P

palatal (*adj.*)   A term used in the PHONETIC classification of speech sounds on the basis of their PLACE OF ARTICULATION: it refers to a sound made when the FRONT of the TONGUE is in contact with or approaches the hard PALATE. Slavic languages usually illustrate a range of palatal sounds; in German, *ich* ('I') exemplifies a VOICELESS palatal [ç]; in English, palatal sounds are heard only in restricted contexts, as variants of a PHONEME, e.g. /k/ is normally described as VELAR, but the *k* in such words as *keep* is often quite palatal in its articulation, because of the influence of the following FRONT VOWEL. One may also hear palatal GLIDES in such words as *cute* [kj-] or *huge* [ç]. 'Palatal' is sometimes used with reference to vowels or SEMI-VOWELS articulated in the hard-palate area (front CLOSE vowels), as in the [iː] of *seat* or the initial sound of *yet* [j̊], formerly [j]; but the commoner use is in relation to CONSONANTS.

  Palatalization is a general term referring to any articulation involving a movement of the tongue towards the hard palate. It may be used to describe the altered articulation illustrated by *k* above, but its more common use is in relation to SECONDARY ARTICULATIONS. Here, the primary place of articulation is elsewhere in the mouth; for example, a [t] sound, normally made in ALVEOLAR position, is said to be **palatalized** if during its articulation the front of the tongue is raised towards the hard palate: in the case of [t], the palatalization would be most noticeable when the plosive was released, as a palatal GLIDE would then be heard before the onset of the next main sound. Several languages, such as Russian, have sets of palatalized consonants operating as phonemes. Because of the auditory effect involved, the labels SOFT and HARD are often used to describe the contrasting qualities of palatalized and **non-palatalized** CONSONANTS respectively. (These labels have no relation to their use in the terms 'hard palate' and 'soft palate', which are anatomically based: see PALATE.) In phonetic TRANSCRIPTION, there are several ways of representing palatalization; for instance [ţ], [t̡], [tʲ] and [t'] have all been used to represent a palatalized [t]. See also -ISE/-IZE.

palate (*n.*)   The arched bony structure which forms the roof of the mouth, and which is much used for the ARTICULATION of speech sounds. The delimitation and classification of the PALATAL area has not been without controversy, as is shown by the several different classificatory systems for describing the types of pathological condition known as cleft lip and palate. In one such system, the

whole of the upper oral area (including lips and alveolum) is referred to as palatal, on the grounds that this constituted a single embryological process. In PHONETICS, a much more restricted sense is used: here, the term applies to the whole area from behind the ALVEOLAR ridge to the UVULA. It is divided into two parts: the **hard palate**, which is the immobile bony area immediately behind the alveolar ridge, and the **soft palate** or 'velum', which is the mobile fleshy continuation of this, culminating in the uvula. Only sounds articulated in the area of the hard palate are called 'palatal' sounds; soft-palate sounds are either VELAR or UVULAR. The soft palate is particularly important in the production of speech, as it is under muscular control which enables it to be raised (closing the upper part of the PHARYNX) for the production of ORAL sounds, or lowered (keeping the passage to the nose open) for the production of NASAL sounds. Poor control of the soft palate (which may result from several neurological or anatomical conditions, such as cleft palate) leads to abnormal nasal resonance or friction.

palato-alveolar (*adj.*)   A term used in the PHONETIC classification of CONSONANT sounds on the basis of their PLACE OF ARTICULATION: it refers to a sound made by a double movement of the TONGUE towards the area between the ALVEOLAR ridge and hard PALATE: the BLADE of the tongue (or the TIP and blade together) makes contact with the alveolar ridge, while the FRONT of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate. Examples in English are the *sh-* [ʃ] of *ship* and the *-s-* [ʒ] of *treasure*. Several other varieties of sound may be articulated in this part of the mouth by slightly varying the position and shape of the tongue, e.g. ALVEO(LO)-PALATAL sounds, which are important in some LANGUAGES, such as Polish.

palatograph (*n.*)   An instrument used in ARTICULATORY PHONETICS to study articulations made against the PALATE. **Palatography** has used several techniques to produce accurate pictures of TONGUE contact with the palate – **palatograms**. An early **palatographic** technique involved spraying the roof of the mouth with a dark powdery substance; an articulation would then be made, which, if in the palatal or alveolar area, would rub off some of the substance: the roof of the mouth would then be photographed to pinpoint the place of articulation. Apart from the inconvenience of this method, its biggest drawback is that it was static: it disallowed any observation of the movement of the tongue in connected speech. More recently, ELECTROPALATOGRAPHIC techniques have been devised which enable a continuous record to be made of the tongue contact in this area.

pandialectal (*adj.*)   A term used primarily in DIALECTOLOGY and SOCIOLINGUISTICS to characterize any LINGUISTIC FEATURE, RULE, etc., which is applicable to all the dialects of a LANGUAGE.

panlectal (*adj.*)   A term used by some SOCIOLINGUISTS to refer to a general MODEL of GRAMMAR within which all individual VARIETIES (or LECTS) can be interrelated, thus providing a model of a speaker's passive COMPETENCE. A somewhat less ambitious undertaking is known as a POLYLECTAL grammar.

paradigmatic (*adj.*) (1)   A basic term in LINGUISTICS to describe the set of substitutional relationships a linguistic UNIT has with other units in a specific

CONTEXT. **Paradigmatic relations** can be established at all LEVELS of analysis, e.g. the selection of /p-/ as opposed to /b-/, /n-/, etc., in the context /-it/, or of *the* as opposed to *a, this, much*, etc., in the context – *cake*. Paradigmatic RELATIONS, together with SYNTAGMATIC relations, constitute the statement of a linguistic unit's identity within the language system. CLASSES of paradigmatically related elements are often referred to as SYSTEMS, e.g. the 'PRONOUN system', 'CASE system'. A set of GRAMMATICALLY conditioned FORMS all derived from a single ROOT or STEM is called a **paradigm**.

(2) In PSYCHOLINGUISTICS, the term is used to refer to a class of ASSOCIATIVE responses which people make when hearing a stimulus word, viz. those which fall into the same WORD-CLASS as the stimulus. A **paradigmatic response** or **association** would be *girl* following *boy, white* following *black*, etc. The SYNTAGMATIC association, by contrast, involves a change of word-class in the response. See also SYNTAGMATIC (2).

paradox (*n.*) See BRACKETING PARADOX, OBSERVER'S PARADOX, RULE-ORDERING PARADOX

paragrammatism (*n.*) see AGRAMMATISM

paralanguage (*n.*) A term used in SUPRASEGMENTAL PHONOLOGY to refer to variations in TONE of voice which seem to be less systematic than PROSODIC features (especially INTONATION and STRESS). Examples of **paralinguistic features** would include the controlled use of BREATHY or CREAKY voice, spasmodic features (such as giggling while speaking), and the use of secondary ARTICULATION (such as lip-ROUNDING or NASALIZATION) to produce a tone of voice signalling attitude, social role or some other language-specific meaning. Some analysts broaden the definition of paralanguage to include KINESIC features; some exclude paralinguistic features from LINGUISTIC analysis.

parallel distributed processing see CONNECTIONISM

parameter (*n.*) (1) A term used in GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY for a specification of the types of variation that a principle of GRAMMAR manifests among different LANGUAGES. It is suggested that there are no RULES of grammar in the traditional sense, but only PRINCIPLES which can take a slightly different form in different languages. For example, a HEAD parameter specifies the positions of heads within PHRASES (e.g. head-first in English, head-last in Japanese). The ADJACENCY parameter of CASE theory specifies whether case assigners must be adjacent to their NOUN phrases (e.g. to the left in English, to the right in Chinese). The PRO-DROP (or 'null subject') parameter determines whether the SUBJECT of a CLAUSE can be suppressed. Determining the **parametric** values for given languages is known as **parameter-setting**. The overall approach has been called the **principles and parameters** (**PPT**) theory of UNIVERSAL grammar, and has since come to be applied outside of syntactic contexts, notably in characterizing PHONOLOGICAL relations. Later versions of METRICAL PHONOLOGY, for example, recognize a series of parameters governing the way metrical FEET should be represented, such as QUANTITY SENSITIVITY and DIRECTIONALITY. See also HEAD.

(2) See PARAMETRIC PHONETICS.

parametric phonetics   An approach to PHONETICS which sees speech as a single physiological SYSTEM, in which the range of ARTICULATORY variables (or **parameters**) in the VOCAL TRACT is seen as being continually in operation, interacting in various ways along the time dimension to produce a continuum of sound which listeners SEGMENT according to the RULES of their LANGUAGE. It thus contrasts with the traditional view of speech, where articulation is seen in advance as a sequence of speech 'postures', or segments, each of which is independently definable with reference to a set of isolatable FEATURES (PLACES OF ARTICULATION, MANNER OF ARTICULATION, etc.). This 'static' model contrasts with the DYNAMIC parametric model, which has led to fresh interest in the nature of NEUROLINGUISTIC control mechanisms.

paraphrase (*n.*)   A term used in LINGUISTICS for the result or process of producing alternative versions of a SENTENCE or TEXT without changing the MEANING. One SENTENCE may have several paraphrases, e.g. *The dog is eating a bone, A bone is being eaten by the dog, It's the dog who is eating a bone*, and so on. Most SEMANTIC theories would treat all these sentences as having a single semantic REPRESENTATION (though variations in FOCUS and PRESUPPOSITION could differentiate them). Linguists use syntactic paraphrase as a major procedure for establishing certain types of TRANSFORMATIONAL relations.

parasite vowel   see ANAPTYXIS

parasitic gap   A term in later GENERATIVE GRAMMAR for a syntactic GAP in a SENTENCE which is possible only because the sentence contains an ordinary gap; it is therefore dependent or 'parasitic' upon the ordinary gap. The following example involves a parasitic gap, indicated by *p*, and an ordinary gap, indicated by *e*: *Which film did he criticize e without seeing p?* The parasitic gap is possible only because the ordinary gap is present; hence, the following is ungrammatical: **He criticized Henry V without seeing p.*

paratactic (*adj.*)   A term used in TRADITIONAL GRAMMATICAL analysis, and often found in DESCRIPTIVE LINGUISTIC studies, to refer to CONSTRUCTIONS of equal status (CO-ORDINATION) which are linked solely through juxtaposition and punctuation/INTONATION. 'Paratactic constructions' are opposed to HYPOTACTIC ones, where a subordinate relationship is expressed. **Parataxis** is illustrated by *She bought tea, coffee, eggs, milk* or *I came; I saw; I conquered.*

paratone (*n.*)   A term occasionally used in PHONOLOGY for a coherent formal sequence of INTONATION units, analogous to the concept of 'paragraph' in writing.

parenthesis notation   see BRACKETING

parent language   see FAMILY

parole (*n.*) /pa'rɒl/   A French term introduced into LINGUISTICS by Ferdinand de Saussure (see SAUSSUREAN), to distinguish one of the senses of the word 'LANGUAGE' (the others being *langage* and LANGUE). It refers to the concrete UTTERANCES produced by individual speakers in actual situations, and is distinguished

from *langue*, which is the collective LANGUAGE SYSTEM of a SPEECH community. An analogous term is PERFORMANCE.

paronymy (*n.*)   A term sometimes used in SEMANTIC analysis to refer to the relationship between WORDS derived from the same ROOT. It is especially applied to a word formed from a word in another LANGUAGE with only a slight change: French *pont* and Latin *pons* are **paronyms**, and the relationship between them is one of paronymy.

parse (*n./v.*), **parser** (*n.*)   see PARSING

parse tree   see TREE

parsing (*n.*) (1)   In TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR, this term refers to the pedagogical exercise of labelling the grammatical ELEMENTS of single SENTENCES, e.g. SUBJECT, PREDICATE, past TENSE, NOUN, VERB; in the USA, also called **diagramming**. LINGUISTICS, by contrast, is less concerned with labels, and more with the criteria of analysis which lead to the identification of these elements, and with the way in which speakers use these elements to relate sentences in the LANGUAGE as a whole.
(2)   Modern grammatical FORMALISMS have begun to develop the properties of several **parsing mechanisms** (**parsers**), and the notion of parsing has proved to be central to work in COMPUTATIONAL LINGUISTICS, especially NATURAL LANGUAGE PROCESSING.
(3)   The term **parse** identifies a central feature of the procedures of NETWORK GRAMMARS, where it refers to the grammatical breakdown of a TEXT (a 'parse') in terms of SYNTACTIC, SEMANTIC and REFERENTIAL information, as presented in the form of a **parse tree**.
(4)   See CHART PARSER.

part (*n.*)   In SYNTAX, an abbreviation sometimes used for the category PARTICLE.

partial assimilation   see ASSIMILATION

partial conversion   see CONVERSION

participant role (1)   A term used in LINGUISTICS, especially in PRAGMATICS, to refer to the FUNCTIONS which can be ascribed to people taking part in a linguistic interaction. Typical roles are speaker and ADDRESSEE, but several other roles can be recognized, such as the recipient (as opposed to the target) of a message, or the message's source (as opposed to its speaker).
(2)   The term is also sometimes used in GRAMMAR, as an alternative to CASE, to refer to the SEMANTIC functions attached to CLAUSE ELEMENTS, such as AGENT, RECIPIENT and AFFECTED.

participle (*n.*) (**P, part, PART**)   A traditional GRAMMATICAL term referring to a word derived from a VERB and used as an ADJECTIVE, as in *a laughing face*. The name comes from the way such a word 'participates' in the characteristics of both verb and adjective. It is thus distinct from the traditional notion of **gerund**,

where a word derived from a verb is used as a NOUN, as in *smoking is forbidden*. In LINGUISTICS the term is generally restricted to the non-FINITE forms of verbs other than the INFINITIVE, viz. present and past, as in *I am going* and *I have walked* respectively, but, even here, there is a strong tendency to avoid the use of the traditional labels 'present' and 'past' participles, with their Latinate associations of time (inapplicable, for example, in a passive sentence like *I shall be kicked*, where the participle can hardly be 'past'), and to use instead a neutral set of terms, such as *-ING* FORMS or *-ED/-EN* FORMS.

particle (*n.*) (**part, PART, Prt, PRT**) (1)   A term used in GRAMMATICAL description to refer to an INVARIABLE ITEM with grammatical FUNCTION, especially one which does not readily fit into a standard classification of PARTS OF SPEECH. In English, for example, the marker of the INFINITIVE, *to*, is often called a particle because, despite its surface similarity to a PREPOSITION, it really has nothing in common with it. Likewise, the unique characteristics of *not* have prompted some to label it a 'NEGATIVE particle', and the units in PHRASAL VERBS are often called 'verbal particles'.
(2)   A term used in TAGMEMIC analysis to refer to a linguistic UNIT seen as a DISCRETE entity, definable in terms of FEATURES. It is contrasted with WAVE (where the unit's CONTEXTUAL variability is analysed) and FIELD (where its DISTRIBUTION is described).
(3)   See PARTICLE PHONOLOGY.

particle phonology   An approach to PHONOLOGY which focuses on the analysis of the internal structure of phonological SEGMENTS. For example, in the analysis of VOWELS, three privative features (**particles**) are recognized – [a] representing OPENNESS, [i] representing FRONTNESS, and [u] representing ROUNDING – and segments are seen to be composed of one or more particles. An [e] vowel, for example, would be analysed as a combination of [i] + [a]. The approach is similar to that used in DEPENDENCY PHONOLOGY, though differences include the number of PRIMITIVES recognized and the treatment of vowel height. The approach claims to have advantages in the handling of such processes as ASSIMILATION and the relationship between MONOPHTHONGS and DIPHTHONGS.

partitive (*adj./n.*) (**part, PART**)   A term used in GRAMMAR and SEMANTICS to refer to a part or quantity, such as *piece, ounce* and *bar* (of soap). Some partitive forms ('partitives') are very general in meaning, occurring with almost any quantifiable LEXICAL item (e.g. *some*); others are restricted to a single lexical item, or to a very small set (e.g. *blade* – of grass).

part of speech   The TRADITIONAL term for a GRAMMATICAL CLASS OF WORDS. The main 'parts of speech' recognized by most school grammars derive from the work of the ancient Greek and Roman grammarians, primarily the NOUN, PRONOUN, VERB, ADVERB, ADJECTIVE, PREPOSITION, CONJUNCTION and INTERJECTION, with ARTICLE, PARTICIPLE and others often added. Because of the inexplicitness with which these terms were traditionally defined (e.g. the use of unclear NOTIONAL criteria), and the restricted nature of their definitions (reflecting the characteristics of Latin or Greek), LINGUISTS tend to prefer such terms as

WORD-class or FORM-class, where the grouping is based on FORMAL criteria of a more UNIVERSALLY applicable kind.

passive (*n.*) (1) (**pass, PASS**)   A term used in the GRAMMATICAL analysis of VOICE, referring to a SENTENCE, CLAUSE or VERB FORM where the grammatical SUBJECT is typically the recipient or 'goal' of the action denoted by the verb, e.g. *The letter was written by a doctor*. It is contrasted with ACTIVE, and sometimes with other forms, e.g. 'middle' (as in Greek). A full linguistic statement of the CONSTRAINTS affecting these relationships is a complex matter. In English, for example, there are active sentences that do not have passive counterparts (e.g. *The boy fell, They have a car*), passive sentences which have an unclear active counterpart (e.g. *The house was sold*), and so on. In addition, there is the problem that the central type of passive construction (using the verb *to be*, e.g. *She was pushed*) is closely related to other types of construction (cf. *She got pushed, She was interested*), and a boundary line is sometimes difficult to establish. Constructions such as *Plums are selling well* are sometimes described as **pseudo-passives.** Constructions such as *They were interested in history*, which have both verbal and adjectival properties, are sometimes called **semi-passives.** Passive constructions which take an agent are **agentive passives** (e.g. *She was chased (by the dog)*), as opposed to 'non-AGENTIVE' or 'agentless' passives, where there is no need for (and sometimes no possibility of) an agentive phrase being added, since the speaker does not have a 'performer' of the action in mind (e.g. *The city is industrialized now*). In GENERATIVE grammar, the TRANSFORMATION of a sentence from its active to its passive form is known as **passivization.** A verb or sentence which undergoes such a process is said to **passivize.**
(2)   See ARTICULATION (1).

passive knowledge   see ACTIVE KNOWLEDGE

passive vocabulary   see VOCABULARY

past anterior   In GRAMMAR, a TENSE form used in some languages to express the rapid completion of a past action. In French, for example, it is chiefly used instead of the PLUPERFECT in past NARRATIVE after time CONJUCTIONS or when the MAIN VERB is in the PAST HISTORIC. It is formed by combining the past historic tense of an AUXILIARY verb with the past PARTICIPLE of a LEXICAL verb: *Dès qu'elle eut mangé, elle sortit* 'As soon as she had eaten, she left'.

past definite   see PAST HISTORIC

past historic   In GRAMMAR, a PAST TENSE form of a VERB, used in some languages to refer to a completed action; also sometimes called the **past definite.** In French, for example, it is used in the written language as part of past NARRATIVE description as well as in the reporting of completed past events: *Hier, Marie se leva et sortit* 'Yesterday, Marie got up and went out'.

past participle   see PARTICIPLE

past perfect   see PERFECT

past tense   In GRAMMAR, a TENSE form which refers to a time of action prior to the moment of utterance. Languages make different distinctions within this period, such as whether the reference is recent or distant, or whether the action is completed or not. French, for example, recognizes IMPERFECT, PAST HISTORIC, PERFECT, pluperfect and PAST ANTERIOR tenses, as well as FUTURE and CONDITIONAL perfect forms. A range of past tenses is also traditionally recognized in English grammar, following the influence of Latin descriptive MODELS, though only a single past tense form is represented INFLECTIONALLY (*I walked*), often called the **simple past** or PRETERITE; other past time reference uses AUXILIARY verbs (*I have walked*) and past time ADVERBIALS (*yesterday*, *last year*).

path (*n.*) (1)   A term used in GENERATIVE GRAMMAR referring to an unbroken series of BRANCHES and NODES moving in a single direction with respect to the top of a TREE diagram. The term is also used by some linguists as part of the grammatical analysis of a sentence: an entity takes a path from a source to a GOAL, e.g. in *John rowed along the river, along* is 'path'. See also NETWORK GRAMMAR.
(2)   In a WINDOWS model of COARTICULATION, the term refers to the connection made between individual windows, representing ARTICULATORY or ACOUSTIC variation over time in a specific context; also referred to as a **contour**.

pathology (*n.*)   see LANGUAGE PATHOLOGY

patient (*n.*) (**P**)   A term used by some LINGUISTS as part of the GRAMMATICAL analysis of a SENTENCE: it refers to the entity which is affected by the action of the VERB, e.g. *The dog bit **the man**.* GOAL and RECIPIENT have been used as alternative terms.

pattern (*n.*)   In the general sense of 'a systematic arrangement of UNITS', this term is found in LINGUISTICS and PHONETICS, without any special implication. Certain theoretical implications may be added in some contexts, however. For example, in language teaching, **pattern drills** (or 'structure drills') refer to the use of a SUBSTITUTION-frame technique for the practice of a particular STRUCTURE. Also, in PHONOLOGY, the term has been used to refer specifically to any neatness of arrangement that can be demonstrated in a sound SYSTEM – a UNIT such as a PHONEME being seen as a point in a pattern of sound relationships. It is felt that a phonemic pattern ought to be regular and symmetrical, and that the demonstration of **pattern congruity** in an analysis is a desirable feature. Whether a sound cluster should be analysed as one phoneme or two, for example, may depend on the parallel patterns that can be demonstrated between this CLUSTER and other phonemes; e.g. English /ʧ/ and /ʤ/ on this criterion would be analysed as single phonemes, as a STOP+FRICATIVE analysis would receive little support elsewhere in the system. The phrase **gap/hole in the pattern** is often used to refer to a lacuna which spoils the symmetry of an analysis, as when a series of unrounded VOWELS might have a corresponding series of ROUNDED vowels except for one case (see GAP).

paucal (*adj.*)   see NUMBER

pause (*n.*)   The general sense of this term applies in LINGUISTICS, PHONETICS and PSYCHOLINGUISTICS, where an attempt is made to give a precise account of the types and DISTRIBUTION of **pausal phenomena** and to draw conclusions concerning their FUNCTION in speech. A distinction has been drawn between **silent pauses** and **filled pauses** (e.g. *ah, er*), and several functions of pause have been established, e.g. for breathing, to mark GRAMMATICAL boundaries, and to provide time for the planning of new material. Investigations of pausal phenomena have been particularly relevant in relation to developing a theory of SPEECH PRODUCTION. In GRAMMAR, the notion of **potential pause** is sometimes used as a technique for establishing the WORD UNITS in a LANGUAGE – pauses being more likely at word boundaries than within words.

paycheck sentence   In SEMANTICS, a SENTENCE containing a PRO-FORM which is not CO-REFERENTIAL with its ANTECEDENT, because the antecedent itself contains a pro-form. A typical example (from which the term derives) is illustrated by *The man who gave his paycheck to his wife was wiser than the one who gave it to his mistress*. Paycheck sentences provide the primary evidence for 'lazy pronouns' (see PRONOUN).

peace linguistics   In LINGUISTICS, a term reflecting the climate of opinion which emerged during the 1990s among many linguists and language teachers, in which linguistic principles, methods, findings and applications were seen as a means of promoting peace and human rights at a global level. The approach emphasizes the value of LANGUAGE diversity and multilingualism, both internationally and intranationally, and asserts the need to foster LANGUAGE ATTITUDES which respect the dignity of individual speakers and speech communities.

peak (*adj./n.*)   In PHONETICS and PHONOLOGY, a term used to characterize a relatively high level of PROMINENCE; opposed to **valley** or **trough**. In METRICAL GRID theory, peaks (*v.* troughs) are RHYTHM prominences. A TROCHAIC rhythm starts with a left-edge peak or a right-edge trough; an IAMBIC rhythm starts with a left-edge trough or a right-edge peak. In OPTIMALITY THEORY, the **peak constraint** requires that syllables have a vowel. See also SONORITY, SYLLABLE.

pedagogical grammar   see GRAMMAR (2)

pedagogical linguistics   see EDUCATIONAL LINGUISTICS

pejoration (*n.*)   see DETERIORATION

percentage symbol (%) (1)   In some approaches to INTONATIONAL PHONOLOGY, in the analysis of BOUNDARY TONES, a symbol which shows that a tone **associates** with the EDGE syllable of a phrase (H%, L%).
(2)   In SOCIOLINGUISTICS, a symbol sometimes used to indicate VARIATION in ACCEPTABILITY because of DIALECT or IDIOLECT, as in *%I might could do that*.

perception (*n.*)   The general sense of this term is found in PHONETICS and PSYCHOLINGUISTICS, where it refers to the process of receiving and decoding SPEECH input. The **perceptual** process requires that listeners take into account

not only the ACOUSTIC CUES present in the speech signal, but also their own knowledge of the sound patterns of their LANGUAGE, in order to interpret what they hear. The term is usually contrasted with PRODUCTION.

percolation (*n.*)   In GRAMMAR, a process whereby a feature associated with the HEAD of a CONSTRUCTION comes to be associated with the construction as a whole; also called **trickling**. It has come to be used chiefly in GENERATIVE MORPHOLOGY for the analysis of WORDS in terms of heads. For example, in a word like *goodness*, it is the *-ness* AFFIX which gives NOUN status to the word as a whole (not the other constituent, *good*, which is ADJECTIVAL). The affix therefore has to be seen as the head and assigned to the noun category. As a consequence, this category has to **percolate** through to the word as a whole (analogous to the way that a head noun in a PHRASE confers noun phrase status on the whole phrase). Various **feature percolation conventions** have been proposed.

perfect (*adj./n.*) (**perf, PERF, PF**)   A term used in the GRAMMATICAL description of VERB FORMS, referring to a contrast of a temporal or durative kind, and thus sometimes handled under the heading of TENSE (e.g. 'perfect', 'future perfect', 'pluperfect') and sometimes under ASPECT (e.g. 'perfective', 'non-perfective'). It is illustrated in English by the contrast between *I go* and *I have gone*, or between *I have gone* and *I had gone* (traditionally called the **pluperfect**, also now **past perfect**). LINGUISTS prefer an aspectual analysis here, because of the complex interaction of durational, completive and temporal features of meaning involved; TRADITIONAL grammars, however, refer simply to 'perfect tense', etc., and thus imply a meaning which is to some degree an oversimplification. 'Perfect', in these contexts, refers to a past situation where the event is seen as having some present relevance; in **perfective** aspect, by contrast, a situation is seen as a whole, regardless of the time contrasts which may be a part of it. Perfective then contrasts with **imperfective** or **non-perfective**, which draws attention to the internal time-structuring of the situation. The terminological distinction between 'perfect' and 'perfective' is often blurred, because grammarians writing on English have often used the latter term to replace the former, presumably because they wish to avoid its traditional associations. But this can lead to confusion in the discussion of those LANGUAGES (such as the Slavic languages) where both notions are required. In such languages as Russian and Polish, for example, a contrast between perfective and imperfective is fundamental to verb classification, and is formally marked MORPHOLOGICALLY. For example, the PREFIX про-('pro-') before the verb 'read' produces a 'perfective verb' where the meaning is that the action (of reading) is completed; in the 'imperfective verb', which lacks the prefix, there is no such implication.

perfect grid   see METRICAL GRID

perfective (*adj./n.*)   see PERFECT

performance (*n.*) (1)   A term used in LINGUISTIC theory, and especially in GENERATIVE GRAMMAR, to refer to LANGUAGE seen as a set of specific UTTERANCES produced by NATIVE-SPEAKERS, as encountered in a CORPUS; analogous to the SAUSSUREAN concept of PAROLE. It is opposed, in this sense, to the idealized

conception of language known as COMPETENCE. The utterances of performance will contain features irrelevant to the abstract RULE system, such as hesitations and unfinished structures, arising from the various psychological and social difficulties acting upon the speaker (e.g. lapses of memory, or biological limitations, such as PAUSES being introduced through the need to breathe). These features must be discounted in a grammar of the language, which deals with the systematic process of SENTENCE CONSTRUCTION. The possible implication of this view, that performance features are unimportant, came to be strongly criticized, and the factors which contribute to **performance grammars** are now of considerable interest, especially in PSYCHOLINGUISTICS. See also GRAMMAR (5).

(2) A technique used in PHONETICS whereby aspiring practitioners of the subject are trained to control the use of their VOCAL ORGANS so as to be able to produce the whole range of human speech sounds. The correlative technique of discriminating and identifying sounds is known as EAR-TRAINING.

performative (*adj./n.*) A term used by the philosopher J. L. Austin (1911–60), and now found in GRAMMATICAL and SEMANTIC analysis, to refer to a type of SENTENCE where an action is 'performed' by virtue of the sentence having been uttered, e.g. *I apologize, I baptize you . . . , I promise . . .* The original distinction was drawn between **performative utterances** and CONSTATIVE UTTERANCES: the latter are descriptive statements which can be analysed in terms of truth-values; performatives, on the other hand, are expressions of activity which are not analysable in truth-value terms. **Performative verbs** (*apologize*, etc.) have a particular significance in SPEECH-ACT theory, as they mark the ILLOCUTIONARY force of an utterance in an explicit way. Some TRANSFORMATIONAL analysts have even proposed a 'performative analysis' of sentences, such that a performative VERB is present in UNDERLYING structure, e.g. an underlying (deletable) verb such as 'I assert that . . .'; but the advantages of adopting such a procedure have still to be fully explored.

period (*n.*) A term derived from the study of the physics of sound, and used in ACOUSTIC PHONETICS, referring to the time it takes for a CYCLE of pressure variation in a sound wave to repeat itself. The shorter the period, the more cycles there will be in a given unit of time, and thus the higher the FREQUENCY. Waveforms which show a repeating pattern of vibration are **periodic** waves; those which do not are **aperiodic**. Speech makes use of both types of waveform: VOWEL sounds have periodic waveforms; FRICATIVES, for example, involve aperiodic waveforms.

periodicity (*n.*) A term used in METRICAL PHONOLOGY for the repetition of ELEMENTS in a METRICAL GRID. For example, in the grid for *the car returned*, the bottom level elements occur four times (*the – car – re – turned*) and the elements at the next level, higher in the grid, occur twice (*car – turned*). The notion thus has relevance for accounts of a speaker's sense of an utterance's RHYTHMICAL structure.

peripheral (*adj.*) (1) An application of the general sense of this term in LINGUISTICS, to refer to UNITS or PROCESSES which operate at the margins (**periphery**) of a STRUCTURE or within a REPRESENTATION. For example, EXTRAMETRICALITY is

restricted to the peripheral elements in a STRING, and several kinds of EDGE phenomena have been noted. The term has a particular application in some phonological studies of Australian Aboriginal languages, where it refers to ARTICU-LATIONS made at the FRONT or BACK of the mouth (as distinct from APICAL and LAMINAL articulations), and is thus equivalent to non-CORONAL.

(2)   In ROLE AND REFERENCE GRAMMAR, a term used to identify one of the two basic concepts used in analysing CLAUSE structure; opposed to **core**. The periph-eral layer contains a range of optional ADJUNCTIVAL elements.

periphrasis (*n.*)   A term used in GRAMMATICAL DESCRIPTION to refer to the use of separate WORDS instead of INFLECTIONS to express the same grammatical relationship. In English, for example, the COMPARISON of ADJECTIVES involves both inflection (e.g. *happier, happiest*) and periphrasis (e.g. *more happy, most happy* – the **periphrastic forms**), though most adjectives use only one or other of these possibilities (cf. **more big, *interestinger*).

perlocutionary (*adj.*)   A term used in the theory of SPEECH ACTS to refer to an act performed by making an UTTERANCE which intrinsically involves an effect on the behaviour, beliefs, feelings, etc., of a listener. Examples of **perlocutionary acts** include frightening, insulting and persuading. A distinction may be drawn between the intended and the actual **perlocutionary effect** of an utterance (e.g. a speaker may intend to persuade X to do Y, but instead succeed in getting X to do Z). Perlocutionary acts are distinguished from LOCUTIONARY acts (which are mere acts of saying, or uttering words with sense and reference), as well as from ILLOCUTIONARY acts (which are defined without intrinsic reference to their effect on a listener), although a single utterance might involve all three kinds of act.

permutation (*n.*)   A term often used within the framework of TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR to refer to a basic kind of transformational operation. 'Permutation transformations' have the effect of moving CONSTITUENTS (usually one at a time) from one part of a PHRASE-MARKER to another, as in the formation of PASSIVE SENTENCES. An alternative term is MOVEMENT or REORDERING. In some approaches this notion is broken down into the more basic operations of ADJUNCTION and SUBSTITUTION.

perseveration (*n.*)   A term used by some PSYCHOLINGUISTS to refer to a type of TONGUE-SLIP where an earlier LINGUISTIC UNIT is carried over, as when *stop the car* might become *stop the star*.

person (*n.*) (**per, PER**)   A category used in GRAMMATICAL description to indicate the number and nature of the participants in a SITUATION. The contrasts are DEICTIC, i.e. refer directly to features of the situation of UTTERANCE. Distinctions of person are usually marked in the VERB and/or in the associated PRONOUNS (**personal pronouns**). Usually a three-way contrast is found: **first person**, in which speakers refer to themselves, or to a group usually including themselves (e.g. *I, we*); **second person**, in which speakers typically refer to the person they are addressing (e.g. *you*); and **third person**, in which other people, animals, things, etc. are referred to (e.g. *he, she, it, they*). Other formal distinctions may be made in languages, such as 'inclusive' *v.* 'exclusive' *we* (e.g. speaker, hearer and others

v. speaker and others, but not hearer); FORMAL (or 'honorific') *v.* informal (or 'intimate'), e.g. French *vous v. tu*; male *v.* female; definite *v.* indefinite (cf. *one* in English); and so on. There are also several stylistically restricted uses, as in the 'royal' and authorial uses of *we*. Other word-classes than personal pronouns may show person distinction, as with the REFLEXIVE and possessive pronouns in English (*myself*, etc., *my*, etc.). Verb constructions which lack person contrast, usually appearing in the third person, are called **impersonal**. An OBVIATIVE contrast may also be recognized.

p-fix (*n.*)   In the DEMISYLLABIC analysis of SYLLABLES, an optional AFFIX attached to the left of a syllabic CORE; also called a **prefix**. The point of division between prefix and core is shown notationally by a dot.

phantom segment   see GHOST SEGMENT

pharyngeal (*adj./n.*)   A term used in the PHONETIC classification of CONSONANT sounds on the basis of their PLACE OF ARTICULATION: it refers to a sound made in the **pharynx**, the tubular cavity which constitutes the throat above the LARYNX. Pharyngeal consonants occur in Arabic, for example. They do not occur as speech sounds in English, but similar effects can be heard in stage whispers, as when *hey*, said forcefully in a whisper, is produced with a pharyngeal 'rasp'. The general term **pharyngealization** refers to any articulation involving a constriction of the pharynx. A **pharyngealized** [s], for example, is a SECONDARY ARTICULATION produced by simultaneously constricting the pharynx while making the [s] articulation; the auditory result would be a sound with a somewhat central and husky resonance (transcribed [ş]). Pharyngealized sounds are transcribed with [~] placed through the letter. See also GUTTURAL, -ISE/-IZE.

pharynx (*n.*)   see PHARYNGEAL

phase (*n.*) (1)   A term used by some GRAMMARIANS to refer to the CONTRAST between PERFECT and non-perfect in the VERB PHRASE (of English, in the first instance). The term is intended to distinguish these forms from the PROGRESSIVE/non-progressive contrast within ASPECT, and also from contrasts of TENSE and VOICE.
(2)   In ARTICULATORY PHONETICS, **phase** refers to a stage within the ARTICULATION of a SEGMENT. Typically, there is an **onset phase**, as an active articulator approaches the point of maximal CONSTRICTION of the VOCAL TRACT; a **medial phase**, where the articulation is reached and maintained; and an **offset phase**, during which the vocal organs move towards their next articulation, overlapping with the onset phase of that sound.
(3)   In ACOUSTIC PHONETICS, **phase** is part of the description of the waveforms that constitute speech. A 'wave' is a disturbance from equilibrium which propagates in time from one place to another. Speech waveforms can be decomposed into a number of waves of a regularly repeating kind ('sine waves'), described with reference to their AMPLITUDE, FREQUENCY and time. When sine waves start at different degrees of displacement from the source, they are said to display differences in phase.

phatic communion A term introduced by the anthropologist Bronislaw Malinowski (1884–1942) and used subsequently by many LINGUISTS to refer to LANGUAGE used for establishing an atmosphere or maintaining social contact rather than for exchanging information or ideas (e.g. comments on the weather, or enquiries about health). **Phatic language** (or the **phatic function** of language) is of particular relevance to the SOCIOLINGUISTIC analysis of linguistic FUNCTIONS.

phi features ([ɸ]) A term used in GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY and the MINIMALIST PROGRAMME for GRAMMATICAL FEATURES such as PERSON, NUMBER, GENDER and CASE. For example, AGR (see AGREEMENT) can be described as a set of phi features.

philology (*n.*) The traditional term for the study of LANGUAGE history, as carried on by COMPARATIVE **philologists** since the late eighteenth century. The study of literary texts is also sometimes included within the term (though not in Britain), as is the study of texts as part of cultural, political, etc., research.

philosophical linguistics A little-developed branch of LINGUISTICS which studies, on the one hand, the role of LANGUAGE in relation to the understanding and elucidation of philosophical concepts, and, on the other hand, the philosophical status of linguistic theories, methods and observations. When these topics are studied by philosophers, rather than linguists, the terms **linguistic philosophy** and the **philosophy of language** are used. When the term 'philosophical' is used in association with the various fields of linguistic enquiry, a contrast is usually intended with 'linguistic', e.g. 'philosophical GRAMMAR' (i.e. NOTIONAL, as opposed to DESCRIPTIVE grammar), 'philosophical SEMANTICS' (which includes such matters as the truth and validity of PROPOSITIONS, normally taken for granted by linguistic semantics).

philosophical semantics see SEMANTICS

phonaesthetics (*n.*) A term sometimes used in LINGUISTICS to refer to the study of the aesthetic properties of sound, especially the SOUND SYMBOLISM attributable to individual sounds; also (especially in US English) spelled **phonesthetics** here and in related forms. Cases such as the [iː] vowels in a LANGUAGE signalling smallness (cf. *teeny, weeny*, etc.) have been suggested as evidence for a limited sound/MEANING correspondence in language (**phonaesthesia** or SYNAESTHESIA), the sound units concerned being referred to as 'phonaesthemes'. The branch of STYLISTICS which studies such EXPRESSIVE effects (e.g. the onomatopoeia of poetry) is known as phonoSTYLISTICS.

phonation (*n.*) A general term used in PHONETICS to refer to any vocal activity in the LARYNX whose role is one neither of INITIATION nor of ARTICULATION. The various kinds of VOCAL-CORD vibration (VOICING) are the main **phonatory** activities, and the study of **phonation types** is aimed at accounting for the various laryngeal possibilities, such as BREATHY and CREAKY voice. Some phoneticians would also include under this heading the MODIFICATIONS in phonation which stem from variations in the length, thickness and tension of the vocal cords, as displayed in the various REGISTERS of speech (e.g. falsetto, soprano). See also ARTICULATORY SETTING.

phonatory setting   see ARTICULATORY SETTING

phone (*n.*)   A term used in PHONETICS to refer to the smallest perceptible DISCRETE SEGMENT of sound in a stream of speech (**phonic continuum** or PHONIC SUBSTANCE). From the viewpoint of segmental PHONOLOGY, phones are the physical REALIZATION of PHONEMES; phonic varieties of a phoneme are referred to as ALLOphones.

phonematic unit   One of the two analytic categories used in the FIRTHIAN theory of PROSODIC PHONOLOGY, the other being the PROSODY. Phonematic UNITS comprise CONSONANTS and VOWELS, occurring in LINEAR SEQUENCE, which cannot be handled in terms of prosodies. Despite the resemblance of the term to PHONEME, the two terms are conceptually quite different, as no attempt is made with this unit to analyse speech totally into a single system of phonological OPPOSITIONS, valid for all places in structure (as is the case with the phoneme), and some features which would be included in a phonemic analysis would not be included in an analysis into phonematic features (e.g. lip-ROUNDING).

phoneme (*n.*)   The minimal unit in the sound SYSTEM of a LANGUAGE, according to traditional PHONOLOGICAL theories. The original motivation for the concept stemmed from the concern to establish patterns of organization within the indefinitely large range of sounds heard in languages. The PHONETIC specifications of the sounds (or PHONES) heard in speech, it was realized, contain far more detail than is needed to identify the way languages make CONTRASTS in MEANING. The notion of the phoneme allowed linguists to group together sets of phonetically similar phones as VARIANTS, or 'members', of the same underlying unit. The phones were said to be REALIZATIONS of the phonemes, and the variants were referred to as **allophones** of the phonemes (see ALLO-). Each language can be shown to operate with a relatively small number of phonemes; some languages have less than a dozen phonemes; others over a hundred. An analysis in these terms will display a language's **phonemic inventory/structure/system**. No two languages have the same phonemic system.

   Sounds are considered to be members of the same phoneme if they are phonetically similar, and do not occur in the same ENVIRONMENT (i.e. they are in COMPLEMENTARY DISTRIBUTION) – or, if they do, the substitution of one sound for the other does not cause a change in meaning (i.e. they are in FREE VARIATION). A sound is considered 'phonemic', on the other hand, if its substitution in a word does cause a change in meaning. In a **phonemic transcription**, only the phonemes are given symbols (compared with phonetic TRANSCRIPTIONS, where different degrees of allophonic detail are introduced, depending on one's purpose). Phonemic symbols are written between oblique brackets, compared with square brackets used for phonetic transcriptions; e.g. the phoneme /d/ has the allophones [d] (i.e. an ALVEOLAR VOICED variant), [d̥] (i.e. an alveolar devoiced variant), [d̪] (i.e. a DENTAL variant) in various complementary positions in English words. Putting this another way, it is not possible to find a pair of words in English which contrast in meaning solely on account of the difference between these features (though such contrasts may exist in other languages). The emphasis on transcription found in early phonemic studies is summarized in the subtitle of one book on the subject: 'a technique for reducing languages to writing'. The extent to

which the relationship between the phonemes and the GRAPHEMES of a language is regular is called the 'phoneme–grapheme correspondence'.

On this general basis, several approaches to **phonemic analysis**, or **phonemics**, have developed. The PRAGUE SCHOOL defined the phoneme as a BUNDLE of abstract DISTINCTIVE FEATURES, or OPPOSITIONS between sounds (such as VOICING, NASALITY), an approach which was developed later by Jakobson and Halle (see JAKOBSONIAN), and GENERATIVE phonology. The approach of the British phonetician Daniel Jones (1881–1967), viewed the phoneme as a 'family' of related sounds, and not as oppositions. American linguists in the 1940s also emphasized the phonetic reality of phonemes, in their concern to devise PROCEDURES of analysis, paying particular attention to the DISTRIBUTION of sounds in an UTTERANCE. Apart from the question of definition, if the view is taken that all aspects of the sound system of a language can be analysed in terms of phonemes – that is, the SUPRASEGMENTAL as well as the SEGMENTAL features – then 'phonemics' becomes equivalent to phonology (= **phonemic phonology**). This view was particularly common in later developments of the American STRUCTURALIST tradition of linguistic analysis, where linguists adopting this 'phonemic principle' were called **phonemicists**. Many phonologists, however (particularly in the British tradition), prefer not to analyse suprasegmental features in terms of phonemes, and have developed approaches which do without the phoneme altogether ('nonphonemic phonology', as in PROSODIC and DISTINCTIVE FEATURE theories).

The term **phonemic clause** is a unit which has been used primarily in PSYCHOLINGUISTIC research into the distribution and function of PAUSES: it refers to a GRAMMATICAL structure produced within a single INTONATION CONTOUR, and bounded by JUNCTURES. The term **phonemic tier** is often used in AUTOSEGMENTAL PHONOLOGY for the TIER containing segments specified for the features that identify CONSONANTS and VOWELS (other than [± syllabic], which is specified on the SKELETAL TIER); also called the **segmental tier**. See also AUTONOMOUS (2), MERGER, ZERO.

phonemoid (*n.*)   A term sometimes used in PHONETICS to refer to a TRANSCRIPTION in which the symbols (capital letters within slashes) represent UNITS that differ in particular ways from traditional conceptions of the PHONEME. Typically, the symbols represent acoustically based similarities across different languages in, for example, SYLLABLE-final NASALS and LATERALS or VOWEL and CONSONANT lengthening. The ARCHIPHONEME might also be described as a **phonemoidal** construct.

phonestheme, phonesthesia, phonesthetics (*n.*)   see PHONAESTHETICS

phonetically consistent form (**PCF**)   In child language ACQUISITION, a vocalization which is recognizable, recurrent and apparently meaningful, but which does not seem to equate with a WORD in the adult language; also called a **proto-word** or (less commonly) **vocable**. As the term suggests, phonetically consistent forms have ARTICULATORY stability, but they are none the less phonetically less well controlled than words. Their meanings may also not be REFERENTIAL, but relate to social activities or emotional states.

phonetic alphabet   see TRANSCRIPTION

phonetic form (PF)   A term used in GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY for the output of the PHONOLOGICAL COMPONENT of a GRAMMAR, or the phonological component itself; also called **phonological form**. The term is given a revised status in the MINIMALIST PROGRAMME.

phonetic gesture   see GESTURE

phonetician (*n.*)   see PHONETICS

phonetics (*n.*)   The science which studies the characteristics of human sound-making, especially those sounds used in speech, and provides methods for their DESCRIPTION, CLASSIFICATION and TRANSCRIPTION. Three branches of the subject are generally recognized: (a) **articulatory phonetics** is the study of the way speech sounds are made ('articulated') by the vocal organs; (b) **acoustic phonetics** studies the physical properties of speech sound, as transmitted between mouth and ear; (c) **auditory phonetics** studies the perceptual response to speech sounds, as mediated by ear, auditory nerve and brain. The term **instrumental phonetics** is used for the study of any of these aspects of the subject using physical apparatus, such as devices for measuring airflow, or for analysing sound waves. People engaged in the study of phonetics are known as **phoneticians**.

Phonetic categories are generally defined using terms which have their origins in other subjects, such as anatomy, physiology and acoustics. CONSONANT sounds, for example, are described with reference to anatomical place of articulation (as in DENTAL, PALATAL, etc.), or to their physical structure (the FREQUENCY and AMPLITUDE characteristics of the sound waves). Because these methods of analysis are equally valid for all human speech sounds, regardless of the LANGUAGE or speaker, the subject is often referred to as **general phonetics**. This term also reflects the aim of the phonetician to discover universal principles governing the nature and use of speech sounds. **Experimental phonetics** is another term which reflects the general nature of this 'pure' scientific endeavour.

Work in phonetics can, accordingly, be classified into two broad types: (a) general studies of the articulation, acoustics or perception of speech, and (b) studies of the phonetic properties of specific languages. In this latter sense, it is evident that a further dimension will be required, in order to study how the sounds are used within the pronunciation SYSTEM of a language. This 'functional' approach to phonetics is usually carried on under the heading of PHONOLOGY. However, in so far as phoneticians have a specific interest in the study of individual (groups of) languages or DIALECTS, it might then be argued that phonetics is a branch of LINGUISTICS.

It is this twofold character of phonetic enquiry which gives rise to a difficulty: is phonetics an autonomous subject, or is it to be seen as a branch of linguistics? In terms of methods, it is certainly very different, and phonetic research of type (a) above often has little to do with the aims of linguistic analysis. But phonetic research of type (b) is plainly part of linguistic enquiry – some would say, an indispensable foundation. Depending on their traditions, emphases and aims, then, some university departments have been called 'Departments of Linguistics', some have been called 'Departments of Linguistics and Phonetics' – a distinction which should not be taken to mean that phonetics is not taught in the former! One compromise has been to talk of the 'linguistic sciences' – that is, linguistics and phonetics.

phonetic setting   see ARTICULATORY SETTING

phonetic transcription   see TRANSCRIPTION

phonetic variant   see ALLO-

phonic (*adj.*)   see PHONE, PHONIC SUBSTANCE

phonic substance   A term used by some PHONETICIANS and LINGUISTS to refer to speech seen as a set of physically definable ACOUSTIC, ARTICULATORY or AUDITORY properties. The importance of this notion is that it constitutes an empirical datum to which theories of LANGUAGE must ultimately relate. To be plausible, an account of the English sound SYSTEM, for example, needs to correlate well with the PHONETIC facts (as defined in acoustic, articulatory or auditory terms); and 'phonic' (or 'phonetic') substance is a convenient label to summarize this physical level of investigation. The analogous term for the written language is GRAPHIC SUBSTANCE. See also PHONE.

phonogram (*n.*)   In the study of writing systems, a symbol representing a SPEECH sound; a contrast is intended with the LOGOGRAM, where symbols represent WORDS. Any writing system which represents individual speech sounds (as in the alphabet and syllabary) is a **phonography**.

phonography (*n.*)   see PHONOGRAM

phonological form   see PHONETIC FORM

phonological scaling   An abstract account of PHONOLOGY which aims to determine automatically, on the basis of a UNIVERSAL strength scale, the behaviour of SEGMENTS or segment classes in all possible structural positions.

phonological space   A term used in PHONOLOGY to refer to a theoretical space in which a system of phonological CONTRASTS can be thought to operate. For example, changes affecting a VOWEL SYSTEM (such as the English Great Vowel Shift) can be conceived of as operating in a space where such relations as 'above' and 'below' or 'in front of' and 'behind' are phonologically relevant.

phonologization (*n.*)   A term used in historical PHONOLOGY for a PROCESS whereby sounds which were formerly ALLOPHONES develop a CONTRASTIVE status (become PHONEMIC) through the loss of their CONDITIONING ENVIRONMENTS.

phonology (*n.*)   A branch of LINGUISTICS which studies the sound SYSTEMS of LANGUAGES. Out of the very wide range of sounds the human vocal apparatus can produce, and which are studied by PHONETICS, only a relatively small number are used DISTINCTIVELY in any one language. The sounds are organized into a system of CONTRASTS, which are analysed in terms of PHONEMES, DISTINCTIVE FEATURES or other such **phonological** UNITS, according to the theory used. The aim of phonology is to demonstrate the patterns of distinctive sound found in a language, and to make as general statements as possible about the nature of

sound systems in the languages of the world. Putting this another way, phonology is concerned with the range and function of sounds in specific languages (and often therefore referred to as 'functional phonetics'), and with the rules which can be written to show the types of phonetic relationships that relate and contrast words and other linguistic units. The student of phonology is known as a **phonologist**. The term has also been applied to the study of analogous contrastivity in sign languages (see SIGN (2)).

In linguistic theories, phonology is seen in one of two main ways: (a) as a LEVEL of linguistic organization, contrasted with the levels of PHONETICS, GRAMMAR and SEMANTICS in the first instance, (b) as a COMPONENT of a GENERATIVE grammar (the **phonological component**), contrasted with various other components (e.g. SYNTACTIC/semantic in early generative grammar; COVERT in the MINIMALIST PROGRAMME). Within phonology, two branches of study are usually recognized: SEGMENTAL and SUPRASEGMENTAL. **Segmental phonology** analyses speech into DISCRETE segments, such as phonemes; **suprasegmental** or **nonsegmental phonology** analyses those features which extend over more than one segment, such as INTONATION CONTOURS. Another distinction is made between DIACHRONIC and SYNCHRONIC phonology, the former studying patterns of sound change in the history of language, the latter studying sound patterns regardless of the processes of historical change. **Experimental phonology** aims to integrate research in experimental phonetics, experimental psychology and phonological theory to provide a hypothesis-based investigation of phonological phenomena (of the kind which is standard in the experimental sciences).

The history of phonology is largely taken up with the development of ideas concerning the phoneme, as originally propounded in PRAGUE SCHOOL and BLOOMFIELDIAN phonological theory, and the subsequent alternative views proposed, especially in **generative phonology** (**GP**) and **prosodic phonology**, both of which reject the concept of the phoneme. In PROSODIC phonology, the notions of PHONEMATIC UNIT and PROSODY are proposed. In early versions of GENERATIVE phonology, different LEVELS OF REPRESENTATION (such as the SYSTEMATIC PHONEMIC and the SYSTEMATIC PHONETIC) are recognized, and an AUTONOMOUS phonemic level rejected. The purpose of the phonological component of a generative GRAMMAR is to take the output of the syntactic component and interpret it phonetically, making reference only to the SURFACE-STRUCTURE properties of the FORMATIVES involved. These surface-structure properties include a specification of the segmental (VOWEL/CONSONANT) structure of the formatives (which comes from the LEXICON), and a specification of the SYNTACTIC FEATURES involved (which comes from the syntactic RULES). The phonological rules of the component apply to the segmental representation, using the principle of the TRANSFORMATIONAL CYCLE. At the end of this cycle, all the BRACKETS marking structure have been removed, STRESSES have been assigned, and the resulting STRING of elements is represented as a set of phonetic segments (defined in terms of DISTINCTIVE features).

Later phonological theory has been much taken up with the question of how far phonological rules can be explained in synchronic phonetic (typically, ARTICULATORY) terms, and how far other CONSTRAINTS (e.g. of a syntactic, MORPHOLOGICAL or historical kind) require explanations involving more abstract notions. Earlier models of 'abstract' phonology, which presented solutions involving UNDERLYING forms that are not realized on the phonetic surface, are thus

opposed to models which are more 'concrete' in character. Several alternatives to traditional generative phonology have been proposed. For example, **natural phonology** (**NP**) stresses the importance of natural processes – a set of UNIVERSAL, OBLIGATORY, inviolable rules which govern the phonology of a language. They are said to be 'natural' because they are phonetically plausible, in terms of the properties of the VOCAL TRACT, as evidenced by their tendency to appear similarly in a wide range of languages. Natural phonological processes are held to be INNATE, and represent the constraints which a child has to follow when learning a language. These constraints disallow the production of all but the simplest pronunciation patterns in the first stages of development; they later have to be modified or suppressed, as the child learns to produce more advanced forms. In this approach, a distinction is drawn with 'acquired' rules, which are learned and language-specific. See also ARTICULATORY PHONOLOGY, ATOMIC PHONOLOGY, AUTOSEGMENTAL PHONOLOGY, DEPENDENCY PHONOLOGY, METRICAL PHONOLOGY, PARTICLE PHONOLOGY, PLANE, PROSODIC PHONOLOGY.

phonostylistics (*n.*)   see STYLISTICS

phonotactics (*n.*)   A term used in PHONOLOGY to refer to the sequential ARRANGEMENTS (or **tactic behaviour**) of phonological UNITS which occur in a language – what counts as a phonologically well-formed word. In English, for example, CONSONANT sequences such as /fs/ and /spm/ do not occur INITIALLY in a word, and there are many restrictions on the possible consonant+VOWEL combinations which may occur, e.g. /ŋ/ occurs only after some short vowels /ɪ, æ, ʌ, ɒ/. These 'sequential constraints' can be stated in terms of **phonotactic rules**. **Generative phonotactics** is the view that no phonological principles can refer to morphological structure; any phonological patterns which are sensitive to morphology (e.g. affixation) are represented only in the morphological component of the grammar, not in the phonology. See also TAXIS.

photoglottograph (*n.*)   An instrument used in ARTICULATORY PHONETICS for recording glottal area variation by measuring the amount of light passing through the GLOTTIS. The technique used in **photoglottography** has also been extended to studies of glottal adjustments and patterns of VOCAL FOLD vibration.

phrasal verb   A type of VERB consisting of a SEQUENCE of a LEXICAL element plus one or more PARTICLES e.g. *come in, get up, look out for*. Subtypes may be distinguished on SYNTACTIC grounds (for instance, the particles may be classified into PREPOSITIONAL or ADVERBIAL types), and the definition of 'phrasal' varies somewhat within different descriptions. But the overall syntactic and SEMANTIC unity of these sequences is readily demonstrable, using TRANSFORMATIONAL and SUBSTITUTION criteria (cf. *She **got up** at six/She **rose** at six/What time did she **get up?***, etc.).

phrase (*n.*) (**P**)   A term used in GRAMMATICAL analysis to refer to a single ELEMENT of STRUCTURE typically containing more than one WORD, and lacking the SUBJECT–PREDICATE structure typical of CLAUSES); abbreviated as **P** in such combinations as NP (= noun phrase), PP (= prepositional phrase), etc. Traditionally, it is seen as part of a structural HIERARCHY, falling between clause and word,

several types being distinguished, e.g. 'ADVERB phrase' (e.g. *very slowly*, . . .), 'ADJECTIVAL phrase' (e.g. *the house, old and derelict*, . . .), 'PREPOSITIONAL phrase' (e.g. *in the morning*, . . .). In GENERATIVE grammar, the term has a broader function, being used as part of a general characterization of the initial stage of analysis (PHRASE-STRUCTURE GRAMMAR, PHRASE-MARKER, PROJECTION) and of the analytic units involved (NOUN phrase, VERB phrase). In GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY, clauses are a special kind of phrase, as CP=S′ and IP=S ('complementizer phrase' and 'inflection phrase' respectively). A distinction is drawn between **lexical phrases**, such as NP and VP, which are built around lexical heads, and **functional phrases**, such as IP and CP, which are built around functional heads and which are not required to contain lexical material. See also DETERMINER, *WH-*.

phrase edge prominence constraint   see EDGE

phrase-marker (*n.*) (**PM**)   A term used in GENERATIVE LINGUISTICS to refer to the STRUCTURAL REPRESENTATION of SENTENCES in terms of a LABELLED BRACKETING, as ASSIGNED by the RULES of the GRAMMAR. Phrase-markers EXPLICITLY specify the HIERARCHICAL structure of sentences, at the various stages of their DERIVATION, and analyse them into a LINEAR SEQUENCE of MORPHEMES, or FORMATIVES. They are usually presented in the form of a TREE diagram.

phrase-structure grammar (**PSG**)   A type of GRAMMAR discussed by Noam Chomsky in his book *Syntactic Structures* (1957) as an illustration of a GENERATIVE DEVICE. Phrase-structure grammars contain RULES (**PS-rules**) which are capable not only of generating STRINGS of LINGUISTIC ELEMENTS, but also of providing a CONSTITUENT analysis of the strings, and hence more information than FINITE-STATE GRAMMARS. They are not, however, as POWERFUL as TRANSFORMATIONAL grammars, as the latter are more capable of displaying certain types of INTUITIVE relationship between SENTENCES, and may ultimately be demonstrable as SIMPLER. In a related sense, the **phrase-structure component** of a transformational grammar specifies the HIERARCHICAL structure of a sentence, the linear sequence of its constituents, and indirectly (through the notion of DOMINANCE) some types of SYNTACTIC RELATIONS.

The main difference between the phrase-structure grammars (PSGs) of Chomsky as opposed to the IMMEDIATE-CONSTITUENT analysis of earlier linguists is that Chomsky's MODEL is FORMALIZED as a system of generative rules, and aims to avoid the emphasis on DISCOVERY PROCEDURES characteristic of the earlier approach. In their original formulation, PSGs took the form of a set of REWRITE RULES (with the abbreviations expanded here), such as:

> Sentence → Noun Phrase + Verb Phrase
> Verb Phrase → Verb + Noun Phrase
> Noun Phrase → Determiner + Noun

Various distinctions have been made in the classification of phrase-structure grammars, of which the main division is into **context-free** and **context-sensitive** types: a grammar consisting wholly of context-free rules (rules which are of the form 'Rewrite X as Y', i.e. regardless of CONTEXT) is much less powerful than a grammar containing context-sensitive rules (rules which are of the form 'Rewrite X as

Y in the context of Z'). In later linguistic theory several approaches to syntax were developed which are equivalent to PSGs, but do not employ PS rules, and are thus able to capture generalizations missed by ordinary PSGs. Examples include GENERALIZED PHRASE-STRUCTURE GRAMMAR and HEAD-DRIVEN PHRASE-STRUCTURE GRAMMAR. The MINIMALIST PROGRAMME introduces a major simplification of the notion (**bare phrase structure**). See CHOMSKYAN.

phylogeny (*n.*)   The application of this general term in LINGUISTICS refers to the historical (or DIACHRONIC) development and decay of LANGUAGE in SPEECH communities, or as represented in historical TEXTS; also referred to as **phylogenesis**. **Phylogenetic** study contrasts with ONTOGENY, for the study of development in the individual, as carried on in language ACQUISITION.

phylum (*n.*)   see FAMILY

physiological phonetics   see ARTICULATORY PHONETICS

pictogram (*n.*)   In the study of writing systems, a term used for a symbol found in picture writing; also called a **pictograph**. **Pictography** is the study of pictorial systems, or an instance of such a system. The pictograms provide a recognizable representation of entities as they exist in the world (e.g. wavy lines representing sea). Modern pictograms are widespread, such as those used in present-day road signs (e.g. crossroads ahead).

pictograph (*n.*)   see PICTOGRAM

pictography (*n.*)   see PICTOGRAM

pidgin (*n.*)   A term used in SOCIOLINGUISTICS to refer to a LANGUAGE with a markedly reduced GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE, LEXICON and STYLISTIC range, compared with other languages, and which is the native language of no one. Structures which have been reduced in this way are said to be **pidginized**. Pidgins are formed by two mutually unintelligible SPEECH communities attempting to communicate, each successively approximating to the more obvious features of the other's language. Such developments need considerable motivation on the part of the speakers, and it is therefore not surprising that **pidgin languages** flourish in areas of economic development, as in the pidgins based on English, French, Spanish and Portuguese, in the East and West Indies, Africa and the Americas (where they were often referred to as **trade languages**). Some pidgins have become so useful that they have developed a role as AUXILIARY languages, and been given official status by the community (e.g. Tok Pisin). These cases are called **expanded pidgins** because of the way they have added extra features to cope with the needs of the users. Pidgins become CREOLIZED when they become the mother-tongue of a community.

pied piping   A term used in GENERATIVE LINGUISTICS for one of the PROCESSES involved in DERIVING such SENTENCES as *To whom did you turn for help?*: the PREPOSITION OPTIONALLY moves to the front of the CLAUSE, following its *WH*-NOUN phrase OBJECT – just as, the analogy suggests, the rats in the traditional

tale followed the Pied Piper out of Hamelin. A contrast can be drawn with cases where the preposition is left behind (STRANDED), as in *Who did you turn to for help?*.

pitch (*n.*)   The attribute of auditory sensation in terms of which a sound may be ordered on a scale from 'low' to 'high'. It is an AUDITORY PHONETIC feature, corresponding to some degree with the acoustic feature of FREQUENCY, which in the study of speech is based upon the number of complete cycles of vibration of the VOCAL CORDS. Frequency is measured in hertz (Hz), e.g. 440 Hz = 440 cps (cycles per second). The frequency of a sound can be determined automatically using a 'FUNDAMENTAL FREQUENCY analyser', or **pitch meter**. There is however no direct or parallel correlation between pitch and frequency: other factors than frequency may affect our sensation of pitch (measured in units known as **mels**). Variations of pitch are more easily produced using VOICED sounds, because of their regular wave-form. It is, however, possible to hear pitch contrasts in voiceless sounds; and, even in whispered speech, impressions of FALLING, RISING, etc., pitches can be heard, reflecting the changing configurations of the VOCAL TRACT.

   The linguistic use of pitch is of particular interest to the PHONOLOGIST, and this is studied under the headings of INTONATION and TONE. However, the term **pitch accent** is used phonologically in the description of languages in which the distribution of the tones within a word is totally predictable once one has specified a particular tonal feature of the word (as in Japanese). The notion has also been applied to English, where some phonological models analyse intonation CONTOURS as a sequence of one or more pitch accents, each associated with a STRESS-prominent SYLLABLE in a word.

pitch meter   see PITCH

pivot (*n.*)   A term introduced into language ACQUISITION studies of the 1960s, to refer to a primitive WORD-CLASS thought to characterize the early two-word combinations produced by children. Analysis of these combinations suggested that children used a few words very frequently, and in a fixed position, e.g. *my daddy, my car, my drink; shoe gone, car gone*, etc. These common elements were seen as 'pivots' on which the rest of a SENTENCE (the 'OPEN-class' word) depended, the STRUCTURE of the whole SENTENCE being seen as either Pivot + Open or Open + Pivot. This analysis is no longer popular, for several reasons (e.g. it fails to relate to the analysis of adult grammatical structures, ignores the SEMANTIC structure of such sentences, and seems to apply to only certain types of sentence in certain children).

place (*n.*)   One of the main parameters used in the PHONETIC classification of speech sounds, referring to where in the vocal apparatus a sound is produced. It is usual to represent this parameter horizontally, though as a result this dimension does omit some of the variations which can only be identified transversely, e.g. whether one or both sides of the tongue is involved in an ARTICULATION (see LATERAL). The conventionally recognized **places** or **points of articulation** for CONSONANTS correspond to main anatomical divisions, viz. LABIAL, LABIO-DENTAL, DENTAL, ALVEOLAR, PALATAL, VELAR, UVULAR, PHARYNGEAL, GLOTTAL, but other places relative to these are also recognized, such as POST-alveolar and RETROFLEX.

The analogous traditional classification of VOWELS is made in terms of AUDITORY criteria, using the horizontal scale of FRONT and BACK, and the vertical scale of CLOSE and OPEN; but because of the lack of a clear anatomical correlate it has been less usual to talk about vowels in terms of articulatory 'places' or 'points', except in a loose way. The notion of place (**PL**), for both consonants and vowels, has come to the fore in NON-LINEAR phonological models, where a specific **place node** may be represented in the FEATURE HIERARCHY, and used as a constituent under which consonant and vowel (or vowel-like) features are organized. For example, some ARTICULATOR-BASED models recognize a place node (with no phonetic content) for CONSTRICTION location, represented by **C-place** for consonants and **V-place** for VOCOIDS. Some approaches also characterize segments which lack oral articulatory targets as **placeless**: examples would be glottal stop, schwa, and [h]. See also GESTURE.

placeless (*adj.*)   see PLACE

plain (*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 MANNER OF ARTICULATION, its opposite being FLAT or SHARP, depending on the contrast involved. 'Plain' is defined articulatorily and ACOUSTICALLY: in contrast to flat, it refers to sounds involving a relatively wide mouth opening, and a relatively strong high-frequency component of the sound spectrum, as in sounds lacking lip-ROUNDING; in contrast to sharp, it refers to sounds lacking any PALATALIZATION feature.

planar phonology   see PLANE

plane (*n.*)   A term used for an autonomous dimension of structural REPRESENTATION in some models of NON-LINEAR PHONOLOGY and MORPHOLOGY. Several derived notions are found in **planar phonology**. **Planar segregation** permits units to be on separate planes under specified conditions: for example, CONSONANT and VOWEL features can be located on independent phonological planes (so that the relation of [LABIAL] in a consonant to C-PLACE would define a different plane from that of [labial] in a vowel to V-place). **Plane** (or **planar**) **conflation** combines two planes into a single level of representation. **Plane copying** transfers information from one plane to another.

planning (*n.*)   see LANGUAGE PLANNING

plasticity (*n.*)   A term used in PHONETICS referring to the scope for variation which exists in an individual's VOCAL TRACT. The physical characteristics of the tract do not determine the acoustic characteristics of a person's speech in an absolute way (as with fingerprints), but only the range within which a particular parameter is able to vary. For example, the length and mass of the VOCAL CORDS will be a major factor in determining whether a speaker has a naturally CREAKY voice, but other factors will allow that speaker to avoid sounding so creaky – and also allow other speakers to assume a creaky voice in order to sound like him (as happens routinely with speech impressionists). The **plastic** nature of the speech mechanism is a major argument against the view that there are immutable cues to speaker identity in the speech signal.

plateauing (*n.*)   A term used in AUTOSEGMENTAL PHONOLOGY for a type of RULE in which a sequence of high–low–high TONES is changed to high–high–high. The rule applies regardless of whether the sequence appears in the same WORD or in separate words.

pleonasm (*n.*)   see PLEONASTIC

pleonastic (*adj.*)   A term used in GRAMMAR for an ELEMENT which repeats or anticipates some other element in a SENTENCE and is thus SEMANTICALLY REDUND-ANT. The use of *it* in such sentences as *It seems that Mary has left* or *It's raining* has sometimes been called a **pleonastic pronoun**. The use of *do* as an empty AUXILIARY VERB (see DO-DELETION) has been called **pleonastic do**. The term is derived from the traditional language of usage criticism, where a **pleonasm** was seen as a species of tautology – the use of more words than is strictly necessary to convey a particular sense.

plereme (*n.*) (1)   A term used by some LINGUISTS to refer to the minimal UNITS of MEANING in COMPONENTIAL SEMANTIC analysis – what are often called 'semantic FEATURES' or 'semantic COMPONENTS'. In GLOSSEMATICS, the term refers to the minimal unit of meaningful EXPRESSION (see MORPHEME).
(2)   In the study of writing systems, a **plereme** is a SIGN which denotes both MEANING and FORM; opposed to **ceneme**. Examples of **pleremic** symbols are Egyptian hieroglyphs and Chinese characters.

P-level (*n.*)   see HARMONIC PHONOLOGY

plosive (*adj./n.*)   A term used in the PHONETIC classification of CONSONANT sounds on the basis of their MANNER OF ARTICULATION: it refers to a sound made when a complete CLOSURE in the VOCAL TRACT is suddenly released; the air pressure which had built up behind the closure rushes out with an explosive sound, hence the term. Examples in English are [p, b, t, d, k, g, ʔ]. **Plosion** is the term used to refer to the outwards movement of air upon release. Plosive consonants are one type of STOP consonant. It is also possible, using a different AIRSTREAM MECH-ANISM than the one which produces an outwards flow of lung air, to produce plosives (IMPLOSIVES) where the air upon release moves inwards. See also NASAL.

pluperfect (*adj./n.*)   see PERFECT

plural (*adj./n.*)   see NUMBER

pluralia tantum /plʊˈrɑːlɪə ˈtantʊm/   In GRAMMAR, a Latin term (meaning 'plurals only') referring to NOUNS which are PLURAL in form and have no singular counterpart, such as English *oats* or Dutch *annalen* 'annals'; the singular form, **plurale tantum** is not often used.

pluricentric (*adj.*)   A term used in SOCIOLINGUISTICS for languages which have more than one accepted STANDARD. English is a well-known example, with its American and British (and increasingly other) standard VARIETIES; other examples include Arabic, French, Spanish and Hindi/Urdu.

plurilingualism (*n.*)   see MULTILINGUAL

plurisegmental (*adj./n.*)   A term used by some PHONETICIANS to refer to a vocal effect which extends over more than one sound SEGMENT in an UTTERANCE, such as an INTONATION CONTOUR. The term SUPRASEGMENTAL is more widely used.

plus juncture   see JUNCTURE

pneumotachograph (*n.*)   In PHONETICS, an instrument which measures air flow from mouth and nose independently and simultaneously, as part of the technique of AEROMETRY. In **pneumotachography**, a face mask is placed over the nose and mouth, and separate meters monitor the air flow, the results being displayed as a **pneumotachogram**.

poetic metaphor   see COGNITIVE METAPHOR

poetics (*n.*)   A term used in LINGUISTICS to refer to the application of linguistic theory and method to the analysis of poetry. However, some linguists (such as Roman Jakobson) have given the term a broader interpretation, including within the 'poetic function' of LANGUAGE any aesthetic or creative linguistic use of the spoken or written MEDIUM. See also ETHNOPOETICS, JAKOBSONIAN.

point of speech/reference/the event   see REICHENBACHIAN

polarity (*n.*) (1)   A term used by some LINGUISTS for the SYSTEM of POSITIVE/ NEGATIVE CONTRASTIVITY found in a LANGUAGE. The distinction between 'positive' and 'negative polarity' may be expressed SYNTACTICALLY (e.g. *not* in English), MORPHOLOGICALLY (e.g. *happy v. unhappy*) or LEXICALLY (e.g. *high v. low*). (2)   A term sometimes used in the study of TONE languages, referring to cases where a tone is always opposite that of a preceding or following tone (**tonal polarity**).

politeness phenomena   In SOCIOLINGUISTICS and PRAGMATICS, a term which characterizes linguistic features mediating norms of social behaviour, in relation to such notions as courtesy, rapport, deference and distance. Such features include the use of special DISCOURSE markers (*please*), appropriate tones of voice, and acceptable forms of ADDRESS (e.g. the choice of intimate *v.* distant PRONOUNS, or of first *v.* last names).

poly-   see MONO-, and POLY- entries below

polyadic (*adj.*)   see VALENCY

polygenesis (*n.*), **polygenetic** (*adj.*)   see MONOGENESIS

polylectal (*adj.*)   A term used by some SOCIOLINGUISTS to refer to a proposed MODEL of GRAMMAR which would account for many of the VARIETIES (LECTS) of LANGUAGE used by the individual (and, by extension, in the community as a whole). The contrast intended is with grammars which ignore regional and social

variations, and which analyse language as if it were in a hypothetical homogen-eous state. A further contrast can be drawn with a PANLECTAL grammar, in which *all* varieties would be taken into account.

polymorphemic (*adj.*)   see MORPHEME

polysemy (*n.*)   A term used in SEMANTIC analysis to refer to a LEXICAL ITEM which has a range of different MEANINGS, e.g. *plain* = 'clear', 'unadorned', 'obvious'. . . ; also called **polysemia**; opposed to **monosemy** (or **univocality**). A large proportion of a language's vocabulary is **polysemic** (or **polysemous**). The theoretical problem for the LINGUIST is how to distinguish polysemy (one FORM – several meanings) from HOMONYMY (two lexical items which happen to have the same PHONOLOGICAL form). Several criteria have been suggested, such as ETYMOLOGY (the antecedents of homonymous items would be formally distinct) and the closeness of the relationship between the meanings in question (the meanings of homonymous items would be further apart, or unrelated – cf. the related sense of *plain* above with the homonyms *plane* = 'carpenter's tool' and *plane* = 'aeroplane'). But all such criteria involve analytic problems, and the distinction between polysemy and homonymy thus remains a source of theoretical discussion in LINGUISTICS.

polysyllable (*n.*)   A term used in PHONETICS and PHONOLOGY to refer to a WORD consisting of more than one SYLLABLE. **Polysyllabic** or **multisyllabic** words are contrasted with MONOSYLLABLES.

polysynthetic (*adj.*)   A term which characterizes a type of LANGUAGE sometimes distinguished in COMPARATIVE LINGUISTICS using STRUCTURAL (as opposed to DIACHRONIC) criteria, and focusing on the characteristics of the WORD: 'poly-synthetic' or 'incorporating' languages demonstrate MORPHOLOGICALLY com-plex, long word-forms, as in the constructions typical of many American Indian languages, and encountered occasionally in English, in coinages such as *anti/dis/-establish/ment/arian/ism/s*. The term is opposed to SYNTHETIC and ANALYTIC type languages. Some linguists, however, prefer to see such constructions handled as a complex of AGGLUTINATIVE and FUSIONAL characteristics, and do not regard this category of language as typologically distinct. As always in such classifications, the categories are not clear-cut: different languages will display the character-istic of **polysynthesis** to a greater or lesser degree. The **polysynthesis parameter** represents the analysis of polysynthetic forms as a system of predicate–argument relationships.

polysystemicism (*n.*)   A term used to identify an approach to LINGUISTIC ana-lysis proposed by J. R. Firth (see FIRTHIAN), in which different linguistic SYSTEMS are set up at different places in STRUCTURE, no attempt being made to identify the systems with each other. The approach has been developed primarily in relation to PHONOLOGY, where it is known as PROSODIC analysis. **Polysystemic** is opposed to 'monosystemic', as in phonemic theories of phonology, where a single basic phonological unit is used (the PHONEME), and the set of phonemes is seen as a single system of CONTRASTS, applicable to the analysis and TRANSCRIPTION of LINEAR SEQUENCES of speech sounds, regardless of the GRAMMATICAL or LEXICAL

structures involved. In polysystemicism, on the other hand, different phonological systems are set up as required at different places in the structure of SYLLABLES, WORDS and other UNITS, and within different areas of the vocabulary or grammar. There is little emphasis on transcription, and a correspondingly greater emphasis on relating phonology to other levels of linguistic structure. In this approach, the set of sounds needed to define the contrastive possibilities at the beginning of words in a language may be quite different from those required in the middle or at the end of words. There is little evidence of the need for this analysis in English (apart from occasional contrasts such as /ŋ/ and /h/, which do not occur in the same ENVIRONMENTS), but several languages, such as many in South-East Asia, have been fruitfully analysed in these terms.

polyvalent (*adj.*)   see VALENCY

pooh-pooh theory   In HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS, the name of one of the speculative theories about the origins of LANGUAGE: it argues that SPEECH arose through people making instinctive sounds, caused by pain, anger or other emotions. The main evidence is the use of INTERJECTIONS, but no language contains many of these.

popular etymology   see ETYMOLOGY

portmanteau (*adj./n.*)   A term used in MORPHOLOGICAL analysis referring to cases where a single morph can be analysed into more than one MORPHEME, as in French *au, aux*, etc. (= **à le, *à les*, 'to the'). The item is called a 'portmanteau morph' ('a portmanteau'), and sometimes, when it is equivalent to a word, a 'portmanteau word'.

Port Royal   The name given to a group of seventeenth-century scholars, based at the convent of Port Royal, south of Versailles, who, following the ideas of Descartes, developed a view of LANGUAGE in which grammatical CATEGORIES and STRUCTURES were seen as relatable to UNIVERSAL logical patterns of thought (an influential work was the *Grammaire générale et raisonnée* of C. Lancelot, A. Arnauld and others, published in 1660). The ideas of this school of thought became widely known in the 1960s, when Noam Chomsky drew certain parallels between them and his own conception of the relationship between LANGUAGE and mind. See CHOMSKYAN.

position (*n.*) (1)   A term used in LINGUISTICS to refer to the FUNCTIONALLY CONTRASTIVE places within a linguistic UNIT, e.g. PHONEMES within the SYLLABLE or WORD, MORPHEMES within the word, words within the SENTENCE. It is common to talk of ELEMENTS occurring in INITIAL, MEDIAL or FINAL 'positions' within the higher-order unit. A **positional variant** refers to the FORMAL variations introduced into a linguistic unit (usually a phoneme or morpheme) because of the CONDITIONING influence of its linguistic CONTEXT. See also ARGUMENT.
(2)   In phonetics, **position** refers to the arrangement of the VOCAL ORGANS during the ARTICULATION of a sound: the various articulators (lips, TONGUE, etc.) are said to be in certain positions, based on their PLACE and MANNER OF ARTICULATION.

positional faithfulness/markedness   In OPTIMALITY THEORY, an application of the notions of FAITHFULNESS and MARKEDNESS relative to a particular location in a FORM. For example, in a given language PLOSIVES may be less marked than NASALS in ONSETS, while the reverse may be true in CODAS.

positional mobility   A term often used in GRAMMAR to refer to a defining property of the WORD, seen as a grammatical UNIT. The criterion states that the CONSTITUENT elements of complex words are not capable of rearrangement (e.g. *unsuccessful* cannot vary to produce *full-un-success*, etc.), thus contrasting with the way words themselves are mobile in SENTENCES, i.e. they can occur in many contrasting POSITIONS.

positive (*adj.*) (1)   A term used in GRAMMATICAL description to refer to a type of SENTENCE or VERB which has no marker of negation, i.e. it is expressing an assertion. The positive or AFFIRMATIVE 'pole' of this contrast is opposed to NEGATIVE, and the grammatical system involved is often referred to under the heading of POLARITY.
(2)   The UNMARKED term in the three-way grammatical description of ADJECTIVES and ADVERBS into DEGREES, specifying the extent of their application. The positive or 'absolute' degree implies no comparative quality, and contrasts with such terms as COMPARATIVE and SUPERLATIVE. In English, the adjective with no formal MODIFICATION is used as the positive form, and this is generally the case in languages.

positive face   see FACE

possession (*n.*)   see ALIENABLE

possessive compound   see BAHUVRIHI

possessive pronoun   see PRONOUN

possible-worlds semantics   A SEMANTIC theory in which SENTENCES and other EXPRESSIONS are assigned SEMANTIC VALUES relative to a range of abstract REPRESENTATIONS of hypothetical states of affairs, or **possible worlds**. Possible worlds form a major part of the theoretical apparatus of MONTAGUE GRAMMAR and related frameworks, and are employed especially in the analysis of MODALITY and intensionality (see INTENSION (2)).

post-   A PREFIX used commonly in PHONETICS and LINGUISTICS, referring to relative POSITION in a SEQUENCE; opposed to PRE-. In phonetics, it refers to an ARTICULATION a little behind a recognized PLACE OF ARTICULATION, e.g. 'post-ALVEOLAR', 'post-PALATAL'. The terms 'post-VOCALIC', 'post-CONSONANTAL', however, do not refer to points of articulation, but to sounds occurring in a specific SYLLABIC position, viz. after a VOWEL/CONSONANT respectively. In GRAMMAR, the term is found in relation to several contexts, such as POSTMODIFICATION, 'post-determiner', 'post-article', 'post-verbal', etc.

post-alveolar (*adj.*)   see ALVEOLAR

post-aspiration (*n.*)   see ASPIRATION

post-creole continuum   A term used in SOCIOLINGUISTICS to describe the result of a STANDARD LANGUAGE exerting an influence on a CREOLE (where both are VARIETIES of the same language). People alter their creole speech in the direction of the standard, and a whole range of varieties emerge, which form a continuum between the standard and the creole. Terms which have been devised to refer to the **post-creoles** which form different parts of the continuum include ACROLECT (an educated variety very close to the standard), BASILECT (the variety closest to the original creole) and MESOLECT (intermediate varieties).

post-cyclic (*adj.*)   A term used for a type of RULE recognized in the EXTENDED STANDARD THEORY of TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR, to refer to a type of trans-formation which applies after CYCLIC transformations have been completed; also called **post-cyclical,** and contrasted with **pre-cyclic(al),** where the transformation applies beforehand. Post-cyclic rules are intended to handle such cases as the combining of TENSES with main VERBS. See also LEXICAL PHONOLOGY.

post-dental (*adj.*)   see DENTAL

post-determiner (*n.*)   see POST- (2)

postdeterminer (*n.*)   In GRAMMAR, a term used to describe a type of WORD which occurs after the DETERMINER and before an ADJECTIVE in a NOUN phrase. Several quantifying words hold this position, such as *first*, *other* and the numerals (e.g. *the **three** big chairs*, *the **other** leading participants*).

post-lexical (*adj.*)   see LEXICAL PHONOLOGY

postmodification (*n.*)   A term used in some grammatical DESCRIPTIONS to refer to all the ITEMS which occur after the HEAD of a PHRASE (an ENDOCENTRIC phrase), e.g. *The cars **in the garage** are expensive*. In English, three main types of postmodifying structure are recognized: PREPOSITIONAL phrases (e.g. *the cars **in the garage** . . .*), FINITE (RELATIVE) CLAUSES (e.g. *the car **which was in the garage** . . .*) and non-finite (INFINITIVE or PARTICIPIAL) clauses, e.g. *the car **parked in the street** . . . , the car **to buy** . . .* See GENITIVE.

post-nasal (*adj.*)   see NASAL

postposition (*n.*) (**P**)   A term used in the grammatical classification of WORDS, referring to the CLOSED set of items which follow NOUN phrases (or single nouns or PRONOUNS) to form a single CONSTITUENT of structure. The analogous con-struction in English involves PREPOSITIONS. Many languages make regular use of **postposed** items, e.g. Japanese, Hindi. The word *ago* (e.g. *two years ago*) is also sometimes classified as a postposition. See also ADPOSITION.

post-structuralism (*n.*)   see LOGOCENTRISM

postulate (*n.*)   An application in LINGUISTICS of the general use of this term in the branch of logic known as axiomatics. It refers to a set of initial PROPOSITIONS

which a theory assumes to be true; these initial statements, and subsequent deductions made from them, are collectively known as the **postulational method** (see AXIOMATIC). In linguistics, several 'sets of postulates' have been proposed, in attempts to systematize ideas about LANGUAGE, the best known being those propounded by the American linguists Leonard Bloomfield (in 1926) and Bernard Bloch (in 1948). See BLOOMFIELDIAN.

postures (*n.*)   see PARAMETRIC PHONETICS

postvocalic (*adj.*)   In PHONETICS and PHONOLOGY, a term describing a sound which follows a VOWEL. For example, /t/ is postvocalic in the word *cat*. 'Postvocalic *r*' refers to the use of an *r* quality after vowels in certain ACCENTS (e.g. in Scotland and most parts of the USA). There is a contrast with **prevocalic**, referring to a sound which precedes a vowel – /k/ in the word *cat*, for example. Some CONSONANTS are restricted to one position or the other: in English SYLLABLES, /h/ occurs only prevocalically, as in *hot*, and /ŋ/ only postvocalically, as in *sing*.

potential lexicon   see POTENTIAL WORD

potential pause   A term often used in GRAMMAR to refer to a defining property of the WORD, seen as a grammatical UNIT. The criterion states that, in normal speech, PAUSES are not introduced within the STRUCTURE of the word but are always possible (and often present) at word boundaries.

potential word   In PSYCHOLINGUISTICS, a term for any WORD which can be generated using the WORD-FORMATION rules of a language, even though it has not yet been attested. In English, the attested LEXICON includes *revision* from *revise*, but not *devision* (from *devise*), which thus remains part of the **potential lexicon**. Similarly, *slock* is a potential word, on PHONOLOGICAL grounds, but *fnock* is not.

poverty of the stimulus   The name given to an argument in language ACQUISITION, as identified by Noam Chomsky, that the samples of language available to a child are insufficient to explain the child's innate linguistic knowledge; also referred to as **Plato's problem**. See also CHOMSKYAN, EVIDENCE, INNATENESS.

power (*n.*) (1)   A term used in the formal evaluation of GRAMMARS, and particularly found in discussion of GENERATIVE theories; also called **capacity**. Basically, grammar A would be said to be more **powerful** than grammar B if it can generate more LANGUAGES (SENTENCES, etc.) than B. In this sense, a CONTEXT-free grammar is more powerful than a FINITE-STATE GRAMMAR. It is important, however, that a grammar should not become too powerful, in the sense that it generates sentences which are ungrammatical, structural descriptions which are intuitively implausible, or a characterization of natural language that is too broad (e.g. including features of non-language systems). FORMAL constraints therefore have to be built into grammatical MODELS to restrict the power of grammars in specific ways, and much current discussion is focused on this subject.
    A further distinction is often introduced, between **weak** and **strong** generative power within a grammar. In the notion of 'weak' generative power, a grammar

(or RULE, or set of rules, etc.) is said to be more powerful than another if it GENERATES more grammatical sentences. In the notion of 'strong' generative power, a grammar is said to be more powerful if it assigns to these sentences a set of STRUCTURAL DESCRIPTIONS which more satisfactorily shows their relationships. (2) See LOUDNESS.

pragmalinguistics (*n.*)   A term sometimes used within the study of PRAGMATICS, to refer to the study of LANGUAGE use from the viewpoint of a language's STRUCTURAL resources; it contrasts with those pragmatic studies which examine the conditions on language use which derive from the social SITUATION (sometimes referred to as SOCIOPRAGMATICS). A **pragmalinguistic** approach might begin with the PRONOUN system of a language, and examine the way in which people choose different forms to express a range of attitudes and relationships (such as deference and intimacy). The latter approach might begin with the social backgrounds of the participants in an INTERACTION, and examine the way in which different factors (such as age, sex, class) lead people to choose particular pronouns.

pragmatics (*n.*)   A term traditionally used to label one of the three major divisions of SEMIOTICS (along with SEMANTICS and SYNTACTICS). In modern LINGUISTICS, it has come to be applied to the study of LANGUAGE from the point of view of the users, especially of the choices they make, the CONSTRAINTS they encounter in using language in social interaction, and the effects their use of language has on the other participants in an act of communication. The field focuses on an 'area' between semantics, SOCIOLINGUISTICS and EXTRALINGUISTIC CONTEXT; but the boundaries with these other domains are as yet incapable of precise definition. At present, no coherent pragmatic theory has been achieved, mainly because of the variety of topics it has to account for – including aspects of DEIXIS, conversational IMPLICATURES, PRESUPPOSITIONS, SPEECH ACTS and DISCOURSE structure.

  Partly as a consequence of the potentially vast scope of the subject, several conflicting definitions have arisen. In a narrow linguistic view, pragmatics deals only with those aspects of context which are FORMALLY encoded in the STRUCTURE of a language; they would be part of a user's **pragmatic competence**. At the opposite extreme, it has been defined as the study of those aspects of meaning not covered by a semantic theory. In this connection, some semanticists see the subject as contrasting with TRUTH-CONDITIONAL SEMANTICS: it is suggested that the difficulties which arise in relation to the latter (e.g. how to handle the notion of presupposition) are more readily explicable with reference to pragmatics. More inclusively, it has been characterized as the study of the principles and practice of conversational PERFORMANCE – this including all aspects of language USAGE, understanding and APPROPRIATENESS. Especial attention has been paid to the range of **pragmatic particles** which are found in speech (e.g. *you know, I mean, sort of*, TAG questions) which play an important role in controlling the pragmatic nature of an interaction.

  Several derivative terms have been proposed in order to classify the wide range of subject-matter involved. **Pragmalinguistics** has been used by some to refer to the more linguistic 'end' of pragmatics, wherein one studies these matters from the viewpoint of the structural resources available in a language. **Sociopragmatics**, by contrast, studies the way conditions on language use derive from the social situation. **General pragmatics** is the study of the principles governing the

communicative use of language, especially as encountered in conversations – principles which may be studied as putative UNIVERSALS, or restricted to the study of specific languages. **Literary pragmatics** applies pragmatic notions (especially to do with NARRATIVE) to the production and reception of literary texts. **Applied pragmatics** focuses on problems of interaction that arise in contexts where successful communication is critical, such as medical interviews, judicial settings, counselling and foreign language teaching.

Prague School The name given to the views and methods of the Linguistic Circle of Prague and the scholars it influenced. The circle was founded in 1926 by Vilém Mathesius (1882–1946), a professor of English at Caroline University, and included such LINGUISTS as Roman Jakobson (see JAKOBSONIAN) and Nikolai Trubetskoy (1890–1938). The 'Praguean' influence has been widespread and long-lasting, as the frequent reference to it throughout this dictionary testifies. Its main emphasis lay on the analysis of LANGUAGE as a SYSTEM of FUNCTIONALLY related UNITS, an emphasis which showed SAUSSUREAN influence. In particular, it led to the distinction between the PHONETIC and the PHONOLOGICAL analysis of sounds, the analysis of the PHONEME into DISTINCTIVE FEATURES, and such associated notions as BINARITY, MARKING and MORPHOPHONEMICS. Since the 1950s, Prague School ideas have been received and developed, particularly with reference to the SYNTAX, SEMANTICS and STYLISTICS of English and Slavonic languages, and illustrated in the work of Josef Vachek (1909–96), Jan Firbas (1921–2000) and others. Of particular note here is the formulation of a theory of FUNCTIONAL SENTENCE PERSPECTIVE, wherein sentence analysis is seen as a complex of functionally contrastive CONSTITUENTS. A representative reader is J. Vachek (ed.), *A Prague School Reader in Linguistics* (1964), but the early book by Trubetskoy, *Grundzüge der Phonologie* (1939), translated in 1969 as *Principles of Phonology*, is seminal.

pre- A PREFIX used commonly in PHONETICS and LINGUISTICS, referring to relative POSITION in a SEQUENCE; opposed to POST-. In phonetics, it usually refers to an ARTICULATION a little in front of a recognized PLACE OF ARTICULATION, e.g. 'pre-PALATAL', 'pre-VELAR'. The terms 'pre-VOCALIC', 'pre-CONSONANTAL', however, do not refer to points of articulation, but to sounds occurring in a specific SYLLABIC position, viz. before a VOWEL/CONSONANT respectively; 'pre-head' has a similar force within the TONE GROUP; 'pre-ASPIRATION' and 'pre-NASALIZATION' illustrate temporal uses of the term. In LINGUISTICS, the term is found in relation to several GRAMMATICAL contexts, such as PREDETERMINER, 'pre-article', 'pre-verbal', PRE-LEXICAL, PRELINGUISTIC, PREMODIFICATION – and, of course, PREPOSITION.

pre-aspiration (*n.*) see ASPIRATION

precedence (*n.*) A term used in GENERATIVE LINGUISTICS to refer to a type of relationship between pairs of NODES in a PHRASE-MARKER. One node **precedes** another when it occurs anywhere to the left of the other in the phrase-marker: if it occurs immediately to the left of a node X, the node 'immediately precedes' X. In GENERALIZED PHRASE-STRUCTURE GRAMMAR, **linear precedence rules** take the form X < Y (i.e. X must precede Y). The 'horizontal' relationship of precedence

should be distinguished from the 'vertical' relationship between nodes, known as DOMINANCE.

pre-cyclic(al) (*adj.*)   see POST-CYCLIC

predeterminer (*n.*)   A term used in some MODELS of grammatical DESCRIPTION, referring to a CLASS of ITEMS which occur before a DETERMINER in the NOUN PHRASE, e.g. *all/both/half* in *all the people*, etc.

predicate (*n.*) (**pred**) (1)   A term in the analysis of GRAMMATICAL FUNCTIONS, to refer to a major CONSTITUENT of SENTENCE structure, traditionally associated with a two-part analysis in which all obligatory constituents other than the SUBJECT are considered together. For example, *Sue walked/Sue kicked the ball/Sue went on holiday* . . . would all be seen as Subject (*Sue*) + Predicate constructions. These sentences would also be labelled **predicative** in a classification of EXOCENTRIC constructions. There are several points of contact here with the philosophical analysis of propositions in terms of **predication** (i.e. properties being **predicated** of entities), and linguistic discussion has focused on the extent to which there are parallels between the SYNTACTIC and the SEMANTIC dimensions of analysis (using such distinctions as GIVEN/NEW and TOPIC/COMMENT). Parallels between the syntactic and semantic dimensions of the analysis have been one of the central areas of interest in GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY. The focus has been on VERBLESS subject-predicate constructions, as in *Martha considers **Mary intelligent**.* The mainstream analysis involves the assumption that *Mary intelligent* is a constituent, the so-called SMALL CLAUSE. (The category label of this constituent is a subject of controversy.) A rival analysis (the so-called PREDICATION THEORY) holds that *Mary* and *intelligent* are two separate constituents.

In FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR, the term has a central status: here, 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**, from which **nuclear predications** are formed by inserting appropriate terms into the ARGUMENT positions. **Full predications** are then formed from NUCLEAR predications through the use of SATELLITES (e.g. MANNER, LOCATIVE).

At a more detailed level, in syntax, distinctions are sometimes made between **predicative** and **non-predicative** functions of words; e.g. the ADJECTIVE in *the house is **big*** is predicative, whereas in *the **big** house* it is ATTRIBUTIVE. However, terminology varies a great deal here, depending on the model of description used. The term **predicator** (**P**) has also been suggested by some theorists to refer to the verbal element in Subject–Verb–Object constructions, viz. Subject–Predicator–Object, on the grounds that this avoids using 'verb' in both a functional and a FORMAL sense (cf. 'a subject may have a noun as its exponent' with the undesirability of 'a verb may have a verb as its exponent').

(2)   The term is also used in linguistics in a sense derived from logic, particularly when notions from the system of **predicate calculus** are used in GRAMMATICAL or SEMANTIC analysis. The predicate calculus, also called **predicate logic**, is a system for representing PROPOSITIONS (or SENTENCES, or STATEMENTS) in formal NOTATION, with a set of SEMANTIC or deductive rules used for proving examples of LOGICAL CONSEQUENCE, LOGICAL TRUTH, etc. More powerful than the weaker system of PROPOSITIONAL CALCULUS, predicate calculus addresses certain aspects

of logic which require an analysis of the internal structure of ATOMIC PROPOSI-
TIONS, and standardly includes an analysis of UNIVERSAL and EXISTENTIAL QUANTI-
FICATION. A **predicate** is an EXPRESSION which can combine with a fixed number
of names or other terms to form an atomic proposition, generally providing
information about the REFERENTS of those terms, as in *The car is **stolen/big/
beautiful** . . .* The predicate may be classed as 'one-place', 'two-place', etc., de-
pending on the number of terms with which it must combine; for example, in the
sentence *Jules saw Jim*, the verb *saw* functions as a **two-place predicate**, the
names *Jules* and *Jim* serving as its two ARGUMENTS. MODELS based on this system
are used in several linguistic theories, especially in FORMAL SEMANTICS and in
SYNTACTIC theories such as CASE GRAMMAR and DEPENDENCY GRAMMAR.

predicate calculus   see PREDICATE (2)

predicate frame   see PREDICATE (1)

predication (*n.*)   see PREDICATE (1), (2)

predication theory   A sub-theory of some versions of GOVERNMENT-BINDING
THEORY, whose central principle is that a PREDICATE requires a SUBJECT. This
accounts for the obligatory occurrence of expletive or DUMMY *it* in sentences
like *It's raining* and *It's possible that John is ill*. Not only VERB PHRASES but
expressions like *drunk* in *John arrived drunk* are regarded as predicates in this
context.

predicative (*adj.*), **predicator** (*n.*)   see PREDICATE (1)

prefabricated language   see FORMULAIC LANGUAGE

preferred argument structure   see ARGUMENT

prefix (*n.*) (1)   A term used in MORPHOLOGY referring to an AFFIX which is
added initially to a ROOT or STEM. The process of **prefixation** (or **prefixing**) is
common in English, for forming new LEXICAL items (e.g. *para-, mini-, un-*), but
English does not INFLECT words using prefixes. Languages which do inflect in
this way include German (e.g. the *ge-* of PERFECTIVE forms), Greek, and many
American Indian languages (e.g. the Athapaskan family).
(2)   See P-FIX.

pre-head (*n.*)   see TONE GROUP

prehodiernal (*adj.*)   see HODIERNAL

pre-lexical (*adj.*)   A term used in some MODELS of GENERATIVE GRAMMAR (see
ASPECTS MODEL) to refer to the first stage in a two-stage generation of DEEP
STRUCTURES. In this stage PHRASE-MARKERS are generated in which the TERMINAL
NODES are expressed as a Δ (DELTA) ELEMENT. In the second stage, LEXICAL
ITEMS are inserted into these positions, in the form of COMPLEX SYMBOLS (i.e.
'lexical TRANSFORMATIONS').

prelinguistic (*adj.*) (1)   In the study of PERFORMANCE MODELS of language, a term used with reference to hypothetical stages in SPEECH PRODUCTION which precede those involved with language organization. Psychological factors, such as cognitive awareness and attention, could be seen as prelinguistic in this sense. (2)   In language ACQUISITION, the period immediately preceding the emergence of linguistic patterning in children's VOCALIZATION is considered a **prelinguistic stage** of development, viz. much of the second half of the first year of life.

prelinguistics (*n.*)   A term used by some linguists, especially in the 1950s, to refer to the ARTICULATORY and ACOUSTIC study of sound, as opposed to the strictly LINGUISTIC studies of PHONOLOGY, etc. (MICROLINGUISTICS). In this frame of reference, it was seen as a branch of MACROLINGUISTICS. The term **prelinguistic** is sometimes used outside this framework to refer to any construct which needs to be taken into account as a preliminary consideration before linguistic analysis proceeds, e.g. the obtaining of adequate DATA samples.

premodification (*n.*)   A term used in some MODELS of GRAMMATICAL description to refer to all the ITEMS which occur before the HEAD of a PHRASE (an ENDOCENTRIC phrase), e.g. *All those big red foreign cars have been sold*. DETERMINERS and ADJECTIVES are the main CLASSES which **premodify** (occur in **premodifying** position) in English, but there are several other categories involved in the full description of this complex area, e.g. QUANTIFIERS, INTENSIFIERS.

pre-nasal, pre-nasalized (*adj.*)   see NASAL

preparatory conditions   see FELICITY CONDITIONS

preparatory *it*   see ANTICIPATORY (3)

preposing (*n.*)   A term used in GENERATIVE GRAMMAR to refer to the MOVEMENT of a CONSTITUENT to a POSITION earlier in the SENTENCE, e.g. an ADVERB is preposed in *Yesterday I bought a bike*; a verb is **preposed** in *I thought they'd be complaining, and **complaining** they were*. See also WH-.

preposition (*n.*) (**P, pr, prep, PREP**)   A term used in the GRAMMATICAL classification of WORDS, referring to the set of ITEMS which typically precede NOUN PHRASES (often single nouns or PRONOUNS), to form a single CONSTITUENT of STRUCTURE. The resulting **prepositional phrase** (**PP**) (or **prepositional group**) can then be described in terms of DISTRIBUTION (e.g. their use following a noun, as in *the man in the corner*) or SEMANTICALLY (e.g. the expression of possession, direction, place). Prepositional sequences of the type illustrated by *in accordance with* are often called **complex prepositions**. A POSTPOSITION is a PARTICLE, similar in function to a preposition, which is placed after a noun phrase, as in Japanese. Many linguists subscribe to a broader view of prepositions. To form a prepositional phrase, prepositions can combine not only with an NP but also a PP (e.g. *since before breakfast*), a CLAUSE (e.g. *since they finished their breakfast*) or nothing (e.g. *I haven't seen him since*). In this account, it is possible to talk of 'TRANSITIVE' and 'intransitive' prepositions. See also ADPOSITION.

prerequisites (*n.*) A term used in LINGUISTICS to refer to the concepts on which an analysis at a specific linguistic LEVEL depends. Its main application is in the context of PHONOLOGICAL PROCEDURES, where the American STRUCTURALIST view of the 1940s – that phonological analysis should proceed solely on the basis of PHONETIC criteria – came to be opposed by a view which stressed the importance of 'GRAMMATICAL prerequisites' – the PRESUPPOSITIONS about the identity of such notions as WORD and SENTENCE which had to be made before techniques such as the MINIMAL PAIR test could be used.

prescriptive (*adj.*) A term used by LINGUISTS to characterize any approach which attempts to lay down RULES of CORRECTNESS as to how LANGUAGE should be used. Using such criteria as purity, logic, history or literary excellence, **prescriptivism** aims to preserve imagined standards by insisting on NORMS of USAGE and criticizing departures from these norms. **Prescriptive grammars** of English include such recommendations as: *I* should be used after the VERB *be*, e.g. *It is I; whom* should be used as the RELATIVE PRONOUN in OBJECT FUNCTION, e.g. *the man whom I saw*; and so on. A distinction is sometimes made between prescriptive and PROSCRIPTIVE rules, the latter being rules which forbid rather than command. Linguistics has been generally critical of the **prescriptivist** approach, emphasizing instead the importance of DESCRIPTIVELY accurate studies of usage, and of the need to take into account SOCIOLINGUISTIC variation in explaining attitudes to language. More recently, there has been interest in studying prescriptivism objectively, as a sociocultural phenomenon. The term 'prescriptive' is sometimes used in sociolinguistics (e.g. the **prescriptions** of a sociolinguistically realistic language-planning programme), but on the whole the term is pejorative in linguistic contexts.

present participle see PARTICIPLE

present tense (**pres, PRES**) see HISTORIC PRESENT, TENSE (1)

prespecification (*n.*) In PROSODIC MORPHOLOGY, in the analysis of REDUPLICATIONS, the name given to a special type of relation between an element on the MELODIC TIER and TEMPLATE position. Invariant prior linking of a melodic element to a template position is said to supplant the RULE-governed linking of an element to the same position (i.e. the element has been **prespecified**). The notion is not accepted in all accounts of melodic invariance.

pressure (*adj.*) One of the features of sound set up by Chomsky and Halle (see CHOMSKYAN) in their DISTINCTIVE FEATURE theory of PHONOLOGY, under the heading of SUPPLEMENTARY MOVEMENTS, to handle variations in MANNER OF ARTICULATION. It refers to articulatory movements of the GLOTTIS or VELUM (see VELAR) where the airflow is directed outwards, as in EJECTIVES. See also STOP.

presupposition (*n.*) The philosophical uses of this term will be found in SEMANTIC discussion: a condition which must be satisfied if a particular state of affairs is to obtain, or (in relation to language) what a speaker assumes in saying a particular sentence, as opposed to what is actually asserted. It is also analysed as a certain type of logical relationship between statements, contrasting with

ENTAILMENT. Some linguists have come to use the term in a narrower sense, in a two-part analysis of sentences which contrasts the INFORMATION assumed (or **presupposed**) by the speaker, and that which is at the centre of the speaker's communicative interest; in this sense, 'presupposition' is opposed to FOCUS. (The contrast between GIVEN and NEW information makes an analogous distinction.) For example, in one interpretation of this notion, the sentence *Where's the salt?* is said to presuppose that the salt is not present to the speaker, that there is someone whom the speaker thinks might know where the salt is, and so on. This total study of the factors in the communicative context which affect the meaning of an utterance has attracted increasing interest from linguists in recent years, partly in SEMANTICS and partly under the heading of PRAGMATICS. Controversial aspects of analysing language in these terms abound, in particular over the extent to which the notion of presupposition can or ought to be restricted to certain kinds of logical or behaviourally demonstrable factors.

preterite (*adj./n.*) A term used especially in TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR, but with some use in LINGUISTICS, to refer to a FORM of the VERB expressing past time without any ASPECTUAL consideration; also called a 'simple PAST TENSE'. A preterite form ('the preterite'), such as *I spoke*, would thus contrast with such **non-preterite** forms as *I was speaking, I have been speaking*, etc.

prevarication (*n.*) A suggested defining property of human LANGUAGE (contrasting with the properties of other SEMIOTIC SYSTEMS), referring to the way languages can be used to misinform, as in lying, irony, etc.

prevocalic (*adj.*) see POSTVOCALIC

primary articulation see SECONDARY ARTICULATION

primary cardinal vowels see CARDINAL VOWELS

primary linguistic data see DATA

primary response see SECONDARY RESPONSE

primary stress see STRESS

primary vowels see CARDINAL VOWELS

primitive (*adj./n.*) An application in LINGUISTICS and PHONETICS of the general use of this term in scientific investigation, where a construct is taken as 'given' by a theory, the purpose of the theoretical exposition being to explicate it; sometimes called a **prime**. The PROPOSITIONS which contain such undefined terms are referred to as POSTULATES or AXIOMS. Examples of terms often taken as primitive include 'utterance', 'acceptable', 'sound', 'meaningful', 'mouth', 'vocalization', 'distinctiveness', etc. – though any of these might become the focus of controversy in an investigation, and could not thereby be assumed to have primitive status. The distinction between primitive and **non-primitive** terms is of particular importance in attempts to FORMALIZE linguistic theory, and has been much

discussed in GENERATIVE GRAMMAR. In early versions of this MODEL, the terms which appear in the STRUCTURAL DESCRIPTIONS of a SENTENCE are primitive, e.g. 'sentence', 'NOUN PHRASE', 'VERB phrase', '+', '→' ('REWRITE'); terms such as SUBJECT, OBJECT, SUBORDINATE, CO-ORDINATE, etc., are DERIVED or non-primitive. In X-BAR theory, noun phrases and verb phrases are not primitives: NP is a phrase headed by a noun, VP is a phrase headed by a verb, a noun is defined as [+N, −V], a verb is defined as [−N, +V], and the features N and V are primitives. In GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY, S is not a primitive, but an IP. Subject, etc. are derived notions in TRANSFORMATIONAL and PHRASE-STRUCTURE GRAMMARS, but primitives in RELATIONAL and LEXICAL FUNCTIONAL GRAMMARS.

principal parts   In GRAMMAR, a TRADITIONAL term referring to the FORMS of a VERB required to determine which CONJUGATION it belongs to. The notion was important in Latin grammars, where the principal parts of *amo*, for example, included the first PERSON form of the PRESENT INDICATIVE (*amo* 'I love'), the INFINITIVE *amare* ('to love'), the first person form of the PERFECT indicative (*amavi* 'I have loved'), and the 'supine' (*amatum*), which was a type of VERBAL NOUN ('loving'). Verbs like *amo* ('first conjugation verbs') could thus be quickly distinguished from verbs belonging to other conjugations. The term is not usually found in modern LINGUISTIC analysis, but will be encountered in studies of LINGUISTIC HISTORIOGRAPHY.

principles (*n.*)   A term used in GRAMMATICAL theory for grammatical statements that are much broader in their scope than ordinary RULES, such as the PROJECTION principle of GOVERNMENT-BINDING (GB) THEORY and the FOOT-feature principle of GENERALIZED PHRASE-STRUCTURE GRAMMAR. Principles are particularly important in GB, where it has been suggested that there are no rules, in the traditional sense, but only principles which can take a slightly different form in different LANGUAGES. A specification of the range of forms that a principle can take is known as a PARAMETER. The overall approach is known as the **principles and parameters** (**P&P, PPT**) theory of UNIVERSAL grammar. See also PROJECTION.

privative (*adj.*) (1)   A type of OPPOSITION recognized in PRAGUE SCHOOL PHONO-LOGY, distinguished from GRADUAL and EQUIPOLLENT. A privative opposition is a BINARY one, where one member is seen as MARKED by the presence of a FEATURE, which its opposite member lacks (i.e. it is 'unmarked'), as in the /p/ *v.* /b/ DISTINCTION in English, where the latter is seen as marked for VOICING.
(2)   A term used in some models of NON-LINEAR PHONOLOGY, notably UNDER-SPECIFICATION theory, referring to a FEATURE which can take only one value; also called **monovalent** and opposed to EQUIPOLLENT. For example, the features of NASALITY, ASPIRATION and GLOTTALIZATION have all been proposed as privat-ive, in that all processes which affect them (e.g. ASSIMILATION) refer only to their [+] values. The extent to which **privativity** can be applied in the analysis of other (possibly all) features is a topic in contemporary phonological debate.

privileges of occurrence   A term used in LINGUISTICS to refer to the FORMAL ENVIRONMENT in which a linguistic ITEM may be used. Items which share the same **privileges of occurrence** belong to the same CLASS, e.g. *black, nice, big, angry*, etc., in the CONTEXT *the – dog*.

pro (*n.*)   A term used in GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY for a non-ANAPHORIC NULL (phonologically EMPTY) PRONOMINAL; known also as **little pro,** to distinguish it from 'big PRO' (see FOLLOWING ENTRY). Usually associated with SUBJECT position in FINITE CLAUSES in PRO-DROP LANGUAGES, it is identified through the MORPHOLOGICAL FEATURES present in the sentence.

PRO (*n.*)   A term used in GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY for a BASE-generated SUBJECT of certain INFINITIVES; known also as **big PRO,** to distinguish it from 'little pro' (see previous entry). Within the GB classification of NOUN PHRASES, PRO is analysed as both a PRONOMINAL and an ANAPHOR. It can be controlled by some NP within a sentence, or have arbitrary reference: the former possibility is illustrated by *John tried PRO to please Mary*, where PRO is controlled by *John*; and the latter by *It is easy PRO to please Mary*. Constructions with PRO are known as CONTROL constructions, and are to be distinguished from RAISING constructions. Some grammarians refer to both as CATENATIVE constructions. In GENERALIZED PHRASE-STRUCTURE GRAMMAR and LEXICAL FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR, control constructions involve a bare VP and not clauses with a PRO subject.

procedural grammar   A label given to a type of NETWORK GRAMMAR which sees analysis as a set of PROCEDURES (i.e. instructions for analysing or building up a CONSTRUCTION) for interpreting what we hear – such as recognizing WORDS in TEXT, trying them out as parts of constructions, comparing them with conclusions already made, and so on.

procedural semantics   In PSYCHOLINGUISTICS, an approach to SEMANTICS which models the notion of SENSE in terms of a set of mental operations that decide on the applicability of a LEXICAL item to an entity, state of affairs, etc.

procedure (*n.*)   A term used in LINGUISTICS referring to a particular way of arriving at a linguistic analysis or decision. Different views about the goals of a linguistic theory can be clarified by phrasing the question in terms of procedures, of which three types have attracted particular interest, since their first formulation by Noam Chomsky (see CHOMSKYAN):

(a)   **discovery procedure:** a technique which can be automatically or 'mechanically' applied to a sample of LANGUAGE and which would produce a CORRECT analysis. Attempts to develop such a procedure characterized the work of many BLOOMFIELDIAN linguists, and were strongly criticized in early formulations of GENERATIVE GRAMMAR. It is argued that it is never possible to identify with certainty all the factors which lead a linguist in the direction of a particular analysis. Nor is it desirable to seek such a procedure, as the analysis itself can be evaluated regardless of the means by which it was obtained.

(b)   **decision procedure:** a technique which could be automatically applied to a series of grammars of a language, to decide which was the best grammar. It is suggested that such a goal is impossible, in the present state of linguistic knowledge, and that linguists must content themselves with relative and not absolute decisions, as in (c) below.

(c)   **evaluation procedure:** a technique which provides criteria for choosing the better of two analyses of a set of DATA, as when it is argued that one analysis is simpler, more plausible or more elegant than another. In generative linguistics,

a few (controversial) procedures have been suggested (see SIMPLICITY) which attempt to FORMALIZE the properties of alternative DESCRIPTIONS so that precise evaluations can be made.

process (*n.*) (1) Any approach to LINGUISTIC DESCRIPTION which sees some ELEMENTS (STRUCTURES, etc.) as being the result of a change operating on some other element in the LANGUAGE. The process of change may be real (as in ATTESTED processes of DIACHRONIC change) or part of the abstract system of relationships found in a particular MODEL of description (as when plural NOUNS are derived from singulars by a process of pluralization). This notion is fundamental to the ITEM-AND-PROCESS model of linguistic description, and several important terms in contemporary linguistics reflect a process approach, e.g. DERIVATION, REWRITE RULE, BLEND and the many terms ending in *-ization*, such as LABIALIZATION, PASSIVIZATION. In PSYCHOLINGUISTICS, considerable discussion has taken place concerning the extent to which the linguistic processes encountered in a linguistic model can be related to processes of a psychological kind (see PERFORMANCE GRAMMAR, CORRESPONDENCE hypothesis).
(2) One of the two main categories of Aktionsarten (see ASPECT) in the classification of US philosopher Zeno Vendler (b. 1900). Process predicates are divided into ACCOMPLISHMENT, ACHIEVEMENT and ACTIVITY types, and contrasted with STATE predicates.

processing (*n.*) An application in PSYCHOLINGUISTICS and NEUROLINGUISTICS of a term used in psychology for the range of activities which take place in the brain during LANGUAGE production and comprehension. Any LEVEL of language can be considered in processing terms ('lexical processing', 'phonological processing', etc.), and processing MODELS aim to represent the input/output relationship between these levels, both for speaking/listening and reading/writing. An analogous use of the term is found in COMPUTATIONAL LINGUISTICS, where it refers to the automated handling of linguistic information.

proclisis, proclitic (*n.*) see CLITIC

pro-constituent (*n.*) A term used in later GENERATIVE LINGUISTICS, usually abbreviated to PRO, and analogous to PRO-FORM in other approaches, referring to an ELEMENT which SUBSTITUTES for a LEXICAL item elsewhere in a SENTENCE. The application of the term varies, depending on the grammatical MODEL involved. In GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY, for example, the symbol PRO is associated with a BASE-generated SUBJECT of certain INFINITIVES.

procrastination (*n.*) In the MINIMALIST PROGRAMME, a general ECONOMY constraint which states that all MOVEMENTS in a DERIVATION should be delayed as long as possible. An operation should take place only when it is needed, and not before. The **procrastinate** principle prefers derivations which postpone movements until after SPELL-OUT, so that the results of the movements do not affect PHONETIC FORM.

pro-drop (*adj.*) A term used in GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY for a PARAMETER which determines whether the SUBJECT of a CLAUSE can be suppressed. Italian is

a **pro-drop language**, in this sense, because it can have subjectless sentences (e.g. *E pericoloso* 'It is dangerous'); by contrast, English is a **non-pro-drop language**, as the translation of the Italian sentence indicates. Other properties of pro-drop languages have been suggested, such as that they have a rich system of VERB-AGREEMENT, and free INVERSION of subject and verb. Pro-drop languages are also known as 'NULL subject' languages.

product (*n.*)   see LATTICE

production (*n.*)   The general sense of this term is found in PHONETICS and PSY-CHOLINGUISTICS, where it refers to the process of planning and executing the act of SPEECH. The study of **speech production** includes not only the neuroanatomical and neurophysiological activities involved in speaking, but also the construction and testing of MODELS of the neural control system in the brain's organization of speech. A particular strategy is to analyse certain characteristics of speech output (e.g. PAUSE, TONGUE-SLIPS, DYNAMIC features), as a means of inferring the properties of this system. Production is usually contrasted with speech PERCEPTION and COMPREHENSION.

productivity (*n.*)   A general term used in LINGUISTICS to refer to the CREATIVE capacity of LANGUAGE users to produce and understand an indefinitely large number of SENTENCES. It contrasts particularly with the **unproductive** communication systems of animals, and in this context is seen by some linguists as one of the design features of human language. The term is also used in a more restricted sense with reference to the use made by a language of a specific feature or pattern. A pattern is **productive** if it is repeatedly used in language to produce further instances of the same type (e.g. the past-TENSE AFFIX *-ed* in English is productive, in that any new VERB will be automatically assigned this past-tense form). **Non-productive** (or **unproductive**) patterns lack any such potential; e.g. the change from *mouse* to *mice* is not a productive plural formation – new NOUNS would not adopt it, but would use instead the productive *s*-ending pattern. **Semi-productive** forms are those where there is a limited or occasional creativity, as when a PREFIX such as *un-* is sometimes, but not universally, applied to words to form their opposites, e.g. *happy → unhappy*, but not *sad → *unsad*.

pro-form (*n.*)   A term used in some models of GRAMMATICAL description to refer collectively to the ITEMS in a SENTENCE which substitute for other items or CONSTRUCTIONS. The central class of examples (from which the term is derived by analogy) is PRONOUNS, which substitute for NOUN PHRASES. Other pro-forms replace ADJECTIVE phrases (e.g. *so* in *John is very tall and so is Mary*), PREPOSI-TIONAL phrases (e.g. *then, there*), VERB phrases (e.g. *do* in *I like films and John does too*), and even whole CLAUSES or sentences (e.g. *so* as in *I said so*). Terminology such as **pro-verb, pro-nominal, pro-locative, pro-NP**, etc., is therefore likely to be encountered.

progressive (*adj./n.*) (**prog**) (1)   A term used in the GRAMMATICAL description of VERB FORMS, referring to a contrast of a temporal or durative kind, and thus sometimes handled under the heading of TENSE and sometimes under ASPECT. The usual contrast recognized is between 'progressive' or 'continuous' (e.g. *I am*

going) and **non-progressive** or 'simple' (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 'simple tense forms', etc., and thus imply a meaning which is to some degree an oversimplification.

(2) A term used in PHONETICS and PHONOLOGY as part of the classification of types of ASSIMILATION. In **progressive assimilation** one sound influences the following sound, as when [s] becomes [ʃ] following [ʤ], in such phrases as *Goodge Street*. It is opposed to REGRESSIVE and COALESCENT assimilations.

projection (*n.*) A term used in GENERATIVE LINGUISTICS to characterize the capability of a GRAMMAR to extend the analysis of any given set of SENTENCES so that it applies also to the potentially infinite number of sentences in the LANGUAGE as a whole. The main means of doing this is the generative RULE. In some MODELS of generative grammar, a more restricted sense is found: **projection rules** are established as part of the SEMANTIC COMPONENT, their function being to assign a semantic INTERPRETATION to each STRING of FORMATIVES generated by the SYNTACTIC component.

A central principle of GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY is the **projection principle**, which **projects** the properties of LEXICAL entries on to the STRUCTURE of the sentence. It states that the SUBCATEGORIZATION requirements of lexical items must be satisfied at all levels of REPRESENTATION. It eliminates the need for rules combining lexical items with their COMPLEMENTS, and requires a TRACE to be left when a complement is removed. The **extended projection principle** requires that all sentences must have a subject. In X-BAR syntax, **phrasal projections** (or **bar projections**) refer to the different types of phrasal expansion of any word-level category: a SINGLE-BAR projection into a 'small' X-bar phrase, and a DOUBLE-BAR projection into a 'large' X double-bar phrase. All full phrases (e.g. AP, NP, PP) are **maximal projections** – levels above which the properties of the lexical entries for the HEADS have no influence. In a later development, IP and CP are viewed as **extended projections** of V, and DP and PP as extended projections of N. In the grid and bracketed-grid theories of METRICAL PHONOLOGY, 'projection' refers to the introduction of a new line in the grid. See also INTERMEDIATE (2).

prominent (*adj.*) A term used in AUDITORY PHONETICS to refer to the degree to which a sound or SYLLABLE stands out from others in its ENVIRONMENT. Variations in LENGTH, PITCH, STRESS and inherent SONORITY are all factors which contribute to the relative **prominence** of a UNIT. An abstract sense of the term is often used in PHONOLOGY; for example, in METRICAL PHONOLOGY, it refers to the relative weight between CONSTITUENTS in a metrical TREE, defined in terms of the values of *s* ('stronger than') and *w* ('weaker than').

promotion (*n.*) (1) A term used in RELATIONAL GRAMMAR for a class of relation-changing PROCESSES which make a NOUN PHRASE more prominent. In the process of **advancement**, an NP which bears a particular grammatical relation to some VERB comes to bear another grammatical relation to that verb, which is higher up the relational HIERARCHY. In the process of **ascension**, an NP which is part of a larger NP comes to bear the grammatical relation previously borne by the larger NP.

(2)   **Promotion** is also found in some models of FEATURE GEOMETRY, to refer to an alteration in the status of a construct (e.g. a feature, an articulation) from a lower to a higher level. For example, a minor ARTICULATION (such as PALATALIZATION) may be assigned MAJOR status under certain conditions.

pronominalization (*n.*)   A term used in classical TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR to refer to a RULE which replaces a LEXICAL NOUN PHRASE with a PRONOUN. In later approaches within GENERATIVE grammar, pronouns are BASE-generated. In GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY, the term **pronominal** is used for a type of noun phrase (along with ANAPHORS and R-EXPRESSIONS) of particular importance as part of a theory of BINDING. Pronominals include the class of PERSONAL pronouns, and little and big PRO. A pronominal NP must be FREE in its GOVERNING CATEGORY.

pronoun (*n.*) (**pro, PRO, pron**)   A term used in the GRAMMATICAL classification of WORDS, referring to the CLOSED set of ITEMS which can be used to substitute for a NOUN PHRASE (or single noun). There are many types of pronoun, with terminology varying somewhat between grammars. **Personal pronouns** include *I, you*, etc., in their variant FORMS (e.g. *I/me*); in their form *my/mine*, the term **possessive pronoun** (**pos(s), POS(S)**) is often used. Other classes of pronoun regularly recognized include: **demonstrative pronouns**, e.g. *this/that* (in certain of their uses); **interrogative pronouns**, e.g. certain uses of *who/which/what*; **reflexive pronouns**, e.g. *myself/yourself*; **indefinite pronouns**, e.g. *anyone/nobody*; **relative pronouns**, e.g. *who/whom/that*; and **resumptive** or **shadow pronouns**, e.g. *him* in *John, I like him*. A **logophoric pronoun** (or **logophor**) refers to a person whose speech or thought is represented in discourse. The grammatical statement of pronominal distribution in a language is usually quite complex. It is often discussed with reference to the more general notions of PRO-FORM and DEIXIS. See also LAZY PRONOUN.

prop (*adj.*)   A term used in some GRAMMATICAL descriptions to refer to a meaningless ELEMENT introduced into a structure to ensure its GRAMMATICALITY, e.g. the *it* in *it's a lovely day*. Such words are also referred to as EMPTY, because they lack any SEMANTICALLY independent MEANING. SUBSTITUTE WORDS, which refer back to a previously occurring element of structure, are also often called **prop words**, e.g. *one* or *do* in *he does, he's found one*, etc.

proper (*adj.*)   A term used primarily in the GRAMMATICAL classification of NOUNS, opposed traditionally to a set of terms including COMMON, abstract, etc., but in LINGUISTIC analysis usually contrasting with 'common' alone. The alternative term, **proper name**, reflects its traditional SEMANTIC definition: the name of an individual person, place, etc. Modern grammars aim to provide a FORMAL treatment of these distinctions: proper nouns, for example, cannot be used with DETERMINERS in the way common nouns can, cf. *the/a boy* with **the/a London*, etc. In GOVERNMENT-BINDING THEORY, **proper government** is government by a LEXICAL CATEGORY. See also GOVERNMENT PHONOLOGY.

proportional (*adj.*)   A type of OPPOSITION recognized in PRAGUE SCHOOL PHONOLOGY, distinguished from ISOLATED. The opposition between /f/ and /v/ in

English is proportional, because there are other oppositions in the language which work in parallel, e.g. /s/ and /z/, /ʃ/ and /ʒ/; on the other hand, the opposition between say, /v/ and /l/ is isolated – there are no other segments that are contrasted in this particular way, i.e. VOICED LABIO-DENTAL FRICATIVE *v.* voiced LATERAL.

proposition (*n.*)   A term derived from philosophy, where its status is controversial, and often used in LINGUISTICS as part of a GRAMMATICAL or SEMANTIC analysis. It is normally understood to refer to the SENSE of a DECLARATIVE SENTENCE, with all AMBIGUITY, VAGUENESS and DEIXIS resolved, so that a definite TRUTH VALUE may be assigned. An **atomic proposition** is one which does not have other propositions as parts; it is usually analysed as consisting of a single PREDICATE with an appropriate number of ARGUMENTS. In POSSIBLE-WORLDS SEMANTICS, a proposition is regarded as a set of possible worlds (or world–time pairs). The **propositional calculus** is a system for representing propositions (or sentences, or STATEMENTS) in formal NOTATION, with a set of semantic or deductive RULES used for proving examples of LOGICAL CONSEQUENCE, LOGICAL TRUTH, etc. Propositional logic deals only with those aspects of logic which do not require an analysis of the internal structure of atomic propositions, and standardly includes an analysis of the TRUTH FUNCTIONAL CONNECTIVES. It is weaker than the more complex PREDICATE calculus. In linguistics, the interest is primarily in the way in which different linguistic FORMS can be shown to express the same proposition (e.g. *The cat ate the meat, The meat was eaten by the cat*, and so on), and how a single linguistic form can be analysed in terms of several propositions (e.g. *Those nice red apples cost a lot* expresses the propositions that 'the apples cost a lot', 'the apples are nice' and 'the apples are red'). The notion of 'proposition' is fundamental to CASE GRAMMAR, where it is used as one of the two main UNDERLYING CONSTITUENTS of sentences (Sentence → Modality+Proposition): each proposition is analysed in terms of a predicate word and its associated ARGUMENTS (i.e. case roles). Also of interest is the distinction to be made between the **propositional meaning** of a sentence on the one hand, and the use made of the sentence (e.g. in various SPEECH-ACT situations) on the other. Linguists are not primarily concerned with the evaluation of a proposition in terms of truth-values, nor with the question of the referential or cognitive status of the notion. See also ANALYTIC (2), IDEATIONAL, SYNTHETIC (2).

propositional attitude   A term used in philosophy, and often encountered in SEMANTIC theory, for mental attitudes such as belief, hope, doubt, etc. Such attitudes are commonly analysed as relations which an individual may stand in to a PROPOSITION. The semantic analysis of VERBS representing propositional attitudes has played a central role in the discussion of intensionality (see INTENSION (2)).

propositional calculus   see PROPOSITION

proscriptive (*adj.*)   A term used by LINGUISTS to characterize any approach which attempts to lay down RULES of CORRECTNESS, emphasizing how LANGUAGE should *not* be used. For example, the view that 'SENTENCES should not end with PREPOSITIONS' is a 'proscriptive RULE'. These NORMATIVE statements are usually made within the overall context of a PRESCRIPTIVE GRAMMAR.

prosodeme (*n.*)   see PROSODY

prosodic phonology   see PROSODY

prosody (*n.*)   A term used in SUPRASEGMENTAL PHONETICS and PHONOLOGY to refer collectively to variations in PITCH, LOUDNESS, TEMPO and RHYTHM. Sometimes it is used loosely as a synonym for 'suprasegmental', but in a narrower sense it refers only to the above variables, the remaining suprasegmental features being labelled PARALINGUISTIC. The narrow sense is close to the traditional use of the term 'prosody', where it referred to the characteristics and analyses of verse structure. The term **prosodic features** is preferred in LINGUISTICS, partly to enable a distinction to be drawn with the traditional use. In some approaches to phonology, the term **sentence prosody** is used to group together intonation, phrasal rhythmic patterning and more general features of prosodic phrasing. The above use treats 'prosody' as a mass noun.

   In the theory of phonology proposed by J. R. Firth (**prosodic phonology**), prosody is treated as a count noun, and given special status (see FIRTHIAN). It is distinguished in this approach from PHONEMATIC UNIT: the latter is a SEGMENTAL unit, such as consonant or vowel, whereas **prosodies** are features extending over stretches of UTTERANCE (one talks of 'sentence prosodies', 'syllable prosodies', etc.) – a notion which took on a more central role in later thinking (see below, and also the concept of 'semantic prosody' in lexicology: see SEMANTICS). Not only would pitch, STRESS and JUNCTURE patterns be subsumed under the heading of prosody, but such features as SECONDARY ARTICULATIONS would also be included, e.g. lip-ROUNDING or NASALIZATION, when these are used to account for phonotactic restrictions, or to characterize GRAMMATICAL structure (as in the notion of 'VOWEL harmony'). Another feature of Firth's prosodic analysis is its POLYSYSTEMIC principle: it permits different phonological systems to be set up at different places in grammatical, lexical or phonological structure: e.g. the contrasts which occur at the beginning of a WORD may not be the same as those which occur at the end, and this fact is given special attention in this approach.

   In PHONEMIC phonology, linguistically contrastive prosodic features are often referred to as **prosodemes**. In GENERATIVE phonology, prosodic features are considered to be one of the five main dimensions of classification of speech sounds (the others being MAJOR CLASS FEATURES, CAVITY features, MANNER-OF-ARTICULATION features and SOURCE features). Recently, the term has been applied to a model of MORPHOLOGY in which non-LINEAR phonological REPRESENTATIONS play a central role. Using notation derived from AUTOSEGMENTAL PHONOLOGY, the approach is based on the view that information about the CANONICAL pattern of SEGMENTS in a FORM (the **prosodic template**) is represented on a different tier from information about the kinds of segments occurring in the form. In METRICAL PHONOLOGY, one of the levels of structure in a metrical TREE is referred to as a **prosodic level**.

   In **prosodic morphology**, the focus is specifically on the way in which morphological and phonological determinants of linguistic form interact, and the notion of prosody becomes more powerful, as it is seen to determine the structure of morphological templates. This approach makes reference to the **prosodic morphology hypothesis** (templates are defined in terms of the units in a **prosodic hierarchy** – MORA, SYLLABLE, FOOT and **prosodic word**) and the notion of **prosodic**

circumscription (the domain to which morphological operations apply is circumscribed by prosodic as well as morphological criteria). In an alternative account, **p-structure** (i.e. 'prosodic structure') is seen as a LEVEL at which syntactic and phonological components interact, with its own hierarchical organization of four domains – phonological word, phonological phrase, intonational phrase and utterance – the properties of which are specified by **prosodic hierarchy theory** ('hierarchy' here referring to a higher level of structural organization than in the case of prosodic morphology). Some model of a prosodic hierarchy is assumed in most modern phonological frameworks.

protasis (*n.*) /ˈprɒtəsɪs/   see APODOSIS

prothesis (*n.*)   A term used in PHONETICS and PHONOLOGY to refer to a type of INTRUSION, where an extra sound has been inserted initially in a WORD: a type of EPENTHESIS. **Prothetic** sounds are common both in historical change (e.g. Latin *spiritus* → French *esprit*) and in CONNECTED SPEECH (e.g. *left turn* pronounced as /ˈleft tɜːn/).

proto-   A prefix used in HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS to refer to a LINGUISTIC FORM or STATE of a LANGUAGE said to be the ancestor of ATTESTED forms/languages, e.g. Proto-Indo-European, Proto-Romance. More recently, some linguists have begun to use the term analogously in the context of language ACQUISITION, to refer to the emerging linguistic system of the young child, in such uses as 'proto-conversation', 'proto-sentence' (see PHONETICALLY CONSISTENT FORM).

prototype (*n.*)   A term used in SEMANTICS and PSYCHOLINGUISTICS for a typical member of the EXTENSION of a referring expression (see REFERENT). For example, a sparrow would be a prototype of bird, whereas an ostrich (because of its atypical characteristics, notably its inability to fly) would not. The notion has been particularly fruitful in studies of child language ACQUISITION, where it has been used to help explain the order of emergence of complex sets of related LEXICAL items, such as types of chair, drinking utensil or vehicle. **Prototype semantics** involves the development of criteria for the definition of prototypical meaning, with particular reference to the way that the 'radial set' of overlapping meanings interrelate, and the nature of category membership and boundaries.

proto-word (*n.*)   see PHONETICALLY CONSISTENT FORM

proxemics (*n.*)   A term used in SEMIOTICS to refer to the study of variations in posture, inter-personal distance and tactile contact in human COMMUNICATION. These variations in interpersonal space are often culture-specific, and can be analysed in terms of sex, age, intimacy, social role and other such factors.

pseudo-cleft sentence   A term used in GRAMMATICAL description to refer to a CONSTRUCTION which resembles a CLEFT SENTENCE, in that a single CLAUSE has been divided into two separate sections, each with its own VERB, but with the essential difference that the subject is a free-standing *wh*-clause. For example, the sentence *You are a fool* is related to *What you are is a fool* or (an 'inverted' or 'reversed' pseudo-cleft) *A fool is what you are.*

pseudo-intransitive (*adj./n.*)   see TRANSITIVITY

pseudo-passive (*adj./n.*)   see PASSIVE

pseudo-procedure (*n.*)   A term sometimes used in LINGUISTICS and PHONETICS to refer to an analytic procedure which claims to work in a certain way, but which is in fact incapable of doing so, e.g. to assume that PHONOLOGICAL distinctions can be established by scrutinizing the ACOUSTIC patterns displayed on a SPECTROGRAM, or that it is possible to do GRAMMATICAL analysis without reference to MEANING.

psych (*adj.*)   A term sometimes used in GRAMMAR and SEMANTICS to describe VERBS which express a psychological state, and their associated PHRASAL constructions and PREDICATES. **Psych verbs** (or **experiencer verbs**) include *amaze*, *interest*, *frighten*, *love* and *upset*, and associated forms are illustrated by such PASSIVE constructions as *be amazed at* and *be interested in*. A distinction is often drawn between EXPERIENCER–SUBJECT constructions, such as *The cat is scared of the noise*, and experiencer–OBJECT constructions, such as *The noise frightened the cat*. **Psych-movement** is an operation which moves the object of a psych verb into the subject position, leaving the former subject as a PREPOSITIONAL phrase: *Mike upsets me* becomes *I am upset with Mike*.

psycholexicology (*n.*)   see LEXICOLOGY

psycholinguistics (*n.*)   A branch of LINGUISTICS which studies the correlation between linguistic behaviour and the psychological processes thought to underlie that behaviour. There are two possible directions of study. One may use LANGUAGE as a means of elucidating psychological theories and processes (e.g. the role of language as it affects memory, perception, attention, learning, etc.), and for this the term **psychological linguistics** is sometimes used. Alternatively, one may investigate the effects of psychological constraints on the use of language (e.g. how memory limitations affect SPEECH PRODUCTION and COMPREHENSION). It is the latter which has provided the main focus of interest in linguistics, where the subject is basically seen as the study of the mental processes underlying the planning, production, perception and comprehension of speech. The best-developed branch of the subject is the study of language ACQUISITION in children, but several other topics have attracted considerable interest (e.g. the notion of linguistic COMPLEXITY, the relationship between linguistic and cognitive UNIVERSALS, the study of reading). See also DEVELOPMENTAL LINGUISTICS.

pulmonic (*adj.*)   In PHONETICS the usual term to describe activity associated with the lungs. The pulmonic AIRSTREAM MECHANISM, for example, refers to the use of the lungs to initiate an airflow for SPEECH PRODUCTION. Most human speech involves pulmonic sounds.

pulse theory   see SYLLABLE

punctual (*adj.*) (**punct**)   A term used in the GRAMMATICAL analysis of ASPECT, to refer to a momentary event, thought of as having no temporal duration; it thus

contrasts with DURATIVE or CONTINUOUS events, where a period of time is involved.

pure tone see TONE (2)

pure vowel A term used in PHONETICS referring to a VOWEL sound with no perceived change in quality during a SYLLABLE, as in *pot* or *pit*. Alternatively known as a MONOPHTHONG, its opposite is 'gliding vowel' (see GLIDE (2)) or DIPHTHONG.

purism (*n.*) A term used pejoratively in LINGUISTICS to characterize a school of thought which sees a LANGUAGE as needing preservation from the external processes which might infiltrate it and thus make it change, e.g. the pressures exercised by other DIALECTS and languages (as in LOAN WORDS) and the variations introduced by colloquial speech. This **purist** concern is considered misplaced by linguists, who point to the inevitability of language change, as a reflex of social, cultural and psychological development.

push chain see CHAIN (3)