

C

C An abbreviation in GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY for the category COMPLEMENTIZER, generally abbreviated in earlier work as COMP. This abbreviation is associated with the idea that complementizer is a HEAD of PHRASE category broadly similar to NOUN, VERB, ADJECTIVE and PREPOSITION, with associated SINGLE-BAR and DOUBLE-BAR categories, C' and C". C", usually referred to as CP, is the largest unit of GRAMMATICAL analysis (the initial symbol), equivalent to S' in earlier government-binding theory, LEXICAL FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR and GENERALIZED PHRASE-STRUCTURE GRAMMAR.

calculus (*n.*) see PREDICATE (2), PROPOSITION

calque (*n.*) (from French *calquer*, 'to trace') A term used in COMPARATIVE and HISTORICAL linguistics to refer to a type of BORROWING, where the morphemic constituents of the borrowed WORD or PHRASE are translated ITEM by item into equivalent MORPHEMES in the new language. Such 'loan translations' are illustrated in English *power politics* from German *Machtpolitik*, *Superman* from *Übermensch*.

cancellation (*n.*) see CATEGORY

candidate (*n.*) A term in OPTIMALITY THEORY referring to a potential OUTPUT form. A set of candidates is generated and then evaluated so as to find the optimal choice – the one with the fewest lowest VIOLATIONS. It is symbolized by [☞] in an optimality TABLEAU.

canonical (*adj.*) An application in LINGUISTICS and PHONETICS of the general sense of this term, to refer to a linguistic FORM cited as a NORM or standard for purposes of comparison. In PHONOLOGY, for example, the normal syllabic combinations of sounds in a LANGUAGE (or in language as a whole) are often referred to as 'canonical', e.g. a CONSONANT-VOWEL (CV) or CVC structure constitutes a 'canonical SYLLABLE' pattern; an averaged waveform in automatic SPEECH RECOGNITION may be described as a 'canonical waveform'. In MORPHOLOGY the term is used sometimes to refer to the typical phonological shape of MORPHEMES in a language (e.g. CVCV in Polynesian), and sometimes for the basic form in

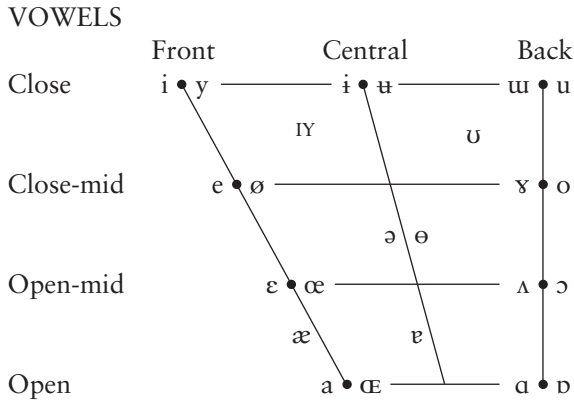
which a MORPHEME is cited (e.g. -s for the plural morpheme in English). In SYNTAX, **canonical structures** (such as WORD-ORDER) have been postulated, e.g. SUBJECT-VERB-OBJECT, but this is an extended sense of the term. In some SOCIOLINGUISTIC and PSYCHOLINGUISTIC studies, the normal positions of human beings in relation to each other while conversing (i.e. face-to-face) is called a **canonical encounter** or **orientation**. See also TEMPLATE.

capacity (*n.*) A term used in GENERATIVE linguistics to refer to the generative POWER of GRAMMARS. If a series of grammars generates an identical set of STRINGS (SENTENCES), they are said to have the same **weak generative capacity**. If in addition they assign the same STRUCTURAL DESCRIPTIONS to these strings, then they have the same **strong generative capacity**.

cardinal (*adj./n.*) A TRADITIONAL term retained in some models of GRAMMATICAL description, referring to the class of numerals *one, two*, etc. Cardinal numbers (or 'cardinals') contrast with the ORDINAL numbers *first, second*, etc.

cardinal vowels A set of standard reference points, devised by the British PHONETICIAN Daniel Jones (1881–1967), to provide a precise means of identifying the VOWEL sounds of a language. The **cardinal vowel system** is based on a combination of ARTICULATORY and AUDITORY judgements. Four theoretical levels of TONGUE height are recognized: (a) the highest position to which the tongue can be raised without producing audible FRICTION; (b) the lowest position the tongue is capable of achieving; (c) and (d), two intermediate levels, which divide up the intervening space into areas that are articulatorily and auditorily equidistant. Using the FRONT of the tongue, and without rounding the lips, four **primary** vowel types are produced, and these are given the symbols (from HIGH to LOW [i], [e], [ɛ] and [a]. Using the BACK of the tongue, four more primary vowel types are recognized, symbolized as (from low to high) [ɑ], [ɔ], [o] and [u] – the last three involving lip-ROUNDING. In addition, each of these primary values is coded numerically, from 1 to 8 respectively.

By reversing the lip position, a **secondary** series of vowel types is produced: rounding the lips for the front vowels produces (from high to low) [y], [ø], [œ] and [ɛ̃]; [ɹ] is the rounded equivalent of cardinal 5, and [ʌ], [ɤ] and [ɯ] are the unrounded equivalents of cardinals 6, 7 and 8 respectively. The numerical code for the secondary series runs from 9 to 16. Two further cardinal vowels represent the highest point the centre of the tongue can reach: these are symbolized by [ɨ] for the unrounded vowel and by [ɤ̃] for the rounded vowel, coded 17 and 18 respectively. Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a rounded vowel. The entire system is usually shown in the form of the **cardinal vowel diagram**, or **cardinal vowel quadrilateral**, in which the aim is to give an approximate picture of the degree and direction of tongue movement involved. Additional lines help to delimit the area in which central vowel sounds are made. It should be emphasized that the cardinal vowels are not real vowels: they are invariable reference points (available as a recording), which have to be learned by rote. Once learned, phoneticians can use them in order to locate the position of the vowels of a LANGUAGE or to compare the vowels of different languages or DIALECTS. They can be sure that the vowels will all fall somewhere within the boundar-ies of the cardinal area. DIACRITIC marks can then be used to plot vowel



positions more accurately, e.g. a plus beneath the vowel means that the articulation is more advanced than the cardinal value (as in [u⁺]), a line beneath the vowel means that the articulation is more retracted (as in [ɛ̄]).

Several other suggestions have been made concerning the best way of dividing up the vowel articulation area, but Daniel Jones's system is still the most widely used.

caregiver/caretaker speech see MOTHERESE

Cartesian linguistics A term used by some linguists to refer to any LINGUISTIC theories or methods which, it is claimed, illustrate the influence of the French philosopher René Descartes (1596–1650) and the GRAMMARIANS of PORT ROYAL. The discussion of UNIVERSALS in GENERATIVE linguistics, in particular, draws certain parallels with Cartesian views concerning the relationship between language and thought. This interpretation of the history of linguistic thought has remained controversial, since its initial statement by Noam Chomsky (see *Language and Mind* (1968)). See also CHOMSKYAN.

case (*n.*) (1) A GRAMMATICAL CATEGORY used in the analysis of WORD classes (or their associated PHRASES) to identify the SYNTACTIC relationship between words in a SENTENCE, through such contrasts as NOMINATIVE, ACCUSATIVE, etc. The traditional CLASSIFICATION, such as is found in Latin GRAMMAR, is based on variations in the MORPHOLOGICAL forms of the word (a set of such forms constituting a PARADIGM, as in Latin *puella*, *puellam*, *puellae*, *puella*, the singular case forms of 'girl' – respectively nominative/VOCATIVE, accusative, GENITIVE/DATIVE and ABLATIVE). Each form is analysed in terms of a specific range of meaning; e.g. nominative is primarily the case of the grammatical SUBJECT of the sentence, genitive refers to such notions as possession, origin and so on.

In languages which lack morphological variations of this kind, the term 'case', as traditionally used, does not apply. In English, for example, the only case form which is so marked is the genitive (as in *boy's* or *boys'*); all other forms have no ending, the remaining case 'meanings' being expressed using PREPOSITIONS (as in *with a boy*, *to the boy*) or word-order (as in the *cat chases mouse/mouse chases cat* contrast). A great deal of space in introductions to LINGUISTICS has been devoted to this point, in particular to criticism of TRADITIONAL grammars of

English which insisted none the less on analysing the English noun in terms of cases. In some languages, highly complex morphological SYSTEMS are encountered – according to some, Finnish can be analysed as having sixteen cases, for example – along with a correspondingly complex descriptive terminology (using such terms as *INESSIVE* ('in' a place), *ELATIVE* ('from inside' a place) and *ILLATIVE* ('into' a place)).

(2) When written with a capital C (*Case*), the term refers to an abstract notion which is distinct from the MORPHOLOGICALLY marked case described under (1) above. Abstract *Case* (or *deep Case*) is present even in languages (such as Chinese) which lack morphological case on NOUN PHRASES; it is usually assumed to be CONGRUENT with morphological case when such features are present. *Case theory* is one of the (sub-)theories of GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY: it deals with the assignment of abstract Case and its morphological realizations, restricting the distribution of LEXICAL NPs at S-STRUCTURE. *Structural Case* is assigned to NPs at S-structure; *inherent Case* is assigned to NPs in D-STRUCTURE. *Case-marking rules* assign structural Case to certain NP positions (e.g. OBJECTIVE, where the NP is GOVERNED by a TRANSITIVE VERB or PREPOSITION), and the *Case filter* restricts the range of SENTENCES which can be generated in this way, making MOVEMENT obligatory in PASSIVES, and preventing the appearance of an ADVERBIAL between a verb and its object. Case theory in this sense must be clearly distinguished from that outlined in CASE GRAMMAR.

case grammar An approach to grammatical analysis devised by the American linguist Charles Fillmore (b. 1929) in the late 1960s, within the general orientation of GENERATIVE grammar. It is primarily a reaction against the STANDARD-THEORY analysis of sentences, where notions such as SUBJECT, OBJECT, etc., are neglected in favour of analyses in terms of NP, VP, etc. By focusing on syntactic FUNCTIONS, however, it was felt that several important kinds of SEMANTIC relationship could be represented, which it would otherwise be difficult or impossible to capture. A set of sentences such as *The key opened the door*, *The door was opened by/with the key*, *The door opened*, *The man opened the door with a key*, etc., illustrate several 'stable' semantic roles, despite the varying SURFACE grammatical STRUCTURES. In each case the key is 'instrumental', the door is the entity affected by the action, and so on. Case grammar FORMALIZES this insight using a MODEL which shows the influence of the PREDICATE calculus of formal logic: the DEEP STRUCTURE of a sentence has two CONSTITUENTS, MODALITY (features of TENSE, MOOD, ASPECT and NEGATION, relating to the sentence as a whole) and PROPOSITION (within which the VERB is considered central, and the various semantic roles that ELEMENTS of structure can have are listed with reference to it, and categorized as cases).

The term 'case' is used because of the similarity with several of the traditional meanings covered by this term (see CASE (1)), but the deep-structure cases recognized by the theory do not systematically correspond with anything in the surface morphology or syntax. The original proposal set up six cases (AGENTIVE, INSTRUMENTAL, DATIVE, FACTITIVE, LOCATIVE and OBJECTIVE) and gave rules for their combination in defining the use of verbs, e.g. a verb like *open* can be used with an objective and instrumental case (e.g. *The key opened the door*), or with an additional agent (e.g. *The man opened the door with a key*). Later, other cases were suggested (SOURCE, GOAL, COUNTER-AGENT), some cases were reinterpreted

and relabelled (see EXPERIENCER, RESULT), and certain cases came to be given special study, it being claimed that they were more fundamental (location and direction, in particular). In a locative or LOCALIST case theory, for example, structures such as *there is a table*, *the table has legs*, *the table's legs*, and many more, could each be analysed as having an underlying locational feature. The problems in formalizing this conception of linguistic structure have remained very great, and case grammar came to attract somewhat less interest in the mid-1970s; but it has proved to be influential on the terminology and classification of several later theories, especially the theory of THEMATIC ROLES. See also FRAME, THEME.

cataphora (*n.*) A term used by some GRAMMARIANS for the process or result of a LINGUISTIC UNIT referring forward to another unit. **Cataphoric reference** is one way of marking the identity between what is being expressed and what is about to be expressed: for example, *I said this/the following . . .*, where the meaning of *this* and *the following* must be specified in the subsequent CONTEXT. *Here is the 9 o'clock news* shows the cataphoric function of *here*. **Cataphoric words** (or 'substitutes') are usually contrasted with ANAPHORIC words (which refer backwards), and sometimes with EXOPHORIC words (which refer directly to the EXTRALINGUISTIC SITUATION).

cataphoric (*adj.*) see CATAPHORA

categorial grammar see CATEGORY

categorical perception A term used in PHONETICS and PSYCHOLINGUISTICS to refer to a class of discontinuities in the labelling and discrimination of items along ACOUSTIC PHONETIC continua. Subjects typically perceive differences in stimuli between those items that are labelled as belonging to different categories; but increasing the sensitivity of the measures allows some awareness of differences within the same category.

categorization (*n.*) see CATEGORY

category (*n.*) A general term used in LINGUISTICS at varying levels of abstraction. At its most general level, **categorization** refers to the whole process of organizing human experience into general concepts with their associated linguistic labels; the linguistic study of this process (in SEMANTICS) overlaps with that of philosophers and psychologists. In the field of GRAMMAR, categorization refers to the establishment of a set of classificatory UNITS or properties used in the description of language, which have the same basic DISTRIBUTION, and which occur as a structural unit throughout the language. In the course of language change, there may be alterations in the category status of a unit (**recategorization**). The term **category** in some approaches refers to the CLASSES themselves, e.g. NOUN, VERB, SUBJECT, PREDICATE, noun PHRASE, verb phrase (any associated abbreviations being referred to as **category symbols**). More specifically, it refers to the defining properties of these general units: the categories of the noun, for example, include NUMBER, GENDER, CASE and COUNTABILITY; of the verb, TENSE, ASPECT, VOICE, etc. A distinction is often made between **grammatical categories**, in this second

sense, and grammatical FUNCTIONS (or **functional categories**), such as SUBJECT, OBJECT, COMPLEMENT.

While both of these senses of ‘category’ are widespread, several specific applications of the term have developed within individual theories. For example, in SCALE-AND-CATEGORY GRAMMAR, ‘category’ is used primarily to refer to the notions of CLASS, SYSTEM, UNIT and STRUCTURE, which the theory recognized as basic. Most distinctive of all, perhaps, is the special status given to the term in theories of **categorial grammar**, a type of FORMAL GRAMMAR devised by logicians in the 1920s and 1930s, and developed by several linguists in the 1950s (in particular by Yehoshua Bar Hillel (1915–75)). Its distinctive mode of operation involves the deriving of categories from more basic categories: for any two categories, P and Q, there is a complex category of the type P/Q, which represents the operations which may be performed on a given word. For example, given the basic categories N (noun) and S (sentence), an item such as *go* would be assigned N/S, thereby capturing its INTRANSITIVE status (i.e. *go* can combine with a preceding N to produce S). More complex structures can be reduced to simpler ones using a set of syntactic operations, in which the notion of ‘cancellation’ is especially important (e.g. P followed by P/Q reduces to Q).

In GENERATIVE grammar, the set of PHRASE-STRUCTURE RULES in a grammar may be referred to as the **categorial component**, i.e. that part of the BASE component of the grammar which specifies such syntactic categories as S, NP, VP. A **categorial rule** is a RULE which EXPANDS a category into other categories. Also, in some MODELS of generative grammar, the term **category feature** is used to refer to a type of CONTEXTUAL feature, i.e. a syntactic feature which specifies the conditions relating to where in a DEEP STRUCTURE a LEXICAL ITEM can occur. Category features specify which NODE will be the one to DOMINATE directly the lexical item, once it is introduced into the PHRASE-MARKER (replacing the corresponding EMPTY (DELTA) symbol, e.g. [+N], [+Det], [+V]). A **category variable** is a symbol which stands for any lexical category. A related term in this model is **strict sub-categorization**, referring to features which specify further restrictions on the choice of lexical items in deep structure. See also EMPTY (1), GOVERN (2), HIGHER CATEGORY, TYPE SHIFTING.

category shifting see TYPE SHIFTING

catenative (*adj./n.*) A term used in some GRAMMATICAL descriptions of the VERB phrase to refer to a LEXICAL verb (‘a catenative’) which governs the non-FINITE form of another lexical verb, as in one possible analysis of *she likes to write*, *she wants to see*, *she hates waiting*, etc. In GENERATIVE GRAMMAR, such constructions are known as CONTROL and RAISING CONSTRUCTIONS.

causal chain theory In SEMANTICS, the hypothesis that the DENOTATION of a PROPER NAME or other EXPRESSION is determined by the historical chain of cause and effect leading from the initial bestowal of the name up through its acquisition by the speaker. The theory was proposed by philosopher Saul (Aaron) Kripke (b. 1940) in the 1970s as an alternative to the view that denotation is determined by mental description or other features of the speaker’s psychological state.

causative (*adj./n.*) (**caus**, CAUS) A term used in GRAMMATICAL description to refer to the causal relationship between alternative versions of a SENTENCE. For

example, the pair of sentences *The cat killed the mouse* and *The mouse died* are related, in that the transitive *kill* can be seen as a 'causative' version of the intransitive *die*, viz. 'cause to die' (*The cat caused the mouse to die*); similarly, some AFFIXES have a causative role, e.g. *-ize*, as in *domesticize* (= 'cause to become domestic'). This is a relationship which is clearly established in the MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE of some LANGUAGES (e.g. Japanese, Turkish), where an AFFIX can systematically distinguish between **non-causative** and **causative** uses of a VERB ('causative verbs' or 'causatives'), e.g. 'she eats', 'she causes (someone) to eat', which is similar to English *she makes him eat*. Some linguists have also tried to apply the notion of causative systematically to English, seeing it as an abstract UNDERLYING category from which sets of 'surface' verbs (such as *kill* and *die*) can be derived.

cavity (*n.*) (1) In PHONETICS, this term refers to any of the anatomically defined chambers in the VOCAL TRACT which are the principal formative influences on the character of a sound. The main cavities are: (a) the OESOPHAGEAL cavity, from oesophagus to stomach, which is used only in abnormal speech production, such as following a laryngectomy operation; (b) the PULMONIC cavity, made up of the lungs and trachea, which is the normal source of speech sounds; (c) the PHARYNGEAL cavity, from the LARYNX to the point where the soft PALATE makes contact with the back of the throat; (d) the ORAL cavity, made up of the whole of the mouth area, and the main means of modifying the RESONANCE of the sound produced at the larynx; sometimes referred to as BUCCAL; (e) the NASAL cavity, made up of the nose and the part of the pharynx above the point of soft palate closure.

(2) In Chomsky and Halle's DISTINCTIVE FEATURE theory of PHONOLOGY (see CHOMSKYAN), **cavity features** constitute one of the five main dimensions in terms of which speech sounds are analysed (the others being MAJOR CLASS FEATURES, MANNER OF ARTICULATION features, SOURCE FEATURES and PROSODIC features). The features subsumed under this heading, all analysed as OPPOSITIONS, are CORONAL, ANTERIOR, TONGUE-BODY FEATURES (HIGH/LOW/BACK), ROUNDED, DISTRIBUTED, COVERED, GLOTTAL constrictions and SECONDARY APERTURES (NASAL and LATERAL). In some models of FEATURE GEOMETRY, an **oral cavity node** is introduced, corresponding to the articulatory notion of an oral cavity CONstriction. It is represented between the ROOT NODE and the PLACE node, thus DOMINATING place and [\pm continuant] nodes.

c-command see COMMAND (2)

cenematics, cenetics (*n.*) see CENEME (1)

ceneme (*n.*) (1) A term used in GLOSSEMATICs to refer to the minimal UNIT in a language's PHONOLOGICAL system. **Cenematics** and **cenetics** are the terms used to refer to the analysis of cenemes at LEVELS corresponding to those of phonology and PHONETICS respectively.

(2) In the study of writing systems, a SIGN which denotes only linguistic FORM; opposed to **plereme**, where MEANING is also involved. There are two main types: syllabaries (e.g. Japanese kana) and alphabets. Systems of **cenemic** signs are more economical in their use of elementary units, and are often thought to represent a more advanced state of writing.

centre (*n.*) (1) The top part of the TONGUE, between FRONT and BACK, and used especially in the production of ‘central VOWELS’ (also called ‘neutral’ vowels), such as the [ə] sound which opens the word *asleep* and closes the word *sofa*. In a sense, when compared with the theoretical extremes of vowel ARTICULATION which define the CARDINAL VOWELS in PHONETICS, *all* real LANGUAGE vowels are **centralized**; but the term is usually used to refer to cases where a vowel normally articulated in the periphery of the vowel area comes to be produced nearer the centre of the mouth, as when *bacon and* [= and] *eggs* becomes, in normal colloquial speech, *bacon* [ənd] *eggs*. Several degrees of this process of **centralization** can be heard. Markedly ‘centralized vowels’ are common in several urban British DIALECTS, for example. A DIPHTHONG which involves a GLIDE towards the centre of the mouth may be referred to as a ‘centring’ diphthong.

(2) The most SONOROUS part of a SYLLABLE may be referred to as the ‘centre’ (or NUCLEUS), e.g. the [u:] in the word *boot* [bu:t].

(3) In those types of grammatical PHRASE where several words depend on one HEAD word (ENDOCENTRIC constructions), the head is often referred to as the ‘centre’ of the phrase.

centre-embedding see SELF-EMBEDDING

centring diphthong see CENTRE (1)

centum language /'kɛntəm/ An Indo-European LANGUAGE in which the VELAR STOP /k/ of Proto-Indo-European was retained in such words as Latin *centum* ‘hundred’; opposed to a **satem** language, where this sound changed to an alveolar fricative /s/ in such words as Avestan *satem* ‘hundred’. Celtic, Romance and Germanic languages are among the centum group; Balto-Slavonic and Indo-Iranian languages are among the satem group.

chain (*n.*) (1) In COMMUNICATION studies, a term used to describe a MODEL which presents the communicative act as an interrelated sequence of stages between a speaker and a receiver. With reference to speech (the **speech chain**), the model usually distinguishes psychological, neurological, physiological and anatomical stages of sound production, an acoustic stage of transmission, and anatomical, physiological, neurological and psychological stages of sound reception.

(2) In GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY, a **chain** refers to a sequence of SYNTACTIC elements subject to the same specific conditions, as shown by government and CO-INDEXING: $a_1^i, a_2^i \dots a_n^i$, where each *a* is ANTECEDENT-governed. In this example, a_1^i is the **head** of the chain, a_n^i is the **foot**; and each adjacent pair is a **link**. It is an alternative way of expressing the notion of **movement**, and retains an important role in the MINIMALIST PROGRAMME. A MOVED CONSTITUENT and its CO-INDEXED TRACES form a chain. A chain is an **A-chain** if a_1^i is in an A-position, and an **A-bar-chain** if it is in an A-bar-position. The principle governing the linking of chains is called the **chain formation principle** or **chain condition**: every chain must contain just one THETA-marked position and just one CASE-marked position. A **CHAIN** is a generalization of the notion to handle EXPLETIVE-ARGUMENT pairs, such as *There_i is a car_i in the garage.*

(3) In historical PHONOLOGY, a situation where a series of sound changes take place, each one influencing the next. Two directions of movement are possible.

When the process begins at the top or front end of an ARTICULATORY dimension, empty slots are left in the chain which other sounds move up to fill: a **drag chain**. When the process begins at the bottom or back end of the chain, each sound ‘pushes’ the next one out of place: a **push chain**. The Great Vowel Shift in English (see SOUND CHANGE) is often cited as a classical example of a chain movement (or **chain shift**) in operation.

(4) In SYNTAX, a term used to describe CLAUSE combinations in languages where the distinction between CO-ORDINATION and SUBORDINATION does not easily apply. In a **clause-chaining language** (such as the Papuan language, Hua), identity or lack of identity between the SUBJECTS of successive clauses is marked by verb INFLECTION (see SWITCH REFERENCE).

(5) In SOCIOLINGUISTICS, a continuing sequence of QUESTION/answer exchanges in a conversation; also referred to as **chaining**.

CHAIN see CHAIN (2)

chain/choice (*n.*) A pair of terms used by some LINGUISTS to refer to the two main AXES of linguistic organization, corresponding to the distinction between SYNTAGMATIC (‘chain’) and PARADIGMATIC (‘choice’). This sense of ‘choice’ is more restricted than that found in some discussions of SEMANTICS, where a widely held conception of MEANINGFULNESS is based on the ability of the speaker/hearer to ‘choose’ from a selection of linguistic alternatives, which provide the information-carrying contrasts prerequisite for communication.

chain condition/formation principle see CHAIN (2)

chain shift see CHAIN (2)

change from above/below Two terms introduced into SOCIOLINGUISTICS by William Labov (b. 1927) as part of the explanation of language change. ‘Change from below’ refers to the alterations that people make in their speech below the level of their conscious awareness; ‘change from above’ results from a conscious process of correction of individual linguistic forms, as a result of social pressure (see HYPERCORRECTION). The terms have also been used so as to focus on the relationships of social class which are implicated. Here, ‘change from below’ is seen when the speech of people from a higher-class background is influenced by that of lower-class speakers – in situations, for example, where the former group admires the latter’s traditional way of life. ‘Change from above’ involves the reverse process: lower-class people come to recognize the high prestige attached to certain pronunciations, which they then introduce into their speech. See also LANGUAGE CHANGE, OVERT (2).

channel (*n.*) see MEDIUM

character (*n.*) (1) In SEMANTIC studies of DEMONSTRATIVES and INDEXICALS, a term referring to a FUNCTION which maps each possible PRAGMATIC CONTEXT onto the expression’s CONTENT relative to that context.

(2) See LOGOGRAM.

charm (*n.*) In GOVERNMENT PHONOLOGY, a term adapted from particle physics, and used to refer to a property of the combinatorial possibilities of the primitive elements which form phonological SEGMENTS. Segments may be positively **charmed** (e.g. VOWELS) or negatively charmed (e.g. PLOSIVES), or they may be neutral (**charmless**, e.g. LIQUIDS). Charmed segments may govern; charmless segments may be governed. Positively charmed segments may not occur in non-NUCLEAR positions; negatively charmed segments may not occur in nuclear positions.

charmed, charmless (*adj.*) see CHARM

chart (*n.*) (1) A term used in PHONETICS to refer to the INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ASSOCIATION's classification of the sounds of LANGUAGE presented in matrix form: the 'IPA chart'. See p. xxv of this dictionary.

(2) A term used in AUTOSEGMENTAL PHONOLOGY for a pair of TIERS along with the set of ASSOCIATION LINES which relates them.

chart parser In COMPUTATIONAL LINGUISTICS, a procedure which builds up a REPRESENTATION of the CONSTITUENTS present in a SENTENCE during a PARSING operation. A chart is a set of entries, each of which consists of the name of a TERMINAL or non-terminal symbol, the starting-point of the entry and the entry length. The parsing process involves a **key list** (a stack of entries waiting to be entered into the chart) and a set of RULES (**arcs** or **edges**) that apply to the entries. Each arc represents the application of a rule to build a constituent, and is labelled with the rule it represents. Several kinds of chart parsers have been developed in NATURAL LANGUAGE PROCESSING, using different programming languages and procedures (e.g. top-down and BOTTOM-UP ALGORITHMS).

checked (*adj.*) (1) One of the features of sound set up by Jakobson and Halle (see JAKOBSONIAN) in their DISTINCTIVE FEATURE theory of PHONOLOGY, to handle SECONDARY ARTICULATIONS – in this case, glottalization. Checked CONSONANTS are defined, both articulatorily and acoustically, as those sounds produced with accompanying GLOTTAL activity, involving a rapid energy discharge in a short time interval. EJECTIVES and IMPLOSIVES, in this view, are [+checked]. The opposite term is **unchecked**, which applies to all non-glottalized sounds, signalled acoustically by a lower energy discharge over a larger time interval.

(2) The term is also found as an alternative to CLOSED, in the description of SYLLABLES: a **checked syllable** is one ending in a consonant, and a **checked vowel** is a vowel occurring in such a syllable.

checking (*adj.*) (1) A term sometimes used in GRAMMATICAL description to refer to a subtype of TAG QUESTIONS: a **checking tag** is one which reverses the positive or negative value of the main-CLAUSE VERB, and whose function is seen as one of confirmation, or 'checking', e.g. *It's Sunday today, isn't it*. Other types of tag would be referred to as 'copy' tags.

(2) In the MINIMALIST PROGRAMME, a term describing a procedure which determines whether a LEXICAL element has the appropriate FEATURES before it is used in a position in SENTENCE STRUCTURE. It is a basic relation which allows one element to LICENSE another by checking off the features with which the latter is associated. The set of positions to be checked is called the **checking domain**.

chereme (*n.*) see CHEROLOGY

cherology (*n.*) In LINGUISTICS, a term sometimes used for the study of SIGN language. It was coined on analogy with PHONOLOGY to refer to the study of the smallest CONTRASTIVE units (**cheremes**) which occur in a sign language. Signs are analysed into such features as the location of the signing space in which a sign is made, the hand configuration used and the action of the active hand.

chest pulse A term used in PHONETICS to refer to a contraction of those muscles of the chest which are involved in the exhalation of air from the lungs. For the production of emphatic speech, these pulses are said to be 'reinforced' or 'stressed'. The chest pulse has been suggested as a central explanatory concept in one account of SYLLABLE production (**chest pulse theory**), but this view presents several problems.

child language acquisition see ACQUISITION (1)

choice (*n.*) see BINARY FEATURE, CHAIN/CHOICE

choice function A term used in SEMANTICS for a FUNCTION which maps each set in its DOMAIN onto a member of that set. Choice functions play an important role in certain semantic analyses of SPECIFIC INDEFINITES.

chômeur (*n.*) A term used in RELATIONAL GRAMMAR, derived from the French word meaning 'unemployed', to refer to a NOMINAL item which has its role in a CLAUSE taken over (or 'usurped') by another nominal; abbreviated as **cho**. For example, in a PASSIVE SENTENCE, the UNDERLYING SUBJECT is seen as having its subject FUNCTION usurped by the DIRECT OBJECT from the ACTIVE sentence; as a result, the subject of the active sentence becomes demoted into a chômeur. By seeing such STRUCTURES in terms of RULES which alter relations (rather than in terms of a TRANSFORMATION of one PHRASE-MARKER into another), it is hoped that a more UNIVERSAL formulation of such rules will be obtained.

Chomsky-adjunction (*n.*) A type of SYNTACTIC operation in TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR, referring to a RULE which places certain elements of STRUCTURE in adjacent POSITIONS, with the aim of specifying how these structures fit together in larger units. To **Chomsky-adjoin** elements, a CONSTITUENT A is adjoined to B by creating a new B NODE which immediately DOMINATES both A and B. (See ADJUNCTION for TREE diagrams.)

Chomskyan (*adj.*) Characteristic of, or a follower of, the linguistic principles of (Avram) Noam Chomsky (b. 1928), Professor of Modern Languages and Linguistics at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology; also spelled **Chomskian**. His theory of LANGUAGE STRUCTURE known as TRANSFORMATIONAL-generative grammar revolutionized work in LINGUISTICS in 1957, with the publication of his monograph *Syntactic Structures*. Later, major publications on technical linguistic topics included *Current Issues in Linguistic Theory* (1964) and *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965). The latter publication introduced a new direction into GENERATIVE theory and became the orthodoxy for several years. His main

publication on phonology was *The Sound Pattern of English* (1968), with Morris Halle, referred to in this dictionary as 'Chomsky and Halle'. Later developments in his linguistic thinking in book form may be found in *Reflections on Language* (1976), *Rules and Representations* (1980), *Knowledge of Language* (1986), *Barriers* (1986) and *The Minimalist Program* (1995).

By the mid-1960s Chomsky had come to stress the role of language as a key means to the investigation of the human mind. The view that linguistics can be profitably seen as a branch of cognitive psychology is argued especially in *Language and Mind* (1968), and it is this aspect of his thinking which has attracted a wide readership outside linguistics, especially among philosophers and psychologists. A collection of essays since 1992 is *New Horizons in the Study of Language and Mind* (2000).

Chomsky has also been actively involved in politics and has written widely on US power and involvement (or lack of involvement) in many major conflicts around the world, as well as on issues of propaganda, world trade and globalization, e.g. *American Power and the New Mandarins* (1969), *The Fateful Triangle* (1983), *Turning the Tide* (1985) and *Profits over People* (1998).

Chomsky hierarchy A label applied to the series of increasingly powerful classes of FORMAL languages which can be generated by formal GRAMMARS (as first demonstrated by Noam Chomsky, using notions partly derived from AUTOMATA theory). **Type 3** grammars are FINITE-STATE GRAMMARS (also called 'right-linear grammars'); **Type 2** grammars are CONTEXT-free grammars; **Type 1** grammars are context-sensitive grammars; and **Type 0** grammars are unrestricted REWRITE grammars. See CHOMSKYAN.

chroneme (*n.*) An abstract unit, used by some PHONOLOGISTS as a means of describing phonologically CONTRASTIVE differences in the LENGTH of speech sounds. Both VOWELS and CONSONANTS may display PHONEMIC contrasts in length: long and short vowels are found in German, long and short consonants in Lithuanian. The vowel-length differences in English, such as in *bit* and *beat*, also involve differences in QUALITY, and the term 'chroneme' is thus not applicable. Those who use this terminology would refer to the ETIC unit of duration as a **chrone**.

chunk (*v.*) see CHUNKING

chunking (*n.*) In PSYCHOLINGUISTICS, the breaking up of an utterance into units (**chunks**) so that it can be more efficiently PROCESSED. For example, the use of PROSODY to chunk a sequence of digits enables the digits to be remembered more easily (cf. /3, 7, 4, 1, 9, 8, 5, 7, 6, 2/ *v.* /3, 7, 4, 1, 9/8, 5, 7, 6, 2/). Chunking is also used as a teaching technique in speech pathology and foreign language teaching.

circonstant (*n.*) In VALENCY GRAMMAR, a non-essential DEPENDENT UNIT, not determined by the valency of the VERB; opposed to **actant**. Examples would include MODIFIERS and most uses of ADVERBIALS.

circumfix (*n.*) see AFFIX

circumscription (*n.*) In PROSODIC MORPHOLOGY, a term used to characterize a core principle of the approach: ‘prosodic circumscription’ asserts that the DOMAIN to which morphological operations apply is defined by prosodic criteria (as well as by the traditionally recognized morphological criteria). In AFFIXATION, for example, the operation of assigning a PREFIX to a BASE is traditionally carried out on purely grammatical grounds, whereas in prosodic circumscription the base form is delimited (**circumscribed**) prosodically. The notion makes it possible to give an account of such phenomena as the locus of INFIXATION in prosodic terms. See also TEMPLATE (2).

citation form The FORM of a LINGUISTIC UNIT when it is cited in isolation, for purposes of discussion. More specifically, the term refers to the pronunciation given to a word when it is produced in isolation, and not in CONNECTED SPEECH.

The term **citation** is also used in a general sense in LINGUISTICS, referring to the use of an UTTERANCE or piece of TEXT for quotation or reference purposes. In LEXICOGRAPHY, **citation slips** are used to provide the evidence on which the dictionary’s entries are selected and organized.

clash (*v.*), **clashing** (*n.*) see METRICAL GRID

class (*n.*) An application in LINGUISTICS and PHONETICS of the general use of this term, to refer to a set of entities sharing certain FORMAL or SEMANTIC properties. Its most widespread use is in relation to the **classification** of MORPHEMES into **form-classes** and WORDS into **word-classes** (other syntactic UNITS being less likely to be referred to in terms of classes). A major distinction is sometimes drawn between OPEN and CLOSED classes of words. The term **class cleavage** is sometimes used where a word is analysable into different classes, e.g. *round* in *It’s your round*, *round the corner*, etc. Some GRAMMARIANS refer to COUNTABLE NOUNS as ‘class nouns’.

‘Class’ has a special status in HALLIDAYAN LINGUISTICS, where it is one of the four main CATEGORIES recognized by that theory (the others being STRUCTURE, UNIT and SYSTEM). Here, classes are any set of ITEMS having the same possibilities of operation in structure, e.g. the class of ‘nominal groups’ can operate as SUBJECT, OBJECT, etc., in CLAUSE structure.

Classification is a feature of STRUCTURALIST linguistics, where PHONES were classified into PHONEMES, MORPHS into MORPHEMES, etc. The perceived limitations of this TAXONOMIC approach to language provided a main argument for the development of GENERATIVE linguistics. However, the notion of a NATURAL CLASS is central to some models of PHONOLOGY; for example, in FEATURE geometry, features of the same kind are grouped together under CLASS NODES.

class cleavage see CHUNKING

class dialect In SOCIOLINGUISTICS, a term sometimes used to refer to VARIETIES of language which correlate with divisions of social class – alternatively known as ‘social DIALECTS’.

classem (*n.*) A term used by some European LINGUISTS (e.g. Eugene Coseriu (b. 1921)), to refer to the relatively abstract SEMANTIC FEATURES shared by LEXICAL

items belonging to different semantic FIELDS, e.g. ANIMATE/inanimate, adult/child. In this approach, the term contrasts with the irreducible semantic features (SEMES) which work, at a very particular level, within a particular semantic field, e.g. *table* being identified in terms of ‘number of legs’, ‘shape’, etc.

classification (*n.*), **classify** (*v.*) see CLASS

classifier (*n.*) (1) (CL, class) In GRAMMAR, a morpheme whose function is to indicate the formal or SEMANTIC CLASS to which items belong are sometimes called **classifiers**, e.g. *-ly* is an ADVERB classifier, *-ess* is a ‘femininity’ classifier. The marking of LEXICAL items as belonging to the same semantic class is an important feature of many languages (e.g. Chinese, Vietnamese, Hopi), and sometimes quite unexpected bases of classifications are found, in terms of shape, size, colour, movability, animacy, status and so on.

(2) In SIGN-language studies, a term used for a handshape which functions PRONOMINALLY for a class of objects, e.g. ‘vehicle’.

class node In FEATURE GEOMETRY, a term which refers to a non-TERMINAL NODE, or ‘organizing’ node.

clausal (*adj.*) see CLAUSE

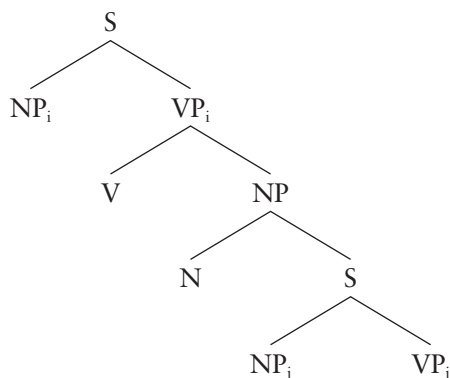
clause (*n.*) A term used in some models of GRAMMAR to refer to a UNIT of grammatical organization smaller than the SENTENCE, but larger than PHRASES, WORDS or MORPHEMES. The traditional classification is of **clausal** units into **main** (**independent** or **superordinate**) and **subordinate** (or **dependent**) clauses, e.g. *The girl arrived / after the rain started*. Some grammars distinguish FINITE and non-finite types of clause, depending on the FORM of the VERB used, and further subdivisions are sometimes made (e.g. a reduced ‘verbless’ clause, as in *When ripe, these apples will be lovely*). A more detailed subclassification would take into account the FUNCTION of clauses within the sentence, e.g. as ADVERBIAL, NOUN or ADJECTIVE. It would also analyse clauses into formal ELEMENTS of structure, such as SUBJECT, VERB, OBJECT, COMPLEMENT and adverbial.

Derived terms include ***wh*-clauses**, such as *I wonder when they will leave*; ***that*-clauses**, such as *They decided that the journey was too far*; and **small clauses**, a term used in GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY for clauses which contain neither a finite verb nor an INFINITIVAL *to*, such as *I saw [him do it]*. Mainstream GENERATIVE GRAMMAR makes no formal distinction between clauses and sentences: both are symbolized by *S/S'* (or equivalents such as *IP/CP*). Some grammarians make use of the notion of **kernel clause**: such a clause forms a sentence on its own; is structurally complete, not ELLIPTICAL; is DECLARATIVE, not IMPERATIVE, INTERROGATIVE or EXCLAMATIVE; is POSITIVE, not NEGATIVE; and is UNMARKED with respect to all the THEMATIC systems of the clause. It should be noted that this is not an alternative term for the early generative grammar notion of ‘KERNEL sentence’. See also CHAIN (4), SERIAL VERB.

clause-chaining language see CHAIN (4)

clause-mate (*n.*) A term used in early GENERATIVE GRAMMAR to refer to a type of relationship between the ELEMENTS of a SENTENCE STRUCTURE within a

PHRASE-MARKER. Elements are clause-mates if they are DOMINATED by exactly the same S NODES. For example, in a TREE partially illustrated by:



the elements NP_i and VP_i are clause-mates, as are the elements NP_j and VP_j ; but NP_i is not a clause-mate of VP_j . The notion permits a certain economy of statement in discussing the properties of TRANSFORMATIONAL rules; SELECTIONAL RESTRICTIONS, for example, apply only to clause-mates.

clause-wall (*n.*) A term used in NON-DISCRETE GRAMMAR, to refer to the different degrees of DEPENDENCY existing between CLAUSES. Clauses which have a relatively high clause-wall between them are more independent than those which are separated by a relatively low clause-wall.

clear l An impressionistic but commonly used term for a variety of LATERAL sounds where the RESONANCE is that of a front VOWEL of an [i] quality, as in the standard pronunciation of /l/ before vowels and /j/ in English, e.g. *leap*, *lamp*. It is opposed to DARK L.

cleavage (*n.*) see CLASS

cleft sentence A term used in GRAMMATICAL description to refer to a CONSTRUCTION where a single CLAUSE has been divided into two separate sections, each with its own VERB, one of which appears in a dependent *wh*-clause (RELATIVE CLAUSE). For example, the sentence *Mary is driving a new car* can be 'cleft' in various ways, e.g. *It's Mary who is driving a new car*, *It's a new car that Mary is driving*. The VARIANTS affect the distribution of emphasis within the SENTENCE, and correlate closely with patterns of INTONATIONAL PROMINENCE. Cleft sentences, and the associated PSEUDO-CLEFT SENTENCES, have attracted particular attention in TRANSFORMATIONAL grammar, because of the DERIVATIONAL problems they pose.

click (*n.*) (1) A term used in the classification of CONSONANT sounds on the basis of their MANNER OF ARTICULATION: it is a shorthand way of referring to the series of sounds produced by using the velaric AIRSTREAM MECHANISM (see VELAR). In English, click sounds may be heard in the 'tut tut' sound of disapproval, in some types of kiss, and in the noise used to signal appreciation or to 'gee up' horses. In some languages (e.g. Zulu, Xhosa), clicks have PHONEMIC

status. The range of clicks includes BILABIAL [ɔ], dental [!] formerly [ɹ], alveolar [!] formerly [ç], and lateral [!] formerly [ʒ]. COARTICULATIONS with clicks are called **click accompaniments**.

(2) In PSYCHOLINGUISTIC experiments on SPEECH PERCEPTION and COMPREHENSION, a **click** refers to a BURST of ACOUSTIC noise introduced extraneously into one ear while the listener attends to speech in the other. For example, by varying the position of the click in relation to the GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE of the speech, information can be gained concerning the way in which grammatical units are perceived and organized by the brain. In one series of experiments, when the click occurred at a grammatical boundary, it was recalled as occurring there; but when it occurred within a CONSTITUENT, it was recalled as occurring towards the constituent boundary (**click displacement**). Such findings can then be interpreted in terms of the perceptual or cognitive reality of constituent boundaries.

cline (*n.*) A term used in HALLIDAYAN LINGUISTICS to refer to a continuum of potentially infinite gradation, e.g. the range of possible contrasts between FALLING and RISING PITCH levels, or the degrees of contrast capable of being drawn along a time scale. Since its original use in SCALE-AND-CATEGORY GRAMMAR, the term has come to be used in other fields than linguistics, often unnecessarily, as a synonym for ‘continuum’.

clinical linguistics The application of LINGUISTIC theories, methods and descriptive findings to the analysis of medical conditions or settings involving a disorder of language. This application involves the linguist working in collaboration with SPEECH pathologists/therapists, audiologists and others in helping to assess, diagnose and remediate disorders of the PRODUCTION and COMPREHENSION of spoken or written language – disorders which may of course occur in educational as well as clinical settings. The relevance of PSYCHOLINGUISTICS, NEUROLINGUISTICS and language ACQUISITION studies to this end is noteworthy.

clipped form see ABBREVIATION

clipping (*n.*) see ABBREVIATION

clitic (*n.*) A term used in GRAMMAR to refer to a FORM which resembles a WORD, but which cannot stand on its own as a normal UTTERANCE, being PHONOLOGICALLY dependent upon a neighbouring word (its **host**) in a CONSTRUCTION. (The term ‘clitic’ comes from the Greek word for ‘leaning’.) Examples of **cliticized** forms are the CONTRACTED forms of *be*, such as *I’m* and *he’s*. The ARTICLES of English, French, etc., are sometimes referred to as clitics: a form like *the* cannot stand on its own in normal utterance, but it would be called a word none the less by NATIVE-SPEAKERS. Such clitic words (‘clitics’) can be classified into **proclitics** (i.e. they depend upon a following word, as in the case of the articles) and **enclitics** (i.e. they depend upon a preceding word, as in the attachment (**cliticization**) of some PRONOUNS to the end of a VERB form in Italian or Spanish). The processes are also referred to as **proclisis** and **enclisis** respectively. **Clitic-climbing** occurs when a clitic moves from its local domain to a higher constituent, as in Italian *Maria lo vuole vedere* (‘Maria wants to see him’), where the *lo* has moved from the infinitive to before the first verb. **Clitic-doubling** occurs when a clitic is

used despite the existence of an element with the same meaning and function in the same clause, as in Spanish *Maria me visito a mi* ('Maria visited me').

clitic-climbing, clitic-doubling (*n.*) see CLITIC

cliticize (*v.*), **cliticization** (*n.*) see CLITIC

close (*adj.*) (1) A term used in the four-level classification of vertical TONGUE movement in VOWEL sounds based on the CARDINAL VOWEL system, the others being 'half-close', 'half-open' and 'open'. It refers to a vowel made with the tongue in the highest position possible without causing audible FRICTION, as in the ARTICULATION of [i] and [u]: the closest vowels in English are in words like *seat* and *shoot*. The area of articulation immediately below 'close' is known as **half-close** or **mid-close**, as in [e] and [o] (the nearest sounds in English are in words like *say* and *so* respectively). In a three-level classification of vowel sounds, the highest group are known as 'high' vowels (as opposed to 'low' and 'mid').

(2) A term used in the classification of types of JUNCTURE or TRANSITION, referring to the normal transitions operating between the sounds in a word. **Close juncture** is opposed to 'open' or 'plus' juncture; **close transition** to 'open transition'.

(3) A term used in the classification of types of JAW SETTING, referring to a jaw position in which the teeth are brought closer together than normal; opposed to 'open' jaw settings.

closed (*adj.*) (1) A term sometimes used in the GRAMMATICAL classification of WORDS to refer to one of two postulated major word-CLASSES in language, the other being OPEN. A **closed class** is one whose membership is fixed or limited. New ITEMS are not regularly added, as is the case with 'open-class' items. PRONOUNS, PREPOSITIONS, CONJUNCTIONS, ARTICLES, etc., are all closed class or **closed system** items, the term 'system' here reflecting the fact that the membership of such classes is finite, the members displaying an interdependence of MEANING and use.

(2) A term used in the two-way classification of SYLLABLE structure, referring to a syllable ending in a CONSONANT; its opposite is OPEN, where the syllable ends in a vowel. This feature is sometimes referred to as a CHECKED or blocked syllable.

closure (*n.*) A general term used in PHONETICS to refer to an ARTICULATION where the contact between active and passive articulators obstructs the airstream through the mouth and/or nose. A 'complete closure' exists in the case of PLOSIVES, AFFRICATES and NASALS, and in the glottalic and velaric AIRSTREAM MECHANISMS. An 'intermittent closure' exists in the case of ROLLS, FLAPS and TAPS. A 'partial closure' exists in the case of LATERALS. Some phoneticians would include FRICATIVES under the heading of 'partial' or 'incomplete' closure. A narrowing of the VOCAL TRACT where there is *no* articulatory contact is usually called a STRICTURE.

cluster (*n.*) A term used in the analysis of CONNECTED SPEECH to refer to any sequence of adjacent CONSONANTS occurring INITIALLY or FINALLY in a SYLLABLE, such as the initial [br-] of *bread*, or the final [-st] of *best*. Not all possible combinations of consonants occur in a LANGUAGE. Initially in syllables in English, for

example, clusters are not possible with [ð], [tʃ], [dʒ] or [z]. Up to three consonants can occur initially, as in [spr-], [spl-], [skw-]; up to four can occur finally, as in *glimpsed* [-mpst] and *twelfths* [-lfθs]. See also REDUCE.

coalesce (*v.*) see COALESCENCE

coalescence (*n.*) A term used in LINGUISTICS, especially in HISTORICAL studies, to refer to the coming together of linguistic UNITS which were originally distinguishable. ALLOPHONES of a PHONEME may **coalesce**, as may different phonemes and different MORPHEMES. Many CASES of Modern English /z/, for example, are the result of coalescence of /z/ and /ʒ/, e.g. *occasion*, *measure*; in WORDS like *formation*, one could analyse the AFFIX as a coalescence of the morphemes *-ate* + *-tion*. Analogous terms include SYNCRETISM, MERGER, FUSION and NEUTRALIZATION.

coalescent (*adj.*) A term used in PHONETICS and PHONOLOGY as part of the classification of types of ASSIMILATION. In **coalescent** (or 'reciprocal') **assimilation**, each of two adjacent ARTICULATIONS influences the other. An example is the FUSION of [d] and [j] to produce [dʒ] in such phrases as *could you*.

coarticulation (*n.*) An ARTICULATION which takes place involving in a simultaneous or overlapping way more than one point in the VOCAL TRACT, as in the co-ordinate STOPS [pk], [bg], [pt] and [bd] often heard in West African languages. In **anticipatory coarticulation**, an articulator not involved in a particular sound begins to move in the direction of an articulation needed for a later sound in the UTTERANCE (its TARGET). An example is the *sh-* of *shoe*, which is normally pronounced with lip-ROUNDING, anticipating the influence of the following [u:]. Coarticulation may also be seen when a sound retains a characteristic deriving from an earlier articulation. See also ANTICIPATORY (2).

cocktail party phenomenon An everyday effect studied scientifically in PSYCHOLINGUISTICS as part of a theory of SPEECH PERCEPTION. It refers to the process of SELECTIVE LISTENING, whereby people listening to several conversations at once are able to attend consciously to one of them, and to ignore the others.

coda (*n.*) (Co) A term used in PHONETICS and PHONOLOGY to refer to the ELEMENT of a SYLLABLE which may follow the syllabic NUCLEUS, e.g. the /p/ of /kʌp/. A distinction is sometimes drawn between 'simple' syllabic codas (containing only one segment) and 'complex' codas (containing more than one segment). Restrictions on the segments or features which may occur in coda position are known as **coda constraints**. Derived forms include NoCODA, used in OPTIMALITY THEORY for a syllable ending in a VOWEL.

code (*n.*) The general sense of this term – a set of conventions for converting one signalling system into another – enters into the subject-matter of SEMIOTICS and COMMUNICATION theory rather than LINGUISTICS. Such notions as 'encoding' and 'decoding' are sometimes encountered in PHONETICS and linguistics, but the view of language as a 'code' is not one which figures greatly in these subjects. The term has come to the fore in SOCIOLINGUISTICS, where it is mainly used as a neutral label for any system of communication involving language – and which

avoids sociolinguists having to commit themselves to such terms as DIALECT, LANGUAGE or VARIETY, which have a special status in their theories. The linguistic behaviour referred to as **code-switching** (sometimes **code-shifting** or, within a language, **style-shifting**), for example, can be illustrated by the switch BILINGUAL or BIDIALECTAL speakers may make (depending on who they are talking to, or where they are) between STANDARD and regional forms of English, between Welsh and English in parts of Wales, or between occupational and domestic varieties. **Code-mixing** involves the transfer of linguistic elements from one language into another: a sentence begins in one language, then makes use of words or grammatical features belonging to another. Such mixed forms of language are often labelled with a hybrid name, such as (in the case of English) Spanglish, Franglais and Singlish (Singaporean English), and attract attitudes ranging from enthusiastic community support (as an expression of local identity) to outright condemnation (from some speakers of the related standard languages).

Several sociologists and sociolinguists have given 'code' a more restricted definition. For example, codes are sometimes defined in terms of mutual intelligibility (e.g. the language of a private or professional group). But the most widespread special use of the term was in the theory of communication codes propounded by the British sociologist Basil Bernstein (1924–2000). His distinction between ELABORATED and RESTRICTED codes was part of a theory of the nature of social systems, concerned in particular with the kinds of meanings people communicate, and how explicitly they do this, using the range of resources provided by the language.

code-mixing, code-switching (*n.*) see CODE

codification (*n.*) A term used in LANGUAGE planning (CORPUS planning), referring to the compilation of a systematic statement of the RULES and conventions governing the use of a language VARIETY, typically the STANDARD language of a community. When a language has been **codified**, its products include spelling and pronunciation guides, grammars, dictionaries, style manuals and guides to correct usage.

codify (*v.*) see CODIFICATION

cognate (*adj./n.*) (1) A language or a LINGUISTIC FORM which is historically derived from the same source as another language/form, e.g. Spanish/Italian/French/Portuguese are 'cognate languages' (or 'cognates'); *père/padre*, etc. ('father') are 'cognate words' or cognates.

(2) The term is also applied to the description of some kinds of SYNTACTIC RELATIONS: a 'cognate OBJECT' is one which has the same historical derivation as the VERB which governs it (or, more loosely, is SEMANTICALLY dependent upon the action of the verb), e.g. *to run a race, live a good life, ask a question*; a cognate SUBJECT–VERB–OBJECT sequence is illustrated by such sentences as *Employers employ employees*.

cognise (*v.*) see COGNIZE

cognitive (*adj.*) A term sometimes used in SEMANTICS as part of a classification of types of MEANING. **Cognitive meaning** refers to those aspects of meaning which

relate directly to DENOTATIONS of LEXICAL items and the PROPOSITIONAL content of SENTENCES, and thus corresponds to an intellectually objective level of interpretation, as opposed to one where emotional or subjective interpretation is involved. Alternative terms include DENOTATIVE and REFERENTIAL; opposite terms include EMOTIVE and CONNOTATIVE.

cognitive domain see COGNITIVE SEMANTICS

cognitive grammar A LINGUISTIC theory which sees language as an integral part of cognition, a means whereby cognitive content is given structure; originally called **space grammar**. In this approach, the basic function of language is to symbolize conceptualization by means of PHONOLOGY. GRAMMAR is seen as an inherently meaningful (or 'symbolic') component of the theory, linking SEMANTICS (viewed in conceptualist terms) and phonology. This pairing of FORMS and MEANINGS sets up connections between established ('entrenched') patterns of neurological activity ('units'), which serve as TEMPLATES for categorizing expressions. Each unit (semantic, phonological, symbolic) corresponds to an aspect of STRUCTURE, and WELL-FORMED expressions are 'conventionally' constructed using a series of units. Grammatical CLASSES and CONSTRUCTIONS are analysed as configurations of symbolic structures: a basic distinction is drawn between 'nominals' (things, e.g. NOUN PHRASES) and 'relational expressions' (relationships, e.g. VERBS, PREPOSITIONS, ADJECTIVES, CLAUSES); grammatical RULES are characterized as abstract 'constructional schemas'. See also COGNITIVE SEMANTICS.

cognitive metaphor A theory in which metaphor is viewed as performing an essential role in human LANGUAGE and cognition, encoding world-views in all forms of linguistic activity, including everyday conversation ('conceptual metaphors'). Higher-level concepts such as causality, time and the emotions are seen to be SEMANTICALLY grounded in lower-level domains of physical experience, as in such expressions as *life is a journey* or the interpretation of causation in family terms (*X is the father of modern physics*). 'Poetic metaphors' are seen as extensions or novel combinations of everyday metaphors. This approach thus contrasts with the traditional account of metaphor (with its distinction between literal and figurative MEANING, and its focus on rhetorical and literary contexts), which is felt to be of limited relevance to a fully linguistic account of grammatical and semantic structure.

cognitive semantics A SEMANTIC theory, part of COGNITIVE GRAMMAR, which identifies MEANING with conceptualization – the structures and processes which are part of mental experience. It operates with an encyclopedic view of meaning, not recognizing a clear boundary between linguistic and extralinguistic worlds; everything that is known about an entity is allowed to contribute to its meaning. LEXICAL ITEMS are therefore typically POLYSEMOUS, and analysed as a network of related SENSES. A central notion is how a conceptual content is 'construed': the construal of a lexical item depends on several factors, including the 'cognitive domains' in which it appears (e.g. space, time, colour) and variations in perspective and salience.

cognize/cognise (*v.*) A term suggested by Noam Chomsky as an alternative to 'know'. Speakers are said to cognize not only the linguistic facts which they consciously know (e.g. that a particular SENTENCE has a particular interpretation), but also the mentally represented RULES from which these facts derive and the INNATE principles underlying these rules.

co-grammar (*n.*) In LINGUISTICS, a term referring to a system of expression which coexists with, and is different from, the main GRAMMAR of a language; a corresponding notion in PHONOLOGY is **co-phonology**. Such notions are often used when describing the distinctive behaviour of foreign words and phrases that have been borrowed by a language but not adapted to its regular system.

coherence (*n.*) An application of the general use of this term in DISCOURSE analysis, referring to the main principle of organization postulated to account for the underlying FUNCTIONAL connectedness or identity of a piece of spoken or written LANGUAGE (TEXT, discourse). It involves the study of such factors as the language users' knowledge of the world, the inferences they make, and the assumptions they hold, and in particular of the way in which **coherent** communication is mediated through the use of SPEECH ACTS. In this context, coherence is usually contrasted with COHESION, which refers to the SYNTACTIC or SEMANTIC CONNECTIVITY of linguistic FORMS at a SURFACE-STRUCTURE LEVEL of analysis.

cohesion (*n.*) (1) A term often used in GRAMMAR to refer to a defining property of the WORD, seen as a grammatical UNIT; also called **cohesiveness**. The criterion states that new ELEMENTS cannot usually be inserted into words in normal speech, but only at word boundaries. An alternative name for this criterion is 'uninterruptability'. The criterion works well for English (apart from such examples as *abso-blooming-lutely*), but has to be modified if applied to languages where INFIXES are used.

(2) The term is used by some linguists to refer to the property of larger units than the MORPHEME to bind together in CONSTRUCTIONS, e.g. ARTICLE + NOUN. In this use, any group of words which acts as a CONSTITUENT of a larger unit can be said to be internally **cohesive**. In the HALLIDAYAN approach to grammatical analysis, cohesion is a major concept, referring to those SURFACE-STRUCTURE features of an UTTERANCE or TEXT which link different parts of SENTENCES or larger units of DISCOURSE, e.g. the cross-referencing function of PRONOUNS, ARTICLES and some types of ADVERB (as in *The man went to town. However, he did not stay long . . .*). A distinction is usually drawn with the notion of a text's UNDERLYING COHERENCE.

cohesiveness (*n.*) see COHESION

co-hyponym (*n.*) see HYPONYMY

co-indexing (*n.*) A term used in GENERATIVE LINGUISTIC theory to refer to the process of assigning the same subscript letter or numeral to a series of CONSTITUENTS; superscripts are sometimes used. In particular, these numerals mark the identity of constituents in the DEEP STRUCTURE of a SENTENCE. For example, in

the deep structure of *I persuaded Mary₁ PRO₁ to leave*, where the PRO convention is used, the numerals show that *Mary* is **co-indexed** with (CO-REFERENTIAL with) PRO, and is thus the SUBJECT of *leave*. Co-indexing is also used in the TRACE theory of MOVEMENT RULES.

collapse (*v.*) A term used in GENERATIVE GRAMMAR to refer to the notational conflation of two RULES into one, in the interests of a simpler and more general statement, e.g. NP → D N and NP → D Adj N, being replaced by NP → D (Adj)N, where the BRACKETS refer to the optional use of the adjective.

collective (*adj.*) A term used in GRAMMATICAL DESCRIPTION to refer to a NOUN which denotes a group of entities, and which is FORMALLY differentiated from other nouns by a distinct pattern of NUMBER CONTRAST (and, in some languages, MORPHOLOGICALLY). **Collective nouns** (e.g. *government, army, club, jury, public*) fall into several grammatical subclasses, but their distinctive characteristic is their ability to co-occur in the singular with either a singular or a plural VERB, this correlating with a difference of interpretation – the noun being seen as a single collective entity, or as a collection of individual entities (cf. *the committee is wrong v. the committee are wrong*). In some languages, ‘collective’ (*v. non-collective*) refers to a type of plural formation in which a number of individuals is seen as forming a coherent set; for example, a plural SUFFIX A attached to *house* might express the notion of a ‘village’ (collective), whereas suffix B might refer to any random group of houses (non-collective). In SEMANTICS, the term is often used for PREDICATES or QUANTIFIERS which ascribe a property to a group as a whole, as opposed to the individual members of the group; it contrasts with DISTRIBUTIVE. For example, *congregate* is a collective predicate: *The children congregated in the hallway* means that the group as a whole congregated; an individual child cannot congregate.

colligation (*n.*) A term in FIRTHIAN LINGUISTICS for the process or result of grouping a set of WORDS on the basis of their similarity in entering into SYNTAGMATIC GRAMMATICAL RELATIONS. For example, a set of VERBS which take a certain kind of COMPLEMENT CONSTRUCTION would be said to be ‘in colligation with’ that construction; e.g. *agree, choose, decline, manage*, etc. **colligate** with *to* +infinitive constructions, as opposed to *-ing* forms, as *I agree to go v. *I agree going*. Colligation is usually contrasted with COLLOCATION.

collocability (*n.*) see COLLOCATION

collocation (*n.*) A term used in LEXICOLOGY by some (especially FIRTHIAN) LINGUISTS to refer to the habitual co-occurrence of individual LEXICAL ITEMS. For example, *auspicious collocates* with *occasion, event, sign*, etc.; and *letter collocates* with *alphabet, graphic*, etc., on the one hand, and *postman, pillar-box*, etc., on the other. Collocations are, then, a type of SYNTAGMATIC lexical relation. They are linguistically predictable to a greater or lesser extent (e.g. the bond between *spick* and *span* is stronger than that between *letter* and *pillar-box*), and this differentiates them from SENSE ASSOCIATIONS, which tend to include idiosyncratic connections (e.g. *mother-in-law* associating with *hippopotamus*). Some words have no specific **collocational restrictions** – grammatical words such as

the, of, after, in. By contrast, there are many totally predictable restrictions, as in *eke + out, spick + span*, and these are usually analysed as **IDIOMS**, clichés, etc. Another important feature of collocations is that they are **FORMAL** (not **SEMANTIC**) statements of co-occurrence; e.g. *green* collocates with *jealousy* (as opposed to, say, *blue* or *red*), even though there is no **REFERENTIAL** basis for the link. Lexical items which are ‘collocated’ are said to be **collocates** of each other; the potential of items to collocate is known as their **collocability** or **collocational range**. A related notion is ‘semantic prosody’ (see **SEMANTICS**). Collocational restrictions are analogous to the notion of **SELECTIONAL RESTRICTIONS** in **GENERATIVE GRAMMAR**.

colouring (*n.*) In **PHONETICS**, a perceived slight change in the quality (‘colour’) of a **VOWEL** sound due to the influence of some nearby sound. For example, ‘*r*-colouring’ occurs when a vowel is affected by the **RESONANCE** of a following *r*-type sound, most noticeably a **RETROFLEX**; a following /h/ can cause ‘*h*-colouring’.

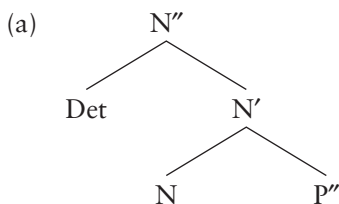
combination (*n.*) see **COMBINATORIAL**

combinatorial (*adj.*) A fundamental function of **LINGUISTIC UNITS** to ‘combine’ with one another to produce more complex patterns. The ‘combinatorial properties’ or ‘relations’ of **CONSONANTS** and **VOWELS**, for example, can be used as a definition of **SYLLABLE** (vowel as **NUCLEUS**, consonants as **MARGINS**). **Combination**, in this sense, is a **SYNTAGMATIC** relation, and opposed to the **PARADIGMATIC** notion of **CONTRAST**.

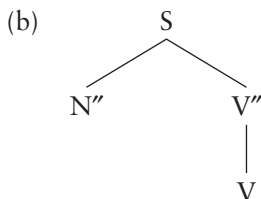
comitative (*adj./n.*) In languages which express **GRAMMATICAL** relationships by means of **INFLECTIONS**, this term refers to the **FORM** taken by a **NOUN PHRASE** (often a single noun or **PRONOUN**) when it is expressing the meaning ‘along with’ or ‘accompanied by’. A comitative case (‘the comitative’) occurs in Basque, for example, equivalent in English to the *with*-phrase seen in *I went with my friend*.

command (*n./v.*) (1) A term used in the classification of **SENTENCE FUNCTIONS**, and defined sometimes on **GRAMMATICAL** and sometimes on **SEMANTIC** or **SOCIO-LINGUISTIC** grounds. **SYNTACTICALLY** a command is a sentence which typically has no **SUBJECT**, and where the **VERB** is in the **IMPERATIVE MOOD**, e.g. *Come here!* Semantically it is primarily used to tell someone to do (or not do) something. From a **SPEECH ACT** point of view, the function of command may be expressed using other forms, e.g. *that boy will stand up*, or by a dominant **INTONATION**. The term is usually contrasted with three other major sentence functions: **STATEMENT**, **QUESTION**, **EXCLAMATION**. In grammatical discussion, commands are usually referred to as ‘imperative’ in form.

(2) In **GENERATIVE** grammar, the term is used in the phrase **constituent-command**, invariably abbreviated to **c-command**, and **maximal-command**, invariably abbreviated to **m-command**. **C-command** is the relationship between an element and the other elements it is superior to in the **PHRASE-MARKER**, but which it does not dominate. A **CONSTITUENT X** is said to **m-command Y** if the first maximal **PROJECTION** which **DOMINATES X** also dominates **Y**, and **X** does not dominate **Y**, and **Y** does not dominate **X**. Thus, in the **TREE**



N m-commands Det although it does not c-command it. In the tree



V does not m-command N'' although it c-commands it. C-commanding is an important notion in the explication of GOVERNMENT.

comment (*n.*) A term used in SEMANTICS and GRAMMAR as part of an alternative binary characterization of SENTENCE structure to that traditionally found in the SUBJECT/PREDICATE distinction; the opposite term is TOPIC. The topic of a sentence is the person or thing about which something is said, whereas the comment is that part of the sentence which says something further about the topic. In the sentence *The book was on the table*, *the book* is the topic, and the remainder of the sentence is the comment. English does not mark this distinction as clearly as in some languages, where grammatical PARTICLES, WORD-order contrasts or INFLECTIONS may help to show the contrast. An analogous distinction is made using the terms THEME and RHEME, by some linguists.

comment clause A type of CLAUSE recognized in QUIRK GRAMMAR, referring to an optional structure whose function is to add a parenthetical comment to another clause. There is a wide range of comment clauses in English, e.g. *you know*, *to be honest*, *they say*, *generally speaking*. Several of these act as STEREOTYPED conversation fillers, with several complex functions, e.g. *you see*, *mind you*, *I see*.

commissive (*adj./n.*) A term used in the theory of SPEECH ACTS to refer to a type of UTTERANCE where the speaker makes a commitment to a future course of action. Commissive utterances (or 'commissives') are seen in *I promise/I guarantee*. . . .

common (*adj.*) A term used in GRAMMATICAL description to refer to the UNMARKED MORPHOLOGICAL form of a grammatical CATEGORY. In English, for example, the form of the NOUN other than the GENITIVE could be called the 'common CASE' form. Similarly, one might use 'common GENDER' in a language where only one contrast is made (e.g. feminine *v.* masculine/neuter, etc.), or where sex is indeterminate out of context (as in French *enfant*, 'child'). In TRADITIONAL grammar, 'common nouns' were a SEMANTICALLY defined subclass of

nouns (referring to ‘general concepts’) contrasted with PROPER nouns (names of individuals, etc.); LINGUISTIC approaches tend to emphasize the FORMAL distinctions that can be made between such subclasses (e.g. different patterns of ARTICLE usage).

common core A term used in some SOCIOLINGUISTIC and STYLISTIC studies, referring to the range of linguistic features found in all VARIETIES, DIALECTS, etc., of a language. Common core features of a language would include its basic rules of WORD-ORDER and WORD-FORMATION, and its high frequency vocabulary. A usage such as *thou* in English, for example, would not be part of the English common core, as it is restricted to certain dialects and religious CONTEXTS. However, it is by no means clear just how many features in a language can be legitimately called ‘common’ in this way, and the notion is especially difficult to apply in relation to certain areas, such as the VOWEL system.

common ground A term used in PRAGMATICS for the set of PROPOSITIONS assumed by participants in a DISCOURSE to be held by the other participants as uncontroversially true. It is their perceived shared background knowledge.

communication (*n.*) A fundamental notion in the study of behaviour, which acts as a frame of reference for LINGUISTIC and PHONETIC studies. Communication refers to the transmission and reception of INFORMATION (a ‘message’) between a source and receiver using a signalling system: in linguistic contexts, source and receiver are interpreted in human terms, the system involved is a LANGUAGE, and the notion of response to (or acknowledgement of) the message becomes of crucial importance. In theory, communication is said to have taken place if the information received is the same as that sent: in practice, one has to allow for all kinds of interfering factors, or ‘noise’, which reduce the efficiency of the transmission (e.g. unintelligibility of ARTICULATION, idiosyncratic ASSOCIATIONS OF WORDS). One has also to allow for different levels of control in the transmission of the message: speakers’ purposive selection of signals will be accompanied by signals which communicate ‘despite themselves’, as when VOICE QUALITY signals the fact that a person has a cold, is tired/old/male, etc. The scientific study of all aspects of communication is sometimes called **communication science**: the domain includes linguistics and phonetics, their various branches, and relevant applications of associated subjects (e.g. acoustics, anatomy).

Human communication may take place using any of the available sensory modes (hearing, sight, etc.), and the differential study of these modes, as used in communicative activity, is carried on by SEMIOTICS. A contrast which is often made, especially by psychologists, is between **verbal** and **non-verbal communication** (NVC) to refer to the linguistic *v.* the non-linguistic features of communication (the latter including facial expressions, gestures, etc., both in humans and animals). However, the ambiguity of the term ‘verbal’ here, implying that language is basically a matter of ‘words’, makes this term of limited value to linguists, and it is not usually used by them in this way.

communication science The scientific study of all aspects of communication; sometimes referred to as the **communication sciences**. The domain includes LINGUISTICS and PHONETICS, their various branches (e.g. PSYCHOLINGUISTICS,

SOCIOLINGUISTICS), and relevant applications of associated subjects (e.g. acoustics, anatomy, neurology). All modes of communication are involved – spoken, written and signed.

communicative (*adj.*) A term derived from COMMUNICATION, but often used in a restricted sense. In the phrase **communicative competence**, for instance, it is in contrast with ‘linguistic’, a distinction being made between the NATIVE-SPEAKERS’ awareness of the FORMAL patterning of their language, on the one hand (their ‘linguistic competence’), and of the situational APPROPRIATENESS of their language, on the other. This emphasis on functional appropriateness also characterizes several uses of the term in the field of foreign-language teaching (**communicative grammar**, **communicative syllabus**, etc.). See also COMPETENCE.

communicative dynamism (CD) A fundamental concept of the PRAGUE SCHOOL theory of LINGUISTICS (see FUNCTIONAL SENTENCE PERSPECTIVE), whereby an UTTERANCE is seen as a process of gradually unfolding MEANING, each part of the utterance contributing variously (‘dynamically’) to the total communicative effect. Some parts of an utterance will contribute little to the meaning, because they reflect only what has already been communicated: these ‘thematic’ aspects would be considered to have the lowest degree of CD. By contrast, ‘rhematic’ aspects have the highest degree of CD, containing new information which advances the communicative process. Other aspects are also recognized.

commutation (*n.*) A term used by some PHONOLOGISTS to refer to a process of sound SUBSTITUTION to show CONTRASTIVITY. It is especially encountered in the phrase **commutation test**, which is a systematic use of the substitutability technique of MINIMAL PAIRS for establishing PHONEMES. Some LINGUISTIC theories have used the term in a more restricted sense: in GLOSSEMATICS, for example, it is contrasted with ‘substitution’, and refers only to one type of relationship between the members of a PARADIGM.

comp An abbreviation for COMPACT, COMPLEMENT and COMPARATIVE; also, in GENERATIVE LINGUISTICS, as **Comp** or **COMP**, an abbreviation for COMPLEMENTIZER.

compact (*adj.*) 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 being DIFFUSE. Compact sounds are defined articulatorily and acoustically, as those which involve a STRICTURE relatively far forward in the mouth, and a relatively high concentration of ACOUSTIC energy in a narrow, central part of the sound spectrum. For example, OPEN VOWELS are [+compact] (abbreviated as [+comp]); HIGH or MID vowels are [–compact] ([–comp]). The feature is replaced by LOW in Chomsky and Halle’s system (see CHOMSKYAN).

comparative (*adj.*) (1) A term used to characterize a major branch of LINGUISTICS, in which the primary concern is to make statements comparing the characteristics of different LANGUAGES (DIALECTS, VARIETIES, etc.), or different historical states of a language. During the nineteenth century, the concern for comparative

analysis was exclusively historical, as scholars investigated the relationships between such FAMILIES of languages as Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, their hypothetical antecedents (i.e. the PROTO-language from which such families developed), and the subsequent processes which led to the formation of the language groups of the present day. This study became known as **comparative philology** (or simply PHILOLOGY) – sometimes as **comparative grammar**. The phrase **comparative method** refers to the standard comparative philological technique of comparing a set of forms taken from COGNATE languages in order to determine whether a historical relationship connects them. If there were such a relationship, this analysis would then be used to deduce the characteristics of the ancestor language from which they were assumed to have derived (a process of ‘comparative’ or ‘internal’ RECONSTRUCTION).

Early twentieth-century linguistics switched from a DIACHRONIC to a SYNCHRONIC emphasis in language analysis, and, while not excluding historical studies, **comparative linguistics** these days is generally taken up with the theoretical and practical analysis of the STRUCTURAL correspondences between living languages, regardless of their history, with the aim of establishing general types of language (‘TYPOLOGICAL comparison’, or ‘typological linguistics’) and ultimately the UNIVERSAL characteristics of human language.

(2) A term used in the three-way GRAMMATICAL description of ADJECTIVES and ADVERBS into DEGREES (**comparison**), specifying the extent of their application; often abbreviated as **comp**. The **comparative form** is used for a comparison between two entities, and contrasts with SUPERLATIVE, for more than two, and POSITIVE, where no comparison is implied. In English, there is both an INFLECTION (-er) and a PERIPHRASTIC construction (*more*) to express this notion (e.g. *nicer*, *more beautiful*). The construction which may follow the use of a comparative is called a **comparative clause** or **comparative sentence**, e.g. *He is bigger than I am*.

comparative linguistics see COMPARATIVE (1)

comparative method see COMPARATIVE (1)

comparative philology see COMPARATIVE (1), PHILOLOGY

comparative reconstruction see COMPARATIVE (1), RECONSTRUCTION

comparison (*n.*) see COMPARATIVE (2)

compensatory lengthening In PHONOLOGY, an effect in which the DELETION of one SEGMENT is accompanied by an increase in the LENGTH of another, usually adjacent to it, thus preserving SYLLABLE weight. Typically, a VOWEL is lengthened when a syllable-final segment is lost, as in Old English *gōs* ‘goose’, which comes from Germanic *gans* through the loss of the NASAL and the lengthening of the preceding vowel. The phenomenon is of importance in phonological theories which recognize the role of syllabic weight (such as AUTOSEGMENTAL PHONOLOGY).

competence (*n.*) A term used in LINGUISTIC theory, and especially in GENERATIVE GRAMMAR, to refer to speakers’ knowledge of their language, the SYSTEM of RULES which they have mastered so that they are able to produce and understand

an indefinite number of SENTENCES, and to recognize grammatical mistakes and AMBIGUITIES. It is an idealized conception of language, which is seen as in opposition to the notion of PERFORMANCE, the specific UTTERANCES of speech; the SAUSSUREAN distinction between LANGUE and PAROLE is similar, but there are important differences between the definitions of competence and *langue*. According to Noam Chomsky (see CHOMSKYAN), linguistics before generative grammar had been preoccupied with performance in a CORPUS, instead of with the UNDERLYING competence involved. As a general conception, this distinction has been widely accepted, but there has been criticism from linguists who feel that the boundary between the two notions is not as clear-cut as their definitions would lead one to believe. There are problems, often, in deciding whether a particular speech feature is a matter of competence or performance (e.g. a feature of INTONATION, or DISCOURSE).

A particularly strong line of criticism emerged in the notion of **communicative competence**, which focuses on the NATIVE-SPEAKERS' ability to produce and understand sentences which are appropriate to the CONTEXT in which they occur – what speakers need to know in order to communicate effectively in socially distinct settings. Communicative competence, then, subsumes the social determinants of linguistic behaviour, including such environmental matters as the relationship between speaker and hearer, and the pressures which stem from the time and place of speaking. If speakers have a tacit awareness of such communicative CONSTRAINTS, it is argued, then a linguistic theory ought to aim to provide an explicit account of these factors, in so far as these are systematic within a community, and not restrict itself to the analysis of STRUCTURE in purely FORMAL terms (as in the notion of 'linguistic' competence). This view has received a wide measure of acceptance, but to date relatively little progress has been made over the question of how to model this broader conception of competence in precise terms. More recently, an analogous notion of **pragmatic competence** has been proposed. See also GRAMMAR (5), PRAGMATICS.

complement (*n.*) (**comp**) A term used in the analysis of GRAMMATICAL FUNCTION, to refer to a major CONSTITUENT of SENTENCE or CLAUSE STRUCTURE, traditionally associated with 'completing' the action specified by the VERB. In its broadest sense, complement therefore is a very general notion, subsuming all obligatory features of the PREDICATE other than the verb, e.g. OBJECTS (e.g. *She kicked the ball*) and ADVERBIALS (e.g. *She was in the garden*). In some approaches, the complement is given a more restricted definition, e.g. to refer only to the 'completing' function of structures following the verb *to be* (or similar verbs) – in such an analysis, *She saw the doctor* would be SUBJECT–Verb–Object, whereas *She is a doctor* would be Subject–Verb–Complement. A further distinction is sometimes made between complements of the subject and those of the object, as in *She is a doctor* (**subject complement**) and *She called me a fool* (**object complement**). **Complement clauses** of various kinds are recognized, this notion sometimes being interpreted as any kind of SUBORDINATE clause, sometimes as only one type of subordinate clause (e.g. a clause following *be*, such as *That is what I said*). However, the domain of **complementation** remains an unclear area in linguistic analysis, and there are several unresolved issues, e.g. whether the PARTICLES in phrasal verbs (e.g. *come in*) should be subsumed under this heading. In GENERATIVE grammar, a complement is a SISTER constituent of a ZERO-level

category. Categories other than the verb are also sometimes said to take complements, e.g. in *a student of physics*, *of physics* is said to be the complement of *student*. In X-BAR SYNTAX, the term is used in opposition to ADJUNCT (cf. *a student with long hair*). See also WH-.

complementarity (*n.*) see COMPLEMENTARY (2)

complementary (*adj.*) (1) A term used primarily in PHONOLOGY in the phrase **complementary distribution**, referring to the mutual exclusiveness of a pair of sounds in a certain PHONETIC ENVIRONMENT. In English, for example, the voiceless ALLOPHONE of the /l/ phoneme occurs after initial /p-/ , as in *plan*, and the VOICED allophone is excluded; conversely, [l] is used initially when no /p-/ precedes. [ɫ] and [l] are thus said to be 'in complementary DISTRIBUTION' in this environment. The term is also used analogously in MORPHOLOGY, with reference to the distribution of pairs of FORMS in GRAMMATICAL environments (e.g. the selection of alternative forms of plural MORPHEME in English).

(2) In SEMANTICS, the term is often used to refer to a category of SENSE relation between LEXICAL ITEMS. **Complementary terms** (or **complementaries**) display a type of oppositeness of MEANING, illustrated by such pairs as *single/married* and *boy/girl*. *Single* is said to be 'the complementary of *married*, and vice versa. In such a relationship, the assertion of one of the items implies the denial of the other: an entity cannot be both at once. The relationship of **complementarity** is characterized by the lack of any gradability between the items (there is no continuum of gradation between *boy* and *girl*, such that one can be **less boy*, **very boy*, and so on). In this respect, the term contrasts with the technical sense of ANTONYMY, where gradations between the opposites are possible (cf. *big, bigger, very big*, etc. *v. small, smaller*, etc.), and also with CONVERSENESS, where the opposites presuppose each other (e.g. *husband/wife*). The term CONTRADICTORY is an alternative preferred by some analysts.

complementizer (*n.*) (**Comp, COMP, C**) In GENERATIVE SYNTAX, a term used to refer to SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS which mark an EMBEDDED sentence of a COMPLEMENT type, e.g. *that* in *I said that he was leaving*. It is also used, in X-BAR syntax, to refer to a position in CLAUSE (S') structure, symbolized by COMP or C, which may be filled (for example) by a complementizer or by a clause-initial *wh*-phrase. In GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY, COMP (or C) is a ZERO-level category whose maximal PROJECTION C" (or CP) is, like the initial symbol, the highest-level GRAMMATICAL construction. Within this approach, *wh*-MOVEMENT, for example, is a movement to the specifier-of-C position.

complete assimilation see ASSIMILATION

complete feedback see FEEDBACK

complex (*adj.*) see COMPLEXITY

***complex** (*adj.*) In OPTIMALITY THEORY, a CONSTRAINT which allows SYLLABLES to have at most a single consonant as an EDGE. The use of the asterisk reflects a negative emphasis: complex ONSETS and CODAS are *not* acceptable.

complexity (*n.*) The general sense of this term is found in LINGUISTICS, with reference to both the FORMAL internal structuring of linguistic UNITS and the psychological difficulty in using or learning them. The factors which contribute to the notion of complexity are a major topic in PSYCHOLINGUISTICS, both in studies of adult COMPREHENSION and PRODUCTION, and in child language ACQUISITION. A central theme is the nature of the interaction between levels of difficulty in cognitive and linguistic STRUCTURES, and especially the way this affects the order of emergence of language patterns in children. However, it has not yet proved feasible to establish independent measures of complexity defined in purely linguistic terms, such as the number of TRANSFORMATIONS in a SENTENCE DERIVATION (see DERIVATIONAL THEORY OF COMPLEXITY), or the number of FEATURES in the specification of a linguistic unit (see SIMPLICITY), largely because of controversy over the nature of the linguistic measures used, and the interference stemming from other psychological factors, such as the language user's attention and motivation.

Several restricted senses of **complex** are also used (mostly contrasting with the term 'simple'), e.g. 'complex SENTENCE' (in two senses: either a sentence consisting of more than one CLAUSE, or one consisting of a main clause and at least one SUBORDINATE clause), 'complex PREPOSITION' (a preposition consisting of more than one word), 'complex word' (one containing a free MORPHEME and at least one bound morpheme), 'complex tone' (an INTONATIONAL NUCLEUS with two distinct PITCH movements), 'complex stop' (a PLOSIVE with two points of ARTICULATION), 'complex nucleus' (a SYLLABIC peak with two distinct VOWEL qualities), 'complex SEGMENT' (a segment with two or more simultaneous oral tract CONSTRUCTIONS, in some models of FEATURE theory) and so on. In GENERATIVE GRAMMAR, a 'complex NP' is a NOUN PHRASE with a clause as a COMPLEMENT (e.g. *the assumption that the engine is working*) or ADJUNCT (e.g. *the assumption that he made*). The 'complex NP constraint' in classical transformational grammar states that no element can be extracted out of a complex NP – in other words, such constructions are syntactic ISLANDS.

complex NP constraint see COMPLEXITY

complex preposition In GRAMMAR, a term sometimes used for a multi-word construction consisting of a NOUN or noun phrase both preceded and followed by a single PREPOSITION, as in *on account of* and *in accordance with*. The term may also be used to include any preposition consisting of more than one word, such as *next to*.

complex sentence In GRAMMAR, a term which in its most general application describes a SENTENCE consisting of more than one CLAUSE. In a somewhat narrower sense, it refers to a sentence consisting of a main clause and at least one SUBORDINATE clause, thus contrasting with such notions as **compound sentence**.

complex symbol A term used in some MODELS of GENERATIVE GRAMMAR (see ASPECTS MODEL) to refer to a symbol in a PHRASE-MARKER which has an internal structure of its own. It consists of an unordered set of SYNTACTIC FEATURES, e.g. [N], [+Abstract], [+Animate], and (in some accounts) the MORPHEME which the set of features specify, e.g.

+N
+Human
-Proper
<i>man</i>

complex tone see TONE (2)

component (*n.*) (1) A term used in GENERATIVE LINGUISTICS to refer to the main sections into which a generative GRAMMAR is organized. In Noam Chomsky's *Syntactic Structures* (1957), three components are recognized: the PHRASE-STRUCTURE component (which generates a set of UNDERLYING STRINGS), the TRANSFORMATIONAL component (which acts on these strings in various OPTIONAL and OBLIGATORY ways, introducing SEMANTIC changes), and the MORPHOPHONEMIC component (which converts each syntactic string into a string of PHONOLOGICAL UNITS). In Chomsky's *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965), the model is radically altered. The phrase-structure component is replaced by a **base component**, which generates the underlying PHRASE-MARKERS representing the DEEP STRUCTURE of SENTENCES, i.e. all semantically relevant grammatical notions. The base component contains the CATEGORIAL and LEXICAL components (or **sub-components**) of the grammar. Two things then happen to these markers: (a) they are semantically interpreted, using the rules of the **semantic component** (which has no equivalent in the *Syntactic Structures* model), and (b) they are converted into SURFACE structures through the **transformational component** (which contains largely obligatory RULES, the optional ones now being handled by choices made in the base rules). Lastly, a **phonological component** operates on the surface structures, providing them with a PHONETIC interpretation. See CHOMSKYAN.

(2) In SEMANTICS, the term refers to an irreducible FEATURE in terms of which the SENSE of LEXICAL ITEMS can be analysed, e.g. *girl* can be analysed into the **components** 'human', 'female', 'child', etc. **Componential analysis** is a semantic theory which developed from a technique for the analysis of kinship vocabulary devised by American anthropologists in the 1950s. It claims that all lexical items can be analysed using a finite set of components (or 'semantic features'), which may, it is felt, be UNIVERSAL. Certainly, several sets of lexical items exist to show the strengths of the approach (e.g. the correspondences between *boy/girl*, *man/woman*, *ram/ewe*, etc., can be stated in terms of [+male] *v.* [-male] or [-female] *v.* [+female]). There are several limitations to the componential models of analysis so far suggested, such as the extent to which BINARY analyses are possible for many lexical items, the claimed universality of components, and the justification for selecting one value rather than the other for a possible component (e.g. whether the above example should be analysed in terms of [+male] or [-female]).

'Componential analysis' is also found in a general sense in linguistics, especially in Europe, referring to any approach which analyses linguistic units into components, whether in PHONOLOGY, grammar or semantics. In this view, PRAGUE SCHOOL phonological analysis is componential, as are the analyses of WORD-AND-PARADIGM MORPHOLOGY.

(3) In some approaches to PHONOLOGY (e.g. DEPENDENCY PHONOLOGY), **component** is used for a FEATURE represented as a single ('unary') element, rather than as a BINARY opposition. The term is given special status in **unary component theory**.

componential analysis see COMPONENT (2)

composite verb see COMPOSITION

composition (*n.*) A term used in LINGUISTICS to refer to a HIERARCHICAL MODEL of linguistic STRUCTURE in which larger units are seen as being made up out of smaller units. For example, in GRAMMATICAL analysis, the relationship between SENTENCE, CLAUSE, PHRASE, WORD and MORPHEME is sometimes described as one of composition (CONSTITUENCY, or RANK), the units of higher rank being analysable (**decomposable**) into units of lower rank. One might subsequently analyse such structures in terms of their **compositional meaning**. Compositional models are to be found especially in SCALE-AND-CATEGORY, TAGMEMIC, STRATIFICATIONAL and PHRASE-STRUCTURE GRAMMARS. In relation to WORD-FORMATION, the term is used both in the general sense of ‘processes of compounding’, and sometimes in a restricted sense, referring to a particular type of compound. In TRANSFORMATIONAL grammar, PHRASAL VERBS (e.g. *switch on, take off*) may be referred to as **composite verbs**. In SEMANTICS, **compositionality** is the view that the MEANINGS of individual words can be used to build up the meanings of larger units: the meaning of the whole is determined by the meaning of its parts and the way in which they are assembled. The notion is important in, for example, MONTAGUE GRAMMAR.

compositionality (*n.*) see COMPOSITION

compound (*n.*) A term used widely in DESCRIPTIVE LINGUISTIC studies to refer to a linguistic UNIT which is composed of ELEMENTS that function independently in other circumstances. Of particular currency are the notions of **compounding** found in ‘compound WORDS’ (consisting of two or more free MORPHEMES, as in such ‘compound NOUNS’ as *bedroom, rainfall* and *washing machine*) and ‘compound SENTENCES’ (consisting of two or more main CLAUSES); but other applications of the term exist, as in ‘compound VERBS’ (e.g. *come in*), ‘compound TENSES’ (those consisting of an AUXILIARY + LEXICAL verb), ‘compound SUBJECTS/OBJECTS’, etc. (where the clause element consists of more than one noun PHRASE or PRONOUN, as in *the boys and the girls shouted*) and ‘compound PREPOSITIONS’ (e.g. *in accordance with*). See also BAHUVRIHI, DVANDVA.

compound bilingualism A term used by some linguists in the classification of bilingualism (see BILINGUAL). **Compound bilinguals** are those who attribute identical MEANINGS to corresponding LEXICAL UNITS in the two languages – a distinction here being made with CO-ORDINATE bilingualism, where there is no such identity.

comprehension (*n.*) The general sense of this term is found in LINGUISTICS, referring to the ability to understand and interpret spoken and written language; it is opposed to PRODUCTION. In PSYCHOLINGUISTICS, the analysis of the process of speech comprehension is a major theme, encompassing such topics as the strategies used by children in language ACQUISITION, the strategies adults use in interpreting different types of SENTENCE (e.g. AMBIGUITY, NEGATION, QUESTIONS), the role of the EXTRALINGUISTIC SITUATION, and the role of cognitive factors

(such as memory, attention and perception) in arriving at the interpretation of sentences and DISCOURSES.

computational linguistics A branch of LINGUISTICS in which computational techniques and concepts are applied to the elucidation of linguistic and PHONETIC problems. Several research areas have developed, including NATURAL LANGUAGE PROCESSING, SPEECH synthesis, speech recognition, automatic translation, the making of concordances, the testing of GRAMMARS, and the many areas where statistical counts and analyses are required (e.g. in literary textual studies).

computational system In the MINIMALIST PROGRAMME, a term used for the set of operations required by the process of SENTENCE composition (DERIVATION). Computation involves the SYNTACTIC combination of LEXICAL items and the construction of REPRESENTATIONS in LOGICAL FORM and PHONETIC FORM. The system builds structures by selecting elements from the NUMERATION and combining them in various ways to form individual subtrees; these are ultimately combined ('merged') into a single TREE. The computational process is constrained by various ECONOMY principles, such as shortest MOVE, PROCRASTINATE and GREED.

computer corpus see CORPUS

conative (*adj.*) A term used by some linguists to refer to a general type of LINGUISTIC FUNCTION – the use of language in order to achieve a result in an addressee, in accord with the speaker's wishes. Its use is illustrated by a range of DIRECTIVE functions (e.g. COMMANDS, VOCATIVES), but its precise sense needs to take into account the range of other functions recognized by the theory in which it is used – in particular, the contrast which is often made between conative and EXPRESSIVE (personal) and REFERENTIAL (situational) functions.

concatenate (*v.*) see CONCATENATION

concatenation (*n.*) A term used in the FORMAL representation of LINGUISTIC STRUCTURES, and especially in GENERATIVE GRAMMAR, to refer to a process for forming STRINGS of ELEMENTS, the elements being seen in a relation of linear succession, e.g. $X + Y + Z$ or $X \hat{\ } Y \hat{\ } Z$ (i.e. X is **concatenated** with or 'chained together' with Y, etc.). The **concatenative** properties of linguistic units are also central to some approaches in PHONETICS and PHONOLOGY, such as DEMISYLLABIC analysis.

conceptual metaphor see COGNITIVE METAPHOR

concessive (*adj.*) In GRAMMAR, referring to a word or construction which expresses the meaning of 'concession'. The point expressed in the MAIN CLAUSE continues to be valid despite the point being made in the SUBORDINATE clause (the **concessive clause**). In English, the most widely used markers of concession are *although* and *though*.

concord (*n.*) A term used in GRAMMATICAL theory and description to refer to a formal relationship between ELEMENTS, whereby a FORM of one WORD requires a

corresponding form of another. In English, for example, a singular SUBJECT co-occurs with the third-person singular form of the VERB in the present TENSE, e.g. *he walks* (*v. they walk*); in Latin, there is concord between the NUMBER, GENDER and CASE of ADJECTIVES and NOUNS. This formal correspondence was traditionally referred to as AGREEMENT (the adjective ‘agrees’ with the noun, etc.), and is usually contrasted in grammatical discussion with the notion of GOVERNMENT. **Negative concord** refers to cases where an element expressing NEGATION requires some other element(s) in the sentence to be negative. In Spanish, for example, sentences such as *No tengo ningún dinero* (‘I have no money at all’) use the negative form *ningún* following *no*, rather than the positive form *algún* (‘some’).

concrete (*adj.*) see ABSTRACT

condition (*n.*) A term used in LINGUISTICS to refer to any factors which, it might be argued, need to be taken into account in evaluating a theory, a GRAMMAR, or an individual analysis, e.g. such conditions as external ADEQUACY, GENERALITY, SIMPLICITY. More specifically, it refers to any criterion which must be met before a particular analysis may be carried out. In SYSTEMIC grammar, for example, the ENTRY conditions specify the structural criteria which must be satisfied in order for a particular grammatical system to become operative. In TRANSFORMATIONAL grammar, the STRUCTURAL DESCRIPTION which provides the input to a transformational RULE specifies the conditions which must be met before the rule can operate. Later, in this theory, the term was used to refer to the factors which constrain the application of transformations, in such contexts as MOVEMENT rules. For example, one condition states that a moved CONSTITUENT can only be substituted for an EMPTY category; another, that a moved constituent leaves behind a CO-INDEXED TRACE of itself. The ‘ISLAND condition’ asserts that SUBJECTS and ADJUNCTS, but not COMPLEMENTS, are islands, i.e. constituents can be extracted out of complement phrases, but not out of subject/adjunct phrases. Since the late 1970s, conditions on transformations have largely been replaced by conditions on various levels of REPRESENTATION, e.g. BINDING THEORY (a set of conditions on surface structures and/or logical form) replaced several conditions on rules of grammar proposed during the 1970s. See also ENTRY (2), FELICITY CONDITIONS, NOMINATIVE.

conditional (*adj./n.*) (**cond**) A term used in GRAMMATICAL DESCRIPTION to refer to CLAUSES whose SEMANTIC role is the expression of hypotheses or conditions. In English, these are introduced by *if*, *unless*, and a few other CONJUNCTIONS (e.g. *if John asks, tell him . . .*). The TRADITIONAL grammatical notion of ‘conditional TENSE’ (using *would*, *should*) is usually interpreted in terms of ASPECTUAL or MODAL VERB forms in analyses of English, though this is MORPHOLOGICALLY expressed in many languages (e.g. French). Sometimes the term is used to refer to the entire two-part construction, consisting of protasis and apodosis (see APODOSIS). See also MATERIAL CONDITIONAL.

conditioned (*adj.*) A term used in LINGUISTICS to refer to the FORM a linguistic UNIT takes when this is partly or wholly determined by the linguistic CONTEXT in which it occurs. For example, in English PHONOLOGY, the ALVEOLAR /t/ PHONEME predictably becomes DENTAL when followed by /θ/, as in *eighth*, i.e. [t̪] is a

conditioned variant of /t/; in MORPHOPHONOLOGY, the indefinite ARTICLE *a* becomes *an* when followed by a VOWEL. The concept of ALLO- is the most succinct way of referring to phonological and GRAMMATICAL ‘conditioning’, and other terms are sometimes used for the same phenomenon, e.g. ‘contextual/positional/combinatory/automatic’ variants. The term **conditioning** is also sometimes used with reference to the influence of the social/cultural situation on the choice of linguistic forms (‘environmental conditioning’).

condition on extraction domains (CED) A proposed CONDITION in GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY restricting the class of DOMAINS from which CONSTITUENTS may be moved: no constituent may be extracted out of a domain which is not properly GOVERNED. An example is the ‘ADJUNCT condition’, which prohibits movement out of adjuncts: from a sentence such as *You made a high score during which match?* the condition would forbid **Which match did you make a high score during?*

configuration (*n.*) (1) A term used to refer to the STANDARD MODEL of GENERATIVE GRAMMAR, seen in contrast with RELATIONAL theories of grammar. In a **configurational** approach, PHRASE-MARKERS are seen as clusters (‘configurations’) of SYNTACTIC CATEGORIES, arranged in LINEAR ORDER.

(2) The term is also used generally in LINGUISTICS and PHONETICS for any formally identifiable ARRANGEMENT of ELEMENTS. It has been used, for example, with reference to the sequence of TONES which constitute an INTONATION CONTOUR (a ‘tonal configuration’) and to the set of SYNTACTIC FUNCTIONS which depend upon a particular VERB, as in CASE grammar (a ‘configuration of cases’). See also AUTOMATON.

configurational languages Languages with fairly fixed WORD-ORDER and HIERARCHICAL CONSTITUENT structure, e.g. English and Hebrew. Such languages are contrasted with NON-CONFIGURATIONAL LANGUAGES. Both types have received a great deal of attention in GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY as subject to PARAMETRIC variation. However, the typology is not unequivocally accepted.

congruence (*n.*) A term used in LINGUISTICS to refer to a correspondence between the decisions made at one LEVEL of analysis (PHONOLOGY, GRAMMAR or SEMANTICS) and those made at another. The SENTENCE is the UNIT where there is maximum **congruence of levels**, in that criteria of identification at each level tend to coincide: certain classes of exception aside, a sentence is a grammatically, semantically and phonologically autonomous unit. The notion of WORD, by contrast, displays less congruence (‘is less congruent’): phonological (and orthographic), MORPHOLOGICAL, SYNTACTIC and semantic criteria often conflict in word identification and CLASSIFICATION.

congruity (*n.*) see PATTERN

conjoined (*adj.*) A term used especially in GENERATIVE GRAMMAR to refer to a CONSTRUCTION where two or more SENTENCES, PHRASES or WORDS are COORDINATED. **Conjoining** processes are distinct from EMBEDDING ones. The units are **conjoined** using such items as *and* and *but*, as in *The man fed the cat and the lady fed the dog*. The linked units are sometimes described as **conjoint**.

conjugation (*n.*) In GRAMMAR, a traditional term for a CLASS of VERBS in an INFLECTING language which occur with the same range of FORMS. Latin verbs, for example, belonged to four conjugations. Forms of the ‘first conjugation’, for example, were traditionally illustrated using the verb *amare* (‘to love’), which in the ACTIVE INDICATIVE PRESENT TENSE had the endings *amo, amas, amat, amamus, amatis, amant* (for ‘I/you/he-she/we/you/they’ persons respectively). ‘Fourth conjugation’ verbs, illustrated by *audire* (‘to hear’), **conjugated** differently; *audio, audis, audit, audimus, auditis, audiunt* (for the same persons). 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.

conjunct (*n.*) see CONJUNCTION (1)

conjunction (*n.*) (1) (**conj**) A term used in the GRAMMATICAL classification of WORDS to refer to an ITEM or a process whose primary function is to connect words or other CONSTRUCTIONS. The conventional subclassification of these ‘connective’ items distinguishes CO-ORDINATING conjunctions (e.g. *and, or, but*) and SUBORDINATING conjunctions (e.g. *because, when, unless*) – also referred to as ‘co-ordinators’ and ‘subordinators’ respectively. Certain types of ADVERBIAL (those whose function is primarily connective) are also sometimes referred to as **conjunctive**, or simply as **conjuncts**, e.g. *however, moreover, indeed*. A process of conjunction is also recognized in TRANSFORMATIONAL accounts (as in formal logic), this normally being referred to as a CONJOINING transformation; the conjoined elements may also be referred to as conjuncts. In logic and FORMAL SEMANTICS, the term is often limited in application to the word *and* and its equivalents in other languages; opposed to DISJUNCTION.

(2) In OPTIMALITY THEORY, a term referring to the combination of two CONSTRAINTS acting simultaneously. For example, NoCoda-r (a prohibition on /r/ in CODAS) can be created by conjoining NoCoda with *r.

conjunctive (*adj.*) A term used in GENERATIVE PHONOLOGY to refer to a principle affecting the ORDERING of RULES. **Conjunctive ordering** is found in the use of the brace NOTATION, which indicates an OBLIGATORY selection of one member of a set of alternatives. If a SEQUENCE of rules is abbreviated using this notation – e.g.

$$X \left\{ \begin{array}{c} Y \\ Z \\ W \end{array} \right\} P, \text{ which stands for (a) XYP, (b) XZP or (c) XWP}$$

– then this sequence forms a conjunctively ordered block, i.e. one or other of (a), (b) or (c) must apply. It is distinguished from DISJUNCTIVE ordering.

connected speech A term used in LINGUISTICS to refer to spoken language when analysed as a continuous sequence, as in normal UTTERANCES and conversations. Its significance lies in the contrast implied with studies of linguistic UNITS seen in isolation, such as an individual sound, WORD or PHRASE, which were the subject-matter of much traditional linguistic enquiry. It is now realized that important changes happen to these units when they are used in connected speech, as

demonstrated by such processes as ASSIMILATION and ELISION, e.g. *and* becoming /n/ in such phrases as *boys and girls*.

connection (*n.*) A term used by some FIRTHIAN linguists, as part of the phrase **renewal of connection**, referring to a way of validating an analysis predictively: an analysis made on the basis of a set of data (S_1) is applied again to a further sample (S_2) and is found to be adequate, in that in S_2 one meets again the EXPONENTS of the abstract UNITS originally postulated in S_1 (i.e. there has been a ‘renewal of connection’).

connectionism (*n.*) An application in LINGUISTICS of a computational framework for modelling cognitive functions, based on numerical computation rather than symbol manipulation. A **connectionist network** (or **neural network**) is devised which models the kinds of structures and processes thought to operate in the brain: the processing units in the network are called ‘neurons’ (in an abstract sense) or ‘nodes’, each being excited or inhibited (according to certain numerical formulae) by information obtained from the other units to which it is connected. The pattern of neuronal activity represents the data being processed by the network. A particular interpretation (e.g. of speech input data) is likely to depend on the activity pattern of a large number of related units (‘distributed representation’), the properties of which can be demonstrated only through statistical analysis. Because all the processing units compute at the same time, the approach is also known as **parallel distributed processing**. This approach contrasts with the view that people process sentences by TRANSFORMING REPRESENTATIONS according to a set of RULES, and rejects the notion that speakers INTERNALIZE grammars, in the GENERATIVE sense. Areas of application include the modelling of the non-DISCRETE and statistical properties of language use, and the study of language processing within PSYCHOLINGUISTICS, NEUROLINGUISTICS, and COMPUTATIONAL LINGUISTICS (e.g. automatic SPEECH RECOGNITION).

connective (*adj./n.*) (**cn**, **conn**) A term used in the GRAMMATICAL classification of WORDS to characterize words or MORPHEMES whose function is primarily to link LINGUISTIC UNITS at any LEVEL. CONJUNCTIONS are the most obvious types (e.g. *and*, *or*, *while*, *because*), but several types of ADVERB can be seen as connective (‘conjuncts’ such as *therefore*, *however*, *nevertheless*), as can some VERBS (the COPULAS *be*, *seem*, etc.). One type of EXOCENTRIC construction is also referred to as ‘connective’, e.g. *was happy*, *stayed quiet*, where the first element is the **connector**, and the second a predicative ATTRIBUTE. See also ZERO.

connector (*n.*) see CONNECTIVE

connotation (*n.*) A term used in SEMANTICS as part of a classification of types of MEANING; opposed to DENOTATION. Its main application is with reference to the emotional associations (personal or communal) which are suggested by, or are part of the meaning of, a LINGUISTIC UNIT, especially a LEXICAL ITEM. Denotation, by contrast, covers the relationship between a linguistic unit and the non-linguistic entities to which it refers. (The traditional philosophical use of ‘connotation’ and ‘denotation’ is quite different: here, the meanings involved largely correspond to the distinction between SENSE and REFERENCE, the former being concerned with the relationships of equivalence between terms and PROPOSITIONS, the latter

with their external-world status and truth-value.) For example, the connotations of the lexical item *December* might include ‘bad weather’, ‘dark evenings’, etc. (for north Europeans, at least), or ‘parties’, ‘Christmas’, etc. Alternative terms for **connotative** meaning include **AFFECTIVE** and **EMOTIVE**.

consequent (*n.*) see **APODOSIS**

consonant (*n.*) (**C**) One of the two general **CATEGORIES** used for the classification of speech sounds, the other being **VOWEL**. Consonants can be defined in terms of both **PHONETICS** and **PHONOLOGY**. Phonetically, they are sounds made by a **CLOSURE** or narrowing in the **VOCAL TRACT** so that the airflow is either completely blocked, or so restricted that audible **FRICTION** is produced. Consonant **ARTICULATIONS** are relatively easy to feel, and as a result are most conveniently described in terms of **PLACE** and **MANNER** of articulation. In addition, a routine phonetic description of consonants would involve information about the mode of vibration of the **VOCAL CORDS** (see **VOICING**), and it is often necessary to specify the **DURATION** of the sound, the **AIRSTREAM MECHANISM** involved and the direction of airflow (**EGRESSIVE** or **INGRESSIVE**). From a phonological point of view, consonants are those **UNITS** which function at the **MARGINS** of **SYLLABLES**, either singly or in **CLUSTERS**.

Usually, phonetic and phonological criteria coincide: [f], for example, is a consonant in that there is audible friction and the sound occurs marginally, as in *fat*, *leaf*. In sounds such as [l], [r], [w] and [j], however, there is a conflict between the two criteria. Phonologically, these sounds are consonants, because their role in syllables is the same as that taken by [f], [p], etc., e.g. *lip*, *rip*, *wet*, *yet*. But, phonetically, they lack the friction required by the above definitions: they are vowel-like in character. Such sounds as a result are often called ‘semi-vowels’ or **semi-consonants** (see **APPROXIMANT**).

The trouble arises from having only one term to do two jobs (phonetic and phonological descriptions). Several terminological solutions have been suggested, the most well-known one being the suggestion of the American linguist K. L. Pike (1912–2001) to reserve the term ‘consonant’ for the phonological level of analysis, and to introduce **CONTOID** for the phonetic level (as opposed to **VOCOID**). In this way, [p] would be consonant and contoid, and [l], etc., consonant and vocoid.

Consonantal is used in a general adjectival sense, and also has separate technical status in the **DISTINCTIVE FEATURE** theory of phonology, where ‘consonantal’ (**cons**) and **non-consonantal** constitute one of the major **CLASS FEATURES** in terms of which speech sounds are analysed. Consonantal sounds may be defined either articulatorily or acoustically in this approach: they are produced with a major obstruction in the middle of the vocal tract, and have low **ACOUSTIC** energy. Non-consonantal sounds lack this obstruction, and have high acoustic energy. Consonants in the above phonological sense would be analysed as having the feature [+consonantal]: vowels would be [–consonantal].

consonant harmony see **HARMONY**

conspiracy (*n.*) A term used in **GENERATIVE PHONOLOGY** to refer to any set of **RULES** (or **CONSTRAINTS**) which can be seen as acting together, or ‘conspiring’, to produce a specific result, which it would not be possible or economical to state as a single rule.

conspire (*v.*) see CONSPIRACY

constant (*adj.*) (1) A type of OPPOSITION recognized in PRAGUE SCHOOL PHONOLOGY, distinguished from NEUTRALIZABLE. A constant opposition exists when all its members can occur in all possible positions, e.g. wherever /p/ might be found in a LANGUAGE, a contrast with /b/ will also be found. A DISTINCTION such as English /t/ *v.* /d/, however, is neutralizable because, in some positions, the CONTRAST disappears (as in /t/ following INITIAL /s/).

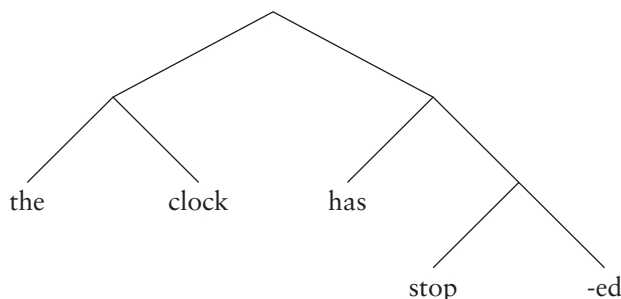
(2) **Constant** is used in logic and FORMAL semantics for any EXPRESSION which is not a VARIABLE, and which does not contain any FREE variables. See also LOGICAL CONSTANT.

constative (*adj.*) A basic term used in the theory of SPEECH ACTS: it refers to UTTERANCES which are DESCRIPTIVE STATEMENTS, capable of being analysed in terms of truth-values. 'Constative utterances' are contrasted with PERFORMATIVE utterances, where the function is one of 'doing' rather than 'saying'.

constellation (*n.*) see ARTICULATORY PHONOLOGY

constituency (*n.*) see CONSTITUENT

constituent (*n.*) (1) A basic term in GRAMMATICAL analysis for a LINGUISTIC UNIT which is a functional component of a larger CONSTRUCTION. Based on a combination of intuitive and FORMAL (e.g. DISTRIBUTIONAL) criteria, a SENTENCE can be analysed into a series of constituents, such as SUBJECT + PREDICATE, or NP+VP, etc. These units thus produced can, in turn, be analysed into further constituents (e.g. a NOUN PHRASE might consist of a DETERMINER and a noun), and this **constituent analysis** process can be continued until no further subdivisions are possible. The major divisions that can be made within a construction, at any level, are known as the **immediate constituents** (ICs) of that construction. The irreducible ELEMENTS resulting from such an analysis are known as the **ultimate constituents** (UCs) of the construction. So, in analysing the sentence *The clock has stopped*, the ICs would be *the clock* and *has stopped* (how these constituents are to be LABELLED is a separate decision-making process). *The clock* has *the* and *clock* as its ICs. The ICs of *has stopped* are *has* and *stopped*. And *stopped* can be broken down further into *stop* and *-ed*. The process is often drawn in the form of a TREE diagram, as follows:



This **constituent structure** may also be represented using BRACKETS, each analytic decision being represented by the imposition of a pair of square brackets at the appropriate points in the construction, e.g. *[[the clock] [has stop[-ed]]]*. A grammar which analyses sentences wholly in this way, i.e. in terms of a HIERARCHY of structural layers, is sometimes called a **constituent-structure grammar**; in classical GENERATIVE linguistics, such an analysis is carried on by the PHRASE-STRUCTURE COMPONENT of the grammar. The term **constituency grammar** will also be encountered, as will the term **constituent sentence**, referring to an EMBEDDED sentence. **Constituent-base** grammars need to be distinguished from those which do not recognize constituents, such as DEPENDENCY grammar and WORD GRAMMAR.

The limitations of IC analysis have been much discussed in the linguistics literature, especially in relation to the greater POWER of TRANSFORMATIONAL grammars. IC analysis, for example, is unable to make explicit the relationships between formally connected sets of sentences (such as ACTIVE and PASSIVE), nor can it demonstrate the AMBIGUITY involved in several kinds of construction (a much-discussed example here being *it is too hot to eat*). But some kind of constituent analysis is an important feature of most grammatical systems. See also C-STRUCTURE.

(2) In NON-LINEAR PHONOLOGY, a term which describes a group of FEATURES which regularly FUNCTION together as a UNIT in phonological RULES. In this approach, SEGMENTS are REPRESENTED as a HIERARCHY of NODE configurations, in which intermediate nodes are **constituents** and terminal nodes are feature values. Elements are grouped into constituents using ASSOCIATION LINES. Only feature sets which form constituents may function together in phonological rules. The approach uses the usual TREE terminology of GENERATIVE grammar: dependents are viewed as ‘daughters’ of a higher constituent node, and ‘sisters’ of other nodes at the same level within the hierarchy.

constituent-command (*v.*) see COMMAND (2)

constrain (*v.*) see CONSTRAINT

constraint (*n.*) A term used in LINGUISTICS, and especially in GENERATIVE GRAMMAR, to refer to a CONDITION which restricts the application of a RULE, to ensure that the sentences generated are WELL FORMED. For example, in generative PHONOLOGY, a distinction can be made between ‘simultaneous’ and ‘sequential’ constraints: the former states the restrictions on the simultaneous occurrence of FEATURES, e.g. a SEGMENT cannot be at once [+high] and [+low]; the latter states the restrictions on sequences of features, e.g. whether a language permits CONSONANT CLUSTERS. In generative SYNTAX there are also several constraints which have to be imposed in order to prevent the DERIVATION of ILL FORMED PHRASE-MARKERS, e.g. constraints on the ORDERING of rules. For example, ‘surface structure’ constraints (FILTERS, or ‘OUTPUT conditions’) refer to conditions where a characteristic of SURFACE STRUCTURE decides which phrase-markers are well formed; e.g. no phrase-marker containing an internal boundary symbol can qualify as a well formed surface structure. Other examples include ISLAND constraints and the CO-ORDINATE structure constraint.

Later generative studies aimed to find constraints which apply to large classes of derivations (i.e. the constraints have a greater EXPLANATORY power) – a trend which contrasts with the local application of the constraints proposed in the 1960s. ‘Constraints’, in this work, are distinguished from ‘filters’: the former are conditions affecting two successive phrase-markers in a derivation: the latter are conditions on a single level of structure, which serves as the output of a given set of rules.

The notion of constraints takes a different direction in OPTIMALITY THEORY, where it is the principal EXPLANATORY device (abbreviated as CON). Here, constraints are ways of characterizing language UNIVERSALS. Each language has its own RANKING of constraints (e.g. which determine MORPHEME position or SYLLABLE structure), and differences between these rankings result in the variations observed between languages. Constraints are found only in the **constraint hierarchy** for a language, i.e. the language’s particular ranking of the universal set of constraints; there are no separate constraints operating on INPUTS or OUTPUTS, and no RULES to be constrained. The approach also uses the notion of **constraint satisfaction**, representing the extent to which a constraint can be violated in grammatical forms. All constraints are violable. The output forms are the OPTIMAL ones (i.e. with the minimum number of constraint VIOLATIONS), selected by the EVALUATOR component of the theory. The term is also used more generally in generative linguistics with reference to theory construction. A linguistic theory needs to be **constrained**, in order to restrict the class of potential grammars. In this sense, the main aim of linguistics is said to be the provision of an explanatorily ADEQUATE theory which is maximally constrained.

constraint demotion algorithm A theory of the acquisition of an OPTIMALITY THEORY GRAMMAR. All CONSTRAINTS are initially RANKED together, and as new forms are encountered, constraints that show VIOLATIONS in the forms in the data are progressively lowered in the ranking. A modification is called the **biased constraint demotion algorithm**, which starts with a RANKING of all MARKEDNESS constraints over all FAITHFULNESS constraints.

constriction (*n.*) A general term used in ARTICULATORY PHONETICS to refer to a narrowing within the VOCAL TRACT. The different kinds and degrees of constriction are the basis of the articulatory classification of sound QUALITIES. The term **constricted** is sometimes used in a restricted sense, referring to GLOTTALIZED sounds or the GLOTTIS with narrow aperture (opposed to SPREAD). ‘Constriction’ has developed a central role in PHONOLOGICAL theory, especially in some models of FEATURE GEOMETRY. A **constriction model** aims to unify the description of VOCOIDS (VOWELS and GLIDES) and CONSONANTS in terms of their characteristic constriction, defined by the parameters of **constriction degree** (a CONTINUANT node for consonants and an APERTURE node for vocoids) and **constriction location** (a PLACE node, represented by ‘C-place’ for consonants and ‘V-place’ for vocoids, and defined in terms of the active articulator involved). Constrictions are represented by a separate node in the feature HIERARCHY, and degree and location are separate nodes linked under the constriction node. The definition of DORSAL, for example (involving a constriction formed by the back of the TONGUE) is equally applicable to consonants and vocoids, thus avoiding the ‘two-mouth’ descriptions of traditional approaches. The three main types of correspondence

proposed are: between LABIAL consonants and ROUNDED or labialized vocoids; between CORONAL consonants and FRONT vocoids; and between dorsal consonants and BACK vocoids.

construction (*n.*) (1) In its most general sense in LINGUISTICS, ‘construction’ refers to the overall process of internal organization of a GRAMMATICAL UNIT – a SENTENCE, for example, being built up (**constructed**) out of a set of MORPHEMES by the application of a set of RULES. More specifically, it refers to the SYNTAGMATIC result of such a process, a particular type of construction (a **constructional type** or **pattern**) being defined as a sequence of units which has a FUNCTIONAL identity in the grammar of a LANGUAGE, such as SUBJECT+VERB+OBJECT (with reference to CLAUSES), or DETERMINER+NOUN (with reference to PHRASES). Most specifically, it refers to a token of a constructional type, in the sense of STRING, e.g. *the + man + is + walking*. It is constructions of this last kind which are analysed into CONSTITUENTS, as in IMMEDIATE-CONSTITUENT analysis. Constituents forming a syntactic relationship are said to be ‘in construction with’ each other. **Constructional homonymity** refers to a grammatical string with more than one interpretation in terms of the patterns of construction it contains (as defined, say, by a PHRASE-STRUCTURE grammar). In more traditional grammatical terms, the string would be said to be ‘structurally ambiguous’. For example, *men and women in coats* could be analysed as *men and [women in coats]* (i.e. only the women have coats) or as *men and women [in coats]* (they all have coats).

(2) In PSYCHOLINGUISTICS, the term is often used as part of a theory of COMPREHENSION, to refer to the psychological process of **constructing** an interpretation of sentences, based on the ability to identify and interrelate the various ELEMENTS and LEVELS of MEANING involved.

constructional homonymity see CONSTRUCTION (1)

constructional schema see COGNITIVE GRAMMAR

construe (*v.*) A TRADITIONAL term in GRAMMATICAL analysis, which refers to the process of FORMALLY arranging words into CONSTRUCTIONAL relationships, and to the study and interpretation of these relationships. It has received a new lease of life in GENERATIVE SYNTAX, where it is used to define the relationships which are formed between certain types of CONSTITUENTS (ANTECEDENTS and ANAPHORS) as a consequence of applying a TRANSFORMATIONAL RULE (**rules of construal**). See also COGNITIVE SEMANTICS.

consultant (*n.*) see INFORMANT

contact (*adj./n.*) (1) A term used in SOCIOLINGUISTICS to refer to a situation of geographical continuity or close social proximity (and thus of mutual influence) between LANGUAGES or DIALECTS. The result of **contact situations** can be seen linguistically, in the growth of LOAN words, patterns of PHONOLOGICAL and GRAMMATICAL change, mixed forms of language (such as CREOLES and PIDGINS), and a general increase in bilingualism of various kinds (see BILINGUAL). In a restricted sense, languages are said to be ‘in contact’ if they are used alternately by the same persons, i.e. bilinguals. The term **contact language** or **contact vernacular** is also sometimes used to refer to a pidgin.

(2) A term used by some GRAMMARIANS to describe a type of RELATIVE CLAUSE with no relative PRONOUN, and where the clause is thus directly 'in contact' with the HEAD NOUN (e.g. *the book I bought*): a **contact clause** or **contact relative**. In the context of GENERATIVE grammar, these clauses have no OVERT COMPLEMENTIZER nor an overt WH-PHRASE.

(3) A term used in PHONETICS to refer to any point in the process of ARTICULATION where one articulator touches another. The BLADE of the TONGUE, for example, makes contact with the alveolar ridge during the articulation of [t].

contact assimilation see ASSIMILATION

containment (*n.*) A principle in certain versions of OPTIMALITY THEORY whereby the OUTPUT contains the input. No DELETION is allowed.

content (*n.*) The general sense of this term – referring to the MEANING of an expression – is found pre-theoretically in LINGUISTICS, but some linguists have given it a technical status, by analysing language into two major dimensions, distinguishing a **content plane** from an 'expression plane' (analogous to the SAUSSUREAN distinction between the MEANING and FORM of linguistic SIGNS). More specifically, some approaches to WORD CLASSIFICATION recognize a class of **content words** or **contentives**, defined as words which have stateable LEXICAL meaning – the majority of words in the LANGUAGE, in fact, apart from the few FUNCTION words, whose role is primarily to express GRAMMATICAL relationships. Alternative terms include LEXICAL and FULL words. In SEMANTIC studies of DEMONSTRATIVES and INDEXICALS, the term is often used to designate the meaning of an EXPRESSION relative to a particular PRAGMATIC CONTEXT; it contrasts with CHARACTER.

contentive (*n.*) see CONTENT

content word see CONTENT

context (*n.*) (1) A general term used in LINGUISTICS and PHONETICS to refer to specific parts of an UTTERANCE (or TEXT) near or adjacent to a UNIT which is the focus of attention. The occurrence of a unit (e.g. a sound, WORD) is partly or wholly determined by its context, which is specified in terms of the unit's relations, i.e. the other features with which it combines as a sequence. The everyday sense of the term is related to this, as when one 'puts a word in context' (**contextualizes**), in order to clarify the MEANING intended, as in dictionary entries. Providing a context in this way is referred to as **contextualization**. Words, it is suggested, have meaning only when seen in context.

Variants of sound, GRAMMAR, etc., which are dependent on context for their occurrence are sometimes called **contextual variants** (or 'conditioned variants'); an example is the allophone (see ALLO-). An analysis in these terms is sometimes called a **contextual analysis**. Some scholars use the term CO-TEXT for context in sense (1), reserving the latter term for sense (3) below.

(2) The specification of **contexts** is a particular characteristic of the formulation of rules in GENERATIVE linguistics, where forms can be classified in terms of

whether they occur only within a specific FORMAL context (**context-sensitive/-restricted/-dependent** rules) or are independent of context (**context-free** rules). A **context-free grammar** is one in which all the rules apply regardless of context, i.e. they would be all of the type ‘Rewrite X as Y’, no further conditions being specified. A **context-sensitive** grammar contains some rules of the type $A \rightarrow B/C-D$, where the forward slash means ‘in the context of’, and the horizontal line indicates the place in the structure where A (a single non-terminal symbol) is rewritten as B (a non-empty string of symbols) – in this case, between C and D (any strings of symbols). In some GENERATIVE MODELS (see ASPECTS MODEL), **contextual features** refer to one of the types of (BINARY) FEATURES which are contained in a LEXICAL entry (the others being INHERENT and RULE features); such features provide information as to where in a DEEP-STRUCTURE REPRESENTATION a lexical item can occur. Three types of contextual features are recognized: CATEGORY features, STRICT SUB-CATEGORIZATION features and SELECTIONAL features.

(3) A term referring to the features of the non-linguistic world in relation to which linguistic units are systematically used. The term ‘situation’ is also used in this sense, as in the compound term **situational context**. In its broadest sense, situational context includes the *total* non-linguistic background to a text or utterance, including the immediate situation in which it is used, and the awareness by speaker and hearer of what has been said earlier and of any relevant external beliefs or PRESUPPOSITIONS. Others restrict the term to what is immediately observable in the co-occurring situation. Further distinctions are usually made in SEMANTICS and STYLISTICS, distinguishing, for example, REFERENTIAL and EMOTIVE meaning from **contextual meaning**, i.e. information signalled about the kind of use a linguistic unit has in its social context, e.g. whether it has a ‘restricted’ use (as in social pleasantries, or religious settings), or how it relates to such factors as age, sex or class of the speakers.

(4) Other related senses may be found. For example, the general term **context of utterance** is sometimes used to refer to all the factors which systematically determine the FORM, MEANING or appropriateness of UTTERANCES (i.e. including both sense (1) and sense (2) of this entry). **Context** is also used in HALLIDAYAN linguistics, but in a restricted sense, as the name of an INTER-LEVEL of language organization which relates linguistic form to extralinguistic SITUATION – it is thus equivalent to SEMANTICS.

context change potential A term used in FILE CHANGE SEMANTICS and other DYNAMIC semantic theories for the pattern of change produced by an EXPRESSION on the information states of the participants in a DISCOURSE.

context of situation A term in FIRTHIAN linguistic theory, deriving from the work of the anthropologist Bronislaw Malinowski (1884–1942). In this theory, meaning is seen as a multiple phenomenon, its various facets being relatable on the one hand to features of the external world, and on the other hand to the different LEVELS of linguistic analysis, such as PHONETICS, grammar and semantics. Context of situation refers to the whole set of external-world features considered to be relevant in the analysis of an utterance at these levels.

contextualize (*v.*), **contextualization** (*n.*) see CONTEXT

contiguity (*n.*) A family of FAITHFULNESS CONSTRAINTS in OPTIMALITY THEORY that evaluates, along with LINEARITY, the preservation of ADJACENCY ordering of SEGMENTS between two forms. If two segments are adjacent in the INPUT form, the corresponding segments should be adjacent in the output form, and vice versa.

contiguous assimilation see ASSIMILATION

contingent extrasyllabicity see EXTRASYLLABIC

continuant (*adj.*) (**cont**) 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 MANNER OF ARTICULATION. Continuant sounds have been defined articulatorily and acoustically, as those produced with an incomplete CLOSURE of the VOCAL TRACT. All VOWELS and FRICATIVES are [+continuant] (abbreviated as [+cont]). The opposite term in Jakobson and Halle's approach (see JAKOBSONIAN) is DISCONTINUOUS; in Chomsky and Halle's later system, it is **non-continuant** or STOP: these are sounds produced with a complete closure of the vocal tract, and thus characterized acoustically by a silence, as in PLOSIVES [-continuant] [-cont]. The term INTERRUPTED is also sometimes used.

continuity hypothesis see DISCONTINUOUS (3)

continuous (*adj.*) A term used in the GRAMMATICAL description of VERB FORMS, referring to a CONTRAST of a temporal or a durative kind, and thus handled sometimes under the heading of TENSE and sometimes under ASPECT. The usual contrast recognized is between 'continuous' or PROGRESSIVE (e.g. *I am going*) and **non-continuous**, SIMPLE, or 'non-progressive' (e.g. *I go*). Linguists prefer an aspectual analysis here, because of the complex interaction of durational, completive and temporal features of meaning involved; TRADITIONAL grammars, however, merely refer to 'continuous tense', 'continuous present', etc., and thus imply a meaning which is to some degree an oversimplification.

contoid (*n.*) A term invented by the American phonetician Kenneth Pike (1912–2001) to help distinguish between the PHONETIC and the PHONOLOGICAL notions of CONSONANT. Phonetically, a consonant is defined with reference to a complete CLOSURE in the VOCAL TRACT, or a narrowing sufficiently great to cause audible FRICTION. Phonologically, it is a unit which FUNCTIONS at the MARGINS of SYLLABLES. But there are cases where these criteria do not coincide, such as [l], [r], [w] and [j], which function as consonants in syllables, but which are phonetically VOWEL-like. To handle such cases, Pike proposed that separate terms be used for the phonetic and the phonological definitions of all sounds: 'contoid' refers to the phonetic characterization of a consonant, as defined above; 'consonant' is reserved for the phonological sense. Its opposite is VOCOID.

contour (*n.*) (1) A term used in SUPRASEGMENTAL PHONOLOGY, particularly by those phonologists working within an American tradition, to refer to a distinctive CONFIGURATION of PITCHES, TONES or STRESSES in an UTTERANCE. Several types of contour are recognized, e.g. 'primary', 'secondary' and 'terminal' contours, which relate to major patterns in the analysis of INTONATION, or the notion of

stress contour in GENERATIVE phonology, which refers to a sequence of stresses assigned through the application of the transformational CYCLE. Rising and falling tones are sometimes referred to as **contour tones**. A contour tone system is used in some tone languages (e.g. Thai) where the critical feature is the direction of tonal movement rather than the relative level of the tone (a **contour tone language** as opposed to a REGISTER TONE LANGUAGE).

(2) In some models of NON-LINEAR PHONOLOGY, a sequence of different FEATURES which belong to a SEGMENT in a HIERARCHICAL feature representation. Such segments (e.g. AFFRICATES, prenasalized STOPS) are known as **contour segments**. Such segments display phonological EDGE effects, in that the segment behaves as though it has the feature [+F] with regard to segments on one side and [-F] with regard to those on the other.

(3) In a WINDOWS model of COARTICULATION, the term refers to the connection path between individual windows, representing ARTICULATORY or ACOUSTIC variation over time in a specific context; also referred to as a **path**.

contour tone see CONTOUR (1)

contraction (*n.*) A term used in LINGUISTICS to refer to the process or result of PHONOLOGICALLY reducing a linguistic FORM so that it comes to be attached to an adjacent linguistic form, or FUSING a sequence of forms so that they appear as a single form. The first kind of **contracted form** (or **contraction**) can be illustrated by *I've* from *I have*, *haven't* from *have not*, and WANNA-CONTRACTION. The second kind is seen in French *du, des* from **de le* and **de les* respectively.

contradiction (*n.*) An application of the general sense of this term in SEMANTICS, where it refers to a SENTENCE which cannot be true, by virtue of its form and meaning. For example, *This table is more than 10 feet long, but it is less than 10 feet long*.

contradictory (*adj./n.*) A term sometimes used in SEMANTICS to refer to a SENSE relation between LEXICAL ITEMS. 'Contradictory terms' (or 'contradictories') display a type of oppositeness of MEANING, illustrated by such pairs as *male/female* and *single/married*. Because of the technical use of this term in logic (where it refers to a relationship between two propositions such that they cannot both be true or both false), some semanticists prefer to use COMPLEMENTARITY to refer to the LINGUISTIC relationship involved in such opposites.

contrafactive (*adj./n.*) A term used in the classification of VERB-COMPLEMENT constructions, in which the PROPOSITION expressed in the complement CLAUSE is PRESUPPOSED to be false, e.g. *I wish John would go*, where it is presupposed that John has not gone. Contrafactive verbs (or 'contrafactives') are usually distinguished from FACTIVE and 'non-factive' verbs.

contrary (*adj./n.*) A term sometimes used in SEMANTICS to refer to a SENSE relation between LEXICAL ITEMS. 'Contrary terms' (or 'contraries') display a type of oppositeness of MEANING, illustrated by such pairs as *big/little, happy/sad*. Because of the technical use of this term in logic (where it refers to the relationship between two propositions such that they both cannot be true, though both

can be false), some semanticists prefer to use ANTONYMY to refer to the LINGUISTIC relationship involved in such opposites.

contrast (*n.*) A term used in LINGUISTICS for a difference between units, especially one which serves to distinguish MEANINGS in a language (it is **contrastive**). Such differences are also referred to as DISTINCTIVE, FUNCTIONAL or SIGNIFICANT. The principle of contrast (or **contrastivity**) is considered fundamental to linguistic analysis. It can be illustrated with reference to the notions of PHONEME (in particular), DISTINCTIVE FEATURE, MORPHEME, etc., which may all be defined as ‘minimally contrastive units’ at some LEVEL of analysis. Examples in PHONOLOGY are the contrast between English /p/ and /b/, or VOICED *v.* voiceless; in GRAMMAR, between INFLECTIONAL endings, or the various possibilities of WORD-ORDER. Many linguists use the term OPPOSITION in the same way, but in some approaches this term is given separate definition, referring only to the PARADIGMATIC differences between units (‘contrast’ being reserved for SYNTAGMATIC differences).

contrastive accent see ACCENT (2)

contrastive analysis (CA) A general approach to the investigation of language (**contrastive linguistics**), particularly as carried on in certain areas of APPLIED LINGUISTICS, such as foreign-language teaching and translation. In a contrastive analysis of two languages, the points of STRUCTURAL difference are identified, and these are then studied as areas of potential difficulty (INTERFERENCE or ‘negative transfer’) in foreign-language learning. The claim that these differences are the source of difficulty in foreign-language learning, and thus govern the progress of the learner, is known as the **contrastive analysis hypothesis**. Although strongly influential (motivating audio-lingual methods of language teaching), by the 1980s the validity of the hypothesis had been seriously questioned, especially following research into the nature of INTERLANGUAGE and into the cognitive contribution which individuals themselves bring to the learning task. Contrastive analyses are SYNCHRONIC; analogous ‘contrastive’ studies of two states in the history of a language would be grouped under a different heading, such as COMPARATIVE or HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS.

contrastive rhetoric see RHETORIC

contrastive stress see STRESS

control (*n.*) A term used in one of the (sub-)theories of GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY (**control theory**), which determines the potential for REFERENCE of the abstract pronominal element PRO. For example, a PRO which is the SUBJECT of an EMBEDDED INFINITIVE CLAUSE is said to be under the ‘control’ of the MAIN-clause subject (its **controller**), after a VERB like *promise*; but after a verb like *persuade* it is controlled by the OBJECT of that verb (it is ‘non-subject-controlled’): compare I_1 *promised John* PRO_1 *to go* and I *persuaded John₂ PRO_2 *to go*. Still other uses of PRO are **uncontrolled** (that is, they have ARBITRARY reference, and do not take their reference from an ANTECEDENT NP). **Control sentences** subsume the EQUI NP DELETION sentences of classical TRANSFORMATIONAL*

GRAMMAR; they are often contrasted with RAISING sentences. Sometimes, control constructions are referred to as CATENATIVE constructions.

control agreement principle (CAP) A term used in GENERALIZED PHRASE-STRUCTURE GRAMMAR to refer to a principle which is introduced to account for AGREEMENT phenomena.

controller (*n.*) see CONTROL

convention LINGUISTICS uses this term in its general sense – referring to any accepted practice in the use of LANGUAGE (e.g. the ‘convention’ of using certain formulae upon leave-taking), or in developing a MODEL of language (e.g. it is ‘conventional’ to transcribe PHONEMES using // brackets). But there is also a restricted sense, where it refers to the ARBITRARY nature of the relationship between linguistic EXPRESSIONS and their MEANINGS: one says that the relationship between the LEXICAL ITEM *table* and the thing ‘table’ is **conventional**, the term here being used in a traditional philosophical sense which dates from Plato. See COGNITIVE GRAMMAR.

conventional implicature see IMPLICATURE

convergence (*n.*) (1) A term used in SOCIOLINGUISTICS to refer to a process of DIALECT change in which the dialects become more like each other (or **converge**). This usually happens when a non-standard dialect falls under the influence of the STANDARD, but it may happen the other way round – as in the current development of modified forms of RECEIVED PRONUNCIATION in English. Geographically adjacent SPEECH communities are sometimes referred to as **convergence areas**. The opposite effect is known as DIVERGENCE. ‘Convergence’ also has a currency in HISTORICAL linguistic studies, referring to the MERGING of FORMS which at an earlier stage of a LANGUAGE were CONTRASTIVE.

(2) In the MINIMALIST PROGRAMME, a DERIVATION is said to **converge** if a STRUCTURAL DESCRIPTION is interpretable at the level of PHONETIC FORM or at the level of LOGICAL FORM. For this to happen, there should be no semantic information in the phonetic REPRESENTATION and no phonetic information in the semantic representation. If these conditions are not met, the derivation is said to **crash**.

conversational implicature see IMPLICATURE

conversational maxims see MAXIMS OF CONVERSATION

conversational turn see TURN

conversation analysis (CA) A term used in LINGUISTICS and associated disciplines to refer to a method of studying the sequential STRUCTURE and COHERENCE of conversations (in their everyday sense), usually employing the techniques of ETHNOMETHODOLOGY. The approach studies recordings of real conversations, to establish what properties are used in a systematic way when people linguistically interact. Conversation analysis is basically an empirical, inductive study, and a

contrast is often drawn with the deductive approach characteristic of DISCOURSE analysis.

converseness (*n.*) A term often used in SEMANTICS to refer to a SENSE relation between LEXICAL ITEMS. **Converse terms** display a type of oppositeness of MEANING, illustrated by such pairs as *buy/sell*, *parent/child*, *employer/employee* and *above/below*. *Buy* is said to be ‘the converse of’ *sell*, and vice versa. In such a relationship, found especially in the definition of reciprocal social roles, spatial relationships and so on, there is an interdependence of meaning, such that one member of the pair presupposes the other member. In this respect, converseness contrasts with COMPLEMENTARITY, where there is no such symmetry of dependence, and with the technical sense of ANTONYMY, where there is a gradation between the opposites.

conversion (*n.*) A term used in the study of WORD-FORMATION to refer to the DERIVATIONAL process whereby an ITEM comes to belong to a new WORD-CLASS without the addition of an AFFIX, e.g. VERBS/NOUNS: *smell/taste/hit/walk/bottle/brake*; ADJECTIVES/verbs: *dirty/empty/lower*. Some GRAMMARS distinguish between full conversion and partial conversion – the latter being cases where only some of the characteristics of the new word-class are adopted (e.g. *the rich*). Other terms used for this phenomenon, which is very common in English, include ‘ZERO derivation’ and ‘FUNCTIONAL shift’.

co-occurrence (*n.*) A term used in LINGUISTICS and PHONETICS to refer to the permitted SYNTAGMATIC combination of UNITS, according to the GRAMMATICAL and LEXICAL RULES of a LANGUAGE. For example, *a* co-occurs with *boy*, but not with *information*; *eke* co-occurs with *out*, but not with *in*. The CONSTRAINTS involved are known as **co-occurrence relations** or **restrictions**, and are often specified in the form of CONTEXT-sensitive or TACTIC rules. The dependencies involved may be unidirectional (e.g. ADVERBS co-occurring with VERBS, but not necessarily the other way round), bidirectional (e.g. TRANSITIVE verbs and OBJECTS), and mutually exclusive (e.g. *a* cannot co-occur with *an* in the same NOUN PHRASE).

co-operative principle A term derived from the work of the philosopher H. P. Grice (1913–88) and now frequently used in LINGUISTICS as part of the study of conversational structure. At its simplest, the principle states that speakers try to co-operate with each other when communicating: they will, in particular, attempt to be informative, truthful, relevant and clear (MAXIMS of ‘quantity’, ‘quality’, ‘relation’ and ‘manner’ respectively). Listeners will normally assume that a speaker is following these criteria. Speakers may break these maxims (in lying, sarcasm, political debates, etc.) but conversation proceeds on the assumption that they do not. It is then possible to deduce implications from what *has* been said concerning what has *not* been said (CONVERSATIONAL IMPLICATURES), though the extent to which this can be done consistently and generally is somewhat controversial.

co-ordinate bilingualism A term used by some linguists in the classification of bilingualism (see BILINGUAL). **Co-ordinate bilinguals** are those who attribute partly or wholly different MEANINGS to corresponding LEXICAL units in the two

LANGUAGES – a distinction here being made with COMPOUND bilingualism, where the meanings are seen as identical.

co-ordinating conjunction see CO-ORDINATION

co-ordination (*n.*) A term in GRAMMATICAL analysis to refer to the process or result of linking LINGUISTIC UNITS which are usually of equivalent SYNTACTIC status, e.g. a series of CLAUSES, or PHRASES, or WORDS. (In this respect, it is usually distinguished from SUBORDINATE linkage, where the units are not equivalent.) **Co-ordinate clauses** are illustrated in the sentence *John walked and Mary ran*: the marker of linkage is *and*, a **co-ordinating conjunction** (or **co-ordinator**). Constructions may also be analysed as co-ordinate without any explicit marker (a phenomenon sometimes referred to as ‘asyndetic co-ordination’), as in *There was an awkward, depressing silence*, where the **co-ordinative** role of the two adjectives can be tested by the insertion of *and* between them. The **co-ordinate structure constraint** in GENERATIVE GRAMMAR asserts that no RULE may affect a CONJUNCT in a co-ordinate structure, nor may any element in a conjunct be affected by a rule.

co-ordinator (*n.*) see CO-ORDINATION

Copenhagen School A group of LINGUISTS who constituted the Copenhagen Linguistic Circle in the mid-1930s, and who developed an approach to linguistics known as GLOSSEMATICS. Largely through the work of their main theoretician, Louis Hjelmslev (1899–1965), the school developed a philosophical and logical basis for linguistic theory which was not to be surpassed until the FORMALIZATION introduced by GENERATIVE GRAMMAR.

co-phonology (*n.*) see CO-GRAMMAR

co-production (*n.*) A term used in relation to GESTURAL PHONOLOGY referring to the core process which controls the way articulatory GESTURES combine to produce the SEGMENTS of CONNECTED SPEECH. Each gesture has an intrinsic temporal DURATION which allows it to overlap with other gestures when executed, the degree of overlap being controlled by the co-production process at the planning stage of speech production.

copula (*n.*) A term used in GRAMMATICAL description to refer to a linking VERB, i.e. a verb which has little independent MEANING, and whose main function is to relate other elements of CLAUSE structure, especially SUBJECT and COMPLEMENT. In English, the main **copular** (or **copulative**) verb is *be*, e.g. *She is a doctor*, and the term is often restricted to this verb; but there are many others which have a similar function, e.g. *She feels angry*, *That looks nice*, *He fell ill*.

copy (*v.*) see COPYING

copying (*n.*) A basic SYNTACTIC operation within the framework of TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR which adds a duplicate of a CONSTITUENT in a PHRASE-MARKER to some other part of the phrase-marker. For example, to make a RULE deriving TAG QUESTIONS from such SENTENCES as *He is a doctor*, the VERB is

taken and **copied** to the right of the sentence (changing its status from POSITIVE to NEGATIVE); the tag-SUBJECT is a PRONOMINAL copy of the main subject, placed to the right of this verb. This would be one way of generating the sentence *He is a doctor, isn't he?* The verb is copied only if it is AUXILIARY or COPULA, and replaced by a form of *do* otherwise (e.g. *John knows the answers, doesn't he*). Outside GENERATIVE LINGUISTICS, some linguists use **copy tags** to refer to a sub-type of tag questions, viz. only those which retain the same POSITIVE or NEGATIVE value as the main-CLAUSE verb (the others being referred to as CHECKING tags), e.g. *He's coming, is he?* The MINIMALIST PROGRAMME endorses the **copy theory of movement**: when a projected empty category in position X is replaced with a CONSTITUENT from position Y, both X and Y, members of the same movement CHAIN, contain a copy of the moved constituent.

copy tag see COPYING

core (*adj./n.*) (1) In the phrase **core grammar**, the term is used in GENERATIVE LINGUISTICS to refer to the UNIVERSAL set of linguistic principles which characterize all the UNMARKED grammatical principles found in LANGUAGE. A RULE which conforms to these principles is a **core rule**; one which does not is a **non-core rule**. A core grammar can be developed for an individual language or for language in general (a 'theory of core grammar').

(2) In the phrase **common core**, the term refers to the set of linguistic features which are shared by all VARIETIES of a language.

(3) In PHONOLOGY, **core** is sometimes used for a CONSTITUENT of SYLLABLE structure comprising the NUCLEUS and CODA, more usually referred to as the RHYME (as in METRICAL PHONOLOGY).

(4) In ROLE AND REFERENCE GRAMMAR, **core** identifies one of the two basic concepts used in analysing CLAUSE structure; opposed to **periphery**. The **core layer** contains the VERB NUCLEUS and associated ARGUMENTS.

co-referential (*adj.*) A term used in LINGUISTICS, and especially in GENERATIVE GRAMMAR, to refer to CONSTITUENTS in a SENTENCE that have the same REFERENCE. For example, in the sentence *I said I would leave*, the two SUBJECTS are co-referential; in *He said he would go* it is unclear whether **co-referentiality** applies, as the second *he* might refer to someone else. The distinction can be formulated using referentiality indices (CO-INDEXING), e.g. *She_i said she_i would go* (co-referential) *v.* *She_i said she_j would go* ('non co-referential').

co-representational grammar A LINGUISTIC theory developed in the 1970s as an alternative to TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR, which aims to relate SURFACE STRUCTURE directly to SEMANTIC structure. The approach proposes a single structure which **co-represents** both the SYNTACTIC and the semantic aspects of a SENTENCE's internal relations. The single LEVEL of surface syntactic structure contains only information about CLASS membership, LINEAR SEQUENCE and NOUN-PHASE HIERARCHY; the semantic structure contains only information about the relations between PREDICATES and their ARGUMENTS.

coronal (*adj.*) (**cor**, **COR**) 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). Coronal sounds are defined ARTICULATORILY, as those produced with the BLADE of the TONGUE raised from its neutral position. ALVEOLAR, DENTAL and PALATO-ALVEOLAR CONSONANTS are [+coronal] (abbreviated as [+COR]). Its opposite is NON-CORONAL, referring to sounds produced with the tongue blade in neutral position, as in LABIAL and VELAR consonants [-coronal] ([-COR]). The term has continued to be used in later phonological theory, especially in various NON-LINEAR models. For example, in ARTICULATOR-BASED FEATURE models, it refers to a single-valued NODE involving the tongue front as an active articulator. In CONSTRICTION-based models, it is defined as a constriction formed by the front of the tongue. **Coronalization** is a term used to express several kinds of relationship between coronal consonants and front VOWELS (see PALATALIZATION); for example, the process of VELAR consonants becoming coronal, or ANTERIOR consonants becoming coronal, before front vowels.

coronalization (*n.*) see CORONAL

corpus, plural **corpora** (*n.*) (1) A collection of LINGUISTIC DATA, either written texts or a TRANSCRIPTION of recorded speech, which can be used as a starting-point of linguistic description or as a means of verifying hypotheses about a LANGUAGE (**corpus linguistics**). Linguistic DESCRIPTIONS which are ‘corpus-restricted’ have been the subject of criticism, especially by GENERATIVE GRAMMARIANS, who point to the limitations of corpora (e.g. that they are samples of PERFORMANCE only, and that one still needs a means of PROJECTING beyond the corpus to the language as a whole). In fieldwork on a new language, or in HISTORICAL study, it may be very difficult to get beyond one’s corpus (i.e. it is a ‘closed’ as opposed to an ‘extendable’ corpus), but in languages where linguists have regular access to NATIVE-SPEAKERS (and may be native-speakers themselves) their approach will invariably be ‘corpus-based’, rather than corpus-restricted. Corpora provide the basis for one kind of COMPUTATIONAL LINGUISTICS. A **computer corpus** is a large body of machine-readable texts. Increasingly large corpora (especially of English) have been compiled since the 1980s, and are used both in the development of natural language processing software and in such applications as lexicography, speech recognition and machine translation.

(2) See LANGUAGE PLANNING.

correctness (*n.*) A term usually encountered in LINGUISTICS in the context of criticism of PRESCRIPTIVE attitudes to LANGUAGE. The judgements of TRADITIONAL grammarians that usages were either ‘right’ or ‘wrong’ (**correct** *v.* **incorrect**) has been replaced by a concern to describe the observable facts of linguistic usage, without reference to value judgements, and to replace absolute notions of correctness by an emphasis on the relative APPROPRIATENESS of language to social settings. Similarly, the question of evaluating GRAMMAR in terms of correctness (as in a decision PROCEDURE) has given way to a concern over the relative merits of competing grammars, bearing in mind their purpose (as in an evaluation procedure). See also ACCEPTABILITY.

correlation (*n.*) A term used in PRAGUE SCHOOL PHONOLOGY to refer to a systematic relationship between two SERIES of sounds. For example, the series of

voiceless and voiced FRICATIVES in English are related by a 'correlation' of VOICE; voice is thereby the 'mark of correlation'.

correlative (*adj.*) In GRAMMAR, referring to a construction which uses a pair of CONNECTING words. Constructions of this kind in English include *either . . . or . . .*, *not only . . . but also . . .* and *if . . . then . . .*

correspond (*v.*) see CORRESPONDENCE

correspondence (*n.*) (1) A term used in LINGUISTICS to refer to any similarity of FORM between WORDS or STRUCTURES in related LANGUAGES. For example, there is a stateable relationship between the sound structure of such words as *fish* and *piscis* (Latin); /f/ and /p/, for example, can be shown to be in systematic correspondence, because of the nature of the sound changes which took place in the history of English.

(2) A sub-theory within OPTIMALITY THEORY which focuses on the relationship between two forms. Correspondence CONSTRAINTS can obtain between any two REPRESENTATIONS, such as an INPUT and a CANDIDATE OUTPUT, or an input and a part of a candidate (such as a BASE or a FEATURE). Related forms are in correspondence when there is a MAPPING from one form to the other. Examples of correspondence constraints are: every feature or SEGMENT in the input has an identical correspondent in the output (MAXIMALITY) and segments should be in the same order in input and output representations (LINEARITY). See also ALIGNMENT, CONTIGUITY, DEPENDENCE, IDENTITY.

(3) The notion is often encountered in SEMANTIC discussion, deriving from the common philosophical view of truth, that a PROPOSITION is true only if it denotes an actual state of affairs which verifies it. The classical **correspondence theory** of MEANING argued that there is a direct relationship between a linguistic form and the entity it denotes, as shown, for example, by the existence of onomatopoeic words (such as *splash* and *murmur*). Because the vast majority of the words in a language demonstrate only the arbitrariness of the relationship between 'words' and 'things', however, this view is therefore often called the **correspondence fallacy**.

correspondence hypothesis A view which attracted considerable PSYCHOLINGUISTIC interest in the 1960s, especially with reference to language ACQUISITION studies; also known as the **derivational theory of complexity** (DTC). It states that the number or sequence of RULES used in the GRAMMATICAL DERIVATION of a SENTENCE corresponds to the amount of psychological processing that takes place in SPEECH PRODUCTION and SPEECH PERCEPTION. Evidence in its favour came from several experiments which showed that the time it took for speakers to process sentences with more COMPLEX derivations was longer than their less complex counterparts (e.g. PASSIVES as opposed to ACTIVES, NEGATIVES as opposed to AFFIRMATIVES). Further experimental evidence, in the late 1960s, was less convincing, however, and methodological problems were raised (e.g. how one separates out effects due to length and meaning, as well as TRANSFORMATIONAL history); there have also been radical theoretical changes in the notions of transformation involved. As a result, the correspondence hypothesis is no longer influential as a research PARADIGM.

cost (*n.*) A term used metaphorically in GENERATIVE PHONOLOGY in discussing the relative SIMPLICITY or NATURALNESS of phonological analyses. Increasing the complexity of an analysis (e.g. by adding FEATURES or RULES) is said to add to its cost, and vice versa. The principle involved here is a general one, sometimes discussed with reference to the notion of ‘diminishing returns’: as more CLASSES of LINGUISTIC UNIT are set up, each class comes to subsume fewer DATA, and, while this permits an increase in the ability of the GRAMMAR to handle exceptions, there is a consequential drop in generality. There is thus plenty of room for controversy over where the least costly cut-off point in an analysis would be, in trying to reconcile generality with depth of descriptive detail.

co-text (*n.*) A term used by some British LINGUISTS in an attempt to resolve the AMBIGUITY of the term CONTEXT, which can refer to both LINGUISTIC and SITUATIONAL ENVIRONMENTS. The practice is to reserve ‘co-text’ for the former, and ‘context’ for the latter.

count (*adj.*) see COUNTABLE

countable (*adj.*) A term used in the GRAMMATICAL classification of NOUNS; opposed to ‘uncountable’ or MASS. This **countability** distinction was often unrecognized in TRADITIONAL grammars, but it has been a focus of attention in LINGUISTIC analyses of the NOUN PHRASE, because of the way it can explain the DISTRIBUTION of nouns in relation to the use of such ITEMS as ARTICLES and QUANTIFIERS. **Countable** (**count** or ‘unit’) nouns are those denoting what the LANGUAGE treats as separable entities, by using them with such forms as *a, many, two, three*, etc.; **uncountable** or **non-count** nouns are treated as continuous entities, having no natural bounds, by being used with such forms as *much, some*. The contrast can be seen in *a boy v. *much boy*, and **an information v. much information*. Many nouns can be used in both contexts, e.g. *a cake/many cakes/much cake*.

counter-agent (*n.*) A term used in later CASE GRAMMAR to refer to the force or resistance against which an action is carried out.

counter-bleeding (*n.*) see BLEEDING

counter-example (*n.*) LINGUISTICS and PHONETICS use this term in its general sense, referring to the process of constructing or encountering a piece of DATA which falsifies a hypothesis, and thus leads to revision in an analysis. As in other sciences, there is frequent discussion of whether a suggested counter-example is real or apparent, i.e. able to be analysed in such a way that one’s hypothesis can be salvaged.

counter-factual (*adj./n.*) A term used in GRAMMAR and SEMANTICS to refer to a type of CONDITIONAL SENTENCE which refers to a totally hypothetical situation, such as *If she had taken the train, she would have arrived on time*. Counter-factual or ‘unreal’ statements (‘counterfactuals’) are usually contrasted with such ‘real’ conditional statements as *If she took the train, she will have arrived on time*. Both types of sentence can be discussed with reference to the notion of FACTIVITY.

counter-feeding (*n.*) see FEEDING

counter-intuitive (*adj.*) A term used to characterize an implausible analysis, according to the INTUITION of the NATIVE-SPEAKER or the LINGUIST. For example, an analysis which derives STATEMENTS from QUESTIONS is felt to be less natural than one which derives questions from statements, and these feelings can be to some degree supported experimentally (e.g. by showing differences in reaction times). Obtaining intuitive reactions from native-speakers in a systematic, verifiable way is not easy, however, and is not often done; and the dangers of circularity are evident, especially when native-speaker and linguist are the same person (as is usually the case in much of the work done in theoretical linguistics): it is very easy to allow one's intuitions as a native-speaker to be swayed by the purpose of one's analysis as a linguist. The problems inherent in the counter-intuitiveness criterion have been satirically summarized in one definition (by the British linguist Angus MacIntosh (b. 1914)): 'going against everything that suits my theory or purpose, and don't ask me to explain why!'

count noun see COUNTABLE

covered (*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). It is a tentative categorization, referring to sounds produced with a narrowed, tensed PHARYNX and raised LARYNX, as may occur in some West African languages on tensed VOWELS. Its opposite is **non-covered**, where there is no such narrowing and tensing of the pharynx.

covert (*adj.*) (1) A term used in LINGUISTIC analysis to refer to the relationships between linguistic FORMS which are not observable in the SURFACE STRUCTURE of a SENTENCE, but emerge only when sets of sentences are brought into relationship with each other; opposed to OVERT. Examples of covert relations include SUBSTITUTABILITY (as in the notion of WORD-CLASS) and TRANSFORMATIONAL equivalence. 'Covert WH-MOVEMENT' involves the movement of a phonologically NULL element, as occurs with *that*-RELATIVES or COMPARATIVES in GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY.

(2) In the MINIMALIST PROGRAMME, a term describing the subsystem (the **covert component**) which, following the operation of SPELL-OUT, continues the computation of a sentence to LOGICAL FORM; it contrasts in this model with the 'phonological component', which leads to a representation in phonetic form.

(3) A term used in SOCIOLINGUISTICS as part of the analysis of the way linguistic FORMS carry social prestige: in **covert prestige**, forms belonging to VERNACULAR DIALECTS are positively valued, emphasizing group solidarity and local identity. This kind of prestige is covert, because it is usually manifested subconsciously between members of a group, unlike the case of OVERT prestige, where the forms to be valued are publicly recommended by powerful social institutions.

CP An abbreviation in GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY for COMPLEMENTIZER PHRASE, the maximal PROJECTION of C (C"). CP is the largest unit of GRAMMATICAL

analysis (the initial symbol), equivalent to *S'* in earlier GB, and in LEXICAL FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR and GENERALIZED PHRASE-STRUCTURE GRAMMAR.

C-place (*n.*) see CONSTRICTION, PLACE.

cps see CYCLE (3)

cranberry morpheme In GRAMMAR, a term referring to a BOUND MORPHEME which has no clear MEANING or grammatical FUNCTION, but which none the less distinguishes one WORD from another. The classic example is the first element of *cranberry*, where *cran-* has no other function in English than to differentiate this word from *blackberry*, *blueberry*, etc. Sometimes several items present the same kind of difficulty for morphological theory, as in the group of words ending in *-ceive* (*receive*, *deceive*, etc.).

crash (*v.*) see CONVERGENCE

creak (*n.*) see CREAKY

creaky (*adj.*) A term used in the PHONETIC classification of VOICE QUALITY, on the basis of ARTICULATORY and AUDITORY PHONETIC criteria. It refers to a vocal effect produced by a very slow vibration of only one end of the VOCAL CORDS; also known as **vocal fry**. Some speakers do have an abnormally creaky voice quality, as a permanent feature of their speech. What is of particular significance for linguistic analysis is that creaky effects may be used with contrastive force, communicating a PARALINGUISTIC MEANING: in RECEIVED PRONUNCIATION, for example, it is often heard helping to express disparagement, when a phrase such as *Oh I don't know* is pronounced at a very low PITCH level. **Creaky voice**, or simply **creak**, is also sometimes encountered as a phonological characteristic, as in Hausa, where there is an opposition between creaky and non-creaky PLOSIVES. Creaky sounds are also called 'laryngealized'.

creativity (*n.*) An application in LINGUISTICS of the usual sense of this term to refer to the capacity of LANGUAGE users to produce and understand an indefinitely large number of SENTENCES, most of which they will not have heard or used before. Seen as a property of language, it refers to the 'open-endedness' or PRODUCTIVITY of patterns, whereby a finite set of sounds, STRUCTURES, etc., can be used to produce a potentially infinite number of sentences. In contrast with studies of animal communication, linguistic creativity is considered to be a species-specific property: the creation of new sentences is not a feature of animal communication systems. The notion of creativity has a long history in the discussion of language, but it has become a central feature of contemporary studies since the emphasis placed upon it by Noam Chomsky (see CHOMSKYAN). One of the main aims of linguistic enquiry, it is felt, is to explain this **creative** ability, for which such constructs as GENERATIVE RULES have been suggested. Care must, however, be taken to avoid confusing this sense of 'creative' with that found in artistic or literary contexts, where notions such as imagination and originality are central.

creole (*n.*) A term used in SOCIOLINGUISTICS to refer to a PIDGIN LANGUAGE which has become the mother-tongue of a SPEECH community, as is the case in Jamaica, Haiti, Dominica and several other ex-colonial parts of the world. The process of **creolization** expands the STRUCTURAL and STYLISTIC range of the pidginized language, such that the **creolized language** becomes comparable in FORMAL and FUNCTIONAL COMPLEXITY to other languages. A process of **decreolization** takes place when the STANDARD language begins to exert influence on the creole, and a POST-CREOLE CONTINUUM emerges. However, this process is not the reverse of creolization, and therefore some sociolinguists have suggested alternative terms for this stage, such as **metropolitanization**. When the development of a creole approaches that of the source language, **recreolization** may occur, with speakers introducing creole features into the standard variety (as has been observed, for example, in London Jamaican English). See also CREOLOID.

creolization (*n.*), **creolize** (*v.*) see CREOLE

creoloid (*n.*) A term used in SOCIOLINGUISTICS for a VARIETY of language which displays linguistic resemblances to a CREOLE (e.g. in simplification, or in the mixing of features from different source languages) while lacking a history of origin in a PIDGIN language. Creoloids may have a strong tradition of use by NATIVE-SPEAKERS (as in the case of Afrikaans) or be used entirely by people who have developed it as a second language (as with Singaporean English). The process which leads to their formation is **creoloidization**.

criteria, singular **criterion** (*n.*) In LINGUISTICS and PHONETICS this term is used with reference to the FORMAL justification of an analysis or description – why one carries out a linguistic analysis in a particular way. The criteria may result from general considerations of the purpose of one's analysis (e.g. whether pure or applied, theoretical or descriptive, SYNCHRONIC or DIACHRONIC), or may relate to the range of specific factors felt to be relevant to a restricted problem. For example, in the setting up of WORD-CLASSES, decisions must be made as to whether purely **linguistic criteria** will be used (e.g. PHONOLOGICAL, GRAMMATICAL, SEMANTIC), or whether reference will be made to **non-linguistic criteria** (e.g. logical, NOTIONAL, aesthetic). Linguistics has generally emphasized two principles: that criteria should always be made EXPLICIT, and should as far as possible be based on formal considerations, e.g. of grammar or phonology. The term is also used with reference to the levels of ADEQUACY ('criteria of adequacy') of a grammatical theory.

critical discourse analysis see CRITICAL LINGUISTICS

critical linguistics A developing branch of LINGUISTICS which aims to reveal hidden power relations and ideological processes at work in spoken or written texts. Critical linguists criticize mainstream linguistics for its FORMALIST preoccupations, lacking adequate social explanations, and obscuring ideological and political issues. The study includes such topics as the social context of texts, grammar production and language policy. The notion has also been extended to such areas as PRAGMATICS and SOCIOLINGUISTICS, and specifically to the study of DISCOURSE. **Critical discourse analysis** is a perspective which studies the

relationship between discourse events and sociopolitical and cultural factors, especially the way discourse is ideologically influenced by and can itself influence power relations in society.

critical period In child language ACQUISITION, the hypothesis that there is a particular time-span during which a first LANGUAGE can be most easily acquired. The notion of a critical period is well supported in several areas of child development (e.g. with reference to the development of the mechanism of swallowing), and was felt to be also relevant to the emergence of language. It was argued that the critical period for language ends at puberty, because by this time the brain has become specialized in its functions, and no longer has the adaptability found at earlier stages of biological development. The hypothesis has proved to be extremely difficult to test, and remains controversial.

crossover (*adj.*) A term used in GENERATIVE GRAMMAR, referring to a principle restricting the operation of certain TRANSFORMATIONS which move a NOUN PHRASE (as in PASSIVES, REFLEXIVES, TOUGH MOVEMENT). In an early formulation, the principle states that a transformation cannot apply to a PHRASE-MARKER if it would result in one noun phrase crossing another with which it is CO-REFERENTIAL. The **crossover constraint** or **principle** would be used, for example, to explain why passivization cannot apply to structures of the type *John washed himself*: given an UNDERLYING STRUCTURE *John_i washed John_i*, to derive a passive *John_i was washed by John_i* would involve a violation of this principle. In later formulations, more specific CONSTRAINTS on the application of this principle are introduced. In GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY, **weak crossover** refers to cases of crossover phenomena which involve the MOVEMENT of an R-EXPRESSION across a non-C-COMMANDING CO-INDEXED PRONOUN, as in **Who_i does his_i mother love t_i?* **Strong crossover** refers to cases which involve this movement across a c-commanding co-indexed pronoun, as in **[Whose_i mother]_j does he_i love t_j?* The latter case is eliminated through condition C of binding theory. A LEFTNESS PRINCIPLE excludes all cases of weak crossover, and allows a unified account of these phenomena at the level of LOGICAL FORM. See also BIJECTION PRINCIPLE.

cross-sectional (*adj.*) An application of the general use of this term in the field of child language ACQUISITION, referring to one of the two main procedures used in order to study the process of LANGUAGE development. In a cross-sectional study, the language of a group of children of the same or different ages is compared at a given point in time. This method contrasts with a LONGITUDINAL study, which follows the course of language acquisition in a single child or group over a period of time.

cryptophasia (*n.*) see IDIOGLOSSIA

C-slot (*n.*) see SLOT (2)

c-structure (*n.*) An abbreviation in LEXICAL-FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR for CONSTITUENT-structure. This is essentially the SURFACE STRUCTURE of a SENTENCE, and contrasts with F-STRUCTURE (or functional structure), which provides an analysis of the sentence in terms of grammatical FUNCTIONS such as SUBJECT and OBJECT.

cue (*n.*) see ACOUSTIC FEATURE.

culminativity (*n.*) In METRICAL GRID theory, a FOOT-shape PARAMETER which constrains every CONTENT word to contain one STRESSED SYLLABLE. This is a consequence of the nature of the PROSODIC HIERARCHY, and of the EXHAUSTIVITY condition, which requires every syllable to be included in metrical structure. More generally, any prosodic process which makes certain syllables more prominent is described as **culminative**.

cultural transmission A suggested defining property of human LANGUAGE (contrasting with the properties of many other SEMIOTIC systems), whereby the ability to speak a language is transmitted from generation to generation by a process of learning, and not genetically. This is not to deny that children may be born with certain INNATE predispositions towards language, but it is to emphasize the difference between human language, where environmental learning has such a large role to play, and animal systems of communication, where instinct is more important.

cumulative (*adj.*) (1) A term used in SEMANTICS to designate a reading peculiar to SENTENCES containing more than one PLURAL NOUN PHRASE, in which none of the plural noun phrases is interpreted as being in the scope of the others. For example, the **cumulative** reading of *Six hundred Dutch firms have five thousand American computers* is paraphrasable as 'The number of Dutch firms which have an American computer is 600, and the number of American computers possessed by a Dutch firm is 5000'.

(2) In SEMANTICS, a PREDICATE is said to have **cumulative reference** if, whenever it accurately applies to two individuals, it also applies to their sum. PLURAL and MASS NOUNS are generally cumulative. If X and Y are both accurately described as *water*, then the sum of X and Y can also be accurately described as *water*.

cupping (*n.*) A term sometimes used in PHONETICS for one of the transverse ARTICULATIONS which may be made by the TONGUE: specifically, it refers to the way the tongue body is able to adopt a concave, hollowed shape during an articulation, by allowing the mid-line of the tongue to drop lower than the sides. The effect is common in the formation of RETROFLEX consonants. A contrast can be drawn with GROOVING.

curly brackets see BRACKETING

CV, CVC, etc. (1) Abbreviations for CONSONANT and VOWEL sequences, used especially in describing the types of SYLLABLE which exist in a LANGUAGE; e.g. in English the statement of the PHONOTACTIC possibilities will include the information that it is possible to have CCCV- INITIALLY, as in *splice*, and -VCCCC FINALLY, as in *sixths*.

(2) CV is also a commonly used abbreviation for CARDINAL VOWEL.

CV phonology A term used in PHONOLOGY for a MODEL which adds a CONSONANT (C) and VOWEL (V) TIER to the SYLLABIC and SEGMENTAL tiers previously

recognized in AUTOSEGMENTAL PHONOLOGY. The addition of this tier removes the need for the feature [syllabic] at the SKELETAL TIER.

CV rule see ONSET (1)

CV-tier (*n.*) see SKELETAL TIER

cycle (*n.*) (1) A principle in TRANSFORMATIONAL GENERATIVE GRAMMAR that allows RULES to apply in a repeated ordered way to sections of a PHRASE-MARKER where a particular STRUCTURAL DESCRIPTION is met, instead of in a single scan to the phrase structure as a whole. This application of the rules is referred to as **cyclic** (or **cyclical**), and the whole process is known as the **transformational cycle** or **cyclic principle**. Its FORMALIZATION requires that the rules apply first to the UNDERLYING SENTENCE most deeply EMBEDDED in a phrase-marker (the first cycle), and then to the next highest sentence (the second cycle), until the MATRIX sentence is arrived at. On each application, at a given level, in this view, the rules may not take into account information higher up the phrase-marker. This principle allows for a less complicated analysis to be assigned to sentences with ‘repeated’ elements, such as *The man seems to want to try a second time*.

Various types of **cyclic rules** have been suggested, e.g. ‘last-cyclic’ rules, which apply only to the highest level in a DERIVATION. Cyclic TRANSFORMATIONS reduce in number in later versions of TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR – ultimately reducing to a single rule of (ALPHA) MOVEMENT – and are constrained by several CONDITIONS on their applicability (such as the SUBJACENCY condition, the SPECIFIED-SUBJECT CONDITION and the TENSED-subject condition). **Post-cyclic rules** are also recognized in the EXTENDED STANDARD THEORY, to refer to a type of transformation which applies after cyclic transformations have been completed, as might be suggested for handling INVERSION, the initial placement of QUESTION words in English (e.g. *Where did John say that he was going?*), or in TAG formation. A **successive cyclic** analysis is one where superficially unbounded movement processes are analysed as involving a succession of bounded processes, e.g. in *What did you say that you would do?*, where WH-movement would be applied in successive steps, crossing a single INFLECTION PHRASE boundary in each of its applications.

In generative PHONOLOGY, the cyclic principle was established by Chomsky and Halle (see CHOMSKYAN) to account for the variations in STRESS contrast in relation to VOWEL QUALITY within WORDS and SENTENCES. It is argued that the place of a word’s main stress, and the remaining stresses in a POLYSYLLABIC word, are explainable by referring to the SYNTACTIC and the SEGMENTAL phonological structure of an UTTERANCE. The SURFACE STRUCTURE of a sentence, in this view, is seen as a string of FORMATIVES which are bracketed together in various ways, the BRACKETS reflecting the grammatical structure ASSIGNED to the sentence, such as sentence, NOUN PHRASE, VERB PHRASE, e.g. [[the [elephant]] [[kick[ed]] [the [ball]]]]. The cyclic principle makes the phonological rules apply first to the maximal STRINGS that contain no brackets; once applied, the brackets surrounding these strings are then erased. The phonological rules then apply again to the maximal strings without brackets produced by this first procedure, and again the innermost brackets are erased. The procedure continues until all brackets have been removed. Various types of rule have been devised to make

this cyclical procedure work, such as the Compound Rule and the Nuclear Stress Rule, both of which are ways of assigning main degrees of stress to the various CONSTITUENTS of a sentence (the first in relation to compound items, the second to sequences of items in phrases). In later phonological theory, the **strict cycle condition (SCC)** is a constraint governing the proper application of cyclic rules: it states in essence that cyclic rules apply only to DERIVED representations. See also LEXICAL PHONOLOGY.

(2) In SEMANTICS, the term is sometimes used to refer to a type of SENSE relationship between LEXICAL ITEMS (a subtype of INCOMPATIBILITY). **Lexical cycles** (or **cyclical sets**) are sets of items organized in terms of successivity, but lacking any fixed end-points, e.g. days of the week, months of the year. 'Serial' ordering, by contrast, displays fixed end-points, as in military ranks.

(3) A term derived from the study of the physics of sound, and used in ACOUSTIC PHONETICS, referring to a single to-and-fro movement (oscillation) of an air particle in a waveform around its point of rest. FREQUENCY used to be measured in **cycles per second (cps)**, but this unit has now been replaced by the **Hertz (Hz)**.

cyclic (*adj.*) see CYCLE (1)