

# **PRAGMATICS: A CRASH COURSE**

# A PLAN

1. MEANING
2. IMPLICATURE AND COOPERATIVITY
3. COMMON GROUND
4. DISCOURSE CONTEXTS/  
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6. THE QUESTION UNDER DISCUSSION

**MEANING**

## MEANING

CONSIDER the following sentences:

“Those spots mean (meant) measles.”

“Those spots didn’t mean anything to me, but to the doctor they meant measles.”

“The recent budget means that we shall have a hard year.”

(1) I cannot say, “Those spots meant measles, but he hadn’t got measles,” and I cannot say, “The recent budget means that we shall have a hard year, but we shan’t have.” That is to say, in cases like the above, *x meant that p* and *x means that p* entail *p*.

(2) I cannot argue from “Those spots mean (meant) measles” to any conclusion about “what is (was) meant by those spots”; for example, I am not entitled to say, “What was meant by those spots was that he had measles.” Equally I cannot draw from the statement about the recent budget the conclusion “What is meant by the recent budget is that we shall have a hard year.”

(3) I cannot argue from “Those spots meant measles” to any conclusion to the effect that somebody or other meant by those spots so-and-so. *Mutatis mutandis*, the same is true of the sentence about the recent budget.

(4) For none of the above examples can a restatement be found in which the verb “mean” is followed by a sentence or phrase in inverted commas. Thus “Those spots meant measles”



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(4) For none of the above examples can a restatement be found in which the verb “mean” is followed by a sentence or phrase in inverted commas. Thus “Those spots meant measles” cannot be reformulated as “Those spots meant ‘measles.’” or as “Those spots meant ‘he has measles.’”

(5) On the other hand, for all these examples an approximate restatement can be found beginning with the phrase “The fact that . . .”; for example, “The fact that he had those spots meant that he had measles” and “The fact that the recent budget was as it was means that we shall have a hard year.”

Now contrast the above sentences with the following:

“Those three rings on the bell (of the bus) mean that the ‘bus is full.’”

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meant<sub>NN</sub> something (that Mr. *Y* had been unduly unfamiliar), or at least that I had meant<sub>NN</sub> by it that Mr. *Y* had been unduly familiar. What is the difference between the two cases? Surely that in case (1) Mr. *X*’s recognition of my intention to make him believe that there is something between Mr. *Y* and Mrs. *X* is (more or less) irrelevant to the production of this effect by the photograph. Mr. *X* would be led by the photograph at least to suspect Mrs. *X* even if instead of showing it to him I had left it in his room by accident; and I (the photograph shower) would not be unaware of this. But it will make a difference to the effect of my picture on Mr. *X* whether or not he takes me to be intending to inform him (make him believe something) about Mrs. *X*, and not to be just doodling or trying to produce a work of art.

But now we seem to be landed in a further difficulty if we accept this account. For consider now, say, frowning. If I frown spontaneously, in the ordinary course of events, someone looking at me may well treat the frown as a natural sign of displeasure. But if I frown deliberately (to convey my displeasure), an onlooker may be expected, provided he recognizes my intention, *still* to conclude that I am displeased. Ought we not then to say, since it could not be expected to make any difference to the onlooker’s reaction whether he regards my frown as spontaneous or as intended to be informative, that my frown (deliberate) does *not* mean<sub>NN</sub> anything? I think this difficulty can be met; for though in general a deliberate frown may have the same effect (as regards inducing belief in my displeasure) as a spontaneous frown, it can be expected to have the same effect only *provided* the audience takes it as intended to convey displeasure. That is, if we take away the recognition of intention, leaving the other circumstances (including the recognition of the frown as deliberate), the belief-producing tendency of the frown must be regarded as being impaired or destroyed.

Perhaps we may sum up what is necessary for *A* to mean something by *x* as follows. *A* must intend to induce by *x* a belief in an audience, and he must also intend his utterance to be recognized as so intended. But these intentions are not independent; the recognition is intended by *A* to play its part in inducing the belief, and if it does not do so something will have gone wrong

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“That remark, ‘Smith couldn’t get on without his trouble and strife,’ meant that Smith found his wife indispensable.”

(1) I can use the first of these and go on to say, “But it isn’t in fact full—the conductor has made a mistake”; and I can use the second and go on, “But in fact Smith deserted her seven years ago.” That is to say, here *x means that p* and *x meant that p* do not entail *p*.

(2) I can argue from the first to some statement about “what is (was) meant” by the rings on the bell and from the second to some statement about “what is (was) meant” by the quoted remark.

(3) I can argue from the first sentence to the conclusion that somebody (viz., the conductor) meant, or at any rate should have meant, by the rings that the bus is full, and I can argue analogously for the second sentence.

(4) The first sentence can be restated in a form in which the verb “mean” is followed by a phrase in inverted commas, that is, “Those three rings on the bell mean ‘the bus is full.’” So also can the second sentence.

(5) Such a sentence as “The fact that the bell has been rung three times means that the bus is full” is not a restatement of the meaning of the first sentence. Both may be true, but they do not have, even approximately, the same meaning.

When the expressions “means,” “means something,” “means hat” are used in the kind of way in which they are used in the first set of sentences, I shall speak of the sense, or senses, in which hey are used, as the *natural* sense, or senses, of the expressions in question. When the expressions are used in the kind of way in which they are used in the second set of sentences, I shall speak of the sense, or senses, in which they are used, as the *nonnatural* ense, or senses, of the expressions in question. I shall use the abbreviation “means<sub>NN</sub>” to distinguish the nonnatural sense or senses.

I propose, for convenience, also to include under the head of atural senses of “mean” such senses of “mean” as may be exemplified in sentences of the pattern “*A* means (meant) *to* *be* so-and-so (by *x*),” where *A* is a human agent. By contrast, as he previous examples show, I include under the head of non-

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with the fulfillment of *A*’s intentions. Moreover, *A*’s intending that the recognition should play this part implies, I think, that he assumes that there is some chance that it will in fact play this part, that he does not regard it as a foregone conclusion that the belief will be induced in the audience whether or not the intention behind the utterance is recognized. Shortly, perhaps, we may say that “*A* meant<sub>NN</sub> something by *x*” is roughly equivalent to “*A* uttered *x* with the intention of inducing a belief by means of the recognition of this intention.” (This seems to involve a reflexive paradox, but it does not really do so.)

Now perhaps it is time to drop the pretense that we have to deal only with “informative” cases. Let us start with some examples of imperatives or quasi-imperatives. I have a very avaricious man in my room, and I want him to go; so I throw a pound note out of the window. Is there here any utterance with a meaning<sub>NN</sub>? No, because in behaving as I did, I did not intend his recognition of my purpose to be in any way effective in getting him to go. This is parallel to the photograph case. If on the other hand I had pointed to the door or given him a little push, then my behavior might well be held to constitute a meaningful<sub>NN</sub> utterance, just because the recognition of my intention would be intended by me to be effective in speeding his departure. Another pair of cases would be (1) a policeman who stops a car by standing in its way and (2) a policeman who stops a car by waving.

Or, to turn briefly to another type of case, if as an examiner I fail a man, I may well cause him distress or indignation or humiliation; and if I am vindictive, I may intend this effect and even intend him to recognize my intention. But I should not be inclined to say that my failing him meant<sub>NN</sub> anything. On the other hand, if I cut someone in the street I do feel inclined to assimilate this to the cases of meaning<sub>NN</sub>, and this inclination seems to me dependent on the fact that I could not reasonably expect him to be distressed (indignant, humiliated) unless he recognized my intention to affect him in this way. (Cf., if my college stopped my salary altogether I should accuse them of ruining me; if they cut it by 2/6<sup>4</sup> I might accuse them of insulting me; with some intermediate amounts I might not know quite what to say.)

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natural senses of “mean” any senses of “mean” found in sentences of the patterns “*A* means (meant) something by *x*” or “*A* means (meant) by *x* that. . . .” (This is overrigid; but it will serve as an indication.)

I do not want to maintain that *all* our uses of “mean” fall easily, obviously, and tidily into one of the two groups I have distinguished; but I think that in most cases we should be at least fairly strongly inclined to assimilate a use of “mean” to one group rather than to the other. The question which now arises is this: “What more can be said about the distinction between the cases where we should say that the word is applied in a natural sense and the cases where we should say that the word is applied in a nonnatural sense?” Asking this question will not of course prohibit us from trying to give an explanation of “meaning<sub>NN</sub>” in terms of one or another natural sense of “mean.”

This question about the distinction between natural and non-natural meaning is, I think, what people are getting at when they display an interest in a distinction between “natural” and “conventional” signs. But I think my formulation is better. For some things which can mean<sub>NN</sub> something are not signs (e.g., words are not), and some are not conventional in any ordinary sense (e.g., certain gestures); while some things which mean naturally are not signs of what they mean (cf. the recent budget example).

I want first to consider briefly, and reject, what I might term a causal type of answer to the question, “What is meaning<sub>NN</sub>?” We might try to say, for instance, more or less with C. L. Stevenson,<sup>1</sup> that for *x* to mean<sub>NN</sub> something, *x* must have (roughly) a tendency to produce in an audience some attitude (cognitive or otherwise) and a tendency, in the case of a speaker, to *be* produced by that attitude, these tendencies being dependent on “an elaborate process of conditioning attending the use of the sign in communication.”<sup>2</sup> This clearly will not do.

(1) Let us consider a case where an utterance, if it qualifies at all as meaning<sub>NN</sub> something, will be of a descriptive or informative kind and the relevant attitude, therefore, will be a cognitive one,

<sup>1</sup> *Ethics and Language* (New Haven, 1944), ch. iii.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 57.

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Perhaps then we may make the following generalizations.

(1) “*A* meant<sub>NN</sub> something by *x*” is (roughly) equivalent to “*A* intended the utterance of *x* to produce some effect in an audience by means of the recognition of this intention”; and we may add that to ask what *A* meant is to ask for a specification of the intended effect (though, of course, it may not always be possible to get a straight answer involving a “that” clause, for example, “a belief that . . .”).

(2) “*x* meant something” is (roughly) equivalent to “Some body meant<sub>NN</sub> something by *x*.” Here again there will be case where this will not quite work. I feel inclined to say that (a regards traffic lights) the change to red meant<sub>NN</sub> that the traffic was to stop; but it would be very unnatural to say, “Somebody (e.g., the Corporation) meant<sub>NN</sub> by the red-light change that the traffic was to stop.” Nevertheless, there seems to be *some* sort of reference to somebody’s intentions.

(3) “*x* means<sub>NN</sub> (timeless) that so-and-so” might as a first sho be equated with some statement or disjunction of statement about what “people” (vague) intend (with qualifications about “recognition”) to effect by *x*. I shall have a word to say about this.

Will any kind of intended effect do, or may there be case where an effect is intended (with the required qualifications and yet we should not want to talk of meaning<sub>NN</sub>”? Suppose I discovered some person so constituted that, when I told him that whenever I grunted in a special way I wanted him to blush or to incur some physical malady, thereafter whenever he recognized the grunt (and with it my intention), he did blush or incur the malady. Should we then want to say that the grunt meant<sub>NN</sub> something? I do not think so. This points to the fact that for to have meaning<sub>NN</sub>, the intended effect must be something which in some sense is within the control of the audience, or that in some sense of “reason” the recognition of the intention behind *x* is for the audience a reason and not merely a cause. It might look as if there is a sort of pun here (“reason for believing” and “reason for doing”), but I do not think this is serious. For though no doubt from one point of view questions about reasons for believing are questions about evidence and so quite different from question

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for example, a belief. (I use “utterance” as a neutral word to apply to any candidate for meaning<sub>NN</sub>; it has a convenient act-object ambiguity.) It is no doubt the case that many people have a tendency to put on a tail coat when they think they are about to go to a dance, and it is no doubt also the case that many people, on seeing someone put on a tail coat, would conclude that the person in question was about to go to a dance. Does this satisfy us that putting on a tail coat means<sub>NN</sub> that one is about to go to a dance (or indeed means<sub>NN</sub> anything at all)? Obviously not. It is no help to refer to the qualifying phrase “dependent on an elaborate process of conditioning. . . .” For if all this means is that the response to the sight of a tail coat being put on is in some way learned or acquired, it will not exclude the present case from being one of meaning<sub>NN</sub>. But if we have to take seriously the second part of the qualifying phrase (“attending the use of the sign in communication”), then the account of meaning<sub>NN</sub> is obviously circular. We might just as well say, “*X* has meaning<sub>NN</sub> if it is used in communication,” which, though true, is not helpful.

(2) If this is not enough, there is a difficulty—really the same difficulty, I think—which Stevenson recognizes: how we are to avoid saying, for example, that “Jones is tall” is part of what is meant by “Jones is an athlete,” since to tell someone that Jones is an athlete would tend to make him believe that Jones is tall. Stevenson here resorts to invoking linguistic rules, namely, a permissive rule of language that “athletes may be nontall.” This amounts to saying that we are not prohibited by rule from speaking of “nontall athletes.” But why are we not prohibited? Not because it is not bad grammar, or is not impolite, and so on, but presumably because it is not meaningless (or, if this is too strong, does not in any way violate the rules of meaning for the expressions concerned). But this seems to involve us in another circle. Moreover, one wants to ask why, if it is legitimate to appeal here to rules to distinguish what is meant from what is suggested, this appeal was not made earlier, in the case of groans, for example, to deal with which Stevenson originally introduced the qualifying phrase about dependence on conditioning.

A further deficiency in a causal theory of the type just

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about reasons for doing, nevertheless to recognize an utterer’s intention in uttering *x* (descriptive utterance), to have a reason for believing that so-and-so, is at least quite like “having a motive for *x*” accepting so-and-so. Decisions “that” seem to involve decisions “to” (and this is why we can “refuse to believe” and also be “compelled to believe”). (The “cutting” case needs slightly different treatment, for one cannot in any straightforward sense “decide” to be offended; but one can refuse to be offended.) It looks then as if the intended effect must be something within the control of the audience, or at least the *sort* of thing which is within its control.

One point before passing to an objection or two, I think it follows that from what I have said about the connection between meaning<sub>NN</sub> and recognition of intention that (insofar as I am right) only what I may call the primary intention of an utterer is relevant to the meaning<sub>NN</sub> of an utterance. For if I utter *x*, intending (with the aid of the recognition of this intention) to induce an effect *E*, and intend this effect *E* to lead to a further effect *F*, then insofar as the occurrence of *F* is thought to be dependent solely on *E*, I cannot regard *F* as in the least dependent on recognition of my intention to induce *E*. That is, if (say) I intend to get a man to do something by giving him some information, it cannot be regarded as relevant to the meaning<sub>NN</sub> of my utterance to describe what I intend him to do.

Now some question may be raised about my use, fairly free, of such words as “intention” and “recognition.” I must disclaim any intention of peopling all our talking life with armies of complicated psychological occurrences. I do not hope to solve any philosophical puzzles about intending, but I do want briefly to argue that no special difficulties are raised by my use of the word “intention” in connection with meaning. First, there will be cases where an utterance is accompanied or preceded by a conscious “plan,” or explicit formulation of intention (e.g., I declare how I am going to use *x*, or ask myself how to “get something across”). The presence of such an explicit “plan” obviously counts fairly heavily in favor of the utterer’s intention (meaning) being as “planned”; though it is not, I think, conclusive; for example, a speaker who has declared an intention

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expounded seems to be that, even if we accept it as it stands, we are furnished with an analysis only of statements about the *stand-ard* meaning, or the meaning in general, of a “sign.” No provision is made for dealing with statements about what a particular speaker or writer means by a sign on a particular occasion (which may well diverge from the standard meaning of the sign); nor is it obvious how the theory could be adapted to make such provision. One might even go further in criticism and maintain that the causal theory ignores the fact that the meaning (in general) of a sign needs to be explained in terms of what users of the sign do (or should) mean by it on particular occasions; and so the latter notion, which is unexplained by the causal theory, is in fact the fundamental one. I am sympathetic to this more radical criticism, though I am aware that the point is controversial.

I do not propose to consider any further theories of the “causal-tendency” type. I suspect no such theory could avoid difficulties analogous to those I have outlined without utterly losing its claim to rank as a theory of this type.

I will now try a different and, I hope, more promising line. If we can elucidate the meaning of

“*x* meant<sub>NN</sub> something (on a particular occasion)” and

“*x* meant<sub>NN</sub> that so-and-so (on a particular occasion)”

and of

“*A* meant<sub>NN</sub> something by *x* (on a particular occasion)” and

“*A* meant<sub>NN</sub> by *x* that so-and-so (on a particular occasion),”

this might reasonably be expected to help us with

“*x* means<sub>NN</sub> (timeless) something (that so-and-so),”

“*A* means<sub>NN</sub> (timeless) by *x* something (that so-and-so),”

and with the explication of “means the same as,” “understands,” “entails,” and so on. Let us for the moment pretend that we have to deal only with utterances which might be informative or descriptive.

A first shot would be to suggest that “*x* meant<sub>NN</sub> something” would be true if *x* was intended by its utterer to induce a belief in some “audience” and that to say what the belief was would be to say what *x* meant<sub>NN</sub>. This will not do. I might leave *B*’s

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to use a familiar expression in an unfamiliar way may slip into the familiar use. Similarly in nonlinguistic cases: if we are asking about an agent’s intention, a previous expression counts heavily; nevertheless, a man might plan to throw a letter in the dustbin and yet take it to the post; when lifting his hand he might “come to” and say *either* “I didn’t intend to do this at all” or “I suppose I must have been intending to put it in.”

Explicitly formulated linguistic (or quasi-linguistic) intentions are no doubt comparatively rare. In their absence we would seem to rely on very much the same kinds of criteria as we do in the case of nonlinguistic intentions where there is a general usage. An utterer is held to intend to convey what is normally conveyed (or normally intended to be conveyed), and we require a good reason for accepting that a particular use diverges from the general usage (e.g., he never knew or had forgotten the general usage). Similarly in nonlinguistic cases: we are presumed to intend the normal consequences of our actions.

Again, in cases where there is doubt, say, about which of two or more things an utterer intends to convey, we tend to refer to the context (linguistic or otherwise) of the utterance and ask which of the alternatives would be relevant to other things he is saying or doing, or which intention in a particular situation would fit in with some purpose he obviously has (e.g., a man who calls for a “pump” at a fire would not want a bicycle pump). Non-linguistic parallels are obvious: context is a criterion in settling the question of why a man who has just put a cigarette in his mouth has put his hand in his pocket; relevance to an obvious end is a criterion in settling why a man is running away from a bull.

In certain linguistic cases we ask the utterer afterward about his intention, and in a few of these cases (the very difficult ones, like a philosopher asked to explain the meaning of an unclear passage in one of his works), the answer is not based on what he remembers but is more like a decision, a decision about how what he said is to be taken. I cannot find a nonlinguistic parallel here; but the case is so special as not to seem to contribute a vital difference.

All this is very obvious; but surely to show that the criteria

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handkerchief near the scene of a murder in order to induce the detective to believe that *B* was the murderer; but we should not want to say that the handkerchief (or my leaving it there) meant<sub>NN</sub> anything or that I had meant<sub>NN</sub> by leaving it that *B* was the murderer. Clearly we must at least add that, for *x* to have meant<sub>NN</sub> anything, not merely must it have been “uttered” with the intention of inducing a certain belief but also the utterer must have intended an “audience” to recognize the intention behind the utterance.

This, though perhaps better, is not good enough. Consider the following cases:

(1) Herod presents Salome with the head of St. John the Baptist on a charger.

(2) Feeling faint, a child lets its mother see how pale it is (hoping that she may draw her own conclusions and help).

(3) I leave the china my daughter has broken lying around for my wife to see.

Here we seem to have cases which satisfy the conditions so far given for meaning<sub>NN</sub>. For example, Herod intended to make Salome believe that St. John the Baptist was dead and no doubt also intended Salome to recognize that he intended her to believe that St. John the Baptist was dead. Similarly for the other cases. Yet I certainly do not think that we should want to say that we have here cases of meaning<sub>NN</sub>.

What we want to find is the difference between, for example, “deliberately and openly letting someone know” and “telling” and between “getting someone to think” and “telling.”

The way out is perhaps as follows. Compare the following two cases:

(1) I show Mr. *X* a photograph of Mr. *Y* displaying undue familiarity to Mrs. *X*.

(2) I draw a picture of Mr. *Y* behaving in this manner and show it to Mr. *X*.

I find that I want to deny that in (1) the photograph (or my showing it to Mr. *X*) meant<sub>NN</sub> anything at all; while I want to assert that in (2) the picture (or my drawing and showing it)

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for judging linguistic intentions are very like the criteria for judging nonlinguistic intentions is to show that linguistic intentions are very like nonlinguistic intentions.

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Natural vs. Non-Natural Meaning		Against Stevenson's Causal Theory		Utterer's meaning is more basic than timeless meaning		Why the first clause alone isn't enough			
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<p>CONSIDER the following sentences:</p> <p>“Those spots mean (meant) measles.”</p> <p>“Those spots didn't mean anything to me, but to the doctor they meant measles.”</p> <p>“The recent budget means that we shall have a hard year.”</p> <p>(1) I cannot say, “Those spots meant measles, but he hadn't got measles,” and I cannot say, “The recent budget means that we shall have a hard year, but we shan't have.” That is to say, in cases like the above, <i>x meant that p</i> and <i>x means that p</i> entail <i>p</i>.</p> <p>(2) I cannot argue from “Those spots mean (meant) measles” to any conclusion about “what is (was) meant by those spots”; for example, I am not entitled to say, “What was meant by those spots was that he had measles.” Equally I cannot draw from the statement about the recent budget the conclusion “What is meant by the recent budget is that we shall have a hard year.”</p> <p>(3) I cannot argue from “Those spots meant measles” to any conclusion to the effect that somebody or other meant by those spots so-and-so. <i>Mutatis mutandis</i>, the same is true of the sentence about the recent budget.</p> <p>(4) For none of the above examples can a restatement be found in which the verb “mean” is followed by a sentence or phrase in inverted commas. Thus “Those spots meant measles” cannot be reformulated as “Those spots meant ‘measles’” or as “Those spots meant ‘he has measles.’”</p> <p>(5) On the other hand, for all these examples an approximate restatement can be found beginning with the phrase “The fact that . . .”; for example, “The fact that he had those spots meant that he had measles” and “The fact that the recent budget was as it was means that we shall have a hard year.”</p> <p>Now contrast the above sentences with the following:</p> <p>“Those three rings on the bell (of the bus) mean that the ‘bus is full.’”</p>		<p>H. P. GRICE</p> <p>“That remark, ‘Smith couldn't get on without his trouble and strife,’ meant that Smith found his wife indispensable.”</p> <p>(1) I can use the first of these and go on to say, “But it isn't in fact full—the conductor has made a mistake”; and I can use the second and go on, “But in fact Smith deserted her seven years ago.” That is to say, here <i>x means that p</i> and <i>x meant that p</i> do not entail <i>p</i>.</p> <p>(2) I can argue from the first to some statement about “what is (was) meant” by the rings on the bell and from the second to some statement about “what is (was) meant” by the quoted remark.</p> <p>(3) I can argue from the first sentence to the conclusion that somebody (<i>viz.</i>, the conductor) meant, or at any rate should have meant, by the rings that the bus is full, and I can argue analogously for the second sentence.</p> <p>(4) The first sentence can be restated in a form in which the verb “mean” is followed by a phrase in inverted commas, that is, “Those three rings on the bell mean ‘the bus is full.’” So also can the second sentence.</p> <p>(5) Such a sentence as “The fact that the bell has been rung three times means that the bus is full” is not a restatement of the meaning of the first sentence. Both may be true, but they do not have, even approximately, the same meaning.</p> <p>When the expressions “means,” “means something,” “means that” are used in the kind of way in which they are used in the first set of sentences, I shall speak of the sense, or senses, in which they are used, as the <i>natural</i> sense, or senses, of the expressions in question. I shall use the abbreviation “means<sub>nn</sub>” to distinguish the nonnatural sense or senses.</p> <p>I propose, for convenience, also to include under the head of natural senses of “mean” such senses of “mean” as may be exemplified in sentences of the pattern “<i>A</i> means (meant) <i>to do</i> so-and-so (by <i>x</i>),” where <i>A</i> is a human agent. By contrast, as the previous examples show, I include under the head of non-</p>		<p>H. P. GRICE</p> <p>for example, a belief. (I use “utterance” as a neutral word to apply to any candidate for meanings<sub>nn</sub>; it has a convenient act-object ambiguity.) It is no doubt the case that many people have a tendency to put on a tail coat when they think they are about to go to a dance, and it is no doubt also the case that many people, on seeing someone put on a tail coat, would conclude that the person in question was about to go to a dance. Does this satisfy us that putting on a tail coat means<sub>nn</sub> that one is about to go to a dance (or indeed means<sub>nn</sub> anything at all)? Obviously not. It is no help to refer to the qualifying phrase “dependent on an elaborate process of conditioning. . . .” For if all this means is that the response to the sight of a tail coat being put on is in some way learned or acquired, it will not exclude the present case from being one of meanings<sub>nn</sub>. But if we have to take seriously the second part of the qualifying phrase (“attending the use of the sign in communication”), then the account of meanings<sub>nn</sub> is obviously circular. We might just as well say, “<i>X</i> has meanings<sub>nn</sub> if it is used in communication,” which, though true, is not helpful.</p> <p>(2) If this is not enough, there is a difficulty—really the same difficulty, I think—which Stevenson recognizes: how we are to avoid saying, for example, that “Jones is tall” is part of what is meant by “Jones is an athlete,” since to tell someone that Jones is an athlete would tend to make him believe that Jones is tall. Stevenson here resorts to invoking linguistic rules, namely, a permissive rule of language that “athletes may be nontall.” This amounts to saying that we are not prohibited by rule from speaking of “nontall athletes.” But why are we not prohibited? Not because it is not bad grammar, or is not impolite, and so on, but presumably because it is not meaningless (or, if this is too strong, does not in any way violate the rules of meaning for the expressions concerned). But this seems to involve us in another circle. Moreover, one wants to ask why, if it is legitimate to appeal here to rules to distinguish what is meant from what is suggested, this appeal was not made earlier, in the case of groans, for example, to deal with which Stevenson originally introduced the qualifying phrase about dependence on conditioning.</p> <p>A further deficiency in a causal theory of the type just</p>		<p>H. P. GRICE</p> <p>expounded seems to be that, even if we accept it as it stands, we are furnished with an analysis only of statements about the <i>standard</i> meaning, or the meaning in general, of a “sign.” No provision is made for dealing with statements about what a particular speaker or writer means by a sign on a particular occasion (which may well diverge from the standard meaning of the sign); nor is it obvious how the theory could be adapted to make such provision. One might even go further in criticism and maintain that the causal theory ignores the fact that the meaning (in general) of a sign needs to be explained in terms of what users of the sign do (or should) mean by it on particular occasions; and so the latter notion, which is unexplained by the causal theory, is in fact the fundamental one. I am sympathetic to this more radical criticism, though I am aware that the point is controversial.</p> <p>I do not propose to consider any further theories of the “causal-tendency” type. I suspect no such theory could avoid difficulties analogous to those I have outlined without utterly losing its claim to rank as a theory of this type.</p> <p>I will now try a different and, I hope, more promising line. If we can elucidate the meaning of</p> <p>“<i>x</i> meant<sub>nn</sub> something (on a particular occasion)” and “<i>x</i> meant<sub>nn</sub> that so-and-so (on a particular occasion)” and of</p> <p>“<i>A</i> meant<sub>nn</sub> something by <i>x</i> (on a particular occasion)” and “<i>A</i> meant<sub>nn</sub> by <i>x</i> that so-and-so (on a particular occasion),” this might reasonably be expected to help us with</p> <p>“<i>x</i> means<sub>nn</sub> (timeless) something (that so-and-so),” “<i>A</i> means<sub>nn</sub> (timeless) by <i>x</i> something (that so-and-so),” and with the explication of “means the same as,” “understands,” “entails,” and so on. Let us for the moment pretend that we have to deal only with utterances which might be informative or descriptive.</p> <p>A first shot would be to suggest that “<i>x</i> meant<sub>nn</sub> something” would be true if <i>x</i> was intended by its utterer to induce a belief in some “audience” and that to say what the belief was would be to say what <i>x</i> meant<sub>nn</sub>. This will not do. I might leave <i>B</i>'s</p>		<p>H. P. GRICE</p> <p>handkerchief near the scene of a murder in order to induce the detective to believe that <i>B</i> was the murderer; but we should not want to say that the handkerchief (or my leaving it there) meant<sub>nn</sub> anything or that I had meant<sub>nn</sub> by leaving it that <i>B</i> was the murderer. Clearly we must at least add that, for <i>x</i> to have meant<sub>nn</sub> anything, not merely must it have been “uttered” with the intention of inducing a certain belief but also the utterer must have intended an “audience” to recognize the intention behind the utterance.</p> <p>This, though perhaps better, is not good enough. Consider the following cases:</p> <p>(1) Herod presents Salome with the head of St. John the Baptist on a charger.</p> <p>(2) Feeling faint, a child lets its mother see how pale it is (hoping that she may draw her own conclusions and help).</p> <p>(3) I leave the china my daughter has broken lying around for my wife to see.</p> <p>Here we seem to have cases which satisfy the conditions so far given for meanings<sub>nn</sub>. For example, Herod intended to make Salome believe that St. John the Baptist was dead and no doubt also intended Salome to recognize that he intended her to believe that St. John the Baptist was dead. Similarly for the other cases. Yet I certainly do not think that we should want to say that we have here cases of meanings<sub>nn</sub>.</p> <p>What we want to find is the difference between, for example, “deliberately and openly letting someone know” and “telling” and between “getting someone to think” and “telling.”</p> <p>The way out is perhaps as follows. Compare the following two cases:</p> <p>(1) I show Mr. <i>X</i> a photograph of Mr. <i>T</i> displaying undue familiarity to Mrs. <i>X</i>.</p> <p>(2) I draw a picture of Mr. <i>T</i> behaving in this manner and show it to Mr. <i>X</i>.</p> <p>I find that I want to deny that in (1) the photograph (or my showing it to Mr. <i>X</i>) meant<sub>nn</sub> anything at all; while I want to assert that in (2) the picture (or my drawing and showing it)</p>	
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MEANING	H. P. GRICE	MEANING	H. P. GRICE	MEANING	MEANING
<p>meant<sub>nn</sub> something (that Mr. <i>Y</i> had been unduly unfamiliar), or at least that I had meant<sub>nn</sub> by it that Mr. <i>Y</i> had been unduly familiar. What is the difference between the two cases? Surely that in case (1) Mr. <i>X</i>'s recognition of my intention to make him believe that there is something between Mr. <i>Y</i> and Mrs. <i>X</i> is (more or less) irrelevant to the production of this effect by the photograph. Mr. <i>X</i> would be led by the photograph at least to suspect Mrs. <i>X</i> even if instead of showing it to him I had left it in his room by accident; and I (the photograph shower) would not be unaware of this. But it will make a difference to the effect of my picture on Mr. <i>X</i> whether or not he takes me to be intending to inform him (make him believe something) about Mrs. <i>X</i>, and not to be just doodling or trying to produce a work of art.</p> <p>But now we seem to be landed in a further difficulty if we accept this account. For consider now, say, frowning. If I frown spontaneously, in the ordinary course of events, someone looking at me may well treat the frown as a natural sign of displeasure. But if I frown deliberately (to convey my displeasure), an onlooker may be expected, provided he recognizes my intention, <i>still</i> to conclude that I am displeased. Ought we not then to say, since it could not be expected to make any difference to the onlooker's reaction whether he regards my frown as spontaneous or as intended to be informative, that my frown (deliberate) does <i>not</i> mean<sub>nn</sub> anything? I think this difficulty can be met; for though in general a deliberate frown may have the same effect (as regards inducing belief in my displeasure) as a spontaneous frown, it can be expected to have the same effect only <i>provided</i> the audience takes it as intended to convey displeasure. That is, if we take away the recognition of intention, leaving the other circumstances (including the recognition of the frown as deliberate), the belief-producing tendency of the frown must be regarded as being impaired or destroyed.</p> <p>Perhaps we may sum up what is necessary for <i>A</i> to mean something by <i>x</i> as follows. <i>A</i> must intend to induce by <i>x</i> a belief in an audience, and he must also intend his utterance to be recognized as so intended. But these intentions are not independent; the recognition is intended by <i>A</i> to play its part in inducing the belief, and if it does not do so something will have gone wrong</p>	<p>H. P. GRICE</p> <p>with the fulfillment of <i>A</i>'s intentions. Moreover, <i>A</i>'s intending that the recognition should play this part implies, I think, that he assumes that there is some chance that it will in fact play this part, that he does not regard it as a foregone conclusion that the belief will be induced in the audience whether or not the intention behind the utterance is recognized. Shortly, perhaps, we may say that “<i>A</i> meant<sub>nn</sub> something by <i>x</i>” is roughly equivalent to “<i>A</i> uttered <i>x</i> with the intention of inducing a belief by means of the recognition of this intention.” (This seems to involve a reflexive paradox, but it does not really do so.)</p> <p>Now perhaps it is time to drop the pretense that we have to deal only with “informative” cases. Let us start with some examples of imperatives or quasi-imperatives. I have a very avaricious man in my room, and I want him to go; so I throw a pound note out of the window. Is there here any utterance with a meaning<sub>nn</sub>? No, because in behaving as I did, I did not intend his recognition of my purpose to be in any way effective in getting him to go. This is parallel to the photograph case. If on the other hand I had pointed to the door or given him a little push, then my behavior might well be held to constitute a meaningful<sub>nn</sub> utterance, just because the recognition of my intention would be intended by me to be effective in speeding his departure. Another pair of cases would be (1) a policeman who stops a car by standing in its way and (2) a policeman who stops a car by waving.</p> <p>Or, to turn briefly to another type of case, if as an examiner I fail a man, I may well cause him distress or indignation or humiliation; and if I am vindictive, I may intend this effect and even intend him to recognize my intention. But I should not be inclined to say that my failing him meant<sub>nn</sub> anything. On the other hand, if I cut someone in the street I do feel inclined to assimilate this to the cases of meanings<sub>nn</sub> and this inclination seems to me dependent on the fact that I could not reasonably expect him to be distressed (indignant, humiliated) unless he recognized my intention to affect him in this way. (Cf. if my college stopped my salary altogether I should accuse them of ruining me; if they cut it by 2/6<sup>d</sup> I might accuse them of insulting me; with some intermediate amounts I might not know quite what to say.)</p>	<p>Perhaps then we may make the following generalizations.</p> <p>(1) “<i>A</i> meant<sub>nn</sub> something by <i>x</i>” is (roughly) equivalent to “<i>A</i> intended the utterance of <i>x</i> to produce some effect in an audience by means of the recognition of this intention”; and we may add that to ask what <i>A</i> meant is to ask for a specification of the intended effect (though, of course, it may not always be possible to get a straight answer involving a “that” clause, for example, “a belief that . . .”).</p> <p>(2) “<i>x</i> meant something” is (roughly) equivalent to “Some body meant<sub>nn</sub> something by <i>x</i>.” Here again there will be case where this will not quite work. I feel inclined to say that (a regards traffic lights) the change to red meant<sub>nn</sub> that the traffic was to stop; but it would be very unnatural to say, “Somebody (e.g., the Corporation) meant<sub>nn</sub> by the red-light change that the traffic was to stop.” Nevertheless, there seems to be <i>some</i> sort of reference to somebody's intentions.</p> <p>(3) “<i>x</i> means<sub>nn</sub> (timeless) that so-and-so” might as a first shot be equated with some statement or disjunction of statement about what “people” (vague) intend (with qualifications about “recognition”) to effect by <i>x</i>. I shall have a word to say about this.</p> <p>Will any kind of intended effect do, or may there be case where an effect is intended (with the required qualifications and yet we should not want to talk of meanings<sub>nn</sub>? Suppose I discovered some person so constituted that, when I told him that whenever I grunted in a special way I wanted him to blush or to incur some physical malady, thereafter whenever he recognized the grunt (and with it my intention), he did blush or incur the malady. Should we then want to say that the grunt meant<sub>nn</sub> something? I do not think so. This points to the fact that for to have meanings<sub>nn</sub> the intended effect must be something which in some sense is within the control of the audience, or that in some sense of “reason” the recognition of the intention behind <i>x</i> is for the audience a reason and not merely a cause. It might look as if there is a sort of pun here (“reason for believing” and “reason for doing”), but I do not think this is serious. For though no doubt from one point of view questions about reasons for believing are questions about evidence and so quite different from question</p>	<p>H. P. GRICE</p> <p>about reasons for doing, nevertheless to recognize an utterer's intention in uttering <i>x</i> (descriptive utterance), to have a reason for believing that so-and-so, is at least quite like “having a motive for” accepting so-and-so. Decisions “that” seem to involve decisions “to” (and this is why we can “refuse to believe” and also be “compelled to believe”). (The “cutting” case needs slightly different treatment, for one cannot in any straightforward sense “decide” to be offended; but one can refuse to be offended.) It looks then as if the intended effect must be something within the control of the audience, or at least the <i>sort</i> of thing which is within its control.</p> <p>One point before passing to an objection or two. I think it follows that from what I have said about the connection between meanings<sub>nn</sub> and recognition of intention that (insofar as I am right) only what I may call the primary intention of an utterer is relevant to the meanings<sub>nn</sub> of an utterance. For if I utter <i>x</i>, intending (with the aid of the recognition of this intention) to induce an effect <i>E</i>, and intend this effect <i>E</i> to lead to a further effect <i>F</i>, then insofar as the occurrence of <i>F</i> is thought to be dependent solely on <i>E</i>, I cannot regard <i>F</i> as in the least dependent on recognition of my intention to induce <i>E</i>. That is, if (say) I intend to get a man to do something by giving him some information, it cannot be regarded as relevant to the meanings<sub>nn</sub> of my utterance to describe what I intend him to do.</p> <p>Now some question may be raised about my use, fairly free, of such words as “intention” and “recognition.” I must disclaim any intention of peopling all our talking life with armies of complicated psychological occurrences. I do not hope to solve any philosophical puzzles about intending, but I do want briefly to argue that no special difficulties are raised by my use of the word “intention” in connection with meaning. First, there will be cases where an utterance is accompanied or preceded by a conscious “plan,” or explicit formulation of intention (e.g., I declare how I am going to use <i>x</i>, or ask myself how to “get something across”). The presence of such an explicit “plan” obviously counts fairly heavily in favor of the utterer's intention (meaning) being as “planned”; though it is not, I think, conclusive; for example, a speaker who has declared an intention</p>	<p>H. P. GRICE</p> <p>to use a familiar expression in an unfamiliar way may slip into the familiar use. Similarly in nonlinguistic cases: if we are asking about an agent's intention, a previous expression counts heavily; nevertheless, a man might plan to throw a letter in the dustbin and yet take it to the post; when lifting his hand he might “come to” and say <i>either</i> “I didn't intend to do this at all” or “I suppose I must have been intending to put it in.”</p> <p>Explicitly formulated linguistic (or quasi-linguistic) intentions are no doubt comparatively rare. In their absence we would seem to rely on very much the same kinds of criteria as we do in the case of nonlinguistic intentions where there is a general usage. An utterer is held to intend to convey what is normally conveyed (or normally intended to be conveyed), and we require a good reason for accepting that a particular use diverges from the general usage (e.g., he never knew or had forgotten the general usage). Similarly in nonlinguistic cases: we are presumed to intend the normal consequences of our actions.</p> <p>Again, in cases where there is doubt, say, about which of two or more things an utterer intends to convey, we tend to refer to the context (linguistic or otherwise) of the utterance and ask which of the alternatives would be relevant to other things he is saying or doing, or which intention in a particular situation would fit in with some purpose he obviously has (e.g., a man who calls for a “pump” at a fire would not want a bicycle pump). Non-linguistic parallels are obvious: context is a criterion in settling the question of why a man who has just put a cigarette in his mouth has put his hand in his pocket; relevance to an obvious end is a criterion in settling why a man is running away from a bull.</p> <p>In certain linguistic cases we ask the utterer afterward about his intention, and in a few of these cases (the very difficult ones, like a philosopher asked to explain the meaning of an unclear passage in one of his works), the answer is not based on what he remembers but is more like a decision, a decision about how what he said is to be taken. I cannot find a nonlinguistic parallel here; but the case is so special as not to seem to contribute a vital difference.</p> <p>All this is very obvious; but surely to show that the criteria</p>	<p>for judging linguistic intentions are very like the criteria for judging nonlinguistic intentions is to show that linguistic intentions are very like nonlinguistic intentions.</p> <p>St. John's College Oxford</p>
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## Introducing and defending communicative intentions

## Explication of timeless meaning

## Comments, responses to objections



# Utterer's meaning is more basic than timeless meaning

## Why the first clause alone isn't enough

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<p>CONSIDER the following sentences:</p> <p>“Those spots mean (meant) measles.”</p> <p>“Those spots didn’t mean anything to me, but to the doctor they meant measles.”</p> <p>“The recent budget means that we shall have a hard year.”</p> <p>(1) I cannot say, “Those spots meant measles, but he hadn’t got measles,” and I cannot say, “The recent budget means that we shall have a hard year, but we shan’t have.” That is to say, in cases like the above, <i>x</i> <i>meant</i> that <i>p</i> and <i>x</i> <i>means</i> that <i>p</i> entail <i>p</i>.</p> <p>(2) I cannot argue from “Those spots mean (meant) measles” to any conclusion about “what is (was) meant by those spots”; for example, I am not entitled to say, “What was meant by those spots was that he had measles.” Equally I cannot draw from the statement about the recent budget the conclusion “What is meant by the recent budget is that we shall have a hard year.”</p> <p>(3) I cannot argue from “Those spots meant measles” to any conclusion to the effect that somebody or other meant by those spots so-and-so. <i>Mutatis mutandis</i>, the same is true of the sentence about the recent budget.</p> <p>(4) For none of the above examples can a restatement be found in which the verb “mean” is followed by a sentence or phrase in inverted commas. Thus “Those spots meant measles” cannot be reformulated as “Those spots meant ‘measles’” or as “Those spots meant ‘he has measles.’”</p> <p>(5) On the other hand, for all these examples an approximate restatement can be found beginning with the phrase “The fact that . . .”; for example, “The fact that he had those spots meant that he had measles” and “The fact that the recent budget was as it was means that we shall have a hard year.”</p> <p>Now contrast the above sentences with the following:</p> <p>“Those three rings on the bell (of the bus) mean that the ‘bus is full.’”</p>	<p>natural senses of “mean” any senses of “mean” found in sentences of the patterns “<i>A</i> means (meant) something by <i>x</i>” or “<i>A</i> means (meant) by <i>x</i> that. . .” (This is overridable; but it will serve as an indication.)</p> <p>I do not want to maintain that <i>all</i> our uses of “mean” fall easily, obviously, and tidily into one of the two groups I have distinguished; but I think that in most cases we should be at least fairly strongly inclined to assimilate a use of “mean” to one group rather than to the other. The question which now arises is this: “What more can be said about the distinction between the cases where we should say that the word is applied in a natural sense and the cases where we should say that the word is applied in an nonnatural sense?” Asking this question will not of course prohibit us from trying to give an explanation of “meaning<sub>NS</sub>” in terms of one or another natural sense of “mean.”</p> <p>This question about the distinction between natural and non-natural meaning is, I think, what people are getting at when they display an interest in a distinction between “natural” and “conventional” signs. But I think my formulation is better. For some things which can mean<sub>NS</sub> something are not signs (e.g., words are not), and some are not conventional in any ordinary sense (e.g., certain gestures); while some things which mean naturally are not signs of what they mean (cf. the recent budget example).</p> <p>I want first to consider briefly, and reject, what I might term a causal type of answer to the question, “What is meaning?” We might try to say, for instance, more or less with C. L. Stevenson,<sup>1</sup> that for <i>x</i> to mean<sub>NS</sub> something, <i>x</i> must have (roughly) a tendency to produce in an audience some attitude (cognitive or otherwise) and a tendency, in the case of a speaker, to <i>be</i> produced by that attitude, these tendencies being dependent on “an elaborate process of conditioning attending the use of the sign in communication.” This clearly will not do.</p> <p>(1) Let us consider a case where an utterance, if it qualifies at all as meaning<sub>NS</sub> something, will be of a descriptive or informative kind and the relevant attitude, therefore, will be a cognitive one,</p>	<p>for example, a belief. (I use “utterance” as a neutral word to apply to any candidate for meanings<sub>NS</sub>); it has a convenient apt-obj ambiguity.) It is to no doubt the case that many people have a tendency to put on a tail coat when they think they are about to go to a dance, and it is no doubt also the case that many people, on seeing someone put on a tail coat, would conclude that the person in question was about to go to a dance. Does this satisfy us that putting on a tail coat means<sub>NS</sub> that one is about to go to a dance (or indeed means<sub>NS</sub> anything at all)? Obviously not. It is no help to refer to the qualifying phrase “dependent on an elaborate process of conditioning. . .” For if all this means is that the response to the sight of a tail coat being put on is in some way learned or acquired, it will not exclude the present case from being one of meaning<sub>NS</sub>. But if we have to take seriously the second part of the qualifying phrase (“attending the use of the sign in communication”), then the account of meaning<sub>NS</sub> is obviously circular. We might just as well say, “<i>X</i> has meaning<sub>NS</sub>, if it is used in communication,” which, though true, is not helpful.</p> <p>(2) If this is not enough, there is a difficulty—really the same difficulty, I think—which Stevenson recognizes: how we are to avoid saying, for example, that “Jones is tall” is part of what is meant by “Jones is an athlete,” since to tell someone that Jones is an athlete would tend to make him believe that Jones is tall. Stevenson here resorts to invoking linguistic rules, namely, a permissive rule of language that “athletes may be nontall.” This amounts to saying that we are not prohibited by rule from speaking of “nontall athletes.” But why are we not prohibited? Not because it is not bad grammar, or is not impolite, and so on, but presumably because it is not meaningless (or, if this is too strong, does not in any way violate the rules of meaning for the expressions concerned). But this seems to involve us in another circle. Moreover, one wants to ask why, if it is legitimate to appeal here to rules to distinguish what is meant from what is suggested, this appeal was not made earlier, in the case of groans, for example, to deal with which Stevenson originally introduced the qualifying phrase about dependence on conditioning.</p> <p>A further deficiency in a causal theory of the type just expounded seems to be that, even if we accept it as it stands, we are furnished with an analysis only of statements about the <i>standard</i> meaning, or the meaning in general, of a “sign.” No provision is made for dealing with statements about what a particular speaker or writer means by a sign on a particular occasion (which may well diverge from the standard meaning of the sign); nor is it obvious how the theory could be adapted to make such provision. One might even go further in criticism and maintain that the causal theory ignores the fact that the meaning (in general) of a sign needs to be explained in terms of what users of the sign do (or should) mean by it on particular occasions; and so the latter notion, which is unexplained by the causal theory, is in fact the fundamental one. I am sympathetic to this more radical criticism, though I am aware that the point is controversial.</p> <p>I do not propose to consider any further theories of the “causal-tendency” type. I suspect no such theory could avoid difficulties analogous to those I have outlined without utterly losing its claim to rank as a theory of this type.</p> <p>I will now try a different and, I hope, more promising line. If we can elucidate the meaning of</p> <p>“<i>x</i> meant<sub>NS</sub> something (on a particular occasion)” and “<i>x</i> meant<sub>NS</sub> that so-and-so (on a particular occasion)” and of</p> <p>“<i>A</i> meant<sub>NS</sub> something by <i>x</i> (on a particular occasion)” and “<i>A</i> meant<sub>NS</sub> by <i>x</i> that so-and-so (on a particular occasion),” this might reasonably be expected to help us with</p> <p>“<i>x</i> means<sub>NS</sub> (timeless) something (that so-and-so),” “<i>A</i> means<sub>NS</sub> (timeless) by <i>x</i> something (that so-and-so),” and with the explication of “means the same as,” “understands,” “entails,” and so on. Let us for the moment pretend that we have to deal only with utterances which might be informative or descriptive.</p> <p>A first shot would be to suggest that “<i>x</i> meant<sub>NS</sub> something” would be true if <i>x</i> was intended by its utterer to induce a belief in some “audience” and that to say what the belief was would be to say what <i>x</i> meant<sub>NS</sub>. This will not do. I might leave <i>B</i>’s</p> <p>handkerchief near the scene of a murder in order to induce the detective to believe that <i>B</i> was the murderer; but we should not want to say that the handkerchief (or my leaving it there) meant<sub>NS</sub> anything or that I had meant<sub>NS</sub> by leaving it that <i>B</i> was the murderer. Clearly we must at least add that, for <i>x</i> to have meant<sub>NS</sub> anything, not merely must it have been “uttered” with the intention of inducing a certain belief but also the utterer must have intended an “audience” to recognize the intention behind the utterance.</p> <p>This, though perhaps better, is not good enough. Consider the following cases:</p> <p>(1) Herod presents Salome with the head of St. John the Baptist on a charger.</p> <p>(2) Feeling faint, a child lets its mother see how pale it is (hoping that she may draw her own conclusions and help).</p> <p>(3) I leave the china my daughter has broken lying around for my wife to see.</p> <p>Here we seem to have cases which satisfy the conditions so far given for meaning<sub>NS</sub>. For example, Herod intended to make Salome believe that St. John the Baptist was dead and no doubt also intended Salome to recognize that he intended her to believe that St. John the Baptist was dead. Similarly for the other cases. Yet I certainly do not think that we should want to say that we have here cases of meanings<sub>NS</sub>.</p> <p>What we want to find is the difference between, for example, “deliberately and openly letting someone know” and “telling” and between “getting someone to think” and “telling.”</p> <p>The way out is perhaps as follows. Compare the following two cases:</p> <p>(1) I show Mr. <i>X</i> a photograph of Mr. <i>Y</i> displaying undue familiarity to Mrs. <i>X</i>.</p> <p>(2) I draw a picture of Mr. <i>Y</i> behaving in this manner and show it to Mr. <i>X</i>.</p> <p>I find that I want to deny that in (1) the photograph (or my showing it to Mr. <i>X</i>) meant<sub>NS</sub> anything at all; while I want to assert that in (2) the picture (or my drawing and showing it)</p>
377	378	382

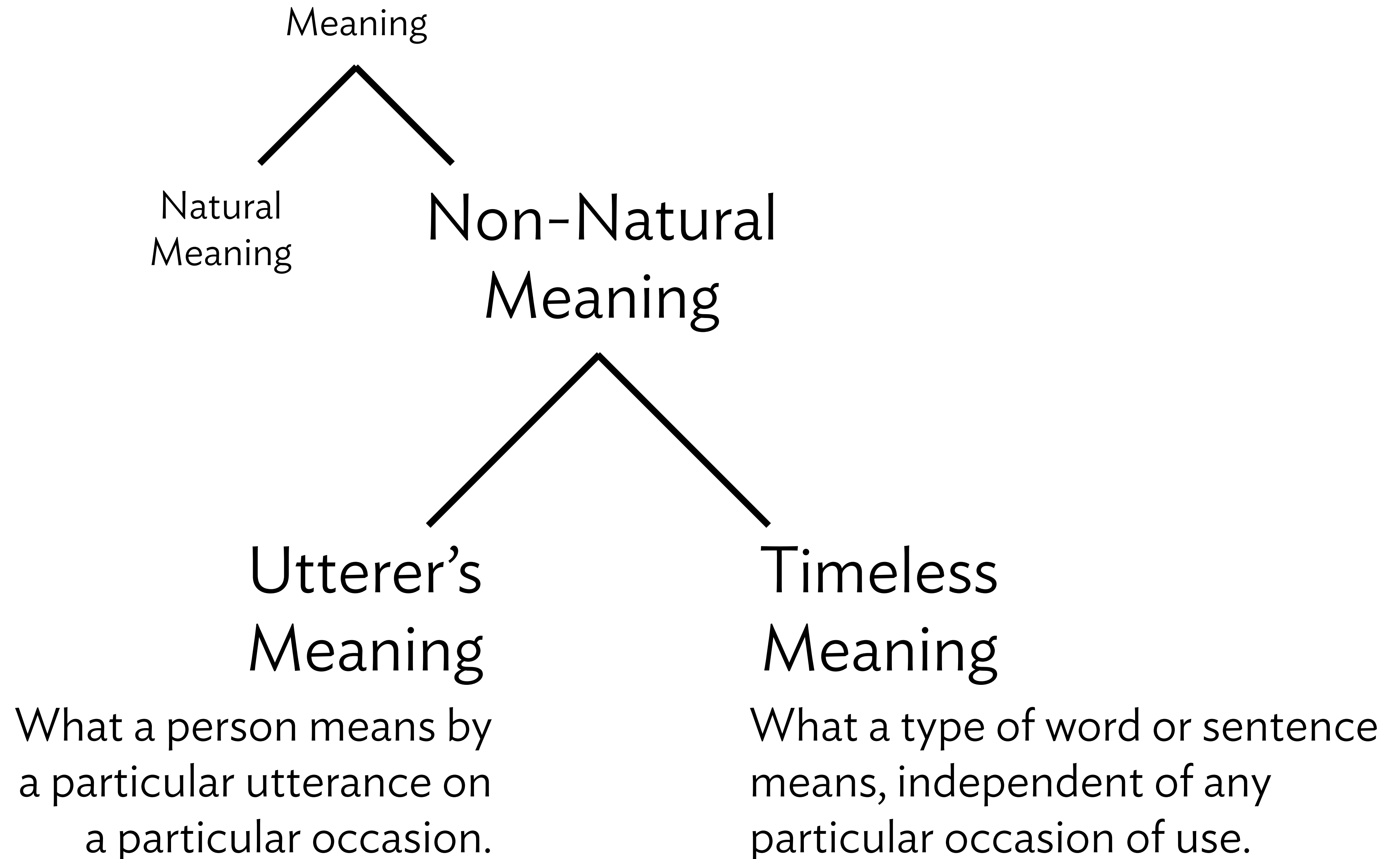
<div>MEANING</div> <p>meant<sub>SN</sub> something (that Mr. <i>X</i> had been unduly unfamiliar), or at least that Mr. <i>X</i> had meant<sub>SN</sub> by it that Mr. <i>X</i> had been unduly familiar. What is the difference between the two cases? Surely that in case (1) Mr. <i>X</i>'s recognition of my intention to make him believe that there is something between Mr. <i>X</i> and Mrs. <i>X</i> is (more or less) irrelevant to the production of this effect by the photograph. Mr. <i>X</i> would be led by the photograph at least to suspect Mrs. <i>X</i> even if instead of showing it to him I had left it in his room by accident; and I (the photograph shower) would not be unaware of this. But it will make a difference to the effect of my picture on Mr. <i>X</i> whether or not he takes me to be intending to inform him (make him believe something) about Mrs. <i>X</i>, and not to be just doodling or trying to produce a work of art.</p> <p>But now we seem to be landed in a further difficulty if we accept this account. For consider now, say, frowning. If I frown spontaneously, in the ordinary course of events, someone looking at me may well treat the frown as a natural sign of displeasure. But if I frown deliberately (to convey my displeasure), an onlooker may be expected, provided he recognizes my intention, <i>still</i> to conclude that I am displeased. Ought we not then to say, since it could not be expected to make any difference to the onlooker's reaction whether he regards my frown as spontaneous or as intended to be informative, that my frown (deliberate) does <i>not</i> mean<sub>SN</sub> anything? I think this difficulty can be met; for though in general a deliberate frown may have the same effect (as regards inducing belief in my displeasure) as a spontaneous frown, it can be expected to have the same effect only <i>provided</i> the audience takes it as intended to convey displeasure. That is, if we take away the recognition of intention, leaving the other circumstances (including the recognition of the frown as deliberate), the belief-producing tendency of the frown must be regarded as being impaired or destroyed.</p> <p>Perhaps we may sum up what is necessary for <i>A</i> to mean something by <i>x</i> as follows. <i>A</i> must intend to induce by <i>x</i> a belief in an audience, and he must also intend his utterance to be recognized as so intended. But these intentions are not independent; the recognition is intended by <i>A</i> to play its part in inducing the belief, and if it does not do so something will have gone wrong</p> <div>383</div>	<div>H. P. GRICE</div> <p>with the fulfillment of <i>A</i>'s intentions. Moreover, <i>A</i>'s intending that the recognition should play this part implies, I think, that he assumes that there is some chance that it will in fact play this part, that he does not regard it as a foregone conclusion that the belief will be induced in the audience whether or not the intention behind the utterance is recognized. Shortly, perhaps, we may say that "A meant<sub>SN</sub> something by <i>x</i>" is roughly equivalent to "A uttered <i>x</i> with the intention of inducing a belief by means of the recognition of this intention." (This seems to involve a reflexive paradox, but it does not really do so.)</p> <p>Now perhaps it is time to drop the pretense, that we have to deal only with "informative" cases. Let us start with some examples of imperatives or quasi-imperatives. I have a very avaricious man in my room, and I want him to go; so I throw a pound note out of the window. Is there here any utterance with a meaning<sub>SN</sub>? No, because in behaving as I did, I did not intend his recognition of my purpose to be in any way effective in getting him to go. This is parallel to the photograph case. If on the other hand I had pointed to the door or given him a little push, then my behavior might well be held to constitute a meaningful<sub>SN</sub> utterance, just because the recognition of my intention would be intended by me to be effective in speeding his departure. Another pair of cases would be (1) a policeman who stops a car by standing in its way and (2) a policeman who stops a car by waving.</p> <p>Or, to turn briefly to another type of case, if as an examiner I fail a man, I may well cause him distress or indignation or humiliation; and if I am vindictive, I may intend this effect and even intend him to recognize my intention. But I should not be inclined to say that my failing him mean<sub>SN</sub> anything. On the other hand, if I cut someone in the street I do feel inclined to assimilate this to the cases of meaning<sub>SN</sub>, and this inclination seems to me dependent on the fact that I could not reasonably expect him to be distressed (indignant, humiliated) unless he recognized my intention to affect him in this way. (Cf., if my college stopped my salary altogether I should accuse them of ruining me; if they cut it by 2/3 I might accuse them of insulting me; with some intermediate amounts I might not know quite what to say.)</p> <div>384</div>	<div>MEANING</div> <p>Perhaps then we may make the following generalizations.</p> <p>(1) "A meant<sub>SN</sub> something by <i>x</i>" is (roughly) equivalent to "A intended the utterance of <i>x</i> to produce some effect in an audience by means of the recognition of this intention"; and we may add that to ask what <i>A</i> meant is to ask for a specification of the intended effect (though, of course, it may not always be possible to get a straight answer involving a "that" clause, for example, "a belief that . . .").</p> <p>(2) "x meant something" is (roughly) equivalent to "Some body meant<sub>SN</sub> something by <i>x</i>." Here again there will be case where this will not quite work. I feel inclined to say that (a regards traffic lights) the change to red meant<sub>SN</sub> that the traffic was to stop; but it would be very unnatural to say, "Somebody (e.g., the Corporation) meant<sub>SN</sub> by the red-light change that the traffic was to stop." Nevertheless, there seems to be <i>some</i> sort of reference to somebody's intentions.</p> <p>(3) "x means<sub>SN</sub> (timeless) that so-and-so" might as a first sho be equated with some statement or disjunction of statement about what "people" (vague) intend (with qualifications about "recognition") to effect by <i>x</i>. I shall have a word to say about this.</p> <p>Will any kind of intended effect do, or may there be case where an effect is intended (with the required qualifications, and yet we should not want to talk of meaning<sub>SN</sub>)? Suppose I discovered some person so constituted that, when I told him that whenever I grunted in a special way I wanted him to blush or to incur some physical malady, thereafter whenever he recognized the grunt (and with it my intention), he did blush or incur the malady. Should we then want to say that the grunt meant<sub>SN</sub> something? I do not think so. This points to the fact that for I to have meaning<sub>SN</sub> the intended effect must be something which in some sense is within the control of the audience, or that in some sense of "reason" the recognition of the intention behind <i>x</i> is fo the audience a reason and not merely a cause. It might look as i there is a sort of pun here ("reason for believing" and "reason for doing"), but I do not think this is serious. For though no doubt from one point of view questions about reasons for believing are questions about evidence and so quite different from question</p> <div>385</div>	<div>H. P. GRICE</div> <p>about reasons for doing, nevertheless to recognize an utterer's intention in uttering <i>x</i> (descriptive utterance), to have a reason for believing that so-and-so, is at least quite like "having a motive for" accepting so-and-so. Decisions "that" seem to involve decisions "to" (and this is why we can "refuse to believe" and also be "compelled to believe"). (The "cutting" case needs slightly different treatment, for one cannot in any straight-forward sense "decide" to be offended; but one can refuse to be offended.) It looks then as if the intended effect must be something within the control of the audience, or at least the <i>sort</i> of thing which is within its control.</p> <p>One point before passing to an objection or two. I think it follows that from what I have said about the connection between meaning<sub>SN</sub> and recognition of intention that (insofar as I am right) only what I may call the primary intention of an utterer is relevant to the meaning<sub>SN</sub> of an utterance. For if I utter <i>x</i>, intending (with the aid of the recognition of this intention) to induce an effect <i>E</i><sub>1</sub> and intend this effect <i>E</i> to lead to a further effect <i>F</i>, then insofar as the occurrence of <i>F</i> is thought to be dependent solely on <i>E</i>, I cannot regard <i>F</i> as in the least dependent on recognition of my intention to induce <i>E</i>. That is, if (say) I intend to get a man to do something by giving him some information, it cannot be regarded as relevant to the meaning<sub>SN</sub> of my utterance to describe what I intend him to do.</p> <p>Now some question may be raised about my use, fairly free, of such words as "intention" and "recognition." I must disclaim any intention of peopling all our talking life with armies of complicated psychological occurrences. I do not hope to solve any philosophical puzzles about intending, but I do want briefly to argue that no special difficulties are raised by my use of the word "intention" in connection with meaning. First, there will be cases where an utterance is accompanied or preceded by a conscious "plan," or explicit formulation of intention (e.g., I declare how I am going to use <i>x</i>, or ask myself how to "get something across"). The presence of such an explicit "plan" obviously counts fairly heavily in favor of the utterer's intention (meaning) being as "planned"; though it is not, I think, conclusive; for example, a speaker who has declared an intention</p> <div>386</div>	<div>MEANING</div> <p>to use a familiar expression in an unfamiliar way may slip into the familiar use. Similarly in nonlinguistic cases: if we are asking about an agent's intention, a previous expression counts heavily; nevertheless, a man might plan to throw a letter in the dustbin and yet take it to the post; when lifting his hand he might "come to" and say <i>either</i> "I didn't intend to do this at all" or "I suppose I must have been intending to put it in."</p> <p>Explicitly formulated linguistic (or quasi-linguistic) intentions are no doubt comparatively rare. In their absence we would seem to rely on very much the same kinds of criteria as we do in the case of nonlinguistic intentions where there is a general usage. An utterer is held to intend to convey what is normally conveyed (or normally intended to be conveyed), and we require a good reason for accepting that a particular use diverges from the general usage (e.g., he never knew or had forgotten the general usage). Similarly in nonlinguistic cases: we are presumed to intend the normal consequences of our actions.</p> <p>Again, in cases where there is doubt, say, about which of two or more things an utterer intends to convey, we tend to refer to the context (linguistic or otherwise) of the utterance and ask which of the alternatives would be relevant to other things he is saying or doing, or which intention in a particular situation would fit in with some purpose he obviously has (e.g., a man who calls for a "pump" at a fire would not want a bicycle pump). Non-linguistic parallels are obvious: context is a criterion in settling the question of why a man who has just put a cigarette in his mouth has put his hand in his pocket; relevance to an obvious end is a criterion in settling why a man is running away from a bull.</p> <p>In certain linguistic cases we ask the utterer afterward about his intention, and in a few of these cases (the very difficult ones, like a philosopher asked to explain the meaning of an unclear passage in one of his works), the answer is not based on what he remembers but is more like a decision, a decision about how what he said is to be taken. I cannot find a nonlinguistic parallel here; but the case is so special as not to seem to contribute a vital difference.</p> <p>All this is very obvious; but surely to show that the criteria</p> <div>387</div>	<div>H. P. GRICE</div> <p>for judging linguistic intentions are very like the criteria for judging nonlinguistic intentions is to show that linguistic intentions are very like nonlinguistic intentions.</p> <p>St. John's College Oxford</p> <div>388</div>
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# Introducing and defending communicative intentions

# Explication of timeless meaning

## Comments, responses to objections





## Grice's Examples of Meaning<sub>NN</sub> (Part 1)

Those three rings on the bell (of the bus) mean that the bus is full.

That remark, 'Smith couldn't get along without his trouble and strife', meant that Smith found his wife indispensable.

I draw a picture of Mr. Y [displaying undue familiarity to Mrs. X] and show it to Mr. X. ... [T]he picture (or my drawing and showing it) meant<sub>NN</sub> something (that Mr. Y had been unduly familiar), or at least that I had meant<sub>NN</sub> by it that Mr. Y had been unduly familiar.

If I frown deliberately (to convey my displeasure), an onlooker may be expected, provided he recognizes my intention, ...to conclude that I am displeased. [Grice goes on to argue that this case counts as meaning<sub>NN</sub> provided that the frowner intends the addressee to conclude that the frowner is displeased via the recognition of the frowner's intention.]

If...I had pointed to the door or given him a little push, then my behavior might well be held to constitute a meaningful<sub>NN</sub> utterance, just because the recognition of my intention would be intended by me to be effective in speeding his departure.

## Grice's Examples of Meaning<sub>NN</sub> (Part 2)

If...I had pointed to the door or given him a little push, then my behavior might well be held to constitute a meaningful<sub>NN</sub> utterance, just because the recognition of my intention would be intended by me to be effective in speeding his departure.

...a policeman who stops a car by waving.

...if I cut someone in the street, I do feel inclined to assimilate this to the cases of meaning<sub>NN</sub>, and this inclination seems to me dependent on the fact that I would not reasonably expect him to be distressed (indignant, humiliated) unless he recognized my intention to affect him in this way.

If my college stopped my salary altogether, I should accuse them of ruining me; if they cut it by one pound, I might accuse them of insulting me [This example immediately follows the previous one, and the implication is that the latter case is an example of meaning<sub>NN</sub>.]

# Expression Meaning

(a.k.a linguistic meaning, timeless meaning)

**EXPLAINED IN TERMS OF**

## Speaker Meaning

(a.k.a utterer's meaning)

**EXPLAINED IN TERMS OF**

## Mental States

Specifically:

## Communicative Intentions

## Grice's 1957 Theory of Utterer's Meaning:

“A meant<sub>NN</sub> something by [an utterance] x” is (roughly) equivalent to “A intended the utterance of x to produce some effect in an audience by means of the recognition of this intention”

(A is an arbitrary *speaker*)

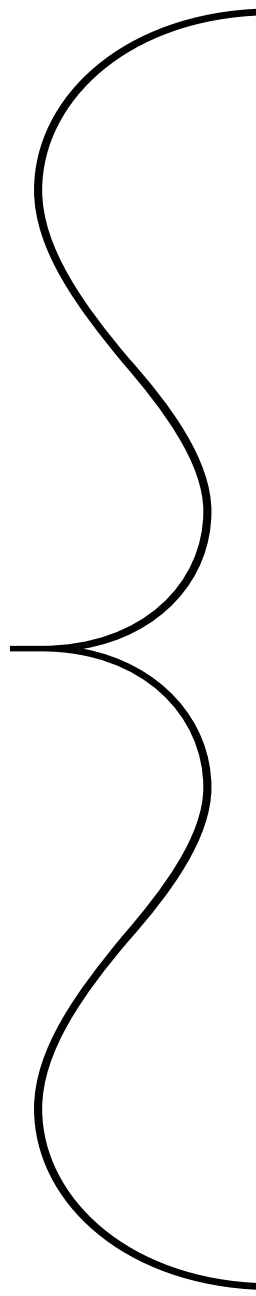
(x is an arbitrary *utterance*)



## Grice's 1968 Analysis of Utterer's Meaning

$S$  means something by uttering  $u$  if and only if  $S$  utters  $u$  intending:

Meaning  
intention /  
Communicative  
Intention

- 
- (1) to produce thereby a certain response  $\Delta$  in a certain addressee  $A$ ;
  - (2) that  $A$  recognize  $S$ 's intention (1);
  - (3) that  $A$ 's response  $\Delta$  be at least partly based on her recognition of (1).

## Asserting (Stating)

$S$  asserts  $p$  by uttering  $u$  if and only if  $S$  utters  $u$  intending:

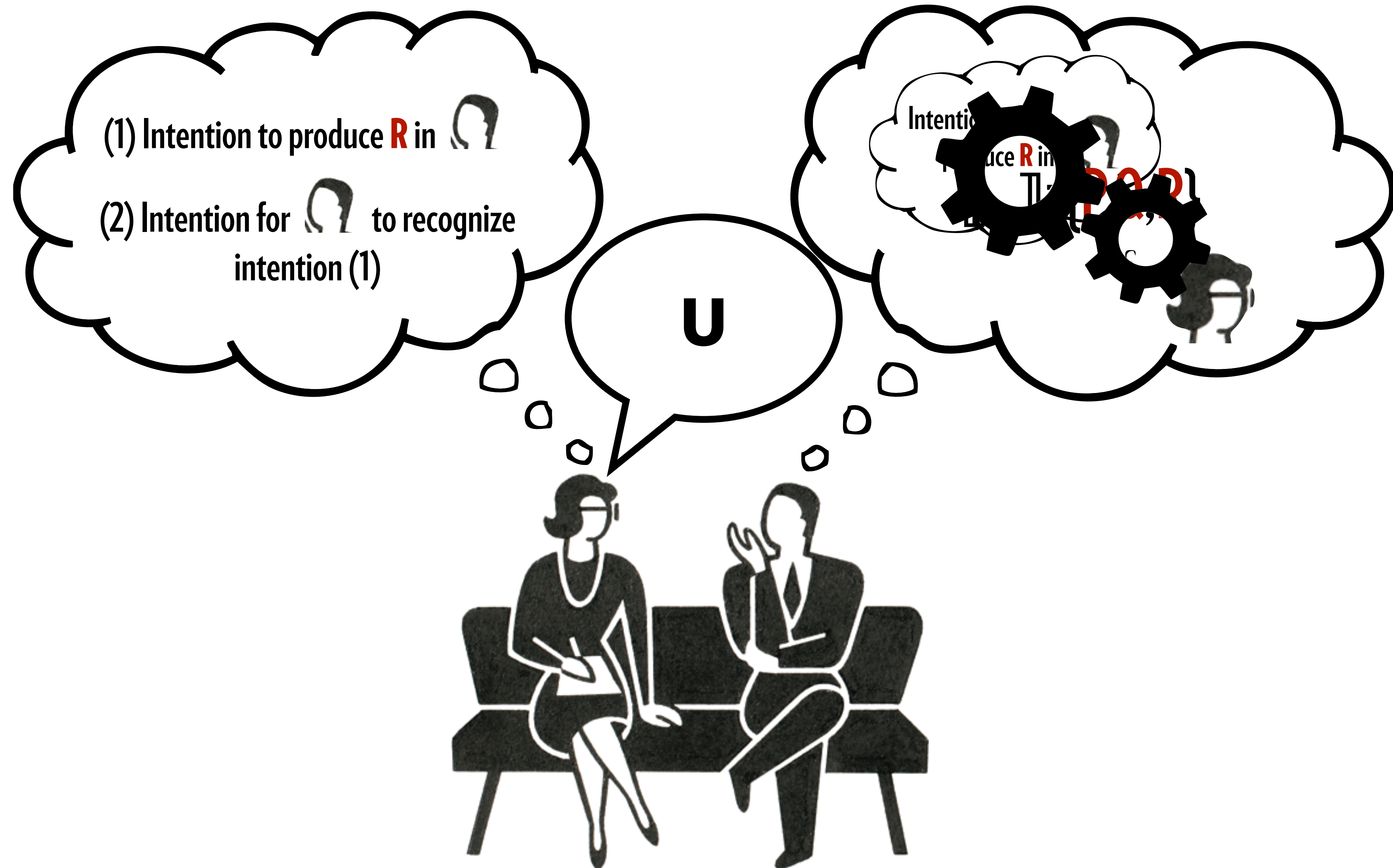
- (1) to produce thereby a belief that  $p$  in a certain addressee  $A$ ;
- (2) that  $A$  recognize  $S$ 's intention (1);
- (3) that  $A$ 's belief be at least partly based on of her recognition of (1).

## Directing (e.g. Requesting, Commanding)

*S* directs *A* to do *X* by uttering *u* if and only if *S* utters *u* intending:

- (1) to produce thereby an intention to do *X* in a certain addressee *A*;
- (2) that *A* recognize *S*'s intention (1);
- (3) that *A*'s intention be at least partly based on of her recognition of (1).

# Gricean Communication



## 1957 Expression Meaning:

“ $x$  means<sub>NN</sub> (timeless) that so-and-so”  
might as a first shot be equated with some  
statement or disjunction of statements  
about what “people” (vague) intend (with  
qualifications about “recognition”) to  
effect by  $x$

( $x$  is an arbitrary utterance-type)

# Why Gricean Intentionalism?

- **Method of Cases:** The analysis predicts our judgments about when people mean things by what they say (Grice 1957, 1969, etc.)
- **Context Sensitivity:** In many cases, the speaker's intentions seem like the best candidate for what fixes the contents of context-sensitive expressions.
- **Non-Conventional Communication:** We mean things in the absence of conventions, and intentions are the best candidate to do that work.
- **Meaning and agency:** Locates meaning within a broader account of what speakers are trying to do, which helps to explain their linguistic and cooperative choices.



# Some Influential Objections to Grice

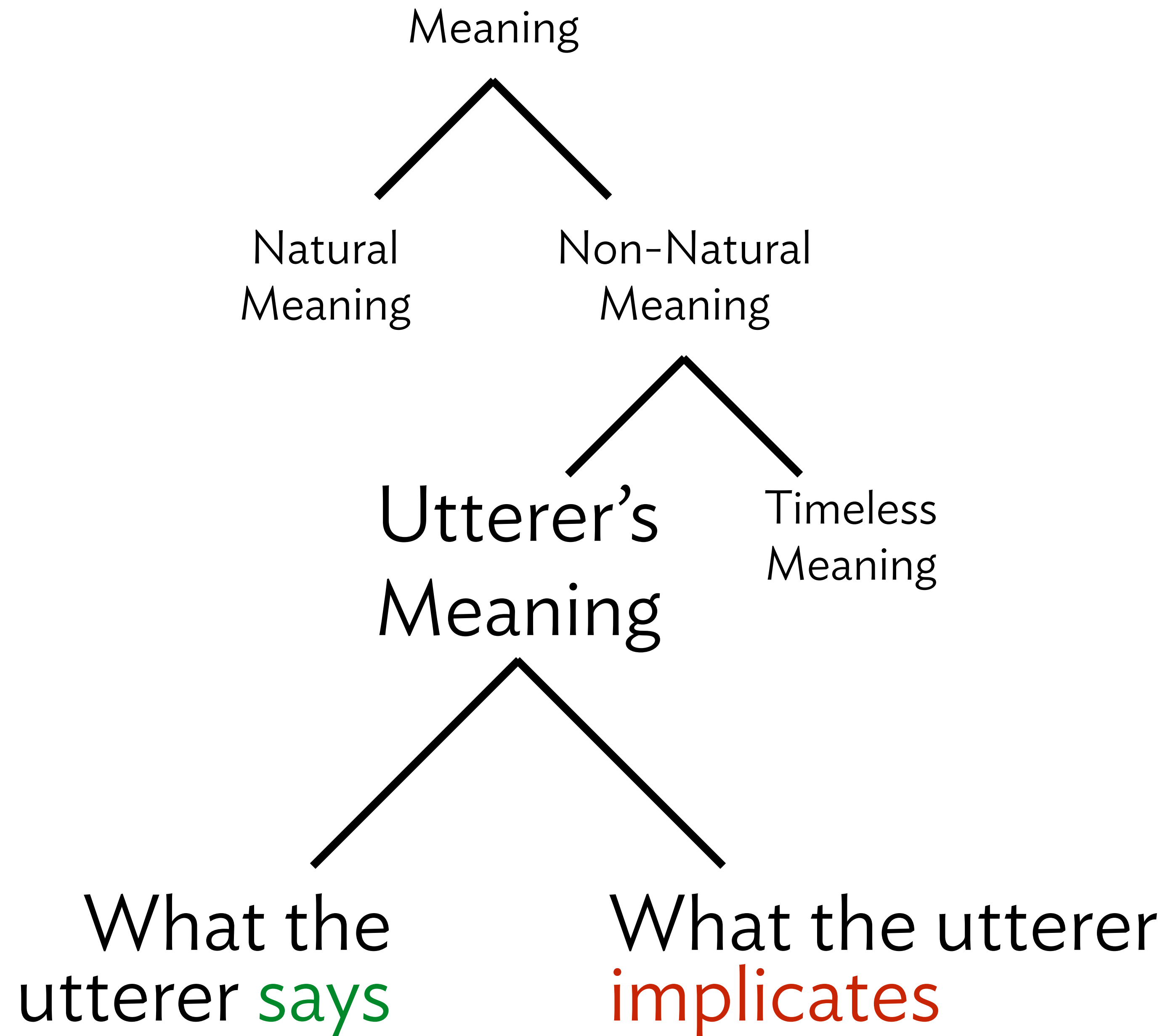
- **Puzzle Cases:** People have come up with all kinds of intuitive counterexamples to Grice's analyses (Neale 1992)
- **Convention:** Grice can't explain the ways in which conventions constrain what we mean. (Austin 1956; Searle 1969; Lepore & Stone 2014; Stojnic 2021)
- **Openness:** Many utterances are so ambiguous, underdetermined, or indirect that there is no specific content we could reasonably intend for our addressees to recognize us as intending (Schiffer 1993; Buchanan 2010; Lepore & Stone 2014)
- **Audienceless Utterances:** We sometimes seem to mean things without any audiences to direct our intentions to (Grice 1969; Chomsky 1975; Carruthers 1996; etc.)

# More Influential Objections to Grice

- **Overintellectualization:** Communicative intentions seem very complex and cognitively demanding. It's implausible that we have all of that going on in our heads every time we speak
- **Ontogeny:** Children communicate before they can pass a lot of mindreading tasks; it's implausible that they're doing it the Gricean way.
- **Phylogeny:** It's implausible that we had enough mindreading to do Gricean communication before we got language (Bar-On
- **Neurodiversity:** Some neuroatypical people can communicate and use language in spite of mindreading deficits



# INDIRECT SPEECH & COOPERATIVITY



# The Banker Case

Suppose that A and B are talking about a mutual friend, C, who is now working in a bank. A asks B how C is getting on in his job, and B replies, *Oh quite well, I think; he likes his colleagues, and he hasn't been to prison yet.*

## Grice's Banker Case

In uttering 'quite well...he hasn't been to prison yet', A :

...**said** that the banker is doing well and hasn't been to prison.

...and **conversationally implicated** that the banker is up to no good (or that his colleagues are out to get him, etc.).

## **The “Fine Friend” Case**

X, with whom A has been on close terms until now, has betrayed a secret of A's to a business rival. A and his audience both know this. A says X is a fine friend.

## Grice's Fine Friend Case

In uttering 'X is a fine friend', A :

...**made as if to say** that X is a fine friend.

...and **conversationally implicated** that X is not a good friend.

$S$  said  $p$

VS.

$S$  made as if to say  $p$

entails that  $S$  meant  $p$



## **Question**

How does a hearer correctly interpret a conversational implicature, given that it goes beyond what can be semantically decoded from their utterance?



## **Grice's Answer:**

We infer that they meant something beyond what they said (or made as if to say) by assuming that they were being cooperative, and inferring what they must have meant in order to count as cooperative.

## **Cooperative Principle:**

"Make your contribution such as it is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged."

## **Maxim of Quantity:**

1. Make your contribution as informative as is required for the current purposes of the exchange.
2. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

## **Maxim of Quality:** Try to make your contribution one that is true

3. Do not say what you believe to be false.
4. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

## **Maxim of Relation:**

1. Be relevant.

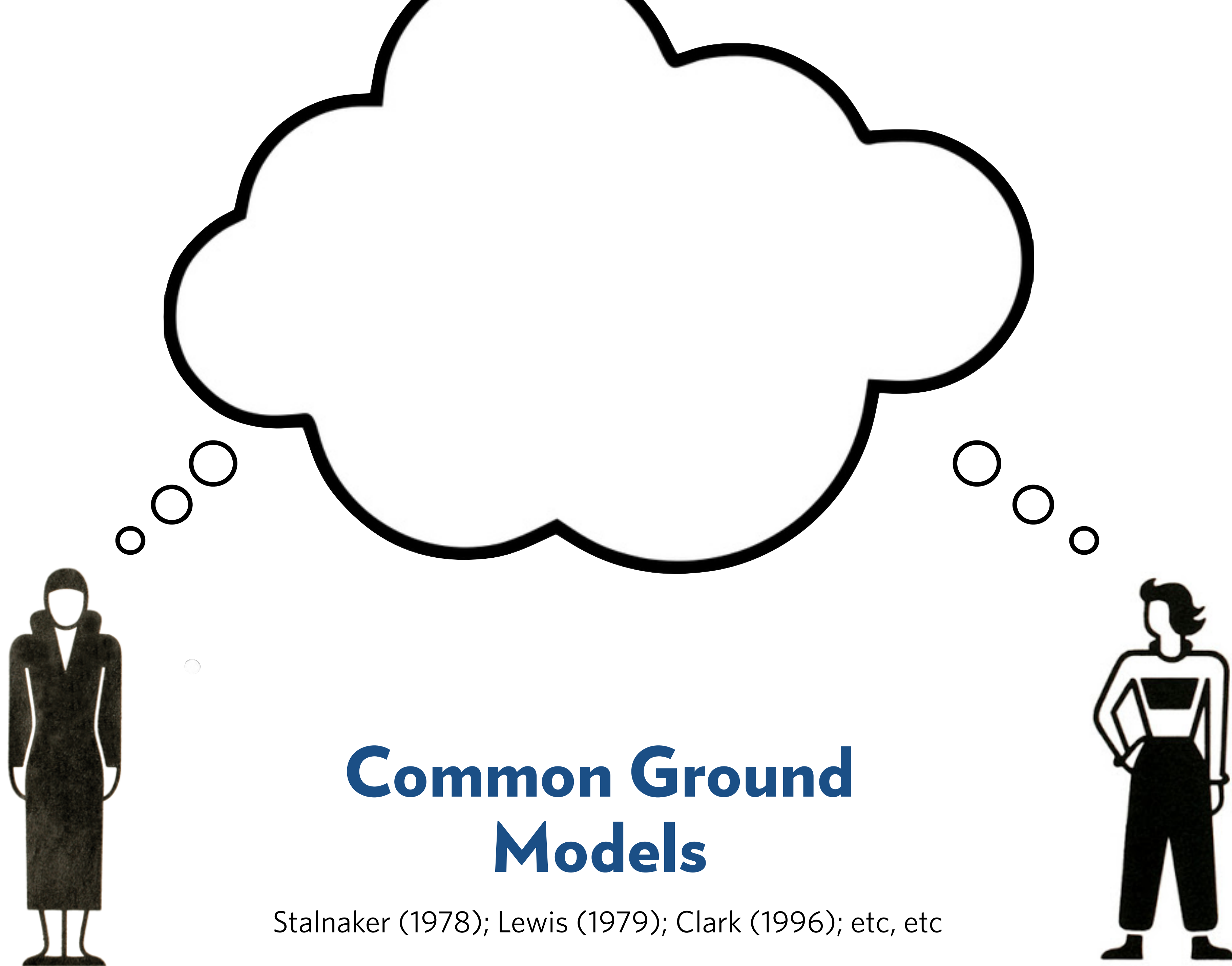
## **Maxim of Manner:** Be perspicuous

1. Avoid obscurity of expression.
2. Avoid ambiguity.
3. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).
4. Be orderly.

# Some Influential Objections

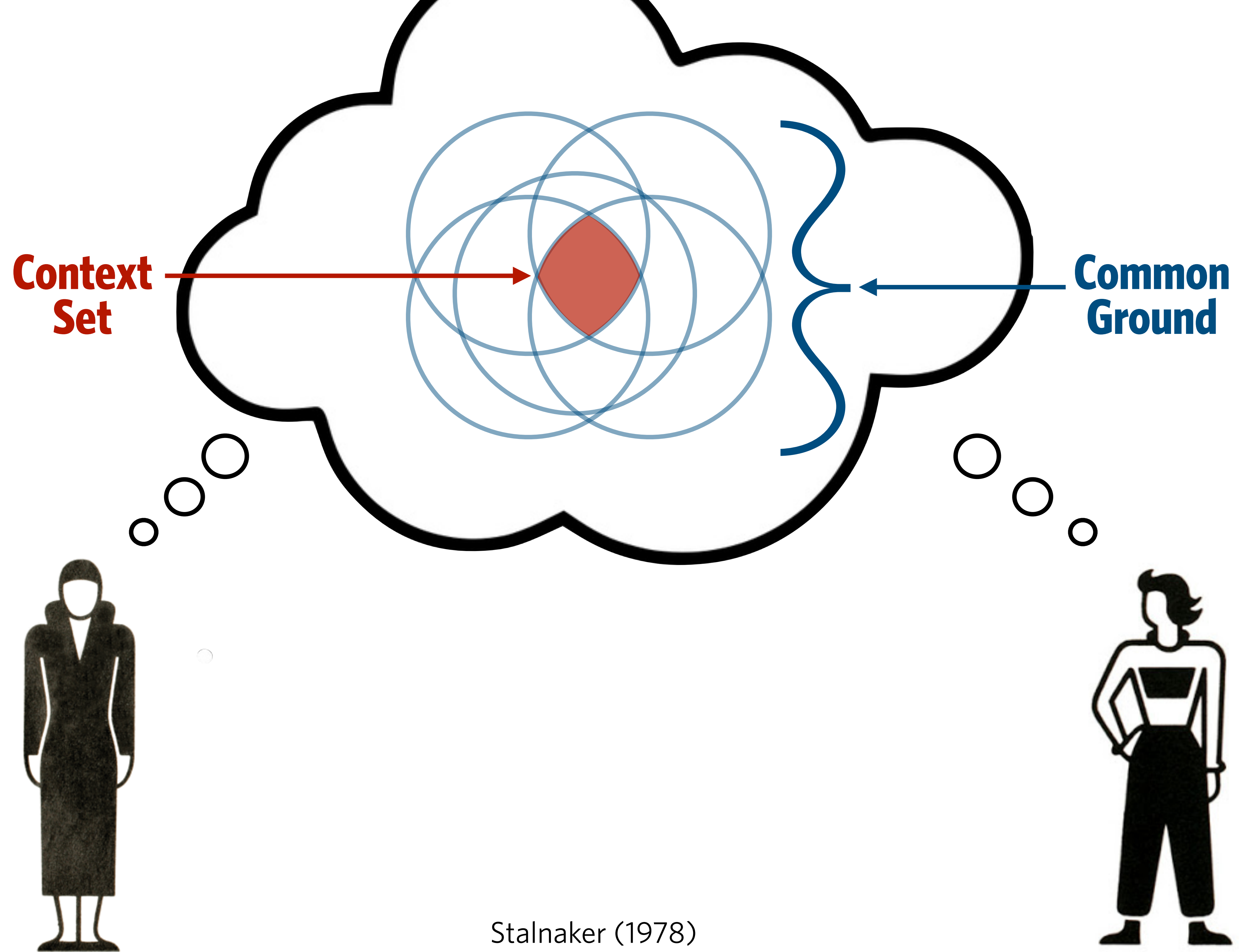
- **It's a sloppy theory:** The theory can't actually make predictions; there's too much hand waving at key moments in the implicature derivations (lots of people, friend and foe)
- **Openness Again:** There's almost never enough evidence for a specific implicature as opposed to others (Lepore & Stone 2014)
- **Neo-Gricean Proposals:** We can do better than Grice's maxims (Horn, Levinson, Roberts, etc.)
- **Grammaticality:** Some of what Grice called implicature seems to arise in much more grammatical ways than Grice thinks (e.g. Chierchia 2002)
- **Non-cooperativity:** We sometimes implicate things in adversarial contexts (e.g. Asher & Lascarides 2013)

# COMMON GROUND



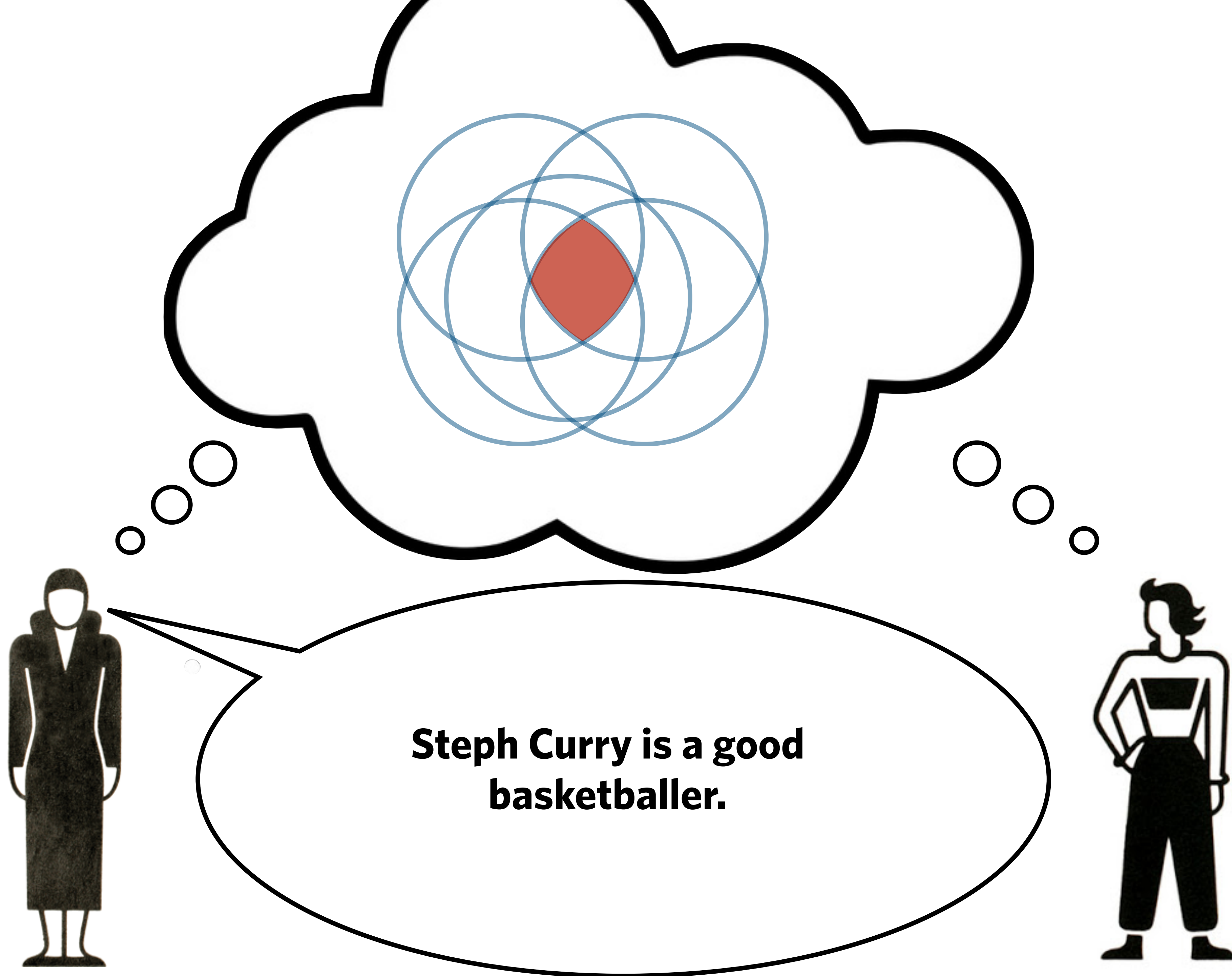
# Common Ground Models

Stalnaker (1978); Lewis (1979); Clark (1996); etc, etc

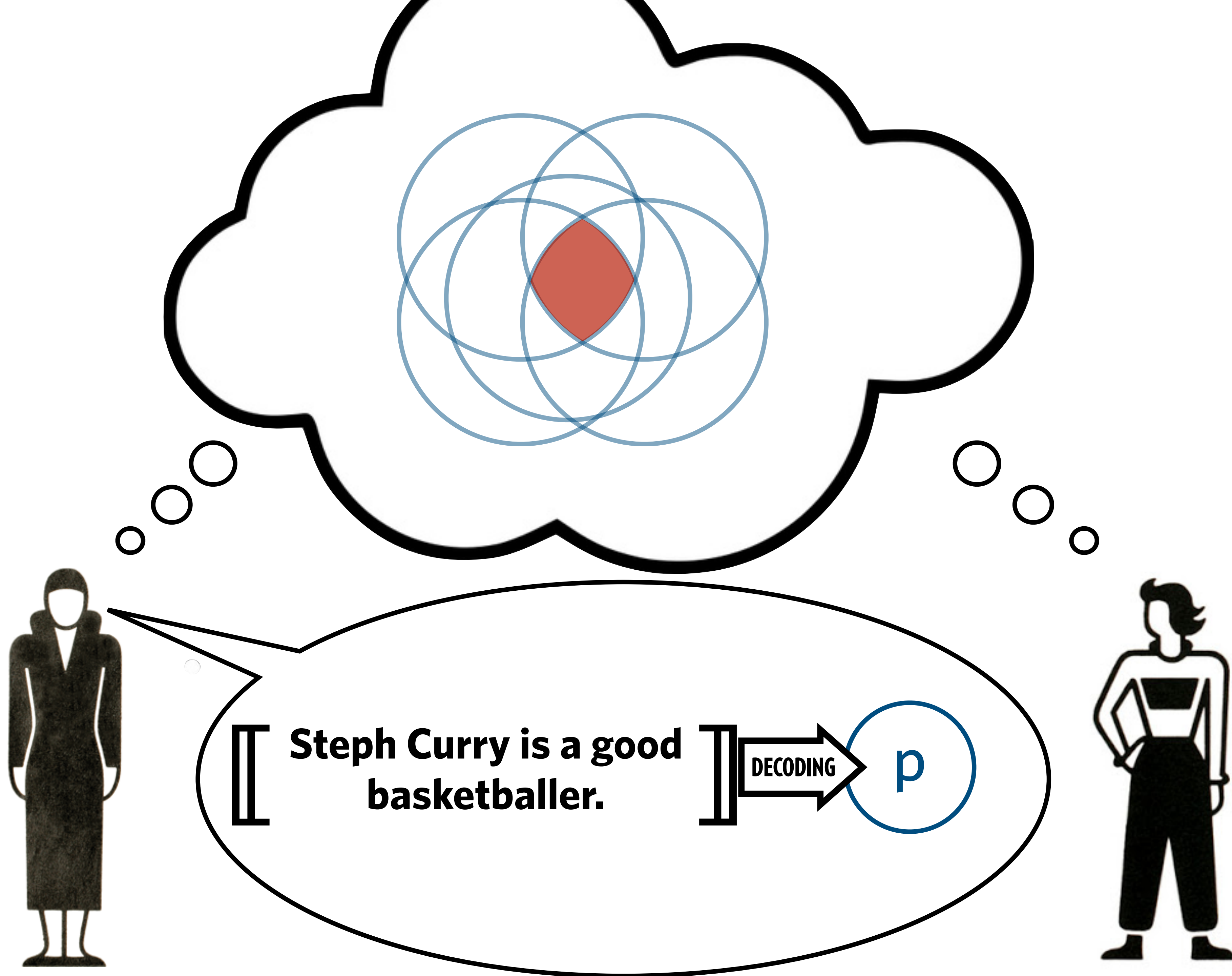


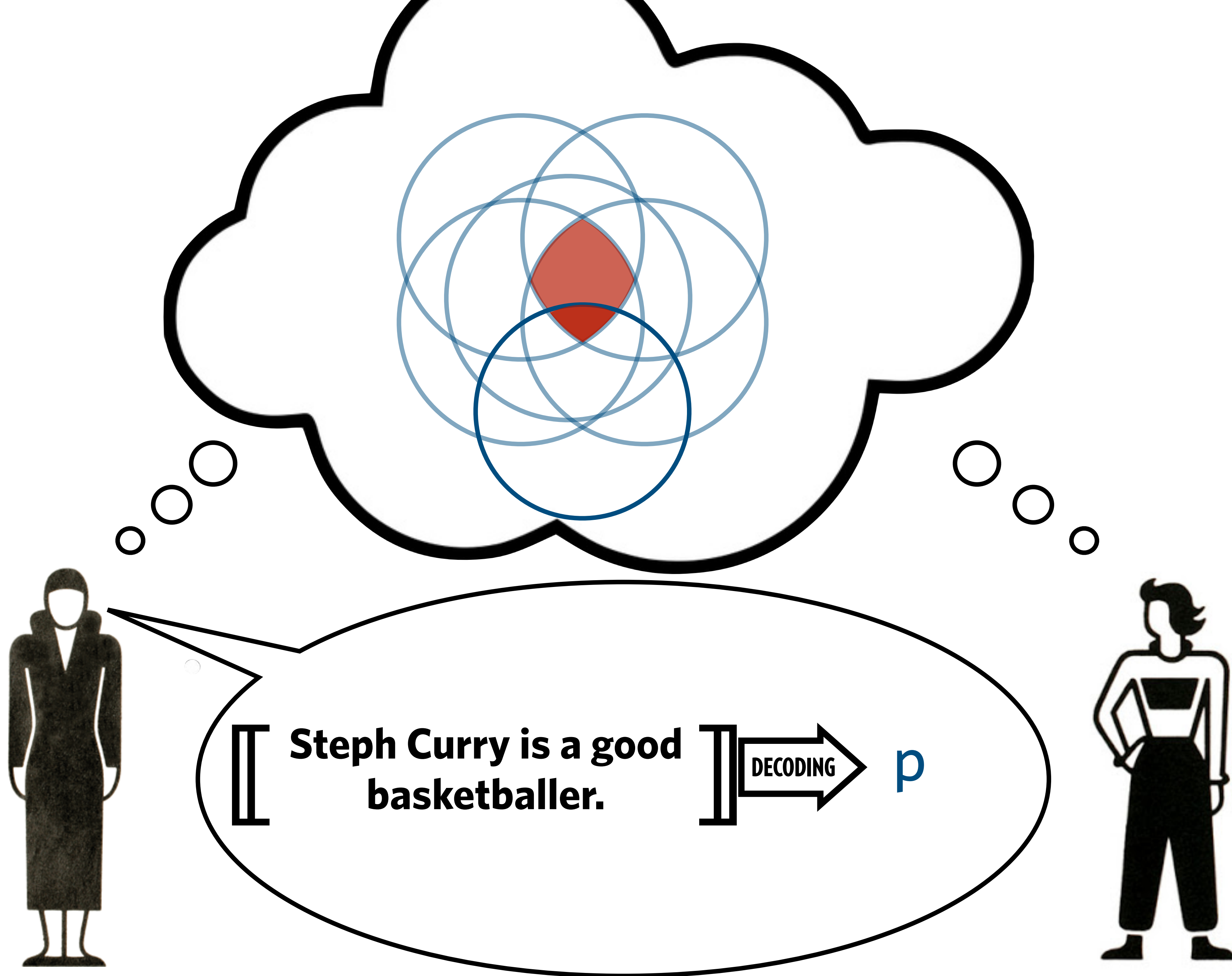
Stalnaker (1978)

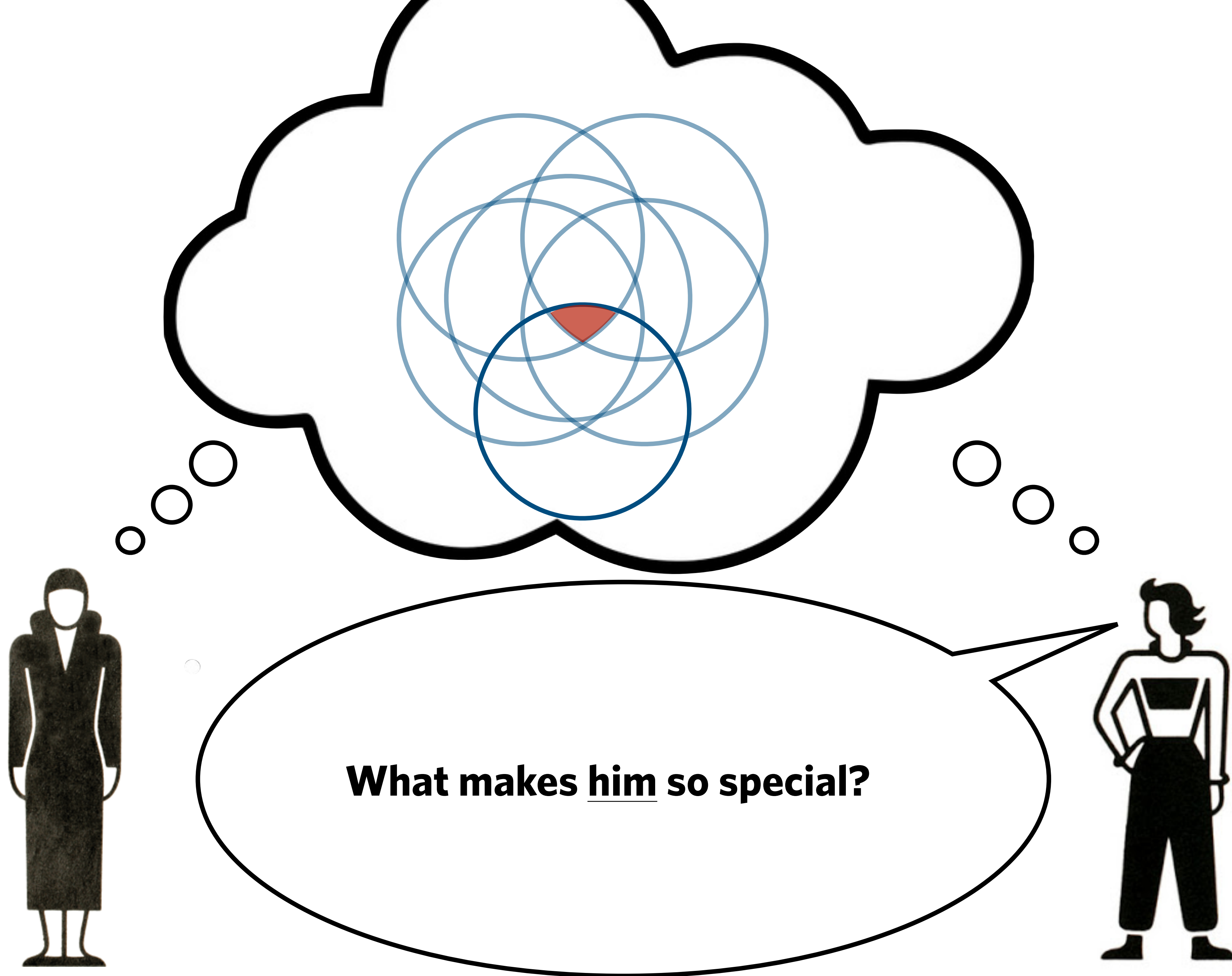






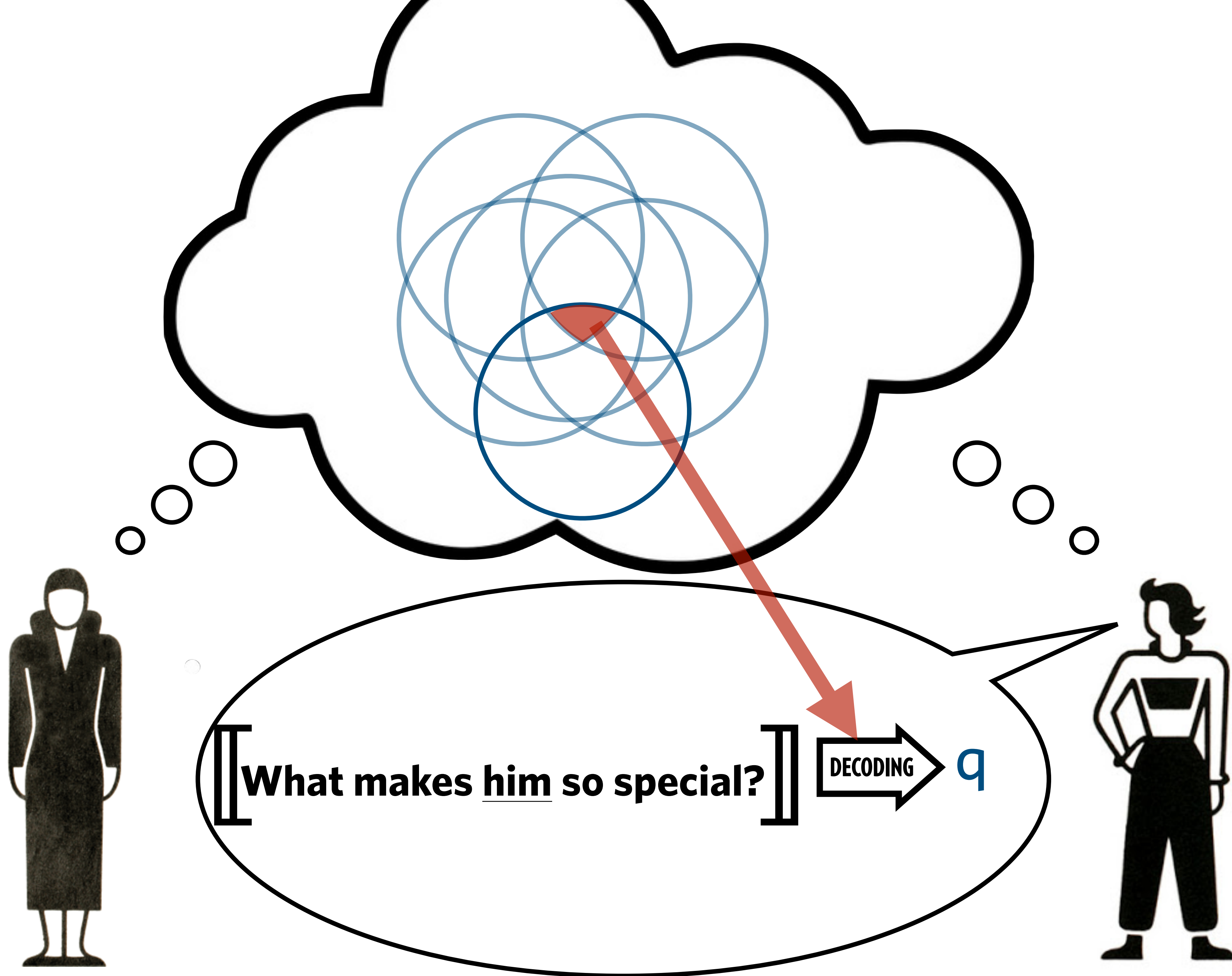






**What makes him so special?**





It's the night of game 7 of the NBA Championship. Sam and Ethan haven't been watching. Then:



**PHONES:** They separately look at their phones. Coincidentally, each has been sent the same image of Steph Curry celebrating victory.



**TV:** Ethan turns on the TV and, together, they see an image of Steph Curry Celebrating victory.



# Assertion

A central purpose of asserting a proposition is to add it to the common ground, and so it's infelicitous if the proposition is already common ground.



I have just seen a photo of Steph Curry holding a trophy.



I have just seen a photo of Steph Curry holding a trophy.

???



# Presupposition

If a speaker presupposes something that isn't common ground, this will confuse the addressee unless/until they can accommodate the presupposition.



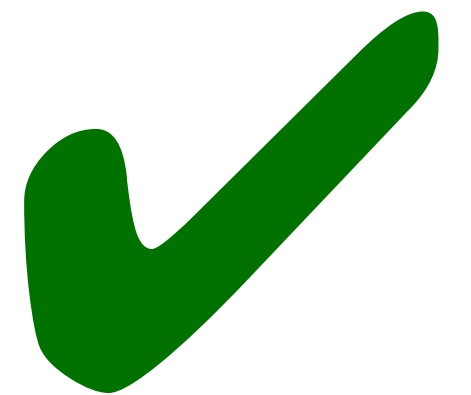
I didn't know that the Warriors had won another championship.

???

I guess she just saw too?



I didn't know that the Warriors had won another championship.





# Definite Noun Phrases

A speaker should use a definite noun phrase to refer only if it is common ground that the referent satisfies the noun phrase's presuppositions.

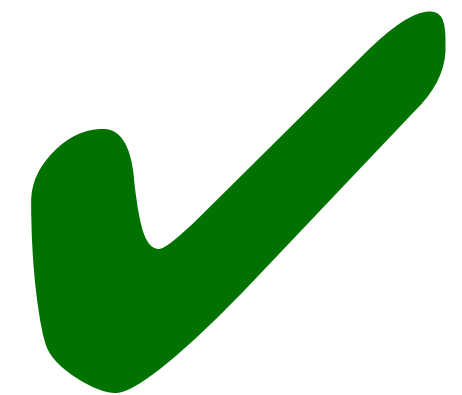


He looks pumped.

???



He looks pumped.



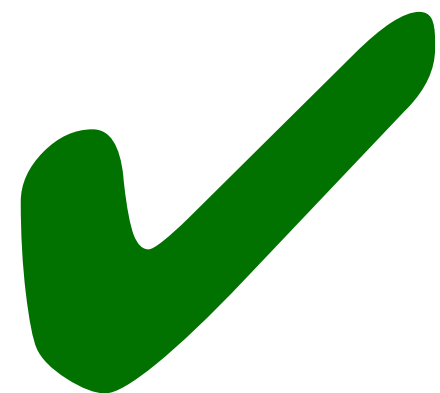


# Indicative Conditionals

An utterance of an indicative conditional presupposes that its antecedent is compatible with, but not entailed by, the common ground.



If the Warriors win again, Steph is the GOAT.



If the Warriors win again, Steph is the GOAT.

???



# Counterfactual Conditionals

An utterance of an counterfactual conditional presupposes that its antecedent is false in the common ground.

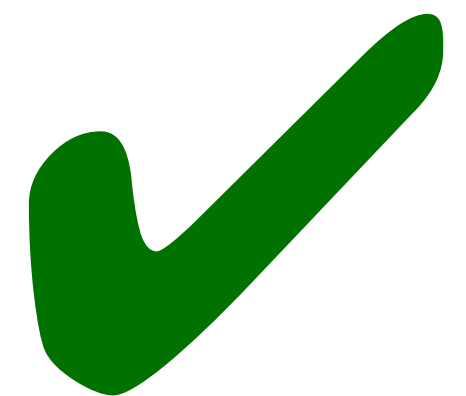


If the Celtics had won, the people in Boston would have been so happy.

???



If the Celtics had won, the people in Boston would have been so happy.





# Context Sensitive Expressions

You should use a context-sensitive expression to communicate something specific only if the common ground entails a way of resolving it.

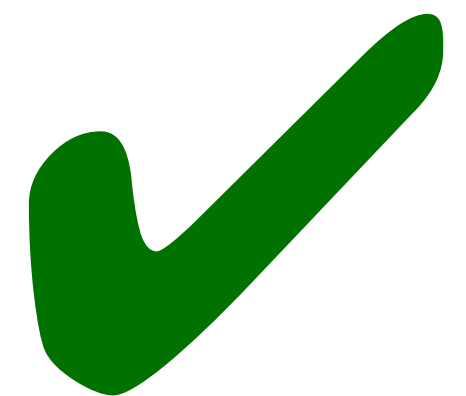


Everyone is going to be excited.

???



Everyone is going to be excited.





# Anaphoric Links

Use an anaphoric expression only if its antecedent has modified the common ground in the appropriate way.

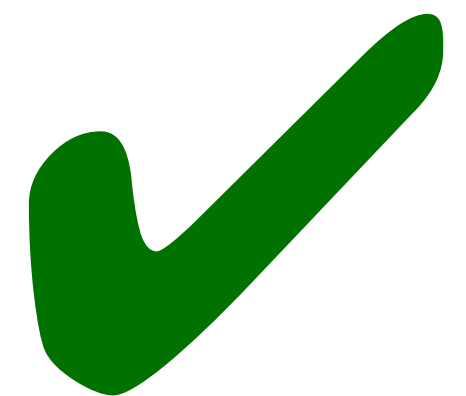


She must be proud.

???



She must be proud.



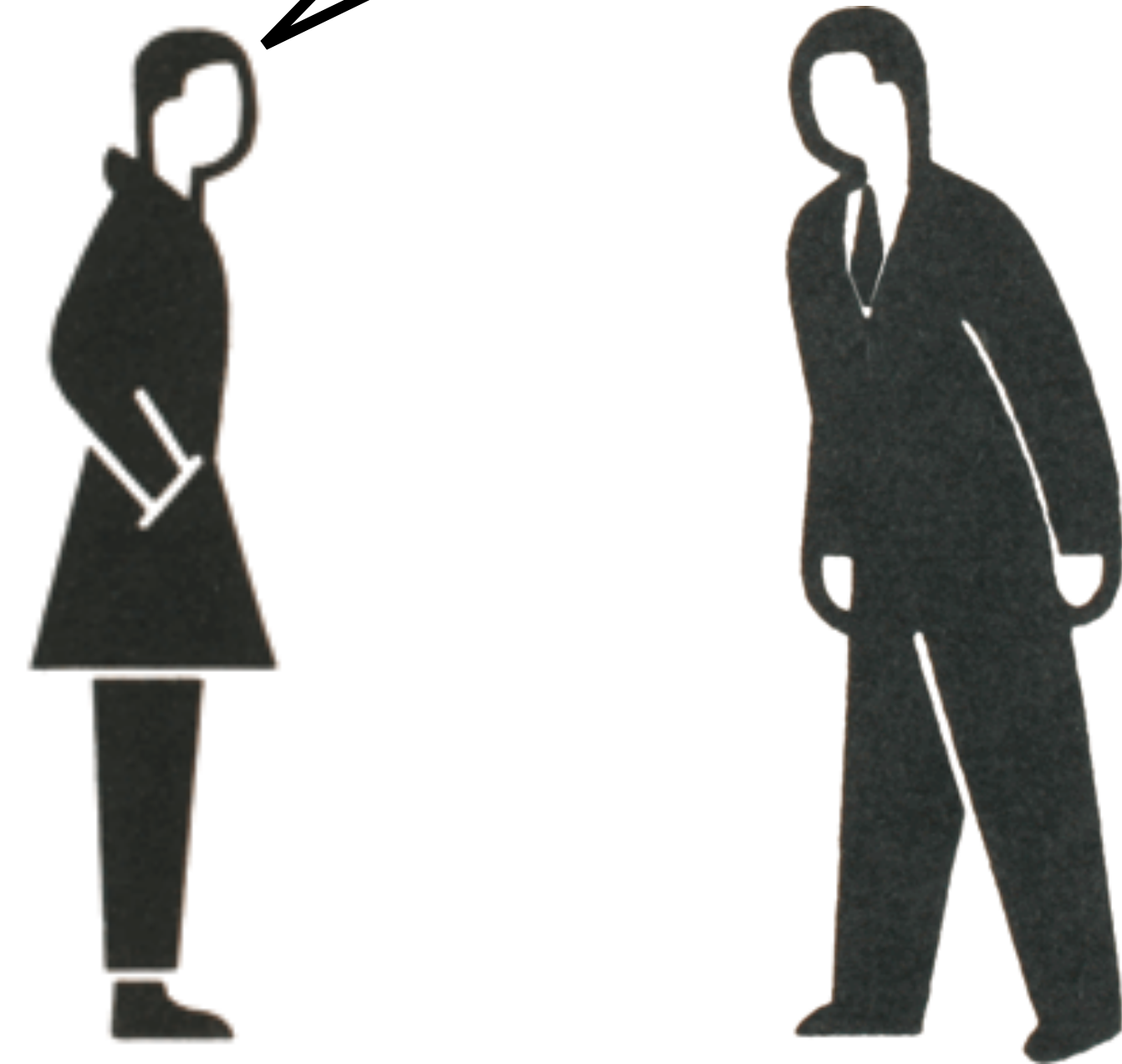
**WHY COMMON GROUND?**

# WHY COMMON GROUND?

He is going to be at Thanksgiving again.



My wife has this one uncle.  
He's fine, but every time we see him he goes on and on about his stock market portfolio, and about politics, in the most annoying way.....





...the account of context we need for our background story must distinguish a body of information that is *available*, or presumed to be available, as a resource for communication. The development of this point is part of what led to [the theory of] context as a body of available information: the common ground. ...

—Stalnaker, *Context*, pp.24–25

# WHY COMMON GROUND?

## **As a Guarantor Against Miscommunication**

(cf. Lewis 1969; Schiffer 1972; Stalnaker 1978; Clark & Marshall 1981)

- If the speaker and addressee rely on different background information, then they will be more likely to miscommunicate.
  - For example, they might interpret context-sensitive expressions in different ways.
- Relying on shared information (i.e., common ground) is the best way to avoid this.



...when a listener tries to understand what a speaker means, the process he goes through can limit memory access to information that is common ground between the speaker and his addressees. ... and its performance will be optimal if it limits its access to that common ground. Whether its design is actually optimal in this respect is a question that can only be answered empirically

—Herbert H. Clark and Thomas B. Carlson, *Context for Comprehension* (1981)

# WHY COMMON GROUND?

## As a Cost-Saving Device

(Clark 1996; etc.)

- Designing and interpreting communicative acts has to be fast.
- It is slow and costly to consult all of one's beliefs every time.
- By relying on common ground, we narrow the search space and make pragmatic reasoning more efficient.

**WHAT DOES THE  
MODEL MODEL?**

# Common Knowledge (Iterated)

A and B commonly know that  $p$  if and only if:

1a. A knows that  $p$ ;

1b. B knows that  $p$ ;

2a. A knows that B knows that  $p$ ;

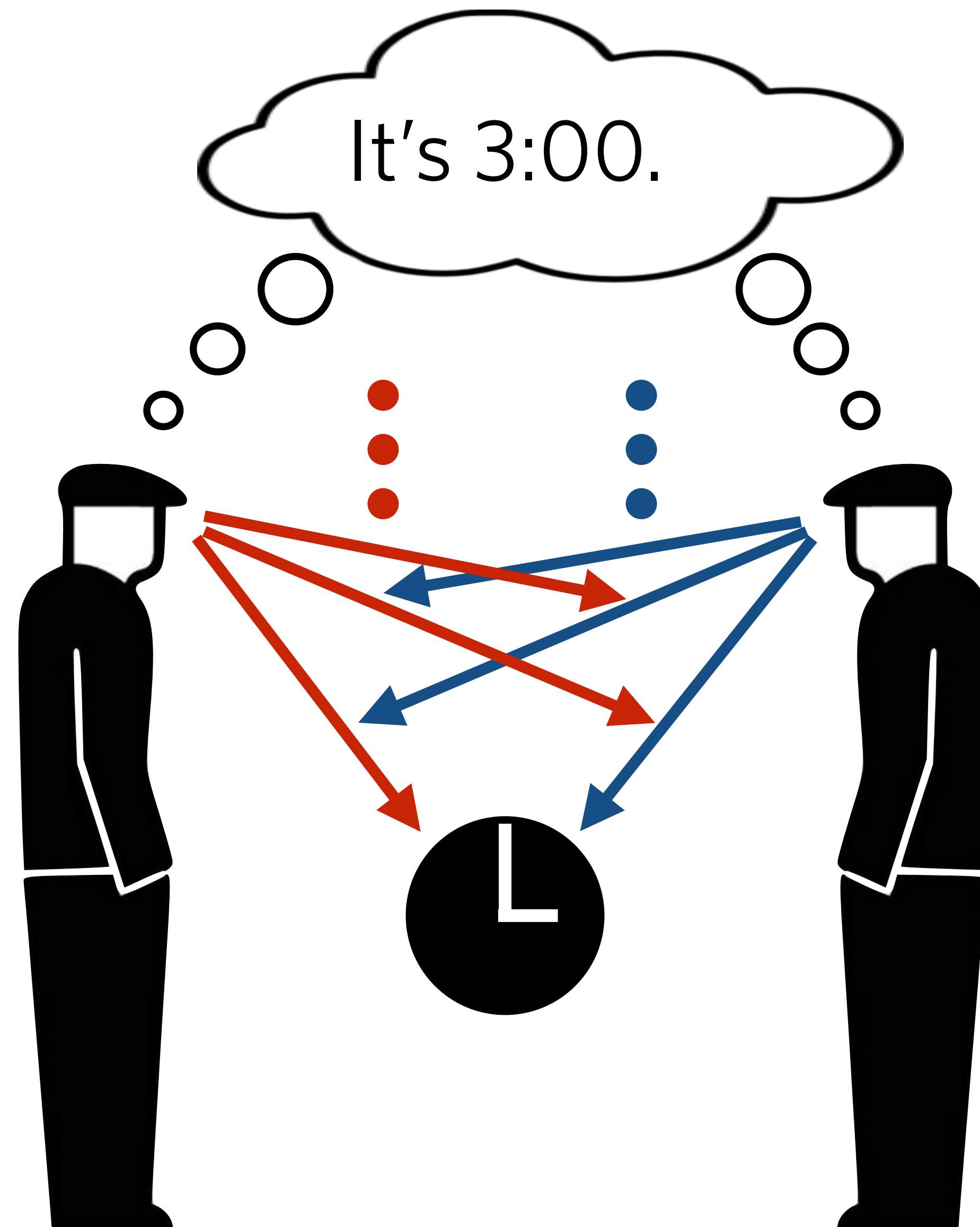
2b. B knows that A knows that  $p$ ;

3a. A knows that B knows that A knows that  $p$ ;

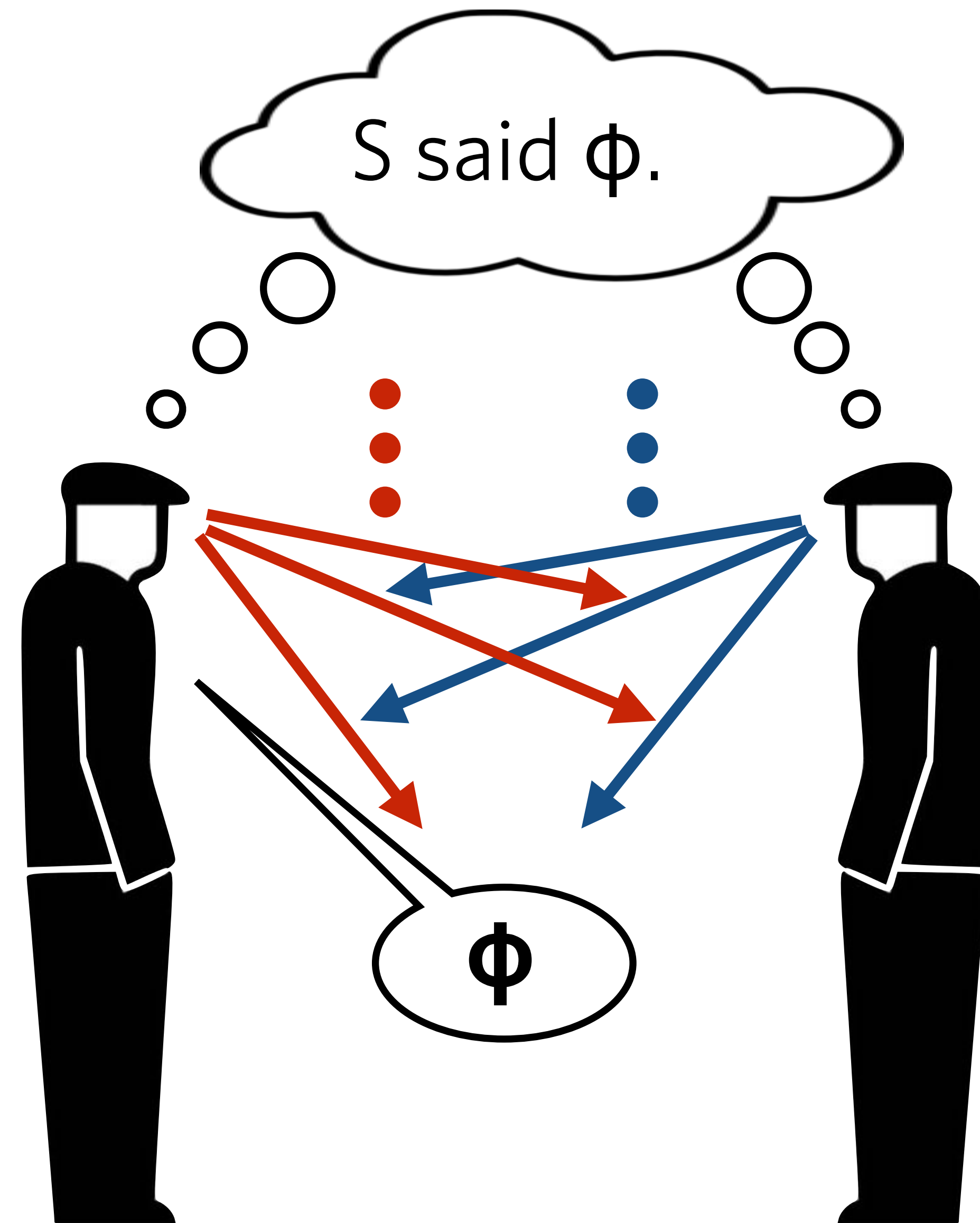
3b. B knows that A knows that B knows that  $p$ ;

⋮

# HOW COULD WE GET COMMON KNOWLEDGE?



# HOW COULD WE GET COMMON KNOWLEDGE?



## **Shared Belief<sub>3</sub>** (Bach & Harnish 1978)

p is common ground for A and B if and only if:

1a. A believes that p;

1b. B believes that p;

2a. A believes that B believes that p;

2b. B believes that A believes that p;

3a. A believes that B believes that A believes that p;

3b. B believes that A believes that B believes that p;

(and that's all!)

## **CG as Commonly Believed Joint Acceptance** (Stalnaker 2002)

A proposition is CG for A and B (relative to some conversational purpose) iff:

1a. A accepts that p (for the purpose of the conversation);

1b. B accepts that p (for the purpose of the conversation);

2a. A believes (1a–b);

2b. B believes (1a–b);

3a. A believes that B believes (1a–b);

3b. B accepts that A believes (1a–b);

⋮



# Stalnaker on Acceptance

Acceptance, as I shall use this term, is a broader concept than belief; it is a generic propositional attitude concept with such notions as presupposing, presuming, postulating, positing, assuming and supposing as well as believing falling under it.

[...]

To accept a proposition is to treat it as a true proposition in one way or another—to ignore, for the moment at least, the possibility that it is false. One may do this for different reasons, more or less tentatively, more or less self-consciously, with more or less justification, and with more or less feeling of commitment.

—Stalnaker, *Inquiry*, p.79

## **CG as Common Acceptance** (Stalnaker 2014)

A proposition is CG for A and B (relative to some conversational purpose G) iff:

1a. A accepts<sub>G</sub> that p;

1b. B accepts<sub>G</sub> that p ;

2a. A accepts<sub>G</sub> that B accepts<sub>G</sub> that p;

2b. B accepts<sub>G</sub> that A accepts<sub>G</sub> that p;

3a. A accepts<sub>G</sub> that B accepts<sub>G</sub> that A accepts<sub>G</sub> that p;

3b. B accepts<sub>G</sub> that A accepts<sub>G</sub> that B accepts<sub>G</sub> that p;

⋮



# WHY ACCEPTANCE AND NOT BELIEF/KNOWLEDGE?



Things are going to be great now that Incitatus is running the Department of Transportation.

Great point Uncle Steve.



I heard you had some trouble. ... Stupid, people behaving like that with guns. The important thing is you're all right.





An attitude is the *conversational tone* of a group of interlocutors just in case it is common knowledge in the group that everyone is to strike this attitude towards the propositions which are common ground.

—Seth Yalcin, “Epistemic Modals” (2008)

# **PROBLEMS WITH ITERATED ATTITUDES**

# THE COGNITIVE-RESOURCES OBJECTION

Clark & Marshall (1981)

- (1) Each of our propositional attitudes requires some finite amount of cognitive resources (e.g. *time, storage space*) to enter into and maintain.
- (2) We don't have infinite cognitive resources.
- (3) We can't have infinite propositional attitudes.

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- (2) We don't have infinite cognitive resources.
- (3) We can't have infinite propositional attitudes.

**Response** (e.g., Greco 2023)  
Deny (1).



# HOW TO THINK ABOUT ITERATED ATTITUDES

- (1) It's a model that idealizes away from all of the cognitive work that goes into inferring and coordinating with others' states of mind.
- (2) Take it literally but pair it with a dispositionalist/interpretationist theory of propositional attitudes.  
(This is a very MIT move.)







# THE COGNITIVE-RESOURCES OBJECTION

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- (3) We can't have infinite propositional attitudes.

**Response** (e.g., Bach and Harnish 1978)

We only ever form a finite number of iterated attitudes (say, 3-4), but that's enough.



# THE OBJECTION FROM ITERATION-AVERSE SITUATIONS

Harris (2020); Simons (Forthcoming)

- (1) *Iteration-Averse Situations* are situations in which, if we try to communicate, we won't come to accept that we've been understood.
- (2) We regularly communicate in situations of this kind, and we can then successfully presuppose things we've communicated, use anaphora, and do the other things that CG is supposed to do for us.
- (3) Therefore, whatever plays the CG role needn't involve *any* iterated acceptance states.

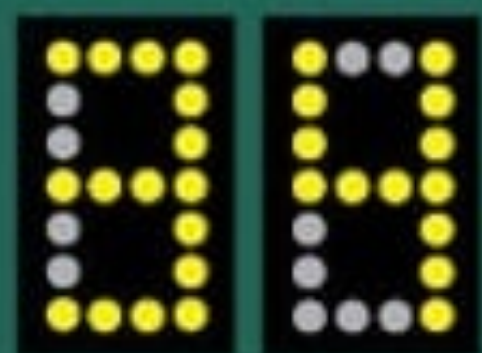
# DISCOURSE CONTEXT



# FENWAY PARK

P		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	R	H	E
48	NY	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	4	12	1
30	BOSTON	0	2	0	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	6	8	0

AT BAT — BALL — STRIKE — OUT — (H)



— (E)





## **Components of Conversational Score Proposed by Lewis:**

1. A body of presupposed information
2. A “permissibility sphere”
3. A salience rankings of the people and things we might talk about
4. A point of reference from the perspective of which things can be “coming” or “going.”
5. One or more “standards of precision” for interpreting vague expressions.
6. A body of relevant possibilities relative to which modals like “can,” “must,” and “knows” are interpreted.
7. A representation of whatever shared plan we are constructing.

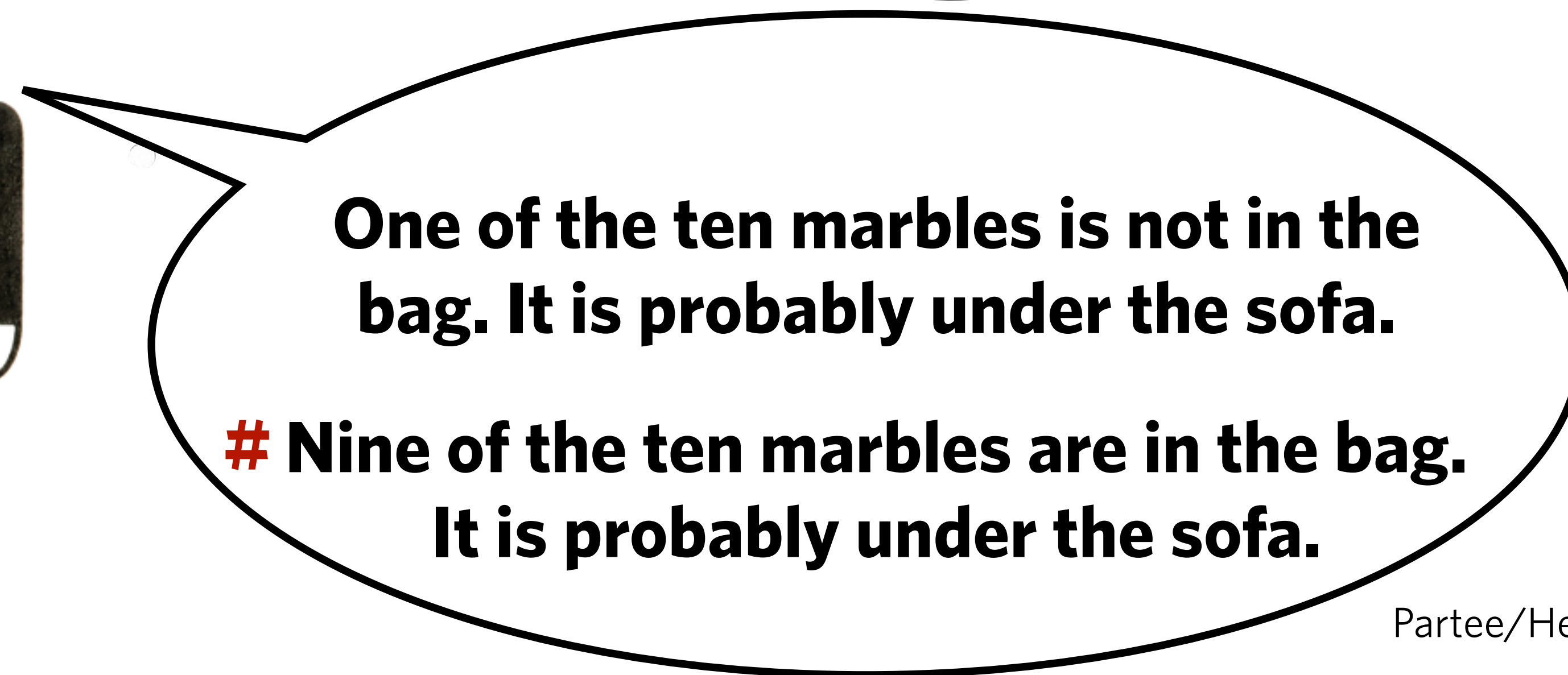
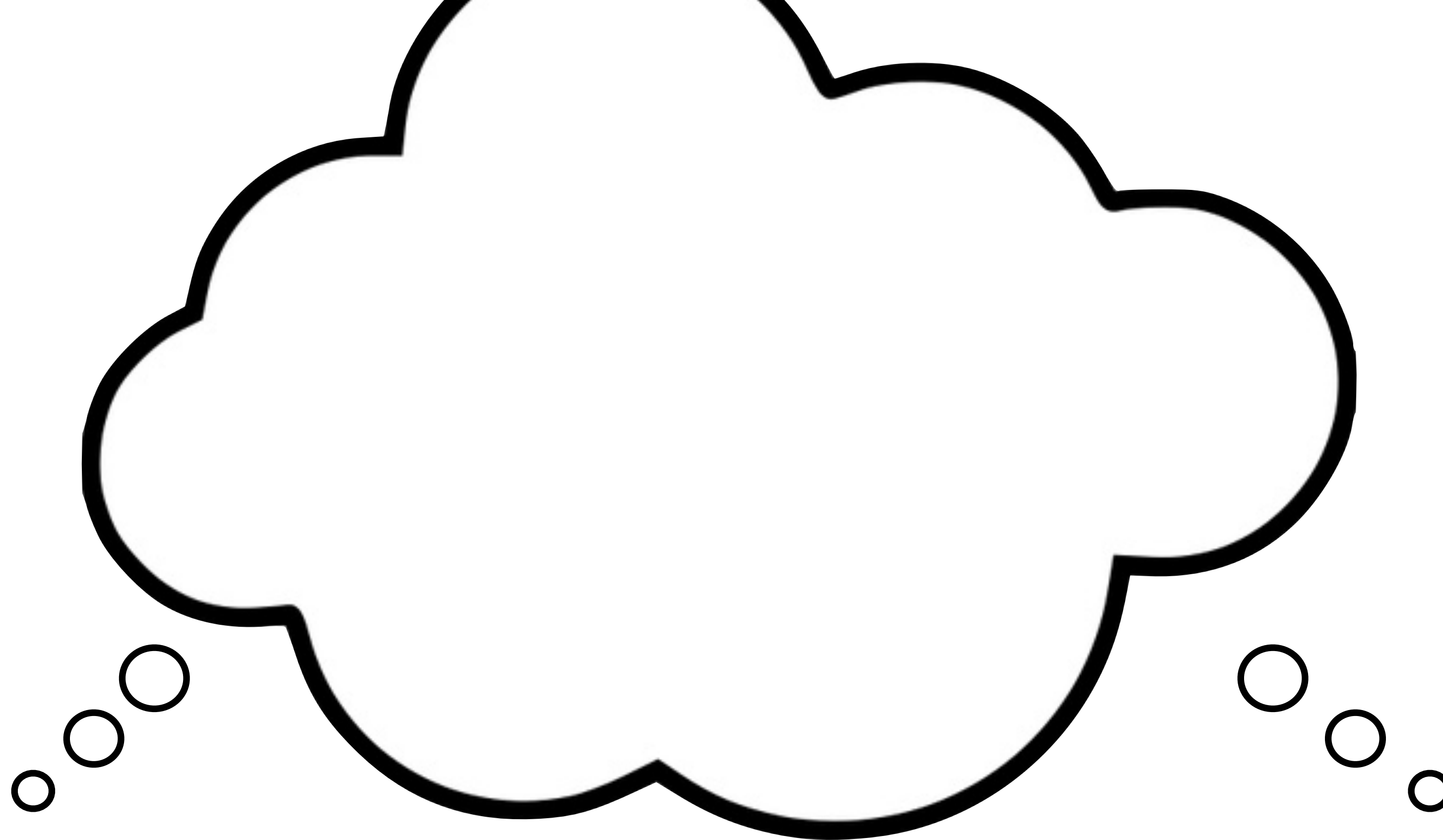
# **PHILOSOPHICAL QUESTIONS:**

- What is the metaphysics of conversational score?
- Can we somehow build it out of interlocutors' mental states
- If so, which ones?
- If not, what's the deal?

## Components of Conversational Score Proposed by Lewis:

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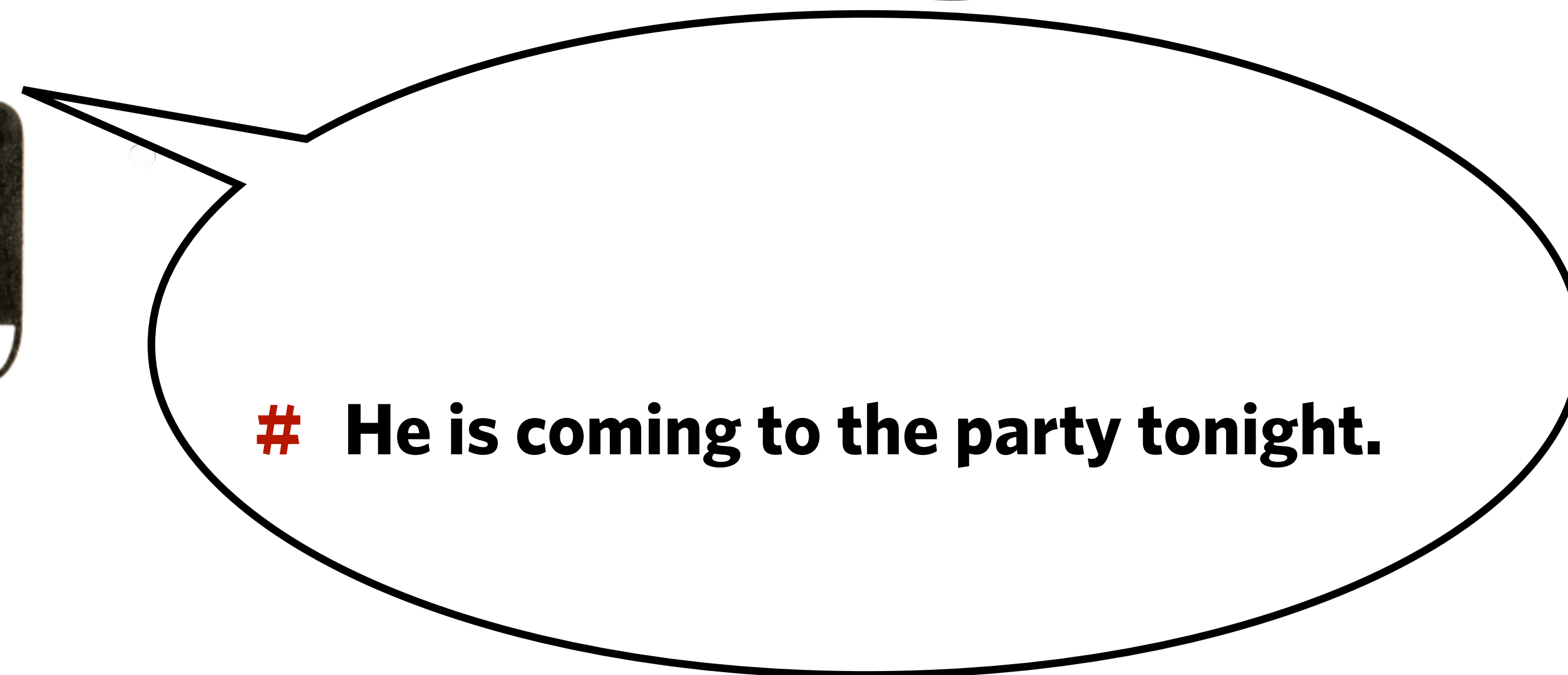
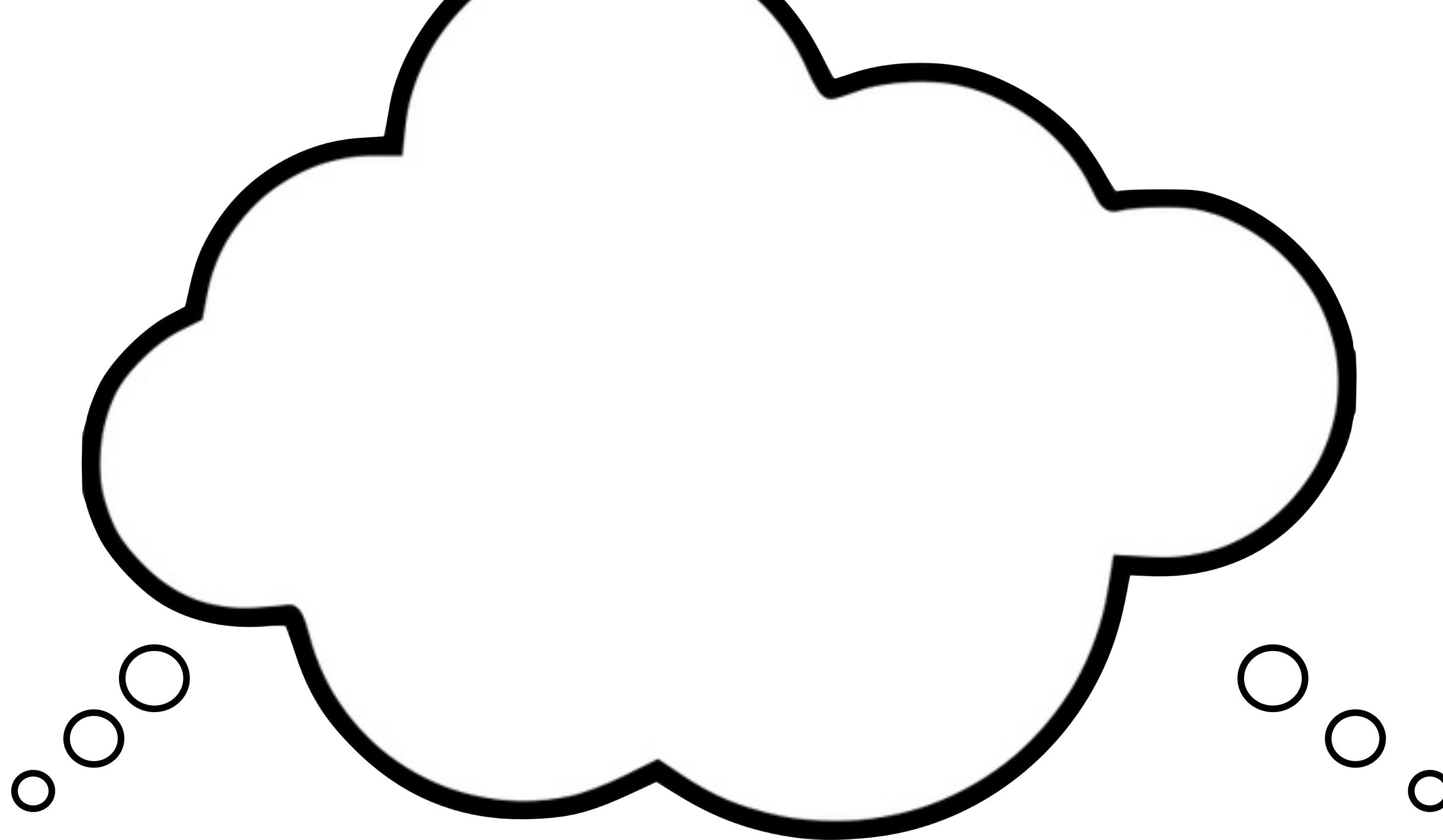




**One of the ten marbles is not in the bag. It is probably under the sofa.**

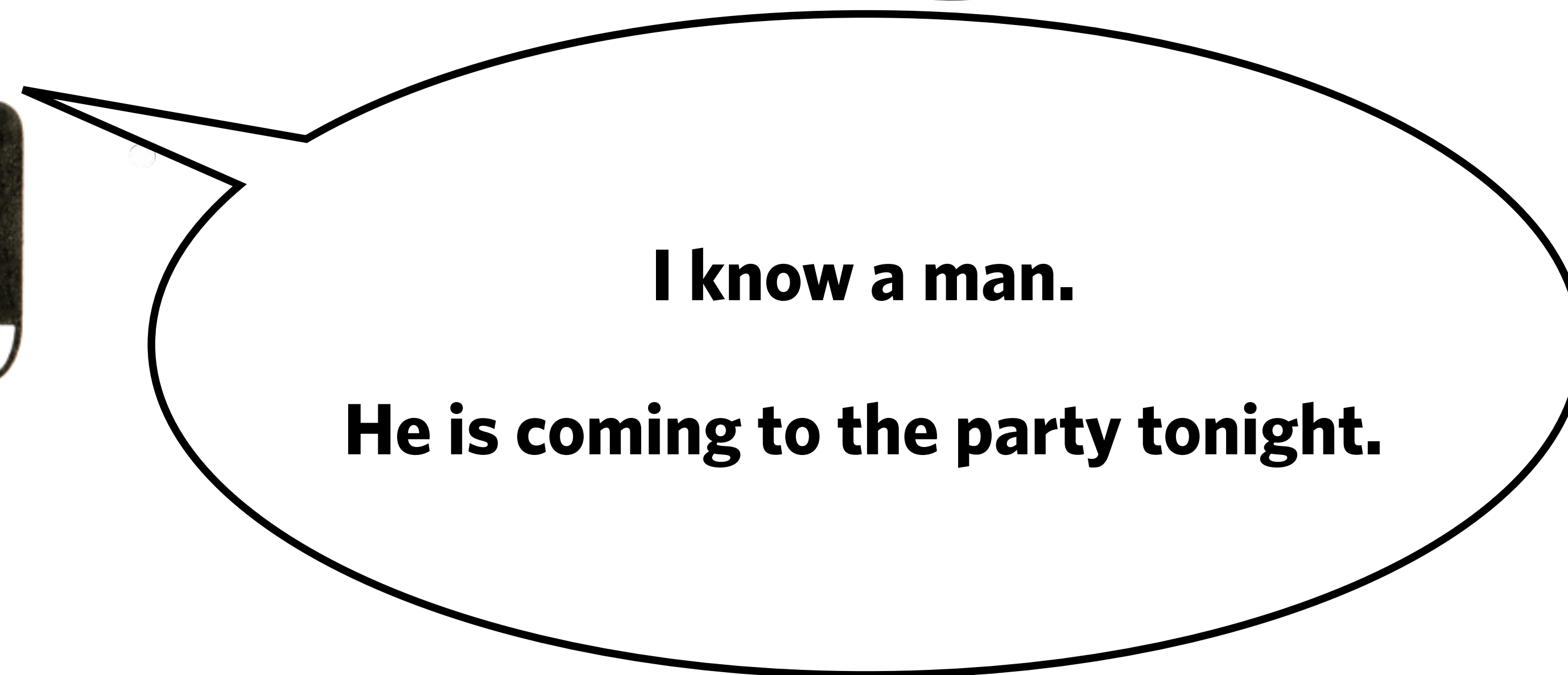
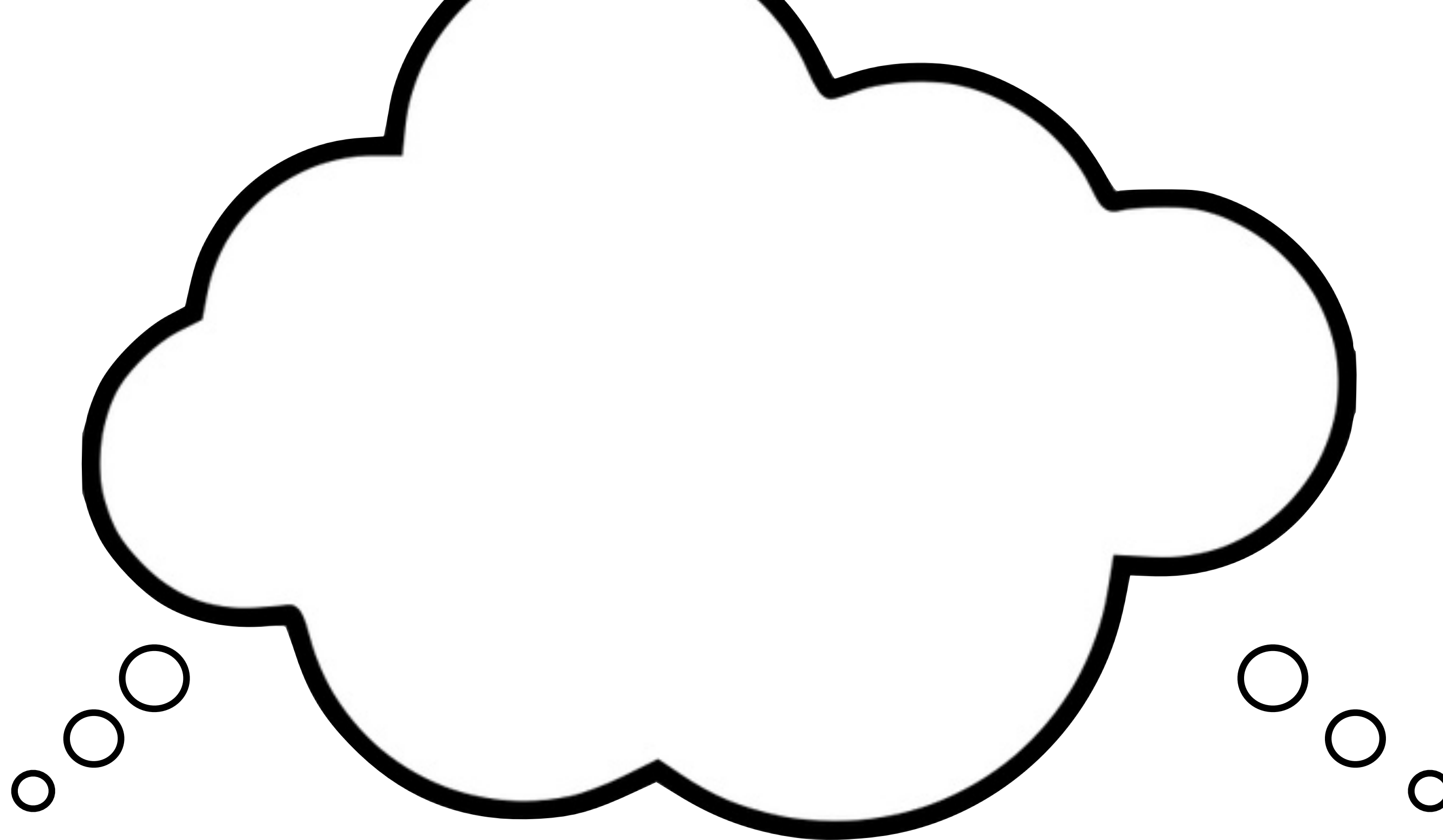
**# Nine of the ten marbles are in the bag. It is probably under the sofa.**





**# He is coming to the party tonight.**





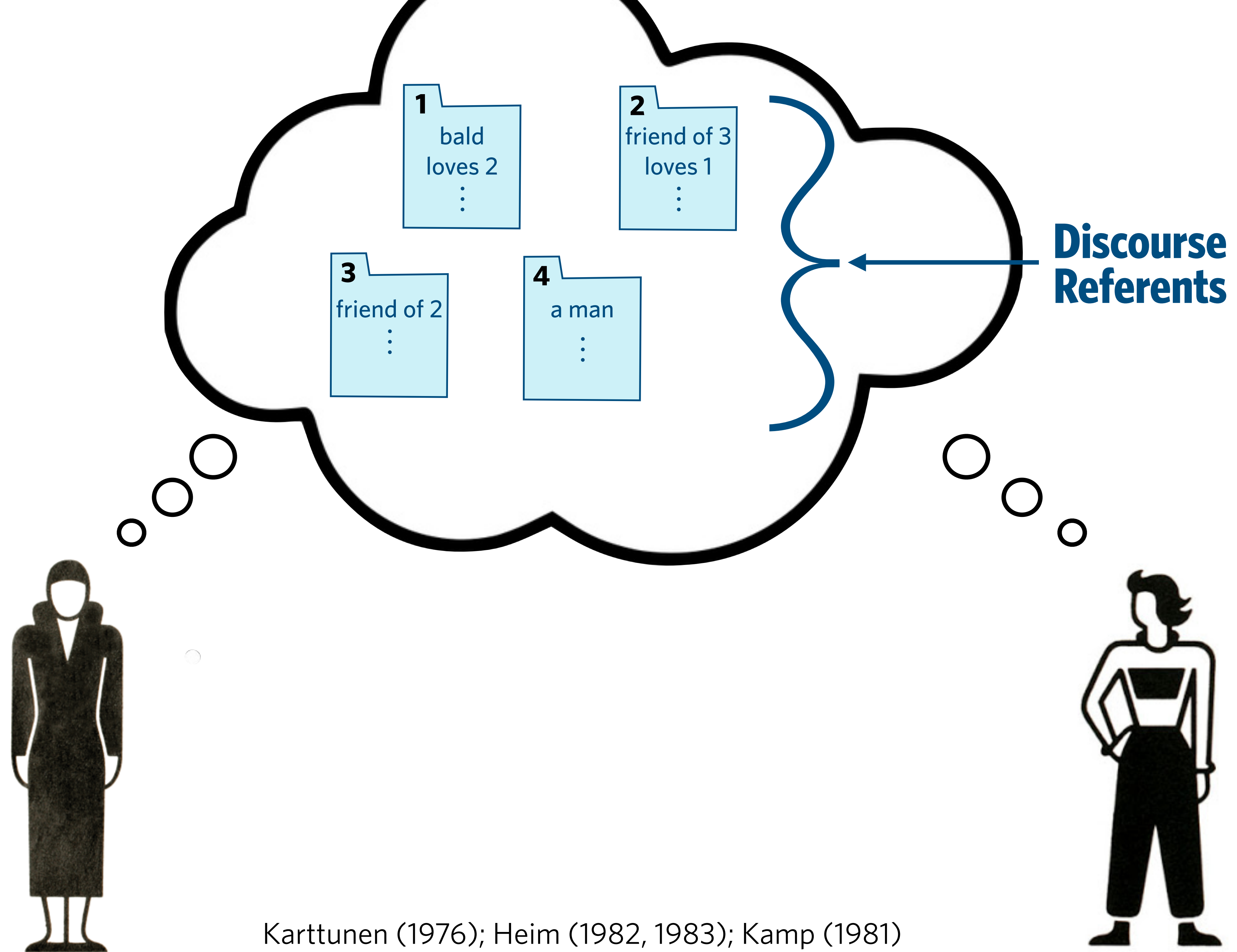
**I know a man.**  
**He is coming to the party tonight.**



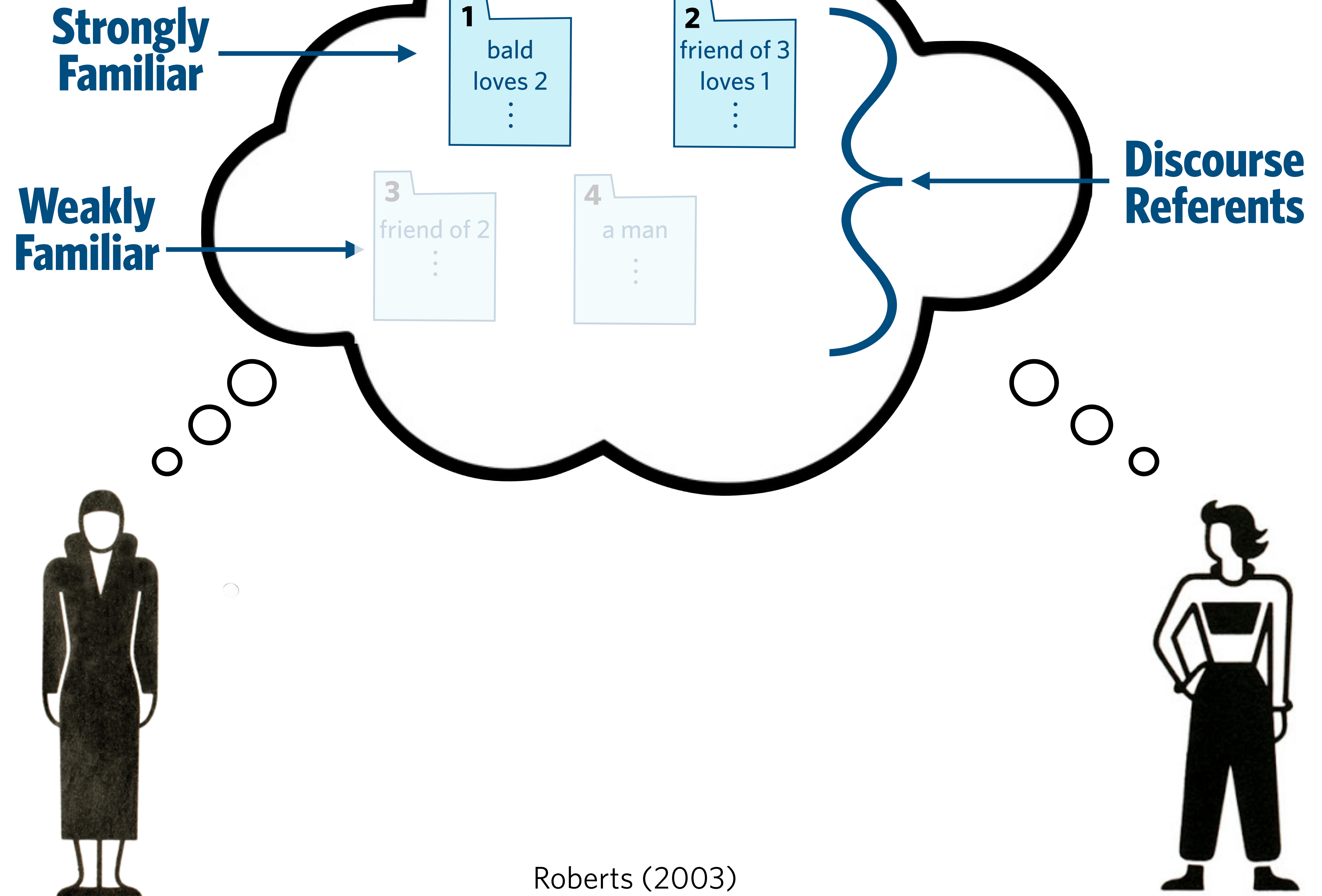


I propose that the common ground of a context be identified with what I have been calling the “file” of that context. As we will see, files cannot be construed as sets of possible worlds, although each file determines such a set.

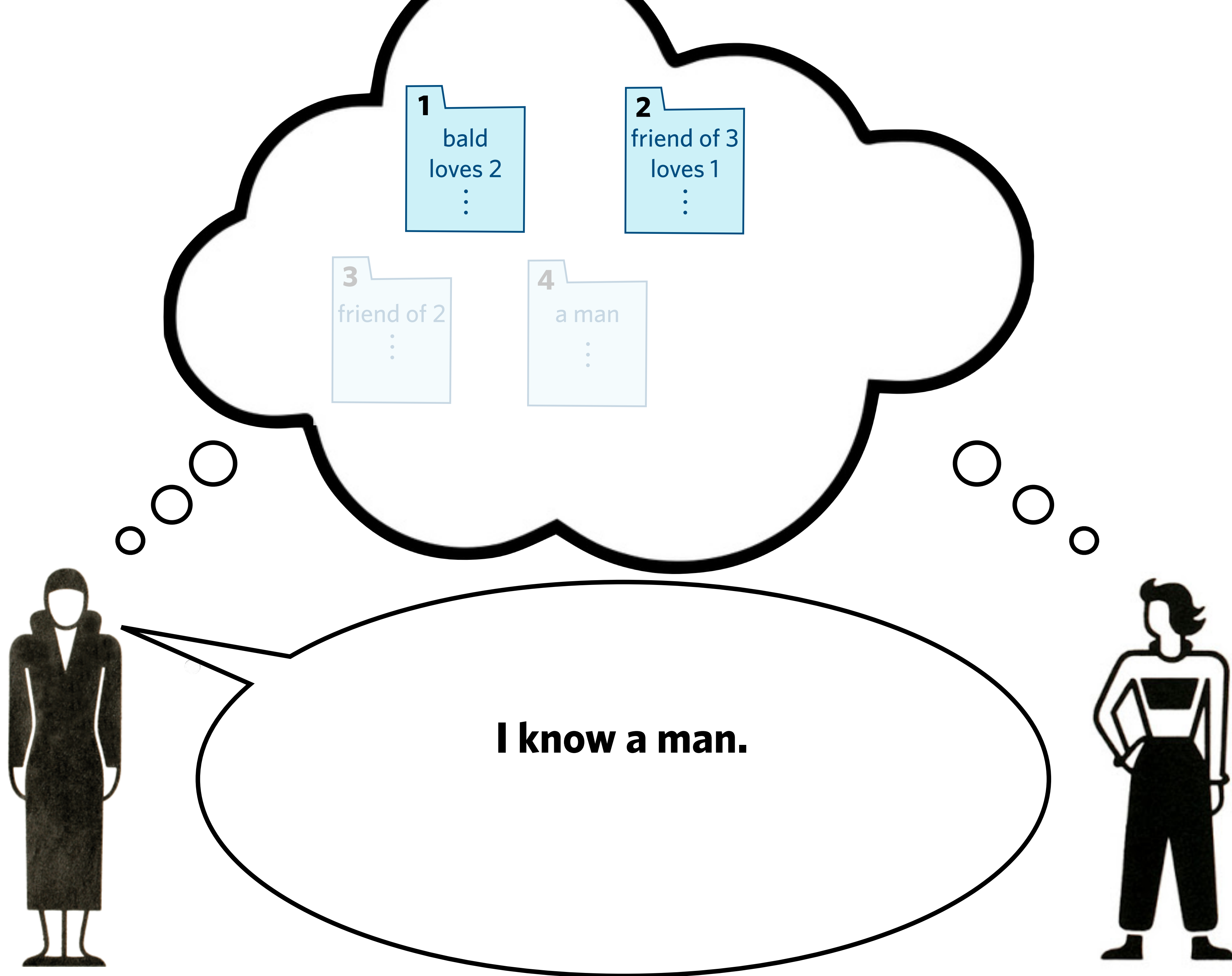
—Heim (1982)

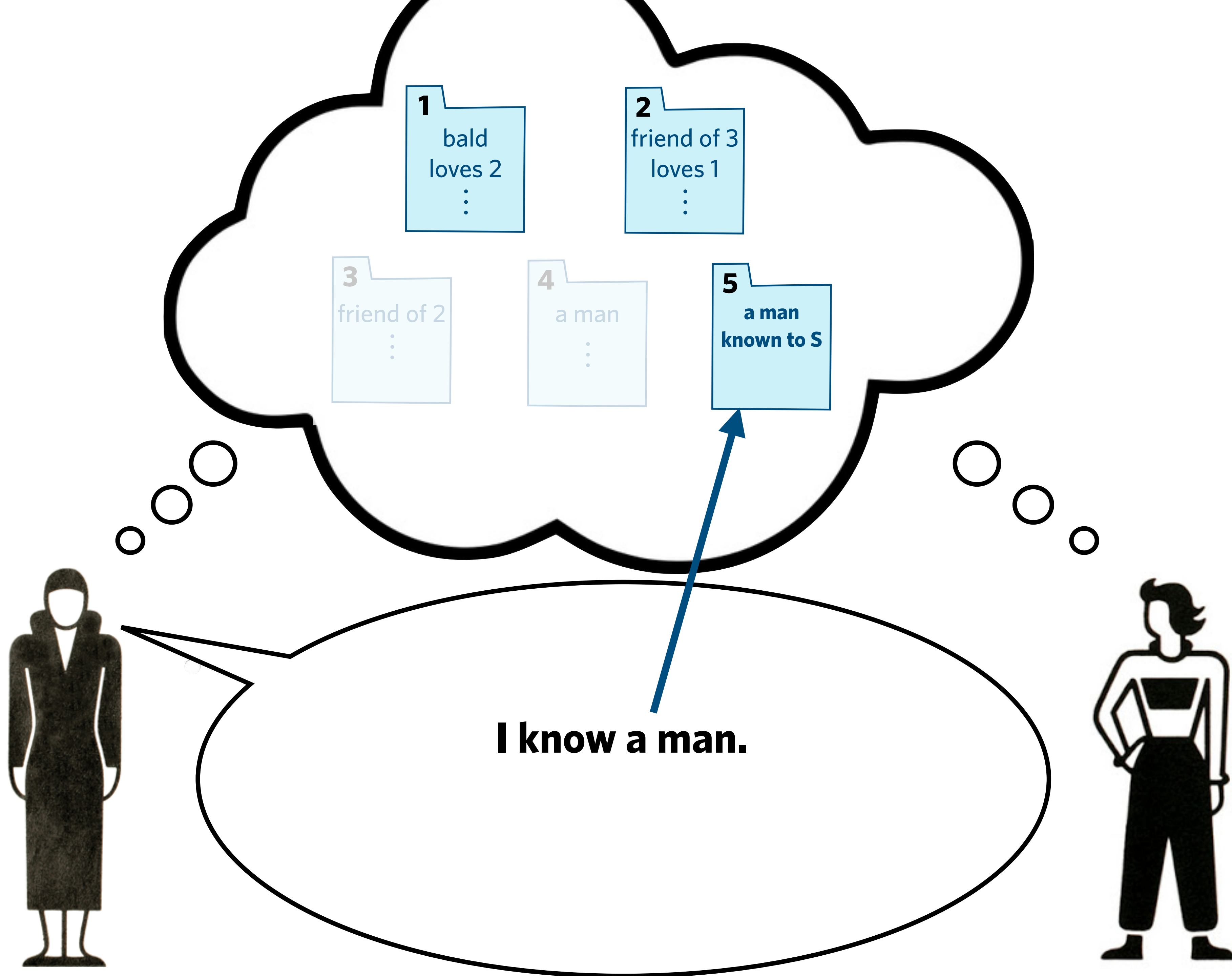


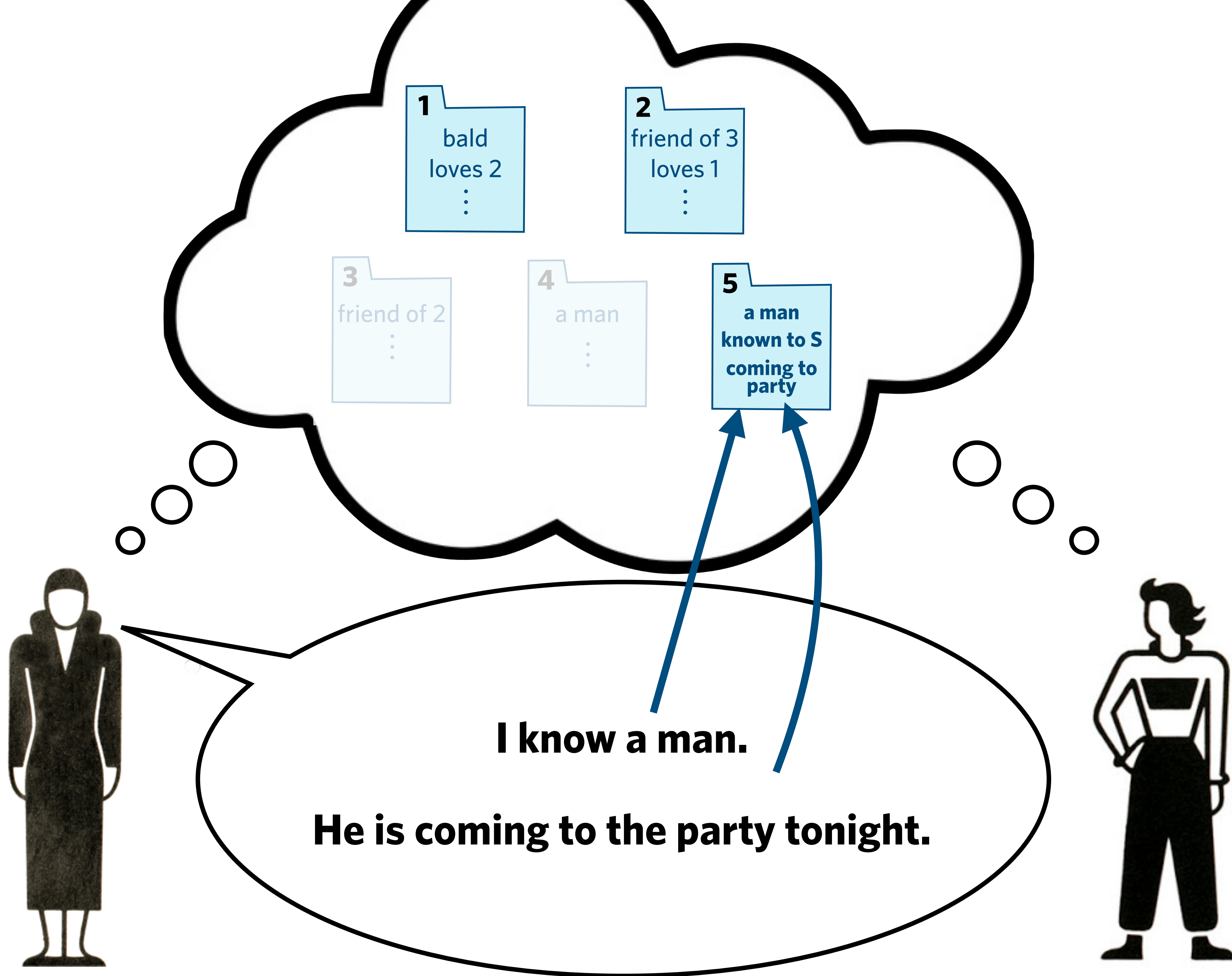
Karttunen (1976); Heim (1982, 1983); Kamp (1981)



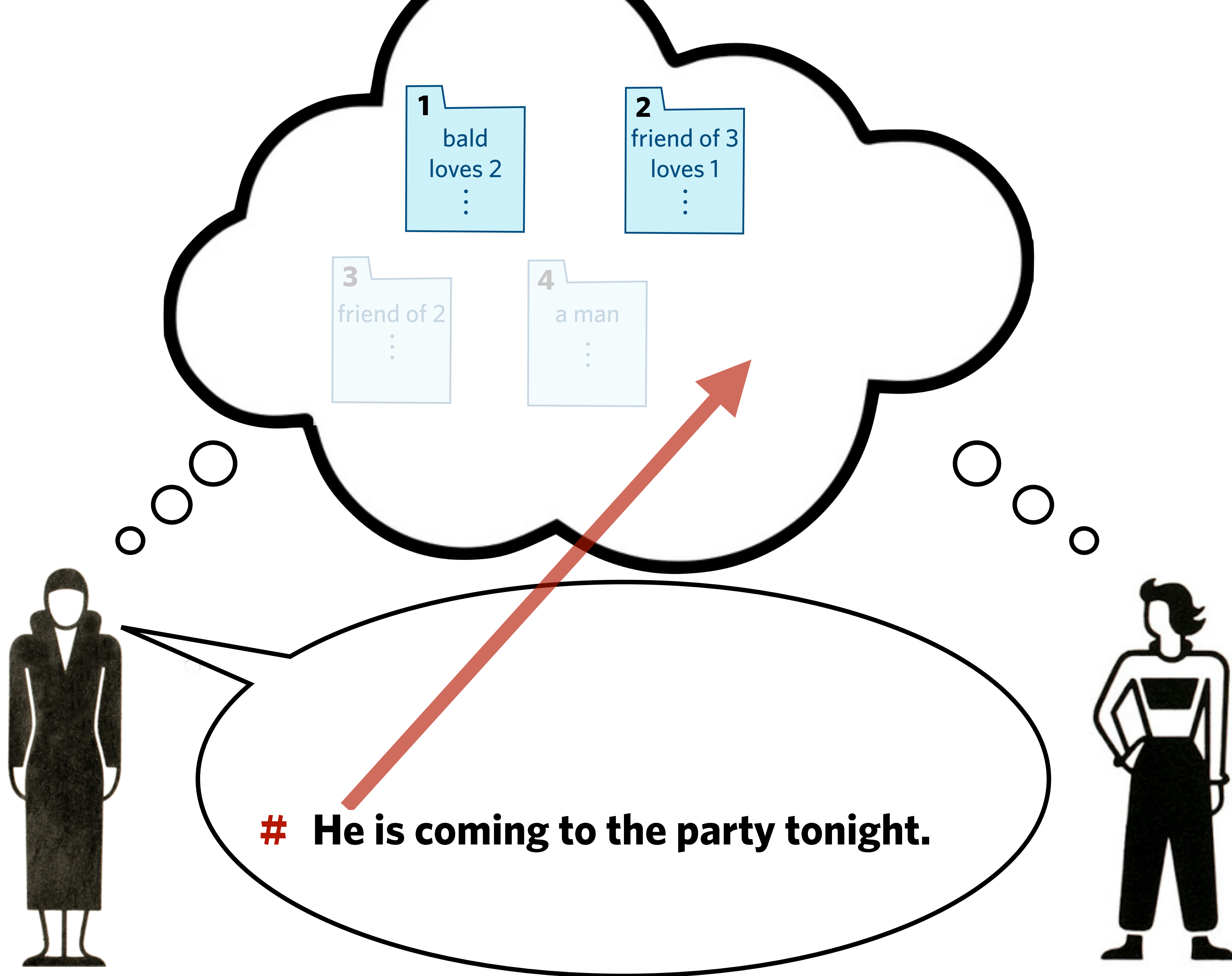


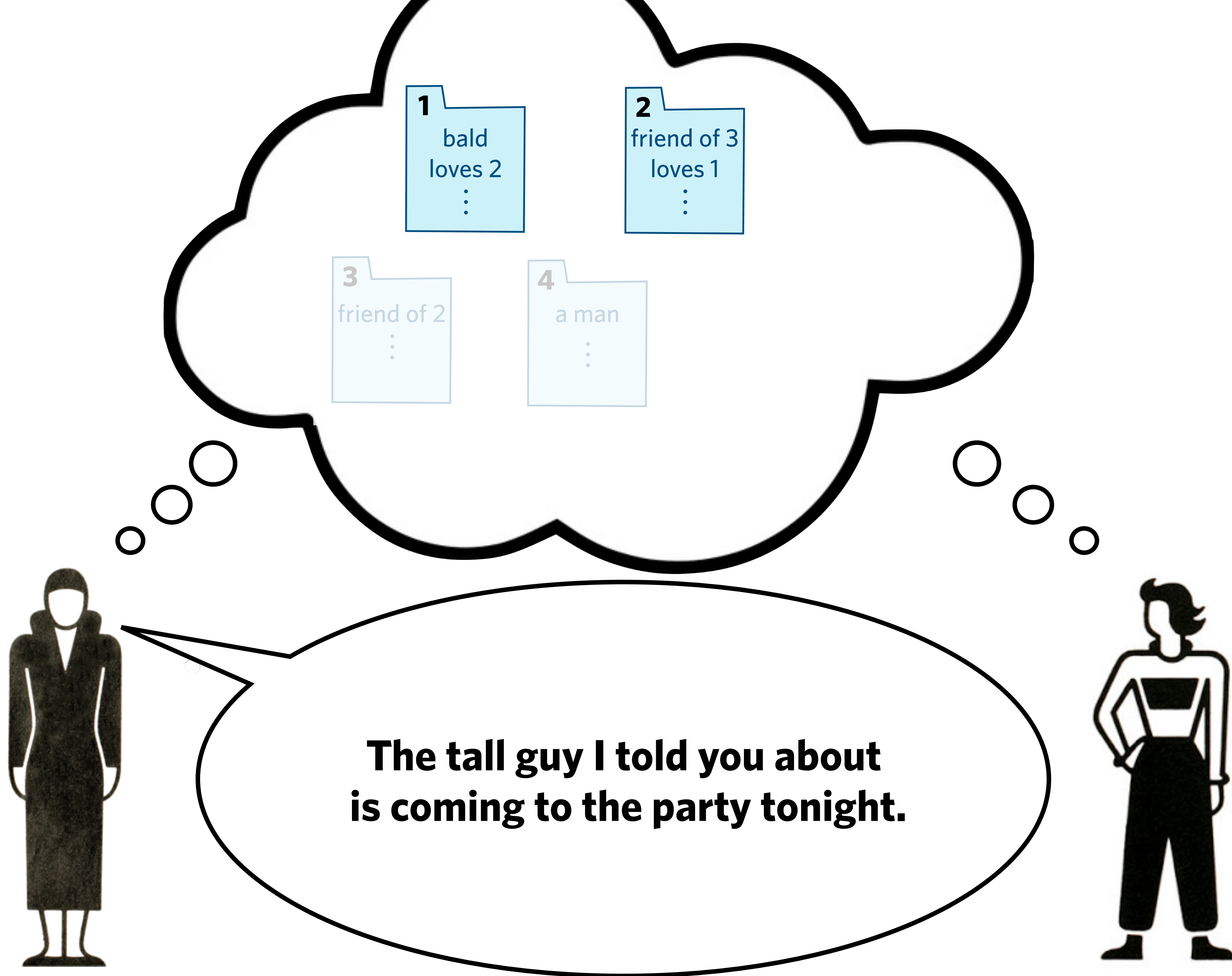


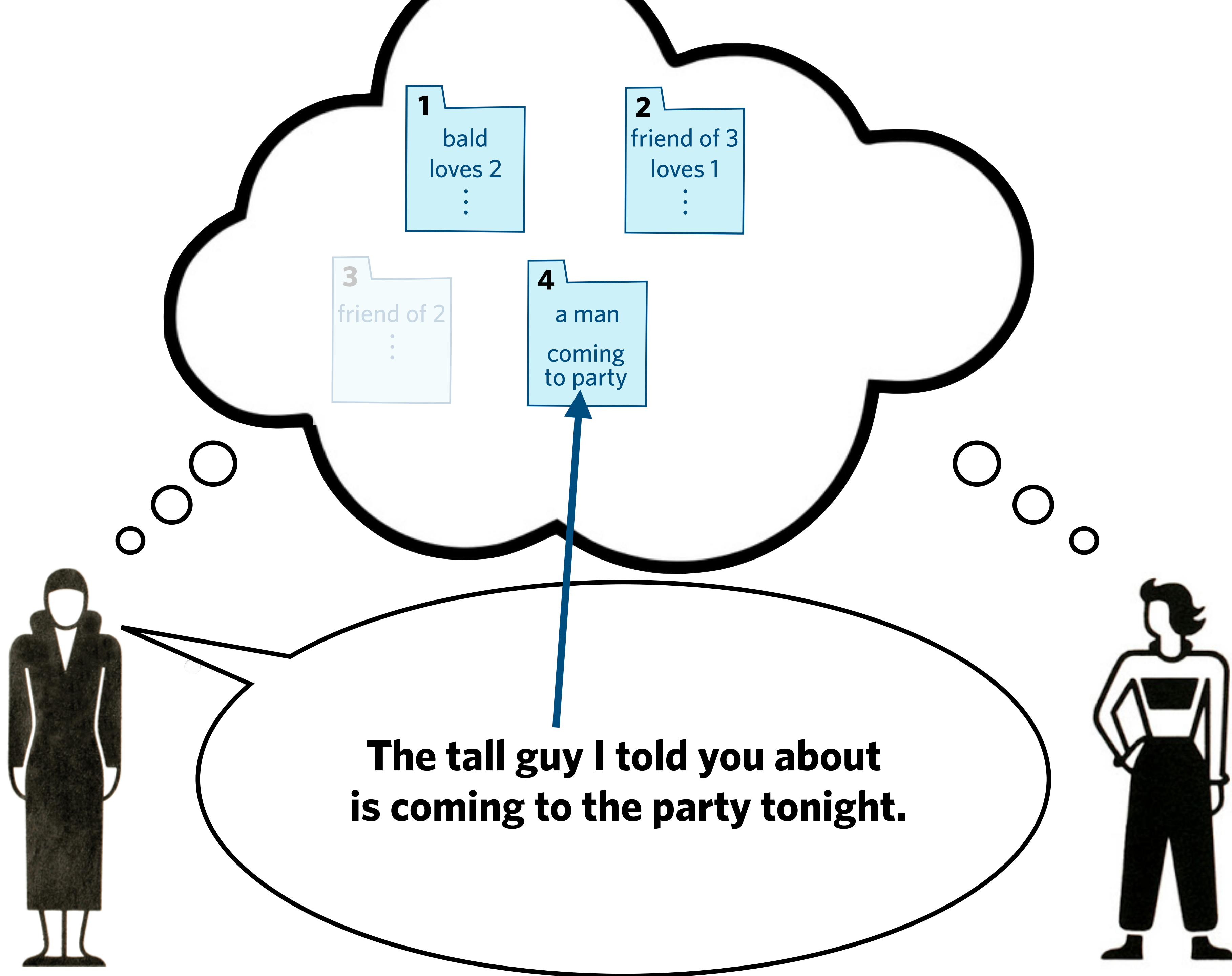














I propose that the common ground of a context be identified with what I have been calling the “file” of that context. As we will see, files cannot be construed as sets of possible worlds, although each file determines such a set.

—Heim (1982)

## **QUESTION:**

**How do we build these contexts out of interlocutors' states of mind?**

# Grammatically Controlled Contexts?

“the features of context that fix the meaning of context-sensitive expressions are *linguistically* determined, through the effects of *discourse conventions*, which trigger semantic effects of the *linguistic* items an utterance—or more generally the discourse in which it is embedded—comprises. The context...is a running record of *linguistic* information that is contributed by discourse-internal, linguistic cues; the record, in turn, fully determines the interpretation by fixing the content expressed by the discourse. My conception of context is thus *linguistic*, rather than extra-linguistic.”

—Stojnić (2020): “Context and Coherence,” p.40  
(cf. Lepore and Stone, McGowan, Lewis?,)

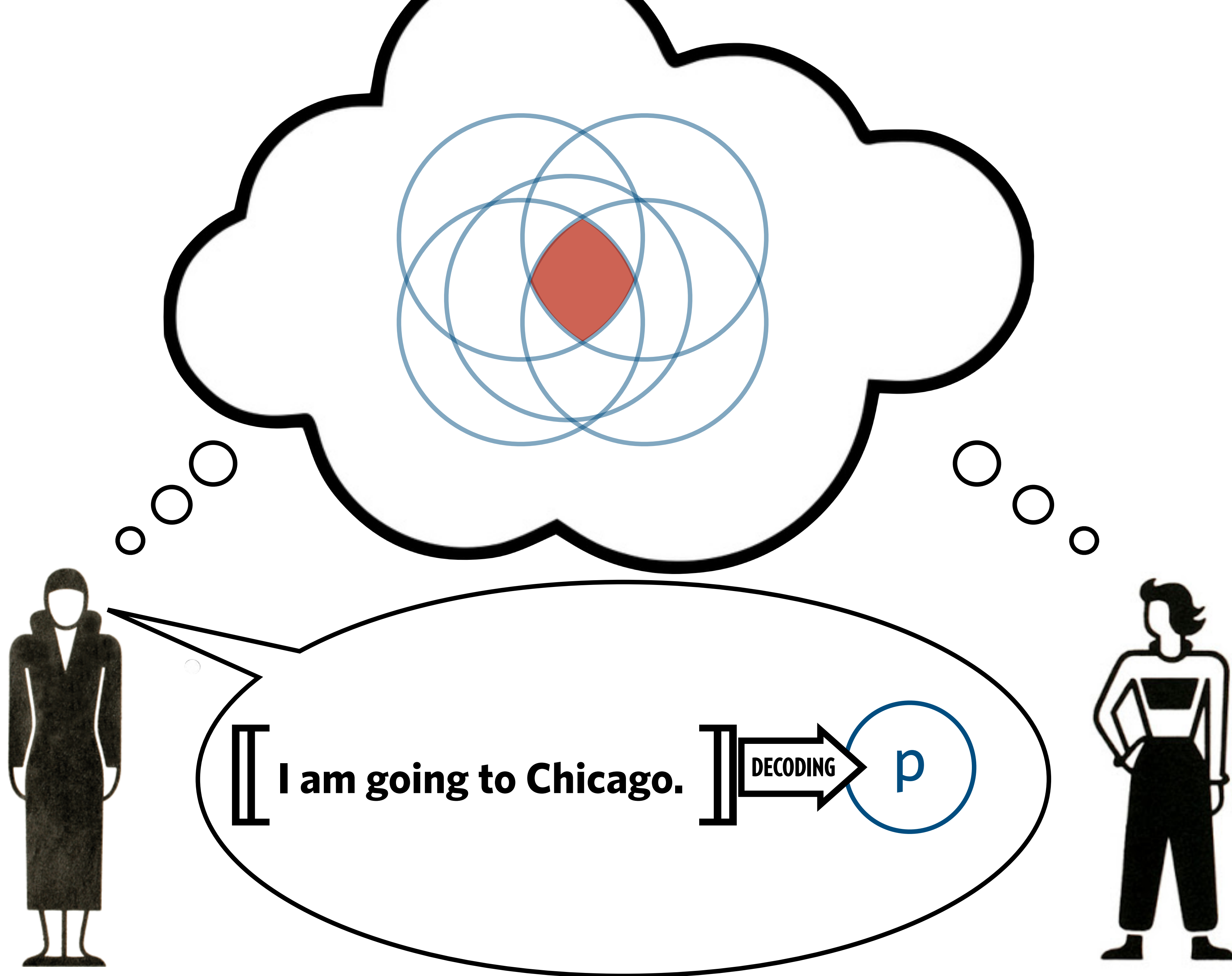
...such context-sensitive elements as pronouns, demonstratives, definite descriptions, tenses and various adverbs of space and time are capable of picking up contextual cues whether those were established by the earlier discourse or by non-linguistic factors. On the reasonable assumption that such elements receive their context-dependent interpretations by the same processes irrespective of the cues' origin, this suggests that the contextual information on which the human interpreter relies, and on which those processes must operate, is available to him in much the same form whether he has derived it from the preceding discourse or from other sources (such as e.g. perception)

—Kamp (1984): 'Context, Thought, and Communication'  
(cf. Stalnaker, Heim, Roberts, etc.)

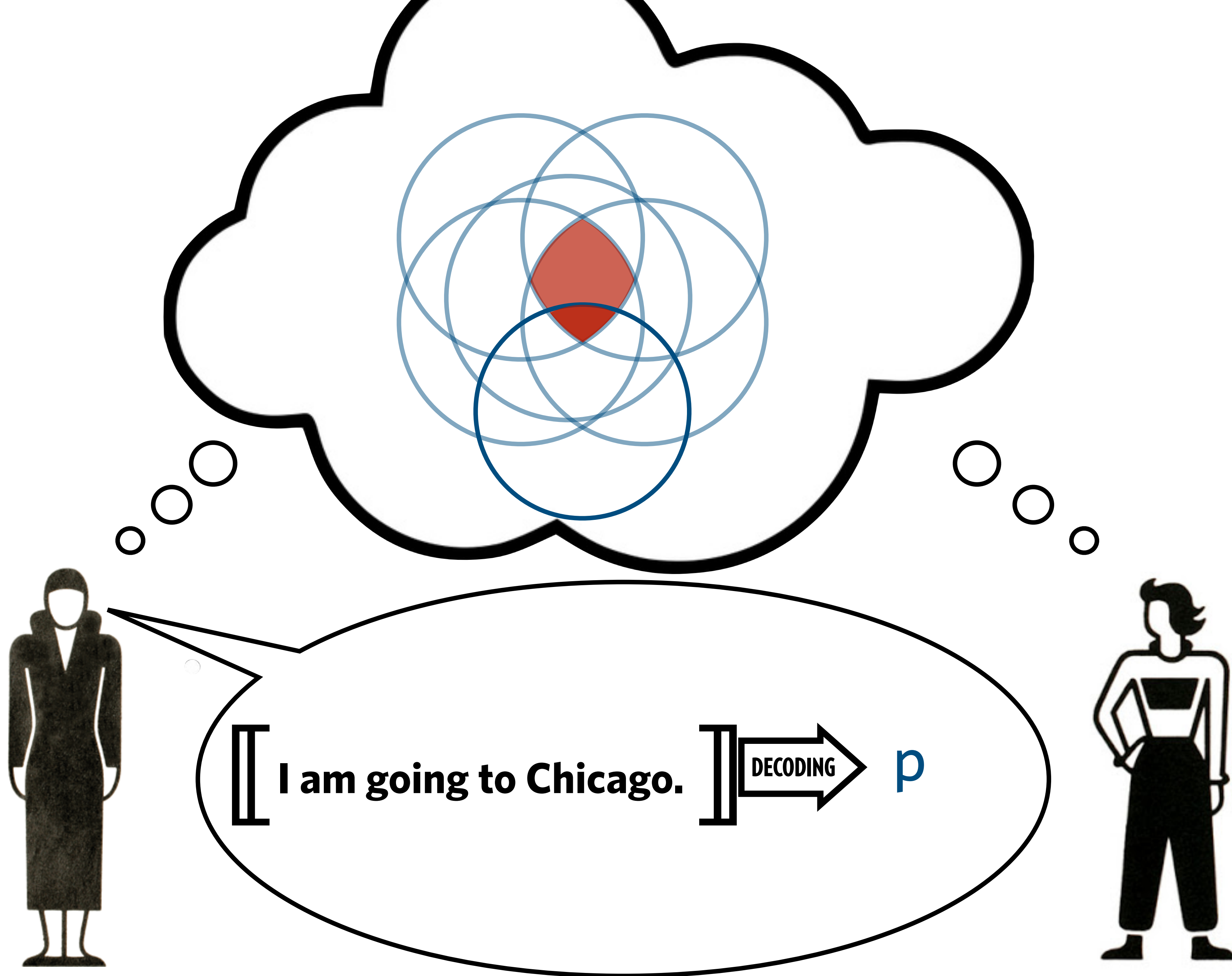


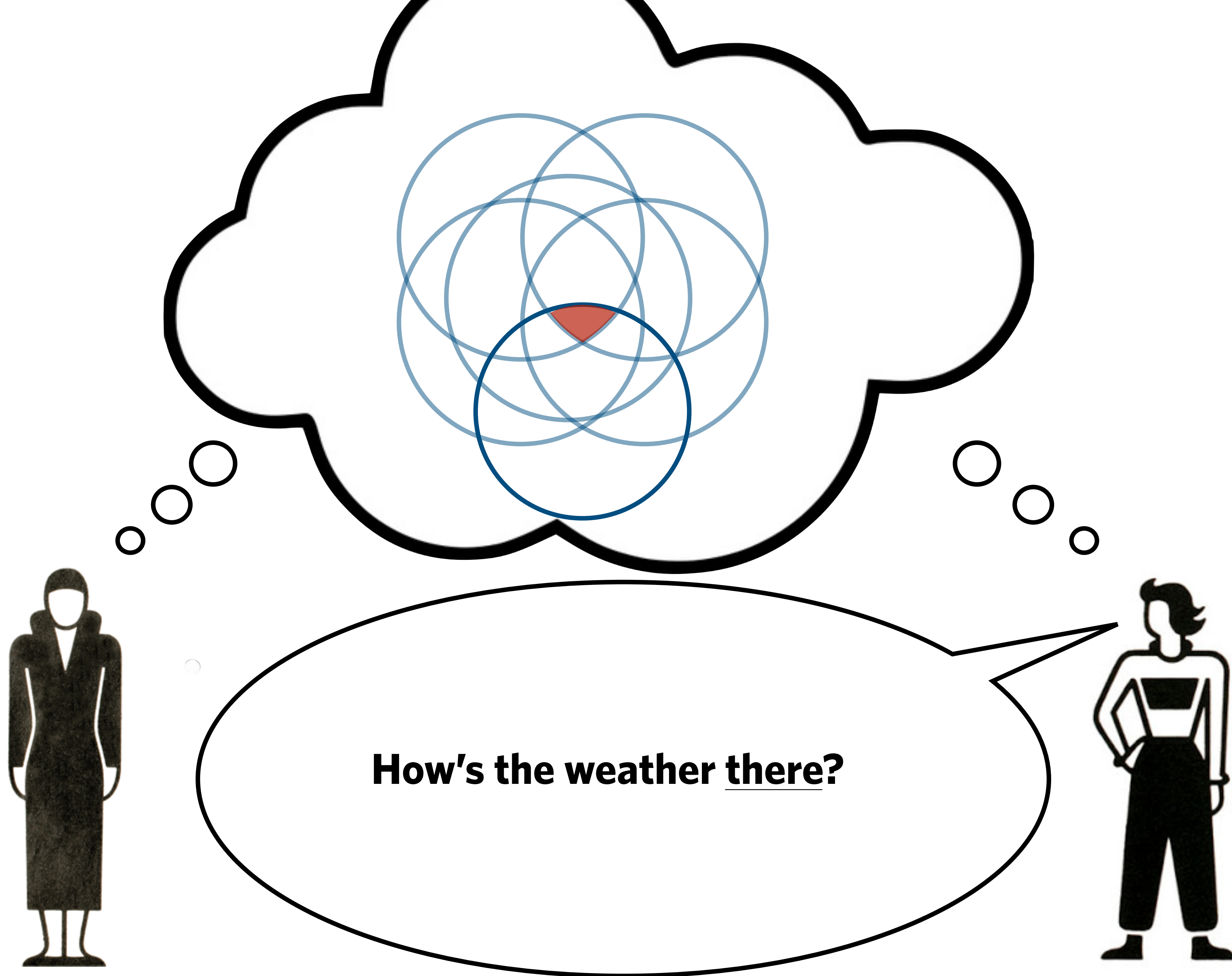
**QUD**



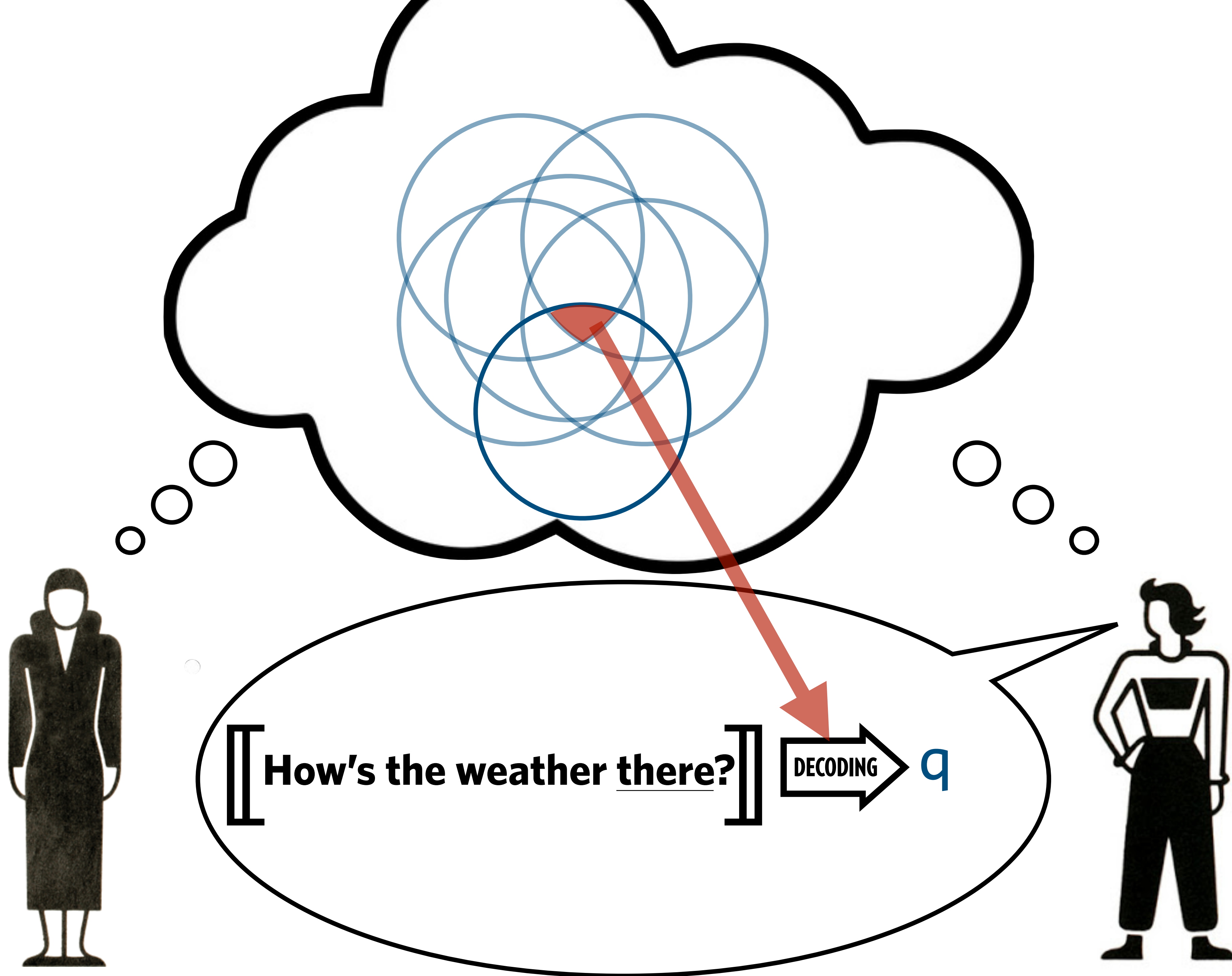




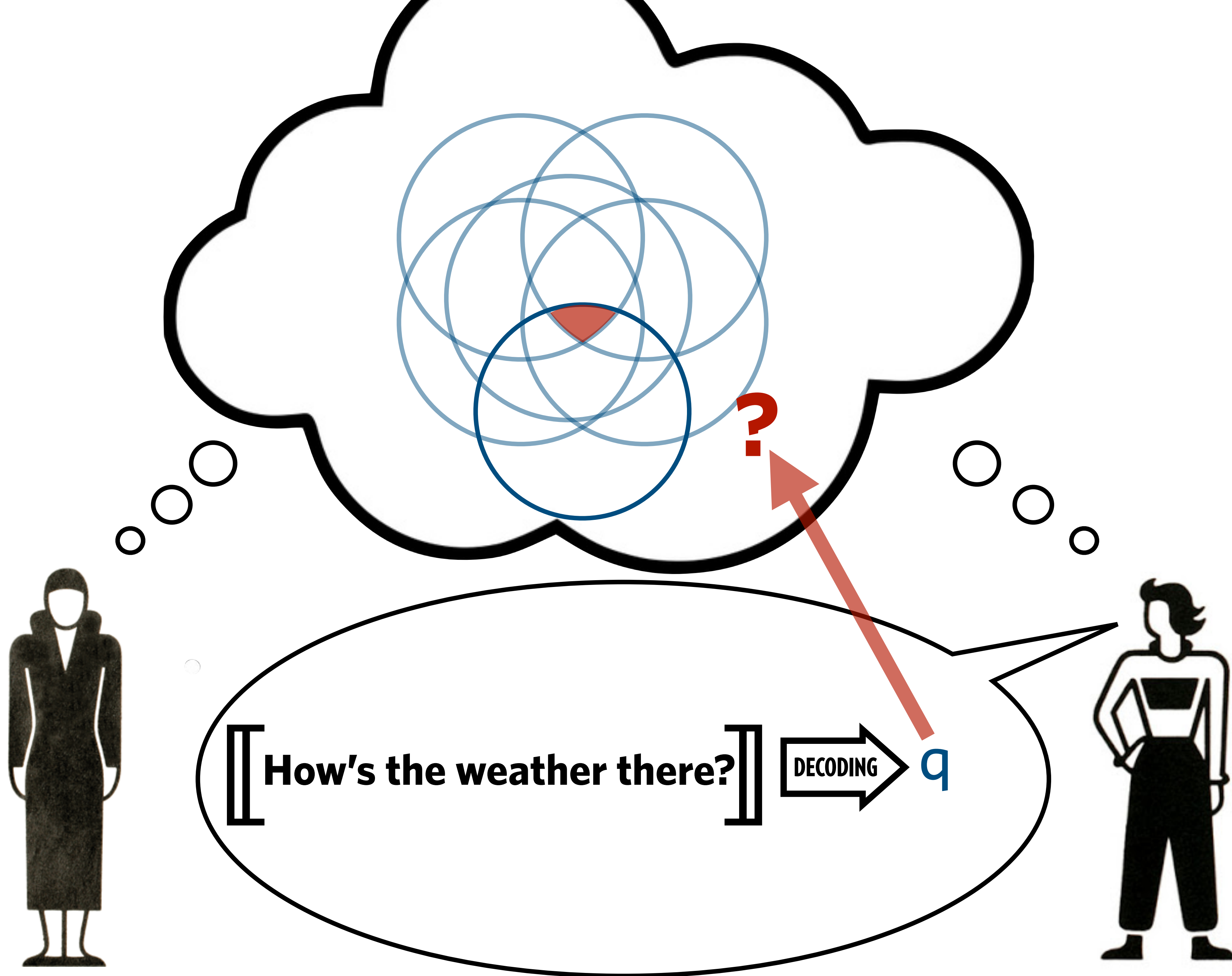


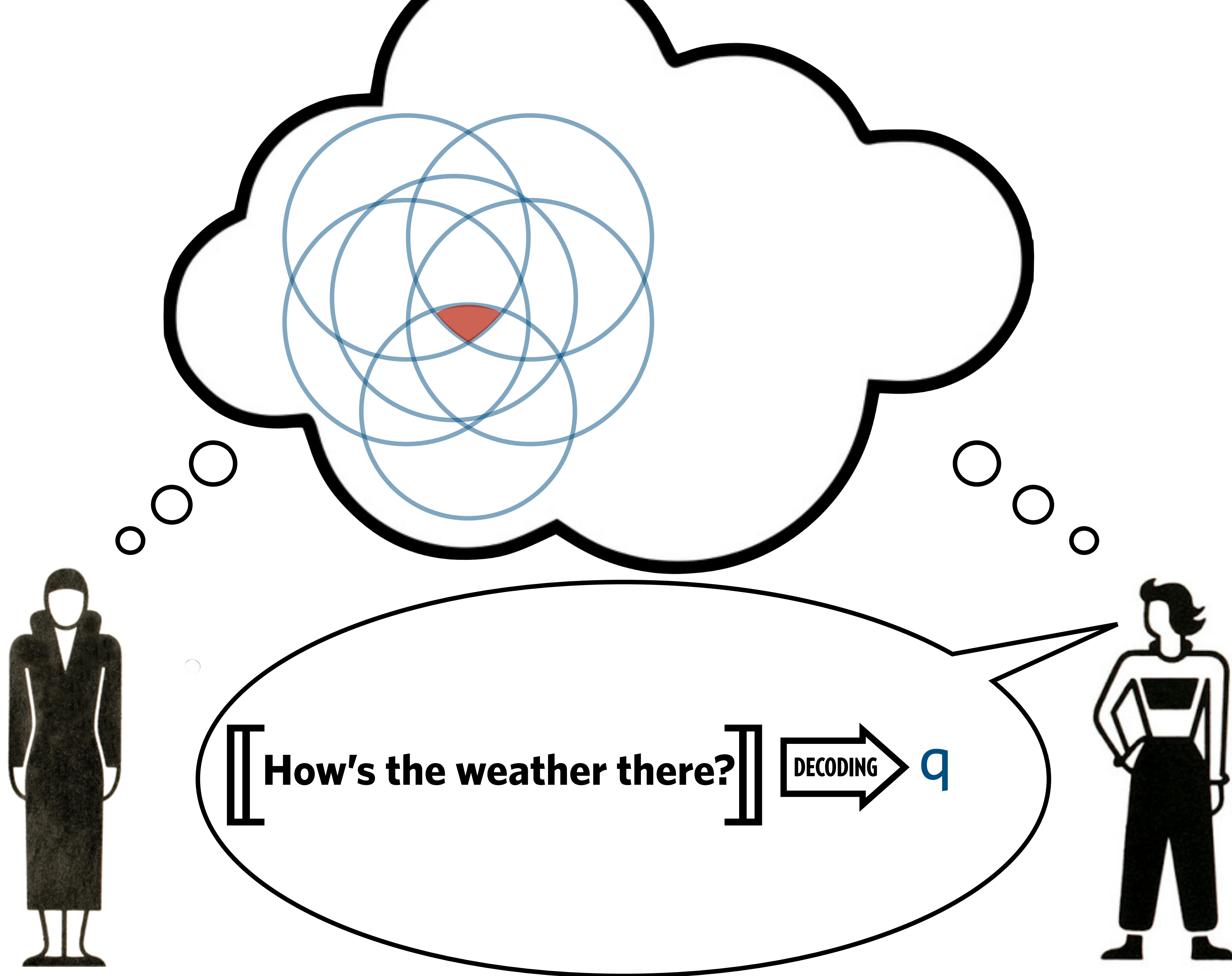


**How's the weather there?**



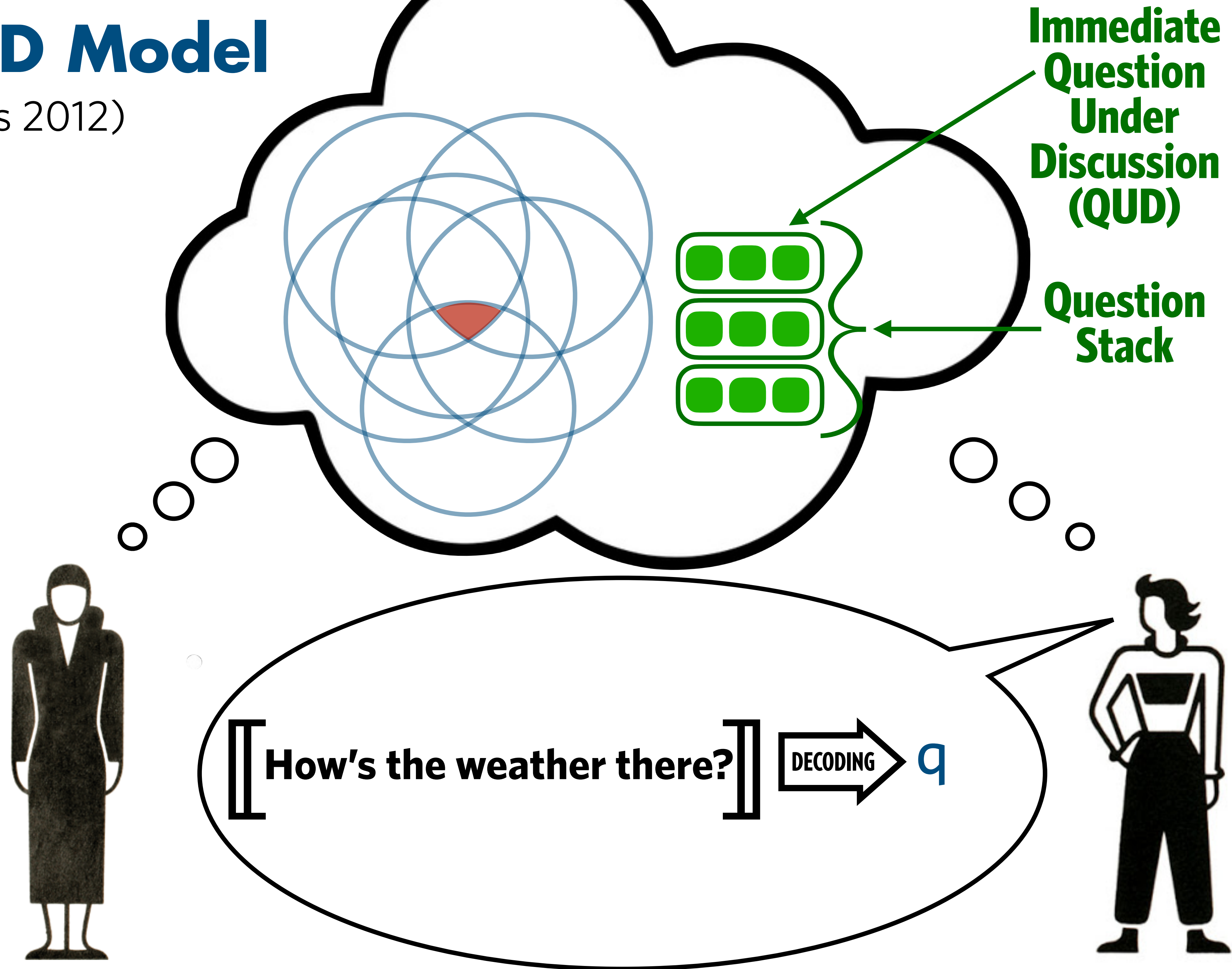




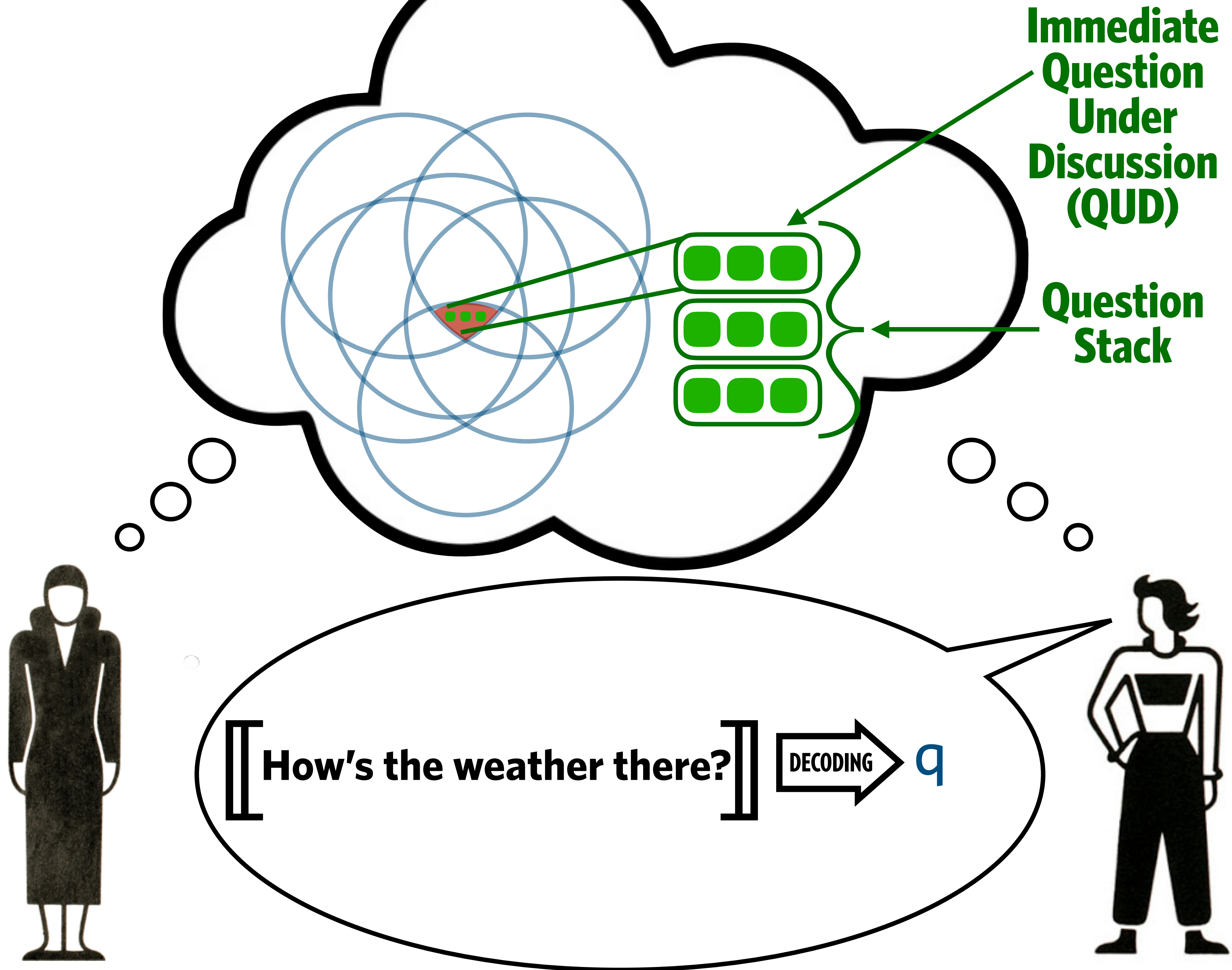


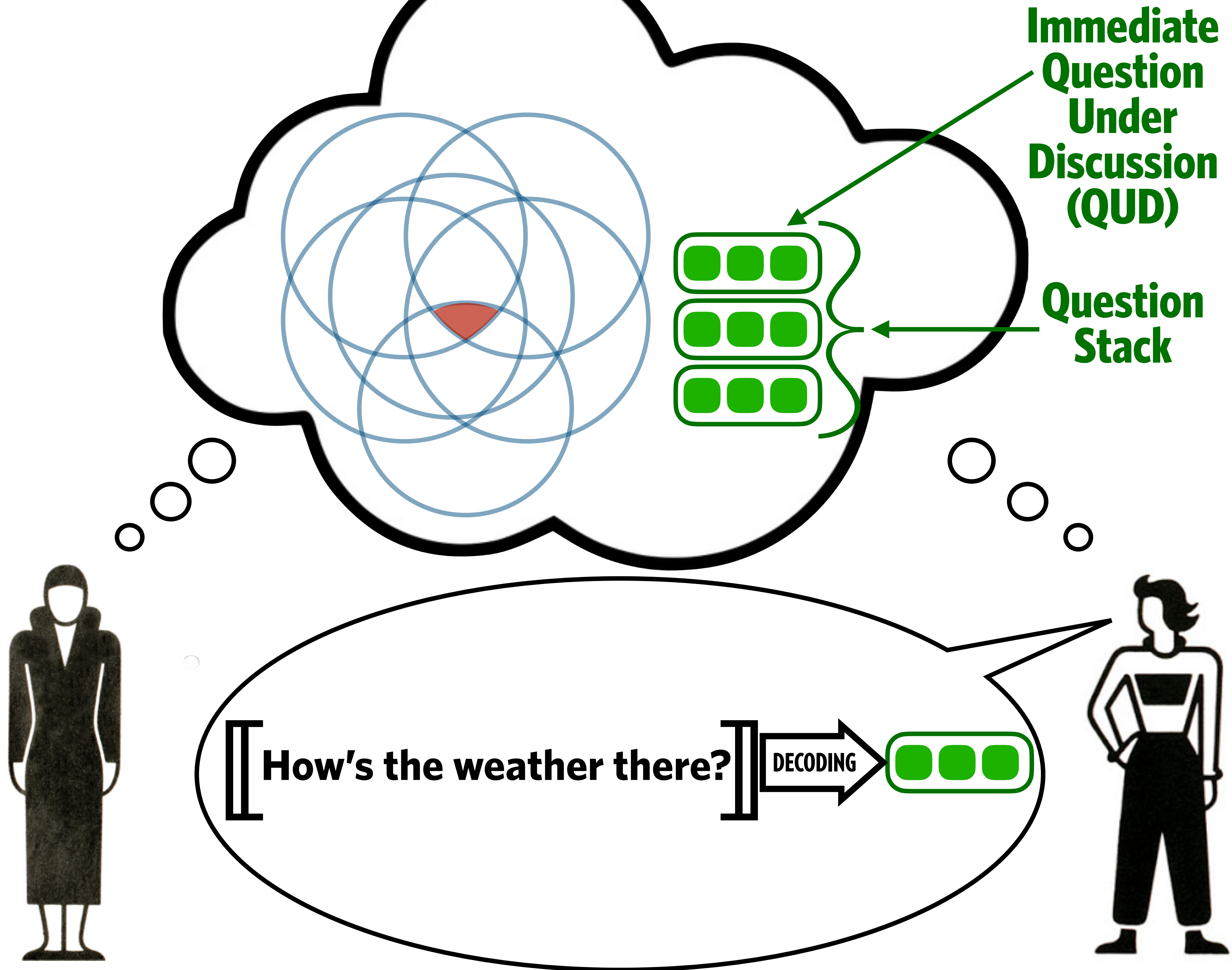
# The QUD Model

(Roberts 2012)

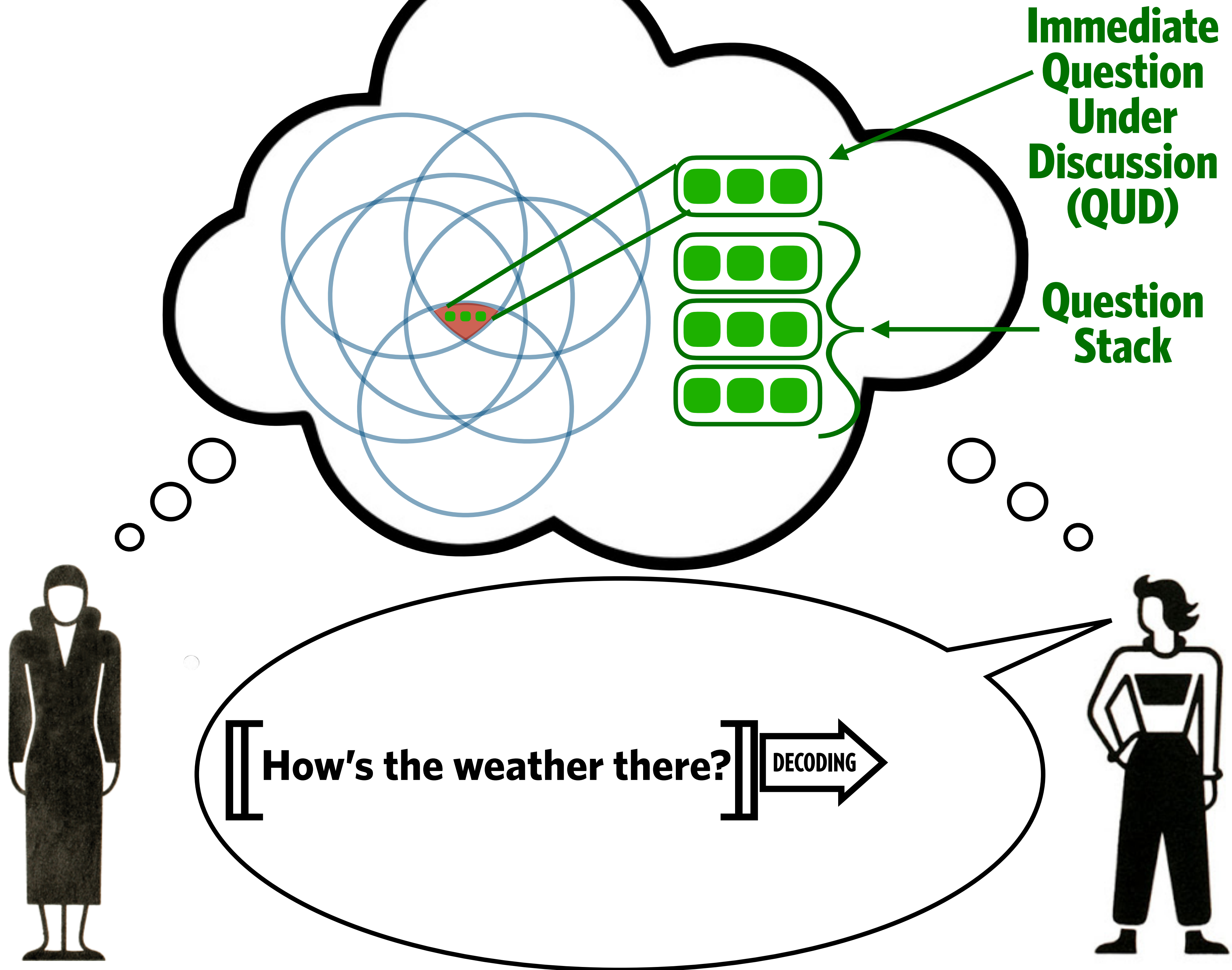




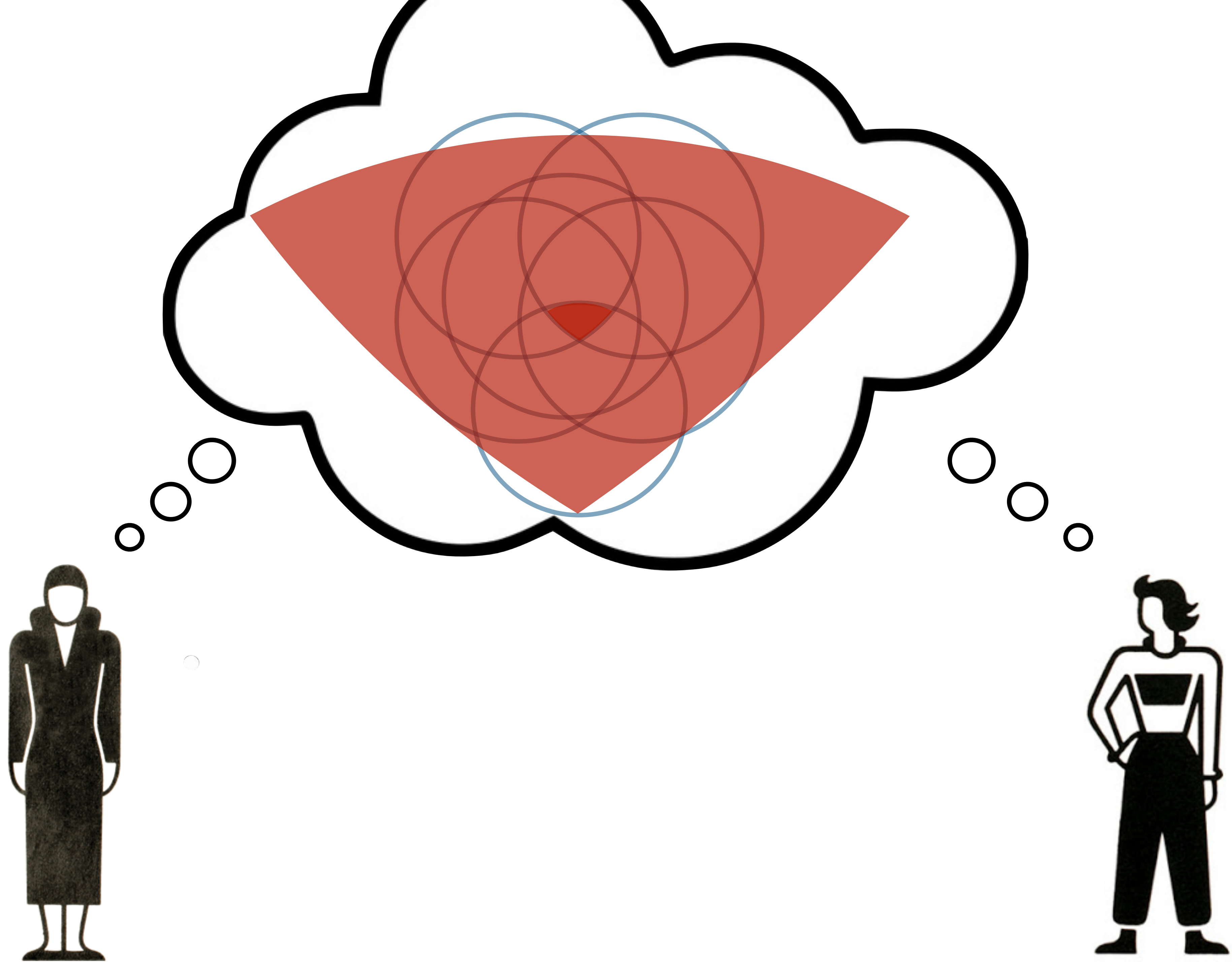














**$W_1$**

**$W_4$**

**$W_{10}$**

**$W_7$**

**$W_{11}$**

**$W_2$**

**$W_8$**

**$W_5$**

**$W_{12}$**

**$W_3$**

**$W_9$**

**$W_{13}$**

**$W_6$**





**$W_1$**

**$W_4$**

**$W_{10}$**

**$W_7$**

**$W_{11}$**

**$W_2$**

**$W_8$**

**$W_5$**

**$W_{12}$**

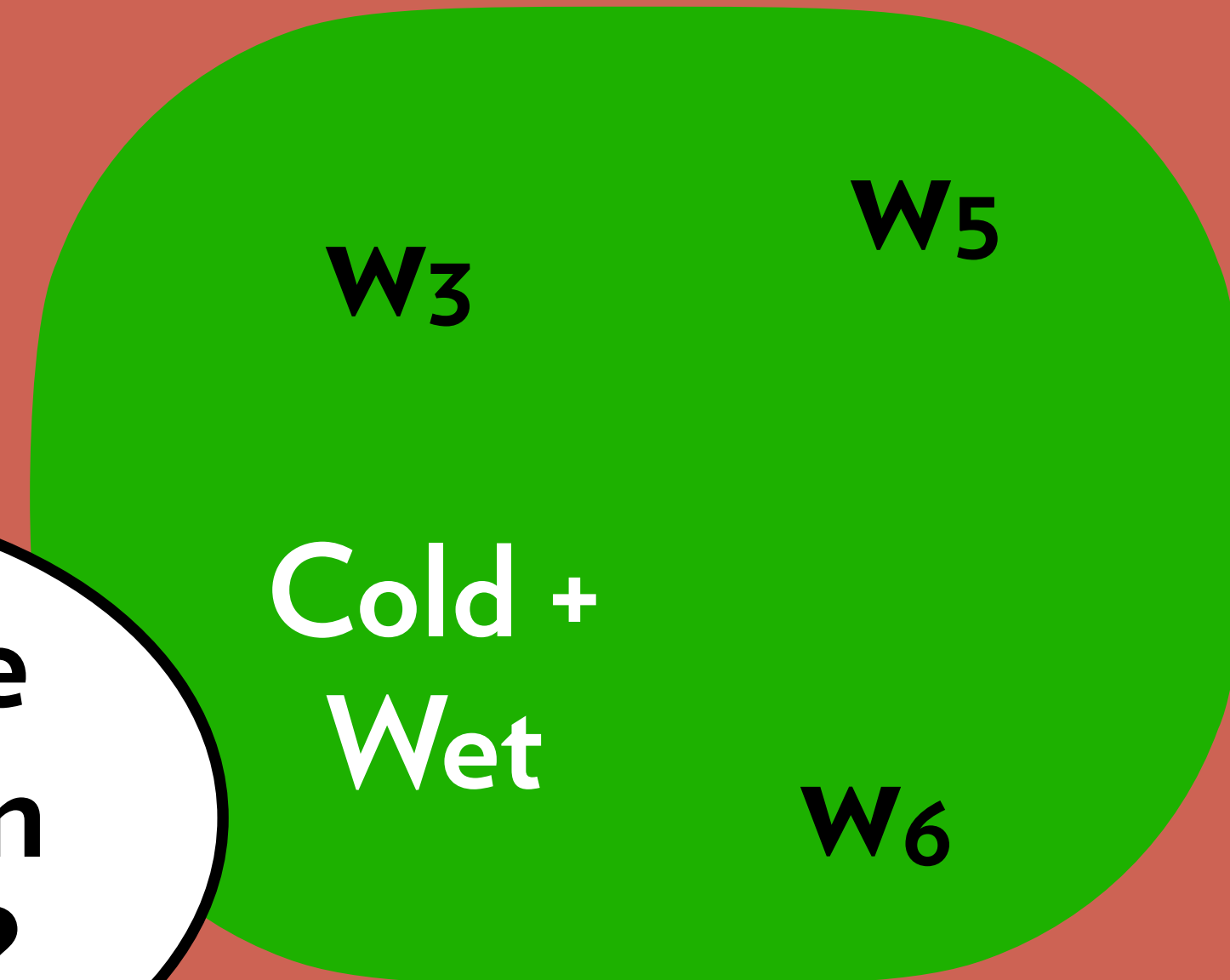
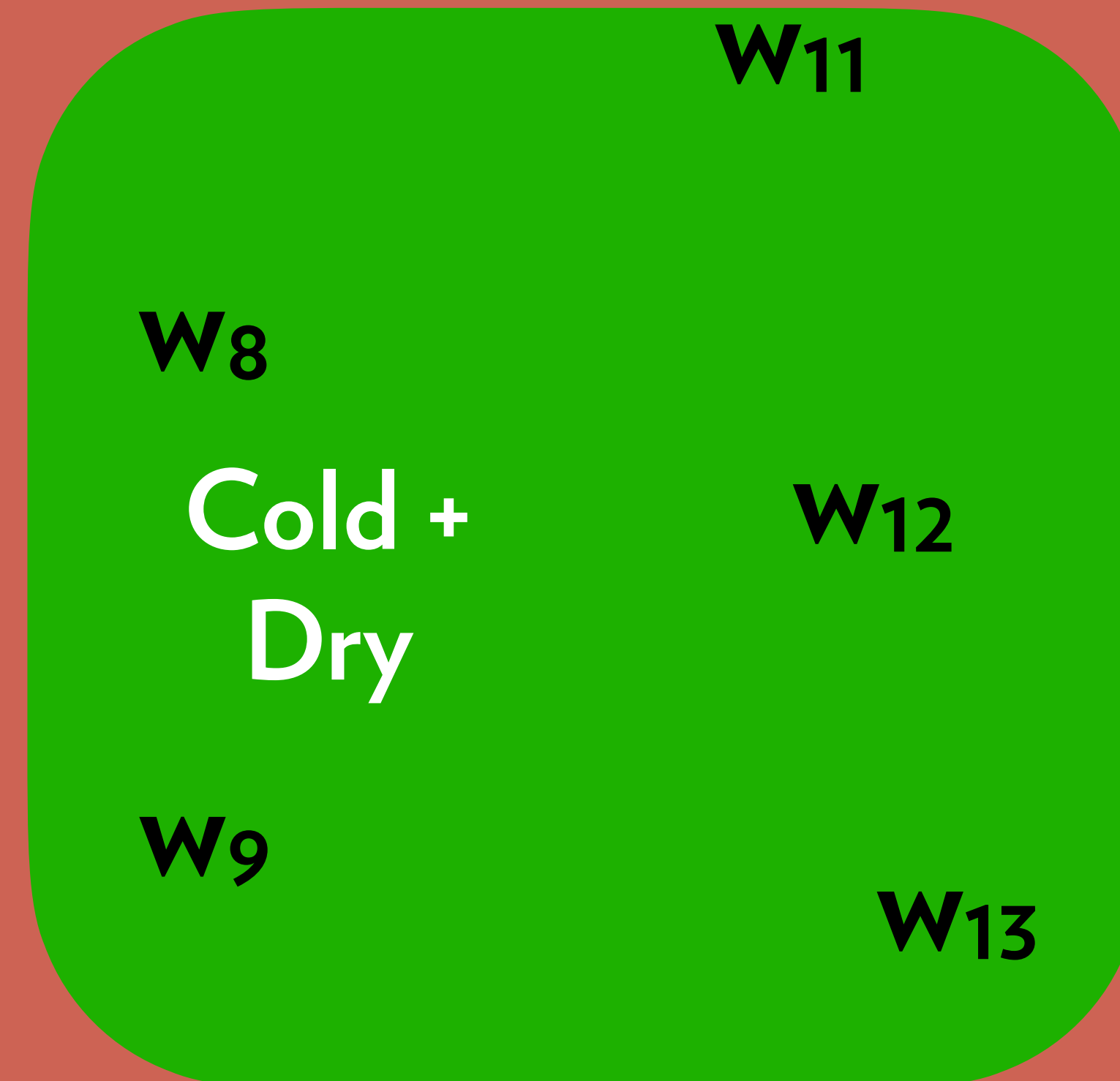
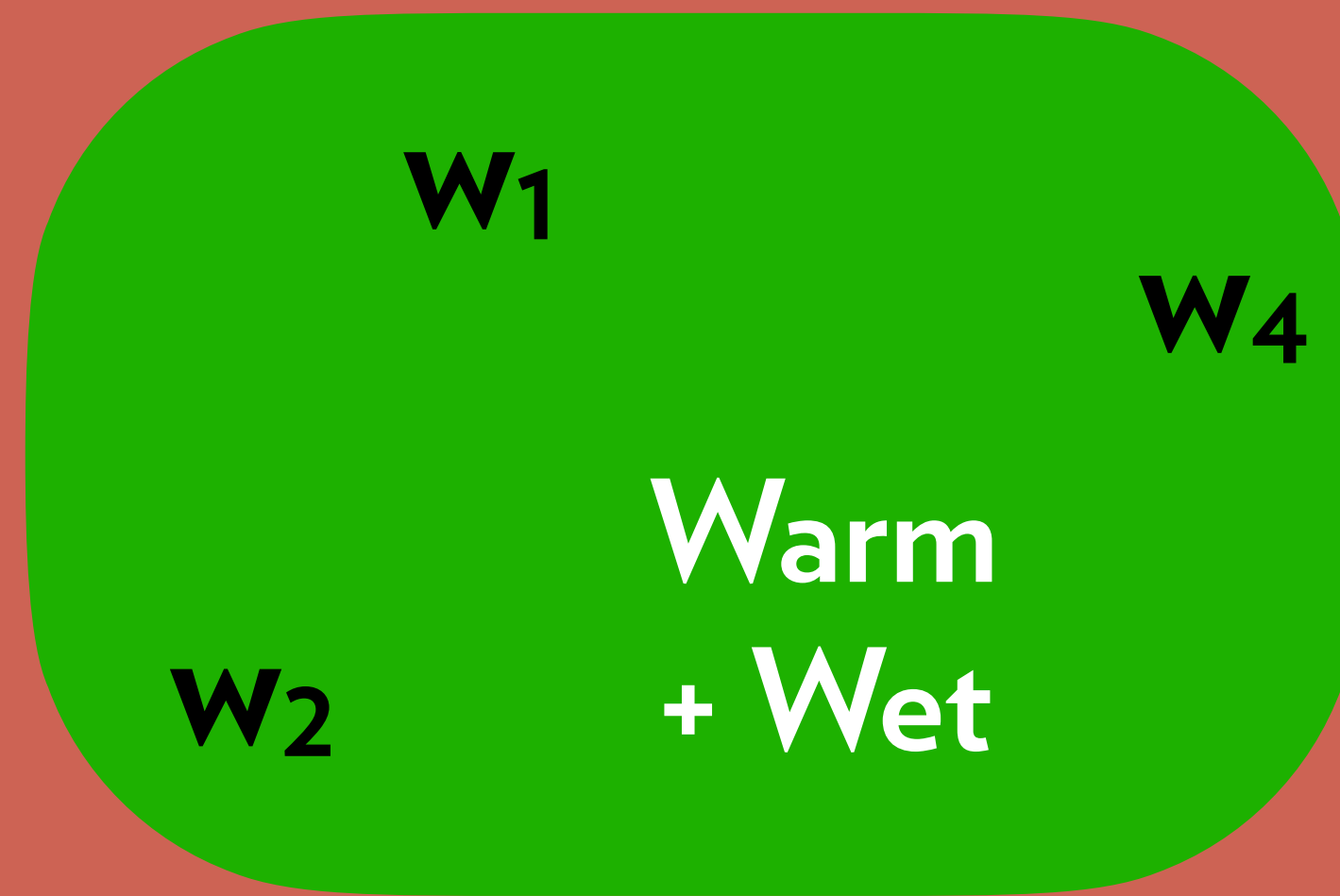
**$W_3$**

**$W_9$**

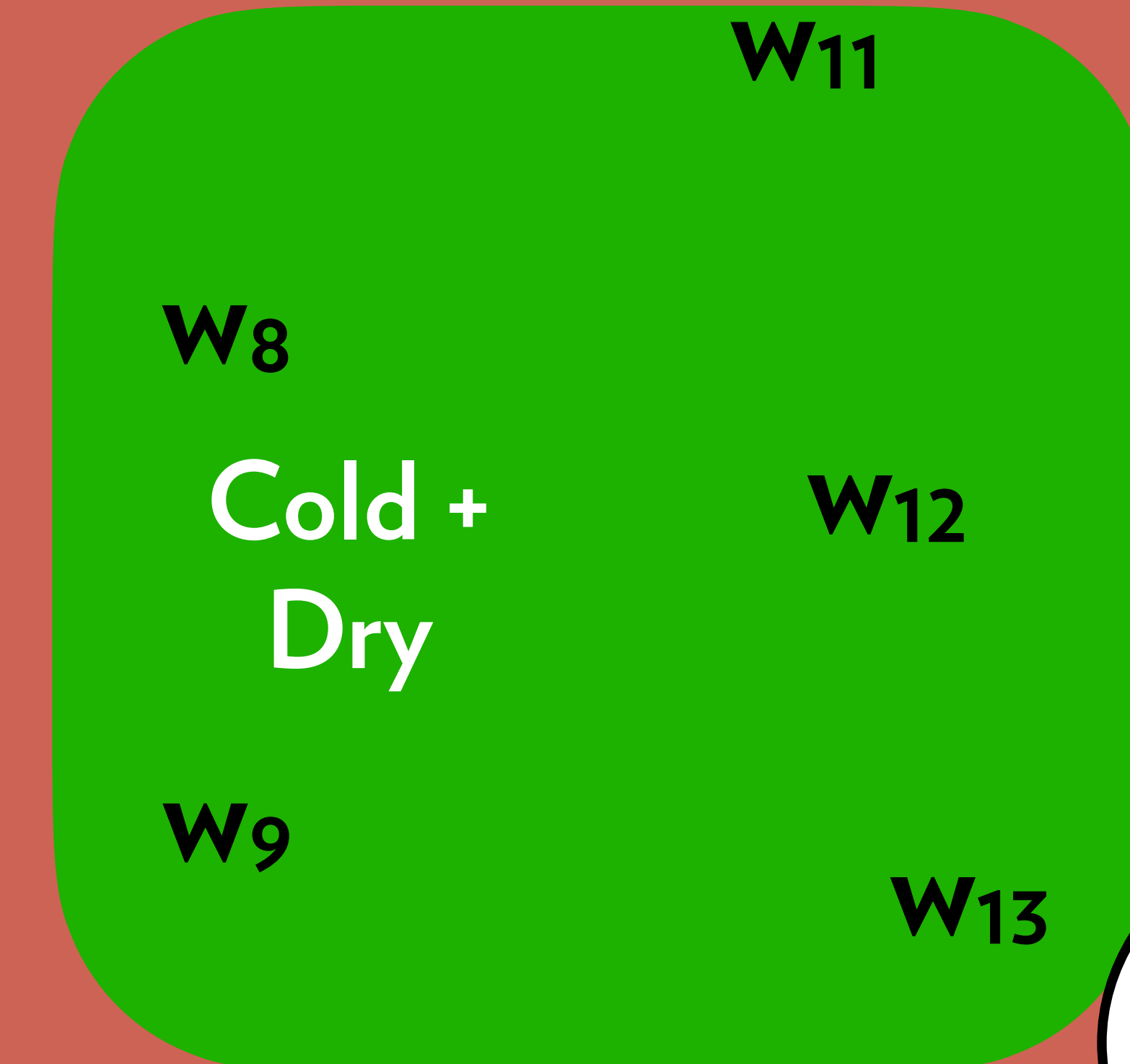
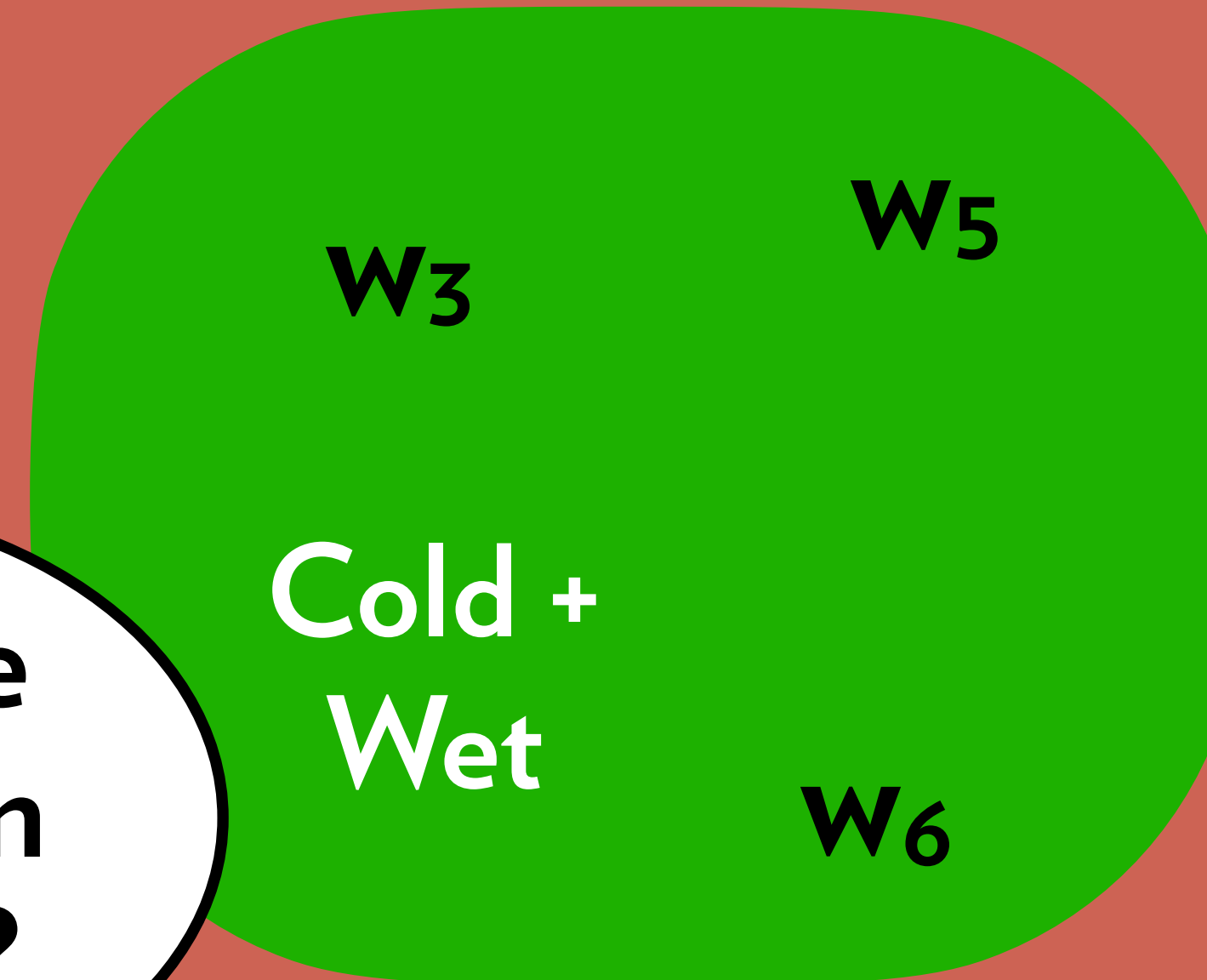
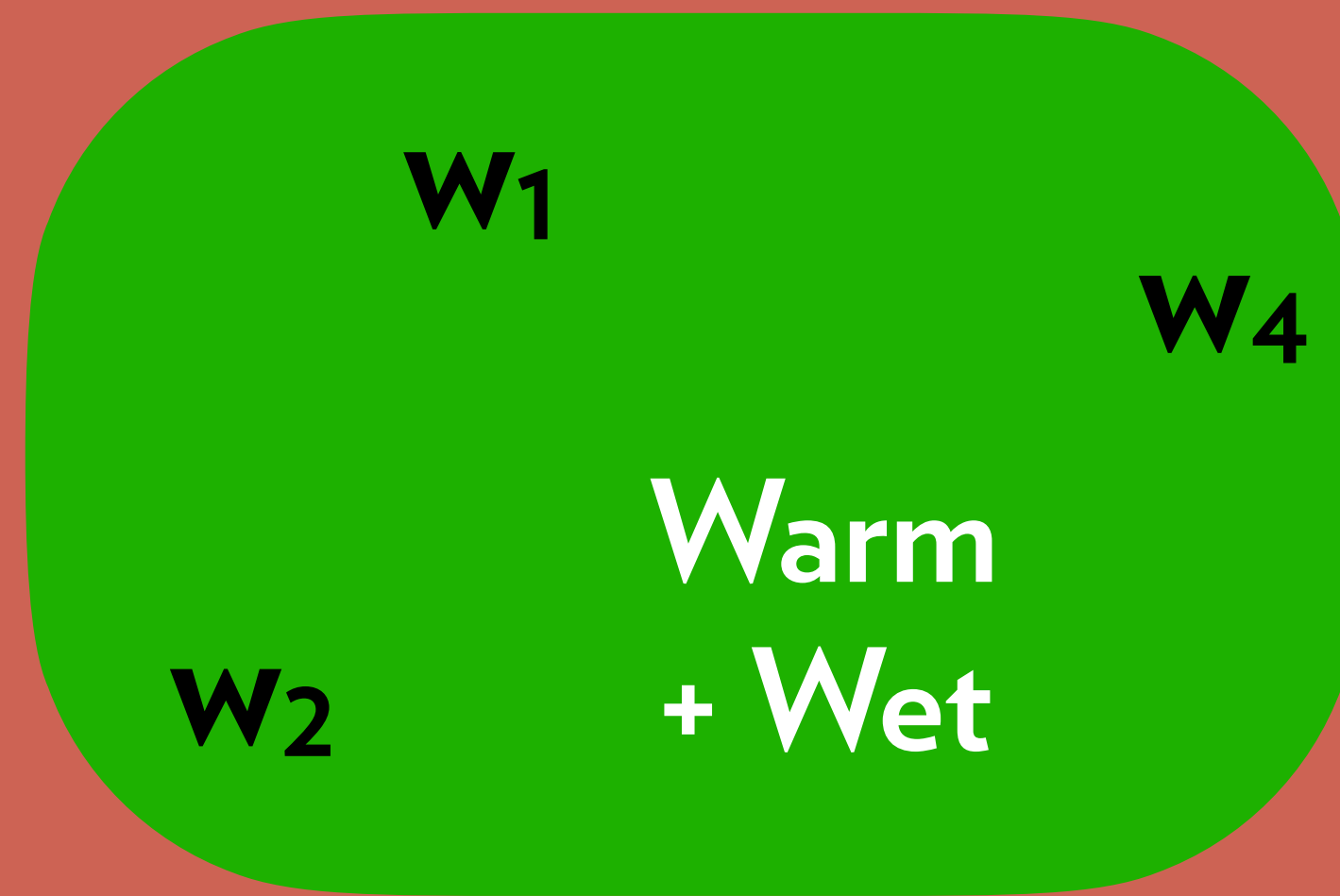
**$W_{13}$**

**$W_6$**

# QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?



QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?

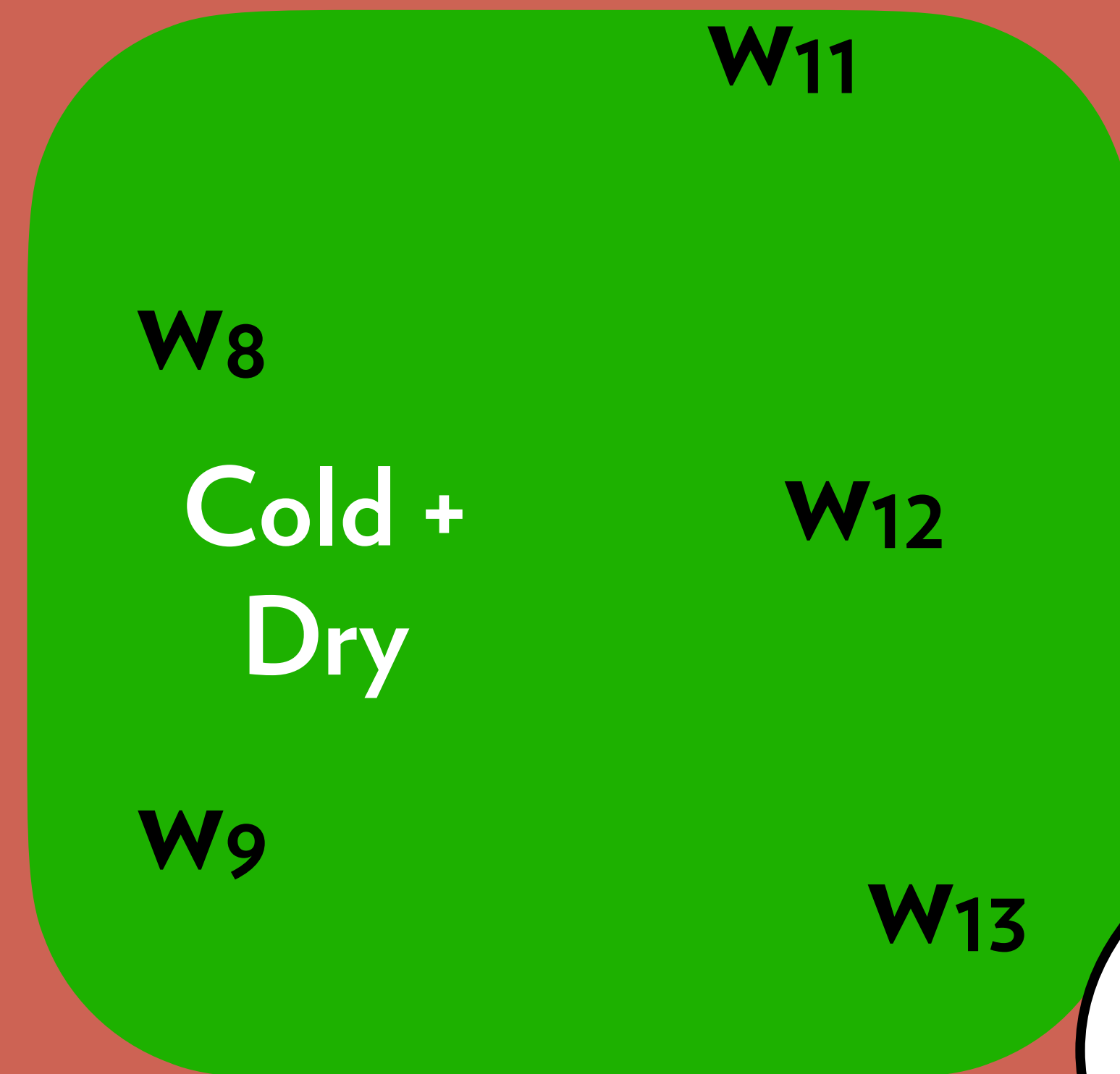


How's the  
weather in  
Chicago?

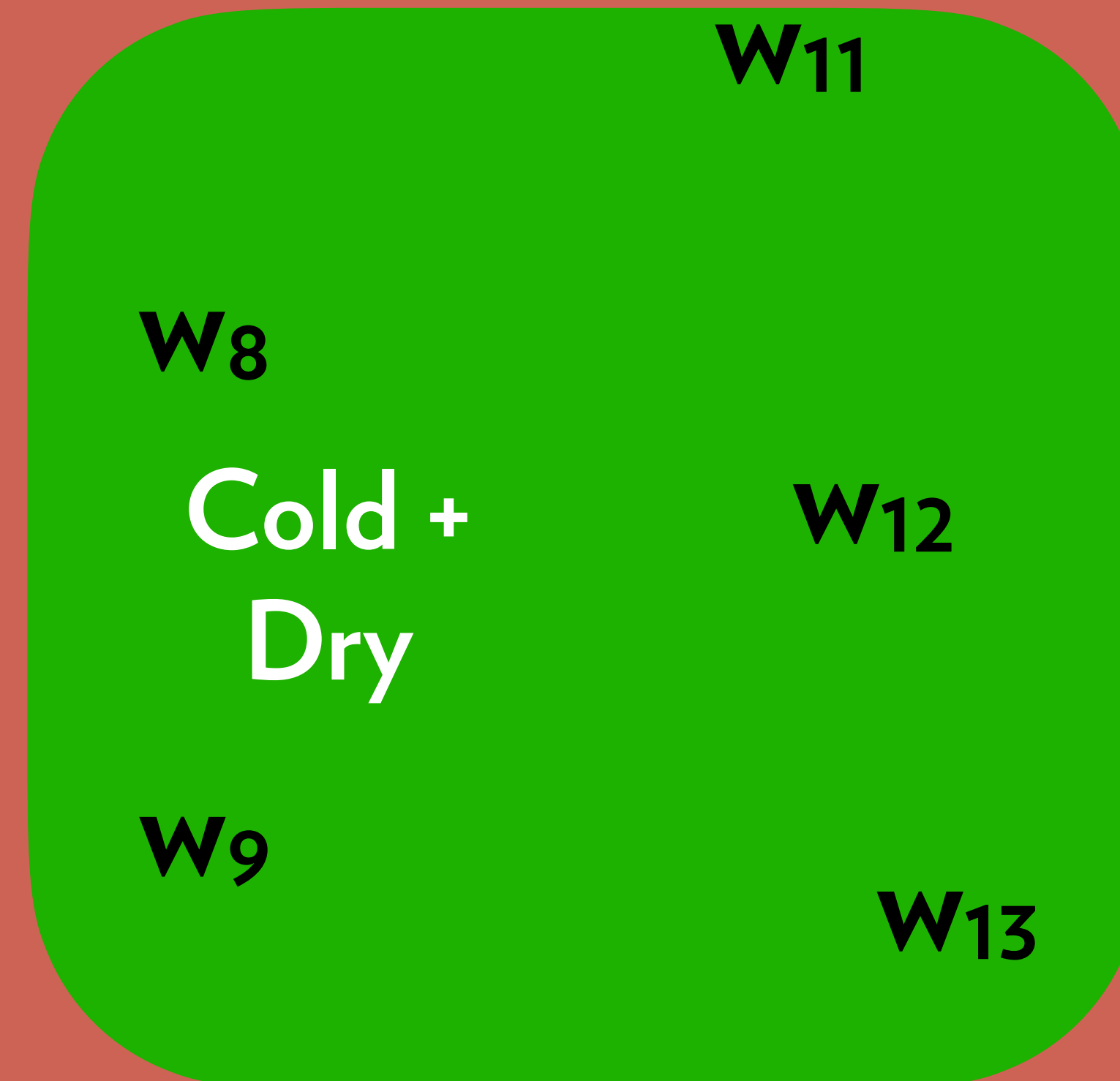
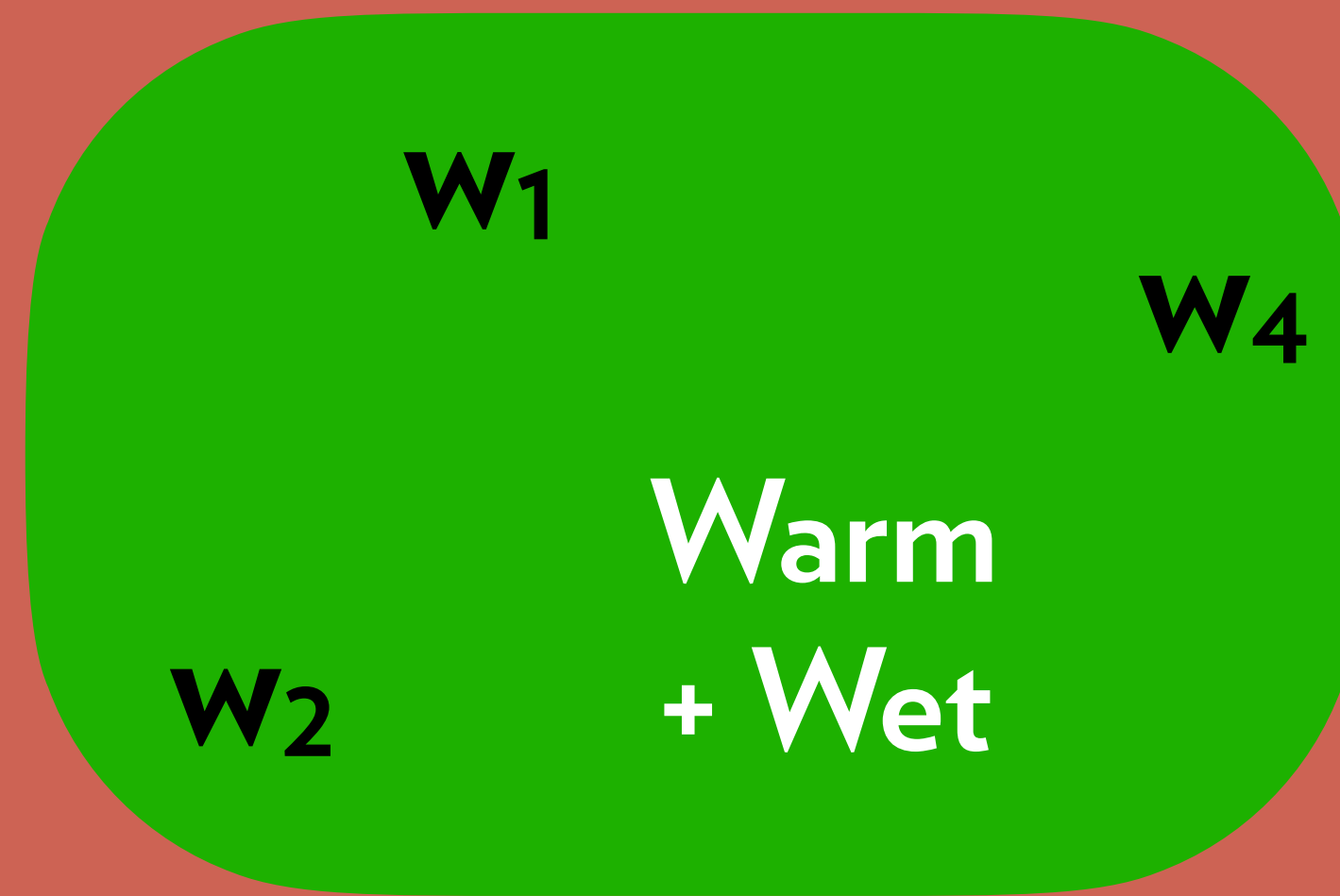
It's cold and  
dry.



QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?

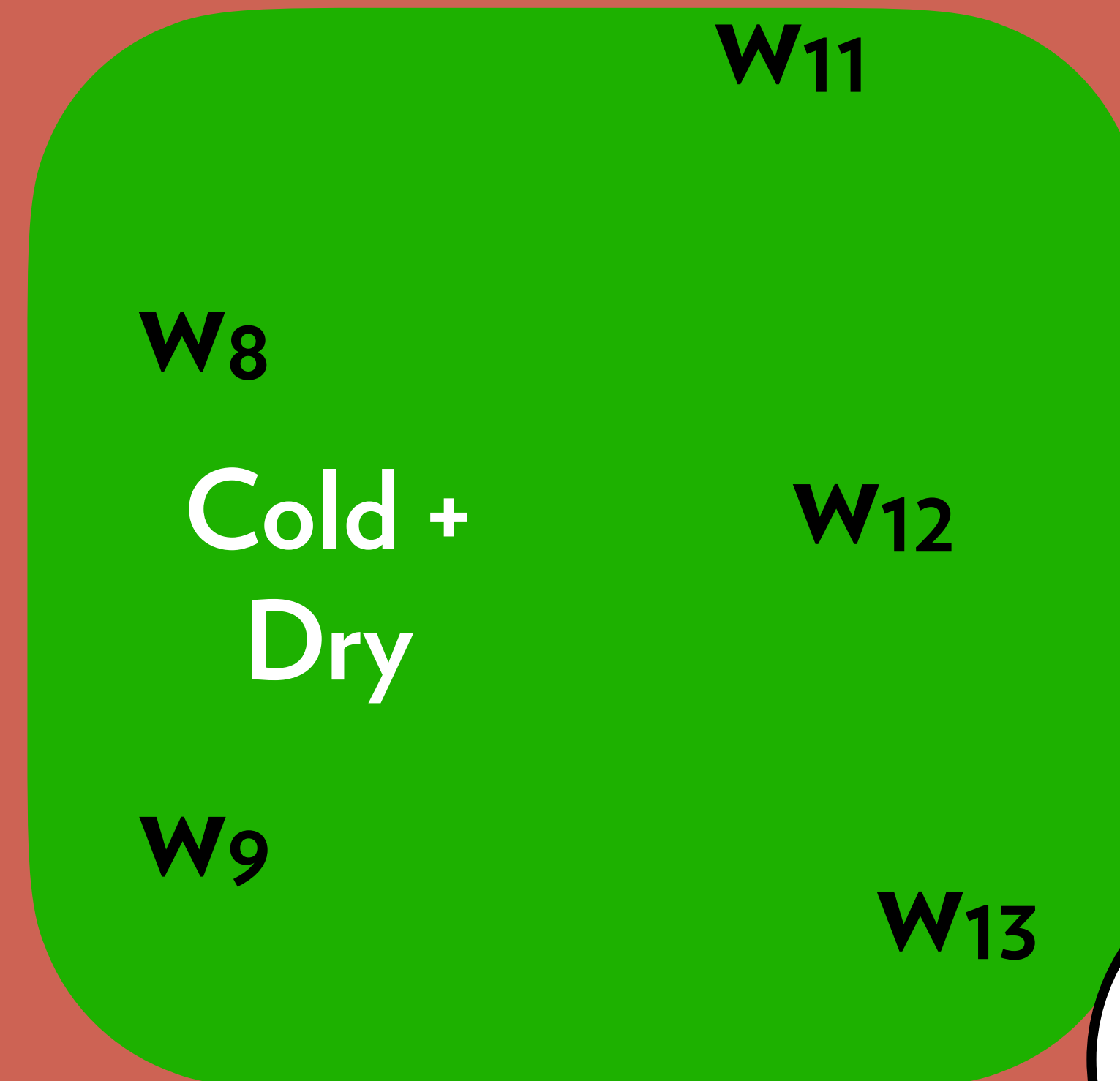
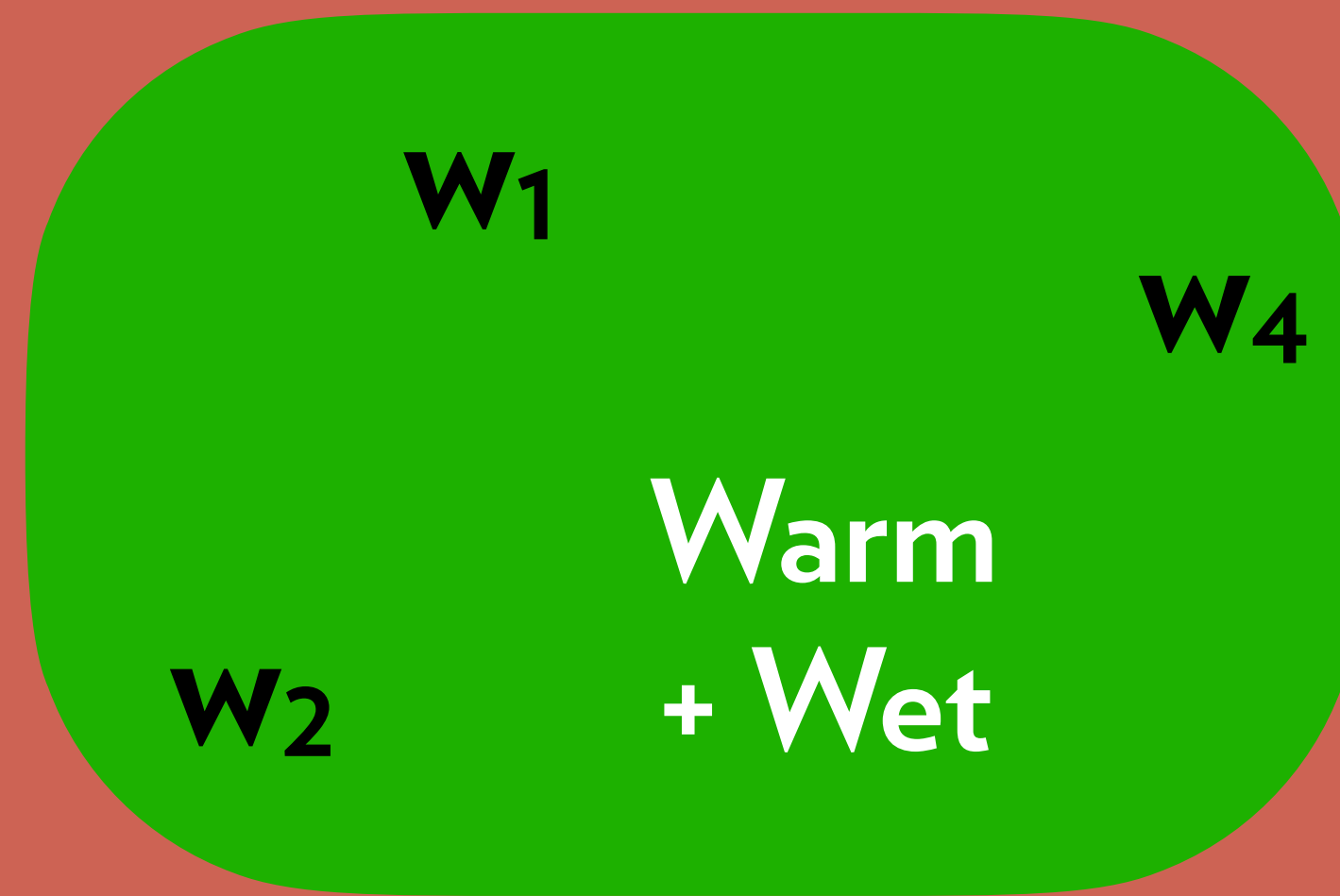


# QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?



How's the  
weather in  
Chicago?

QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?

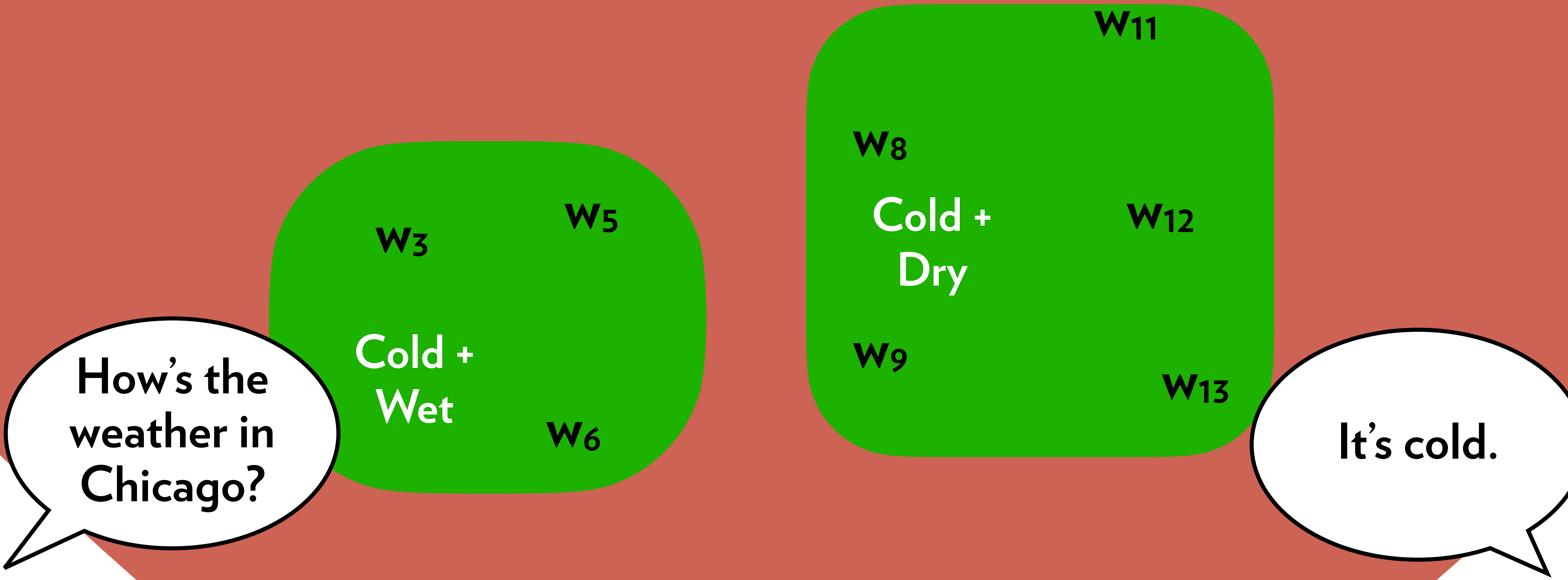


How's the  
weather in  
Chicago?

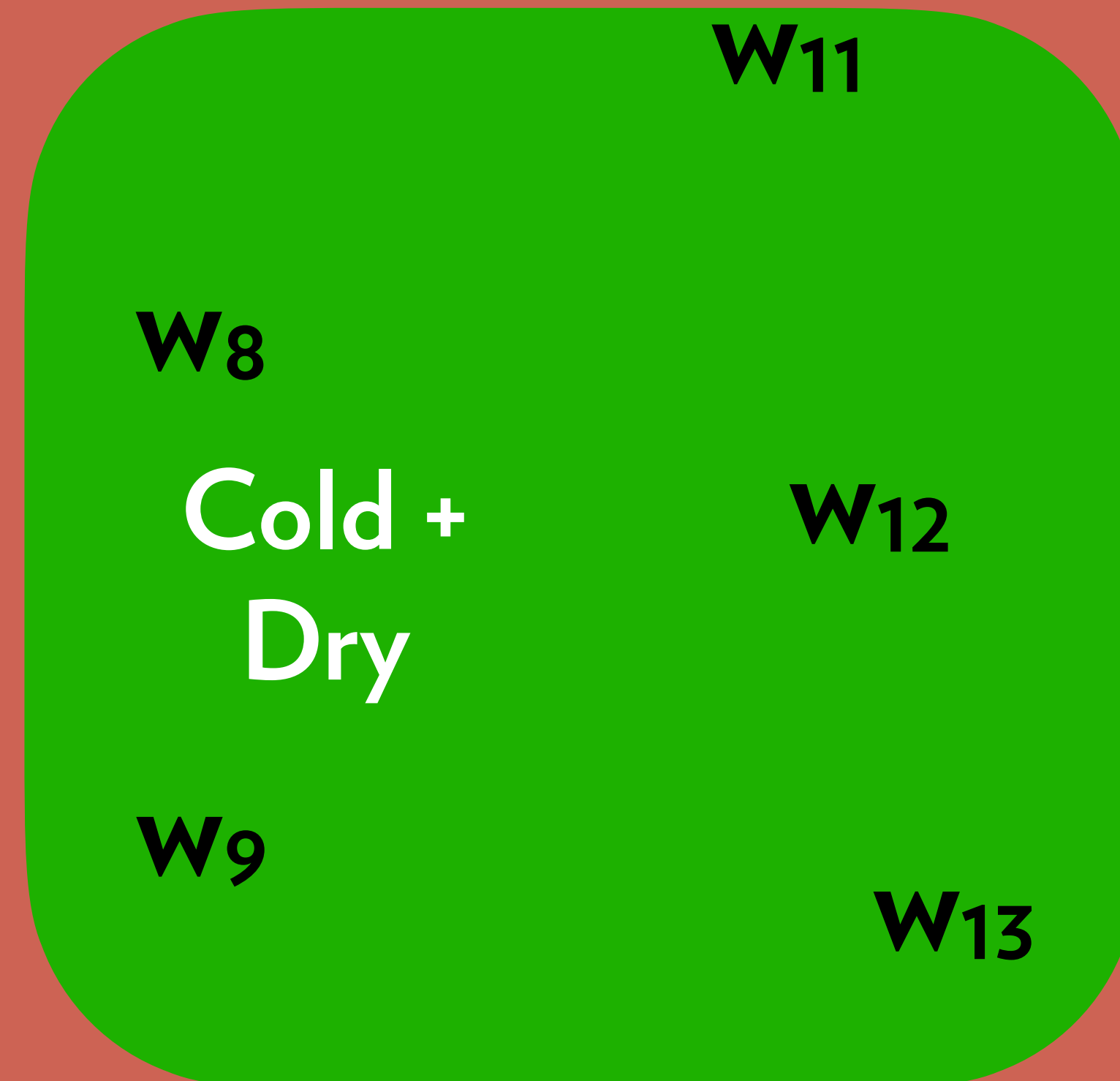
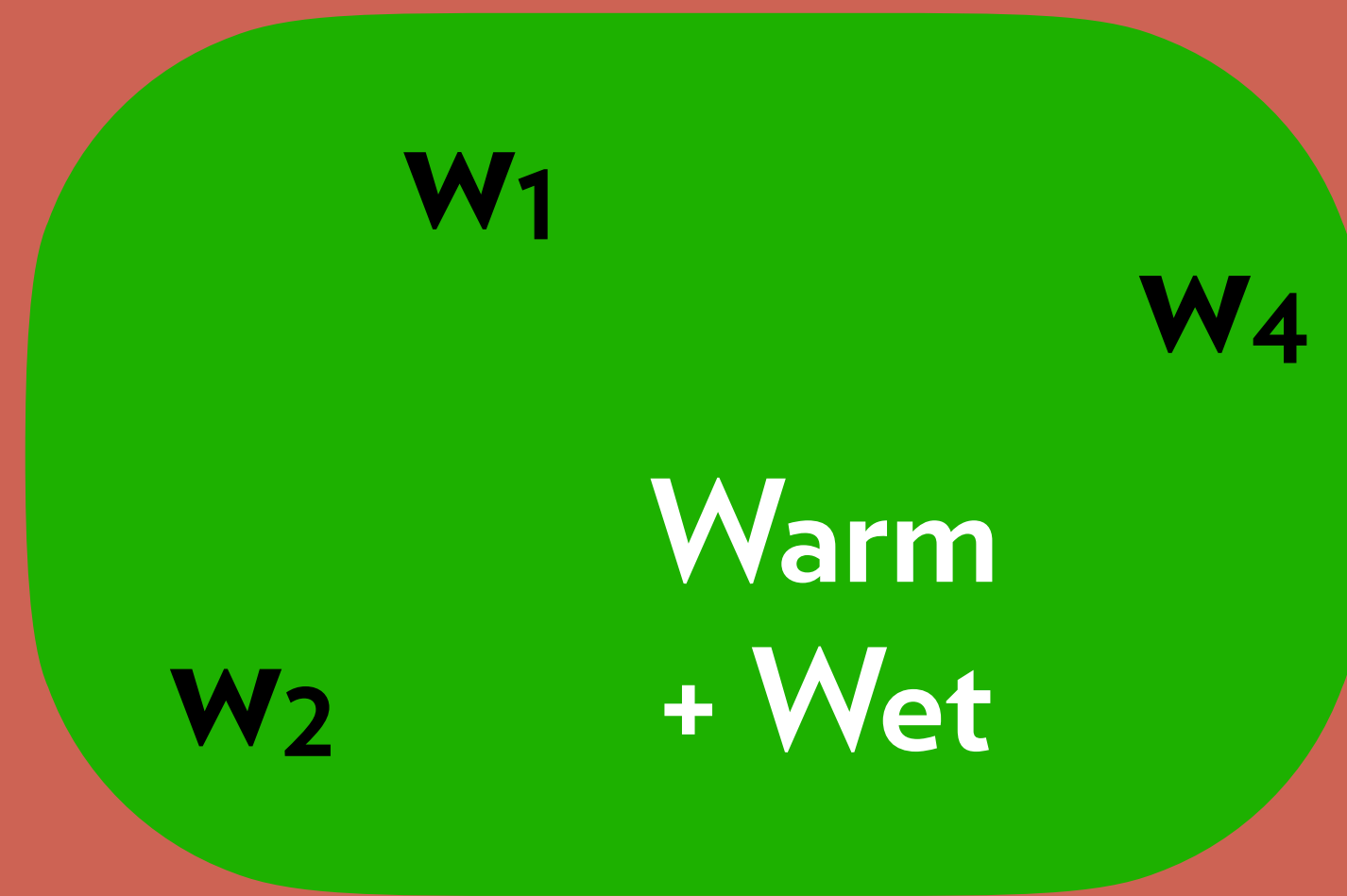
It's cold.



# QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?

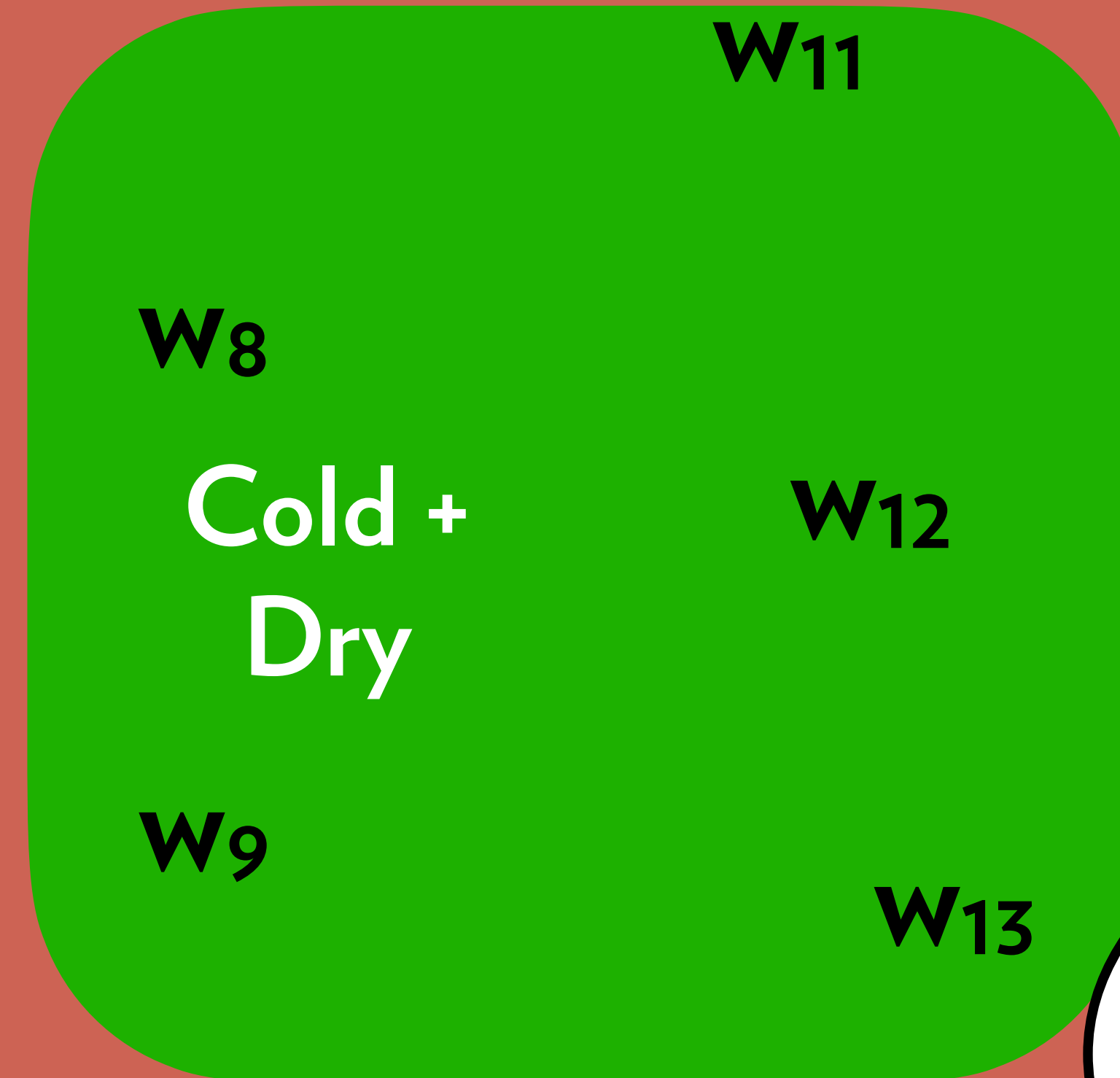
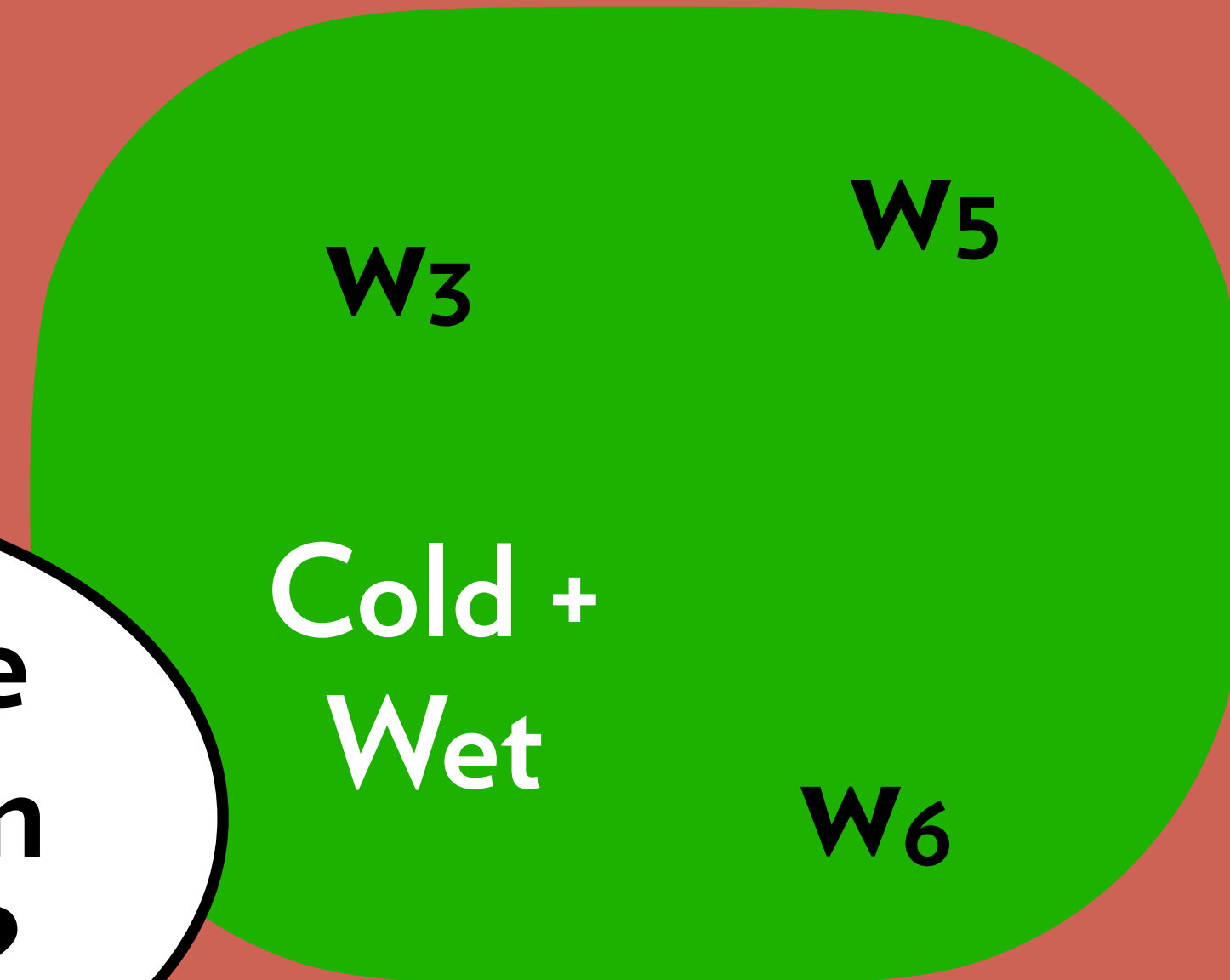
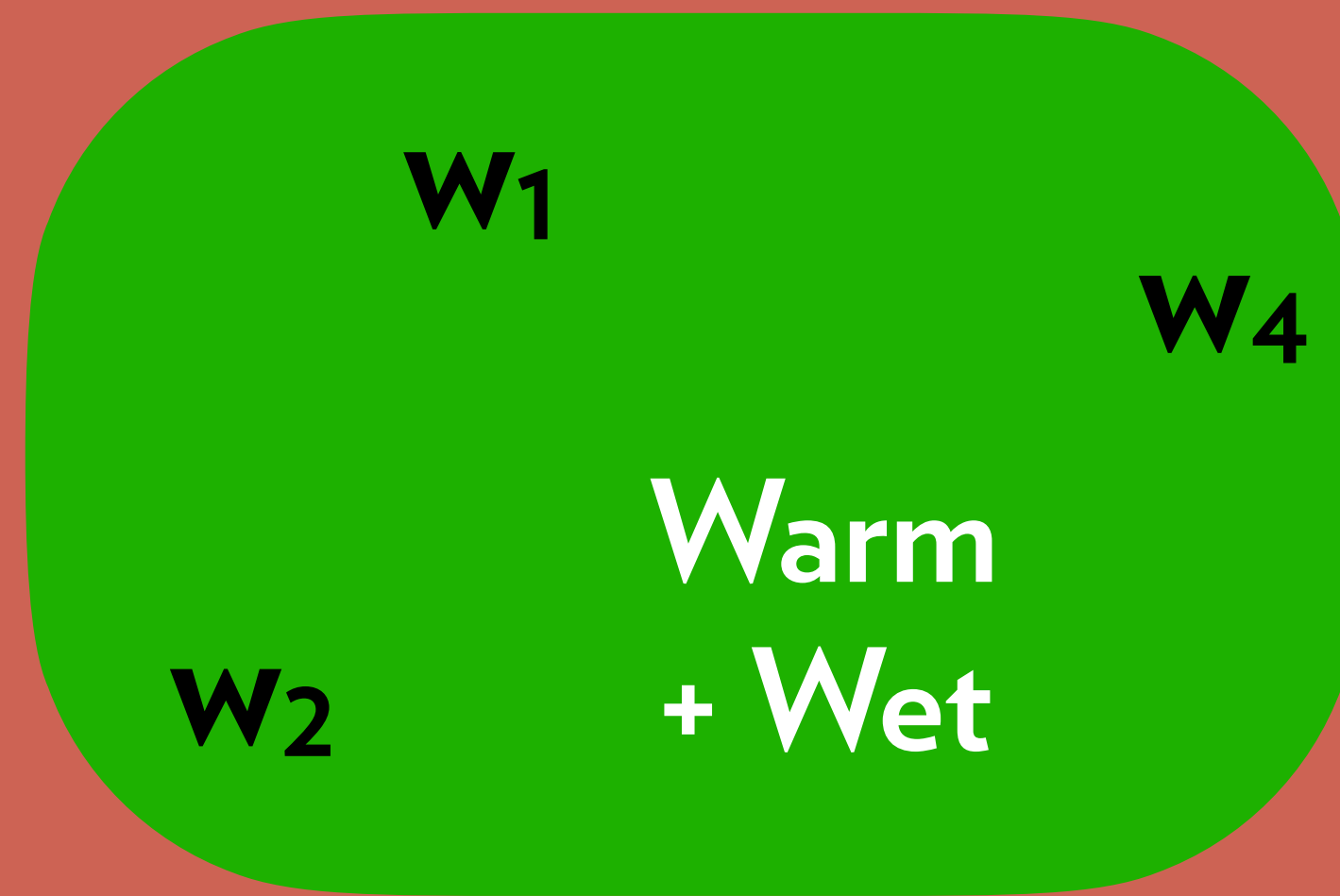


# QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?



How's the  
weather in  
Chicago?

# QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?



How's the weather in Chicago?

They have tall buildings.

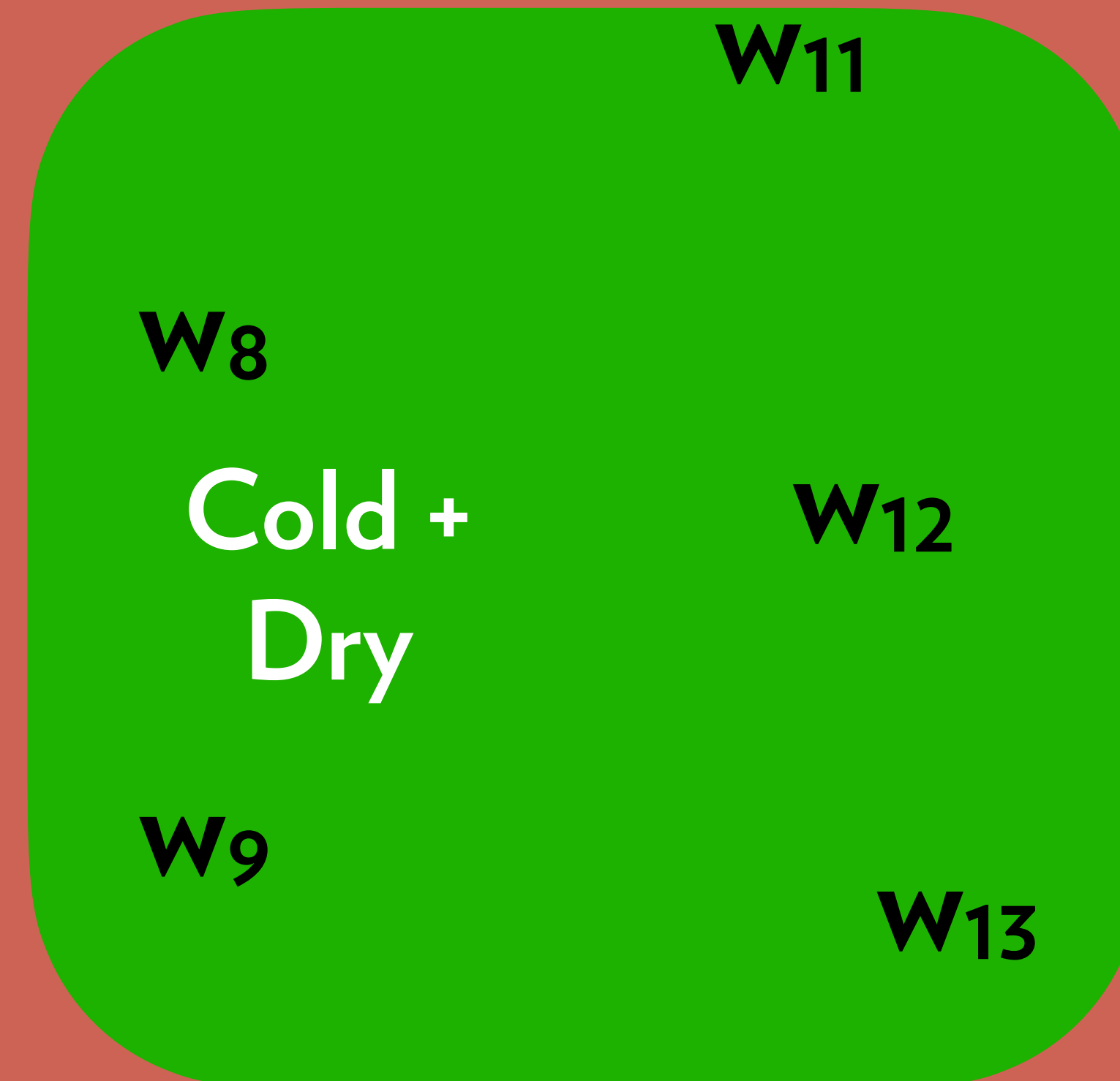
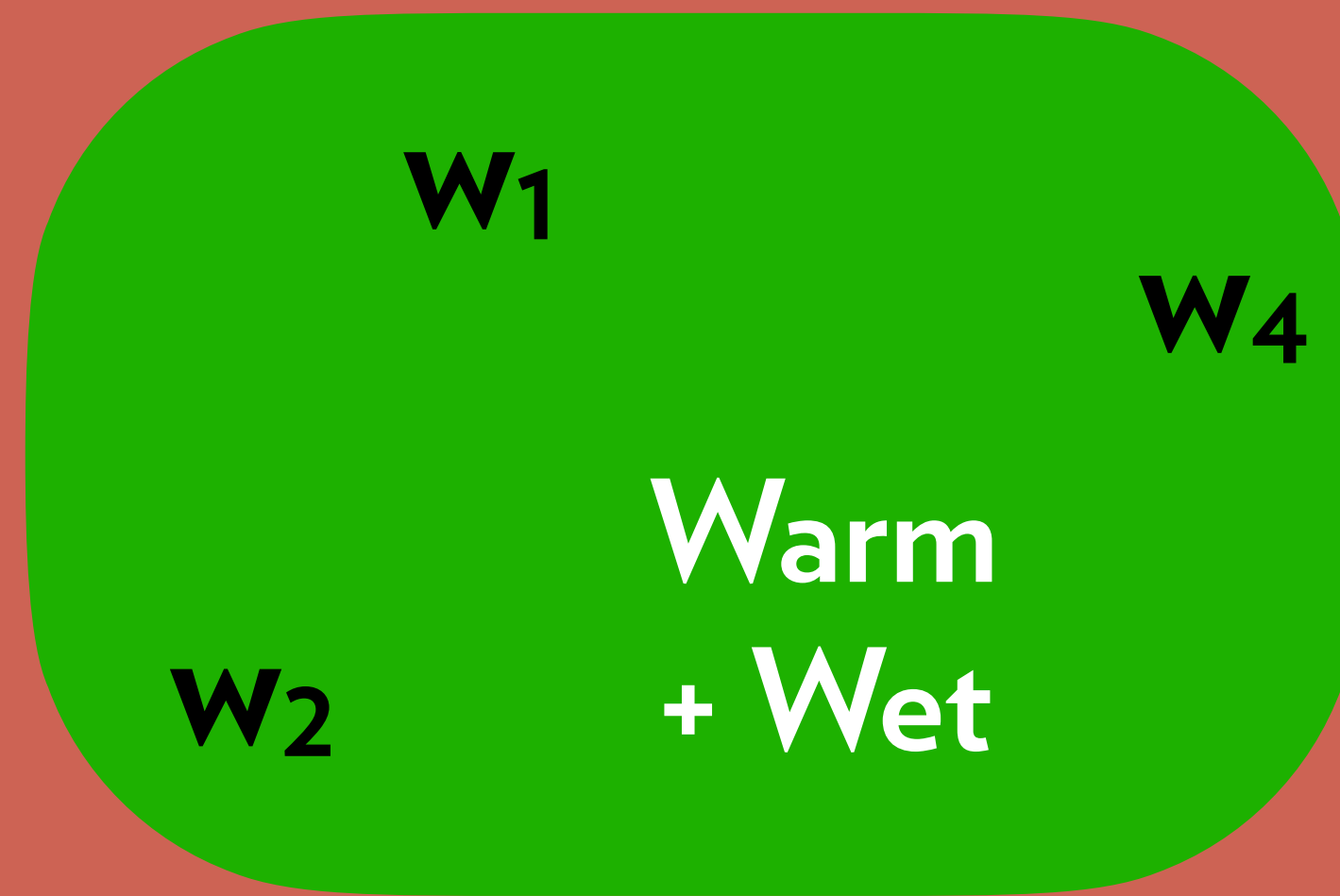


# QUDs and Relevance

A speech act is relevant to the question Q iff:

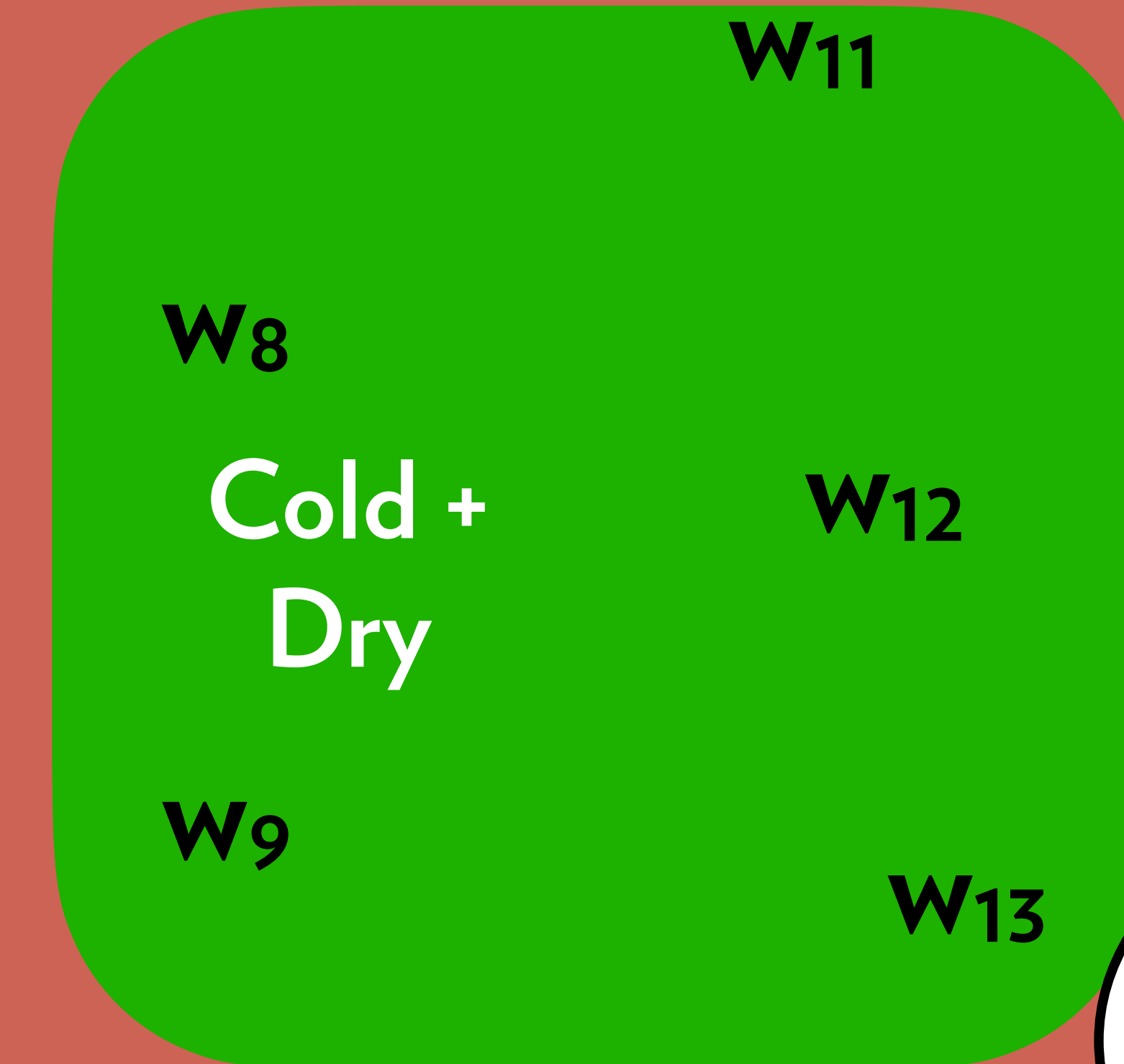
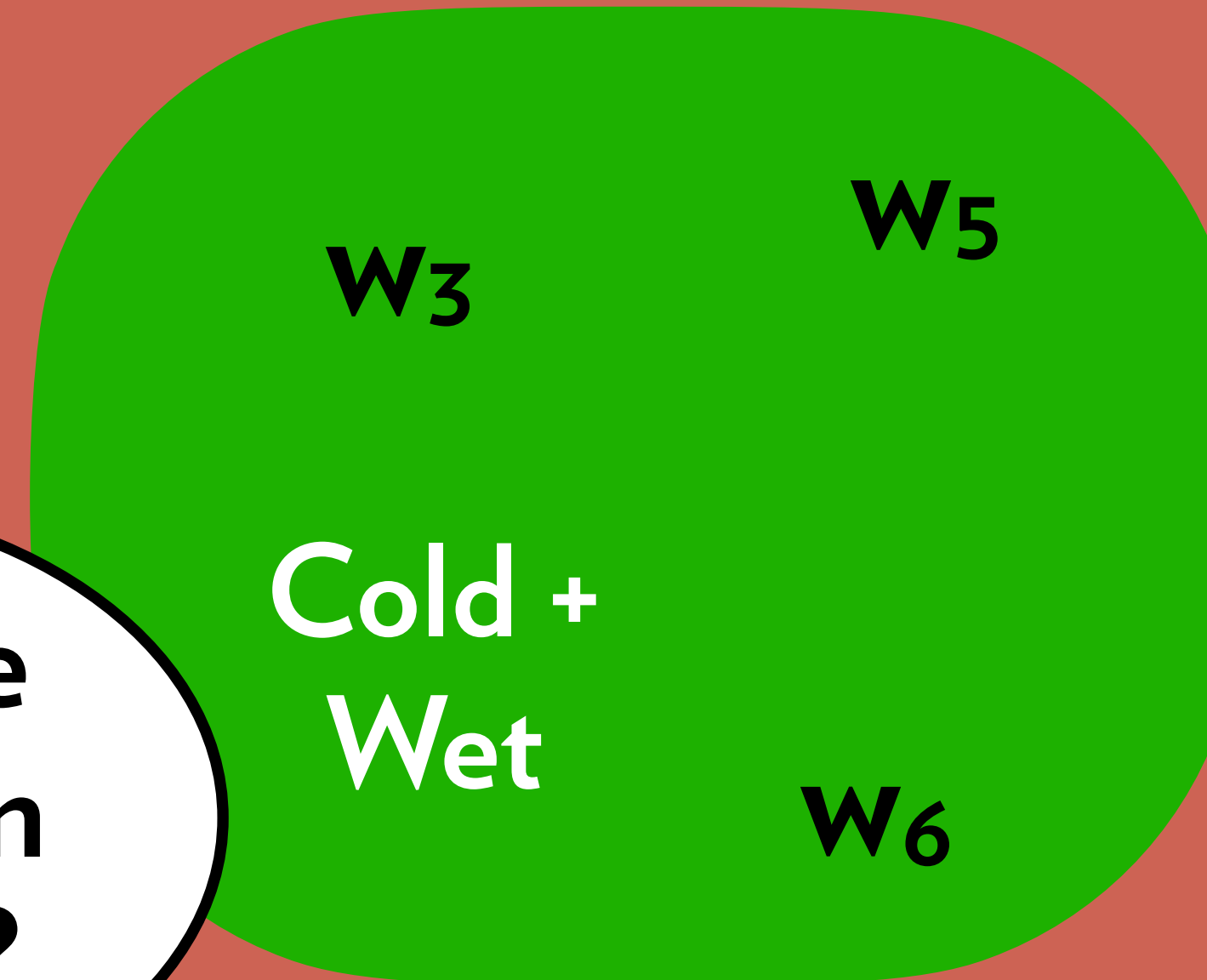
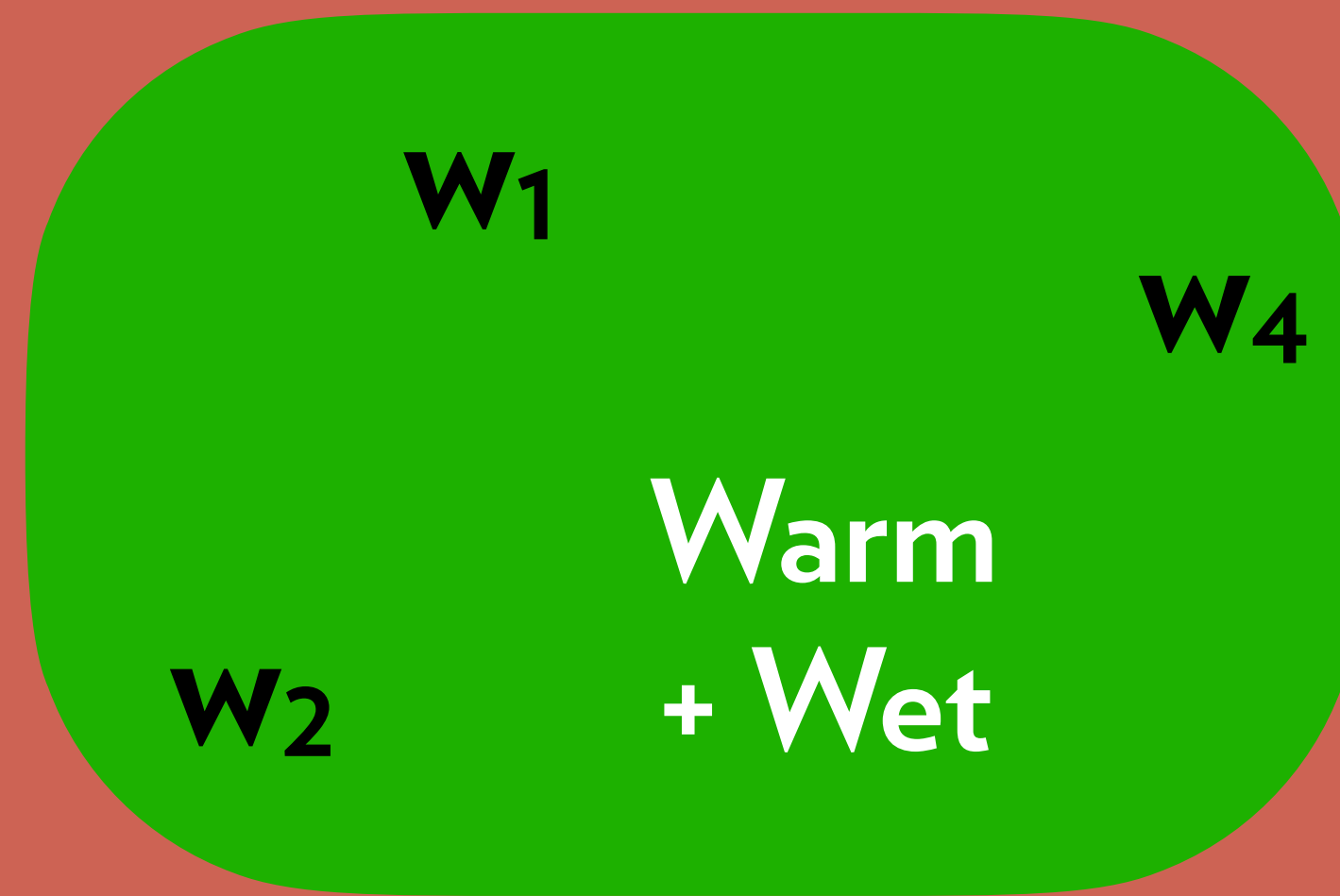
- It is an assertion that at least partially answers the QUD

# QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?



How's the weather in Chicago?

# QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?

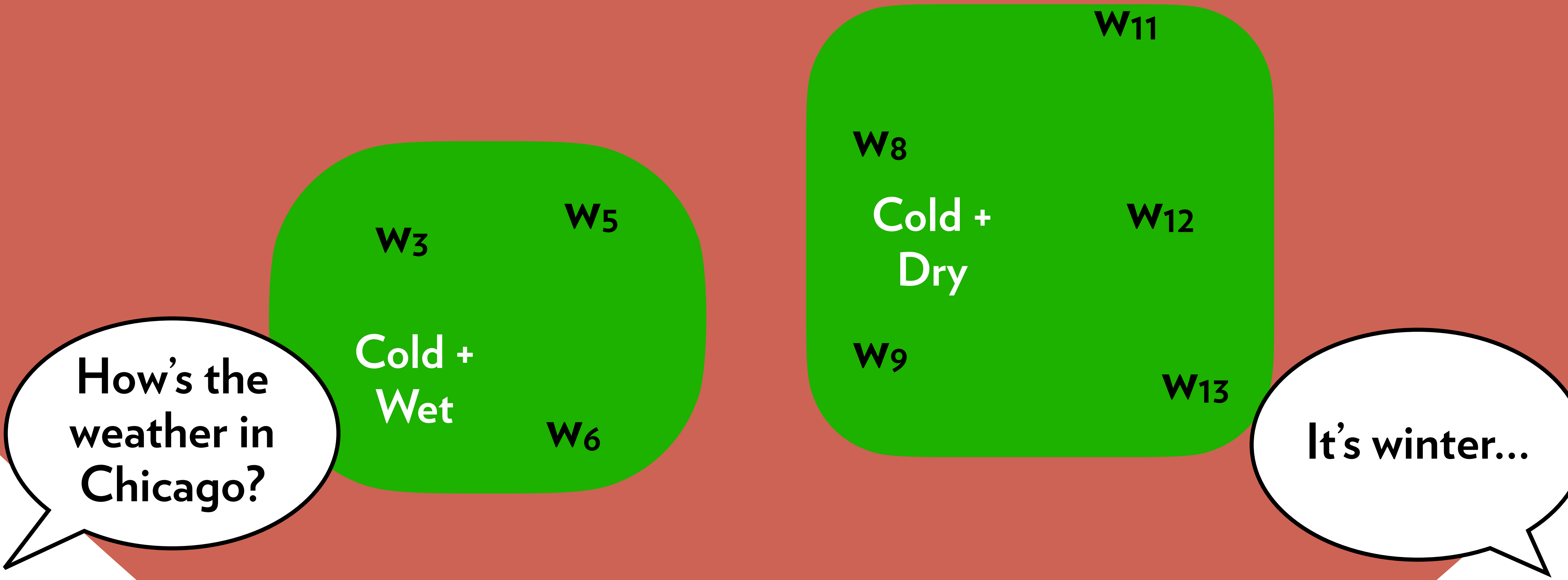


How's the weather in Chicago?

It's winter...



# QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?

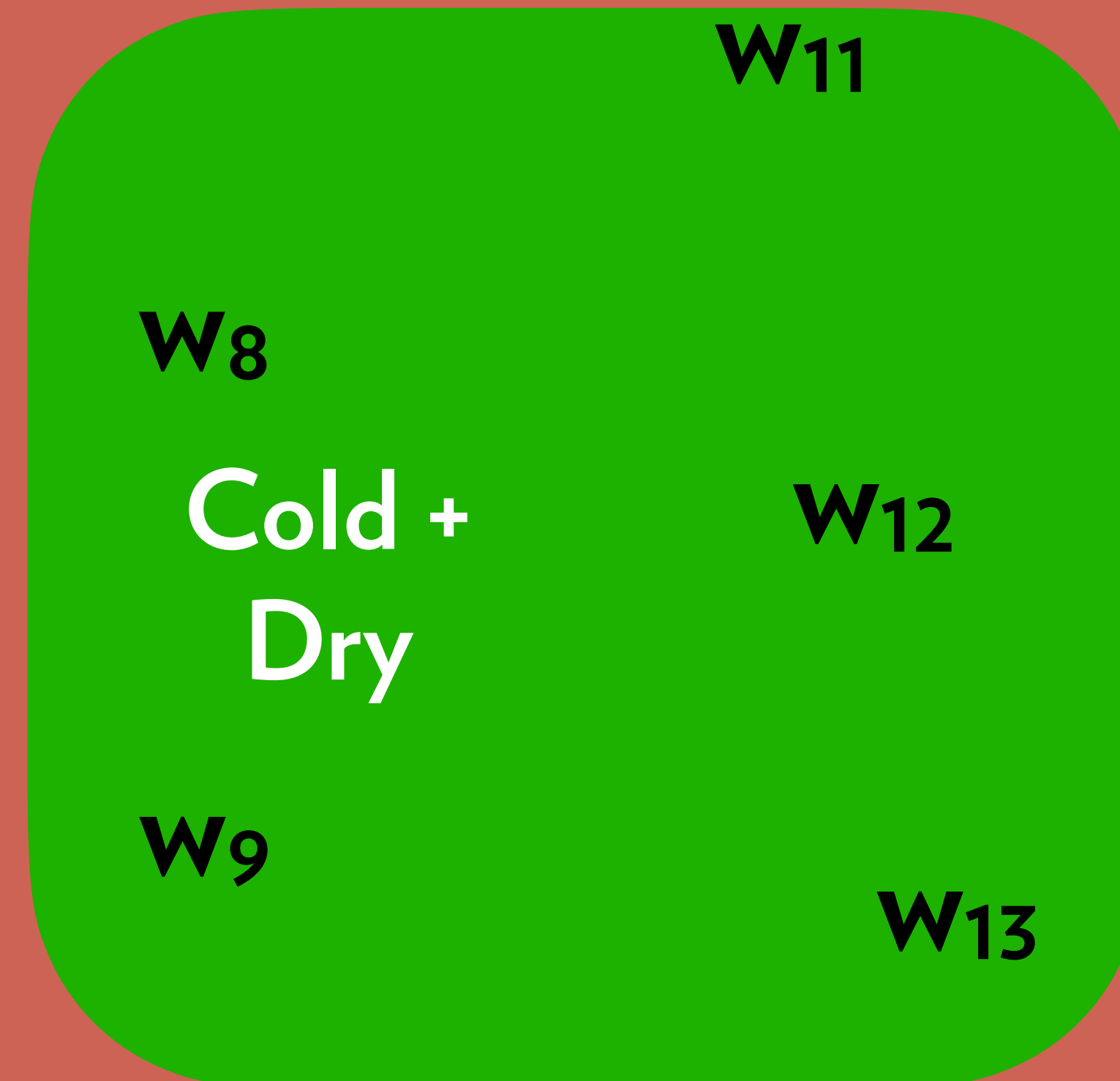
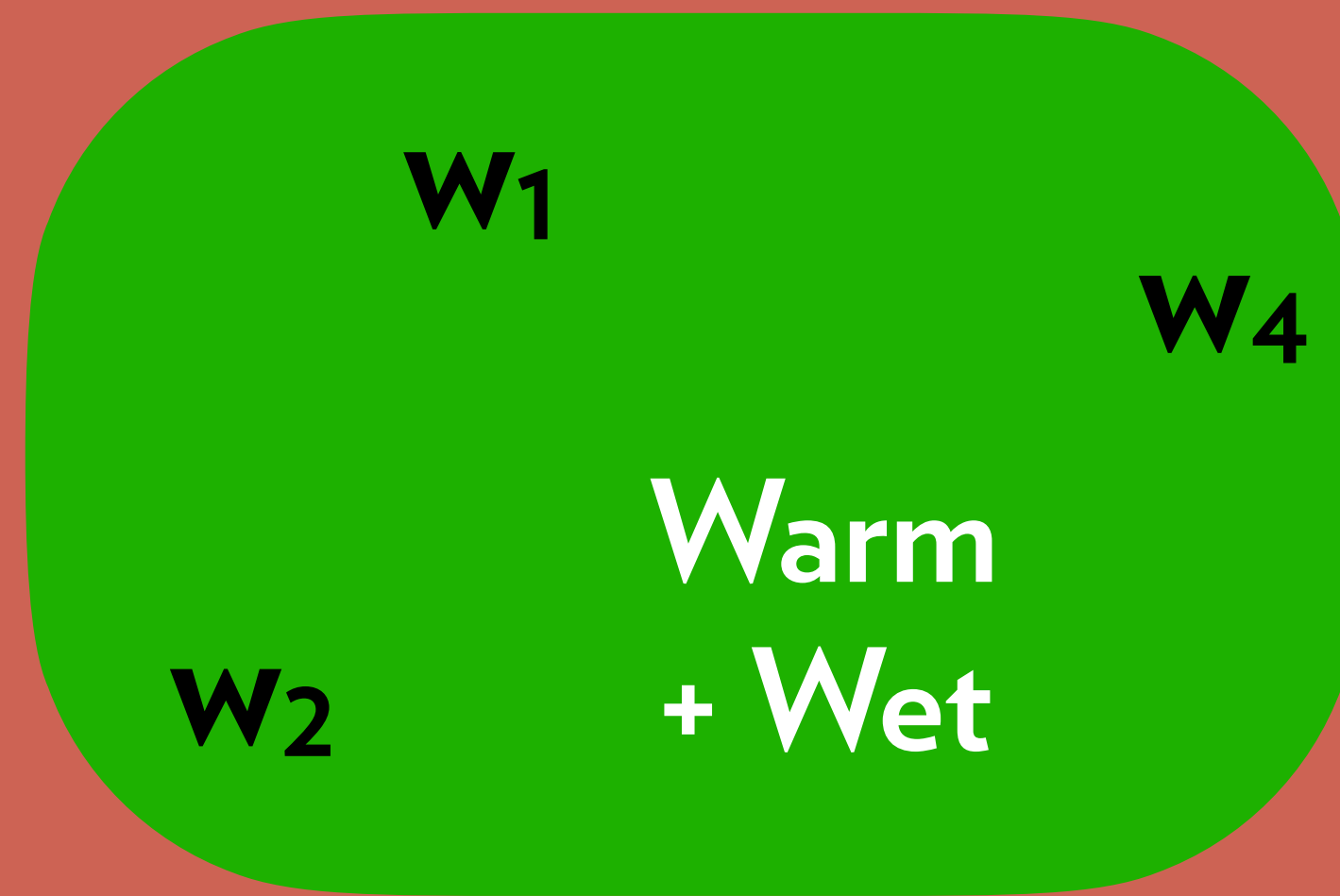


# QUDs and Relevance

A speech act is relevant to the question Q iff:

- It is an assertion that at least partially answers the QUD
- (Or can be interpreted as implying a partial answer.)

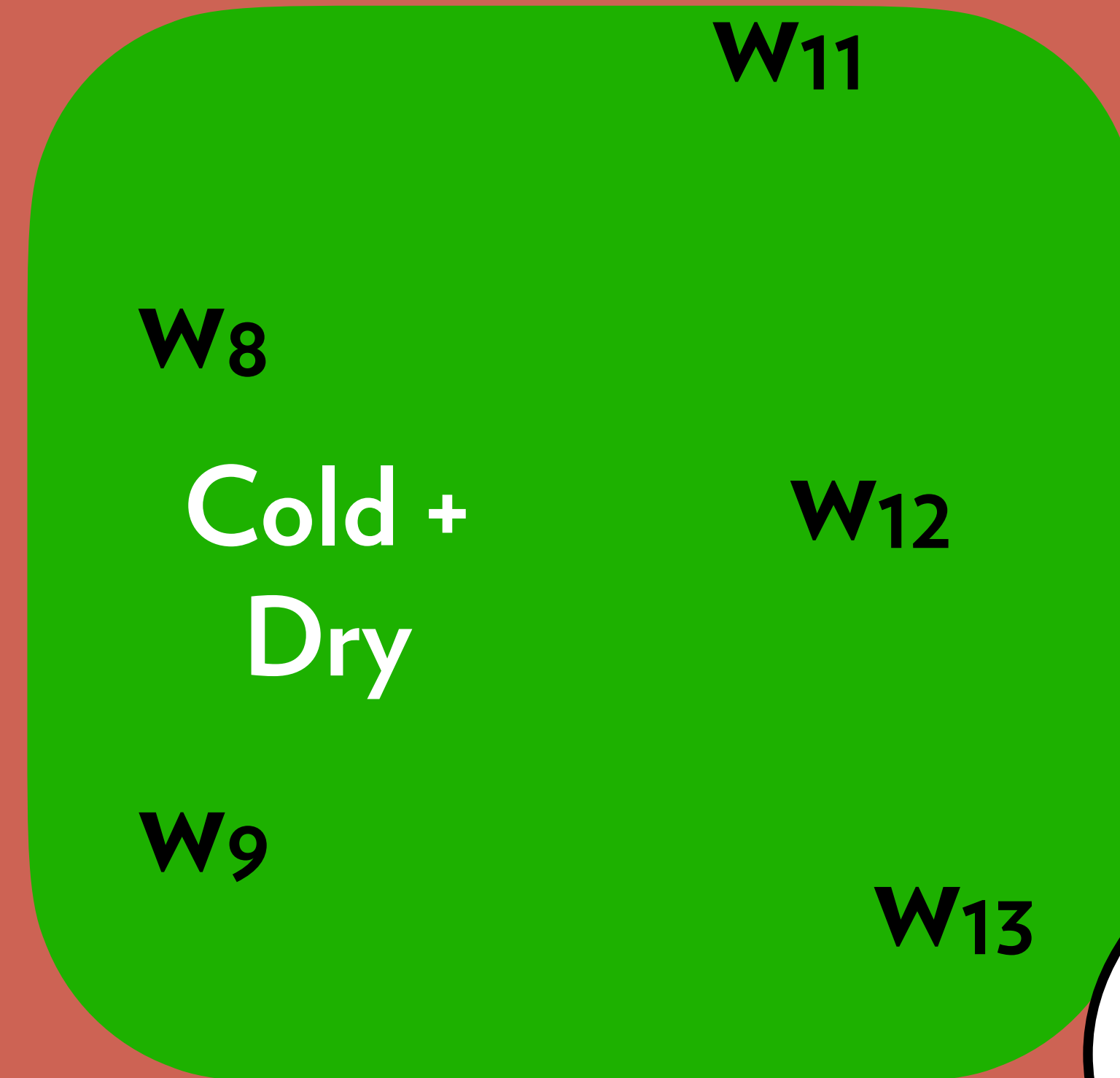
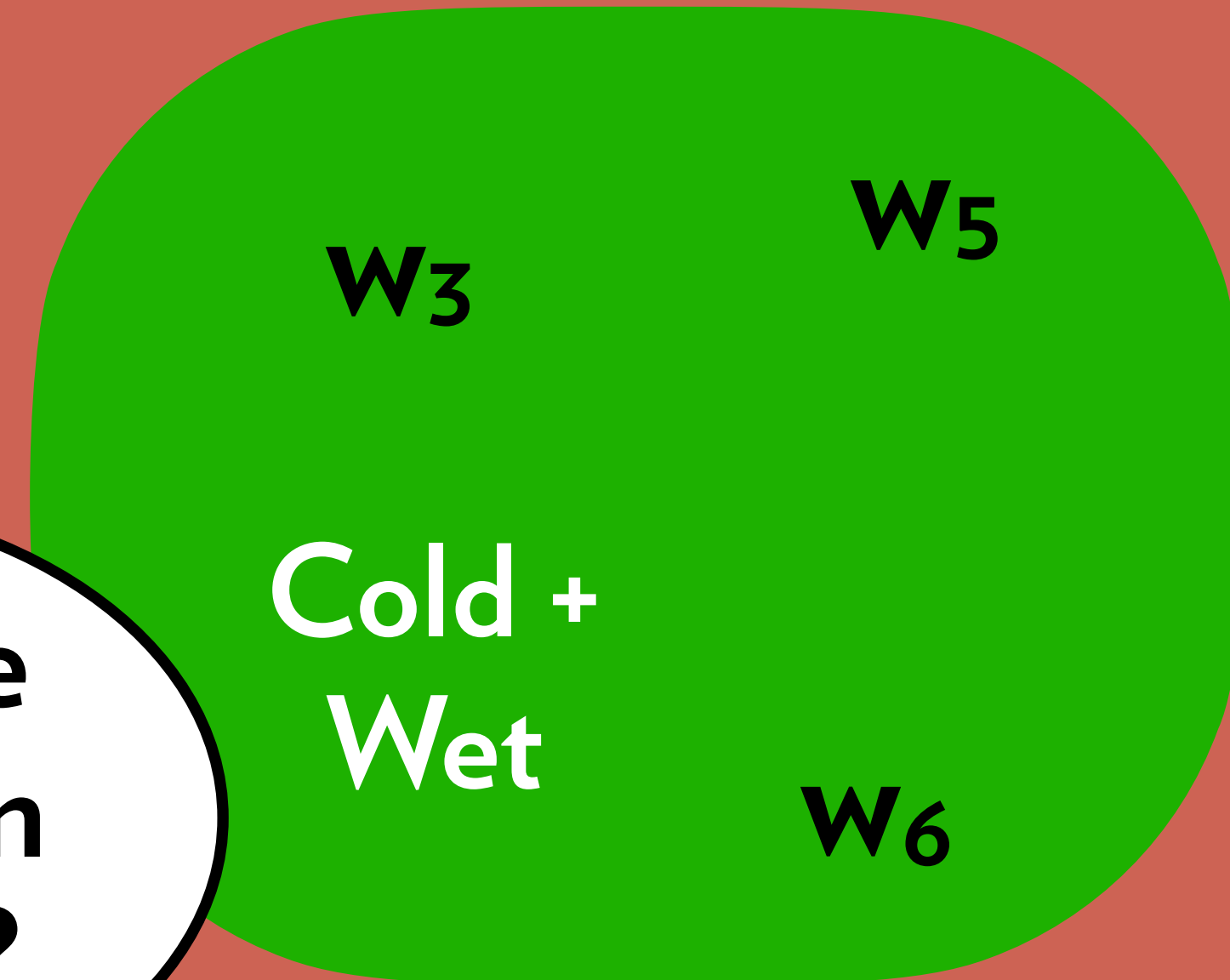
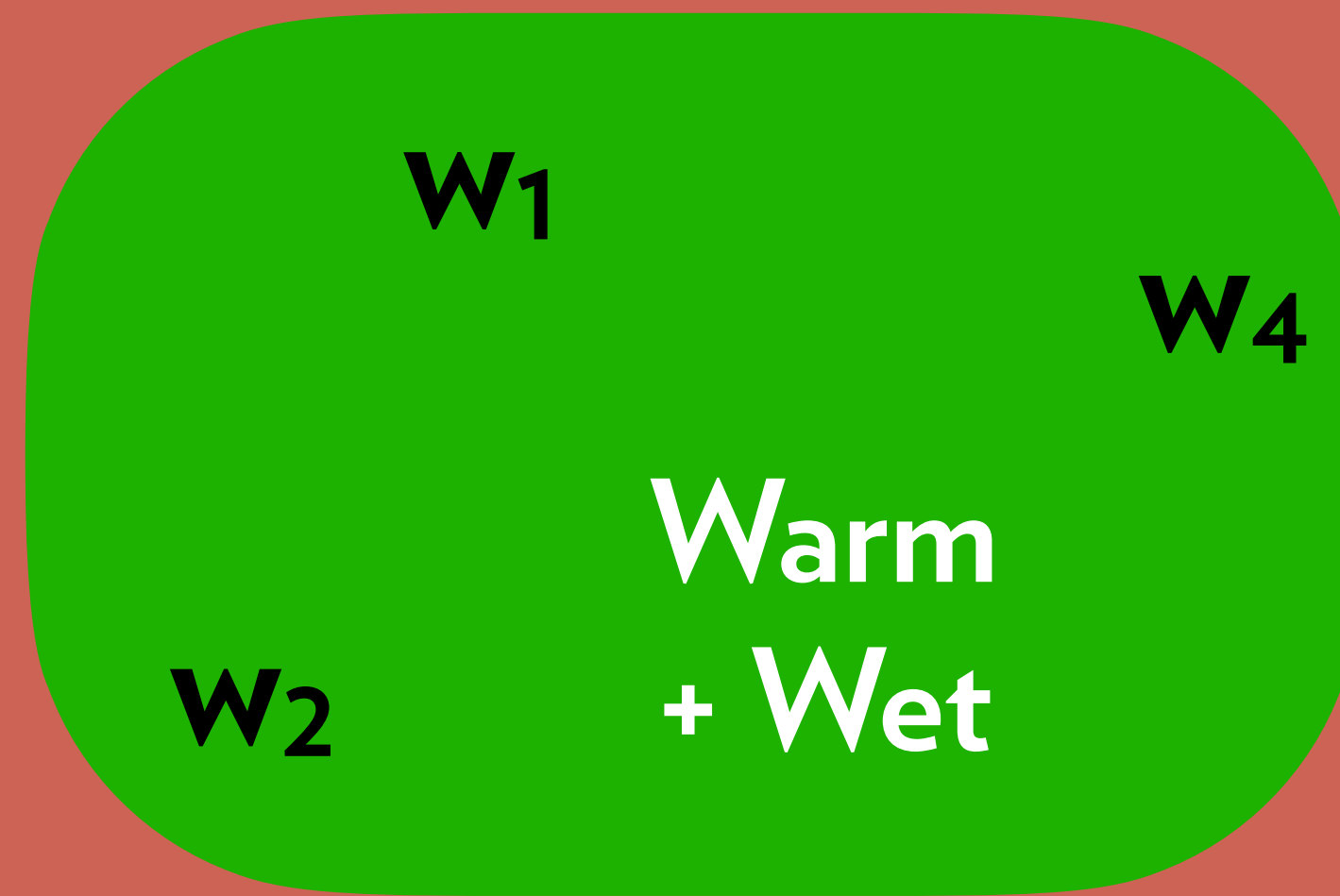
# QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?



How's the  
weather in  
Chicago?



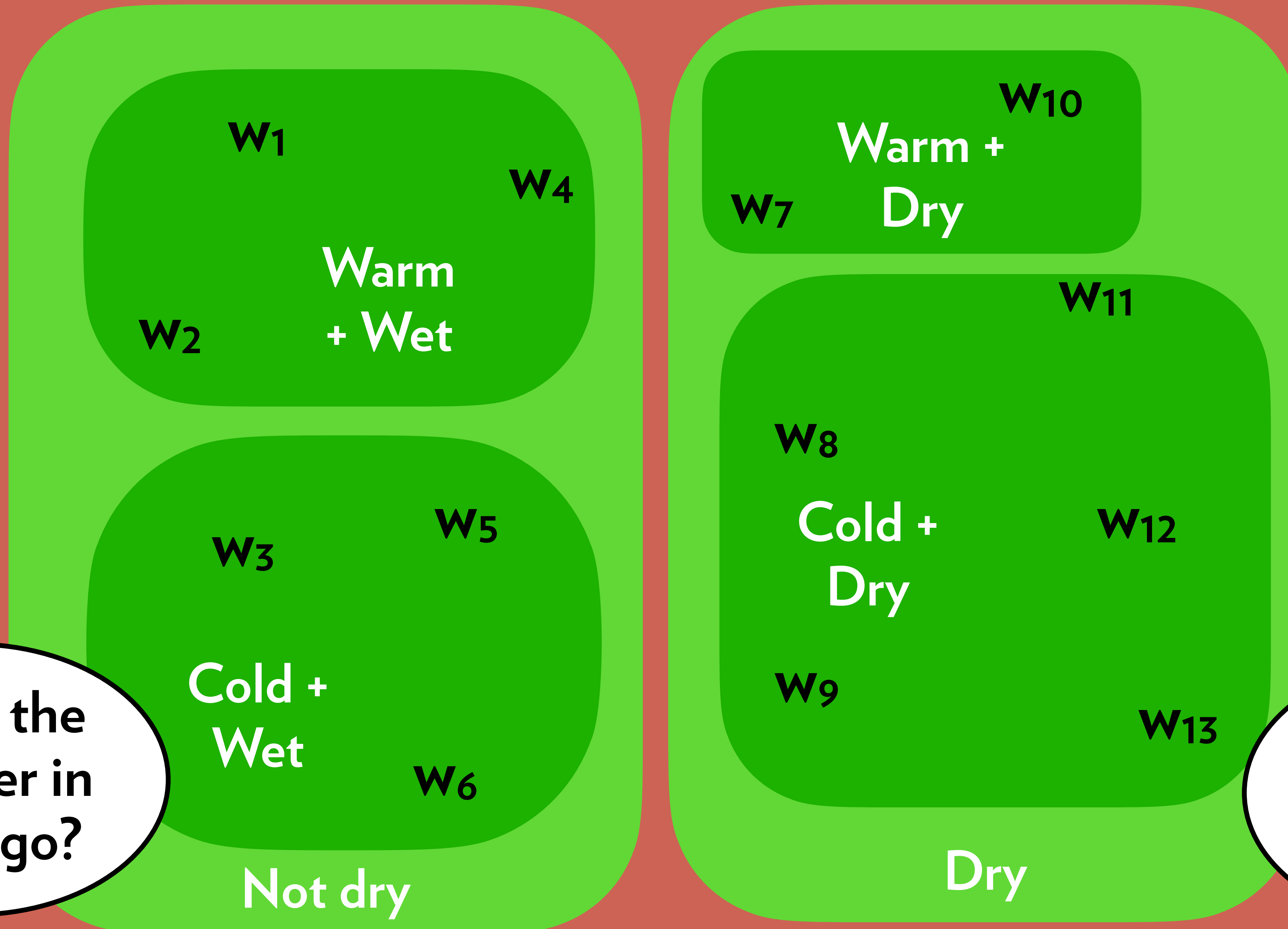
# QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?



How's the  
weather in  
Chicago?

Is it dry?

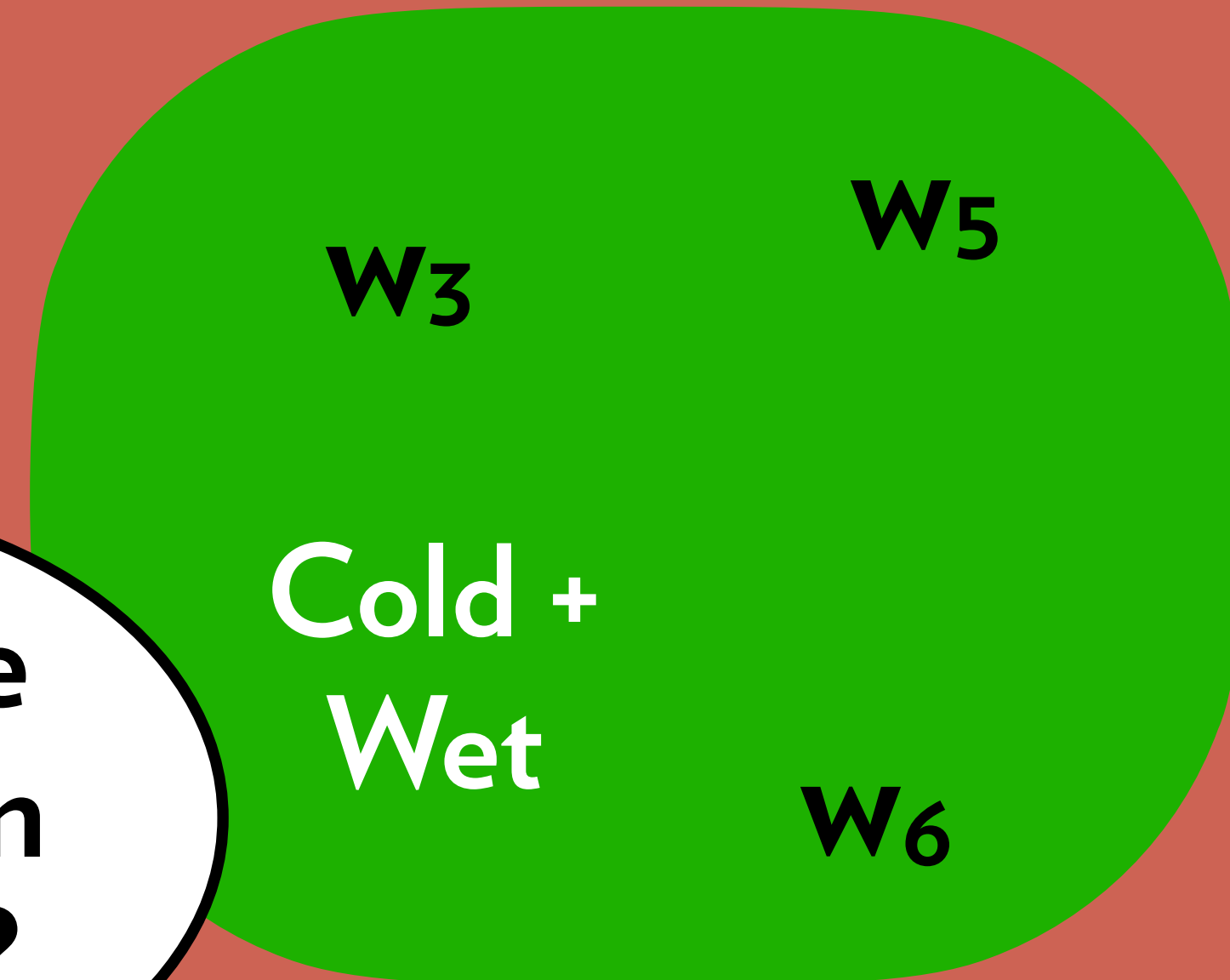
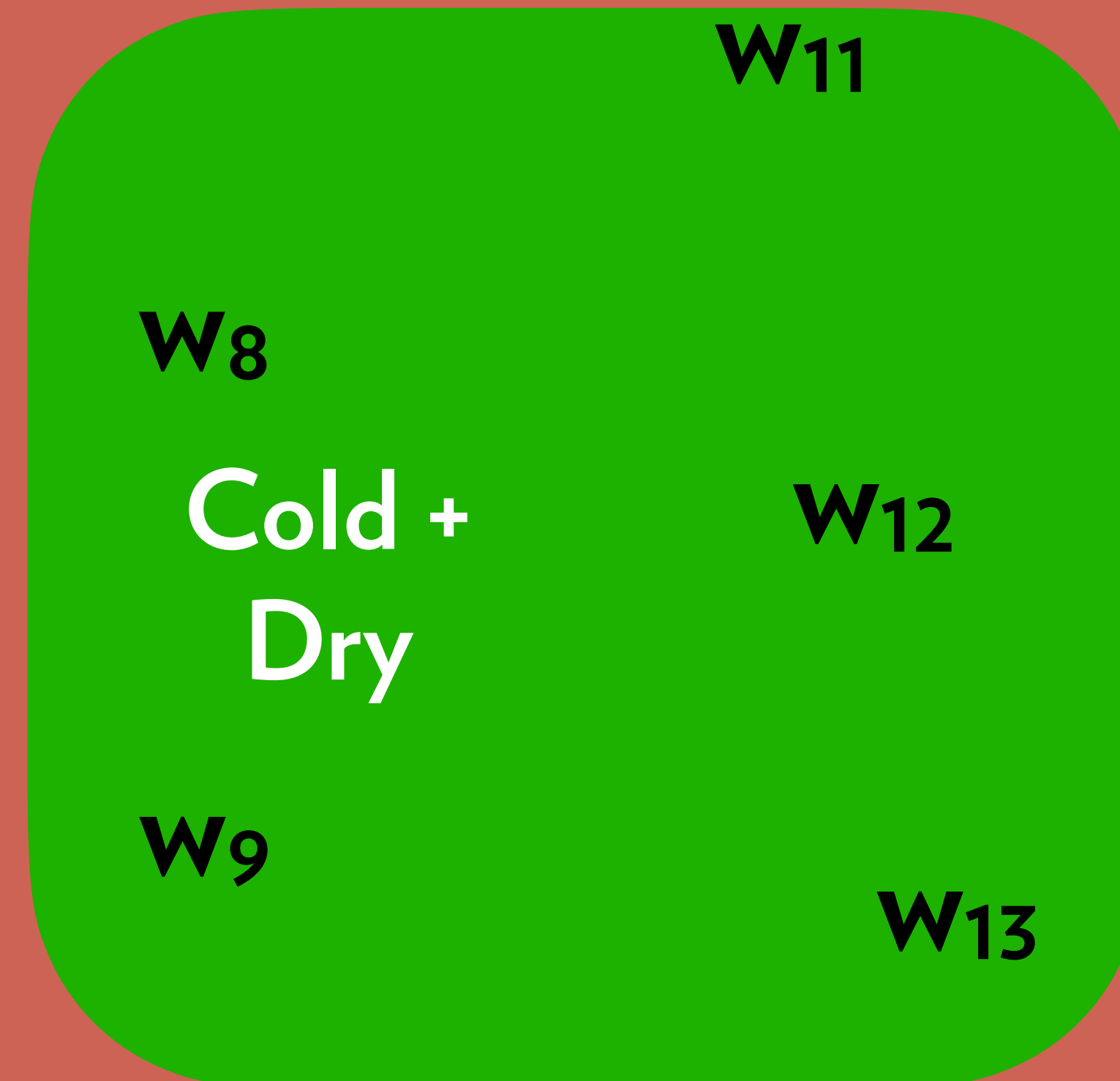
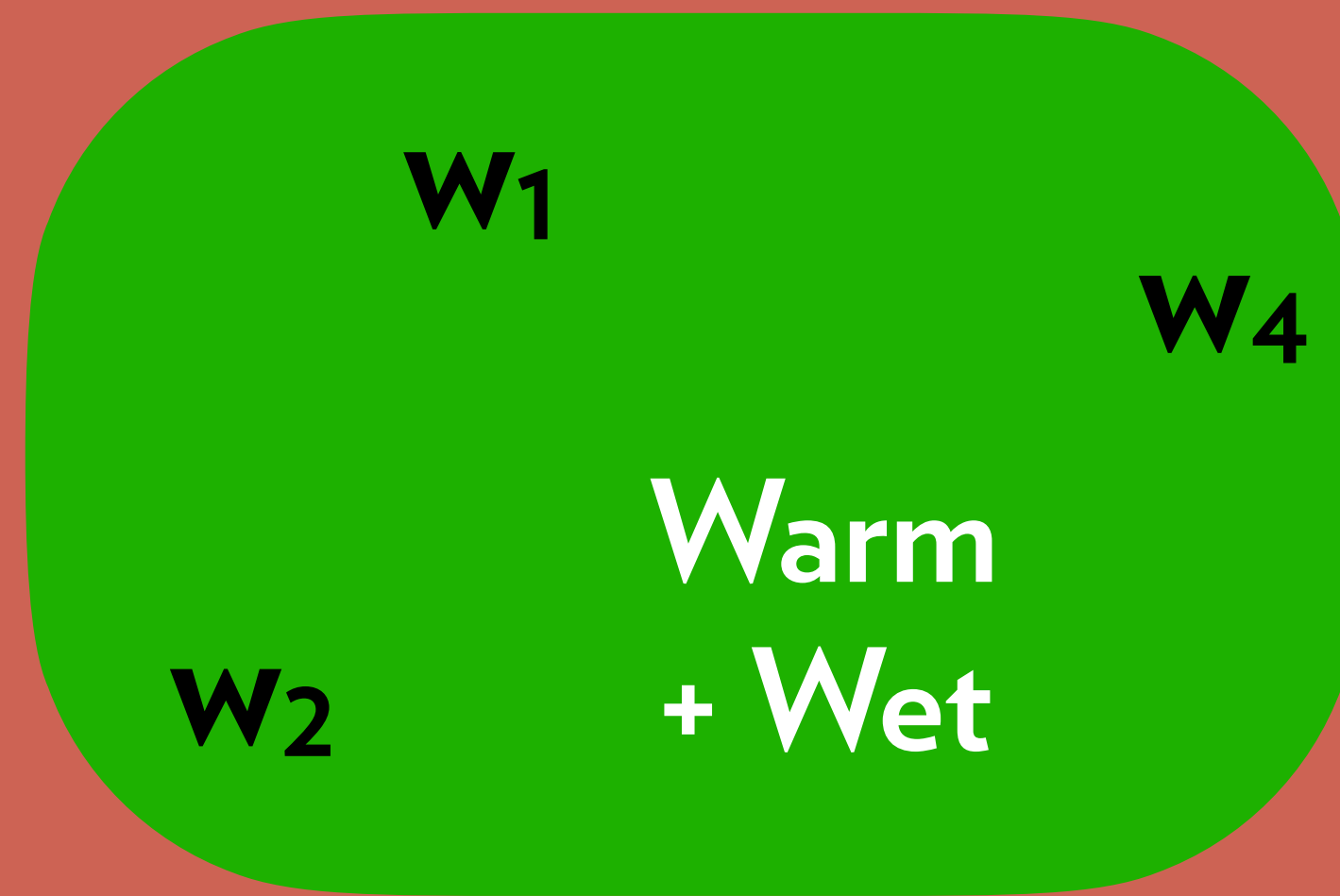
QUD: Is the weather in Chicago dry?



How's the weather in Chicago?

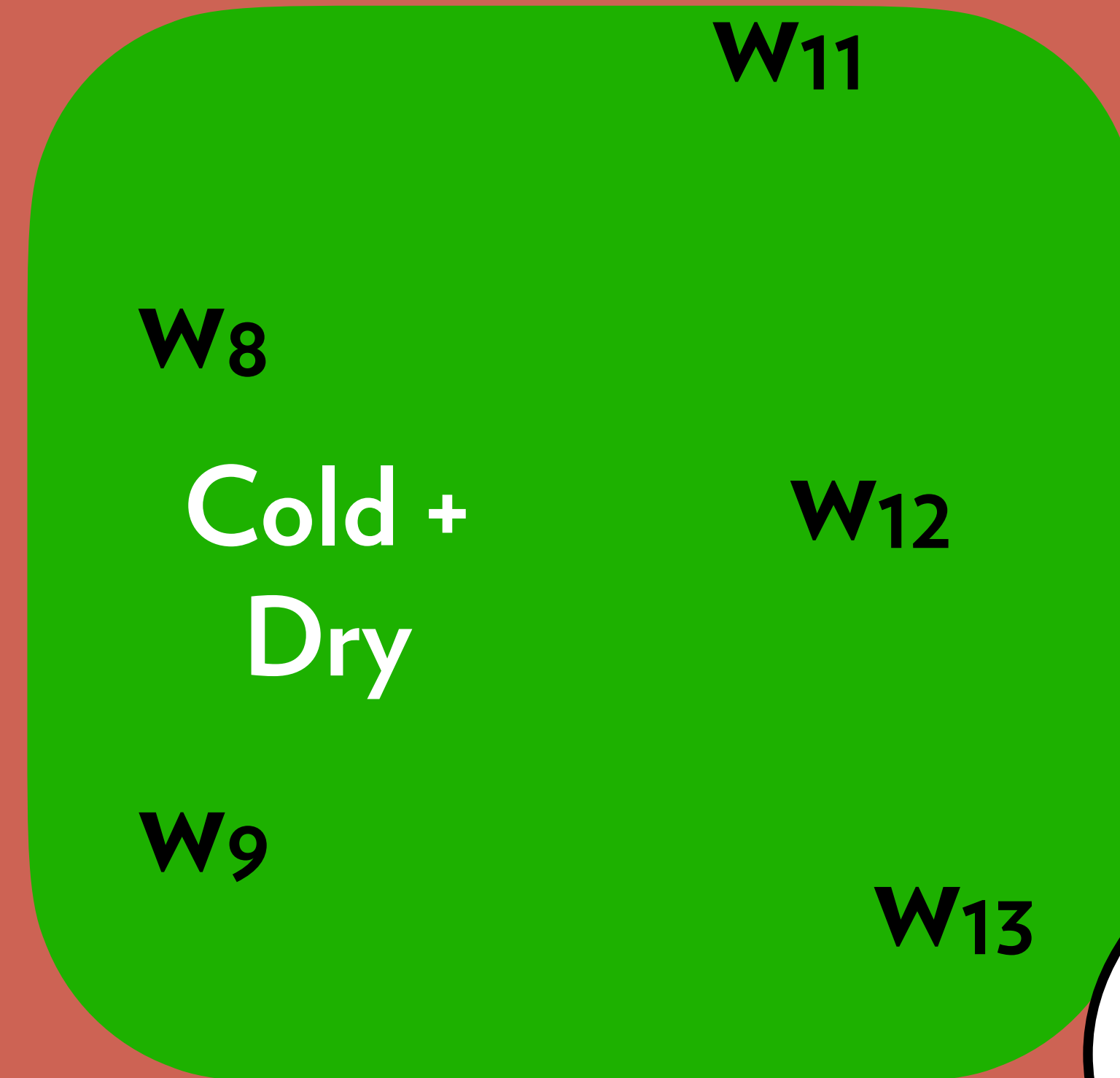
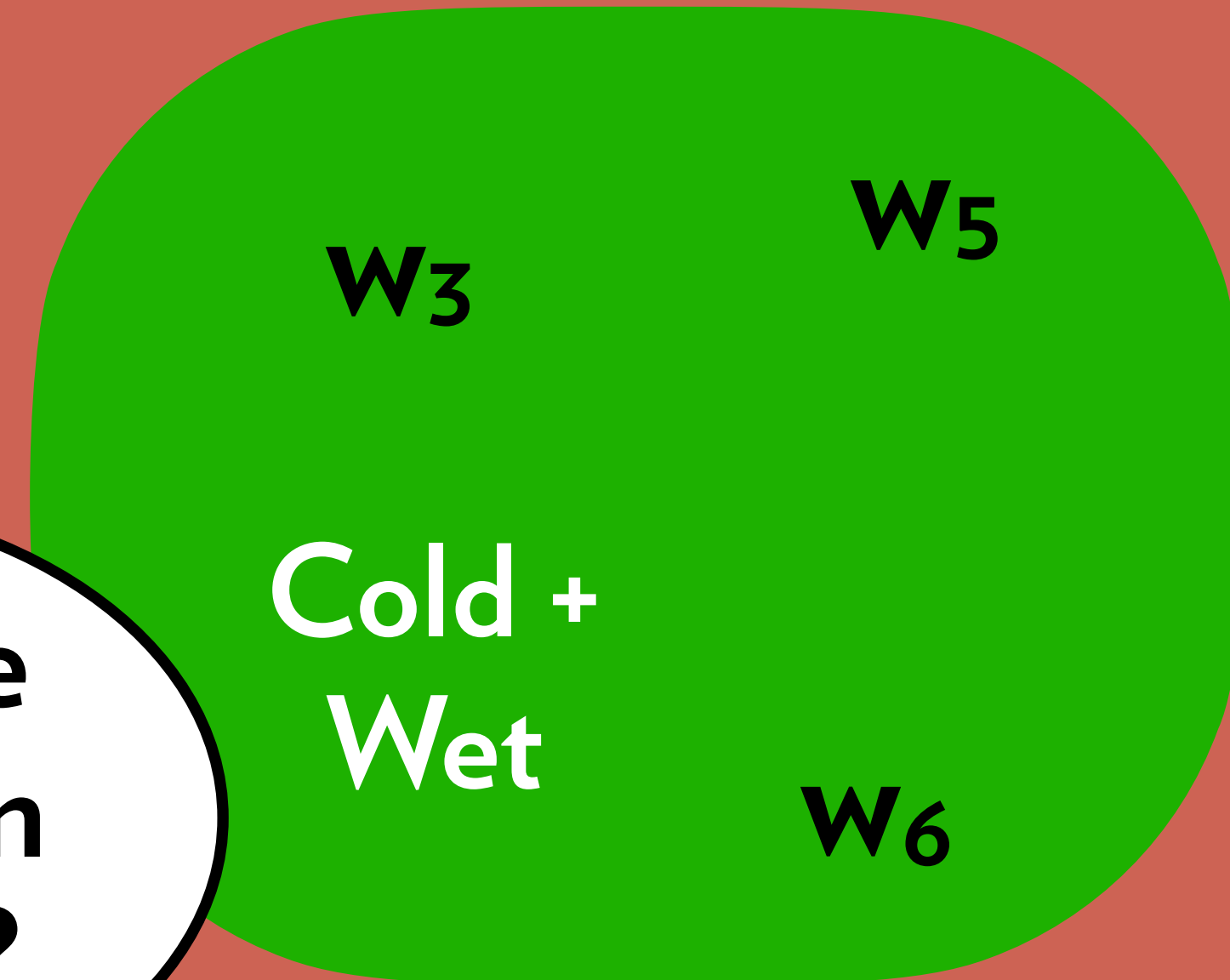
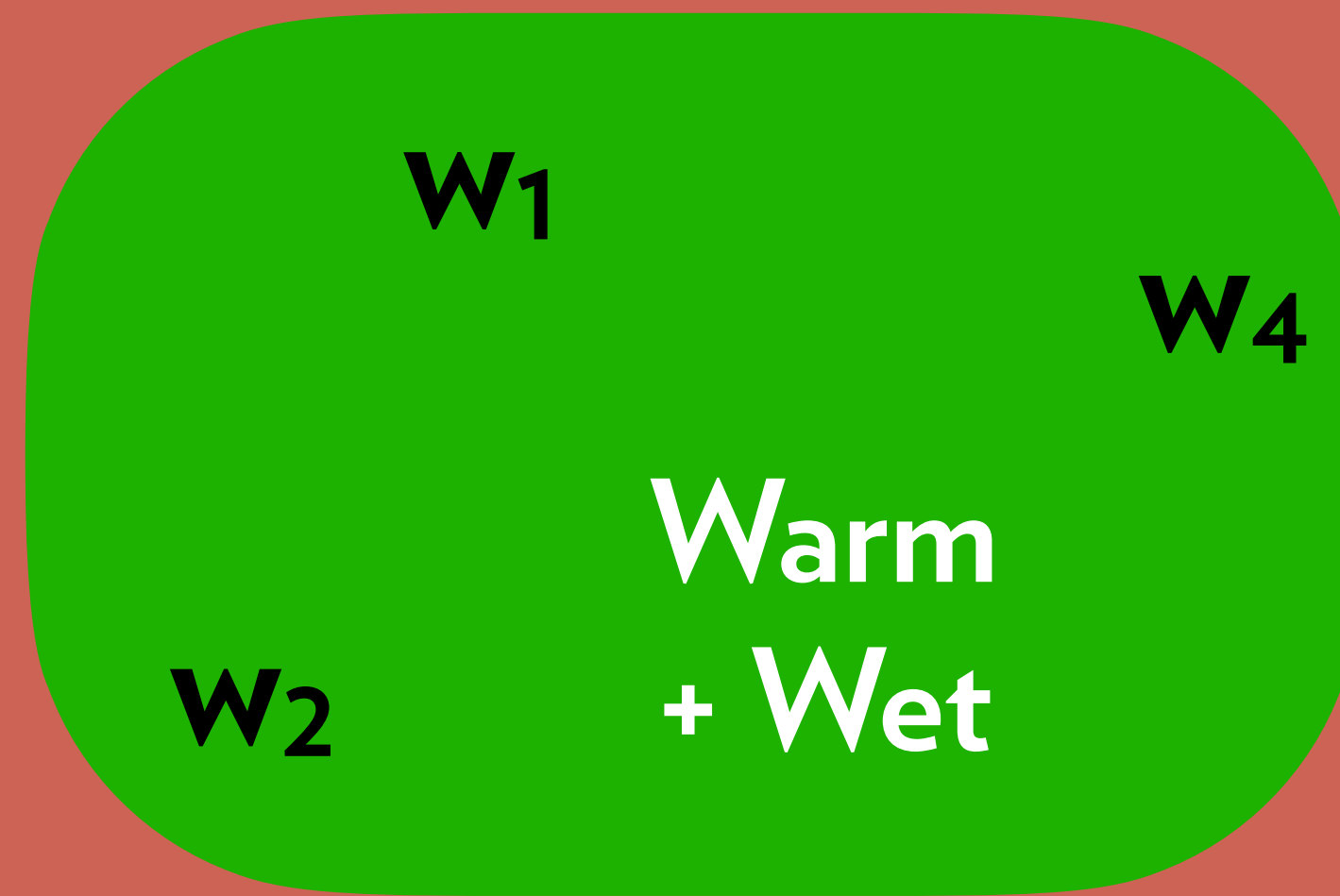
Is it dry?

# QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?





# QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?



How's the  
weather in  
Chicago?

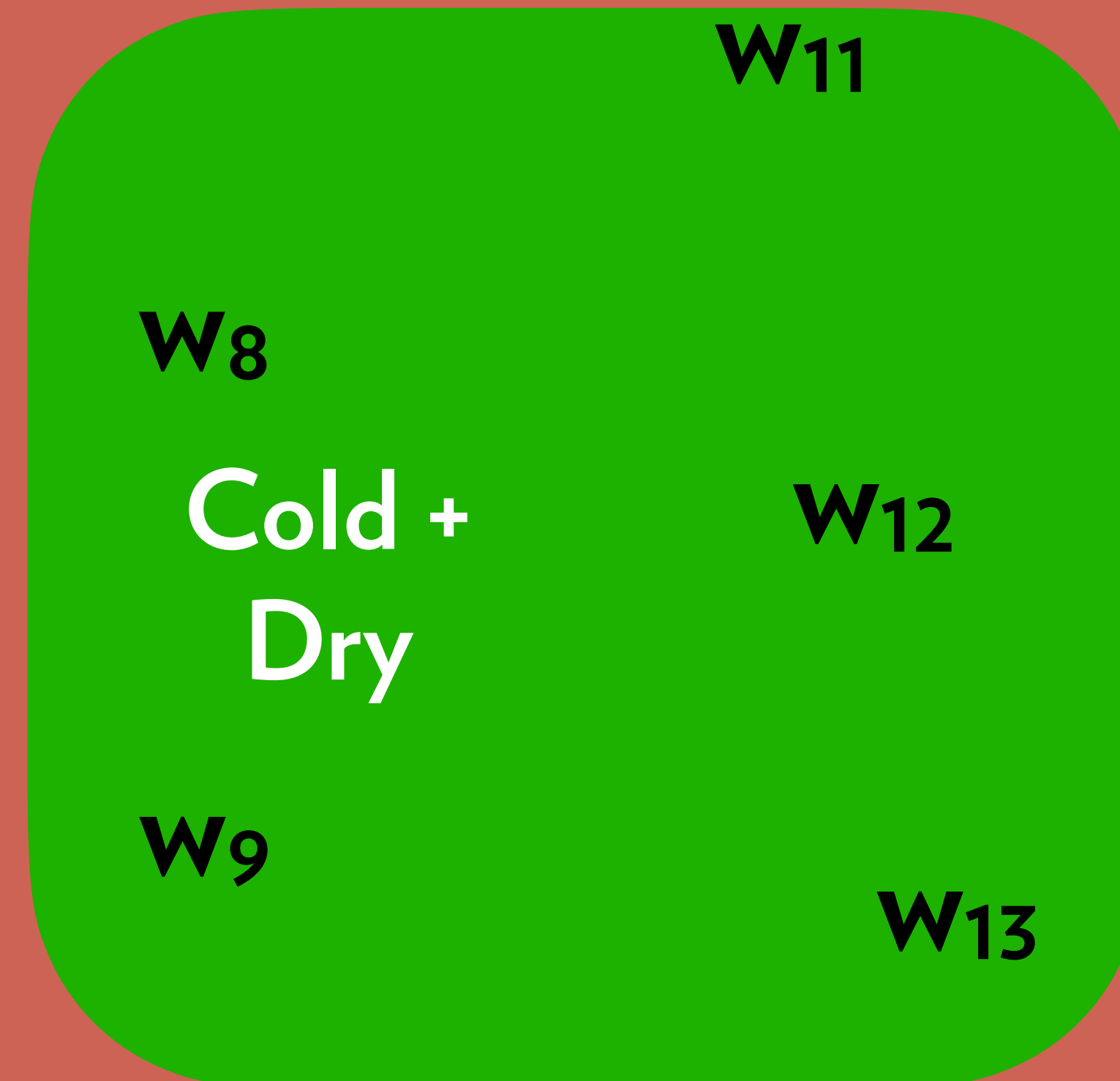
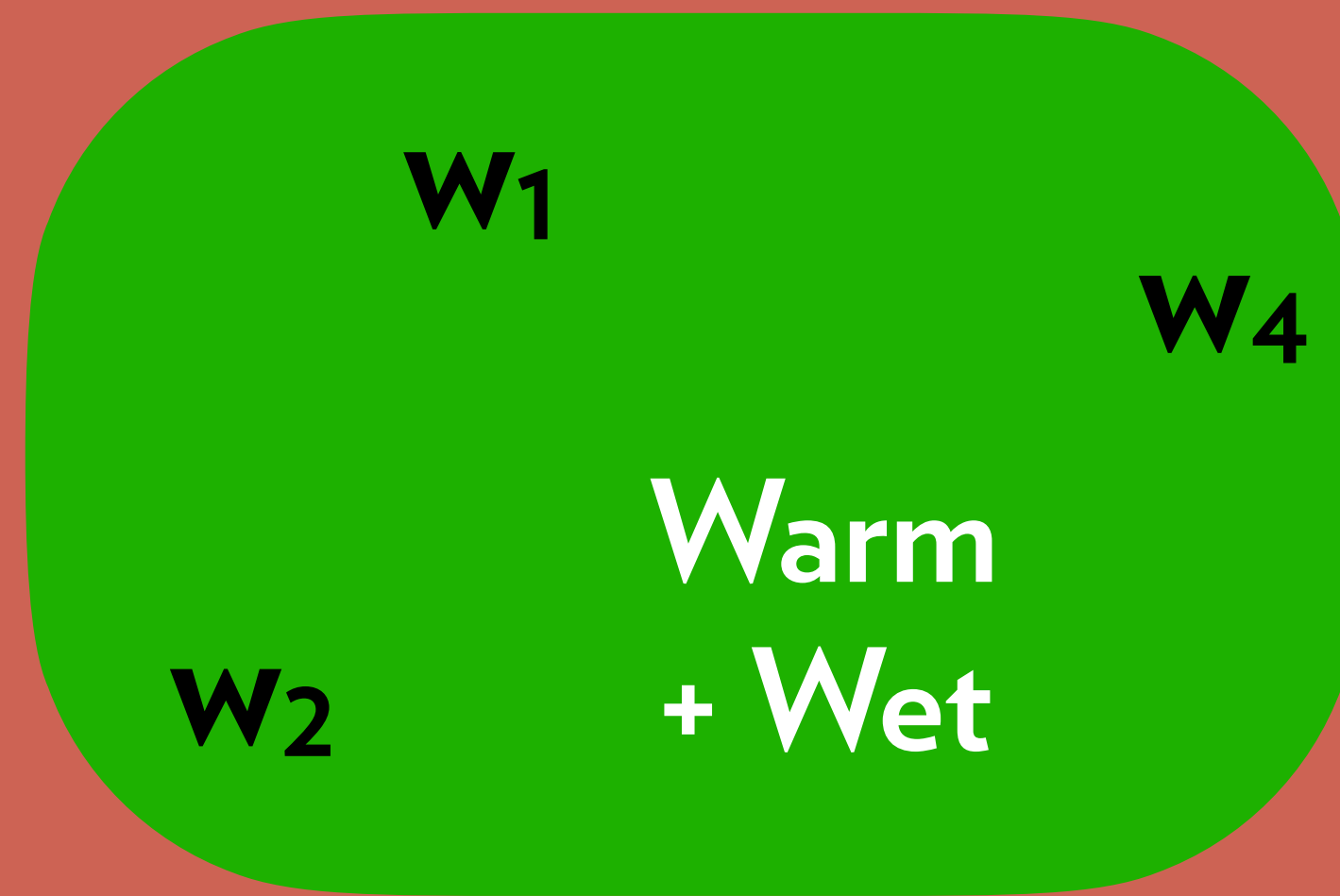
Is it a  
holiday?

# QUDs and Relevance

A speech act is relevant to the question Q iff:

- It is an assertion that at least partially answers the QUD
  - (Or can be interpreted as implying a partial answer.)
- It is a question that poses a subquestion of the QUD.

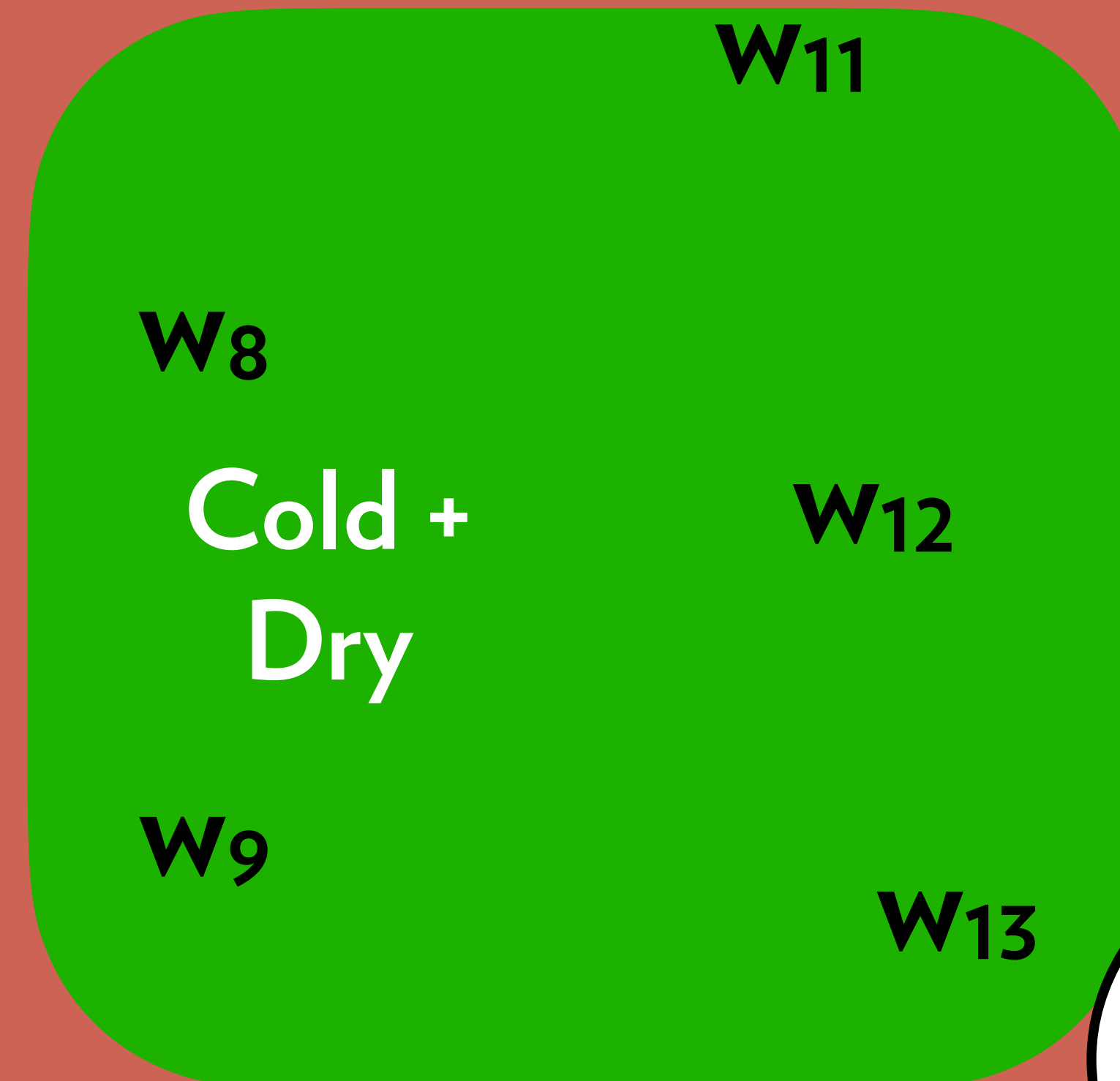
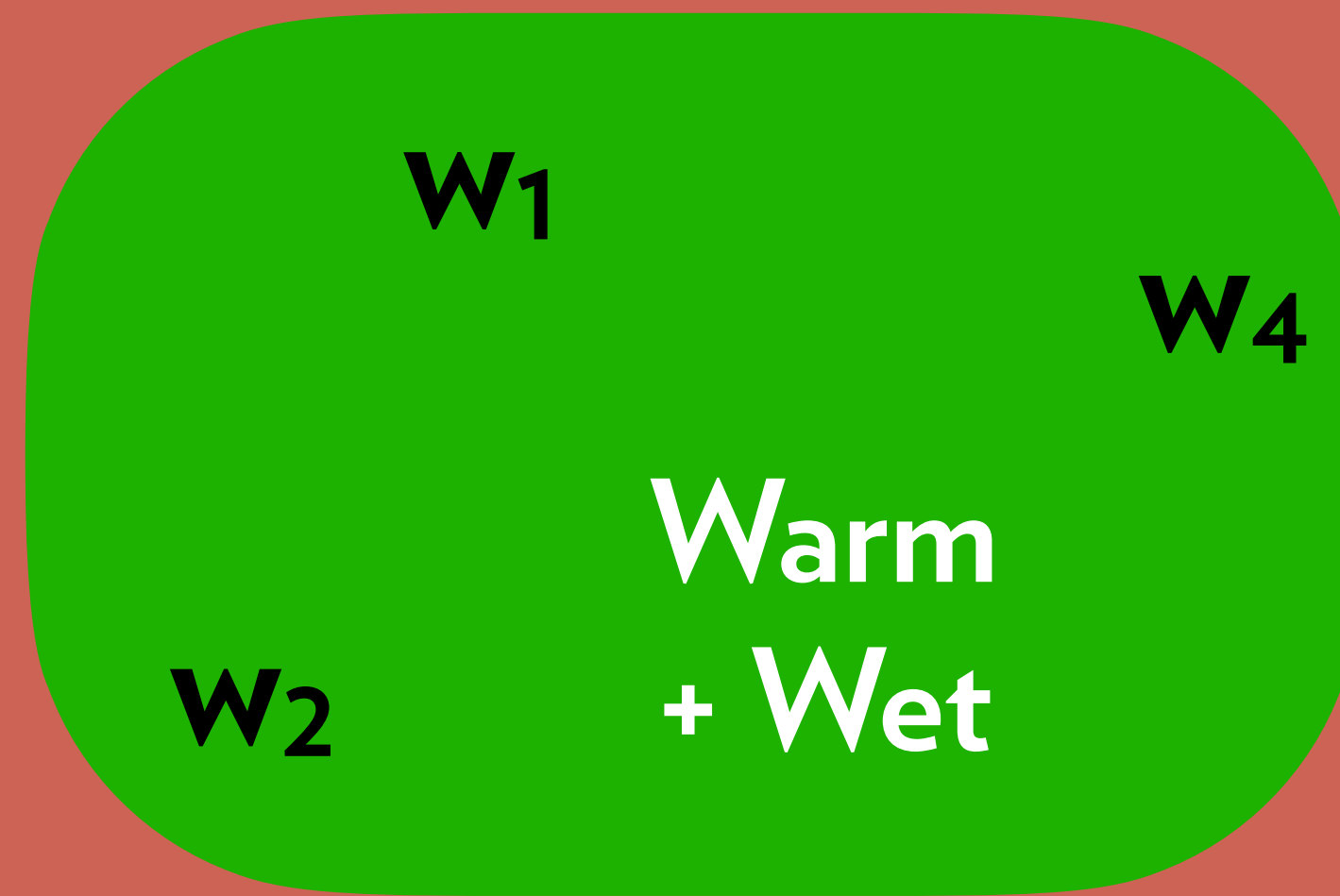
# QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?



How's the  
weather in  
Chicago?



# QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?



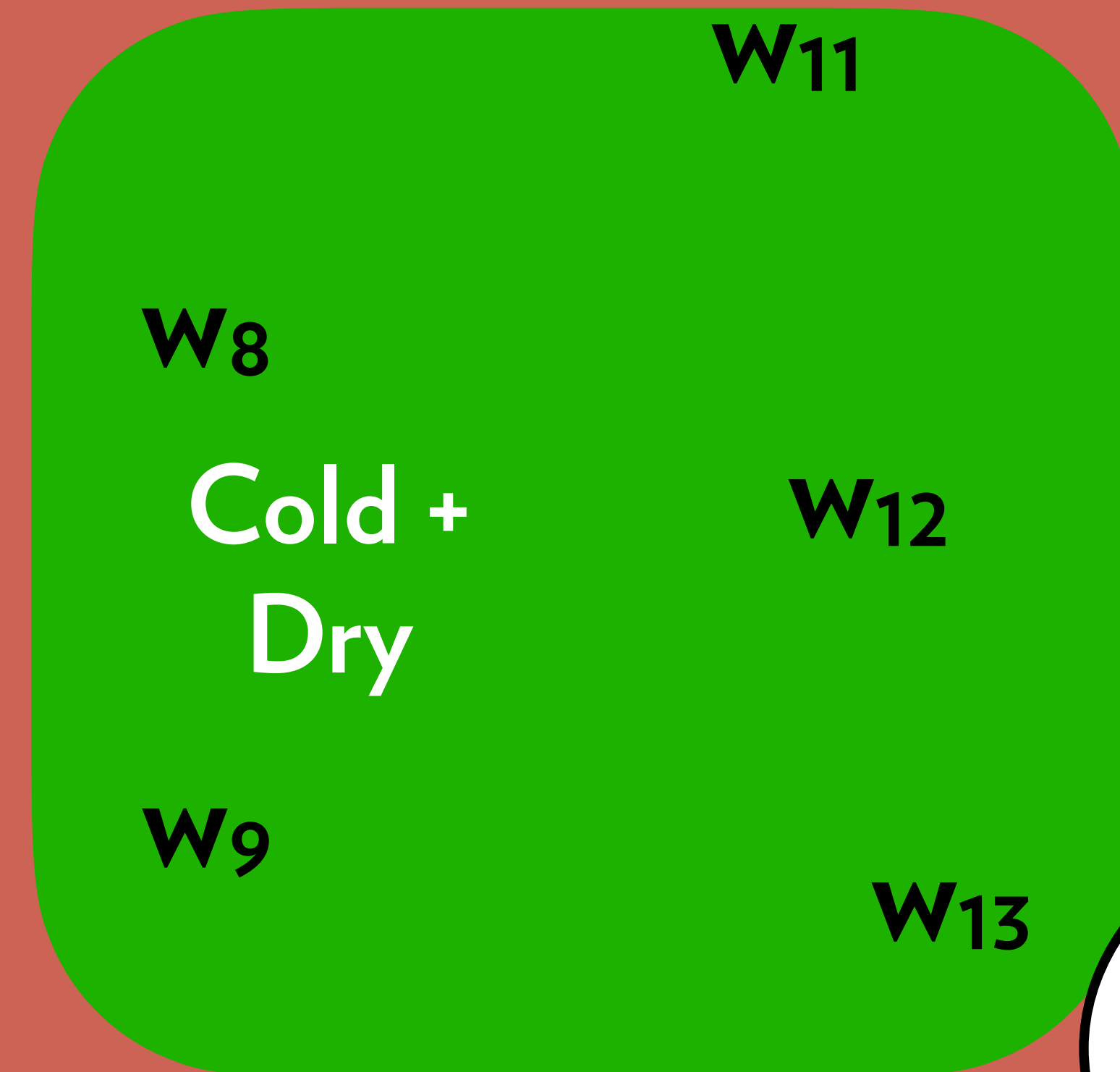
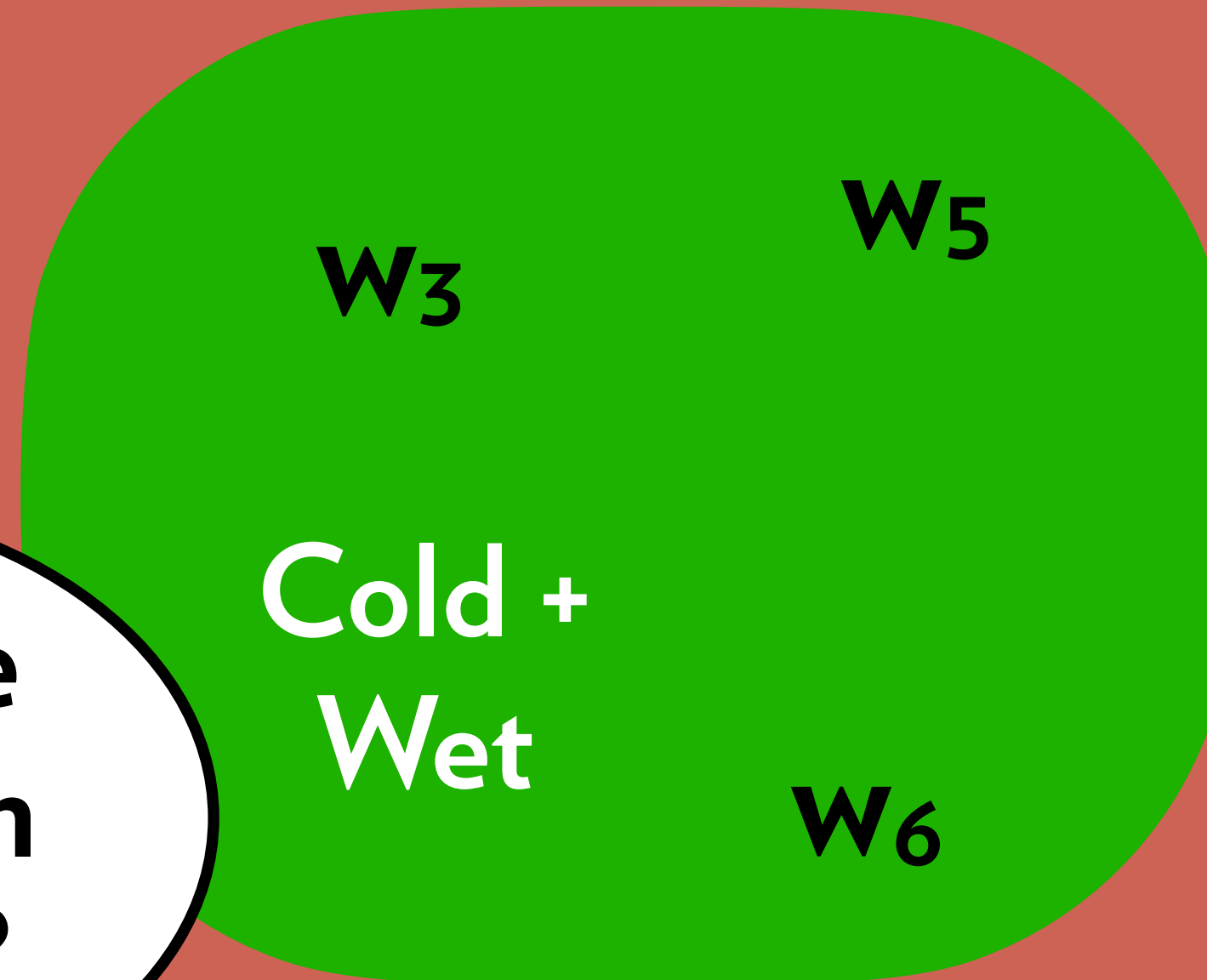
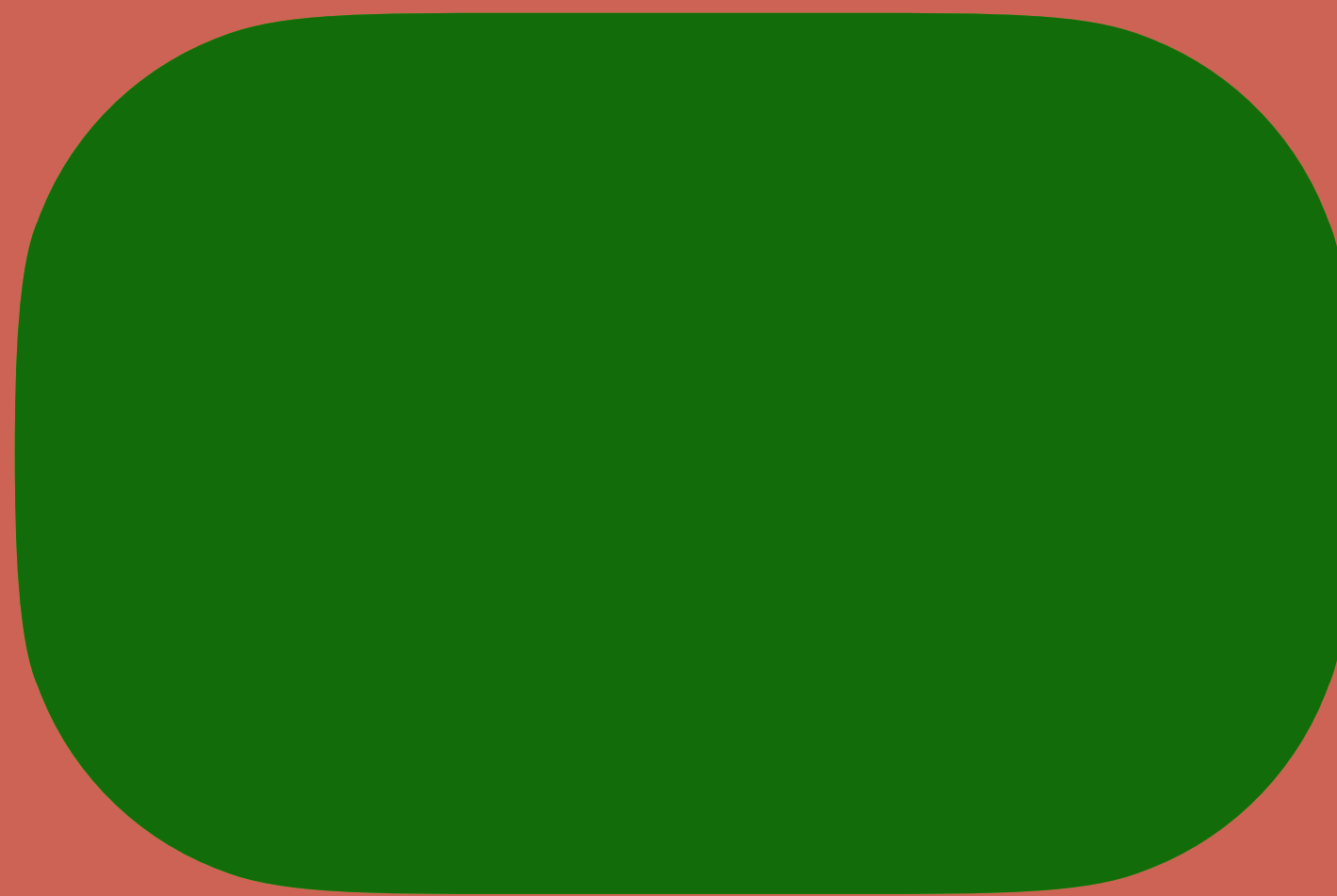
How's the weather in Chicago?

It might be warm and dry.

# QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?



# QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?

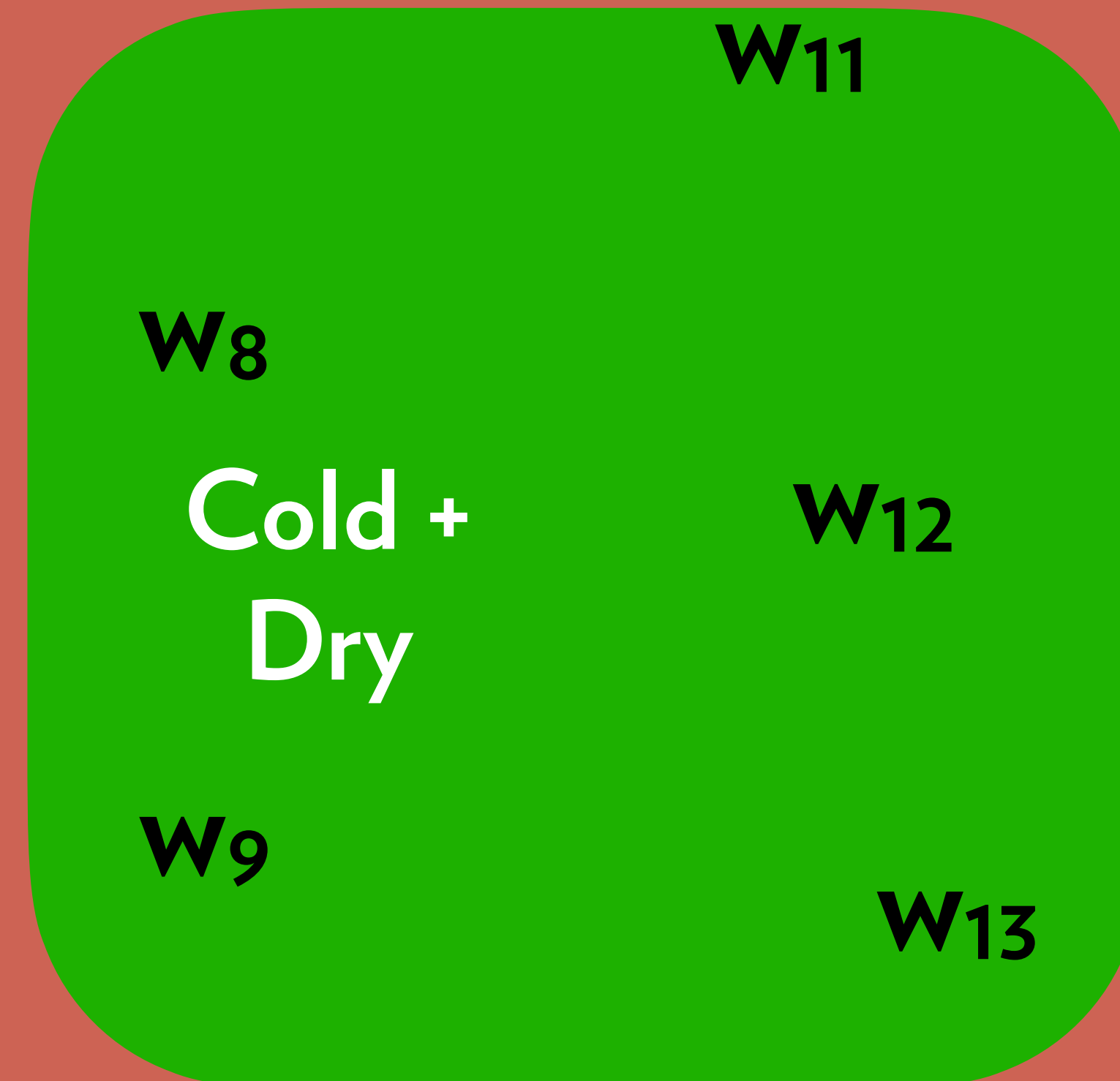
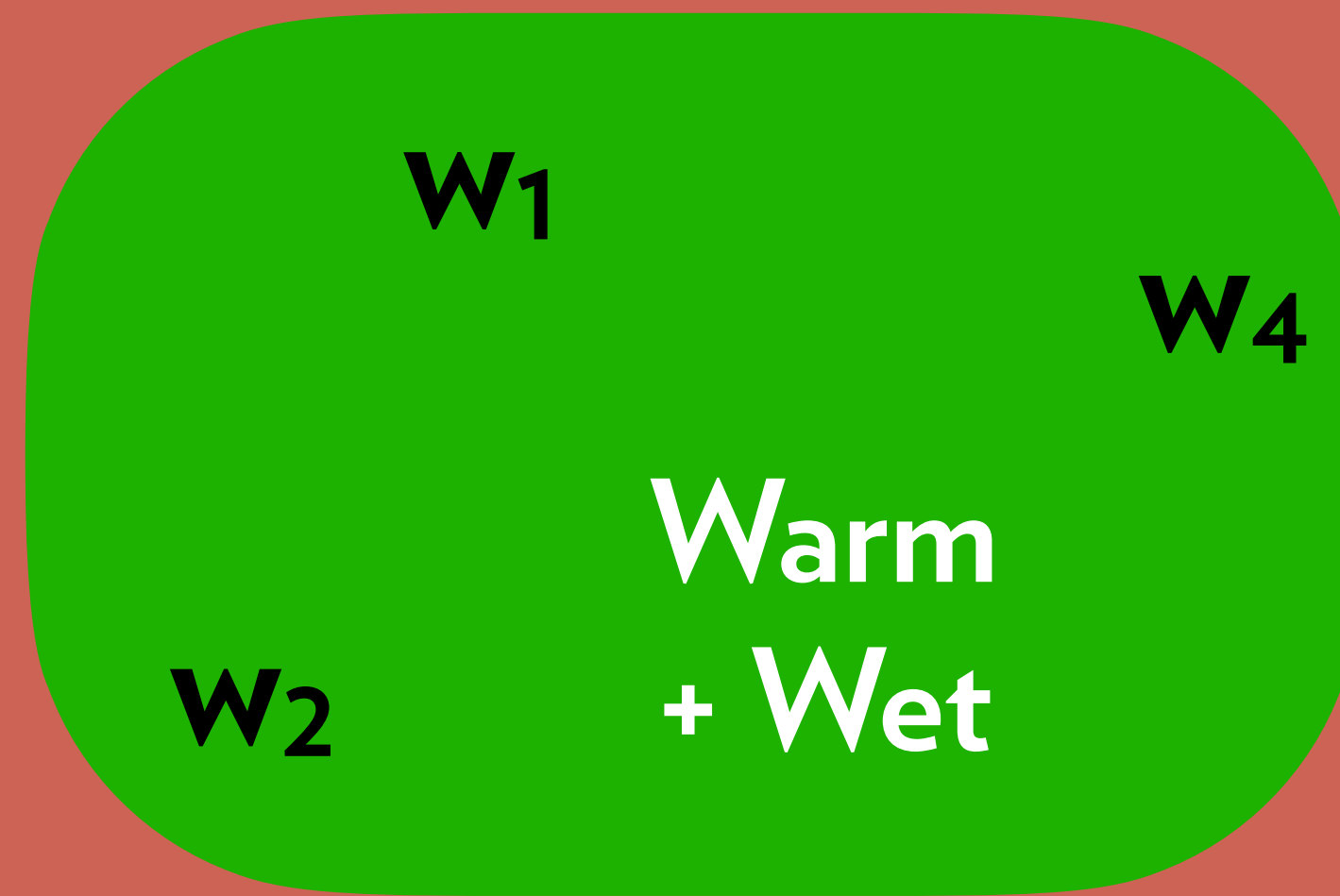


How's the weather in Chicago?

It might be warm.



# QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?



How's the weather in Chicago?

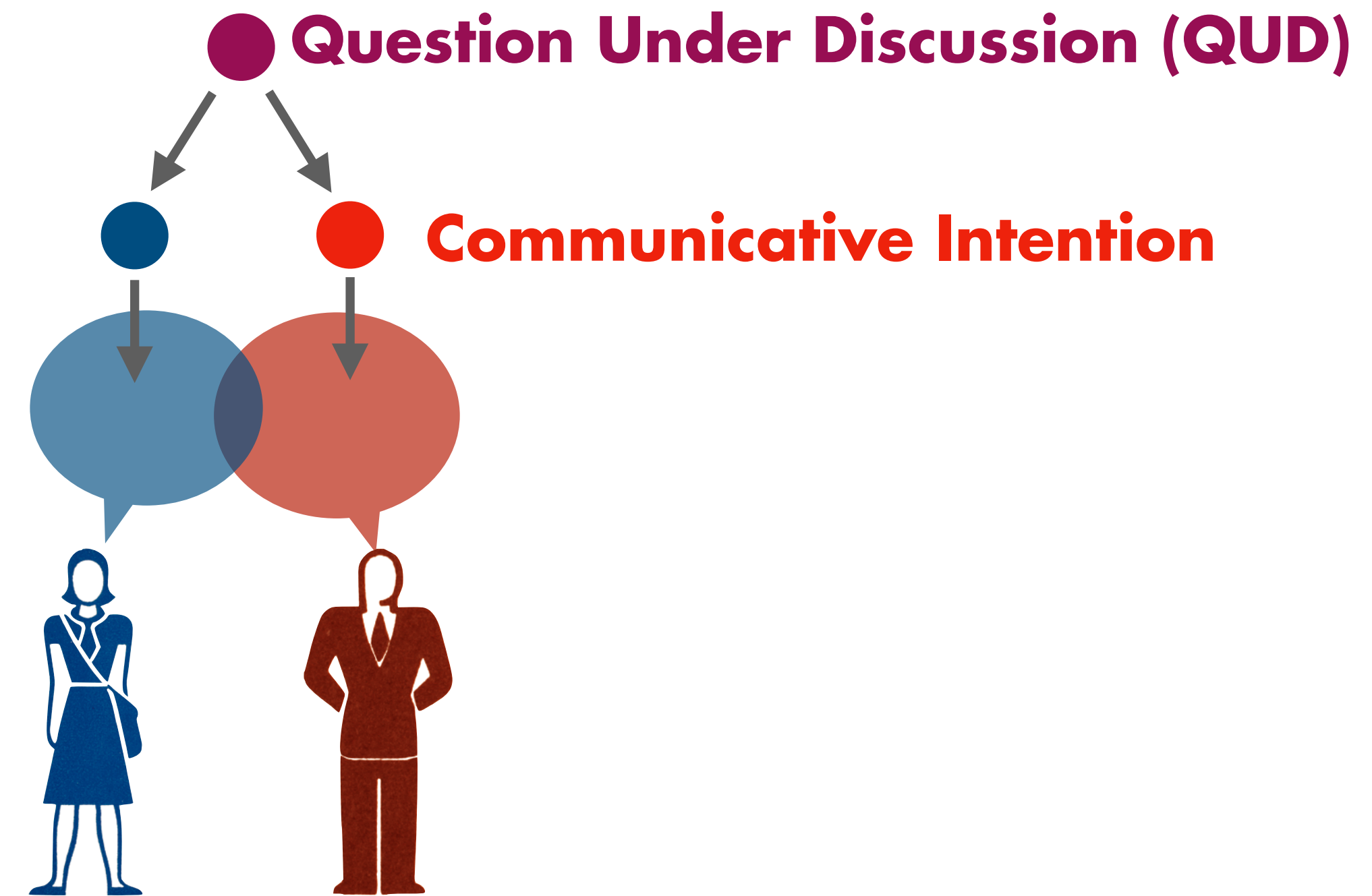
# QUDs and Relevance

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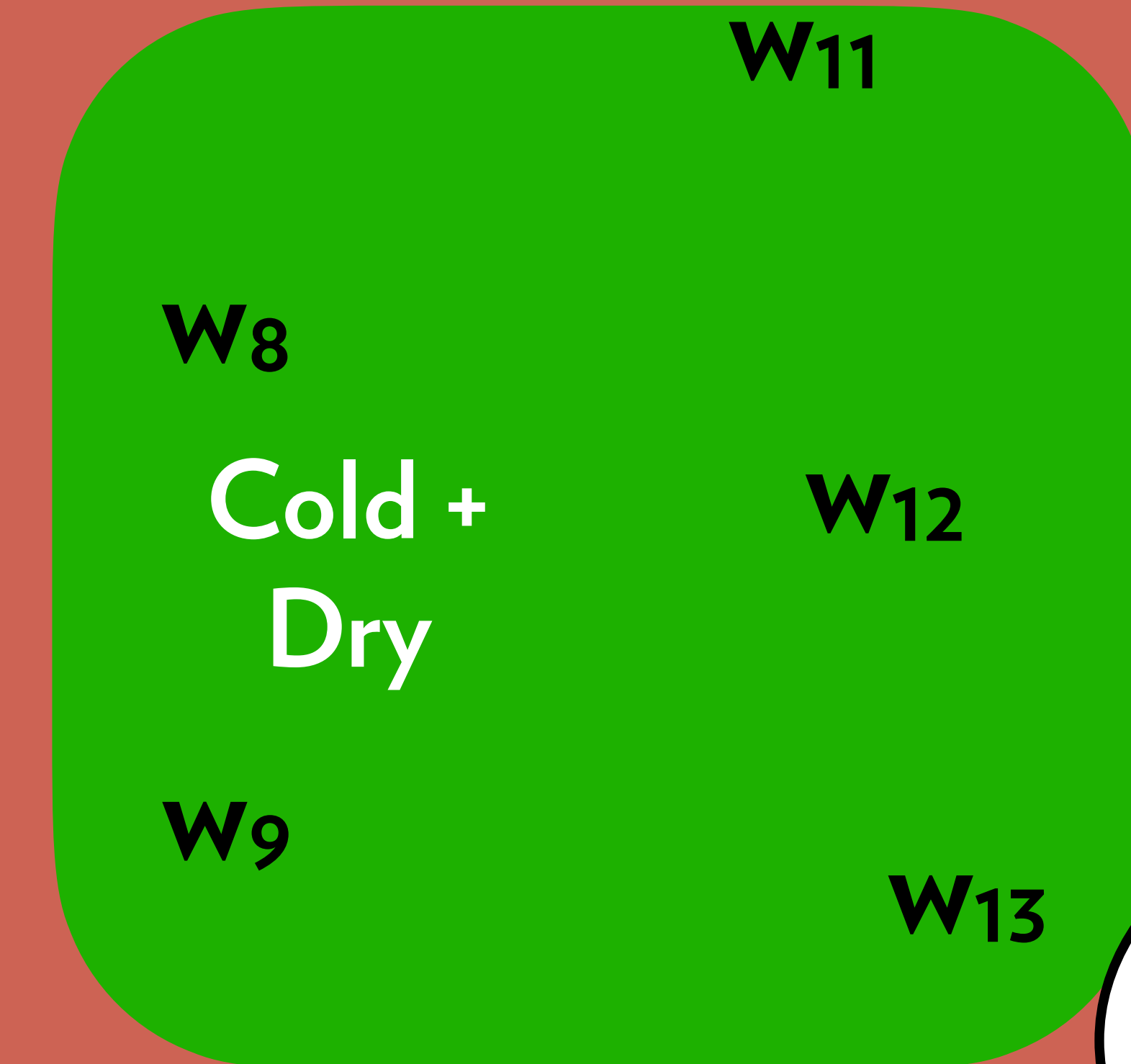
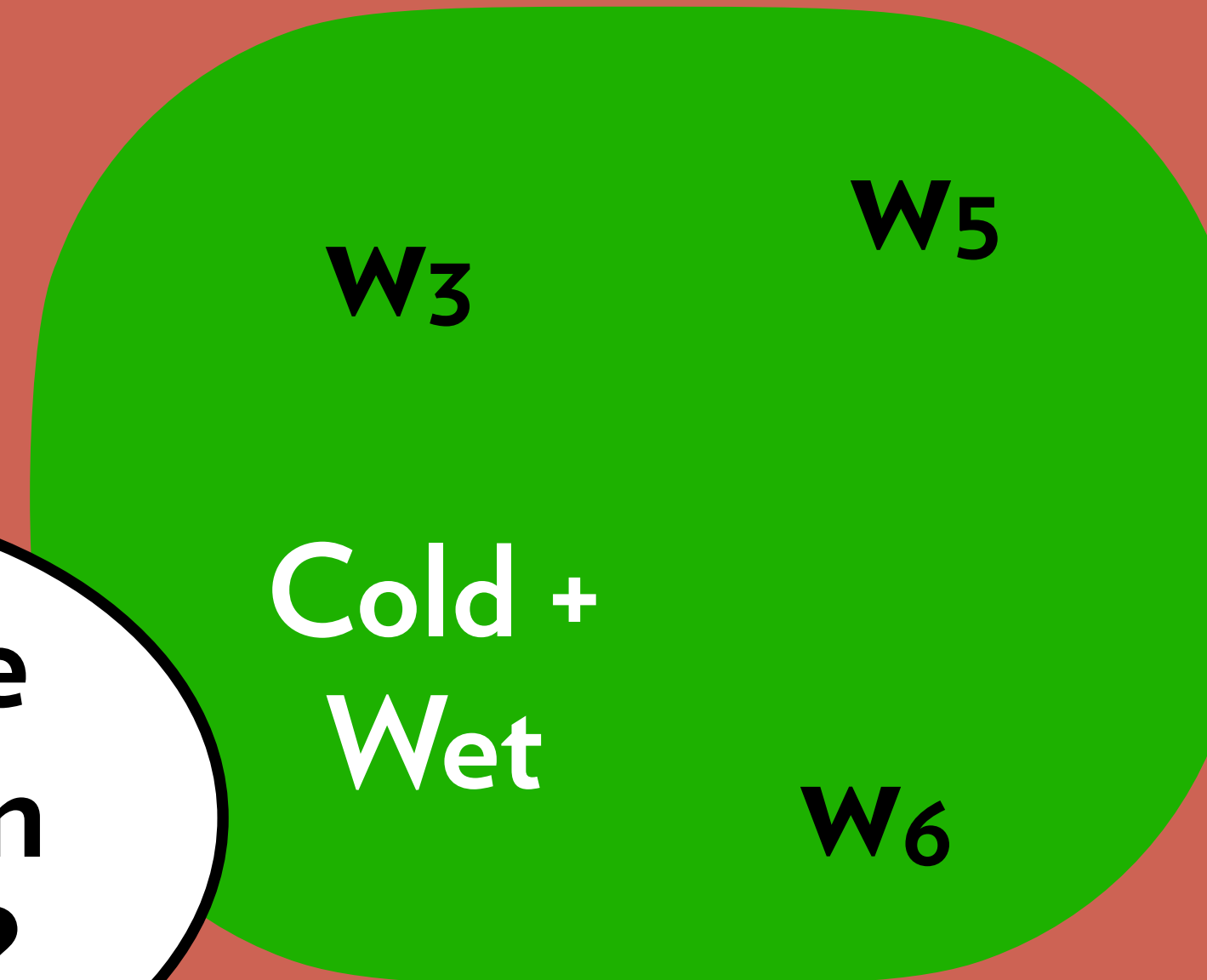
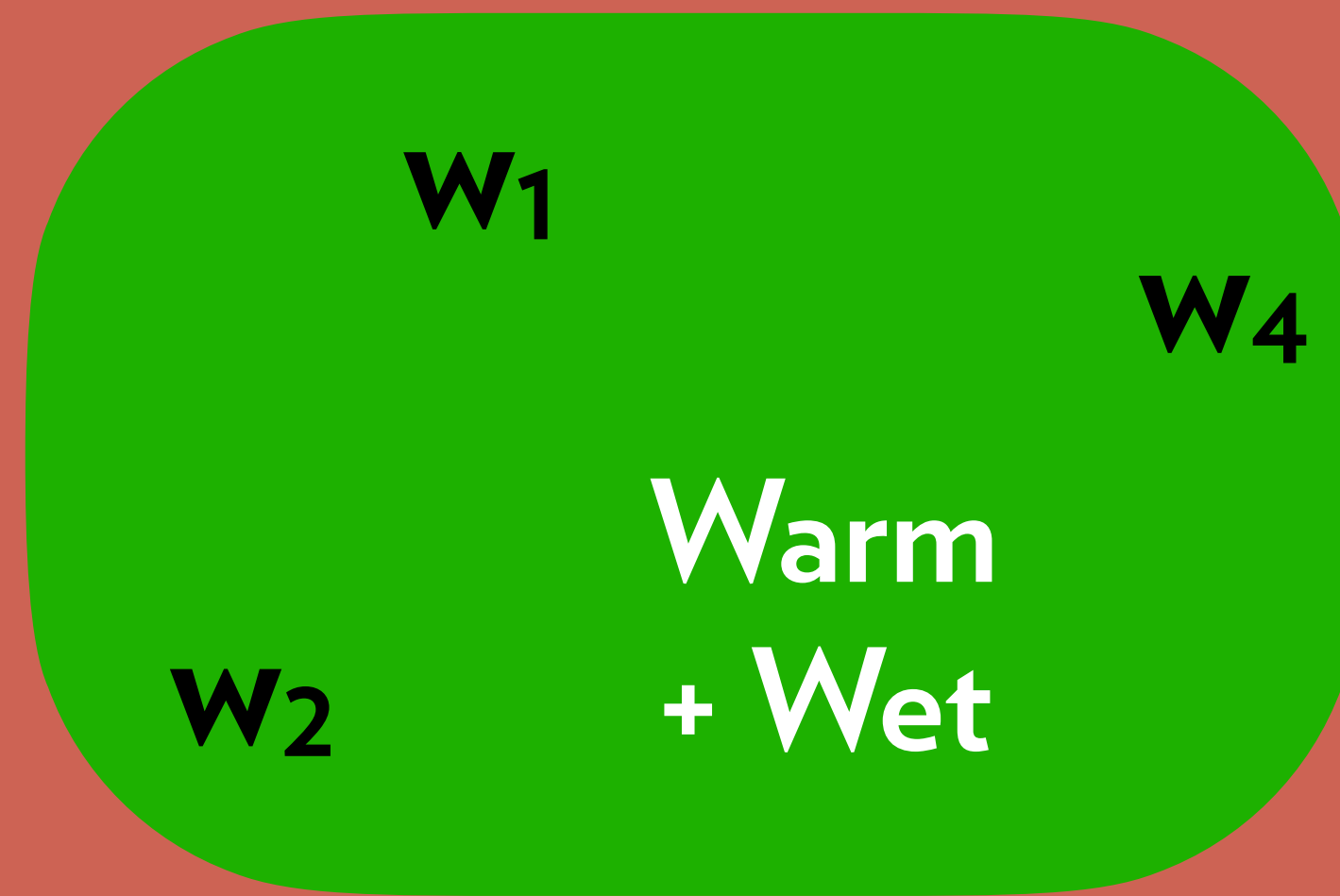
- It is an assertion that at least partially answers the QUD
  - (Or can be interpreted as implying a partial answer.)
- It is a question that poses a subquestion of the QUD.

# QUDs as Shared Plans

- The QUD “...reflects the interlocutors’ goals...in a discourse” (Roberts 2018)
- Specifically, it models a shared intention to coordinate on an answer to the question.
- This explains the connection to relevance:
  - An assertion is relevant only if the speaker’s communicative intention is a subplan of the QUD —i.e., an intention to resolve the QUD.
  - A question is relevant only if the speaker’s communicative intention is to propose a new subplan of the QUD—i.e. a shared plan to resolve a subquestion.



QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?

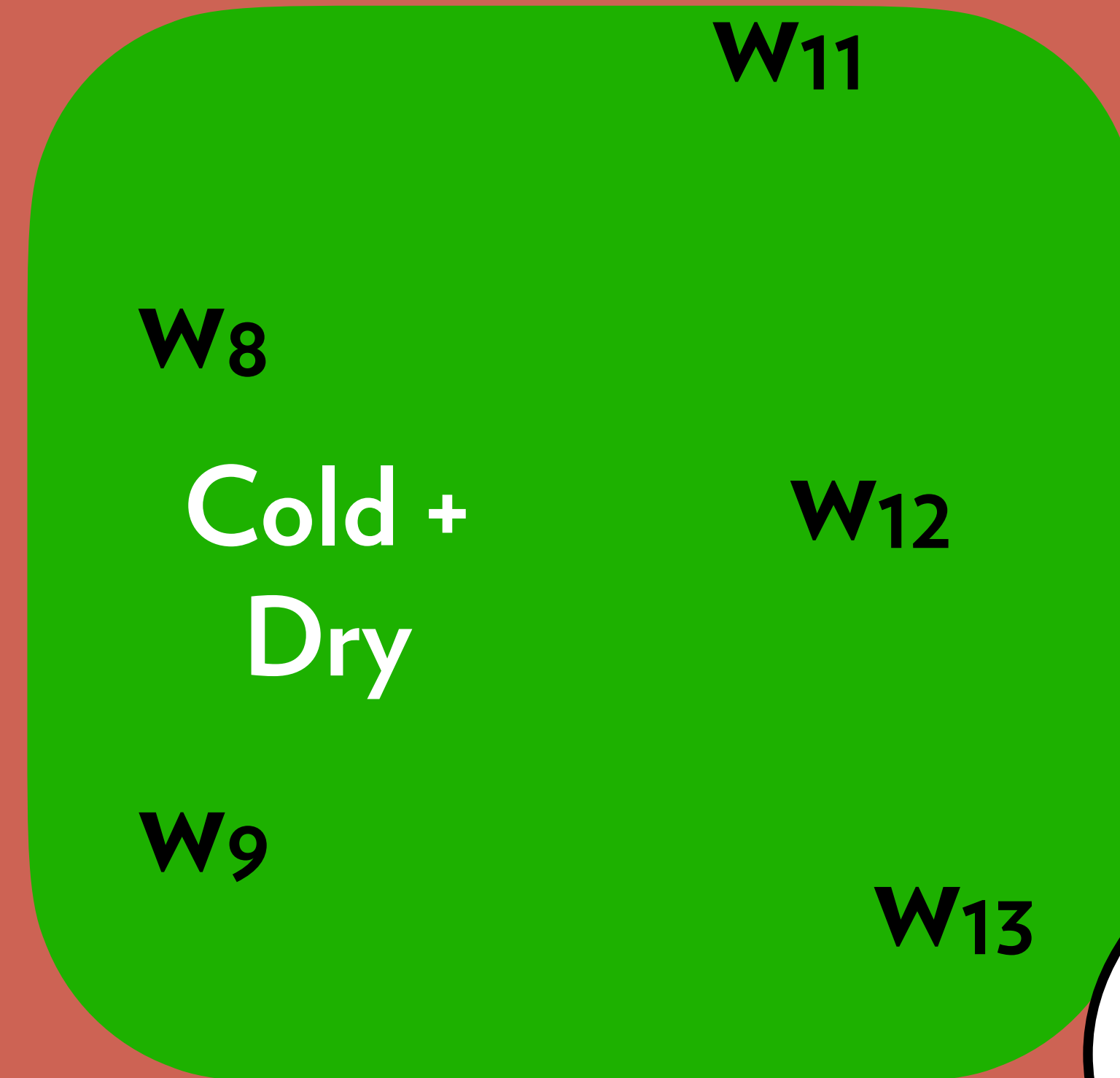
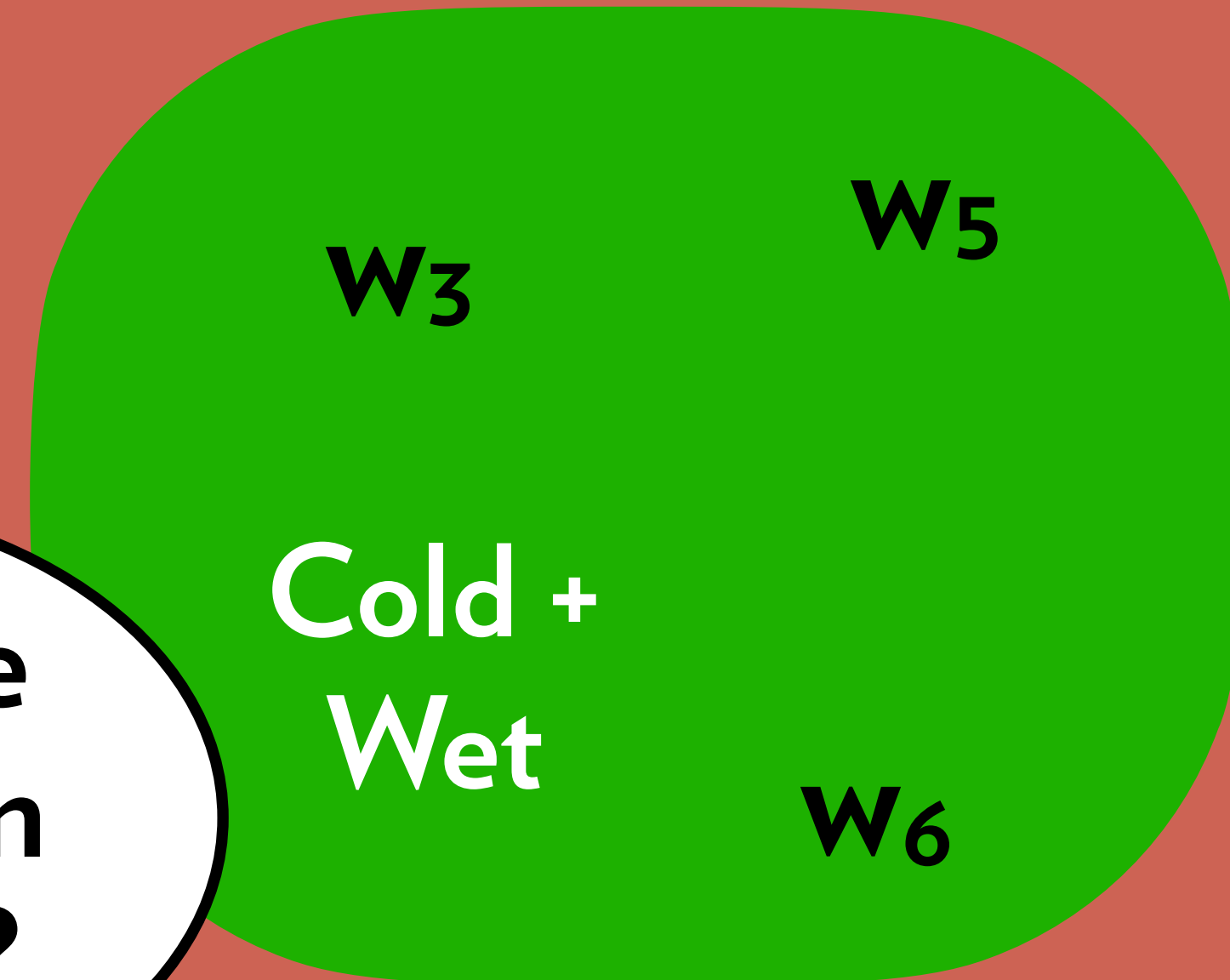
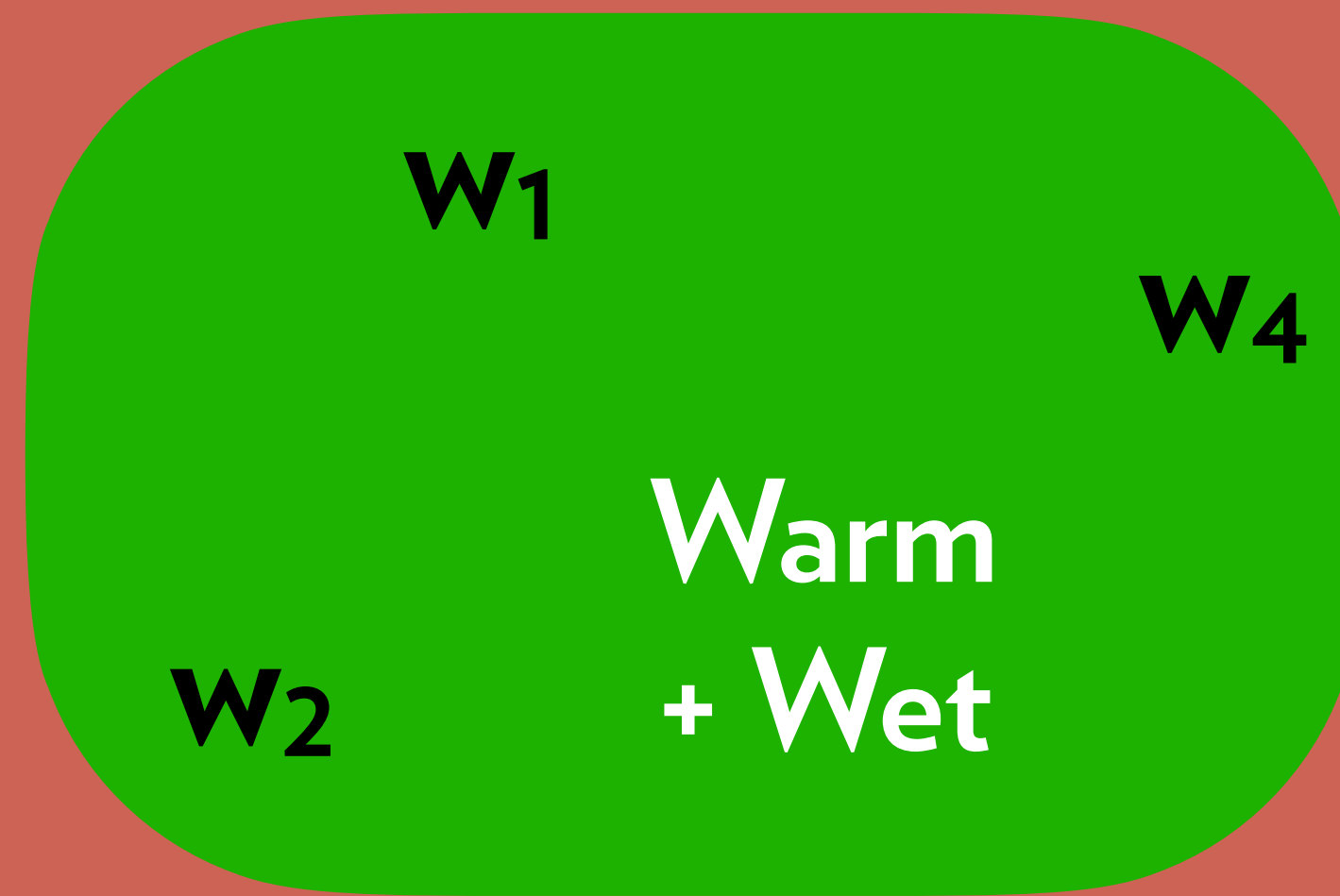


How's the weather in Chicago?

It's COLD in Chicago.



QUD: How's the weather in Chicago?



How's the weather in Chicago?

It's cold in CHICAGO.