F

face (*n.*)   In PRAGMATICS and interactional SOCIOLINGUISTICS, a term used in the analysis of POLITENESS PHENOMENA. **Positive face** is the desire to show involvement with others; **negative face** is the desire not to offend others. These factors can be used to analyse the kind of rapport which exists in an INTERACTION: for example, a speaker may choose to phrase something differently in order not to offend. Face helps to account for different types of interactive STYLE – for example, associated with the expression of distance, deference or friendliness – whose proposed UNIVERSALITY is a topic of current research.

factitive (*adj./n.*)   A term used in GRAMMATICAL description to refer to a CONSTRUCTION or FORM (usually a VERB) denoting an action in which a cause produces a result: e.g. *make, kill, choose, elect* could be called 'factitive verbs' (or 'factitives'). In early CASE grammar, the term has special status, where it refers to the SEMANTIC case of the entity resulting from the verb's action, or understood as part of the verb's meaning, and is contrasted with AGENTIVE, DATIVE, etc. (compare the later use of RESULT, in this theory).

factive (*adj./n.*)   A term used in the CLASSIFICATION of VERBS, referring to a verb which takes a COMPLEMENT CLAUSE, and where the speaker PRESUPPOSES the truth of the PROPOSITION expressed in that clause. For example, *know, agree, realize*, etc. are 'factive verbs' (or 'factives'): in *she knows that the cat is in the garden*, the speaker presupposes that the cat is in the garden. 'Factive predicators' may involve other CLASSES than verbs: ADJECTIVE and NOUN CONSTRUCTIONS, for example, may display **factivity**, as in *it's surprising that he left, it's a shame that he left*. By contrast, **non-factive** constructions do not commit the speaker to the truth of the proposition expressed in the complement clause, e.g. *believe, think*, as in *she thinks that the cat is in the garden*. **Contrafactive** constructions presuppose the falsity of the proposition expressed in the complement clause, e.g. *wish, pretend*, as in *I pretended the cat was in the garden*.

factorial typology   In OPTIMALITY THEORY, the hypothetical TYPOLOGY produced by all possible permutations of CONSTRAINT RANKINGS. For any set of freely rankable constraints, the theory predicts the possibility of languages exhibiting each possible ranking.

faculty of language   see LANGUAGE

fading juncture   see JUNCTURE (1)

FAITH   An abbreviatory convention in OPTIMALITY THEORY for a type of FAITH-FULNESS CONSTRAINT. Examples (with their associated features) include FAITHC, FAITH [HIGH], FAITH [PLACE], and FAITH [VOICE].

faithfulness (*n.*) (**FAITH**)   In OPTIMALITY THEORY, the degree to which one form (typically the OUTPUT) preserves the properties of another form (typically the INPUT). Faithfulness CONSTRAINTS require that the output and input are identical. A set of abbreviatory conventions indicate the type of constraint, such as FAITHC (faithfulness of CONSONANTS between output and input) and FAITHV (faithfulness of VOWELS).

fall (*n./v.*)   see FALLING

falling (*adj.*) (1)   A term used in classifying the linguistic uses of PITCH, referring to a movement from relatively high to relatively low. **Falling tones** (or **falls**) of various kinds (e.g. 'high/low falling', 'falling-rising') may be encountered in the study of INTONATION systems and of TONE LANGUAGES.
(2)   A term used in a two-way classification of DIPHTHONGS (opposed to RISING), referring to cases where the first ELEMENT of the diphthong receives the maximum PROMINENCE. An example is the diphthong in the English word *lie* [laɪ], where the [a] element is more prominent than the [ɪ].
(3)   See JUNCTURE (1).

false cognates   see FALSE FRIENDS

false friends   In COMPARATIVE LINGUISTICS, a term describing words in different languages which resemble each other in FORM, but which express different MEANINGS; also called **false cognates**, and often known by the French equivalent expression **faux amis** /fɔːzaˈmiː/. Examples include French *demander*, which translates into English as 'to request' not 'to demand', and Italian *caldo* which translates as 'warm' not 'cold'.

family (*n.*)   A term used in HISTORICAL LINGUISTIC studies to characterize a GENETIC MODEL of the relationships between LANGUAGES. A 'family' of languages is the set of languages deriving from a common ancestor, or 'parent', e.g. the Indo-European (IE) family consists of the 'daughter' languages Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, etc., which all developed out of Proto-Indo-European (PIE). Groupings within a family may be referred to as **sub-families** (e.g. the Romance sub-family within the Italic family). The **family tree** is a representation of these relationships devised by COMPARATIVE PHILOLOGISTS in the nineteenth century. As COMPARATIVE studies grew to include larger numbers of potentially related languages, the term 'family' came to be used with increasing generality, often applied to cases where a genetic relationship was impossible to demonstrate. Usage varies greatly, but there is now a trend to avoid this term for language groups with only a remote degree of relationship, or where a clear ancestor language is unknown.

Phylum (plural **phyla**) has come to be widely used in such cases – with **macro-phylum** available for still less definite groupings. For example, many scholars therefore now talk of the 'Australian phylum' (of Aboriginal languages), though in popular usage 'family' will still be heard. Proposed clusters of languages within phyla are variously called 'groups', 'sub-groups', or 'branches', with no fixed usage. 'Stock' is also found as an alternative to 'family'.

fatherese (*n.*)   see MOTHERESE

faux amis /foːzaˈmiː/   see FALSE FRIENDS

favourite (*adj.*)   A term used by some LINGUISTS in the CLASSIFICATION of SEN-TENCE types to refer to the most PRODUCTIVE sentence pattern in a LANGUAGE. In English, the SUBJECT + PREDICATE (NP+VP) pattern is the favourite (or MAJOR) type, other types being referred to as **non-favourite** (or MINOR).

feature (*n.*)   A term used in LINGUISTICS and PHONETICS to refer to any typical or noticeable property of spoken or written LANGUAGE. Features are classified in terms of the various LEVELS of linguistic analysis, e.g. 'PHONETIC/PHONOLOGICAL/GRAMMATICAL/SYNTACTIC features' or in terms of dimensions of DESCRIPTION, e.g. 'ACOUSTIC/ARTICULATORY/AUDITORY features'. At the most general level, features may be classified as linguistic (or 'intralinguistic') as opposed to 'non-linguistic' (EXTRALINGUISTIC or METALINGUISTIC). At the most specific level, certain types of feature may be set up as the minimal UNITS of a theory, as in **distinctive feature** theories of phonology. The term is sometimes abbreviated as **F**, as in some models of NON-LINEAR PHONOLOGY.

In GENERATIVE grammatical analysis, the term has come to be associated with the way in which words are classified in the LEXICON in terms of their grammatical properties, such as [animate], [common], [masculine], [countable]. Such features are usually considered to be BINARY, as were phonological features, and analysed as [+animate], [–animate], etc. SEMANTIC features, likewise, can be handled in binary terms, as in the analysis of *spinster* as [+human], [+adult], [+never married] and [+female] (or perhaps, [–male]). Non-binary ('unary' and 'multi-valued') features are also recognized. Features are sometimes referred to as COMPONENTS, especially in semantic analysis. In later grammatical theories, especially in PHRASE-STRUCTURE grammars, grammatical CATEGORIES are defined in terms of **feature specifications** – ordered pairs containing a feature and a feature VALUE – which RULES can access. As part of its method, this approach requires a statement of **feature-co-occurrence restrictions** (**FCRs**) and **feature-specification defaults**. Later semantic theory has also developed the notion of feature in several directions, notably in the use of **feature structures** which represent TYPES of lexical information organized HIERARCHICALLY. Features (e.g. 'cause', 'change', 'force' as part of the REPRESENTATION of *push*) are here seen as MODAL OPER-ATORS that label arcs between the NODES in a LATTICE framework. See also CONTEXT, DIACRITIC, DISTINCTIVE FEATURE, SYNTAX.

feature geometry   In NON-LINEAR PHONOLOGY, a model of the ways in which FEATURES are organized in phonological representations. Approaches to feature geometry look especially at the non-linear relationship between features, and at

the way they can be grouped into a HIERARCHICAL array of functional CLASSES. Feature values are arrayed on separate TIERS (levels, planes, layers . . .), where they may enter into non-linear relations with each other. At the same time, features are organized into hierarchical arrays, in which each CONSTITUENT functions as a single unit in phonological rules. Several models of feature theory have been proposed, such as ARTICULATOR-BASED FEATURE THEORY, CONSTRICTION theory and UNDERSPECIFICATION.

feature percolation   see PERCOLATION

feedback (*n.*)   An extension of the technical use of this term in COMMUNICATION theory, referring to the process whereby the sender of a message obtains a reaction from the receiver which enables a check to be made on the efficiency of the communication. More specifically, some LINGUISTS have suggested it as a defining property of human LANGUAGE (contrasting with the properties of other SEMIOTIC SYSTEMS), whereby speakers are able to monitor their own PERFORMANCE (both by self-observation, and by observing the response-signals of others). The term **complete feedback** is usually used for this property, when it is seen as a 'design feature' of language. In PHONETICS, speakers' awareness of their own production of sound is also referred to as feedback; this may be AUDITORY (via the ear), kinaesthetic (via the internal sensation of ARTICULATORY movement) or vibratory (via bone conduction). **Delayed auditory feedback** (**DAF**) takes place when a delay is artificially introduced into the transmission of speech between mouth and ear, so that the signal reaches the ear somewhat later than is normally the case. Certain periods of delay cause marked alteration in one's ability to speak with normal fluency; conversely, the speech of stammerers can sometimes be improved by using this technique.

feeding (*n.*)   A term used in GENERATIVE LINGUISTIC analysis of RULE-ordering and originally introduced in the context of DIACHRONIC PHONOLOGY, to refer to a type of FUNCTIONAL relationship between rules; opposed to BLEEDING. A feeding relationship is one where the application of one rule (A) creates a STRUCTURAL REPRESENTATION to which another rule (B) is applicable, and thus increases (**feeds**) the number of forms which can be generated. If rule B is $X \rightarrow Y$, then rule A must be of the form $W \rightarrow X$. In these circumstances, rule A is called a **feeding rule** in relation to B, and the LINEAR ORDER of these rules is called a **feeding order**. If the rules are applied in the reverse order, A is said to **counter-feed** B. Counter-feeding results in a non-affecting interaction in which a rule fails to realize its potential to increase the number of forms to which another rule applies.

feet (*n.*)   see FOOT

felicity conditions   A term used in the theory of SPEECH ACTS to refer to the criteria which must be satisfied if the speech act is to achieve its purpose. Several kinds of felicity conditions have been suggested. 'Preparatory conditions' relate to whether the person performing a speech act has the authority to do so (e.g. not everyone is qualified to fine, christen, arrest, etc.). 'Sincerity conditions' relate to whether the speech act is performed sincerely (e.g. the speaker is not lying).

'Essential conditions' relate to the way the speaker is committed to a certain kind of belief or behaviour, having performed a speech act (e.g. accepting an object that one has just requested). For example, felicity conditions which have been suggested for the analysis of indirect requests include the speaker's believing that the hearer has the ability to carry out the request, and the existence of good reasons for making the request in the first place. An UTTERANCE which does not satisfy these conditions cannot function as a valid instance of the type of speech act to which they apply, e.g. *will you drive?* is inappropriate as a request if the speaker knows that the hearer has not learned to drive, and the mutual awareness of this inappropriateness would lead to an interpretation of a different order (e.g. as a joke, as sarcasm, etc.). Such utterances are said to be **infelicitous.**

feminine (*adj.*)   see GENDER

field (*n.*) (1)   A term used in SEMANTICS to refer to the vocabulary of a LANGUAGE viewed as a SYSTEM of interrelated LEXICAL networks, and not as an inventory of independent ITEMS. The theory of **semantic fields** (**field theory**) was developed in Europe in the 1930s (especially by Jost Trier (1894–1970), and later Johann Leo Weisgerber (1899–1985)). Conceptual fields (e.g. colour, kinship) are isolated, and the lexical items used to refer to the various features of these fields are analysed in terms of a network of SENSE relations. This network constitutes the lexical STRUCTURE of the semantic (or 'lexical') field. Several interpretations of this notion can be found in the semantics literature of the period.
(2)   In HALLIDAYAN linguistics, **field of discourse** (or simply, **field**) refers to a classification of REGISTERS in terms of subject-matter, e.g. the 'fields' of chemistry, religion, advertising.
(3)   The usual sense of the term **fieldwork** (or **field study**) is also used in LINGUISTICS referring to the principles and procedures of obtaining linguistic DATA from INFORMANTS, especially in their home environment.
(4)   In TAGMEMICS, **field** refers to the analysis of linguistic UNITS in terms of their DISTRIBUTION – as distinct from their status as PARTICLES (physically DISCRETE items) or WAVES (their VARIANT forms).

file change semantics   A theory within MODEL-THEORETIC SEMANTICS in which SENTENCES are analysed as instructions for revising speaker 'files' of information. It has devoted special attention to the study of DEFINITENESS, INDEFINITENESS and ANAPHORA, and provided an early example of a DYNAMIC semantic theory. It is similar in many respects to DISCOURSE REPRESENTATION THEORY.

filled pause   A term used by some LINGUISTS to refer to a non-silent PAUSE, i.e. a hesitation which has been 'filled' by *er, erm* or some such VOCALIZATION.

filler (*n.*)   A term used in some MODELS of LINGUISTIC analysis, especially TAGMEMICS, to refer to a FORM which can be used at a given place, or SLOT, in a STRUCTURE.

filter (*n./v.*) (1)   A process first recognized in the STANDARD THEORY of GENERATIVE GRAMMAR (see ASPECTS MODEL), whereby in a DERIVATION only certain BASE PHRASE-MARKERS are transformed into SURFACE STRUCTURES, others being 'filtered

out' by the application of various CONSTRAINTS (specified, for example, by the non-lexical TRANSFORMATIONS). It assumes a more central role in GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY, where it refers to a type of CONDITION which prevents the generation of unGRAMMATICAL SENTENCES. Filters state simply that any structure of type X is ILL FORMED. They are also known as 'OUTPUT constraints' or 'surface-structure constraints'. For example, a 'FOR–FOR filter' has been proposed, which states that any surface structure containing the sequence *for–for* is ungrammatical; this thereby excludes the generation of sentences in which VERBS like *hope for* are used along with their *for* +INFINITIVE COMPLEMENTS (cf. *What she is hoping for is for John to win*), as in the ungrammatical *She is hoping for for John to win*.

It is important to distinguish 'filters' from 'constraints': the former apply solely to the structure which is the output of a given set of RULES; the latter apply to two successive stages within a derivation. Filters are claimed to be more general, more UNIVERSAL and more constraining on theory construction than the constraints which restrict the application of specific rules: a filter BLOCKS the generation of a sentence (S), regardless of the set of rules which have applied in generating that sentence, whereas a constraint blocks the application of a *specific* set of rules to produce S (thus allowing the possibility that S might none the less be generated by the application of other sets of rules). See also CASE (2).
(2)   See SOURCE (2).

filtered speech   In PHONETICS, speech which has been passed through filters (devices which only allow signals of certain FREQUENCIES to pass) to alter its acoustic characteristics. The distorted speech produced is often used in research into SPEECH perception – for example, determining the extent to which words can still be recognized after certain frequencies have been removed.

final (*adj.*)   The usual way of referring to the last ELEMENT in a LINGUISTIC UNIT, especially in PHONOLOGY; sometimes abbreviated as F in such contexts as **FV** (= 'final vowel'). For example, the PHONEME /t/ occurs 'in final position' (or 'finally') in the WORD *cat*; the MORPHEME of plurality occurs in final position in English words. Other positions are referred to as INITIAL and MEDIAL.

finite (*adj.*)   A term used in the GRAMMATICAL classification of types of VERBS and CLAUSES. A finite verb (PHRASE) is a form that can occur on its own in an independent SENTENCE (or MAIN clause); it permits FORMAL CONTRASTS in TENSE and MOOD. **Non-finite** forms of the verb, on the other hand, occur on their own only in DEPENDENT clauses, and lack tense and mood contrasts. All forms except the INFINITIVES and PARTICIPLES (*-ing* and *-en* forms) are finite, e.g. *is walking, have walked, walks*. Clauses which contain a finite verb are **finite clauses** (these in English always contain a SUBJECT, except in the case of COMMANDS); otherwise, they are non-finite clauses (e.g. *walking down the street, to kick the ball*).

finite automata   see AUTOMATON

finite-state grammar (**FSG**)   A type of GRAMMAR discussed by Noam Chomsky in his book *Syntactic Structures* (1957) as an illustration of a simple GENERATIVE DEVICE. Finite-state grammars generate by working through a SENTENCE 'from

left to right'; an INITIAL ELEMENT is selected, and thereafter the possibilities of occurrence of all other elements are wholly determined by the nature of the elements preceding them. For example, in the sentence *The cat saw the dog*, the grammar would start by specifying the first WORD (i.e. selecting one of the set of possible first words for a sentence in English), would proceed from this 'initial state' to specify the next word (i.e. one of the set of words which can follow *the*), and continue this process until the 'final state' of the sentence has been arrived at. Chomsky shows how this extremely simple kind of grammar is incapable of accounting for many important processes of sentence formation, as in DISCONTINUOUS CONSTRUCTIONS, e.g. *The boys who saw John are going*, where the grammatical relationship of *boys* to *are* cannot be handled in a finite-state grammar. Alternative grammars are discussed by Chomsky which improve on this MODEL in several respects (see PHRASE-STRUCTURE and TRANSFORMATIONAL grammars). Finite-state grammars, also called 'one-sided linear grammars', 'regular grammars' and 'Type-3 grammars' (see CHOMSKY HIERARCHY), generate **finite-state languages** (**FSLs**).

first language   see LANGUAGE

first person   see PERSON

Firthian (*adj.*)   Characteristic of, or a follower of, the LINGUISTIC principles of J(ames) R(upert) Firth (1890–1960), Professor of General Linguistics in the University of London (1944–56), and the formative influence on the development of linguistics in Great Britain (the 'London School' of linguistics). A central notion is POLYSYSTEMICISM, an approach to linguistic analysis based on the view that LANGUAGE patterns cannot be accounted for in terms of a single system of analytic principles and categories (**monosystemic linguistics**), but that different SYSTEMS may need to be set up at different places within a given LEVEL of DESCRIPTION. Other central Firthian notions include his CONTEXTUAL theory of MEANING, with its strong emphasis on the social CONTEXT OF SITUATION; PROSODIC (as opposed to PHONEMIC) PHONOLOGY and COLLOCATION. Relatively little of Firth's teaching was published, but many of his ideas have been developed by a **neo-Firthian** group of scholars, whose main theoretician is M. A. K. Halliday, Professor of General Linguistics in the University of London from 1965 to 1970 (see HALLIDAYAN).

fis phenomenon   A commonly used name for a behaviour recognized in language ACQUISITION, in which children refuse to accept an adult's IMITATION of their own mispronunciation. The name derives from the first report of this behaviour in the early 1960s, since when several other such names have been used (e.g. the 'wabbit' phenomenon). An investigator referred to a child's toy fish as his /fɪs/, imitating the child's form; the child refused to accept the adult's pronunciation of /fɪs/, despite the fact that his own version was identical. Such phenomena are interpreted as evidence for a more well-developed PERCEPTUAL than PRODUCTIVE LINGUISTIC ability in the young child, some investigators concluding that it is in fact the adult PHONOLOGICAL form which is stored in the child's brain.

fission (*n.*)   A term sometimes used in PHONOLOGY and MORPHOLOGY to refer to a process in which one linguistic unit is split into two. In some recent models of phonology, for example, it is one of two formal processes used to represent the relationship between MONOPHTHONGS and DIPHTHONGS. In particular, in PARTICLE PHONOLOGY, it refers to the process which splits one ROOT NODE into two, thus providing a mechanism for handling diphthongization and other types of 'breaking' phenomena. In DISTRIBUTED MORPHOLOGY, fission handles certain cases of double EXPONENCE.

fixed (*adj.*) (1)   A term used in LINGUISTICS and PHONETICS to refer to an un-changing aspect of the STRUCTURE of a linguistic UNIT; opposed to FREE. It occurs in such phrases as 'fixed STRESS' (i.e. the stress always falling on a particular SYLLABLE in a WORD, e.g. the penultimate syllable in Welsh), and 'fixed word ORDER' (i.e. languages with word-order patterns that cannot be altered without a change of MEANING, e.g. English). See also FORMULAIC LANGUAGE.
(2)   See LATENT CONSONANT

flap (*n.*)   A term used in the PHONETIC classification of CONSONANT sounds on the basis of their MANNER OF ARTICULATION; it refers to any sound produced by a single rapid contact between two organs of articulation (excluding VOCAL CORD vibration). The usual occurrence of this is in the production of types of *r* sound, as when in English *very* the *r* is produced by the TIP of the TONGUE in a **flapped** articulation against the ALVEOLAR ridge (transcribed [ɾ]). The main PHONETIC contrast is between this sound and the TRILL, where several vibrations are involved. Some phoneticians distinguish systematically between flaps and TAPS, on the grounds that in the case of flaps the articulator which makes the contact is returning to a position of rest, whereas in the case of taps this is not so, and the contact resembles a very rapid STOP articulation. Such a distinction has been cited for Hausa and Tamil, but it is not common.

flat (*adj.*) (1)   A term used in LINGUISTICS to refer to a structure which has no HIERARCHICAL constituency. For example, in GRAMMATICAL theory, SEN-TENCES have a flat structure if they lack the NP–VP configuration. NON-CONFIGURATIONAL LANGUAGES with free WORD-ORDER are analysed as having a flat structure. In PHONOLOGY, a flat analysis of the word *cat* would be *c+a+t*, ignoring possible intermediate notions such as ONSET, RHYME, etc.
(2)   One of the features of sound set up by Jakobson and Halle (see JAKOBSONIAN) in their DISTINCTIVE FEATURE theory of PHONOLOGY, to handle lip-ROUNDING, the opposite being PLAIN. Flat sounds are defined ARTICULATORILY and ACOUSTIC-ALLY, as those involving a relatively narrow mouth opening with accompanying velarization (see VELAR), and a weakening of the high-frequency components of the sound spectrum. Lip-ROUNDED sounds all have the feature [+flat], as would RETROFLEX, velarized and pharyngealized (see PHARYNX) sounds; unrounded sounds are [–flat], as are all sounds lacking these SECONDARY ARTICULATIONS.
(3)   See SLIT.

flexion (*n.*)   see INFLECTION

floating (*adj.*) (1)   In GENERATIVE LINGUISTICS, a term referring to an element which has no fixed association with a place in a DERIVATION. In particular,

flotation is used in some models of NON-LINEAR PHONOLOGY with reference to a unit which is not ASSOCIATED to some higher level of PROSODIC structure (i.e. it is not prosodically LICENSED). For example, LATENT CONSONANTS (e.g. French LIAISON) have no SKELETAL slot, and are therefore floating, whereas fixed consonants are ANCHORED. A **floating tone** is one which has been separated from a SYLLABLE following the application of a phonological RULE, and now has no association with any particular TONE-bearing unit in the representation. The term 'docking' is sometimes used to refer to the process whereby a floating unit is re-attached to a REPRESENTATION: for example, a floating tone would 'dock' with a syllable if it were assigned to a VOWEL already carrying a tone or to a toneless vowel. In AUTOSEGMENTAL PHONOLOGY, the term **floating trace** is used with two applications: to a MORPHEME whose UNDERLYING representation is composed of SEGMENTS only on a tonal TIER; and to a segment which, at a given point in a DERIVATION, is not ASSOCIATED with any vowel (as a consequence of a vowel becoming DELETED).

(2)   The term is also used in GENERATIVE SYNTAX for an element which is able to move from one position to another in a SENTENCE STRUCTURE. The best-known examples are '**floating** QUANTIFIERS' like *all* and *both*, as in *Both the cars have been painted/The cars have both been painted*.

flotation (*n.*)   see FLOATING

focal area   see AREA

focus (*n.*) (**foc**)   A term used by some LINGUISTS in a two-part analysis of SENTENCES which distinguishes between the INFORMATION assumed by speakers, and that which is at the centre (or 'focus') of their communicative interest; 'focus' in this sense is opposed to PRESUPPOSITION. (The CONTRAST between GIVEN and NEW information makes an analogous distinction.) For example, in the sentence *It was Mary who came to tea*, *Mary* is the focus (as the INTONATION contour helps to signal). Taking such factors into account is an important aspect of inter-sentence relationships: it would not be possible to have the above sentence as the answer to the question *What did Mary do?*, but only to *Who came to tea?*

folk bilingualism   see BILINGUAL

folk etymology   see ETYMOLOGY

foot (*n.*) (1) (**Ft**)   A term used by some PHONETICIANS and PHONOLOGISTS to describe the UNIT of RHYTHM in LANGUAGES displaying ISOCHRONY, i.e. where the STRESSED SYLLABLES fall at approximately regular intervals throughout an UTTERANCE. It is an extension of the term used in traditional studies of metrical verse structure, where the many regular patterns of stressed/unstressed syllable sequence were given a detailed classification (e.g. 'iambic' for an unstressed+ stressed ($\breve{}$/) pattern: 'trochaic' for a stressed+unstressed (/$\breve{}$) pattern; 'spondaic' for a pattern of two stresses; 'dactylic' for /$\breve{}$; 'anapaestic' for $\breve{}$/). In a more general phonological sense, the notion is applied to any utterance in a STRESS-TIMED language, not just verse. The rhythm of an utterance, in this approach, is

analysed first in terms of INTONATION units, and these are analysed into feet, e.g. /the 'man is 'walking in the gàrden/ is a single TONE UNIT consisting of three feet. The term has particular relevance in several models of NON-LINEAR PHONOLOGY, such as METRICAL PHONOLOGY, where it refers to an underlying unit of metrical structure (or **stress-foot**), consisting of syllable RHYMES, and organized into CON-STITUENTS that make up phonological WORDS. Feet are classified as 'left-headed' (the leftmost rhyme is stressed) or 'right-headed' (the rightmost rhyme is stressed). Feet no longer than two syllables in length are **bounded feet**; a foot containing only one syllable is called a **degenerate foot**; the DELETION of a foot from a REPRESENTATION is sometimes called **defooting**. In later metrical theory, **foot dominance** is a foot-shape PARAMETER which determines the side of the foot where the head is located: in left-DOMINANT feet, all left nodes are dominant and right nodes RECESSIVE; in right-dominant feet, the reverse situation obtains. In PROSODIC MORPHOLOGY, the foot is a member of the prosodic HIERARCHY of MORA, syllable, foot and (prosodic) word. Syllables are said to be **footed** if they can be assigned a foot structure; **unfooted** otherwise. In OPTIMALITY THEORY, the term ****footless** is used to refer to a CONSTRAINT which requires that all SYLLABLES be footed (the asterisk indicating that the effect is *not* acceptable).

(2)   In the phrase **foot-feature principle**, the term is used in GENERALIZED PHRASE-STRUCTURE GRAMMAR: it refers to a principle governing the DISTRIBUTION of FEATURES which express information that CONSTITUENTS are missing or have to be bound to some constituent (see BINDING).

(3)   See CHAIN (2).

FOOTBIN (*n.*)   In OPTIMALITY THEORY, an abbreviation for a MARKEDNESS CONSTRAINT requiring each FOOT to contain either two MORAE or two SYLLABLES; usually represented as FOOTBIN.

footless (*adj.*)   see FOOT (1)

foregrounding (*n.*)   A term used in STYLISTICS (especially POETICS) and some-times in PRAGMATICS and DISCOURSE analysis, to refer to relative prominence in discourse, often involving deviance from a linguistic NORM; the analogy is of a figure seen against a background (and the rest of the text is often referred to as **backgrounding**). The deviant or prominent feature is said to have been **fore-grounded**. For example, the use of rhyme, alliteration and metrical regularity are examples of foregrounding operating at the level of PHONOLOGY.

foreign language   see LANGUAGE

forensic linguistics   In LINGUISTICS, the use of linguistic techniques to investig-ate crimes in which language data forms part of the evidence, such as in the use of GRAMMATICAL or LEXICAL criteria to authenticate police statements. The field of **forensic phonetics** is often distinguished as a separate domain, dealing with such matters as speaker identification, voice line-ups, speaker profiling, tape enhancement, tape authentication and the decoding of disputed utterances.

form (*n.*)   One of the most widely used terms in LINGUISTICS, with a corres-pondingly wide range of meanings. Its main areas of application are:

(1) **form** *v.* **meaning/function**. In its most general sense, it refers to the abstract PHONOLOGICAL and/or GRAMMATICAL characterization of LANGUAGE, as opposed to its MEANING, as in such phrases as 'linguistic form', 'grammatical form', 'one form–one meaning (OFOM)'. More specifically, it refers to the phonological/grammatical/LEXICAL characteristics of linguistic UNITS, such as SENTENCES, MORPHEMES, LEXEMES, NOUNS, etc., these being referred to as **linguistic forms**. The term here is often contrasted with FUNCTION: one can study a unit such as the noun PHRASE from both formal and functional points of view (e.g. its internal syntactic structure *v.* its role as SUBJECT, OBJECT, etc., in a clause). More specifically still, it refers to a particular instance of a grammatical CATEGORY, as in such phrases as 'the analysis of the forms *be, seem, have . . .*' A set of forms displaying similar or identical grammatical FEATURES is said to constitute a **form-class**, e.g. *walk, come, see* are part of the form-CLASS of VERBS because they have similar MORPHOLOGICAL characteristics and SYNTACTIC DISTRIBUTION. Phonological/grammatical criteria which identify units and classes are known as **formal criteria**. 'Formal' here is also contrasted with the 'notional' approach of TRADITIONAL grammar, where attempts were made to characterize linguistic units in terms of UNIVERSAL notions, as in the definition of a sentence as 'the expression of a complete thought'.
(2) **form** *v.* **substance**. Here, the term refers to the overall linguistic organization, or STRUCTURE, of speech or writing, as opposed to the physical REALIZATION of language in PHONIC or GRAPHIC SUBSTANCE. In this sense, SEMANTIC structure is included, along with grammar and phonology/GRAPHOLOGY, being part of the abstract language system.
(3) **form** *v.* **substance** and **meaning**. HALLIDAYAN linguistic theory models language in terms of three interdependent LEVELS: the level of 'form' (comprising the grammatical and lexical organization of language) is distinguished from the levels of SUBSTANCE and CONTEXT.
(4) **forms** (of a unit). The variant realizations of a linguistic unit are referred to as 'forms' of the unit, i.e. the members of a set of PARADIGMATIC alternatives. For example, the forms of the verb *walk* are *walk, walking, walks*, etc.
(5) The critical characteristics of a linguistic theory, especially as stated in the FORMALIZED terms of logic or mathematics, are referred to as the **form** of that theory. In GENERATIVE grammar, the formal characteristics of linguistic theory have received special attention, especially in the notion of 'formal UNIVERSALS'. **Formal semantics** refers to analysis (in terms of truth conditions, etc.) of a logical system, such as PROPOSITIONAL calculus – an approach which has come to be applied to the study of natural languages (see MONTAGUE GRAMMAR).

formal (*adj.*)   see FORM (1), (5), FORMALITY

formal grammar   see FORM (1), (5), GRAMMAR (2)

formalism (*n.*)   see FORMALIZE

formalist (*adj./n.*)   A term applied in STYLISTICS to any approach which regards a TEXT as a FORMAL object of study, with an internal STRUCTURE that can be objectively and formally identified. Such approaches have been primarily associated with East European STRUCTURAL linguists.

formality (*n.*)   In STYLISTIC and SOCIOLINGUISTIC studies, a dimension of social behaviour ranging from the most strictly regulated to the least regulated, and reflected in language by varied linguistic features. Highly **formal** language involves carefully organized DISCOURSE, often with complex SYNTAX and vocabulary, which closely follows the STANDARD language, and which is often sensitive to PRESCRIPT-IVE judgements. Highly **informal** language is very loosely structured, involving a high level of colloquial expression, and often departing from standard norms (such as by using slang, regionalisms, neologisms and CODE mixing).

formalize (*v.*)   A characteristic of formulations in LINGUISTICS – and especially a primary goal of GENERATIVE analyses – whereby the RULES, PRINCIPLES, CONDI-TIONS, etc. governing an analysis are capable of being specified in a precise and rigorous way. Ultimately it ought to be possible, in any **formalization**, for a linguistic analysis to be interpreted in logical or mathematical terms, and a calculus developed (see FORM (5)). A 'formalized' account of an area of LANGUAGE, in this sense, is opposed to an 'informal' one. A specific feature, or set of features, used as part of the process of formalization, is known as a **formalism**.

formal semantics   see SEMANTICS

formal universal   see UNIVERSAL

formant (*n.*) (**F**)   A term in ACOUSTIC PHONETICS of particular value in the classification of VOWELS and vowel-like sounds, and of TRANSITIONAL features between vowels and adjacent sounds. A formant is a concentration of acoustic energy, reflecting the way air from the lungs vibrates in the VOCAL TRACT, as it changes its shape. For any vowel, the air vibrates at many different frequencies all at once, and the most dominant frequencies combine to produce the distinct-ive vowel QUALITIES. Each dominant band of frequencies constitutes a formant, which shows up clearly in a record produced by a sound SPECTROGRAPH as a thick black line. Three main formants provide the basis of vowel description: the **first formant** (**F1**) is the lowest, and the **second** and **third formants** (**F2, F3**) are respectively higher. Other formants are less significant for linguistic analysis. The formants can be related to the ARTICULATORY DESCRIPTIONS of vowels, as repres-ented, say, by the CARDINAL VOWEL diagram. The first formant, for example, decreases in its frequency as one moves from low to high (e.g. *sat → set → seat*). In the case of CONSONANTS, similar correlations can be established: for example, in the transition from VELAR consonants, the second and third formants come very close together. See also ANTIFORMANTS.

formation rule   A term from formal logic used in relation to the GENERATIVE SEMANTICS MODEL of LINGUISTICS to refer to the initial set of RULES which generate the semantic REPRESENTATIONS of SENTENCES.

formative (*n.*)   A formally identifiable, irreducible GRAMMATICAL ELEMENT which enters into the construction of larger LINGUISTIC UNITS, such as WORDS and SENTENCES. It has come to be used especially in GENERATIVE grammar, as an alternative to the term MORPHEME, for the TERMINAL elements in a SURFACE-STRUCTURE REPRESENTATION of a sentence. Several types of formative can be

distinguished, depending on their role in sentence structure, e.g. 'inflectional formatives' (viz. INFLECTIONAL endings, etc.), 'lexical formatives' (viz. forms which enable one LEXICAL item to be derived from another, e.g. *-tion*).

form-class (*n.*)   see CLASS, FORM (1)

form of address   see ADDRESS

formula, formulae (*n.*)   see FORMULAIC LANGUAGE

formulaic language   A term used in some theoretical and DESCRIPTIVE studies of GRAMMAR to refer to UTTERANCES which lack normal SYNTACTIC OR MORPHO-LOGICAL characteristics. (It may also be used, literally, to mean 'language containing formulae', or special symbols, as in scientific writing.) Sentences such as *God save the Queen, The more the merrier, How do you do?* and *Many happy returns* do not contrast in the usual way with other sentences in the language, e.g. *Few happy returns, How will you do?* Such FOSSILIZED structures, often used in limited social situations, have also been called 'bound', 'fixed', 'frozen', 'set', 'prefabricated', 'routine' or 'STEREOTYPED expressions'. The notion can be broadened from individual utterances to larger spoken or written events. **Formulaic discourse** refers to any fixed form of words which serves a particular social purpose, such as greeting exchanges, skipping rhymes or the words of a marriage ceremony; it contrasts with **free discourse**.

form word   A term sometimes used in WORD classification for a word whose role is largely or wholly grammatical, e.g. ARTICLES, PRONOUNS, CONJUNCTIONS. Several such terms exist for this notion (e.g. FUNCTION WORD, GRAMMATICAL word, STRUCTURAL word, FUNCTOR); all contrast with the LEXICAL words in a language, which carry the main SEMANTIC content.

fortis (*adj.*)   A term used in the PHONETIC classification of CONSONANT sounds on the basis of their MANNER OF ARTICULATION: it refers to a sound made with a relatively strong degree of muscular effort and breath force, compared with some other sound (known as LENIS). The distinction between TENSE and LAX is used similarly. The labels 'strong' and 'weak' are sometimes used for the contrast involved, but these are more prone to AMBIGUITY. In English, it is the VOICELESS consonants ([p], [t], [f], [s], etc.) which tend to be produced with fortis articulation (their voiced counterparts being relatively weak), and often, when the voicing distinction is reduced, it is only the degree of articulatory strength which maintains a contrast between sounds. The term 'fortis' is sometimes used loosely to refer to strong VOWEL articulation also, but this is not a standard practice.

fortition (*n.*)   A term used in PHONOLOGY to refer to a strengthening in the overall force of a sound, whether DIACHRONICALLY or SYNCHRONICALLY; opposed to **lenition**. Typically, fortition involves the change from a FRICATIVE to a STOP, an APPROXIMANT to a fricative, or a VOICED to a voiceless sound (as in the devoicing of final OBSTRUENTS in German).

forward-reference (*n.*)   see REFERENCE

fossilized (*adj.*) (1)   A term used in GRAMMAR and LEXICOLOGY to refer to a type of CONSTRUCTION which is no longer PRODUCTIVE in a LANGUAGE. In English, for example, fossilized SENTENCES include *So be it, Long live the Queen* and *Least said, soonest mended*; fossilized LEXICAL items include such REDUPLICATIVE forms as *goody-goody, hocus-pocus*, and several types of IDIOM.
(2)   In the acquisition of a foreign language, the stabilization of a level of achievement in the use of a linguistic form which falls short of the norms of the target language. No further learning takes place, and the form becomes a **fossilized** error in the usage of the learner, part of the learner's INTERLANGUAGE.

fourth person   see OBVIATIVE

frame (*n.*)   A term used in some MODELS of GRAMMATICAL DESCRIPTION to refer to the STRUCTURAL CONTEXT within which a CLASS OF ITEMS can be used. For example, the frame *She saw – box* provides an ENVIRONMENT for the use of DETERMINERS (*the, a, my*, etc.). The terms **syntactic frame** and **substitution frame** are also used. In GENERATIVE grammar, **sub-categorization frames** are used to specify the range of SISTER CONSTITUENTS which a LEXICAL item takes. In CASE grammar, the array of cases which specifies the structural context for VERBS is known as a **case frame**. In LEXICAL entries for verbs, in this theory, abbreviated statements called **frame features** indicate the set of case frames into which the various verbs may be inserted. In SEMANTIC theory, frames are structures that encode knowledge about STEREOTYPED kinds of objects or situations, with special provision for the roles played by their parts or participants.

free (*adj.*)   A term used in a range of LINGUISTIC contexts to refer to a PHONOLOGICAL or GRAMMATICAL feature lacking a specific type of FORMAL CONSTRAINT. For example, a **free form** or **free morpheme** is a minimal grammatical UNIT which can be used as a WORD without the need for further MORPHOLOGICAL modification (opposed to BOUND); **free word-order** occurs when the word ORDER in a LANGUAGE can be altered without a consequent change of MEANING (opposed to FIXED); **free stress** occurs whenever there is no fixed place for the primary STRESS to fall in a POLYSYLLABIC word; **free discourse** is spoken or written expression which makes no use of FORMULAIC LANGUAGE, unlike 'formulaic discourse.' In FORMAL SYNTAX and SEMANTICS, the term is applied to CONSTITUENTS which are not BOUND, such as VARIABLES and ANAPHORS. See also FREE VARIATION.

free form/morpheme   see FREE

freely associating segments   see ASSOCIATION LINE

free relative clause   see RELATIVE

free syllable   see OPEN (3)

free variation   A term used in PHONOLOGY, referring to the SUBSTITUTABILITY of one sound for another in a given ENVIRONMENT, with no consequent change in the word's MEANING, as when a speaker articulates a word like *sit* with an

unreleased or a released PLOSIVE, or different pronunciations are given to *either* (/iːðə/ *v.* /aɪðə/). These different phonetic realizations of a PHONEME are called **free variants** (opposed to the 'contextual variants' found in cases of COMPLEMENTARY DISTRIBUTION). In traditional phonological study, free variation has been considered to be an area of little importance; but in SOCIOLINGUISTIC studies it is suggested that free variants need to be described, in terms of the frequency with which they occur, because the choice of one variant rather than another may be made on sociological grounds, as when one 'chooses' a careful rather than a 'casual' speech style.

The term 'free variation' is occasionally applied analogously in grammar and SEMANTICS, as when SYNONYMOUS expressions might be said to be in 'free variation'.

frequency (*n.*)   A term derived from the study of the physics of sound, and used in ACOUSTIC PHONETICS, referring to the number of complete CYCLES of VOCAL CORD vibration in a unit of time (per second). It is measured in Hertz (Hz), a term which has replaced the older 'cycles per second'. An increase in the frequency of a sound correlates with an auditory sensation of higher PITCH. See also FORMANT, FUNDAMENTAL.

frequentative (*adj./n.*) (**freq**)   A term sometimes used in the GRAMMATICAL classification of VERBS to refer to the expression of repeated action. In some LANGUAGES (e.g. Russian) the CLASS of 'frequentatives' may be marked MORPHOLOGICALLY, but in English the MEANING is normally expressed through ADVERBIALS of frequency, e.g. *again, regularly, often.*

frication (*n.*)   In ACOUSTIC PHONETICS, the turbulent NOISE produced by the VOCAL ORGANS engaged in the production of FRICATIVES and other CONSONANTS involving a constricted air flow. Although the signal is random, it usually shows a concentration of energy in a specific FREQUENCY range, related to the ARTICULATOR involved, the particular shape of the part of the vocal tract with which it is articulating, and the general physical environment of the tract in that area.

fricative (*n.*)   A term used in the PHONETIC classification of CONSONANT sounds on the basis of their MANNER OF ARTICULATION: also sometimes called **spirant**, it refers to sounds made when two organs come so close together that the air moving between them produces audible FRICTION, or FRICATION. There is no complete CLOSURE between the organs (in which case a PLOSIVE articulation would be produced): there is simply a STRICTURE, or narrowing. There are several such sounds in English, both VOICED and voiceless, as in *fin* [f], *van* [v], *thin* [θ], *this* [ð], *sin* [s], *zoo* [z], *ship* [ʃ], *measure* [ʒ], *hoop* [h]. Other fricative sounds may be heard in English, in restricted CONTEXTS or speech STYLES, such as the PALATAL fricative [ç], and several other fricatives may be heard in other languages, e.g. a voiceless VELAR fricative [x] in Welsh or German, a voiceless PHARYNGEAL fricative [ħ] in Arabic, a voiced BILABIAL fricative [β] in Spanish. The fricative manner of articulation produces a wider range of speech sounds than any other. They are sounds with a potential for considerable DURATION (e.g. *s-s-s*), and, from this point of view, the opposite of fricative (i.e. a continuant sound lacking friction) is called a FRICTIONLESS CONTINUANT. The term

spirantization is sometimes used for the process of deriving a fricative from some other type of articulation.

friction (*n.*)   A term used in PHONETICS to refer to the sound produced when air passes a CONSTRICTION made in the VOCAL TRACT. The occurrence of **audible friction** is part of the phonetic definition of CONSONANTS; the phonetic definition of VOWELS requires that they be FRICTIONLESS. Various types of friction can be identified, in terms of anatomical point of origin, e.g. BILABIAL friction, PHARYNGEAL friction; friction above the GLOTTIS may be referred to as SUPRAGLOTTAL friction.

frictionless continuant   A general term used in the PHONETIC classification of speech sounds on the basis of their MANNER OF ARTICULATION: it refers to any sound functioning as a CONSONANT but which lacks the CLOSURE or FRICTION which identifies most consonantal articulations. In RECEIVED PRONUNCIATION, /r/ is often articulated in this way, with no audible friction. From a PHONETIC point of view, all VOWELS and vowel-like sounds are also technically 'frictionless' and 'continuant', but it is usual to restrict the term to those sounds which are consonantal in function. All NASALS and LATERALS are thus classifiable under this heading, as well as many varieties of /r/. In received pronunciation, the POST-ALVEOLAR /r/ is often articulated in this way, without audible friction, and is often described specifically as a 'post-alveolar frictionless continuant'. Some phoneticians use the term APPROXIMANT to refer to these sounds.

front (*adj./v.*) (1)   In PHONETICS, classifications of front speech sounds are of two types: (a) those ARTICULATED in the front part of the mouth (as opposed to the BACK); (b) those articulated by the front part (or BLADE) of the TONGUE. Front sounds which satisfy both criteria would be front VOWELS, as in *see, bit, pet, cap*, and such front CONSONANTS as the initial sound of *two, do, see, zoo, this, thin*. Consonants such as those in *pay* and *bay* are, however, front in sense (a) only. Front vowels, it should be noted, are in traditional phonetic classification contrasted with CENTRAL and BACK vowels. In DISTINCTIVE FEATURE analyses of sound SYSTEMS, front in sense (a) is referred to as ANTERIOR, in sense (b) is referred to as CORONAL.

In some analyses of sound patterns, it is useful to talk about **fronting**, a process common in historical sound change, and when children are learning to speak, whereby a sound (or group of sounds) may come to be articulated further forward in the mouth than the accepted adult norms. It is also often useful to analyse one sound as being **fronted** when compared with a back variant of the same PHONEME: for example the /k/ phoneme in English has both front and back VARIANTS (as in *key* and *car* respectively) owing to the influence of the following vowel. The analogous terms 'backing'/'backed', are not commonly used.

(2)   **Fronting** is also a term used in TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR referring to any transformation which transposes a CONSTITUENT from the middle or end of a STRING to initial position. For example, the rule of '*Wh*-fronting' places a WH-phrase (e.g. *where, which books*) in initial position, transposing it from the underlying non-initial position (cf. *John walked there* → *John walked where* → *where did John walk*).

fronting (*n.*)   see FRONT

frozen expression   see FORMULAIC LANGUAGE

fry (*n.*)   see CREAKY

f-structure (*n.*)   An abbreviation in LEXICAL-FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR for **functional structure**, a REPRESENTATION of a SENTENCE in terms of grammatical FUNCTIONS such as SUBJECT and OBJECT. It contrasts with C-STRUCTURE (or constituent structure), the SURFACE STRUCTURE of the sentence.

full (*adj.*)   A term sometimes used in the GRAMMATICAL CLASSIFICATION of WORDS to refer to one of two postulated major classes in LANGUAGE, the other being EMPTY. **Full words** are said to be those which contain LEXICAL MEANING (e.g. *table, man, go, red*) as opposed to EMPTY words, which have a purely grammatical role. The distinction has come under criticism, largely on the grounds that the boundary between 'full' and 'empty' words is not as clear-cut as is suggested. Words like *while, but, in*, etc., are considered to be grammatical words, but they plainly do have some independently stateable meaning. 'Full' may also be encountered as part of the specification of types of grammatical UNIT, e.g. **full verb** (i.e. the lexical VERB in the verb PHRASE), **full sentence** (i.e. a MAJOR SENTENCE type, consisting of SUBJECT and PREDICATE), **full predication** (in FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR).

full conversion   see CONVERSION

full interpretation   see MININALIST PROGRAM

full verb   see LEXICAL VERB

function (*n./v.*)   One of the most widely used terms in LINGUISTICS, with a correspondingly wide range of meanings. There are four main areas of application. (1)   The relationship between a linguistic FORM and other parts of the linguistic pattern or SYSTEM in which it is used. In GRAMMAR, for example, the NOUN PHRASE can 'function' in CLAUSE structure as SUBJECT, OBJECT, COMPLEMENT, etc., these roles being defined distributionally. **Syntactic functions** (or 'syntactic relations' or 'grammatical relations') of this kind are a major feature of several MODELS of linguistic analysis, including the approaches of the PRAGUE SCHOOL, GLOSSEMATICS, RELATIONAL GRAMMAR and LEXICAL FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR, and the terms **functional analysis** and **functional linguistics** have been used to characterize theories which treat the notion of function as central (see also FUNCTIONAL SENTENCE PERSPECTIVE, FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR). In GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY and PHRASE-STRUCTURE grammars, **grammatical functions** (GF) are notions defined in terms of the position in clause structure of a constituent; in relational and lexical functional grammars they are PRIMITIVES. **Functional** explanations of grammatical phenomena are also to be found in COMMUNICATIVE and DISCOURSE-based grammars. More specifically, the term functional is used of an ELEMENT which is DISTINCTIVE, or CONTRASTIVE, within a language system, as in one definition of PHONOLOGY as **functional phonetics**. See also AXIOM, CATEGORY.

(2)   The use made of a linguistic contrast in a SYSTEM is sometimes referred to as its **functional load** or **yield**. The term is usually used with reference to phonology, where in English, for example, the contrast between /p/ and /b/ would be said to have a higher functional load than between /ʃ/ and /ʒ/: the former contrast distinguishes many MINIMAL PAIRS, whereas the latter contrast distinguishes only a few. Several criteria are used in making such quantitative judgements, such as the position within a WORD at which the contrast is found, and the frequency of occurrence of the words in the language.

(3)   The role language plays in the context of society or the individual is also referred to by the term 'function' (**social function**). For example, language is used ('functions') to communicate ideas, to express attitudes, and so on. It may also be used to identify specific SOCIOLINGUISTIC situations, such as informality or intimacy, or VARIETIES of language such as science and law: in such cases, one might talk, for instance, of the 'function' of scientific language being to express a certain mode of experience in a certain way, and so on. Several detailed classifications of the social functions of language have been made, especially in HALLIDAYAN linguistics, and in relation to PRAGMATICS and the theory of SPEECH ACTS. The traditional classification of SENTENCE functions falls between grammatical and SPEECH ACT theory: sentences are said to 'function' as STATEMENTS, QUESTIONS, COMMANDS, etc. In narratology, the term is used in the analysis of plots for a type of action performed by one or more types of character, such as 'Villain harms member of family'. See also NARRATIVE.

(4)   In FORMALIZED analyses, function is often used in its general mathematical sense: a relation which matches each object in its DOMAIN with exactly one value. See also FUNCTOR (2).

functional application/composition   Terms used in FORMAL LINGUISTICS in their conventional mathematical senses, and adapted in CATEGORIAL GRAMMAR to RULES which combine (a) an EXPRESSION of some complex category X/Y with an expression of some category Y to form an expression of category X (**functional** or **function application**), and (b) an expression of some complex category X/Y with an expression of some category Y/Z to form an expression of category X/Z (**functional** or **function composition**). The terms are also used for similar rules in TYPE-theoretic approaches to SEMANTICS.

functional category   see CATEGORY

functional change   In HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS, the alteration of the role of a linguistic FEATURE over time – especially, when a sound takes on or loses the status of a PHONEME. For example, in Old English, /s/ was heard as [z] only between VOICED sounds, but in modern English /z/ has become a phoneme in its own right, as shown by such contrasts as *Sue v. zoo*.

functional composition   see FUNCTIONAL APPLICATION/COMPOSITION

functional grammar   A LINGUISTIC theory which was devised in the 1970s as an alternative to the abstract, FORMALIZED view of LANGUAGE presented by TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR, and relying instead on a PRAGMATIC view of language as social interaction. The approach focuses on the RULES which govern verbal

interaction, seen as a form of co-operative activity, and on the rules (of SYNTAX, SEMANTICS and PHONOLOGY) which govern the linguistic expressions that are used as instruments of this activity. In this approach, a PREDICATE is taken to be the basic element of a 'predication'; it is listed in the LEXICON in the form of a 'predicate frame', specified for the number of ARGUMENTS it takes (AGENT, GOAL, etc.). From predicate frames, 'NUCLEAR predications' are formed by inserting appropriate terms into the argument positions. 'Full predications' are formed from nuclear predications through the use of SATELLITES (e.g. MANNER, LOCATIVE). Syntactic functions (interpreted semantically) and pragmatic functions are then ASSIGNED to elements of predication, and expressed in SENTENCES through the use of 'expression rules' (which deal with such matters as CASE, AGREEMENT, ORDER and INTONATION).

functional linguistics   see FUNCTION (1)

functional literacy   see LITERACY

functional load   see FUNCTION (2)

functional phonetics   see FUNCTION (1)

functional phrase   A type of PHRASE recognized in GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY for a structural configuration built around a FUNCTIONAL head, as in the case of IP (inflection phrase), CP (complementizer phrase), and DP (determiner phrase); it contrasts with LEXICAL PHRASE. Functional phrases are not required to contain lexical content, though some may be present in the form of MORPHOLOGICAL endings.

functional sentence perspective (**FSP**)   A theory of LINGUISTIC analysis associated with the modern exponents of the PRAGUE SCHOOL of linguistics. It refers to an analysis of UTTERANCES (or texts) in terms of the INFORMATION they contain, the role of each utterance part being evaluated for its SEMANTIC contribution to the whole. The notion of 'COMMUNICATIVE dynamism' has been developed as an attempt to rate these different LEVELS of contribution within a structure, particularly with reference to the concepts of RHEME and THEME.

functional shift   see CONVERSION

functional structure   see F-STRUCTURE

functional yield   see FUNCTION (2)

function word   A term sometimes used in WORD classification for a word whose role is largely or wholly grammatical, e.g. ARTICLES, PRONOUNS, CONJUNCTIONS. Several such terms exist for this notion (e.g. FORM WORD, GRAMMATICAL word, FUNCTOR, EMPTY word); all contrast with the LEXICAL words in a language, which carry the main SEMANTIC content.

functor (*n.*) (1)   A term sometimes used in WORD classification for words and BOUND MORPHEMES whose role in language is largely or wholly grammatical, such as PREPOSITIONS, ARTICLES, PRONOUNS, CONJUNCTIONS. Several such terms relate to this notion (e.g. FUNCTION WORD, GRAMMATICAL word, FORM word, EMPTY word); all contrast with the LEXICAL words in a language, which carry the main SEMANTIC content.
(2)   In FORMALIZED analyses, a **functor** is an EXPRESSION which DENOTES a FUNCTION. In CATEGORIAL GRAMMAR, it is the SYNTACTIC CATEGORY of such an expression, generally represented by a pair of category LABELS separated by a slash.

fundamental frequency   A term derived from the study of the physics of sound, and used in ACOUSTIC PHONETICS, referring to the lowest FREQUENCY component in a complex sound wave. The **fundamental**, or F_0 (**f nought**), sometimes called the 'first harmonic', is of particular importance in studies of INTONATION, where it displays a reasonably close correspondence with the PITCH movements involved.

fusion (*n.*)   In some models of PHONOLOGY, a type of RULE which accounts for various processes of FEATURE COALESCENCE; also called **merger**, and contrasted with **fission**. In particular, in PARTICLE PHONOLOGY, fusion is a process which merges two ROOT NODES into one, thus providing a mechanism for handling MONOPHTHONGIZATION.

fusional (*adj.*)   A term describing a type of LANGUAGE sometimes distinguished in COMPARATIVE LINGUISTICS using STRUCTURAL (as opposed to historical) criteria, and focusing on the characteristics of the WORD: in **fusional languages**, words typically contain more than one MORPHEME, but there is no one-to-one correspondence between these morphemes and the linear SEQUENCE of MORPHS the words contain. Languages such as Latin and Sanskrit represent this type, also known as INFLECTING languages. For example, in Latin *amicus* ('friend'), this form **fuses** the features masculine, NOMINATIVE and singular, in addition to the ROOT, in a manner which makes the word extremely difficult to segment morphologically (except by WORD-AND-PARADIGM techniques). As always in such classifications, the categories are not clear-cut: different languages will display the characteristic of **fusion** to a greater or lesser degree.
   The term is also used, independently of this classification, to refer to the merging of exponents within a linguistic unit, especially a word; e.g. *took* represents the 'fusion' of *take + past*; sounds may be 'fused' in some types of ASSIMILATION.

future tense (**fut, FUT**)   In GRAMMAR, a TENSE form which refers to future time, as in French *J'irai* 'I'll go'. English has no INFLECTIONAL future tense, but has many ways of referring to future time, such as through the use of the MODAL verbs *will/shall*, future-time ADVERBIALS (*tomorrow, next week*), and such verbs as *be about to*. The *will/shall* forms are usually called 'future tenses' in TRADITIONAL grammar, but many linguists consider this to be misleading, as these forms express several other meanings than future time (such as timelessness in *Stones will sink in water*). Analogously, the use of *will/shall have* was called the **future perfect tense** (or the 'future in the past') in traditional grammar.

fuzzy (*adj.*)   A term derived from mathematics and used by some LINGUISTS to refer to the INDETERMINACY involved in the analysis of a linguistic UNIT or PATTERN. For example, several LEXICAL ITEMS, it is argued, are best regarded as representing a SEMANTIC CATEGORY which has an INVARIANT core with a variable (or 'fuzzy') boundary, this allowing for flexibility of APPLICATION to a wide range of entities, given the appropriate CONTEXT. The difficulty of defining the boundaries of *cup* and *glass* has been a well-studied example of this indeterminacy. Other items which lend **fuzziness** to language include *sort of, rather, quite*, etc. (and see also SQUISH). **Fuzzy grammars**, advocated in the early 1970s, were grammars capable of generating sentences with specific degrees of assigned grammaticality. The notion is seen as particularly important in NON-DISCRETE GRAMMAR.