

acceptability. In LINGUISTICS, the adjudged normality of linguistic data, especially of sentences. An acceptable utterance is one whose use is considered permissible or possible in some context by most, or all, native speakers. The CONCEPT is distinguished from the more specific notion of GRAMMATICALITY, which is merely one possible CRITERION of acceptability. An unacceptable (or *deviant*) sentence is generally indicated by a preceding asterisk, e.g. **A cats was asleep.*

D.C.

adequacy. A term in GENERATIVE GRAMMAR used in two distinct senses:

(1) As a CRITERION of the extent to which the goals of linguistic theory have been achieved, three *levels of adequacy*, or stages of achievement, being recognized. *Observational* adequacy is achieved when a grammar gives a correct description of a CORPUS of data, but does not make generalizations based on this. *Descriptive* adequacy is achieved to the extent that a grammar gives a correct account of a speaker's COMPETENCE, his intuitive knowledge of a language. *Explanatory* adequacy is achieved to the extent that a linguistic theory provides principles for determining which of a number of descriptively adequate grammars is the best (see EVALUATION PROCEDURE). Structural LINGUISTICS was criticized by Chomsky as being too preoccupied with observational adequacy. Very little headway has been made in the study of explanatory adequacy.

(2) As a criterion of the *capacity* of a grammar. A grammar whose rules generate a desired set of sentences, providing for each its correct structural description, is *strongly* adequate; a grammar which does not assign correct structural descriptions is *weakly* adequate. D.C.

adjustable speed. see VARIABLE SPEED

agglutinating (or *agglutinative*). In comparative LINGUISTICS, terms applied to a language (e.g. Turkish) in which words typically consist of long sequences of affixes and roots, each element usually having a clear identity and separate meaning. English shows little tendency to agglutinate: humorous constructs such as *antidisestablishmentarianism* are exceptional. The term is one of three used in the approach to linguistic typology proposed by August von Schlegel (1767–1845), the others being ISOLATING and INFLECTING. D.C.

allo-. A prefix used widely in linguistics to refer to any variation in the form of a linguistic unit which does not affect that unit's functional identity in the language. The formal variation is not linguistically distinctive, and results in no change in meaning. For example, different graphic shapes of the letter A (a, a, etc.) can be said to be *allographs* (i.e. graphic variants) of the same underlying unit. Variations in the phonetic shape of a PHONEME are called allophones (such as different pronunciations of the phoneme /p/ at the beginning and end of the word *pup*). Variations in the form of a MORPHEME are called allomorphs (such as the different forms of the plural ending in *cats*, *dogs*, and *horses*). Several other allo-terms have been invented. D.C.

Bibl: D. Crystal, *Linguistics* (Harmondsworth, 1985).

analogy.

(1) In historical and comparative work in LINGUISTICS, the process of regularization which affects the exceptional forms in the grammar of a language. Irregular forms tend to become regular — a process which can be heard in early child utterance in such forms as *mans*, *mouses*, and *wented*, which are coined on analogy with regular plurals and past tenses. D.C.

Bibl: F. Palmer, *Grammar* (Harmondsworth, 1984).

(2) In philosophy, likeness or simi-

analytic.

ANALYSIS (卷二, 頁二).

(2) In comparative LINGUISTICS,
adjective applied to a language (e.g. Viet-

namese) in which the word forms are invariable, grammatical relations being indicated primarily by word order and the use of particles, not by inflections or compounding (as in INFLECTING and AGGLUTINATING languages respectively). An alternative term is *isolating*. D.C.

anthropological linguistics. A branch of LINGUISTICS which studies language variation and use in relation to the cultural patterns and beliefs of man, e.g. the way in which linguistic features may identify a

member of a community with a social, religious, occupational, or kinship group. See also ETHNOLINGUISTICS; SOCIO-LINGUISTICS. D.C.

areal linguistics. In LINGUISTICS, the study of the linguistic forms found in any geographically defined region — their present-day distinctiveness and their historical antecedents. Particular groups of languages would be established in an *areal classification* (such as the Scandinavian languages, or the British dialects influenced by the speech of London). D.C.

Bibl: P. Trudgill, *On Dialect* (Oxford, 1983).

bidialectalism (bidialectism). In SOCIOLINGUISTICS, the ability to use two dialects of a language, and thus any educational policy which recognizes the need to develop this ability in children. The notion emerges most commonly in relation to the teaching of non-standard alongside standard English, especially in relation to the abilities of different ethnic groups. D.C.

Bibl: P. Trudgill, *Sociolinguistics* (Harmondsworth, 1984).

binding. An approach developed in GENERATIVE GRAMMAR of the late 1970s which focuses on the conditions which formally relate, or 'bind', elements of a sentence together. The binding relationships obtain within certain structures, known as 'governing categories' (such as a noun phrase, or a sentence), and the approach as a whole is thus often referred to as the theory of 'government and binding'.

D.C.

Bibl: A. Radford, *Transformational Syntax* (Cambridge, 1981).

biolinguistics (or *biological linguistics*). A developing branch of LINGUISTICS which studies the biological preconditions for language development and use in man.

D.C.

Bibl: E. H. Lenneberg, *Biological Foundations of Language* (N.Y., 1967).

Bloomfieldian. Characteristic of, or a follower of, the linguistic approach of Leonard Bloomfield, as exemplified in his book *Language*, published in 1933. *Bloomfieldianism* refers particularly to the school of thought which developed between the mid 1930s and 1950s, especially in America, and which was a formative influence on structural LINGUISTICS. It was especially characterized by its BEHAVIOURISTIC principles for the study of meaning, and its insistence on rigorous DISCOVERY PROCEDURES. A reaction against Bloomfieldian tenets was a powerful force in producing GENERATIVE GRAMMAR. Though Bloomfieldianism is no longer fashionable, some of its methods are still widely used in field studies.

D.C.

case grammar. An approach to linguistic analysis which sees the basic structure of sentences as consisting of a verb plus one or more noun phrases, which relate to it in defined ways. The syntactic MEANING RELATIONS are called *cases* (a term covering more than in TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR, where it was restricted to describing certain systems of word-endings). For example, in the sentence *John opened the door with the key*, *John* is 'agentive' case, *the door* 'objective', and *with the key* 'instrumental'. This approach, first formulated by Charles Fillmore in 1968, has since developed variant forms, and has exercised considerable influence in contemporary LINGUISTICS. D.C.

Bibl: C. J. Fillmore, 'The Case for Case', in E. Bach and R. T. Harns, eds., *Universals in Linguistic Theory* (London and N.Y., 1968), pp. 1-90.

Chomsky, Avram Noam (U.S. linguist, *b.* 1928), see under ADEQUACY; BLACK-BOX THEORY; CHOMSKYAN; COMPETENCE AND PERFORMANCE; DISCOVERY PROCEDURE; EVALUATION PROCEDURE; GENERATIVE GRAMMAR; LANGUE AND PAROLE; LINGUISTICS; MENTALISM; MIT SCHOOL; STRUCTURALISM; UNIVERSAL.

Chomskyan. Characteristic of, or a follower of, the linguistic principles of

Avram Noam Chomsky (b. 1928), Professor of Modern Languages and Linguistics at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. His book *Syntactic Structures* (The Hague, 1957) was the first to outline and justify a GENERATIVE conception of language, currently the most widely held view. Apart from his technical contributions within LINGUISTICS, he has written at length on the philosophical and psychological implications of a generative theory of language, in particular developing a view of the integral relationship between language and the human mind, and it is this which has made such an impact on disciplines outside linguistics. (See also INNATENESS HYPOTHESIS.) He has also made a powerful impression on the American and, to a lesser extent, the British public through his extensive critical writings on United States policy in VIETNAM. D.C.

Bibl: A. N. Chomsky, *Language and Mind* (N.Y., enl. ed., 1972); J. Lyons, *Chomsky* (London, 1970).

nd to soil (*edaphic climax*).

P.H.

clinical linguistics. The application of the theories, methods, and descriptive findings of LINGUISTICS to the analysis of spoken or written language handicap, such as APHASIA, language delay, or pronunciation disorders.

D.C.

Bibl: D. Crystal, *Clinical Linguistics* (Vienna, 1981).

1985).
code. In SOCIOLINGUISTICS, a term loosely applied to the language system of a community or to a particular *variety* within a language, e.g. Bernstein's characterization of the different linguistic capabilities of middle- and working-class children in terms of elaborated and restricted codes.

D.C.

code-switching. In SOCIOLINGUISTICS, the way bilingual or BIDIALECTAL speakers change from the use of one language or dialect to another, depending on who they are talking to, where they are, and other contextual factors. The amount of code-switching which takes place in everyday conversation between bilinguals has been much underestimated, and is often misinterpreted as illustrating uncertainty or confusion on the part of the speakers. The current view is that the alternations reflect systematically the social and psychological factors involved in the interaction.

D.C.

Bibl: P. Trudgill, *Sociolinguistics* (Harmondsworth, 1984).

collocation. In LINGUISTICS, a term, primarily FIRTHIAN, applied to the regular occurrence together of lexical items in a language, e.g. *bar* is said to collocate with such items as *steel, soap, harbour, public*. See also LEXICON. D.C.

There were 49 full members of the Commonwealth. There remain a few dependent territories, mostly of the United Kingdom, largely because they would not accept international entities on their territory, e.g. St Helena, Pitcairn, or because of other international complications, e.g. Gibraltar. The most heavily populated,

most revival. The impact in societies of large-scale, high-tech units and elliptical arrangements. Communication, established by the Am

speaker's awareness of the grammatical system of a language. D.C.

Bibl: D. Hymes, *Foundations in Sociolinguistics* (London, 1977).

competence and performance. A distinction which is central to **GENERATIVE GRAMMAR**, and has become widely used in **LINGUISTICS** as a whole. Competence refers to a person's knowledge of his language, the system of rules which he has mastered so that he is able to produce and understand an indefinite number of sentences, and to recognize grammatical mistakes and ambiguities. Performance refers to specific utterances, containing features foreign to the basic rule system (e.g. hesitations, unfinished sentences). According to Chomsky, linguistics before generative grammar had been preoccupied with performance in a **CORPUS**, instead of with the underlying competence involved (see **ADEQUACY**, sense 1). The validity of the distinction has, however, been questioned (e.g. are **INTONATION**, **STYLISTICS**, **DISCOURSE** matters of competence or performance?) See also **LANGUE**. D.C.

computational linguistics. A branch of

LINGUISTICS which studies COMPUTER
SIMULATION of human linguistic
behaviour, especially such applications as
MACHINE TRANSLATION and SPEECH
SYNTHESIS. D.C.

constituent analysis. In LINGUISTICS, the analysis of a sentence into its *constituents*, i.e. identifiable elements. Any complex constituent may itself be analysed into other constituents; and sentences thus come to be viewed as consisting of 'layers' of constituents. Thus the sentence *The boys are sleeping* consists of two main constituents, *The boys* and *are sleeping*; each of these has two constituents, *the* and *boys*, *are* and *sleeping*; and of these, two may be split further: *boy* + *s* (the *marker* of plurality), and *sleep* + *ing* (the *marker* of continuity). Brackets are often used to indicate constituent structure, e.g. {[The ((boy)s)] [are ((sleep)ing)]}. Such sentence analysis is generally referred to, following Bloomfield, as *immediate constituent* (IC) analysis, and the 'immediate' constituents in which the analysis results are distinguished from the residual, unanalysable *ultimate constituents* (UCs).

context-free and **context-sensitive** (or *context-dependent* or *context-restricted*). In **GENERATIVE GRAMMAR**, terms used to distinguish between rules which apply regardless of the grammatical context, and rules specifying grammatical conditions

which limit their applicability. Grammars containing context-sensitive rules are called *context-sensitive grammars*. It is claimed that they provide more accurate and economical descriptions of sentence structure than do *context-free grammars*.

D.C.

context of situation. In LINGUISTICS, a term applied by FIRTHIAN linguists to the non-linguistic environment of utterances. Meaning is seen as a complex of relations operating between linguistic features of utterances (e.g. sounds, words) and features of the social situation in which utterances occur (e.g. the occupation of the speaker, the number of listeners present). Contexts of situation are a means of specifying and classifying those situational features that are necessary in order to understand the full meaning of utterances. Firth, and the anthropologist Malinowski, made various suggestions for the analysis of relevant contextual categories, but there have been few detailed studies. (See PHATIC LANGUAGE.)

The term is also used, with a similar meaning, outside Firthian linguistics, though *situational context*, or just *context*, is more common.

D.C.

cooperative principle. In LINGUISTICS, a notion, derived from the philosopher H.P. Grice, which is often used as part of the study of the structure of conversation. The principle states that speakers try to cooperate with each other when communicating — more specifically, that they will attempt to be informative, truthful, relevant, and clear (see MAXIMS OF CONVERSATION). Listeners will normally assume that a speaker is following these criteria. It is of course possible to break these maxims (in lying, sarcasm, etc.), but conversation proceeds on the assumption that speakers do not generally do so.

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D.C.

Bibl: S. Levinson, *Pragmatics* (Cambridge, 1983).

core grammar. In recent **GENERATIVE GRAMMAR**, the set of principles which characterize all the basic trends in grammatical structure found in the world's languages. D.C.

Bibl: A. Radford, *Transformational Syntax* (Cambridge, 1981).

creole. In SOCIOLINGUISTICS, a PIDGIN language which has become the mother-tongue of a speech community, as in the case of Jamaica, Haiti, and many other parts of the world. The process of development, in which the structural and stylistic range of the pidgin is expanded, is known as *creolization*. D.C.

Bibl: P. Trudgill, *Sociolinguistics* (Harmondsworth, 1984).

deep structure and surface structure. A central theoretical distinction in **GENERATIVE GRAMMAR**. The surface structure of a sentence is the string of sounds/words that we articulate and hear. Analysing the surface structure of a sentence through **CONSTITUENT ANALYSIS** is a universal procedure which indicates many important facts about linguistic structure; but it by no means indicates everything, e.g. it cannot explain how we recognize ambiguous sentences, or how we intuitively relate sentences which have different surface forms but the same basic meaning (e.g. *cats chase mice* and *mice are chased by cats*). For such reasons, linguists in the late 1950s postulated a deep or 'underlying' structure for sentences – a **LEVEL** of structural organization in which all the factors determining structural interpretation are defined and interrelated. The main current view is that a grammar operates by generating a set of abstract deep structures in its phrase-structure rules, subsequently converting these underlying representations into surface structures by applying a set of **TRANSFORMATIONAL** rules. This two-level conception of grammatical structure has been questioned, but is still the most widely held.

D.C.

deixis (deictic). In LINGUISTICS, features of language which relate directly to the personal, temporal, or locational characteristics of the situation in which an utterance takes place, and whose meaning is thus relative to that situation. Examples

include *here/there, now/then, I/you, this/that*. The notion is analogous to that of 'indexical expression' in PHILOSOPHY.

D.C.

Bibl: S. Levinson, *Pragmatics* (Cambridge, 1983).

dependency grammar. In LINGUISTICS, a type of formal grammar, developed in the 1950s (especially by the French linguist Lucien Tesnière (1893-1954), which established types of dependencies between the elements of a construction as a means of explaining grammatical relationships. Syntactic structure is represented as 'dependency trees' — sets of nodes whose interconnections specify structural relations.

Bibl: P. Matthews, *Syntax* (Cambridge, 1981).

developmental linguistics. A branch of LINGUISTICS which studies the acquisition of language in children; also sometimes known as *developmental psycholinguistics*. The subject involves the application of linguistic theories and techniques of analysis to child language data, in order to provide a precise description of patterns of development, and an explanation of norms and variations encountered, both within individual languages and universally.

D.C.

Bibl: P. Fletcher and M. Garman (eds.), *Language Acquisition* (Cambridge, 1986).

dialectology (or *dialect geography*). A branch of LINGUISTICS which studies local linguistic variation within a language. Dialects are normally defined in geographical terms (*regional* dialects), but the concept has been extended to cover socio-economic variation (CLASS dialects) and occasionally other types of linguistic VARIETY (e.g. *occupational* dialect). There is therefore some overlap with SOCIOLINGUISTICS. Within dialectology, a distinction is often made between *rural* and *urban* studies. There is also a distinction between the *traditional* dialectology of the early language atlases, with its emphasis on ISOGLOSSES, and more recent studies of systems of dialect contrast, using techniques of structural LINGUISTICS, and known as *structural* dialectology.

D.C.

diglossia. In SOCIOLINGUISTICS, a situation in which two very different varieties of a language co-occur throughout a speech community, each with a distinct range of social functions. Both varieties are standardized to some degree, and have usually been given special names by native speakers. Sociolinguists generally refer to one variety as 'high', the other as 'low', the distinction broadly corresponding to a difference in formality. Diglossic situations can be found in Greek (high: Katharevousa; low: Dhimotiki), Arabic (high: Classical; low: Colloquial), and Swiss German (high: Hochdeutsch; low: Schweizerdeutsch). D.C.

Bibl: P. Trudgill, *Sociolinguistics* (Harmondsworth, 1984).

discourse. In LINGUISTICS, a stretch of language larger than the sentence. The term *discourse analysis* is often applied to the study of those linguistic effects – semantic, stylistic, syntactic – whose description needs to take into account sentence sequences as well as sentence structure.

D.C.

discovery procedure. In LINGUISTICS, a set of techniques which enable an investigator to derive the rules of a grammar from a CORPUS of utterances, with as little reference to INTUITION as possible. Chomsky has criticized BLOOMFIELDIAN linguistics for its preoccupation with discovery procedures at the expense of theoretical questions.

D.C.

duality of structure (sometimes referred to as *double articulation*). In LINGUISTICS, a major defining characteristic of human language, which is seen as containing two fundamental LEVELS of structure: (1) a phonological level, at which sounds, themselves meaningless, are organized into (meaningful) combinations (see PHONETICS; PHONOLOGY); (2) a syntactic

level, at which the properties of the meaningful expression are studied (in terms of SYNTAX, LEXICON, SEMANTICS). D.C.

educational linguistics. In LINGUISTICS, the application of linguistic theories, methods, and descriptive findings to the study of mother-tongue teaching or learning in schools or other educational settings. The subject deals with both spoken and written language (including the development of literacy), and also the range of linguistic varieties (accents, dialects, etc.) available in the community. D.C.

Bibl: P. Gannon and P. Czerniewska, *Using Linguistics: An Educational Focus* (London, 1980).

emic and **etic**. In LINGUISTICS, terms derived from the contrast between phonemics (see PHONOLOGY) and PHONETICS, and used to characterize opposed approaches to the study of linguistic data. An *etic* approach is one where the physical patterns of language are described with a minimum of reference to their function within the language system, whereas an *emic* approach takes full account of functional relationships, setting up minimal contrastive units as the basis of a description. Thus an etic approach to INTONATION would describe an utterance's pitch movement as minutely as possible, whereas an emic approach would describe only those features of the pitch pattern which are used to signal meanings.

D.C.

error analysis.

(1) In applied LINGUISTICS, a technique for identifying, classifying, and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a language. Errors are assumed to reflect, in a systematic way, the level of COMPETENCE achieved by a learner. D.C.

Bibl. S. B. Corder. *Introducing Applied*

ethnolinguistics. A branch of LINGUISTICS which studies language in relation to the investigation of ethnic types and behaviour. It often overlaps with ANTHROPOLOGICAL LINGUISTICS and SOCIOLINGUISTICS, and recently the phrase *ethnography of communication* has been applied by sociolinguists to the study of language in relation to the entire range of extra-linguistic variables. D.C.

Bibl: J. J. Gumperz and D. Hymes (eds.), *Directions in Sociolinguistics: the Ethnography of Communication* (London and N.Y., 1972).

etymological fallacy. The view, criticized in LINGUISTICS, that an earlier (or the oldest) meaning of a word is the correct one, e.g. that *history* 'really' means 'investigation', because this was the meaning the word had in Classical Greek. Linguists, by contrast, emphasize that the meaning of a word can be determined only by an analysis of its current use. D.C.

Bibl: D. Crystal, *Linguistics* (Harmondsworth, 1985).

evaluation procedure. In LINGUISTICS, a set of techniques which enable a linguist to judge which of two GRAMMARS is the better account of a language. The importance of this notion was first pointed out by Chomsky, and there has since been considerable discussion of evaluation CRITERIA (e.g. the economy of a description) for particular areas of language, especially PHONOLOGY. D.C.

extended standard theory. The name given to a model of GENERATIVE GRAMMAR which developed in the 1970s out of

that expounded by Noam Chomsky (see CHOMSKYAN) in his *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965), which was known as the standard theory. The 'extension' was primarily due to the way in which additional factors (other than the traditional notion of DEEP STRUCTURE) were introduced to account for the way in which a sentence's meaning was to be analysed. Further developments of the approach in the mid-1970s became known as the *revised extended standard theory*. D.C.

Bibl: A. Radford, *Transformational Syntax* (Cambridge, 1981).

felicity conditions. In LINGUISTICS, a term used in the theory of SPEECH ACTS to refer to the criteria which must be satisfied if the speech act is to achieve its purpose. For example, before a person is entitled to perform the speech act of baptizing, certain 'preparatory conditions' must be

present (the person must be invested with the appropriate authority). Or, at a more everyday level, the utterance of a request would be 'infelicitous' if the speaker knew that circumstances would not permit the request being carried out (e.g. asking for a window to be opened in a room with no windows).

D.C.

Bibl: S. Levinson, *Pragmatics* (Cambridge, 1983).

Firthian. Characteristic of, or a follower of, the linguistic principles of J. R. Firth (1890–1960), Professor of General Linguistics in the University of London (1944–56), and the formative influence on the development of LINGUISTICS in Great Britain. A central notion is *polysystemism*, an approach to linguistic analysis based on the view that language patterns cannot be accounted for in terms of a single system of analytic principles and categories (*monosystemic* linguistics), but that different systems may need to be set up at different places within a description; for other features see COLLOCATION, CONTEXT OF SITUATION, and PROSODIC FEATURE. Relatively little of Firth's teaching was published, but many of his ideas have been developed by a *neo-Firthian* group of scholars, whose main theoretician is M. A. K. Halliday, Professor of General Linguistics at University College London from 1965 to 1970 (see SCALE AND CATEGORY GRAMMAR; SYSTEMIC GRAMMAR). D.C.

Bibl: J. R. Firth, *Papers in Linguistics 1934–1951* (London, 1957).

foregrounding. In STYLISTICS, and associated fields, any deviation from a linguistic or socially accepted norm. The analogy is of a figure seen against a background. A 'foregrounded' feature in English poetry would be the use of alliteration or rhyme.

D.C.

Bibl: G. Leech, *A Linguistic Guide to English Poetry* (London, 1969).

form. In LINGUISTICS, a term used in a variety of technical senses, of which the most important are:

(1) any linguistic element, or combination of elements, especially when studied without reference to their syntactic FUNCTION;

(2) a variant of a linguistic element in a given context (e.g. the forms of a noun);

(3) the phonetic/phonological/grammatical characteristic of a linguistic element or unit, as opposed to its meaning (e.g. the active form of a sentence). See also MORPHEME; UNIVERSAL; WORD CLASS.

D.C.

free variation. In LINGUISTICS, the relationship between linguistic units having the same DISTRIBUTION which are different in FORM (sense 3) but not thereby different in meaning, i.e. the units do not contrast. The concept is most widely used in PHONOLOGY, referring to variant pronunciations of a word; but it may be used in GRAMMAR, and also in SEMANTICS (where it is called *synonymy*). D.C.

functional grammar. In LINGUISTICS, an approach to grammatical analysis which is based on the pragmatic rules which govern social interaction, the formal rules of PHONOLOGY, SYNTAX, and SEMANTICS being seen as secondary. Functional approaches, in various models, developed in the 1970s as an alternative to the abstract, formalized view of language presented by transformational grammar. D.C.

Bibl: P. Matthews, *Syntax* (Cambridge, 1981).

functional sentence perspective (FSP). In LINGUISTICS, a theory associated with the modern exponents of the PRAGUE SCHOOL. It refers to an analysis of utterances or texts in terms of the information they contain, the role of each utterance element being evaluated for its semantic contribution to the whole. The different levels of

contribution involved results in the notion of the 'communicative dynamism' of an utterance. The main structural elements of this theory are known as 'rheme' (the element in an utterance which adds new meaning to what has been communicated already) and 'theme' (the element which adds little or no new meaning). D.C.

Bibl: G.C. Lepschy, *A Survey of Structural Linguistics* (Oxford, 1982).

generalized phrase structure grammar (GPSG). In LINGUISTICS, a theory developed in the late 1970s as an alternative to accounts of language which rely on the notion of syntactic transformations (see TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR). In GPSG there are no transformations at all, and the syntactic structure of a sentence is

represented by a single TREE DIAGRAM of its phrase structure. D.C.

Bibl: G. Gazdar *et al.*, *Generalized Phrase Structure Grammar* (Oxford, 1985).

generative grammar. A CONCEPT, developed by Noam Chomsky in *Syntactic Structures* (The Hague, 1957), which makes it possible, by the application of a finite number of *rewrite rules*, to predict ('generate') the infinite number of sentences in a language and to specify their structure. Of several possible MODELS of generative grammar he discusses three:

(1) *Finite-state* grammars generate by working through a sentence 'from left to right'; an initial element is selected, and thereafter the possibilities of occurrence of all other elements are wholly determined by the nature of the elements preceding them; Chomsky shows how this extremely simple kind of GRAMMAR is incapable of accounting for many important processes of sentence formation.

(2) *Phrase-structure* grammars contain ordered rules which are capable not only of generating strings of linguistic elements, but also of providing a CONSTITUENT ANALYSIS of these strings, and hence more information about sentence formation.

(3) *Transformational* grammars are in Chomsky's view the most powerful of all, in that very many sentence types can be economically derived by supplementing the constituent analysis rules of phrase-structure grammars with rules for transforming one sentence into another. Thus a rule for 'passivization' would take an active sentence and re-order its elements so as to produce a passive sentence – a procedure both simpler and intuitively more satisfactory than generating active and passive sentences separately in the same grammar.

In its current outline, a transformational-generative grammar consists of (a) a *syntactic component*, comprising a basic set of phrase-structure rules (sometimes called the *base component*) which provide the DEEP STRUCTURE information about the sentences of a language, and a set of transformational rules for generating *surface structures*; (b) a *phonological component*, which provides for converting strings of syntactic elements into pronounceable utterance; and (c) a semantic component, which provides information about the meaning of the lexical items to be used in sentences (see LEXICON). D.C.

Bibl: see under CHOMSKYAN; GRAMMAR.

glossematics. An approach to language adopted primarily by Louis Hjelmslev and associates at the Linguistic Circle of Copenhagen in the mid 1930s. The circle aimed to develop a theory applicable, not just to language, but to the HUMANITIES in general. Language, in this view, was seen as merely one kind of symbolic system, the distinctive features of which would be clarified only when it was compared with other, non-linguistic symbolic systems (e.g. LOGIC, dancing). The study of LINGUISTICS would lead on to the more general study of SEMIOTICS. D.C.

Bibl: L. Hjelmslev, tr. F.J. Whitfield, *Prolegomena to a Theory of Language* (Madison, Wis., rev. ed., 1961).

glossolalia. In LINGUISTICS, the term used to refer to the religious phenomenon of 'speaking in tongues'. D.C.

Bibl: W. Samarin, *Tongues of Men and Angels* (New York and London, 1972).

glottochronology. In LINGUISTICS, the QUANTIFICATION of the extent to which languages have diverged from a common source. Using a technique known as *lexicostatistics*, one studies the extent to which the hypothetically related languages share certain basic words (*cognates*) and deduces from this the distance in time since the languages separated. The theory and methods involved are not widely used, and are highly controversial.

D.C.

grammar. A central CONCEPT in contemporary LINGUISTICS, traditionally referring to an independent LEVEL of linguistic organization in which words, or their component parts (MORPHEMES), are brought together in the formation of sentences or DISCOURSES. (See MORPHOLOGY; SYNTAX.) In GENERATIVE GRAMMAR, however, and increasingly in other linguistic theories, the word means, more broadly, the entire system of structural relationships in a language, viewed as a set of rules for the generation of sentences. In this sense, the study of grammar subsumes PHONOLOGY and SEMANTICS, traditionally regarded as separate levels. A systematic account of a language's grammar (in either of the above senses) is known as 'a grammar': See also CASE GRAMMAR; SCALE-AND-CATEGORY GRAMMAR; SYSTEMIC GRAMMAR; TAGMEMIC GRAMMAR; TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR; CORE GRAMMAR; DEPENDENCY GRAMMAR; FUNCTIONAL GRAMMAR; GENERALIZED PHASE STRUCTURE GRAMMAR; LEXICAL FUNCTION GRAMMAR; METAGRAMMAR; MONTAGUE GRAMMAR; NETWORK GRAMMAR; REALISTIC GRAMMAR; RELATIONAL GRAMMAR; TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR. D.C.

Bibl: F. Palmer, *Grammar* (Harmondsworth, 1984).

grammaticality. In LINGUISTICS, the conformity of a sentence (or part of a sentence) to the rules defined by a specific GRAMMAR of a language. A preceding asterisk (see STARRED FORM) is commonly used to indicate that a sentence is ungrammatical, i.e. incapable of being generated by the rules of a grammar. See also ACCEPTABILITY. D.C.

graphology. (1) The study of handwriting as a means of making inferences about the psychological characteristics of the writer. (2) A term applied by some LINGUISTS to a branch of LINGUISTICS that describes the properties of a language's orthographic system (spelling, punctuation). Graphology in this sense is analogous to PHONOLOGY in the spoken medium.

I.M.L.H.; D.C.

Idiolect. In LINGUISTICS, the speech habits constituting the language system of an individual. D.C.

illocutionary. In LINGUISTICS, used in the theory of SPEECH ACTS to refer to an act which is performed by the speaker once an utterance has been produced. Examples of *illocutionary* acts include promising, commanding, requesting, baptizing, etc. The term is contrasted with *locutionary* acts (the act of 'saying') and *perlocutionary* acts (where the act is defined by reference to the effect it has on the hearer). D.C.

Bibl: S. Levison, *Pragmatics* (Cambridge, 1983).

illusion, argument from. The most com-

implicature. In LINGUISTICS, a term derived from the philosopher H.P. Grice and now used as part of the study of conversational structure. *Conversational implicatures* refer to the implications which can be deduced from the form of an utterance on the basis of our general understanding about the efficiency and acceptability of conversations. For example, in a school classroom, the sentence spoken by the teacher *There's some chalk on the floor* would imply that someone should pick the chalk up. D.C.

Bibl: S. Levinson, *Pragmatics* (Cambridge, 1983).

inflecting (or *fusional*). In comparative LINGUISTICS, adjectives applied to a language (e.g. Latin) in which grammatical relations are expressed primarily by means of changes within the forms of words (the *inflections*). The term *fusional* implies a characteristic, generally absent from AGGLUTINATING languages, namely that different grammatical meanings are often combined within a single affix, e.g. in Latin *bonus* the *-us* simultaneously marks nominative, masculine, and singular. D.C.

innateness hypothesis. In LINGUISTICS, the view, particularly found in GENERATIVE GRAMMAR, that the rapid and complex development of children's grammatical COMPETENCE can be explained only on the hypothesis that they are born with an innate knowledge of at least some of the universal structural principles of human language. The hypothesis has had a considerable impact in other fields, notably PSYCHOLOGY and BIOLOGY, though it is not accepted by everyone, even within linguistics.

D.C.

intonation. In PHONOLOGY, systematic variations in the pitch of the voice serving to distinguish MEANINGS. D.C.

IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet). The most widely used system for transcribing the sounds of a language, originally drawn up in 1889, but subsequently modified and expanded at various times by the International Phonetics Association. See also PHONETICS. D.C.

isogloss. In DIALECTOLOGY, a boundary line demarcating regions that differ in respect of a particular linguistic feature.

D.C.