



The Interaction Between Grammar And Implicatures In Eliciting Meaning

Ibrahim Hassan Abdullah

Abstract

Grammar is a level of structural organization that is generally separated into the branches of syntax and morphology and can be studied apart from phonology and semantics. In this regard, grammar is the study of how sentences are formed by the combination of words and their constituent elements. Knowing the implied meaning of an utterance can be done by syntax through different ways governed by specific syntactic rules which enable the reader to elicit the hidden meaning behind that utterance. The modal adopted in this study is *An Introduction to English Grammar* (1999) proposed by Greenbaum, S. and Nelson, G.. The problem of study lies in the failure of some listeners to recognize the implicature that leads to a literal interpretation which misses the intended meaning of the speaker. The study aims at stating the significant role that the syntactic structure plays in detecting the meaning of the sentence through the implicature it contains. The conclusions that the study arrives at focus on the relations between grammar and implicatures in eliciting meaning and on the crucial role that the context plays in that elicitation.

Keywords: Grammar, implicature, meaning, eliciting, interaction.

التفاعل بين النحو والدلالات الضمنية في استنباط المعنى

م.م.ابراهيم حسن عبدالله*

المستخلص

النحو هو مستوى من التنظيم الهيكلية، ينقسم عادةً إلى فرع التراكيب النحوية والصرف، ويمكن دراسته بمعزل عن علم الصوت وعلم الدلالة. وفي هذا الصدد، يُعني النحو بدراسة كيفية تكوين الجمل من خلال تراكيب الكلمات وعناصرها المكونة. إن معرفة المعنى الضمني للفظ ما يمكن أن يتم من خلال التراكيب النحوية من خلال طرق مختلفة تحكمها قواعد نحوية محددة تمكن القارئ من استنباط المعنى الخفي وراء ذلك اللفظ. ان الأسلوب المعتمد في هذه الدراسة هو مقدمة في قواعد اللغة الإنكليزية (١٩٩٩) الذي اقترحه س. جرينباوم وج. نيلسون. تكمن مشكلة الدراسة في عجز بعض المستمعين عن إدراك المعنى الضمني للكلمة، مما يؤدي إلى تفسير حرفياً يغفل المعنى المقصود من المتكلم. تهدف الدراسة إلى بيان الدور المهم الذي يلعبه التراكيب النحوية في كشف معنى الجملة من خلال التضمين الذي تحتويه. وتتركز الاستنتاجات التي توصلت إليها الدراسة على العلاقات بين القواعد نحوية والدلالات في استنباط المعنى وعلى الدور الحاسم الذي يلعبه السياق في ذلك الاستنباط.

الكلمات المفتاحية: النحو، التضمين، المعنى ، استنباط ، التفاعل.

* جامعة كركوك، كلية التمريض

1. Introduction

Trask (1999) denotes that syntax is the field of linguistics that focuses on the sentence structure. The ancient Greeks were the first Europeans to examine syntax, starting with Aristotle, who separated sentences into subjects and predicates. After that, the development of syntax was slow, and by the mid-1900s, syntax was falling well behind morphology and phonology. The Eccentric American linguist Zellig Harris started creating an intriguing new perspective on syntax in the 1940s. Ten years later, his pupil Noam Chomsky introduced generative grammar and its specific variant, known as Transformational Generative Grammar, in a significantly altered version of Harris's concepts. A generation of linguists was convinced by Chomsky's argument that syntax was not only tractable, but also at the core of genuine linguistic study. As a result, the study of syntax gained more attention than it had previously. Many linguists who are identified as Chomskyan still view syntax as the fundamental building block of language structure, but non - Chomskyan linguists now view syntax as just one significant field among many because of the significant advancements in other fields of study.

Another lineage of syntactic research, distinct from Chomsky's, has formed and thrived since the American linguist Joseph Greenberg published his groundbreaking work in syntactic typology in the 1960s. Frequently closely associated with this typological effort, but partially separate from it, is the type of syntactic study that the proponents of functionalism prefer.

The elements of a sentence is very important in this field as Jassim and Najm (2023) denote saying that they can serve various functions which are available in a great deal of English sentences.

2. What is Grammar?

Greenbaum and Nelson (2009) denote that grammar is an essential component of language study. Nonetheless, there is a useful justification for prioritizing grammar studies. Finding the pronunciation, spelling, or meaning of words in dictionaries is simple to learn how to do on your own, but consulting grammar books without a thorough understanding of grammar is challenging.

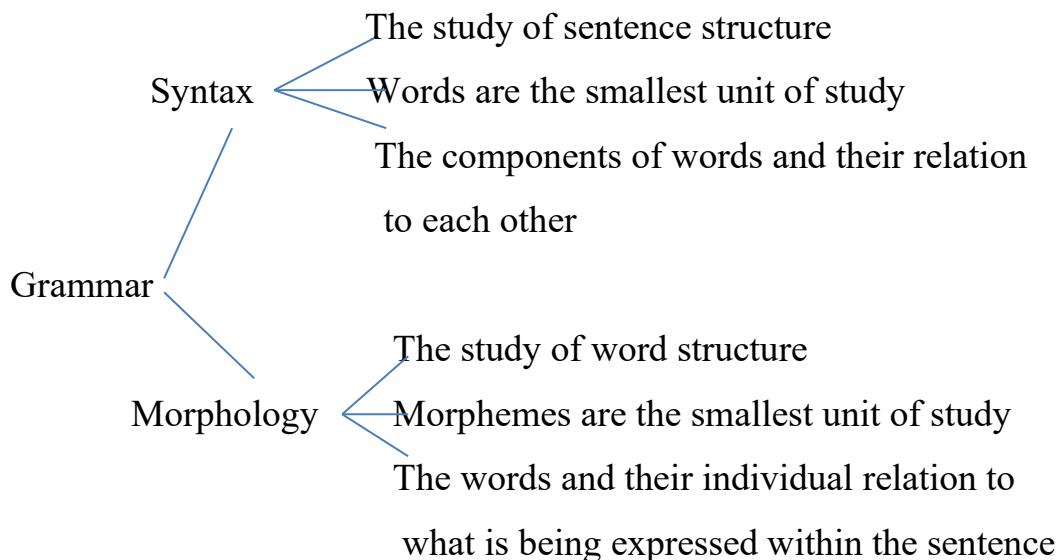
The study of grammar has a number of benefits:

- a) Studying one's native grammar is beneficial when studying the grammar of a foreign language.
- (b) Understanding grammar aids in the interpretation of both literary and non-literary texts, as the interpretation of a passage occasionally depends heavily on grammatical analysis.
- (c) Studying English grammar resources is subservient when writing, especially when it comes to assessing the options available to the learner when it comes to editing an earlier written draft.

When we speak, we release a stream of sounds with meaning that our listeners can process and comprehend—as long as they speak the same language, of course. In addition to spoken language, language can also be written, where words are composed of a series of letters that combine to form sentences. If someone gives language any thought, he will realize that it has a structure and is not a disorganized collection of disparate parts. Rather, a system of laws governs the arrangement of the linguistic components that make up language. We refer to this collection of guidelines as a grammar of language (Aarts, 1997) . The following figure characterizes the two main branches of grammar:

Figure (1) : Branches of grammar

Characterizations



3. Syntax and Pragmatics

Concerning syntax, Tallerman (2011) stresses that it is the study of syntactic characteristics of language. In this context, it is used similarly to how we use *Stylistics* to refer to the study of literary style. The breadth of syntactic study encompasses word classification, word order in phrases and sentences, phrase and sentence structure, and the many sentence constructs used by various languages. Although the syntax of any language can differ greatly from English, all languages have syntax. Introducing the most important syntactic concepts and technical terms is of a great value of understanding how syntax works. The study of syntax is involved with using various grammatical terms, like *noun*', *verb*, *preposition*, *relative clause*, *subject*, *nominative*, *agreement* and *passive*.

Najm (2012) claims that there are a large number of researchers who deal with the relationship among the constituents of a sentence showing the functions that they may serve.

Crystal (2008) claims that the term *Pragmatics* has historically been used to refer to one of the three main subfields of semiotics, along with Syntax and Semantics. It is now used in modern Linguistics to study language from the perspective of its users, particularly with regard to the decisions they make and the limitations they face when utilizing language in social situations. The discipline focuses on a region that is between extra-linguistic context, Sociolinguistics, and Semantics; nevertheless, it is currently impossible to define exactly where these other areas intersect. Because of the wide range of issues that must be taken into consideration, such as the elements of *deixis*, *conversational implicatures*, *presuppositions*, *speech acts*, and *discourse structure*, cohesive pragmatic theory has not been developed yet.

4. Implicatures

In fact, implicature can be categorized into two major types: *conversational* and *conventional* implicatures. Conversational implicature can also be categorized into two main sub-types: *generalized conversational implicature* and *particularized conversational implicature*.

4.1. Conversational Implicature

Cruse (2006) stresses that there are two categories of conversational implied language that can be distinguished: *generalized* and *particularized*. An implicature is considered *generalized* if it is a default interpretation, meaning that it occurs unless it is specifically cancelled and is, therefore, context-independent. For example: *some of the pupils passed the exam* usually means that not all of them did. However, the phrase *not all* is canceled because some, if not all, of the pupils passed the exam. This is not an entailment, as evidenced by the

fact that it is not unusual. An implicature that varies depending on the situation and is not a standard part of the message is called *particularized*. The message component *Mike cannot come to the telephone* is not conveyed when *Mike is in the shower*, for example. This needs a certain context:

(1) A. *Can I talk to Mike?*

B. *He's taking a shower.*

It is possible to further categorize generalized conversational implicatures into *Informational*, *Manner* and *Quantity* implicatures. These labels touch on Grice's Conversational Maxims.

1. *Informational implicatures* rely on the idea that we do not have to explain what the hearer would typically assume to be true. For example, in *This vehicle costs 12,000 dollars*, we do not need to be informed that the wheels are included in the price of this vehicle.

2. *Manner implicatures* are founded on the idea that a speaker does not want to transmit the conventional meaning if they avoid using a standard way of saying things. For example, we can presume that a breakfast dish does not meet the usual standards for toast if it is referred to as *partially charred pieces of bread* instead of *toast*.

3. *Quantity implicatures* are based on the idea that a speaker will present the most compelling argument that is in line with the evidence. To say, for example *Peter has five kids* typically means that he has no more than five kids. This implicature, however, may be reduced under certain conditions, as in:

(2) A: *You must have five kids in order to be eligible for this payment.*

B: *Peter has five kids.*

If Peter has five kids, then B's response is quite justified. These Quantity implicatures are referred to as *scalar implicatures* since they rely on a scale of values of some kind.

Griffith (2006) claims that inferences that rely on the presence of linguistic norms, such as the general consensus that communicators should try to speak the truth, are known as *conversational implicatures* which are included in the label for historical reasons. Implicatures are frequently simply referred to as implicatures because they occur in writing and other speech forms equally as frequently as in a conversation. It is assumed by speakers, writers, and addressees that all parties involved in communication are aware of and abide by the communicational rules.

As a matter of fact, there are four primary characteristics that distinguish conversational implicatures:

1. They do not logically flow from what is stated, making them non-entailments. Since "*Charles has a cousin*" is an entailment rather than a conversational implicature, for example, we can deduce that at least one of Charles' parents has at least one brother.

In contrast, the following example falls under implicature:

(3) A: *Can I talk to Jenny?*

B: *Jenny is taking a bath.*

It is not implied by B's response that Jenny is incapable of answering a phone call.

2. They are eliminable (or annulable), meaning that the speaker can refute them without creating a contradiction because they are

comparatively weak conclusions. For example, *I have no intention to tell you* would typically be the meaning of B's response in the following:

(4) A: *How old are you?*

B: *This is not your business.*

Although B would not be guilty of self-contradiction, the inference would be nullified if he added, *But I will tell you*. Conversational idioms are characterized by this feature. On the other hand, attempting to negate an entailment results in a contradiction: *Charles' parents have no brothers, but he has a cousin.*

3. They are sensitive to context, i. e., multiple implicatures may result from the same premise stated in a different context:

(5) A: *I will probably take a shower.*

B: *John is taking a bath.*

In this statement, *You can't take a shower just yet* is implicated rather than *John can't accept a phone call*.

4. They are non-detachable, which means that the same notion presented in different words will result in the same implicature in a given situation. Stated differently, the implicature is not associated with a specific word form. For example, in (2) above, the implicature would have been the same if B had stated: *That doesn't concern you.*

5. They may be determined using general principles rather than specialized knowledge because they are calculable. For example, a private arrangement between A and B states that if one says something, he will mean another thing.

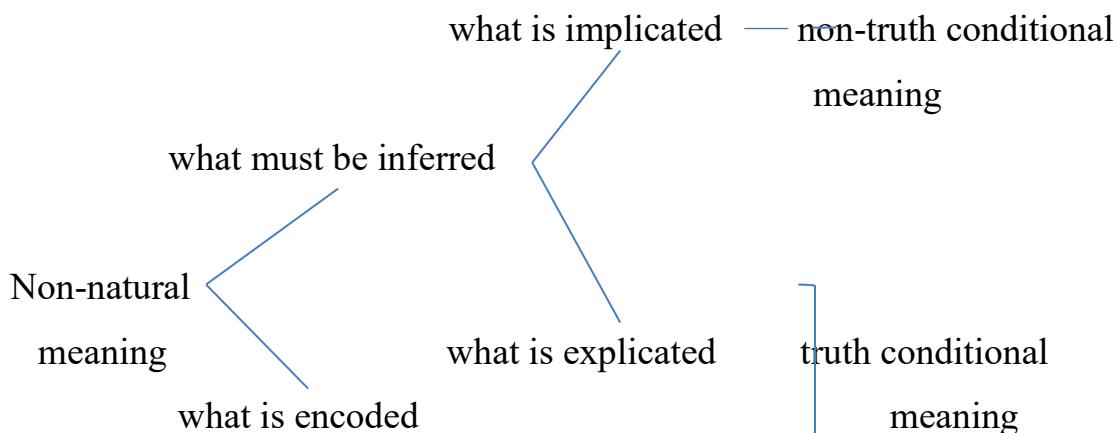
4.2. Conventional Implicatures

Concerning conventional implicatures, Cruse (2006) affirms that they are parts of utterance meanings that are not propositional in nature but inextricably linked to certain linguistic phrases and, as a result, they cannot be eliminated without causing anomalies. For example, the propositions in *Peter hasn't registered yet* and *Peter hasn't registered* are equivalent, but the fact that *yet* appears in the former suggests that Peter is still anticipated to arrive (still and already have comparable qualities). It is strange to contradict this: *Peter has not registered yet and I am certain that he has no plans to do so*. Another illustration is the interrogative component of a question like *Why is Mike here?* that cannot be classified as true or false and that, if rejected, results in abnormality: *I don't want to know the reason behind Mike's coming, but why is he here?*

5. Implicatures VS Explicatures

Birner (2013) denotes that Relevance theory views explicature—which combines semantic and pragmatic elements—and implicature—which is exclusively pragmatic—as the key differences, rather than semantics (meaning encoded by language) and pragmatics (meaning inferred from context). So, Relevance theory starts by the distinction between encoded and inferred meaning and then goes on to distinguish between explicit, truth-conditional meaning and implicit, non-truth-conditional meaning as shown in Figure (2):

Figure (2): The distinction between implicit meaning and explicit meaning



The difference between explicit and implicit meaning is significant in this perspective, but it does not correspond to the difference between pragmatics and semantics. Nonetheless, it corresponds to the differentiation between truth-conditional and non-truth-conditional meaning. This approach of drawing the distinction between pragmatics and semantics has the effect of removing the need to include pragmatic inference as a component of the semantics of an utterance.

Nagy (2015) denotes that the fundamental assumption of conversation as Grice states is that the participants are abiding by a set of common conversational guidelines unless otherwise stated, which he refers to as the Co-operative Principles.

Let us examine an example of conversation that goes like this:

(6) (A): *I hope you brought the cheese and bread.*

(B): *I did bring the bread.*

(B) Must be cooperating and have provided A with the appropriate quantity of information for (A) to comprehend (B)'s response. He did not bring up the cheese, though. He would have said so if he had brought the cheese. He must have intended for (A) to assume that what is not said is not brought. By using a conversational implicature, in this instance, (B)

has expressed more than he stated. Here is another example: *Could you tell me the time? All right, the milkman has arrived.* Given this situation, it must be past the milkman's typical arrival time.

Let us define implicature, inference, and the verbs that go with them. These two fundamental concepts form the basis of Grice's theory. Grice coined the term *impliciture* to describe the purposeful implied meaning that a speaker makes when they employ the verb *to imply* to convey meaning that goes beyond the semantic meaning of the words. The communicated implication of an utterance is known as implication. Therefore, Grice created the technical terms implicature and the verb *implicate*, which refer to what a speaker intends to convey in an utterance beyond what they actually say.

Conversely, the verb *to infer* describes a circumstance where the hearer extrapolates meaning from the information at hand. The hearer's inferred interpretation, which may or may not match the speaker's intended implicature, is known as *inference*. "Explicitature is an ostensively communicated assumption that is inferentially developed from one of the incomplete conceptual representations (logical forms) encoded by the utterance". Implicature is a communicated assumption that is derived exclusively through pragmatic inference procedures; it is an ostensibly communicated assumption that is not an explanation. The main distinction between implicatures and explicatures is that the former is inferentially derived only, while the latter is the development of the logical form that explicatures contain as a legitimate component.

According to Horn and Ward (2004), implicature is a part of speaker meaning that is apart from the actual words spoken but yet represents a part of what the speaker is trying to say. Language meaning significantly underdetermines the message that is sent and comprehended;

a speaker's intention is typically far deeper than what he/she conveys directly. In order to close this gap, the speaker subtly calls upon pragmatic concepts, which the hearer is expected to apply in order to interpret the utterance. Rhetoricians Servius and Donatus described litotes, or pragmatic understatement as a situation in which we say less but mean more. This contrast between what is said and what is meant, and derivatively between what is said and the implicated (the meant-but-unsaid), dates back to that time. In the Gricean approach, implicature is used to build the link between what is communicated and what is stated (the literal substance of the uttered sentence, as determined by its grammatical structure with reference to indexicals resolved). In Example (7), (a–c) illustrate subtypes of implicature; in some situations:

(7) a. *Even Ralph is aware that it is unethical.*

a (1) Of a contextually invoked set, Ralph is the least likely to be aware that it is unethical.

b. *Smith writes grammatically correct English and wears nice clothes (in a letter of recommendation for a philosophy job).*

b (1). Smith is bad in philosophy.

c. *The book is on the table or in the bag.*

c (1). I have no knowledge if the book is on the table.

In contrast to an entailment or logical assumption, the conclusion drawn from even (a, a (1)) is irrelevant to the truth conditions of proposition: Only if Ralph is aware that it is unethical, (a) is true. Since the identical truth-conditional content can be expressed in a form that eliminates (detaches) the inference, the inference cannot be cancelled without contradiction (Even Ralph is aware that it is unethical, but that is expected). Conventional implicatures are detachable but non-cancelable parts of meaning that are similar to pragmatic presuppositions but neither part of nor calculable from what is spoken.

In fact, in addition to connectives such as *but*, the now-classic examples of conventional implicature include the same particles that are typically examined as examples of pragmatic presupposition: the existential element of focus constructions like clefts, the *effortful* element of truth-conditionally transparent *implicatives* such as *manage* and *annoy*, and the additive component of adverbial particles like *even* and *too*. However, as opposed to these non-truth-conditional elements of the typical lexical meaning of a phrase, here are some notes that must be taken into account:

1. The conclusions drawn from (b, c) are non-conventional, meaning that they can be calculated based on the use of these lines in a specific situation, considering that discourse is a collaborative, goal-oriented endeavor. In both situations, the speaker's implicature of the corresponding primed proposition can be removed (either directly by adding contradictory information, such as *but I don't mean to suggest that...*, or by changing the context of an utterance, but it cannot be removed because doing so would permit the same inference to be drawn).
2. (b) differs from (c) in that the conclusion is often granted under a wide range of conditions. Particularized conversational implicature is used when the speaker of (b) is assessing the referent's suitability for a philosophy position. In this case, the addressee is typically assumed to deduce that the speaker intended to express the content of (b).
3. In (c), however, the lack of a specific or evident context leads to the inference that the speaker is unsure of which of the two places the book can be found. In (c), the default nature of triggering exemplifies the linguistically important idea of generalized conversational implicature. Crucially, however, the speaker or utterance—rather than the proposition or sentence—is what triggers the pertinent implicature in both situations, much like in traditional implicature.

Yule (1996) assumes that we can begin to determine how individuals genuinely determine that someone is implying anything in conversation by using the maxims and the cooperative principle as a guide. Think about the example that follows.

(8) Bell: *Will you be attending tonight's party?*

Jaclyn: *Tomorrow is my exam day.*

On the surface, Jaclyn's response does not address Bell's query. Jaclyn does not respond with a yes or no. However, Bell will take the sentence to mean *No* or *Probably not* right away. How do we explain this capacity to understand one meaning from a statement that literally implies another? It appears to rely, at least in part, on the presumption that Jaclyn is following the relation and quantity maxims and being pertinent and educational.

For a better understanding of this issue, consider Bell's response if Jaclyn had said something like, *You know, roses are red.* Given the pertinent information in Jaclyn's initial response, Bell may determine that *exam tomorrow* typically entails *study tonight*, and *study tonight* excludes *party tonight*. Because of this, Jaclyn's response includes an implicature—an additional meaning that is conveyed—about what will happen tonight in addition to a declaration about what will happen tomorrow.

Observably, we had to use some background information (regarding tests, studying, and partying) that the conversational players had to disclose in order to explain the conversational implicature in Jaclyn's statement. A crucial aspect of discourse analysis is examining how we understand what we hear and read by drawing on our prior knowledge.

6. Context and Meaning

Yule (1996) states that there are various types of context. *Linguistic context*, or *co-text*, is one type in which words are used in the same

sentence or phrase. The linguistic context around us greatly influences our perception of the word most likely means. We typically extract the intended meaning based on the language context. Concerning *physical context*, our interpretation will be influenced by the actual place. Our mental image of those elements of the physical world that we utilize to arrive at an interpretation is the pertinent context. This processing of details of the physical context, especially the time and place, is linked to our comprehension of a large portion of what we read and hear.

Butt et. al (2012) denote that there are always two contexts in which a text appears, one inside the other. *Cultural context*, which surrounds a text, is crucial in determining its meaning. Consider how different cultures differ in how people address each other, how ceremonies are conducted, how courteous people are, and how they engage in important activities. Speakers and writers employ language in a wide range of more precise settings and current situations within the framework of culture. Every one of these has an internal context, which is known as the *situational context*. The similarities and differences between one piece of language and another are caused by the mix of situational and cultural context. For instance, the spoken texts used at a Pacific Island marketplace and a North American supermarket when shopping for vegetables would differ greatly; these discrepancies would be attributed to both the situational and cultural contexts. Situational context is a helpful way to describe what is happening in the present circumstance outside of the text that contributes to its identity.

Context and meaning have a dynamic and reversible relationship in which texts reveal contexts and contexts are realized in texts. This implies that we are able to predict lexico-grammar of a text by knowing its context. Since the sign of context is the sum of the meanings encoded in the lexico-grammar, grammatical analysis of the kind we have been doing

enables us to comprehend the context of a text formation. The capacity to investigate language through context enables language users to comprehend various linguistic situations based on the meanings found in various texts.

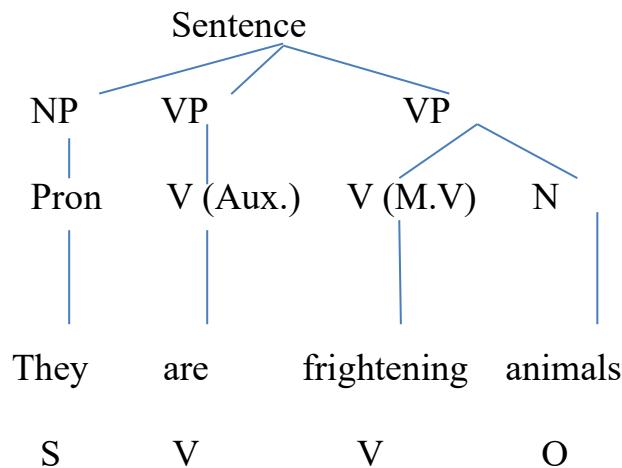
7. Discussions

The analysis of data collected and supplied with very substantial diagrams depends heavily on the role of grammatical structure of a sentence in detecting the meaning it implicates. As the implicature is composed of two categories conversational and conventional, we will take these two categories as samples to our data analysis. Let us begin with the conversational implicature.

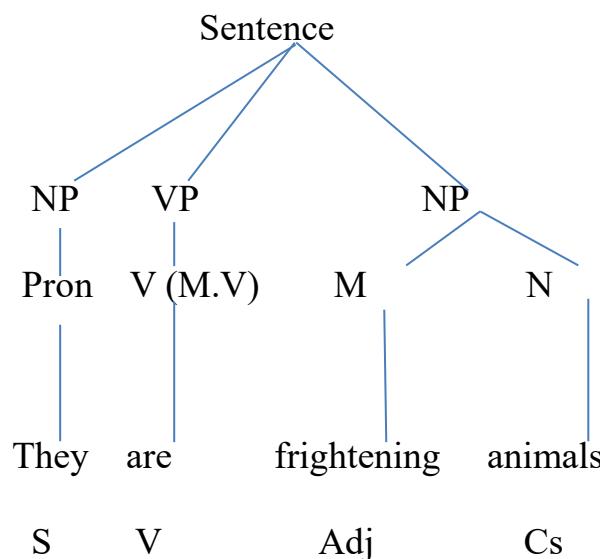
1. *They are frightening animals.*

This sentence has a conversational implicature. In fact, this sentence carries more than one interpretation. The role that grammar plays in eliciting meaning here is apparent. The multiple interpretation of this sentence is involved with three grammatical issues:

1. The possibility of considering *are* as auxiliary affects the form and function of the verb group. If the verb *are* is considered as auxiliary, the word *frightening* will be main verb and, consequently, the word *animals* will be the object of the transitive verb *frightening*. In this case, the pronoun *they* and the noun *animals* differ in entity. Due to the existence of the subject pronoun *they* as a plural form, it cannot be recognized whether it refers to human beings or non-human beings.



Considering *are* as a main verb confirms that the word *animals* is a complement of the subject *they* which denotes that *they* and *animals*, as opposed to the first consideration, belong to the same entity. It also implies that the sentence denotes to a state instead of an action.



2. It is involved with a morphological structure. It is the *-s* plural bound morpheme which arises the possibility of regarding *they* and *animals* as one thing. If we omit it, the sentences will be clear, free of vagueness as the sentence in this case can bear only one interpretation which is the animal is frightened: *They are frightening an animal.*

3. The advent of the subject *they* as a plural form gives possibility of regarding *they* and *animals*, in case of considering *are* as a main verb as

one thing, i.e. they belong to the same entity. If we substitute *they* with any other subject pronoun, the sentence will be clear and states that the pronouns utilized are not the animals themselves:

I am frightening animals

We / You are frightening animals

He / she / it is frightening animals

So, there are various grammatical considerations that make this sentence confusing including *the subject pronoun* whether singular or plural, *the verb* whether auxiliary or a main verb, considering *the verb group* as a verb or adjective and *the noun* whether singular or plural.

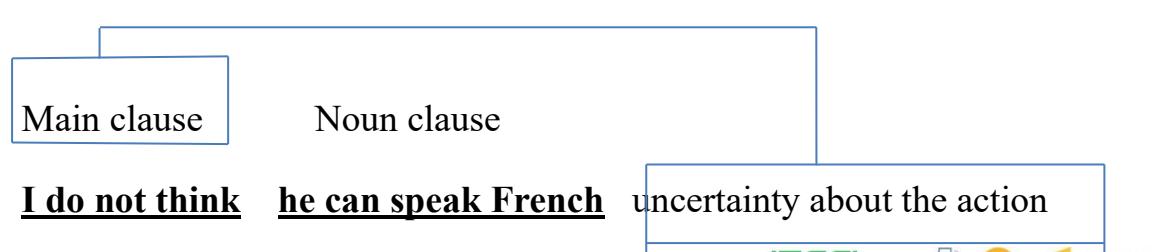
Let us take another example of conversational implicature:

2. (A) *What about Jack with Japanese?*

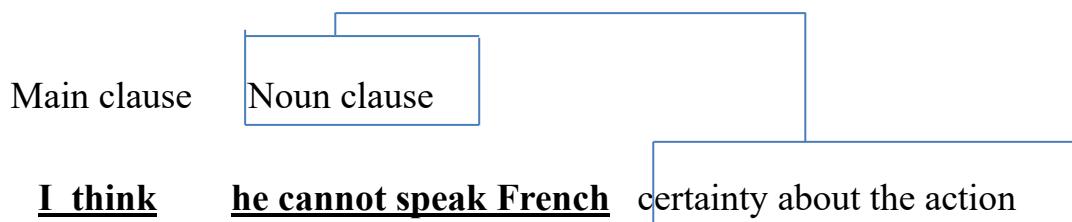
(B1) *I do not think Jack can speak Japanese.*

(B2) *I think Jack cannot speak Japanese.*

Looking at (B1) and (B2)'s responses, one can find out that the difference between them lies in the attitudes and implications of each one concerning Jack's ability to speak Japanese. Let's take each one in detail. Regarding (B1)'s response, negating the main clause *I don't think* implies uncertainty or doubt about Jack's ability to speak Japanese. The speaker is expressing a lack of belief without making a definitive statement about his capability.



With respect to B2's response, negating the noun clause *he cannot speak Japanese* implies a belief that Jack definitely does not have the ability to speak Japanese. The speaker is confident in this statement.



The first clause conveys skepticism or doubt while the second indicates certainty of inability. The most important point that makes the main difference between these two clauses is the mobility of negation from the main clause in the first clause to the noun clause in the second one. So, these two clauses reveal the significant role that the syntactic structures play regarding eliciting the meaning of a sentence. The responses of B1 and B2 are closely related in meaning, but they are different in logical structures and the speakers' implications.

Let us move to the other type of implicature which is a conventional implicature. Consider the following example:

3. He could not swim well, therefore he sank in the river.

This sentence has a conventional implicature recognized by the use of the conjunctive *therefore* which is regarded one of the words that triggers conventional implicature. It denotes a causal relationship and always add a cause – effect relation regardless of context. So, his inability to swim well was the reason of being sunk. In this case, the sentence implicates

that he sank in the river because he could not swim well. The extra meaning – that his inability to swim well caused him sink – is conventionally attached to the conjunctive *therefore*.

He could not swim well, therefore he sank in the river

Cause	Conventional	Effect
		Implicature trigger

8. Conclusions

The present paper arrives at some conclusions that can be represented by the following key points:

1. Grammar and implicature work together to reveal the meaning of a sentence beyond literal interpretation.
2. Grammar offers the structural framework that arranges words into comprehensible sentences with clearly related elements. It expresses what is stated, while implicature makes clear what is intended.
3. The structural and contextual interpretation are very substantial in grasping meaning in language. This reflects the significance of grammar and context regarding a proper interpretation
4. While a literal message is shaped by grammar, the implied meaning of that message appears through implicature. When combined, they provide language its flexibility and precision, which facilitates efficient human communication.
5. *The Relevance theory* proposed by Grice has a notable role in connecting the pragmatic contents to the syntactic elements and semantic values.

6. While *implicature* is a communicated assumption that is derived exclusively through pragmatic inference procedures, *explicature* is an ostensively communicated assumption developed from one of the incomplete conceptual representations encoded by the utterance,
7. Depending on context, common knowledge, and conversational norms, *implicature* expands meaning beyond grammatical form. Grammatical structure, for example, may express a fact, whereas *implicature* might convey politeness, meaning, or implicit presumptions.

References

Understanding syntax. (2011). United Kingdom: Hodder education.

Aarts, B. (1997). *English syntax and argumentation*. Pallgrave : Macmillan.

Birner, B. (2013). *An introduction to pragmatics*. Blackwell Publishing.

Butt, D. ., (2012). *Using functional grammar: an explorer's guide*. Pallgrave Macmillan .

Cruse, A. (2006). *A glossary of semantics and pragmatics*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Crystal, D. (2008). *Dictionary of linguistics and phonetics*. Blackwell .

Greenbaum, S. a. (2009). *An introduction to English grammar*. Routledge.

Griffiths, P. (2006). *An introduction to english semantics and pragmatics*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.

Horn, L. a. (2004). *The Handbook of pragmatics* . Blackwell Publishing.

Nagy, I. M. (2015). *An introduction to the study of Pragmatics*. Scientia Publishing House.

Najm, Y. (2012). A syntactic study of the overlap betwwen substitution and reference. *Kirkuk University Journal of Humanity Studies*, pp. 1-33.

Trask, R. I. (1999). *key concepts in language and linguistics*. Routledge: Tylor and Francis group.

Y., J. A. (2023, June). Unboubded dependency in English and Arabic: A lexical functional approach . *Kirkuk University Journal for Human Studies* , pp. 1-20.

Yule, G. (1996). *The study of language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

List of Abbreviations

Adj = Adjective

Aux = Auxiliary

Cs = Subject Complement

M = Modifier

MV = Main Verb

N = Noun

NP = Noun Phrase

O = Object

Pron = Pronoun

S = Subject

V = Verb

VP = Verb Phrase