

# D

**dangling participle** In TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR, a term describing the use of a PARTICIPLE, or a PHRASE introduced by a participle, which has an unclear or AMBIGUOUS relationship to the rest of the SENTENCE; also called a **misrelated participle**. If taken literally, the sentence often appears nonsensical or laughable: *Driving along the street, a runaway dog gave John a fright*. To avoid such inadvertent effects, manuals of STYLE recommend that such sentences be rephrased, with the participial construction moved or replaced, as in *When John was driving along the street, a runaway dog gave him a fright*.

**dark l** An impressionistic but commonly used term for a variety of LATERAL sound, where the RESONANCE is that of a back vowel of an [u] quality, as in the standard-English pronunciation of /l/ after VOWELS, before CONSONANTS and as a SYLLABIC sound, e.g. *pull, altar, bottle*; it is opposed to CLEAR L. Alternatively, one might refer to this quality as a ‘velarized’ /l/ (see VELAR), transcribing it [ɫ].

**data** (*n.*) A term used in its general sense in LINGUISTICS, referring to the phenomena which constitute the subject-matter of enquiry – what has been variously identified in terms of linguistic ‘behaviour’, ‘knowledge’, ‘abilities’, ‘processes’, etc. – and any associated observations and inferences which linguists make as they go about their business. There have, however, been two distinct views concerning the nature of this subject-matter, which are usually seen in opposition to each other. The traditional conception of linguistic data is limited to the observable patterns of speech and writing, especially when recorded and gathered together in a CORPUS; GENERATIVE linguistic theory, on the other hand, goes beyond this, including as part of the raw data for analysis the language user’s judgements (INTUITIONS) about the language. Much controversy has been generated by these opposed views (which are related to the more basic divergences between BEHAVIOURIST and MENTALIST philosophies), and the issue is still prominent, criticisms being made of the limited reliability and generality of observable data, and of the uncertain verifiability and objectivity of mentalistic data, as evidence of linguistic SYSTEM. In language ACQUISITION, the term ‘primary linguistic data’ refers to the language input to the child, deriving from parents, siblings, etc.

**dative** (*adj./n.*) (**dat**, **DAT**) One of the FORMS taken by a NOUN PHRASE (often a single NOUN or PRONOUN) in LANGUAGES which express GRAMMATICAL

relationships by means of INFLECTIONS. The dative CASE ('the dative') typically expresses an INDIRECT OBJECT relationship, or a range of meaning similar to that covered by *to* or *for* in English: but there is a great deal of variation between languages in the way this case is used. English itself does not have a dative case form, but expresses the notion of indirect object using PREPOSITIONS and WORD-ORDER, e.g. *he gave a book to the boy* or *he gave the boy a book*. In classical TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR, the **dative movement transformation** related DITRANSITIVE constructions of this kind. An **ethical dative** (also **ethic dative** or **dative of advantage**) expresses the person with a particular interest in an action, as in the use of *me* in the Shakespearian 'he plucked me ope his doublet' (*Julius Caesar* I.ii.263). The term is given special status in CASE grammar, where it refers to the case of the ANIMATE being affected by the VERB's state or action (later, EXPERIENCER). A frequently used alternative is RECIPIENT.

**daughter** (*n.*) A relation between two NODES in a PHRASE-MARKER. If one node X immediately DOMINATES another node Y, then X is the 'mother' of Y, and Y is the 'daughter' of X.

**daughter-adjunction** (*n.*) see ADJUNCTION

**daughter-dependency grammar (DDG)** An approach to GRAMMATICAL analysis based on a system of SYNTACTIC FEATURES and DEPENDENCY relations, in which there is a single LEVEL of syntactic REPRESENTATION, TRANSFORMATIONS not being required. The 'vertical' CONSTITUENCY relations between NODES are referred to in terms of 'daughter-dependency'; the 'horizontal' dependencies (of SUBJECT-VERB, etc.) are referred to in terms of 'sister-dependency'. All nodes in this approach are complexes of BINARY features (as opposed to the unitary CATEGORIES of earlier models of transformational grammar). Classification RULES define the permissible combinations of features to construct categories; **dependency rules** specify the structures in which these categories appear. All constituents are defined in terms of a notion of relative peripherality: given any two constituents, one will be more PERIPHERAL than the other. A notion of syntactic FUNCTION (e.g. subject, TOPIC) is assigned to nodes, whose main function is to determine SURFACE-STRUCTURE WORD-ORDER.

**daughter language** see FAMILY

**Davidsonian semantics** A theory of semantics proposed by the British philosopher Donald Davidson (b. 1917), which argues that a theory of truth for a natural language constitutes a theory of meaning for that language. The meaning of any sentence is derivable from axioms which assign semantic properties to its constituents, and sentence structures are linked by valid inferential relations. The term **neo-Davidsonian** is used for a particular approach to the analysis of THEMATIC ROLES, in which VERBS are regarded as 1-place PREDICATES of events, and thematic roles are treated as 2-place relations between individuals and events; sometimes called **event semantics**. In a neo-Davidsonian analysis, a sentence such as *John hit Bill on the arm* would be assigned a LOGICAL FORM such as  $\exists(e[\text{hit}(e) \ \& \ \text{agent}(e, \text{John}) \ \& \ \text{patient}(e, \text{Bill}) \ \& \ \text{location}(e, \text{the arm})])$ , where *e* is a special variable over events. The extent to which sentences can be analysed in terms of

event variables is controversial, especially in view of STATIVE and other types of sentence which do not refer to events.

**deadjectival** (*adj.*) A term used in GRAMMAR to describe an ELEMENT which originates as an ADJECTIVE but is used in some other way in SENTENCE structure. **Deadjectival verbs** in English (using different formation processes) include *wise up*, *darken* and *enlarge*; **deadjectival nouns** include *the rich*, *the old* and *the French*. See also DENOMINAL, DEVERBAL.

**death** (*n.*) see LANGUAGE DEATH

**debuccalized** (*adj.*) A term used in some models of NON-LINEAR PHONOLOGY to refer to CONSONANTS which lack an ORAL PLACE feature, such as GLOTTAL STOP or [h]. The process through which such consonants are formed is called **debuccalization** (also **deoralization**): examples include [t] > [ʔ] and [s] > [h]. See BUCCAL.

**declaration** (*n.*) A term used in the theory of SPEECH ACTS to refer to a type of UTTERANCE where the speaker's words bring about a new situation in the external world, as in *I name this ship/child . . . , I resign*.

**declarative** (*adj./n.*) A term used in the GRAMMATICAL classification of SENTENCE types, and usually seen in contrast to IMPERATIVE, INTERROGATIVE, etc. It refers to VERB FORMS or sentence/CLAUSE types typically used in the expression of STATEMENTS, e.g. *the man is walking*. The term 'indicative' is also sometimes used in this sense. See also MOOD.

**declension** (*n.*) In GRAMMAR, a traditional term for a CLASS of NOUNS, ADJECTIVES or PRONOUNS in an INFLECTING language, which occur with the same range of FORMS. In Latin, for example, the 'first declension' refers to nouns whose endings are *-a*, *-am* or *-ae*, in the various cases in the SINGULAR (e.g. *insula* 'island', *poeta* 'poet'). There are a further four declensions with different types of ending, as well as several nouns which decline in an IRREGULAR way. The term is not usually found in modern LINGUISTIC analysis (which talks in terms of 'word classes'), but will be encountered in studies of LINGUISTIC HISTORIOGRAPHY).

**declination** (*n.*) see DOWNSTEP

**decode** (*n.*) see CODE

**deconstruction** (*n.*) see LOGOCENTRISM

**decreolization** (*n.*) see CREOLE

**de dicto/de re** /dei 'diktəʊ, dei 'reɪ/ Terms used in philosophy and logic which have been invoked in the SEMANTIC analysis of sentences expressing such MODAL meanings as 'It is possible that . . .' or 'X believes that . . .' *De dicto* (Latin: 'about what is said') refers to the truth of a proposition, whereas *de re* ('about the thing') refers to belief in an individual entity. For example, a sentence such as *Jane believes that Michael Brown is a doctor* is ambiguous between the two

readings. On a *de re* reading, the speaker refers to a particular individual as Michael Brown, and asserts that Jane believes that individual to be a doctor. The sentence entails that Michael Brown exists, but makes no claim as to whether Jane knows him by that name. In contrast, on a *de dicto* reading, the sentence asserts that Jane stands in the belief relation to the sentence *Michael Brown is a doctor*. Hence it requires that Jane believes there to be someone named Michael Brown, but the sentence taken as a whole does not entail that such an individual actually exists. See also OPAQUE (3).

**deep Case** see CASE (2)

**deep grammar** see DEEP STRUCTURE

**deep structure** A central theoretical term in TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR; opposed to SURFACE STRUCTURE. ‘Deep structure’ (or **deep grammar**) is the abstract SYNTACTIC REPRESENTATION of a SENTENCE – an UNDERLYING LEVEL of structural organization which specifies all the factors governing the way the sentence should be interpreted. (The basic notion has also been referred to, in various theoretical contexts, as D-STRUCTURE, UNDERLYING structure, BASE structure, REMOTE STRUCTURE and INITIAL structure.) This level provides information which enables us to distinguish between the alternative interpretations of sentences which have the same surface form (i.e. they are AMBIGUOUS), e.g. *Flying planes can be dangerous*, where *flying planes* can be related to two underlying sentences, *Planes which fly . . .* and *To fly planes . . .* It is also a way of relating sentences which have different surface forms but the same underlying MEANING, as in the relationship between ACTIVE and PASSIVE structures, e.g. *The panda chased the man* as opposed to *The man was chased by the panda*. Transformational grammars would derive one of these alternatives from the other, or perhaps both from an even more abstract (‘deeper’) underlying structure. The various grammatical relations in such sentences can then be referred to as the ‘deep SUBJECT’, ‘deep OBJECT’, etc. (contrasted with ‘surface subject’, etc.). It is also possible to compute the ‘depth’ at which a transformation operates, by referring to the number of stages in a DERIVATION before it applies, and some attempt has been made to correlate this notion with the COMPLEXITY of a sentence.

In some generative studies, the role of deep structure has been called into question, it being suggested that a separate level of underlying syntactic organization between surface structure and meaning is unnecessary and misleading (see GENERATIVE SEMANTICS). It is also possible to find the term used in the general sense of ‘underlying structural interpretation’, without commitment to a specific interpretation in terms of transformational grammar. Indeed, the original use of this term, by the American linguist Charles Hockett (1916–2000), antedates its CHOMSKYAN application.

**default** (*n.*) The application of the general use of this term in several domains of linguistics and phonetics, to refer to cases where a previously specified value is automatically introduced into an analysis when certain conditions apply. In some models of PHONOLOGY, for example, it refers to an UNMARKED mode of operation of a RULE. A case in point is in radical UNDERSPECIFICATION theory, where for each FEATURE one value (the phonologically active value) is specified in the

lexical REPRESENTATION, and the other is filled in at some later stage by a **default rule (DR, or default specification)** which assigns an unmarked value to the feature. The default rule may become activated by a phonological rule, or it may stay passive throughout the derivation. The notion is also important in some SEMANTIC lexical analyses, such as certain models of TYPED FEATURE structures.

**defective** (*adj.*) (1) In GRAMMAR, a traditional description of WORDS which do not display all the properties of the CLASS to which they belong. The English MODAL VERBS, for example, are defective in that they do not permit the usual range of verb FORMS, such as an INFINITIVE or PARTICIPLE forms (\**to may*, \**shalling*, etc.). Because of its pejorative connotations in general usage, the term needs to be used cautiously. It tends to be avoided in modern LINGUISTIC analysis (which talks more in terms of IRREGULAR forms and exceptions to RULES), but will be encountered in studies of LINGUISTIC HISTORIOGRAPHY. The distinction between ‘defective’ and ‘irregular’ needs to be appreciated: a defective form is a missing form; an irregular form is present, but does not conform to the rule governing the class to which it belongs.

(2) In PHONOLOGY, descriptive of any pattern which fails to show all the properties of the class to which it belongs. For example, a SEGMENT with a ‘defective DISTRIBUTION’ does not appear in all the ENVIRONMENTS possible for other members of its class (e.g. the distribution of English /h/ is defective, compared with other FRICATIVES, because it cannot appear syllable-finally).

**deficit hypothesis** In SOCIOLINGUISTICS and EDUCATIONAL LINGUISTICS, the name given to the view that some children, especially those belonging to an ethnic minority or with a working-class background, lack a sufficiently wide range of GRAMMATICAL constructions and vocabulary to be able to express complex ideas, such as will be needed for success in school. An unfashionable hypothesis in the intellectual climate of the present-day, it is contrasted with the **difference hypothesis** – the view that the language used by such children is simply different from that found in middle-class children, though its social standing is lower. The difference hypothesis views all DIALECTS as intrinsically equal and able to express ideas of any complexity, though children who speak non-STANDARD dialects may not have had the same kind of opportunity or motivation to use their language in demanding educational contexts.

**defining** (*adj.*) see RELATIVE

**defining vocabulary** In several areas of APPLIED LINGUISTICS, a fixed set of words used as part of the definition of other words. The notion is found in such contexts as foreign language teaching, the teaching of reading and LEXICOGRAPHY. These days, several dictionaries intended for the non-native user have a limited vocabulary – for example, 2,000 words – in order to define the meanings of all their lexical entries.

**definite** (*adj.*) (**def, DEF**) A term used in GRAMMAR and SEMANTICS to refer to a specific, identifiable entity (or class of entities); it is usually contrasted with INDEFINITE (less often **non-definite**). **Definiteness** in English is generally conveyed through the use of definite DETERMINERS (such as *this, my*), and especially through

the definite ARTICLE, *the*. Definite NOUN PHRASES are often referred to, especially in the PHILOSOPHICAL LINGUISTIC literature, as **definite descriptions**. See also PAST HISTORIC, SPECIFIC INDEFINITE.

**defooting** (*n.*) see FOOT (1)

**deforestation** (*n.*) A principle proposed in GENERATIVE PHONOLOGY whereby, before applying any RULES on a phonological CYCLE, all PROSODIC structure in the DOMAIN of that cycle is erased. The principle was introduced to handle WORDS which are subject to processes of DERIVATIONAL MORPHOLOGY due to AFFIXATION (e.g. *sensation, sensationality*).

**degenerate foot** In METRICAL PHONOLOGY, a FOOT containing only one SYLLABLE; also described as a UNARY foot.

**degree** (*n.*) A GRAMMATICAL CATEGORY used to specify the extent of a comparison between ADJECTIVES or ADVERBS. A three-way contrast of GRADATION is usually recognized (POSITIVE *v.* COMPARATIVE *v.* SUPERLATIVE), but other possibilities are sometimes distinguished, e.g. an 'equative' degree (seen in *as big as*). In English, both MORPHOLOGICAL and SYNTACTIC means are used in the expression of degree, e.g. *bigger/biggest* but *more fascinating/most fascinating*.

**deictic** (*adj./n.*) see DEIXIS

**deixis** (*n.*) /'daɪksɪs/ A term used in LINGUISTIC theory to subsume those features of LANGUAGE which refer directly to the personal, temporal or locational characteristics of the SITUATION within which an UTTERANCE takes place, whose MEANING is thus relative to that situation; e.g. *now/then, here/there, I/you, this/that* are **deictics** ('deictic' or EXOPHORIC words). Deixis is analogous to the philosophical notion of INDEXICAL EXPRESSION. The term is also used for words which refer backwards or forwards in DISCOURSE (ANAPHORA and CATAPHORA respectively), e.g. *that, the following, the former*. This is sometimes known as **discourse** (or **text**) **deixis**, which should be distinguished from **social deixis**, the encoding of social distinctions that relate to PARTICIPANT ROLES (speaker–addressee, etc.), as encountered in such matters as PRONOUNS, HONORIFICS, VOCATIVES and forms of ADDRESS. The notion of deixis has proved to be fruitful in several areas of LINGUISTICS, especially in PRAGMATICS, and in language ACQUISITION studies, where some investigators view the learning of these ITEMS by children as constituting a significant feature of early development.

**delayed** (*adj.*) One of the features of sound set up by Chomsky and Halle (see CHOMSKYAN) in their DISTINCTIVE FEATURE theory of PHONOLOGY, as part of the phrase **delayed release** (DEL REL), to handle variations in MANNER OF ARTICULATION, specifying the nature of a sound's RELEASE. Delayed release sounds are defined both ARTICULATORILY and ACOUSTICALLY, as those sounds where a sound is produced with a gradual release sufficient to make a sound similar to a FRICATIVE, as in AFFRICATES. Affricates are all [+delayed release] ([+del rel]). Its opposite is INSTANTANEOUS or ABRUPT release, referring to a sound released suddenly and without the ACOUSTIC turbulence of a fricative, as in PLOSIVES.



**delayed auditory feedback** see FEEDBACK

**delete** (*v.*) see DELETION

**deletion** (*n.*) A basic operation within the framework of TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR, which eliminates a CONSTITUENT of an input PHRASE-MARKER. In classical TG, it accounted for IMPERATIVE SENTENCES, for example (where the SUBJECT and AUXILIARY VERB of an UNDERLYING sentence is **deleted**, as in *kick the ball* from *You will kick the ball*). Other applications of the notion can be found in the transformational treatment of DUMMY symbols, and in several specific transformational operations (e.g. EQUI NP DELETION). Several formal CONSTRAINTS on the use of deletion transformations have been suggested, especially that the deleted elements must be RECOVERABLE, i.e. the deletion transformation must specify the elements to be deleted, and in the output phrase-marker the effects of the deletion must be clearly indicated. If this were not the case, there would be several unfortunate consequences; e.g. a single surface structure could be related to an indefinite number of deep structures, as in *He's been hit*, derivable from *Someone/John/A bullet . . . hit him*.

**delicacy** (*n.*) In HALLIDAYAN LINGUISTICS, a term used to refer to one of the scales of analysis which interrelates the CATEGORIES of the theory, viz. the dimension which recognizes increasing depth of detail. An increasingly **delicate** analysis of the notion of CLAUSE, for example, might recognize AFFIRMATIVE *v.* INTERROGATIVE types; interrogative clauses could then be analysed into several QUESTION types; and so on. Other scales in this approach are labelled RANK and EXPONENCE.

**delimitative** (*adj./n.*) A term sometimes used in GRAMMAR and SEMANTICS, referring to a limitation on the duration of the state or activity expressed by the VERB ('for a little while'). In some languages (e.g. Russian) the contrast is a formal part of the ASPECT system.

**delinking** (*n.*) see SPREADING (2), LINKING (2)

**delta** (*adj./n.*) A symbol  $\Delta$  used in some MODELS of TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR (see ASPECTS MODEL), which acts as a DUMMY element in the generation of DEEP STRUCTURES. The purpose of the **delta symbols** is to mark the places in an initial PHRASE-MARKER (a PRE-LEXICAL structure) where LEXICAL items are later to be inserted: lexical insertion RULES then replace each 'empty' delta by a COMPLEX SYMBOL containing the SYNTACTIC FEATURES which will be used to define the deep structures of the grammar.

**demarcative** (*adj.*) A term used in PHONETICS and PHONOLOGY to refer to a FEATURE which marks the boundary of a linguistic UNIT. The feature does not have to be coterminous with the boundary: in Welsh, for example, word STRESS falls (with few exceptions) on the penultimate syllable of a POLYSYLLABIC word, and therefore has a potentially demarcative function, in that it can be used to predict the subsequent location of the WORD boundary.

**demibeat** (*n.*) see BEAT

**demisyllabic** (*adj.*) A term used in ACOUSTIC PHONETICS for an approach to the analysis of SYLLABLES which recognizes an acoustically identifiable unit between the syllable and the PHONE. A syllable is decomposed into two elements: a syllabic core and an optional affix (or affixes). The core is then analysed, on the basis of a SPECTROGRAPHIC or waveform display, into an initial and final demisyllable, corresponding respectively to the initial part of the VOWEL and the mid-to-final part of the vowel. Because there are fewer demisyllables than syllables (in English, for example, the demisyllabic inventory is about a fifth of the syllabic), and because they display a degree of independence and acoustic stability which facilitates CONCATENATION, this kind of analysis has had applications in SPEECH SYNTHESIS and automatic SPEECH RECOGNITION.

**demonstrative** (*adj./n.*) (**dem**, **DEM**) A term used in GRAMMAR and SEMANTICS to refer to a class of items whose function is to point to an entity in the SITUATION or elsewhere in a SENTENCE. The items *this* and *that*, for example, have their REFERENCE fixed by gestures, speaker knowledge or other means. Depending on their grammatical role, they are called 'demonstrative DETERMINERS' (*That book is interesting*) or 'demonstrative PRONOUNS' (*That is interesting*), but some grammars refer to items with determiner function as 'demonstrative ADJECTIVES'. Demonstratives fall within the general class of DEICTIC expressions, and are sometimes contrasted with 'pure INDEXICALS'.

**demotic** (*adj.*) A term used in SOCIOLINGUISTICS to describe a STYLE of language used for or by ordinary people; usually contrasted with a **hieratic** style used for special (e.g. religious) purposes. Examples include the simplified hieroglyphic of Ancient Egyptian and the VERNACULAR variety of Modern Greek.

**demotion** (*n.*) A term used in RELATIONAL GRAMMAR for a class of relation-changing PROCESSES in which a NOUN PHRASE bearing a particular grammatical relation to some VERB comes to bear another grammatical relation to that verb, which is lower down the relational HIERARCHY. An example would be a process which converted a SUBJECT to an OBJECT.

**denasalized** (*adj.*) see NASAL

**denominal** (*adj.*) A term used in GRAMMAR to describe an element which originates as a NOUN but is used in some other way in sentence structure. For example, in *the garden fence*, *garden* could be described as a **denominal adjective**; in *I'm going to carpet the room*, *carpet* is a **denominal verb**. See also DEADJECTIVAL, DEVERBAL.

**denotation** (*n.*) A term used in SEMANTICS as part of a classification of types of MEANING; opposed to CONNOTATION. **Denotative meaning** involves the relationship between a LINGUISTIC UNIT (especially a LEXICAL ITEM) and the non-linguistic entities to which it refers – it is thus equivalent to REFERENTIAL meaning. For example, the denotation of *dog* is its dictionary definition of 'canine quadruped', etc.; its connotations might include 'friend', 'helper', 'competition', etc. The term



is often used synonymously with EXTENSION (1); in this sense, the denotation of the word *dog* is the set of all dogs.

**dental** (*adj./n.*) A term in the PHONETIC classification of CONSONANT sounds on the basis of their PLACE OF ARTICULATION: it refers to a sound made against the teeth, either by the tongue TIP and RIMS or by the lip. ‘Apico-dental’ is a more explicit but less used description of the first possibility, ‘apico-’ being derived from APEX, an alternative term for tongue tip; ‘labio-dental’ is a common description of the second. Usually the upper teeth are the ones involved, as in the [d̪], [t̪] and [n̪] of some English DIALECTS, such as Irish English (this contrasts with the ALVEOLAR articulation of [d] and [t] in RECEIVED PRONUNCIATION); but both upper and lower teeth may be in contact with the tongue during the articulation, as in the *th*-sounds of *thin* [θ] and *this* [ð]. In [θ] and [ð], moreover, the tip of the tongue is usually slightly between the teeth, in which cases the more precise term INTERDENTAL can be used. If the sound is articulated towards the back of the upper teeth, close to the alveolar ridge, the term ‘POST-dental’ can be used. ‘Denti-alveolar’ identifies the place of articulation at the junction of the upper teeth and alveolar ridge. The phonetic symbol for ‘dental articulation’ is [̪], placed underneath the symbol for the consonant in question, as above. See also LABIO-DENTAL, LAMINAL.

**denti-alveolar** (*adj.*) see DENTAL

**deontic** (*adj.*) /deɪ'ɒntɪk/ A term derived from modal logic and used by some LINGUISTS as part of a theoretical framework for the analysis of MODAL VERBS and related STRUCTURES in LANGUAGE. **Deontic modality** is concerned with the logic of obligation and permission, e.g. the use of the modals in SENTENCES such as *The car must be ready*, i.e. ‘It is obligatory that the car be ready’. It thus contrasts with ALETHIC and EPISTEMIC modality, which would interpret this sentence respectively as ‘It is metaphysically necessary for the car to be ready’ and ‘It follows from what is known that the car is ready’.

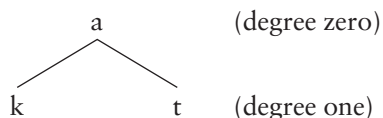
**deoralization** (*n.*) see DEBUCCALIZATION

**dependence** (*n.*) A family of FAITHFULNESS CONSTRAINTS in OPTIMALITY THEORY requiring that every FEATURE or SEGMENT in the OUTPUT has an identical correspondent in the input. It is a class of CORRESPONDENCE constraints.

**dependency grammar** A type of FORMAL GRAMMAR, best known for the development it received in the 1950s (in particular, by the French linguist Lucien Tesnière (1893–1954)), which establishes types of dependencies between the ELEMENTS of a CONSTRUCTION as a means of explaining grammatical relationships. SYNTACTIC STRUCTURE is represented using **dependency trees** – sets of NODES whose interconnections specify structural RELATIONS. Every tree contains a GOVERNOR and a set of **dependents**, each of which bears a specific relation to the governor. For example, in a CLAUSE, the VERB is seen as governor, and the dependents are NOUN PHRASES, which are assigned numerical values depending on the VALENCY attributed to the verb. In a PREPOSITIONAL phrase, such as *on the box*, the preposition governs the noun, and the noun governs the ARTICLE. Dependencies

are usually displayed as ARCS, which relate words (rather than CONSTITUENTS). The statements which specify the governing and dependent relations which each class of unit may enter into are known as **dependency rules**. Dependencies are of particular importance in several grammatical theories (such as DAUGHTER-DEPENDENCY GRAMMAR). The term 'dependency' is also used in several frameworks to express types of relationship between phrases, e.g. UNBOUNDED DEPENDENCY.

**dependency phonology (DP)** An approach to PHONOLOGY which makes use of the principles of DEPENDENCY GRAMMAR to set up a model of the internal relational STRUCTURE of SEGMENTS. The SYLLABLE is seen as a dependency structure, with a GOVERNOR (or HEAD) and dependents (or MODIFIERS). A syllabic ELEMENT (a VOWEL or a syllabic CONSONANT) is the minimal obligatory component of the syllable, other elements being marginal, governed by their syllabic. Degree of dependency is represented vertically in a **dependency graph**, the governor being 'degree zero', with other levels 'degree one', etc., as in the graph for *cat*:



Within the segment, all features are viewed as unary, and are generally referred to as 'components'. The notion of dependency has also come to be used by some other NON-LINEAR PHONOLOGICAL models to denote any kind of relation which may be represented asymmetrically, especially with reference to segment-internal structure. For example, HEADEDNESS may be seen in the relative PROMINENCE of sequences of strong and weak segments in METRICAL PHONOLOGY, or between SONOROUS and non-sonorous consonants, or between the elements of a CONSONANT CLUSTER. In FEATURE GEOMETRY, the dependency relation holds between features on different TIERS ('feature dependency' or 'dependent tier ordering').

**dependent** (*adj.*) (1) A general term used in GRAMMATICAL analysis as part of the classification of CLAUSE types: opposed to MAIN, and synonymous with SUBORDINATE.

(2) See DEPENDENCY GRAMMAR.

**deponent verb** A term from TRADITIONAL Latin GRAMMAR, used for VERBS which are PASSIVE in most of their FORMS, but ACTIVE in meaning. Examples include *loquor* 'speak' and *hortor* 'I exhort'. They are called 'deponent' because they have 'put away' (*de + pono*) some of their parts – in other words, the INFLECTIONS associated with the active VOICE.

**depth** (*n.*) see DEEP STRUCTURE

**depth hypothesis** A hypothesis proposed by the American LINGUIST Victor Yngve (b. 1920) in the early 1960s as an explanation of the psychological differences between the two categories of linguistic CONSTRUCTION: LEFT-BRANCHING (e.g. *the man's hat*) and RIGHT-BRANCHING (e.g. *the hat of the man*). He argued that

left-branching structures add more to the psychological COMPLEXITY (or structural 'depth') of a SENTENCE, because the processing of such structures takes up more space in short-term memory than does the processing of right-branching structures. The hypothesis has been criticized on various grounds, particular reference being made to other important types of construction which complicate the issue, such as SELF-EMBEDDING.

**de re** see DE DICTO/DE RE

**derivation** (*n.*) (1) A term used in MORPHOLOGY to refer to one of the two main categories or processes of WORD-FORMATION (**derivational morphology**), the other being INFLECTION(AL); also sometimes called **derivatology**. These terms also apply to the two types of AFFIX involved in word-formation. Basically, the result of a derivational process is a new word (e.g. *nation* → *national*), whereas the result of an inflectional (or **non-derivational**) process is a different form of the same word (e.g. *nations*, *nationals*). The distinction is not totally clear-cut, however (e.g. how best to analyse *-ly* in English). **Derivational affixes** change the grammatical CLASS of MORPHEMES to which they are attached (as in SUFFIXATION, e.g. *-tion* is a noun-forming derivational suffix); they also usually occur closer to the ROOT morpheme than do inflections, e.g. *nation-al-ize* + *-ing/-s/-d*. Often they have independently stateable LEXICAL MEANINGS (e.g. *mini-*, *sub-*), though these are not always easy to identify (e.g. *-er*). The combination of root and derivational affixes is usually referred to as the STEM of the word, i.e. the ELEMENT to which inflections are attached; several modes of classification are available in the literature on this subject.

(2) In GENERATIVE GRAMMAR, **derivation** refers to the set of formally identifiable stages used in generating a SENTENCE from an INITIAL SYMBOL to a TERMINAL STRING, i.e. the whole set of PHRASE-STRUCTURE, TRANSFORMATIONAL, etc., RULES which have applied. In a more restricted context, a **derived structure** refers to the form of an output PHRASE-MARKER, after a transformational rule has applied. See also CORRESPONDENCE HYPOTHESIS.

(3) In HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS, **derivation** is used to refer to the origins or historical development of a LANGUAGE or linguistic form. Sounds, words (see ETYMOLOGY) and structures are said to be **derived** from corresponding FORMS in an earlier state of a language.

**derivational morphology** see DERIVATION (1)

**derivational theory of complexity** see CORRESPONDENCE HYPOTHESIS

**derivatology** (*n.*) see DERIVATION

**derived environment** In some models of PHONOLOGY, a term used to characterize a CONSTRAINT on the application of certain phonological RULES: the **derived environment constraint** or **condition** asserts that certain kinds of rules (e.g. obligatory NEUTRALIZATION rules) apply only in DERIVED environments – that is, derived either through MORPHOLOGICAL composition or the application of a phonological rule. The DOMAINS which exhibit this constraint are CYCLIC.

**description** (*n.*) The general sense of this term is found in LINGUISTICS, identifying one of the main aims of the subject – to give a comprehensive, systematic, objective and precise account of the patterns and use of a specific LANGUAGE or DIALECT, at a particular point in time. This definition suggests several respects in which **descriptive** is in contrast with other conceptions of linguistic enquiry. The emphasis on objectivity, systematicness, etc., places it in contrast with the PRESCRIPTIVE aims of much TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR: the aim of **descriptive linguistics** is to describe the facts of linguistic usage as they are, and not how they ought to be, with reference to some imagined ideal state. The emphasis on a given time places it in contrast with HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS, where the aim is to demonstrate linguistic change: descriptive linguistics aims to describe a language SYNCHRONICALLY, at a particular time (not necessarily the present – one can describe the linguistic patterns of any period). The emphasis on ‘a’ language distinguishes the subject from COMPARATIVE linguistics, as its name suggests, and also from GENERAL linguistics, where the aim is to make theoretical statements about language as a whole.

It ought not to be forgotten, of course, that there is an interdependence between these various branches of the subject: a description is the result of an analysis, which must in turn be based on a set of theoretical assumptions. But in descriptive linguistics the theory is only a means to an end, viz. the production of a **descriptive grammar** (or one of its subdivisions, e.g. PHONOLOGY, LEXICON, SYNTAX, MORPHOLOGY). An approach which is characterized by an almost exclusive concern with description, in the above sense, is known as **descriptivism**, and its proponents as **descriptivists**. In linguistics, the term is usually applied to American anthropological and STRUCTURALIST studies before the ‘generativist’ approach of the late 1950s. Within GENERATIVE grammar, also, the phrase **descriptive adequacy** adds a special dimension to the use of the term: it refers to an account of the NATIVE-SPEAKER’S linguistic COMPETENCE (and not merely to an account of a CORPUS of DATA, as would be intended by the earlier use of ‘description’).

**descriptive adequacy/grammar/linguistics** see DESCRIPTION

**descriptivism, descriptivist** (*n.*) see DESCRIPTION

**desiderative** (*adj./n.*) A term used in the GRAMMATICAL CLASSIFICATION of SENTENCE types, and usually seen in contrast to INDICATIVE, IMPERATIVE, etc., MOODS. Desiderative utterances (or ‘desideratives’) refer to VERB FORMS or sentence/CLAUSE types used for the expression of wants and desires – approximately translatable by ‘*I want* +sentence’, but often LEXICALIZED, e.g. *to want to eat* → *to hunger*.

**designated terminal element (DTE)** A term used in METRICAL PHONOLOGY for the most PROMINENT element in a STRING, DOMINATED only by relatively strong (s-)NODES. For example, *egg* is the DTE in the phrase *the hard-boiled egg*.

**destressing** (*n.*) see STRESS

**deterioration** (*n.*) In HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS, a term used in the classification of types of SEMANTIC change, referring to the development of a SENSE of disapproval in a LEXICAL item; also called **pejoration**, and opposed to AMELIORATION.

An example of the way words **deteriorate** is *notorious*, which once meant ‘widely known’, and now means ‘widely and unfavourably known’.

**determiner** (*n.*) (**det**, DET, D) A term used in some models of GRAMMATICAL description, referring to a class of ITEMS whose main role is to CO-OCCUR with NOUNS to express a wide range of SEMANTIC contrasts, such as QUANTITY or NUMBER. The ARTICLES, when they occur in a LANGUAGE, are the main subset of determiners (e.g. *the/a* in English); other WORDS which can have a determiner function in English include *each/every, this/that, some/any*, all of which have a DISTRIBUTION which includes the article position, e.g. *the/this/some . . . cake*. Some LINGUISTS extend the application of this term to include other types of word within the noun PHRASE (e.g. ADJECTIVES, Predeterminers), and sometimes even to include MODIFIERS in other parts of the sentence. In some GENERATIVE GRAMMAR theories, determiner is regarded as the head in combination with a noun, to produce a **determiner phrase (DP)**. The **DP hypothesis** is the proposal that noun phrases are PROJECTIONS of the determiner.

**determinism** (*n.*) see RELATIVITY

**development** (*n.*) see ACQUISITION

**developmental linguistics** A branch of LINGUISTICS concerned with the study of the ACQUISITION of LANGUAGE in children. The subject involves the application of linguistic theories and techniques of analysis to child language DATA, in order to provide a precise description of patterns of development and an explanation of the norms and variations encountered, both within individual languages and UNIVERSALLY. In relation to the task of explanation, particular attention is paid to the role of non-linguistic factors, such as cognition, social background, the nature of the experimental task and so on, and as a consequence there has been an increasingly multidisciplinary approach to the problem. Because of the particular relevance of psychological factors, the subject is sometimes referred to as **developmental psycholinguistics**.

**deverbal** (*adj.*) A term used in GRAMMAR to describe an ELEMENT which originates as a VERB but is used in some other way in SENTENCE structure. For example, in *the singing policeman*, *singing* could be described as a **deverbal adjective**; in *I made a go of it*, *go* is a **deverbal noun**. See also DEADJECTIVAL, DENOMINAL.

**deviance** (*n.*) A term used in LINGUISTIC analysis to refer to a SENTENCE (or other UNIT) which does not conform to the RULES of a GRAMMAR (i.e. it is ILL FORMED). **Deviant** sentences are conventionally marked with an initial ASTERISK, e.g. *\*Is they be going*.

**device** (*n.*) A term derived from mathematics and used especially in GENERATIVE LINGUISTICS to refer to an abstract design specifically constructed to enable an analysis to be made. A GRAMMAR, in this sense, can be seen as a device for generating SENTENCES. The notion is sometimes encountered in child language studies, where, in the CHOMSKYAN view, children are credited with a **language acquisition device** (see ACQUISITION) which enables them to work out the correct

grammatical analysis of sentences on the basis of the speech DATA presented to them.

**devoiced** (*adj.*) see VOICE (1)

**dia-** A commonly used PREFIX, derived from the term DIALECT, and used in LINGUISTIC studies whenever a dialectal frame of reference is required. **Dialinguistics** is sometimes used to refer to the study of the range of dialects and LANGUAGES used in a speech community. A **diatype** is a term used by some SOCIOLINGUISTS to refer to a VARIETY of language defined according to its use or purpose. It thus contrasts with **dialect**, which is a variety defined in terms of regional or social groups of users. Alternative terms include VARIETY and REGISTER. A **diasystem** is a network of FORMAL relationships which shows the common linguistic SYSTEM assumed to underlie two or more dialects, as a framework for displaying their STRUCTURAL differences. The notation used for this purpose includes formulae which display structural correspondence, e.g.

$$\begin{array}{c} X \text{ i} \sim \mathbf{i} \\ Y \text{ i} \end{array} \approx e \approx \frac{a}{a \sim e}$$

etc., where X and Y are the names of two areas, ~ indicates a contrast which is relevant for one dialect only, ≈ for two (or more) dialects. Within such a framework, diasystemic UNITS can be identified: a **diaphone** is an abstract PHONOLOGICAL unit set up to identify an equivalence between the sound system of different dialects, e.g. the diaphone /ei/, as in English *mate*, is realized as [ei], [ai] etc.; a **diamorph** displays equivalences between MORPHOLOGICAL units; and so on.

**diachronic** (*adj.*) One of the two main temporal dimensions of LINGUISTIC investigation introduced by Ferdinand de Saussure (see SAUSSUREAN), the other being SYNCHRONIC. In **diachronic linguistics** (sometimes called linguistic **diachrony**), LANGUAGES are studied from the point of view of their historical development – for example, the changes which have taken place between Old and Modern English could be described in phonological, grammatical and semantic terms ('diachronic PHONOLOGY/SYNTAX/SEMANTICS'). An alternative term is HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS. The earlier study of language in historical terms, known as COMPARATIVE PHILOLOGY, does not differ from diachronic linguistics in subject-matter, but in aims and method. More attention is paid in the latter to the use of synchronic description as a preliminary to historical study, and to the implications of historical work for linguistic theory in general.

**diacritic** (*adj./n.*) (1) In PHONETICS, a mark added to a symbol to alter the way it is pronounced. Diacritic marks (or 'diacritics') include the various ACCENTS ( ` ^ etc.), and the signs of DEVOICING [◌̥] and NASALIZATION [◌̃].

(2) In GRAPHOLOGY, the term refers to a mark added to a written symbol which alters the way the symbol should be pronounced. The mark may be placed over it, under it, before it, after it or through it.

(3) In GENERATIVE PHONOLOGY, **diacritic features** are introduced into the DERIVATION of FORMATIVES to account for the apparently exceptional behaviour of SEGMENTS. A readjustment RULE introduces the feature [D], e.g. to handle the



exceptional STRESS pattern of words like *mómentary* (cf. the more regular *eleméntary*). [+D] would be inserted *ad hoc* at an early stage in their derivation. See also FEATURE.

**diagramming** (*n.*) see PARSING (1)

**dialect** (*n.*) A regionally or socially distinctive VARIETY of language, identified by a particular set of WORDS and GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURES. Spoken dialects are usually also associated with a distinctive pronunciation, or ACCENT. Any LANGUAGE with a reasonably large number of speakers will develop dialects, especially if there are geographical barriers separating groups of people from each other, or if there are divisions of social class. One dialect may predominate as the official or STANDARD form of the language, and this is the variety which may come to be written down.

The distinction between 'dialect' and 'language' seems obvious: dialects are subdivisions of languages. What linguistics (and especially SOCIOLINGUISTICS) has done is to point to the complexity of the relationship between these notions. It is usually said that people speak different languages when they do not understand each other. But the so-called 'dialects' of Chinese (Mandarin, Cantonese, etc.) are mutually unintelligible in their spoken form. (They do, however, share the same written language, which is the main reason why one talks of them as 'dialects of Chinese'.) And the opposite situation occurs: Swedes, Norwegians and Danes are generally able to understand each other, but their separate histories, cultures, literatures and political structures warrant their being referred to as different languages.

The systematic study of all forms of dialect, but especially regional dialect, is called **dialectology**, also 'linguistic geography' or **dialect geography**. Traditional dialectology studies commenced in the late nineteenth century, and have taken the form of detailed surveys using questionnaires and (more recently) tape-recorded interviews. Regionally distinctive words (distinct in FORM, SENSE or pronunciation) were the centre of attention, and collections of such words were plotted on maps and compiled in a **dialect atlas** (or 'linguistic atlas'). If a number of DISTINCTIVE ITEMS all emerged as belonging to a particular area, then this would be the evidence for saying that a dialect existed. It was often possible to show where one dialect ended and the next began by plotting the use of such items, drawing lines around their limits of use (ISOGLOSSES) and, where a 'bundle' of such isoglosses fell together, postulating the existence of a **dialect boundary**. On one side of the bundle of isoglosses, a large number of word forms, senses and pronunciations would be used which were systematically different from the equivalent items used on the other side. Dialect boundaries are not usually so clear-cut, but the principle works well enough.

Traditional dialectological methods of this kind have more recently been supplemented by the methods of **structural dialectology**, which tries to show the patterns of relationship which link sets of forms from different dialects. The SYSTEMS of STRUCTURAL correspondence published by this approach are known as 'DIASystems'. **Dialectometry** is a statistical method of dialect analysis, developed in the 1970s, which measures the linguistic 'distance' between localities in a dialect region by counting the number of contrasts in a large sample of linguistic features.

**Perceptual dialectology** studies the way dialects, and individual dialect features, are perceived by speakers within a speech community. Real and imaginary linguistic differences, stereotypes of popular culture, local strategies of identification, and other factors combine to generate a conception of individual dialects, whose perceptual identities and boundaries may differ significantly from those defined by objective dialect methods. Dialects which identify where a person is from are called **regional dialects**, though other terms are used, e.g. 'local', 'territorial', 'geographical'. **Rural dialects** are often distinguished from **urban dialects**, the unique complexities of the latter prompting the growth of **urban dialectology**.

Dialects which identify where a person is in terms of social scale are called **social dialects** or **class dialects**. More recently, the term **SOCIOLECT** has been used. Some languages are highly stratified in terms of social divisions, such as class, professional status, age and sex, and here major differences in social dialect are apparent. In English, the differences are not so basic, but it is possible to point to usages in vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation which are socially based, e.g. *ain't*, which has in its time identified both working-class and upper-class (e.g. Lord Peter Wimsey) types. Such variants were generally ignored in regional dialectology, and would these days tend to be studied under the heading of **SOCIOLINGUISTICS**. **Social dialectology** is the application of dialectological methods to the study of social structure, focusing on group membership as a determinant of dialectal competence.

'Dialect' is also sometimes applied to the linguistically distinct historical stages through which a language has passed, and here the term **historical** or **temporal dialect** might be used, e.g. Elizabethan English, seventeenth-century British English. 'Dialect' has further been used to refer to the distinctive language of a particular professional group (**occupational dialect**), but more recent terms have come to be used to refer to social variations of this kind (e.g. **REGISTER**, **DIATYPE**, **VARIETY**). The popular application of the term to the unwritten languages of developing countries (cf. 'there are many dialects in Africa', and the like) is not a usage recommended in linguistics. See also **LEVELLING**.

**dialectalization** (*n.*) see **DIVERGENCE**

**dialect atlas** see **DIALECT**

**dialect chain** see **DIALECT CONTINUUM**

**dialect continuum** In **SOCIOLINGUISTICS**, a term used to describe a chain of **DIALECTS** spoken throughout an area; also called a **dialect chain**. At any point in the chain, speakers of a dialect can understand the speakers of other dialects who live adjacent to them; but people who live further away may be difficult or impossible to understand. For example, an extensive continuum links the modern dialects of German and Dutch, running from Belgium through the Netherlands, Germany and Austria to Switzerland. See also **POST-CREOLE CONTINUUM**.

**dialect geography** see **DIALECT**

**dialectology, dialectometry** (*n.*) see **DIALECT**

**dialinguistics, diamorph, diaphone, diasystem, diatype** (*n.*) see DIA-

**dichotic listening** An experimental technique used in AUDITORY PHONETICS to determine which hemisphere of the brain is more, or less, involved in the processing of speech or other sounds. Listeners are presented simultaneously with competing stimuli to each ear (e.g. [ba] to one and [ga] to the other) and must then report what they hear – in the left ear, in the right ear or without specifying which. When the signal to one ear proves to be more accurately or rapidly reported, it is concluded that the opposite hemisphere is more involved in its processing.

**dictionary** (*n.*) see LEXICOLOGY, LEXIS

**difference hypothesis** see DEFICIT HYPOTHESIS

**differential** (*n.*) see SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL

**diffuse** (*adj.*) (**diff, DIFF**) One of the features of sound set up by Jakobson and Halle (see JAKOBSONIAN) in their DISTINCTIVE FEATURE theory of PHONOLOGY, to handle variations in PLACE OF ARTICULATION; its opposite is COMPACT. Diffuse sounds are defined ARTICULATORILY and ACOUSTICALLY, as those which involve a STRICTURE relatively far back in the mouth, and a relatively low concentration of acoustic energy in non-central parts of the sound spectrum. CLOSE VOWELS and FRONT CONSONANTS are [+diffuse] (abbreviated as [+diff]): MID or LOW VOWELS and PALATAL or VELAR consonants are [–diffuse] ([–diff]). This feature is replaced by HIGH in CHOMSKY and Halle's system (see CHOMSKYAN).

**diffusion** (*n.*) A term used in SOCIOLINGUISTICS and HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS for the increased use of a LANGUAGE or linguistic FORM throughout an area over a period of time. Specifically, the theory of **lexical diffusion** explains the way a sound change moves through the vocabulary of a language, emphasizing that it spreads differentially and gradually through the words to which it applies, and not in an 'across the board' manner at a uniform rate. Some speakers introduce a change into their speech before others; some use it more frequently and consistently than others; and some words are affected before others. See also WAVE (1).

**diglossia** (*n.*) A term used in SOCIOLINGUISTICS to refer to a situation where two very different VARIETIES of a LANGUAGE CO-OCCUR throughout a SPEECH community, each with a distinct range of social function. Both varieties are STANDARDIZED to some degree, are felt to be alternatives by NATIVE-SPEAKERS and usually have special names. Sociolinguists usually talk in terms of a high (H) variety and a low (L) variety, corresponding broadly to a difference in FORMALITY: the high variety is learnt in school, tends to be used in church, on radio programmes, in serious literature, etc., and as a consequence has greater social prestige; the low variety in family conversations, and other relatively informal settings. **Diglossic** situations may be found, for example, in Greek (High: Katharevousa; Low: Dhimotiki), Arabic (High: Classical; Low: Colloquial), and some varieties of German (H: Hochdeutsch; L: Schweizerdeutsch, in Switzerland). A situation where three varieties or languages are used with distinct functions within a

community is called **triglossia**. An example of a **triglossic** situation is the use of French, Classical Arabic and Colloquial Tunisian Arabic in Tunisia, the first two being rated H and the last L.

**digraph** (*n.*) (1) A term used in PHONETICS/PHONOLOGY and GRAPHETICS/GRAPHOLOGY to refer to a GRAPHIC UNIT in which two symbols have combined to function as a single ELEMENT in a SYSTEM, e.g. [æ] for the vowel in RECEIVED PRONUNCIATION *cat*, or the linked *æ* or *œ* in the classical spelling of some English words (e.g. *encyclopædia*, *onomatopœia*).

(2) In the study of reading and spelling, **digraph** refers to any sequence of two letters pronounced as a single sound. Examples include the first two letters of *ship* and the middle two letters of *wool*.

**diminutive** (*adj./n.*) (**dim**, DIM) A term used in MORPHOLOGY to refer to an AFFIX with the general meaning of ‘little’, used literally or metaphorically (as a term of endearment). Examples include *-ino* in Italian, *-zinho* in Portuguese, and *-let* in English. The term is usually contrasted with AUGMENTATIVE.

**ding-dong theory** In HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS, the name of one of the speculative theories about the origins of LANGUAGE; it argues that SPEECH arose because people reacted to the stimuli in the world around them, and spontaneously produced sounds (‘oral gestures’) which in some way reflected the environment. The main evidence is the use of SOUND-SYMBOLISM (which is, however, very limited in a language). The theory has also been called the **ta-ta** theory – a sceptical reference to the claim that the way the tongue moves while saying the words *ta-ta* reflects the physical act of waving goodbye.

**diphthong** (*n.*) A term used in the PHONETIC classification of VOWEL sounds on the basis of their MANNER OF ARTICULATION: it refers to a vowel where there is a single (perceptual) noticeable change in quality during a SYLLABLE, as in English *beer*, *time*, *loud*. Related terms are MONOPHTHONG, where no qualitative change is heard, and TRIPHTHONG, where two such changes can be heard. Diphthongs, or ‘gliding vowels’, are usually classified into phonetic types, depending on which of the two elements is the more SONOROUS: ‘falling’ (or ‘descending’) diphthongs have the first element STRESSED, as in the English examples: ‘rising’ (or ‘ascending’) diphthongs have the second element stressed, as in a possible analysis of English *cue* [kiu].

Other classifications of **diphthongal** types exist, in terms of the extent of their movement (e.g. whether it is ‘wide’ or ‘narrow’) and their direction (whether the diphthong is ‘centring’ or not, i.e. ending with a CENTRAL VOWEL). **Diphthongization** is the term used to describe a process where a monophthong has become a diphthong (has been **diphthongized**), as in cases of historical or DIALECT change. Diphthongs are transcribed using symbols which represent the extremes of vowel movement between the two positions, as in [aɪ] for the unit in *fine*.

**diplophonia** (*n.*) see VENTRICULAR

**direct** (*adj.*) (1) A term used in GRAMMATICAL description to refer to one of the two types of OBJECT ELEMENT which can function in CLAUSE STRUCTURE, the

other being labelled INDIRECT. The relationship between the two is illustrated by such SENTENCES as *The man gave the boy a book*, where *a book* is the **direct object** (*What did the man give?*) and *the boy* is the **indirect object**. The direct object is the more central in clause structure, indirect objects requiring a direct object to relate to (cf. *\*The man gave the boy*). This distinction is not always recognized in linguistic theories: for example, in GENERATIVE GRAMMAR (especially in RELATIONAL GRAMMAR and LEXICAL FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR), the indirect object without *to* is regarded as a direct object.

(2) The opposition between direct and indirect is also used to identify the two main ways of reflecting a person's speech: **direct speech** refers to the use of actual UTTERANCE, with no grammatical MODIFICATION, e.g. *'Is he coming?'* *John asked* is a **direct question**, whereas *John asked if he was coming* is an **indirect question**.

(3) In SEMANTICS, **direct reference** is used for cases where REFERENCE is established independently of SENSE. The term has been applied, for example, in the CAUSAL CHAIN THEORY of PROPER NAMES.

**directional entailingsness** see ENTAILMENT

**directionality** (*n.*) (1) In METRICAL PHONOLOGY, a PARAMETER which determines the direction in which foot construction scans the STRESS DOMAIN. This may happen right-to-left, starting at the right EDGE, or vice versa. The notion applies to both TREES and METRICAL GRIDS.

(2) In SEMANTICS, **directionality** describes the relationship between two SENSES of a LEXICAL item, when one can be shown to be DERIVED from the other, as in the case of *violin* (the instrument) and *violin* (the player – as in *She is first violin*). Cases of sense extension generally proceed from the more to the less conventionalized, but often perceived directionality is unclear.

**directive** (*adj./n.*) (1) In some classifications of SPEECH ACTS, an UTTERANCE whose purpose is to get other people to do something for the speaker. The LINGUISTIC means may be GRAMMATICAL (e.g. COMMANDS), SEMANTIC (appropriate vocabulary, e.g. *please*) or PHONOLOGICAL (e.g. persuasive INTONATION patterns).

(2) A term used in some MODELS of GRAMMATICAL CLASSIFICATION to refer to a type of EXOCENTRIC CONSTRUCTION in which the initial ELEMENT is referred to as a **director**, and the **directed** element as the **axis**. For example, in *kicked the ball*, *kicked* is the director, *the ball* the axis; in *in the box*, *in* is the director (or **directive PARTICLE**), *the box* is the axis.

**disambiguation** (*n.*) A term used in LINGUISTICS, and especially in TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR, to refer to an analysis which demonstrates the alternative STRUCTURAL interpretations of an AMBIGUOUS SENTENCE, e.g. by ASSIGNING BRACKETS or specifying a transformational relationship. For example, the SENTENCE *The chicken is ready to eat* can be **disambiguated** by showing how it can be related to such sentences as *Someone is ready to eat the chicken* and *The chicken is ready to eat something*.

**discontinuity grammar** see DISCONTINUOUS (2)

**discontinuity hypothesis** see DISCONTINUOUS (3)

**discontinuous** (*adj.*) (1) A term used by Jakobson and Halle (see JAKOBSONIAN) in their DISTINCTIVE FEATURE theory of PHONOLOGY to refer to sounds produced with a complete CLOSURE of the VOCAL TRACT, as in PLOSIVES. Its opposite is CONTINUANT, used to characterize FRICATIVES, VOWELS, etc.

(2) In GRAMMATICAL analysis, **discontinuity** refers to the splitting of a CONSTRUCTION by the insertion of another grammatical UNIT. **Discontinuous constructions** or **constituents** are illustrated by the way the PARTICLE in some PHRASAL VERBS may be separated from the LEXICAL ELEMENT, e.g. *switch on* → *switch the light on*, by the double NEGATIVE system in some languages (French *ne . . . pas*, Welsh *nid . . . ddim*, etc.), or by the separation of AUXILIARY verb and main verb in QUESTION forms in English (e.g. *is he coming?*). Some analysts make use of the notion of a **discontinuous morph(eme)**, as when Arabic ROOT forms are identified by the CONSONANTS they contain, each of which is separated by a VOWEL (e.g. *k-t-b* 'write'). A **discontinuity grammar** is a logic grammar FORMALISM which allows relationships between widely separated constituents to be stated within a single grammatical RULE; there are several types (e.g. extraposition grammars, gapping grammars, static discontinuity grammars).

(3) In language ACQUISITION, the term refers to the view, primarily proposed by the American linguist Roman JAKOBSON, that the sounds of babbling bear no direct relationship to later PHONOLOGICAL development. The **discontinuity hypothesis** is opposed to a 'continuity' hypothesis, which argues that languages gradually select from the range of sounds used in babbling. The term is also used in child language acquisition (especially in relation to PHONOLOGY) to describe a situation where new learning (e.g. acquiring a new phonological RULE) interferes with established ability, causing a temporary disturbance in the development of speech production.

**discourse** (*n.*) A term used in LINGUISTICS to refer to a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) LANGUAGE larger than a SENTENCE – but, within this broad notion, several different applications may be found. At its most general, a discourse is a behavioural UNIT which has a pre-theoretical status in linguistics: it is a set of UTTERANCES which constitute any recognizable SPEECH event (no reference being made to its linguistic STRUCTURING, if any), e.g. a conversation, a joke, a sermon, an interview. A classification of discourse functions, with particular reference to type of subject-matter, the situation and the behaviour of the speaker, is often carried out in SOCIOLINGUISTIC studies, e.g. distinguishing dialogues v. monologues, or (more specifically) oratory, ritual, insults, narrative and so on. Several linguists have attempted to discover linguistic regularities in discourses (**discourse analysis** or **DA**), using GRAMMATICAL, PHONOLOGICAL and SEMANTIC criteria (e.g. COHESION, ANAPHORA, inter-sentence CONNECTIVITY). Special attention has been focused on **discourse markers** – sequentially dependent elements which demarcate units of speech, such as *oh*, *well* and *I mean*. It is now plain that there exist important linguistic dependencies between sentences, but it is less clear how far these dependencies are sufficiently systematic to enable linguistic units higher than the sentence to be established. The methodology and theoretical orientation of discourse analysis (with its emphasis on WELL-FORMEDNESS and RULES governing the sequence of permissible units, in both spoken and written TEXTS) are often contrasted with those of CONVERSATION ANALYSIS. The term **discourse grammar** has also come to be used by those seeking to develop an



alternative to the GENERATIVIST conception of an autonomous FORMAL grammar, which would incorporate principles of a FUNCTIONAL, COMMUNICATIVE kind.

Some linguists adopt a broader, PSYCHOLINGUISTIC perspective in studying discourse, which they view as a dynamic process of expression and comprehension governing the performance of people during linguistic interaction. Some adopt a sociolinguistic perspective, in which the purpose or function of the discourse is emphasized. An even broader perspective distinguishes **critical discourse analysis**, a branch of CRITICAL LINGUISTICS which studies the relationship between discourse events and sociopolitical and cultural factors. These emphases distance the subject from 'TEXT linguistics', when this is seen as the formal account of the linguistic principles governing the structure of texts. But there is considerable overlap between the domains of discourse analysis and text linguistics (for example, the notion of cohesion is prominent in both), and any attempt at a principled distinction would be premature.

In semantics, some use is made of the term **universe of discourse** (or **domain of discourse**), viz. the range of entities, topics, situations, etc., within which a particular speech event makes reference. In this sense, the universe of discourse of sermons, for example, will be predictably different (usually) from the universe of discourse of commercial advertising. See also D-LINKING, FORMULAIC LANGUAGE, MANNER (2), MODE (1), TENOR.

**discourse analysis** see DISCOURSE

**discourse attachment** A term used in SEMANTICS and DISCOURSE ANALYSIS to refer to a process of modelling PRAGMATIC knowledge resources to infer which RHETORICAL relations hold between two given discourse CONSTITUENTS. It represents the rhetorical relations which underlie a TEXT, given the reader's background knowledge, in relation to a theory of discourse structure.

**discourse deixis** see DEIXIS

**discourse in common sense entailment (DICE)** A theory of DISCOURSE ATTACHMENT which uses a logic called 'common sense entailment' to handle the ability to reason with conflicting knowledge resources. It supplies a logical consequence relation for resolving conflict among the knowledge resources available during the interpretation of a discourse, in order to explain how linguistic STRINGS can be interpreted differently in different discourse contexts.

**discourse referent** A term sometimes used in SEMANTIC theory, especially in the study of ANAPHORA, for the representation of an individual at some level intervening between language and the external world. It is used primarily to deal with cases in which two or more NOUN PHRASES have identical real-world REFERENTS, but produce patterns of anaphora as though they differed in reference.

**discourse representation theory (DAT)** A SEMANTIC theory which seeks to extend MODEL-THEORETIC SEMANTICS to accommodate sequences of SENTENCES, and in particular to accommodate ANAPHORIC dependencies across sentence boundaries. Central to the theory is an intermediate level of semantic REPRESENTATION called a **discourse representation structure (DRS)**. An initial DRS is derived by an

ALGORITHM from the SYNTACTIC STRUCTURE of sentences. Further RULES then determine how an initial DRS can be enriched to identify various anaphoric dependencies. **Segmented discourse representation theory** is an extension of DRT: it is a semantically based theory of discourse structure which represents the rhetorical relations that hold between the propositions introduced in a text.

**discovery procedure** A term used in LINGUISTICS for a set of techniques which can be automatically or ‘mechanically’ applied to a sample of LANGUAGE and which will produce a correct GRAMMATICAL analysis. Attempts to develop such procedures characterized the work of many BLOOMFIELDIAN linguists, and were strongly criticized in early formulations of GENERATIVE grammar. It is argued that it is never possible to identify with certainty all the factors which lead a linguist in the direction of a particular analysis. Nor is it desirable to seek such a procedure, as the analysis itself can be evaluated regardless of the means by which it was obtained.

**discrete** (*adj.*) see DISCRETENESS

**discreteness** (*n.*) A suggested defining property of human LANGUAGE (contrasting with the properties of other SEMIOTIC SYSTEMS), whereby the ELEMENTS of a signal can be analysed as having definable boundaries, with no gradation or continuity between them. A system lacking discreteness is said to be ‘continuous’ or **non-discrete** (see NON-DISCRETE GRAMMAR). The term is especially used in PHONETICS and PHONOLOGY to refer to sounds which have relatively clear-cut boundaries, as defined in ACOUSTIC, ARTICULATORY or AUDITORY terms. It is evident that speech is a continuous stream of sound, but speakers of a language are able to SEGMENT this continuum into a finite number of **discrete** UNITS, these usually corresponding to the PHONEMES of the language. The boundaries of these units may correspond to identifiable acoustic or articulatory features, but often they do not. The minimal discrete units in phonetics are known as PHONES.

**disharmony, disharmonicity** (*n.*) see HARMONY

**disjunct** (*n.*) see DISJUNCTION

**disjunction** (*n.*) A term in formal logic now encountered as part of the theoretical framework of several areas in LINGUISTICS, especially SEMANTICS. It refers to the process or result of relating two PROPOSITIONS such that they are in an ‘either–or’ relationship, e.g. (*Either*) *Mary is late or John is early*. With disjunction, it is usual to distinguish **inclusive** and **exclusive** interpretations: with the former, the disjunction is true if either, or both, of the propositions is true; with the latter, the disjunction is true only if one or other of the propositions is true (but not both). Under the exclusive interpretation, therefore, the above disjunction would be false, if both Mary was late and John was early; whereas, under the inclusive interpretation, the disjunction would be true.

In some GRAMMATICAL descriptions, the term is adapted to refer to a process whose primary function is to mark a relationship of contrast or comparison between STRUCTURES, using such **disjunctive** ITEMS as *or* and *but*. (Some approaches, such as QUIRK GRAMMAR, use the term **disjunct**, in a highly restricted sense, to

refer to a subclass of ADVERBIALS (such as *seriously, frankly, really*), which contrasts with CONJUNCTS, SUBJUNCTS and ADJUNCTS on SYNTACTIC and SEMANTIC grounds.) The two disjunctions above are often referred to as the ‘exclusive *or*’ and the ‘inclusive *or*’. In GENERATIVE grammar, the notion is applied as a principle affecting the order of RULES. **Disjunctive ordering** is found in the use of the parenthesis NOTATION, which indicates OPTIONAL ELEMENTS. If a SEQUENCE of rules is abbreviated by using this notion (e.g.  $X \rightarrow Y/Z (P)Q$ , which stands for the sequence (a)  $X \rightarrow Y/ZPQ$  and (b)  $X \rightarrow Y/ZQ$ ), then this sequence forms a disjunctively ordered block, i.e. if (a) applies, (b) is not permitted to apply. It is distinguished from CONJUNCTIVE ordering.

**dispersion** (*n.*) In PHONETICS, a term used to refer to the location of CONTRASTIVE elements within a phonetic domain (such as the VOWEL SYSTEM or TONE system), as part of the comparative study of the size and character of phonetic inventories. Sounds tend to maximize the available ARTICULATORY space so as to be as different as possible from each other. For example, if a language has a three-vowel system, a principle of **maximal dispersion** would predict that the vowels would be those furthest away from each other in terms of the BACK–front and HIGH–low dimensions: /i/, /a/, and /u/. In a language with more vowels, the ‘extra’ vowels would position themselves at intermediate points. Other factors have to be recognized to handle systems which do not work with their elements separated in such a symmetrical way.

**displaced speech** see DISPLACEMENT

**displacement** (*n.*) A suggested defining property of human LANGUAGE (contrasting with the properties of many other SEMIOTIC systems), whereby language can be used to refer to CONTEXTS removed from the immediate situation of the speaker (i.e. it can be **displaced**). For example, if someone says *I was afraid*, it is not necessary that the speaker still is afraid; whereas animal calls seem generally tied to specific situations, such as danger or hunger, and have nothing comparable to **displaced speech** (unless this is artificially taught to them, as some experiments with chimpanzees have tried to do).

**dissimilation** (*n.*) A general term in PHONETICS and PHONOLOGY to refer to the influence exercised by one sound SEGMENT upon the ARTICULATION of another, so that the sounds become less alike, or different. Such changes have mainly been noticed in HISTORICAL LINGUISTIC studies, where the effects have manifested themselves over a long period of time (e.g. *pilgrim* from Latin *peregrinus*, with the first *r* ‘dissimilating’ to *l*), but SYNCHRONIC dissimilations are also possible, as when we avoid a sequence of identical sounds (cf. the difficulty of tongue-twisters such as *Will will willingly . . .*). As with the opposite effect, ASSIMILATION, it is possible to classify dissimilations into types, based on the place, degree and direction of the changes involved.

**distance assimilation** see ASSIMILATION

**distinctiveness** (*n.*) A term used in LINGUISTICS for any feature of speech (or writing) which enables a CONTRAST to be made between PHONOLOGICAL,

GRAMMATICAL or SEMANTIC UNITS. Such contrasts might also be labelled ‘relevant’, FUNCTIONAL or **significant**. The main use of the term has been in phonology, as part of the phrase **distinctive feature**, where it refers to a minimal contrastive UNIT recognized by some linguists as a means of explaining how the sound SYSTEM of languages is organized. Distinctive features may be seen either as part of the definition of PHONEMES, or as an alternative to the notion of the phoneme. The first of these views is found in the approach of the PRAGUE SCHOOL, where the phoneme is seen as a BUNDLE of PHONETIC distinctive features: the English phoneme /p/, for example, can be seen as the result of the combination of the features of BILABIAL, VOICE, PLOSIVE, etc. Other phonemes will differ from /p/ in respect of at least one of these features. In distinctive feature theories of phonology, however, the phoneme is not considered to be a relevant unit of explanation: symbols such as *p*, *b*, etc., are seen simply as convenient abbreviations for particular sets of FEATURES. It is the features which are the minimal units of phonological analysis, not the phonemes. It is argued that, by substituting features for phonemes in this way, generalizations can be made about the relationships between sounds in a language, which would otherwise be missed. Moreover, because features are phonetic units, it should be possible to make inter-language (e.g. DIACHRONIC and DIALECTAL) and cross-language comparisons, and ultimately statements about phonological UNIVERSALS, more readily than by using a phonemic model of phonology.

Distinctive feature analysts claim that there are several advantages over the traditional phonetic alphabet approach to phonological description, which describes UTTERANCES as a sequence of SEGMENTS. For example, it was originally suggested that a relatively small set of abstract feature OPPOSITIONS (a dozen or so) would account for all the phonological contrasts made in languages: it would not then be necessary to recognize so much phonetic classificatory detail, as exists on, say, the IPA chart, where the phonological status of the segments recognized is not indicated. In fact, it has turned out that far more features are required, as new languages come to be analysed. Another advantage, it is suggested, is that CONSONANTS and VOWELS can be characterized using the same set of phonetic features (unlike traditional ‘two-mouth’ descriptions, where the classificatory terminology for vowels – HIGH, LOW, etc. – is quite different from that used for consonants – LABIAL, PALATAL, etc.).

By using a system of this kind, some quite specific predictions can be made about the sound systems of languages. For example, using the Jakobson and Halle system below enables one to distinguish phonologically two degrees of FRONT/BACK contrast in the consonant system and three degrees of vowel height. But what follows from this is a universal claim – that no languages permit more than these numbers of contrasts in their phonological systems. These are empirical claims, of course, and in recent years much effort has been spent on investigating these claims and modifying the nature of the feature inventory required.

Two major statements concerning the distinctive feature approach were influential: one by Roman Jakobson and Morris Halle, in *Fundamentals of Language* (1956), the other by Noam Chomsky and Morris Halle, in *The Sound Pattern of English* (1968). The Jakobson and Halle approach set up features in pairs, defined primarily in ACOUSTIC terms (as could be detected on a SPECTROGRAM), but with some reference to ARTICULATORY criteria. Examples of their features include VOCALIC *v.* non-vocalic, CONSONANTAL *v.* non-consonantal, COMPACT *v.*

DIFFUSE, GRAVE *v.* ACUTE, NASAL *v.* ORAL, discontinuous *v.* CONTINUANT, STRIDENT *v.* MELLOW, FLAT *v.* SHARP/PLAIN and VOICED *v.* voiceless. The emphasis in this approach is firmly on the nature of the oppositions between the UNDERLYING features involved, rather than on the description of the range of phonetic REALIZATIONS each feature represents. In the Chomsky and Halle approach, more attention is paid to the phonetic realizations of the underlying features recognized, and a different system of feature classification is set up. Some of the earlier features are retained (e.g. voice, consonantal, tense, continuant, nasal, strident), but many are modified, and new features added, some of which overlap with the earlier approach (e.g. SONORANT *v.* OBSTRUENT, DELAYED *v.* INSTANTANEOUS RELEASE, ANTERIOR *v.* non-anterior, CORONAL *v.* non-coronal, DISTRIBUTED *v.* non-distributed, SYLLABIC *v.* non-syllabic). The application of these features to languages is not without controversy, and in recent years further suggestions have been forthcoming as to the need for additional features, such as LABIAL. See also CHOMSKYAN, JAKOBSONIAN.

In recent phonological theory, features have become a focus of attention in their own right, and are widely viewed as the basic unit of phonological REPRESENTATION. The merits of UNARY (single-valued) as opposed to binary analyses have been presented by some models (e.g. DEPENDENCY PHONOLOGY). In addition to questions of feature identification and definition, however, recent research has focused on the nature of feature organization within phonological representations, as part of NON-LINEAR PHONOLOGY. In particular, **feature geometry** looks especially at the non-linear relationship between features, and at the way they can be grouped into a HIERARCHICAL array of functional CLASSES. Several formalisms have been devised to handle the relationships between features in particular phonological contexts, and terminology has begun to develop accordingly. For example, in the study of ASSIMILATION, a rule which spreads only features not already specified in the target is said to be operating in a **feature-filling** mode; if the rule applies to segments already specified for the spreading features (thereby replacing their original values), it is said to apply in a **feature-changing** mode.

**distinguisher** (*n.*) A term used in early GENERATIVE LINGUISTICS as part of a (controversial) two-way classification of the SEMANTIC COMPONENTS of LEXICAL ITEMS. 'Distinguishers' were said to be those components which are needed to keep apart the different meanings of HOMONYMS, but which are unsystematic in a LANGUAGE; that is, they have no general role to play in the statement of SELECTIONAL and other restrictions. For example, in one of the items originally analysed in this way, *bachelor*, one distinguisher is the component [having the academic degree conferred . . .]. Components which do operate systematically (e.g. [old], [male], [animate]) were known as MARKERS.

**distributed** (*adj.*) One of the features of sound set up by Chomsky and Halle (see CHOMSKYAN) in their DISTINCTIVE FEATURE theory of PHONOLOGY to handle variations in PLACE OF ARTICULATION (CAVITY features) in FRICATIVE sounds. Distributed sounds are defined ARTICULATORILY, as those produced with a STRICTURE which extends for a considerable distance along the direction of the airflow, as in BILABIAL and PALATO-ALVEOLAR fricatives. Its opposite is **non-distributed**, referring to sounds produced with a relatively short stricture, as in DENTAL and RETROFLEX fricatives.

**distributed morphology (DM)** An approach to MORPHOLOGY proposed in the early 1990s by MIT linguists Morris Halle and Alec Marantz, in which morphological processes are not localized within a single COMPONENT (such as the LEXICON) but are ‘distributed’ throughout the GRAMMAR, involving SYNTACTIC as well as PHONOLOGICAL operations. Vocabulary insertion takes place at a level of morphological structure (MS) between s-STRUCTURE and phonological form. The approach can be contrasted with models which make a clear division between lexical and syntactic operations, and with associated notions such as the distinction between derivational and inflectional morphology.

**distributed representation** see CONNECTIONISM

**distribution** (*n.*) A general term used in LINGUISTICS to refer to the total set of linguistic CONTEXTS, or ENVIRONMENTS, in which a UNIT (such as a PHONEME, a MORPHEME or a WORD) can occur. Every linguistic unit, it is said, has a characteristic distribution. A **distributional analysis** would plot the places in larger linguistic units where smaller units occur, such as the distribution of phonemes within a SYLLABLE or word, or of words within a SENTENCE. Distributional ideas were originally developed in PHONOLOGY, but were later extended to other linguistic units. In some approaches, the notion of distribution became a major explanatory principle, being seen as a possible way of grouping sounds into phonemes without reference to the meaning or grammatical properties of the words in which they appear – or even, to the PHONETIC similarities existing between them. On this basis, for instance, [h] and [ŋ] in English might be considered members of the same phoneme, because they never share the same set of environments. In phonemic phonology, the most important continuing use of the term is in the phrase **complementary distribution**, which refers to the status of related sounds (or ALLOPHONES) when they are found in mutually exclusive environments, as in the use of a DENTAL *v.* an ALVEOLAR allophone of /t/ in English, e.g. *eight v. eighth*. (In GENERATIVE phonology, on the other hand, distributional statements of this kind are handled by a formulation in terms of phonological RULES.)

**distributive** (*adj./n.*) (**dist**, DIST) A term used in SEMANTICS for PREDICATES or QUANTIFIERS which ascribe a property or action to the individual members of a group, as opposed to the group as a whole; it contrasts with COLLECTIVE. For example, *be asleep* is a distributive predicate: *The children are asleep* ENTAILS that each individual child is asleep (or nearly all of them). In contrast, *assemble* (in its INTRANSITIVE sense) is a collective predicate: *The children assembled in the playground* means that the group as a whole assembled; an individual child cannot assemble.

**disyllable** (*n.*) A term used in PHONETICS and PHONOLOGY to refer to a UNIT, typically a WORD, consisting of two SYLLABLES, such as *happy* and *often*; it contrasts with MONOSYLLABLE and TRISYLLABLE. A **disyllabic** form is distinguished from monosyllabic and trisyllabic forms.

**ditransitive** (*adj.*) A term used by some LINGUISTS to refer to a VERB which can take two OBJECTS, e.g. *give* (*I gave him a book*). It is usually distinguished from ‘monotransitive’ verbs, such as *kick*.



**divergence** (*n.*) A term used in SOCIOLINGUISTICS to refer to a process of DIALECT change in which the dialects become less like each other (or **diverge**). This process (sometimes called ‘dialectalization’) is only likely to happen in the absence of geographical and social links between populations within a SPEECH community, lines of communication thereby being few or difficult, and a STANDARD dialect probably being non-existent. The opposite effect is known as CONVERGENCE. ‘Divergence’ also has a currency in HISTORICAL linguistic studies, referring to the splitting of a FORM into two CONTRASTIVE UNITS.

**D-linking** (*n.*) In GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY, an abbreviation for **discourse-linking**, a notion introduced to account for apparent ISLAND violations affecting certain WH-phrases (as in *What did which man buy?* *v.* \**What did who buy?*) which are assumed not to MOVE in LOGICAL FORM. D-linking applies to *which*-phrases, but not to ADJUNCT phrases, and applies to ARGUMENT *wh*-phrases (such as *who* and *what*) only in some circumstances.

**docking** (*n.*) see FLOATING

**do-deletion/insertion/support** A set of RULES in GENERATIVE SYNTAX which determine the use of the EMPTY AUXILIARY VERB *do*. ‘Do-insertion’ or ‘do-support’ inserts the verb *do* into a place in a STRUCTURE, as part of the DERIVATION of a sentence. An example is in some types of TAG QUESTIONS, where to form a tag from the sentence *It wants cleaning* a *do* needs to be introduced, viz . . . *doesn’t it*. It is primarily used where a TENSE-marker has no verb FORMATIVE to attach to, as with tense variation in question forms (e.g. *did X happen*). ‘Do-deletion’ would apply if a *do* form previously generated by the rules for a given sentence were to be deleted.

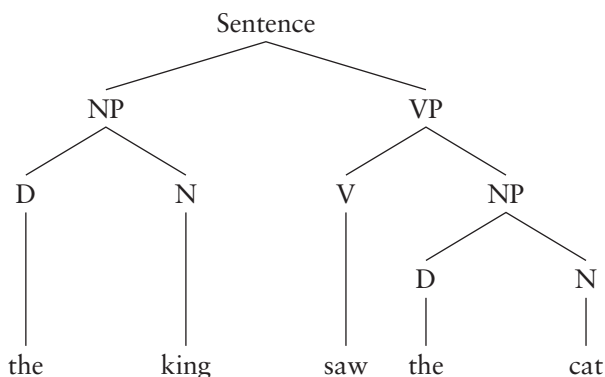
**domain** (*n.*) (1) An extension of the general meaning of this WORD by some LINGUISTS to refer to the realm of application of any linguistic construct, e.g. the ‘domain’ of a RULE in a GRAMMAR would refer to the range of STRUCTURES to which that rule was applicable. In GENERATIVE linguistics, the term refers specifically to the parts of a TREE diagram deriving from any one NODE, i.e. the structure which the node DOMINATES. There are several applications, e.g. the ‘CYCLIC domain’ in PHONOLOGY (i.e. the constituents internal to the word to which phonological rules apply); the ‘harmonic domain’ in vowel or consonant HARMONY.

(2) **Domain** is sometimes used in SEMANTICS to refer to the area of experience covered by the set of terms in a particular SEMANTIC FIELD, e.g. colour terms, kinship terms. See also DISCOURSE.

(3) In SOCIOLINGUISTICS **domain** refers to a group of institutionalized social situations typically constrained by a common set of behavioural rules, e.g. the domain of the family is the house, of religion is the church, etc. The notion is seen as of particular importance in the analysis of MULTILINGUAL settings involving several participants, where it is used to relate variations in the individuals’ choice and topic of language to broader sociocultural norms and expectations of interaction.

**dominance** (*n.*), **dominate** (*v.*) see DOMINATION

**domination** (*n.*) (1) A term in GENERATIVE LINGUISTICS for one type of vertical relationship between NODES in a TREE diagram ('X **dominates** Y'). If no nodes intervene between X and Y, one says that X 'directly' or 'immediately' dominates Y. For example, in the figure of the sentence *The king saw the cat* the D and N are directly dominated by NP, the first NP is directly dominated by 'Sentence', and the second by the VP. It is by the use of this notion that distinctions such as SUBJECT and OBJECT can be made using this model, viz. the Subject is that NP directly dominated by Sentence, the Object is that NP directly dominated by VP. A further notion is that of 'exhaustive' dominance: a node A exhaustively dominates a string of words if and only if it dominates those words and no other words. A node A is also said to exhaustively dominate a node B if it immediately dominates B and no other node. The 'vertical' dimension of **dominance** should be distinguished from the 'horizontal' notion of PRECEDENCE. **Immediate-dominance rules** are one of the components of a GENERALIZED PHRASE-STRUCTURE GRAMMAR.



(2) **Dominance** is also important in several models of PHONOLOGY: for example, in later METRICAL PHONOLOGY **foot dominance** is a PARAMETER which determines the side of the FOOT where the HEAD is located: in 'left-dominant' feet, all left nodes are dominant and right nodes RECESSIVE; in 'right-dominant' feet all right nodes are dominant and left nodes recessive.

(3) In the phonological analysis of SIGN language, **dominance** is used to characterize handedness (deriving from its general use in psychology and neurology): a signer is linguistically either left-hand or right-hand dominant, depending on which hand typically executes one-handed signs.

**donkey sentence** A type of problematic SENTENCE, typically illustrated by *Every man who owns a donkey beats it*, in which the PRONOUN must be construed as dependent upon the NOUN PHRASE *a donkey*, without allowing that phrase to have wider scope than the universal QUANTIFICATION expressed by *every*. Such sentences have been given detailed study in DISCOURSE REPRESENTATION THEORY.

**dorsal** (*adj.*) A term sometimes used in the PHONETIC classification of speech sounds, referring to a sound made with the BACK, or **dorsum**, of the TONGUE in contact with the roof of the mouth, as in VELAR (sc. **dorso-velar**) or PALATAL (sc. **dorso-palatal**) sounds. Some authors include other parts of the tongue under this heading. The term has developed a special status in PHONOLOGICAL theory,

especially in various NON-LINEAR models. For example, in ARTICULATOR-BASED FEATURE THEORY, it refers to a single-valued NODE involving the tongue body as an active articulator. In CONSTRICTION-based models, it is defined as a constriction formed by the back of the tongue.

**dorso-palatal, dorso-velar** (*adj.*) see DORSAL

**double articulation** see ARTICULATION (2)

**double-bar** (*adj./n.*) In the most widely assumed version of X-BAR SYNTAX, a term describing a full PHRASAL category (the maximal PROJECTION of a ZERO-level category). It is distinguished from a SINGLE-BAR category, which is a 'small' phrasal category.

**double-bar juncture, double-cross juncture** see JUNCTURE (1)

**double-base** (*adj.*) A type of TRANSFORMATIONAL RULE recognized in early MODELS of GENERATIVE GRAMMAR, where the rule operates with an input of two or more TERMINAL STRINGS. Double-base transformations are also known as GENERALIZED transformations, and are opposed to 'single-base' types, where only one string is involved.

**double cross** see HASH

**double negative** see NEGATION

**doublet** (*n.*) In HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS, a term used for a pair of different WORDS in a language which have a common origin and display similarities of FORM and MEANING. English examples are *wine/vine* and *poison/potion*.

**doubly filled COMP filter** A FILTER proposed within EXTENDED STANDARD THEORY to rule out such SENTENCES as *\*I wonder who that John saw*, in which two items (*who* and *that*) occupy the COMP position.

**downdrift** (*n.*) see DOWNSTEP

**downgrading** (*n.*) A term used by some LINGUISTS to refer to a GRAMMATICAL process in which a UNIT in the grammatical HIERARCHY is EMBEDDED within a unit from a lower LEVEL. For example, the clause *I don't care* is used as the equivalent of a WORD in the SENTENCE *That's a very I-don't-care attitude*; it has thus been **downgraded** (compare the notion of RANK shift).

**downstep** (*n.*) A term used in the PHONOLOGY of TONE languages, referring to a lowering process which applies to the second of two high-tone SYLLABLES. A **downstepped** high tone would be slightly lower than the preceding high tone, but not so low as to be equivalent to a low tone. The process has been widely observed in African languages. Less commonly, the opposite effect, **upstep**, has been noted, where successive high tones become progressively higher. Downstep is phonologically CONTRASTIVE, and is usually distinguished from **downdrift**, a

sequential process whereby high tones after low tones become progressively less high throughout an intonational unit. These effects have been described more generally as ‘register lowering’ or ‘key lowering’. **Declination** is often used as an equivalent for downdrift, but this term also has a more general phonetic use (‘F<sub>0</sub> declination’), referring to a gradual descent of pitch level and narrowing of pitch range throughout an utterance, partly as a result of reduction in air pressure at the glottis, as speakers use up the breath in their lungs. Such effects, of course, are not restricted to tone languages.

**downward entailing** see ENTAILMENT

**drag chain** see CHAIN (3)

**drill** (*n.*) see PATTERN

**drum language** In LINGUISTICS, a term used to characterize a type of LANGUAGE in which a drum is used to simulate selected features of speech (primarily, TONES and RHYTHMS). The signals consist mainly of short, FORMULAIC utterances, but are used to build up quite elaborate systems of communication, especially in Africa, both within villages and between communities.

**D-structure** (*n.*) A term used in later TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR to refer to an alternative conception of DEEP STRUCTURE, which is related to S-STRUCTURE (SURFACE STRUCTURE) through the use of EMPTY elements such as TRACES and PRO.

**dual** (*adj.*) see NUMBER

**dualism** (*n.*) A term used to characterize a theory of MEANING which postulates that there is a direct, two-way relationship between LINGUISTIC FORMS and the entities, states of affairs, etc., to which they refer (i.e. REFERENTS). Such **dualist** theories are usually contrasted with TRIADIC theories of meaning, which postulate a threefold relationship, namely between forms, referents and SENSE.

**duality** A suggested defining property of human LANGUAGE (contrasting with the properties of other SEMIOTIC SYSTEMS), which sees languages as being STRUCTURALLY organized in terms of two abstract LEVELS; also called **duality of patterning** or **duality of structure**. At the first, higher level, language is analysed in terms of combinations of (meaningful) UNITS (such as MORPHEMES, WORDS); at another, lower level, it is seen as a sequence of SEGMENTS which lack any MEANING in themselves, but which combine to form units of meaning. These two levels are sometimes referred to as ARTICULATIONS – a ‘primary’ and ‘secondary’ articulation respectively.

**dummy** (*adj./n.*) A term used in LINGUISTICS to refer to a FORMAL GRAMMATICAL ELEMENT introduced into a STRUCTURE or an analysis to ensure that a grammatical SENTENCE is produced. Apart from their formal role, **dummy elements** have no meaning – they are SEMANTICALLY empty, e.g. *there* in *there were many people at the club*, *it* in *it’s raining*. When this element acts as a locus for

grammatical CONTRASTS, it is referred to as a **dummy carrier**, e.g. *do* in QUESTION forms is a **dummy auxiliary**, which carries the TENSE/NUMBER contrast for the VERB PHRASE (*do/did you know, do/does he know*). Notions involving ZERO (e.g. ‘zero morpheme’) could also be considered types of dummy. In TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR, **dummy symbols** are sometimes introduced into the DEEP STRUCTURE of a sentence, to facilitate the DERIVATION of CLASSES of sentence, but they never appear in the sentence’s surface structure, e.g. the various kinds of BOUNDARY SYMBOL, or the DELTA ( $\Delta$ ) symbol which acts as a ‘place-holder’ for LEXICAL ITEMS (specified as COMPLEX SYMBOLS). In GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY, the term refers to elements in A-position (usually in subject position) with no THETA ROLE; they are also known as ‘expletives’.

**duplex perception** An experimental technique used in AUDITORY PHONETICS involving the manipulation of two components of a sound stimulus, one in each ear. In one ear, listeners are presented with a synthesized STOP+VOWEL SYLLABLE (such as [ga]) from which the second or third FORMANT TRANSITION has been removed; this transition formant is simultaneously presented to the other ear. People typically perceive a complete [ga] as well as the isolated transition, which sounds like a non-speech ‘chirp’. The perception is said to be ‘duplex’ because of the double effect: listeners hear both the integrated percept and the isolated transition percept.

**duration** (*n.*) A term used in PHONETICS, to refer to the LENGTH of time involved in the ARTICULATION of a sound or SYLLABLE. Distinctions between relatively ‘long’ and relatively ‘short’ durations are measured in units of time, such as the millisecond (msec). In speech, the absolute duration of sounds is dependent to a considerable extent on the overall TEMPO of speaking. Issues which need reference to duration include the study of rhythm (see ISOCHRONY), CONSONANT articulation (see VOICE onset time) and JUNCTURE.

**durative** (*adj./n.*) (**dur**, **DUR**) A term used in the GRAMMATICAL analysis of ASPECT, to refer to an event involving a period of time (see CONTINUOUS, PROGRESSIVE); it contrasts with ‘non-durative’ or PUNCTUAL. A verb-form is said to express ‘durative meaning’, or **durativity**.

**dvandva** (*adj.*) In GRAMMAR, a Sanskrit term describing a type of COMPOUND where the elements exist in a co-ordinate relationship (see CO-ORDINATION), lacking any internal dependency; also called a **copulative compound**. Examples include *the Franco-German pact* and the *London–Edinburgh express*, as well as extended structures such as Polonius’s *tragic-comical-historical-pastoral* (*Hamlet* II.ii.396).

**dyadic** (*adj.*) see VALENCY

**dynamic** (*adj.*) (1) A term used in GRAMMATICAL classification, referring to one of the two main ASPECTUAL categories of VERB use; the other is STATIVE or STATIC. The distinguishing criteria are mainly SYNTACTIC; for example, dynamic verbs occur in the PROGRESSIVE form (e.g. *I’m running, He’s playing*) and in the

IMPERATIVE (e.g. *Run!*). The SEMANTICS of this class covers a wide range, including activity, process (e.g. *change, grow*), bodily sensation (e.g. *feel, hurt*), etc.

(2) A term used by some SOCIOLINGUISTS to characterize a view of LANGUAGE (**dynamic linguistics**) in which a temporal dimension is introduced into the study of language variation: SYNCHRONIC states are seen in terms of the processes ('waves') of change which produce and affect them, as defined in terms of such notions as relative rate and direction of change. A similar introduction of the temporal dimension into an otherwise 'static' view of a subject is found in parametric PHONETICS (**dynamic phonetics**), and in several contemporary instrumental techniques for the study of ARTICULATION, as in myodynamic (muscular movement) and aerodynamic (airflow) investigations (see ARTICULATORY DYNAMICS). Phonological approaches which incorporate parametric phonetic principles are characterized as **dynamic phonology**.

(3) **Dynamic** is sometimes used in PHONOLOGY for a TONE which varies in PITCH range, e.g. rising or falling. Dynamic tones are usually contrasted with STATIC tones.

(4) **Dynamic** is used in FUNCTIONAL SENTENCE PERSPECTIVE, as part of the phrase **communicative dynamism**, whereby an utterance is seen as a process of gradually unfolding meaning, in which each part contributes variously (**dynamic-ally**) to the total communicative effect. See COMMUNICATIVE DYNAMISM.

(5) **Dynamic** has been used to describe a formal approach to SEMANTICS which characterizes the MEANING of a sentence as its potential to change INFORMATION states in a language user (**dynamic semantics**). It is opposed to a 'static' model, in which meaning is viewed as equivalent to the TRUTH CONDITIONAL content of sentences. An information state is seen as a set of possibilities – an encoding of information about the possible DENOTATIONS of the expressions of the language and about the possible values of variables used in these expressions (ANAPHORA). These states are used to define the information change potential of expressions – the change which is brought about by the utterance of a sentence. The analysis involves a continuous process of updating interpretations, as information states come to be extended through the addition of new discourse information and the elimination of certain possibilities, and as a result the approach is also referred to as **update semantics**. The approach has been particularly used in explicating PRONOUN coreference.

**dynamic linguistics/phonetics/phonology** see DYNAMIC (2)

**dynamic semantics** see DYNAMIC (4)

**dynamic time warping** see SPEECH RECOGNITION

**dynamic verb** see DYNAMIC (1)

**dynamism** (*n.*) see COMMUNICATIVE DYNAMISM