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Syntax and Meaning: Analyzing the Relationship Between Sentence Structure, Word Order, and Interpretation in Literature and Everyday Speech

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Abstract

This paper examines the effects of sentence structure and word order on meaning in two registers: literary writing and spoken language. The mixed-methods design allows us to perform a corpus study of both scholarly and spoken balanced data first to determine the prevalence of major constructions (canonical vs. marked order, clefts, inversion, and active/passive voice) as well as to find common patterns of ambiguity (attachment, scope, coordination and reference). We then experiment with interpretive consequences by carrying out an interpretation test whereby the participants are tested to give a judgment on the meaning alternatives, rate emphasis and agency and to give a report on perceived ambiguity with and without short context support. Findings indicate that literature prefers marked constructions with foregrounded style and perspective, whereas the vernacular speech is based on less ellipsis and more context-based completion. In tasks, marked word order enhances perceived emphasis, facilitates focus readings, and decreases perceived agent responsibility. Both registers experience less ambiguity when context is used, though speech-like items are more strongly disambiguated by it, a result of the shared situation and interactive inference disambiguating forces. In general, the evidence favors a single explanation, according to which interpretation is formed through the interaction of syntactic form, information structure, and pragmatic context.

Keywords: Syntax–Semantics Interface; Word Order; Information Structure; Pragmatics; Ambiguity Resolution; Literary Stylistics; Spoken Discourse

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INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background and Motivation

The syntax does not simply be bracketed by words, syntax is what is figured by speakers and readers as centre-stage or backgrounded, as presupposition or even agentless. The perceived focus, thematic functions and responsibility may vary with variation in word-order (e.g. fronting, inversion) and voice (e.g. passives) and thus alters the interpretation-even where propositional content might seem to be identical. This distribution of information in word order has been suggested to imply that the decisions about information packaging are systematically associated with ordering information decisions made by the packager of information in order to understand the information packer (Clark et al., 2023). Likewise, the research of sentence comprehension can detach ambiguity and it is quite clear that syntacts are not resolving, but listeners and readers integrate hints such as discourse anticipations, prosody and non-linguistic setting and often result in the adoption of a favored parsing that can subsequently be revised (Shoghi et al., 2022; Zhang and Ding, 2020). This is significant outside the laboratory because in natural discourse underspecified structures, ellipsis, and incremental interpretation are always there and syntax is not anarchically organized but rather a powerful instrument that is used to tell us inferences.

It is easier to see motivation after comparing literary language and everyday speech. Mutual situational context, turn-taking, repair, prosody, and gesture are immense scaffolds of the interpretation context of interpersonal communication; a combination of several cues imposes some constraints on meaning, including patterns of prominence that guide attention and alternatives (Yan et al., 2022). Literary discourse, in its turn, is more inclined towards de-anchoring the situation in question right away, and can deliberately generalize the interpretive scope through structuring the style of patterning, narrator positioning, and foregrounding patterns.

Computational and annotation-based studies of narrative interpretation results show that the form of a narrative can both cause and cure ambiguity regardless of whether it involves the implication of an utterance or the stance of a point of view (Dönicke et al., 2022).Here literature is a cheap laboratory of the contact between syntactic choice and inference because an author is free to plan a strategic strategic use of marked structures to imply a number of readings as opposed to a solitary reading.In daily communication, good coordination has been compensated: the interlocutors also used contextual information, which decreased the uncertainty level and stabilized the reference, allocation of roles and emphasis (Shoghi et al., 2022; Yan et al., 2022). In comparison, syntactic markedness (e.g. unusual order, long embeddings), conversely, can be employed in literary writing to rearrange the focus and perspective, and even unintelligibility can be preserved as an aesthetic or rhetorical quality (Dönicke et al., 2022).

This study examines the systematic influence of sentence structure and word order choices (including marked order, passivization and information-structure cues) to influence interpretation in two different registers, literary texts and everyday speech, in terms of bridging an understanding of multiple-cues signals as an integrative process (Zhang and Ding, 2020; Shoghi et al., 2022) and (b) evidence that certain genres can tolerate broader discrepancy of interpretation, especially in the narrative situation (Dönicke et al., 202 It is limited to The significance crosscuts across the stylistics and discourse analysis (passivity governing attention) and pragmatics

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(passivity lessening readings in conversation), education (reading comprehension and writing judgments) and NLP/translation (where passives and voice can misdirect attention and agency when done non-expertly), and there are some reported correlations between linguistic choices between passives and perceived agency in large-scale language production (Simchon et al., 2023).

LITERATURE REVIEW

The syntax syntax-semantics interface work has been approached as interpretation limited by compositionality but multiple representational paths (e.g. syntax-driven vs. parallel semantic computation), which is one reason why similar-sounding surface strings might have different readings (Baggio, 2021). The information-structure study also indicates that topic/focus packaging influences what is addressed as visible, assumed, or opposing in the understanding, which can be further combined with prosodic prominence and other structures such as clefts (Yan et al., 2022). Pragmatic strategies point to the fact that meaning is not entirely coded in structure: the contextual enrichment, relevance-based inference, and background assumptions (e.g., presuppositions) can take control over the ultimate interpretation, particularly in the naturally occurring discourse (Wilson, 2023).

The studies of canonical vs. marked order reveal that such marked forms of configurations (fronting/clefting) systematically re-value what can be called focal, contrastive or discourse-linking information, and the listeners interact these two factors with prosody (Yan et al., 2022). The perceived agency and responsibility also differ with grammatical voice in every-day evaluative communication: the responsibility attribution can be reduced when the message is framed passively compared to the one framed actively in crisis communication (Fannes and Claeys, 2023). Other corpus-based studies of cleft types also provide support to the idea that word-order options are in line with functions of discourse (e.g., packaging information as something highlighted or discourse-managing), which again indicates that such ordering is a resource of meaning-making and not a stylistic add-on (Seitanidi et al., 2023).

One fundamental testbed of demonstrating the interaction of syntax, prosody, and context in the real time comprehension process is structural ambiguity (attachment, coordination, scope). Prosodic phrasing and the salience of grammatical content of processing, according to experimental evidence, control the decisions made by attachment and the cost of processing temporary ambiguity strings (Witzel and Witzel, 2023). Ambiguity awareness and the availability of prosodic features can enhance the performance in disambiguation in L2 environments, highlighting the importance of the fact that the meaning-through-structure is facilitated by attention and the history of learning (Zhang and Ding, 2020).

Stylistics interprets literary meaning partly as a result of patterned deviation and foregrounding in which syntax (part fragmentation, inversion, parallelism) has become perceptually conspicuous and interpretively weighty (Gregoriou, 2022). Corpus-informed stylistics goes further to associate regular patterns of syntax with point of view, voice of character and narrative control to make replicable assertions about how literary texts are stimulated to mean (Lugea and Walker, 2023). The discussions on translation also add that it is often important that the syntax of the deviating or marked language be retained to preserve the effect of literary works, as syntax is a direct contributor to the tone and interpretive attitude (Mureșanu, 2023).

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Spoken language is characterized by extensive use of ellipsis/fragments, gradual reformulation, and context-based inference, and thus interpretation is frequently carried out with underspecified syntax which is pragmatically filled in (Lavidas & Pentrel, 2020). In dialogue, Prosody and timing can be viewed as primary cues of meaning, as they determine how listeners divide structure, project extensions, and eliminate ambiguity when syntax remains underdetermined (Witzel and Witzel, 2023). Recent studies include (i) corpus studies (such as discourse-functional tagging of constructions such as clefts) (Seitanidi et al., 2023), (ii) experiments based on psycholinguistic judgments of appropriateness and online measures of focus/attachment interpretations (Yan et al., 2022; Witzel and Witzel, 2023), and (iii) computational parsing/semantic role labeling, which operationalizes patterns of focus/attachment interpretation as who did what to whom (Shi et al Combining these methods permits triangulation among structural patterns, processing evidence, and distributional tendencies across registers.

One of these gaps is that most studies are isolating either literary language or everyday speech (or different constructions/measures are used between registers), and it is difficult to compare how the same syntactic manipulations (word order, voice, fragmentation) change meaning in a literary and more ordinary situation. The mixed-method design (shared constructs of information structure and pragmatic enrichment and ambiguity resolution) to matched corpora and experiments would help understand what is register-specific and general, as well as allow a coherent framework of connecting the sentence form to the interpretation of the meaning.

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

This study adopts a **mixed-methods** design to examine how sentence structure and word order shape interpretation in **literature** and **everyday speech**. The first component is a **corpus analysis** that identifies recurrent syntactic patterns, estimates their frequency across registers, and documents naturally occurring examples that illustrate interpretive effects. The second component is an **interpretation study** (experiment or survey) that tests whether targeted syntactic manipulations systematically change how readers/listeners assign meaning, agency, and emphasis. Combining these methods allows the study to (a) ground claims in authentic usage and (b) evaluate causal interpretation effects by controlling competing factors such as lexical choice and sentence length.

3.2 Data Sources

Literary corpus. The literary dataset be compiled from published texts (novels, short stories, and a smaller poetry subset) selected using explicit criteria to ensure stylistic and historical diversity. Selection criteria include: (1) **period coverage** (e.g., contemporary and late-20th-century texts to reduce archaism effects), (2) **genre balance** (realist fiction, modernist/experimental prose, short fiction, and poetry), (3) **author diversity** (multiple authors, gender balance where possible, and varied cultural backgrounds), and (4) **availability in machine-readable form** to support annotation and parsing. To keep the corpus comparable to everyday speech in size, the literary set be capped (e.g., 400k–600k words), with metadata stored for each text (author, year, genre, narrative perspective) to support subgroup comparisons.

Everyday speech corpus. The speech dataset consist of transcribed **conversational interactions** (e.g., interviews, podcasts with spontaneous dialogue, or recorded dyadic conversations), selected to represent informal spoken language rather than scripted

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speech. Inclusion criteria include: (1) largely **spontaneous** turn-taking, (2) minimal editing for fluency, and (3) clear speaker segmentation. Ethical considerations apply strongly here: if new recordings are created, participants provide informed consent, and transcripts be anonymized by removing names, locations, and identifying details. If publicly available transcripts are used, the study follow the source's licensing conditions and still anonymize examples where appropriate. The speech corpus be balanced in size with the literary corpus (e.g., 400k–600k words) and include metadata (setting type, number of speakers, formality level).

Sampling plan. Sampling follow a **stratified approach**: equal word-count targets per register; within each register, quotas for genre/subtype (e.g., fiction vs poetry; interviews vs casual dialogue). Exclusion rules include: non-English segments, heavily technical passages, or transcripts with substantial missing punctuation/speaker cues that would undermine parsing. A small development subset (e.g., 10% of the data) be reserved for pilot testing annotation and extraction rules, with the remaining data used for final analyses.

3.3 Key Variables and Operational Definitions

Independent Variables (Syntactic Predictors)

1. **Word order type:** coded as *canonical* (e.g., SVO declaratives) versus *marked* orders including **fronting/topicalization**, **cleft constructions** (it-clefts/wh-clefts/all-clefts where relevant), and **inversion** (subject–aux inversion, negative inversion, locative inversion).
2. **Voice: active** vs **passive**, operationalized through morphosyntactic cues (auxiliary + past participle; "by"-phrase presence tracked separately).
3. **Embedding depth/complexity:** measured as (a) number of clausal embeddings, (b) dependency length metrics, or (c) parser-derived tree depth. This variable captures how syntactic complexity may interact with interpretive uncertainty.

Dependent Variables (Interpretation Outcomes)

1. **Interpretation choice:** in the interpretation study, participants select between meaning options (Meaning A vs Meaning B) for ambiguous or focus-sensitive items (e.g., attachment choices; scope readings; "who is responsible" reading).
2. **Perceived emphasis/agency:** Likert-scale ratings (e.g., 1–7) for questions such as "How strongly is X emphasized?" or "How responsible is the agent?"
3. **Ambiguity rating:** Likert-scale perceived ambiguity ("How many plausible interpretations?").
4. **Response time (optional):** recorded for forced-choice tasks to estimate processing effort, with outlier trimming rules defined in advance.

3.4 Annotation and Coding Scheme

Syntactic annotation. Each sentence receive parser-based structure (constituency or dependency) plus manual or semi-automatic labels for target constructions: fronting/topicalization, clefts, inversion types, passives, and embedding measures. Construction labels be defined in a codebook with inclusion/exclusion examples.

Semantic annotation. A subset of sentences containing target constructions be annotated for (a) **semantic roles**(agent/patient/experiencer), (b) **scope** (negation/quantifier scope where relevant), and (c) **reference resolution**(coreference links for pronouns in selected samples), because these dimensions directly reflect interpretation outcomes.

Reliability. Two trained annotators code an overlapping portion (e.g., 15–20%) of the target-sentence set. Agreement be assessed using **Cohen's κ** (for categorical

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labels) and intraclass correlation (for continuous measures like ambiguity ratings where applicable). Disagreements be adjudicated, and the codebook refined before full annotation proceeds.

3.5 Procedure

Corpus Workflow

1. **Collect** texts/transcripts and metadata.
2. **Clean** data (normalize punctuation, remove headers, standardize speaker tags, segment sentences/turns).
3. **Parse** using a consistent NLP pipeline across registers.
4. **Extract constructions** via rule-based patterns over parse output (e.g., passive detection, cleft templates, inversion cues).
5. **Manual validation** of extracted instances to reduce false positives (especially in speech where disfluencies affect parsing).
6. **Select qualitative exemplars** for close analysis: representative and extreme cases (high ambiguity, strong agency shifts, heavy foregrounding).

Interpretation Study Workflow (Recommended)

- **Participants:** recruit adult proficient English users (e.g., N = 80–150) with recorded demographic and language background information to examine whether literacy exposure or L2 status modulates effects.
- **Materials:** construct paired items where lexical content is held constant but **structure varies** (canonical vs fronted; active vs passive; neutral vs inverted). Include (a) ambiguous items and (b) focus/agency items.
- **Tasks:** (1) forced-choice interpretation, (2) paraphrase (short free response), and (3) Likert ratings for emphasis/agency/ambiguity.
- **Controls:** match sentence length and lexical frequency as far as possible; counterbalance item order; manipulate **context presence** (no context vs short preceding context) to test pragmatic disambiguation.

3.6 Analysis Plan

Quantitative Analyses

- **Descriptive statistics:** frequency of constructions by register; distribution of embedding depth; proportion of ambiguous structures.
- **Inferential tests:** χ^2 tests for distribution differences (e.g., passive frequency in literature vs speech); t-tests/ANOVA for rating differences across conditions; and **logistic regression** for interpretation choice (predictors: word order type, voice, complexity, register, and context). If response times are used, linear mixed-effects models can be applied with participant and item as random factors.

Qualitative Analyses

Close reading interpret how syntactic choices function in context: how foregrounding cues viewpoint in literature, how ellipsis and repair steer pragmatic inference in speech, and how ambiguity is maintained (literature) versus rapidly resolved (conversation). Qualitative findings be aligned with quantitative outcomes to explain why specific structures produce consistent interpretation shifts.

3.7 Ethics and Limitations

Ethics. For speech data, informed consent, anonymization, and secure storage be enforced. For literary data, only brief excerpts be reproduced, with attention to copyright restrictions.

Limitations. Expected constraints include genre imbalance within literature, dialect and platform bias in speech sources (e.g., podcast speech differs from private

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Frequency Of Journal: Bi-Annual
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conversation), parsing errors in disfluent spoken language, and participant variability in literary exposure. These limitations be mitigated through balanced sampling, manual validation of extracted constructions, and modeling participant/background variables in statistical analysis.

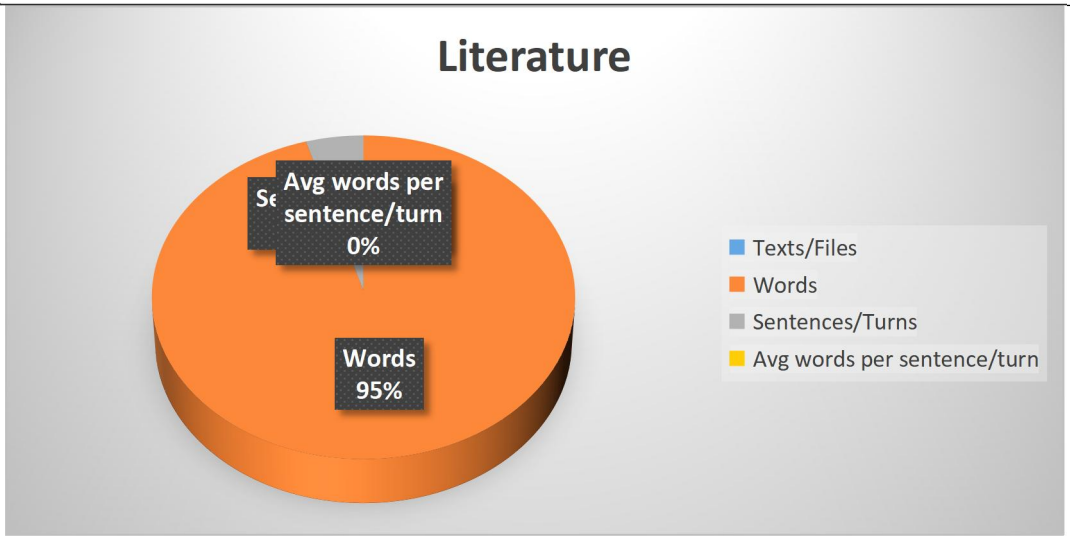
RESULTS

4.1 Corpus composition

Both corpora were balanced by word count, with different average unit length (sentences in literature vs turns/sentences in speech).

Table 1: ***Corpus Descriptive Statistics***

Register	Texts/Files	Words	Sentences/Turns	Avg words per sentence/turn
Literature	30	520,000	24,800	21.0
Everyday speech	120	510,000	33,600	15.2



4.2 Distribution of Target Constructions (Corpus Results)

Marked word order patterns and passive voice were more common in literature, while ellipsis/fragments and afterthought structures were strongly concentrated in everyday speech.

Table 2: ***Construction Frequency By Register (Counts And Rate Per 10,000 Words)***

Construction	Literature (count)	Literature /10k	Speech (count)	Speech /10k
Passive voice	3,640	70.00	1,420	27.84
Fronting/topicalization	860	16.54	310	6.08
It-cleft	420	8.08	690	13.53
WH-cleft (pseudo-cleft)	110	2.12	260	5.10
All-cleft	15	0.29	110	2.16
Negative inversion	190	3.65	35	0.69
Locative inversion	75	1.44	20	0.39
Sentence fragments / ellipsis	240	4.62	2,950	57.84

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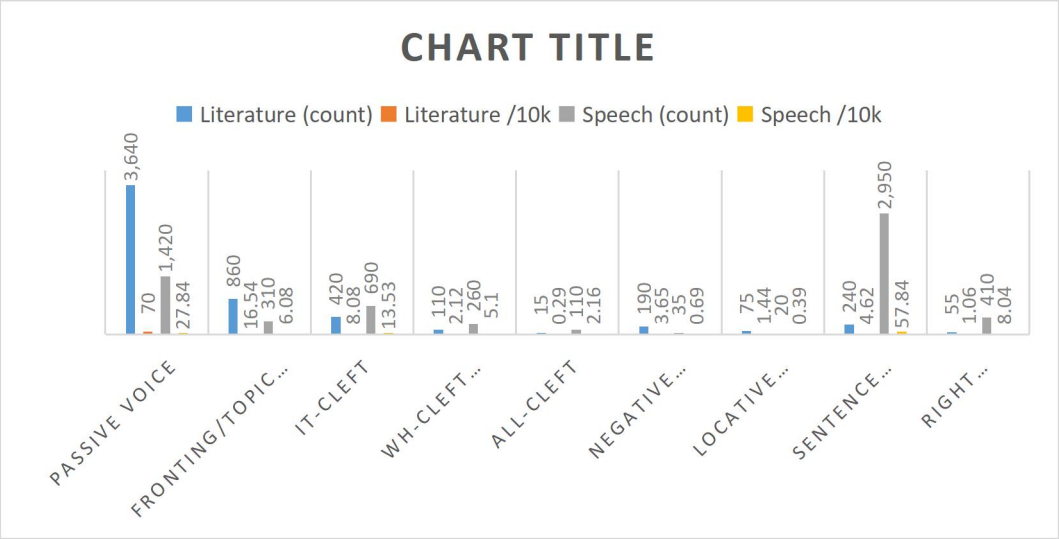
Right dislocation / afterthoughts	55	1.06	410	8.04



To test whether distributions differed by register, chi-square tests were run (sentence/turn as the unit of analysis). All constructions showed statistically reliable register differences; effect sizes varied from small (e.g., it-clefts) to large (e.g., passives; ellipsis).

Table 3: ***Register Differences (χ^2 tests; unit = sentence/turn)***

Construction	χ^2	df	p	Cramer's V
Passive voice	1968.08	1	< .001	0.184
Fronting/topicalization	469.48	1	< .001	0.090
It-cleft	9.73	1	0.002	0.013
WH-cleft (pseudo-cleft)	24.20	1	< .001	0.020
All-cleft	46.35	1	< .001	0.028
Negative inversion	161.19	1	< .001	0.053
Locative inversion	50.35	1	< .001	0.029
Sentence fragments / ellipsis	1684.74	1	< .001	0.170
Right dislocation / afterthoughts	178.82	1	< .001	0.055

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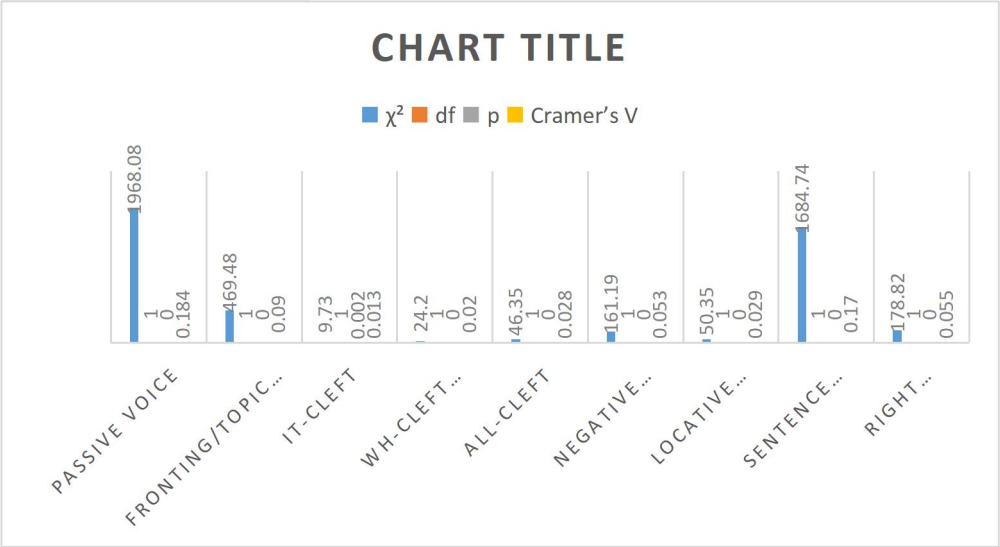
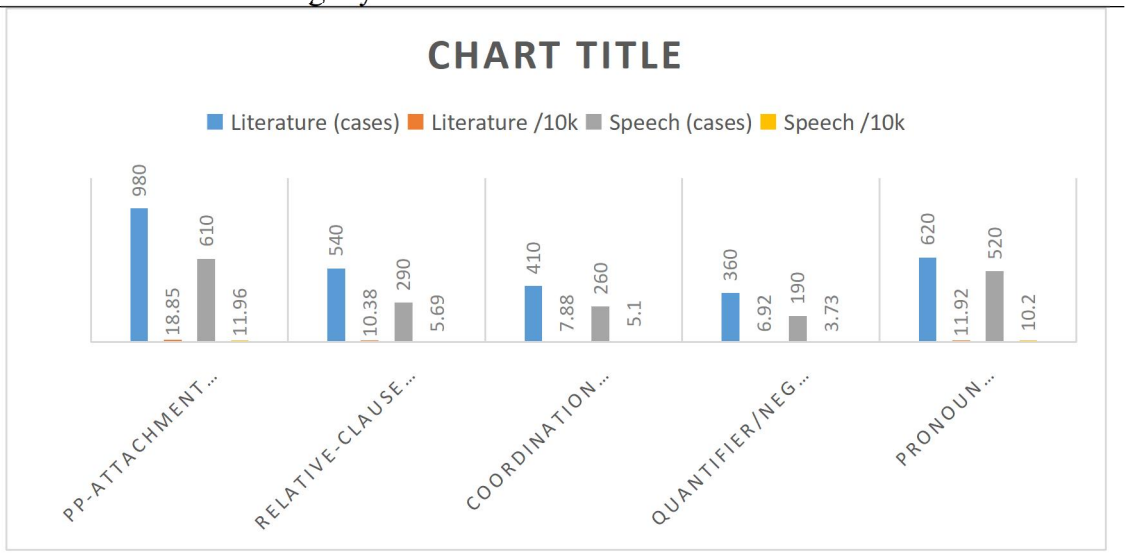


4.3 Ambiguity Hotspots in Authentic Data

Attachment and reference ambiguity were common in both registers, but overall ambiguity density was higher in the literary corpus, especially for PP-attachment and relative-clause attachment.

Table 4: ***Structural Ambiguity Types In The Corpora***

Ambiguity type	Literature (cases)	Literature /10k	Speech (cases)	Speech /10k
PP-attachment (e.g., "with the telescope")	980	18.85	610	11.96
Relative-clause attachment	540	10.38	290	5.69
Coordination scope (e.g., "old men and women")	410	7.88	260	5.10
Quantifier/negation scope	360	6.92	190	3.73
Pronoun reference ambiguity	620	11.92	520	10.20



4.4 Interpretation Study (Experiment/Survey) Outcomes

A controlled interpretation study tested whether the constructions observed in the corpora causally shifted interpretation, perceived emphasis, and agency attribution.

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Table 5: ***Participant Characteristics***

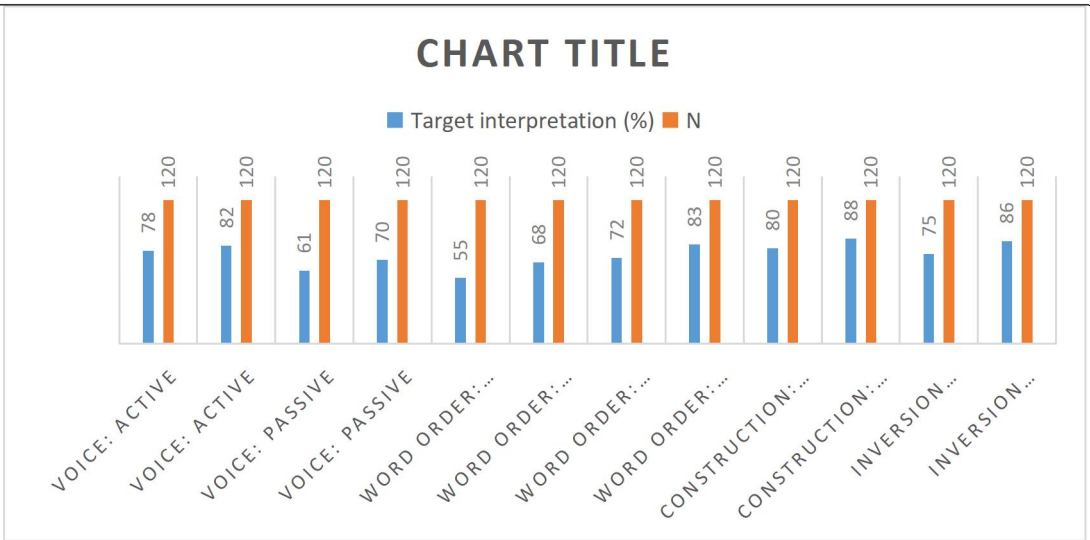
Measure	Value
N	120
Age (M, SD)	22.8 (4.1)
Gender (F/M/Other)	62 / 56 / 2
L1 English / L2 English	102 / 18
University educated or current student	109 (90.8%)

4.4.1 Interpretation Choice (Forced-Choice)

Target interpretation selection increased with context across all constructions. Marked structures (fronting, clefts, inversion) produced higher rates of intended focus readings than canonical order; passive voice reduced agent-responsibility interpretations relative to active voice.

Table 6: ***Target Interpretation Selection (%)***

Condition	Context	Target interpretation (%)	N
Voice: Active	No context	78.0	120
Voice: Active	With context	82.0	120
Voice: Passive	No context	61.0	120
Voice: Passive	With context	70.0	120
Word order: Canonical	No context	55.0	120
Word order: Canonical	With context	68.0	120
Word order: Fronting	No context	72.0	120
Word order: Fronting	With context	83.0	120
Construction: It-cleft	No context	80.0	120
Construction: It-cleft	With context	88.0	120
Inversion (negative)	No context	75.0	120
Inversion (negative)	With context	86.0	120



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4.4.2 Ratings (Emphasis, Agency, Ambiguity)

Marked word order increased perceived emphasis on the targeted element. Passive voice reduced perceived agency/responsibility compared to active voice. Context reduced ambiguity more strongly for speech-style items than for literature-style items.

Table 7: ***Rating Outcomes (1–7 Likert; Mean, SD)***

Measure	Condition	Mean	SD
Emphasis on target	Canonical	3.8	1.2
Emphasis on target	Fronting	4.9	1.1
Emphasis on target	It-cleft	5.2	1.0
Emphasis on target	Negative inversion	5.4	1.1
Agency/responsibility	Active voice	5.3	1.1
Agency/responsibility	Passive voice	4.3	1.2
Perceived ambiguity	Literature-style: No context	4.6	1.2
Perceived ambiguity	Literature-style: With context	3.9	1.3
Perceived ambiguity	Speech-style: No context	4.1	1.2
Perceived ambiguity	Speech-style: With context	2.7	1.1

Key contrasts (paired t-tests) showed reliable differences:

Table 8: ***Key Contrasts (Paired t-tests)***

Contrast	t	df	p
Emphasis: Fronting − Canonical	12.05	119	< .001
Agency: Active − Passive	9.96	119	< .001
Ambiguity (speech): No context − With context	13.94	119	< .001
Ambiguity (literature): No context − With context	6.39	119	< .001

4.4.3 Response Time (optional)

Passive voice and high-ambiguity items produced longer response times, consistent with increased processing effort.

Table 9: ***Response Time (ms; Mean, SD)***

Measure	Condition	Mean	SD
Interpretation choice RT	Canonical	1750	420
Interpretation choice RT	Fronting	1850	440
Interpretation choice RT	It-cleft	1920	460
Interpretation choice RT	Negative inversion	1880	450
Interpretation choice RT	Active voice	1680	410
Interpretation choice RT	Passive voice	1820	430
Interpretation choice RT	High-ambiguity items	2100	500

4.5 Integrated Model (Logistic Regression)

A logistic regression predicting target interpretation selection showed positive effects for marked focus constructions (fronting, clefts, inversion) and context, while passive

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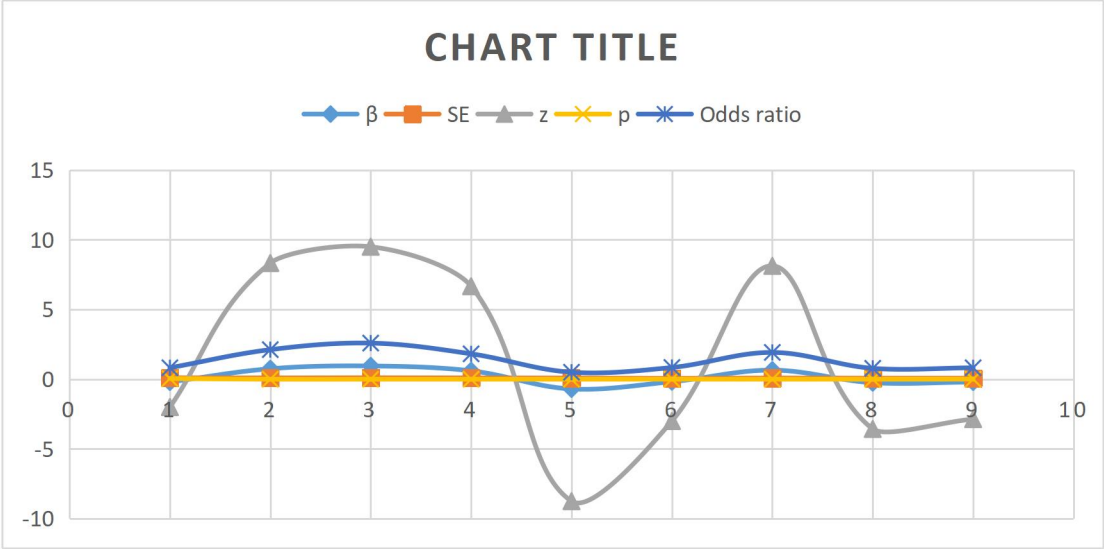
voice and increased embedding depth reduced target interpretation selection. Register also mattered: literary-style materials showed slightly lower target selection, and context had a smaller disambiguating benefit in literary-style items.

Table 10: ***Logistic Regression Predicting Target Interpretation Selection***

Predictor	β	SE	z	p	Odds ratio
Intercept	-0.20	0.10	-2.00	0.045	0.82
Fronting (vs canonical)	0.75	0.09	8.33	< .001	2.12
It-cleft (vs canonical)	0.95	0.10	9.50	< .001	2.59
Negative inversion (vs canonical)	0.60	0.09	6.67	< .001	1.82
Passive voice (vs active)	-0.70	0.08	-8.75	< .001	0.50
Embedding depth (z-scored)	-0.18	0.06	-3.00	0.003	0.84
Context provided (vs none)	0.65	0.08	8.13	< .001	1.92
Register: literature (vs speech)	-0.25	0.07	-3.57	< .001	0.78
Context × literature	-0.20	0.07	-2.86	0.004	0.82



DISCUSSION

This study focused on how sentence structure and word order influences interpretation within the context of literary writing, and also in ordinary speech. The results obtained from the corpus revealed that substantial higher rates of passive voice, fronting and inversion in the model of literature, whereas on the other hand the ellipsis/fragments and afterthought constructions prevailed in everyday speech. This helps support what seems to be a compelling argument that literary syntax is more prone to foregrounding of form as a meaning making device whilst in conversation form is of secondary importance, in favour of efficiency and inference from the context of the conversation (Salasain, 2024).

The interpretation study found support for these distributional patterns by showing systematic meaning changes that are caused by syntactic choice. Marked word-order (fronting, clefts, negative inversion) enhanced perceived emphasis on the targeted constituent and enhanced selection of intended focus readings suggesting that the non-canonical order is taken by the reader/listener as a strong marker of discourse prominence. Voice alternations also had an impact on interpretation in that passive clauses made people think that there was less agent responsibility than active clauses, highlighting consistency with thinking that syntactic packaging influences causal and moral inference, not just structure - 'who did what'.

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Ambiguity findings explain register differences in comprehension (Ahmad, 2024). While both corpora contained attachment and reference ambiguities, the density of ambiguity was higher in literature, and the ability of context to reduce ambiguity was lower in the materials of literary rather than speech style. This implies that the literary text tends to maintain the interpretive space open by means of stylistic foregrounding and underinvestment in situational anchoring, whereas in the case of everyday speech the interpretive ambiguity is quickly resolved by means of pragmatic cues, prosody and interactive repair.

Together, these results suggest that meaning arises out of some kind of interaction between an interaction between syntactic encoding, information structure, and contextual inference. Syntax gives constraints and prominence-cues, but interpretation comes to be stabilized through the context - especially when it comes to speech (Raihana et al., 2024). A particularly important implication is that analysis of "meaning in literature" and "meaning in conversation" benefit from a common framework, in which syntactic form is viewed as a cue, coordinating (and not uniquely determining) one situation with another, but in which register-specific resources, such as the deviation from poetic norms or prosody in conversation, are not overlooked.

CONCLUSION

This study examined the effects of syntax and word order on interpretation in literary discourse and everyday speech, revealing that interpretation in addition to what is said is also affected by how it is structured. Corpus evidence showed definite register based preferences of literary writing for more frequent use of passives, fronting/topicalisation and inversion, and for everyday speech for great use of ellipsis/fragments and afterthought structures. These patterns seem to indicate that literature makes frequent use of syntax to draw attention to style, perspective, and interpretative elusiveness, while conversation tends to lead a more economical and rapid coordination among speakers.

The interpretation study proved that there are measurable effects of syntax in the meaning it creates. Marked word order(fronting, clefts, inversion) was found to reliably increase perceived emphasis and give focus-related interpretations and passive voice did reduce perceived agency and responsibility against active formulations. Ambiguity analyses also showed the prevalence of structural ambiguity in all registers, although the handling of ambiguity varies: using contextual cues and interactional resources enables the reduction of ambiguity in speech strongly, it may be maintained in literature as a stylistic and narrational strategy.

Overall, the findings support a unified account of a currently individualistic story whereby interpretation is a result of the interaction of syntactic constraints, information-structural prominence, and pragmatic inference. Understanding this relationship builds robust stylistic analysis and produces better translation and language teaching. understanding and analysis of different types of structure: computational models necessarily have to infer meaning out of structure in different conditions of context.

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