference (Blutner, 1998; Carston, 2002; Recanati, 2004; Wilson and Carston, 2007).

In their interesting study of polysemy, Vincente and Falkum (2017:26) defend this view of polysemy as underdetermined phenomenon. For them, linguistically encoded meaning is input to more inferential processes which yield the occasion-specific intended meaning. The adjective ‘good’ in each utterance of the following example has a different

meaning in addition to others as ‘easy to read’, ‘beautifully designed’, ‘useful to kill flies with’, and so on.

(34) a. Chomsky’s Aspects is a *good book* (interesting).

b. That’s a *good book* to use as a doorstop (heavy enough).

c. I need a *good book* to put me asleep (boring enough).

The key objective of this view of polysemy, Falkum (2011:24) argues that it explains how such occasion-specific senses can be inferred on the basis of their linguistic representation and contextual information. Besides, it provides solutions to many problems with traditional approaches by virtue of interpretive inflexibility and over-generation.

It is a truism that Relevance-theoretic approach to LP considers polysemy as a communicative phenomenon which is the outcome of lexical underdetermination in different contexts. In utterance interpretation, the hearer seeks to find the optimal interpretation by narrowing or loosening the meaning of a polysemous item. In each of the exemplified utterances above, interpreting the linguistically encoded meaning of the adjective ‘good’ involves a narrowing process which gives rise to the construction of ad hoc concepts which is guided by the hearer’s expectations of relevance in each context (Falkum, ibid.:25).

2.3.2 Lexical Broadening

Carston (1996:107) fairly explains the other variety of lexical adjustment that of broadening as a lexical pragmatic process where a lexical item is used to convey a more general sense than its encoded denotation. In essence, it is an expansion of the denotation of the linguistically encoded meaning of a word. The main idea of broadening is that speakers sometimes choose to produce an utterance that departs the literal meaning in its interpretation. Broadening, then, does not maintain the literal meaning of a word due to the fact that one or more of the logical properties of the concept it denotes can be dropped forming ad-hoc concept

that goes beyond the boundaries of the lexically encoded concept (Wilson and Carston, 2007:243).

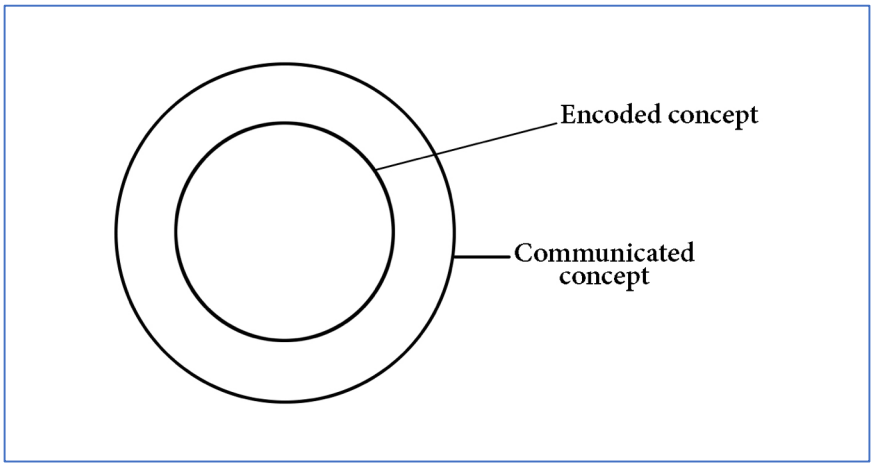

Figure (2.2) Broadening, Adopted from (Wilson, 2003:4)

Figurative uses of language, in general, are believed to involve cases of broadening. Metaphor, metonymy and hyperbole, for example, are used to communicate something else (Carston, 2000:16).

Being illustrated, in the following two examples presented by Wilson and Kolaiti (2017:157) the word 'hexagonal' is interpreted as 'roughly hexagonal' and 'forever' is adjusted to mean 'much longer than expected or desired':

(35) France is *hexagonal.*

(36) It took *forever to* finish this paper.

As a matter of fact, broadening has been ignored outside RT perspective. Other pragmatic approaches have been more interested in strengthening or narrowing, as Atlas (1992, cited in Carston, 1997:106), who follows Gricean view of pragmatics states:

> The "strengthening" assumption can be justified by discovering that there is an intelligible inference that brings about the strengthening of a speaker's meaning-intelligible in the sense that such inferences can be formulated and rationalized - but no intelligible inference that brings about the relaxation of a speaker's meaning. Loose uses of words don't seem particularly rule-governed.

Notably, Sperber and Wilson (1986) have objectively provided an account of loose uses including metaphorical cases. They (ibid.:231)

endorse that every utterance represents an interpretation of a speaker's thought. This mental representation can be used interpretively as an interpretation of an actual thoughts or desirable ones, or it can be used descriptively as a description of an actual state of affairs or desirable ones. Therefore, their account treats literal proposition as a limiting case rather than a 'norm'. Literal and non-literal use of language have been accounted for within RT as a guide by the principle of relevance as illustrated in Figure (2.3) below.

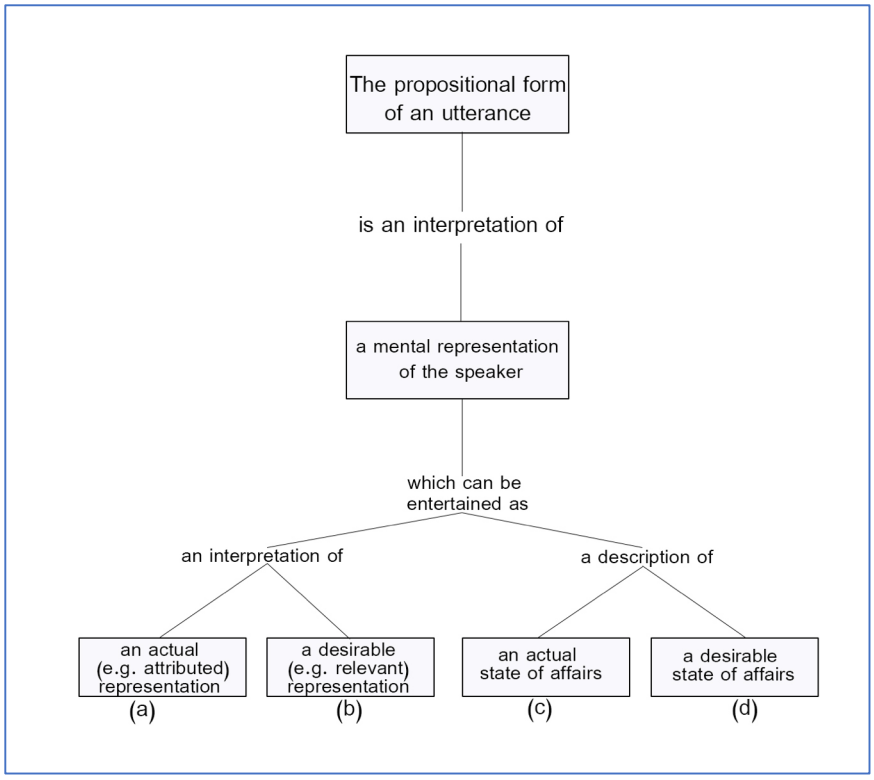

Figure (2.3) Aspects of Verbal Communication Adopted from Sperber and Wilson (1986:232)

Consisting with RT, lexical broadening can be defined as a lexical pragmatic process that is involved in the interpretation of underdetermined words to arrive at more reliable general meaning than their linguistically encoded. It provides a pragmatic interpretation of figurative language which Grice and neo Gricean approaches considered to be a violation of the maxim of quality.

Interestingly, linguistic phenomena that broadening is involved in their interpretation are cases of approximation, metaphor, hyperbole,

neologisms, category extension and pun-like cases. Other cases like simile, understatement, irony have constantly been debated as involving broadening cases and contributing to ad hoc construction or not.

2.3.2.1 Approximation

It is a linguistic phenomenon where a word with a relatively strict sense is extended to a shadow of cases. Lasersohn (1999:522) postulates that people usually speak loosely in different degrees of precision due to the different situations of use. For him, approximation or 'pragmatic halo' involves lexical entries like *quantification* as demonstrated by the following example:

(37) The townspeople are *asleep.*

Obviously, the speaker does not mean that all townspeople with no exceptions are asleep. He rather means most people are asleep. Another example of approximation is *scalar adjectives* which are modified by adverbials as 'very, exactly, perfectly, etc.' which he calls *regulators:*

(38) The ball is *very round.*

He (ibid.:225) claims that people speak loosely when the standards of precision are not required. However, what determines the required details is not only the context but also the presence of regulators in some utterances. In other words, while the denotation of the lexical items is broadened to be interpreted relying on the context of the utterance, the degree of approximation is displayed by regulators.

In his discussion of vague language, Drave (2001:25) maintains that vague expressions are terms whose meanings cannot be interpreted precisely. Various expressions have been used vaguely as approximation including; *number approximations* indicating more or less than stated (e.g. at least 20, under 100), *non-numerical vague quantifiers* (e.g. several people, a lot of books), *vague category markers* (e.g. fish or something, lectures and so on) and *placeholder words* as replacements for other nouns

(e.g. thing, stuff). Moreover, he believes that approximation has an undeniable degree of overlap with hedges.

Functionally, for many scholars, approximation is used by the speaker in natural language exchange to promote politeness or limitless knowledge. It may also be employed to compromise cases of not recalling a word or memory laps, deliberately covering up certain information and conveying an evaluation of something (ibid.: 26).

Based on the significant contributions of the previous studies, more recent research on loose use (see Wilson and Carston, 2007, 2008; Carston, 2012, 2015, Blutner, 2011) indicates that approximation involves the use of round numbers, geometric terms precise colour terms and negatively-defined terms:

(39) a. This coat cost *1,000 dollars.* (about 1,000 dollars)

b. The stones form a *circle,* an oval, or a pyramid. (approximately a circle).

c. We need more wine. The bottle is *empty.* (nearly empty)

d. Tom wonders why his dog's nose is *red.* (approximately red) (Carston and Wilson, 2007:237).

Moreover, a lexical item can be used in different degrees and types of approximation in different contexts as shown by the use of the word 'flat' in the following examples:

(40) a. This ironing board is *flat*.

b. My garden is *flat.*

c. My neighborhood is *flat.*

d. The Earth is *flat.* (Carston and Wilson, 2007:238).

To understand how approximation cases are interpreted, the word 'painless' in the following utterance is exemplified:

(41) This injection is *painless*.

It can be interpreted as either approximation or hyperbole. So, if the speaker denotes an affirmation involving reduced standards of precision, it is to be interpreted as approximation. But if the speaker implies that this the injection is painless comparing the pain he had or he is claiming that injection will be painless, then it is likely to be interpreted as hyperbole (Wilson and Kolaiti, 2017: 222).

2.3.2.2 Metaphor

Reviewing the relevant literature, two basic accounts of metaphor can be recognised. Metaphor has usually been accounted for within the theory of communication. Firstly, it is virtually considered a common figure of speech that engages non-literal interpretation. The second account considers metaphor to be a cognitive phenomenon studied as a supplementary use of language besides the normal use of language. More precisely, metaphorical meaning is studied only after studying literal meaning (Song, 1998:78).

The traditional view of metaphor is that it is non-literal meaning that needs to be paraphrased. A study of metaphor goes back a very long ago. It is seen as a rhetorical tool of communication used by politicians to persuade and by poets to entertain. So, politicians and poets should master this figurative use of language. However, literal use of language was seen to be the most appropriate vehicle of communication. It is commonly used to describe reality objectively and directly (Song,1998:87). More recent accounts of metaphor (Kitty 1987, Grice 1989 and Searle 1990) broadly share the assumption that metaphorical interpretation of an utterance is distinct from its literal interpretation. This assumption is based on certain points of similarities between metaphor topic and metaphorical expression (Vega Moreno, 2007: 53-60).

Rambaud (2012:34) explicates that this view has been abandoned in favour of theories introduced by cognitive approaches in which metaphor

is seen as a creative process based on the interaction of mental representations. In Gricean approach, metaphor and hyperbole, irony and understatement involve blatant violation of the maxim of quality. Under this assumption, the utterance may give rise to weak implicatures including poetic and creative implicatures. By considering the contextual information of the situation in which the following example is uttered, many implications can be deduced such as (a-f):

(42) John is a *lion*.

a. John is an animal of a certain type.
b. John is a member of the cat family.
c. John is a kind of creature who hunts without weapons, killing and eating his prey.
d. John is brave.
e. John is to be feared.
f. You should be careful around John.

The addressee observes these interpretations to be blatantly false and starts to find reliable implications to interpret them. Understanding that 'John is a lion' to be a metaphor necessarily means optimising certain implications about the word 'lion' to mean 'brave', while not making assumptions such as that John is a member of a cat family (Clark, 2013:204-6)

Departing Gricean view of non-literal uses, RT have developed two different accounts of metaphor. Both of them are deflationary; they view metaphor as part of everyday language not a superior linguistic device. Relevance theorists do not believe that metaphor is a deviation of a form of communication. The first account assumes the similarity between the utterance and the thought it stands for and the second adopts the formation of ad hoc concepts. Recently, the second approach of metaphor within RT supersedes the first one as it is adopted within relevance-theoretic approach

to LP (Wilson and Carston 2007, Sperber and Wilson 2008). By considering the following example:

(43) Boris is a *chameleon*.

Paired with contextual constraints embracing the subject 'Boris' is interpreted as an adult male human being, the concept 'chameleon' would give rise to one of the encyclopedic information associated with it as chameleons are animals that change their appearance and behaviour according to their environment. Thus, this activation excludes that they are lizards, brightly coloured, with ready darting tongues, etc. This accumulated information is used to arrive at the intended implication and to form the ad hoc concept CHAMELEON*[6] (Carston, 2015:10).

For metonymy, Song (1998:95) postulates that metonymy is a lexical phenomenon frequently studied in relation to metaphor since it is difficult to draw a clear line between these two cases of language use. In his opinion, they are two varieties of loose use of language where metaphor claims points of resemblance between the form of the utterance and the speaker's thought, metonymy claims their relation by contiguity. To explain his view, he presents the following instance:

(44) The *ham sandwich* is waiting for his check.

It necessarily means that the man who orders a ham sandwich is waiting for his check. Thus, the expression 'ham sandwich' is loosely employed to indirectly indicate a person who orders it. The hearer recognises the utterance interpretation based on the assumption of relevance. Nevertheless, no logical or contextual expectations are shared between the communicated concepts, 'ham sandwich' and 'the man who ordered it'. Thus, they do not establish lexical modification of the encoded concept (narrowing and broadening), it rather involves a transfer of reference and meaning as postulated by Recanati (2002), Wilson and Carston (2007) and Falkum (2018).

2.3.2.3 Hyperbole

Another variety of broadening or loose use which is largely accounted for in relation to metaphorical uses of language is hyperbole. It is defined by the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary as "a way of speaking or writing that makes something sound better, more exciting, dangerous, etc. than it really is". Leech (1981:146) describes hyperbole, which is predictably found in literary and non-literary writings as well as the everyday use of language, as a figure of speech indicating exaggeration and overstatement that dates back to classical Greece, Roman rhetoricians and then to the European rhetorical tradition.

Demonstrating its characteristics, Claridge (2011:1) postulates that like metaphor, hyperbole is associated with the cognitive configuring of human faculty in describing, characterizing and evaluating (praising or satire) feelings, and events in a magnified way. It is a human nature not to be satisfied with the description of things and to enlarge them.

Claridge (ibid.: 8-9) elaborates that hyperbole involves three types of scales; semantic, pragmatic and argumentative. Semantic scales implicate linguistic common graded scales for example 'adored, love, like'; pragmatic scales signify the speaker's attitude towards a subject (extra-linguistic scales depending on the speaker's experience and his view of the world) and argumentative scales refer to linguistic and extra-linguistic scales relied on the requites of the argumentation. Broadly speaking, hyperbole is an intensified means utilised intentionally by the speaker in

the sense of gradability to have some effect on the addressee.

Furthermore, Claridge (ibid.: 6) elucidates that the study of hyperbole has some essential implications on the distinction between what is literally said and what is communicated and the degree of hyperbole can be shown in the different representations of the same affair in different

contexts. Therefore, understanding hyperbole by the hearer engages linguistic and contextual knowledge. Within Grice's theory, as in the case of metaphor and other figurative use of language, hyperbole is seen as a floating to the maxims of quality. The speaker would not obey the cooperative principle and its associated maxims in saying what he believes to be false or what he does not have evidence for. The result is a CI as in:

(45) Every nice girl loves a *sailor*.

The same position is retrieved in neo Gricean paradigm, hyperbole is viewed as a deviation from the maxims of quality. RT does not account for figurative language as a float to the cooperative principle and maxims. It believes hyperbole as a variety of broadening; an utterance involving a hyperbolic expression or phrase works as an ostensive stimulus having an expectation of relevance to the hearer which guides him with the available contextual information to yield a positive cognitive processing effect with the least possible processing effort (Sperber and Wilson, 2008: 619).

As an example, Blutner (2004: 491) provides the following utterance:

(46) The water is *boiling*.

The word 'boiling' may be used loosely to mean 'the water was close enough to 'boiling', or used as a hyperbole if it indicates that the water was 'hotter than expected'. Correspondingly, it should be emphasised that the mechanisms used to deal with metaphor as involving non-literal language, can be utilised in understanding hyperbole. First, the hearer notices that utterance is non-literal approximation or hyperbole, he would select optimal interpretation depending on logical properties and contextual information as exemplified below:

(47) That's the best essay I've ever read.

a. I have never read an essay as good as this one.

b. Every other essay I've read is worse than this one.

c. This is a very good essay.

d. I am very impressed by this essay.

e. I am far more impressed by this essay than is usual for me.

f. I think very highly of the student who wrote this essay.

Obviously, the hearer selects the most relevant implications from the third to sixth ones while leaving the first and second implications (Blutner, 2004:104).

2.3.2.4 Neologisms and Word-Coinage

Neologism is widely known as the construction or use of new words or new senses for existing words. It is a striking feature of living languages that their vocabulary is actively changing. Words have usually undergone changes due to social and cultural reasons. New words are constantly entering the language through mass media or the use of younger people. Thus, neologism is the process of new word coinage, word combinations or the use of new meanings for the existing words (Filimonova, 2011: 255).

New words may also be coined through vocabulary extension resulting from productive ways of word formation and borrowing or semantic extension of new meanings. Moreover, deliberate coinage is the result of one's creativity, ingenuity and imitation. The most widely used patterns of word coinage are affixation; 'denialist' (noun from a verb) a person who denies a scientific theory, conversion; 'to google' (from google) to search information on the google network, and composition; 'modlet' (noun)- (modern +outlet) an appliance that plugged into a wall outlet that monitors power usage of appliances, and occasional lexicalization; for stylistic purposes, as in 'ghost call' a phone call from an unknown person. In addition to these patterns semantic extension caused by changes in social life can be represented by the modification of the meaning of existing words such as 'hard drive' which originally meant

heavy traffic in a big city. It comes now to indicate a slow work of a computer (Filimonova, 2011: 257).

Neologisms enrich the theory of LP with further data about the nature of the mental mechanisms involved. Carston and Wilson (2007:341) postulate that new words can be understood as the existed words or their regular uses. Verbs like 'porched' and 'wristed' are derived from nouns as in the following examples, and the use of proper names into compound verbs or adjectives, as follows:

(48) The boy *porched* the newspaper.

(49) She *wristed* the ball over the net.

(50) He did a *Napoleon* for the camera.

(51) They have a lifestyle which is very *San Francisco*.

The utterances (49-51) above can be interpreted based on: first, knowing the encoded meaning of the nouns 'porch' and 'wrist' and secondly having reliable background knowledge about the context in which each of the nouns is used. The interpretations of 'Napoleon' and 'San Francisco' depend on having definite kinds of general encyclopedic information: about Napoleon's typical bodily view in public, and about the way in which people leisurely live in San Francisco.

However, understanding neologisms in other cases may not be easy since their interpretation depends not on common knowledge but rather on a specific context as in (52) below:

(52) Max tried to *teapot* a policeman.

The 'To teapot X' indicates 'to rub the back of the leg of X with a teapot'. It is worth noting that neologisms propose that lexical-pragmatic processes apply 'on-line' in a flexible, creative and context-dependent way (Wilson and Carston, ibid.:342).

According to RT, given that no two words can have the same sense, people are motived to use old words with new senses (neologism). Thus,

an utterance as ‘the man netted the fish’ is accepted in English since no word can convey the meaning of ‘netted’ are there. Still, ‘the man *ovened* the cake’ is not acceptable because of the existence of the verb ‘baked’. This idea seems to be in correspondence with RT assumption that the concepts people can form and communicate are further than the lexicalized words in our languages (Vega Moreno, 2007:97).

2.3.2.5 Pun-like Cases

No accord among scholars can be realized on the distinction between wordplay and pun. Some scholars believe them to be synonymous, while others consider pun to be one type of word play. Generally, puns are widely defined as a form of wordplay which proposes two or more meanings, utilising various meanings of words for an intended rhetorical effect.

Virtually, pun-like case is a figure of speech which utilises the deliberate confusion of words of the same form with different interpretations for rhetorical purposes (Giorgadze,2014:271-2). Words used in puns or wordplay, as Leech (1969:209) explicates, are of homonymous and polysemous nature. Homonymous words are mainly identical form words with different meanings as the case of the word ‘bank’ as used to mean ‘the bank of the river’ and ‘the bank for money storing’.

Within LP framework, Carston and Wilson (2007:242) argue that LP provides an understanding of cases involving elements of word play. They attested the following example to illustrate their claim:

(53) Not all *banks* are *river banks.*

Obviously, native hearers are likely to understand this utterance to be true and informative: they naturally interpret the word ‘bank’ as both ‘the river banks’ and ‘the financial institutions’. However, how this understanding can be interpreted may be explained as follows: either to metalinguisticaly account and for the word ‘bank’ as the set of things that are termed ‘banks’,

or to mean the construction of an ad hoc concept BANK* which denotes either ‘the set of river banks’ or ‘the set of financial institutions’.

Further examples are taken from Carston and Wilson (2007: 243) show the use of pun that can be understood physically and psychologically:

(54) His mind was as *cold* as the ice forming on the windscreen.

(55) His eyes were as *cold* as polar ice.

(56) Jane is as *hard* as nails.

(57) Sue is as *tough* as old leather.

The above examples of wordplay may suggest that lexical modification is a one-off process that may be used once and then forgotten, forming an ad hoc concept depending on a particular context that may never occur again. However, the outcome of some of these pragmatically formed concepts may be regularly and frequently used.

2.3.2.6 Category-Extension

It is commonly known as a term used to signify a specific case of broadening represented by the use of salient brand names such as (Xerox and Kleenex) for a broader category of photocopier, and disposable tissue respectively. It also involves the use of common nouns and personal names (Wilson 2003; Wilson and Carston 2007; Sperber and Wilson 2008 and Blutner 2011).

Wałaszewska (2020:26) illustrates this term by considering the following example:

(58) He is another *Shakespeare*.

The proper name ‘Shakespeare’ may be extended to refer to a category of talented writers or playwrights of which Shakespeare is an ideal member of. More examples of the use of common nouns are taken from Glucksberg (2001: 38-52).

(59) Brown is the new *black.*

(60) Mint is the new *basil*.

(61) Is oak the new *pine*?

In (59), the word 'black' means the category of basic colors in a fashion, the word 'basil' in (60) indicates 'a herb of the moment' and the word 'pine' refers to 'a trendy furniture wood'.

Thus, two types of category extension may be recognised; *limited* and *creative*. Limited category extension involves cases of common nouns illustrated by the use of the following example:

(62) Handing someone a paper napkin: Here's a *Kleenex.*

The word 'Kleenex' is extended to indicate a broader category of disposable tissues of any brand and paper napkins (Sperber and Wlison, 2008:90-1). Though, Sperber and Wilson do not obviously prompt the term limited category extension, it may be used to mean a limit in using a particular category that cannot be possibly extended.

Wałaszewska (2020:5) believes that some meaning modulation and category extension in particular may be interpreted based on the intended meaning of the speaker, however, not necessarily widely accepted among communicators. Hence, they have not undergone the process of socially stabilization and conventionalization which lead to the employment of the new meaning. Creative category extension, on the other hand, indicates the use of common nouns to refer to a broader category of individual member of a category that represents an ideal or its opposite.

(63) (Discussing Russia's foreign policy in the near abroad):

Putin is another *Hitler.*

'Putin', here, used to refer to a category of dictators and dreaming dominators where Hitler is a salient member of it.

Interesting examples of creative category extensions used by relevance theorists are those involved in the pattern 'X is the new Y', as in Brown is the new black (Wilson, 2004: 345).

All the cases mentioned above can be presented under the two LPPs varieties as illustrated in the following figure.

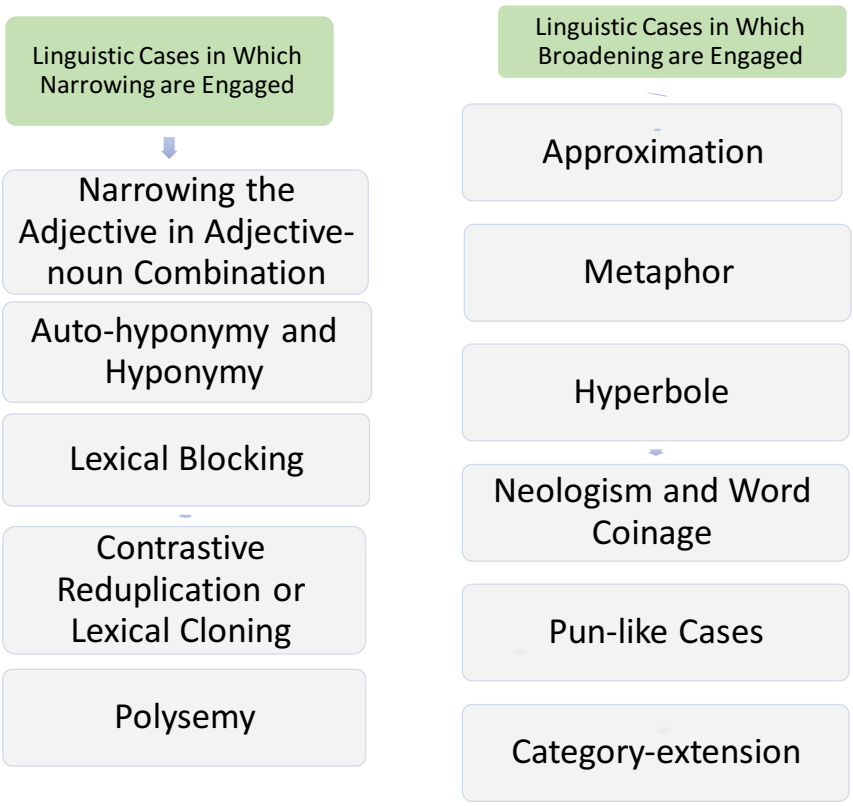

Figure (2.4) Linguistic Cases that Involve Lexical Pragmatic Processes in their Interpretation

2.3.3 Different Accounts of Lexical Pragmatic Processes

As it has been acknowledged, one of the major aims of LP is to investigate the LPPs that give rise to occasion-specific concepts. An adequate account of lexical narrowing and lexical broadening should explain how the hearer arrives at the optimal interpretation in different contexts. Two chief accounts can be distinguished in the literature of LP; *distinct accounts and unified (complementary) accounts*. Neo Gricean pragmatic approaches adopted the distinct processes accounts, whereas relevance theoretic approach assumed the unified accounts.

2.3.3.1 Distinct Accounts

According to Wilson and Kolaiti (2017:146), one of the distinguishing features of different approaches to LP is that narrowing,

approximation and broadening are viewed as distinct processes, and each one of them has its own mechanisms of interpretation. Levinson (2000:37-38), for example, treats narrowing as a case of I-implicature as it involves a default inference to a stereotypical interpretation. It suggests that the hearer is guided by the usual tendency of people to interpret utterances in line with their knowledge of what is marked. Inferences are triggered by the speaker's choice of a simple and unmarked form of utterance. Thus, the hearer interprets the utterance in a stereotypical way assuming it is the speaker's intention, otherwise if the speaker's choice is marked or unpredictable, he would provide more information to refer to his point.

(64) a. He opened the door.

+> in the normal way by turning the handle.

b. He opened the door by turning the handle quickly anti-clockwise.

+> not in the normal way (Levinson, 2000:112).

Based on Haiman 1985, Levinson (ibid.:113) argues that one of the well-attested features of humans is their tendency in language to give reduced expressions to the predictable and common cases. Furthermore, Levinson (2000:16-22) claims that default meanings are context-independent interpretations; they have relied on contextual assumptions therefore they have to be supported by PCI whenever it requires as illustrated by the following two examples:

(65)

Context 1

A: "What time is it?"

B: "Some of the guests are already leaving."

PCI: It must be late.

GCI: Not all of the guests are already leaving.

Context 2

A: "Where's John?"

B: "Some of the guests are already leaving."

PCI: Perhaps John has already left.

GCI: Not all the guests are already leaving

Levinson (ibid.:17) affirms that the hearer interprets the speaker's intention based on the utterance's general frequency and that "any statement of the form, some x are G, will, other things being equal, have the default interpretation, not all x are G" whereas the PCIs in the examples above may be recognised because of the maxim of relevance.

However, Hisgashimori (2003:223) clarifies that Levinson's account has been criticized by relevance theorists for two reasons; basically, it is inadequate since it assumes stereotypical inferences to be based on a great deal of knowledge (i.e. the knowledge that enables a commonsense analysis of familiar use of language). Secondly, it does not provide a clear account of the comprehension mechanisms involved in choosing the intended meaning.

The same thing can be said about approximation. It has been usually regarded as an instance of pragmatic vagueness. It upholds standards of precision as depicted by Lewis (1979) and Lasersohn (1999). Cricean approaches suggest that utterance's interpretation depends on the context of use. The vagueness is dealt with by referring to the immediate context to determine whether the lexical item is approximately or hyperbolically used as in example (41) above:

(41) This injection is *painless*.

Metaphorical extensions or figurative uses of language engage blatant violation of a pragmatic maxim of literal truthfulness to create implicature according to Gricean approaches. Horn (1984:35), for example, assume that broadening is always related to R-based implicature, e.g. 'Xerox', 'Kleenex' to indicate a case of category extension in which a salient member of a group is broadened to refer to the whole members of

the same class. For him, it is a case of form-function generalization or what he called *semasiological change.* Generally speaking, neo-Griceans (Levinson, Horn and Blutner) have given attention mainly to Grice's GCIs, they have said very little about loose cases of language which are context-sensitive uses (Kolaiti and Wilson, 2014:217).

Following Grice's theory, neo Gricean approaches could not present an adequate pragmatic explanation for LPPs. Objecting the Levinson's approach of stereotypical interpretation followed by Gazdar, Atlas and other neo Gricean pragmatists, Wilson (2003:146) argues that his explanation of narrowing process is insufficient. He did not deal with cases of narrowing of possible degrees or directions of narrowing as the word 'bird' which can be narrowed in different ways in different contexts.

(66) a. As I worked in the garden, a *bird* perched on my spade.

b. *Birds* wheeled above the waves.

c. At Christmas, the *bird* was delicious (Carston 2002).

To end up, while the traditional approach used to deal with cases of underdeterminacy as ambiguous cases, neo Gricean approaches virtually handle them inferentially by virtue of default stereotypical implicatures. They follow a modular (sequential) model in which literal meaning is given a priority. In interpreting a linguistically encoded word or phrase which meaning is underdetermined the literal meaning is stimulated first. If the literal meaning does not make sense in the given context, it will be abandoned in favor of the more reliable alternative as described by Giora (2012:149).

Pragmatists, then, have been led by this criticism to postulate alternative accounts as shown below.

2.3.3.2 Unified (Complementary) Accounts

As a result of her constant philosophically based attempts to develop relevance theoretic approach to LP, Carston (1996, 2002) postulates a

different account of narrowing and broadening. Her complementary view is a seminal work based on relevant theoretic premises. She postulates that both processes are required in constructed ad hoc concepts. The interpretation of the word 'bachelor' in the following example involves both broadening and narrowing.

(67) John is a real bachelor.

It might be broadened to incorporate married men who behave like bachelors, and narrowed to exclude men who don not behave in a bachelor-like way. The outcome of this explanation is forming an ad hoc concept BACHELOR* which, in view of the contextual assumptions, might involve a strict broadening that might be extended to maintain all the encyclopedic peculiarities of the linguistic content of the concept and some degree of narrowing excluding all unnatural, un relevant and unexpected information and aspects (Carston, 2002:112).

Carston's hypothesis has been viewed to be a developmental step of LP and RT. Vega Moreno (2007:50) reports that it is very important for relevance theorists to note this complementary position. Narrowing and broadening turned another corner with Wilson and Carston's (2007:5) claim that these two inferential processes involve the same interpretive mechanisms and that both contribute to the construction of ad hoc concepts. Hyperbole, approximation and category extension are viewed as more radical varieties of broadening. Therefore, narrowing and broadening are complementary processes, for which one is narrowing the subpart of the content conveyed by the linguistically encoded concept and the other extending it.

(68) My daughter, my princess.

The hearer is guided to an optimal interpretation after considering a subset of encyclopedic information of princesses (beautiful, attractive, loveable, etc.) forming an ad hoc concept of PRINCESES*, which is

narrower than the encoded concept as it conveys a set of real princesses features and broader than the encoded concept as it involves a set of individuals who fall outside its definition as young women who are not princesses, yet they are attractive, beautiful and loveable. As a consequence, the mutual adjustment makes a different contribution to the truth conditional content of the utterance. Carston (ibid.:51) shows the possibility of a single word to communicate a set of different concepts narrower or broader than the original encoded concept:

(69)

a. Her name is written in her email. (Narrowing - typed) WRITTEN*

b. Her name is written on the wall. (Narrowing - painted) WRITTEN**

c. Her name is written in my heart. (Broadening) WRITTEN***

d. Her name is written in English history. (Broadening and narrowing) WRITTEN****

Each case of the above examples would make a different contribution to the truth-conditional content of the utterance.

Carston (1996:114) arguably highlights that figurative uses in general and metaphor in particular are not different from literal uses. In interpreting the non-literal uses, the hearer is not likely to expect a literal interpretation of the speaker's assumption in all occasions. He always approves the propositional content of his utterance but he believes that in certain contexts the proposition departs completely from the linguistic content. Thus, relevance theoretic approach asserts that dealing with figurative use as a blatant violation of the maxim of truthfulness is not correct, since the speaker does not intend his utterance to be false. As the hearer is aware of this fact, the contribution of loose use guides him through broadening and narrowing the contextual information and pragmatic expectations to arrive at both the expressed proposition and the implicature. The final interpretation, based on the explicature and intended

contextual expectations, postulates an inferentially comprehensive basis for the implications derived.

Narrowing is a more flexible and context-dependent process and that can be shown by the different interpretations of the same lexical item in different contexts. The verb 'cut' in 'cut the lawn', 'cut someone's hair', 'cut a cake', etc. is interpreted differently in each context. They conclude that there is no stereotypical interpretation of 'cut' but instead standard ways of 'cutting the lawn, cutting someone's hair, etc. Each use of the verb involves narrowing the concept 'CUT'. This view implicates that the interpretation of the concept is narrowed in different degrees, and that the context and pragmatic expectations influence the direction of narrowing.

In fact, Sperber and Wilson (2002:276) afford different explanations for the accessibility of literal interpretation in certain cases without appealing to stereotypical interpretation. In most contexts, the normal interpretation requires less effort and therefore will be selected if it yields implications that best satisfy the addressee's expectations of relevance

2.3.3.3 Associative Accounts

The above discussed two accounts both distinct and unified are founded in one way or another on the Gricean inferential approach to meaning and communication.

Associative accounts of lexical processing, on the other extreme, have effectively focused on word properties associated with a concept in long-term memory, for example 'round' which is associated with basketball. They consider word properties of concepts in context-dependent cases depending on the accessibility principle. In interpreting a given word, the associated words would be accessible. A word like 'nurse', will be processed faster when it comes after processing the word doctor. According to these accounts, LPPs are local processes that are derived in

automatic blind interpreting process through association (Rubio-Fernandez, 2012:725).

2.4 Children's Short Stories

Before proceeding to discussing children's short stories, it seems appropriate to be acquainted with what childhood as a notion denotes. Kagan (1982:359) postulates that childhood typically refers to the early span of a humans' life. Beside infancy and adolescence, childhood is one of the three stages that a person passes through to adulthood. It is in turn divided into four stages based on psychological foundations. These stages are: *The Toddler Stage* from (18 months-3 years), *the Preschool Years* from (3-5 years), *the Early School Years* from (5-8 years) and *the Pre-teen Age Years* (preadolescence) from (8-13 years) (Lerer, 2008:2 and Cekaite, 2012:2).

Children's literature in England is said to have a long history. Its history cannot be detached from the history of children. Before 1700, stories were narrated and written for children to teach them what to believe and how to be good. In other words, the child's personality was shaped through stories whose main ideas were centered on the conflict between the good and bad (Lere, 2008:1).

The most prevailed forms of literature were folk tales, ballads, and epic adventure stories but these were not designed especially for children. However, children's literature did not receive much attention mainly because cultural and economic factors affected people's life at that time. That period witnessed a great neglect to children's emotions, and abuse to economic and investment. Later on, these stories were written to encourage children to develop their reading abilities. In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, children's literature perceived more interest as authors published books that suited children's need and desires. Consequently, classic works were simplified and prepared for children in

school libraries. Likewise, fairy tales and adventure stories were reproduced in attractive language and lovely styles (ibid.:2).

During the twentieth century, children's literature became a recognised literary genre. Hundreds of books for children were published due to the development of educational and psychological theories that emphasised the effects and implications of reading stories on the mental development of children. The remarkable themes of stories of that period are realism and science fiction (Cuddson,1979:114-5 and Stevenson, 2011:179).

Mohamed (2007:24) and Zhao and Jiang (2013:946) point out that children's literature can be defined as written works aimed at children where the aesthetic value is its distinctive feature. Their essential goal is entertaining, educating and inspiring children's sensations

2.4.1 Features and Elements

Short stories are widely known as a modern genre of literature. Traditionally, they are distinguished on the basis of their single event that one could read in one sitting. More recent, definitions rely on the maximum word considered. Most commonly, the optimum word count of a short story is ranged between 1000-10000 words. While shorter forms of stories are called *short short stories,* longer ones are referred to as *novellas*. Broadly speaking, they are usually concerned with a specific event expressed in only one or more major episodes or scenes. They are narrated in an economic setting and in less complicated plot. The characters are few and their development is not full. Nonetheless, they represent a complete form with a unified treatment of the subject and characters (Hansen, 2020:2).

Furthermore, Stein (1982:504) highlights that short story is distinguished from other types of narratives. Functionally, different types of narratives should postulate a higher order construct of discourse force;

newspapers are intended to inform the readers, stories in turn are designed to entertain the readers they are written for. It is worth mentioning that when he writes a story, the writer takes into his consideration the interest, needs and preferences of his audience.

Nevertheless, children's short stories share the usual elements of other types of fiction (*plot*, *character* and *setting*), but the details are reduced to cope with the presumed effect and mood. The plot of the short story literary refers to the sequence of events and their relation to each other in cause and effect pattern. They are usually written in an explicit simple form that may compromise several inferences or in a complicated way stimulating the children's thinking. The main structure of the plot is *exposition* (introduction of the situation including the main characters and the relation between them), *rising action* (rising of events through conflict), *climax* (the turning point of action), *falling action* (moving events toward the resolution) and *resolution* (the end of the story) (Shepard, 2000:2) and (Labov, 1972:369).

As for Shepard (ibid.:1-3), characters are persons, animals or animate entities in a short story. They are either flat or round characters; the former are fairly unsophisticated and remain without change throughout the events, round characters stand on the opposite side, they are dynamic rather complicated characters that develop throughout the story. The setting of the short story is where the action of the story happens. The theme of the story is the main idea of the writer, it represents his view of the world and people's behaviour and experience. Typically, it is not explicitly stated, readers have to figure it out through extracts from the characters and actions. Setting, on the other hand, includes spatial, temporal and cultural aspects of the story as where and when the story took place. It may play a key role in providing suggestive details help understand the events and the relation between the characters.

2.4.2 Types of Children's Short Stories

In the light of the perceived objectivity of English children's literature especially short stories and novels affecting children's personalities and teaching, hundreds of them have been published. Public and school libraries afford many works written and illustrated aimed at young readers from the preschool to adolescents. These works encompass *biographies, novels, poems, collections of folk literature*, and books that offer knowledge on arts and sciences in addition to some classical works simplified for young readers. Remarkably, children's literature has been categorized differently by people indulged in such genre. Barone (2011:59) classified these types into five main categories: *traditional literature*, *poetry, fiction, biography and information books*.

Traditional literature includes common books or stories that shared by many people who have been passed them down through the ages. Folktales, myths, fables, legends and ballads are the salient forms of such literature. They shared being short that they are concerned with the single effect and the polar nature of characters. Folktales often tell stories about people or animals who became human or about fairies. Myths are old stories that explain aspects of the world, creation, death and creatures. Roman and Greek myths tell stories about their gods and goodness such as Zeus and Athena (Barone, 2011:60).

Fables are brief stories in which the characters are animals or objects that behave like human. This type of stories is set to provide moral lessons with marvelous associations. Legends on the other hands are long stories talking about legendry heroes. They are verses from literature and adopted in prose for children. The last form of traditional literature is ballad which is a literary work that tells a dramatic story in verse. As stories written for children, they are adopted in prose (Pratt, 1977:45-6).

Poetry or nursery rhymes like prose stories are written for entertainment and teaching at the same time as teaching them instructional subjects such as the alphabet Fictional stories. Some of the best-known types of fiction are fantasies, adventures, mystery and defective stories, historical fiction and science fiction. Biography are recognised as works introduce children to the lives of famous people as religious leaders, scientists, artists, political readers, etc. in inspiring way. Non-fiction works present world of learning and science (Sutherland,1982:318).

2.4.3 Children's Understanding of Short Stories

As literary language is broadly characterized to be a dynamic and artistic language. Children's short stories are usually written in a literary language full of rich lively vocabulary used appropriately by the author in well-organized structures. Children in this literary genre understand the meaning communicated not only by words but via other illustrations. Thus, children through interaction with interesting stories will enrich their vocabulary and conceptualization (Dickinson and Porche, 2011:3).

Sperber and Wilson (1986:175) and Furlong (1995:52-3) maintain that like any form of communication literary discourse involves an intentional message. The communicator chooses the right and appropriate medium to convey his message. When the medium is the written text, the writer should provide evidence or clues to help his readers to arrive at his intentions on the basis of contextual factors. Shepard (2000:3) remarks that based on children's psychological and cognitive state, writers use a language that helps children to understand their intentions explicitly and implicitly. The stock of words usually used in this form of literature is restricted. Still, the assumption that the writers would not often enrich their writing with new words is not correct. Some of the added words are not straightforward but they can be understood in their context.

Children in their literary interpretation then exploit the same mechanisms used in spontaneous comprehension. It is likely to say that they differ in the time and the effort the interpreter expends as literary interpretation is more implicit process which requires more efforts to derive the positive effects (Toolan, 1988:209, Shepard, 2000:3 and Winch et al., 2010:7).

2.4.4 Children's Pragmatic Development

One of the fundamental questions in linguistics and cognitive science is how can children develop a pragmatic competence which enables them to produce and comprehend appropriately and effectively?

Following the wealth of research in developmental pragmatics, children usually learn the meanings of words rapidly. They also learn to use their stock of vocabulary relatively soon after the emergence of productive language as they are exposed to adults' interaction and when words are presented in a supportive context. Children's comprehension of words meaning is one of the outstanding features of human language learning. They have the ability to infer the meaning of words. Their ability is constantly improved alongside the acquisition of other linguistic aspects (Frank and Goodman, 2014:80).

Conforming these findings, Zufferey (2010:27) affirms that children's cognitive abilities play a key role in language acquisition and comprehension especially on the lexical and pragmatic levels. Children in pre-school stage are able to acquire a large stock of words with their semantic and structural properties. This stock of words plainly enables them to produce and understand straightforward sentences. However, understanding non-literally sentences is more difficult. Extensive research during the sixties, seventies and eighties of the last century endorsed that children at pre-school could not interpret metaphorical expressions appropriately. Only at age eleven or twelve they are able to do that as their

cognitive abilities have not highly developed to process non-literal language.

Consequently, studying children pragmatic development engages understanding how children learn to bridge the gap between the encoded meaning of words and phrases and the communicated meaning of the speaker and how this capacity develops throughout their lives. Early studies on children pragmatic development show that very young communicators were rather insensitive to speaker's intentions and communicated meaning. Nevertheless, the development of new methods and more theoretical research in this field has led to the re-evaluation of previous findings and development of new prospects and theories (Duke and Carlisle, 2011: 200).

A more recent study conducted by Grigoroglou and Papafragou (2017: 53) demonstrates that children can use pragmatic reasoning to assign referents and understand implicated and figurative meanings with respect to the speaker's intentions at age five. They conclude that the deficiency of cognitive abilities is not always the cause of misinterpreting figurative language. It may be attributed to other factors such as context, encyclopedic assumptions, and world knowledge. Equally important, children's cognitive abilities enable them to constantly develop pragmatic skills to communicate in adult-like way as a member of the culture and society. To be so, Papafragou (2018:167) posits that the child becomes able to bridge the gap between the linguistically encoded meaning of words and sentences and the speaker's communicated meaning in a context.

2.5 Previous Studies

After reviewing many Iraqi and foreign published and unpublished studies, very few M.A theses and Ph.D. dissertations have been found to be relevant in one way or another to the main lines of this study. Hence, the topic of the present study which is investigating LPPs in English

children's short stories, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, has not been tackled before. These identified studies are as follows:

2.5.1 Saeed (2005)

"Relevance in Children's English and Arabic Short Stories: A Contrastive Study", Ph.D. dissertation, (2005). University of Baghdad, College of Arts, submitted by Rihab Abdul-Jalil Saeed. The study is a pragma-linguistic study, deals with English and Arabic children's short stories in terms of relevance implicature according to Grice's standpoint. The study aims to clarify how surface events of some talk exchanges excerpted from a number of English and Arabic short stories are dealt with according to the concept of relevance by children of a certain age. The talk exchanges are taken from a number of English and Arabic short stories which are classified into two groups according to their age and analysed in the light of a model of analysis developed out of Grice's principle of implicature and maxim of relevance. She concludes that there are clear correlational links between the two varieties of discourse and linguistic factors that facilitate relevance implicature as pragmatic inference utilised by children. Though it investigates children's understanding of the intended meaning of the characters based on Grice's ideas, it differs from the present study that the latter deals with children's understanding of modified word meanings using two lexical pragmatic processes of narrowing and broadening following more recent pragmatic theories and approaches.

2.5.2 Deamer (2013)

"An investigation into the Processes and Mechanisms Underlying the Comprehension of Metaphor and Hyperbole", Ph.D. dissertation, (2013). University College London, UCL, conducted by Felicity Deamer. The study investigates the mechanisms and processes underlying non-literal uses of language comprehension. He aims to determine whether the

processes involved in metaphor comprehension converge from that in hyperbole comprehension. He reviews theoretical pragmatic and psychological approaches to figurative interpretation and examines them experimentally to find out the cognitive basis of their premises. He examines corpus-based data to explore children's cognitive abilities. The experiments he made have implications both for psycholinguistics on children's cognitive capacities as well as for LP. However, it apparently deals with literal and non-literal language understanding, it differs from the present study in orientation and application. The former tackles utterance interpretation using real corpus data based on psycholinguistic and cognitive perspectives. The latter deals with modified word meanings interpretation in children's short stories relying on lexical pragmatic perspective.

2.5.3 Hassan (2017)

"A Pragmatic Study of Relevance Theory in Selected Literary Texts", MA thesis, (2017). University of Diyala, College of Education for Human Sciences, conducted by Duaa Ali Hassan. The thesis aims to prove that RT can be employed to interpret literary texts. It utilises RT in analysing ten randomly selected texts from Arthur Miller's play 'Death of a Salesman' and Antoine de Saint-Exupéry's novel 'The Little Prince' as well as the first part of T.S. Eliot's poem 'The Hollow Men'. She finds out that RT is applicable to interpreting literary texts. Moreover, its comprehension procedure provides a better understanding of these texts. Despite providing an effective model for analysing literary discourse based on RT, it differs from the present work as it gives little attention to narrowing and broadening and their comprehension mechanism.

Notes to Chapter Two

1. The division of labour between semantics and pragmatics has significant implications on lexical inference and interpretation, (see Horn, 1989).

2. The distinction between encyclopedic knowledge and real-world knowledge which implies the distinction between semantics and pragmatics has much been debated within literalism and contextualism perspectives. The outcome of their difference in points of view by virtue of word meaning in addition to Grice's insightful ideas contributes to the emergence and development of LP.

3. For more details about it, (see, Langacker,1987; Tomasello, 2003, Paradis, 2012 and Lemmens, 2015).

4. Not all LP approaches, theories and models are based on Cricean program; there are other cognitively based approaches. Their key premise is to produce comprehensive account of lexical interpretation of non-literal uses.

5. For more details, see Horn:1984, 2004, 2007, Levinson, 2000, Blutner 2000, and Huang: 2003, 2005, 2009, 2010.

6. In RT, the asterisk (*) is put on the word to refer to an occasion-based concept or ad hoc concept.

CHAPTER THREE

MODEL OF ANALYSIS

3.0 Introductory Remarks

This chapter is devoted to the synthesis of the eclectic model intended to be used to analyse the targeted data. The proposed model of this study is fairly synthesized out of the pragmatic principles and schemes provided by the two-related lexical pragmatic models; Blutner (2000) and Wilson and Carston (2007). Its peculiarity is mostly derived from the literature reviewed in Chapter Two.

3.1 Models of Lexical Pragmatic Processes

As it has been demonstrated, LP basically aims at studying lexical meaning modifications in different contexts. In other words, how it is possible to bridge the gap between the semantic meaning and the speaker's meaning as a result of contextual differences (see 2.2). To achieve this aim, LPPs have been approached differently within semantics, pragmatics and cognitive science. However, semantic and cognitive details will not be focused on in the present study.

Blutner's (2000) and Wilson and Carston's (2007) models are thought to be appropriate representative models for neo Gricean and post Gricean perspectives respectively. Hence, they are synthesized to analyse cases of lexical modifications (underdetermined words meanings) in children's short stories to develop an eclectic model suitable for analyzing the selected data.

3.1.1 Blutner's (2000) Bidirectional Optimality Theory (BOT) Model

Optimality theoretic approach to LP is a neo Gricean approach in essence, it is generally regarded as a further step of development within neo Gricean approach. It shares insights with neo Gricean approach and

others with RT. This approach makes use of the general framework of optimality theory (henceforth, OT), the theory that has been engendered in phonology by Prince and Smolensky 1993 and soon successfully spread to other linguistic fields as morphology, syntax, applied linguistics and pragmatics (Blutner, 2002:27).

Examining OT in linguistics, as Jäger (2002:427) remarks, is favored for two objective reasons; first, its contribution of ranking and violable constraints which is part of the linguistic tradition. Second, and more importantly, OT typically offers a precise and mathematically based formulation of the idea of optimization. The notion of optimization, according to Blutner and Zeevat (2004:12), is more established in pragmatics than it is in other branches of linguistic study. They cite a number of pragmatists' works, including Zibf (1949), who balances between relevance and effort, Grice's conversational maxims (1984), Horn's (1984), Levinson's (1987) optimization of three principles, and Sperber and Wilson's (1986) optimal principle of relevance.

Blutner (1998:120) claims that OT represents a vital framework to consider different cases associated with semantic underdetermination. Later, he (2000:191) proposes *a bidirectional optimality theory* (henceforth BOT). His approach is mainly motivated by a reduction of Grice's maxims of conversation to Q-principle and I-principle.

The main insight of this model is that linguistic form is assumed to be optimally interpreted. It is bidirectional as it engages the speaker's perspective and the hearer's perspective motivated by the I-principle (minimizing the speaker's effort), and the Q-principle (minimizing the hearer's effort) as Blutner and Zeevat, (2004:10) state:

> The R-principle compares different possible interpretations for the same syntactic expression, the Q-principle compares different possible syntactic expressions that the speaker could have used to communicate the same meaning.

Thus, the addressee typically selects the optimal interpretation of the given form out of a set of candidates. To achieve this aim, he should expect that the speaker expresses the intended meaning through the use of the optimal form. Therefore, the optimal meaning of a given form is optimal only if it conforms to the S principle (for the speaker) and the H principle (for the addressee) (Van Rooy, 2003:173).

3.1.1.1 The Framework of BOT

Broadly viewed, Blutner (2000:196) maintains that BOT utilise the basic framework and main components of OT. It assumes a set of linguistic choices to be governed by the conflict between a set of violable constraints. The optimal candidate is that best satisfies the constraints (the less violated one). It systemizes the relation between the input and output by a mechanism of (Generator) GEN and (Evaluator) EVAL. Based on the constraints (CON), the candidates (CAN) are evaluated.

1. Generator (GEN)

This component as described by Blutner and Solstad (2000:30) generates, is "a set of tendencies that hold for observable properties of a language". It is assumed to be universal. It indicates the underlined representation of input which has undergone certain constraints. The input is filtered by the EVAL component to yield the output. The minimal violating candidate is defined as the optimal candidate.

2. Candidates (CAN)

Candidates represent the set of all possible elements that are freely generated by the GEN from the input that flows from the beginning of the process and gradually are reduced to one candidate in the output (Blutner, 2000:10).

3. Constraints (CON)

This component provides the criteria of strictly ranked violable constraints used to resolve the competing conflicts between candidates. It

is conventionally depicted that constraints are universal. The original theory of OT encodes two types of constraints; *Markedness and Faithfulness*. As McCarthy (2008:13-6) postulates, faithfulness constraints (well-formedness or structural constraints). Markedness constraints refer to the complexity of a given structure comparing to another structure. Unmarked properties of language are those structures that are considered to be most basic because they are present in all grammars. Unlike markedness, faithfulness constraints make sense only in phonology and syntax as they are full of unfaithful examples where there is a difference between the input and the output (Kegar, 2004: xi).

4. Evaluator (EVAL)

The last component is an interpretive one, it takes the function of evaluating the candidates and their ordering based on the given constraints (Blutner and Zeevat, 2009:9).

Outstandingly, the GEN component gives rise to a set of candidates CAN which will be evaluated EVAL employing certain constraints CON hierarchy and selects the optimal one with the lowest violation to be the output.

3.1.1.2 The Mechanism of BOT

To have a clear picture of OT and to illustrate some of its features, an example presented by Blutner and Zeevat (2004:8) could be employed. They suppose that there are two well-formed structures (forms) f_1 and f_2 that have similar meanings. GEN will allow the same interpretations for them m_1 and m_2. Using markedness constraints, F for forms and M for interpretations. It is assumed that the form f_1 is less complex (less marked) than the form f_2 and that the interpretation m_1 is less complex (less marked) than the interpretation m_2. F prefers f_1 over f_2 and M prefers m_1 over m_2.

Interestingly, Blutner (2004:18) mainly depends on Horn's (1984) two-principled theory in his treatment of CI. He considers them to be 'conditions' constraining possible enrichment pair <f, m> where f is the underdetermined representation (form) of an utterance raising various possible interpretations (m) and (iff) is the abbreviated form of (if only if). The constraints are as formulated by Blutner (ibid:507):

a. <f, m> satisfies the Q-principle iff <f, m> Gen and there is no other pair <f', m> such that <f', m> <f, m>

b. <f, m> satisfies the I-principle iff <f, m> Gen and there is no other pair <f, m' > such that <f, m' > <f, m>

Obviously, Q-principle selects the most optimal economic enrichment provided by the linguistic input by blocking all less optimal ones. The I- principle, in turn, selects the most harmonic economic interpretation as shown by using the following tableau.

	F	M	F→M	*F→*M	F→*M	F*→M
$<f_1, m_1>$					*	
$<f_1, m_2>$		*	*			
$<f_2, m_1>$	*			*		
$<f_2, m_2>$	*	*				*

Figure (3.1) An Optimality Theory Tableau (Adopted from Blutner, 2004:507)

3.1.1.3 Strong and Weak Versions of Optimality Theory

Blutner (2000:3191) considers two varieties of bidirectional optimality: *strong* and *weak.* Typically, the strong optimality assumes only one optimal unmarked form-meaning pair.

A form-meaning pair <f, m> is called optimal iff <f, m> Gen and (Q) there is no other pair <f', m> such that <f', m> <f, m> (I) there is no other pair <f, m' > such that <f, m'> <f, m> (ibid:21).

However, the weak one allows for pairing marked forms with marked meanings: **A form-meaning pair <f, m> is called super-optimal iff <f, m> Gen and (Q) there is no other super-optimal pair <f', m> : <f', m> <f, m> (I) there is no other super-optimal pair <f, m' > : <f, m'> <f, m>**

Wałaszewska (2015:18) illustrates both versions of bidirectional optimality using the following two examples:

(70) a. Black Bart killed the sheriff.

b. Black Bart caused the sheriff to die.

The verb 'kill' in (a) is the unmarked form that is associated with the default interpretation of killing, whereas the phrasal verb 'caused to die' in (b) yields a marked interpretation 'killing as a result of magic curses or an accident'. The strong version of the theory allows for associating (a) with the standard interpretation of killing (unmarked, default interpretation), on the other hand, it will not allow for associating the marked form in (b) with the unusual interpretation, in the production side as (marked vs. unmarked form) and interpretation side (unusual vs. standard interpretation). Therefore, the weak optimization wins over other interpretations as (unmarked vs non-standard interpretation) and (marked vs standard interpretation). It is called 'super-optimal pair' which Blutner (2004:18) defines it as:

> A form-meaning pair as super-optimal iff "there is no other super-optimal pair with a better [i.e. less marked – E.W.] form that expresses the same meaning, and there is no other super-optimal pair with a better [i.e. less marked – E.W.] interpretation of that same form.

Simply perceived, the super-optimal pair is the best pair that associates marked form and the usual interpretation of killing and no other pair can be granted.

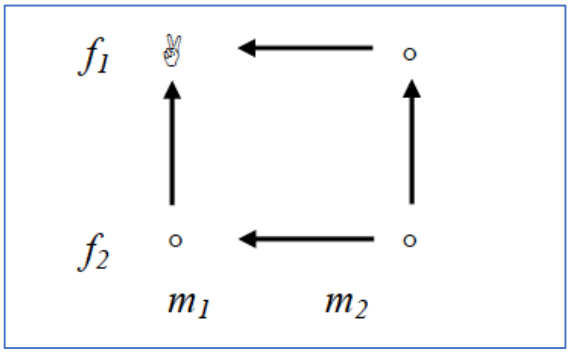

Figure (3.2) Strong Optimality Adopted from Blutner and Zeevat (2004:11)

Figure (3.2) shows the ordering relation between F, M pairs based on the difference of markedness constraints presented by F (form) and M (meaning). The arrows refer to the preferences which are presented in a two-dimensional diagram. The preferred (strong) pair is visualized as the meeting points of the two dimensions (ibid).

Blutner's BOT has been used to account for different linguistic cases in LP, yet the framework and mechanism followed in this model will be used by the current study with modification for two reasons:

1. Even though it presents a clear and objective pragmatic framework of analysis, it does not show the pragmatic elements that initially stimulate generating the candidates. Besides, it does not clearly consider the role of the context.
2. While it has largely been employed to account for pragmatic case in which narrowing process involved (see 2.3.1), it has ignored cases of loose uses of language which are later dealt with comprehensively by post Gricean approaches in terms of broadening process.

In the light of the reasons above, scholars as Van Rooy (2003) and Blutner and Zeevat (2009) suggest adopting BOT but not on the basis of Q and R principles but rather on the principles of relevance of RT. Consequently, only the components of BOT framework and its basic mechanism of GEN, CAN, CON, EVAL will be employed in building up the intended model of analysis.

3.1.2 Wilson and Carston's (2007) Model

In their study of lexical modification in different contexts, Wilson and Carston (2007:256) propose a unified model that is based on the general mechanism of RT. It accounts for LPPs of narrowing, loosening and metaphorical extension as the outcomes of a specific interpretive process that involves the same comprehension mechanism and yields an ad hoc concept. It is based on the general parallel utterance meaning

adjustment of linguistically encoded concepts, contextual assumptions and pragmatic principles. Thus, they provide an inferential model of lexical adjustment process based on RT premises and comprehension procedure.

Admittedly, Wilson and Carston's (2007) a unified model in which narrowing and broadening are accounted for not as distinct processes; each has its own comprehension mechanism. Rather, they involve the same comprehension mechanism of the interpretive process of a lexical item.

They (ibid:241) further suggest 'a continuum of cases' of broadening in which cases are extended from the literal use of language, approximation, hyperbole, metaphor to other figurative uses. Their a view rejects the literal-figurative discrepancy which demands different mechanisms of interpretation.

3.1.2.1 Premises of Relevance Theory

Wilson and Carston's (2007) model is founded on RT and its principles. As such, it seems necessary to restate RT premises and the relevant comprehension mechanism. As acknowledged earlier in Chapter Two (see 2.2.4.2.1), RT is based on the notion of relevance and the balance between cognitive effects and processing efforts in verbal communication. Both the principles of cognition and communication along with the relevance theoretic comprehension procedure are automatically activated by the hearer during communication. Following the comprehension procedure, Sperber and Wilson (1986) claim that the hearer needs to use certain pragmatic processes to arrive at the most optimal interpretation that satisfies his expectations of relevance (Allott, 2010:166).

Sperber and Wilson (1995:63) define relevance as the relation between an assumption and the context "ostensive-inferential

communication". The communicator produces an ostensive stimulus which manifests to the audience creating certain assumptions to be inferred on the part of the audience. As such, the notions of relevance, inference, mutual manifest and context are the basic notions of RT that Wilson and Carston's (2007) model relies on, therefore, they will be the main concern of the following subsections.

3.1.2.1.1 Relevance

Based on Wilson and Sperber (2012: 272), the notion of relevance refers to non-representational property of inputs including external stimuli (e.g. utterances, actions) or internal representations (e.g. thoughts and memories) to cognitive processes that can be evaluated in virtue of the number of contextual effects they have based on the principle of relevance.

Sperber and Wilson (2004:610) hypothesize that in communicating something, a speaker attracts the hearer's attention through a stimulus which is called ostensive stimulus. Typically, ostensive communication is represented by a dialogue. Communicating process is guided by pragmatic expectations which trigger the adjustment process are represented by the presumption of optimal relevance as explained below:

a. The ostensive stimulus is relevant enough to be worth the audience's processing effort.

b. The most relevant one is that compatible with the communicator's abilities and preferences.

To achieve its aim of relevance, a proposition activates a number of contextual assumptions in minimal processing effort.

Extent Condition 1: "An assumption is relevant in a context to the extent that its contextual effects in that context are large".

Extent Condition 2: "An assumption is relevant in a context to the extent the effort required to process it in that context is small" (Sperber and Wilson, 1995:125).

The conditions above indicate that relevance is a cost-benefit notion that engages a balance between the cognitive effects and the processing efforts.

i. Contextual Effects

To be relevant, an input has to yield a high cognitive effect and less processing efforts. Based on the context, the cognitive effect is the interaction of the new information with the existing assumptions. Positive cognitive effects, as Sperber and Wilson (1995:265) posit, are the changes that arise in the addressee's cognitive system. They involve developments in his representations of the world that are produced as an input in a particular context. Subsequently, not all changes are positive. The changes that add a new piece of information to old ones, update old information and recognize an existing knowledge are positive effects. Three types of positive cognitive effects are suggested by Sperber and Wilson (ibid:266):

a. Strengthening an existing assumption.

b. Contradicting and eliminating an existing assumption.

c. Combining with the context to yield contextual implication.

According to Ifantidou (2001:90-3), the first contextual (cognitive) effect is the strengthening of existing assumptions as explained below:

(71) (1) a. Do you like cats?

b. I don't like any animals.

i. If he does not like animals. Then, he does not like cats.

'He doesn't like cats' is an existing assumption, not a contextual implication. It is strengthened by the new information: 'He does not like

animals. The second cognitive effect contradicts the existing assumption. If the same example is considered as:

(2) a. Do you like cats?

b. I don't like animals.

i. He has a cat. He likes cats.

(i) contradicts the existed assumption: (b) 'He does not like animals'. The third is the contextual implication which is a conclusion derived from the input and the context (the new information) as illustrated in the following example:

(72) You decide to call Mary with the following thought:

a. If Mary is in, she must be writing her essay.

You call Mary and discover:

b. Mary is in.

From the existing assumption (a) and the new information in (b), the addressee can infer information not deduced from either (a) or (b) alone:

c. Mary must be writing her essay.

Thus, it is a contextual implication derived on the basis of the context.

ii. Processing Efforts

The efforts exerted during processing an input to achieve at a cognitive (contextual) effect through memorizing, inferring, and other cognitive processes are described by relevance theorists as processing efforts. Wilson and Matsui (1998:174) propose that the form of the utterance determine the hearer's processing efforts of an utterance; if the utterance is complex, then the hearer exerts more efforts to process it, and the accessibility of the context; if the utterance is easily accessed, less processing efforts will be required. Effectively, Wilson and Matsui (1998:196) suggest the following factors that determine the processing efforts:

1. The linguistic (form) complexity of an utterance in terms of the length of the utterance, order of the utterance, its syntactic complexity, order of mention and syntactic position.
2. The logical complexity of the utterance according to the thematic roles, the semantics of the main verb and the choice of expressions.
3. Overall salience
4. The accessibility of the context
5. Frequency of use.

To address these factors, different utterances need different degrees of processing efforts. Longer utterances, for example, typically require more efforts than short ones. Equally, novel words usually need more effort to be processed than common ones. To illustrate these factors, Ifantidou (2001:95) considers the following example in which Peter wants to arrive in Boston by plane as soon as possible, and wants to know when the next plane is. He asks Mary, who may answer him in one of these utterances:

(73) a. The next plane to Boston is at 5.30.
b. The next plane to Boston is sometime after 4.00.
c. The next plane to Boston leaves 7,500 seconds after 3.25.

It seems that answer (a) is more relevant to him as it entails the other two utterances, since 7,500 seconds after 3.25 is in fact 5.30. Answer (a) costs less effort than (b) and (c) to drive the intended information since it is shorter than and logically less complex than the other answers (ibid).

3.1.2.1.2 Inference

According to Sperber and Wilson's (1986:92-3), the comprehension process is global and non-demonstrative. It is essentially based on the idea of the construction of assumptions by deduction. Assumptions are viewed as structured range of concepts which consist of

three types of information in memory: **logical, encyclopedic** and **lexical** (see 2.4.2). The representation of a proposition according of these types of information, and the context in which it occurs to give rise to a number of assumptions which will be analyzed by "deductive elimination rules" involved in the deductive construction of assumptions.

The utterance produced by the communicator will be processed in virtue of their concepts information. Contextual aspects of the utterance that are based on the semantic and encyclopedic information will be inferentially deduced to arrive at the most relevant interpretation (Allot, 2010:69).

Prominently, Sperber and Wilson (1995:94) point out that the human mind has an intrinsic ability to deal with cognitive processes and mechanisms as logically analyzing utterances, comparing their formal properties and keep them in memory to be accessed for later use. The utility of inference rules is to govern the logical deduction process which guarantees the truth of the conclusions derived by the addressee.

3.1.2.1.3 Context

The notion of context is usually accounted for in terms of linguistic aspects and the non-linguistic aspects such as the social and cultural factors that influence the use of language.

However, in RT, the notion of context is rather psychological. Sperber and Wilson (1995:119) claim that the word 'Relevance' is a blurry term, accounted for differently by different people Then, they (ibid) find it tempting to say that "It might be persuasive to define it as: "An assumption is relevant in a context if and only if it has some contextual effect in that context". More accurately, Sperber and Wilson (1995:112) describe it as "the psychological construct, a subset of the hearer's assumptions about the world". Thus, the context is part of the cognitive environment of the addressee that are utilized in the process of

utterance interpretation which is guided by the expectation of relevance. It does not involve only the linguistic and nonlinguistic aspects of the text but also expectations about personal memories and beliefs about the mental state of the communicator and so on.

In verbal communication, certain facts are manifested to the addressee who will select the right context. Sperber and Wilson (1986:38) introduce the notion of cognitive environment to be "*a set of facts that are manifest to him"*. But what did they mean by manifesteness? Essentially, Carston (2010:378) clarifies that manifestness is "the degree to which an individual is capable of mentally representing an assumption and holding it to be true or probably true at a given moment". Being so, Clark (2013:114) points out that the notion of manifestness is weaker than knowledge "potentially inferred without being instantaneously invalidated".

More importantly, Sperber and Wilson (1995:39) highlight that the cognitive environment of the addressee involves the facts that he is able to represent in a similar context. The same facts and assumptions may be manifest to a group of people. Thus, these people share the same cognitive environment as they have access to the same assumptions. In effect, any shared cognitive environment that is manifested to a group of people is called 'mutual cognitive environment'. In the same token, any fact manifest to two interlocutors is mutually manifest.

As they (ibid:141) put it: "the selection of a particular context is determined by the search for relevance". The selection is determined by the memory of the deductive device as well as the short-term memory, encyclopedic information and non-linguistic environment which provide a set of possible contextual assumptions which are selected by virtue of expectations of relevance. Accordingly, successful communication

hinges on the potential contexts which the addressee and the communicator share (Zhonggang, 2006:44).

3.1.2.2 Comprehension Mechanism

Given the inferential comprehension procedure proposed by RT, Wilson and Carston (2007:254) consider LPPs as part of the overall parallel adjustment utterance interpretation guided by expectations of relevance. They (ibid: 6) treat narrowing and broadening as inferential processes.

They (ibid:251-5) propose a detailed unified explanatory account of LPPs. They argue that a reliable account of lexical processes must consider the following four questions:

1. What activates the lexical adjustment process?
2. What governs the direction of the adjustment process?
3. How does the mechanism of the adjustment process work?
4. When does it stop? (ibid. 2007:254).

They (ibid.) comment on these questions as follows:

1. What activates the lexical adjustment process?

Being part of the overall interpretation process of utterance, lexical adjustment usually begins with the logical proposition derived after the application of lexical enrichment processes to derive explicatures.

It follows the same comprehension procedure guided by expectations of relevance. These expectations are raised by the addressee's recognition of communicator's utterance as a communicative act that is worthy of processing and conforms to his preference and abilities; it answers questions like 'how' and 'why'. The expectations will activate the logical properties and encyclopedic information combined with contextual aspects of the utterance to drive conclusions.

2. What governs the direction of the adjustment process?

Based on RT, the search for relevance is the key principle that governs the whole process of interpretation from decoding the lexical item through the choice of the appropriate context to the satisfaction of the hearer's expectations.

3. How does the mechanism of the adjustment process work?

The decoding process of a word uttered activates a string of logical associated properties of the concept it stands for. This activation gives rise to deductive inferences to be drawn. It also activates a range of accessible encyclopedic information enabling further inference to be drawn. Here comes the role of contextual information items to be processed such as the world knowledge with the activated encyclopedic and logical properties which enables contextual assumptions and implications to be driven. The address will follow a path of the least effort to yield the best relevant conclusions which are guaranteed by narrowing, broadening or the combination of the two (Wilson and Carston, 2007:258).

4. When does it stop?

According to RT, the adjustment process stops when the addressee arrives at the first comprehensive cognitive effect with the least effort. To provide a closer look at this process, Carston (2015:9) presents the following utterances about a man in his forties, Boris, who has been married for many years:

(74) a. Boris is a bachelor.

He claims that the concept (BACHELAR*) is broadened to be interpreted as a married man who has no emotional commitment and narrowed as it eliminates unmarried men who do not have domestic responsibilities. Carston (ibid:11) discusses that the interpretive process of forming conclusions such as (a) and (b) are obviously developed out

of linguistic decoded meaning in parallel with contextual assumptions using mutual adjustment processes to arrive at the optimal interpretation.

b. Boris prefers to avoid domestic responsibilities.

c. Boris enjoys going out with his friends and meeting new women.

To clarify the lexical adjustment process, Wilson and Carston (2006:408) present the following table for the word 'angel' in the example below:

(75) Peter: Will Sally look after the children if we get ill?

Mary: Sally is an angel.

Table (3.1) Lexical Adjustment Process of Narrowing and Broadening

(a) Peter has said "Sally is an *angle*".	Decoding of S's utterance.
(b) S's utterance is optimally relevant to H.	Expectation raised by the recognition of S's utterance as a communicative act (presumption of relevance).
(c) S's utterance will achieve relevance by qualifying the *angle* S refers to.	Expectation raised by (b).
(d) *angle* is a supernatural being of certain kind.	Assumption activated both by the use of *angle.* Accepted as an implicit premise of S's utterance.
(e) *angle* activates certain encyclopedic properties of being (good angels, guardian angels, avenging angels, dark angels, and so on)	Assumption activated both by the use of the word *angle* to enable more conclusions to be deduced as *Sally is a good angle*.
(f) Sally is kind, helpful and watchful. who is ready to look after children.	Implicit conclusion derivable from (d) & (e), together is received additional activation from other items of the context to be relevant-as expected.
(g) Sally is an angle (where ANGLE* is exceptionally good, kind and helpful, and so on).	Interpretation of the explicit content of Mary's utterance as decoded in (a) which, together with (d) and (e), would imply (f).

(h) S's Sally is an ANGLE* denoting a good, helpful and kind person as angles who looks after children.	By narrowing the concept ANGLE to mean good angle and broaden it to denote a category of people who are kind and good. The overall interpretation of S's utterance (explicit content plus implicatures) would satisfy the expectation of relevance in (b). Accepted as S's meaning.

Unlike BOT, Wilson and Carston's (2007) model is regarded a descriptive model. It deals with linguistic aspects that plainly explain what triggers the interpretation process. Its significance also lies in providing an account for both types of LPPs (i.e. narrowing and broadening). Therefore, the mechanism mentioned above is supposed to be followed in the analysis of narrowing and broadening cases identified in the selected data. Yet, two things should be realized:

1. The current study cannot adopt Wilson and Carston's mechanism as such. The followed mechanism involves getting some changes done in relation to contextual factors compatible with the nature of the data under analysis (i.e. children's comprehension) which will be discussed in the following section.

2. RT has often been criticized for assigning priority to the hearer's direction. It aims to reveal how the hearer arrives at the optimal relevant interpretation with less effort in communication. Scholars as Blutner and Zeevat (2009) and Van Rooy (2003) argue that it is equally important to account for relevance from the communicator's point of view.

To conclude, then, the model proposed by this study is composed of two lexical pragmatic models offered by Blutner (2000) and Wilson and Carston (2007).

3.2 The Eclectic Model of Analysis

The model that the present study is inspired by some discussions of LPPs and how they are differently approached in LP in Chapter Two,

reviewing abovementioned models in addition to the further observations and elaboration.

The current model gets use of the contributions of neo Gricean and post Gricean approaches to LP. Its prime aim is to inspect how LPPs can be used to interpret linguistic cases of modified words meaning in accordance with children's context. The model, then, consists of two levels: **The adjustment level, and the explanatory level.** Wilson and Carston's (2007) model will be employed in the first level to demonstrate the adjustment process that the underdetermined word undergoes. Then, Blutner's (2000) model is utilized in the second level to systematically explain the process of optimizing the super optimal interpretation.

Due to the fact that analyzing LPPs of narrowing and broadening is so detailed which may confuse the analysis of the selected undetermined word in an exchange, the analysis will be conducted in terms of separate categories in each level as illustrated in the following subsections.

3.2.1 The Adjustment Level

Following the inferential model of communication, two types of cognitive processes are involved in words and utterance interpretation; *decoding* and *inference*. It necessarily means that linguistically encoded meaning, contextual implications and pragmatic expectations are integrated into an adjustment process. Therefore, the adjustment level of analyzing LPPs consists of two stages: **decoding and inference**. At this level, the type of the used LPPs will be identified, then linguistic and contextual cues utilised by writers making his readers (children) arrive at their communicated meanings will be detected and recognized. As acknowledged above, the whole process of interpretation and adjustment will be described in separate categories for illustration.

3.2.1.1 The Decoding Stage

Decoding is thought to be performed in an autonomous linguistic module. The semantic representations are to be manifested as a string of concepts with their logical properties and encyclopedic information. These representations are to be combined with other available contextual information items processed in pragmatic module. Following Wilson and Carston (2007), the semantic representation of the linguistically encoded words is to be realized by means of identifying the logical properties and encyclopedic information of the given lexical items.

3.2.1.1.1 Linguistically Encoded Meaning

1. Logical Properties

According to Sperber and Wilson (1995:72), logical form is a semantic representation that is encoded by the sentence uttered. The derived propositional content of words is the concepts with their logical properties. They are viewed as incomplete conceptual representations activated by the linguistic encoded word and can be combined with encyclopedic information and contextual information items to yield presumed conclusions.

They (ibid:94) illustrate the function of this semantic representation by elaborating that understanding the communicated meaning of a word involves knowing the meaning of that word and other words associated with it in the lexicon.

(76) The logical properties of 'an angel' are:

SUPERNATURAL BEING OF A CERTAIN KIND.

2. Encyclopedic Information

The second type of information a concept has is the encyclopedic information. It encompasses the denotation and connotation of the concept in addition to other properties associated with it. Allied with RT, expectations of relevance are usually raised by recognizing the

similarities and connections between the words domains (Sperber and Wilson, 2007:24). Assuming their effect on children's interpretation, Evans and Gamble's 1988 for example conduct an empirical study testing children's; between eight to twelve years old, ability to interpret metaphors. They conclude that children would be able to interpret metaphors accurately based on their encyclopedic knowledge. However, Gibbs (1990: 3) illustrates that children's task to interpret figurative language is more difficult than adults' task since their world's knowledge is richer because they have more life experience. Hence, interpreting complicated cases of literal and non-literal uses of language obviously requires the child to have a detailed encyclopedic knowledge about relevant features to words domain.

On the same vein, Kitsch (1994) cited in Barnes et.al. (1996:217) suggests that knowing word's domain enables children to comprehend what they heard or read. Inferencing non-literal expressions requires integrating world knowledge and encyclopedic knowledge. Based on the availability of these knowledge sources, children ranging between six to thirteen years old could infer non-literal expressions. Their performance was perceived differently according to their long memory and their age.

The encyclopedic entry for the word 'good angle' contains a set of assumptions about angles as reported by Wilson and Carston (2007:24):

(77) "EXCEPTIONALLY GOOD AND KIND,
WATCHES OVER HUMANS AND HELPS THEM WHEN NEEDED,
VIRTUOUS IN THOUGHT AND DEED, MESSENGER OF GOD, etc."

According to recent work in psychology, these entries are stored in the individual's mind and can be highly accessed as a unit. In hearing that someone has a pet, the information activated associates with cats and dogs unless other information is given. Thus, these entries contain factual

assumptions about a concept that depends on the individual's knowledge and experience.

It should be mentioned, here, that MacMillan Children's Dictionary is used in the present study to represent children's mental lexicon and handy used dictionary they could resort to. It is a widely used and fully illustrated British dictionary. It has 35000 entries and 3000 images. This dictionary is intended for children aged (8-12) years. As such, it is utilised to provide the logical properties and encyclopedic entries for the purpose of analysis. Interestingly, the present study will follow Wilson and Carston's style in writing the logical properties and encyclopedic information.

3.2.1.2 Inference Stage

Inference is performed in the pragmatic module where representations, encyclopedic information and contextual items of the encoded a word or a phrase are narrowed or broadened to yield the communicated concept. As far as the data of the present study is concerned, contextual assumptions (information) are activated through pragmatic expectations of relevance to yield contextual items. Out of these items coupled with logical properties and encyclopedic information, the child infers the writer's communicated meaning.

3.2.1.2.1 Contextual Assumptions

Assuming the influence of context and that it is not a static but rather a dynamic and variable concept. It differs from one user to another and from one group of users to another (Mey, 2001:41). Contextual implications and assumptions can be realized by means of contextual information provided by Deamer (2013:225) which believes to affect children's interpretation and yield contextual assumptions: **mutual manifest, world knowledge, illustration and propositional attitude.**

1. Mutual Manifest

As it is highlighted in (3.1.2.1.4)**,** the cognitive environment of the addressee involves the facts that he is able to represent in a similar context. The same facts and assumptions may be manifest to a group of people. Thus, these people share the same cognitive environment as they have access to the same assumptions. In effect, any shared cognitive environment that is manifested to a group of people is called 'mutual cognitive environment'. By the same token, any fact manifests to two interlocutors is mutually manifest. Sperber and Wilson (1995: 59-61) propose two kinds of the speaker's intention:

Informative intention: to make manifest or more manifest to the audience a set of assumptions.

Communicative intention: to make it mutually manifest to audience and communicator that the communicator has this informative intention.

As Sperber and Wilson (1995:141) state: "the selection of a particular context is determined by the search for relevance". Remarkably, the selection is determined by the memory of the deductive device as well as the short-term memory, encyclopedic information and non-linguistic environment providing a set of possible contextual assumptions which are selected by virtue of expectations of relevance. Accordingly, mutual manifest is a necessary condition of adults' successful communication which hinges on the potential contexts which the addressee and the communicator share (Zhonggang, 2006:44).

In this model, mutual manifest is proposed to investigate its influence on children's interpretation. It will be determined by the potential contexts that are provided by encyclopedic information. Basing on such information, certain facts about the context of the undetermined (modified) word will be identified.

2. World Knowledge

Interpreting utterances, in general, involves a process of decoding and inferring the speaker's intention. Thus, based on their knowledge, as Frank and Goodman (2014:80) assume, speakers choose their words in a particular context to guide their addressees to make pragmatic inferences understanding the explicit and implicit meanings.

Pointing out world knowledge (background knowledge), Fetzer and Fischer (2007:2) state that it includes the non-representational beliefs, assumptions and practices shared by the communicators that enable them to predict intentional acts and events. As such, Rubio-Fernandez (2012:725) acknowledges that the use of the word 'basketball' in the following example is understood relying on world knowledge.

(78) John didn't know how to swim, so when he fell into the water, his best friend threw him a *basketball*.

Depending on the context, the hearer can infer that 'basketball' is used as a life preserver because it can be used to stay floating.

Moreover, Searle (1995) asserts the significance of world knowledge. For him, it is a necessary condition for the interpretation of literal and non-literal meaning as a principle to its success. As far as the hearer is concerned, Wilson and Carston (2007:26) claim that the hearer's world knowledge (background knowledge) not only provides him with a knowledge to infer the speaker's meaning but rather, affords him with further contextual implications to narrow his interpretation and minimize his effort especially in understanding novel and non-conventionalized metaphors. Accordingly, world knowledge can be investigated based on the beliefs, assumptions and practices provided by the context.

3. Illustration

Children's short stories are usually aided by pictures and texts as illustration. Authors of children's books usually agree that illustrations

play a substantial part as they help children grasp what they are reading by expanding their vocabulary and letting them build diverse worldviews. This view has been supported by a significant bulk of research as Brookshire, et al (2002: 2-7) affirms.

Additionally, Fang (1996:140) asserts that authors use illustrations in this genre to serve several functions as capturing the child's attention, developing the child's awareness, developing his experience, elaborating the plot, and enforcing his imagination. More importantly, illustrations create a context that helps children better understand new and unfamiliar words, abstract words and words with more than one meaning since young readers do not enjoy a rich experience and world knowledge.

4. Propositional Attitude

Sperber and Wilson (1986:73) hypothesize that human mind not only has the ability to form and store logical forms with their attributed encyclopedic information but also process them differently. A certain linguistic form is stored as a description to a state of affairs, desire or belief. They (1995: 285) elaborate that utterances convey the utterer's attitude through syntactic means; **the use of the mood of the verb**. In English, there is a correspondence between type of mood and different attitudes they convey. Inductive mood usually conveys the attitude of belief, imperative mood expresses order and suggestions and the subjunctive mood which communicates the hypothetical situations, wish and desire. Other attitudes are conveyed by lexical means such as **discourse markers** (alas, oh, eh, but, so, etc.); **discourse adverbials** (sadly, angrily, seriously, etc.) and **parentheticals** (I think, he supposes, they expect, etc.).

Within inferential approaches, these contextual items play a key role as they help understanding the content words inferentially. Hence,

they behave as constraints on the interpretational procedure. To conceive their role, Wilson (2012:25) illustrates how ‘but’, ‘so’, ‘after all’, are used to guide the comprehension process.

(79) a. It's raining, so the grass is wet.

b. The grass is wet. After all, it's raining.

c. It's raining, but the grass is not wet.

The point in (a) is that ‘so’ signifies what follows is a contextual implication of the fact ‘that the grass is wet’. As for (b), ‘after all’ indicates that what follows is intended to affirm the preceding claim that the grass is wet. While (c), ‘but’ captures that what follows provides evidence against a potential implication of the preceding claim that it’s raining.

This factor is generally defined by the cognitive ability exclusively developed in human beings to identify others’ features, beliefs, and desires. Mindreading ability is an essential feature of human communication as RT describes. The language user knows how to use linguistic sources (vocabulary and grammar) to establish the communicative intentions. This ability also demands capturing what the speaker knows and believe and what he does not, his desires and how to respond in particular situations based on the available context (Woensdregt and Smith, 2017:2).

According to psychological experiments such as (Gardner and Winner’s 1984, Reddy 1991, Sperber 1994, Tomasello 1999 and Papafragou, 2002) prove that children have this mindreading ability early in their life. In his study, Papp (2006:143-5) sheds some light on children’s mind reading abilities as he believes that they can distinguish peoples’ *propositional attitudes* and emotions from *natural signs* via facial expressions and eye gaze and other non-verbal signs in face to face interaction. This factor can be analyzed differently; as a conscious

process, part of general purpose reasoning abilities that employs 'semantic, logical and statistical characteristics of the input'. Within RT, it is analyzed as a special component of the mind which is dedicated to inferential processes of communication.

3.2.1.2.2 Pragmatic Expectations

According to Wilson and Carston's (2007) model, pragmatic expectations represented by the presumption of relevance can be illustrated by the four questions mentioned in (3.1.2.2).

In sum, the decoding process is activated by expectations raised by the underdetermined word which activates a string of logical associated properties. This activation gives rise to deductive inferences to be drawn. It also activates a range of accessible encyclopedic information enabling further inference to be drawn. The assumptions resulting from the contextual information items enable conclusions and implications to be driven. The addressee will follow a path of the least effort to yield the best relevant conclusions which grantee his expectations of relevance.

3.2.2 The Explanatory Level

At this analysis stage, the model shows the relationship between the input and the output. It provides an answer to the following question: On what basis can the child consider an assumption to be the writer's intended meaning? That is, how he can select an interpretation to be the writer's communicated meaning. The framework of BOT will be applied to explain the competition among presumed representations (forms) and their interpretations (meanings). However, as recommended by Blutner (2002) and Van Rooy (2003), relevance principles; the cognitive effects (R principle) and cognitive efforts (E principle) will be the basis for BOT framework rather than the Q and R principles which the original theory is founded on. The explanatory stage of the eclectic model will be illustrated below.

3.2.2.1 Generators (GEN)

This component will state the deduced conclusion yielded in the adjustment stage in addition to a competitive interpretation closer to the linguistically encoded meaning of the given lexical item.

3.2.2.2 Candidates (CAN)

The assumed generated candidates will be symbolized as C1, C_2, in which the given form will be represented as f_1 and the two interpretations represented m_1, m_2.

3.2.2.3 Constraints (CON)

The constraints employed in the eclectic model are based on the contextual effects and the processing efforts. As mentioned earlier, the former represents the writer's relevance (R principle) and the latter stands for the child's processing efforts (E principle); Following neo Gricean approach in labeling the principles. Thus, the conditions acknowledged in (3.1.2.1.1) can be restated as the used constraints in this model:

Extent Condition 1 (R principle): An assumption is relevant in a context to the extent that its contextual effects in that context are large.

Extent Condition 2 (E principle): An assumption is relevant in a context to the extent that the effort required to process it in that context is small.

3.2.2.3.1 Contextual Effects (R Principle)

Each candidate, then, will undergo the following constraints to reveal its relevance in terms of cognitive effects as whether they achieve the following positive effects or not:

1. Strengthening the Existing Assumption (R_1).

The contextual effect is relevant if it strengthens an existing assumption. As such, the candidate which satisfies this constraint will be more relevant than the other competing one.

2. Contradicting or Illuminating the Existing Assumption(R_2).

When the candidate disapproves or contradict an existing assumption, it will be more relevant than the other candidate.

3. Creating Contextual Implicature (R_3).

Conjoining with contextual information manifested to the child, the candidate creates an implicature that best satisfies the child's expectation will be more relevant than the other competing one.

3.2.2.3.2 Processing Efforts (E Principle)

The candidates will undergo the following constraints to test their relevance by virtue of the processing efforts they exerted. The less efforts a candidate exerts, the more relevant it is.

1- Linguistic Complexity (E_1)

Since, this literary genre is usually written using simple linguistic elements and structures, the processing efforts will be accounted for according to the length of the candidate. The longer it is, the more processing efforts it spends. To address this issue, the length will be counted in terms of the number of content words and function words an assumption has.

2- Logical Complexity (E_2)

The logical complexity of the candidate is accounted for in term of its closeness to the word's literal meaning. The closer the candidate's meaning is to its linguistically encoded meaning, the less processing efforts it demands.

3. Frequency of Use (E_3)

Following Dagmar and Harris (2015:54), in experimental psychology, frequency is used to express how frequently a word or a phrase is and processed in a context. Frequencies can be obtained in different ways based on different perspectives. Works on linguistics and lexicology account for the frequency of an individual word in relation to the context of occurrence. Basing on (McEnery and Hardie 2012 cited in

Dagmar and Harris, 2015:58), the frequency of words is typically studied in their phrasal or sentential contexts. Words that are regularly used are those which are associated with a grammatical construction or important concept. As such, these words are ranked before less regularly used in dictionaries.

Accordingly, in this model the frequency of use is accounted for in terms of its ranking; the sequential order of the word meanings, in Macmillan Dictionary for Children (2013). If the word has four entries, for example, the first and the second entries are more frequently employed than the third and the fourth ones. Hence, they are more frequently used in their contexts. That is, they are more relevant than the less ranked meanings.

4- Accessibility of the Context (E_4)

Wilson and Sperber (1998:15) argue that the accessibility of contextual assumptions plays a key role in the interpretation of words and utterance. They believe that in interpreting an utterance, the hearer is given instant access to his encyclopedic assumptions about it which may contain relevant schemas describing regular sequences of actions and their causality. If the utterance has a mental representation, it will be processed with less effort.

Consequently, in the normal situation, normal assumptions are the easiest to access on condition the interpretation satisfies the principle of relevance such as the marked use of 'keys' to open 'doors'. However, in other situations when the utterance has no mental representation, the other contextual factor will help the hearer predicts the communicated meaning. Causal stories are highly accessed because they give rise to the consequences of events. In reading detective stories, for example, un normal assumptions will be accessed easier than normal ones as in using 'handkerchief' to open 'doors' to avoid leaving fingerprints. The most

accessible interpretation, then, is that related to the broader context (Wilson and Sperber,1998:16-7).

To conclude, accessibility is a matter of degree. Therefore, in this model, assumptions are tested according to the easiness or difficulty of retrieving an assumption from memory in normal situations or of creating it based on the available contextual clues. The more relevant assumption is the easier accessed.

3.2.2.4 Evaluators (EVAL)

As it is, relevance can be evaluated based on the interaction between two dimensions; the great contextual effects the lexical item yields, the more relevant it is, more processing effort the lexical item is required, the less relevant it is. Therefore, the assumption will be evaluated and selected according to these dimensions. Following Blutner (2004:18), the model supposes that there is a linguistic form of the underdetermined word f_1 which raises various interpretations (meanings) m_1 and m_2. Depending on relevance 'conditions' constraining possible enrichment pair <f, m> as follows:

a. <f, m> satisfies the R-principle iff <f, m> is contained in GEN and there is no other pair <f', m> such that <f'', m>.

b. <f, m> satisfies the I-principle iff <f, m> is contained in GEN and there is no other pair <f, m' > such that <f, m'' >.

Obviously, R-principle selects the most optimal relevant assumption that its effects are large. The E-principle, in turn, selects the most economic interpretation which effort required to process it is small resulting in a super version (super optimal interpretation) and weak version (super optimal interpretation). The asterisk (*) is used to indicate the violation of the constraints. If it is not found, the assumption, then, satisfies the given constraints. The less violated constraints assumption is the super optimal on (☞<f1, m1>) as shown below.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
☞<f1,m1>			*			*	
<f2, m2>	*			*			*

For more illustration, the model discussed above which will be utilized for analyzing the data under scrutiny in advanced is schematically presented in Figure (3.3) below, where each arrow ( ) is to be read as '*by means of,* ( )as *includes,* ( ) *leads to*, and ( ) as affects the other.

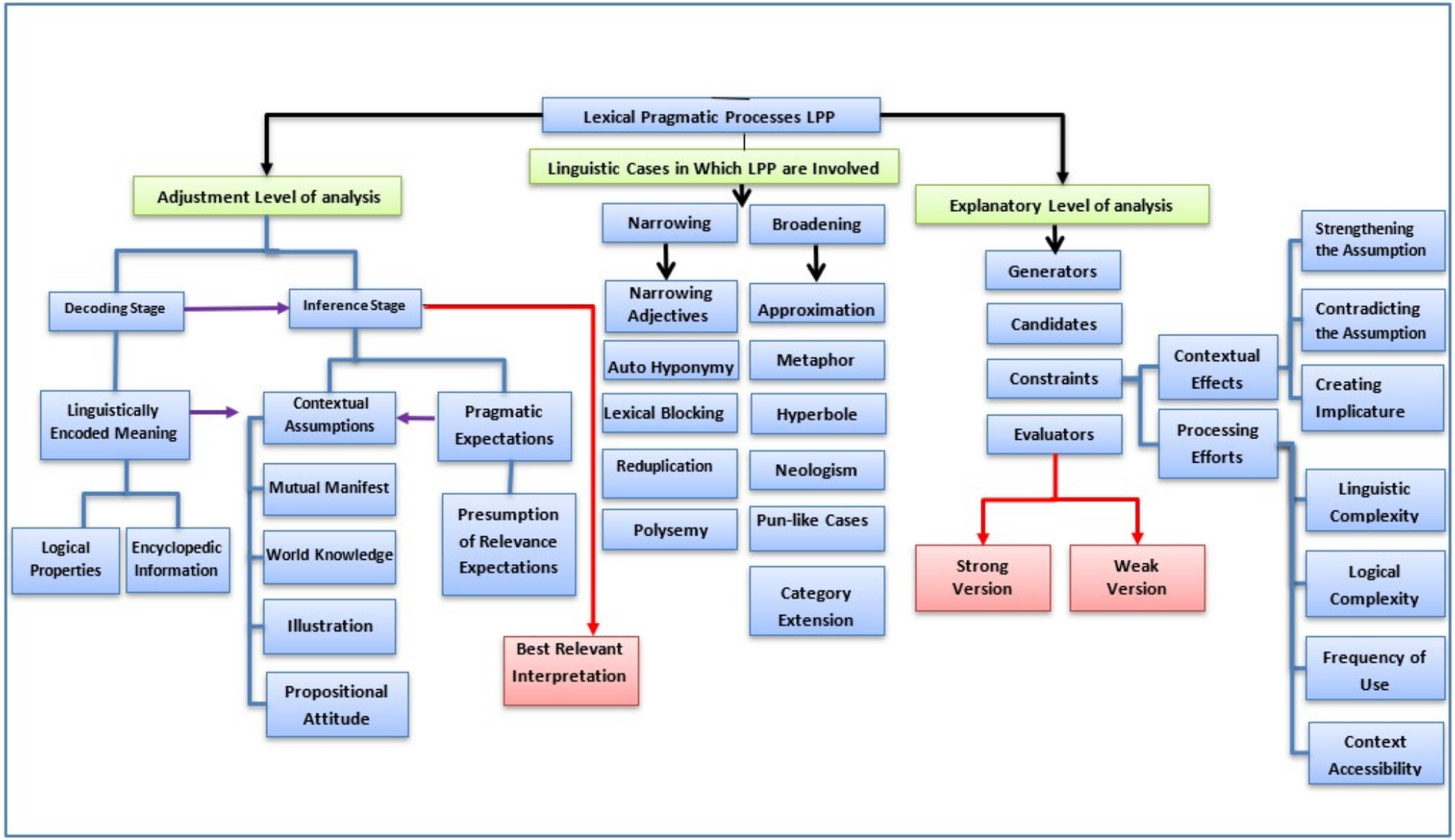

Figure (3,2) The Eclectic Model of Analysis

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA AND ANALYSIS

4.0 Introductory Remarks

The present chapter is dedicated to the practical part of the current work. It is essentially concerned with collecting, describing and analysing the data under scrutiny by means of specific methods of analysis. Practically, the analysis consists of qualitative and quantitative methods combined to obtain sound clear results. Based on the analysis, the findings and results are discussed and presented.

4.1 Data

4.1.1 Data Collection

The selected stories represent five different types of children's short stories. They have transcribed PDF forms published on the website "Book Trust: Getting Children Reading". To guarantee their authenticity, no change or manipulation is made to the stories analysed.

The stories are written in standard English by a group of eminent writers known for their children's stories and books. The information about the stories is indicated in the following table which contains a list of the titles of the short stories with their types, authors and publication date.

Table (4.1) Selected Stories and their Details

Title of the Story	**Type of the Story**	**Author**	**Publication Date**
Mowgli's Brothers	Classic	Joseph Rudyard Kipling	1894
Half a Creature from the Sea	Fairy	David Almond	2007
Wasters	Speculative fiction	Linda Newbery	2009
Learn to Die	Historical fiction	Mary Hoffman	2014

God's Eye	Mystery	Frances Hardinge	2016

4.1.2 Data Description

The data of this study can be illustrated as follows:

1. Length: It is agreed that the length of the selected stories follows the tradition of short stories. The standard length of a short story is typically counted by the optimum word count ranges between 1000-10000 words. Thus, the approximate length of the selected stories conforms to that standard. 'Mowgli's Brothers' story comprises (7423) words, 'Half a Creature from the Sea' story lies in (5708) words. 'Wasters' story consists of (3514) words. 'Learn to Die' story involves (3094) words and God's Eye story falls in (5800) words.

2. Types and Format: The selected stories signify five different types of stories; classic, fairy, speculative fiction, historical fiction and mystery. This selection aims at investigating cases of narrowing and broadening in these different types of fictional children's stories. Non-fictional stories are characterized to be informational books. Since LPPs have usually been investigated in dialogues (talk exchanges) between communicators which non-fictional stories lack, these stories are therefore excluded by the present study.

The format of each extract is a talk exchange of the type of (utterance-response) between two characters, containing a modified (underdetermined) word or phrase. Such a format represents a dialogue between two characters of the story corresponding to the spoken conversation in verbal communication. It is also intended to clarify the context in which the selected word occurs. In this way, the targeted contextual assumptions are illuminated. As such, more contextual assumptions are to be yielded. Consequently, the 'utterance-response' form will provide a rich context for analysing the selected modified (underdetermined) lexical items.

3. Understandability: Since the writers have a long history and experience in writing for children, the language in which the selected stories are written, is typically convenient for this age group (tweens 8-12). They lead children to understand language usually employed by writers rather than the usual language employed in everyday life. Nevertheless, underdetermined words or expressions are effectively employed in different contexts. In this way, they are not difficult to grasp and understand.

4.1.3 Justifications for Choosing Data

It is worth acknowledging that the data of this study are deliberately selected for several reasons:

1. Short stories are selected mainly because they are usually concerned with a specific event narrated in an economic setting and in a less complicated plot containing talk exchanges of the type of utterance-response suited for the purpose of analysis.
2. Children's short stories are selected for their significance in entertaining and educating children, as illustrated in Chapter Two. Owing to this fact, schools in England usually encourage children to read stories as home reading work at the weekend as the selected stories and books are attached with a supplementary activity appendix.
3. The selected stories are published on the English website 'Book Trust' for English children ranging from (8-12 years). This website provides children with stories and books classified according to their ages. In effect, the convenience of the selected stories to the targeted audience is guaranteed.
4. Finally, the goal of writing stories for children is to give them a chance to improve their vocabulary straightforwardly and naturally through reading stories. Essentially, children at this age are targeted in this study due to the fact that they are supposed to master the basic skills of their

language. Thereby, they can read stories which are written by English writers in a form that meets their linguistic level and their cognitive abilities and cultural values which accomplish the task of the present study.

Thus, the extracts analysed are written by English writers for English children in this specific age group. That is, stories written by native writers the matter which would not demand more attention to the difference in vocabulary choice and other contextual values and aspects between the dialect of the communicator and addressee the matter, which is avoided to maintain successful communication.

4.2 Data Analysis

4.2.1 Methods of Analysis

The study identifies and analyses 75 extracts involving cases of modified cases of narrowing and broadening. The extracts are taken from the five selected stories. For reasons of space economy, the analysis of 30 extracts is represented. Six extracts of each story are listed in Table (4.1): three extracts involve narrowing cases and the other three involve broadening cases. The analysis of the remaining identified cases is presented in the tables provided as appendices.

The analysis is conducted in terms of the eclectic model developed in Chapter Four. After reading the whole stories accurately to identify the narrowing and broadening cases available in each story, the qualitative analysis is to be taken place on two levels: The first level is termed the adjustment level, it depicts the lexical pragmatic processes of narrowing and broadening by adjusting **the linguistically encoded meaning**, **the contextual assumptions** and **pragmatic expectations** presented by Wilson and Carston's (2007) unitary model of lexical processes. At this level, the effect of contextual factors on English children's interpretation will be shown. At the end of analysing the first extract, its adjustment level

analysis will be summarized in Table (4.2). For the sake of the economy, the summary table is exemplified to clarify the whole process of adjustment and the role of LPPs in it.

The second level explains the systematic relation between the input and output employing the framework of BOT. It is worth mentioning here that the identified undetermined words and phrases to be analysed are highlighted by being italicized. Secondly, the qualitative analysis is supported by statistical analysis. It is also made in the light of the aims and the hypotheses of the present study by means of statistical means. They identify the frequency and percentage of lexical pragmatic processes and their types, contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations in each case. It includes computing the **Frequencies and Percentage Equation** tools; sub/total. These statistical means represent the results yielded throughout the analysis via illustrated tables and figures. Finally, the findings are to be discussed by virtue of both types of analysis.

4.2.2 Qualitative Data Analysis: Illustrative Analysed Examples

Needless to remind that the analysis will be conducted in terms of separate categories to guarantee clarity and to avoid confusion. Hence, the analysis of each story is conducted on two levels; the adjustment level and the explanatory level. Each level is analysed separately at its categories as dictated by the model (see 4.3). Below are the representative examples that are selected from each story preceded by pieces of information about the writer and the selected story.

4.2.2.1 Mowgli's Brothers by Joseph Rudyard Kipling (1894)

The Author

Joseph Rudyard Kipling is an English journalist, short-story writer, poet, and novelist. He was born on 30 December 1865 in British India to

English parents. He wrote many children's books, poems and classic short stories. He is considered an innovative writer. India served as an inspiration for his writings because he spent two periods of his life there: from birth to age five and from sixteen to twenty-three. In addition to the prizes, Kipling was awarded in his life, he was the first English-language writer to receive the Noble prize in Literature, which was in 1907 (Kipling, 2004:25).

Summary: Mowgli's Brothers is a well-known classic fable. It is one of **The Jungle Book** collection of stories. The story is about a little boy (Mowgli) who is raised by wolves in an Indian jungle. The characters are almost animals; Baloo the bear and Bagheera the black panther, who teach Mowgli the 'Law of the Jungle'. Some years later, Mowgli is threatened by the tiger Shere Khan forcing him to leave the jungle (ibid).

4.2.2.1.1 The Analysis of Narrowing Cases in Mowgli's Brothers Story

Extract (1)

Father Wolf: "it is time to hunt again";

Tabaqui: "Good luck go with you, O Chief of the Wolves; and good luck and *strong white teeth* go with the noble children, that they may never forget the hungry in this world." **(**Kipling, 1894: 50).

(1) The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **auto-hyponymy and hyponymy.**

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as: "Good luck go with you, O Chief of the Wolves; and good luck and strong white teeth go with the noble children, that they may never forget the hungry in this world."

(i) Logical Properties: According to Macmillan dictionary, the word *teeth,* refers to THE HARD WHITISH, BONY STRUCTURES SET IN THE JAWS (Morris, 2013:726)

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: The encyclopedic information which the noun, *teeth,* activates are: EMPLOYED FOR BITING AND CHEWING FOOD (Morris, 2013:726).

Accordingly, the activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information together enables the following assumption to be attained: *Tabaqui wishes strong teeth for children of the wolves to chew their food*.

(B) Inference Stage: Based on the model of the analysis of the current study, the assumption will be narrowed or broadened in the light of contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations at this level.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

a. Mutual Manifest: In this extract, it is manifested that father wolf has children who should have strong teeth to hunt their food when they grow up. He also manifests that Tabaqui is deceitful. He lives on food left by other animals.

b. World Knowledge: The world knowledge which is relied on in this extract is about flattering; trying to please someone with complimentary remarks.

c. Illustration: As a means of illustration, the writer employs a text illustration, following this extract, of this character and how mean and villain it is!

d. Propositional Attitude: 'O chief' is used to indicate the character's respect for the wolf. The subjunctive mood also expresses the character's wish for the wolf's children.

Out of the above-mentioned contextual assumptions indicators, the interpretation of the concept STRONG WHITE TEETH (auto-hyponymy) is narrowed to signify its hyponymy STRONG WHITE TEETH*. It isthen

to be interpreted as Tabaqui is flattering father wolf by wishing his children strong teeth for getting (hunting) their food when they grow up.

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: To highlight the pragmatic expectations guiding the interpretation of the lexical item in this extract, it can be said that the utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) so that relevance will be achieved by specifying what the phrase *strong white teeth* indicates and what the character wants by uttering it. This expectationthen activates certain encyclopedic entries to have more relevant assumptions. In addition to logical properties and encyclopedic information, contextual items raised further expectations. In a nutshell, the child arrives at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities as illustrated by Table (4.2) below:

Table (4.2) Summary of the Adjustment Level of Extract (1)

(a) Tabaqui has said: "and good luck and strong white teeth go with the noble children, that they may never forget the hungry in this world."	Decoding of S's utterance.
(b) Tabaqui's utterance is optimally relevant to the child.	Expectation raised by the recognition of S's utterance as a communicative act (presumption of relevance).
(c) Tabaqui 's utterance will achieve relevance by qualifying what *strong white teeth* refers to.	Expectation raised by (b).
(d) The phrase, *strong white teeth,* refers to THE HARD WHIITISH, BONY STRUCTURES SET IN THE JAWS.	Assumption activated by the use of *strong white teeth* is accepted as an implicit premise of S's utterance.
(e) *The phrase, strong white teeth,* activates certain encyclopedic properties of being: EMPLOYED FOR BITING AND CHEWING FOOD).	Assumption activated by the use of the *strong white teeth* to enable more conclusions to be drawn as: Tabaqui wishes strong teeth for wolves' children to chew their food.

(f) Tabaqui wished strong teeth for small wolves to hunt their food with when they grew up.	Implicit conclusion derivable from (d) & (e), together receives additional activation from other items of the context to be relevant as expected.
(g) He wishes wolve's children strong white teeth (where STRONG WHITE TEETH* denotes strong wolves when they grow up)	Interpretation of the explicit content of the utterance as decoded in (a) which, together with (d), (e), and (f) would imply (g).
(h) Tabaqui's intention is flattering father wolf by wishing his children to grow strong to get (hunting) their food.	By narrowing the concept STRONG WHITE TEETH to mean strong wolves who could get their food when they grow up. The overall interpretation of the utterance would satisfy the expectation of relevance in (b) is accepted as the intended meaning.

(II) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Depending on the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "…and good luck and *strong white teeth* go with the noble children".

C1. Tabaqui wishes the wolves' children strong teeth to hunt their food with when they grow up.

C2. Tabaqui wishes the wolves' children to be strong wolves when they grow up.

(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: C1 contradicts the existing assumption: wolves' children always grow with strong teeth. C2 strengthens the existing assumption: life jungle is so hard, so animals fight to have their living. Additionally, it contradicts the existing assumption: wolves could get their food.

(ii) Processing Efforts: C1 is linguistically more complex than C2. However, C2 is less logical than C1. Moreover, C2 is less frequently used in such contexts. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.
$<f_1, m_1>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it. C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality, $<f_1, m_2>$ since it < GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
$<f_1, m_1>$	*		*	*			*
☞$<f_1, m_2>$			*		*	*	

Extracts (2)

Father Wolf: "Enterthen and look, but there is no food here."
Tabaqui: "For a wolf, no, but for so mean a person as myself a dry bone is *a good feast*. Who are we, the Gidurlog [the Jackal People], to pick and choose?" **(**Kipling, 1894: 50).

(1) The Adjustment Level

The type of lexical process is **narrowing the adjective in adjective-noun combination.**

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as Tabaqui has said: "For a wolf, no, but for so mean a person as myself a dry bone is a *good* feast".

(i) Logical Properties: The lexical item *good* refers to HAVING WHAT IS WANTED OR NEEDED (Morris,2013:306).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: The adjective *good* activates certain encyclopedic information of: AS IT SHOULD BE: PROPER, SUITABLE AND CORRECT (ibid.).

At this stage, it can be said that the activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information together qualifies the following assumption: *a dry bone is a suitable meal for Tabaqui.*

(B) Inference Stage: To further qualify the above assumption, it will be narrowed in the light of the contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a)Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that the Tabaqui is a mean animal that does not hunt; but he eats whatever he finds even leather and rubbish.

(b) World Knowledge: It is relied on the child's world knowledge about animals of the jungle.

(c) Illustration: The writer compensates the child with a text illustration to give an idea about this sort of animal.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The inductive mood is employed in this extract to express Tabaqui's opinion: "but for so mean a person as myself a dry bone is a good feast."

All these contextual itemsthen narrowed the interpretation of the concept GOOD to mean GOOD*: *suitable enough for this animal.*

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: What the writer intends by employing the adjective *good* in *good feast* noun combination will activate the reader's (child) expectation to achieve relevance as to how a dry bone could be a good meal for an animal. This activation will be guided by logical properties, encyclopedic entries and items of the context as information about this animal. Consequently, the child arrives at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: *A dry bone is good enough for jackal* people.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Depending on the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "For a wolf, no, but for so mean a person as myself a dry bone is *a good feast*. Who are we, the Gidurlog [the Jackal People], to pick and choose?"

C1: A dry bone is what a jackal eats.

C2: Any food, even a dry bone, would be suitable enough for a jackal.

(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: The generated interpretations had shown the following positive cognitive effects: C2 strengthens the existing assumption: he eats even leather and rubbish. Besides, C2 contradicts the existing assumption that a dry bone is not food.

(ii) Processing Efforts:C2 is more linguistically complex than C1. C1 is more logically complex than C2. Moreover, both are frequently used in such contexts. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_1>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality, $<f_1, m_2>$ since it < GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
$<f_1, m_1>$	*	*	*				*
☞$<f_1, m_2>$			*	*	*		

Extract (3)

Mother Wolf: "What is it, Son?"

Mowgli: "Akela! Akela! Let the Lone Wolf show his strength. *Room* for the leader of our Pack! Spring, Akela!" **(**Kipling, 1894: 62).

(1) The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **polysemy.**

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as: "Akela! Akela! Let the Lone Wolf show his strength. *Room* for the leader of our Pack! Spring, Akela!"

(i) Logical Properties: The logical properties for the word indicate:

A SPACE OR AREA THAT CAN BE FILLED BY SOMEONE OR SOMETHING (Morris, 2013:596).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information

The encyclopedic information of the word *room*: A PART OF A BUILDING SEPERATED BY WALLS. ALL THE PEOPLE IN A ROOM. A GAP THAT GIVES AN OPPORTUNITY OR CHANCE (ibid.).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information together enables the following assumption to be attained: *Mowgli calls Akela to give himself the chance to show his strength as a leader.*

(B) Inference Stage: At this level, the interpretation will be narrowed by means of contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a)Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that Akela is the leader of the Lone Wolf Pack. He is very old now. He has to face other wolves who want to be the leader according to the law of the jungle.

(b) World Knowledge: The child's world knowledge about the life of the jungle and the fight for living is what the writer relies on.

(c) Illustration: The writer does not use any illustration.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The imperative mood is utilised to express Mowgli's desire for Akela to show his strength.

Accordingly, the interpretation of the concept ROOM is narrowed to refer to ROOM* *as a chance to show one's strength*.

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The writer stimulates the reader's (child) expectation to achieve relevance by inquiring what the word 'room' refers to in such utterance. This expectation activates encyclopedic entries with more relevant assumptions as a space or a chance. Other expectations are raised by contextual items such as chance to show Akela's strength. Therefore, relevance expectations lead the child to arrive at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: *Mowgli calls Akela to give a chance for his fighting spirit to be shown.*

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Depending on the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "Akela! Akela! Let the Lone Wolf show his strength. *Room* for the leader of our Pack! Spring, Akela!"

C1. *Room (space)*for Akela, the leader of the Pack!

C2. *Room (chance)* for Akela to show his strength.

(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

C1 contradicts an existing assumption that he has enough space as their leader. C2 strengthens the existing assumption: Akela gets old and he cannot fight as before. Additionally, it creates with other contextual indications the implicature that Mowgli wishes Akela to fight bravely.

(ii) Processing Efforts: As for contextual efforts, C2 is linguistically less complex than C1. However, C1 is more logically complex than C2. Likewise, C1 is more frequently used in such contexts. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_1>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality, $<f_1, m_2>$ since it < GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
$<f_1,m_1>$	*	*	*	*			*
☞$<f_1, m_2>$		*			*	*	

4.2.2.1.2 The Analysis of Broadening Cases in Mowgli's Brothers Story

Extract (4)

Tabaqui: "Shere Khan, the Big One, has shifted his hunting-grounds. He will hunt among these hills during the next moon, so he has told me."

Father Wolf (angrily said): "He will frighten every *head of game* within ten miles; and *I—I* have to kill for two, these days." **(**Kipling, 1894: 64).

(1) The Adjustment Level: The lexical process is **metaphor.**

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as: Father wolf has said: "He will frighten every *head of game* within ten miles; and *I—I* have to kill for two, these days."

(i) Logical Properties: The word *head* refers to THAT PART OF HUMAN AND ANIMAL BODY ABOVE THE NECK, WHERE THE

NOSE, EYES, EARS AND THE MOUTH ARE. The word *game* refers to SOMETHING DONE FOR RUN OR AMUSEMENT (Morris, 2013:293).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: The encyclopedic information that the word *head* activates are: THE TOP OR FRONT PART OF EVERYTHING. THE PERSON IN CHARGE. The word *game,* in turn, activates A SPORT OR A COMPETITION WITH A SET OF RULES (Morris, 2013:326).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information altogether enables the following assumption to be attained as: *the one in charge of a sport or a competition.*

(B) Inference Stage: The deduced assumption will be broadened by means of contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations as follows:

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a)Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that Shere Khan has violated the law of jungle which made wild animals frightened. So, wolves could not hunt anymore.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer relies on the child's world knowledge about life in the jungle.

(c) Illustration: The writer does not provide any illustration.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The given utterance is uttered in inductive mood to express the fact that he could not hunt because of Shere Khan. Moreover, the author employs the adverb 'angrily' to show that Father wolf is angry.

These contextual factors, thus, yield more relevant information for *head of game* as: *each one of wild animals that are hunted for food or sport.*

As such, they have broadened the interpretation of the concept HEAD OF GAME to mean HEAD OF GAME* which indicates *wild animals that are hunted for food.*

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: Qualifying what the phrase *head of game* designates is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) so that he will achieve relevance. This expectation activates encyclopedic entries with more relevant assumptions. In combination with contextual items, other expectations are raised. These expectations lead the child to arrive at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: *wild animals that are hunted.*

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Depending on the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "He will frighten every *head of game* within ten miles; and *I—I* have to kill for two, these days."

C1. He will frighten everyone in charge of a sport or competition within ten miles in the jungle.

C2. He will frighten every animal that could be hunted for food within ten miles of the jungle.

(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: The deduced interpretations reveal that C1 contradicts an existing assumption: No sport or competition is held. C2, in turn, strengthens the existing assumption: Shere Khan frightened prey. So, wolves could not hunt anymore. In addition to other contextual indicators, C2 creates an implicature that father wolf was angry because he could not hunt as he uses to which makes his task more complicated as he has hunted for himself and mother wolf.

(ii) Processing Efforts: C1 is linguistically more complex than C2. Moreover, C1 is more logically complex than C2. C2 is not frequently used in such contexts. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_1>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality,

$<f_1, m_2>$ since it < GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
$<f_1, m_1>$	*		*	*			*
☞$<f_1, m_2>$		*			*	*	

Extract (5)

Bagheera: "Shere Khan has taught them, that a man-cub has no place with the Pack. In a little time, thou wilt be a man."

Mowgli: "And what is a man that he should not run with *his brothers*?" **(**Kipling, 1894: 60).

(1) The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **metaphor.**

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as: "And what is a man that he should not run with his brothers?"

(i) Logical Properties: The word, *brothers,* refers to MALE PEOPLE WHO HAVE THE SAME PARENTS AS YOU (Morris, 2013:100).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: The word, *brothers,* activates PERSONS SHOW THE SAME KIND OF FEELINGS THAT YOU WOULD EXPECT FROM A BROTHER (ibid.).

Logical properties and encyclopedic information together enable the following assumption to be attained: Mowgli considers wolves to be his brothers.

(B) Inference Stage

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a)Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that Mowgli was raised by wolf parents. He followed the law of the jungle and was of help to all the wolves in the Pack. Therefore, he was loved by other wolves.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer depends on the child's world knowledge about the feeling of brotherhood.

(c) Illustration: The writer provides a picture as illustration in which Mowgli is surrounded by wolves as a family.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The inductive mood is used through questioning to express Mowgli's propositional attitude.

Based on these contextual factors, the interpretation has broadened the concept BROTHERS to mean BROTHERS* indicating: *people who you raise with and have the feelings of brotherhood.*

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: It is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) so that he will achieve relevance by qualifying what the word *brothers* means. The encyclopedic entries will activate more relevant assumptions. Other expectations are activated by contextual items. Accordingly, the child will arrive at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: *Mowgli feels the Pack to be his brothers.*

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN

Depending on the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "And what is a man that he should not run with his brothers?"

C1. And what if he is a man that he should leave his brothers (men)?

C2. And what if he is a man that he should leave his brothers (wolves)?

(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: C1 contradicts the existing assumption that Mowgli should leave the wolves. C2 strengthens the existing assumption: he was raised by wolves. Additionally, it creates with other contextual indications the implicature: he wants to live with the Pack all his life.

(ii) Processing Efforts: Both candidates have the same logical complexity. However, C2 is less logical than C1. Both candidates are frequently used in such contexts. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_1>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality,

$<f_1, m_2>$ since it < GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
$<f_1, m_1>$	*		*				*
☞$<f_1, m_2>$		*			*		

Extract (6)

Akela: "It was well done. Men and their cubs are very *wise*. He may be a help in time."

Bagheera: "Truly, a help in time of need; for none can hope to lead the Pack forever." **(**Kipling, 1894: 58).

(1) The Adjustment Level: The lexical process is **approximation.**

(A) Decoding Stage: The utterance, in which the underdetermined word occurs, is decoded as: "It was well done. Men and their cubs are very wise. He may be a help in time."

(i) Logical Properties: The word *wise* refers to HAVING INTELLIGENCE, KNOWLEDGE AND UNDERSTANDING (Morris,2013: 790).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: Being *wise* activates certain relevant encyclopedic information: TO JUDGE WHAT IS RIGHT AND WRONG (ibid.).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information altogether enables the following assumption to be attained as: Men and their cubs (children) are very intelligent. They have the ability to judge what is right and wrong.

(B) Inference Stage: The utterance is further enriched with other contextual items to enable more assumptions to be deduced.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a)Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that Mowgli is a human child who lives with wolves.

(b) World Knowledge: Needless to say, human beings are more intelligent than any other kind of creatures. The writer relies on the child's world knowledge about this fact.

(c) Illustration: The writer does not provide any illustration.

(d) Propositional Attitude: Bagheera uses the adverb 'truly' to express his attitude to what Akela has said.

Based on these contextual items, the interpretation is broadened the concept WISE to indicate WISE* describing *Mowgli as very intelligent in judging what is right and what is wrong.*

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child), so this expectation is attained by questioning what the word *wise* indicates. Expectations lead to activating encyclopedic entries to have more relevant assumptions in addition to other expectations raised by means of the context. Out of these pragmatic expectations, the child comes up with the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and capacities: Mowgli is very intelligent and can lead the Pack after his death.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Based on the contextual assumptions, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "It was well done. Men and their cubs are very *wise*. He may be a help in time."

C1. Mowgli is intelligent and can judge what is right and what is wrong when he grows up.
C2. Mowgli is very intelligent and can lead the back after Akela's death.
(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: It is deduced that C1 strengthens the existing assumption: Mowgli has proved his wisdom during his life span with the Pack. C2 strengthens the existing assumption: they need his wisdom in

times of need. In addition to other contextual indicators, C2 creates the implicature that he can lead the Pack after Akela's death.

(ii) Processing Efforts: C1 is linguistically more complex than C2. However, it is more logically complex than C2. Both are frequently used in such contexts. As far as accessibility is concerned, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_1>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality,

$<f_1, m_2>$ since it < GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
$<f_1, m_1>$		*	*	*			*
☞$<f_1, m_2>$		*			*		

4.2.2.2. Half a Creature from the Sea by David Almond (2007)

The Author:

English children's author David Almond is the author of several books and anthologies of short stories. He was born and reared in the post-industrial North-East England cities of Felling and Newcastle. He attended the University of East Anglia for his education. Almond has won several honours, including two Whitbread Awards, a Carnegie Medal, and a Hans Christian Andersen Award (Almond, 2007: 81).

Summary: David Almond's 2007 short story, "Half a Creature from the Sea", is a work of fairy tale fiction. The collection Half a Creature from the Sea's title tale is this one. The narrative centers on Annie, a young child

who may be partially an aquatic creature. She was disturbed since she had no idea where she had come from. Her mother tells her a tale replete with tales of mermaids and sea gods as well as recollections of the Northumberland coast. It aims to teach kids that "understanding our peculiarity is the greatest approach to learning how to be human" (ibid, 5-8).

5.2.2.2.1 The Analysis of Narrowing Cases in Half a Creature from the Sea

Extract (7)

The Doctor: "You're *a good girl*, Annie Lumsden,"

Annie's mum: "She is" (Almond, 2007: 81).

(1) The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **narrowing the adjective in adjective-noun combination.**

(A) Decoding Stage: The utterance is decoded as the doctor has said that "Annie is a good girl".

(i) Logical Properties: The lexical item *good* refers to HAVING WHAT IS WANTED OR NEEDED (Morris, 2013:306).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: The adjective *good* in this context activates certain encyclopedic information as: HAVING THE RIGHT CHARACTER (KIND AND HONEST). ACTING IN THE RIGHT WAY. AS IT SHOULD BE (ibid.).

These properties and information together enable the following assumption to be yielded: *Annie is kind and honest. She is acting in the right way.*

(B) Inference Stage: At this stage, this inferred assumption will be narrowed by means of the contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a)Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that Annie was ill. She visits many doctors. They could not diagnose why she is ill.

(b) World Knowledge: It is based on the child's world knowledge of how doctors talk to patients especially children.

(c) Illustration: The writer does not provide any illustration.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The inductive mood is used to express the doctor's belief.

These contextual factors then have narrowed the interpretation of the concept GOOD to mean GOOD* which means in this context: The doctor is complimenting Annie that she is a healthy girl.

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) as he inquires in what way she is *good* in 'good girl' combination. The activation of the encyclopedic entries and items of the context interestingly guide the child to arrive at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: *She is a healthy girl*.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN

Depending on the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "You're *a good girl*, Annie Lumsden,"

C_1: You are kind and honest.

C2: You are a healthy girl.

(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: The deduced interpretations reveal that C_2 strengthens the existing assumption: she has everything she likes, so to be happy. Besides, it contradicts an existing assumption that she is sick.

(ii) Processing Efforts: Both candidates are linguistically not complex. C1 is more logically complex than C2. Moreover, C2 is more frequently used in such contexts. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_1>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality,

$<f_1, m_2>$ since it < GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
$<f_1, m_1>$	*	*	*			*	*
☞$<f_1, m_2>$			*		*		

Extract (8)

Annie: "The man?"

Mum: "He was slender …. He cupped his hands and *drank the sea.*" (Almond, 2007: 89).

(1) The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **auto-hyponymy.**

(A) Decoding Stage: Decoding the utterance: Annie's mum has said that "He cupped his hands and *drank the sea...*"

(i) Logical Properties: The word *sea* refers to THE BODY OF SALTY WATER THAT COVERS LARGE AREAS OF EARTH SURFACE (Morris, 2013:616).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: The word *sea* activates certain encyclopedic information of: THE MOVEMENT AND ACTION OF THE WAVES OF SUCH A BODY OF WATER(ibid.).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information together leads the following assumption to be attained: *salty water.*

(B) Inference Stage: At this stage, deduced assumption will be narrowed according to the contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a)Mutual Manifest: The writer ostensibly manifests that the creature was strange.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer relies on the child's world knowledge about the sea.

(c) Illustration: No illustration was provided.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The inductive mood was used to express this fact or what Annie's mum believes to be fact.

These contextual factors then have narrowed the interpretation of the adjective SEA to mean SEA* salty water.

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) by achieving relevance by trying to understand what the *drunk the se*a means. This expectation activates encyclopedic entries with more relevant assumptions. Other expectations are raised by contextual items. As such, relevance expectations lead the child to arrive at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: He drank sea salty water.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Two candidates can be generated for the given form: "He cupped his hands and drank the *sea*". Out of the contextual assumptions available.

C1. He drank all the sea water.

C2. He drank the salty sea water.

(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: C1 contradicts an existing assumption: the sea did not vanish. C2 strengthens the existing assumption: he drank with his hands.

(ii) Processing Efforts: C2 is linguistically more complex than C1. However, C1 is more logical. Moreover, C2 is frequently used in such contexts. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_1>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality, $<f_1, m_2>$ since it < GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
$<f_1, m_1>$	*	*		*	*	*	*
☞$<f_1, m_2>$		*	*				

Extract (9)

Mum: "But he came back again on other early *milky mornings* when the sea was calm….".

Annie: "He was my father?" (Almond, 2007:90).

(1) The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **narrowing the adjective in adjective-noun combination.**

(A) Decoding Stage

The utterance is decoded as Annie's mum has said that "But he came back again on other early *milky mornings* when the sea was calm".

(i) Logical Properties: The word *milky* indicates SOMETHING MADE OF MILK. CONTAINING A LOT OF MILK(Morris, 2013:440) .

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: The word *milky* activates certain encyclopedic information as: DESCRIBES SOMETHING AS WHITE, PALE, OPAGUE, UNCLEAR AND CLOUDY. DRINK OR FOOD HAVING MILK IN IT (ibid.).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information together enables the following assumption to be attained: *The morning colour was milky (cloudy).*

(B) Inference Stage: At this stage, deduced assumption will be narrowed in the light of the contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a) Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that the weather was nice and the sea was calm.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer relies on the child's world knowledge about the weather description phrases.

(c) Illustration: The writer provides an introductory text illustrating the place, the weather and what people do at sea.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The inductive mod is used to express the propositional attitude. These contextual factors then have narrowed the interpretation of the adjective MILKY to mean MILKY* *white cloudy sky.*

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) so that he will achieve relevance by clarifying what the adjective *milky* in milky mornings combination indicates. This expectation activates encyclopedic entries with more relevant assumptions in addition to other expectations activated by contextual items. All in all,

relevance expectations lead the child to the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: *But he came back again on other early cloudy mornings when the sea was calm*.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Depending on the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "But he came back again on other early *milky mornings* when the sea was calm….".

C1. But he came back again on other early milky-coloured mornings when the sea was calm.

C2. But he came back again on other early cloudy mornings when the sea was calm.

(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: C2 strengthens an existing assumption. Additionally, it contradicts an existing assumption that it is windless mornings.

(ii) Processing Efforts: C1 is linguistically more complex than C2. However, it is more logical. C2 is frequently used in such contexts. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_1>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality,

$<f_1, m_2>$ since it < GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
$<f_1, m_1>$	*		*	*		*	*

☞<f_1, m_2>			*		*		

4.2.2.2.2 The Analysis of Broadening Cases in Half a Creature from the Sea Story

Extract (10)

Annie: "What's there?"

Mum: "Nowt, my *little minnow*," (Almond, 2007:86).

(1) The Adjustment Level: The lexical process is **metaphor.**

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as: Annie's mum has said that 'Nowt, my *little minnow*'.

(i) Logical Properties: The word 'minnow' refers to A VERY SMALL FRESH WATER FISH (Morris, 2013:442).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: The word 'minnow' activates certain encyclopedic information of: SMALL ERASIAN FISH USUALLY LIVE IN BRITAIN AND SPAIN. THEY AR KNOWN FOR BEING GRAGARIOUS SPECIES IN SHOALING WATER (ibid.).

Based on the above mentioned logical properties and encyclopedic information, the following assumption is deduced: Annie is a little fish that lives in shoaling water in Britain.

(B) Inference Stage: At this stage, the deduced assumption will be broadened in the light of the contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a) Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that Annie is a little girl who likes to be a fish. She likes swimming very much. She wishes to have fins and a tail like a fish.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer relies on the child's world knowledge about these species which are popular in Britain. He also trusts their knowledge of the lovely talk between a mum and a child.

(c) Illustration: Apparently, no illustration was found.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The inductive mood is used to express the propositional attitude.

These contextual factors activate other encyclopedic information as (lovely fish) which have broadened the interpretation of the concept LITTLE MINNOW* to describe Annie as a lovely little fish.

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The reader (the child) interestingly expects the utterance to be relevant through qualifying what the phrase 'little minnow' indicates. This expectation activates encyclopedic entries with more relevant assumptions. Other expectations are raised by contextual items. At last, the child arrives at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: *for her mother, Annie is like a lovely fish*.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Depending on the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "Nowt, my *little minnow*,"

C1. Annie is a lovely little fish.

C2. She is like a lovely little fish.

(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: The generated interpretations reveal that C2 strengthens the existing assumption: she likes to be a fish. In addition to other contextual indicators, it creates an implicature that Annie is a lovely

fish in her mother's eyes. C1 contradicts an existing assumption, Annie is a girl.

(ii) Processing Efforts: C2 is linguistically more complex than C1. However, C1 is more logically complex than C2. Moreover, C1 is more frequently used in such contexts. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_1>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality,

$<f_1, m_2>$ since it < GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
$<f_1, m_1>$		*	*		*	*	*
☞$<f_1, m_2>$		*		*			

Extract (11)

Annie: "The touch?"

Mum: "A gentle tender touch I looked back…. The sea was *empty*" (Almond, 2007:89).

(1) The Adjustment Level: The lexical process is **approximation**.

(A) Decoding Stage: It is decoded as Annie's mum has said that 'the sea was empty'.

(i) Logical Properties: The word empty refers to HAVING NOTHING IN IT (Morris, 2013:236).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: This word activates certain encyclopedic information such as: A STATE OF HAVING NO REAL VALUE OR MEANING. A STATE OF HAVING NO INTEREST OR IMPORTANCE (ibid.).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information together enables more assumptions to be attained as *the sea was empty of people (swimmers).*

(B) Inference Stage: At this level, the assumption will be broadened relying on contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a) Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that Annie's mum was swimming early in the morning and no one was there.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer depends on the child's knowledge of the sea shore on summer days in England.

(c) Illustration: The writer does not provide illustrations.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The inductive mood was used to express the propositional attitude.

These contextual indicators have broadened the interpretation of the word *empty* in the given context to mean the concept EMPTY* empty of people who can cause this touch.

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: Qualifying what the adjective *empty* in "the sea is empty" indicates, the utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child). This expectation activates encyclopedic entries with more relevant assumptions. Additionally, other expectations raised by contextual items guide the child to arrive at the most relevant interpretation compatible with his preferences and abilities: The sea is empty of people (swimmers).

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Depending on the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "The sea was empty"

C1. The sea was fully empty of creatures.

C2. The sea was almost empty of people (swimmers).

(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: C1 contradicts an existing assumption that she saw many creatures while she was swimming. C2 strengthens the existing assumption that she was alone and she looked back. C2 creates an implicature: she was alone.

(ii) Processing Efforts: C1 is shorter than C2. C2 is more logical than C1. C2 is more frequently used. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Therefore, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_2>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality,

$<f_1, m_1>$ since it < to GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
$<f_1, m_1>$	*		*		*	*	*
☞$<f_1, m_2>$		*	*	*			

Extract (12)

Annie: "The man?"

Mum: "He was slender …. He *cupped* his hands and drank the sea". (Almond, 2007:89).

(1) The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **neologism (word coinage)**

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as: Annie's mum has said that "the man cupped his hands and drunk the sea".

(i) Logical Properties: The word 'cupped' refers to A VERB FROM THE NOUN CUP (Morris,2013:180).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: The word 'cupped' activates certain encyclopedic information of:

TO PUT HANDS AROUND SOMETHING SO THAT THEY MAKE THE SHAPE OF A CUP (ibid.).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information together remarkably stimulates the following assumption: *He cupped (makes his hands like a cup) and drunk the sea.*

(B) Inference Stage: At this level, this deduced assumption will be broadened in accordance with the relevant contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a)Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that a strange creature that lives in the sea as indicated by the title of the story.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer depends on the child's world knowledge about the way people put their hands round something to make the shape of a cup to drink water.

(c) Illustration: The writer does not use illustration.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The inductive mood was used by Annie's mum to express observation.

Consequently, the assumption has broadened the interpretation of the concept CUP* (neologism) to denote hands' movement people usually do when they want to drink but no cup is available.

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: To achieve relevance through understanding what the word *cupped* refers to, an expectation is raised. As such, encyclopedic entries are activated to have more relevant assumptions. Further expectations are raised by contextual items leading to the most relevance interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: *The strange man got his hands together to drink sea water*.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Out of this component, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "He cupped his hands and drank the sea"

C1. The man made his hands cups to drink the sea.

C2. The man made his hands like cups to drink the sea water with.

(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: C2 strengths an existing assumption: the man looks like any ordinary man but he has fins and a tail. So, he is a sea creature that drinks sea water like any other sea creatures. C2 also creates an implicature: he is half a creature from the sea.

(ii) Processing Efforts: C2 is longer than C1. However, C2 is more logical than C1. Moreover, C2 is more frequently used in such contexts. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_1>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality,

$<f_1, m_2>$ since it < GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
<f_1, m_2>	*	*	*		*	*	*
☞<f_1,m_1>		*	*	*			

4.2.2.3 Wasters by Linda Iris Newbery (2009)

The Author:

Newbery is an English writer, she was born in 12 August 1952. Although she wrote for all ages, she is best famous for young adult fiction writings. She began her career as a writer while she was still an English teacher in a comprehensive school. Her 2006 novel Catcall won **the Nestlé Children's Book Prize Silver Award.** Newbery is a member of the Society of Authors and the Scattered Authors' Society (Bradman, 2009:75).

Summary: It is a speculative (non-fiction) short story. One of the Under the Weather collection of stories. It is written to warn people of climate change. It began with the idea that generation who lives fifty years or so into the future will look back at the way people live now, and be disturbed by how they are wasteful with the world's resources. So, they should be wiser (ibid:77).

4.2.2.3.1 The Analysis of Narrowing Cases in Wasters Story

Extract (13)

Rowan: Then I stopped dead and pointed. "Fern! Oh, yuk!"

Fern: "What – oh, that's disgusting! Were they *mad*?" (Bradman, 2009:82*)*

(1) The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **lexical blocking.**

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as: "What – oh, that's disgusting! Were they *mad?"*

(i) Logical Properties: The word *mad* refers to INSAIN OR CRAZY (Morris,2013:416).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: It activates certain encyclopedic information such as: BEING ANGRY OR ANNOYED, FOOLISH OR SILLY, BEHAVE STRANGELY(Morris,2013:416).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information together presumed the following as Fern was shocked by how strangely people behaved.

(B) Inference Stage: At this stage, the assumption will be narrowed or broadened in the light of the contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a) Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that they came to London to see how people lived before the disaster.

(b)World Knowledge: The writer depends on the child's world knowledge about people's life and their summer activities like sunbathing.

(c) Illustration: The writer employs a text illustration to give background knowledge on the idea of the story and how they will be horrified by the way people lived in.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The writer employs the discourse particle 'oh' and to express Jane's shock.

These contextual factors have broadened the meaning of the concept MAD in the given context to mean the concept MAD* which denotes: Being exposed to sun is a strange behaviour of foolish people lexically blocked by the use of the lexical item *mad.*

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) so that he will achieve relevance by qualifying what

the word *mad* refers to. This expectation activates encyclopedic entries with more relevant assumptions. Other expectations are raised by contextual items. In a nutshell, relevance expectations lead the child to arrive at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: Fern is annoyed of being exposed to the sun which is a silly behaviour of people who did not understand the consequences.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN

Depending on the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "What – oh, that's disgusting! Were they mad?"

C1. Fern regards people exposed to the sun insane.

C2. Fern regards people exposed to the sun foolish.

(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: C2 strengthens an existing assumption: Those people are wasteful. C1 and C2 contradict the existing assumption: Those people are not crazy.

(ii) Processing Efforts: Both candidates are long. However, C1 is more logically complex than C2. However, C2 is more frequently used. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_2>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality,

$<f_1, m_1>$ since it < to GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
<f_1, m_1>	*	*	*	*		*	*
☞<f_1, m_2>		*		*	*		

Extract (14)

Fern: "But did not anyone *realise*?"

Granddad: "No, not really, not back then. No one thought it was odd. We all lived that way. We took it for granted" (Bradman, 2009:80*)*

(1) The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **auto-hyponymy.**

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as: "But did not anyone *realise*?".

The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child).

(i) Logical Properties

The word *realise* refers to CLOSE TO BE ANYBODY FULLY UNDERSTAND SOMETHING (Morris, 2013:570).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: It activates certain encyclopedic information such as: UNDERSTAND THE SITUATION USUALLY SAID SUDDENLLY, UNDERSTAND THE DANGER OF THE SITUATION (Morris,2013:416).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information together enables the following assumption to be attained: *But did not there any one fully understands the danger of the situation.*

(B) Inference Stage: At this level, the assumption will be narrowed in the light of the contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a)Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that all people in the twenty-first century are wasters. They employed world resources extravagantly.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer depends on the child's world knowledge about wasters.

(c) Illustration: The writer employs an introductory text illustration to give a background knowledge about the idea of the story of wasters.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The writer employs the word "burst in" to express Fern's anger.

The contextual assumptions narrowed the meaning of the concept REALISE* in the given context to mean people did not fully understand the consequences of living extravagantly.

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) so that he will achieve relevance by qualifying what the verb *realise* indicates. This expectation activates encyclopedic entries with more relevant assumptions. Other expectations are raised by contextual items. In a nutshell, relevance expectations lead the child to arrive at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: *Fern is angry that those people did not fully understand the consequences of living extravagantly*.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Depending on the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "But did not anyone *realise*?"

C1. Fern questions whether those people are aware of the good consequences of the situation.

C2. Fern questions whether those people are aware of the bad consequences of the situation.

(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates follow the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: C2 strengthens the existing assumption: what Fern's people live is caused by 21st wasteful people. C2 creates an implicature: Those people were wasteful.

(ii) Processing Efforts: Both candidates are linguistically complex. Yet, C2 is more logical than C1. It is more frequently used too. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.
$<f_1, m_2>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.
C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality, $<f_1, m_1>$ since it < to GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
$<f_1, m_1>$	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
☞$<f_1, m_2>$		*		*			

Extract (15)

Fern: "I'm going to work in Forestry, too,"

Great-Granddad: "Those birds out there – rollers, and hoopoes, and bee-eaters – they make a *fine old din* some mornings, but you can't beat a nightingale or a song thrush" (Bradman, 2009:80).

A. The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **narrowing the adjective in adjective-noun combination.**

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as: "they make a *fine old din* some mornings, but you can't beat a nightingale or a song thrush".

(i) Logical Properties: The adjective *fine* in fine old combination indicates MUCH BETTER THAN AVERAGE: VERY GOOD OR EXCELLENT (Morris,2013:268).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: This phrase activates certain encyclopedic information such as: VERY THIN OR SMALL. CLEAR AND VERY WELL (ibid.).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information together enable the following assumption to be attained: *their old din is excellent and much better than now.*

(B) Inference Stage: To further narrow the assumptions to arrive at the optimal interpretation, contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations will be highlighted.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a) Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that Granddad is an old man of one hundred years old. He had a yen for his old life when everything was better than now.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer depends on the child's world knowledge about the din of the mentioned birds in the mornings.

(c) Illustration: The writer does not provide an illustration.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The writer uses the indicative mood to express the character's propositional attitude.

These contextual factors have narrowed the interpretation of the adjective FINE in the given context to mean the concept FINE* excellent din like that of old nightingale or a song thrush.

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) so that he will achieve relevance by restricting what Granddad wants by the adjective *fine* in "fine old din". The activation of the encyclopedic entries and items of the context are headed by the child's expectations. The childthen arrives at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: Granddad yearned to his old days when old birds used to make din.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Depending on the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "I'm going to work in Forestry, too,"

C1. The new birds make a *fine old din* some mornings.

C2. The new birds make a *fine old din* some mornings, but it is not as a nightingale or a song thrush.

(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: C2 strengthens the existing assumption: He yearned to his old days. Besides, C2 contradicts the existing assumption; their din is fine but you beat them for their noise.

(ii) Processing Efforts: C2 is more linguistically complex than C1. Both candidates are not logically complex. C1 is more frequently used than C1. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_2>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality, $<f_1, m_1>$ since it < to GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
<f_1, m_2>	*	*	*				*
☞<f_1, m_1>			*	*		*	

4.2.2.3.2 The Analysis of Broadening Cases in Wasters Story

Extract (16)

Great Granddad: "I'm no use to anyone! *On the scrap-heap*, at a hundred and one."

Rowan: "What's a scrap-heap?" (Bradman, 2009:79).

(1) The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **metaphor**.

(A) Decoding Stage: The utterance is decoded as: "I'm no use to anyone! *On the scrap-heap*, at a hundred and one".

(i) Logical Properties: The phrase *on the scrap-heap* refers to RUBBISH AND WASTE (Morris, 2013:612).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: This phrase activates definite encyclopedic information such as:

A PILE OF UNWANTED OLD THINGS, ESPECIALLY PIECES OF METAL, UNWANTED IDEA OR PEOPLE (ibid.).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information together allows the following assumption to be attained: *unwanted things.*

(B) Inference Stage: At this level, the assumption will be broadened in the light of the contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a)Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that Granddad is an old man of one hundred years old. He is Rowan's great-great Granddad. Hence, he is an old retired man. He is not happy with this as he did not want to be retired.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer depends on the child's world knowledge about old people.

(c) Illustration: The writer illustrates that Granddad is retired.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The writer used the inductive mood to express the character's propositional attitude.

These contextual factors have broadened the interpretation of the phrase ON THE SCRAP-HEAP in the given context to mean the concept ON THE SCRAP-HEAP*; a category of old people who are no longer wanted.

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) so that he will achieve relevance by pinpointing what the phrase *on the scrap-heap* indicates. The activation of the encyclopedic entries and items of the context are guided by the child's expectations. At last, relevance expectations lead the child to arrive at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: I'm of no use to anyone, unwanted old man at a hundred and one.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Based on the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "I'm no use to anyone! On the scrap-heap, at a hundred and one."

C1. I'm no use to anyone! (unwanted like the rubbish) at a hundred and one.
C2. I'm no use to anyone! I am put on the scrap-heap at a hundred and one.
(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: C1 strengthens the existing assumption: he is unhappy since he is retired. Besides, C1 creates the implicature that he feels unwanted by anyone.

(ii) Processing Efforts: C1 is linguistically less complex than C2. Still, C1 is logically more complex than that of C2. C1 is more frequently used than C2. Finally, C1 is more accessible than C2.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C1 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_2>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C2 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality,

$<f_1, m_1>$ since it < to GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
☞$<f_1, m_1>$		*			*		
$<f_1, m_2>$	*	*	*	*		*	*

Extract (17)

Rowan: "Fern? When you're eighteen, do you think you might choose me as your *breeding partner*?"

Fern: "If you get genetic clearance, I'll consider you." (Bradman, 2009:85).

A. The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **metaphor.**

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as: Rowan has said that "do you think you might choose me as your *breeding partner*?"

(i) Logical Properties: The phrase *breeding partner* refers to THE PARTNER WHO RAISES PLANTS OR ANIMALS (Morris, 2013:500).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: The phrase *breeding partner* activates certain encyclopedic information of THE FACT OF PRODUCING YOUNG ANIMALS. THE WAY ONE'S IS BROUGHT UP (ibid.).

Out of the above-mentioned logical properties and encyclopedic information, the following assumption is attained: *Rowan wanted to be Fern's partner to raise something (plants or animals).*

(B) Inference Stage: At this stage, the assumption will be broadened in the light of the contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a)Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that girls in the future have the right to choose their partners. She will accept on the condition that he gets a genetic clearance.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer depends on the child's world knowledge about some acts children in England cannot be done before eighteen years old. Among these acts are marriage and civil partnership.

(c) Illustration: There is no illustration given by the writer.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The writer employs 'quietly' to demonstrate that he was shy of his request.

These contextual factors then have broadened the interpretation of the concept BREEDING PARTNER to ostensibly signify BREEDING PARTNER*: *her husband (or civil partner) and her children's father*.

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) so that he will achieve relevance by highlighting what the phrase *breading partner* denotes. This expectation activates encyclopedic entries with more relevant assumptions. Other expectations activated based on relevant contextual items help the child to arrive at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: *He wants Fern to choose him as a husband and a father to her children*.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Two candidates can be generated for the given form: "Fern? When you're eighteen, do you think you might choose me as your *breeding* partner?"

C1. Do you think you might choose me as your *partner in raising plants or animals*?"
C2. Do you think you might choose me as your *husband?"*
(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates are submitted to the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: C1 contradicts the existing assumption: He is her partner in their research work. C2 strengthens the existing assumption: she will accept if he gets his genetic clearance. Moreover, C2 creates with other contextual indications the implicature: He wants to be her husband.

(ii) Processing Efforts: Linguistically, C2 is less complex than C1. Yet, C1 is more logically complex than C2. C2 is more frequently used in such contexts. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.
$<f_1, m_1>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.
C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality, $<f_1, m_2>$ since it < GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
$<f_1, m_1>$	*		*	*			*
☞$<f_1, m_2>$		*			*	*	

Extract (18)

Great-Granddad shook his head. "No. They ran on petrol."

Fern: "Petrol! But it's –"

Great Granddad: "Yes, I know, love. *Outrageous"* (Bradman, 2009:80).

(1) The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **hyperbole.**

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as: "Yes, I know, love. Outrageous".

(i) Logical Properties: The word *outrageous* refers to INSULTING AND OFFENSIVE (Morris, 2013:488).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: The encyclopedic information which this word activates is: DESCRIBING SOMETHING SHOCKING OR MORALLY UNACCEPTABLE. DESCRIBING SOMETHING UNUSUAL AND STRANGE (ibid.).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information together presumed the following as *Fern describes using petrol as something morally unacceptable and strange*.

(B) Inference Stage: At this stage, the assumption will be broadened based on the contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a)Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that people in the twenty-first century are wasters. They extravagantly employed world resources.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer depends on the child's world knowledge about the way people used to deal with world resources.

(c) Illustration: The writer did not provide illustrations.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The writer employs the parentheticals "I know" to express Fern's shock.

These contextual factors have broadened the meaning of the concept OUTRAGEOUS* which denotes people who used cars run by petrol during the 21st century.

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) so that he will achieve relevance by qualifying what the adjective *outrageous* signifies. This expectation activates encyclopedic entries with more relevant assumptions. Contextual items trigger more relative assumption leading the child to the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: *Fern regarded people who used cars run by petrol to be extravagant*.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Depending on the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "Yes, I know, love. Outrageous".

C1. Granddad described people's usage of cars run by petrol as unacceptable.

C2. Granddad exaggeratedly described people's usage of cars run by petrol as unacceptable.

(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: C2 strengthens the existing assumption: Fern was shocked by the mentioned situation of cars. Both of them create an implicature: How wasteful those people were!

(ii) Processing Efforts: C2 is linguistically more complex than C1. However, C1 is more logically complex than C2. C2 is more frequently used. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Eventually, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

<f_1, m_2> is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality, <f_1, m_1> since it < to GEN and there is a super optimal choice <f_1, m_2>

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
<f_1, m_1>	*	*				*	*
☞<f_1, m_2>		*		*	*		

4.2.2.4 Learn to Die by Mary Hoffman (2014)

The Author:

Mary Hoffman is an English writer known for her writings for children and young adults. She was born in Hampshire (England) in 1945. She studied English at Newnham College/University of Cambridge, and Linguistics at University College London. Hoffman was made an Honorary Fellow of the Library Association for her work with children and schools on courses for teachers on reading, language and children's literature (Hoffman, 2014:158).

Summary: It is a historical fiction short story, an anthology from the history of Lady Jane Grey (1537-54). A short-lived queen known as 'the nine days queen'. The story is narrated by her Italian teacher Michelangelo Florio. She was inherited the throne under the will of Edward VI's. Mary, Edward's elder half-sister, claimed the throne. Jane was arrested and executed in 1554 (ibid:63).

5.2.2.4.1 The Analysis of Narrowing Cases in Learn to Die Story

Extract (19)

The narrator: "Why are you so bitter about him? Did he harm you?"

Jane: "Not me. But he was my guardian and he should have protected my *reputation*." (Hoffman, 2014:55).

(1) The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **auto-hyponymy and hyponymy.**

(A) Decoding Stage: The utterance is decoded as: Jane has said that "he (Thomas Seymour) was my guardian and he should have protected my *reputation"*.

(i) Logical Properties: The word *reputation* refers to THE WAY THAT PEOPLE LOOK AT SOMETHING OR SOMEONE (Morris, 2013:582).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: *Reputation* activates encyclopedic information of HAVING GOOD REPUTATION. HAVING BAD REPUTATION (ibid.).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information together qualifies the following assumption to be realized: *He should protect my good reputation.*

(B) Inference Stage: At this level, the realized assumption will be narrowed based on the contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a)Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that Thomas Seymour was Jane's guardian and he should protect her reputation as a princess.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer depends on the child's world knowledge about the social effect and people's opinion on certain behaviour and actions which are disallowed in English society in general and aristocratic family in particular.

(c) Illustration: The writer employs a text illustration to give a background knowledge on the life of Jane Grey.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The writer employs 'so bitter' in the previous utterance to demonstrate Jane's attitude towards Thomas Seymour.

These contextual factors then have narrowed the interpretation of the concept REPUTATION (auto-hyponymy) to its hyponymy *good reputation.*

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) so that he will achieve relevance by qualifying what the word *reputation refers to.* This expectation activates encyclopedic entries with more relevant assumptions. Other expectations are activated by contextual items. Accordingly, the child arrives at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: Thomas Seymour as a guardian should protect her good reputation.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Based on the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "Not me. But he was my guardian and he should have protected my reputation."

C1. But he (Thomas Seymour) was my guardian and he should have protected my good reputation.

C2. But he (Thomas Seymour) was my guardian and he should have protected my bad reputation.

(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts. The candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects:C1 strengthens an existing assumption that Thomas Seymour was my guardian, so it is his duty to protect her good reputation. C1 contradicts the existing assumption: His bad deeds disturbed Jane.

(ii) Processing Efforts: The two candidates are linguistically complex. However, C1 is more logically complex than C2. Moreover, C1 is more frequently used in such contexts. Finally, C1 is more accessible than C2.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C1 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_1>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C2 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality,

$<f_1, m_2>$ since it < GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
☞$<f_1,m_1>$			*				
$<f_1, m_2>$	*		*		*	*	*

Extract (20)

The narrator: "Is he not a handsome choice?"

Jane: "He is *a fourth son*! And I've heard I am his second choice." (Hoffman, 2014:58).

A. The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **narrowing the adjective in adjective-noun combination.**

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as Jane has said: "He is *a fourth son*! And I've heard I am his second choice."

(i) Logical Properties: The lexical item *fourth* refers to THE PLACE THAT IS NUMBER FOUR IN A SERIES. THE PLACE BETWEEN THIRD AND FIFTH (Morris,2013:282).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: The adjective *fourth* activates certain encyclopedic information of: ONE OF FOUR EQUAL PARTS OR QUARTERS (ibid.).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information together enables the following assumption to be realized: *He takes the fourth place between his brothers.*

(B) Inference Stage: At this level, the realized assumption will be narrowed based on the contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a) Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that Jane refused the marriage because she wanted to be a queen but the fiancé was not an heir.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer relies on the child's world knowledge about the traditions of marriage of aristocratic girls and princesses.

(c) Illustration: The writer does not provide any illustration.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The writer uses the inductive mood to state the reason behind her refusal. She was so upset that she was in tears.

These contextual factors then have narrowed the interpretation of the concept FOURTH* in fourth son to mean *not heir*.

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) so that he will achieve relevance by qualifying what the adjective *fourth* signifies. This expectation activates relevant encyclopedic entries to yield more relevant assumptions. Other expectations are activated by contextual items. Accordingly, the child arrives at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: The fiancé has no chance to be a king.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Depending on the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "He is a fourth son! And I've heard I am his second choice."

C1: He takes the fourth place between his brothers.

C2: He has no choice to be a king.

(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: The generated interpretations show the following positive cognitive effects: C2 strengthens the existing assumption: Jane wants to be the queen. Besides, C2 contradicts the existing assumption that he is a good choice for an aristocratic girl.

(ii) Processing Efforts: C1 is more linguistically complex than C2. C1 is more logically complex than C2. Still, C2 is not frequently used in such contexts. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.
$<f_1, m_1>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.
C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality, $<f_1, m_2>$ since it < GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
$<f_1, m_1>$	*	*	*	*			*
☞$<f_1, m_2>$			*		*	*	

Extract (21)

The narrator: "Jane had momentous news".

Jane: "The king leaves his *crown* to me and my male heirs." (Hoffman, 2014:59).

(1) The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **auto-hyponymy and hyponymy.**

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as Jane has said that "The king leaves his *crown* to me and my male heirs."

(i) Logical Properties: The word *crown* refers to A DECORATIVE KIND OF HAT OR HEAD COVERING WORN BY KINGS AND QUEENS (Morris,2013:178).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: The word *crown* activates definite encyclopedic information of: THE FACT OF BEING KING OR QUEEN OR OF GOVERNING THE COUNTRY. TO MAKE OR DECLEAR A PERSON OFFICIALLY KING OR QUEEN (ibid.).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information together enables the following assumption to be achieved: the king will declare her queen.

(B) Inference Stage: At this level, the assumption will be narrowed in accordance with contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a)Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that Jane wants to be a queen. The king has the right to make Jane queen.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer relies on the child's world knowledge about how to declare someone king or queen.

(c) Illustration: No illustration was given.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The writer used the inductive mood to express this fact.

These contextual factors then have narrowed the interpretation of the concept CROWN to mean CROWN* the throne and the kingdom.

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) so that he will achieve relevance by limiting what the word *crown indicates*. This expectation activates certain encyclopedic

entries to have more relevant assumptions. Other expectations are raised by contextual items. The overall interpretation would satisfy the child's expectation of relevance: The king leaves his throne and kingdom to Jane.

2. The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: According to the context in which the underdetermined word occurs, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "The king leaves his crown to me and my male heirs"

C1. The king leaves his decorated hat to Jane.

C2. The king leaves his kingdom to Jane.

(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: The generated interpretations reveal the following positive cognitive effects. C2 strengthens an existing assumption that Northumberland has identified another way to have Edward make me queen. C1 contradicts an existing assumption that she will be the queen. C2 creates an implicature: Jane will be the queen.

(ii) Processing Efforts: C2 is linguistically less complex than C1. C1 is more logically complex than C2. However, C2 is more frequently used in such contexts. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_1>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality, $<f_1, m_2>$ since it < GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
<f_1, m_1>	*		*	*		*	*
☞<f1, m2>		*			*		

4.2.2.4.2 The Analysis of Broadening Cases in Learn to Die Story

Extract (22)

The Narrator: "Then Jane told me about Catherine Parr".

Jane: "She was a second mother to me. And much *less strict* than my real one" (Hoffman, 2014:54).

(1) The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **approximation**.

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as Jane has said: "She was a second mother to me. And much *less strict* than my real one".

(i) Logical Properties: The adjective *strict* refers to OBEYING RULES AND FOLLOWING INSTRUCTIONS EXACTLY (Morris, 2013:686).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: This word activates definite encyclopedic information such as: A STATE OF NEED TO FOLLOW THE RULES EXACTLY AND PERFECTLY OR FORCED TO DO SO (ibid.).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information definitely presumed the following assumption as Catherine does not force Jane to follow the rules exactly and perfectly.

(B) Inference Stage: At this level, the assumption will be narrowed or broadened in the light of the contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a) Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that Catherine Parr was good and kind to Jane. She was her second mother and the kindest and warmest person she had ever met. Jane's mother was very strict.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer depends on the child's world knowledge about the life of queens and princesses in English palace. They should follow firm rules.

(c) Illustration: The writer employs a text illustration to give a background knowledge on the life of Jane Grey.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The inductive mood is obviously used to express Jane's belief.

These contextual factors have broadened the interpretation of the concept STRICT in the given context to mean the concept STRICT* which denotes *a category of aristocratic members who are strict but less than (*good and kind) others who are much strict like Jane's real mother.

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) so that he will achieve relevance by qualifying what the word *strict.* This expectation activates encyclopedic entries with more relevant assumptions. Additionally, other expectations activated by contextual assumptions lead the child to arrive at the overall interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: *Catherine was kind to her not asking to follow the rules exactly and perfectly*.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Depending on the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "She was a second mother to me. And much *less strict* than my real one".

C1. Catherine Parr is strict but she is not like my real mother.

C2. Catherine Parr is strict but she is better than my real mother.

(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: Both candidates strengthen an existing assumption: queens and princesses follow a strict style of life. C2 also creates an implicature: Catherine Parr is a good and kind person since she is her second mother.

(ii) Processing Efforts: C2 is longer than C1. Both candidates are logically complex. Both candidates are frequently used. C2 can be easily accessed.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_2>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality, $<f_1, m_1>$ since it < to GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
$<f_1, m_1>$		*	*	*			*
☞$<f_1, m_2>$		*					

Extract (23)

The narrator: "You will be *happy* there?"

Jane: "Perhaps" (Hoffman, 2014:59).

(1) The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **approximation**.

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as the narrator has directly asked Jane: "You will be *happy* there?"

(i) Logical Properties: The lexical item *happy* refers to FEELING OR SHOWING PLEASURE OR JOY (Morris,2013:321).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: The word *happy* activates certain encyclopedic information of:
BEING PLEASED OR SATISFIED. LUCKY, FORTUNATE (Morris, 2013:321).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information together draws the following conclusion: You will be very pleased in Catherine's palace.

(B) Inference Stage: At this stage, the assumption will be broadened by means of contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

a. Contextual Presumptions

(a) Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that Jane was raised in Catherine's palace. Jane has a strong willing to be the queen.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer relies on the child's knowledge of the life of royal families.

(c) Illustration: The writer does not provide any illustration to give a background knowledge on the life of Jane.

(d) Propositional Attitude: Using 'perhaps' indicates that Jane is worried or unsure of her will.

These contextual factors then approximately have broadened the interpretation of the (happy) to be very pleased and satisfied to be the

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) so that he will achieve relevance by identifying what the word *happy* refers to. This expectation activates encyclopedic entries with more relevant assumptions in addition to other expectations activated by contextual items. Eventually, the child arrives at the most relevant

interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: Jane will be fully happy to be the queen.

2. The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Based on the logical and encyclopedic information, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "You will be happy there?"

C1. You will be happy to live in Catherine's palace?

C2. You will be happy to be the queen?

(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the subsequent constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects:C1 strengthens the existing assumption: she loved to live with Catherine. C2 also strengthens the existing assumption that Jane longs to be the queen. C2 creates the implicature: Jane's dream has come true at the end.

(ii) Processing Efforts: C2 is less linguistically complex than C1. C1 is more logically complex than C2. Moreover, C1 is more frequently used in such contexts. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_1>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality, $<f_1, m_2>$ since it < GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
$<f_1, m_2>$		*	*	*			*
☞$<f_1, m_1>$		*			*	*	

Extract (24)

The narrator: "Jane would not change her religion, even though Queen Mary sent her own chaplain to persuade her" (Hoffman, 2014:61).

Jane: "I would rather lose my life than return to the old religion with its crucifixes and *cannibalism!*"

(1) The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **hyperbole.**

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as Jane has said: "I would rather lose my life than return to the old religion with its crucifixes and *cannibalism*."

(i) Logical Properties: The lexical item *cannibalism* refers to THE ACT OF EATING HUMAN FLESH (Morris, 2013:112).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: The lexical item *cannibalism* activates certain encyclopedic information of: HUMANS THAT EAT HUMAN FLESH. ANIMALS THAT FEEDS ON ITS OWN SPECIES. CATHOIC RELIGIOUS RITUAL (ibid.).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information together enables the following assumption to be attained: *she prefers death to return to the old religion with its flesh eaters.*

(B) Inference Stage: At this stage, the drawn conclusion will be broadened in accordance with the contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a)Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that Jane is protestant queen and she called for religious reformations.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer relies on the English child's world knowledge about Catholics and their basic beliefs of Eucharist and the priest's blessing of bread and wine.

(c) Illustration: The writer employs a text illustration to give a background knowledge on the life of Jane.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The subjunctive mood is employed to express her firm attitude towards the old religion. She promised never to return to it.

These contextual factors then have broadened the interpretation of the concept CANNIBALISM to refer to CANNIBALISM* *Catholics who have certain rituals of eating bread and drinking wine as a sigh for human flesh.*

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) so that he will achieve relevance by revealing what the word *cannibalism refers to.* This expectation activates encyclopedic entries with more relevant assumptions. Other expectations are raised by contextual items. All these expectations have led the child to arrive at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: Jane prefers to die than return to the old religion and its bad rituals.

2. The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: According to the logical and encyclopedic information, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "I would rather lose my life than return to the old religion with its crucifixes and *cannibalism!*"
C1. Old religion and his followers who eat human's flesh.
C2. Old religion and its rituals.
(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the assumed constraints.
(i) Contextual Effects: C2 strengthens an existing assumption; Jane is protestant. Additionally, it creates with other contextual indications the

implicature that Jane refused Queen Mary's offer. C1 contradicts the existing assumption: humans do not eat human flesh.

(ii) Processing Efforts: C1 is linguistically more complex than C2. Likewise, C1 is more logically complex than C2. Moreover, C2 is more frequently used in such contexts. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_1>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality, $<f_1, m_2>$ since it < GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
$<f_1, m_1>$	*		*	*		*	*
☞$<f_1, m_2>$		*			*		

4.2.2.5 God's Eye (2016) by Frances Hardinge

The Author:

Hardinge is an English writer, she was born in Brighton, England. She studied English at Somerville College, University of Oxford. Hardinge began her career as a writer after she won a short story magazine competition. Then, she wrote her novel 'Fly By Night' which won the **2006 Branford Boase Award** and was listed as one of the School Library Journal Best Books. She also won the **2015 Costa Book Award**. She was known as a young-adult fiction writer.

Summary: God's Eye is a Victorian murder mystery short story. One of the **Mystery and Mayhem** collection of stories. It is about a famous talented artist who was selected to draw a picture of London out of a balloon. Suddenly, he fell off the balloon and died. The police identified that he was died because of poisonous food. The artist's maid was first

accused of being the killer, then other people were suspected till the story arrived at its resolution (Hardinge, 2016:177).

4.2.2.5.1 The Analysis of Narrowing Cases in God's Eye Story

Extract (25)

Mr. Pother: "That sounds like a perfectly natural reaction to me, probably improved it."

Mr. Cork: "You'll be laughing on the other side of your *smug face* by tomorrow!" (Hardinge, 2016:101).

A. The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **auto-hyponymy and hyponymy.**

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as Cork has said: "You'll be laughing on the other side of your smug face by tomorrow!"

(i) Logical Properties: The word smug refers to ANNOYING TO OTHERS BY BEING PLEASED WITH ONESELF (Morris, 2013:651).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: The word smug activates certain encyclopedic information of: TOO PLEASED OR SELF CONCEITED ABOUT SOMETHING ACHIEVED OR KNOWN (ibid.).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information together enables the following assumption to be realized: Mr. Pother is annoying to Mr. Cork by being pleased with himself.

(B) Inference Stage: At this level, the realized assumption will be narrowed based on the contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a) Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that Mr. Cork was annoyed by Mr. Pother who kept teasing him. Mr. Pother was Mr. Cork's competitor.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer relies on the child's world knowledge about being annoyed to someone.

(c) Illustration: The writer does not provide any illustration.

(d) Propositional Attitude: Mr. Cork uses the subjunctive mood to threaten Mr. Pother. The former was too angry as the adverb 'snarled' proved.

These contextual factors then have narrowed the interpretation of the concept SMUG* in smug face to mean too pleased look on Mr. Pother's face.

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) so that he will achieve relevance by qualifying what the word smug signifies. This expectation activates relevant encyclopedic entries to yield more relevant assumptions. In addition, other expectations are activated by contextual items. Accordingly, the child arrives at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: Mr. Pother is annoying by being too pleased.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Regarding the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "You'll be laughing on the other side of your *smug face* by tomorrow!"

C1: Mr. Pother's face is annoying by being too pleased.

C2: Mr. Pother is annoying by being too pleased.

(B) CON: Considering the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: The generated interpretations show the following positive cognitive effects: C2 strengthens the existing assumption: Mr. Pother laughed at Mr. Cork's lose to his picture. C2 contradicts the existing assumption: Mr. Cork was annoyed by Pother's teasing.

(ii) Processing Efforts: C1 is linguistically more complex than C2. C1 is more logically complex than C2. Moreover, C1 is more frequently used in such contexts. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

<f1, m1> is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality,
<f1, m2> since it < GEN and there is a super optimal choice <f1, m2> .

/Input/	(R1)	(R2)	(R3)	(E1)	(E2)	(E3)	(E4)
<f1, m1>	*	*	*	*			*
☞<f1, m2>			*		*	*	

Extract (26)

Susan: "But I bet you could find some still tucked away in folks' cupboards, if you asked around."

Ben: "I'd look suspicious as sin! 'Excuse me, can I borrow some *old candles*? And can you make sure they're the poisoning sort?" (Hardinge, 2016:103).

A. The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **narrowing the adjective in adjective-noun combination**.

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as Ben has said: "I'd look suspicious as sin! 'Excuse me, can I borrow some *old candles*? And can you make sure they're the poisoning sort?"

(i) Logical Properties: The adjective *old* refers to HAVING LIVED OR EXISTED FOR A LONG TIME (Morris, 2013:321).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: The adjective *old* activates certain encyclopedic information of: OF A CERTAIN AGE. NOT NEW OR RECENT. NOT CURRENT (ibid.).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information together presume the following: *are found for a long time.*

(B) Inference Stage: At this level, the realized assumption will be narrowed based on the contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a) Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that Susan wanted to kill Mr. Cork. She wanted Ben to buy her poisonous candles which had not been found anymore.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer relies on the child's world knowledge about poison.

(c) Illustration: The writer does not provide any illustration.

(d) Propositional Attitude: Mr. Cork uses the inductive mood to express Ben's attitude who objected Susan's request.

These contextual factors then have narrowed the interpretation of the concept OLD* in to mean not currently found poisonous candles.

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child). As such, he will achieve relevance by qualifying what the adjective *old* refers to. This expectation activates relevant encyclopedic entries to achieve more relevant assumptions. Moreover, other expectations are activated by contextual items. Accordingly, the child arrives at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: Susan wants Ben to buy poisonous candles which had not currently found.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Regarding the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "I'd look suspicious as sin! 'Excuse me, can I borrow some *old candles*? And can you make sure they're the poisoning sort?"

C1: Can I borrow some have long existed candles?

C2: Can I borrow some poisonous candles?

(B) CON: To account for the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: The generated interpretations show the following positive cognitive effects: C2 strengthens the existing assumption: Susan wanted to kill Mr. Cork with poison. C1 contradicts the existing assumption: she did not want the candles for their old age.

(ii) Processing Efforts: C2 is less linguistically complex than C1. C2 is more logical than C1. Moreover, C1 is more frequently used in such contexts. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

<f1, m1> is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality, <f1, m2> since it < GEN and there is a super optimal choice <f1, m2> .

/Input/	(R1)	(R2)	(R3)	(E1)	(E2)	(E3)	(E4)
<f1, m1>	*		*	*	*		*
☞<f1, m2>		*	*			*	

Extract (27)

Ben: "I read about a man who caught fire from the inside for no reason,
It burnt away everything except his hands and feet and clothes."
Susan: "Ooh, that's a *rum one*. But how will you make him catch fire from the inside?" (Hardinge, 2016:103).

(1) The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **narrowing the adjective in adjective-noun combination**.

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as: "Ooh, that's a *rum one*. But how will you make him catch fire from the inside?"

(i) Logical Properties: The adjective *rum* in refers to A STRONG ALCOHOLIC DRINK MADE FROM SUGAR CANE OR MOLASSES (Morris, 2013:600).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: This adjective activates certain encyclopedic information such as: TO DESCRIBR SOMEONE (CHILDREN) WHO IS A BIT QUIRKY BUT STILL LOVEABLE (ibid.).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information together qualifies the following assumption to be drawn: Ooh, you are

quirky but still loveable. But how will you make him catch fire from the inside?

(B) Inference Stage: At this level, the assumption will be narrowed by means of the contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a) Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that Ben is unexperienced little boy.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer depends on the child's world knowledge about describing children who say silly things.

(c) Illustration: The writer does not provide illustration.

(d) Propositional Attitude: 'Ooh' is used to express the speaker's attitude about what Ben said. Susan was mocking him.

These contextual factors have broadened the interpretation of the concept RUM ONE* in the given context to mean children who say silly things but he still loveable.

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: Highlighting what the adjective *rum* indicates, the utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child). The activation of the encyclopedic entries and items of the context are guided by the child's expectations. Consequently, relevance expectations lead the child to arrive at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: What Ben said is silly and impossible to happen.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Depending on the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "Ooh, that's a rum one. But how will you make him catch fire from the inside?"

C1. What Ben said is unusual but it can happen.

C2. What Ben said is silly and impossible.

(B) CON: Considering the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: C2 strengthens the existing assumption: He was shy of what he said. Besides, C1 contradicts the existing assumption: No one can catch fire from the inside.

(ii) Processing Efforts: C1 is more complex than C2. The logical complexity of C2 is more than that of C1. C2 is more frequently used than C1. Finally, C2 is less accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Subsequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_2>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality, $<f_1, m_1>$ since it < to GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
$<f_1, m_1>$	*		*	*		*	*
☞$<f_1, m_2>$		*	*		*		

4.2.2.5.2 Analysis of Broadening Cases in God's Eye Story

Extract (28)

Mr. Pickles: "I told them we'd be *fighting the wind*; the balloon likes to float free–she does not enjoy being put on a leash like this."

Mr. Cork: "This is not a pleasure trip; the newspaper is hiring you and your balloon so that I can sketch a God's eye view of London! Do your job, and stop your contraption lurching!" (Hardinge, 2016:100).

(1) The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **metaphor**.

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as: "I told them we'd be *fighting the wind*, the balloon likes to float free–she does not enjoy being put on a leash like this."

(i) Logical Properties: The word *fighting* in "fighting the wind" refers to A VIOLENT STRUGGLE BETWEEN PEOPLE, ANIMALS OR GROUPS USING WEAPONS (Morris,2013:266).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: This phrase activates certain encyclopedic information such as: A DISAGREEMENT; A QUARREL OR ARGUMENT. A BIG EFFORT TO REACH A GOAL (ibid.).

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information together qualifies the following assumption to be drawn: *a struggle between speaker and the wind.*

(B) Inference Stage: At this level, the assumption will be broadened by means of the contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a) Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that Mr. Pickles is the owner of the balloon the newspaper is hiring the artist Cork to get the God's Eye view. Cork could not work because the balloon was unstable.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer depends on the child's world knowledge about balloons which float in the air.

(c) Illustration: The writer does not provide illustration.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The subjective mood is used to express the fact the speaker wants to express.

These contextual factors have broadened the interpretation of the concept FIGHTING THE WIND* in the given context to mean difficult to be controlled, a state where the leader of the balloon is exerting effort to lead it against the wind.

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: Highlighting what the phrase *fighting the wind* indicates. The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child). The activation of the encyclopedic entries and items of the context are guided by the child's expectations. Consequently, relevance expectations lead the child to arrive at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: the balloon is difficult to be controlled.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Depending on the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "I told them we'd be *fighting the wind*; the balloon likes to float free–she does not enjoy being put on a leash like this."

C1. The balloon is in struggle with the wind.

C2. A big effort is exerted to control the balloon in this windy weather.

(B) CON: Considering the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: C2 strengthens an existing assumption that the artist could not draw because the balloon is swinging. Besides, it creates the implicature: the leader finds difficulty in controlling the balloon.

(ii) Processing Efforts: C2 is more complex than C1. The logical complexity of C2 is less than that of C1. C2 is more frequently used than C1. Finally, C2 is less accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Subsequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_2>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality, $<f_1, m_1>$ since it < to GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
<f_1, m_1>	*	*	*		*	*	
☞<f_1, m_2>		*		*			*

Extract (29)

Cork: "This little *vandal* threw up over one of my pictures!"

Pother: "That sounds like a perfectly natural reaction to me, probably improved it." (Hardinge, 2016:101).

(1) The Adjustment Level: The type of lexical process is **hyperbole.**

(A) Decoding Stage: The utterance is decoded as: "This little vandal threw up over one of my pictures!". The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) so that he will achieve relevance by qualifying what the italicized word refers to.

(i) Logical Properties: The word *vandal* refers to SOMEONE WHO DELIBERATELY DAMAGES OR DESTROYS PROPERTY (Morris, 2013: 758).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: It activates certain encyclopedic information such as: A DELIBERATE DAMAGE MADE TO OTHER'S PROPERTY (ibid.).

The logical properties and encyclopedic information together lead to draw the following conclusion: Cork describes his employee (Ben) as someone who deliberately damages his property.

(B) Inference Stage: At this stage, the assumption will be broadened in terms of the contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a) Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that Cork has lost one of his pictures because of Ben. However, it was only an accident because he was terribly sick.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer depends on the child's world knowledge about vandals.

(c) Illustration: The writer does not use any illustrations.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The writer employs the word 'shouted' to express Cork's state of anger.

All these contextual factors have broadened the meaning of the concept VANDAL* in the given context to mean *a person who deliberately damages the picture.*

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) so that he will achieve relevance by understanding what the word *vandal* represents. This expectation activates encyclopedic entries with more relevant assumptions. Other expectations are raised by contextual items. As such, relevance expectations guide the child to arrive at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: *Cork describes losing his picture by Ben as damage. So, Ben is a criminal*.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) GEN: Depending on the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "This little *vandal* threw up over one of my pictures!"
C1. Cork is angry because he thinks that Bell's action is deliberate.
C2. Cork describes Bell's undeliberate action as damage.
(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects: C1 contradicts an existing assumption that it was undeliberate action. C2 strengthens the mentioned existing assumption. It creates an implicature: Mr Cork exaggerates Ben's action.

(ii) Processing Efforts: C1 is longer than C2. Moreover, it is more logically complex than C2. C2 is more frequently used. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Accordingly, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_2>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it.

C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality, $<f_1, m_1>$ since it < to GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
$<f_1, m_1>$	*		*	*		*	
☞$<f_1, m_2>$		*			*		

Extract (30)

Ben: "But the *brandy* you gave Mr. Cork wasn't just *brandy*."

Mr. Whyte: "If you know all that, then you know how I treat those who try to blackmail me" (Hardinge, 2016:104).

A. The Adjustment Level: The lexical process is **pun-like cases.**

(A) Decoding Stage: At this stage, the utterance is decoded as: "But the *brandy* you gave Mr. Cork wasn't just *brandy*."

(i) Logical Properties: The word *brandy* refers to A STRONG ALCOHOLIC DRINK MADE FROM WINE AND SOMETIMES FLAVOURED WITH FRUITS (Morris, 2013:95).

(ii) Encyclopedic Information: It activates certain encyclopedic information of: MAKE SOMEONE GET DRUNK. CAN BE BLENDED WITH OTHER FLAVOURS.

The activation of logical properties and encyclopedic information altogether enables the following conclusion to be drawn: You gave Mr. Cork a blended brandy.

(B) Inference Stage: At this stage, the deduced assumptions will be narrowed in the light of the contextual assumptions and pragmatic expectations.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

(a)Mutual Manifest: It is manifested that Cork is died because of poison. It is also manifested that Cork drank brandy before his death.

(b) World Knowledge: The writer relies on the child's world knowledge about brandy and whisky.

(c) Illustration: The writer does not provide any illustration.

(d) Propositional Attitude: The inductive mood is used to indicate Ben's suspect.

These contextual factors activate other encyclopedic information which have broadened the interpretation of the concept BRANDY* to mean it is not just brandy but a poisonous one.

(ii) Pragmatic Expectations: The utterance is expected to be relevant to the reader (the child) so that he will achieve relevance by qualifying what the phrase 'brandy' indicates. This expectation activates encyclopedic entries with more relevant assumptions. Other expectations are raised by contextual items. Ultimately, relevance expectations lead the child to arrive at the most relevant interpretation that satisfies his preferences and abilities: The brandy you gave to Cork was poisonous.

(2) The Explanatory Level

(A) Gen: Depending on the context, two candidates can be generated for the given form: "But the *brandy* you gave Mr. Cork wasn't just *brandy*."

C1. But the brandy you gave Mr. Cork was a blended *brandy*.

C2. But the brandy you gave Mr. Cork was a poisonous brandy.

(B) CON: Following the relevance principles of cognitive effects and cognitive efforts, the candidates undergo the given constraints.

(i) Contextual Effects C2 strengthens the existing assumption: Mr Cork was died because of poison. In addition to other contextual indicators, C2 creates an implicature: You killed Mr. Cork.

(ii) Processing Efforts Both candidates are linguistically complex. However, C2 is less logical than C1. Moreover, C1 is not frequently used in such contexts. Finally, C2 is more accessible than C1.

(C) EVAL: Consequently, C2 is evaluated as a strong version.

$<f_1, m_1>$ is super optimal since it < GEN and there is no more optimal option than it. C1 is evaluated as a weak version of optimality, $<f_1, m_2>$ since it < GEN and there is a super optimal choice $<f_1, m_2>$.

/Input/	(R_1)	(R_2)	(R_3)	(E_1)	(E_2)	(E_3)	(E_4)
$<f_1, m_1>$	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
☞$<f_1, m_2>$		*		*			

After accomplishing the qualitative analysis of the selected representative examples, the time has come to deal with the statistical analysis. It is worth mentioning that the qualitative analysis of the remaining cases is detailed in Appendix (6).

4.3 Quantitative Data Analysis

This section is concerned with the function of quantitatively analysing the data of the current work, therefore it comprises the two sub-sections that are concerned with the statistical analysis of narrowing cases and broadening cases.

4.3.1 Descriptive Statistical Analysis

To fulfill the aims and verify the hypotheses of the present work, this section is intended to presenting the practical side of the analysis of the selected data: English children short stories. It exhibits the results which are arrived at by means of using the Microsoft Excel Application which is one of the commonest Microsoft software. It is basically utilised to obtain the results in terms of frequencies and percentages. Thus, the statistical analysis will concentrate on the range and rate of each variable under analysis. Accordingly, the frequency and percentage of each variable are calculated discretely in order to show the significance each pragmatic element fulfils. The quantitative results are presented in tables and figures. The tables are of two main groups: those concerned with the narrowing cases, and those with the broadening cases. The tables are organized in a way that matches the LPPs types and cases, contextual assumptions and pragmatic principles presented in the eclectic model: narrowing cases, broadening cases, mutual manifest, world knowledge, propositional attitude, illustration, linguistic complexity, logical complexity, frequency of use, contextual accessibility, strengthening an existing assumption, contradicting an existing assumption and creating an implicature. Moreover, those tables comprise two types of data which are found concomitantly: frequencies and percentages whereby the statistical equations employed can be presented as Percentage= $\frac{Sub}{Total}$*100.

For the sake of clarity and accuracy, the statistical analysis of narrowing cases and the statistical analysis of broadening cases will be in two sub-sections. The statistical analysis is intended to concentrate on the frequency and rate of each variable in the analysed extracts. In effect, the frequency and percentage of each variable in narrowing cases and broadening cases are calculated separately in order to show its significance and the aim it seeks to fulfil. The results of narrowing and broadening cases identified throughout the qualitative analysis are displayed in the following table.

Table (4.3) Frequency and Percentage of Narrowing and Broadening Cases in the Selected Stories

Types of stories	Narrowing		Broadening	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Mowgli's Brothers	8	32%	10	20%
Half a Creature from the Sea	4	16%	11	22%
Wasters	4	16%	11	22%
Learn to Die	5	20%	8	16%
God's Eye	4	16%	10	20%
Total	25	100%	50	100%

The percentages in Table (4.3) reveals that broadening cases are more frequently used in all the selected stories than narrowing cases as they score the percentage (66.6) and (33.3) respectively. Broadly speaking, broadening cases are more frequent than narrowing ones in fictional stories due to the fact that they are characterized by the heavy use of figures of speech.

Moreover, the results of contextual assumptions in narrowing and broadening cases identified throughout the qualitative analysis are exhibited in Table (4.4) below.

Table (4.4) Frequency and Percentage of Contextual Assumptions in the Narrowing and Broadening Cases

Contextual Elements	Frequencies	Narrowing	%	Broadening	%	Total
Mutual Manifest	75	25	33.3%	50	66.6%	100%
World Knowledge	75	25	33.3%	50	66.6%	100%
Illustration	17	8	47%	9	53%	100%
Propositional Attitude	75	25	33.3%	50	66.6%	100%

Table (4.4) exposes that mutual manifest, world knowledge and propositional attitude have a dominant effect in both narrowing and broadening cases as they are relied on in a frequency (75) and a rate (100%). However, illustration has a quite similar effect in either narrowing and broadening cases in a frequency (8) and (9) and a rate (47%) and (53%) respectively.

Concerning the results of pragmatic principles in narrowing and broadening cases identified throughout the qualitative analysis, the following table presents the results of contextual effects.

Table (4.5) Frequency and Percentage of Contextual Effects in the Narrowing and Broadening Cases

Contextual Effects	Frequencies	Narrowing	%	Broadening	%	Total
Strengthening an existing assumption	75	25	33.3%	50	66.6%	100%
Contradicting an existing assumption	28	17	61%	11	39%	100%
Creating an implicature	51	3	6%	48	94%	100%

As explicated in Table (4.5), strengthening an existing assumption is effective in both narrowing and broadening cases as it has an effect in a frequency (75) and a rate (100%). However, creating implicature proves

its effectivity in broadening cases in a frequency (48) and (94%) compared to narrowing cases in a range (3) and a rate (6%). Contradicting an existing assumption has more effect in narrowing cases in a range (17) and a rate (61%) compared to broadening cases where it scores (11) in a rate (39%). The results of contextual efforts are displayed in Table (4.6) below:

Table (4.6) Frequency and Percentage of Contextual Efforts in the Narrowing and Broadening Cases

Contextual Efforts	Frequencies	Narrowing	%	Broadening	%	Total
Linguistic complexity	30	18	60%	12	40%	100%
Logical complexity	34	15	44%	19	56%	100%
Frequency of use	63	24	38%	39	62%	100%
Context accessibility	58	25	43%	33	57%	100%

The above table explains that contextual efforts provided different results in narrowing and broadening cases. Linguistic complexity has an effect (30) cases distributed as (18) in narrowing cases and (12) in broadening cases rates (60%) and (40%) correspondingly. Logical complexity has an effect in (34) cases: (15) in narrowing cases and (19) in broadening cases in percentages (45%) and (55%). Frequency of use was the most effective element in a frequency (63): (24) and a rate (38%) in narrowing cases and (39) and a rate (62%) in broadening cases. Likewise, context accessibility has superior effect in a frequency (58); (25) and a rate (43%) in narrowing cases and (33) in a rate (57%) in broadening cases. More details and statistical facts will be tackled in the following subsections.

4.3.1.1 Statistical Analysis of Narrowing Cases

As far as the narrowing cases are concerned, the statistical analysis has displayed that the narrowing cases identified in the selected stories are (25). In fact, their distribution in each story is varied: ‘Mowgli’s Brothers’

was (8) in a rate (32%), 'Half a Creature from the Sea' (4) in a rate (16%), 'Wasters' (4) in a rate (16%), 'Learn to Die' (5) in a rate (20%) and 'God's Eye' (4) in a rate (16%).

The results manifested have shown that narrowing the adjective is the most frequent narrowing case in all the selected stories in a frequency of (11) and a rate of (44%). Auto-hyponymy came second in a frequency of (10) in a rate (40%), the frequency of lexical blocking was (2) in a rate (8%). Polysemy and Reduplication were the least frequently identified cases in a frequency (1) and a rate (4%) as shown in Table (4.7)

Table (4.7) Frequency and Percentage of Narrowing Cases

Narrowing Cases	Frequency	Percentage
Auto-hyponymy	10	40%
Narrowing the adjective	11	44%
Reduplication	1	4%
Polysemy	1	4%
Lexical Blocking	2	8%
Total	25	100%

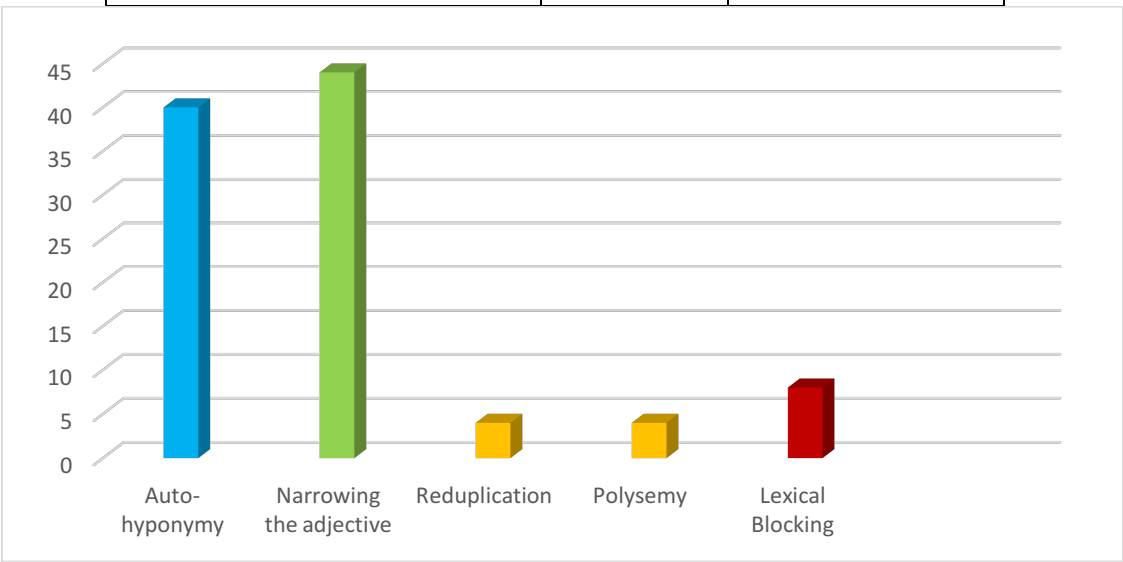

Figure (4.1) Overall Percentages of Using Narrowing Cases

To get a clear configuration of the frequencies of narrowing cases identified in each story under analysis, Table (4.8) below exhibits some sort of further illustration of the statistical results:

Table (4.8) Frequency and Percentage of the Narrowing Cases in the Selected Stories

Title of the Story	Narrowing Cases	Frequency	Percentage
'Mowgli's Brothers'	Auto-hyponymy	4	50%
	Narrowing the adjective	2	25%
	Reduplication	1	12.5%
	Polysemy	1	12.5%
	Lexical Blocking	0	0%
Total		8	100%
'Half a Creature from the Sea'	Auto-hyponymy	1	25%
	Narrowing the adjective	3	75%
	Reduplication	0	0%
	Polysemy	0	0%
	Lexical Blocking	0	0%
Total		4	100%
'Wasters'	Auto-hyponymy	1	25%
	Narrowing the adjective	1	25%
	Reduplication	0	0%
	Polysemy	0	0%
	Lexical Blocking	2	50%
Total		4	100%
'Learn to Die'	Auto-hyponymy	2	40%
	Narrowing the adjective	3	60%
	Reduplication	0	0%
	Polysemy	0	0%
	Lexical Blocking	0	0%
Total		5	100%
'God's Eye'	Auto-hyponymy	2	50%
	Narrowing the adjective	2	50%
	Reduplication	0	0%
	Polysemy	0	0%
	Lexical Blocking	0	0%
Total		4	100%

The statistical frequencies revealed in Table (4.8) above explicate the frequency of narrowing cases identified as follows:

A. 'Mowgli's Brothers'

Auto-hyponymy is recognized in (4) extracts and in a rate of (50%), Narrowing the adjective in (2) extracts and in a rate (25%) and Reduplication and Polysemy in (1) extract and in a rate (12.5%). However, Lexical blocking has not been recognized in this story.

B. 'Half a Creature from the Sea'

Narrowing cases realized in this story are as follows: Auto-hyponymy in (1) extracts and in a rate (25%), Narrowing the adjective in (3) extracts and in a rate (75%). Reduplication, Lexical blocking and Polysemy have not been identified in this story.

C. 'Wasters'

Narrowing the adjective is realized in (1) extract in a rate (25%), Lexical blocking (2) extracts in a rate (50%). Auto-hyponymy (1) extracts in a rate (25%), Reduplication and Polysemy have not been cited in this story.

D. 'Learn to Die': Auto-hyponymy is identified in (2) extracts in a rate (40%) and Narrowing the adjective (3) extracts in a rate (60%). Other narrowing cases (Reduplication, Polysemy and Lexical blocking) have not been recognized in this story.

E. 'God's Eye'

Narrowing cases in the story include Auto-hyponymy and Narrowing the adjective (2) extracts in a rate (50%), Polysemy, Reduplication and Lexical blocking have not been identified in this story.

As for the role of the contextual assumptions in interpreting linguistic cases in which narrowing process is involved, the results are illustrated below:

(i) Contextual Assumptions

The contextual assumptions involved in the inference stage, which consists of four major pragmatic elements represent the contextual

assumptions of each case, namely: mutual manifestation, world knowledge, illustration and propositional attitude (See 4.2.1.2.1).

The statistical analysis of contextual assumptions engaged in the interpretation of the data under scrutiny is presented in Table (4.4) above. It explicates that mutual manifestation, propositional attitude and world knowledge have an eminent impact on the interpretation of narrowing cases. These sources of knowledge assumed contextual assumptions with a high frequency of (25) and percentage of (100) in all narrowing cases. While illustration assumed contextual assumptions with the lowest frequency of (18) and a percentage of (69.3). This fact does not deny the importance of illustration as a contextual factor, yet, its contribution is limited to its presence in children's short stories.

To further elucidate the statistical representation of the contextual assumptions used in each story of the data under analysis, their frequency and percentage are shown in Table (4.9) below:

Table (4.9) Frequency and Percentage of Contextual Assumptions Employed in the Stories

Title of the Story	Contextual Elements	Frequency	Percentage
Mowgli's Brothers	Mutual Manifest World Knowledge Illustration Propositional Attitude	8 8 3 8	100% 100% 37.5% 100%
'Half a Creature from the Sea'	Mutual Manifest World Knowledge Illustration Propositional Attitude	4 4 1 4	100% 100% 25% 100%
'Wasters'	Mutual manifestation World knowledge Illustration Propositional attitude	4 4 3 4	100% 100% 75% 100%

'Learn to Die'	Mutual manifestation World knowledge Illustration Propositional attitude	5 5 1 5	100% 100% 20% 100%
'God's Eye'	Mutual manifestation World knowledge Illustration Propositional attitude	4 4 0 4	100% 100% 0% 100%

The statistical facts revealed in Table (4.9) above explicate the frequencies of contextual assumptions exploited in the stories as follows:

A. 'Mowgli's Brothers'

Mutual manifest, world knowledge and propositional attitude are employed in (8) extracts and in a rate of (100%). Yet, illustration is used in (3) extracts and in a rate (37.5%).

B. 'Half a Creature from the Sea'

Mutual manifest, world knowledge and propositional attitude are exploited in the narrowing cases in (4) extracts and in a rate (100%). However, illustration is exploited only in (1) extract and in a rate (25%).

C. 'Wasters'

Mutual manifest, world knowledge and propositional attitude are used in interpreting the narrowing cases in (4) extracts and in a rate (100%). Nevertheless, illustration is used in (3) extracts and in a rate (75%).

D. 'Learn to Die'

Mutual manifest, world knowledge and propositional attitude are engaged in the interpretation of the identified narrowing cases in (5) extracts and in a rate (100%). Still, illustration is used in (1) extracts and in a rate (20%).

E. 'God's Eye'

Mutual manifest and world knowledge are used in the narrowing cases of this story in (4) extracts and in a rate (100%). But, illustration has not engaged in the interpretation of any extract.

After illustrating the statistical facts of the contextual assumptions involved in the interpretation of the narrowing cases of the data under analysis, a detailed statistical analysis of pragmatic principles; the decisive factors of optimizing the most relevant interpretation in narrowing and broadening cases, will be presented below.

(ii) Pragmatic Principles

(1) Contextual Effects

The statistical analysis of contextual effects achieved in the interpretation of the data under scrutiny is presented in Table (4.10). It shows that strengthening an existing assumption effect is a key element as it is proved to be the most frequently achieved effect represented in all identified narrowing cases in a range (25) and a range (100%). While contradicting an existing assumption effect has shown in (17) extracts and in a rate (68%), creating an implicature is evident to be the least created effect in narrowing cases in a range (3) and a rate (12%).

Table (4.10) Statistical Analysis of Contextual Effects in Narrowing Cases

No	Contextual Effects	Frequency	Percentage
1	Strengthening an existing assumption	25	100%
2	Contradicting an existing assumption	17	68%
3	Creating implicature	3	12%

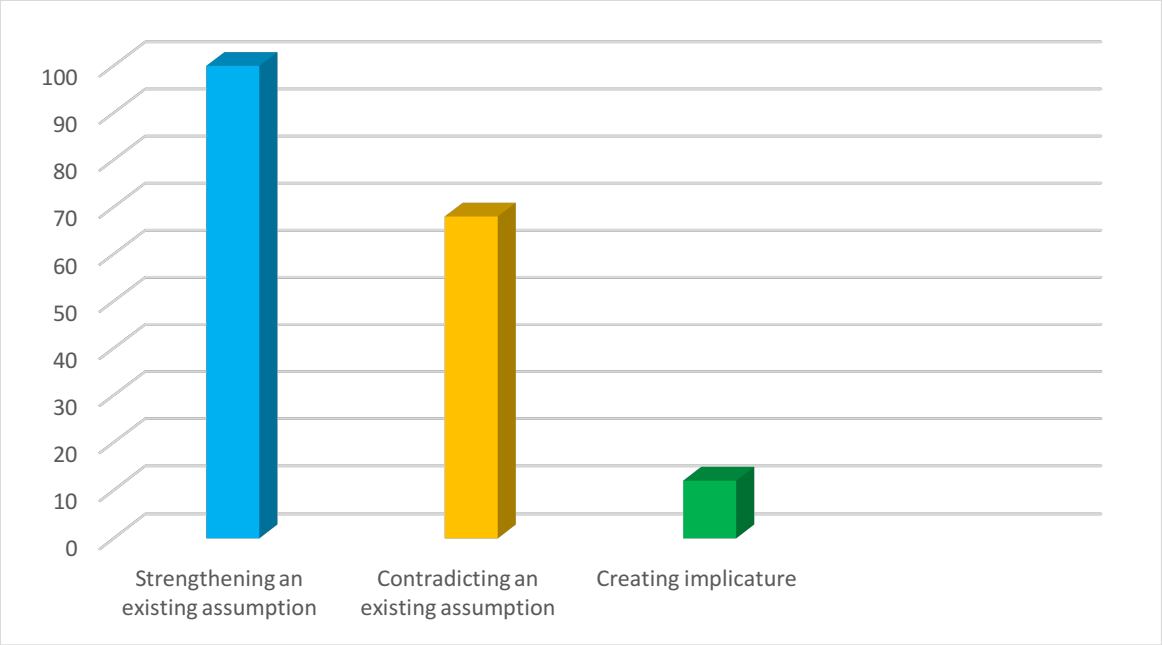

Figure (4.2) Frequency and Percentage of Contextual Effects Employed in the Narrowing Cases

To further illuminate the statistical representation of the contextual effects achieved in interpreting narrowing cases in each story of the data under analysis, their frequency and percentage are shown in Table (4.11) below:

Table (4.11) Frequency and Percentage of Contextual Effects Achieved in the Narrowing Cases of the Selected Stories

Title of the Story	Contextual Effects	Frequency	Percentage
Mowgli's Brothers	Strengthening an existing assumption	8	100%
	Contradicting an existing assumption	7	87.5%
	Creating implicature	1	12.5%
'Half a Creature from the Sea'	Strengthening an existing assumption	4	100%
	Contradicting an existing assumption	2	50%
	Creating implicature	0	0%
'Wasters'	Strengthening an existing assumption	4	100%
	Contradicting an existing assumption	1	25%

	Creating implicature	1	25%
'Learn to Die'	Strengthening an existing assumption	5	100%
	Contradicting an existing assumption	4	80%
	Creating implicature	1	20%
'God's Eye'	Strengthening an existing assumption	4	100%
	Contradicting an existing assumption	3	75%
	Creating implicature	0	0%

The statistical frequencies and percentage presented in Table (4.11) above explicate the frequencies and percentages of contextual effects achieved in the stories as follows:

A. 'Mowgli's Brothers'

Strengthening an existing assumption effect is achieved in all the extracts in a frequency (8) and in a range (100%), contradicting an existing assumption is achieved in (7) extracts and in a range (87.5%). Creating an implicature effect, in turn, is achieved only in (1) extract and in a range (12.5%).

B. 'Half a Creature from the Sea'

In this story, strengthening an existing assumption effect is got in (4) extracts and in a range (100%), contradicting an existing assumption is achieved in (2) extracts and in a range (50%). But creating an implicature effect has not been realized in this story.

C. 'Wasters'

In Waster story, strengthening an existing assumption effect is achieved in (4) extracts and in a range (100%), contradicting an existing assumption and creating an implicature are got only in (1) extract in a range (25%).

D. 'Learn to Die'

Strengthening an existing assumption effect is achieved in (5) extracts in a range (100%), contradicting an existing assumption is

achieved in (4) extracts in a range (80%). Creating an implicature effect is shown only in (1) extract in a range (20%).

E. 'God's Eye'

Strengthening an existing assumption effect is achieved in (4) extracts and in a range (100%), contradicting an existing assumption is got in (3) extracts in a range (75%). Creating an implicature effect has not been accomplished in this story.

(2) Processing Efforts

Regarding the statistical analysis of the contextual assumptions that minimize contextual efforts in children's interpretation of the data under scrutiny: Linguistic complexity (less complex assumption), Logical complexity (less logical assumption), Frequency of use (more frequently used assumption) and Context accessibility (easier to be accessed assumption) are presented in Table (4.12). It demonstrates that the context accessibility of the assumption assumed the most influential element in minimizing children's efforts in interpreting narrowing cases identified in the selected stories in a frequency of (25) extracts and in a rate (100%). Next has come frequency of use in a range (24) extracts and in a rate of (96%). Linguistic complexity is achieved in (18) extracts in a rate of (72%). logical complexity is achieved in (15) extracts in a range (60%).

Table (4.12) Frequency and Percentage of Processing Efforts in the Narrowing Cases

Contextual Effects	Frequency	Percentage
Linguistic complexity	18	72%
Logical complexity	15	60%
Frequency of use	24	96%
Context accessibility	25	100%

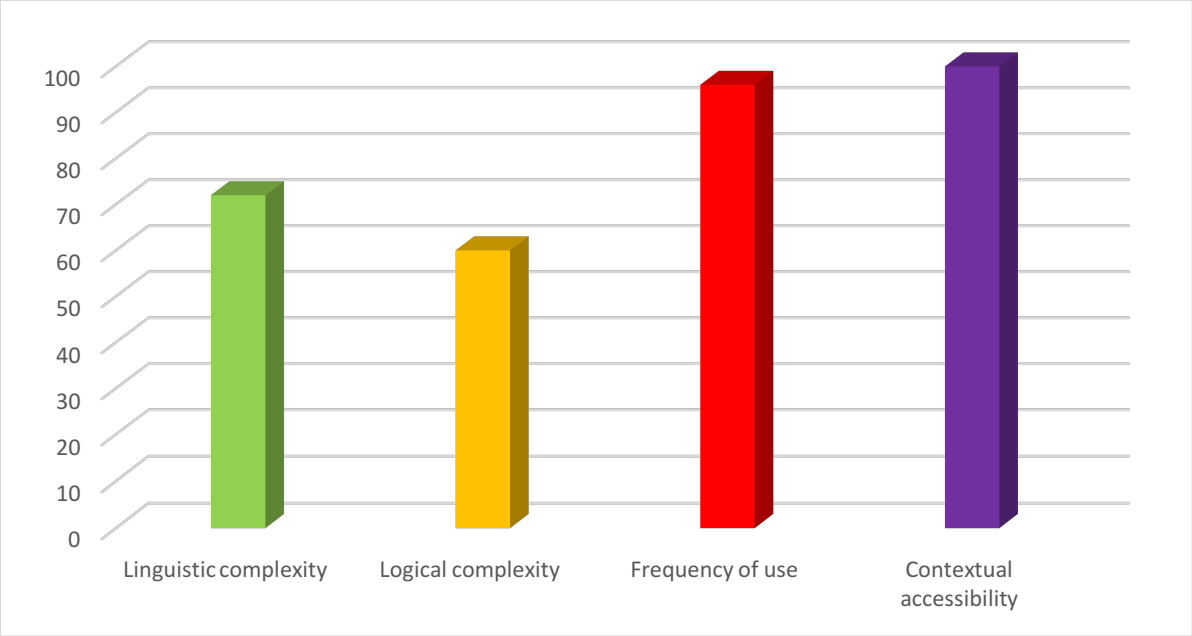

Figure (4.3) Frequency and Percentages of Processing Efforts Achieved in the Narrowing Cases

To elucidate the statistical representation of the contextual assumptions employed in minimizing the contextual efforts in children's interpreting narrowing cases in each story of the data under analysis, their frequency and percentage are shown in Table (4.13) below:

Table (4.13) Frequency and Percentage of Processing Efforts in the Narrowing Cases of the Selected Stories

Title of the Story	Contextual Efforts	Frequency	Percentage
Mowgli's Brothers	Less linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easier to be contextually accessed	7 7 4 8	87.5% 87.5% 50% 100%
'Half a Creature from the Sea'	Less linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easier to be contextually accessed	2 2 4 4	50% 50% 100% 100%
'Wasters'	Less linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easier to be contextually accessed	1 2 4 4	25% 50% 100% 100%
'Learn to Die'	Less linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easier to be contextually accessed	4 2 4 5	80% 40% 80% 100%
'God's Eye'	Less linguistic complexity	4	100%

	Less logical complexity More frequently used Easier to be contextually accessed	2 4 4	50% 100% 100%

The statistical frequencies and percentage presented above expound the frequency and percentages of contextual assumptions minimize children's contextual efforts in interpreting the narrowing cases of the stories as follows:

A. 'Mowgli's Brothers'

Linguistic complexity and logical complexity are presumed in (7) extracts and in a rate (87.5). Frequency of use is assumed in (4) extracts in a percentage (50%). Context accessibility is identified in all the extracts in a rate (100%).

B. 'Half a Creature from the Sea': Linguistic complexity and logical complexity are assumed in (2) extracts in a rate (50%). Frequency of use and context accessibility are identified in all the extracts in a rate (100%).

C. 'Wasters'

In 'Wasters' story, the processing efforts are assumed as follows: Linguistic complexity in (1) extract in a rate (25%), logical complexity in (2) extracts in a rate (50%). Frequency of use and context accessibility in (4) extracts in a rate (100%).

D. 'Learn to Die'

Linguistic complexity is manifested in (4) extracts in a rate (80%), logical complexity is scored in (2) extracts in a rate (40%), frequency of use is assumed in (4) extracts and in a rate (80%). Context accessibility is identified in (5) extracts in a rate (100%).

E. 'God's Eye'

In this story, linguistic complexity is marked in (4) extracts in a rate (100%), logical complexity is evident in (2) extracts in a rate (50%), frequency of use is assumed in (4) extracts and in a rate (100%). Context accessibility is approved in (4) extracts in a rate (100%).

As statistical analysis of narrowing cases is completed, statistical analysis of broadening cases will be thoroughly displayed and discussed in the following section.

4.3.2.1 Statistical Analysis of Broadening Cases

According to the statistical results presented in Table (4.3) above, the broadening processes are more frequently used in the analysed data. Metaphor is proved to be the most frequently identified broadening case in all the selected stories as it scores (19) and a rate of (57). Approximation in a range (18) in a rate (36), hyperbole in a range (8) in a rate (36). Category extension in a range (3) and a rate (6), neologism and pun-like cases are in a range (2) and a rate (4).

Table (4.14) Frequency and Percentage of Broadening Cases

Broadening Cases	Frequency	Percentage
Metaphor	19	38%
Hyperbole	8	16%
Approximation	17	34%
Category-extension	3	6%
Neologism	1	2%
Pun-like cases	2	4%
Total	50	100%

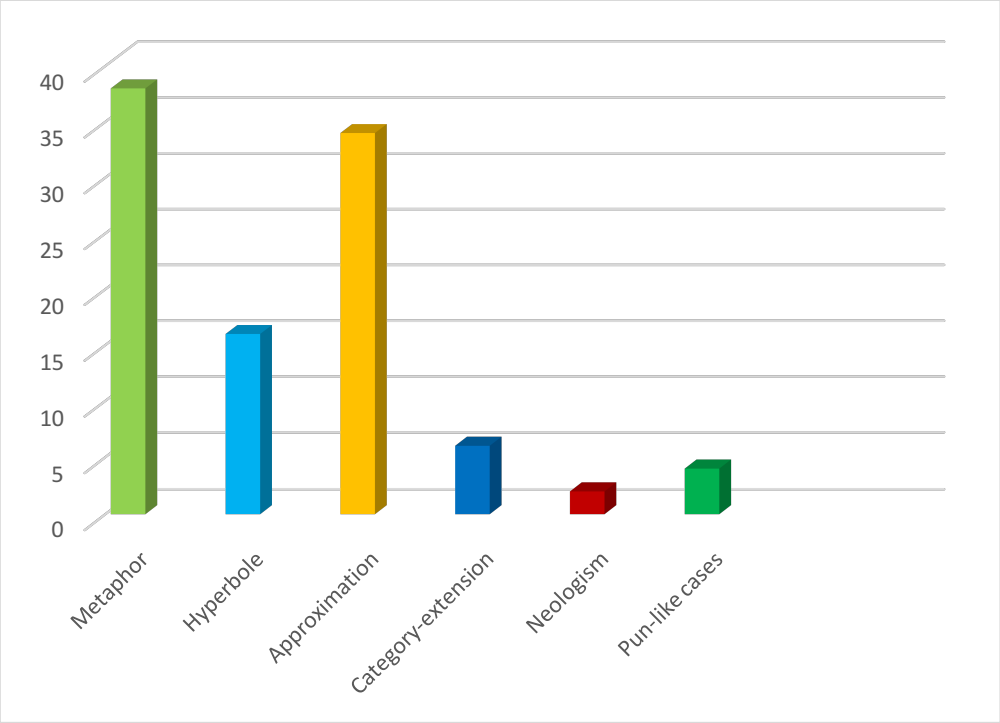

Figure (4.4) Overall Percentages of Using Broadening Cases

To get a clear configuration of the frequencies of narrowing cases identified in each story under analysis, Table (4.15) below exhibits some sort of further illustration of the statistical findings:

Table (4.15) Frequency and Percentage of the Broadening Cases in the Selected Stories

Title of the Story	Narrowing Cases	Frequency	Percentage
'Mowgli's Brothers'	Metaphor Hyperbole Approximation Category extension Neologism Pun-like cases	6 0 2 2 0 0	60% 0% 20% 20% 0% 0% 100%
'Half a Creature from the Sea'	Metaphor Hyperbole Approximation Category extension Neologism Pun-like cases	4 2 3 0 1 1	36% 18% 27% 0% 9.% 9.% 100%
'Wasters'	Metaphor Hyperbole Approximation Category extension	3 3 5 0	27% 27% 45% 0%

	Neologism Pun-like cases	0 0	0% 0% 100%
'Learn to Die'	Metaphor Hyperbole Approximation Category extension Neologism Pun-like cases	3 1 3 1 0 0	38% 12% 38% 12% 0% 0% 100%
'God's Eye'	Metaphor Hyperbole Approximation Category extension Neologism Pun-like cases	3 2 4 0 0 1	30% 20% 40% 0% 0% 10% 100%

The statistical frequencies revealed in the table above elucidate the frequency of broadening cases recognized as follows:

A. 'Mowgli's Brothers'

Metaphor is identified in (6) extracts and in a rate of (60%), approximation and category extension is achieved in (2) extracts and in a rate (20%). Hyperbole, neologism and pun-like cases have not been found in this story.

B. 'Half a Creature from the Sea'

Metaphor is identified in (4) extracts and in a rate of (36%). Hyperbole is found in (2) extracts in a rate (18%). Approximation is recognized in a range (3) extracts and in a rate (27%). Neologism and pun-like cases are proved to be the least broadening cases found in this story in only (1) extract in a rate (9%). category extension has not been identified.

C. 'Wasters'

Approximation cases are evident to be the most frequent cases in this story in a range (5) and a rate (45%). Metaphor and hyperbole are identified in (3) extracts and in a rate of (27%). Category extension, neologism and pun-like cases have not been identified in this story.

D. 'Learn to Die'

Metaphor and Approximation are identified in (3) extracts in a rate (38%). Hyperbole and category extension are shown in (1) extracts in a rate (13%). Other broadening cases (neologism and pun-like cases) have not been recognized in this story.

E. 'God's Eye'

Broadening cases in the story are as follows: Approximation in (4) extracts in a rate (40%), metaphor in (3) extracts in a rate (30%) and hyperbole in (2) extracts in a rate (20%) and pun-like cases in (1) extract in a rate (10%). Neologism has not been identified in this story.

As it is done with narrowing cases, the statistical analysis of all the contextual assumptions involved in the analysis of broadening cases will be discussed in the following sub-sections.

(i) Contextual Assumptions

In terms of the impact of contextual assumptions on the interpretation of broadening cases in the data under scrutiny, it is evident that mutual manifestation, world knowledge and propositional attitude are the most influential factors. They brought the child with the required contextual information that guided his expectations of relevance. Further, in combination with logical properties and encyclopedic knowledge, they lead to the most relevant interpretation that satisfies the child's expectations. Nevertheless, illustration is proved to have the least impact on the interpretation of these cases as it was not provided in all the extracts. (4.16) illuminates that mutual manifestation, world knowledge and propositional attitude were presented in all the identified broadening cases. That means in a frequency of (50) and percentage of (100%). Lastly, illustration is marked (9) and a percentage of (18%).

Table (4.16) Frequency and Percentage of Contextual assumptions in Broadening Cases

Contextual Elements	Frequency	Percentage
Mutual Manifest	50	100%
World Knowledge	50	100%
Illustration	9	18%
Propositional Attitude	50	100%

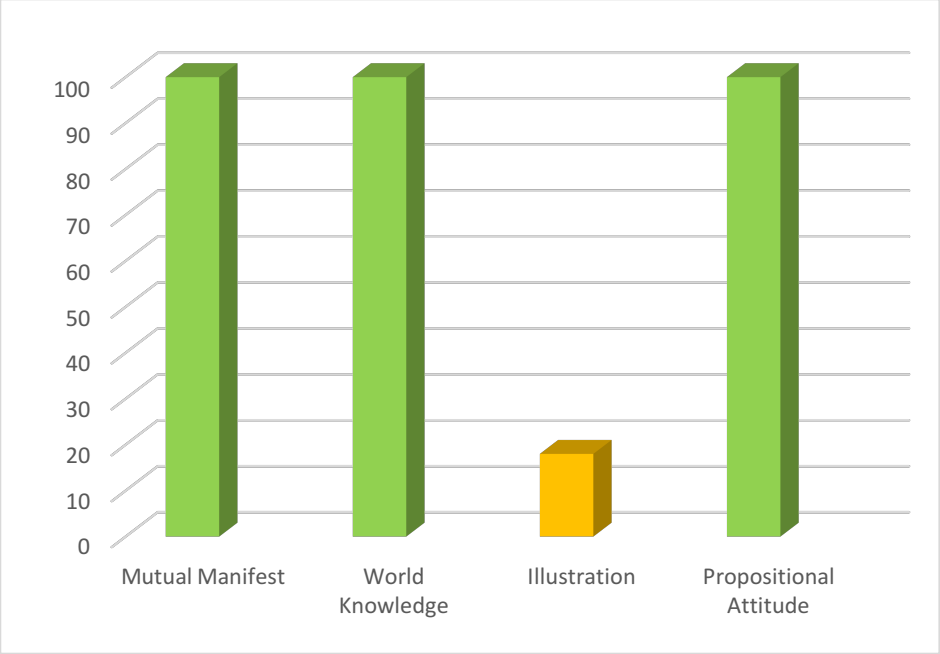

Figure (4.5) Frequency and Percentage of Contextual Assumptions Employed in Broadening Cases

To elaborate on the statistical representation of the contextual assumptions used in each story of broadening cases of the examined data, their frequency and percentage are shown in Table (4.17) below:

Table (4.17) Frequency and Percentage of Contextual Assumptions Employed in Broadening Cases of the Stories

Title of the Story	Contextual Elements	Frequency	Percentage
Mowgli's Brothers	Mutual Manifest World Knowledge Illustration Propositional Attitude	10 10 4 10	100% 100% 40% 100%
'Half a Creature from the Sea'	Mutual Manifest World Knowledge Illustration Propositional Attitude	11 11 0 11	100% 100% 0% 100%

'Wasters'	Mutual manifestation	11	100%
	World knowledge	11	100%
	Illustration	2	18.1%
	Propositional attitude	11	100%
'Learn to Die'	Mutual manifestation	8	100%
	World knowledge	8	100%
	Illustration	2	25%
	Propositional attitude	8	100%
'God's Eye'	Mutual manifestation	10	100%
	World knowledge	10	100%
	Illustration	1	10%
	Propositional attitude	10	100%

The statistical frequencies revealed in Table (4.17) above elucidate the frequency of broadening cases recognized as follows:

A. 'Mowgli's Brothers'

Mutual manifest and world knowledge are employed in (10) extracts and in a rate of (100%). The same thing can be true for propositional attitude, it has impact in all extracts and in a rate (100%). illustration had the least impact in a frequency (4) and a rate (40%).

B. 'Half a Creature from the Sea'

Mutual manifest, propositional attitude and world knowledge is exploited in this story in all the (11) extracts and in a rate (100%), illustration has not been employed in the broadening cases of this story.

C. 'Wasters'

Mutual manifest, propositional attitude and world knowledge is exploited in the (11) extracts and in a rate (100%). Illustration has an impact in (2) extracts and in a rate (18.1%).

D. 'Learn to Die'

The contextual assumptions of mutual manifest, propositional attitude and world knowledge have employed in (8) extracts and in a rate (100%). While illustration provided contextual assumptions in (2) extracts in a rate (25%).

E. 'God's Eye'

In this story, mutual manifest, propositional attitude and world knowledge have provided information in (10) extracts and in a rate (100%). However, illustration has affected the interpretation of (1) case in a rate (10%).

(ii)Pragmatic Principles

(1) Contextual Effects

Achieving contextual effects in interpreting broadening cases is proved its effectiveness and utility. Strengthening an existing assumption, as the statistical analysis demonstrated, is presented in interpreting all the broadening cases as it scored (100). Moreover, creating an implicature is influential in interpreting these cases in a range (45) and a rate (90). Contradicting an existing assumption effect had the least contextual effect in a range (14) and a rate (28).

Table (4.18) Frequency and Percentage of Contextual Effects Achieved in the Broadening Cases

Contextual Effects	Frequency	Percentage
Strengthening an existing assumption	50	100%
Creating implicature	48	96%
Contradicting an existing assumption	11	22%

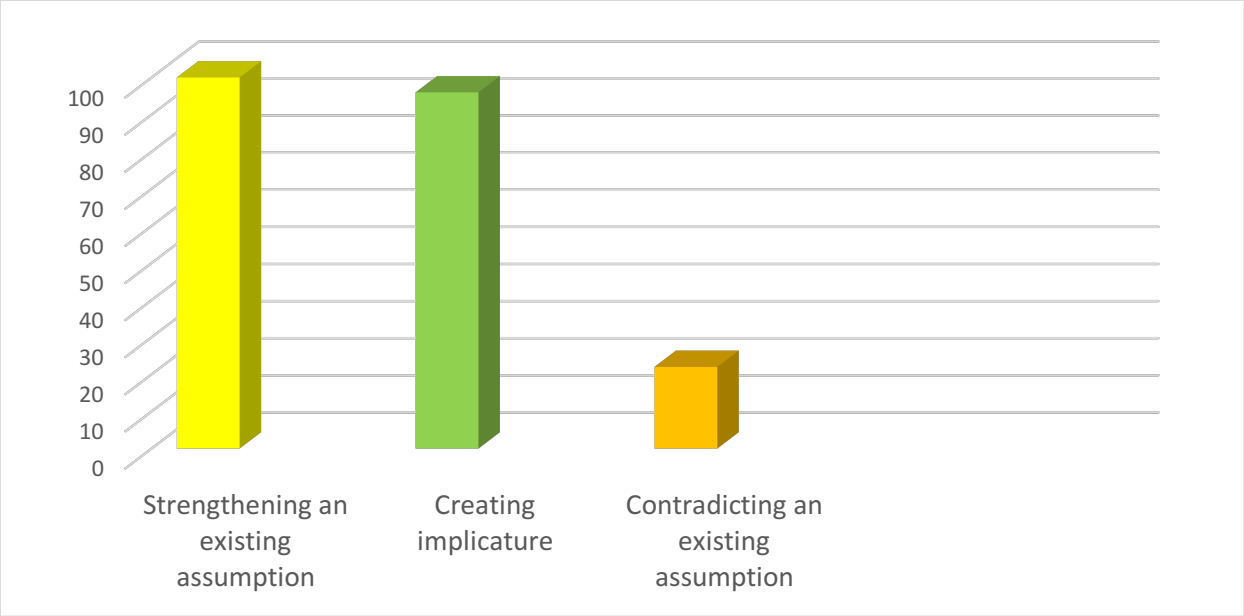

Figure (4.6) Frequency of Contextual Effects Achieved in the Broadening Cases

To configure the statistical representation of the contextual effects fulfilled in interpreting broadening cases in each story of the data under analysis, their frequency and percentage are indicated below and summarized in Table (4.19):

Table (4.19) Frequency and Percentage of Contextual Effects Achieved in the Broadening Cases of the Selected Stories

Title of the Story	Contextual Effects	Frequency	Percentage
Mowgli's Brothers	Strengthening an existing assumption	10	100%
	Contradicting an existing assumption	2	20%
	Creating implicature	10	100%
'Half a Creature from the Sea'	Strengthening an existing assumption	11	100
	Contradicting an existing assumption	0	0%
	Creating implicature	10	91%
'Wasters'	Strengthening an existing assumption	11	100%
	Contradicting an existing assumption	2	18%
	Creating implicature	11	100%

'Learn to Die'	Strengthening an existing assumption	8	100%
	Contradicting an existing assumption	3	38%
	Creating implicature	8	100%
'God's Eye'	Strengthening an existing assumption	10	100%
	Contradicting an existing assumption	3	30%
	Creating implicature	9	90%

The statistical facts presented in Table (4.19) above can be detailed as follows:

A. 'Mowgli's Brothers'

Strengthening an existing assumption has achieved effects in (10) extracts in a range (100%), creating an implicature has fulfilled by effects in (10) extracts in a range (100%). Contradicting an existing assumption has an effect in (2) extracts in a range (20%).

B. 'Half a Creature from the Sea'

Strengthening an existing assumption effect has an effect in (11) extracts in a range (100%). Creating an implicature has achieved effect in (10) extracts in a percentage (91%). The last contextual effect; contradicting an existing assumption has no effect in this story.

C. 'Wasters'

In Wasters story, strengthening an existing assumption and creating an implicature have the maximum effects in a range (11) and in a rate (100%). Contradicting an existing assumption is achieved in (2) extracts in a range (18%).

D. 'Learn to Die'

Strengthening an existing assumption effect has obtained in all the (8) extracts of this story in a range (100%). Likewise, creating an implicature effect has attained in (8) extracts in a rate (100%). Contradicting an

existing assumption, on the other hand, has accomplished in (3) extracts in a range (38%).

E. 'God's Eye'

In this story, strengthening an existing assumption has achieved effect in the all the extracts in a rate (100%). Creating an implicature effect has an effect in (9) extracts in (90%). Lastly, contradicting an existing assumption has an effect in (3) extracts in a rate (30%).

(2) Processing Efforts

To elucidate the contextual assumptions that minimize contextual efforts in children's interpretation of the broadening cases examined in the present study, the statistical analysis reveals that the Frequency of use is the most influential element in minimizing children's efforts in interpreting in (39) extracts in a rate (78%). This finding proposes the effect of the context on minimizing children's efforts in interpreting broadening cases. Context accessibility has also proved its effectiveness in minimizing processing efforts in a range (33) and a rate (66%). This finding indicates that processing efforts are minimized if children are frequent to the given words. However, the analysis shows that linguistic complexity and logical complexity have less effect on minimizing children's interpretation than the former elements in a range (12), (19) and a rate of (24%) and (38%) respectively.

Table (4.20) Frequency and Percentage of Contextual Elements that Minimize Contextual Efforts in the Broadening Cases

Contextual Effects	Frequency	Percentage
Linguistic complexity	12	24%
Logical complexity	19	38%
Frequency of use	39	78%
Context accessibility	33	66%

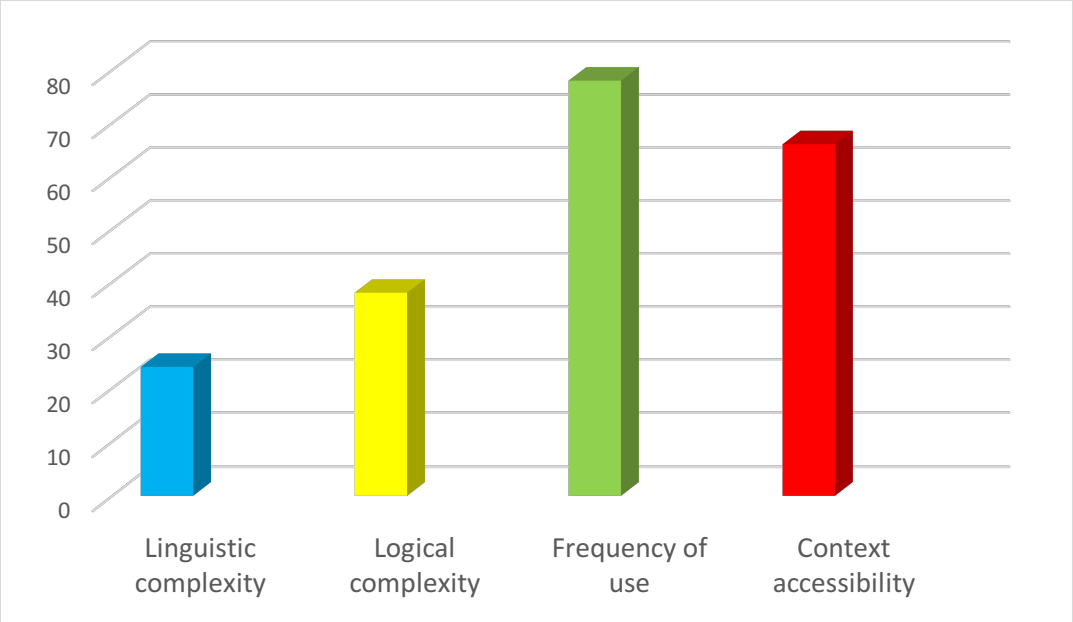

Figure (4.7) Frequency of Processing Efforts Achieved in Broadening Cases

The statistical representation of the contextual factors employed in minimizing the contextual efforts in children's interpreting of broadening cases identified in each story examined by the present study are illustrated in Table (4.21) below:

Table (4.21) Frequency and Percentage of Processing Efforts in the Broadening Cases

Title of the Story	Contextual Efforts	Frequency	Percentage
Mowgli's Brothers	Less linguistic complexity	4	40%
	Less logical complexity	1	10%
	More frequently used	8	80%
	Easier to be contextually accessed	5	50%
'Half a Creature from the Sea'	Less linguistic complexity	1	9%
	Less logical complexity	3	27.%
	More frequently used	10	91%
	Easier to be contextually accessed	5	45%
'Wasters'	Less linguistic complexity	2	18%
	Less logical complexity	5	45%
	More frequently used	10	91%
	Easier to be contextually accessed	9	82%
'Learn to Die'	Less linguistic complexity	2	25%
	Less logical complexity	3	38%
	More frequently used	4	50%
	Easier to be contextually accessed	6	75%
'God's Eye'	Less linguistic complexity	3	30%

	Less logical complexity	7	70%
	More frequently used	7	70%
	Easier to be contextually accessed	8	80%

A. 'Mowgli's Brothers'

Concerning 'Mowgli's Brothers', less linguistic complexity is obtained in (4) extracts with a percentage that amounts to (40%). More logical complexity has assumed effects in (1) extract with a percentage of (10%). Frequency of use has assumed high frequency in (8) extracts and in a rate (80%). Context accessibility is identified in (5) extracts in a rate (50%).

B. 'Half a Creature from the Sea': On the basis of the analysis, linguistic complexity has achieved effect only in (1) extract in a rate (9%); logical complexity is employed in (3) extracts in a rate (27%), frequency of use has assumed effect in (10) extracts and in a rate (91%) and context accessibility was (5) in a rate (45%).

C. 'Wasters'

In this story, less linguistic complexity is obtained in (2) extracts with a percentage that amounts to (18%). More logical complexity has assumed effect in (5) extracts with a percentage of (45%). Frequency of use has assumed high frequency in (10) extracts and in a rate (91%). Context accessibility has an effect in (9) in a rate (82%).

D. 'Learn to Die'

In Learn to Die, linguistic complexity has claimed the least effect in a frequency (2) and a rate (25%). Logical complexity has an effect in (3) extracts and a rate (38%). Context accessibility, in turn, has scored the first rank with a range (6) and a rate (75%). Frequency of use has recorded the second rank with a frequency (4) and a rate (50%).

E. 'God's Eye'

In this story, linguistic complexity and logical complexity have claimed the least effect in a frequency (3) and a percentage (30%).

Frequency of use claimed effect in (7) extracts and a rate (70%). Context accessibility has achieved effect in (8) extracts in a rate (80%).

4.4 Findings and Discussion

Based on the analysis, the present study finds out the following:

1. The qualitative analysis is significant evidence of the utility and effectiveness of the eclectic model in analysing underdetermined words in children's short stories. The amalgamation of RT and BOT is proved to be fruitful in this study. The former is thoroughly deployed to explain the comprehension mechanism of LPPs through which children arrive at the communicated meanings of modified words. The latter systematically evaluates and justifies the preference of an assumption to the others.

2. The items of the model are verified to be applicable. The idea that like adults' children interpret literary language of short stories using the same comprehension mechanism (see 2.2.5) which requires a deeper apprehension on the part of the reader comes to be consistent with the results of the present study. Still the contextual elements and clues they employ are rather different.

3. Evidently, broadening cases are more frequently used in all the selected stories than narrowing cases (see Table (4.3) above). Such finding is attributed to the quantitative analysis which shows that the former scores (50) and the latter scores (25) respectively. Generally, broadening cases are more frequent than narrowing ones in fictional stories due to the fact that they are characterized by the heavy use of figures of speech.

4. The analysis shows that while metaphor is the most broadening case commonly recognized in all the data, narrowing the adjective in adjective-noun combination is the most frequent narrowing case (see Table (4.4)). Metaphor is identified in a rate (19) out of (50) broadening cases (Table (4.17). Narrowing the adjective is identified in (11) cases out of (25) recognized narrowing cases.

5. As for the contextual factors children employ in interpreting modified words meanings, the quantitative analysis reflects that mutual manifest, world knowledge and propositional attitude are the most affecting factors in all cases (see Table (4.16)).

6. The results have demonstrated that strengthening an existing assumption and creating an implicature are the most influential cognitive effects in interpreting broadening cases in the data under investigation at a rate (50) and (48) respectively. Nevertheless, strengthening an existing assumption and contradicting the existing assumption are prominent in narrowing cases in a rate (25) and (17) correspondingly out of (25) narrowing cases (see Table (4.5)).

7. The analysis verifies that frequency of use and context accessibility are the principal elements in minimizing children's effort and achieving relevance in both types of LPPs of the analysed data. This can be attributed to the high frequency it scored in analysing all the extracts. In narrowing cases, it is effective in all identified cases. In broadening cases, on the other hand, it is effective in (33) cases (see Table (4.6)). It follows that when the context can be easily accessed and words are familiar, processing efforts will be minimized, and then achieve relevance more than any other elements.

CHAPTER FIVE
CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

5.1 Conclusions

After analysing the data of the present work, the study has come up with the following conclusions:

1. Narrowing and broadening process are involved the interpretation of different linguistic phenomena or cases of modified word meanings in the selected data which means that they significantly affect children's interpretation of these cases; auto-hyponymy, narrowing the adjective, reduplication, polysemy and lexical blocking, metaphor, hyperbole, approximation, category-extension, neologism and pun-like cases. This finding achieves the first aim and validates the first hypothesis of the present study.

2.The qualitative and quantitative analysis reveal that children utilise broadening processes more than narrowing ones in interpreting modified cases of children's short stories. This finding answers the second question and achieves the second aim of the present study. It validates second hypothesis.

3. Based on the statistical analysis, narrowing the adjective in adjective-noun combination cases are the most commonly identified ones of narrowing process and metaphor cases are the most commonly identified cones of broadening process in English children's short stories. This result obviously achieves the third aim in identifying the most frequent types of linguistic cases in which narrowing and broadening processes are engaged. It partially validates the third hypothesis that conforms that narrowing the adjective in adjective-noun combination is the most frequent narrowing

case identified in the analysed data. However, the second part of the third hypothesis is refuted as the analysis shows that metaphor is the most common identified case of broadening process in the present study.

4. To arrive at the communicated meaning, it is evident that children rely on various contextual factors; mutual manifest, world knowledge, illustration and propositional attitude. The quantitative analysis shows that the contextual assumptions that children heavily relied on are world knowledge, mutual manifest and propositional attitude. This outcome answers the fourth question and fulfils the fourth aim of the current work. Besides, it partly validates the fourth hypothesis set by this study since world knowledge is the contextual factor that children rely on in interpreting modified words. Yet not only world knowledge but also other contextual factors proves their effectiveness in the analysis.

5. There do exist some differences between narrowing processes and broadening processes. This is mainly evident in terms of pragmatic principles employed in the interpretation of the data. Depending on relevance principles; contextual effects, strengthening an existing assumption and contradicting an existing assumption are the dominant effects in narrowing cases. Broadening process cases yield strengthening an assumption and creating an implicature effect. This finding accomplishes the fifth aim of this study as well as partly validates the fifth hypothesis.

6. As far as processing efforts are concerned, the analysis proves that context accessibility and frequency of use are demonstrated to be principal in minimizing children's effort and achieving relevance in both narrowing and broadening cases of the analysed data. This can be evident in the high percentages they score in analysing all the extracts. It follows that when the context can be easily accessed and words are familiar, processing

efforts will be minimized, and then achieve relevance more than any other elements. This result attains the fifth aim of this study. Moreover, it partly rejects the fifth hypothesis established as LPPs employ the same means of processing efforts in interpreting modified cases.

7. The model of analysis developed by this study has proven its workability in analysing LPPs in the selected data. So it can be utilised in the investigation and application of LPPs in other text genres.

5.2 Recommendations

On the basis of the above conclusions, the following points are recommended:

1. Due to their eminent role in identifying the communicator's end of underdetermined words, children's curriculua designers should account for short stories and LPPs contribution to its interpretation.

2. Owing to the conclusions above, LPPs should get special attention not only in the curriculum of elementary and secondary studies, but also of higher studies and undergraduate studies. This, in turn, requires including some preliminaries and instances of LPPs in the textbooks when conversations or dialogues are addressed to familiarize the students with them.

3. Pragmaticians are invited to examine the relationship between LPPs and other well-known pragmatic theories and such as politeness and concepts like presupposition, euphemisym, etc.

4. Based on the key role the context plays in identifying the intended meaning of underdetermined words, pragmaticians need to investigate the relationship between linguistic and non-linguistic contextual aspects on which the addressees rely in their interpretation of different text types.

5. Pragmaticians need to pay more attention to LPPs of underdetermined words. This will extend the pragmatic concerns more than what is traditionally known.

6. It is also recommended for pragmaticians to concentrate on the notions of contextual effects and processing efforts away from non-linguistic aspects.

7. Psycolinguists need to develop children's lexical adjustment of words meaning beyond what it has been traditionally tackled. This can be done by dealing with real corpus to show how LPPs can be utilised as a means to reach the communicator's intended meaning.

5.3 Suggestions for Further Research Work

In the light of the findings of this work and the recomendations, the following topics are suggested for further research:

1. A pragma-stylistic study of the LPPs can be conducted in literary texts. It can be applied to different literary texts to examine lexical processes from these perspectives.

2. A pragmatic study of contextual strategies in scientific texts can be tackled to highlight different strategies employed in such genre.

3. A contrastive study between English and Arabic children's short stories can be made with the aim of identifying LPPs within each one.

4. A pragmatic study of LPPs in religious texts in light of RT is suggested to shed light on the comprehension procedure and pragmatic expectations governing these texts.

5. A lexical pragmatic study in diplomatic speeches, e.g. the Secertaty-General of United Nations. It helps identifying the role these proesses perform in interpreting these speeches.

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Appendices

Appendix (1) Analysis of The Remaining Extracts of 'Mowgli's Brothers' Story

Extract No.	Undetermined lexical items	LPP cases	Contextual information	Contextual Effects	Contextual Efforts
1	my teeth	Auto-hyponymy	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Contradicting an existing assumption	Less linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easy to be accessed
2	a fat one	Narrowing the adjective	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Contradicting an existing assumption	Less linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easy to be accessed
3	The man's cub—the man's cub?	Reduplication	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Contradicting an existing assumption	Less linguistic complexity Less logical complexity Less frequently used Easy to be accessed
4	another	Auto-hyponymy	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Contradicting an existing assumption	Less linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easy to be accessed
5	man	Auto-hyponymy	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude Illustration	Strengthening existing assumption Contradicting an existing assumption	Less linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easy to be accessed
6	bush-tailed thieves	Metaphor	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Contradicting an existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic complexity More logical complexity More frequently used Difficult to be accessed
7	The pack	Category extension	Mutual manifest World knowledge Illustration Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	Less linguistic complexity More logical complexity Less frequently used Easy to be accessed
8	naked thing	Metaphor	Mutual manifest World knowledge	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic plexity More logical complexity More frequently used

			Illustration Propositional attitude		Difficult to be accessed
9	difficult	Approximation	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easy to be accessed
10	killing matter	Metaphor	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic complexity More logical complexity More frequently used Difficult to be accessed
11	Free people	Category-extension	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic complexity More logical complexity More frequently used Difficult to be accessed
12	red flower	Metaphor	Mutual manifest World knowledge Illustration Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature Contradicting an existing assumption	More linguistic complexity More logical complexity More frequently used Difficult to be accessed

Appendix (2) Analysis of The Remaining Extracts of 'Half a Creature from the Sea' Story

Extract No.	Undetermined lexical items	LPP cases	Contextual information	Contextual Effects	Contextual Efforts
1	perfect gifts	Narrowing the adjective	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Contradicting an existing assumption	Less linguistic complexity More logical complexity More frequently used Easy to be accessed
2	a world away	metaphor	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic complexity More logical complexity More frequently used Difficult to be accessed
3	a mystery	hyperbole	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic complexity More logical complexity More frequently used Difficult to be accessed
4	touched with dread	hyperbole	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic complexity More logical complexity More frequently used Difficult to be accessed
5	happy	approximation	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	Less linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easy to be accessed
6	the roaring	metaphor	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic complexity More logical complexity More frequently used Difficult to be accessed
7	precious	approximation	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic complexity More logical complexity More frequently used Easy to be accessed
8	strangeness	metaphor	Mutual manifest World knowledge	Strengthening existing assumption	More linguistic complexity More logical complexity

			Propositional attitude	Creating an implicature	More frequently used Difficult to be accessed
9	another mystery	pun-like cases	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic complexity More logical complexity More frequently used Difficult to be accessed

Appendix (3) Analysis of The Remaining Extracts of 'Wasters' Story

Extract No.	Undetermined lexical items	LPP cases	Contextual information	Contextual Effects	Contextual Efforts
1	teenager	Lexical blocking	Mutual manifest World knowledge Illustration Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Contradicting an existing assumption	More linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easy to be accessed
2	precious	appproximation	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easy to be accessed
3	too stupid	hyperbole	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature Contradicting an existing assumption	More linguistic complexity More logical complexity More frequently used Difficult to be accessed
4	all bad	approximation	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easy to be accessed
5	just ignorant	hyperbole	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature Contradicting an existing assumption	More linguistic complexity More logical complexity More frequently used Difficult to be accessed
6	pointless	approximation	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easy to be accessed

7	busy	approximation	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easy to be accessed
8	Waster	metaphor	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude Illustration	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic complexity More logical complexity More frequently used Difficult to be accessed
9	bad	approximation	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easy to be accessed

Appendix (4) Analysis of The Remaining Extracts of 'Learn to Die' Story

Extract No.	Undetermined lexical items	LPP cases	Contextual information	Contextual Effects	Contextual Efforts
1	Poor Catherine	Narrowing the adjective	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Contradicting an existing assumption	Less linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easy to be accessed
2	handsome choice	Narrowing the adjective	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Contradicting an existing assumption	Less linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easy to be accessed
3	cold	metaphor	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature Contradicting an existing assumption	More linguistic complexity More logical complexity Less frequently used Easy to be accessed
4	bucket	metaphor	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Contradicting an existing assumption	More linguistic complexity More logical complexity More frequently used Difficult to be accessed
5	Northumberland	Category extension	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic complexity Less logical complexity Less frequently used Difficult to be accessed
6	warmest person	metaphor	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature Contradicting an existing assumption	More linguistic complexity More logical complexity More frequently used Difficult to be accessed

7	bitter	approximation	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easy to be accessed

Appendix (5) Analysis of The Remaining Extracts of 'God's Eye' Story

Extract No.	Undetermined lexical items	LPP cases	Contextual information	Contextual Effects	Contextual Efforts
1	Without a place	auto-hyponymy	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Contradicting an existing assumption	Less linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easy to be accessed
2	Fishing out	metaphor	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature Contradicting an existing assumption	More linguistic complexity More logical complexity More frequently used Difficult to be accessed
3	dizzy	approximation	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Contradicting an existing assumption	Less linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easy to be accessed
4	Drank nothing	approximation	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Contradicting an existing assumption	Less linguistic complexity Less logical complexity More frequently used Easy to be accessed
5	Hollow	approximation	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic complexity Less logical complexity Less frequently used Easy to be accessed

6	Pull off	hyperbole	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature Contradicting an existing assumption	More linguistic complexity More logical complexity More frequently used Difficult to be accessed
7	safe	approximation	Mutual manifest World knowledge Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic complexity Less logical complexity Less frequently used Easy to be accessed
8	puppy	metaphor	Mutual manifest World knowledge Illustration Propositional attitude	Strengthening existing assumption Creating an implicature	More linguistic complexity Less logical complexity Less frequently used Easy to be accessed

وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي

جامعة بابل

كلية التربية للعلوم الإنسانية

قسم اللغة الإنكليزية

دراسة العمليات التداولية المعجمية في قصص الاطفال الانكليزية القصيرة

أطروحة

تقدمت بها الى مجلس كلية التربية للعلوم الإنسانية – جامعة بابل

جزءاً من متطلبات نيل شهادة دكتوراه فلسفة في اللغة الإنكليزية / علم اللغة

الطالبة

خمائل علي وهيب عزيز العزاوي

بأشراف

أ. م. د صادق مهدي كاظم الشمري

محرم 1444 هـ

آب 2022 م

الخلاصة

تتناول هذه الدراسة العمليات التداولية المعجمية في قصص الأطفال الانكليزية القصيرة. اذ تدرس دور هذه العمليات في تفسير معاني الكلمات المعدلة في سياقات مختلفة في خمسة قصص انكليزية قصيرة للاطفال: Mowgli's Brothers (1894), Half a Creature from the Sea (2007), Wasters (2009), Learn to Die (2014) and God's Eye(2016).

ان معظم الدراسات في مجال التداولية المعجمية تتناول دور هده العمليات في تواصل البالغين ولم يولى دورها في تواصل الأطفال اهتماما كافيا، لذا تهدف هذه الدراسة إلى (١) معرفة تأثير العمليات التداولية المعجمية في تفسير الأطفال لمعاني الكلمات المعدلة في سياقات مختلفة،(٢) تحديد نوع العمليات التداولية المعجمية الأكثر استخداما في تفسير معاني الكلمات المعدلة المتضمنة في قصص الأطفال الإنكليزية القصيرة، (٣)تحديد الحالات التي تتضمن تضييق وتوسيع المعنى (٤) تحديد العوامل السياقية الأكثر شيوعا التي يتبناها الأطفال للوصول إلى المعنى المقصود من الكلمات المعدلة.

وتفترض الدراسة (١) تؤثر العمليات التداولية المعجمية بشكل كبير في تفسير الأطفال للكلمات المعدلة. (٢) يعول الأطفال على عمليات توسيع المعنى في تفسيرهم أكثر من عمليات تضييقه. (٣) ان حالات تضييق الصفة في تركيب (الصفة والاسم) هي أكثر أنواع التضييق الموجودة في القصص المختارة بينما حالات التقريب هي أكثر الحالات الموسعة تواجدا في هذه القصص. (٤) يعول الأطفال كثيرا على المعرفة العامة والموقف الافتراضي في تفسير الكلمات المعدلة.

لتحقيق اهداف هذه الدراسة، طورت الدراسة نموذجًا انتقائيًا في ضوء شروحات بلوتنر (2000) وشروحات ويلسون وكارستون (2007) من خلال تحليل بعض المقتبسات النموذجية (المتضمنة حالات التعديل المعجمي) التي حددت في القصص الخمس المذكورة تحليلا نوعيا وكميا.

وتوصلت الدراسة الى عدة نتائج أهمها: أظهرت العمليات التداولية المعجمية تأثيرًا كبيرًا في تفسير الأطفال لمعاني الكلمات المعدلة تداوليا في سياقات مختلفة، يعول الأطفال على عمليات توسيع المعنى في تفسيرهم أكثر من عمليات تضييقه. كما ان تضييق الصفة في تركيب (الصفة والاسم) والاستعارة هي الحالات الأكثر شيوعًا للتضييق والتوسيع على التوالي في قصص الاطفال الإنجليزية القصيرة.