An English-Polish
Dictionary
of Linguistic Terms

edited by / redakcja
Piotr Kakietek, Anna Drzazga

UNIWERSYTET ŚLĄSKI
WYDAWNICTWO

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Przedmowa

Niniejszy słownik adresowany jest głównie do studentów neofilologii studiujących w trybie licencjackim i magisterskim, biorących udział w kursach językoznawstwa, a także do uczestników seminariów magisterskich w tym zakresie. Mamy nadzieję, że okaże się on dużą pomocą w przyswojeniu i zrozumieniu wielu terminów powszechnie stosowanych w językoznawstwie. Dodatkową, w naszej opinii – niebagatelną, korzyścią dla potencjalnych użytkowników Słownika jest możliwość zapoznania się z polskimi odpowiednikami angielskich terminów językoznawczych, które nie są łatwo dostępne dla studentów neofilologii, co sami przyznają.

Piotr Stalmaszczyk w artykule *Gramatyka uniwersalna Chomsky'ego. Najnowsze tendencje i niektóre implikacje* (w: *Noam Chomsky: inspiracje i perspektywy*, red. H. Kardela, Z. Muszyński. Wydawnictwo UMCS, 1991, s. 139–149) porusza problem terminologii polskiej w odniesieniu do teorii rozwijanych przez autora *Syntactic Structures* (1957) w latach 80. XX wieku. Brak odpowiedniej terminologii polskiej w tym zakresie autor artykułu tłumaczy „brakiem publikacji w języku polskim na temat najnowszych teorii Chomsky'ego". „Szczególnie – jak powiada – jest to widoczne w podręcznikach akademickich i skryptach" (s. 141). Naszym zdaniem jest to problem znacznie szerszy, dlatego też opracowaliśmy niniejszy słownik, w pełni świadomi, że podejmujemy się niezwykle trudnego zadania.

Słownik może być także wykorzystany przez nauczycieli języka angielskiego, tłumaczy tekstów z zakresu językoznawstwa oraz tych, których interesuje praktyczne zastosowanie wyników badań nad językiem.

Jeśli chodzi o wybór terminów, Słownik nie ogranicza się do jednej konkretnej dziedziny językoznawstwa, ale obejmuje różne dziedziny i szkoły językoznawcze do początku XXI wieku. Słownik zawiera również pewną ilość terminów z innych dyscyplin naukowych, takich jak np. logika, filozofia i psychologia, które to terminy często używane są jednak przez lingwistów. Należą do nich m.in.: *proposition*, *argument*, *predicate*, *algorithm*, *ontology*, *empiricism*, *behaviourism*, *physicalism*, *determinism*, *prototype* itp. Słownik uwzględnia też pewną liczbę haseł o charakterze ogólnym, bez znajomości których zrozumienie tekstów językoznawczych byłoby utrudnione.

Staraliśmy się zatem wskazać liczne powiązania językoznawstwa z innymi dziedzinami naukowymi. W tym miejscu warto być może zacytować słowa Stanisława Urbańczyka (*Encyklopedia języka polskiego*, Wrocław: Ossolineum, 1991, s. 8): „Ogólna i szczegółowa nauka o informacji coraz więcej czerpie z wiedzy o języku, i odwrotnie, językoznawstwo korzysta z osiągnięć teorii informacji. Podobnie ścisłe są powiązania z logiką i psychologią, choć

równocześnie językoznawstwo nie chce być ani częścią logiki, ani częścią psychologii, nie chce ani *logicyzować* ani *psychologizować*".

Część artykułów hasłowych stanowi naszą kompilację opartą na pozycjach odnotowanych w bibliografii prac szczegółowych, a część stanowią artykuły w ich oryginalnej postaci wzięte ze słowników i encyklopedii sygnowane inicjałami imion i nazwisk ich autorów/redaktorów.

W celu zapewnienia możliwie szybkiego dostępu do opisu/wyjaśnienia danego terminu, po każdym artykule hasłowym znajdują się odsyłacze do innych, powiązanych z nimi tematycznie terminów (np. see **invariant**).

Terminy synonimiczne oddzielone są przecinkami, a warianty terminów złożonych znajdują się w nawiasach; np. **actualization**, **realization**; **cognitive** (**referential**) **meaning**.

Ponadto po każdym wyrazie hasłowym podane są wyrazy pochodne (derywaty) (jeśli takie występują w tekstach językoznawczych); np. **derivation** n., **derivational** a., **derive** v.

Słownik omawia też nazwy znaków interpunkcyjnych (np. *comma*, *period*, *colon*, *semicolon* itd.). Na końcu Słownika znajduje się też indeks polski objaśnianych terminów.

Gdy zdecydowaliśmy się na opracowanie Słownika, byliśmy w pełni świadomi, że podejmujemy się niezwykle trudnego zadania. Zdajemy sobie również sprawę, że Słownik może zawierać pewne usterki, toteż będziemy wdzięczni jego odbiorcom za wszelkie konstruktywne uwagi i sugestie, które mogłyby być uwzględnione w kolejnym jego wydaniu.

Piotr Kakietek, *Anna Drzazga*

Abbreviations and symbols in the text

a.	adjective
Eng.	English
Fr.	French
Ger.	German
IE	Indo-European
inf.	infinitive
N, n.	noun
NP	nominal/noun phrase
OE	Old English
pa.pple	past participle
PDE	Present-day English
PIE	Proto-Indo-European
pl.	plural number
Pol.	Polish
Q	quantifier
S	sentence
sg.	singular number
v.	verb
VP	verb phrase

Dictionaries and encyclopedias

Col. Co.	*Collins Cobuild English Dictionary*
DC	D. Crystal, *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*
JCRandRSch	J.C. Richards and R. Schmidt, *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*
KP	K. Polański, *Encyklopedia językoznawstwa ogólnego*
RLT	R.L. Trask, *The Dictionary of Historical and Comparative Linguistics*
SU	S. Urbańczyk, *Encyklopedia języka polskiego*
VE	V. Evans, *A Glossary of Cognitive Linguistics*
Webster's	*Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language*

Symbols

*	ungrammatical, unacceptable; reconstructed form
>	becomes
~	indicates alternation
Ø	denotes a "zero" morpheme
/ /	enclose phonemes
[ ]	enclose phonetic symbols
( )	enclose optional elements
{ }	enclose alternative elements
→	develops diachronically into; is to be rewritten as / rewrite as
+	concatenation; indicates presence of feature

–	indicates absence of feature
=	is equivalent to
< >	enclose graphemes
-	location of an element in a string
:	vowel length
Δ	dummy element (in grammatical analysis)

abbreviation – skrótowiec

The everyday sense of this term has been refined in **linguistics** as part of the study of **word formation**, distinguishing several ways in which words can be shortened. **Initialisms** or **alphabetisms** reflect the separate pronunciation of the initial letters of the constituent words (*TV, COD*); **acronyms** are pronounced as single words (*NATO, laser*), while **clipped forms** or **clippings** are reductions of longer forms, usually removing the end of the word (*ad* from *advertisement*), but sometimes the beginning (*plane*), or both beginning and ending (*flu* from *influenza*), and **blends** combine parts of two words (*motel, sitcom).*
See **linguistics**, **word formation**

ablaut, **vowel gradation**, **apophony** – ablaut, apofonia, alternacja samogłoskowa

Alternation of vowels caused by differences of (a) **pitch** (qualitative gradation) and (b) **stress** (quantitative gradation) in **Proto-Indo-European** and preserved in the derived languages, e.g., English (a) *sit*:*sat*; (b) *sit*:*seat*.
See **pitch**, **stress**, **Proto-Indo-European**

aboriginal language – aborygeński język
See **indigenous language**

absolute universals – uniwersalia absolutne
See **language universals**

abstract nouns – rzeczowniki abstrakcyjne, abstrakta (sg. abstractum)

These are nouns such as *knowledge*, *advice*, *strength*, *courage*, *progress*, *beauty*, *youth*, *despair*, etc. **Abstract nouns** are often the names of actions, states or qualities formed from corresponding verbs and adjectives, e.g., *love*, *despair*, *youth*, *strength*, etc. These nouns never take the plural suffix *-s*. Abstract nouns may turn into **concrete nouns** when they are used to represent concrete objects; cf. for instance: *beauty* 'the state or quality of being beautiful' (*… an area of outstanding natural beauty*) and *a beauty* 'a beautiful woman' (*Everyone admired her elegance and beauty, His daughters are all beauties*), *youth* 'the state or quality of being young' - *a youth* 'a young man' (*A 17-year-old youth was remanded in custody yesterday, … gangs of youths who broke windows and looted shops*).
See **concrete noun**

academic vocabulary – słownictwo akademickie

The most frequently occurring vocabulary in academic texts. These are words associated with a wide range of academic fields (words such, e.g. as *evidence, estimate, feature, impact, method, thesis,* etc.). Students need to be familiar with this vocabulary if they are to complete academic courses successfully. **Academic vocabulary** is determined from analysis of a **corpus** of academic texts. See **corpus**

accent – akcent

(1) In **phonology**, the category of **accent** is based on the exploitation of differences in intensity. When intensity involves the strength of expiration, the accent is *dynamic*. Where intensity involves pitch, i.e., the number of vibrations in a given period of time, the accent is *tonic*.

(2) A distinction is made between Standard English, which is a **dialect** (or language variety) in use by educated speakers of English throughout the world, and **Received Pronunciation** (RP), which is the *accent* of English usually associated with a higher social or educational background, with the BBC and the professions, and that most commonly taught to students learning English as a foreign language. Many people speak unimpeachable Standard English as far as words and grammar are concerned, though with regional features in their pronunciation.
See **phonology**, **dialect**, **Received Pronunciation**

acceptability – akceptowalność, dopuszczalność

Native speakers have the ability to judge sentences to be **acceptable** or **unacceptable**. However, the fact that a sentence is regarded as unacceptable does not mean that it is necessarily ungrammatical, that is, syntactically ill formed. For example, a sentence might be regarded as unacceptable because it is semantically incoherent, stylistically incongruous, **pragmatically** infelicitous, and the like. Anyone will readily admit that of the following pair, (a) is grammatical, while (b) is not: (a) *I told him where I put the money*, (b) **Him where I told put the money*. On the other hand, the sentence (c) *I called the man who wrote the book that you told me about up* is perfectly grammatical but hardly acceptable, that is, it is not likely to be produced by a speaker of English, nor is it immediately understood when uttered. Acceptability is a matter of degree, as we can easily observe by comparing the more acceptable *I called up the man who wrote the book that you told me about* with (c).
See **pragmatics**, **felicity (happiness) conditions**

accommodation – akomodacja fonetyczna, koartykulacja

In **phonetics**, modification in the **articulation** of a sound for the purpose of easing a transition to a following sound, as, e.g. when Eng. /k/ is fronted before

a **front vowel** (e.g. *key, cute*), or when /t/ shifts from **alveolar** to **dental** before a **dental fricative** (e.g. *eighth*).
See **phonetics**, **articulation**

accusative case – accusativus, akuzatyw, biernik

In languages which express grammatical relationships by means of **inflections,** the term refers to the form of a noun or pronoun when it is the object of a verb. For example, *muzykę* in the Polish *Słyszę **muzykę.***
See **case**, **inflection**

accusative languages – języki akuzatywne

In an **accusative language,** the subjects of intransitive verbs and the subjects of transitive verbs are treated identically for grammatical purposes, while direct objects are treated differently. A simple example of this is the case-marking of pronouns. In the following sentences: (1) ***She** smiled*, (2) ***She** saw him*, (3) *I saw **her***, the female pronoun takes the form *she* when it is an intransitive subject (Ex. 1) or a transitive subject (Ex. 2), but *her* when it is a direct object (Ex. 3). English, like a majority of the world's languages, is an accusative language.
Cf. **ergative languages**

accusative with infinitive – accusativus cum infinitivo, biernik z bezokolicznikiem

The term applies to a construction consisting of a noun or pronoun plus an infinitive (with or without *to*) usually subordinated to a preceding verb. The "accusative" noun or pronoun stands to the infinitive in the relation of a subject, and the **accusative** can usually be regarded as the object of the preceding verb, e.g., (1) *I saw **him** swim across the river*, (2) *I requested **him** to leave the room*. After verbs like *hear, see*, *feel*, *watch* (i.e. verbs denoting perception) the infinitive (the so-called **bare** or **plain infinitive**) is used, as illustrated by examples above (1). The bare infinitive is also used after verbs like *let, make* (in the sense 'to cause'), after *find*, *know* (in the sense 'to experience'), and after the verb *have,* used in senses like 'to permit, to get'. Following are some more examples of the use of this construction: *We heard her come downstairs, I watched the postman cross the street, He wouldn't let me go, I won't have you say such things. Help* is still another verb after which the bare infinitive sometimes occurs, as in: *Please help me translate the text.*
See **bare infinitive**

acoustic phonetics – fonetyka akustyczna

The branch of **phonetics** which deals with the transmission of speech sounds through the air. When a speech sound is produced it causes minor air

disturbances, that is, **sound waves**. Various instruments are used to measure the characteristics of these sound waves.
See **phonetics**

acronym – akronim
See **acronimisation**

acronimisation – akronimizacja

A device for coining words which has recently become very popular is the reduction of a long phrase or name to a few important letters, usually the first letters of the principal words in it. If the result can only be pronounced letter-by-letter, it is called an **initialism** (or **alphabetism**); if it can be pronounced as a word, it is called an **acronym** (Some people use the term 'acronym' for both cases). Examples of initialisms include *FBI* (for *Federal Bureau of Investigation*), *BBC* (for *British Broadcasting Corporation*), *DJ* (for *disc jockey*), *Ph.D.* (for *Doctor of Philosophy*), etc. Examples of acronyms include *NATO* (for *North Atlantic Treaty Organization), AIDS* (for *acquired immune deficiency syndrome*), *radar* (for *radio detection and ranging*), *laser* (for *light amplification by the stimulated emission of radiation*), etc. People involved in the field of computer engineering are particularly fond of acronyms: *RAM* (for *random-access memory*), *DOS* (for *disk-operating system*), *ROM* (for *read-only memory*), etc. Variation in usage is possible. For example, the military term *AWOL* (for *absent without official leave*) is pronounced by some as an initialism, by others as an acronym, and the same applies to *UFO*. In English, *CIA* is an initialism, but, in Spanish it is an acronym pronounced to rhyme with the Spanish word *día* 'day'. Some recent formations are impossible to classify, since they combine features of **blends** with features of initialisms or acronyms and possibly other devices. The military are particularly fond of these **hybrids**, with their *CINCPAC* (for *Commander-in-chief in the Pacific*) and their *UNPROFOR* (for *United Nations Protective Force*), but consider technical terms like *CD-ROM* (for *compact disc read-only memory*).
See **abbreviation**, **blend**, **hybrid**

active language knowledge – czynna znajomośc języka

The term **active language knowledge** refers to the ability of a person to actively produce their own speech and writing. This is compared to their ability to understand the speech and writing of other people – this is **passive language knowledge**.

active metaphor – metafora aktywna
See **metaphor**

active vocabulary – słownictwo czynne

The words the native speaker will her-/himself use as a speaker. Cf. **passive vocabulary**.

active voice – strona czynna, activum
See **voice**

act of communication – akt komunikacyjny
See **communication**

actual word – wyraz istniejący

If we find a word attested in a text, or used by a speaker in a conversation, and if there are other speakers of the language that can understand this word, we can say that it is an *actual word*. The class of **actual words** contains both morphologically simplex and complex words, and among the complex words we find many that behave according to the present-day rules of English **word-formation**. However, we also find many actual words that do not behave according to these rules. For example, *affordable* ('can be afforded'), *readable* ('can be (easily) read'), and *manageable* ('can be managed') are all actual words in accordance with the word-formation rule for *-able* words, which states that *-able* derivatives have the meaning 'can be Xed', whereas *knowledgeable* (*'can be knowledged') is an actual word which does not behave according to the word-formation rule for *-able*. Cf. **potential word**.
See **word formation**

actualization, **realization** – aktualizacja, realizacja

(1) In linguistics, a term used to refer to the physical expression of an abstract linguistic **unit**; e.g. **phonemes** are actualised in phonic substance as **phones, morphemes** as **morphs**. Any underlying form may be seen as having a corresponding actualisation in substance. **Realisation** is a more widely used term.
See **morpheme, morph, phoneme, phone, linguistic unit**

(2) In historical linguistics, the term actualisation (also extension) refers to the changes in surface forms which are the consequence of **reanalysis** (2), and which demonstrate that the reanalysis has taken place. For example, when Latin *habeo scriptos libros* ('I possess written books'), with the verb *habeo* and the participle *scriptos* agreeing with the noun *libros* (the object of habeo) was reanalysed in Romance languages, as a compound verb-form meaning 'I have written (some) books', the former participle now reanalysed as part of the verb, ceased agreeing with the noun phrase which was now the object of the entire compound verb (e.g. the Spanish *he escrito unos libros*). Similarly, the OE possessive construction *He hæþ*

hinne gebundenne (participle) (lit. he-has-him – bound) has historically developed into the perfective construction *He has bound him* (RLT).
See **reanalysis** (2), **Romance languages**

acute accent – akut, akcent akutowy

A **diacritical mark** (´) used in the writing system of some languages to indicate that a vowel over which it is placed has a special quality (as in French *été*), or that it receives the strongest stress in the word (as in Spanish *hablé*). It is most commonly used to stress high vowels or to elongate a vowel. The **acute accent** often indicates a rising tone. Its opposite is **grave accent**.
See **grave accent**

adaptation n., **adapt** v. – adaptacja, natywizacja

The borrowing of a word from a foreign language in such a way as to replace its foreign patterns with native ones. For instance, the noun *croissant* has been borrowed into English from French. The French pronunciation is [kwasõ], which has various un-English features, including the uvular trill and the final nasal vowel. English speakers with more knowledge of French will reproduce the French pronunciation, adopting these features, and those who speak little or no French are apt to **adapt** the loanword, substituting English native elements for the French ones and producing [kwasənt], [kwasn̩], or some similar string. The degree of **adaptation** also depends on the quantity of loanwords from the same source already in the **recipient language** and the degree of bilingualism: if the speakers of the recipient language are familiar with the **donor language**, they are less likely to adapt words borrowed from it. Adaptation can be phonological as well as grammatical. For example, English nouns must be assigned grammatical gender when they are borrowed into languages such, for example, as Polish or German. Syntactic modification may also occur as, for instance, in the case of speakers of Pennsylvania German who import the German order of modifiers into English, giving constructions like *Throw the baby from the window a cookie*. Adaptation may involve a new meaning being expressed by native lexical material in a **calque**, or **loan translation**. The most famous example is probably the English *skyscraper*, which has yielded calques in many languages, e.g.:

> skyscraper
> Polish *drapacz chmur*
> French *grate-ciel*
> Russian *njebo skrjób*
> German *Wolkenkratzer* (McMahon 1996: 204 f.)

See **adoption**, **calque**, **donor language**, **recipient language**

address form, **term of address** – forma zwracania się (do drugich), forma adresatywna

The word or words used to address somebody in speech or writing. The way in which people address one another usually depends on their age, sex, social group, and personal relationship. The **address forms** of a language are arranged into a complex address system with its own rules which need to be acquired if a person wants to communicate appropriately. Examples of terms of address: *Good morning,* **Mrs. Brown**, *Can I help you,* **Madame?**, **Miss**, *I'd like to try this dress on, please*, etc. (cf. Anna Lubecka (1993), *Forms of Address in English, French and Polish: A Sociolinguistic Approach*).

adequacy – adekwatność

A term used in linguistic theory as part of the evaluation of levels of success in the writing of grammars. In his *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965), Noam Chomsky recognises three levels of achievement in grammars: **observational adequacy** is achieved when a grammar **generates** all of a particular corpus of data, correctly predicting which sentences are well-formed; **descriptive adequacy** is achieved when a grammar goes beyond this and accounts for the native speaker's **competence**; **explanatory adequacy** is achieved when a principled basis is established for deciding between alternative grammars, all of which are descriptively adequate. Moreover, an explanatorily adequate grammar will also explain why children come to acquire grammars in a relatively short period of time.
See **generate**, **competence**

adjectival phrase – fraza (grupa) przymiotnikowa

A **phrase** whose **head** is an adjective (e.g. *very interesting*). It is often the case that a single adjective can function as an **adjectival phrase**, as in *an **interesting** book*.
See **phrase**, **head**

adjectivalisation (also **adjectivization**) – adjektywizacja

In **word formation**, **adjectivalisation** is the formation of adjectives by a morphological process; e.g. the formation *parental* by **suffixation** from *parent* is a process of adjectivalisation.
See **word formation**, **suffixation**

adjective – przymiotnik

A word used to describe an attribute of a noun. **Adjectives** can occur within the **noun phrase** as in pre-**head** (i.e. attributive, *The **beautiful** girl*) or in **predicative** position (functioning as complements, e.g. *The girl is **beautiful***).
See **head**, **noun phrase**, **complement**

adposition – adpozycja

A cover term for **preposition** and **postposition**. For example, the English word *in* is a preposition since it is positioned before its complement (e.g. *in Paris*, *in the large room*), whereas its Japanese counterpart *ni* is a postposition because it is positioned after its complement (e.g. *Paris ni* 'Paris in'). Both these words are **adpositions.** The term proves useful when there is a need to emphasise the adjacency of these elements to the noun without having to choose whether the given element precedes or follows the noun.

adjunct – człon luźny, rozwinięcie

The term refers to a part of the basic structure of the clause or sentence in which it occurs, and modifies the verb; e.g. adverbs of time, place, frequency, degree and manner are examples of **adjuncts**. Adjuncts are optional constituents of the sentence/clause sentence (clause).
See **constituent**

adjunction – rozwijanie

One of the four basic syntactic operations in **transformational grammar** (TG), referring to a **transformational rule** which **adjoins** (attaches) a word or a phrase to another to form an extended (larger) **constituent**. For example, in the sentence *He **shouldn't** do that,* we can say that the negative particle *not* (in contracted form *n't*) has been adjoined to the auxiliary *should* to form the extended (larger) constituent *shouldn't*. See also **deletion**, **permutation**, **substitution**.
See **Transformational Grammar, constituent**

adoption, **importation** – adopcja, importacja, przeniesienie wyrazu

Borrowing a word in its **donor language** form, maintaining features of the borrowing (recipient) language: this is **adoption**, or **importation.** For instance, the noun *croissant* has been borrowed into English from French. The French pronunciation is [kwasõ], which has various un-English features, including the uvular trill and the final nasal vowel. English speakers with more knowledge of French will reproduce the French pronunciation, **adopting** these features. However, those who speak little or no French are apt to **adapt** the loanword, substituting native English elements for the French ones and producing [kwasənt], [kwasŋ], or some similar string. The choice of adoption versus adaptation is not an all-or-nothing one. Speakers may produce more adoptions when they are trying to impress someone or when the vocabulary involved has particular prestigious connotations as, e.g. French loanwords in the domains of food, wine, cooking currently do in English. An initial act of borrowing is more likely to be an adoption since the borrower will almost certainly have some knowledge of the donor language; however, if he repeats

the loanword in the company of monolingual speakers of the **recipient language**, he may introduce some adaptations. This process of adaptation will persist as the monolinguals themselves acquire the loanword (McMahon 1996). Cf. **adaptation**.
See **borrowing**, **donor language**, **recipient language**

adverb – przysłówek, adverbium (pl. adverbia)

A somewhat loosely defined **word class,** the central members of which typically specify the action denoted by a verb (e.g. *He did it **quickly***). **Adverbs** generally relate to aspects such as the way something is done, the place it is done, and the time it is done. **Adverbial** elements are typically highly mobile and/or deletable; e.g., *He did it quickly*, *He quickly did it*, *He did it*.
See **word class**

adverbial phrase – fraza (grupa) przysłówkowa (adwerbialna)

An **adverbial phrase** is a phrase whose **head** is an adverb and which functions as an **adverb**. Adverbial phrases may consist of one adverb only (as in *He speaks English **fluently***), and they may also consist of a modifier (usually an intensifier) and a head adverb, as in *He ran **very quickly***, where *very* modifies the head *quickly*. According to the meaning that they express, adverbs are divided into the following types: **adverbs of time** (e.g. *now*, *then*, *today*, *tomorrow*, *late*, *seldom*, etc.), **adverbs of place** (e.g. *here*, *there*, *thence*, *without*, *inside*, *above*, *below*, *down*, *away*, etc.), **adverbs of manner, quality** and **state** (e.g. *thus*, *so*, *well*, *slowly*, *quickly*, *surely*, *quietly*, etc.), **adverbs of degree** and **quantity** (e.g. *almost, quite, little, somewhat, very, enough, rather, too*, etc.), and **adverbs of conclusion, reason and consequence** (e.g. *therefore, then, consequently, why, wherefore*, etc.).
See **head**, **adverb**, **phrase**

adverbialisation – adwerbializacja

In **derivational morphology**, **adverbialisation** is the formation of adverbs by a morphological process; e.g. the formation of *frequently* by **suffixation** from *frequent* is a process of adverbialisation, and *frequently* is an **adverb**.
See **derivational morphology**, **adverb**, **suffixation**

aesthetic function of language – estetyczna funkcja języka
See **functions of language**

affix – afiks

In **morphology**, a **grammatical morpheme** which cannot stand on its own as an independent word, but which must be attached to an item of an appropriate kind. An **affix** which attaches to the beginning of a word is called

a **prefix** (e.g. ***un-*** + *happy*); an affix which attaches to the end of a word is called a **suffix** (e.g. -*able* in *read* + ***able***).
See **grammatical morpheme**, **morphology**

affixation – afiksacja

In **morphology,** a process in which **affixes** are attached to **bases** (derivational bases) to form **derivatives**, e.g. *preview* (from *view*), *homely* (from *home*).
See **affix**, **derivational base**, **derivation** (1), **derivational morphology**

affixing languages – języki afiksalne

Languages which express grammatical relationships primarily through the use of **affixes**; for example, a "prefixing" language (as in **Bantu languages**), or a "suffixing" language (as in Latin or Greek).
See **affix**, **Bantu languages**

affricate – afrykata, spółgłoska zwarto-szczelinowa

A speech sound composed of a **stop** followed by a homorganic (i.e. made with the same place of articulation) **fricative**: e.g. the initial consonant of *chop* /tʃ/, composed of the sounds occurring at the beginning of *top* /t/ and *shop* /ʃ/, respectively.
See **stop (plosive) consonant**, **fricative consonant**

Afrikaans – afrykański język, afrikaans

Standard language of the South African Dutch, a **Germanic language** of the **Indo-European** family.
See **Germanic languages**, **Indo-European languages**

African American English (**AAE**), **Black English**, **Ebonics** – afroamerykańszczyzna

A variety of English spoken by some African Americans, particularly those living in concentrated urban areas. There are conflicting views on the origin of AAE. Some specialists claim it is similar to varieties of English spoken by whites in the southern states (therefore clearly a dialect of English), while others consider it to be a **creole**, independently developed from Standard English, and more deserving of the word "language" than that of "dialect." The term **Ebonics** derived from "ebony" + "phonics" or "black sounds" (JCRandRSch).
See **creole language**

African languages – afrykańskie języki

The indigenous languages of Africa, excluding Madagascar. In his *The Languages of Africa*, J. Greenberg (1963) classifies all of them into the following

groups (or families) of languages: **Afro-Asiatic languages**, **Niger-Congo**, **Nilo-Saharan**, and **Khoisan**.
See **language family**

Afro-Asiatic languages – afro-azjatyckie języki

A large family occupying most of northern and eastern Africa and most of the Middle East. Five major branches are commonly recognised: Egyptian, Semitic, Berber, Chadic, and Cushitic (RLT).
See **language family**, **proto-language**

agent – agens, sprawca, wykonawca czynności

In the traditional terms by **agent** is meant the animate performer of the action expressed by the **main** verb. In the following sentences *John* and *the cat*, respectively, are agents: *John ate the hamburger*, *The cat chased the mouse*.
See **main verb**

agglutination – aglutynacja

From the Latin *agglŭtino* 'I stick on to'. **Agglutination** involves the fusion of a **root** and **affixes** to produce grammatical forms. Each affix serves only one function, and it can occur either before the root (in preposition) or after the root (in postposition). Good examples of languages in which agglutination is the main device of creating grammatical forms is Turkish (with postpositional agglutination) and Swahili (with prepositional agglutination). Languages such as Turkish and Swahili are then called **agglutinative/agglutinating languages**. For example, the Turkish *ev* 'house', *evler* 'houses', and *evlerin* 'of the houses', where the suffix *-in* marks the Genitive Case and the suffix *-er* marks Plural Number.
See **root**, **affix**, **case**

agglutinating (**agglutinative**) **language** – aglutynacyjny język

A type of language established by **comparative linguistics** using structural (as opposed to diachronic) criteria, and focusing on the characteristics of the word. In **agglutinating languages** words typically contain a linear sequence of **morphemes** (as seen in English *dis/establish/ment*) and thus contrast with **isolating** and **inflecting languages**. In an agglutinating language, a word may consist of several morphemes, but each morpheme is a clearly distinct form, and the morphemes in a word are strung together one after another, rather like beads of a string. Among agglutinating languages are Basque, Swahili, Turkish, and many Australian languages. For example, in Turkish a word typically consists of a string of morphemes; each morpheme has a single function and generally a single consistent form, apart from minor variations for purely phonological reasons. Consider the examples: *ev* 'house', *evim* 'my

house', *evler* 'houses', *evlerim* 'my houses', etc. Sentences in agglutinating languages are mainly composed of strings of units, none of which have any independent, word-like status. For example, a sentence like *He did not ask me* might be built up using a root *ask*, to which particles indicating "he," "not," "did," and "me" would be attached following certain rules. Agglutinating and **inflectional languages** together are called **synthetic languages** (RLT).
See **morpheme**, **agglutination**, **inflecting (inflectional) language**, **comparative historical method**, **isolating language**, **morpheme**

agrammatism – agramatyzm

A term used in **language pathology** to refer to a case of **aphasia** in which the system of syntax ceases to function. The patient is unable to express in language form the conceptual relationships among words.
See **language pathology**, **aphasia**

agraphia – agrafia

A term used in **language pathology** to refer to a type of **aphasia** consisting in difficulty in writing.
See **language pathology**, **aphasia**

agreement, **concord** – składnia zgody

Two words (or expressions) are said **to agree** in respect of some grammatical feature(s) if they have the same value for the relevant feature(s); so, in a sentence like *He smokes*, the verb *smokes* is said to agree with its subject *he* because both are third person singular expressions.

Akkadian – akadzki język

An eastern **Semitic** language, long extinct but widely used in Mesopotamia and Syria in ancient times. It was spoken there from no later than the early third millennium BC, though only recorded in writing from 2350 BC, and apparently only died out in the late first millennium BC, though it continued to be written until the 1st century AD (RLT).
See **Semitic languages**

Aktionsart – Aktionsart, postać (rodzaj) czynności

(German *Aktionsart* 'kind of action'). A distinction is drawn between **aspect** and **Aktionsart.** Aktionsart is a semantic category of the verb distinguished on the basis of the manner in which an action of the verb proceeds or a state lasts. It can be expressed by means of **affixes**, specific **lexical morphemes**, and other grammatical devices. Various types of verbs are distinguished according to the kind of action that they denote: e.g. **inchoative/ingressive verbs**

(expressing the beginning of an action, e.g. Pol. *zapłonąć*), **iterative verbs** (expressing the repetition of an action, e.g. Pol. *pisywać*), **punctual verbs** (expressing momentary actions, e.g. Pol. *zabłysnąć*), **resultative verbs** (expressing the result of an action, e.g. *sczernieć*), etc.
See **aspect**, **affix**, **lexical morpheme**

Albanian – albański język

The principal language of Albania, also spoken in neighbouring areas, constituting a single branch of **Indo-European** all by itself.
See **Indo-European languages**

alethic modality – modalność aletyczna

The term "alethic" is derived from the Greek word meaning 'true'. **Alethic modality** is a central notion in classical logic, in ordinary language, however, it is rather peripheral. Clear cases of alethically modal sentences do not occur frequently in everyday discourse. From a linguistic point of view the notions of **epistemic** and **deontic modality** are much more important. Alethic modality is essentially objective and has to do with the necessary and contingent truth of **propositions**. What are traditionally described as necessary truths (i.e. propositions which are true in all logically **possible worlds**) may be referred to as alethically necessary propositions. Similarly, propositions which are not necessarily false (i.e. propositions that are true in at least one logically possible world) may be described as alethically possible. All alethically necessary propositions are alethically possible, but not conversely. An alternative traditional term for 'alethically necessary' is **apodeictic** (Lyons 1977: 328–329).
See **deontic modality**, **epistemic modality**, **proposition**, **possible world**

Aleut – aleut, aleucki język

A language of the **Eskimo-Aleut** language family. It is the heritage language of the Aleut people living in the Aleutian Islands, Pribilof Islands and the Commander Islands. Various sources estimate that there are only between 100 and 300 speakers of **Aleut** remaining.
See **Eskimo-Aleut languages**

alexicalism – aleksykalizm

The term used in **language** pathology; in the case of **alexicalism** the patient loses control of the semantic system of language and is unable to properly name objects presented to him, while the other components of language continue to function.
See **language pathology**, **aphasia**

algorithm – algorytm

In linguistics, a term borrowed from mathematics to denote an explicit set of instructions which specify in precise detail the exact sequence of steps which we have to go through in order to perform some operation.

alienable possession – właśność zbywalna

In grammatical analysis, the term refers to objects that can change ownership (e.g. cars, houses, books, etc.). The type of possession which typically cannot change ownership (e.g. body parts) is labeled as **inalienable possession**. In English, the verb *own* is typically not used with inalienable possessions, hence **John owns a big nose*, and the correct *John has a big nose*. On the other hand, the verb *have* may appear with both types of possession.

alienable possessives – posesywy zbywalne
See **inalienable possessives**, **alienable possession**

alliteration – aliteracja

The **rhetorical** device commencing adjacent accented syllables with the same letter or sound. **Alliteration** was an essential feature of Old and Middle English poetry, used in more modern poetry with great effect, as in examples taken from Brewer's:

> *Whereat, with **b**lade, with **b**loody **b**lameful **b**lade,*
> *He **b**ravely **b**roach'd his **b**oiling **b**loody **b**reast.* (Shakespeare: *A Midsummer Night's Dream*, V, i.)

> *The fair **b**reeze **b**lew, the white **f**oam **f**lew*
> *The **f**urrow **f**ollowed **f**ree.* (C.T. Colleridge, "The Rime of the Ancient Mariner") (Brewer's).

See **rhetoric**, **Old English**, **Middle English**

allograph – allograf

A variant form of a **grapheme** that is in **complementary distribution** or **free variation** with another form of the same grapheme, as e.g. <n> in *run* and <nn> in *runner*.
See **grapheme**, **complementary distribution**, **free variation**

allomorph – allomorf, wariant morfemu

Allomorphs are distinct **morphs** (textual realisations) of the same morpheme. For example, *zero, -s,* and *mutation* are allomorphs of the plural number morpheme in present-day English.
See **morph**, **morpheme**

allomorphy – allomorfia

Phonetic realisation of a **morpheme** appearing in different contexts by means of **allomorphs**.
See **morpheme**, **allomorph**

allomorphic change – zmiana allomorficzna

Any kind of change in the formal realisation of a **morpheme**.
See **allomorph**, **morpheme**

allophone n., **allophonic** a. – allofon, wariant fonemu

A variant form of a phoneme as conditioned by position or adjoining sounds; e.g. the "p" sound in *pin* is different from the "p" sound in *spin*, the former being the aspirated [ph], the latter unaspirated [p]. [ph] and [p] are **allophones** of the phoneme /p/:

```
          /p/        (phoneme)


    [p]                    [pʰ] (allophones)
```
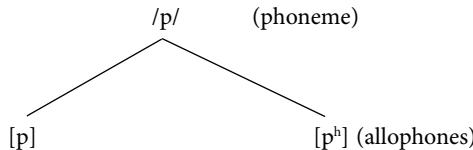
By convention, phonemes are written between slashes / /, while allophones (or, more generally, sounds considered in their phonetic aspects) are written between square brackets [ ].
See **phoneme**

allophony – allofonia

Phonetic realisation of a **phoneme** occurring in different contexts by means of **allophones**.
See **phoneme**, **allophone**

alphabet – alfabet

The word goes back to Greek *alphabētos*, combining *alpha* and *beta*, the first two letters of the Greek **alphabet**. A sentence that contains all the letters of the alphabet is known as a **pangram**. The number of letters in an alphabet varies in different languages. Although the English alphabet is capable of innumerable combinations and permutations, there are no means of differentiating the vowel sounds. For example, *a* sounds differently in *fate*, *fat*, *Thames*, *war*, *orange*, *ware*, *abide*, *calm*, and *swan*. The other vowels are equally variable.

alphabetic writing – pismo alfabetyczne

A writing made up of separate letters which represent sounds. Some examples of **alphabetic writing** systems are:

(1) Roman (or Latin) script, used for many European languages, including English;

(2) Arabic script, used for Arabic languages such as Persian, Urdu, and Malay, which also uses Roman script;

(3) Cyrillic script, used for Russian and languages such as Ukrainian and Bulgarian.

alphabetism
See **abbreviation**

Altaic languages – ałtajskie języki

The **Altaic language family** is divided into three branches: Turkic, Mongolian, and Tungusic. The **Turkic** branch includes Turkish, Azerbaijani and a large number of central Asian languages. The **Mongolian** branch includes several Mongolian languages (all descended from the speech of Genghis Khan's invaders). The **Tungusic** branch includes Tungus, a major language of Siberia, and Manchu, the now nearly extinct language of the Manchu conquerors of China. The genetic unity of the Altaic family is very controversial, and some scholars reject the family altogether, but at present there seems to be widespread acceptance that the family is genuine (Trask 1996: 189, KP).

alternating languages – alternacyjne języki

In **alternating languages**, such as Arabic, all functions, both semantic and syntactic, are integrated within a word which, as a result, constitutes an individual morphological entity, usually composed of a **root** only. Here consonants are the exponents of the semantic content while vowels, alternating between the consonants, fulfill the syntactic function. Thus, for example, an Arabic **root** characterised by the consonants *q-t-l* refers to *killing*; from this root, words containing various forms of alternating vowels are created; *qatala* 'he killed', *qatila* 'he was killed', *ya-qtulu* 'he was killing', *yu-qtalu* 'he was being killed', etc. As can be seen, the consonants appear constantly in the same position, while the vowels change in various forms of the word, creating the alternating series *a-u-i-zero*. The most frequent form of the alternating type of language occurs in the **Semitic languages**, particularly Arabic and Hebrew. See **root**, **Semitic languages**

alternation – alternacja, oboczność

The relationship between the different forms of a linguistic unit. The term is used especially in **morphology** and in **phonology**. For example, the related vowels /i:/ and /e/ in *deceive* /disi:v/ – *deception* /disepʃən/ are in **alternation**. See **morphology**, **phonology**

alveolar consonant – spółgłoska alweolarna (dziąsłowa)

A consonant articulated with the tip or blade of the tongue against the teeth-ridge, e.g. the /t/ of the English word *top*.
See **consonant**

ambiguous – wieloznaczny

A word, phrase, or sentence which has more than one meaning is said to be **ambiguous**. The following sentence *The lamb is too hot to eat* is an example of grammatical/structural ambiguity. It is two-way ambiguous, since it can mean either 'the lamb (the animal) is so hot it cannot eat anything' or 'the lamb (the meat) is too hot for someone to eat it'. A sentence with more than two structural readings is said to be **multiply ambiguous**. An analysis which demonstrates the **ambiguity** in a sentence is said to **disambiguate** (*od-wieloznaczniać* in Polish) the sentence. Ambiguity which does not arise from the grammatical/structural analysis of a sentence, but is due solely to the alternative meanings of an individual lexical item, is referred to as **lexical ambiguity**, e.g. *I found the table fascinating* (where *the table* may refer to either 'object of furniture' or 'table of figures'), or *I don't want to have a pig in the house* (where the lexical item *pig* may refer either to a certain kind of animal, or it refers to a gluttonous person). Additional information either from the speaker or writer or from the situation indicates which meaning is intended. Ambiguity is extensively used in creative writing, especially inpoetry.

(a)melioration, **elevation** – melioryzacja (znaczenia)

A type of **semantic change** consisting in an 'improvement' in meaning. For example, the words *queen* and *knight* formerly just meant 'woman' and 'boy, attendant, servant', but today these terms are applied only to people occupying positions of certain prestige. The opposite is **pejoration**.
See **semantic change**

American descriptive linguistics – amerykańska lingwistyka deskryptywna
See **Neo-Bloomfieldians**

American English (**AM**) – amerykańska odmiana języka angielskiego

The English language as spoken (and written) in the U.S. Albert H. Marck-wardt and A. Quirk (1965) argue that AM is not a dialect, but a variety of English (just like British English). The scholars say (ibidem, p. 10): "Calling it a 'variety' is useful because, after all, there are dialects in both the countries, so to call it a 'dialect' would be misleading."

Americanism – amerykanizm

An expression (e.g. word, phrase, idiom) that is typical of **American English**, that is, the language spoken in the U.S.

American Sign Language (**ASL**) – amerykański język migowy

A **logographic**, rather than alphabetic, system, in the sense that it is not based on the principle of finger-spelling, but has signs each of which can be related directly, and one-by-one, to individual words (or their meanings). It is a communication-system that is parasitic upon preexisting human languages. ASL is widely used by the deaf-and-dumb in the United States.
See **logogram**

American Structural School – amerykańska szkoła strukturalistyczna

Two factors exercised a significant influence on the development of linguistics in the United States in the 1930s and 1940s: (1) A great interest in American Indian languages. As native American languages had been a real challenge to descriptive linguistics, so practical needs, ranging from the teaching and learning of foreign languages to the requirements of communication engineering, stimulated the development of research in the direction of **synchronic** description instead of **diachronic** studies. The great interest in synchronic studies of language was partly determined by the necessity of describing native American languages which had no written tradition, which would pose the problem for the history of a particular language. (2) The other factor had to do with **behaviouristic psychology**, which claimed that all the differences between people are environmentally determined and that all human behaviour is reducible to our responses to external stimuli. A characteristic feature of American behaviourism was its focus on the external, not internal, factors causing given forms of behaviour (i.e. responses). Behaviourists believed that since behaviour is subject to precise and experimental analysis, it should be taken as a basis for all psychological investigations. They viewed language as one of the forms of human behaviour and pointed out that studies of language must be objective and precise to be able to provide us with adequate knowledge of people and their psyche. In other words, behaviourists stipulated for the application of "objective" methods and elimination of **introspection** (speculation) from scientific investigations, which they regarded as thoroughly subjective. It was argued that objective methods can be applied only to the description of external physiological reactions and linguistic utterances, since they are directly observable, they can be photographed, measured and recorded on a tape.

The above two factors had important implications for the theory of language as it developed in the 1930s and 1940s in America. Linguists rejected introspection and mentalistic concepts from language studies. American linguists believed speculation to be scientifically useless, since it ruled out empirical

control, so they said the linguist should deal with observables only. One of the most significant consequences of this approach was the elimination of meaning as a tool of linguistic analysis. This position was in particular followed by the Neo-Bloomfieldians. Partly responsible for this stance to linguistic description was L. Bloomfield's statement to the effect that: "The study of language can be conducted without special assumptions only so long as we pay no attention to the meaning of what is spoken" (1993: 75). The Neo-Bloomfieldians made the sound properties of an utterance the foundation of their theory and practice. One of the eminent Neo-Bloomfieldians, B. Bloch (1948: 36) completely eliminated semantic criteria from language description. According to American structuralists, to achieve objectivism and preciseness, the linguist must limit himself to the analysis of purely physical aspect of language only. The two basic methods used by structuralists in linguistic description were: **substitution** and **distribution**. Hence the linguists who followed these methods came to be known as distributionalists. One of the basic assumptions of **distributionalism** was that linguistic description was considered as a set of operations which, if applied to the description of a text in a proper order, enables us to discover the grammar of the underlying text (That is why the eminent Russian linguist Jurij Apresjan referred to this type of linguistics as "a prescription for a description"). This method is known in linguistic literature as **grammar discovery procedure**. For American structuralists (and Neo-Bloomfieldians in particular) the proper and sole object of linguistic investigation was a corpus of utterances; it was believed that linguists had the task of providing procedures (methods) of cutting up (segmentation) the utterances and for grouping together (classification) the resulting segments.
See **synchronic analysis**, **diachronic description**

amphiboly, **amphibology** – amfibolia, amfibologia

An ambiguous grammatical construction, e.g. *they are flying planes* can mean either that someone is flying planes or that something is flying planes.
See **structural ambiguity**

anacoluthon n. (pl. **anacolutha**), **anacoluthic** a. – anakolut

Lack of syntactic sequence; beginning a sentence in one way and continuing or ending it in another. The break is often indicated by a dash, e.g. *I know what you – but let us change the subject.*

anagram – anagram

A word or phrase formed by transposing the letters of another word or phrase. Some well-known examples are: *funeral = real fun*, *teacher = cheater*, *the Morse Code = here comes dots*, etc. And the following form interchangeable pairs of words: *Amor and Roma, Evil and Live, God and Dog.*
See **word**, **phrase**

analogical change – zmiana analogiczna
See **analogy**

analogical levelling – wyrównanie analogiczne

In historical **morphology,** by **analogical levelling** is understood reduction or elimination of **alternation** in stems within a **paradigm**. For example, earlier forms of the English verb *help*: O.E. *helpan* (inf.), *healp* (prêt.sg.), *hulpon* (pret.pl.), *holpen* (pa.pple.), with the vowel series: e: ea: u: o, were reduced to only two forms: *help* and *helped*, with one vowel *e* only. An earlier O.E. bōc (sg.): *bēc* (pl.) were replaced by *book:books*, with only one vowel *u*, instead of the earlier two vowels ō and ē. Analogical levelling can be thought of as implementing an association of one form with one meaning.
See **alternation**, **paradigm** (1)

analogy – analogia

Language is structured on a number of levels. In every language there are different rules which govern the combination of elements at the phonological, morphological and syntactic level. Linguistic rules concern regular patterns of grammatical formation. In a not too technical language **analogy** may be defined as the process by which new linguistic patterns conform to the more popular and regular patterns. For example, on the basis of the pattern *boy*:*boys* we can form analogically innumerable other word forms. This *-s* plural formation pattern is regular in present-day English, and it is the only **productive** pattern. So the productive regular *-s* pattern serves as the model for the operation of analogy. *Feet* is an irregular plural form of *foot*. If, e.g. **Old English** *bōc* 'book' had followed the same course as *foot*, its plural form would now be *beek* or *beech*, but is in fact *books* due to the operation of analogy. There are two types of analogical formation: *analogical change* and *analogical creation*. For an **analogical change** to take place two conditions must be met: 1. It presupposes the functional identity in respect of some particular grammatical or semantic category of **markers** which are formally quite different (e.g. functionally equivalent markers of plural number of nouns; Old English possessed several such markers: *-as, -an, -u, -a,* etc.). 2. It presupposes that the structure of the form which acts as the model for the operation of analogy be **morphologically transparent** for the native speaker, which is always the case with forms that result from productive rules. Thus, *book-s*, *cow-s*, *soldier-s*, etc. are **transparent** forms, but not *feet, mice*, etc. which are **morphologically opaque**. Unlike *feet* and *mice* (irregular plurals), *books, cows,* and *soldiers* are divisible into *book-* and *-s*, *cow-* and *-s,* and *soldier-* and *-s,* respectively. Analogical change consists in the replacement of the less or no longer transparent form (e.g. OE plural *bēc* 'books') by a new functionally equivalent one (*books*), whose structure resembles that of the model form.

While analogical change is the fundamental mechanism by which grammatical rules (e.g. noun plural formation in English) in a language are updated, **analogical creation** is the kind of mechanism by which lexical and conceptual resources are renewed. Practically all lexical innovation which is not the result of borrowing is motivated, that is, formed by rule from existing lexical elements. To take an example, the derivation of adjectives ending in -*able* well illustrates the way in which such a productive rule may arise. **Middle English** borrowed from French words like *measurable, reasonable, acceptable*, etc. And since the **bases** of these loanwords without the suffix -*able* were also borrowed, either as nouns (e.g. *measure, reason*) or verbs (e.g. *accept, agree*), -*able* could be abstracted as a **derivational morpheme** with the meaning 'fit for…ed', or 'fit to be…ed'. (e.g. fit to be measured = measurable). This pattern has become extremely productive so that adjectives in -*able* are now freely derivable especially from verbs, and not only of those of French origin. More recent examples of analogical creation are formations such as *beefburger, eggburger, cheeseburger*, and the like, resulting from a new segmentation and semantic interpretation of the original word *hamburger* from *Hamburg*, not from the English word *ham*. See also McMahon (1996: 70–79).
See **productive morphemes**, **Old English**, **Middle English**, **base**

analytic (isolating) language – język analityczny (izolujący)

A language using few or no inflections. In this type of language grammatical relations (e.g., the syntactic functions *subject*, *predicate*, *object*) are primarily expressed by either word order or auxiliary words or both. Chinese is often cited as a well-known example of the **analytic** type of language. It appears, however, that whether a language is analytic or not is a matter of degree. For example, English is not ideally analytic, since it does contain a certain amount of inflection. Cf. also **inflecting languages**.
See **inflecting languages**

analytic proposition – sąd analityczny

A **proposition** is **analytic** if its truth is determined solely by its logical form and the meaning of its component elements, or put differently, it holds in all **possible worlds**; e.g. *All bachelors are unmarried* is analytic. Analytic propositions have in common that their truth is independent of what the world looks like; they are thus necessarily true. An analytically true sentence is true in all possible worlds, and it is false in all possible worlds. See also **synthetic proposition** (Ayer 1936: 7–8).
See **proposition**, **possible world**

anaphora n., **anaphor** n., **anaphoric** a. – anafora

An **anaphor** is an expression (like *himself*) which cannot have an independent reference, but which must take its reference from an **antecedent** (i.e. expression

A

which it refers to) within the same phrase or sentence. Hence, while we can say *John is deluding himself* (where *himself* refers back to *John*), we cannot say **Himself is waiting*, since the anaphor *himself* here has no antecedent. Anaphor is the phenomenon whereby an anaphor refers back to an antecedent.
See **antecedent**

anaphoric expression – wyrażenie anaforyczne

This is an expression (a word or phrase) which refers to another expression (word or phrase), which was used earlier in a text or conversation. For example, the pronoun *he*, as used in *Alfred said that he was busy* is **anaphoric,** as it refers to its **antecedent**. Some verbs (e.g. the auxiliary *do*) can be anaphoric, as, e.g. in *Alice works hard and so does Mary*, where *does* is a substitute for *works*, and is thus anaphoric. **Anaphoric expressions** are an important component to generating coherent **discourses**.
See **anaphor(a)**, **antecedent**, **coherence**, **discourse**

anaphoric reference – odniesienie anaforyczne
See **coherence**

anaptyxis (also **svarabhakti**) – anaptyksa

Development of an **epenthetic** vowel that agrees in some feature with an adjacent vowel. For example, Latin *faclis* 'easy' and *poculum* 'goblet' from earlier *faclis* and *poclum* show **anaptycic** vowels whose quality is dependent on that of the vowels in following syllables. This is one type of **epenthesis** (Trask 1996: 67).
See **epenthesis**

Anatolian languages – anatolijskie języki

A major branch of **Indo-European**, all of whose members are long dead. The best-**attested** Anatolian language is **Hittite**, abundantly recorded in the second millennium BC. Other languages belonging to this branch are Lydian, Palaic, Lycian, Milyan, and two varieties of Luwian (RLT).

ancestor (**parent**) **language** – język-przodek, prajęzyk

An earlier language from which the later one is directly descended by the ordinary processes of language change. For example, **Proto-Indo-European** is an **ancestor** of English.
See **proto-language**, **Proto-Indo-European**

Anglicisation – anglicyzacja

In one of its uses, the term refers to the process of modifying the pronunciation of a foreign word or name so as to produce a version which is more or less

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compatible with the ordinary phonology of English, as, e.g. when French *déjà vu* [deʒa vy] is rendered as [deíʒav(j)ü].

Anglicism – anglicyzm

A word or phrase borrowed, directly or indirectly (i.e. via other languages), from English or coined on the model of an English word or phrase; e.g. Pol. *budżet* (Eng. *budget*), or Pol. *befsztyk* borrowed into Polish via German.

Anglo-Norman, Anglo-French – anglonormandzki

The language that developed among the French-speaking ruling elite in England during the Anglo-Norman period (1066–1204).

Anglo-Saxon, **Old English** – anglosaksoński, staroangielski

English as it was spoken in Britain between 700–1100.
Early Old English (700–900).
Late Old English (900–1100).

animate – żywotny

A term used to describe a property of denoting a living being (e.g. a human being or animal); the corresponding term **inanimate** is used in relation to an expression which denotes lifeless entities. For example, the pronoun *he* is often said to be animate in gender, and the pronoun *it* to be inanimate, since *he* can refer either to a male human being or male animal, whereas *it* is typically used to refer to a thing.

anomia – anomia

A type of **aphasia** consisting in difficulty in using proper nouns.
See **aphasia**

antecedent – poprzednik

An expression which is referred to by a pronoun or anaphor of some kind. For example, in *John cut himself shaving*, *John* is the **antecedent** of the **anaphor** *himself*, since *himself* refers back to *John*. In a sentence such as *He is someone whom we respect* the antecedent of the pronoun *whom* is *someone*.
See **anaphor**

anthropological linguistics – lingwistyka antropologiczna, etnolingwistyka

A branch of linguistics which studies the role of language in relation to human cultural patterns and beliefs, as investigated using the theories and methods of anthropology. For example, it studies the way in which linguistic features vary to identify a member of a speech community with a social, religious,

occupational, or kinship group. The term overlaps to some degree with **ethnolinguistics** and **sociolinguistics**, reflecting the overlapping interests of the correlative disciplines – anthropology, ethnology, and sociology.
See **ethnolinguistics**, **sociolinguistics**

anthroponymy – antroponimia
See **onomastics**

antonym – antonim, wyraz przeciwstawny

A term used to denote an expression which has the opposite meaning to another expression: e.g. *tall* is the **antonym** of *short* (and conversely) – hence *tall* and *short* are antonyms. Cf. **synonym**.
See **synonym**

antonymy n., **antonymous** a. – antonimia

Antonymy (i.e. oppositeness of meaning) is one of the most important semantic relations. It may be exemplified by the items *big* and *small.* A characteristic property of this class of words is that they are gradable, and grading implies comparison (e.g., X is bigger/smaller than Y). There are several types of antonyms: **polar antonyms** (e.g. *long*:*short*) – these are typically evaluatively neutral and objectively descriptive; **overlapping antonyms** – these all have an evaluative polarity as part of their meaning; one term is commendatory, e.g. *pretty*, and the other term is deprecatory, e.g. *ugly*; **equipollent antonyms** – the number of such antonyms is highly restricted and they refer to subjective sensations and emotions (e.g. *hot*:*cold, happy*:*sad*), or evaluations based on subjective reactions rather than "objective" standards (*nice*:*nasty, pleasant*:*unpleasant*).

A-Over-A principle – zasada „A-nad-A"

A term introduced by Noam Chomsky in his *Language and Mind* (1968) to characterise the condition or constraint imposed on the operation of certain grammatical transformations. The **A-Over-A** principle/constraint states that no constituent of category A can be moved out of a larger containing constituent of category A (i.e. category of the same type). An illustration of how this principle actually operates may be the Prepositional Phrase (PP) *out of this tunnel.* The internal structure of this phrase can be presented as follows:

PP [out pp [of this tunnel] pp] PP

The PP (complex phrase) *out of this tunnel* is the larger containing phrase, it contains the smaller phrase (pp) *of this tunnel*, which is also a PP, that is, a structure of the same type. In the grammar of English there is a syntactic rule, called **topicalisation**, which moves a constituent to sentence initial position in order to mark it as the **topic**, that is, as what the sentence is about. For

example, sentence (2) is the result of the application of topicalisation rule to sentence (1): (1) *The players emerged out of this tunnel an hour ago*, (2) *Out of this tunnel emerged the players an hour ago.* As can be seen, here the whole complex phrase has been shifted to sentence-initial position. And the following sentence (3) **of this tunnel the players emerged out an hour ago* is ungrammatical, since in this case only the smaller phrase (i.e. *of this tunnel)* has been moved to the beginning of sentence (1), thus violating the A-Over-A priciple.

aphasia – afazja

In **language pathology**, a term used to refer to a disturbance in speaking and understanding of speech caused by disease and consequent damage of the brain tissue. There are different types of **aphasia**.
See **agraphia**, **agrammatism**, **dyslexia**, **anomia**

aphaeresis, **aphesis** – afereza

The loss of a word-initial vowel, as when *opossum* is reduced to *possum*, or when early Italian *istoria* 'history' was reduced to *storia*. The opposite is **prosthesis**.

aphonia – afonia

In **aphonia** the patient only loses control of the phonological system, he/she loses the ability to produce the learned phonemes of a given language, while the capacity for thinking in language is unimpaired.
See **aphasia**

apical consonant – spółgłoska apikalna

A consonant which is produced by the tip of the tongue (apex) touching some part of the mouth. For example, in English the /t/ in *tin* /tin/ is an **apical** stop. If the tongue touches the upper teeth, the sounds are sometimes called **apico-dental** (*apiko-dentalne*, *przedniojęzykowo-zębowe*). If the tongue touches the gum ridge behind the upper teeth (the alveolar ridge), the sounds are sometimes called **apico-alveolar**.

apocope – apokopa

Loss of an unaccented final vowel, e.g. Pol. *tak* from Old Polish *tako*. It is often contrasted with **apheresis** and **syncope**.
See **apheresis**, **syncope**

apodeictic – apodyktyczny
See **alethic modality**

apophony – apofonia
See **ablaut**

appelativisation – apelatywizacja

The conversion of a proper name into a common name; e.g. the English *hooligan* from the proper name *Hooligan* (*mackintosh* from *MacIntosh*, etc.). This process is especially frequent with trade names (e.g. *Kleenex*, *Hoover*, etc.). But consider also *scrooge, harlequin, vandal, maverick, cannibal,* etc., which derive from the names of real or fictional persons, while *utopia, jeans, canary,* etc. derive from real or fictional places.

applicational grammar – gramatyka aplikacyjna

The name given to a linguistic theory developed by the Russian linguist, S.K. Šaumjan. It is a type of **categorial grammar** whose basic units are *term* and *sentence.*
See **categorial grammar**

applied linguist – językoznawca stosowany
See **applied linguistics**

applied linguistics – językoznawstwo stosowane

The study of language and linguistics in relation to practical problems, such as translation, speech therapy, foreign language teaching/learning, lexicography, etc. **Applied linguistics** uses information from sociology, psychology, anthropology, **information theory** as well as from linguistics in order to develop its own theoretical models of language and language use, and then uses this information and theory in practical areas such as syllabus design, speech therapy, language planning, etc.

apposition n., **appositional** a. – apozycja, dopowiedzenie

When two words, phrases or clauses in a sentence have the same **reference**, they are said to be in **apposition**. For example, in *My sister, Helen Wilson, will travel with me*, *my sister* and *Helen Wilson* are in apposition (they may be called **appositives**).

appositional (**copulative**) **compound** – złożenie kopulatywne

An **appositional compound** is one such as *maid-servant* or *fighter-bomber* in which the two component parts can be seen as being equivalent in status: a *maid servant* is both a maid and a servant.

Arabic – arabski język

One of the major world languages, a **Semitic** language. Arabic was originally only the language of Arabia, where a literary version of it was used in writing the Holy Koran in the 8th century AD. As a result of the great Arab expansion

involved in building the Arab Empire, Arabic largely displaced the indigenous languages in a vast area of the Near East and of northern Africa, and it has also become the **liturgical language** of Islam everywhere.
See **Semitic languages**, **liturgical language**

Aramaic – aramejski język

A northwestern **Semitic language** which became a widespread *lingua franca* in the Near East in the first millennium BC and which displaced **Hebrew** as the mother tongue in Palestine in the 3rd century BC; it is thought to have been the mother tongue of Jesus Christ and the Apostles. It is an extinct language now.
See **Semitic languages**, **Hebrew**

arbitrariness n., **arbitrary** a., **conventionality** n., **conventional** a. – arbitralność, konwencjonalność (znaków językowych)

One of the design properties of language; **arbitrariness** (or **conventionality**) is usually contrasted with **iconicity**. Iconic signs are non-arbitrary signs, in that they are medium-dependent. For example, English *cuckoo* is iconic in the phonic substance, but not in the graphic medium. The sound of the word resembles the sound made by the animal that the word refers to. Thus, iconic signs are signs where there is a resemblance between the sign and what is its referent. What is, however meant by **arbitrary** with reference to language can be explained by the following. In English we have a word *tree,* in Polish there is a word *drzewo,* in Russian *derevo*, and in German there is a word *Baum*, etc. No one of these words is more naturally appropriate than there are the other ones. This shows that the relation between the word and what it stands for is not essential but arbitrary (conventional); the members of a given speech community simply agree to call such and such an object or concept by such and such a name. Were the relationship between a form (Saussure's **signifiant**) and a meaning (Saussure's **signifié**) not arbitrary, words with the same meaning in different languages would all have a recognisably similar form. When we say that linguistic signs are arbitrary we mean by this that there is no necessary (or natural) relation between the sound of a word and its referent (or meaning).

arbitrary a. – arbitralny
See **arbitrariness**

archaic – archaiczny

Old fashioned; that has ceased to be used except for special purposes, as in poetry, church rituals, etc. (e.g. *thou* is an archaic form of *you*) (Webster's).

archaism n., **archaic** a., **relic** – archaizm

A linguistic form which is directly inherited by a language from its **ancestor** but which has been lost in related languages or which was later lost in that same language. In Polański (1993) the following types of **archaisms** are distinguished: **phonetic archaisms**: *ni ma* in relation to *nie ma*, *sierce–serce*, *kozieł–kozioł*; **inflectional archaisms**: *orlimi pióry–orlimi piórami*, *w Prusiech–na Prusach*; **derivational archaisms**: *zbrodzień–zbrodniarz*; **lexical archaisms**: *aeroplan–samolot*, *białogłowa–kobieta*, *kmieć–chłop*; **phraseological archaisms**: *duby smalone–brednie*, *głupstwa*; **semantic archaisms**: *szczyt* 'tarcza', *przerazić* 'przebić'; **syntactic archaisms**: including some prepositions and conjunctions, e.g. *gwoli*, *azali*, *aliści*, as well as whole syntacto-phraseological constuctions.
See **ancestor language**

archiphoneme – archifonem

In **phonology**, the term refers to a way of handling the problem of **neutralization** (i.e. when the contrast between **phonemes** is lost in certain positions in a word). For example, in German the phonemes /t/ and /d/ (e.g. occurring in the words Rat and Rad) do not contrast in final position, so certain linguists claim the **archiphoneme** /T/ occurs finally. And in English /p/ and /b/ do not contrast after /s-/, spin is said to contain the archiphoneme /P/ and is written as /sPin/. A common and convenient way of symbolizing archiphonemes is by the use of capital letters (as, e.g., in the above examples).
See **phonology**, **neutralization**

argot, **cant**, **slang** – argot, żargon, slang

The distinctive slang or jargon used by a particular social group, often one of questionable standing in the community, such as homosexuals, gypsies, or thieves. Not infrequently, **argot** words pass into general usage, as has happened with English *bilk* 'cheat', *moniker* 'name', *gay* 'homosexual', and *hit* 'kill' (RLT). Cf. **slang**.

argument – argument

This is a term borrowed by linguists from logic (more specifically from **predicate calculus**) to describe the role played by particular types of expressions in the semantic structure of a sentence. In a sentence such as *John hit Fred* the overall sentence is said to be a **proposition** (a term used to describe the semantic content of a clause), and *John* and *Fred* are the **arguments** of the predicate *hit*. The two arguments represent the two participants involved in the act of hitting, and the predicate is the expression (in this case the verb *hit*) which describes the activity in which they are engaged. By extension, in a sentence such as *John says he hates linguistics* the predicate is the verb

says, while its two arguments are *John* and the clause *he hates linguistics*; the second argument *he hates linguistics* is in turn a proposition whose predicate is *hates*, and whose two arguments are *he* and *linguistics.*
See **proposition**, **predicate calculus**

argument structure, **valence** – struktura argumentowa, walencja
See **valency**

Aristotelian category – kategoria arystotelesowska
See **classical category**

Armenian – ormiański język

The principle language of Armenia, also spoken elsewhere, abundantly recorded since the 5th century AD, though the modern forms are greatly changed. Armenian forms a single branch of **Indo-European** all by itself.
See **Indo-European languages**

article – przedimek, rodzajnik

A term used in traditional grammar to describe a particular subclass of **determiners**: the determiner *the* is often called the **definite article**, and the determiner *a/an* the **indefinite article**.
See **determiner**

articulation n., **articulatory** a., **articulate** v. – artykulacja, artykułowanie

A term used in **phonetics** for the physiological movements involved in modifying an airflow to produce the various types of speech sounds, using the vocal tract about the larynx. In describing and analysing speech sounds a distinction is made between the **manner of articulation** and the **place of articulation**.
See **phonetics**

articulator – narząd (organ) mowy

A movable **organ of speech**, such as the various parts of the tongue and the lower lip.

articulatory phonetics – fonetyka artykulacyjna

The branch of **phonetics** dealing with the way in which speech sounds are produced and with their classification.
See **phonetics**

artificial language – sztuczny język

A language which is deliberately constructed by a single adult human being according to whatever principles seem good to the inventor, and normally

intended to be used either as an auxiliary language among people with no language in common or as a vehicle of scientific or philosophical discourse. The most successful **artificial language** to date is **Esperanto**, invented by L.L. Zamenhoff and published in 1887. Esperanto is a mixture of European languages with typical European grammatical features and it claims over a million speakers world-wide. No case is known of an artificial language developing into a new **natural language** on any significant scale.
See **natural language**

aspect n., **aspectual** a. – aspekt

A category used in the grammatical description of verbs (along **tense** and **mood**), referring primarily to the way the grammar marks the duration or type of temporal activity denoted by the verb. A well-studied **aspectual** contrast, between **perfective** and **imperfective**, is found in many **Slavic** languages, in Polish and Russian, amongst others, there is a perfective/imperfective contrast; the former often referring to the completion of an action, the latter expressing duration without specifying completion. Cf., e.g. the perfective form *przeczytał (całą książkę)* 'he has read/read the whole book' and the imperfective form *czytał* 'he used to read/was reading'. In English, the auxiliary *have* is said to mark **perfective aspect**, in that it marks the perfection (in the sense of 'completion' or 'termination') of an activity. And the auxiliary *be* marks **imperfective** (or **progressive**) aspect, as it relates to an activity which is/was not yet 'perfected' (i.e. completed), and hence which is/was ongoing or in progress, e.g. *He is/was reading a book*, where the verb form *reading* is what is called the **imperfective** (or **progressive**) **participle**, and the verb form *read*, as used in *He has read a book*, is a **perfective participle**.
See **mood**, **tense**

aspirate – aspirata, spółgłoska przydechowa

For example, English /p/ is **aspirated** (produced with a very small puff of air) at the beginning of the word *pan* /phæn/, but when it is preceded by an /s/, as in *span* /spæn/, there is no puff of air. The /p/ in *span* is **unaspirated**. Cf. **aspiration**.

aspiration – aspiracja, przydech

A puff of air accompanying the release of a **stop consonant**, as with the English initial stops /p t k/ used, e.g. in *pan*, *tan*, *can*. When these phonemes are preceded by /s/, e.g. in *span*, *stairs*, and *skate*, there is no puff of air and these sounds are unaspirated. **Aspiration** increases when a word or syllable is stressed.
See **stop (plosive) consonant**

assimilation n., **assimilate** v. – asymilacja, upodobnienie

A phonologically conditioned change which involves decreasing the difference between two (directly or indirectly) adjacent phonemes by extending the proper articulation of one to include the other. We have **regressive assimilation** in which the preceding phoneme is assimilated by the succeeding phoneme. For example, Polish *babka→bapka* (voiced *b* becomes voiceless *p* by being assimilated to the succeeding voiceless *k*). We also have **progressive** (or **perseverative**) **assimilation** in which one phoneme is assimilated to the phoneme preceding it. For example, Polish *twój /tfój/* (voiced *w* becomes voiceless *f* becoming assimilated by the preceding voiceless *t*). Cf. **dissimilation**.

asterisk – asterisk

The symbol '*', prefixed to a linguistic form for any of several purposes but always indicating 'unattested', 'non-existent' or 'impossible'. In historical studies the **asterisk** marks, among others, a form which is nowhere recorded but which has been reconstructed by linguists, as, e.g. when English *head* is traced back to an unrecorded Proto-Germanic **haubudam* (RLT).
See **attested form**, **unattested form**

asyndeton, **asyndetic coordination** – asyndeton, asyndetoniczny układ zdania
See **syndeton**

autochtonous language – język autochtoniczny
See **indigenous language**

atrophy n., v., **attrition**, **erosion** – atrofia, zanik

In the process of **grammaticalisation**, the gradual loss of the semantic and phonological substance of a linguistic form or expression. For example, Ancient Greek *thélo hina* 'I want that [something should happen]' has been **atrophied** to Modern Greek *tha,* functioning as the **subjunctive** marker. In the case of **language death**, the entire linguistic system may **atrophy** as the language sinks into disuse (McMahon 1996: 167).
See **grammaticalisation**, **language death**, **subjunctive mood**

attested form – forma poświadczona

A term referring to a linguistic form for which there is evidence of present or past use. In **historical linguistics**, **attested forms** are those which appear in written texts, as opposed to the **reconstructed forms** arrived at by a process of deduction.
See **historical method**, **reconstruction**

attributive a. – przydawkowy, atrybutywny

In grammatical description, the term is usually used to refer to the role of adjectives and nouns when they occur as **modifiers** of the **head** of a **noun phrase**. For example, *red* has **attributive** function in the noun phrase *the red chair*, as has *Jane's* in *Jane's hat*. **Attributive adjectives** appear between the determiner (i.e. words such as *the*, *a*, *his*, *their*, etc.) and the head of the noun phrase (cf. e.g. *the red chair, a mere child, his main argument*, etc.). The term contrasts with the **predicative** function of these words, as in *the chair is red*, *the hat is Jane's*. **Predicative adjectives** can be (a) **subject complement** (as in our example *the chair is red*, or in *He's foolish*); they are not only subject complements to noun phrases but also to whole clauses, as, e.g. in: *Whether he will resign is uncertain* (or consider the non-finite clauses: *To drive a car is dangerous, To play so hard is foolish*), (b) **object complement**, as illustrated by the following examples: *I consider John foolish. He made his wife happy.*
See **complement**, **noun phrase**, **modifier**

attributive adjective – przymiotnik atrybutywny
See **attributive**

audiolingual (**aural-oral**) **method** – metoda audiolingwalna

A method of foreign or second language teaching which (a) emphasises the teaching of speaking and listening before reading and writing, (b) uses dialogues and drills, (c) discourages the use of mother tongue in the classroom, (d) often makes use of contrastive analysis. This method was prominent in the 1950s and 1960s, especially in the USA, and has been widely used in many other parts of the world. The theory behind the audiolingual method is the **aural-oral approach** to language teaching, which contains the following beliefs about language and language learning: (a) speaking and listening are the most basic language skills, (b) each language has its own unique structure and rule system, (c) language is learned through forming habits. These ideas were based partly on the theory of **structural linguistics** and partly on **behaviourist psychology** (JCRandRSch).
See **behaviouristic psychology**, **structural linguistics**

auditory phonetics – fonetyka audytywna (percepcyjna)

The branch of **phonetics** concerned with how speech sounds are perceived by the listener.
See **phonetics**

augmentative n., a. – augmentativum, zgrubienie

A morphological construction which is used to denote something of large size, e.g. Pol. *chłopisko, konisko*, etc. The affix *-isko/-ysko* is a typical **augmentative**

affix. Very often, though not always, **augmentatives** are interpreted pragmatically as being bad or nasty in some sense.

Australian languages – australijskie języki

The indigenous languages of Australia, numbering about 250 at the time of the European settlement. Most **Australian languages** transparently belong to the large **Pama-Nyungan** family, but the northwest coast is occupied by a further twenty-odd families which are typologically very different from Pama-Nyungan. The extinct **Tasmanian languages** are sparsely recorded and difficult to classify.
See **Tasmanian languages**

Austronesian languages – austronezyjskie języki

A vast language family, with nearly 1,000 languages, extending from the western Indian Ocean to the eastern Pacific. The family includes virtually all the languages of Madagascar, Malaysia, Indonesia, the Philippines, Taiwan, New Zeeland and the islands of the Pacific, plus some coastal languages of New Guinea. Among the better known languages are: Malay-Indonesian, Javanese, Tagalog, Maori, Samoan, Fijian, etc.

automatic translation – tłumaczenie automatyczne

The term refers to one of the research areas that have developed in **computational linguistics**; the other areas being natural language processing, **speech synthesis**, speech recognition, etc.
See **computational linguistics**

autonomous linguistics – językoznawstwo autonomiczne

A view of linguistics represented by **structuralists** and **transformational-generative linguists** (cf. Chomsky 1957, 1965/66, 1968, 1975, 1986). For structuralists, language is **autonomous** in the sense that it is self-contained, with its own structure, its own constitutive principles, and its own dynamics. In the structuralist view, the world out there and how people interact with it, how they perceive and **conceptualise** it, are extra-linguistic factors which do not impinge on the language system itself. And for transformational-generative linguists, the notion of the **autonomy** of language has acquired a different sense; language is no longer regarded as self-contained system, independent of its user, rather the object of investigation is a "system of knowledge" residing in a person's brain. (Chomsky 1986: 24 referred in Taylor 1991: 18). Chomsky claims that the human mind consists of components ("modules") which, though interacting, develop and operate independently. One of these components is what Chomsky calls **language faculty**. On this "modularity approach," language is autonomous in the sense that the language faculty

itself is an autonomous component of the human mind, in principle independent of other mental faculties. In the Chomskyan paradigm, then, the main concern of linguistics is the study of grammatical competence, that is, the strictly linguistic knowledge which a speaker has acquired in virtue of the properties of the language faculty. The American cognitive linguist John Taylor (1991: 18–19) points out that the "autonomous hypothesis," "in both its structuralist and transformational-generative guises, is not new," and he refers us to what B. Malinowski (1937: 172 cited in Taylor 1991: 19) wrote concerning this issue already decades ago:

> Can we treat language as an independent subject of study? Is there a legitimate science of words alone, of phonetics, grammar, and lexicography? Or must all study of speaking lead to the treatment of linguistics as a branch of the general science of culture? […] The distinction between *language* and *speech*, still supported by such writers as Bühler and Gardener, but dating back to De Saussure and Wegener, will have to be dropped. Language cannot remain an independent and self-contained subject of study.

In his *Foundations of Cognitive Grammar*, Vol. 1: *Theoretical Prerequisites* (1978: 274), George Lakoff says that it is unrealistic to speak of a language faculty independent of "sensory-motor and cognitive development, perception, memory, attention, social interaction, personality, and other aspects of experience" (quoted in Taylor 1991: 19). Linguists who believe with Lakoff that aspects of experience and cognition are crucially implicated in the structure and functioning of language have given the term **cognitive** to their approach. See **cognitive linguistics**, **structural linguistics**, **Transformational-Generative Grammar**

auxiliary language – język pomocniczy

Another term for **artificial language**.
See **artificial language**

auxiliary verb – czasownik posiłkowy

A subset of verbs which can occur in the verb phrase alongside a main **lexical verb**. The main **auxiliary verbs** in English are *be, do* and *have* (called "primary auxiliaries" in F.R. Palmer's *A Linguistic Study of the English Verb*) and the modal auxiliary verbs (called "secondary auxiliaries" in Palmer), which include *can/could, may/might, will/would, must, should, ought to, need,* and *dare*. See **lexical verb**

back-formation (**derivation**) – derywacja wsteczna

The formation of a word by the deletion of material which either is or appears to be an **affix**. For example, English (to) *edit* was created from the noun form *editor* by **back-formation**, through the deletion of *-or* (*televise* from *television*). Back-formation is one of the major processes by which compound verbs are formed in English, for example *to baby-sit* from *baby-sitter*, *double-glaze* from *double glazing.*

back vowel – samogłoska tylna (ciemna)

A vowel articulated with the back part of the tongue relatively high in the mouth, e.g. /a/; by contrast with a **front vowel**, in which the front part of the tongue is relatively high in the mouth, e.g. /i/.
See **front vowel**

Bahuvrīhi, **exocentric compound** – bahuvrīhi, złożenie egzocentryczne

A Sanskrit term describing a type of compound word in which an entity is characterised without either of the constituents directly naming it; also called **exocentric compound**. Examples include *loudmouth* (a person 'whose mouth speaks loudly') and *scarecrow* (an object whose job is 'to scare crows'). The Sanskrit word itself is an example meaning 'much rice' (i.e. 'well-to-do') (DC).

Balkan league of languages – bałkańska liga językowa

The **Balkan league** of languages is composed of Modern Greek, Albanian, Bulgarian, and Rumanian. The first and the second of these languages constitute distinct categories, Bulgarian belongs to the **Slavic** family and Rumanian to the **Romance** family. All four of these languages were very different from one another in structure between the 6th and 10th centuries AD when they came into geographical contact. However, in the course of the last several centuries, owing to their mutual influences of their syntactic and morphological systems, a series of innovations occurred making these languages similar to one another.
See **league of languages**, **Slavic languages**, **Romance languages**

Baltic languages – bałtyckie języki

A branch of **Indo-European** including Latvian, Lithuanian, plus the extinct Old Prussian, Jatvingian, Curonian, and Selonian. **Latvian** is the language

of about two million people in Latvia. **Lithuanian** is spoken by about three million people in the Baltic state Lithuania. It is important among the Indo-European languages because of its conservatism. It is sometimes said that a Lithuanian peasant can understand certain simple phrases in **Sanskrit**. Although the statement implies too much, Lithuanian preserves some very old features that have disappeared from practically all the other languages of the family (cf. Baugh and Cable 2002: 30–31). **Baltic** is generally believed to be closely related to Slavic in a larger **Balto-Slavic** grouping.
See **Indo-European languages**, **Balto-Slavic languages**, **Sanskrit**

Balto-Slavic languages – bałto-słowiańskie języki

A major branch of **Indo-European**, consisting of two sub-branches, **Baltic** and **Slavic**.
See **Baltic languages**, **Slavic languages**

Bantu languages – bantuidalne języki

A single sub-branch of the **Niger-Congo family** of languages. The **Bantu languages** occupy a huge area of central, eastern and southern Africa, and many among the most important languages on the continent: KiKongo, Luganda, Swahili, etc. The Bantu languages are distinguished by their rich gender systems, their unusually elaborate agreement, and their overwhelmingly prefixing morphology (RLT).

bare infinitive – czysty bezokolicznik, bezokolicznik bazowy

Infinitive form without *to*, as in *I saw him **fall***.

base n. – podstawa derywacji (słowotwórcza)

(1) In **morphology**, a term used as an alternative to **root** or **stem.** The **base** of the word is that part of it to which any affix is added or upon which any morphological process acts. In the creation of *friendly* by the suffixation of *-ly*, *friend* is the base; in the formation of *unfriendly* by the prefixation of *un-*, *friendly* is the base.
See **morphology**, **root**

(2) In **Cognitive Grammar**, that part of the **domain matrix** necessary for understanding the **profile** of a linguistic unit. For example, the lexical item *hypotenuse* profiles the longest side of a right-angled triangle. The **base** constitutes the larger structure, the right-angled triangle, of which the hypotenuse constitutes a sub-structure. The larger structure of the base is essential for understanding the notion hypotenuse (VE).
See **Cognitive Grammar**, **domain matrix**, **profile**

base-component – komponent (składnik) bazowy

In the *Aspects* (Chomsky 1965/1966) model of **transformational grammar**, the component that is responsible for generating deep structures (base phrase-markers) which serve as input to the semantic component of the grammar.
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**

basic (core) vocabulary – słownictwo podstawowe

Those words in a language which are of very high frequency, which are learned early by children, and which are supposedly more resistant to **lexical replacement** than other words. Among these are personal pronouns, numerals, body-part names, kinship terms, names of natural phenomena, etc.
See **lexical replacement**

basic domain – domena podstawowa
See **domain**

Basque – baskijski język

A language spoken at the western end of the Pyrenees, mostly in northern Spain but partly in south-western France. **Basque** is the most famous **isolated language** (i.e. a language which does not appear to be genetically related to any other known languages at all). An ancestral form of Basque, called **Aquitanian**, is sparsely attested in Gaul in Roman times, and Basque is unquestionably the last surviving pre-**Indo-European** language in western Europe. Cf. Trask (1996).
See **Indo-European languages**

behaviourism – behawioryzm

(1) In psychology, a theory which states that human and animal behaviour can and should be studied only in terms of physical processes, without reference to mind. It led to theories of learning which explained how an external event (a stimulus) caused a change in the behaviour of an individual (a response), based on a history of reinforcement.

(2) In linguistics, the influence of this school of psychology (i.e. the study of observable and measurable behaviour) has been most marked in the work of the American linguist Leonard Bloomfield. It can be seen in the Bloomfieldian insistence on rigorous **discovery procedures**, and most notably in his behaviourist account of meaning in terms of observable stimuli and responses made by participants in specific situations. Bloomfield's behaviouristic theory of language is a particular version of **physicalism** and **determinism**. The limitations of behaviourist accounts of language were criticised by Noam Chomsky in the late 1950s, in writings which anticipate the development of **mentalistic** ideas in linguistics.

See **discovery procedure**, **mentalism, innateness hypothesis**, **physicalism**, **determinism**

behaviouristic psychology – psychologia behawiorystyczna

Behaviouristic (**behaviourist**) **psychology** claimed that all differences between people are environmentally determined and that all our behaviour is reducible to our responses to external stimuli. J.B. Watson, one of the founders of **behaviourism** in America, defined "stimulus" as any object in the general environment or any change in the psychological condition of the animal. The term "response" is defined by Watson (1929: 19) as "that system of organic activity that we see emphasised in any kind of activity, such as building a skyscraper, drawing plans, having babies, writing books, and the like." **Behaviourists** considered that since behaviour is subject to precise and experimental analysis, it should be taken as basis for all psychological investigations. Behaviourism was especially influential in the U.S. between the world wars. The theory has had much influence on other schools of modern psychology as well as on some American **structural** linguists.
See **Bloomfieldian School of Linguistics**, **behaviourism**

benefactive case – benefactivus, benefactor

In **Case Grammar**, the noun or noun phrase that refers to the person or animal who benefits, or is meant to benefit, from the action of the verb. For example, in the sentences *Mary baked a cake for Paul* and *Mary baked Paul a cake*, *Paul* is the **benefactive case**.
See **Case Grammar**

Bengali – bengali, bengalski język

One of the world's top ten languages in speaker numbers, an **Indo-Aryan language** spoken in Bangladesh, in West Bengal and elsewhere in India, and by immigrants in Britain and elsewhere. **Bengali** has a major literary tradition, though the literary form of the language is very different from the spoken form (RLT).
See **Indo-Aryan languages**

Bickerton's hypothesis, **bioprogram hypothesis** – hipoteza Bickertona

The hypothesis that human beings are born with a "default" structure for language built into their brains. Human languages differ rather substantially in their grammatical structures (e.g. in their basic word order). However, **creoles** all over the world appear to be strikingly similar in their grammar: all creoles look pretty much alike, regardless of where they came into existence or of which languages provided most of the input into them. The British-born American linguist Derek Bickerton (1984) has proposed an explanation for

this observation. Since creoles are newly created languages, built out of the grammarless **pidgins** which preceded them, and since the children who create a creole are obliged to build its grammar for themselves, Bickerton argues that there must be some kind of innate machinery which determines the nature of that grammar. The linguist calls this machinery (or device) the **bioprogram**, and he sees the bioprogram as an innate default structure for language which is always implemented by children unless they find themselves learning an adult language with a different structure, in which case they learn that instead. The **Bioprogram Hypothesis** therefore represents a rather specific and distinctive version of the **Innate Hypothesis.** It has attracted a great deal of attention, but it remains deeply controversial (Bickerton 1984; RLT).
See **pidgin**, **creole languages**, **Innate Hypothesis**

bi-labial consonant – spółgłoska dwuwargowa (bilabialna)

A consonant articulated by bringing the lips together, e.g. /p/, /b/ and /m/ are **bi-labial consonants**.

bilingual n., a. – bilingwalny, dwujęzyczny

A person who uses at least two languages with some degree of proficiency. In everyday use **bilingual** usually means a person who speaks, reads or understands two languages equally well (a **balanced bilingualism**), but a bilingual person usually has a better knowledge of one language than another.
Cf. **monolingual**, **multilingual**

bilingualism – bilingwizm, dwujęzyczność

The use of at least two languages either by an individual or by a group of speakers, such as the inhabitants of a particular region or a nation. **Bilingualism** is the norm in the majority of the countries of the world. Cf. **monolingualism**. "It is thought that between 70 per cent and 80 per cent of the earth's population are **bilingual** or **multilingual**. In the Amazon rainforest, in New Guinea, in large parts of the Indian subcontinent, **multilingualism** is still the norm, and the same was true of Australia and much of North America before the European settlements largely destroyed the indigenous cultures and languages." (Trask 1996: 308).
See **monolingualism**, **multilingualism**

binary bit – cyfra binarna (dwójkowa)
See **communication theory**

binary feature – cecha binarna

A property of a **phoneme** or **word** which can be used to describe the phoneme or word. A **binary feature** can take on only one of two values, either present

or absent, [+] or [−]. For example, a phoneme is either a vowel or not a vowel, that is, it is either [+vocalic] or [−vocalic]; or consider the English consonants /t/ and /d/, which differ in that /d/ is voiced, while /t/ is voiceless. So VOICE is one of the features which describe /d/ and /t/. This can be shown as follows: /d/ [+voice] (= voice present), /t/ [−voice] (= voice absent). When a binary feature can be used to distinguish between two phonemes, like in our example, VOICE with /d/ and /t/, the phonemes are in **binary opposition**. Binary features are also used in grammatical and semantic analyses of lexical items within **Generative Grammar**. For example, the meanings of nouns are analysed in terms of such features as [+/− common], [+/− animate], [+/− human], etc. Thus, the noun *boy* can be analysed in terms of the following features: [+human], [−adult], [+male].
See **phoneme**, **Generative Grammar**

bind v. – wiązać
See **binding**

binding n. – wiązanie

In **Government-Binding Theory**, the term refers to a series of conditions which formally relate, or **bind**, certain elements of a sentence. To say that one constituent *x* binds (or serves as the **binder** for) another constituent *y* (and conversely, that y is **bound** by *x*) is to say that *x* determines the semantic and grammatical properties of *y*. For example, in *John wants to PRO leave*, the constituent *John* binds (i.e. is the binder of for) PRO, and PRO is bound by *John*. Thus, a bound constituent is one which has a binder (i.e. an **antecedent** within the structure containing it) (Chomsky 1981).
See **Government-Binding Theory**, **binding principle**, **binding theory**

binding principle – zasada wiązania

In **Government-Binding Theory,** a principle which states whether or not expressions in a sentence refer to someone or something outside their clause or sentence or whether they are "bound" within it. For example, in *Ann hurt herself, Ann* refers to someone in the real world and *herself* refers to *Ann*, it is said to be "bound" to *Ann*. In *Ann hurt her, her* refers to another person in the real world, it is not "bound" to *Ann*. To say that one element *x* **binds** another element *y* is to say that *x* determines the semantic (and grammatical) properties of *y*.
See **Government-Binding Theory**

binding theory – teoria wiązania

Binding Theory is a part of the **Government-Binding Theory**. It examines connections between NPs in sentences and explores the way they relate and refer to each other.
See **Government-Binding Theory**

biolinguistics – biolingwistyka

A branch of linguistics which studies language in relation to the biological characteristics of humans, particularly features of anatomy and physiology.

bit – bit
See **communication theory**

Black English
See **African American English**

bleaching, **semantic weakening** (**fading**, **depletion**) – desemantyzacja (znaku językowego)

The removal of semantic content from lexical items undergoing **grammaticalisation**, e.g. in lexical verbs converted to auxiliaries in English.
See **grammaticalisation**

blend, **contamination** – kontaminacja, skrzyżowanie wyrazów, zbitka wyrazowa

A **blend**, also called **portmanteau word**, is a word constructed from the beginning of one word and the end of another. Examples are *smog* (from *smoke + fog*), *motel* (from *motor + hotel*), *brunch* (from *breakfast + lunch*), etc. More recent examples include *heliport* (*helicopter* plus *airport*), *Eurovision* (*European* plus *television*), *breathalyser* (*breath* plus *analyser*), *Chunnel* (*Channel* plus *tunnel*), etc. Such formations are beloved of advertisers and journalists, who constantly create new blends, which usually have only a momentary existence: e.g. *sexational*, *infotisement*, *rockumentary*, and the like. Many such formations are **nonce formations**, that is, short-lived creations (like the examples quoted above).

blending – krzyżowanie wyrazów, kontaminowanie

A relatively unproductive process of wordformation by which new words are formed from the beginning of one word and the ending of another, e.g. *brunch* from *breakfast + lunch, smog* from *smoke + fog, motel* from *motor + hotel*, etc. Another name for **blending** is **contamination**. See also **blend**.

Bloomfieldian School of Linguistics – Bloomfieldowska szkoła lingwistyczna

In his monumental book *Language*, published in 1933, Leonard Bloomfield (1887–1949), the founder of the school, adopted **behaviourism** as a framework for linguistic description. As understood by him, the term "scientific" implied the deliberate rejection of all **data** that were not directly observable or physically measureable. (J.B. Watson (1878–1958), the founder of the school of psychology known as behaviourism, took the same view of the aims and

methodology of science). An important feature of Bloomfield's theory was the linguist's view that the analysis of meaning was "the weak point in language study" and that it would continue to be so "until human knowledge advances very far beyond its present state" (Bloomfield 1933: 140). Bloomfield defined the meaning of a linguistic form as "the situation in which the speaker utters it and the response which it calls forth in the hearer" (1933: 27). In the justification of his attitude to meaning, Bloomfield argued that a precise definition of meaning of words presupposes a complete scientific description of objects, states, processes, etc., for which the words operate as "substitutes," and that the linguist is not equipped with proper tools for providing satisfactory definitions of the meanings of the majority of words. No wonder that for decades after the publication of Bloomfield's *Language* the study of meaning was wholly neglected by the Bloomfieldian school (i.e. linguists like B. Bloch, Z. Harris, H.L. Smith, G. Trager), and was frequently defined to be outside linguistics properly so called. The Bloomfieldians attempted to formulate the principles of phonological and syntactic analysis on a purely formal basis; this part of grammar, then, was to be a purely formal study, independent of **semantics**. This effort on the part of the Bloomfieldians reached its culmination in Zellig S. Harris's *Methods in Structural Linguistics*, published in 1951. American linguistics in the Bloomfieldian period tended to be very "procedural" in orientation. Questions of theory were reformulated as questions of method ("How should one go about the practical task of analysing a language?"); and it was commonly assumed that it should be possible to develop a set of **procedures** which, when applied to a corpus of material in an unknown language would yield the correct grammatical analysis of the language of which the corpus was a representative sample (more on this subject see Lyons 1970). Noam Chomsky, one of Harris's pupils, in his early work (cf. *Syntactic Structures*, 1957) continued to maintain that the phonology and syntax of a language could, and should, be described as a purely formal system without reference to semantic considerations.
See **behaviourism**, **behaviouristic psychology**, **semantics**

body language – mowa ciała

The use of movements of the body, or gestures, mostly unconsciously, to convey a meaning or information. Thus, a nod of the head means 'yes', and a shake of the head means 'no'. Different races have different **body languages**. Cf. **sign language**.

borrowing (1) (**the process of borrowing**) n. – zapożyczanie

In contact situations, linguistic elements can be transferred from one language to another. Not only lexical items (**lexical borrowing**) but also structural features (**structural borrowing**) are transferrable. The unifying factor underlying all **borrowing** is that of projected gain: the borrower must stand

to benefit in some way from the transfer of linguistic material. This gain may be social, since speakers often borrow material from a prestigious group; or it may be more centrally linguistic, in that a speaker may find a replacement in his or her second language for a word which has become obsolete or lost its expressive force. However, the most common and obvious motive for borrowing is sheer necessity; speakers may have to refer to some unfamiliar object or concept for which they have no word in their own language. This need may be a function of new information or technology, or contact with foreign flora, fauna, and culture, L. Bloomfield (1933) calls this **cultural borrowing**. The second major motive for borrowing is essentially social, and depends on perceptions of prestige. Cultural borrowing is frequently bidirectional; in linguistic relationships of unequal prestige, borrowings generally move from the more to the less prestigious language, and will be concentrated in the semantic fields where the more prestigious speakers wield the greatest influence. For instance, after the Norman Conquest, a huge number of French vocabulary penetrated into English, mainly connected with the Church, warfare, the arts, and administration. Borrowed and native English words consequently came to occupy different registers. For example, in the sequences *leech-doctor-physician* and *ask-question-interrogate* the words further right are more literary and formal; in each case the first is Germanic, the second French, and the third Latin or Greek.

borrowing (2) n. – pożyczka, zapożyczenie

A lexical item or a grammatical element transferred from one language into another.

Haugen (1950) distinguishes three basic classes of lexical borrowings: (a) **loanwords** – lexical items borrowed from one language into another and lexicalised, that is, assimilated phonetically, graphemically, morphologically and semantically (e.g. *Soviet*); (b) **loanblends** – formed by two (or more) merged elements, one of which is foreign and one native (e.g. *Gorbacevian* from *Gorbacev + -ian*); (c) **loan translation**, called otherwise **loanshifts** or **calques** (e.g. Polish *drapacz chmur* from *skyscraper*). Calques exemplify complete morphemic substitution. See also **lexicalization**.

borrowing language – język zapożyczający, język-biorca

The language which borrows linguistic forms from another language.

bounding theory – teoria bliskości
See **Government-Binding Theory**

bound morpheme – morfem związany

It is a non-**root** and as such cannot occur in isolation, it must always be attached to some **stems** or roots (constituting their derivational bases). Examples

of bound morphemes are inflectional and derivational morphemes. See also **free morpheme**.
See **morphology**, **morpheme**, **root**, **stem**

bow–wow theory – onomatopeiczna teoria mowy
See **onomatopoeic theory**

brace bracketing – nawiasowanie klamrowe

In **Generative Grammars**, **brace brackets** are employed in some rules to list a set of elements any one of which, but only one of which, may be selected; e.g. in the **phrase-structure rule**:

$$\text{AdvP} \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{PP} \\ \text{Adv} \\ \text{NP} \end{array} \right\}$$

where AdvP = Adverbial Phrase, PP = Prepositional Phrase, Adv = Adverb, NP = Noun Phrase, the brace brackets { } enclose alternative elements, that is, they refer to the selection of only one of the elements in the brackets (PP or Adv or NP). Thus, the rule will account for the **adverbial phrases** occurring in the following sentences:

> *John found the book* **in the park** (PP)
> *John found the book* **there** (Adv)
> *John found the book* **next room** (NP)

See **Generative Grammar**, **phrase-structure rules**

Braille – alfabet Braile'a

A system of printing and writing for the blind, in which characters are formed by patterns of raised dots which are felt with the fingers. The system was invented in 1929 by the Frenchman Louis Braille (1809–1852).

branch of a language family, sub-family – gałąź rodziny językowej, pod-rodzina językowa

In **historical linguistics**, the term refers to a grouping within a language family; for example, Latin and its **Romance** descendants form a **branch** (**sub-family**) of **Indo-European**, **Germanic** languages constitute another branch (sub-family) of Indo-European.
See **language family**, **Germanic languages**, **Romance languages**, **Indo-European languages**

branch (in a **tree diagram**) – gałąź

In **generative grammars**, a term used to represent a solid line linking a pair of nodes in a tree diagram marking a mother/daughter relation between them. For example, in the phrase-marker below the lines linking S and NP, S and VP, etc. are **branches.**
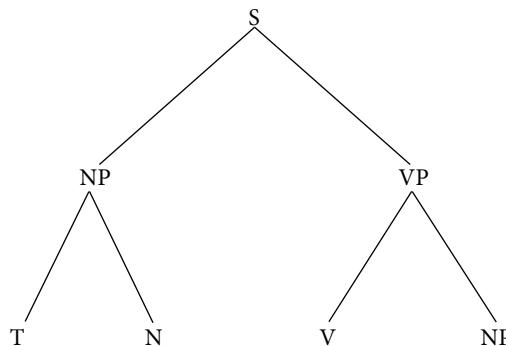
See **Phrase-Structure Grammar** and **Transformational-Generative Grammar**

breaking, fracture (Ger. *Brechung*) – fraktura, przełamanie

The **diphthongisation** of a vowel. The term is specifically applied to certain instances of diphthongisation of front vowels that took place in pre-Old English before a cluster of /l/ or /r/ plus another consonant or before /x/; e.g. pre-Old English */æ/ from West-Gmc */a/: OE *earm* (Gothic *arms*), OE *eald* (Old High German *alt*), etc.
See **diphthongization**

Breton – bretoński język
See **Brittonic languages**

British – brytyjski język
See **Celtic languages**

British English – brytyjska odmiana języka angielskiego

The English language as spoken (and written) in England, and as distinguished from **American English**.
See **American English**

Brittonic languages – brytańskie języki

Branch of the **Celtic** family of languages comprising Welsh, Breton, and Cornish.
See **Celtic languages**

Broca's area – ośrodek Broki (Broca)
See **lateralization**

Bulgarian – bułgarski język
See **Slavic languages**, **proto-Slavic**

bundle of isoglosses – wiązka (pęk) izoglos

A group of **isoglosses** which all fall in roughly the same place. Such a bundle, when it exists, may be evidence for a fairly sharp boundary between two adjoining but distinct speech varieties (or **dialects**).
See **dialect**, **isogloss**

Burgundian – burgundzki język

The extinct and little-known east **Germanic** language of a people who formerly inhabited east-central France.
See **extinct language**, **Germanic languages**

Burushaski – buruszaski język

An **isolating** (or **isolate**) **language** (i.e. a language which does not appear to be genetically related to any other known languages at all) spoken in two neighbouring valleys in the Himalayas, in the disputed territory of Kashmir. It is suspected to be a remnant of the languages spoken in the region before the arrival of the **Indo-Aryan languages** (Trask 1996). See also **Basque**.
See **Indo-Aryan languages**

Business English – angielski biznesu

A branch of English for special purposes that focuses on the language skills needed to function in a business setting. These skills include presentation skills, and other skills needed in sales, marketing, management, and other positions beyond the entry level in a business.

calque, **loan translation** – kalka językowa, klisza, refleks

A new word or phrase constructed by taking a foreign word or phrase as a model and translating it morpheme-by-morpheme, for example, Eng. *superman* and *world-view* are both "**calqued**" from German *Übermensch* and *Weltanschauung*, respectively. Consider also Polish *listonosz* calqued from German *Briefträger* and Polish *drapacz chmur* from English *skyscraper*. See also **borrowing**.

canonical – kanoniczny

A term paraphrasable as 'usual', 'typical', 'normal', as in: The **canonical** word order in an English sentence is this: *Subject-Auxiliary-Main Verb-Direct Object-Prep. Indirect Object* (where *Prep.* stands for 'prepositional', as in: *The boy will give a ring **to his girl***).

cant – gwara, żargon
See **argot**

cardinal numerals – liczebniki główne

These are used in counting, answering *How many?* (e.g. **twenty** pounds, **fifty** students, etc.). They contrast with **ordinal numerals** (liczebniki porządkowe), for example, *first*, *second*, etc.
See **ordinal numerals**

cardinal vowels – samogłoski podstawowe

The cardinal vowel system was invented by the English linguist Daniel Jones as a means of describing the vowels in any language. The **cardinal vowels** themselves do not belong to any particular language, but are possible vowels to be used as reference points. The cardinal vowels are divided into **primary** and **secondary cardinal vowels** (Jones 1969).

Cartesian linguistics – lingwistyka kartezjańska

A term used by some linguists to refer to any linguistic theories or methods which, it is claimed, illustrate the influence of the French philosopher René Descartes (1596–1650) and the **Grammarians** of **Port Royal**. The discussion of **universals** in **generative** linguistics, in particular, draws certain parallels with **Cartesian** views concerning the relationship between language and

thought. This interpretation of the history of linguistic thought has remained controversial, since its initial statement by Noam Chomsky (1968). See also **Cartesian linguistics**, **Port Royal School**, **Generative Grammar**.

case – przypadek

(1) In **inflected** languages, a morphological variant of a noun, pronoun, numeral, or participle distinguished from other such variants of the same word by a specific declensional ending, by a zero-ending, by an internal vowel change, etc., indicating the grammatical function or syntactical relationship of the word.
See **inflecting** (**fusional**) **languages**

(2) See **Case Grammar**

Case Grammar – gramatyka przypadków

In his paper published in 1968 "The case for case" C.J. Fillmore argues that the most satisfactory grammatical analysis of a sentence is one in which the constituents of each clause, at the deepest level of syntactic analysis, are **cases**; for example, *Agent*, *Instrument*, *Goal*, etc. What is distinctive about **Case Grammar** is the identification of case as a deep-structure category. There are several versions of Case Grammar, of which Fillmore's is the best known. In Case Grammar the verb occupies a central position in the sentence; each verb governs a set of obligatory and/or optional **deep-structure cases** which are filled by expressions that may occur as subjects, objects or prepositional phrases at the superficial level. For example, *open* might be classified in the lexicon associated with a Case Grammar of English as one which governs *Agent*, and *Entity*, and, optionally, an *Instrument*. Notions like Fillmore's cases have been recognised by a number of psychologists as playing an important part in the acquisition of language by children.
See **deep structure**

case theory – teoria przypadka
See **Government-Binding Theory**

catachresis – katachreza
See **malapropism**

Catalonian – kataloński język
See **Romance languages**, **Proto-Romance**

cataphora – katafora

The use of a word (typically of a pronoun) or a phrase to introduce someone or something that is more fully identified later, for example: *He slowly came*

into view. The old man was limping towards us, *When I met her, Mary was ill*.
Cf. **anaphora**.

cataphoric reference – odniesienie kataforyczne
See **coherence**

categorial component – komponent (składnik) kategorialny

In **Generative Grammar**, the set of phrase-structure rules in a grammar
may be referred to as the **categorial component**, that is, that part of the
base-component of the grammar which specifies such syntactic categories as
S (= sentence), NP (= noun phrase), VP (= verb phrase), etc.
See **Generative Grammar**

categorial grammar – gramatyka kategorialna

A type of **formal grammar**, originating in the work of the Polish logician K.
Ajdukiewicz (1890–1963) and developed in linguistics specifically by Y. Bar-
Hillel (1915–1975) in the 1950s. Its distinctive mode of operation involves
the deriving of categories from more basic categories; for any two categories,
P and Q, there is a complex category of the type P/Q, which represents the
operations which may be performed on a given word. For example, given the
basic categories N(oun) and S(entence), an item such as *go* would be assigned
N/S, thereby capturing its intransitive status, that is, *go* can combine with
a preceding noun to produce S. And more complex structures can be reduced
to simpler ones using a set of syntactic operations, in which the notion of
"cancellation" is especially important, for example, P followed by P/Q reduces
to Q (DC).

categorial rule – reguła kategorialna

In **Generative Grammar,** a **categorial rule** is a rule which expands a **category**
into other categories.
See **Generative Grammar**, **category**

categorisation – kategoryzacja

The process of organising human experience into general concepts with their
associated linguistic labels; in the field of grammar, **categorisation** refers to
the establishment of a set of classificatory units or properties used in the de-
scription of a language, which have the same basic **distribution** and occur as
a structural unit throughout the language. In the course of language change,
there may be alternations in the category status of a unit (**recategorisation**).
See **distribution**, **category**

category – kategoria

(1) A class of items which fulfil the same or similar functions in a particular language. For example, case, gender, person, number, tense, mood, and aspect are **grammatical categories**. Number, gender and case are the grammatical categories of the noun, and tense, aspect and mood are the grammatical categories of the verb.
See **grammatical category**

(2) Some linguists also refer to related groups of words such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc., as grammatical categories, but these groups (or classes) of words are usually referred to in **traditional grammar** as **parts of speech**. A distinction is sometimes made between grammatical categories in the above sense and **functional categories**, such as subject, object, complement, adverbial.
See **part of speech**, **traditional grammar**

category node – węzeł kategorialny

In **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, a **node** is a term used to denote a point in a tree diagram which carries a grammatical category, for example, S, N, V, etc.
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**

category symbol – symbol kategorialny
See **grammatical category** (2)

causative verb – czasownik kauzatywny

The term refers to verbs expressing causation, that is, verbs which imply that someone or something brings about or "causes" an action or a state; for example, *Peter killed the poor fly*, *He dropped the glass*, etc. To this category of verbs belong also verbs such as *have*, as used in *He had the maid clean up the room*, *make,* as used in *John made her leave the house*, *get*, as it is used in *I got her to talk about her problems.* **Causative verbs** are always transitive.
See **transitive verb**

causer – sprawca

The **semantic role** of an inanimate or animate subject noun phrase that inadvertently causes something to happen to a direct object, as, e.g., *The rain ruined the rug*, *John accidentally tripped his boss.*

cedilla – cedille, cedylla

A hooklike **diacritic mark** put under *c* in some French words (e.g. *façade*) to show that it is to be sounded like a voiceless *s* /fasad/.

Celtic languages – celtyckie języki

A group of languages forming one major branch of the Indo-European family. In pre-Roman times **Celtic languages** were spoken all across Europe, including (at least) Ireland, Britain, Spain, France, the Low Countries, southern Germany, Switzerland, northern Italy, Austria, Bohemia, parts of the Balkans and later also part of Anatolia. The languages have been losing ground ever since, however, and today the surviving Celtic languages are confined to the western fringes of Europe. Best known are the insular Celtic languages, divided into two branches: **Goidelic/Gaelic** (Irish, Scots Gaelic and the extinct Manx) and **Brythonic/Brittonic** (Welsh, Breton, and the extinct Cornish and Cumbric); the common ancestor of the Brythonic languages, called **British**, was spoken in much of Britain before the Anglo-Saxon invasion (RLT).

centum languages – kentumowe (centumowe) języki

A branch of Indo-European languages in which Proto-Indo-European palatal velar consonants underwent dispalatalisation. The **centum languages** include, among others, Celtic, Romance, and Germanic languages. These are contrasted with the so-called **satem languages**, in which Proto-Indo-European palatal velar consonants developed into fricatives, that is, underwent **spirantisation**: Balto-Slavonic, Indo-Iranian languages are among the satem group.
See **satem languages**, **spirantisation**

certified (**accredited**) **translator** – tłumacz przysięgły

Someone who has received certification (or accreditation) from a professional organisation such as the Institute of Translation or the American/British Translators Association, issued on the basis of training, experience or examinations. In some countries (e.g. Germany, Poland), translators may hold titles if they have graduated from programmes at degree level. Some translators have specialised skills necessary for specific types of translation, for example, medical translation, legal translation, or literary translation.

Chinese (**Sinitic**) **languages** – chińskie (sinickie) języki

A family of about seven distinct but related languages (or better: seven groups of dialects) spoken in the eastern part of China. Since all Chinese used a single written language until recently, the Chinese themselves prefer to speak of the "dialects" of **Chinese**, but in fact the several Chinese languages differ from one another so substantially that they are unquestionably distinct languages by any linguistic criteria (for example, the speaker from Beijing can understand a speaker from Canton no better than a Frenchman understands the average Italian). By far the most important Chinese language is **Mandarin.** Chinese forms one branch of the **Sino-Tibetan family** (RLT).
See **Sino-Tibetan languages**

cipher – szyfr
See **cryptography**

circumlocution – peryfraza
See **periphrasis**

citation form – forma hasłowa

The form of the **lexeme** which is typically used when the lexeme is talked about rather than used. Accordingly, it is the form of the lexeme which is listed in dictionaries. In English, the **citation form** of a verb lexeme is often its **stem** (e.g. *instil*).
See **lexeme**, **stem**

class of objects – klasa obiektowa
See **object-oriented approach**, **object**

classical (**Aristotelian**) **category** – kategoria klasyczna (arystotelesowska)

A category, so called because it is possible to provide necessary and jointly sufficient conditions for determining that an entity belongs to a particular category. This approach is **classical** (also **Aristotelian**) in that it goes back ultimately to Greek antiquity (specifically, Aristotle's *Metaphysics*). It has dominated psychology, philosophy and linguistics (especially structuralist and generative linguistics) throughout much of the 20th century. Aristotle distinguished between the *essence* of a thing and its *accidents*. The essence is that which makes a thing what it is, and accidents are incidental properties. To take one of Aristotle's examples: the essence of man is "two-footed animal"; that a man might be white, or cultured, is accidental; these attributes might be true of an individual, but they are irrelevant in determining whether an entity is indeed a man. So, Aristotle singled out two features in the definition of MAN, viz. [two-footed] and [animal] (the destruction of either causes the destruction of the whole). If any of the defining features is not exhibited by the entity, then the entity is not a member of the category; any entity which exhibits each of the defining features is *ipso facto* a member of the category. See also Lyons (1968).

classical (**Aristotelian**) **theory of categorisation** – klasyczny (arystotelesowski) model kategoryzacji

The basic assumption of the **classical** (or **Aristotelian**) approach to **categorisation** is as follows:
1. **Categories** are defined in terms of a conjunction of necessary and sufficient features.
For example, Aristotle singled out two defining features of the category MAN, namely, [two-footed] and [animal]. These two features are, individually, nec-

essary for the definition of the category (the destruction of either causes "the destruction of the whole"); if any of the defining features is not exhibited by the entity, then the entity is not a member of the category. Jointly, the two features are sufficient; any entity which exhibits each of the defining features is *ipso facto* a member of the category.

Further assumptions of the **Aristotelian theory** (2, 3, 4) follow from the law of contradiction and the law of the excluded middle:

2. Features are **binary**, that is, features are a matter of all or nothing.
3. Categories have clear-cut boundaries, that is, there are no ambiguous cases.
4. All members of a category have equal status, that is, any entity which exhibits all the defining features of a category is a full member of that category; and any entity which does not exhibit all the defining features is not a member. There are then no degrees of membership in a category, that is to say, there are no entities which are better members of the category than others.

During the 1970s experimental findings which emerged under the banner of the **Prototype Theory** showed the classical theory of categorisation to be implausible as a model of human categorisation. See also Evans (2007/2009: 15–16).

classical languages – klasyczne języki

Highly developed literary languages of the past which continue to be studied and learned and which often serve as sources of vocabulary for later languages. Examples include: **Latin** and classical **Greek** in Europe, **Sanskrit** in India and classical **Arabic** in the Muslim world.

classical Latin – łacina klasyczna

A codified literary variety of Latin, distant from everyday speech, called **vulgar Latin**. During the centuries of the Roman Empire, and long after its breakup, educated people continued to write in **classical Latin** as best as they could, even though the spoken language was steadily becoming ever more different from the written standard.
See **vulgar Latin**

classification of languages – klasyfikacja języków

Any of several ways of grouping languages into larger assemblies. Languages are commonly **classified** in at least three ways: by ancestry (in genetic relationships – **genetic classification**), by structural features (in a typology – **typological classification**), and by geography (in geographical groupings – **geographical classification**). It is important not to confuse these three.

clause – zdanie składowe

A **clause** is defined in **traditional grammar** as an expression which contains a subject and a predicate, and which may contain other types of expressions

as well, for example, a **complement** and an **adjunct**. In most cases, a predicate in a clause is a lexical (i.e. non-auxiliary) verb, so that there will be as many different clauses in a sentence as there are different lexical verbs. For example, in a sentence such as *She may think that you are cheating on her* there are two lexical verbs *think* and *cheat*, and hence two clauses. The "cheating" clause is *that you are cheating on her*, and the "think" clause is *She may think that*, so that the "cheating" clause is one of the constituents of the "think" clause. More specifically, the "cheating" clause is the complement of the "think" clause.
See **adjunct**, **complement**, **traditional grammar**

cleft sentence – zdanie rozszczepione

A sentence which has been divided into two parts, each with its own verb, to emphasise a particular piece of information. **Cleft sentences** usually begin with ***It*** plus a form of the verb *be*, followed by the element which is being emphasised. For example, *It was **Mrs. Smith** who gave Mary the present*, where *Mrs. Smith* is the element occurring under emphasis.

click – mlask

The term refers to the series of sounds produced by using the **velaric** air-stream mechanism. In some African languages (e.g. Zulu, Xhosa), **clicks** have **phonemic** status. In English, click sounds may be heard in the *tut tut* sound of disapproval, in some types of kisses, and in the noise used to signal appreciation or to "gee up" horses. They are sounds made by drawing the breath into the mouth and explosively withdrawing the tongue from the roof of the **mouth** (DC).
See **velar consonant**, **phoneme**

clipped word, **clipping** – skrót wyrazowy

A word created by the removal of some material from a longer word of the same meaning. The removed material may come from the beginning of the word (e.g. *phone* from *telephone*), from the end of the word (e.g. *brill* from *brilliant*), or both (e.g. *flu* from *influenza*). The process of forming such words is called **clipping**. In some cases, as, e.g., with *flu* (from *influenza*) and *cello* (from *violoncello*), the clipped form has more or less completely replaced the original longer word. Sometimes a **clipped** form acquires a curious suffix, as in English *ciggy* 'cigarette', *nightie* 'nightgown', *goali* 'goalkeeper', *fresher* 'freshman', etc.

clitic n., **cliticise** v. – klityka

The term denotes an item which resembles a word but which has the property that it must **cliticise** (i.e., attach itself) to another word. For example, we could say that the contracted negative particle *n't* is a **clitic** which attaches itself to

a finite auxiliary verb, so giving rise to forms like *isn't*, *shouldn't*, etc. Likewise, we might say that *'ve* is a clitic form of *have* which attaches itself to, say, a pronoun ending in a vowel or diphthong, so giving rise to forms like *we've*, *you've*, *they've*, etc. Clitics can be classified into **proclitics** (i.e. they depend on a following word, in the case of articles) and **enclitics** (i.e. they depend on a preceding word, as, e.g. clitic pronoun forms which are attached to the verb form in some languages, e.g. in Italian and Spanish).

closed syllable – sylaba zamknięta

A syllable ending in a consonant, as in *book-rest*, where both syllables are closed. Cf. **open syllable**.
See **syllable**

close (**high**) **vowel** – samogłoska zamknięta (wysoka)

For example, the vowels in *beat* and *move*, /i:/ and /u:/, respectively. **Close vowels** are those in which the tongue is raised as high as possible. Cf. **open** (**low**) **vowels**.

closed system (**class**) – system zamknięty, klasa zamknięta

Words fall into two groups, commonly called **open classes** and **closed classes**. Of the traditional parts of speech, the noun, verb, adjective and adverb are open classes, while the pronoun, preposition, conjunction and interjection are closed classes. The open classes have very large numbers of members, while the closed classes are highly restricted in membership. Open classes are so called because they readily accommodate the addition of new members as the vocabulary of a language adapts itself to the changing needs of its speakers. Closed classes, by contrast, are highly resistant to the addition of new members.

cluster – grupa, zbitka
See **consonant cluster**

coalescence, **desegmentalisation, fusion** – fuzja

Any syntagmatic change in which a sequence of two segments is converted into a single segment bearing some features of each of the original segments. For example, the sequences /sj/ and /zj/, common in English words borrowed from French and Latin, have often **coalesced** to /ʃ/ and /ʒ/, respectively, as in *mission* and *pleasure*.

coarticulation, **accomodation** – koartykulacja, akomodacja fonetyczna

In **phonetics**, the overlapping of adjacent articulations: for example, when English /t/ shifts from alveolar to dental before a dental fricative, as in *eighth,*

or when /k/ is fronted before a front vowel, as in *key*. In **phonology**, the spreading of phonetic features to neighbouring segments.
See **phonetics**, **phonology**

Cockney – cockney

The dialect and accent of the inhabitants of East End of London (e.g. *The man spoke with a Cockney accent*). Cockney has roots in London and is usually heard among the members of London's working classes, who willingly use its characteristic nonstandard grammatical features, its distinctive pronunciation and specific vocabulary, including the so-called rhyming slang, i.e. unusual word formations in which a word is replaced by a pair of words, the second of which rhymes with the one replaced, for example, *apples and pears* stands for 'stairs', *read and write* replace 'fight', and the like. Linguistic features characteristic of Cockney include, among others, the following (Wakelin 1977, Cruttenden 1994):

1. The hallmark of the Cockneys' speech is the frequent interchange of [v] and [w], for example, they call 'veal' *weal*, 'vinegar' *winigar*, and conversely, 'winter' *vinter*, 'well' *vell*;

2. /h/ is dropped in word-initial position, as in '*eart* for *heart*, '*ope* for *hope*, etc.;

3. The voiced and voiceless *th* are replaced by /v/ and /f/, as in *fanks* for *thanks*, and *fought* for *thought*, and *wiv* for *with*, *brovver* for *brother*, etc.;

4. Cockneys use *we was* for *we were*;

5. Multiple negation, as in *Your gov'ner can't do no good here, Sammy* (from Ch. Dickens's *The Pickwik Papers*), *I ain't got no mother*, etc.;

6. The use of indefinite article *a* before nouns beginning with a vowel, as in *a apple, a orange*, etc.;

7. Another feature is the tendency to use the accusative form in subject position, as in *Me and mi brovver was born* (I and my brother were born), etc.

coda (**final**) **of a syllable** – koda sylaby

A syllable can be divided into three parts:

(1) **onset**, the beginning of a syllable;

(2) **nucleus** (**peak**), the central part of a syllable;

(3) **coda** (**final**) of a syllable.

For example, in the word *bite* /bayt/, /b/ is the onset, /ay/ is the nucleus, and /t/ is the coda.

code – kod

(1) In **sociolinguistics,** the term is used instead of language, speech variety, or dialect. It is sometimes considered to be a more neutral term than the others. People also use **code** when they want to stress the uses of a language or language variety in a particular community. For example, a Puerto Rican in New York City may have two codes: English and Spanish. He or she may use one code (English) at work and the other code (Spanish) at home or when talking to neighbours. Some sociolinguists have given the term "code" a more restricted definition. For example, codes are sometimes defined in terms of mutual intelligibility (e.g. the language of a private or professional group).

(2) The term is also used to refer to any system of symbols (and signals) which can be used for sending a message (e.g., codes are used in secret writing, information processing, etc. in which letters, figures, etc. are arbitrarily given certain meanings). A natural language is an example of a code, as are **Morse code**, **Braille**, and **sign language** (JCRandRSch).
See **Morse code**, **Braille**, **sign language**

code v., **encode** v. – kodować
See **coding**, **encoding**

code-mixing – mieszanie kodów

Code-mixing denotes the repeated switching back and forth between languages in a single conversation and frequently even in a single sentence, as in the Malay/English example (RLT) *This morning I hantar my baby tu dekat babysitter tu lah* 'This morning I took my baby to the babysitter'. This is quite common in bilingual or multilingual communities and is often a mark of solidarity, for example, between bilingual friends or colleagues in an informal situation. Code-mixing can involve various levels of language, for example, phonology, morphology, grammar or lexical items. Bilingual or multilingual speakers may think that one of their languages, for example, English, has more appropriate lexical items for something they want to express in a particular situation and they incorporate these into the grammatical structure of the other language (RLT). Cf. **code-switching**.
See **code**

code-switching, **code-shifting** – przekodowanie

A change by a speaker (or writer) from one language or language variety to another one. **Code-switching** can take place in a conversation when one speaker uses one language and the other speaker answers in a different language. A person may start speaking in one language and then change to another one in the middle of their speech, and sometimes even in the middle

of a sentence. For example, from the speech of a German immigrant in Australia: *Das handelt von einem secondhand dealer and his son* ('That is about a …'). Code-switching can be a sign of cultural solidarity or distance or serve as an act of identity (RLT). Cf. **code-mixing**.
See **code**

coding, **encoding** – kodowanie

The process of turning a message into a set of symbols (i.e. a **code**), as part of the act of communication. In (**en**)**coding** speech, the speaker must: (a) select a meaning to be communicated and (b) turn it into linguistic form.
See **code**

cognate object – przedmiot wewnętrzny

A direct object that derives from the same lexical source as the verb. It can be used with a normally intransitive verb, for example, *a terrible dream* in *He dreamed a terrible dream last night* is a **cognate object**.

cognate words, **cognates** – wyrazy pokrewne

Words that have descended from the very same word of the **protolanguage**. For example, English *mouse*, Latin *mus*, German *Maus*, and Polish *mysz* are **cognate words** which have derived from a common ancestor (the IE **mus*).
See **protolanguage**

cognitive economy – oszczędność poznawcza
See **prototype theory**

cognitive function of language – funkcja kognitywna języka
See **functions of language**

Cognitive Grammar – gramatyka kognitywna

The theoretical framework associated with the name of the American linguist Ronald Langacker, which has been under development since the mid-1970s and is best represented in his two *Foundations of Cognitive Grammar* volumes (1987, 1991). This is also the most comprehensive theory of grammar to have been developed within **cognitive linguistics**, and to date has been the most influential of the cognitive approaches to grammar.
See **cognitive linguistics**

cognitive lexical semantics – kognitywna semantyka leksykalna

An approach to **lexical semantics** (word-meaning) that assumes the guiding principles of **cognitive semantics**.
See **lexical semantics**, **cognitive semantics**

cognitive linguistics – językoznawstwo kognitywne

Cognitive linguistics refers to the approach to the study of language that began to emerge in the 1970s and has been increasingly active since the 1980s. Three major hypotheses may be taken to guide the cognitive linguistic approach to language:
hypothesis I: language is an autonomous cognitive faculty.
hypothesis II: grammar is conceptualisation.
hypothesis III: knowledge of language emerges from language use.

The basic corollaries of hypothesis I are that the representation of linguistic knowledge is essentially the same as the representation of other **conceptual structures**, and that the processes in which that knowledge is used are not fundamentally different from **cognitive abilities** that human beings use outside the domain of language. The first corollary is essentially that linguistic knowledge – knowledge of meaning and form – is basically a conceptual structure. Cognitive linguists argue that syntactic, morphological and phonological representations are also basically conceptual. Sounds and utterances must be produced and comprehended, and both of these processes involve the mind. Sounds and utterances are the input and output of cognitive processes that govern speaking and understanding. It is assumed that the cognitive processes that govern language use are in principle the same as other cognitive abilities. That is, the organisation and retrieval of linguistic knowledge is not significantly different from the organisation and retrieval of other knowledge in the mind, and cognitive abilities that we apply to speaking and understanding language are not significantly different from those applied to other cognitive tasks, such as visual perception, reasoning or motor activity. Cognitive linguists appeal to models in **cognitive psychology**, in particular models of memory, perception, attention and categorisation. Psychological models of memory have inspired linguistic models of the organisation of linguistic knowledge into **frames/domains**, and grammatical knowledge in **networks** linked by taxonomic and other relations. Psychological models of attention and perception, especially **Gestalt psychology**, have led to the explication of many **conceptualisation processes**. Psychological models of categorisation, in particular **prototypes** and **graded centrality**, and recent models of **category structure** have had considerable influence on semantic and grammatical category analysis in cognitive linguistics.
See **cognitive psychology**, **domain**, **frame**, **Gestalt psychology**, **conceptualisation**

Hypothesis II of the cognitive linguistic approach is embodied in R. Langacker's (1987) words "grammar is conceptualization." Cognitive linguists assume that conceptual structure cannot be reduced to a simple **truth-conditional** correspondence with the world. It is argued that a major aspect of human cognitive ability is the conceptualisation of the experience to be

communicated, and also the conceptualisation of the linguistic knowledge that speakers possess.

Hypothesis III implies that categories and structures in semantics, syntax, morphology and phonology are built up from our cognition of specific utterances on specific occasions of use. This hypothesis is thus a response to approaches to syntax and semantics in which highly general and abstract schemas and categories are assumed to govern the organisation of linguistic knowledge, and apparently idiosyncratic and anomalous patterns are relegated to the "periphery." Instead, cognitive linguists argue that the detailed analysis of subtle variations in syntactic behaviour and semantic interpretation give rise to a different model of grammatical representation that accommodates idiosyncratic as well as highly general patterns of linguistic behaviour (Croft and Cruse 2005).
See **networks**, **prototype**

cognitive (**denotative**) (**referential**) **meaning** – znaczenie kognitywne (denotatywne) (referencyjne)

That part of the meaning of words and sentences that is judged to be stylistically neutral. Words may be **cognitively** synonymous, but differ in their **connotations**: for example, *liberty* and *freedom, hide* and *conceal* in certain contexts.
See **connotation**

cognitive poetics – poetyka kognitywna

An approach to the study of literature which applies ideas, constructs and methodology employed in **cognitive linguistics**.
See **cognitive linguistics**

cognitive psychology – psychologia kognitywna

A branch of psychology that deals with such processes as attention, perception, comprehension, memory, and learning. In contrast with **behaviourism**, **cognitive psychology** is concerned with mental processes and the representation of knowledge in the mind. Many cognitive psychologists work within **Information Processing** paradigm, which assumes that the mind is a symbol-processing system and that these symbols are transformed into other symbols when acted on by different processes.
See **behaviourism**, **information processing**

cognitive science n. – kognitywistyka

Cognitive science is the interdisciplinary, scientific study of the mind and its processes. It examines the nature, the tasks, and the function of **cognition** (in a broad sense). **Cognitive scientists** study intelligence and behaviour, with

a focus on how nervous systems represent, process, and transform information. Mental faculties of concern to cognitive scientists include language, perception, memory, attention, reasoning, and emotion. To understand these faculties cognitive scientists borrow from fields such as linguistics, psychology, artificial intelligence, philosophy, neuroscience, and anthropology (https://e.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cognitive-science).

cognitive semantics – semantyka kognitywna

A semantic theory, part of **Cognitive Grammar**, which identifies meaning with conceptualisation – the structures and processes that are part of mental experience. The theory stresses the importance of bodily experience in conceptualisation (i.e. formation of concepts and ideas of). It operates with an encyclopedic view of meaning, not recognising a clear boundary between linguistic and general knowledge. **Lexical items**, which act as pointers of triggers for encyclopedic knowledge, are therefore typically **polysemic**, and analysed as a network of related senses. The theory identifies a number of processes such as metaphor and metonymy as general cognitive processes rather than purely linguistic devices. A central notion is how a conceptual content is "construed": the construal of a lexical item depends on several factors, including the **cognitive domains** in which it appears (e.g. space, time, colour) and variations in perspective and **salience** (DC).
See **Cognitive Grammar**, **conceptual domain**

cognitivist – kognitywista

A practitioner of the **Cognitive Grammar** (**Theory**).
See **Cognitive Grammar**

coherence – spójność właściwa, koherencja

Coherence is based on the conceptual links between the various entities referred to in the text and between the various events evoked. The former is referred to as **referential coherence**, the second as **relational coherence**. Typical referential expressions are pronouns (e.g. *she, my,* etc.) and full noun phrases (e.g. *the woman next door*). The reference may be to something outside the text, or to other concepts/referents mentioned in the text. The first case is called **exophoric reference** (or **deixis**), the second is called **endophoric reference**. Endophoric elements get their interpretation from the textual context, either the preceding context, as in *Last year we were in* [***the Alps***]. *We think* [***they***] *were beautiful*, called **anaphoric reference**, or the following context, as in *Did you hear* [***the news***]*?* [***Clinton will be impeached***], called **cataphoric reference**. A **coherence relation** is that aspect of the interpretation of the text that is additional to the interpretation of the sentences or clauses in isolation; for example in: *The unicorn died because it was lonely* the coherence relation

is explicitly signaled by *because*. Here the second clause specifies the cause for the death of the unicorn. See also **cohesion**.
See **reference**, **referent**

cohesion – spójność formalna, kohezja

The **cohesion** of a text is the explicit marking of its **coherence** by means of **cohesive links**, for example, pronouns, *he, they, my* etc., and word repetitions. For example, in the sentence *If you are going to **London**, I can give you the address of a good hotel **there***, there is a link between *London* and *there*.
See **coherence**

co-hyponym – kohiponim
See **hyponymy**

collocate n. – kolokat
See **collocation**

collocation n., **collocate** v. – kolokacja, łączliwość leksykalna

A term used in **lexicology** to refer to the habitual co-occurrence of individual lexical items (words). For example, in the following: *The doctor performed the operation* and **The committee performed a discussion* (the asterisk here indicates ungrammaticality or unacceptability), the verb *perform* correctly occurs with the noun *operation*, but not with *discussion*. *Discussion* usually **collocates** with verbs like *hold* and *have*: *The committee held/had a discussion…* Lexical items which are collocated are said to be **collocates** of each other; the potential of items to collocate is known as their **collocability** or **collocational range**. Because of their typically more substantial sense, especially nouns frequently influence the readings of collocates. In other words, a noun typically forces a collocate adjective, verb, or preposition to adjust its meaning so that it becomes compatible with that of the noun. Consider: *an old friend*, *an old car*, *an old man*, *an old book*, etc. The meanings of such noun collocates decide how *old* should be interpreted.
See **lexicology**

collective nouns – rzeczowniki zbiorowe (kolektywne), kolektywa

These are unique among **countable nouns** because they refer to a collective entity with individual members, for example, *army*, *team*, *gang*, etc. Since **collective nouns** refer to a collection of individual entities, they sometimes occur with a singular verb and sometimes with a plural verb, depending on the intention of the speaker. When a speaker wishes to focus on the group itself, the **collective noun** is usually used with a singular verb, as in *My team **is** playing well this week*. However, if a speaker wants to focus on the individual members of the collectivity, he might choose a plural verb, as in *The faculty*

are angry about their raises. British speakers are especially likely to use plural verbs with collective nouns and they do so in contexts that sometimes sound strange to American speakers, for example, *The World Bank **are** considering the problem* or *The BBC **are** covering that event.*
See **countable nouns**

collocational restriction – ograniczenie kolokacyjne

Restriction whereby a word, in the context of (or when **collocated** with) another specific lexeme, has a literal meaning different from its usual one. For example, the meaning 'not sweet' for the adjective *dry* is restricted to the collocation *dry wine.* Cf. also **collocation.**

colloquial speech – potoczna (kolokwialna) odmiana języka, język potoczny

An informal type of speech used among friends and others in situations where empathy, rapport or lack of social barriers are important. **Colloquial speech** is often marked by the use of **slang** or idioms and by other linguistic characteristics such as deletion of subject or auxiliary verbs (e.g. *Got the time*? instead of *Do you have the time*?). Colloquial speech is not necessarily non-prestige speech and should not be considered as substandard. Educated speakers of a language normally use colloquial speech in informal situations with friends, fellow workers, and members of the family.
See **slang**, **idiom**

colloquialism – kolokwializm, wyraz (wyrażenie) potoczne

A word or phrase that is more commonly used in informal/colloquial speech and writing, e.g. English *boss* is a **colloquialism** for *employer* (and cf. Polish *gadać* and *rozmawiać*).
See **colloquial speech**

colon – dwukropek

A **punctuation** mark (**:**), which is generally used: (1) To introduce an additional remark in explanation or in confirmation of a previous one (*His hatred for dogs is very well grounded: he was bitten by one when he was a child.*). (2) To introduce a quotation (*He took the letter and began to read aloud: I have to inform you of a great change in my life. He stopped and looked up at us significantly*).
See **punctuation**

comma – przecinek

The **comma** is used in the following cases:
– it is used between two or more words of the same word class (e.g. *A **dull, heavy** sound was heard*);

– when words of the same word class go together in pairs, each pair is separated by a comma (***Old and young, men and women, Negro and white*** *were drawn into participation in the May Day celebration.*);
– words and expressions in apposition are set off from the rest of the sentence by commas (*His classification is different from,* ***and more comprehensive than****, any other which we have come across.*);
– names and terms of direct address are set off by a comma or commas (***Friends, Romans, countrymen****, lend me your ears.*);
– explanatory phrases are separated by commas (*The field was oblong,* ***60 yards in length, 40 in breadth***).

common noun – rzeczownik pospolity

Any noun that is not a proper noun, e.g., *car*, *bush*, *plate*, etc.
See **proper noun**

comment – remat

In describing the information structure of sentences, a term for that part of a sentence, which names the person, thing, or idea about which something is said (the **comment**). The opposite term is **topic.** The topic of a sentence is the person, thing or idea about which something is said. For example, in the sentence *The book was on the table, the book* is the topic, and the remainder of the sentence is the comment. The concept of Topic and Comment is not identical with **subject** and **predicate**. Subject-Predicate refers to the grammatical structure of a sentence rather than to its information structure. See also **functional sentence perspective**.

common origin – wspólne pochodzenie

Two or more languages which are **genetically related** (i.e. derived from the same ancestor) are said to have a **common origin**.
See **ancestor** (**parent**) **language**

communication n., **communicate** v. – komunikacja

The exchange of ideas, information, etc., between two or more persons. In the **act of communication** there is usually at least one speaker or **sender**, a **message** which is transmitted, and a person or persons for whom this message is intended, i.e. the **receiver**. Communication is studied from many disciplinary perspectives, is often viewed as a discipline in its own right, and is central to sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics and **information theory** (JCRandRSch).
See **sender**, **receiver**, **message**, **information theory**

communicative function of language – funkcja komunikatywna języka
See **functions of language**

communication (**information**) **theory** – teoria informacji (komunikacji)

Any theory that explains how communication systems carry information and which measures the amount of information according to how much choice is involved when we send information. One well-known model (that of Shannon and Weaver) describes communication as a process consisting of the following elements: The information **source** (e.g. a speaker) selects a desired message out of a possible set of messages. The "transmitter" changes the messages into a **signal** which is sent over the communication **channel** (e.g. a telephone wire) where it is received by the **receiver** (e.g. a telephone or earphones) and changed back into a message which is sent to the **destination** (e.g. a listener). The **information content** of a unit (e.g. of a word or a sentence) is measured according to how likely it is to occur in a particular communication. The more predictable the unit is, the less information it is said to carry. The unit of information used in information theory is the "binary digit" (Pol. *cyfra binarna*), or "bit" (Pol. *bit*). The related concept of "redundancy" refers to the degree to which a message contains more information than is needed for it to be understood (JCRandRSch).
See **information theory**

communicative competence – kompetencja komunikacyjna

Knowledge of not only if something is formally possible in a language, but also the knowledge of whether it is feasible or appropriate, or done in a particular community. **Communicative competence** includes: **grammatical competence** – knowledge of the grammar, vocabulary, phonology and semantics of a particular language, **sociolinguistic competence** – knowledge of the relationship between language and its non-linguistic context, knowing how to use and respond appropriately to different types of speech acts, such as requests, apologies, etc., knowing which address forms should be used with different persons one speaks to and in different situations, etc., **discourse competence** – that is, knowing how to begin and end conversations, and **strategic competence** – knowledge of communication strategies that can compensate for weakness in other areas.
See **competence**

communicative function of language – funkcja komunikatywna języka

One of the **design** (defining) **features** of language, distinguished by the French linguist A. Martinet (born 1908), who considered it to be the most important function of language. This function involves four elements: the speaker, extra-linguistic reality, the linguistic sign, and the addressee.
See **design features of language**

comparative historical method – metoda historyczno-porównawcza

The central method in **comparative historical linguistics**, allowing us to establish and elucidate genetic relationships among languages and hence to identify **language families**. The method is based on two assumptions: 1. The *relatedness hypothesis*, which tries to explain similarities between words belonging to different languages (or dialects) by assuming that these languages/dialects are related. It assumes that the languages/dialects derive from a common ancestor language (called **protolanguage**). 2. The *regularity hypothesis*. This hypothesis makes it possible to **reconstruct** that protolanguage by assuming that sound changes are regular. It assumes that each sound of a given dialect will be changed similarly at every occurrence in similar environments. The **comparative method** consists in examining words with similar meanings in languages assumed to be descended from a common protolanguage with the aim to discover sound correspondences and reconstruct the protolanguage. Establishing sound correspondences involves examination of sounds in a particular place in a particular morpheme. For example, we may compare the initial consonants in a set of words we assume to be **cognates** (cognates are words that have descended from one and the same word of the protolanguage). They are usually similar in form and meaning. After all sounds in analogous position have been examined and sound correspondences have been established, the linguist may proceed to reconstruct the shape of the word in the protolanguage. This reconstructed/hypothesised word is called a **protoword**. For Milewski (1973: 103), the comparative method is considered as extension of the **internal reconstruction method**. "While the latter method determines which of two variant elements of the same language is older, the comparative-historical method aims at determining which of the elements of different, related languages is the oldest. Before this method is applied, it must be determined which languages are related to one another and which elements of these languages correspond to one another historically, that is, derive from the same **proto-language**." The method, however, is not without its weaknesses which limit its application (RLT). For the discussion of these see Milewski (1973), Samuels (1972).
See **comparative historical method**, **language family**, **internal reconstruction method**

comparative reconstruction method – metoda rekonstrukcji porównawczej

In **historical linguistics**, the method is concerned with the reconstruction of an earlier language or earlier state of a language on the basis of a comparison of related words and expressions in different languages or dialects derived from it. The method is based on two basic assumptions: (1) the **relatedness hypothesis** and (2) the **regularity hypothesis**. The relatedness hypothesis tries to explain obvious similarities between words belonging to different languages or dialects by assuming that these languages are related. The regularity

hypothesis makes it possible to reconstruct that **proto-language** by assuming that sound changes are regular. The proto-language from which the Indo-European languages are derived is generally termed **Proto-Indo-European** (**PIE**). See Jeffers and Lehiste (1979: 17 ff.).
See **historical linguistics**, **proto-language**, **Proto-Indo-European**

competence, **linguistic competence** – wiedza (kompetencja) językowa

A term used in linguistic theory. It was Noam Chomsky (1965/1966) who made the distinction between **competence** and **performance** (*Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*). As defined by Chomsky, competence is identified with the native speaker's tacit knowledge of his language (not *about* his language!). Sometimes, quite wrongly, Chomsky's conception of competence is identified with F. de Saussure's concept **la langue**. The basic difference between these two concepts is that competence refers to something psychological (or mental), that is, something in an individual's mind (or brain), whereas la langue, delimited by de Saussure as a system of linguistic signs and conceived as something static, is social and supraindividual, it is a social fact.
See **langue**

compilation n., **compile** v. – kompilacja

A book, record or a programme that contains many different items that have been gathered together, usually ones which have already appeared elsewhere; for example, *His latest album release is a **compilation** of his jazz work over the past decades.*

complement n., **complement** v. – dopełnienie, uzupełnienie

In various models of **Generative Grammar**, a term used to denote a specific grammatical function. It is an expression which combines with a **head** word to project the head into a larger structure of essentially the same kind. For example, in *close the door*, *the door* is the **complement** of *close*; in *after dinner*, *dinner* is the complement of *after*, in *good at physics*, *at physics* is the complement of *good*, in *loss of face*, *of face* is the complement of *loss.* As these examples show, complements typically follow their heads in English. Moreover, complements bear a close semantic relation to their heads, for example, in *kill Bill, Bill* is the complement of *kill* and plays the **thematic role** of Patient. The choice of complement is determined by the properties of the head; for example, an auxiliary such as English *will* requires as its complement an expression headed by a verb in the infinitive (e.g. *He will go/*going/*gone home*). All this shows that a complement has a close, morphological, syntactic, and semantic relationship with its head. "Complement" is then a broader concept than that of the traditional grammar **object**. However, as noted by D. Crystal (2008), "the domain of **complementation** remains an unclear area in linguistic

analysis, and there are several unresolved issues, e.g. whether the **particles** in **phrasal verbs** (e.g. *come in*) should be subsumed under this heading."
See **head**, **Generative Grammar**, **thematic role**

complementarity – komplementarność

In **semantics**, the term **complementarity** refers to a sense relation between **lexical words. Complementary terms** (or just **complementaries**) display a type of oppositeness of meaning, illustrated by such pairs as *female/male*, *boy/girl*, *single/married*, etc. For example, *female* is said to be the complementary of *male*, and vice versa. Characteristic of complemetarity is the lack of any gradability between the words involved (they are ungradable opposites). In this respect, the term is distinguished from **antonymy** (where the gradations between the opposites are possible; e.g. *small*, *smaller* v. *big*, *bigger*) and **converseness** (where the opposites presuppose each other).
See **semantics**, **lexical words**, **antonymy**, **converseness**

complementary distribution – dystrybucja uzupełniająca
See **distribution**

complementiser – subordynator, wskaźnik upodrzędnienia

A term used in **Generative Grammar** to refer to **subordinating conjunctions**, for example, *that*, *for*, *if*, etc., as used in sentences such as *I think **that** you should apologise*, *They are keen **for** you to show up*, *I doubt **if** he realises what he did.*
See **Generative Grammar**

complex metaphor – metafora złożona

complex sentence – zdanie podrzędnie złożone

A sentence in which one of the component clauses (often called the main clause) is "modified" by one or more subordinate clauses grammatically dependent upon it and generally introduced (in English) by a **subordinating conjunction** (*if, when*, etc.); for example, *If he were here, I'd tell him*. Cf. **compound sentence**.
See **clause**, **subordinating conjunctions**

complex symbol – symbol kompleksowy

In the *Aspects* **Model of Transformational Grammar**, a term which refers to a symbol in a **Phrase-Marker** which has an internal structure of its own. It consists of an unordered set of syntactic features**,** e.g. [+N], [+Common], [+Human], etc., and (in some accounts) the **morpheme** which the set of features specify; e.g.:

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} +\text{N} \\ +\text{Common} \\ +\text{Human} \end{array}\right.$$

−Adult

Boy
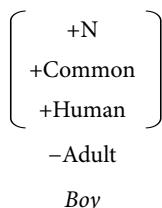
In this kind of notation, symbols such as N, V, A, etc. refer to a particular word class (part of speech). Thus, e.g. +N indicates the particular word class (part of speech) to which a given lexical item belongs (e.g. *boy* belongs to the class of English nouns), −N would indicate that a given lexical item is not a noun.

See **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**

component – komponent, składnik

(1) In **semantics**, **components** are semantic features which are used for the analysis of the meanings of words and the relations that hold between them. For example, the meaning of the English word girl may be shown as a set of the following features: <+HUMAN><+FEMALE><−ADULT>. See also componential analysis.

See **semantics**

(2) In generative-transformational grammar, e.g. in Noam Chomsky's *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965), the **syntactic** (**base-**)**component** which generates the underlying phrase-markers representing the **deep structures** of sentences, and the **semantic component** which specifies the semantic interpretation of the structures provided by the base-component.

See **phrase-marker**, **deep structure**

componential analysis, **lexical decomposition** – analiza komponencjalna (składnikowa), dekompozycja leksykalna

In this kind of analysis the meanings of words are analysed not as unitary concepts but as complexes made up of components of meaning which are themselves **semantic primitives**. For example, *spinster* can be described as a semantic complex consisting of the features (components or markers): FEMALE, NEVER MARRIED, ADULT, and HUMAN. This kind of analysis helps to economically represent the systematic relations that hold between words. Thus, the distinction between to *murder* and to *kill* may be stated economically and explicitly if *murder* is analysed as having a meaning which is a complex component representing INTENTION, CAUSATION, and DEATH, and *kill* as having a complex comprising only the semantic components representing CAUSATION and DEATH. Unlike killing someone, murdering someone is always intentional. Or consider *give* and *take*, which can be shown to be distinct by

virtue of their contrasting complexes of components representing CAUSATION and CHANGE OF OWNERSHIP. The main value of **componential analysis** lies in the economy of statement of the relationships between words, e.g. words denoting kinship, colour terms, etc. Componential analysis enables us to account for relations such as **hyponymy** and **antonymy** in an explicit and economical way. Thus, using the method of componential analysis, a lexical item P can be defined as a hyponym of Q if all the features of Q are contained in the feature specification of P; e.g. *spinster* is a **hyponym** of *woman*, because it contains all the features of *woman* as part of its specification, and *spinster* is incompatible with *bachelor* by virtue of the contrast of sex specification and with *wife* by virtue of the marital specification. **Antonyms** are words opposite in meaning to other words, e.g. *alive:dead.* Lexical items do not just stand in one relationship to one another, but each stands in relationships to many other lexical items. As has been indicated, *spinster* is a hyponym of *woman* and *woman* itself has other hyponyms, e.g. *sculptress, waitress,* etc., and is itself a hyponym of *adult.* All these interrelated items can be said to form networks of relations. The componential analysis approach was developed in **anthropological linguistics** for the study of kinship and other terms in various languages.

See **antonymy**, **hyponymy**, **anthropological linguistics**, **semantic primes** (**primitives**)

composition – kompozycja

In **word formation**, the process of forming **compounds**. **Compounding** is another term for **composition**.
See **compound**, **word formation**

compound, **compound word** – złożenie, compositum (pl. composita)

A **compound** (or **compound word**) consists of two or more **free morphemes**: e.g. *grandfather* is a compound while *grandfartherly* is a **derivative** whose **base** is a compound (in this specific case *grandfather*). The process of forming a compound is **compounding**. Compound words are written either as a single word (e.g. *grandfather*), as hyphenated words (e.g. *self-sacrifice*), or as two separated words (e.g. *police station*). See also **endocentric compounds**, **exocentric compounds** (or **bahuvrihi**), **appositional compounds**.
See **base**, **derivative**, **free morpheme**

compounding – another term for **composition**

Another term for **composition**.
See **composition**

compound sentence – zdanie złożone współrzędnie

One in which the component clauses are grammatically coordinate, no one being dependent on the others, but all being, as it were, added together in sequence, with or without **coordinating conjunctions** (such as *and, but*, etc.); e.g. *I saw him yesterday and I shall be seeing him again tomorrow.*
See **parataxis**

computational linguistics – lingwistyka komputerowa (informatyczna)

The scientific study of language from a computational perspective. **Computational linguists** are interested in providing computational models of natural language processing (both production and comprehension) and various kinds of linguistic phenomena. The work of computational linguists is incorporated in such practical applications as speech recognition systems, speech synthesis, automated voice response systems, text editors, web search engines, and language instruction materials (JCRandRSch).
See **speech synthesis**

computer language – język programowania

A system used to write computer programs, consisting of elements such as symbols, commands, and functions which are combined according to specific rules to perform operations on specific types of data. Dozens of **computer languages** have been designed for different purposes. Computer languages have many interesting formal properties, but do not have the functional properties associated with natural languages (JCRandRSch).

conative function of language – funkcja konatywna języka
See **functions of language**

concatenation – konkatenacja

As used by grammarians, **concatenation** ('chaining together') is an operation which combines linguistic elements in a particular order. For example, in the phrase-structure rule S → NP + Aux + VP the sign "+" symbolises concatenation. Thus understood, concatenation must not be identified with ordinary mathematical addition. In mathematics 2 and 3 always makes 5, irrespective of their actual arrangement (3 and 2 also makes 5). However, the same is not true of **phrase-structure rules** (PS-rules), where the ordering of elements is crucial. Thus, e.g., we cannot have a rule like S → Aux + VP + NP, since such a rule would generate a syntactic structure that would not be a correct English sentence.
See **phrase-structure rules**

concept – pojęcie

(1) In linguistics, the general idea or meaning which is associated with a word or symbol in a person's mind. **Concepts** are the abstract meanings which words and other linguistic items represent. Linguists believe all languages can express the same concepts, although some languages may have fewer names for some concepts than are found in other languages, or may distinguish between concepts differently. The use of concepts to form **propositions** is basic to human thought and communication.
See **proposition**

(2) In **cognitive linguistics**, the fundamental unit of knowledge central to **categorisation** and **conceptualisation** (See Evans 2007).
See **cognitive linguistics**, **categorisation**, **conceptualisation**

conceptual domain – domena konceptualna

In **Cognitive Grammar**, **conceptual domain** (also **experiential domain**) (a term introduced by R. Langacker, *Foundations of Cognitive Grammar*, Vol. 1, 1987) is defined as any coherent area of **conceptualisation**, such as *meals*, *space*, *smell*, *colour*, *the human body*, etc. The term "conceptual domain" is identical to Fillmore's **frame**: "by the term 'frame' I have in mind any system of concepts related in such a way that to understand any one of them you have to understand the whole structure in which it fits" (Fillmore 1982).
See **Cognitive Grammar**, **conceptualisation**

conceptual metaphor – metafora pojęciowa

A notion associated with **cognitive grammarians**, who see metaphor as a process of understanding one **conceptual domain** in terms of another. A typical metaphor is a mapping between a better-known, more concrete conceptual domain (the "source domain") and the conceptual domain which it helps to organise (the "target domain"). Thus a **conceptual metaphor** such as *Theories are buildings*, as described by Lakoff and Johnson (1980), has physical objects as source and abstract, mental entities as target domain, and gives rise to an open set of linguistic metaphors, such, e.g. as *Your theories lack foundation, He needs to construct a stronger argument*, and the like.
See **conceptual domain**, **Cognitive Grammar**

conceptual system – system pojęciowy

The repository of concepts available to a human being. The repository constitutes a structured and organised inventory which facilitates **categorisation** and **conceptualisation.** Each **concept** in the **conceptual system** can, in principle, be encoded and externalised via language. Cognitive linguists assume

that language reflects the conceptual system and thus can be employed in order to investigate conceptual organisation (VE).
See **cognitive linguistics**, **categorisation**, **conceptualisation**, **concept** (2)

conceptualisation – konceptualizacja

In **cognitive linguistics**, the term refers to the process of meaning construction to which language contributes. **Conceptualisation** relates to the nature of dynamic thought to which language can contribute. From the perspective of cognitive linguistics, linguistic units such as words do not "carry" meaning(s), but contribute to the process of meaning construction which takes place at the conceptual level (VE).
See **cognitive linguistics**

conceptualising capacity – zdolność konceptualizacji

A common capacity, shared by all human beings to generate **concepts**, which derives from fundamental and shared aspects of human cognition. Rather than positing universal linguistic principles, cognitive linguists posit a common set of cognitive abilities which serve to both facilitate and constrain the development of our **conceptual system** (VE).
See **concept** (2), **conceptual system**

concessive clause – zdanie przyzwalające

A **dependent clause** giving information which is in contrast with information contained in an independent (a main) clause, and which is usually introduced by *although* or *while*. For example, ***Although she's only 13**, Tina is an excellent pianist.*
See **independent clause**

concord, **agreement** – składnia zgody, kongruencja
See **agreement**

concordance – konkordancja

A list of all the words which are used in a particular text or in the works of a particular author, together with a list of the contexts in which each word occurs (usually not including highly frequent grammatical words such, e.g. as articles and prepositions). **Concordances** have been used in the study of word frequencies, grammar, discourse and stylistics. In recent years the preparation of concordances by computers has been used to analyse individual texts, large sample of writing by a particular author, or different genres and registers. A collection of texts for such purposes is called a **corpus**. Computer concordances are now often used in the preparation of dictionaries, since they enable lexicographers to study how words are used in a wide range of contexts.

concrete noun – rzeczownik materialny (konkretny)

A noun that refers to entities with a physical reality, e.g., *book*, *tree*, *woman*, *nail*, etc. Cf. **abstract noun**.

conditional clause – zdanie warunkowe

A **conditional clause** sets up conditions under which the terms of the main clause will be met, e.g., ***If you help me***, *I'll pay you*; ***Unless you come in time***, *the whole thing will be lost.*

conditional mood – tryb warunkowy

The **conditional mood** expresses the fact that the speaker considers the meaning content of the sentence to be non-actual, but possible under certain conditions and/or desirable (e.g. *I wouldn't go, if…*).
See **mood**

configurationism – konfiguracjonizm

Another term for the **Gestalt psychology**.
See **Gestalt psychology**

conjugation n., **conjugate** v. – koniugacja, odmiana czasownikowa (czasownika)
See **conjugational paradigm**

conjugational paradigm – paradygmat koniugacyjny

A system (or paradigm) of verb inflections to express tense, mood, voice, person and number is called a **conjugational paradigm**. A group of words inflected to the same conjugational paradigm is a **conjugation** (e.g. *sing*, *sings*, *singing*, *sang*, *sung*).

conjunction

(1) – koniunkcja
In logic, the operation of combining two (or more) **propositions** to form a composite proposition by means of the **logical constant** 'and' (symbolically '&'). The constituent propositions are referred to as conjuncts. For example, *p* and *q* is a proposition resulting from the **conjunction** of *p* and *q* (and is true if both *p* and *q* are each true independently, but false if either or both are false).
See **proposition**, **logical constants**

(2) (**connective**) – spójnik, łącznik
In grammar, a word usually used to connect words, phrases or clauses; for example, *and*, *but* and *or* are **coordinating conjunctions** which conjoin

phrases or clauses with similar grammatical functions, and, e.g. *although*, *since* and *until* are **subordinating conjunctions** which join dependent clauses to independent ones.
See **clause**, **dependent clause**, **independent clause**

conjuncts – koniunkty
See **conjunction** (1)

connotation – konotacja
See **connotational meaning**

connotational meaning – znaczenie konotacyjne

The additional features associated with a given entity denoted by a given word. Such features are non-criterial (non-defining). For example, features such as 'treacherous', 'frail', 'talkative', etc. are **connotational** features traditionally associated with women (this is the case at least in the European culture). **Connotation** then has to do with the communicative value of a word, i.e. with meanings which are socially acquired. There are good and bad connotations. For instance, 'motherly' would be an example of a good connotation, while other features mentioned above constitute bad connotations associated with women. Word connotations are socially and culturally determined, and they tend to change from period to period. While **denotational meaning** is stable, connotational meaning is unstable and peripheral connotations vary considerably according to culture, historical period, and even the experience of individual speakers. For example, to a male chauvinist the word *woman* has many uncomplimentary associations not present in the minds of speakers who are rather well disposed to women. What is exactly connoted is then debatable and dependent on a number of cultural variables, but in many respects connotation offers us a greater insight into speakers' social attitudes than does denotative (cognitive) meaning. Words are not simply bearers of neutral cognitive content, as we can see when they are used to discuss sensitive areas of people's social and cultural life.
See **denotational meaning**

consituation – konsytuacja

The conditions under which a given act of communication takes place. The conditions involve such elements as: place and time of the act of communication, social affiliation of speaker and his/her addressee, the mutual relationship between them, etc. **Consituation** plays an important role in linguistic communication; it helps to **actualise** the meaning of linguistic expressions and by allowing for omission of many utterance elements contributes to a more economical way of speaking. For instance, if we are in a restaurant it will do to say *Two beers!* to be properly served. There are linguistic elements,

e.g. pronouns, whose referents are only deducible from a particular consituation. Cf. e.g. *Has she written the letter?* where the referent of *she* is recoverable from the situation in which the utterance was produced. Consituation must also be taken to include "the tacit acceptance by the speaker and hearer of all the relevant conventions, beliefs and **presuppositions** 'taken for granted' by the members of the speech-community to which the speaker and hearer belong" (cf. Lyons 1968: 413). Alternative terms for consituation are **context of situation** and **situational context**.
See **actualization**, **presupposition**

consonant – spółgłoska, konsonant

In **phonology** and **phonetics**, a speech sound where the airstream from the lungs is either completely blocked (e.g. "stop" consonants, e.g. *p*, *b*, *d*, etc.), partially blocked (e.g. *l*) or where the opening is so narrow that the air escapes with audible friction (e.g. *f*, *v*, *s*, etc.). With the other group of speech sounds, the **vowels**, the airstream from the lungs is not blocked.
See **phonology**, **phonetics**

consonant alternations – alternacje spółgłoskowe

Alternations of consonants in the **allomorphs** of a **morpheme**; e.g. replacement of [z] by [s] in, e.g., Pol. *ko[z]a* ('goat' nom.sg.) – *kó[s]* ('goats' gen.pl.).
See **morpheme**, **allomorph**

consonant cluster – grupa (zbitka) spółgłoskowa

A sequence of two or more consonants at the beginning of a syllable, e.g. /spl/ in *splash*, or the end of a syllable, e.g. /sts/ in *tests*. Languages differ greatly in the ways in which consonants can form **clusters** and in which positions in a word clusters can occur. Spanish, for example, permits fewer clusters than English.

constative utterances – wypowiedzi konstatujące

Constative utterances are statements: their function is to describe some event, process or state of affairs, and they are either true or false, e.g., *Warsaw is the capital of Poland.* The philosopher J.L. Austin (1962) distinguished between **performatives** and **constatives**.
See **Speech Act Theory**

constituent (**of a sentence, phrase**) – człon (składnik) (zdania, frazy)

A structural unit, i.e., an expression which is one of the components out of which a phrase or a sentence is built up, e.g. the various **constituents** of a prepositional phrase (= PP) such as *into the room* are the preposition *into*, the definite article *the*, and the noun *room*. See also **Immediate Constituent Analysis**.

constituent (**phrase**) (**syntactic**) **structure** – struktura składnikowa

A representation of the set of **constituents** that an expression contains. For example, the constituents of the English noun phrase (NP) *this big house* may be represented using **brackets**, each analytic decision being represented by the imposition of a pair of square brackets at the appropriate points in the construction: [[this] D [big] A [house] N] NP. The structure of the NP *this big house* may be also represented in the form of a **tree diagram**.
See **constituent**, **tree diagram**

constraints (**on grammatical rules**) – ograniczenia gramatyki

Principles of **Universal Grammar** that prohibit certain types of grammatical operations (rules) from applying to certain types of structures.
See **Universal Grammar**, **Coordinate Structure Constraint**

construction – konstrukcja

In the most general sense, a sequence of two or more **forms** that make up a grammatical unit in a language, such, e.g., as a **phrase** or **clause**.

contact language – język kontaktowy

Any speech variety which arises out of an instance of intense **language contact**. **Contact languages** are highly variable in nature, but three types are commonly distinguished: **pidgins**, **creoles,** and **mixed languages**.
See **pidgin**, **creole language**, **mixed language**

contamination n., **contaminate** v. – kontaminacja

By **contamination** is meant any unsystematic change in which a form of a linguistic item is irregularly influenced by the form of another item associated with it: e.g. the former English *femelle* /fi:məl/ became *female* under **contamination** with its unrelated opposite *male*; or English *covert* /kʌvət/, a variant of *covered*, has become /kəʊvɜ:t/ by contamination with its unrelated opposite *overt* (RLT). And compare the Polish items: *przedni* and the incorrect form, often heard, **tylni*. Cf. **blending**

content plane – plan (płaszczyzna) treści
See **expression plane**

content (**full**, **lexical**) **word** – wyraz autosemantyczny (leksykalny) (pełnoznaczny)

Words can be divided into two classes: **content words** (also called **full** words, **lexical** words) and **function words** (also called grammatical words, structural words). Content words are words which refer to a thing, quality, state,

or action and which have **lexical meaning** when the words are used alone. Content words are mainly nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs (e.g. *book, run, musical, quickly*, etc.). Function words are words which have little meaning on their own, but which show grammatical relationships in and between sentences. For example, conjunctions, prepositions, articles, and auxiliary verbs are function words.
See **lexical meaning**

context – kontekst

An element or a set of textual elements directly preceding or following a given linguistic unit (e.g. a phoneme, morpheme, word, etc.). Under the influence of its **context** a linguistic unit may undergo various modifications at all language levels. Context is especially influential in the area of **semantics**; compare, for example, the various meanings of Polish *głowa* in the following examples: *Janek ma wielką głowę, Janek ma głowę* (do czegoś), *Janek jest głową rodziny*, etc. See also **consituation**.
See **semantics**

context-free grammars – gramatyki bezkontekstowe

A type of **Generative Grammars**; **context-free grammars** can be regarded as a special subclass of **context-sensitive grammars**, this subclass being defined by the property that in each of the rules of the form X → Y/W–V the **contextual variables** W and V are left "empty". Any set of sentences that can be generated by a context-free grammar can be generated by a context-sensitive grammar; the converse, however, is not true. **Context-sensitive grammars** are intrinsically more powerful than context-free grammars. A context-sensitive grammar contains some rules of the type A → B/C–D, where the slash means 'in the context of', and the horizontal line indicates the place in the structure where A (a single **non-terminal symbol**) is rewritten as B (a non-empty string of symbols) – in this case between C and D (any string of symbols).
See **Phrase-Structure Grammar**, **Generative Grammar**

context-free phrase-structure rules – bezkontekstowe reguły frazowe

In **Generative Grammar**, such rules are all of the form X → Y, where X is a single element and Y is a string of one or more elements, no reference is here made to the context in which X is to be rewritten as Y. Cf. **context-sensitive PS-rules**.
See **Phrase-Structure Grammar**, **phrase-structure rules**

context of culture – kontekst kulturowy

The term has been introduced by the Polish-English anthropologist B. Malinowski (1884–1942) and adopted by the English linguist J.R. Firth (1890–1960) in his contextual theory of meaning. The key term in the Firthian theory of

meaning is **context.** The analysis of an utterance, according to Firth, will consist in "a serial **contextualisation** of our facts, context within context, each one being a function, an organ of the bigger context of all contexts finding a place in what might be called the context of culture" (Firth 1957 cited in Lyons 1977: 609). The **context of culture**, which Firth appeals to above, is postulated as the matrix within which distinguishable and socially significant situations occur. By invoking the concept of the context of culture (which like that of the **context of situation** derives from Firth's collaboration with Bronisław Malinowski) the linguist commits himself to the view that there is an intimate connection between language and culture. Firth and his collaborators' purpose was to emphasise that language utterances, like other bits of socially significant behaviour, could not be interpreted otherwise than by **contextualising** them in a relation to a particular culture. The term 'culture' is widely used in a number of different ways. The term is taken from the vocabulary of anthropology, wherein it embraces the entire way of life of members of a community in so far as it is conditioned by that membership. On such a concept of culture, language is a part thereof, and indeed one of the most important parts, uniquely related to the whole by its symbolic status.
See **contextual** (**Firthian**) **theory of meaning**

context of situation – kontekst sytuacyjny

A conception developed by the Polish-English anthropologist Bronisław Malinowski (1884–1942) and the English linguist J.R. Firth (1890–1960) as a means of explaining the working of language in society. By setting up **contexts of situation**, the linguist undertakes to state the relationships of utterances to the situation or environments in which they are said or could be said. In a context of situation the utterance or the successive sentences in it are brought into multiple relations with the relevant components of the environment. The schematic framework by which the information relevant to the functioning (meaning) of utterances can be stated is the context of situation.
See **consitution**, **context of culture**

context-sensitive grammars – gramatyki kontekstowe
See **context-free grammars**

context-sensitive phrase-structure rules – kontekstowe reguły frazowe

Phrase structure rule (PSR) of the shape: X → Y/W–V, to be read as 'X is to be rewritten as Y in the context of W to the left and V to the right.'
See **Phrase-Structure Grammar**, **context-free phrase-structure rules**

contextual features – cechy kontekstualne

In some models of **Transformational-Generative Grammar** (e.g. in Chomsky's *Aspects* model), the term refers to one of the types of (binary) features

contained in a **lexical entry**; such features provide information as to where in a **deep-structure** representation a lexical item can occur.
See **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **deep-structure**, **lexical entry**

contextual meaning – znaczenie kontekstowe

The meaning a linguistic item has in **context**; e.g. the meaning a word has within a particular sentence, or a sentence has in a particular paragraph. For example, the question *Do you know the meaning of war?* may have two different **contextual meanings**: (a) it may mean 'Do you know the meaning of the word *war*?', when said by a language teacher to a class of students, (b) it may also mean 'War produces death, injury and suffering' when said by a soldier to a politician who favours war. Cf. also **contextual theory of meaning**.
See **contextual theory of meaning**

contextual (**Firthian**) **theory of meaning** – kontekstowa (Firthowska) teoria znaczenia

The theory developed by J.R. Firth (1890–1960), initially in association with the Polish-English anthropologist Bronisław Malinowski (1884–1942), and further elaborated by his followers. According to Firth, the most important thing about language is its social function: "normal linguistic behaviour as a whole is meaningful effort, directed towards the maintenance of appropriate patterns of life" (Firth 1957 cited in Lyons 1977: 607). Every **utterance** occurs in a culturally determined **context of situation**, and the meaning of an utterance is the totality of its contribution to the maintenance of what Firth refers to in the above citation as "the patterns of life" in the society in which the speaker lives and to the affirmation of the speaker's role and personality within the society. In so far as any feature of an utterance-signal can be said to contribute to identifiable part of the total meaning of the utterance, it can be said to be meaningful. It follows that, not only words and phrases, but also speech sounds and the **paralinguistic** and **prosodic** features of an utterance are meaningful. The meaningful components of utterances are abstracted from the data by a careful study of the contrasts that hold between utterances in the contexts of situation in which they occur. And the meaning of each component – paralinguistic, phonological, grammatical, lexical, etc. – is described in terms of its function as an element in the structure of units of the level above. The structures of the higher-level units are the contexts in which the lower-level units function and have meaning. **Semantics**, in the Firthian use of the term, relates utterances to their context of situation. In Firth's general view, being meaningful or having meaning is a matter of functioning significantly in **context**. According to Firth, meaning is to be regarded as "a complex of contextual relations, and **phonetics**, **grammar**, **lexicology**, and **semantics**, each handles its own components of the complex in its appropriate

context" (Firth 1957 cited in Lyons 1977: 609). The analysis of the meaning of an utterance consists in abstracting it from its **context of utterance** (i.e. all the factors which, by virtue of their influence upon the participants in the language-event systematically determine the form, the appropriateness or the meaning of utterances) (Lyons 1977: 572)) and splitting up its meaning, or function, into a series of component functions. This process of analysis is, on occasion, explained by way of analogy: "The suggested procedure for dealing with meaning is its dispersion into modes, rather like the dispersion of light of mixed wave-lengths into a spectrum" (Firth 1957 quoted in Lyons 1977: 609). In Lyons's view, "The analogy in itself is not very helpful, but it does serve to bring out the fact that Firth thinks of the meaning of an utterance as something within which the components are blended in such a way that they are not recognisable as distinct until they have been dispersed into modes of linguistic analysis" (Lyons 1977: 609).

The key term in Firth's theory of meaning is, of course, context. The analysis of an utterance will thus consist in "a serial 'contextualisation' of our facts, context within context, each one being a function, an organ of the bigger context, and all contexts finding a place in what might be called the **context of culture**" (Firth 1957 quoted in Lyons 1977: 609). The context of culture, which Firth appeals to, is postulated as the matrix within which distinguishable and socially significant situations occur. By invoking the concept of the context of culture, Firth commits himself to the view that there is an intimate connection between language and culture (which, like that of the context of situation derives from Firth's collaboration with B. Malinowski). Firth and his collaborators' main purpose has been to emphasise that language utterances, like other bits of social behaviour, could not be interpreted otherwise than by **contextualising** them in relation to a particular culture.
See **context of situation**, **paralinguistic system**

contextual variables – zmienne kontekstowe
See **context-free grammars**

contextualisation – kontekstualizacja

Contextualisation consists in providing a **context** for a word in order to clarify its intended meaning. It is suggested that words have meaning only when seen in context.
See **context**, **context of situation**, **contextual theory of meaning**

contraction – kontrakcja

The irregular phonological reduction of a word or a sequence of words, or the form resulting from this (**contraction**). For example, *I'm* for *I am, won't* for *will not*, *she'd've* for *she would have*, etc.

contrastive analysis, **contrastive linguistics** – analiza kontrastywna, językoznawstwo kontrastywne

Contrastive analysis (also called **contrastive studies**) was developed and practiced in the 1950s and 1960s, as an application of **structural linguistics** to language teaching. In a contrastive analysis of two languages the points of structural difference are identified and these are then studied as areas of potential difficulty (**interference** or **negative transfer**) in foreign-language learning. The claim that these differences are the source of difficulty in foreign-language learning, and thus govern the progress of the learner, is known as the **contrastive analysis hypothesis.** Although strongly influential (motivating **audio-lingual methods** of language teaching), by the 1980s the validity of the hypothesis had been seriously questioned, especially following research into the nature of **interlanguage** and into the cognitive contribution which individuals themselves bring to the learning task. Contrastive analyses are **synchronic**.

In his 1972 article Jacek Fisiak noticed that "from the beginning it has been accepted that the term 'contrastive studies' should be used in a broader sense including both the studies of the differences and similarities between two languages under comparison, for it is obvious that the ability to differentiate also implies the ability to identify, i.e. differences and similarities are in complementary distribution, and no complete characterization of one language *vis-à-vis* another can be given without taking both these aspects into consideration" (p. 7).
See **structural linguistics**, **negative transfer**, **audiolingual method**, **interlanguage**, **synchronic analysis**

contrastive distribution – dystrybucja kontrastująca
See **distribution**

contrastive pragmatics – pragmatyka kontrastywna

The study of cultural differences in the way **speech acts** and other aspects of speaking are realised, such as by comparing differences between the ways people from different cultures realise the speech act of apologising.
See **speech act**, **pragmatics**

contrastive stress – akcent kontrastywny (emfatyczny)
See **emphatic stress**

conventional conceptual metaphor – konwencjonalna metafora pojęciowa

In Lakoff and Johnson's *Metaphors we Live By* (1980), there are metaphors that structure the ordinary conceptual system of culture, which is reflected in everyday language. The system of **conventional conceptual metaphor** is

mostly unconscious and automatic, it is constantly in use, in a similar way to grammatical and phonological rules. Lakoff and Johnson distinguish three types of conventional conceptual metaphor: **orientational metaphors**, **ontological metaphors** and **structural metaphors**. For example, a conceptual metaphor such as THEORIES ARE BUILDINGS, as described by Lakoff and Johnson, has physical objects as source and abstract mental entities (such, e.g., as theory) as target, and gives rise to linguistic metaphors like *Your theory lacks foundation*, *He needs to construct a stronger argument*, etc.
See **metaphor**, **orientational metaphor**, **ontological metaphor**, **structural metaphor**

conventional implicature – implikatura konwencjonalna

An implication that is tied to linguistic expressions. This is why a **conventional implicature** cannot be cancelled. One of H.P. Grice's (1975) examples of a conventional implicature is the contrastive meaning of a conjunction like *but*; e.g. *A but B* implies a contrast between *A* and *B*, so "contrast" is a conventional implicature of *but*. A conventional implicature, then, depends on something additional to what is **truth-conditional** in the normal (i.e. conventional) meaning of words. A conventional implicature cannot be cancelled (unlike a **conversational implicature**).
See **conversational implicature**, **truth-conditional semantics**

conventionality – konwencjonalność
See **arbitrariness**

convergence – konwergencja

It is the inverse of **borrowing**. It is a type of contact-induced linguistic change. While borrowing requires only very limited bilingualism, **convergence** occurs only in cases of widespread and stable bilingualism and requires the participating languages to be perceived as socially equal. While borrowing affects primarily the vocabulary, convergence has its greatest effect on the syntax and morphology, and relatively rarely involves lexical items. While borrowing is typically unidirectional, convergence is mutual, with features being shared among converging languages. Convergence takes place within linguistic area (or *Sprachbund*) which includes languages belonging to more than one family but showing traits in common which are found not to belong to the other members. The opposite is **divergence** (McMahon 1996: 213).
See **borrowing**, **divergence**, **Balkan league of languages**

conversation – konwersacja

The term **conversation** is sometimes described as any spoken encounter or interaction. The term is referred to a situation when two or more people have

the right to talk or listen without having to follow a fixed schedule. In any typical conversation everyone can have something to say at any time. In our everyday life people sometimes refer to conversation as **chat** which is the type of spoken interaction during more informal meetings and without planned occasions for speaking. Conversation is a one-to-one communication, involving both give and take. Therefore, **feedback** is an essential element of conversation. The term "feedback" refers to a receiver's response as perceived by the sender who also can use feedback in order to check if the messages are being perceived accurately. "Good" conversationalists are then language users who give effective feedback, employ cooperative bahaviour, understand and use appropriate verbal and non-verbal language.

conversational implicature – implikatura konwersacyjna

These are implications that follow from H.P. Grice's (1975) **maxims of conversation**; i.e. they derive from a set of conditions that determine the proper conduct of conversation. For example, by uttering *It's cold in here* we may imply that the heating should be turned up or that I want you to shut the window, etc. These additional propositions are implicated not asserted, they are implied of the utterance *It's cold in here*. In brief, a **conversational implicature** is the information inferred but not literally expressed in the speech act, it is context-dependent. Besides, unlike the **conventional implicature**, the conversational implicature can be cancelled, which means that a proposition which is not part of the conventional meaning of the utterance can be explicitly denied without contradiction. For example, in *The flag is red, but not completely red* it is possible to use the conjunction *but* in *? John is a Republican but honest; and I don't mean that there is any contrast between being a Republican and being honest* the part before the semi-colon contains the conventional implicature that there is by definition a contrast between being a Republican and being honest. Therefore, the clause after the semi-colon presents a contradiction, and as a result the whole sentence is semantically deviant. Cf. also **conventional implicature**.
See **maxims of conversation**, **proposition**

converseness – konwersywność

In **semantics**, the term **converseness** refers to a type of sense relation between **lexical words**. **Converse terms** display a type of oppositeness of meaning, illustrated by such pairs as *sell/buy, parent/child, wife/husband*, etc. For example, *wife* is the converse of *husband,* and vice versa. In such a relationship there is an interdependence of meaning, such that one member of the pair presupposes the other member. Converseness contrasts with **antonymy** (where there is a gradation between the opposites) and **complementarity** (where there is no such symmetry of dependence as in converseness).
See **semantics**, **lexical word**, **antonymy**, **complementarity**

conversion, **zero-derivation** – konwersja, przemiana kategorialna

Conversion is the process of moving a word from one lexical category (part of speech) to another, with no affixation or other modification. For example, the adjective *brown* becomes a verb in *brown the meat*; the verb *drink* becomes a noun in *have a drink*; the noun *access* becomes a verb in computing locutions like *you can access that utility from the main menu*; the preposition and particle *up* becomes a verb in *up the ante* and a noun in *ups and downs.* This sort of thing happens all the time in English and has been going on for centuries. Conversion is frequent in languages with very little morphology, like English; morphologically richer languages, like, e.g. Polish, usually require some kind of affixation in order to change the class of a word. Conversion is also called **zero-derivation**.
See **affixation**

co-occurrence n., **co-occur** v. – współwystępowanie, kookurencja

A term used in grammar and phonetics to refer to the permitted combination of units, according to the grammatical and lexical rules of a language. For example *a* co-occurs with *boy,* but not with *information,* and *eke* co-occurs with *out,* but not with *in.* The constraints involved are known as **co-occurrence restrictions**, and are often specified in the form of **context-sensitive rules.** For example, **Anita laughed the baby* is ungrammatical, as the verb *laugh* cannot co-occur with an object (it is an intransitive verb).
See **lexical rules**, **context-sensitive phrase-structure rules**

co-operative principle – zasada kooperacji

According to the language philosopher H.P. Grice (1975), human communication is based on the following overriding **cooperative principle**: "Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage of the talk exchange at which it occurs." Within this guiding principle Grice establishes four specific sub-principles called **maxims of conversation**, which he takes to govern all rational interaction:
Quality:
 ➢ Try to make your contribution one that is true.
 ➢ Do not say what you believe to be false.
 ➢ Do not say that for which you lack evidence.
Quantity:
 ➢ Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purposes of the exchange).
 ➢ Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.
Relevance:
 ➢ Be relevant.
Manner:
 ➢ Be perspicuous (transparent and clear).

> ➤ Avoid obscurity of expression.
> ➤ Avoid ambiguity.
> ➤ Be orderly.

The cooperative principle can be seen as a **language universal** and the maxims of conversation constitute **pragmatic universals**, also called **interpersonal universals**.
See **language universals**, **pragmatic** (**interpersonal**) **universals**

coordinate compound – złożenie kopulatywne (współrzędne)
See **dvanda**

Coordinate Structure Constraint – warunek skoordynowanej struktury

One of the constraints (**formal universals**) on the grammars of particular languages formulated by N. Chomsky in his *Language and Mind* (1968). **Coordinate structures** are islands, in the sense that an **island** is a construction out of which no subpart can be moved though the whole island can be moved as one unit. For instance, in *I really like **the poet and the car dealer***, *the poet and the car dealer* constitute a coordinate structure. Only the whole sequence *the poet and the car dealer* can be moved to the sentence initial position (i.e. is subject to **topicalisation**), hence the sentence *The poet and the car dealer I really like* is perfectly normal, while **The car dealer I really like the poet and* is ungrammatical, where only part of the relevant NP (or the island) has been topicalised.
See **language universals**, **formal universals**, **topicalization**

coordinating conjunctions (**connectives**) – spójniki (łączniki) współrzędne (koordynujące)
See **parataxis**, **subordinate** (**subordinating**) **conjunctions**

Copenhagen School – szkoła kopenhaska, kopenhaska szkoła strukturalistyczna

A group of linguists who constituted the Copenhagen Linguistic Circle in the mid-1930s, and who developed an approach to linguistics known as **Glossematics**. Largely through the work of Louis Hjelmslev (1899–1965), the school developed a philosophical and logical basis for linguistic theory which was not to be surpassed until the formalisation introduced by **Generative Grammar** (DC).
See **glossematics**, **Generative Grammar**

Coptic – koptyjski język

The name given to the later stages of the ancient **Egyptian** language, conventionally beginning about the 4th century AD, when the earlier writing

systems were abandoned and the language began to be written exclusively in the Greek alphabet. **Coptic** died out as a spoken language in about the 14th century, but it is still used today as a **liturgical language** by Coptic Christians.
See **Egyptian**, **liturgical language**

copula – łącznik, kopula, spójka

A small class of verbs (some of which have little semantic content) that link the subject to its complement. A copula can express a current or resulting state. Cf. e.g., *Annette **is** unhappy*, *My parents **got** upset*, *You **look** very tired*. Cf. **linking verb**.

copulative compounds
See **appositional compounds**

core grammar – gramatyka rdzeniowa

Within the framework of Chomsky's **Universal Grammar**, a grammar which contains all the universal **principles** of language as well as special conditions or rules (**parameters**) which can be "set" for particular languages. Parameters may vary from one language to another. For example, in some languages, e.g. English, the **head** of a phrase is first, in Japanese the head is last. Aspects of language which are not predictable from the Universal Grammar are considered not to belong to the **core grammar** but to the **periphery** or **peripheral grammar**.
See **Universal Grammar**, **principles**, **parameter**, **head**

core language – język rdzeniowy

In Chomsky's **Government-Binding Theory**, **core language** may be described as "structurally consistent and coherent: consistent in that each **principle** applies without exception throughout the language in question; coherent in that all the principles which the theory of **Universal Grammar** defines to be interdependent operate together as they are predicted to operate" (Chomsky 1981).
See **Government-Binding Theory**, **principles**, **Universal Grammar**

core (**basic**) **vocabulary** – słownictwo podstawowe
See **basic vocabulary**

co-referential – koreferencyjny

When two or more forms refer to the same real world entity, e.g., *Teddy scratched himself.* Thus, *Teddy* and *himself* are **co-referential** elements.

Cornish – kornicki język
See **Brittonic languages**

corpus (pl. **corpora**) – korpus

A collection of linguistic data, either written texts or a **transcription** of recorded speech, which can be used as a starting-point of linguistic description or as a means of verifying hypotheses about a language. Linguistic descriptions which are **corpus-restricted** have been the subject of criticism, especially by **generative grammarians**, who point to the limitations of **corpora**. For example, Noam Chomsky, in his *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965: 4), says that "a corpus, in the nature of things, can never illustrate a whole language, but will only reflect a partial and selective picture." Moreover, he says, "a record of natural speech will show numerous false starts, deviations from rules, changes of plan in midcourse, and so on." Chomsky makes a fundamental distinction between a person's knowledge of his language – the system of rules he has mastered – and his actual use of the language in real-life situations. He calls the first **competence**, the second **performance**. Linguistics, he says, has as its most important task the study of competence. In fieldwork on a new language, or in historical study, it may be very difficult to go beyond one's corpus, but in languages where linguists have regular access to native speakers (and may be native speakers themselves) their approach will invariably be corpus-based, rather than corpus-restricted. Corpora provide the basis for one kind of **computational linguistics**. A **computer-corpus** is a large body of machine-readable texts. Increasingly large corpora (especially of English) have been compiled since the 1980s, and are used both in the development of natural language processing software and in such applications as lexicography, speech recognition, and **machine translation**.
See **computational linguistics**, **corpus linguistics**, **Generative Grammar**, **machine translation**

corpus linguistics – lingwistyka korpusowa, językoznawstwo korpusowe

An approach to investigating language structure and use through the analysis of large **databases** of real language examples stored on computer. Issues amenable to **corpus linguistics** include the meanings of words across **registers**, the distribution and function of grammatical forms and categories, the investigation of lexico-grammatical associations (i.e. associations of specific words with particular grammatical constructions), the study of **discourse** characteristics, register variation, etc.
See **database**, **discourse**, **register**

co-text – kontekst językowy

The linguistic environment surrounding any piece of spoken (or written) text. **Linguistic context** is another term for **co-text**. Cf. also **context**, **consituation**, **context of culture**.

countable (**count**) **noun** – rzeczownik policzalny

A noun which has both singular and plural forms: e.g. *car – cars*, *book – books*, *bridge – bridges*, etc. A noun which does not usually occur in the plural is called an **uncountable noun**: e.g. *education, harm, wine, water*, etc. **Mass nouns** and **abstract nouns** are uncountable nouns.
See **abstract nouns**, **mass nouns**

counter-example – kontrprzykład

An example which falsifies a particular hypothesis or claim. For example, a **modal auxiliary** like *ought* would be a **counter-example** to any claim that modal auxiliaries in English never take an infinitive form with *to* (e.g. *He ought **to** go there*).
See **modal auxiliaries**

covert gender – rodzaj utajony
See **overt gender**

creativity (**linguistic**) – kreatywność (językowa)
See **productivity**

creole language – kreolski język

A **creole** is a **pidgin** acquired as a first language (or mother tongue); a pidgin becomes a **creole** when it acquires native speakers; these will generally be the children of pidgin speakers who are exposed to the pidgin as the medium of communication in the home, and who therefore have the pidgin as their primary linguistic input. Although the pidgin was adequate for the parental generation, who used it only in specific circumstances and otherwise had re-course to a non-pidgin native language, it appears to be too restricted a system for the children, who need a native language to fulfill not only the **directive** and **referential** functions of language, but also the interactional, expressive, poetic and metalinguistic roles which pidgins do not play.
See **pidgin**, **functions of language**

creolisation – kreolizacja

A **creole** seems to arise most typically when children born into a society in which a **pidgin** is the only common vehicle of communication acquire that pidgin as a mother tongue and quickly elaborate its grammar and lexicon, producing a true natural language. This process is called **creolisation**. The opposite is **decreolisation**.
See **creole**, **pidgin**, **decreolisation**

critical discourse analysis (**CDA**) – krytyczna analiza dyskursu (KAD)

A form of **discourse analysis** that takes a critical stance towards how language is used and analyses **texts** and other discourse types in order to identify the ideology and values underlying them. It seeks to reveal the interests and power relations in any institutional and socio-historical context through analysing the ways that people use language (JCRandRSch).
See **discourse analysis**, **text**

critical linguistics (**CL**) – lingwistyka krytyczna

An approach to the analysis of language and language use that focuses on the role that language plays in assigning power to particular groups within society. **Critical linguistics** is the study of **texts** and the way texts are interpreted and used. The assumption is that the relation between form and function in **discourse** is not arbitrary or conventional but is determined by cultural, social and political factors, i.e. that texts are inherently ideological in nature. (JCR and RSch).
See **text**, **discourse**

cryptogram, **cryptograph** – kryptogram, kryptograf

A **cryptogram** (also **cryptograph**) is a secret **message** and also the form in which it is couched. Forms include **codes**, **ciphers**, invisible writing, and other devices which make true meaning discernible only to the one holding the proper key. Codes used in business are usually systems of pronounceable words with meanings listed in code books held by the firm involved. **Ciphers** often consist of unpronounceable words made up of a transposition of letters within the message or of substitution of one letter for another or of a number by a letter. A famous cipher was that devised by the English philosopher and statesman Francis Bacon (1561–1626). In modern times official government **cryptography**, the solution of **cryptograms**, and even the general methods employed are jealously controlled by governments, since codes and ciphers are used for secret messages in peacetime as well as in war (CVDE).
See **cryptography**, **code** (2), **message**

cryptograph – kryptograf
See **cryptogram**

cryptography – kryptografia

The art of secret writing or deciphering messages in **code**, employed from ancient times.
See **code** (2), **cryptogram** (**cryptograph**)

cuineform – pismo klinowe

Wedge-shaped symbols, generally made with a stylus in wet clay tablets, used in the writing systems of ancient Assyria, Persia, and Anatolia.

cultural borrowing – zapożyczanie kulturowe

The borrowing of linguistic forms (usually words) referring to concepts, practices and objects newly introduced to one cultural group from the language of the cultural group providing the new objects. For example, *apartheid* (from Afrikaans), *perestroika* (from Russian), *quay* (from Gaulish via French), *pyjamas* (from Hindi), *lama* (from Tibetan), etc.

cultural transmission – przekazywanie drogą kulturową

Cultural transmission is opposed to **genetic transmission**. Our ability to use competently a given language is passed on from one generation to the next by learning, not by instinct. We are born with **language faculty**, but not with the ability to speak a particular language.
See **language faculty**

Cushitic family of languages – kuszyckie języki

A family of languages in eastern Africa variously numbered between thirty-five and seventy, depending upon the view of the investigator, and forming part of the larger **Afro-Asiatic family**.
See **Afro-Asiatic languages**

cycle (**chains**) **of languages, language cycle** – cykl językowy

Cycles of languages are looser groupings of languages than **language families**. "In this case, one language family borders another and, as a result of the shifting boundaries between them, a transitional region of vital mutual contact arises. The language system of such a zone demonstrates features originating from both families. In this way, both families are connected with each other like links in a chain by the transitional zone of the languages" (cf. Milewski 1973: 113). An example can be the African language cycle, which links the **Semito-Hamitic languages**, via the mixed language **Hausa**, with **Bantu** languages.
See **language family**, **Semito languages**, **Hausa**, **Bantu languages**

cyrillic alphabet – cyrylica

The alphabet traditionally used by the Slav peoples, and now primarily found in Russian, Bulgarian and the Serbian dialect of Serbo-Croat. It is a form of the Greek alphabet invented by two brothers, the apostles of the Slavs,

Constantine (827–869) and Methodius (825–885) of Tessalonica. Constantine was more popularly known by his religious name Cyril (Brewer's).

cyrillic script – skrypt cyryliczny
See **alphabetic writing**

Czech – czeski język
See **Slavic languages**, **Proto-Slavic**

Danish – duński język
See **Germanic languages**

database, **data bank** – baza (bank) danych

A large body of information or data which is intended to be used for a specific purpose.

dative case – celownik, dativus

A grammatical inflection which is not found in English but which in other languages (languages expressing grammatical relationships by means of **inflections**, like, e.g., Polish) is sometimes used in nouns to indicate the recipient of something (e.g. *Jan dał **dziewczynce** bułkę z masłem*).
See **case**, **inflection**, **inflecting language**

daughter (descendant) language – język-potomek

With respect to a given language, another language which is directly descended from it. For example, each of the **Romance languages** is a **daughter** of **Proto-Romance**, itself a spoken version of Latin. The opposite is **parent language**.
See **Romance languages**, **parent language**

dead (extinct) language – język martwy

A language no longer used as a general medium of spoken communication. If a language ceases to be productive, if the number of its elements becomes strictly limited, it becomes a **dead language**, as happened in the case of Latin.

dead metaphor – metafora martwa (zleksykalizowana)

A metaphor which has been absorbed into everyday language usage and become naturalised, so that most language users are not aware of it as a metaphor any more (e.g. *a table leg*, *red herring*).
See **metaphor**

deadjectival word – wyraz adiektywalny, odprzymiotnikowy

Of a word **derived** from an adjective. For example, *widen* derived from *wide*, *grammaticality* from *grammatical*, etc.
See **derivation** (1)

deadverbial word – wyraz deadwerbialny (odprzysłówkowy)

Of a word **derived** from an adverb. Cf. e.g. the Polish adjective *wczorajszy* derived from the adverb *wczoraj*.
See **derivation** (1)

decategorialisation – dekategoryzacja

In **grammaticalisation**, the loss by a grammaticalised item of the **morpho-syntactic** characteristics of its class (e.g. Noun, Adjective, Verb), as, e.g., when a noun being converted to an **adposition** loses the ability to take number-marking, modifiers, case-endings, and articles.
See **grammaticalisation**, **morphosyntax**, **adposition**

declarative sentence – zdanie oznajmujące

A term used in the grammatical classification of sentence types, usually seen in contrast to **imperative sentence**, **interrogative sentence**, etc. It refers to verb forms or sentence/clause types typically used in the expression of **statements**, e.g. *The man is walking.*
See **statement**

declension – deklinacja (odmiana) rzeczownika
See **declensional paradigm**

declensional paradigm – paradygmat deklinacyjny

Paradigms which are based on the categories of case, number, and gender are **declensional paradigms**. A group of words inflected according to the same declensional paradigm is a **declension**.

decoding n., **decode** v. – dekodowanie

The interpretation of any set of symbols (or signals) which carry a meaning, e.g. a **secret code** or a **Morse** signal. Cf. **coding**, **encoding**.
See **code**, **secret code**, **Morse code**

decreolisation – dekreolizacja

The process in which a **creole** is heavily affected by the **prestige language** upon which it is largely based, leading to movement of the creole toward the prestige language (or the standard language). As a result, the community exhibits a wide variety of speech styles, ranging from the unmodified creole (called **basilect**) through a range of intermediate styles (called **mesolects**) to the variety of the creole which is closest to, or possibly even identical to, the prestige language (this variety of creole being called **acrolect**).
See **creole languages**, **creolisation**, **prestige language**

deep case – przypadek głęboki

In Charles Fillmore's (1968) **Modified Theory of Transformational Grammar** the sentence (S) consists of one or a greater number of noun phrases (NPs), each associated with the verb (V) in a particular *case relationship*. The basic structure of S consists of a proposition (P) and the modality constituent (M): S → M + P. P is expanded as a verb plus one or more deep case categories (**deep cases**). Fillmore (1968: 24) defines case thus: "The case notions comprise a set of universal, presumably innate, concepts which identify certain types of judgments human beings are capable of making about the events that are going on around them, judgments about such matters as who did it, who it happened to, and what got changed."
See **Extended Standard Theory** (**Model**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**

deep (**underlying**) **structure** – struktura głęboka

In the **Standard Model of Transformational Grammar**, **deep structure** is defined as the input of the **semantic component** of the grammar which interprets it. It is the abstract syntactic representation of a sentence – an underlying level of structural organisation which specifies all the factors governing the way the sentence should be interpreted. In short, the deep structure of a sentence determines its meaning.
See **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**

defective verb – czasownik ułomny

A **defective verb** is one which does not have a complete **inflectional paradigm**. For example, the English archaic verb lexeme *quoth* 'said' (as in *quoth he*) is defective in that it has only a past tense form.
See **inflectional paradigm**

definite article – przedimek określony

The **definite article** *the* is used in English to show that the object denoted by the noun is marked as a specific/known object, distinct from all other objects of a class of objects of a certain description. That is why the definite article is an "individualising" or "limiting" article. It is used before nouns in the plural as well as before nouns in the singular.

degemination – degeminacja

The opposite of **gemination**; any phonological change in which a **geminate** segment (i.e. a long or double consonant) is reduced to a simplex. **Degemination** of stops (i.e. consonants like *p*, *b*, *t*, *d)* is regular in, e.g. Spanish. Thus

Latin *gutta* 'drop', *bucca* 'mouth', Spanish *gota* 'drop', *boca* 'mouth', respectively. Degemination is one of the types of **lenition** (RLT).
See **gemination**, **lenition**

deictic expressions – wyrażenia deiktyczne (egocentryczne, wskazujące)

Deictic expressions relate to the speaking "ego," who imposes his/her perspective on the world. Deictic expressions depend for their interpretation on the situation in which they are used. Without knowing the situational context the request for joining a demonstration printed on a leaflet found on a train *Massive demonstration tomorrow at ten*; *meet here!* is rather meaningless. The EGO serves as the "deictic centre" for locating things in space, as in *The house is in front of me*. Examples of deictic expressions in English are: (a) *here* and *there* which refer to a place in relation to the speaker; (b) *I* which refers to the speaker or writer, *you* which refers to the persons addressed.
See **deixis**

deixis – deiktyczność, wskazywanie

The term **deixis** (which comes from a Greek word meaning 'pointing' or 'indicating') is used in linguistics to refer to the function of personal and demonstrative pronouns, of tense and of a variety of other grammatical and lexical features which relate utterances to the spatio-temporal co-ordinates of the act of utterance. See also **deictic expressions**.

delabialization – delabializacja

The opposite of **labialisation**.
See **labialization**

deletion n., **delete** v. – usuwanie, kasacja

In **transformational** grammar (**TG**), a basic operation that **deletes** a **constituent** in an **input Phrase-Marker** (or **underlying** sentence). It can be carried out only when appropriate conditions are preserved. For example, in the **Standard Model of TGG**, it accounted for imperative sentences (where the subject NP and the auxiliary verb of an underlying sentence are **deleted**, as in *Bring it here* from *You will* bring it here.
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **transformational rules**, **phrase-marker**

demonstrative pronouns – zaimki wskazujące

This category of pronouns includes the items: *this/these* and *that/those*. *This/these* are used for what is close by in space or time; *that/those*, for what is further off. (e.g. **This** *is a fine morning*, **Those** *were my happiest days*). A **demonstrative pronoun** can be **anaphoric**, in which case it often refers back to something mentioned earlier in a discourse, as in *I listen to opera all the time*.

This drives my family nuts. That/those referring to a preceding noun phrase is often followed by a participle, an adjective or an *of*-phrase, or another prepositional phrase. Consider: *She is at another gate now – **that** leading to the garden, One of the tables, **that** to the left, was occupied by two men. That* can be also used to refer back to a whole preceding statement, as in *It was a cold morning with a sharp wind blowing from the sea – **that** made Paul turn up the collar of his coat and quicken his steps.*

denasalisation – denazalizacja

In **historical linguistics**, any **phonological change** in which nasality is lost from a sound. The opposite is **nasalisation**.
See **historical linguistics**, **nasalisation**

denominal – denominalny, odrzeczownikowy, odimienny

Of a word **derived** from a noun. For example, *powerful* derived from *power, friendly* from *friend*, etc.
See **derivation** (1)

denotational meaning – znaczenie denotatywne, denotacja
See **denotation**, **connotation**

denotation n., **denote** v., **denotational** a. – denotacja

That part of the meaning of a word or phrase that relates to phenomena in the real world or in a fictional or possible world. For example, the **denotation** of the English word *bird* is 'a two-legged, winged, egg-laying, warm-blooded creature with a beak'. In a meaning system, **denotational meaning** may be regarded as the 'central' or 'core' meaning of a lexical item. It is often equated with **referential meaning** or **cognitive meaning**, although some linguists and philosophers make a distinction between these concepts. Denotation is often opposed to **connotation**.
See **connotation**

dental consonant – spółgłoska dentalna (zębowa)
See **fricative consonant**

deontic modality – modalność deontyczna

Deontic modality relates to the world of norms and evaluations and is concerned with the sphere of human activities which are either obligatory, permitted or prohibited by an individual (or collective) authority. It is thus "subjective" in that it is typically the speaker that is the agent (authority) that obliges, permits or prohibits. Philosophers in their treatment of deontic modality are mainly concerned with the notions of moral obligation, duty, and right conduct. But linguists take a more inclusive view of what constitutes

obligation, drawing no distinction between legal, moral or physical necessity. There is some universally valid notion of obligation which may be variously categorised and differentiated in terms of its causes and sanctions.
See **modality**

deontic source – źródło deontyczne, sprawca obowiązku

This term relates to the concept of **deontic modality**. Deontic modality is usually understood to originate in some causal source: i.e. if someone is obliged or permitted to carry out some course of action, it is generally, though not necessarily, assumed that some person or institution has created the obligation or permission. This person or institution is referred to by some linguists as the **deontic source** (cf. Lyons 1977: 843). For example, when the English modal *must* is used **performatively**, as, e.g., in *You must leave tomorrow*, it is the speaker who acts as the deontic source. The example sentence is thus semantically synonymous with *I hereby oblige you to leave tomorrow* (or *I hereby impose upon you the obligation to leave tomorrow*).
See **deontic modality**, **performative utterances**

depalatalization – dyspalatalizacja

In **historical linguistics**, any **phonological change** in which a **palatal** quality is removed from a sound which formerly had it or in which a **palatal** sound is converted to a different place of articulation. The opposite is **palatalisation**.
See **historical linguistics**, **phonological change**

dependency grammars – gramatyki zależności
See **valency grammar**

dependent clause – zdanie składowe podrzędne(poboczne)
See **subordinate clause**

derivation n., **derive** v., **derivational** a. – derywacja

(1) In **morphology**, the process of creating words by adding **affixes** (another term for derivation in this sense is **affixation**) to existing words. Like many other languages, English has a large number of prefixes and suffixes used in this way: prefixes like *pre-*, *dis-*, *re-*, *anti-*, *non-*, *con-*, *mini-*, *ex-*, *de-*, etc., suffixes like *-ness*, *-ful*, *-ity*, *-less*, *-ly*, etc. For example, to the adjective *happy* we can add the prefix *un-* to obtain a new adjective *unhappy*; to this we can add the suffix *-ness* to obtain the noun *unhappiness*. To take one more example, from the adjective *civil* we can **derive** the verb *civilise*; from this last formation we can further derive the noun *civilisation*. There are usually clear rules governing the order of addition of affixes. Not all affixes are equally **productive**. The **productivity** of an affix is the degree of freedom with which it can be used to derive new

words. The ancient English suffix *-th* is now totally **unproductive**; it occurs in a few old formations like *warmth, depth, sloth*, but it can no longer be extended to other cases; thus, **coinages** such as **happyth*, **bigth,* and the like are no longer possible. The prefix *re-* is very highly productive: for example, consider *rewrite*, *reschedule*, *rethink*, *rediscover*, etc., and any other such verbs which can be coined almost at will. The same is true of the suffix *-ness*: *blackness*, *manliness*, *inveteveness*, *obstructiveness*, etc. show that this suffix can be added to almost any adjective (though adjectives ending in *-ical* usually prefer *-ity*: e.g. *topicality*, not **topicalness*). Most affixes, however, are of intermediate productivity.
See **morphology**, **derivational morphology**

(2) In **generative grammars**, the term refers to the set of formally identifiable stages used in **generating** a phrase or a sentence from an **initial symbol** to a **terminal string**, i.e. the whole set of **phrase-structure**, **transformational,** etc. **rules** which have applied. In **Transformational-Generative grammar** the initial symbol is usually *S* standing for sentence and the first generative rule is of the following form: $S \rightarrow NP + VP.$
See **Generative Grammar**, **Transformational-Generative Grammar**

(3) In **historical linguistics**, the term refers to the origins or historical development of a linguistic form or a language. Thus, sounds, forms and constructions are said to be **derived** from corresponding sounds and forms in an earlier state of a language.
See **historical linguistics**

derivational base – podstawa derywacyjna

Chiefly used in **derivational morphology** to denote a **word** from which another, **complex word**, is formed.
See **derivational morphology**

derivational morphemes – morfemy derywacyjne (słowotwórcze)

In **derivational morphology**, non-roots used for the creation of new words on the basis of the existing vocabulary. They can be divided into: **meaning modifiers**, i.e. such that modify the meaning of the **stem** (or **root**) to which they are attached, and **word-class shifters**, i.e. morphemes that shift a word from one word-class to another, e.g. *work* (v.) → *worker* (n.). In English **derivational morphemes** may appear at either side of the **derivational base**, whereas **inflectional morphemes** always occur after the base.
See **root**, **stem**, **derivational morphology**

derivational morphology – morfologia derywacyjna

In **morphology**, the study of the processes by which one type of word can be formed from another: e.g., by adding the derivational suffix *-ness* to the

adjective *sad*, we can form the noun *sadness*, so that *-ness* is a derivational suffix, and the word *sadness* is a **derivative** of the adjective *sad*.
See **morphology**

derivative – derywat, wyraz pochodny

A word obtained by **derivation** from another. For example, *rewrite* and *writer* are **derivatives** of *write*.
See **derivation**, **derivational morphology**

derived phrase marker – derywowany znacznik frazowy

In **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, the syntactic structure which is the effect of the application of a **transformational rule** or transformational rules to an underlying phrase marker.
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**

derived string – rządek (szereg) derywowany

In Chomsky's *Syntactic Structures* model of **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, the string which results from the application of a transformational rule to an underlying phrase marker.
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**

derived sentence – zdanie derywowane

In the **Standard Model of Transformational-Generative Grammar**, a **derived sentence** is a sentence derived through the application of **optional transformational rules** (**T-rules**).
See **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**

descendant language – język-potomek
See **daughter language**, **parent language**

descriptive adequacy – adekwatność opisowa
See **adequacy**

descriptive grammar – gramatyka opisowa

The description of the rules that are actually followed by native speakers. This type of grammar is usually contrasted with **prescriptive** (or **normative**) **grammar**, which is the prescription of rules which, in the opinion of the grammarian the native speakers of a language ought to follow, in order to speak "correctly". There are many examples (in **traditional grammars**) of **prescriptive** rules set up by traditional grammarians which have no basis in the normal usage of English native speakers (one such example is the rule

which says that *It is I*, rather than the more usual *It is me*, is "correct" English). Many traditional grammarians were concerned to make rules about how people *ought* to speak and write; these rules were often based on classical literary works or the speech of those people who were considered as models for others to copy.
See **traditional grammar**

desemanticisation – desemantyzacja

The loss of semantic content by a word or morpheme, often particularly one undergoing **grammaticalisation**.
See **grammaticalisation**

desiderative n., a. – desiderativum

A term used in the grammatical classification of sentence types, and usually seen in contrast to indicative, imperative, etc. **moods**. **Desiderative** utterances (or '**desideratives**') refer to verb forms or sentence/clause types used for the expression of wants and desires – approximately translatable by 'I want + sentence', but often **lexicalised** (e.g. *to want to eat → to hunger*) (DC).
See **mood**, **lexicalization**

design features of language – definicyjne cechy języka

The term **design features** is taken from Hockett (1958, 1960) and refers to a number of general properties in terms of which languages may be compared with other **semiotic** systems used by man or animals. The original list of features has been extended in successive publications from seven to sixteen (cf. also Hockett & Altman 1968). Some of these design features have to do solely with the channel of communication and with the physical properties of vocal signals (cf. Householder 1971). The design features include, among others: **arbitrariness**, **duality**, **productivity**, **discreteness**, **semanticity**, **displacement, cultural transmission**, **reflexivity**, etc. Cf. **language universals**.
See **arbitrariness**, **duality**, **productivity**, **discreteness**, **semanticity**, **displacement**, **cultural transmission**

designatum (pl. **designata**) – desygnat

In logic, an object or a class of objects, whether existing or not, that a linguistic expression refers to.
See **referent**

deterioration – another term for **pejoration**
See **semantic change**

determiner – determinator

In some grammatical descriptions of English, the term refers to a class of items whose main role is to co-occur with the noun to express a wide range of semantic contrasts, such, e.g., as quantity, number, etc. The articles, when they occur in a language, are the main subset of **determiners** (e.g. *a*, *the*). In English, the following words are used as determiners: apart from articles, there are **demonstarative pronouns** (*this*, *that*, *these*, *those*), **possessive pronouns** (*his*, *her*, *their*, etc.), **quantifiers** (*some*, *many*, *few*, *no*, *each*, *every*, etc.), and **numerals** (*first*, *two*, *five*, etc.). Determiners form **closed-system items** that are mutually exclusive with each other, i.e. there cannot be more than one occurring before the nominal **head** (hence the following expressions are ungrammatical: **a the boy*, **a some boy*). The articles are central to the class of determiners in that they have no function independent of the noun they precede.
See **head**, **closed system** (**class**)

Devanagari – pismo dewanagari

The **Devanagari** alphabet of ancient India, from which most of the modern alphabetic forms of India, East Pakistan, Burma, Ceylon and Thailand are derived. Devanagari is a syllabic alphabet, that is to say, its characters represent syllables.

deverbal – dewerbalny, odczasownikowy, deverbativum

Of a word **derived** from a verb. For example, the noun *arrival* is derived from the verb *arrive, refusal* from *refuse,* etc.
See **derivation** (1)

devoicing – ubezdźwięcznienie

Any phonological change in which a voiced sound is converted to the corresponding voiceless sound. For example, word final /b d g/ have become /p t k/ in German, Russian, Polish and many other languages. **Devoicing** is extremely common in the languages of the world, and it "may perhaps be regarded as a kind of **assimilation** to the following silence" (cf. Trask 1996: 60). The opposite is **voicing**.
See **assimilation**, **voicing**

diachronic – diachroniczny
See **diachrony**, **diachronic linguistics**

diachronic (**historical**) **linguistics** – językoznawstwo diachroniczne (historyczne)
See **historical linguistics**

diachrony n., **diachronic** a. – diachronia

The time dimension in language. A **diachronic** approach to a language is one which examines the ways in which the language has changed over some period of time. A diachronic investigation always presupposes a **synchronic** study, as it is impossible to consider the way a language has changed from one state to another without first knowing about the two states to be compared. See also **synchrony**.

diacritic (**diacritical**) **mark** – znak diakrytyczny

A mark added to a letter to make another symbol: e.g. the **acute accent** used in French (e.g. *préposé*) or the **umlaut** used in German (e.g. *müssen*). More generally, any symbol that is introduced into a text or transcription in order to "code" some item of information that is not otherwise represented in the text itself. For example, the addition of ~ distinguishes the velarised lateral [l] in English *feel* from the non-velarised [l] in English *leaf*.
See **umlaut**, **acute accent**, **velarization**

dialect n., **dialectal** a. – dialekt, gwara

Any distinctive variety of a language spoken by some group of people. A particular style of pronunciation is an **accent**. There are **regional** and **social** (or **class**) **dialects**. Dialects which identify where a person is from are called "regional dialects." Dialects which identify where a person is in terms of social scale are called "social dialects" (or "sociolects"). In Britain, dialects are speech varieties differing in vocabulary and grammar, while accents are varieties differing in pronunciation. In the USA, the term "dialect" is commonly understood as including features of pronunciation. This difference reflects the fact that, in the USA, accents are usually closely related to other regional features of usage, while in Britain a regional accent may be largely independent of regional grammar and vocabulary. For more see Lyons (1968: 34 ff.).

dialect map – mapa dialektów

A **dialect map** shows the regional **variants** found for a single **variable** – the local words for 'dragonfly' or 'headache', the local pronunciations for *arm* or *girl*, etc. Each locality covered is marked on the map with a symbol which represents its particular form; localities using the same form get the same symbol. If the boundary between two neighbouring forms turns out to be rather sharp, a line called **isogloss** may be drawn on the map to show the boundary. Most often, the results of such a study are presented in a volume of dialect maps, a **dialect atlas**. Dialect maps are of great value in displaying real language data in a vivid graphical manner.
See **variable**, **variant**

dialectism – dialektyzm, gwaryzm, wyraz gwarowy

A word, a grammatical form, meaning or phraseological unit representing a dialect in relation to other linguistic units representing the standard language. Various types of **dialectisms** are distinguished: **phonetic dialectisms** (e.g. Mazovian *nogamy* 'with legs' instead of *nogami*), **grammatical dialectisms** (e.g. the verb form *ciąg* 'pull' instead of *ciągnij*), **lexical dialectisms** (e.g. *gazda* 'a farmer in the Polish Carpathians'), **phraseological dialectisms** (e.g. *robić precz*), and **syntactic dialectisms** (e.g. *gęsi lecieli* 'geese were flying' instead of *gęsi leciały*). See **dialect**, **dialectology**

dialectology – dialektologia

The study of dialects, especially **regional dialects** but also **social dialects** (sociolects). The term encompasses not only **dialect geography** but also purely descriptive work on regional and non-standard dialects. Today a good deal of dialectology is done with large databases stored on computers.
See **regional dialect**, **dialect geography**, **social dialect**

dictionary – słownik

A **dictionary** is a reference book about words. It is a book about language. Its nearest cousin is **encyclopedia**, but the latter is a book about things, people, places, and ideas, a book about the "real world," not about language. The distinction between dictionary and encyclopedia is not always easy to draw, and there are often elements of one in the other. But they do not share the same headword list and they do not provide the same information for the **headwords** (or **entry words**) that they do have in common. Dictionaries are usually arranged in alphabetical order of the headwords; they are reference books. We consult them to find out information about words. In fact, a dictionary is more than just a reference book; it is also a (partial) record of the vocabulary of a language. If the dictionary is distinguished, as a reference book, from the encyclopedia on the one hand, it is distinguished, as a linguistic description, from the grammar book on the other. A grammar book, as the description of the grammatical system of a language, deals with the general rules and conventions for the structure of sentences and tends to deal with words as classes or subclasses. A dictionary describes the operation of individual lexical items, including, where relevant, how they fit into the general patterns of grammar. Grammar and dictionary are complementary parts of the description of a language, and a dictionary will use terms that are defined by the grammar. The users of dictionaries are first of all students and learners, academics, word game and crossword puzzle buffs. The body of a dictionary contains an alphabetical list of headwords. Each headword is accompanied by a number of pieces of information, which together with the headword constitute the **entry**. The headword is usually printed in bold type. Entries are presented in two

columns on each page, though there may be three columns in some, usually larger, dictionaries. The headwords represent the particular selection of vocabulary and other items that the editors have decided merit inclusion, given the size and purpose of the dictionary. **General-purpose dictionaries** all tend to share a headword list that encompasses the core vocabulary; where they differ will be in the amount of technical and specialist, as well as colloquial, slang and dialect vocabulary they include. The headwords in a general-purpose dictionary include more than just words (lexemes). In terms of words, it will include: simple words, compounds, and derivative words whose meanings are considered to need a separate definition from their roots. Other derivatives are contained within the entry for the root, usually in bold type but without a definition. The range and type of information within an entry will vary according to the kind of headword, but will typically include some or all of the following: *spelling*, *pronunciation*, *inflections*, *word class*, *senses* (where a word has more than one meaning, each sense is usually numbered; where a sense, or group of senses belong to a different word class or subclass, this is indicated before the sense(s) concerned), *definition* (each sense is given a definition, which is an explanation of its meaning), *examples* (where the elucidation of a sense benefits from an illustrative phrase or sentence, usually given in italic type), *usage* (where a sense is restricted in its contexts of use, an appropriate label precedes the sense concerned), *etymology* (conventionally in square brackets as the final item in the entry). Some dictionaries include additional information, e.g. on collocation or the syntactic operation of words (Jackson 2002: 23–25).

dieresis – diereza

A mark (¨) placed over the second of two consecutive vowels to show that it is pronounced in a separate syllable (e.g. *reënter*). The **dieresis** is now usually replaced by a **hyphen** (e.g. *re-enter*). The mark is also used to show a certain pronunciation of a vowel (e.g. ä ö ü).
See **hyphen**

diglossia n., **diglossic** a. – diglosja, dwujęzyczność

The state of affairs in which two quite distinct languages or language varieties are spoken in a single community, with a high degree of specialisation between the two, so that each variety is perceived as appropriate for certain functions. In every instance of **diglossia**, one variety, which we may call High (or H), has much greater overt prestige and is acquired through formal education, while the other, Low (or L), is the mother tongue of virtually the entire population. Typically, H is used for all or most publications, for news broadcasts, for university lectures and most public speeches, and for religious purposes (among other functions), while L is used for ordinary conversation and for the more popular types of entertainment (such as soap operas) (among other functions). Often L may lack a recognised written form. The correct choice of variety is of

great importance, since using the "wrong" variety for a particular function is seen as comical or offensive; even speakers with severely limited command of H prefer to hear H when H is appropriate. Among the **diglossic** communities which have existed in recent times are Greece (H: Kathrevousa; L: Dhimotiki; diglossia has now disappeared from Greece), Paraguay (H: Spanish; L: Guarani), and the Arab countries (H: classical Arabic; L: colloquial Arabic) (RLT).

digraph – dwuznak

A sequence of two letters used to express a single sound; e.g. *ea* (tea), *sh* (show), *ch* (Church), *hw* used to denote voiceless /w/, etc.

diminutive – deminutivum (pl. deminutiva), zdrobnienie, wyraz zdrobniały

A morphological construction which denotes something small, as, for example, Polish *piesek*, *żabka*, *młoteczek*, etc. In many languages, though not universally, diminutives are interpreted pragmatically as referring to something nice or pleasant. And compare the English diminutives *piglet*, *starlet*, *kitchenette*, *ringlet*, etc.
See **augmentative**

ding-dong theory – teoria natywistyczna

The name of one of the speculative theories about the origins of language; it argues that speech arose because people reacted to the stimuli in the world around them, and spontaneously produced sounds ('oral gestures') which in some way reflected the environment. The main evidence is the use of **sound-symbolism** (which is very restricted in language). The theory has also been called the **ta-ta theory**. The term has no standing in contemporary linguistics (DC).
See **sound symbolism**

diphthong – dyftong, dwugłoska

A complex vowel sound made by gliding continuously from the position for one vowel to that of another within the same syllable, as /au/ in *down*. Consider also the **diphthongs** in the words *boy, buy,* and *bow.*

diphthongization – dyftongizacja

Any phonological change in which a **pure vowel** (i.e. a **monophthong**) is converted to a **diphthong**: e.g. /ī/ becoming /ai/ and /ū/ becoming /au/.
See **monophthong**, **diphthong**

direct object – dopełnienie bliższe, przedmiot bezpośredni

The main, undeletable object of a transitive verb; e.g. *I gave him **the present***. It is distinguished from the **indirect object**, which can be deleted, or may be

marked with a preposition; e.g. *I gave **him** the present*, *I gave the present **to** him*. Cf. **complement**.
See **object**

direct speech – mowa niezależna, oratio recta

A style used to report what a speaker actually said, without introducing any grammatical changes. In English, the speaker's words may be written between quotation marks, e.g. *'You're a thief'*, *he said*. This may be contrasted with **indirect speech** (or **reported speech**, e.g. *He said I was a thief.*)
See **indirect speech** (**reported speech**)

disambiguate v. – odwieloznacznić
See **disambiguation**

disambiguation n., **disambiguate** v. – usunięcie wieloznaczności, odwielo-znacznienie

The use of linguistic analysis to show the different structures of an **ambiguous** sentence. For example, the sentence *The lamb is too hot to eat* can be analysed as either: (a) 'The lamb (the animal) is so hot that it cannot eat anything', or (b) 'The cooked lamb (the meat) is too hot for someone to eat it'. The related verb is **disambiguate**.

discontinuous constituents – składniki nieciągłe

In American Structuralism, parts of a sentence which belong to the same **constituent** but which are separated by other constituents, e.g., in English the phrasal verb *pick up* in the sentence *The player **picked** the ball **up***, where *picked* is separated from *up* by the object noun phrase *the ball*.
See **constituent**, **American Structural School**

discourse – dyskurs

The term refers to a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) language larger than a sentence. But within this broad notion, several different applications may be found. At its most general, a **discourse** is a behavioural unit which has a pretheoretical status in linguistics; it is a set of **utterances** which constitute any recognisable speech event, e.g. a conversation, a joke, a sermon, an interview, etc. Sometimes the study of both written and spoken discourse is known as **discourse analysis**. However, some linguists use the term "discourse analysis" to refer to the study of spoken discourse and **text linguistics** to refer to the study of written discourse (DC).
See **utterance**, **text linguistics**

discourse analysis – analiza dyskursu
See **discourse**

discourse competence – kompetencja dyskursywna
See **communicative competence**

discourse markers – wskaźniki dyskursu

These are expressions that typically connect two segments of **discourse** but do not contribute to the meaning of either. Thus, **discourse markers** include adverbials (e.g. *however*, *still*, etc.), conjunctions (e.g. *and*, *but*, etc.), and prepositional phrases (e.g. *in fact*, etc.).
See **discourse**

discovery procedures – procedury odkrywcze

American linguistics in the "Bloomfieldian" period tended to be very **procedural** in orientation. Questions of theory were reformulated as questions of method (How should one go about the practical task of analysing a language?), and it was commonly assumed that it should be possible to develop a set of **procedures** which, when applied to a **corpus** of material in an unknown language, would yield the correct grammatical analysis of the language of which the corpus was a representative sample.
See **American Structural School**, **corpus**

discreteness n., **discrete** a. – dyskretność, nieciągłość

This **design feature** of language applies to the signal-elements of a semiotic system, and language is such a system. If the elements are discrete (separate), in the sense that the difference between them is absolute and not subject to gradation, in terms of more or less, the system is said to be **discrete**. Otherwise it is continuous, hence language is looked upon as a discrete combinatorial system. Linguistic signs are discrete in the sense that two word-forms, considered from the point of view of their form, are either absolutely the same or absolutely different. For example, Polish *słyszał* and *słyszał* are phonologically (and orthographically) the same, while *słyszał* and *słyszałem* are different (they are not "more or less" similar or different).

   Discreteness is rather unknown in animal systems of communication. For example, bee-dancing is continuous rather than discrete and its productivity is dependent on this fact. The bee body movements vary in intensity with a correspondingly continuous variation of the source nectar.
See **design features of language**

disjunction – dysjunkcja

A term in **formal logic** appearing as part of a theoretical framework of several areas in linguistics, especially in **semantics**. The term refers to the operation of combining two or more **propositions** to form a composite proposition by means of a logical constant 'or' (symbolically 'V'). The constituent proposi-

tions are referred to as **disjuncts**. For example, *p* V *q* is a proposition resulting from the **disjunction** of *p* and *q* (and is true if either *p* and *q* is true). With disjunction it is usual to distinguish **inclusive** and **exclusive** interpretations: with the former, the disjunction is true if either, or both, of the propositions is true; with the latter, the disjunction is true only if one or other of the propositions is true (but not both) (Lyons 2005: 150 ff.).
See **formal logic**, **semantics**, **proposition**

disjunctive question – pytanie rozłączne

These are questions of the following type: *You have finished, haven't you?*, *He doesn't speak English, does he?*
See **tag questions**

dispalatalization – dyspalatalizacja, depalatalizacja, odmiękczenie

The opposite of **palatalization**. A change of a front vowel to a back one, i.e. loss of front (palatal) articulation by a vowel; for example, a change of [dź] to [d] in Polish *niedźwie[dź]ie – niedźwia[d]ek*.
See **palatalization**

displacement – zdalność

One of the defining (**design**) **features of language** which enables us to refer to objects and events that are remote in time and place from the time of speaking. Users of a language are capable of speaking not only about what is going on around them at the time of utterance, but also about past and future events.
See **design features of language**

dissimilation – dysymilacja, odpodobnienie

Dissimilation is the opposite of **assimilation** and involves an increase in the difference between two (directly or indirectly) adjacent phonemes by changing the articulation of one of two phonemes sharing a common articulation. For example, the sequence *dl* changed into *gl* in the Lithuanian and Latvian languages, e.g., original **edlā* became Lithuanian *ĕgle* and Latvian *egle*. To take another example, Latin *arbore(m)* 'tree' yields Spanish *arbol,* with dissimilation of the second /r/ to /l/ (RLT).

Assimilation is the phenomenon most closely connected with the phonetic sphere. It is basically the result of the tendency to minimise effort which leads to abandoning a particular articulation of a phoneme which for some reason is weaker and substituting it by the articulation of an adjacent, stronger phoneme.
See **assimilation**

distal a. – dystalny, dalszy

away from the speaker, e.g. *that*, *there*. Cf. **proximal**

distinctive feature – cecha dystynktywna

In **phonology**, a particular characteristic which distinguishes one distinctive sound unit of a language from another or one group of sounds from another. For example, in the English sound system, one **distinctive feature** which distinguishes the /p/ in *pin* from the /b/ in *bin* is VOICE. The /b/ is a voiced **stop**, whereas the /p/ is a voiceless stop.
See **phonology**, **stop** (**plosive**) **consonant**

distinguisher – wyróżnik

A term used in early **generative grammars**. **Distinguishers** form a sub-class of **semantic markers** with maximally limited distribution and they represent what is idiosyncratic about the meaning of a lexical item. For example, a second meaning of *bachelor* (as in *bachelor of arts*) is characterised by the semantic markers /HUMAN/, /MALE/, /ADULT/ and the distinguisher [having the academic degree conferred for completing the first four years of college]. The latter is the kind of meaning component which is not exploited systematically in English.
See **Generative Grammar**

distribution n., **distributional** a. – dystrybucja

The sum of the contexts in which a linguistic unit may appear, e.g. the distribution of the Polish phoneme [b] does not include the final word position, but only the initial and medial position. Three types of **distribution** are usually distinguished:
a) **complementary distribution** ('dystrybucja uzupełniająca'): if two linguistic units have no contexts in common, they are in complementary distribution,
b) **contrastive distribution** ('dystrybucja kontrastująca'): if two elements share some of their environments, and if the use of either of them involves change of meaning, they are in contrastive distribution. For example, *t* and *d* in *bat*:*bad*, or *-ed* and *-ing* in *bombed*:*bombing*. Elements that are in contrastive distribution belong to different units of the language,
c) **free variation** ('dystrybucja swobodna'): different units of the text are allowed to appear in identical environments with no change of meaning. For example, French /r/ may be +thrilling or +uvular. Textual units that are in free variation belong to the same linguistic unit.

distributionalism – dystrybucjonalizm
See **American Structural School**, **Neo-Bloomfieldians**

distributionalists – dystrybucjonaliści
See **American Structural School**, **Neo-Bloomfieldians**

disyllabic word – wyraz dwuzgłoskowy, dwuzgłoskowiec

A word consisting of two **syllables**, e.g. English *garden*, *worker*, etc. Cf. **monosyllabic word**.

ditransitive verb – czasownik dwumiejscowy (dwuprzechodni)

A **ditransitive verb** is one which takes both a direct object and an indirect object, e.g., a verb like *tell* in a sentence such as *John told Mary nothing*, where *Mary* is the indirect object and *nothing* the direct object of the verb. Cf. **transitive verb**.

domain – domena

(1) A term, sometimes used in **semantics**, to refer to the area of experience covered by the set of terms in a particular **semantic** (or **lexical**) **field**, e.g. colour terms, kinship terms, etc.

See **lexical (semantic) field**, **semantics**

(2) Sometimes used in linguistics to refer to the realm of application of any linguistic construct, e.g. the **domain** of a rule in a grammar would refer to the range of structures to which that rule is applicable. In **generative grammars**, the term refers specifically to the parts of a **tree diagram** deriving from any one **node**, i.e. the structure which the node dominates.

See **Generative Grammar**, **tree diagram**

(3) In **Cognitive Grammar**, a **domain** constitutes a coherent knowledge structure possessing, in principle, any level of complexity or organisation. Crucially, a domain provides a particular kind of coherent knowledge representation against which other conceptual units are characterised. For example, linguistic terms such as *hot*, *cold*, and *lukewarm* relate to different kinds of lexical concept which can only be fully characterised with respect to the domain TEMPERATURE. Hence, the central function of a domain is to provide a relatively stable knowledge context in terms of which other kinds of conceptual units can be understood (VE). Apart from **lexical words**, **morphological** and **syntactic categories** also need to be characterised against the relevant domain. For example, the **diminutive** in its basic sense presupposes the domain of physical size, and the domain for the characterising of the **past tense** (in its past time reference) is time, and so on. Time, in this example, constitutes what Langacker (1987) calls **basic domain**, i.e. the concept of time is not reducible to other, more primitive cognitive structures. Other basic domains include sensory experiences like, e.g. temperature, colour, taste, and certain psychological states like pleasure or enthusiasm. Sometimes one of the domains associated with a lexical item might be more salient than others. In this connection, Langacker (1987: 165) distinguishes between **primary** and

secondary domains. Thus, for example, *salt*, in its everyday sense ('table salt'), is primarily associated with the domain of food; only secondarily, is its chemical composition at issue. *Sodium chloride*, an expression with the same reference, is understood against the domain of chemical composition, and only secondarily in terms of its role as a food additive.
See **Cognitive Grammar**, **lexical word**

domain matrix – matryca domen

In **Cognitive Grammar**, the range of possible **domains** to which a lexical item serves as a point of access. For example, the lexical item *uncle* provides access to a large inventory of domains including, at the very least, the following: genealogy, person, gender, sexual intercourse, birth, life cycle, parent/child relationship, sibling relationship (VE).
See **Cognitive Grammar**, **domain**

domain of discourse – domena dyskursu
See **universe of discourse**

dominance n., **dominate** v. – dominacja

In **generative grammars**, a pair of nodes in a **phrase marker** (PM) can be related by one of two types of relations: a) **dominance** and b) **precedence**. When we say that one node in a PM, say X, dominates another, say Y, it means that X occurs higher in the PM than Y, as in:
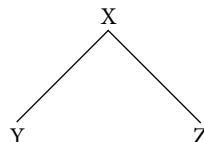
Consider the following PM whose nodes are filled with grammatical terms, NP, VP, etc.:
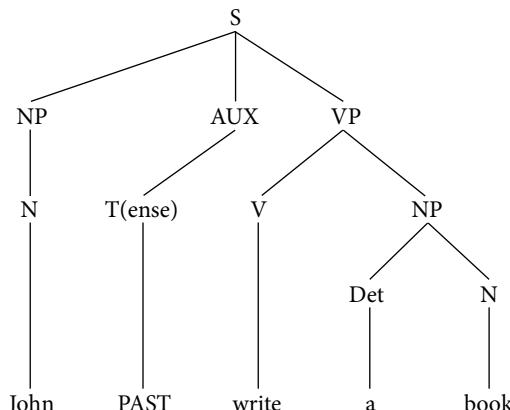
In the PM above (also called a **tree diagram**) S (standing for *sentence*), which is the highest node, immediately dominates NP, AUX, and VP. Det(erminer), N, and V are **terminal nodes**. The relation of dominance and immediate dominance serve to define the terms constituent and immediate constituent. Thus: (1) A set of nodes form a **constituent** if they are exhaustively dominated by a common node, i.e. if they all branch out of a single node. For example, in our PM Det and N form a constituent since they are both dominated by the same common node NP; (2) X is an **immediate constituent** of Y if X is immediately dominated by Y. For example, in the PM above NP, AUX, and VP are immediate constituents of S. One node **precedes** another if it occurs to the left of the other node on the printed page, e.g. in our tree diagram above, the leftmost NP precedes AUX, VP, V, and NP.
See **Generative Grammar**

donor language – język-dawca

In borrowing, the language which contributes the linguistic elements introduced into another language, i.e. the **borrowing** language.
See **borrowing language**

dormant metaphor – metafora uśpiona
See **metaphor**

double-base transformation – transformacja zbiorcza (łącząca)
See **generalised transformation**

double genitive – podwójny dopełniacz, genetivus

A structure of which the **genitive** is marked both inflectionally and periphrastically, e.g., *a poem of Kipling's*.
See **genitive case**

double negative – podwójne przeczenie

A construction in which two negative words are used. For example, in non-standard English: *I never seen nothing*, instead of *I haven't seen anything.*

double raising – reguła podwójnego podniesienia
See **raising rule**

doublet – dublet

A pair of words in a language ultimately from a single source but with different derivational histories, as e.g. are the native English *shirt* and the borrowed Scandinavian *skirt*, which have the same **Proto-Germanic** source (English *shirt* and *skirt* derive from **Old Norse** *skirt* (a) 'shirt') (Webster's).
See **Proto-Germanic**, **Old Norse**

dramatic present – **praesens historicum**
See **historic** (**dramatic**) **present**

dual number – liczba podwójna

There are languages (e.g. Classical Greek, Sanskrit and certain Slavonic languages) which, in addition to singular and plural numbers, also have a **dual number**, used to refer to two objects. For example, **Slovene** *lipa* (sg.) 'lime', *lipi* (dual), *lipe* (pl.) 'limes'.
See **Slovene**

duality, **double articulation** – dwustopniowość, podwójna artykulacja (języka)

One of the defining properties of language: to say that language has the property of **duality** is equivalent to saying that it has two levels of structural organisation – phonological and grammatical, and that the two levels are related in that the higher-level elements are composed of the lower-level elements (i.e. morphemes of phonemes, words of morphemes, etc.). Duality makes it possible to distinguish a very large number of forms by combining a relatively small number of lower-level elements in a variety of ways. For example, various permutations of the English phonemes (the lowest-level linguistic elements) yield very large numbers of morphemes (i.e. next higher-level elements). The number of phonemes in English amounts to several dozen (both vowels and consonants), while the number of morphemes goes up into hundreds. Taken in conjunction with the property of **productivity**, duality accounts for the fact that indefinitely many sentences can be constructed in any language out of a relatively restricted number of phonological segments.
See **design** (**defining**) **features of language**

dummy, **dummy element** – element zastępczy

A term referring to a formal grammatical element introduced into a structure or an analysis to ensure that a grammatical sentence is produced. Apart from their formal role, **dummy elements** have no meaning – they are semantically empty, e.g. *there* in *There are many people at the club*, or *it* in *It's raining.*

Dutch – holenderski, niderlandzki język
See **Germanic languages**, **Proto-Germanic**

Dvanda, **coordinate** (**copulative**) **compound** – Dvanda, złożenie kopulatywne (współrzędne)

A type of compound word in which every component is a **head** and no element modifies another: e.g. *Austria-Hungary, Metro-Goldwyn-Meyer,* etc. This type of formation is rare in English, except in names of companies: e.g. *Cadbury-*

Schweppes, Metro-Goldwyn-Meyer, etc. **Dvandas** are extremely frequent in **Sanskrit**, in which they are formed with seemingly total freedom.
See **head**, **Sanskrit**

dynamic verb – czasownik dynamiczny

A verb that expresses an action or an event. **Dynamic verbs** can typically take the progressive construction, as, e.g., in *John was reading a book when I came into his office*.

dyslexia n., **dyslexic** a., **word blindness** – dysleksja

A term used to describe any continuing problem in learning to read, such as difficulty in distinguishing letter shapes and words.

dysphasia – dysfazja

Another term for **aphasia**.

dysphemism – dysfemizm

A dismissive or offensive word or phrase used in place of another which is respectful or neutral. English examples include: *nag* for 'horse', *mug* for 'face', *to screw* for 'to copulate', *tart, bird, chick* or *sheila* for 'woman'. A **dysphemism** may replace its corresponding neutral term, as when Latin *caballus* 'nag' replaced earlier *equus* 'horse' in many **Romance languages**. The opposite is **euphemism** (RLT).
See **euphemism**, **Romance languages**

early Modern English – wczesnonowoangielski

English as it was spoken in Britain in the period 1500–1650.

Ebonics
See **African American English**

echolalia – echolalia

A type of speech disorder or **aphasia** in which all or most of a speaker's utterances consist of the simple repetition or echoing of words or phrases which the speaker hears.
See **aphasia**

eclectic a. – eklektyczny

Composed of material gathered from various sources, systems, etc.
See **eclecticism**

eclectic n. – eklektyk

A person who uses **eclectic** methods in philosophy, science, or art.
See **eclecticism**

eclecticism n., **eclectic** a. – eklektyzm

(1) The principle or practice of choosing or involving objects or beliefs from many different sources; a formal word (Col. Co.).

(2) The application of this general term in **linguistics** is found mainly in relation to models of description which have been built from a combination of features originating in more than one **linguistic theory**. For example, Quirk GRAMMAR is eclectic in that it makes use of concepts and procedures deriving from structuralists, transformational and other approaches. Eclectic accounts are justified by the multiple insights they can provide into an area of **language**. Their main weakness is the difficulty of developing a coherent framework within which the various descriptive components can be interrelate (DC).

echo question – pytanie „echowe"

A question that typically repeats something a previous speaker has said. It does not exhibit subject/operator inversion, e.g., A: *I saw a ghost.* B: *You saw*

what? Questions which do not echo in this way are sometimes referred to as **non-echo questions**.

economy-of-effort principle – prawo najmniejszego wysiłku

Any of several related but distinctive putative principles of language structure and change, according to which languages tend to change in such a way as to minimise the effort involved in speaking. See also **Zipf's Law**.

Egyptian (**language**) – egipski język

The principal language of ancient Egypt, forming one branch of the **Afro-Asiatic** family by itself. **Egyptian** is divided into periods called *Old Egyptian* (3000–2000 BC), *Middle* (or *Classical*) *Egyptian* (2000–1300 BC), *Late Egyptian* (1300–700 BC), *Demotic* (7th century BC–5th century AD), and **Coptic** (4th–14th centuries AD), after which the language died out as a mother tongue. See **Afro-Asiatic languages**

e-language, **externalized language** – język uzewnętrzniony (zewnętrzny)

A term introduced by Noam Chomsky to refer to a language viewed as a collection of texts or as a social phenomenon. It is contrasted with **i-language**, where *i* stands for internal/internalized and refers to the internal linguistic knowledge in the mind of every speaker. See **internalized language**

elevation

Another term for **amelioration**. See **semantic change**

elision – elizja

A process consisting in the suppression or omission of a vowel or of an entire syllable, usually for euphony, often marked by means of an apostrophe, e.g. *there's* instead of *there is* or Fr. *l'homme* (*le + homme*) where the *e* of the article *le* is omitted. Specific varieties of **elision** are often given special names like **aphaeresis**, **syncope**, **apocope**, etc. The opposite is **epenthesis**. See **aphaeresis**, **apocope**, **syncope**

ellipsis n., **elliptical** a., **ellipse** v. – elipsa, ominięcie

Ellipsis is a process by which an expression is omitted in order to avoid repetition. For example, in a sentence such as *I will do it if you will do it* we can **ellipse** (i.e. omit) the second occurrence of *do it* to avoid repetition, and hence say *I will do it if you will* – the resulting sentence is an **elliptical** structure, i.e. a structure from which something has been omitted.

embedded clause – zdanie zanurzone

In **Generative Grammar**, an **embedded clause** is a clause which is positioned internally within some other clause or phrase. For example, in a sentence such as *He may suspect that I hid them*, the *hid*-clause (= *that I hid them*) is embedded within the *suspect*-clause.
See **Generative Grammar**

embedding – zanurzenie

In **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, a term used to refer to the process or construction where one clause is included (**embedded**) in another, i.e. in syntactic subordination. A relative clause within a noun phrase (NP) is an example of **embedding**, e.g. *The man who has a suitcase is in the bar. The man has a suitcase* is embedded within the **matrix** (**main**) **clause** *The man is in the bar*.
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **matrix clause**

embodied cognition – poznanie ucieleśnione

One of the guiding principles of **cognitive semantics**. This thesis holds that the human mind and conceptual organisation are a function of the way in which our species-specific bodies interact with the environment we inhabit. In other words, the nature of **concepts** and the way they are structured and organised is constrained by the nature of our **embodied experience** (VE). Cf. also G. Lakoff and M. Johnson (1980), T. Langacker (1987).
See **cognitive semantics**, **embodied experience**

embodied experience – doświadczenie ucieleśnione

In **Cognitive Grammar**, the idea that experience is **embodied** entails that we have a species-specific view of the world due to the unique nature of our physical bodies. In other words, our construal of reality is mediated in large measure by the nature of our bodies (VE).
See **image schema**

emergentism – emergentyzm

The view that higher forms of cognition emerge from the interaction between simpler forms of cognition and the architecture of the human brain. For example, in **language acquisition**, it has been proposed that categories such as the parts of speech are not innate but emerge as a result of the processing of input (i.e. the external linguistic data available to speakers in the course of acquiring a language) by the perceptual systems (JCRandRSch).
See **Language Acquisition Device**

emotive function of language – funkcja emotywna języka

Another term for the **expressive function** of language.
See **functions of language**

emphatic stress – akcent emfatyczny

A speaker can emphasise any syllable or word that he wishes to highlight. **Emphatic stress** is considered to be **contrastive stress** when the highlighted word is explicitly or implicitly contrasted with another word. For example, in the utterance *She was getting on the plane while he was getting off.*

empiricism n., **empiricist** n., a. – empiryzm

The philosophical doctrine that all knowledge comes from experience. The **empiricist** doctrine has been very influential in the development of modern psychology; combined with **physicalism** and **determinism**, it has been responsible for the view held by many psychologists that human knowledge and human behaviour are wholly determined by the environment, there being no radical difference in this respect between human beings and animals. In **empiricism**, **language acquisition** is seen as a process of generalisation from experience. Empiricism is contrasted with **rationalism**.
See **physicalism**, **determinism**, **Language Acquisition Device**, **rationalism**

empty category – kategoria pusta

In **Generative Grammar**, a category that is meaningless and has no surface realisation. Cf. also **trace**.
See **Generative Grammar**

empty word – wyraz pusty

Empty words are words which have no **lexical meaning** and whose function is solely to express grammatical relationships; these are, e.g. articles, conjunctions, pronouns, prepositions, auxiliary verbs, etc.
See **lexical (content) word**

encyclop(a)edia – encyklopedia

A book giving information on all or many branches of knowledge, generally in alphabetically arranged entries. Cf. **dictionary**.

entry – artykuł hasłowy
See **dictionary**

entry word – wyraz hasłowy
See **dictionary**

enclitic – enklityka
See **clitic**

encyclopaedic semantics – semantyka encyklopedyczna

The approach to **semantics** adopted in **cognitive semantics**. See also V. Evans (2007).
See **semantics**, **cognitive semantics**

endocentric construction – konstrukcja endocentryczna

A group of syntactically related words where one of the words (the **head**) is functionally equivalent to the group as a whole: e.g. *fond of past* is an adjectival phrase whose head is the adjective *fond,* hence the overall expression is **endocentric**. Constructions which display **endocentricity** include **noun phrases** and **verb phrases** where the component items are subordinate to the head: e.g. in the noun phrase *the big **house***, the article *the* and the adjective *big* are subordinate (they modify) the head *house* (the "centre" of the phrase). The term is opposed to **exocentric construction**.
See **head**, **exocentric construction**

endophoric reference – odniesienie endoforyczne
See **coherence**

English – angielski język
See **Germanic languages**, **Proto-Germanic**

English for special (specific) purposes (ESP) – angielski specjalistyczny

The role of English in a language course or programme of instruction in which the content and aims of the course are fixed by the specific needs of a particular group of learners. For example, courses in English for academic purposes, English for science and technology, etc.

entail v. – implikować
See **entailment**

entailment n. – implikacja
See **implication**

epenthesis n., **epenthetic** a., **intrusion** – epenteza, insercja

Any phonological change which inserts a segment into a word or form in a position in which no segment was formerly present. For example, the development of Old English *aemtig* to English *empty,* of Middle English *thuner*

to modern *thunder*, and of Middle English *betwix* to modern *betwixt*. The opposite is **elision**.
See **elision**

epiglottis – nagłośnia

An anatomical structure which closes over the **larynx** during swallowing. It is not used as an active articulator in speech, though it can produce an audible trill.
See **articulation**

epigraphy – epigrafika

The study, decipherment and interpretation of ancient texts written on hard materials like stone and metal. Cf. **paleography**.

epistemic modality – modalność epistemiczna

Epistemic modality in language relates to the various degrees of the speaker's certainty as regards the **truth-value** of the **proposition** (in Halliday's (1970) language, "the speaker's assessment of probabilities"). Epistemic statements then do not imply the speaker's knowledge, but his assessments, based on indirect (incomplete) evidence, about the state of affairs implied in the proposition. For example, epistemic necessity indicated by Eng. *must* is not to be paraphrased as 'In the light of what is known it is necessarily the case that…' but by something like 'From what I (= the speaker) know, the only conclusion I can draw is…' In English as well as in many other languages the following classes of words can be used to express epistemic modality:
modal auxiliaries (*must, will, may, can, should, ought to*, e.g. *He must be ill*)
semi-auxiliaries (*have to, be bound to, be likely to*, etc., e.g. *He has to be crazy to do that*)
lexical verbs (*think, believe, suppose, doubt*, etc., e.g. *I suppose it's his fault*)
adverbs (*maybe, possibly, probably, perhaps*, etc., e.g. *He'll probably come later*)
adjectives (*sure, certain, positive, likely*, etc., e.g. *I'm sure he'll come*)
See **truth-value**, **proposition**, **modality**

eponym, **appelative** – eponim, apelatyw

A name, especially a place name, derived from the name of a real or mythical person, such, e.g., as *Constantinople* from *Constantine.*
See **onomastics**

equipollent oppositions – opozycje ekwipolentne (równorzędne)

These are based on the contrast between two logically corresponding features, the first of which appears in one and the second in the other member of the

opposition. We have, for example, the opposition of the consonants /p/:/t/, which contrast with each other on the basis of their points of articulation. Cf. **gradual** and **privative oppositions**.

equivalence – ekwiwalencja

In **generative grammars**, grammars which **generate** the same set of sentences are said to be **equivalent** or **weakly equivalent**. Grammars which generate the same **phrase-markers** are **strongly equivalent**, i.e. they generate not only the same sentences but assign the same **structural descriptions** to each.
See **Generative Grammar**, **phrase-marker**

ergative – ergativus, agentivus

A term used for the case of the subject of a transitive verb when this differs from the case of the subject of an intransitive verb. This term originally applied to languages like Basque in which the complement of a transitive verb and the subject of an intransitive verb are assigned the same case. However, by extension, it has come to be used to denote verbs like *break* which occur both in structures like *Someone broke the window* and in structures like *The window broke*, where the *window* seems to play the same **thematic role** in both types of sentences, in spite of being the complement of *broke* in one sentence and the subject of *broke* in the other. Cf. Lyons (1968: 350 ff.).
See **thematic role**

ergative languages – języki ergatywne

In **ergative languages**, intransitive subjects (i.e. subjects of intransitive verbs) and direct objects are treated identically, while transitive subjects (i.e. subjects of transitive verbs) are treated differently. A good example of an ergative language is Basque: noun phrases (NPs) like, e.g. *gizona* 'the man' and *neska* 'the girl' can take either the case-ending zero or the case-ending *-k,* as follows:

> *Gizona heldu zen.*
> 'The man arrived.'
> *Gizonak neska ikusi zuen.*
> 'The man saw the girl.'
> *Neskak gizona ikusi zuen.*
> 'The girl saw the man.'

As can be seen, only a transitive subject takes the case-ending *-k*, while both intransitive subjects and direct objects take the ending zero (Trask 1996: 151).
Cf. **accusative languages**.
See **ergative verb**

ergative verb – czasownik ergatywny

A verb which can be used both **transitively** and **intransitively** with the same meaning, as in *He **boiled** a kettle of water* and *The kettle **boiled***, where the verb *boil* is an **ergative verb**. Cf. **transitive verb**, **intransitive verb**.

error analysis – analiza błędów

In language teaching and learning, **error analysis** is a technique for identifying, classifying, and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms (i.e. **errors**) produced by someone learning a foreign language, using any of the principles and procedures provided by linguistics. Errors are distinguished from mistakes; errors result from a learner's incomplete knowledge of the target language (so, they reflect the level of **competence** achieved by a learner), and **mistakes** (made by a learner when writing or speaking) are caused by lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness, or some other aspect of **performance**. Errors are sometimes classified according to vocabulary (**lexical error**), pronunciation (**phonological error**), grammar (**syntactic error**), misunderstanding of a speaker's intention or meaning (**interpretive error**), etc. (JRCandRSch).
See **competence**, **performance**

Eskimo-Aleut (**languages**) – eskimo-aleuckie języki

A small language family spoken in Greenland, Canada, Alaska, and eastern Siberia by the Eskimo and Aleut peoples. Aleut is a single language with two surviving dialects. Eskimo consists of two divisions: Yupik spoken in Siberia and southwestern Alaska, and Inuit, spoken in northern Alaska, Canada, and Greenland. Each division includes several dialects.

Esperanto – esperanto
See **artificial language**

éta de langue – stan języka

A term introduced by the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure (*Cours de linguistique générale* 1913) referring to a "state of language" seen as if at a particular point in time, regardless of its antecedant and subsequent history. An **éta de langue** is therefore the primary object of a **synchronic** linguistic analysis.
See **synchronic**, **synchronic analysis**

ethnolinguistics – etnolingwistyka

A branch of linguistics which studies language in relation to the investigation of ethnic types and behaviour. The term overlaps to some degree with **anthropological linguistics** and **sociolinguistics**, reflecting the overlapping interests of the correlative disciplines involved – ethnology, anthropology, and sociology.
See **anthropological linguistics**, **sociolinguistics**

etymological doublets – dublety etymologiczne

The term refers to two, or more, different words in one language having an identical **etymological** source. For example, the native English *shirt* and the borrowed Scandinavian *skirt* have the same **Proto-Germanic** source. **Etymological doublets** may all come from outside the main tradition of the **borrowing language**; e.g. the English words *state* and *estate* were both borrowed from Middle French in which they were variants and *status* is a relatively modern borrowing of the Latin word *status*, from which both *state* and *estate* are derived.
See **etymology**, **Proto-Germanic**

etymological dictionary – słownik etymologiczny

A book which presents, in an organised manner, whatever is known or proposed about the origins and histories of the words of a particular language or family; e.g. C.T. Onions (ed.). *The Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology.* Oxford: Clarendon, 1966; E. Partridge. *Origins: An Etymological Dictionary of Modern English.* London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1958.

etymologist – etymolog

A person engaged in the study of the origin of words and of their history and changes in their meaning.
See **etymology**

etymology n., **etymological** a. – etymologia, pochodzenie wyrazów, źródłosłów

(1) The origin and history of a particular word.

(2) The branch of linguistics which investigates the origin and history of words.

etymon (pl. **etyma**) – etymon

An earlier linguistic form from which a later one is directly derived: e.g. English *father* derives from Old English *faeder*, which derives from Proto-Germanic **fader*, which derives from PIE **pətér*. Each of these last three is an **etymon** of the English word. The opposite is **reflex**, **descendant**.

euphemism n., **euphemistic** a. – eufemizm

A polite or pleasant expression that is used to refer to something which other speakers may find as upsetting or embarrassing to talk about, e.g., sex, the human body, or death. For example, the term *comfort women* is the **euphemism** applied to women put in army brothels. Cf. also the American *pass away* for 'die'. War and violence provide fertile ground for euphemisms

in English (especially American English), with *liquidation* 'murder', *military operations* 'war', and the relabeling of the *Ministry of War* as the *Ministry of Defense*, all satisfactorily distancing the listener or reader from what is really happening. Euphemisms also arise from political propaganda. Thus, e.g., the South African government has successively relabeled apartheid *separate development, plural democracy, vertical differentiation,* and *multinationalism*. **Euphemistic** terms in English generally involve Latinate vocabulary, partly because such words tend to have more prestigious **connotations**, and partly because their meaning will be less transparent to the casual observer. Latinisation also figures largely in the current trend, inspired by "political correctness", of renaming occupations to enhance their status, so that *dustbin man* becomes *refuse collector*, while in American English *rat-catcher* (cf. Polish *szczurołap*) might become *rodent operative*, and *greengrocer – vegetable executive* (McMahon 1996: 181 ff.)
See **connotation**

euphony – eufonia

The word *euphony* comes from the Greek word meaning 'good sound'. Pleasing sounds or a combination of sounds; also such a combination of words.

euphuism – eufuizm

An affected and artificial literary style, characterised by **alliteration**, ornate language, lengthy **similes** taken from myth and fable and the like, after the manner of John Lyly (1554–1606), author of *Euphues*: *The Anatomy of Wit* (1578) and *Euphues and his England* (1580). Euphues, the hero of Lyly's romance, has a Greek name meaning 'well-endowed by nature'. **Euphuism** was much imitated by Lyly's contemporaries, including Queen Elizabeth, Robert Greene, and Thomas Lodge (Brewer's).
See **alliteration**, **simile**

evaluation procedure – procedura oceny

In **Generative Grammar**, a procedure which consists of the criteria for deciding whether a particular generative grammar is the best one possible for the data.
See **Generative Grammar**

evidence – dokumentacja, materiały źródłowe

Hard linguistic data which can be adduced to support some particular conclusion, as opposed to other conceivable conclusions. All serious work in **historical linguistics** relies upon such **evidence**, and a proffered conclusion is only widely accepted when specialists are persuaded that the evidence supporting it is at least great enough to make it clearly preferable to any alternative – though

not necessarily so overwhelming as to render all competing conclusions indefensible. In general, the available evidence must actively support the proffered conclusion by tending strongly to exclude other conceivable conclusions.
See **historical linguistics**

exclamation, **exclamatory sentence** – eksklamacja, zdanie wykrzyknikowe

The term refers to an utterance which expresses the speaker's or writer's feelings. Exclamations begin with *what* or *how* without a following inversion of the subject and the auxiliary verbs, as, e.g., in *How clever she is!, What a fool he was!*

exclamation mark – wykrzyknik

The **exclamation mark** is used after words or sentences which express emotion. The corresponding term in American English is **exclamation point**.
See **punctuation marks**

existential quantifier – kwantyfikator szczegółowy

In logic, the **existential quantifier** is symbolised by a reversed E, thus: ∃x reads: 'for some x it is the case that…' The proposition (x) (f (x) (x)) is interpreted as 'for at least one individual it is the case that the individual in question has the property denoted by the predicate f'. The existential quantifier carries the implication of existence. Consider, for example, the following proposition: (x) (Mx) (Rx) (where M stands for man, and R for rational), which reads: 'for at least one x, it is the case that x is rational' (translated into Polish it would read as follows: 'dla przynajmniej jednego x jest tak, że jest człowiekiem i jest myślące') (Lyons 1977: 150–151). Cf. also **quantifier** (2), **universal quantifier**.

existential sentence – zdanie egzystencjalne

One which relates to the existence of some entity. For example, a sentence such as *Is there any coffee left?* questions the existence of coffee. The word *any* here is similarly said to be an **existential quantifier** (as is *some* in a sentence like *There is some coffee in the pot*.). Another frequently used **existential** structure uses the verb *have*, as, e.g., in *This house has four bedrooms*, which is semantically equivalent to *There are four bedrooms in this house.*
See **existential quantifier**, **quantifier**

existential *there* – egzystencjalne *there*

A construction in which non-locative *there* is a subject and is used to point something out or introduce something into discourse, e.g., *There is a girl in my neighbourhood who knows ten languages.*

exocentric compound – złożenie egzocentryczne
See **Bahuvrīhi**

exocentric construction – konstrukcja egzocentryczna

A group of syntactically related words where none of the words is functionally equivalent to the group as a whole (i.e. there is no definable "centre" or **head** inside the group). A good example of a construction displaying **exocentricity** is the sentence where neither the **subject** nor the **predicate** can substitute for the sentence as a whole. Thus, e.g., *The book vanished* cannot be replaced by either *the book* or by *vanished* alone. Exocentric constructions are "headless" constructions, as opposed to **endocentric constructions**.
See **head, endocentric construction**

expansion n., **expand** v. – ekspansja, rozwinięcie

A grammatical process in which new elements are added to a construction without its basic structure being affected, e.g. the addition of adjectives before a noun, or auxiliaries before a verb. In **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **rewrite rules** (or **phrase-structure rules**) are sometimes called **expansion rules**, by virtue of the fact that a single symbol is expanded into a **string** of symbols which represent its **constituent** structure (e.g. VP → V + NP).
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **phrase-structure rules**, **string**

experiential domain – domena doświadczeniowa
See **conceptual domain**

explanatory adequacy – adekwatność wyjaśniająca
See **adequacy**

explicit performative utterance – ekplicytne (jawne) wypowiedzenie performatywne

In **Speech Act Theory**, the term **explicit performative** refers to an utterance whose main clause is an expression such as *I warn*, *I ask*, *I promise*, etc. Explicit performatives exhibit the following properties:

1. They involve the first-person singular subject 'I' and the second-person singular object 'you';

2. The main verb (a performative verb, e.g. *warn*, *ask*, *promise*) is marked as present tense and indicative mood. Following are examples of explicit performative utterances: *I request you to pass me the salt*, *I order you to leave this place.*

See **implicit performative utterance**, **Speech Act Theory**, **utterance**

explicitness n., **explicit** a. – eksplicytność opisu językowego

The requirement of **explicitness** in language study is interpreted in relation to a number of different issues, such, e.g., as being clear about the assumptions

on which a study is based, or making the intermediate stages of an argument clear, particularly if further assumptions are involved, or defining terms clearly and consistently. A prerequisite for consistency is that the linguist be fully aware of the basis of his terminology, and of how he/she arrived at the terms he/she employs. One way is to make **explicit** his/her criteria for identifying (i.e. labeling) a particular feature of language. For example, an explicit definition (or description) of English nouns will rely on purely formal criteria (in contrast to the 'intuitive', or informal, definition found in **traditional grammars**, which define nouns as names of places, persons, and things), where it is up to the language user to decide whether a particular linguistic item qualifies as a noun. An explicit definition of the English noun will be based on the following criteria: a noun is any word (1) which can act as the subject of a sentence; (2) which can be preceded by the article; (3) which can be used in both singular and plural forms; (4) which can have a case-ending that indicates possession (-'s, e.g. *John's*); (5) which can be preceded by a preposition that governs it (e.g. *with John*). One of the weaknesses inherent in traditional approaches to language was that criteria for analysis, data-selection, etc. were rarely made explicit, as many of the statements they made about language could not be given any consistent and clear interpretation (e.g. why one word was called an adverb, why another not, or why a sentence was **parsed** in the way it was, etc.). Explicitness is a major concern of linguistics, particularly since the development of **Generative Grammar** (**Generative Theory**). By explicitness generative linguists mean the requirement that the theory itself states the relationships between the linguistic forms, that by a series of "mechanical" steps the forms of the language may be produced in proper sequence and combination with a minimum of interpretation left to the intelligence of the reader or user of the theory.
See **Generative Grammar** (**Theory**), **parsing**, **traditional grammar**

exponent – wykładnik

A morpheme (or word) expressing a specific grammatical or lexical function. For example, in one of its uses *must* is used as an **exponent** of obligation.
See **morpheme**, **word**, **grammatical function**

expression plane – plan (płaszczyzna) wyrażania

Every language can be described in terms of two **planes**: expression (or form) and content (or meaning). And the **expression plane** of language can be described in terms of (at least) two levels: that of sounds and that of words. The sounds of a given language are described by **phonology** and the form of its words and the manner of their combination in phrases, clauses and sentences by grammar (i.e. morphology and syntax); and the content of the words (and of the units composed of them) by **semantics**.
See **phonology**, **morphology**, **syntax, semantics**

expressive (**emotive**) **function of language** – funkcja ekspresywna (emotywna) języka

The **expressive function** of language consists in the use of language as the expression of the speaker's own feelings and emotional states. This function does not require the presence of the addressee. Expressions such, e.g., as *Ah!, Oh!,* etc., various swearwords, and the like, tell us something about the speaker's emotional states at the time of utterance. Another term for this function of language is **emotive function**.
See **functions of language**

Extended Standard Theory (**Model**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar** (**EST**) – rozszerzony model (wersja) gramatyki transformacyjno-generatywnej

The **EST** is Chomsky's own modification of his *Aspects* (or **Standard**) version of **Transformational-Generative Grammar**. Like the *Aspects* model, it is an "interpretivist" theory within which sentences are assigned a deep-structure representation distinct from their semantic representation, and the transformational rules apply after the insertion of words from the lexicon (Lexical Insertion) in the underlying phrase-markers. It differs from the Standard Model, however, in that it has abandoned the principle that only the deep structure of a sentence is relevant to the determination of its semantic representation. The development of the EST from its earliest version of 1971 (N. Chomsky, *Deep structure, surface structure and semantic interpretation*) to its 1976 version (presented in Chomsky's *Reflections on Language*) can be described as the progressive devaluation of the notion of deep structure. Chomsky (1976: chap. 3) came to believe "that a suitably enriched notion of surface structure suffices to determine the meaning of sentences under interpretive rules." In *Reflections on Language*, Chomsky makes it clear that the notion of deep structure is, in principle, no more closely bound up with the principle of semantic interpretation than the notion of surface structure for the process of semantic interpretation.
See **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**

extension – ekstensja, denotacja

By the **extension** (or scope) of a term is meant the class of the things to which it is applied; e.g. the extension of *philosopher* is the set of all the people who are philosophers, and the extension of *capital* is the set of cities like Warsaw, London, Moscow, etc. (cf. **intension**).

extension (**generalization**) **of meaning** – rozszerzenie (zakresu) znaczenia

In **historical linguistics,** a type of **semantic change** resulting from a generalisation from the specific case to the class of which the specific case is a mem-

ber. **Extension** here means an extension of possible *referents* (Pol. *desygnaty wyrazu*) or contexts of occurrence. Good examples of extension provide English words which have historically derived from **proper names**. For example, *bedlam* and *quisling* were originally proper names, and now they are used to refer to a class of objects. *Bedlam* was originally the name of a specific hospital (lunatic asylum) (St. Mary of Bethlehem) in London. Now the word refers to any chaotic situation (Pol. bałagan, harmider), and 'asylum for old people' is now old use (obsolete). In the 16th century an inmate of this asylum came to be called *a bedlam*. And by the latter half of the 17th century the word *bedlam* had become to be used in a generic way for any lunatic asylum (equivalent to the colloquial *madhouse*). *Quisling* is of Norwegian origin. A Norwegian by the name Vidkun Quisling was known for his collaborating with the Nazis during World War Two, and today *quisling* refers to anyone who collaborates with an enemy (McMahon 1996: 178 ff.). Cf. **narrowing/restriction** (of meaning). See **semantic change**, **proper noun** (**name**)

external change – zmiana zewnątrzsystemowa

Any linguistic change in a language which results from the influence of a distinct neighbouring language. Cf. **internal change** (RLT).

external history – historia zewnętrzna (parasystemowa)

The history of a language from the point of view of its documents and its speakers. An **external history** starts with documentation; what texts exist in the language?; where and when were they written?; by whom, and in what circumstances and for what reason? Very commonly an external history includes a **social history** of the language; who spoke the language, and to what social, cultural and political forces were they exposed? What attitudes were expressed by speakers towards particular forms or usages? Cf. **internal history**, **social history** (RLT).

extinct language – język martwy
See **dead language**

extinct (**dead**) **metaphor** – metafora martwa
See **metapor**

extralinguistic – ekstralingwistyczny, pozajęzykowy

In its most general sense, the term refers to anything in the world (other than language) in relation to which language is used – the **extralinguistic situation**. The term **extralinguistic features** is used both generally, to refer to any properties of such situations, and also specifically, to refer to properties of communication which are not clearly analyzable in linguistic terms,

e.g. gestures, tones of voice. Some linguists refer to the former class of features as **metalinguistic**; others refer to the latter as **paralinguistic**.
See **paralinguistic system**

exophoric reference – odniesienie egzoforyczne
See **coherence**

exotic language – język egzotyczny

Any language which is substantially different in structure from your own (RLT).

experiencer – eksperienser, doświadczający

A term used in grammar and semantics to refer to the **case** of an entity or person psychologically affected by the action or state expressed by the verb, as in *John felt happy*, *The book interested him*. The term is used as part of the discussion of **thematic roles** within certain theoretical perspectives. In later versions of **Case Grammar**, it replaced the **Dative** case.
See **Case Grammar**, **thematic role**

explanatory adequacy – adekwatność wyjaśniająca

A term introduced into the theory of grammar by N. Chomsky in his *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965); the term refers to the theory of a particular language which allows to choose from among the competing grammars of the language the one that is the best, i.e. **adequate**. Cf. **descriptive adequacy**, **observational adequacy**.

explicit performative utterance – wypowiedź performatywna explicite
See **performative utterance**

extraposition n., **extrapose** v. – ekstrapozycja

The process of moving a word, phrase or clause to a position in a sentence which is different from the position it usually has. For example, the subject of some sentences can be moved to the end of the sentence. Consider:
1. **Trying to get tickets** *was difficult.*
2. *It was difficult* **trying to get tickets**.
In (2), *it* is called **anticipatory subject** (also **extrapositive** *it*) and the moved (**extraposed**) clause *trying to get tickets* the **postponed subject**. In the **Extended Standard Theory**, **extraposition** is one of the optional **transformational rules**.
See **Extended Standard Theory** (**Model**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar** (**EST**), **transformational rule**

face – twarz

A term used in **pragmatics** referring to a person's self-image. The term is used in the analysis of **politeness** phenomena. **Positive face** is the need to be accepted by others, to be treated as a member of the same group, and to know that his or her **face wants** are shared by others. **Negative face** is the need to have freedom of action, and not to be imposed on by others. As used here "negative" does not mean 'bad', it is the opposite pole from "positive" (Yule 2000: 60–61).
See **pragmatics**, **politeness phenomena**

face-threatening act – akt zagrożenia dla twarzy

A speech act that is potentially threatening to the **face** of a speaker or hearer or threatening to the speaker's or hearer's freedom of action. For example, apologies are potentially threatening to the good image of the speaker, while complaints are threatening to the good image of the hearer; requests potentially threaten the freedom of action of the hearer, while promises threaten the freedom of action of the speaker. In Brown and Levinson's theory of **politeness**, potential threat to face is also influenced by **social distance** and power relationships between speaker and hearer (JCRandRSch).
See **face**, **politeness**, **social distance**

factive verb – czasownik faktywny

For example, verbs like *realize, regret, criticize*, etc. are **factive verbs**, i.e. verbs which imply the truth of what is conveyed by their complement clauses (*I realized that Mary was ill* implies 'Mary was ill'). And verbs like *think*, *hope*, *believe,* etc. are **non-factive**, since they do not carry the implication that their complement clauses are true (*I thought that Mary was ill* does not necessarily imply 'Mary was ill').

facultative rules – reguły fakultatywne
See **optional (facultative) transformational rule**

falling intonation – intonacja opadająca
See **rising intonation**

falling-rising tone – ton opadająco-rosnący
See **tone unit**

falling tone – ton opadający
See **tone unit**

false cognates, **false friends** – „fałszywi przyjaciele", homonimy między-
językowe
See **faux amis**

family resemblance – podobieństwo rodzinne

A notion in **prototype theory** in which a particular member of a **category** can
be assessed as to how well it reflects the **prototype structure** of the category
it belongs to. This is achieved based on how many salient attributes belonging
to the **prototype** the category member shares. The degree of overlap between
shared attributes reflects a category member's degree of **family resemblance**.
For instance, an ostrich cannot fly so lacks a salient attribute associated
with the prototype structure of the category BIRD. However, it shares other
salient attributes, such as having a beak and wings. Thus, it exhibits family
resemblance but does not exhibit the same strength of family resemblance as
a robin, for instance, which can fly (VE).
See **cognitive linguistics**, **category**, **prototype**, **prototype structure**, **proto-
type theory**

family tree – drzewo genealogiczne rodziny języków

A graphical representation of the structure of a **language family**, showing
clearly the posited sub-groupings of the family. Family trees have the great
advantage of representing both **ancestor** and **descendant languages** simulta-
neously. The **family tree** concept was introduced by August Schleicher (1871).
See also **Family Tree Theory**.
Cf. a family tree of the Germanic languages:

```
                          Germanic
              ┌──────────────┼──────────────┐
      North Germanic    West Germanic      Gothic
            │                │
      Icelandic          English
      Norwegian          Frisian
      Swedish            Dutch
      Danish             Flemish
                         Afrikaans
                         Low German
                         Standard German
                         Yiddish
```

See **ancestor language**, **descendant language**
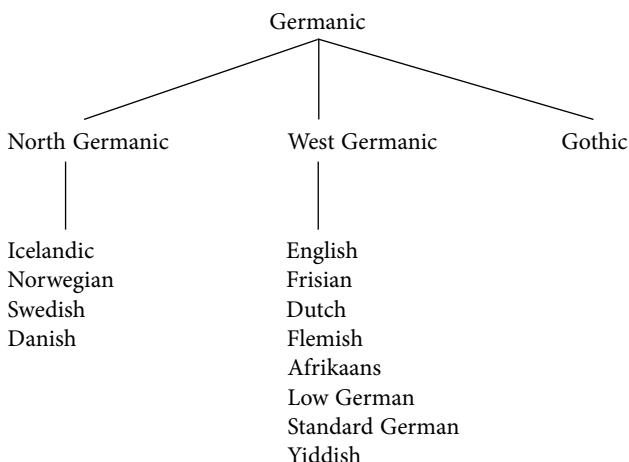
Family Tree Theory – teoria drzewa genealogicznego

Formulated by August Schleicher (1821–1868), the theory assumes that languages change in regular, recognizable ways (the **regularity hypothesis**) and because of this, similarities among languages are in a "genetic" relationship among those languages (the **relatedness hypothesis**). See also Robins (1967: 178 ff.).

faux amis – „fałszywi przyjaciele", homonimy międzyjęzykowe

Words which have the same or very similar form in two languages, but which have different meanings; e.g. English *magazine* and Polish *magazyn*, Polish *zapomnieć* and Russian *zapominat* 'to remember'.

feedback – informacja zwrotna

Any information that provides information on the result of behaviour. In **discourse analysis**, **feedback**, given while someone is speaking, is sometimes called back channelling; for example, comments such as *uh, yeah, really*, smiles, headshakes, and grunts that indicate success or failure in communication. In teaching, feedback refers to comments or other information that learners receive concerning their success on learning tasks or tests, either from the teacher or other persons (JCRandRSch).
See **discourse analysis**

felicity (**happiness**) **conditions** – warunki fortunności

The term used in **Speech Acts Theory** to refer to the circumstantial conditions that allow a speaker to make a successful speech act. For example, in a directive speech act like *Get out of here*, the speaker must be in a position to give commands to people lower in rank.
See **Speech Act Theory**

feminine gender – rodzaj żeński
See **grammatical gender**

field methods – metody badań terenowych

Techniques used for the recording and analysis of languages which the linguists themselves cannot speak and which have not been committed to writing. For example:
1. The recording of speakers to obtain speech samples for analysis of sounds, sentence structures, lexical use, etc. The people recorded may be native speakers of a particular language or speakers using a second language.
2. Interviews, e.g. in bilingual or multilingual communities, to obtain information on language choice and/or attitudes to language.
The collection and use of data plays an important part in the research work of many applied linguists and sociolinguists.

figure of speech – figura retoryczna

A word or phrase which is used for special effects, and which does not have its usual or literal sense. The two most common **figures of speech** are the **simile** and the **metaphor**. Apart from these, there are **metonymy**, **synecdoche**, **allegory**, etc.
See **simile**, **metaphor**, **metonymy**, **synecdoche**, **allegory**

final state – stan końcowy
See **finite state grammars**

Finno-Ugric languages – ugrofińskie języki

The largest branch of the **Uralic** family of languages, consisting of two branches: **Fennic** (also **Finnic**) and **Ugric**. The Uralic family occupies much of northern Europe and Siberia and also a sizeable area of central Europe. The **Finno-Ugric** group of languages includes: Hungarian (or Magyar), Estonian, Finnish, Lapp, and some groups of Siberian tongues.

finite clause – zdanie osobowe

A clause containing a **finite verb**.
See **finite verb**

finite state grammars – gramatyki skończenie stanowe

The simplest grammars that are capable of **generating** an infinite set of sentences by means of a finite number of **recursive rules** operating upon a finite vocabulary. These grammars are based on the view that sentences are generated by means of a series of choices made from left to right: that is to say, after the first, or leftmost element has been selected, every subsequent choice is determined by the immediately preceding elements. According to this conception of syntactic structure, a sentence like *This man has brought some bread* might be generated as follows. The word *this* would be selected for the first position from a list of all the words capable of occurring at the beginning of English sentences. Then *man* would be selected as one of the words possible after *this*; *has* as one of the words that can occur after *this* and *man*; and so on. The grammar can be thought of as a machine (or device), which moves through a finite number of internal "states" as it passes from the initial state to the final state. This type of grammar, of course, generates only a finite number of sentences, and as such is not even **observationally adequate**.
See **generate**, **recursive rules**, **observational adequacy**

finite verb – osobowa forma czasownika

A form of the verb which is marked to show that it is related to a subject in **person** and/or **number**, and which shows **tense**. A **non-finite verb** form is not

marked according to differences in the person or number of the subject, and has no tense. For example, Eng. *want, wants, wanted* are **finite verb** forms, and *to want, wanting* are non-finite verb forms.
See **person**, **number**, **tense**

first language – język ojczysty, pierwszy język

Usually a **first language** that is acquired at home. **Mother tongue** is another term for **first language**. Cf. **second language**.

first language acquisition – akwizycja języka ojczystego
See **Language Acquisition Device**

Firthian linguistic theory – Firthowska szkoła (teoria) lingwistyczna

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, but that different systems may need to be set up at different places within a given level of description. Other central Firthian notions include his **contextual** theory of meaning, with its strong emphasis on the social **context of situation**; **prosodic** (as opposed to phonemic) **phonology**, and **collocation**. Relatively little of Firth's teaching was published, but many of his ideas have been developed by a **neo-Firthian** group of scholars, whose main theoretician is M.A.K. Halliday, Professor of General Linguistics in the University of London from 1965 to 1970 (DC).
See **context of situation**, **prosodic phonology**, **collocation**

Firthian theory of meaning – Firthowska teoria znaczenia
See **contextual theory of meaning**

fixed accent – akcent stały

Examples of well-known languages with a **fixed accent** are: Latin, where the place of the accent is generally determined by the length of the penultimate syllable; Polish, where the accent (generally) occurs on the next to last syllable, and Czech, where it falls on the initial syllable of the word.
See **free accent**

florilegium (**florilegy**) – florilegium

Literally, an anthology, but the term is occasionally used in philological work to denote a collection of quotations from a variety of authors expressing opinions on a matter under discussion (RLT).

focus, **rheme** – remat, ogniskowa
See **word order**

folk etymology, **popular etymology** – etymologia ludowa

Folk etymology is a form of morphological reanalysis whereby speakers perceive a morphologically unanalysable word as containing at least one recognisable component. A good example is English *bridegroom*. English once had a word *guma*, meaning 'man', and this was compounded with *bryd* 'bride' to give *brydguma*, literally 'brideman'. With time, however, the word *guma* dropped out of the language, and *bridegoom* came to seem mysterious. As a result, the puzzling second element was altered to *groom*. We thus obtained *bridegroom*, in which the second element is at least familiar, if not obviously very sensible (Trask 1996: 35).

foot – stopa

In **prosody**, the term denotes a division in verse that consists of a certain number of syllables (or pauses) one of which is stressed and one or more syllables are unstressed.
See **prosody**

foreign language – obcy język

A language which is not the **native language** of large numbers of people in a particular country or region, is not used as a medium of instruction in schools, and is not widely used as a medium of communication in government, media, etc.
See **native language**

forensic linguistics – językoznawstwo kryminalistyczne (sądowe)

A branch of **applied linguistics** that employs linguistic techniques to investigate crimes in which language data forms part of the evidence, such as in the use of grammatical or lexical criteria to authenticate police statements. The field of **forensic phonetics** is often distinguished as a separate domain, dealing with such matters as speaker identification, speaker profiling, tape authentication, and the decoding of disputed utterances.
See **applied linguistics**

form – forma

(1) **form** v. **substance**. In this use the term refers to the overall linguistic organization (or structure) of speech or writing, as opposed to the physical realization of language in phonic or graphic **substance**.

(2) **forms** (of a unit). In this use, the term refers to the variant realizations of a linguistic unit (forms of the unit, e.g. the **forms** of the verb *walk* are *walk, walking, walked, walks*).

(3) **form-class**. In this use, the term refers to a set of forms displaying similar or identical grammatical features; e.g. *walk, come, see,* etc. are part of the **form-class** of verbs, as they have similar morphological characteristics and syntactic **distribution**. Phonological/grammatical criteria which identify units and classes are known as **formal criteria**. "Formal" here is also contrasted with the "notional" approach of traditional grammar, which characterizes linguistic units in terms of universal notions, as, e.g., in the definition of a sentence as 'the expression of a complete thought.'

(4) **form v. meaning/function**. In its most general sense, it refers to the abstract phonological and/or grammatical characterization of language, as opposed to **meaning**, as in such phrases as 'linguistic form', 'grammatical form', 'one form –one meaning'.
See **distribution**

formal a. – formalny

In linguistics, the term is used in at least the following different senses: (1) with reference to the **phonological** structure of language, in contrast with the **semantic** structure (by virtue of the traditional distinction between the 'form' and its 'meaning'; (2) with reference to the phonological, grammatical and semantic structure of language as distinct from the 'medium' in which language is realized or the conceptual and physical continuum 'structured' by lexical elements of language (in this sense, it is opposed to 'substantial', by virtue of the Saussurian distinction of '**substance**' and '**form**'; (3) as equivalent to 'formalized' or '**explicit**', in contrast with 'informal' or '**intuitive**'; (4) in opposition to '**notional**' in the sense in which this latter term is used with reference to **notional grammar**.
See **phonology**, **semantics**, **substance**, **form**, **explicitness**, **notional grammar**

formal criteria – kryteria formalne
See **form**

formal grammar – gramatyka formalna

In so far as **grammar** concentrates on the study of linguistic **forms** (their structure and **distribution**), it may be referred to as **formal grammar** (as opposed to **notional grammar**). The term also refers to the use of formalised techniques of logic and mathematics in the analysis of language.
See **grammar**, **form**, **distribution**, **notional grammar**

formal logic – logika formalna

The branch of logic that studies the validity or correctness of conclusions by investigation of their structural relation to other **propositions**.
See **proposition**

formal universals – uniwersalia formalne

The general principles (or constraints) which determine the form of the rules and the manner of their operation in the grammars of particular languages. For example, the transformations which relate various sentences and constructions, Chomsky claims, are invariably **structure-dependent** in the sense that they apply to a string of words by virtue of the organization of these words into phrases. This is what Chomsky means by **Structure-Dependency Principle**, which is one of the **formal universals** postulated by Chomsky in *Language and Mind* (p. 51). This principle implies that all grammatical rules operate on structures, not on individual words. For example, the rule that accounts for direct questions in English (called "Subject-Auxiliary Inversion" in Burton-Roberts 1998: 142) states: "In order to form a direct question invert the subject NP with the following auxiliary verb, introducing the auxiliary verb *do*, when there is no other." When applied to the structure underlying the sentence *That man will help you*, the rule will generate the interrogative sentence *Will that man help you?* The Subject-Auxiliary Inversion rule is structure-dependent in the sense that you cannot apply it to a given sentence unless you know what the syntactic structure of the sentence is, i.e. what the grammatical categories and phrases the words in the sentence belong to. Thus, you must know whether the sentence contains an NP, whether this NP functions as the subject of the sentence, whether the sentence has an Auxiliary, and whether the NP is immediately followed by the auxiliary element. A structure-independent rule (in Burton-Roberts it is called "Second-Word Preposing") would fail to account for inversion in direct questions in English. What the rule states is that what we must do to account for direct questions in a language like English is that we move the second word in a declarative sentence to the front of the sentence-initial word. It is easy to see that although this rule will work for sentences like, say, *Bill can help you* (*Can Bill help you?*), it won't work for a multitude of other structures like, for instance, our earlier example *That man will help you*. When Second-Word Preposing is applied to it, the result is an ungrammatical sentence: **Man that will help you*. According to Chomsky, what appears to be valid structure-independent operations are special instances of more general structure-dependent operations. Some of the other principles, or constraints, that Chomsky and his associates proposed are: the **A-Over-A principle**, **Coordinate Structure Constraint**, and **Sentential Subject Constraint**. Two types of language universals are distinguished: **absolute language universals** (also called **nonstatistical universals**) and **relative language universals** (also called **statistical universals**). Absolute universals are so called since they operate in all languages without exception. Relative (statistical) universals are general tendencies in language; there may be principled exception. An example of this kind of universals is the so-called Consistent Serialization Principle, according to which all languages tend to place modifying elements either consistently before or consistently

after modified elements (their **heads**). For example, languages like English generally place their modifiers before heads, they are from this point of view "pre-modifying" languages. French, with its general tendency to place modifiers after heads, is a good example of "post-modifying" language. Though the Consistent Serialization Principle represents a general word-order tendency in the languages of the world, there are many exceptions to it. There are languages which represent "mixed" types, they put some modifiers before, others after heads (Greek and Basque can serve as examples of such languages).
See **language universals**, **transformational rules**, **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **A-Over-A principle**, **Coordinate Structure Constraint**, **Sentential Subject Constraint**, **head**

formation rules – reguły formacji (tworzenia)

A term from **formal logic** used in relation to the **generative semantics** model of linguistics to refer to the initial set of rules which generate the **semantic representations** of sentences.
See **formal logic**, **generative semantics**, **semantic representation**

formative – formatyw

In **Generative Grammar**, the minimal grammatical unit in a language. For example, in *The drivers started the engines* the **formatives** are:

> *the + drive + er + s + start + ed + the + engine+ s*

As used here, formative is an alternative to the term **morpheme**.
See **Generative Grammar**, **morpheme**

fortition, **strengthening** – usilnienie

A term used in phonology to refer to a strengthening in the overall force of a sound, whether diachronically or synchronically; opposed to **lenition**. Typically, **fortition** involves the change from a **fricative** to a **stop**, or a voiced to a voiceless sound.
See **fricative consonant**, **lenition**, **stop (plosive) consonant**

fossilized form – forma skostniała
See **frozen form**

frame – rama

(1) In **Case Grammar,** the array of cases which specifies the structural context for verbs is known as **case frame**.
See **Case Grammar**

(2) In **Cognitive Grammar**, a schematization of a knowledge structure, which is represented at the conceptual level and held in long-term memory and which relates elements and entities associated with a particular culturally embedded scene, situation or event from human experience. For example, a "restaurant frame" is our knowledge that a restaurant is a place where waiters, waitresses, and cooks work, where food is served to customers, and where customers sit at tables, order food, eat, pay the bill, and depart. Frames constitute "global patterns" of common sense knowledge about some central concept, such that the lexical item denoting the concept typically evokes the whole frame. In essence, frames are static configurations of knowledge. Knowledge encapsulated in a frame is knowledge which is shared, or which is believed to be shared, by at least some segment of a speech community. "In principle, *any* scrap of knowledge, even the most bizarre, can get absorbed into a frame, provided the association is shared by a sufficient number of people" (Taylor 1995: 89).
See **Cognitive Grammar**

frame semantics – semantyka ramowa

An approach to **cognitive lexical semantics**, developed by Charles Fillmore. Attempts to uncover the properties of the structured inventory of knowledge associated with words, and to consider what consequences the properties of this knowledge system might have for a model of **semantics**. The central construct in **Frame semantics** is that of the **semantic frame** (VE).
See **cognitive lexical semantics**, **semantics**, **semantic frame**

free accent – akcent swobodny

The accent may be "free" in the sense that the syllable on which it falls is not generally determined by the phonological structure of the word or its grammatical classification (e.g. Russian is a "free accent" language).

free morpheme – morfem swobodny

Free morphemes can occur alone in a sentence; they are **roots**; they constitute **monomorphemic words**.
See **root**, **monomorphemic word**

free translation – tłumaczenie dowolne (swobodne)
See **translation**

free variation – dystrybucja swobodna
See **distribution**

Frege's principle – zasada Fregego

The principle that the meaning of a composite expression (i.e. a phrase or sentence) is built up from the meanings of its constituent parts. The principle forms the basis of **categorial grammars**, and specifically of **Montague Grammar**. Another term for **Frege's principle** is **compositionality principle**.
See **categorial grammar**, **Montague grammar**

French – francuski język
See **Romance languages**, **Proto-Romance**

fricative consonant – spółgłoska frykatywna (szczelinowa) (trąca), spirant

A consonant articulated with partial closure in the mouth such as to cause audible friction as the air passes through. **Fricatives** are classified as **dental** (/θ/ as in *thick*, /ð/ as in *there*); **labio-dental** (/f/ as in *fat,* /v/ as in *vat*); **velar** (/x/ as in Scottish *loch* or German *auch*); etc., according to the place of partial closure.

Frisian – fryzyjski język
See **Germanic languages**, **Proto-Germanic**

front vowel – samogłoska przednia (jasna) (palatalna)
See **back vowel**

full word – wyraz pełnoznaczny
See **content word**

fronting – uprzednienie

Any phonological change in which a segment comes to be pronounced closer to the front of the mouth than formerly. An example is the fronting of /a/ to /e/ as, e.g., in *man, men*. The opposite is **backing**.
See **backing**

frozen (fossilized) form – forma skostniała

A linguistic form representing a pattern or a construction which was formerly **productive** in the language but which has dropped out of use in general, remaining in only one or two cases, yet without being regarded as an **archaism**: e.g. the former English perfect in *be*, as in *he is come*, has disappeared except in the **frozen form** illustrated by *She is come,* and the former use of finite *be*, as in *if she be fair*, is now generally dead except for one or two **frozen forms** like *be that as it may* and *so be it* (RLT).
See **productivity**, **archaism**

full stop, **period** – kropka

The **full stop** indicates the close of a complete sentence (*The sun rose.*), and it is also used after most abbreviations and after initial letters (*N. Chomsky*, *M.A.*, *Ph.D.*, etc.).
See **punctuation marks**

functional calculus – rachunek funkcyjny
See **predicate calculus**

function (**grammatical**, **structured**) **word** – wyraz funkcyjny (pomocniczy)

Function (**grammatical**, **structured**) **words** are words which have little meaning on their own, but which signal grammatical relationships in and between sentences, i.e., they have grammatical meaning. Functions words include, among others: articles, conjunctions, prepositions, etc. They are opposed to **content/lexical words**, i.e., words which refer to things, qualities, states and actions; they have lexical meaning.
See **content words**

functional change – zmiana funkcjonalna

In **historical linguistics**, the alternation of the role of a linguistic feature over time, especially when a sound takes on or loses the status of a **phoneme**. For example, in OE, /s/ was heard as /z/ only between voiced sounds, but in modern English /z/ has become a phoneme in its own right, as shown by such contrasts as *Sue* v. *zoo* (DC).
See **historical linguistics**, **phoneme**

functional grammar (**FG**) – gramatyka funkcjonalna

A general theory of the grammatical organization of natural language based on the **functional** view of the nature of language. It is a sentence grammar envisaged as part of a wider theory of verbal interaction and ultimately as a sub-component of a model of a natural language using system in which the human linguistic capacity is linked to epistemic, logical, perceptual and social capacities. The functional orientation of FG is the key feature of the theory permeating all facets of the structure and workings of the grammar including the choice of language facts to be described, the nature of the descriptive apparatus and most importantly the range and form of explanations proposed for the observed language data and the suggested analyses of these data. FG is opposed to the formal paradigm as represented by mainstream of American linguistics, in particular the grammatical tradition of Noam Chomsky and his associates. In FG functional labels are assigned priority over **categorial** ones. Although FG is primarily a theory of **syntax**, its basic theoretical constructs are **semantic**. The initiator and main developer of FG is the Dutch

linguist Simon C. Dik (1940–1995) (*The Theory of Fuctional Grammar, Part I*, 1989, and *The Theory of Functional Grammar, Part II,* posthumously 1997). The grammar arose in the 1970s as a response to the prevalence of transformational generative approaches and was expanded in a series of volumes through the 1980s and 1990s. Dik's theory has been continuously developed by linguists such as Kees Hengeveld and M.A.K. Halliday (*An Introduction to Functional Grammar*, 1994), where Halliday draws on the work of Karl Bühler and Bronisław Malinowski. As Halliday himself says, "a functional grammar is essentially a 'natural grammar', in the sense that everything in it can be explained, ultimately, by reference to how language is used" (1994, p. xiii). FG is thus well suited to language teaching and learning, as it is all about language use. It is about communicative grammar that learners can use in typical situations as they find themselves in as they go about in their daily lives. See **category**, **semantics**, **syntax**

functional load (**yield**) – obciążenie funkcjonalne

For a particular phonemic contrast, the number of linguistic forms which it alone serves to distinguish. For example, English /p/–/b/ contrast has a high **functional load**, distinguishing numerous pairs of words like English *tip–dip*, *at–add*, *tear–dear*, etc., while the /ʃ /–/ʒ/ contrast has a very low functional load confined to a couple of marginal pairs like *Aleutian-alllusion*. The first **opposition** therefore has a high, and the second a low **functional load**, and pairs of phonemes with low functional load are more likely to **merge**, since this would cause less communicative damage. A. Martinet (1962) observes that the primary function of language is communication, and that change must not be allowed to jeopardise communication needs. See also Lyons (1968: 81 ff.). See **opposition**, **merger**

functional shift – przesunięcie funkcjonalne
See **conversion**

functions of language – funkcje języka

The German philosopher and linguist (the author of *Sprachteorie*, 1934) Karl Ludwig Bühler, spoke of three functions of language: the **representational function**, the **expressive function**, and the **impressive function**. The **representational f.** was considered by Bühler to be the basic and most important function of language. This function consists in the use of language as the expression of the extralinguistic reality, which includes actual and fictional facts, i.e. products of our imagination. What is more, language itself can be a part of the extralinguistic reality (language as the object of linguistic description). The representational function of language involves the existence of three elements: the speaker, the linguistic **sign**, and extralinguistic reality. The other terms used to refer to this function are: **cognitive f.** and **symbolic f.** The **ex-**

pressive f. (also called **emotive function**) of language consists in the use of language as the expression of the speaker's own feelings and emotional states. This function of language does not require the presence of the addressee. Expressions such, e.g., as *Ah!, Oh!, Blast!*, etc., swearwords, and the like, tell us something about the speaker's emotional state at the time of utterance. The third function, distinguished by Bühler, the **impressive f.** (also called **conative**) (**interpersonal function** in M.A.K. Halliday's terms) consists in the use of language to establish and maintain social roles; language here is used to influence the addressee's behaviour, or just to get things done. To this list of functions of language Roman Jakobson (1896–1983) added the following functions: **phatic**, **metalinguistic**, and **poetic** functions. The **phatic f.**, referred to in B. Malinowski's (1884–1942) works by the term phatic communion ("the type of speech in which ties of union are created by a mere exchange of words"), includes things such as idle chatter, small talk, polite conversation about anything and everything, and the like. The phatic function of language is of particular relevance to the sociolinguistic analysis of language functions. The **poetic f.** (also called **aesthetic function**) is orientated towards the linguistic **text**; it focuses on its phonological, grammatical and lexical properties. For example, the poetic function of language manifests itself in **puns** found in literary texts: the following pun *My pony is a little hoarse*, when spoken is ambiguous, as it may mean either that the pony is a small animal or that the pony has a throat infection. We have to do with the **metalinguistic function** of language when language is used to describe a language; for example, the statement "The word group *the tall boy* is a noun phrase and functions as the subject of the sentence *The tall boy is a big liar*" is a **metalinguistic** statement (see **sign**, **text**, **pun**). Neither Bühler nor Jakobson mention the **communicative function** of language, a function distinguished by the French linguist André Martinet (1908–1999), who considered it to be the most important language function. Martinet viewed language, first and foremost, as an instrument of social communication. This function involves four elements: the speaker, extralinguistic reality, linguistic sign, and the addressee. It is an all-pervasive function, as it often overlaps with the other functions. As it is, most utterances accomplish more than just one function at the same time. For example, an utterance such as *I'm not inviting the Smiths again*, when spoken with appropriate intonation, signals an intended future action (cognitive function), may show that the speaker does not like the Smiths (expressive function), it is part of a conversation in which the interlocutors share a relationship that permits such expressions of dislike (impressive function).

functional sentence perspective (**FSP**) – funkcjonalna perspektywa zdania

A type of linguistic analysis associated with the **Prague School** which describes how information is distributed in sentences. FSP deals particularly with the distribution of **known** (or **old**, **given**) **information** (known as **theme** in FSP)

and **new information** (known as **rheme** in FSP) in discourse. The known information refers to information that is not new to the listener. The rheme is the information that is new to the listener.

For example, consider (1) *John sat in the front seat*, where *John* is the grammatical subject and theme, and in (2) *In the front seat sat John,* where *John* is the subject and rheme. Other terms used to refer to the theme–rheme distinction are **topic-comment**, **background-focus**, **given information**, **new information**.

See **Prague School**

fusion – fuzja
See **coalescence**

fuzzy category – kategoria rozmyta

In **Cognitive Grammar**, a **fuzzy category**, which can be contrasted with a **classical category**, is a category whose members exhibit degrees of **family resemblance**, with the category borders not being clearly defined. For instance, furniture is a fuzzy category in that while "table" and "chair" are clearly members, some people judge artefacts such as "picture" and "carpet" as belonging to this category while for others such objects are better thought of as belonging to a related category such as furnishings. Moreover, context may influence which category we judge entities as belonging to. One characteristic of **prototype categories** is that their boundaries are **fuzzy** (VE).

See **Cognitive Grammar**, **classical category**, **family resemblance**, **prototype category**

Gallicism – galicyzm

A French idiom or expression, translated literally into another language. For example, in Polish *żargon, żeton, gorżetka* (from Fr. *jargon*, *jeton*, *georgette*, respectively).

geminate – geminata, spółgłoska podwojona (długa)

A doubled consonant, a sequence of two consonantal segments identically articulated: e.g. Polish *panna, lekko*, and the like. Phonetically, **geminates** are realized as lengthened consonants.
See **gemination**

gemination – geminacja, podwojenie spółgłosek

Any phonological change in which a simplex segment is converted to a **geminate**. An example is the **gemination** of /b/ in the development of Latin *res publica* into Italian *repubblica*. **Gemination** is one of the types of **fortition.** The opposite is **degemination** (RLT).
See **fortition**, **degemination**

gender – rodzaj

Discussion of this concept in linguistics has generally focused upon the need to distinguish **natural gender** (rodzaj naturalny), where items refer to the sex of real-world entities, and **grammatical gender** (rodzaj gramatyczny), which has nothing to do with sex, but which has an important role in signalling grammatical relationships between words in a sentence (e.g. adjectives agreeing with nouns, etc.). The gender systems of Polish, German, Latin, etc. are grammatical, as shown, e.g. by the form of the Polish demonstrative pronoun: *ten, ta, to*, or of the noun (e.g. nouns ending in –*a* are feminine gender). Grammatical gender is not a feature of Present-day English (as it was of **Old English**, which was an **inflectional** language), though some parts of the language can be analysed in such terms (e.g. the correlation between pronouns, *he/she* co-occurring with *who/whose*, etc., whereas *it* co-occurs with *which)*.
See **inflecting language**, **Old English**

genealogical tree (**of languages**) – drzewo genealogiczne języków

The history of a **language family** may be presented in the form of a **genealogical tree**, analogous to that of a human family. The **proto-language** fills the

place of the common ancestor language, from which the particular languages differentiated. What follows is the diagram of the genealogical tree of the **Romance family** of languages:

Latin

(the Proto-Romance language)

Rumanian Dalmatian Italian Sardinian Raeto-Romanic French Provençal Catalonian Spanish Portuguese
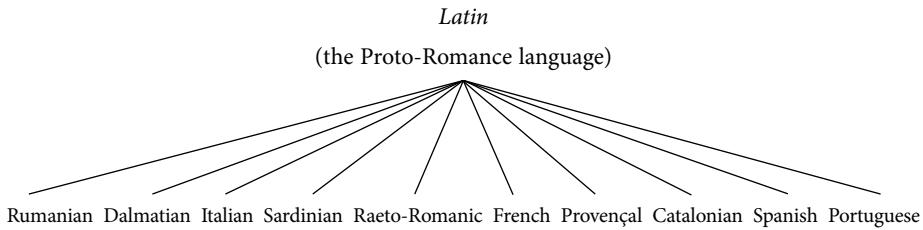
Source: Milewski (1973: 98)
See **proto-language**, **language family**, **Romance languages**

generalisation (**extension**) **of meaning** – rozszerzenie znaczenia

Generalisation of meaning results from a generalisation from the specific case to the class of which the specific case is a member. "Extension" here means an extension of possible referents or contexts of occurrence. Extension increases the number of contexts in which a word may be used, although it reduces the amount of information conveyed. As our illustration of this type of semantic change let us take the French word *panier* 'basket', which comes from the Latin *panarium* 'bread-basket', which itself derived from the Latin noun *panis* 'bread'. When, with time, the connection with 'bread' disappeared, *panier* could be applied to more objects than before, and thus be used in a wider range of contexts. Good examples of extension of meaning provide English words which have historically derived from proper names. Cf. e.g. *bedlam* and *quisling*, originally proper names, which are now used to refer to a class of objects. *Bedlam* was originally the name of a specific hospital (lunatic asylum – St. Mary of Bethlehem) in London. Now the word refers to any chaotic situation. Bedlam, the hospital, was infamous for its brutality and disorder. By the latter half of the 17th-century *bedlam* had begun to be used in a generic way for any lunatic asylum (equivalent to the colloquial *madhouse*).

generalised (**double-base**) **transformation** – transformacja zbiorcza

In **Transformational Grammar**, there are sentences that are derived from the structure underlying two source sentences. The transformations that specify these derived sentences operate simultaneously on two **phrase-markers** (**P-markers**) are therefore called **double-base** or **generalised transformations**. They can be thought of as those rules of a grammar that convert representations of two sentences into that of a third sentence. In addition to the fact that they operate simultaneously on two **P-markers**, generalized transformations provide the **recursive** power of a grammar.
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **phrase-marker**, **recursion**, **recursive rules**

general-purpose dictionary – słownik uniwersalny
See **dictionary**

generate v. – generować

In **Generative Grammar**, the term **generate** (introduced by Noam Chomsky in his work *Syntactic Structures*, 1957) does not mean 'produce', but it is synonymous with terms like **define**, **enumerate**, and **specify**. The grammar generates, and thereby defines as "grammatical" all the sentences of the language under analysis, and does not distinguish between those that have been attested and those that have not. Related terms: **generation**, referring to the process involved, and **generativist**, referring to the practitioner.
See **Generative Grammar**, **Transformational-Generative Grammar**

generation n. – generowanie
See **generate** v.

generative a. – generatywny
See **Generative Grammar** (**Theory**)

Generative Grammar (**Theory**) – teoria (gramatyka) generatywna

The term **generative** itself derives from mathematics, and it was introduced by Noam Chomsky in his book *Syntactic Structures* (1957) to refer to the capacity of a grammar to define (i.e. specify the membership of) a set of grammatical sentences in a language. Technically, a **Generative Grammar** is a set of formal rules which projects a finite set of sentences upon the potentially infinite set of sentences that constitute the language as a whole, and it does this in an explicit manner, assigning to each a set of **structural descriptions**. Related terms are **generate** and **generation**, referring to the process involved, and **generativist** referring to the practitioner. Several possible models of generative grammar have been formally investigated, following Chomsky's initial discussion of three types – **Finite State**, **Phrase-Structure** and **transformational-generative** grammars. The earliest version of Transformational-Generative Grammar (or just transformational grammar), presented in Chomsky's *Syntactic Structures*, emphasised the relationships among sentences that can be seen as transforms or **transformations** of each other, e.g. the relationships between simple active declarative sentences (e.g. *He went to the library*) and negative sentences (*He didn't go to the library*) and interrogative sentences (*Did he go to the library?*) which are accounted for by **transformational rules**. Chomsky's later *Aspects* model of TGG, presented in his *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* published in 1965, specified a **base-component** that generates (i.e. specifies, defines, enumerates) basic syntactic structures called **deep structures**; a **transformational component** that transforms (i.e. changes) those basic structures into sentences called **surface structures**; a **phonological component** assigns to those surface

structures their phonetic representation, so that they can be pronounced; and a **semantic component** dealing with the meaning of sentences. Later models of TGG include, among others: Charles Fillmore's **Case Grammar** (the late 1960s), **Generative Semantics**, the school of thought within generative linguistic theory propounded by several American linguists, primarily George Lakoff, James McCawley, Paul Postal and John Ross in the 1970s, **Government-Binding Theory** (the 1980s and 1990s), a descendant of **Extended Standard Theory**, **Minimalism** (or **Minimalist Programme**), a theory of grammar introduced by Chomsky in 1995 as an advance on Government and Binding Theory.

See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **Extended Standard Theory**, **Case Grammar**, **Government-Binding Theory**, **Minimalist Programme**, **Generative Semantics**

Generative Semantics – semantyka generatywna

An alternative version of **Transformational Grammar** (**TG**), one which differs from the **Standard Model** of N. Chomsky's *Aspects* in that the rules of the semantic component are said to be "generative," rather than "interpretive." According to the standard theory, every sentence has two levels of syntactic structure: deep structure and surface structure. Deep structures are phrase-markers (containing lexical items) that are generated by the rules of the base-component. They are converted into surface structures by the application of an ordered set of transformational rules, some of which apply cyclically. The deep structures serve as input to the phonological component. In the Standard version (*Aspect* model) both the semantic rules and the phonological rules are purely interpretive. The function of the semantic rules is to interpret the output of the base-component by assigning to each sentence a **semantic representation** (or several semantic representations in the case of ambiguous sentences), and the function of phonological rules is to assign to each sentence a **phonetic representation**. The term "interpret" is here used in a technical sense. The semantic interpretation associated with a sentence by the grammar is not its meaning, but a formal representation of its meaning in terms of a set of symbols each of which denotes a universal atomic concept. And a phonetic interpretation of a sentence is not its pronunciation, but a formal representation of its pronunciation in terms of a set of symbols each of which denotes some universal phonetic feature. These symbols are the elements, or primes of the semantic phonetic levels of representation, respectively.

The standard theory is syntactically-based and the **Generative Semantics** model is semantically-based. Whereas the standard theory puts all the generative capacity of the grammar in the syntax (in the base-component), generative semantics puts all the generative capacity of the grammar in the rules of semantic well-formedness. Unlike the standard theory, the generative semantics model draws no distinction between the deep structure of a sentence and its seman-

tic interpretation. According to the generative semantics hypothesis, the deep structure of a sentence is its semantic interpretation; and this is converted into a surface structure by means of the application of a set of transformational rules.
See **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**

generative semanticists – semantycy generatywni

The adherents of the **generative semantics** school of thought within **generative** linguistic theory.
See **Generative Grammar**, **Generative Semantics**

generativist – generatywista

A practitioner of the **Generative Grammar** (**Theory**).
See **Generative Grammar**

genetic affiliation – pokrewieństwo genetyczne
See **genetic relationship**

genetic classification of languages – klasyfikacja genealogiczna (genetyczna) języków

The classification of languages according to their ancestry. Genetically related languages belong to a single **language family**, the structure of which is typically exhibited in a **family tree**.
See **language family**, **family tree**

genetic relationship – pokrewieństwo genetyczne

The relationship which holds between two or more languages which share a single common ancestor, that is, they all started off at some time in the past as no more than regional varieties of that **ancestral language**, but each has undergone so many changes not affecting the others that they have diverged into distinct languages. All the languages sharing such a common ancestor constitute a single **language family**, and all those languages which share a single common ancestor at some intermediate time constitute a single **branch** of that family. **Genetic affiliation** is another term for **genetic relationship** (RLT).
See **ancestor language**, **genetic classification of languages**

Geneva School – Szkoła Genewska

The term refers to a group of linguists based in Geneva who pioneered modern **structural linguistics**. The most important figure of the school was Ferdinand de Saussure (1857–1913). Other important colleagues and students of de Saussure who belong to this school include Albert Sechehaye, Albert Riedlinger, Serge Karcevski, and Charles Bally. The most significant linguistic

book connected with this school is *Cours de linguistique generale*, the main work of de Saussure, which was published by his students Charles Bally and Albert Sechehaye. The book was based on his lectures with this title that de Saussure gave three times in Geneva from 1906 to 1912. De Saussure revolutionized linguistics, made it descriptive and structural. It was de Saussure who first of all emphasized repeatedly the importance of seeing language as a living phenomenon (as against the historical view), of studying speech, and in placing language in a social milieu (as opposed to seeing it as a set of physical features). Though a historical linguist at the beginning, de Saussure detached himself from the tradition of linguistics as a purely historical study. Saussure is responsible for the introduction into linguistics of the following notions:
1) synchrony and diachrony,
2) langue and parole,
3) linguistic sign,
4) value of a linguistic sign,
5) syntagmatic and paradigmatic kinds of relatonship (https://en.wikipedia.org/viki/geneva-School).

See **synchrony**, **diachrony**, **langue**, **parole**, **linguistic sign**, **paradigmatic relations**, **syntagmatic relations**

genitive case – dopełniacz, genetivus

Inflected or prepositional *of*-constructions that express a variety of semantic relationships including possession, measurement, and part/whole, e.g., *Paul's coat, the roof **of** the car*, etc.
See **case**

genre – genre, gatunek mowy

A particular type or style of literature, art, film or music that you can recognize because of its special features (cf. *Advanced Learner's Dictionary*). The tradition of the concept **genre** leads back to Aristotle, who in his work *Poetics* established the following three genres: comedy, tragedy, and epic. Nowadays this term is used to refer to distinctive pieces of either spoken or written discourse including both literary and non-literary texts. Wilkoń (2002: 200) defines genre as "a type of closely related texts which have the same (or similar) function, semantic and formal distribution of certain linguistic features. Additionally, the texts are connected with the culture and the pragmatic communication of a given ethnic community." The author stresses the significance of conventionalization of texts and accordingly distinguishes the following types of genres: (a) codified genres, which are usually written official documents, such as diplomas, identity cards, etc. (b) fixed genres, which are usually written and fulfil important social functions, such as law acts, school status, etc. (c) genres which have not been conventionalized, e.g. quarrel, private prayer, and several other types.

geographical classification (**of languages**) – klasyfikacja geograficzna (języ-ków)
See **classification of languages**

geographical linguistics

Another term for **linguistic geography**.

geographical method – metoda geograficzna

In **historical dialectology**, a method in which conclusions are drawn concerning the courses of language boundaries in the distant past on the basis of the present courses of these boundaries. The correspondence between the courses of present-day **isoglosses** and their bundles and tribal, political and church boundaries in past centuries is established. Certain conclusions as to the chronology and even the causes of linguistic changes which are reflected in the isoglosses studied can be drawn on the basis of this correspondence (Milewski 1973: 108).
See **historical dialectology**, **isogloss**, **bundle of isoglosses**

German – niemiecki język
See **Germanic languages**, **Proto-Germanic**

Germanic languages – germańskie języki

A major branch of **Indo-European** usually divided into three branches: **Eastern** (Gothic, extinct), **Northern** (Icelandic, Faroese, Norwegian, Danish, Swedish) and **Western** (English, Frisian, Dutch, Afrikaans, German, Yiddish). The Germanic languages are distinguished by, among other things, the **First Germanic Consonant Shift**, the uniform assignment of word-stress to initial syllables, the dental preterite, the presence of extensive **umlaut**, and some distinctive items of vocabulary.
See **Grimm's law**, **First Germanic Consonant Shift**, **umlaut**, **Proto-Germanic**

Germanism – germanizm

A German idiom, expression or a syntactic construction used in another language, e.g. English *kindergarten* (from Ger. *Kindergarten*), *hamburger* (Ger. *Hamburger*), *Blitz* (Ger. *Blitzkrieg*), *gestalt* (Ger. *Gestalt*), etc., Polish *szlafmyca* (Ger. *Schlafmütze*), *szlafrok* (Ger. *Schlafrock*), *klajster* (Ger. *Kleister*), *fach* (Ger. *Fach*), etc.

Germanist – germanista

A student of or specialist in German life or Germanic linguistics and literature.

gerund – gerundium

This refers to a particular use of *-ing* forms in which they can be used as subjects or objects/complements of verbs or prepositions, e.g., *writing* is a gerund in *She was annoyed at my writing to her mother.*

Gestalt – gestalt, postać

The central notion in the movement known as **Gestalt psychology**; any of the integrated structures, or patterns that make up all experience and have specific properties which can neither be derived from the elements of the whole nor considered simply as the sum of these elements.
See **Gestalt psychology**

Gestalt psychology – gestaltyzm, psychologia postaci

A school of psychology, developed in Germany, which affirms that an experience consists of **Gestalten** (i.e. organized wholes), and that the response of an organism to a situation is a complete and unanalyzable whole rather than a sum of the responses to specific elements in the situation.
See **Gestalt**

glide – półsamogłoska
See **semi-vowel**

gloss – glosa

A note of comment or explanation accompanying a text, as in a footnote or margin.
See **glossary**

glossary – glosariusz, glosarium

A list of difficult, technical (subject-specific) or foreign terms with definitions or translations, as for some particular author, field of knowledge, etc. Often included in alphabetical listing at the end of a textbook.
See **gloss**

glossator – glosator

A person who writes textual **glosses**.
See **gloss**

glossematics – glossematyka

An approach to language developed primarily by L. Hjelmslev (1899–1965) and associates at the Linguistic Circle of Copenhagen in the mid-1930s. The novel name was a reflection of the originality of the school's intention to

develop a theory which would be applicable, not just for language, but for general study of the humanities. Under the influence of V. Brøndal, it developed a more philosophical and logical basis than is usual in linguistic theories – before Chomsky, at least – and the precision with which Hjelmslev formulated **glossematic** theory in his *Prolegomena to a Theory of Language* published in 1953, presenting language as a purely deductive system as its most distinctive feature. The book was an exposition of the following theoretical principles of **glossematics**:

1. Linguistic theory must be immanent, i.e. it must interpret language in its own terms, not as a conglomerate of non-linguistic (physical, physiological, psychological, etc.) phenomena, but as a self-sufficient totality, a structure *sui generis*.
2. The theory must be arbitrary, i.e. it must be "a purely deductive system, in the sense that it may be used alone to compute the possibilities that follow from its premises."
3. The theory must also be appropriate in the sense that it must introduce premises which fulfill the conditions for application to certain empirical data, i.e., those objects that people agree to call languages.
4. The theory aims at providing a procedural method by means of which certain objects can be described. The description must be empirical, i.e., self-consistent, exhaustive, and as simple as possible (1953: 12–17).

One of the main features of glossematics, compared with other trends of structural linguistics, is the rigour with which it combines the two dichotomies of form and substance, and of expression (*signifiant*) versus content (*signifié*), obtaining four strata: content form and expression form, content substance and expression substance (Lepschy 1970: 71 ff.).

glossogenetics

Another term for **glottogony**.

glottal stop – zwarcie krtaniowe

A sound made in the larynx, due to the closure or narrowing of the **glottis**, transcribed [ʔ]. In some varieties of British English, a **glottal stop** is used instead of a /t/ in words like *bottle* and *matter*. In some varieties of American English, a glottal stop (with nasal release) is used instead of a /t/ in words like *kitten* and *button* (JCRandRSch).

glottalisation – glottalizacja

Addition of a glottal closure to a sound, which formerly lacked it, as in the common pronunciation of English *meet* as [miːʔt], or sometimes the conversion of another sound into a **glottal stop**. An example is the conversion of English /t/ to [ʔ] in London and Glasgow, as in *bu*[ʔ]*er* for *butter* (DC).
See **glottal stop**

glottis – głośnia, szpara głosowa

The opening between the vocal cords in the larynx.

glottochronology – glottochronologia

A term in linguistics, referring to the quantification of the extent to which languages have diverged from a common source (**parent language**). Using a method 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 **lexicostatistical** method is regarded as rather controversial by David Crystal (2008). Crystal's position is shared by R.L. Trask (2000), who, like many other critics, dismisses the method as unworkable.
See **lexicostatistics**

glottodidactics – glottodydaktyka

A discipline concerned with the study of the process of language teaching and language acquisition as well as with practical teaching of foreign languages. For some scholars (e.g. Grucza 1979: 6), **glottodidactics** includes both **native language glottodidactics** and **foreign language glottodidactics**.

glottogony, **glossogenetics** – glottogonia, pochodzenie języka

A term sometimes applied to the time period during which human language emerged for the first time, or to that emergence itself.

goal – cel

In **Case Grammar**, the noun or noun phrase which refers to the place to which someone or something moves or is moved. For example, in the sentences: *He loaded bricks on **the truck***, *He loaded **the truck** with bricks, the truck* is the goal.
See **Case Grammar**

goidelic languages – goidelskie języki
See **Celtic languages**

goodness-of-example ratings – ustalenie stopnia reprezentatywności

An experimental means, devised by Eleanor Rosch in the early 1970s, to investigate the **prototype structure** of categories. Rosch conducted a series of experiments in which subjects were asked to provide "goodness-of-example" ratings for between fifty and sixty members of each category. Typically subjects were provided with a seven-point scale. They were asked to rate a particular member of the category along this scale, with a rating of 1 that the member is

highly representative, and a rating of 7 indicating that the entity was not very representative (VE).
See **prototype**, **prototype structure**

Gothic – gocki język

An extinct Germanic language, the only known member of the **eastern branch of Germanic languages**. It died out around the 8th century AD.
See **Germanic languages**, **Proto-Germanic**

governing category – kategoria rządząca
See **government**

government – rząd, składnia rządu, rekcja

In **traditional grammar**, the term refers to a situation where one word (typically a verb or a preposition) in a sentence determines the form of another. For example, in Polish the verb *kłaniać się* requires that its object noun appear in its dative case form, as in *Nie kłaniałem się **tym paniom*** (I didn't bow to these ladies) or in *Poprosił mnie o książkę*, where the preposition *o* **governs** the Accusative case form (*książkę*).

The traditional notion of **government** has been extended in the **Government-Binding Theory** (also in **Dependency Grammar**) in that: (a) not only verbs and prepositions are said to be **governing categories**; (b) not only objects are said to be **governed**, or dependent, categories; (c) not only differences of **case** are accounted for in terms of government. In G-B Theory, the concept of government has been more strictly defined and structured into a complex system to show the relationship of one element of a sentence to another element. For example, the verb *give* in the sentence *She will give them to me* governs *them* because: 1) *give* is a lexical category (the four main lexical categories are: noun, verb, adjective and preposition) and therefore it can be a 'governer' (governing category); 2) they are both within a **maximal projection**, e.g. a verb phrase, and 3) they are in a certain structural relationship to each other. The government of one category by another seems to be a genuinely universal property of natural languages (Lyons 1991: 200–201).
See **traditional grammar**, **Government-Binding Theory**, **case**, **Dependency Grammar**, **projection**, **maximal projection**

Government-Binding Theory (**G-B Theory**) – teoria rządu i wiązania

A theory of language developed by Noam Chomsky and based on his concept of a **universal grammar**. It can be seen as a network of different subtheories which consist of certain **principles** and **parameters** (conditions). Some of the subtheories are:
1. **Binding Theory**: which shows the relationship between noun phrases.
2. **Bounding Theory**: places restrictions on movement within a sentence.

3. **Case Theory**: assigns cases to the noun phrases in the sentence.
4. **Theta-Theory**: assigns semantic roles (such as, e.g., agent, patient, etc.) to the noun phrases in the sentence.
5. **X-Bar Theory**: describes the structure of phrases.

Lyons (1991: 197 ff.) points to the eclectic character of G-B Theory and "the multiplicity of the connections with modern theories, and not least with **traditional grammar**." Lyons (1991: 207) argues that "a great deal of Chomsky's own G-B Theory has developed from, and has incorporated, ideas from rival theories," which is, "as it should be in any active branch of scientific research." See **Universal Grammar**, **principles**, **parameter**

gradual oppositions – opozycje gradualne

Gradual oppositions are those in which the members are opposed to one another on the basis of differing degrees or intensity of a particular feature. They form a chain of several oppositions in the members of which a certain feature appears in greater and greater intensity. The opposition of the vowels /u/:/o/:/a/, for example, constitutes such a chain in respect to the degree in volume, from the minimum degree of intensity of this feature in the vowel /u/, through the medium member /o/, to the maximum member /a/. Cf. **privative oppositions**, **equipollent oppositions**.
See **opposition**

grammar – gramatyka

The term is used in linguistics in several senses:

(1) In one sense, it refers to the linguistic knowledge of the fluent speaker of a language (this kind of knowledge is referred to by **generative grammarians** as **competence**), and thus it constitutes a set of grammatical rules employed by the speaker in his production and interpretation of an infinite set of sentences (cf. N. Chomsky's *Aspects of the theory of syntax*, 1965).

(2) In another sense, by "grammar" is meant a scientific description of the speaker's linguistic knowledge, i.e. his competence.

The definition of "grammar" provided in Richards and Schmidt (2002) is as follows: "A description of the structure of a language and the way in which linguistic units such as words, phrases are combined to produce sentences in the language. It may or may not include the description of the sounds of a language."

In the **traditional grammar** sense, "grammar" refers to a level of structural organisation which can be studied independently of **phonology** and **semantics,** and generally divided into the branches of **morphology** and **syntax.** In this sense, grammar is "the study of the way words, and their component parts, combine to form sentences. It is to be contrasted with a general conception of the subject, where grammar is seen as the entire system of structural relation-

ships in a language, as in such titles as **stratificational** grammar, **generative** grammar, etc. Here "grammar" subsumes phonology and semantics as well as syntax, traditionally regarded as separate linguistic levels." (Crystal 2008). See **traditional grammar**, **stratificational grammar**, **Generative Grammar**, **morphology**, **syntax**

Several types of grammar can be distinguished: **descriptive grammar** (which describes how a language is actually spoken or written, and does not prescribe how it ought to be spoken or written), **contrastive grammar** (where the systems are being compared, such, e.g., as Fisiak et al.'s (1978) *An Introductory English-Polish Contrastive Grammar*), **reference grammar** (or **grammatical handbooks**, such, e.g., as Quirk et al.'s (2002) *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*), **pedagogical grammar** (designed specifically for the teaching/learning a foreign language), **diachronic** (**historical**) **grammar** (e.g. J. Wełna's *A Diachronic Grammar of Old English, Part One: Phonology* (1978)), etc.

grammar discovery procedure – procedura odkrycia gramatyki
See **American Structural School**

grammar translation method – metoda gramatyczno-tłumaczeniowa

A method of foreign or second language teaching which makes use of translation and grammar study as the main teaching and learning activities. The **grammar translation method** was the traditional way Latin and Greek were taught in Europe. In the 19th century it began to be used to teach modern languages such as French, German, and English, and it is still used in some countries today. A typical lesson consists of the presentation of a grammatical rule, a study of lists of vocabulary, and a translation exercise. Because the grammar translation method emphasises reading rather than the ability to communicate in a language, there was a reaction to it in the 19th century (e.g. the **Natural Approach** (**Method**) (JCRandRSch).

grammatical ambiguity – wieloznaczność gramatyczna

Many of the acceptable sentences of English and other languages are **ambiguous**, i.e. they can be interpreted in two or more different ways. For example, the ambiguity of the sentence *They can fish* can be accounted for by the double distributional classification of both *can* (as a modal auxiliary or a transitive verb) and *fish* (as an intransitive verb or a noun). Since the verb phrase in an English sentence may consist of a transitive verb and a noun phrase, or of an intransitive verb preceded by an auxiliary, it follows that our example sentence is analyzable in two ways (is two-way ambiguous). By contrast, the **ambiguity** of the noun phrase *beautiful girl's dress* can be accounted for, not in terms of the distributional classification of the elements *beautiful, girl, dress*, but in terms of a difference of its constituent structure; under one interpretation, 'girl's dress which is beautiful,' the words *girl's* and *dress* form

a constituent; under the other possible interpretation, 'dress of a beautiful girl,' it is *beautiful* and *girl* that make up a constituent. Ambiguity may be a function then of either the distributional classification or constituent-structure of the ultimate constituents, and this is the case not only for English, but many other languages as well.

grammatical category – kategoria gramatyczna

(1) A set of mutually exclusive grammatical functions ascribed to all members of a given part of speech (or word class) and expressed by specific morphological exponents; e.g. the category of **case**, the category of **person**, the category of **mood**, etc. Some grammarians distinguish grammatical categories of the first degree called **syntactic categories** which comprise constituents performing specific functions within a sentence (e.g. subject, predicate, object, etc.), and grammatical categories of the second degree which correspond to the traditional parts of speech (e.g. noun, verb, adjective, etc.). In **Generative Grammar**, the latter categories are referred to as **lexical categories**.
See **category**, **Generative Grammar**

(2) In **Generative Grammar**, grammatical categories (such, e.g., as a sentence, a noun, a verb, a phrase, etc.) are shown by associated abbreviations called **category symbols** such as S, N, NP (for noun phrase), V, etc.
See **Generative Grammar**, **category symbol**, **category**

grammatical competence – kompetencja gramatyczna
See **communicative competence**

grammatical function – funkcja gramatyczna

The relationship that a **constituent** in a sentence has with the other constituents. For example, in the English sentence *Peter threw the ball*, *Peter* has the function of being the **subject** of the verb *threw*, and *the ball* has the function of being the **object** of the verb.
See **constituent**, **subject**, **object**

grammatical gender – rodzaj gramatyczny

In a language which has **grammatical gender**, e.g. Polish, the assignment of a noun to a particular gender group is signaled morphologically by means of an inflectional ending: every singularnoun is either **masculine**, **feminine** or **neuter**. In Polish, adjectives, pronouns, numerals, and verbs in certain tenses and moods change their forms to agree with the gender of the noun. Cf. Polish *dobr-y człowiek* (good man), *dobr-a kobieta* (good woman) and *dobr-e dziecko* (good child).
See **gender**, **natural gender**

grammatical morpheme – morfem gramatyczny

A morpheme performing a grammatical function; for example, in English the *-s*; e.g. in *talks* (*She talks*) is a **grammatical morpheme**, which shows that the verb is the third-person singular present-tense form.
See **morpheme**, **lexical morpheme**, **derivational morpheme**

grammatical (**structural**) **meaning** – znaczenie gramatyczne (strukturalne)

The meaning of **grammatical** structures. It contrasts with **lexical meaning**. C.C. Fries (1954) distinguishes three kinds of 'grammatical meaning': (1) the meaning of grammatical items (typically the minor parts of speech, e.g. prepositions, articles, etc.), (2) the meaning of such grammatical functions as 'subject-of', 'object-of', or 'modifier-of', and (3) the meaning associated with such notions as 'declarative', 'interrogative', or 'imperative' in the classification of different sentence-types.
See **content word**, **lexical meaning**

grammatical subject – podmiot gramatyczny
See **subject**

grammatical word – wyraz gramatyczny

A term sometimes used in word classification for a word whose role is largely or wholly grammatical, e.g. articles, pronouns, conjunctions, auxiliary verbs, etc. are **grammatical words**. Cf. **content** (**lexical**) **word**.

grammaticalisation, **grammaticisation** – gramatykalizacja

According to a recent definition (Hopper and Traugott 1993), **grammaticalisation** is "the process whereby the lexical items and constructions come in certain linguistic contexts to serve **grammatical functions**, and, once **grammaticalized**, continue to develop new grammatical functions." For example, in *careful* the **suffix** *-ful* originates from the adjective *full*. As a suffix, the form *-ful* has gradually acquired the more generalised and abstract sense of "possessing some value to a very high degree." This would explain why derivations with the suffix *-ful* now tend to be restricted to abstract stems and produce adjectives such as the already mentioned *careful* and *hopeful*, *trustful*, and the like. The suffix *-ful* is the opposite of the suffix *-less*, which derives from OE *leas* 'without'. Compare also Polish *będę* in *Jutro **będę** w Warszawie*, where *będę* is employed as a lexical verb, and *będę* in *Zaraz **będę pisał** list do rodziców*, where *będę* occurs as a future tense auxiliary. The term was coined by Antoine Meillet (1866–1936), who defined grammaticalization as "the attribution of a grammatical character to a previously autonomous word" (Meillet 1912/1948 cited in Aitchison 1998: 135).
See **grammatical function**

grapheme – grafem
See **graphemics**

graphemics – grafemika, grafematyka

The study of the relations between vocal symbols of speech (i.e. phonemes) and their written counterparts (i.e. graphemes). A **grapheme** is a graphic symbol (**allograph**) or a set of symbols (**allographic set**) contrasting with all other graphic symbols or sets of symbols or with zero. The founder of the grapheme theory and graphophonemic investigations was the Polish linguist Jan Baudouin de Courtenay (1845–1929).

graphology n., **graphological** a. – grafologia

In linguistics, a term used to refer to the writing system of a language. A **graphological** analysis would be concerned to establish the minimal contrastive units of visual language (defined as **graphemes**, **graphemic** features) using similar techniques to those used in **phonological** analysis. **Graphology**, in this sense, has nothing to do with the analysis of handwriting to determine the psychological characteristics of the writer – an activity for which the same term is often used (DC).
See **grapheme**, **graphemics**, **phonology**

grave accent – gravis, akcent gravis

A mark (`` ` ``) placed over a vowel especially to indicate that the vowel is open or lax, as French *ètè* has a distinct syllabic value, as in English *belovèd,* or that the vowel or the syllable it is in has **secondary stress** or is pronounced with a low or falling **pitch**. The **grave accent** marks the stressed vowel in Italian words, such as *città* or *università*. A grave accent is used most notably in French, Italian, Norwegian, Catalan, Portuguese, Scottish, and Vietnamese. It is rare in English. Cf. **acute accent** (JCRandRSch).
See **pitch**, **secondary stress**

Great Vowel Shift – wielka przesuwka samogłoskowa

In the 15th century the most important change in the sphere of **phonology** was a series of changes affecting long vowels, which caused extensive modifications in the system of Late Middle English long vowels and diphthongs. This process, whose main feature was the raising of the low and mid long vowels is known as the **Great Vowel Shift** (**GVS**). According to Fisiak (1968: 48), "The modifications which led to change of the long-vowel pattern of Middle English began to operate in the second half of the 13th century and were caused by the tendency to eliminate quantity as a **distinctive feature**."
See **distinctive feature**, **phonology**

Grimm's law, **First Germanic Consonant Shift** – prawo Grimma, pierwsza germańska przesuwka spółgłoskowa

The law formulated by Jacob Grimm in 1822, stating the regularity of consonantal sound shifts in the languages of the Teutonic (Germanic) family. This shift, observable and demonstrable with fairly universal regularity, can be summed up as follows: the **Indo-European** aspirates *bh, dh*, and *gh* become in **Germanic**, respectively, *b*, *d*, *g*; the voiced plosives *b*, *d*, *g* become, respectively, the fricatives *f, th* [θ] and *h* (Reszkiewicz 1973).
See **Indo-European languages**, **Germanic**

group genitive – dopełniacz grupowy

A construction in which a complex phrase receives the genitive morpheme -*s*, as in *the Dean **of** Engineering's office*.

hapax, **hapax legomenon** (pl. **hapax legomena**) – hapaks legomenon (pl. legomena)

In **lexicology**, a word which occurs only once in a text, author or extant **corpus** of a language. The expression **hapax legomenon** is from Greek, 'something said only once.'
See **lexicology**, **corpus**

haplology – haplologia

The loss of a whole syllable in a sequence involving duplicated or nearly duplicated syllables. This process has yielded Latin *nutrix* from earlier *nutritrix* and *stipendium* from *stipipendium*. Similarly, in English *interpretative* has become *interpretive*; *phonemicisation* has given *phonemisation*, and, to take one more example, **Old English** *Anglaland* 'land of the Angles' has yielded modern English *England*. Compare also Polish *tragikomiczny* and *tragikokomiczny* 'tragicomic, tragicomical'. See also RLT.
See **syllable**, **Old English**

Hausa – hausa język

The language of commerce of northern Africa. It is the most important language of the **Hausa-Musgu family** of languages. **Hausa** serves as a **lingua franca** in much of West Africa.
See **language family**, **Hausa-Musgu languages**, **lingua franca**

Hausa-Musgu languages – hausa-musgu języki

The languages of this group arose as a synthesis of **Bantu** forms and archaic **Semitic** elements. The most important language of this group is **Hausa**, the language of trade of northern Africa. See also **Hausa**.
See **Bantu languages**, **Semitic languages**

Hawaiian – hawajski język

The **Polynesian** language of the Hawaiians.
See **Polynesian languages**

head (**of a construction**) – nadrzędnik, podstawa, główny człon (konstrukcji)

The **head** (constituent) of a **phrase** is the key (central) word which determines the properties of the phrase. So, in a phrase such as *fond of fast food*, the head

of the phrase is the adjective *fond*, and consequently the phrase is an **adjectival phrase**, and hence can occupy positions occupied by adjectival expressions, e.g., as the complement of *is* in *He is fond of fast food*. As defined here, the term **head** corresponds to S. Jodłowski's term **substrat** (Jodłowski 1976).

headword, **entry word**, **lemma** – wyraz hasłowy, lemat
See **dictionary**

Hebrew – hebrajski język

The traditional language of the Jews. **Hebrew** belongs to the north western branch of the **Semitic languages**, and it is recorded in writing from about the end of the 11th century BC, though the familiar Hebrew alphabet was not developed until some centuries later. The language was spoken in Palestine until about the 3rd century BC, when it died out as a mother tongue in favour of **Aramaic**. The classical written form of the language, known as **Biblical Hebrew**, was used in writing most of the Old Testament. After its disappearance as a spoken language, Hebrew continued to be used as a **liturgical language** by Jews, and it continued to be written in modified forms called Mishnaic Hebrew and later Medieval Hebrew.
See **Semitic languages**, **Aramaic**, **liturgical language**

hedges, **downtoners** – modulanty

Cautious notes expressed about how an utterance is to be taken; e.g. *As far as I know, they're married*, *He couldn't live with her, I guess*. In these expressions *As far as I know* and *I guess* function as **hedges**.

heteronym – heteronim

A term sometimes used in **semantic** analysis to refer to words which display partial **homonymy**, i.e. they differ in meaning, but are identical in form in one medium only (viz. pronunciation or spelling). Examples of **heteronyms** would be **homographs** (e.g. *row* (a boat) and *row* 'a noisy quarrel') or **homophones** (e.g. *threw* and *through*).
See **homonymy**, **homograph**, **homophone**

hiatus – hiatus, rozziew

In **phonetics** and **phonology**, a term referring to two adjacent vowels belonging to different syllables. For example, *seeing*, *neo*, and *way out*. Consider also the Polish *nauka*, *kakao*, *tu urodzony*, *naukowy*. In such cases the vowels are said to be 'in hiatus' (DC).
See **phonetics**, **phonology**

high-rising tone – ton mocno rosnący
See **tone unit**

Hindi – hindi język
See **Hindustani**

Hindustani – hindustani język

Numerically the third of the world's languages; it is a combination of **Urdu**, the official language of Pakistan, and **Hindi**, since 1950 the official language of India. The two varieties of **Hindustani** diverge radically in written form, but come close in spoken form. Whereas Hindi is recorded in **devanagari** (or 'sacred refined') characters inherited from **Sanskrit**, Urdu is written in a Persian form of Arabic. The two dialectal varieties differ in the abstract and technical vocabulary, as a result of the religious differences between Hindi-speaking Hindus and Urdu-speaking Muslims.
See **devanagari**, **Sanskrit**

historical dialectology – dialektologia historyczna

While **dialectology** is concerned with the distribution of languages and dialects at present time, **historical dialectology** studies their distribution in the past, determining changes in the courses of language boundaries over centuries. In achieving this goal, it makes use of **philology** and **relative chronology** as well as the **geographical method**. In this latter method, conclusions are drawn concerning the courses of language boundaries in the distant past on the basis of the present courses of these boundaries.
See **dialectology**, **geographical method**, **relative chronology**

historical (**diachronic**) **linguistics** – językoznawstwo historyczne (diachroniczne)

A branch of linguistics concerned with the evolution of languages from the point of view of the changes that they undergo in the course of time. Classical historical linguistics was chiefly concerned with the study of the **internal history**, but the subject was revolutionised in the 1960s by the introduction of sociolinguistic techniques, and today **external history** is seen as equally important (cf., e.g., Jacek Fisiak 1993. *An Outline History of English. Vol. One – External History*). Cf. **synchronic linguistics**.
See **external history**, **internal history**, **synchronic linguistics**

historic (**dramatic**) **present** – *praesens historicum*

A present tense used in a context where a past tense would normally be used, to create a more vivid effect, to show informality, or to show a sense of friendliness between speaker and hearer. For example, *Do you know what happened to me last night? I'**m sitting** in a restaurant last night when this man **comes up** and **pours** water over me.*

historical pragmatics – pragmatyka historyczna

A general label for any historical linguistic work in which **pragmatics** plays a major role.
See **historical linguistics**, **pragmatics**

Hittite – hetycki język

An **Indo-European** language, long since extinct, has been discovered (deciphered and identified as Indo-European) in comparatively recent times. It was the principal language of the Hittite Empire (occupying the area of Asia Minor and Syria), copiously attested in the middle of the second millennium BC, mainly about 1600–1200 BC **Hittite** is the best-recorded member of the **Anatolian branch** of Indo-European. Because of a great number of features more archaic than those of **Proto-Indo-European** and because of the early date of the records preserved (1600–1200 BC), scholars are tempted to regard Hittite as a **sister language** rather than a **daughter language** of Indo-European. However, as Lehmann (1962: 39) (referred to in Reszkiewicz 1973: 19) suggests, all these archaisms and/or innovations can be explained by assuming that the Hittites were the first to disintegrate from the Indo-European community (RLT).
See **Indo-European languages**, **Anatolian languages**, **daughter language**, **sister language**, **Proto-Indo-European**

holistic approach – metoda holistyczna

An approach to language teaching which seeks to focus on language in its entirety rather than breaking it down into separate components, such as reading, listening, writing, grammar, etc.

holophrase n., **holophrastic** a. – holofraza

A term used in **language acquisition** to refer to a grammatically unstructured utterance, usually consisting of a single word, which is characteristic of the earliest stage (around the age of twelve months) of language learning in children. Typical **holophrastic** utterances include *More!* (intended meaning: 'Give me some more'), *Water!* (intended meaning: 'I want some water'). Other examples: *Dada!, Allgone! There!*, and the like. All children, it would appear, pass through roughly comparable stages in the process of acquiring their native language: the babbling stage, the one-word ('holophrastic') stage, the two-word stage, and so on. What is interesting is the fact that at each stage of the discernibly distinct stages in the process of language acquisition all children (regardless of the cultural and socio-economic environment in which they are being brought up and independently of the language they hear about them) produce utterances of similar structure at the same stage of development (DC).
See **Language Acquisition Device**

homograph – homograf, homonim graficzny

A word having the same spelling as another, but a different origin, meaning and sound, e.g. *lead* 'to guide' as in *Does this road lead to town?*, *lead* 'base metal' as in *Lead is a heavy metal.*
See **homonymy**, **homonym**, **homophone**

homonym – homonim fonetyczny

Word having the same sound and spelling as another, but a different origin and meaning, e.g. *rest* 'repose' (from Old English) and *rest* 'remainder' (from Old French). Other examples of **homonyms** are: *bear* (animal; carry), *ear* (part of body; of corn), etc.
See **homonymy**, **homograph**, **homophones**

homonymy n., **homonymic** a. – homonimia, homonimiczność

A case where several words with different meanings have the same phonological form, as in: *bank1* (the bank of a river), *bank2* (the financial institution where we deposit our money). Here, though there is one phonological form, there are two lexical items (words): *bank1* and *bank2*. The meanings of a **homonym** are totally unrelated, in contrast to a **polysemous word** whose meanings are related. There are two ways in which homonymy comes about. Firstly, related meanings of a once polysemous word have drifted so far apart that there is no noticeable relationship between them. This is, for example, the case with English word *pupil,* used in the senses of (1) 'a scholar', (2) 'iris of the eye'. *Pupil* in both its senses comes from the Latin *pupillus/papilla*, a diminutive of *pupus* ('child'). The pupil of the eye was so called because of the tiny reflection of a human being that can be observed in a person's eye. Alternatively, unrelated words which were once phonologically distinct, in the course of time have become phonologically identical. For example, English word *die*, as a verb it means 'to expire', as a noun 'a cube thrown in games of chance'. The verb *die* derives from the Old English verb *diegan* 'to die', while the noun *die* comes from the Old French noun *de*. See also Lyons (2005: 54 ff.).
See **polysemy**

homophones – homofony

Two or more words that sound the same but have different meanings. They may or may not have the same spelling, e.g., *two/to/too*, *port* ('wine')/*port* ('harbor').
See **homonymy**

homorganic sounds – homorganiczne głoski

These are sounds which have the same **place of articulation**. For example, sounds such as /p/ and /m/, which are bilabial, although one (i.e. /p/) is a stop

and the other (i.e. /m/) a nasal. Sounds involving independent articulations are sometimes referred to as **heterorganic** (JCR and RSch).
See **place of articulation**

honorifics – formy (zwroty) grzecznościowe

These are politeness formulas in a particular language which may be specific affixes, words, or sentence structures. Languages which have a complex system of **honorifics** are, for example, Japanese, Madurese (a language of Eastern Java), and Hindi. Although English has no complex system of honorifics, expressions such as ' would you…', 'may I … ?' and polite **address forms** fulfil similar functions.
See **address form**

Hopi – hopi język

A member of the **Uto-Aztecan family** of languages. Among the family's best known members are, apart from **Hopi**, Nahuatl (the language of the Aztecs), Comanche, Northern and Southern Paiute, Huichol, Pipil, etc. Uto-Aztecan is one of the largest American families in terms of number of languages and number of speakers, and one of the most geographically extended.
See **Uto-Aztecan languages**

Hungarian – węgierski język
See **Finno-Ugric languages**

hybrid n., a. – hybryda

In **morphology**, compound word or derivative with elements from two or more languages, e.g. *television* (Greek *tele* 'far' plus Latin *visio* 'seeing'), *bicyclette* (Latin, Greek, and French).
See **compound word**, **morphology**

hydronym – hydronim

In **onomastics**, the name of a body of water, such as a river or lake. It is a branch of **toponomastics,** also called **toponymy**.
See **onomastics**, **toponomastics**

hydronymy – hydronimia

In **onomastics**, the study of the names of rivers, lakes, and other bodies of water. It is a branch of **toponomastics**.
See **onomastics**, **toponomastics**, **typonymy**

hyperbole – hiperbola, przesadnia, spotęgowanie

A **figure of speech** (from Greek *hyperbole* 'deliberately exaggerated'). Over-statement, such as the use of *fantastic* to mean 'very good', as in *I have a **fantastic** social life*. Many everyday phrases contain a **hyperbole**, such, e.g., as *a flood of tears*, *tons of money*, *as old as the hills*, and the like. The opposite is **litotes**. See **figure of speech**, **litotes**

hypercorrection, overcorrection, hyperurbanism – hiperpoprawność

Hypercorrection occurs when a speaker deliberately tries to adjust his own speech in the direction of another variety perceived as more prestigious but 'overshoots the mark' by applying an adjustment too broadly. For example, this phenomenon takes place when speakers of a non-standard dialect attempt to use the standard dialect and 'go too far', producing a version which does not appear in the standard, e.g. putting a long /a:/ in place of a short /æ/ in such words as *cap*, *mat*, etc. Analogous behaviour is encountered in second language learning; for example, the use of *whom* instead of *who*, in *Whom do you think painted that picture*?, sometimes used by a second language learner who is attempting to speak correctly. Hypercorrection may be looked upon as a kind of **analogy** (JCRandRSch).
See **analogy**

hypernym, **hyperonym** – hiperonim
See **hyponymy**

hyphen n., **hyphenate** v. – łącznik

The **hyphen** (-) is used: 1. To join the parts of a compound word (*coal-pit*, *man-of-war*, etc.). 2. To divide a word at the end of a line (*numer-al*, *sub-ject*, etc.).
See **punctuation marks**

hypocorism n. (**hypocoristic** a.) – hipokoryzm

A term used in linguistics for a pet name (e.g. Harry for Harold), a **diminutive** or a term of endearment (DC).
See **diminutive**

hypocoristic – hipokorystykum, nazwa pieszczotliwa (zdrobniała), zdrobnienie

A **hypocoristic** is a petname, such as *Liza*, *Liz*, *Lizzy*, or *Beth* from *Elizabeth*. Hypocoristics may give evidence of productive patterns of shortening and embellishing words, as with *Shazza* from *Sharon*, but more often they are remnants of old shortening processes, or remnants of children's mispronunciations of names.

hyponym – hiponim
See **hyponymy**

hyponymy – hiponimia

One of the fundamental **paradigmatic relationships** of sense in terms of which the vocabulary is structured. Although the term may be new, the notion of **hyponymy** is traditional enough; and it has long been recognized as one of the constitutive principles in the organization of the vocabulary of all languages. It is frequently referred to as **inclusion**. For example, the meaning of *scarlet* is said to be included in the meaning of *red*, *scarlet* is thus a **hyponym** of *red*, which is a **hypernym** (i.e. a superordinate term). Hyponymy may be defined in terms of unilateral implication. For instance, *X is scarlet* will be taken to imply *X is red*. It may be said then that *red* is superordinate with respect to its hyponyms, i.e. colours like *scarlet*, *crimson*, *vermilion*, etc. (which themselves are **co-hyponyms** of *red*) (Lyons 1968: 453 ff.).
See **paradigmatic relationship**

hypotaxis – hipotaksa, podrzędność

Subordination; syntactic relationship between dependent and independent constructions. For example, **complex sentences** (zdania podrzędnie złożone) are built up on the basis of **hypotaxis**. In this type of sentences the dependent (subordinate) clauses are introduced by **subordinating conjunctions**, such as *that*, *because*, *although*, etc. Clauses which begin with subordinating conjunctions modify subordinate clauses just as adjectives modify nouns, i.e. as a consequence of the incompleteness of the information given, which requires supplementation. Cf. **parataxis**.

hypothesis (pl. **hypotheses**) – hipoteza
See **theory**

Iberian – iberyjski język

An extinct language attested in writing in eastern Spain and southern Gaul from about the 6th to the 1st centuries BC. While its different scripts have been deciphered to various extents, the language itself remains largely unknown. Links with other languages have been claimed, especially the **Basque** language, but they have not been clearly demonstrated to the satisfaction of modern scholarship. See also RLT.
See **Basque**

Ibero-Romance languages – ibero-romańskie języki

The **Romance** languages that developed on the Iberian Peninsula, an area consisting primarily of Spain, Portugal, Gibraltar, and Andorra, and in southern France. Originating in Iberia, the most widely spoken **Ibero-Romance languages** are Spanish, Portuguese, Catalan, and Galician. These languages have their own geographical and local dialects.
See **Romance languages**

Icelandic – islandzki język
See **Germanic languages**, **Proto-Germanic**

icon – ikona
See **sign**

iconicity n., **iconic** a. – ikoniczność (w języku)

The notion of the **icon** has been best developed by the philosopher C.S. Peirce (1839–1914) and can be defined as "a non-arbitrary intentional sign – that is, a designation which bears an intrinsic resemblance to the thing it designates" (Peirce in McMahon 1994: 85). Peirce divides **iconicity** into two types, distinguishing **iconic images** from **iconic diagrams**. Iconic images are signs which directly resemble their referents in some respect; this may be visual, as in the case of statues or paintings, or may not. Iconic images are less important than iconic diagrams for linguistic purposes, but some examples can be found. For instance, in written language many apparently non-motivated signs, like those in modern alphabets, derive ultimately from iconic, pictorial images (for an example see McMahon 1996: 85). There are fewer iconic images in speech, the best example being **onomatopoeia**. Onomatopoeic words mimic some vocal aspect of their referent, but do not do so entirely non-language specifically;

e.g. British cockerels say *cock-a-doodle-doo*, German ones *kikeriki*, French ones *cocolico,* Polish ones *kukuryku*, etc. Iconic diagrams are more relevant for linguistic purposes. An iconic diagram is defined by J. Haiman (Haiman 1980 in McMahon 1994: 86) as "a systematic arrangement of signs, none of which necessarily resembles its referent, but whose relationship to each other mirrors the relationships of their referents." Haiman divides linguistic diagrammatic iconicity into two types, **isomorphism** and **motivation**. Isomorphism probably represents the unmarked, or default meaning of iconicity, referring to a one-to-one, biunique association of form and meaning. When the numerous markers of plurality in **OE** were more or less reduced to -*s*, so that the plural number of nouns is now usually signaled by -*s*, and -*s* means plural, or when OE *bōc–bēc* underwent leveling to the invariant stem *book*, we see a movement to isomorphism.

Iconic motivation embraces widely differing cases where some linguistic form, or set of forms, in some sense mirrors non-linguistic reality. Examples of this are to be found in phonology, morphology, and syntax. The clearest case of iconic motivation in syntax involves the correspondence of linear order of constituents with the temporal order of events. For instance, in Latin *vēnī, vīdī, vīcī* 'I came, I saw, I conquered', the actions described took place in the stated order. In morphology, greater **markedness** of categories seems to correlate with greater length of form. For example, some languages have no explicit marker for singular number (e.g. English *cat, table*, with bare stems), but all languages have at least some markers of the plural (McMahon 1996: 84 ff.). See **referent**, **marked term** (**member**)

ideal speaker – idealny użytkownik
See **idealization**

idealization n., **idealize** v., **ideal** a. – idealizacja

A term used in linguistics to refer to the degree to which linguists ignore certain aspects of the variability in their raw **data**, in order to arrive at an analysis that is as generally applicable as possible. **Idealization** is a major assumption of **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, as it underlies the notion of **competence**. The main aim of a linguistic analysis is to account for the language of an **ideal speaker-hearer** in a homogeneous (i.e. ideal) speech community, which knows the language perfectly and is unaffected by memory limitations, distractions, errors, etc. in actually using the language. While some degree of idealisation is inevitable, if general statements are to be made, the decision as to what can be discounted in carrying out an analysis is often controversial. The linguist cannot take the corpus of attested utterances at its face value, as part of the language to be **generated** by the grammar. He must **idealize** the "raw data" to some degree and eliminate from the corpus all those utterances which the native speaker would recognize, by virtue of his competence, as ungrammatical (DC).

See **linguistic data**, **competence**, **Transformational-Generative Grammar**

ideogram, **ideograph**, **ideographic writing** – ideogram

A graphic sign representing whole words or concepts. The Chinese writing system is often considered to be **ideographic**. For example, in Chinese the **ideogram** 水 represents 'water' (JCRandRSch).
See **ideographic writing**

ideographic writing – pismo ideograficzne

A writing system using symbols (ideograms or ideographs) to represent whole words or concepts. For example, in Chinese writing a foot shape represents 'go' and a sun symbol represents 'wisdom'. Ideographic writing is usually distinguished as a later development from pictographic. See also **pictography**

ideophones – ideofony

A type of **sound symbolism** used to provide a vivid representation of an object or image that has no inherent acoustic qualities, as English *zig-zag*, *shilly-shally*, *topsy-turvy*, etc. Cf. **onomatopoeia**.
See **sound symbolism**

idiolect n., **idiolectal** a. – idiolekt

The language system of an individual as expressed by the way he or she speaks or writes within an overall system of a particular language. In its widest sense, someone's **idiolect** includes their way of communicating: their choice of sentences and the way they interpret the sentences produced by other speakers. In a narrower sense, an idiolect may include those features, either in speech or writing, which distinguish one individual from others, such as voice quality, pitch, and speech rhythm. **Idiolectal** features are particularly noticeable in literary writing as stylistic markers of authorship.

idiom n., **idiomatic** a. – idiom

The term refers to habitual collocations of more than one word, that tend to be used together, with a meaning not readily deducible from the other uses of its component words apart from each other; e.g. English *She went for him hammer and tongs*, *He kicked the bucket*, *She washed her hands of the matter*, etc. Knowledge of such individual features of a language, acquired by long experience, but unnecessary for ordinary intercourse, usually come at the end of one's learning a foreign language; hence a complete or near complete mastery of one is often said to be **idiomatic**. Some idioms preserve in use words that have otherwise become obsolete (e.g. English *to and fro*, *kith and kin*, *waifs and strays*, etc.).

ill-formed – gramatycznie niepoprawny, niegramatyczny
See **well-formed**

ill-formed sentence – zdanie dewiacyjne (niegramatyczne)

In **Generative Grammar** a sentence is **ill-formed** (**deviant**) if it cannot be generated by the rules of a grammar; it is **well-formed** if it can be. The term equally applies to syntax, semantics, and phonology.
See **Generative Grammar**

illocutionary act – akt illokucyjny

Utterance used by the speaker with a certain intention to express some definite force (**illocutionary force** – siła illokucyjna). For example, the utterance *Pass me the salt, please* has the illocutionary force of a request. Illocutionary acts are intentional rule-governed speech acts.
See **Speech Act Theory**

illocutionary force – siła illokucyjna

In **Speech Act Theory** the **illocutionary force** of a sentence describes the kind of speech act which it is used to perform, e.g., a sentence is **declarative** in force if used to make a statement, **interrogative** in force if used to ask a question, **imperative** in force if used to issue an order, etc.
See **Speech Act Theory**

image schema – schemat wyobrażeniowy

In **cognitive semantics**, the term refers to a relatively abstract conceptual representation that arises directly from our everyday interaction with and observation of the world around us. **Image schemas** (also **schemata**) derive from sensory and perceptual experience. They, thus, derive from **embodied experience**. Image schemata are functions of our bodies and of our interaction in the world; image schemata arise in conjunction with our physical and psychological development during early childhood via a process termed "perceptual meaning analysis." The key proponent of the notion of the image schema is Mark Johnson (see his *The Body in the Mind: The Bodily Basis of Meaning, Imagination and Reason*, 1987). In his *Women, Fire and Dangerous Things: What Categories Reveal About the Mind* George Lakoff (1987) discusses the possibility that many areas of experience are metaphorically structured by means of a rather small number of image schemata. Among these, e.g. are the following: (a) containnent; the image schema **profiles** a container with its inside and outside, in the **domain** of three-dimensional space. The image schema is applied to a large number of non-spatial domains. Linguistic forms are conceptualized as containers, e.g. 'put ideas into words', 'empty words', 'the contents of an essay', as are emotional states, e.g. 'be in love', 'fall out of

love', etc. (b) a journey and its component parts, i.e. origin, path, and destination, with possible obstacles and detours on the way; e.g. 'My life isn't getting anywhere', 'He's come a long way', 'We're going round in circles', etc. And just one more example: (c) proximity and distance. Here a schema based on a spatial relation is projected on to non-spatial domains. For instance, degree of emotional involvement and the possibility of mutual influence are understood in terms of proximity; e.g. 'a close friend', 'a close advisor', 'keep one's distance', etc. (VE).
See **cognitive semantics**, **domain**, **profiling**, **embodied experience**

immediate dominance – dominacja bezpośrednia
see **dominance**

immediate constituent – składnik bezpośredni
See **Immediate Constituent Analysis**, **ultimate constituent**

Immediate Constituent Analysis (**ICA**) – analiza składników bezpośrednich

ICA is a technique employed by American descriptivists to establish classes of linguistic elements and ways of their combinability. The term itself was introduced by Leonard Bloomfield in his magnum opus *Language* (1933: 34): "Any English-speaking person who concerns himself with the matter, is sure to tell us that the **immediate constituents** (ICs) of *Poor John ran away* are the two forms: *Poor John* and *ran away*; that each of these is, in turn, a complex form: that the ICs of *Poor John* are *Poor* and *John*, and that the ICs of *ran away* are *ran* and *away*. ICA shows that sentences are not just linear sequences of elements, but are made up of layers of ICs, each lower-level being part of a higher-level constituent. The ultimate constituents are grouped together in a hierarchy of subdivisions." Thus, IC is not any particular kind of form, but a form standing in a particular relationship with another form.
See **American Structural School**

imperative mood – tryb rozkazujący, imperativus

One of the three **moods** distinguished in grammars of English. The **imperative mood** is represented by one form only (e.g. *come*), without any suffix or ending. It has no person, number, tense or aspect distinctions and is limited in its use to one type of sentence only, viz. **imperative sentences**. Most usually a verb in the imperative has no pronoun acting as subject. However, the pronoun may be used in emotional speech, as e.g. in: *You leave me alone!* she cried out loudly, or *You be quiet!* In the imperative mood the speaker urges the addressee to fulfil the action expressed by the verb. Cf. **indicative mood**, **subjunctive mood**.
See **mood**

implicate v., **implication** n. – implikować
See **implication**

implication n., **implicate** v. – implikacja

In **formal logic** and often used as part of the study of **semantics**, the term refers to a formal relationship between two **propositions** (or sentences) such that if the first (*p*) is true than the second (*q*) is necessarily or logically true (if *p*, then *q*, where *p* is the antecedent and *q* the consequent). For example, *I saw a cat* **implies** *I saw an animal.* **Entailment** is another name for **implication**.
See **proposition**, **formal logic**, **semantics**

implicational universals – uniwersalia implikacyjne

If a language has a **dual number** for referring to just two of something, it also has plural number for referring to more than two. Another example, if a language has front rounded vowels, then it also has front unrounded vowels. **Implicational universals** state dependency between two logically independent parameters, making a connection that might not automatically be suspected (Croft 1990 in McMahon 1994: 141). Greenberg (1963) proposes "implicational universal tendencies," predicting that if a language has property A, it will probably also have property B.
See **dual number**, **language universals**

implicature – implikatura

A short version of **conversational implicature**; a term derived from the work of the philosopher H.P. Grice (1913–1988) and now frequently used in linguistics as part of the study of conversational structure. Grice distinguishes two kinds of **implicature**: **conventional** and **conversational**.
See **conversational implicature**, **conventional implicature**

implicit performative utterance – wypowiedź performatywna prymarna
See **performative utterance**

impressive function of language – funkcja impresywna języka
See **functions of language**

inalienable possessives – posesywa niezbywalne

These are expressions denoting a relationship in which the possessed is not normally separable from the possessor (e.g. *John's* arm), and *John's book* is an example of an **alienable possessive**.
See **alienable possession**

inchoative (**inceptive**) **verb** – czasownik inchaotywny (inceptywny), inchoati-vum, ingressivum

An **inchoative verb** is one which marks the beginning of an action or state. For example, we might say that *become* is an inchoative verb in a sentence like *He didn't become famous until he released his first album*, since it can be paraphrased as "start to be."

incompatibility n., **incompatible** a. – inkompatybilność, niezgodność

Incompatibility occurs on the semantic and structural planes of language. On the semantic plane expressions containing semantically **incompatible** items are asemantic, i.e. meaningless and thus semantically uninterpretable. A good illustration of this are the following: Pol. *Poprawność zdania dzied-ziczy nienawiść*, and the often-quoted Noam Chomsky's (1965/1966) example *colorless green ideas sleep furiously* ('bezbarwne zielone idee wściekle śpią'). On the structural plane constructions made up of structurally incompat-ible constituents are said to be ungrammatical or grammatically incorrect; e.g. **Piotr wiedzieć się chory* instead of the grammatically correct *Piotr wie, że jest chory*. Consider also the ungrammatical **Nasze idziemy kino* and the grammatical *My idziemy do kina*.

incorporating (**polysynthetic**) **language** – język inkorporacyjny

These languages demonstrate morphologically complex, long word forms (usu-ally merged into the equivalent of a verb), as in the constructions of American Indian languages, and encountered occasionally in English in coinages such, e.g., as *breastfeed*, *babysit*; and consider: *anti/dis/establish/ment/arian/ism/s* (DC). And Cheyenne (an Algonquian language) uses noun incorporation on a regular basis, as, e.g., in *nátahpe'emaheona* meaning 'I have a big house', which contains the noun *mahéo* 'house'.
See **incorporation**

incorporation n., **incorporate** v. – inkorporacja

Incorporation is a particular type of compounding (in that it involves two different lexemes) where a noun or adverb is built into the word which functions as the verb in a sentence. For example in a language like Nahuatl (a language belonging to the Maya-Quiche family in Central America) there is a difference between the equivalents of *I eat the meat* 'I'm in the process of consuming some particular piece of meat' and *I meat-eat* 'I'm carnivore', where the incorporated object in the second example is non-specific (it is not possible to ask 'which meat?') and the meaning is general. Languages exhibiting this predicate structure are called **incorporating** or **polysynthetic** languages (Szymanek 1989: 61–62).

indefinite article – przedimek, rodzajnik nieokreślony

The **indefinite article** *a/an* in English is used to distinguish unspecific or indefinitely known nouns from specific/definitely known nouns. It is used only before singular nouns (e.g., *a book*, *a books).

indefinite pronouns – zaimki nieokreślone

Indefinite pronouns are elements which allow us to speak about persons, things, or events whose identity or character is unknown to us. Examples of such pronouns include: *someone, something, anything, anyone, nobody, nothing, everybody, everything,* etc. Indefinite pronouns are neutral in terms of **gender**. In *If anyone calls, tell him/her that I'm out* the speaker cannot know the identity of *anyone*, it is impossible to assign gender. Most English speakers use *they/them/their* as gender neutral pronouns, even in contexts in which the **antecedent** appears to be singular, as, e.g., in *If anyone calls, tell **them** I'm out, Everyone must pack **their** own lunch.*
See **gender**, **pronoun**, **antecedent**

index – indeks
See **sign**

Indic (**Indo-Aryan**) **languages** – indyjskie (indoirańskie) języki

The **Indic** group of languages includes the extinct **Vedic** and **Sanskrit** languages, and the various languages of Hindustan and Pakistan.
See **Vedic**, **Sanskrit**, **Hindustani**

indicative mood – tryb oznajmujący, indicativus

One of the three **moods** distinguished in grammars of English. It refers to verb forms or sentence/clause types used in the expression of statements and questions. For example, *He sat down*, *Is he coming?*. The **Indicative Mood** is usually seen in contrast to **Imperative** and **Subjunctive Moods**.
See **mood**

indices – indeksy

Subscript letters or digits attached to sets of constituents to indicate whether or not there is a **binding** relation between them. For example, in a structure such as *John thinks that Harry[1] is deceiving himself,[1]* the **indices** indicate that *himself* is **bound** (i.e. interpreted as referring to) by *Harry*, not by *John*.
See **bind**

indigenous language – język autochtoniczny (lokalny)

An **indigenous language** (or **autochtonous language**) is a language that is native to a region and spoken by indigenous people, often reduced to the status

of a **minority language**. Indigenous languages are not necessarily **national languages**, and the reverse is also true. Many indigenous languages have become endangered because of **language death**, caused by colonisation, in which the original local language is replaced by the language of the colonists. For example, the indigenous languages of the Americas are spoken by indigenous peoples from Alaska and Greenland to the southern tip of South America, encompassing the land masses that constitute the Americas. Other examples of indigenous languages include the whole constellation of local languages encountered by European settlers in North America and Australia. **Aboriginal language** is still another term, now little used, for **indigenous language**.
See **transitive verb**

indirect object – dopełnienie dalsze, przedmiot pośredni

The secondary, deletable object of a **transitive verb**; e.g., *I gave him the present* and *I gave the present,* with the object *him* having been deleted. In English, the **indirect object** may be the receiver of the direct object, as in the example above, and the beneficiary of the action of the verb, as, e.g., in *They gave me the cake* (= 'They gave the cake *to* me').
See **object**

indirect speech act – pośredni akt mowy

A **speech act** in which the communication intention of the speaker is not reflected in the linguistic form of the utterance. For example, *It's very hot in here* may be used to express a request to turn on the air-conditioner.
See **Speech Act Theory**, **speech act**

Indo-Aryan languages, **Indic languages** – indyjskie języki

The sub-branch of the **Indo-Iranian** branch of the **Indo-European** family including most of the Indo-European languages of the Indian subcontinent; among these are Hindi, Gujarati, Bengali, etc., as well as Romany (the language of the Gypsies, or Travellers).
See **Indo-Iranian languages**, **Indo-European languages**

Indo-European languages – indoeuropejskie języki

A family of languages composed of the following languages and language groups: Albanian, Armenian, Balto-Slavic, Celtic, Germanic, Greek, Hittite, Illyrian, Indo-Iranian, Italic, Thraco-Phrygian, Tokharian. Originally, all these languages were **synthetic** and inflected, with three-gender system, but at the present time many have become **analytic** (e.g. present-day English) to varying degrees, and have adopted a two-gender or natural gender system.
See **analytic language**, **synthetic language**

Indo-Iranian languages – indoirańskie języki

A huge branch of the **Indo-European family**, itself consisting of three branches: **Indo-Aryan** (or **Indic**), **Iranian**, and the small **Nuristani**.

infinitive – bezokolicznik, infinitivus, verbum infinitum

A traditional term for the **stem** form (or **base** form) of an English verb usually preceded by the infinitive marker *to*. The English **infinitive** occurs without *to* with **auxiliary verbs** (e.g. *He must **do** it now*, *He should **apologize** for being late*), after expressions such as *had better*, *had rather*, *rather than*, etc. (*I had rather **do** it at once*, *John had better **go***, *Rather than **risk** his life he became an outlaw*), and after so-called **causative** verbs, such as *make*, *let*, *bid*, and *have* (e.g. *What makes you **laugh**?*, *He let him **go***, *Bid him **come** in!*, etc.). The infinitive without *to* is known as the **plain infinitive** (or **bare infinitive**). The infinitive and the **participles** are the **non-finite forms** of the verb. See also **finite verb**.
See **stem**, **base**

infix – infiks, wrostek

In morphology, a term used to refer to an **affix** which is added within a **root** or **stem**. The process of **infixation** (or **infixing**) is not encountered in European languages. However, Szymanek (1989: 65) treats the English *bloody*, as it is used in *al-**bloody**-mighty*, *kanga-**bloody**-roo*, as an **infix**.
See **root**, **stem**, **infixation**

infixation – infiksacja

Infixation is a morphological process whereby a **grammatical morpheme** (inflectional or derivational) is inserted into the **base** form (usually a **root**-morpheme). Clear and uncontroversial instances of infixation are hard to come by in Polish or English, although English has a marginal process which comes very close to infixation; certain swear-words or other expressive lexemes like *bloody, blooming,* etc. may be inserted into the middle of some words to give forms like *all-bloody-mighty, air-con-bloody-ditioner,* and the like.
See **base**, **root**

inflecting (**fusional**) **languages** – fleksyjne języki
See **synthetic languages**

inflection (**inflexion**) n., **inflect** v. – fleksja

A morphological process in which an element (usually an affix) is added to a basic form to denote number, person, case, tense, etc., e.g. *book*:*books*, *wait*:*waited*. **Inflection** is frequently contrasted with **derivation** in morphology.
See **derivation**

inflecting (**inflectional**) **language** – fleksyjny język

In **inflecting** (**inflectional**) **languages** the function of words – which in these languages basically constitute syntactic members – is determined by their form, i.e., case endings, prefixes, phoneme alternation, etc. Thus, in Latin and Polish the determining noun in a nominal group is distinguished by the ending in the genitive, e.g., Latin *domus part* is, Polish *dom ojca* ('father's house'); the subject of an intransitive sentence ends in the nominative, Latin *Marc-**us** dormit*, Polish *Marek śpi* ('Mark is sleeping'). The subject in a transitive sentence is also characterised by the nominative case ending, and the patient by the accusative ending, as in *Marc-us necat leon-em*, Polish *Marek zabija lw-a* ('Mark is killing the lion'). The inflecting type of language includes archaic Indo-European languages (Sanskrit, Old Persian, Greek, Latin, etc.) and the modern Baltic and Slavic languages with the exception of Bulgarian, the Semitic and Japhetic languages, and the Uralic and Altaic languages. Inflectional languages are also called **fusional languages**.
See **affix**, **Baltic languages**, **Slavic languages**

inflectional morphemes – morfemy fleksyjne (końcówkowe)

These are **morphemes** which are non-**roots** and have only **grammatical meaning** (e.g. number, tense, aspect, etc.). For example, the *-s* plural morpheme (*cars*, *plays*, etc.), the 'concord' *-s* morpheme in *he walks* (v. *they walk*).
See **morpheme**, **grammatical meaning**, **root**

inflectional morphology – morfologia fleksyjna

Inflectional morphology deals with morphemes called **inflectional morphemes** which express grammatical, i.e. **morpho-syntactic** categories, such as person, number, gender, tense, etc. These categories are relevant for the syntax, i.e. sentence construction, and are referred to by the grammar. For example, there is a grammatical rule in English which requires that a thirdperson singular subject be followed by a verb which is also marked as thirdperson singular, as in *He smokes*. This is called subject-verb **agreement**, which is also relevant for plural marking in sentences. Thus, this grammatical rule accounts for the following grammatical and ungrammatical sentence, respectively: *The students are drinking coffee, *The students is drinking coffee.*
See **inflectional morphemes**, **morphosyntax**, **agreement**

inflectional paradigm – paradygmat fleksyjny leksemu

The set of inflectional forms which are repeated in a parallel manner in a series of words constitutes a **inflectional paradigm**.

informant – informator

A person who provides the linguist with **data** for analysis. The data may be obtained, for instance, by recording the person's speech or by asking him or her questions about language use. Work with **informants** may take place in isolation, when the informant visits the linguist, or in the field, when the linguist visits the informant (See **fieldwork**). In fieldwork on previously unstudied languages, the informant is of fundamental importance, and several sophisticated techniques for eliciting (i.e. obtaining) relevant but natural data have been devised. Informants' judgements about the **acceptability** of sentences are known as **intuitions** (especially in **Generative Grammar**).
See **linguistic data**, **acceptability**, **linguistic intuition**, **Generative Grammar**

Information Theory, **communication theory** – teoria informacji (komunikacji)

Any theory that explains how communications systems carry information and which measures the amount of information according to how much choice is involved when we send information. One well-known model of **Information Theory**, viz. that proposed by Shannon and Weaver (Shannon C.E., Weaver W.: *The Mathematical Model of Communication*, 1949) describes communication as a process consisting of the following elements; the information "source" (e.g. a speaker) selects a desired **message** out of a possible set of messages; the "transmitter" changes the messages into a signal which is sent over the communication channel (e.g. a telephone wire) where it is received by the "receiver" (e.g. a telephone or earphones) and changed back into a message which is sent to the "destination" (e.g. a listener). In the process of transmission certain unwanted additions to the signal may occur which are not part of the message (e.g. interference from a poor telephone line) and these are referred to as "noise". The information content of a unit (e.g. of a word or a sentence) is measured according to how likely it is to occur in a particular communication. The more predictable a unit is, the less information it is said to carry. The unit of information used in information theory is the "binary digit" or "bit." The related concept of "redundancy" refers to the degree to which a message contains more information than is needed for it to be understood (JCRandRSch).

information processing – przetwarzanie informacji

In psychology and **psycholinguistics**, a general term for the processes by which meanings are identified and understood in communication, the processes by which information and meaning are stored, organized and retrieved from memory and the different kinds of decoding which take place during reading and listening. The study of **information processing** includes the study of memory, decoding and the study of the processes and strategies which learners use in working out meanings in the target language (JCR and RSch).
See **psycholinguistics**

initial accent – akcent inicjalny

Accent on the first syllable of a word (e.g. in Czech).
See **accent**

initial state – stan początkowy, stan na wejściu
See **finite state grammar**

initialism
See **acronym**, **abbreviation**

innateness (**nativist**) **hypothesis** – innatyzm, natywizm, hipoteza natywis-
tyczna

A theory held by some philosophers (e.g. René Descartes, G.W. Leibniz) and
linguists (e.g. W. von Humboldt, Noam Chomsky) which says that human
knowledge develops from structures, processes, and "ideas" which are in the
mind at birth (i.e. are **innate**), rather than from the environment, and that
these are responsible for the basic structure of language and how it is learned.
This hypothesis has been used to explain how children are able to learn lan-
guage. The **innateness hypothesis** contrasts with the belief that all human
knowledge comes from experience. Cf. **empiricism**. See also DC.

input – wejście, jednostka wejściowa

In **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, the linguistic construct which
triggers the application of a rule. For example, in the classical transforma-
tional grammar (based on the assumptions of Chomsky's *Aspects* Theory)
the Passive transformation applies to the structure, generated by the Phrase-
Structure rules, which consists of a transitive verb and in which the subject
and object noun phrases are not co-referential. See also **output**.
See **Transformation-Generative Grammar**, **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also
Aspects **Version**) **of Transformational**-**Generative Grammar**

inscription – inskrypcja, napis

A written text carved on to a hard and durable material such as stone, bone or
metal. The study of inscriptions is **epigraphy**.
See **epigraphy**

instrumental case – narzędnik, instrumentalis

In languages which express grammatical relationships by means of **inflec-
tions**, the form taken by a **noun phrase** (often by a single noun or pronoun)
when it expresses such a notion as "by means of" (as in Polish, Russian and

other **inflecting languages**). For example, *kluczem* is the **instrumental case** as it occurs in *Jan otworzył drzwi kluczem*.
See **case**, **inflection**, **inflecting language**

intensifier – wykładnik intensywności, intensyfikator

Intensifiers are either synonyms of *very* or words expressing a higher degree of intensity of a feature than *very*. Intensifiers include adverbs and adjectives related to them. Examples include: *an **awfully** nice man*, *it is **really** cheap*, *his face looked **horrible***, etc.

intension, **sense** – intensja, treść (znaku językowego)

The **intension** of a term is the set of essential properties which determine the applicability of the term. For example, the set of properties which are assumed to be criterial (= essential) for something to qualify as a dog in the word *canine*. The class of dogs comprises all those things of the universe which have this set of properties. Cf. **extension**.

interchangeability – przemienność, sprzężenie zwrotne

One of the defining properties of language; by **interchangeability** we mean that any organism equipped for the transmission of messages (i.e. encoding) in a system is also equipped to receive (i.e. decode) messages in the system. As users of a given language we are able both to encode (speaker function) and decode (hearer (addressee) function).
See **functions of language**

interdental consonant – spółgłoska międzyzębowa (interdentalna)

A consonant produced with the tip of the tongue between the upper and lower teeth, e.g., English /ð/ and /θ/ in *this* and *thin*.
See **consonant**

interference – interferencja

A term used in **sociolinguistics** and foreign-language learning to refer to the errors a speaker introduces into one language as a result of contact with another language; also called **negative transfer**. For example, a Polish learner of English may produce the incorrect sentence *I am here since Monday* instead of the correct *I have been here since Monday*, because of the transfer of the Polish pattern *Jestem tutaj od poniedziałku* ('I am here since Monday').
See **sociolinguistics**, **transfer**

interfix – interfiks, intermorf, konektyw

An **affix** which occurs between two elements, linking them together. In German *Liebesbrief* 'love letter', *-s-* is an **interfix** between *Liebe* 'love' and *Brief*

'letter'. The **interfix** is different from prefixes and suffixes in that it is virtually asemantic, has no clear meaning of its own. In the following examples *-o-* and *-u-* are interfixes: *śrub-o-kręt* 'screwdriver', *dw-u-kropek* 'colon'.
See **affix**

interjection – interiekcja, wykrzyknik

Interjections are a class of words which can stand on their own as **utterances** and which refer to the speaker's mental state, attitude or reaction to a situation. Different interjections have different degrees of formal complexity. Thus, there are mono-morphemic interjections, such, e.g., as *oh*, *wow*, *gosh*, *ugh*, *alas*, *well*, etc., and multi-morphemic interjections like, e.g. *Goddammit!* and, e.g., the French *oh là là*, called "complex interjections" in Ameka (1992). Apart from these, there are multi-word interjections, such as *Bloody hell!*, *Dear me!*, *My goodness!*, *Good gracious!*, etc. The multi-word interjections are called "interjectional phrases" (Ameka 1992). Ameka's classification of interjections, based on the specific language functions that they fulfil, includes three groups: expressive, conative, and phatic interjections. **Expressive interjections** are characterised as the vocal gestures which are symptoms of the speaker's mental state, and they are subdivided into "emotive" and "cognitive" interjections. Interjections like, e.g. *Yuk!* 'I feel disgust', *Wow*! 'I'm surprised' are examples of emotive interjections. *Aha!* (e.g. *Aha*! 'I know this, I understand') is an example of a cognitive interjection. **Conative interjections** are those expressions that are directed at the addressee; i.e., they are aimed at getting someone's attention or they demand an action or response from the addressee: e.g. *Sh!* 'I want silence', *eh!* 'I want to know something', etc. **Phatic interjections** are used in the establishment and maintenance of communicative contact; to this group belong items such, e.g., as *mhm*, *uh-uh*, *yeah*, etc. These expressions may have multiple functions, and hence multiple categorisation. New interjections can be coined the way new nouns can be added to the lexicon. In writing, an interjection is typically followed by an exclamation mark. See the examples above.
See **utterance**, **functions of language**

interlanguage – interjęzyk

The type of language produced by **second** and foreign-language learners who are in the process of learning a language. It reflects the learner's evolving system of rules and results from a variety of processes. These include: borrowing patterns from the **mother tongue**, extending patterns from the target language, e.g. by analogy, expressing meanings using the words and grammar which are already known, etc. Since the language the learner produces using these processes differs from both the mother language and the target language, it is sometimes called an **interlanguage**.
See **second language**, **mother tongue**

interlanguage pragmatics – pragmatyka międzyjęzykowa

The study of the ways in which non-native speakers acquire, comprehend and use linguistic patterns (or **speech acts**) in a **second language**.
See **speech act**, **second language**

interlocutor – interlokutor

A neutral term used to refer to any person with whom someone is speaking. A conversation requires at least two **interlocutors**.

internal change, endogenous innovation – zmiana wewnątrzsystemowa

Any linguistic change in a language which does not result from the influence of another language. Concerning this type of language change, Trask (2000) has the following to say: "Some have doubted whether **internal change** ever occurs at all, but there is little doubt that it does. For example, **voicing** of intervocalic **plosives** recurs constantly in languages, while **devoicing** of intervocalic plosives is virtually unknown; this is scarcely incomprehensible unless intervocalic voicing is the result of obvious internal factors." Compare **external change** (RLT).
See **voicing**, **plosive**, **devoicing**

internal history – historia wewnętrzna (wewnątrzsystemowa)

The history and prehistory of a language as a linguistic system, i.e. the development over time of its vocabulary, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics, without reference to its geographical location, to its speakers or to their political or social circumstances. Cf. **external history**.

internal reconstruction method – metoda rekonstrukcji wewnętrznej

In **historical linguistics**, a type of **reconstruction** which works exclusively with the forms existing in a single language, with no comparison involving forms from other languages or dialects. In the most straightforward case, the method works as follows: we note that a pattern exists in a language but that some forms are exceptions to the pattern; we hypothesize that the exceptional forms once conformed regularly to the pattern but were disturbed by regular sound change; we therefore **reconstruct** regular forms for the exceptional cases and identify the changes which have disrupted the pattern in their case. According to W. Chafe (1959), **internal reconstruction** is a procedure for inferring part of the history of a language from material available from a **synchronic description** of the language, and from that alone. Thus, in internal reconstruction, the linguist considers the various forms of a given morpheme in the single language under scrutiny. For example, in German there are certain words in which an **alternation** between voiced and voiceless stops in various nominal case forms is observed: e.g. *Bund* /bunt/ 'alliance' is

pronounced identically with *bunt* 'gay-coloured'. In inflected forms final /t/ of *Bund* alternates with /d/, as, e.g. in *Bundes Republik*, whereas the /t/ of *bunt* remains voiceless in all situations. On the basis of these facts, the historical linguist assumes that at an earlier stage in the history of German **stems** like *Bund* had only one phonetic shape, that with a final voiced /d/. It is possible then to reconstruct a historical change of /d/ to /t/ in final position:

stop /voiced/ → *stop* /voiceless/ //------------#

A conditioned sound change has been reconstructed as part of the history of German in order to explain an alternation., i.e., *d~ t* (RLT). Cf. also **comparative historical method**.
See **historical linguistics**, **synchronic analysis**, **alternation**

internalized language, **i-language** – zinternalizowany język

A term suggested by Noam Chomsky (1986) in his *Knowledge of Language: Its Nature, Origin and Use* to refer to a language viewed as an internal property of the human mind or a computational system in the human brain. Linguists who subscribe to this view attempt to construct grammars showing how the mind structures language and what universal principles are involved. **I-language** is contrasted with **e-language** (**externalized** language), language viewed as a collection of texts or a social phenomenon.
See **e-language**

international language – język międzynarodowy

A language in widespread use as a foreign language, i.e., as a language of international communication. English is the most widely used **international language**. The function of an international language is performed also by **artificial languages**, such, e.g., as **Esperanto** or **Volapuk**.
See **artificial languages**, **Esperanto**

International Phonetic Alphabet – międzynarodowy alfabet fonetyczny

A system of symbols designed by the International Phonetic Association to be used to represent the sounds of all human languages in accordance with a set of common principles. The symbols consist of letters and **diacritics**. Some symbols are taken from the Roman alphabet, while others are special symbols, e.g., /ʒ /, /ə/, /ʊ/, as in the English word *show* /ʃəʊ/.
See **diacritic** (**diacritical**) **mark**

internationalism – internacjonalizm

In linguistics, a word or phraseological expression occurring in many languages of the world. An **internationalism** is a loanword that occurs in several languages with the same or at least, similar meaning and **etymology**. European internationalisms originate primarily from Greek and Latin, but from other

languages as well (e.g. English, German, French). English has contributed a considerable number of words to world languages, e.g. sport terms: *football*, *baseball*, *cricket*, and *golf*. Many non-European words have also become international. To give just one example, *taboo/tabu* (from Tongan *tabu*). Internationalisms often spread together with the innovations they designate. Accordingly, there are **semantic fields** dominated by specific languages, e.g. the computing vocabulary which is mainly English with internationalisms such as *computer*, *disk*, and *spam*. New inventions and political institutions, foodstuffs, leisure activities, science, and technological advances have all generated new words and continue to do so: *bionics*, *cybernatics*, *gene*, *coffee*, *chocolate*, *weekend*, etc. Some internationalisms are spread by speakers of one language living in geographical areas where other languages are spoken. For example, some internationalisms coming from the English in India include: *bungalow*, *jute*, *khaki*, *mango*, *pyjamas*, *sari*, etc. (http://en.Wikipedia.org/wiki/International isms-linguistics). Following are some examples of internationalisms of Greek or Latin origin: *object*, *art*, *artist*, *academy*, *hymn*, *philosophy*, *physics*, etc.
See **etymology**, **semantic field**

interpretation n., **interpret** v. – tłumaczenie żywego słowa
See **translation**, **translatology**

interpre(ta)tive semantics – semantyka interpretatywna (interpretacyjna)

According to the **Standard Model of Transformational-Grammar**, every sentence has two levels of syntactic structure: **deep structure** and **surface structure**. Deep structures are Phrase-markers (containing lexical items) that are generated by the rules of the **base-component**. They are converted into surface structures by the application of an ordered set of **transformational rules**. The deep structures serve as input to the **semantic component** and the surface structures as input to the **phonological component**. But the semantic rules and phonological rules are purely **interpretive**; the function of the semantic rules is to "interpret" the output of the base-component by assigning to each sentence a **semantic representation**. The semantic representation associated with a sentence by the grammar should not be taken as its meaning, but as a formal representation of its meaning. The Standard Model is thus syntactically-based, i.e., it puts all the generative capacity of the grammar in the syntax. Cf. **Generative Semantics**.
See **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**

interpreter n. – tłumacz żywego słowa

Someone who provides an oral translation of a speaker's words from one language to another. Some interpreters have highly specialised skills and are accredited as **conference interpreters** or **court interpreters**.

interrogative pronouns – zaimki pytające

Pronouns used in a situation when a speaker wishes to learn the identity of someone or something. **Interrogative pronouns** always begin with the letters *wh* in written texts, thus they are often called **wh-words**. The interrogative pronoun, regardless of its grammatical function, is almost always the first word in the sentence. The one exception is in those cases where the interrogative pronoun is the object of a preposition, in which case the preposition is sometimes placed before the pronoun, as in *To **whom** did you loan your car?* The English interrogative pronouns include, among others, items like: *who*, *what*, *where*, *when*, *why,* etc.

intervocalic – interwokaliczny

Occurring between two vowels.

intervocalic consonant – spółgłoska interwokaliczna

A consonant occurring between two vowels, e.g. English /d/ in *lady*, Polish /t/ in *lato* 'summer'.
See **consonant**, **vowel**

intonation – intonacja

Rise and fall in the **pitch** of the voice in the flow of speech. In Polish, as in English and many other languages, there are three syntactic intonations: declarative, interrogative, and exclamatory. **Declarative intonation** starts low, rises, describing a curve, then, at the end of the utterance, falls – e.g. Pol. *Wróciłeś do domu* ('You came home'). **Interrogative intonation** begins low and, rising, ends at the highest point – e.g. *Wróciłeś do domu?* ('Did you come home?'). Interrogative intonation constitutes, in fact, the first half of declarative intonation; it is a fragment interrupted in the middle, leaving us in expectation of the second half, the answer. **Exclamatory intonation** starts high and then falls – e.g. *Wróciłeś do domu!* ('You came home!'). In writing, punctuation is the equivalent of intonation.
See **pitch**

intransitive verb – czasownik nieprzechodni
See **transitive verb**

intrusive *r* – wtrącone *r*
See **linking *r***

invariant – inwariant językowy

In linguistic analysis, an element that does not undergo morphological change; it contrasts with **variants**, i.e. forms that are its contextual realisations and

are thus subject to change. A good example of an **invariant** is a phoneme in relation to **allophones**, i.e. its phonetic variants, or a morpheme in relation to **allomorphs**, i.e. its morphological variants.
See **phoneme**, **morpheme**

inversion – inwersja, przeciwstawnia, permutacja

A term used to denote a movement process by which the relative order of two expressions is reversed. It is most frequently used in relation to the more specific operation by which an auxiliary verb comes to be positioned before its subject, e.g., in questions such as *Can you speak Dutch*?, where the modal auxiliary *can* is positioned in front of its subject *you*.

inverted commas – cudzysłów
See **quotation marks**

Iranian languages – irańskie języki

A group of nearly fifty languages, some of them extinct (dead), forming one branch of the **Indo-Iranian** branch of **Indo-European**. The two ancient **Iranian** languages called Avestan and Old Persian are of great linguistic importance.
See **Indo-European languages**, **Indo-Iranian languages**

Iroquoian languages – irokeskie języki

A family of about fifteen languages in eastern North America, about half of them now extinct. Among them are **Huron**, **Mohawk**, **Seneca**, and **Tuscarora**.

irregular a. – nieregularny

Of inflected word forms – formed differently from the corresponding word form for the majority of lexemes in the word class. Most linguists regard **irregularity** as a matter of degree; for example, *went* as the past tense of the lexeme *go* is more **irregular** than *bent* (instead of **bended*) as the past tense of *bend*, both because *bent* is not **suppletive** and because there are other past tense forms that follow the same pattern, e.g. *lent*, *sent* from *lend* and *send*.
See **lexeme**, **word-form**, **word class**, **suppletion**

irregular verbs – czasowniki nieregularne
See **regular verbs**

island – wysepka
See **Coordinate Structure Constraint**

isogloss – izoglosa

On linguistic maps, a line drawn on a **dialect map** marking the boundary of a geographical area in which a particular linguistic feature is used.
See **dialect map**

isolating language – język izolujący (analityczny)

A language in which all words are invariable and their inter-relationship in the sentence is indicated solely by their relative positions (i.e. word order) and conjunctions. In an **isolating language** there is no morphology at all, and every word consists of a single morpheme. Good examples of isolating languages are Chinese, Vietnamese, and many South-East Asian languages. Given sufficient time, languages can change from one type to another. Nineteenth-century linguists often assumed a natural direction for such changes: for example, isolating languages develop into **agglutinating languages**, and agglutinating languages develop into **inflecting languages**. Such developments are often attested. For example, classical Chinese was a paradigm case of an isolating language, but modern Chinese is different. It has acquired a number of suffixes and a very large number of **compounds**. Modern Chinese is beginning to look a bit like an agglutinating language, though it still has a long way to go before it resembles Turkish or Swahili (Trask 1996: 126 ff.). But there is no reason to suppose that such changes can proceed only in one direction. Concerning this issue, Trask (1996: 127) has the following to say: "There is good reason to suppose that a remote ancestor of Chinese was highly inflected, but the language has apparently lost every trace of its ancient inflections and became exclusively isolating, and the isolating languages of West Africa appear to descend from an ancestor which was agglutinating. And **Old English** was a highly inflected language somewhat resembling Latin, but English has lost all but a few traces of its earlier inflections. Thus modern English has a very high degree of isolating character."
See **agglutinating language**, **compound**, **inflecting language**, **Old English**

isolex – izoleksa

Isolexes delimit regions in which completely different words are used to refer to the same thing. For instance, Polish *klepisko* and *bojowisko*, both meaning 'thrashing floor', or *kokot* and *kurak*, both meaning 'rooster' (examples taken from KP).

isomorph – izomorfa

Isomorphs are boundaries delimiting regions in which different morphemes are used to fulfill a given function, i.e., different endings, prefixes or suffixes. For instance, on one side of an isomorph, Polish country people say *chodźmy* ('Let's go'), and on the other side, *chodźwa*, on one side, *robiłbym* ('I would

I

do'), and on the other, *robiłbych*, both used with the same meaning (Milewski 1973: 101).

isomorphy, **transparency** – izomorfizm

The state of affairs in a language in which a single form always has the same meaning or function, and a single meaning or function is always expressed by the same form. Many linguists have maintained that languages (or their speakers) tend strongly to prefer this state of affairs, to resist changes that would produce violations, and to remove violations when these arise, by further changes; the putative principle that this is so is called the **Transparency Principle**, posited by D. Lightfoot (1979). Phonological change tends to disrupt **isomorphy** in two ways: first, it introduces **alternations** into the forms of **stems** and affixes; second, phonological change may convert words of distinct meaning into **homophones**, a state of affairs called **homonymic clash** or **polysemic clash**. The Transparency Principle maintains that such clash should be eliminated, usually by replacing one of the affected words, and there are confirming instances of this (Lightfoot 1979, RLT).
See **alternation**, **homonymy**, **stem**

isophone – izofona

Boundaries dividing regions in which the same phoneme developed historically in different ways. For example, the old consonants *s*, *z*, *c*, written *sz*, *ż*, *cz*, *dż*, persisted without change in certain regions of Poland (e.g. Great Poland), as in *szyc*, *żaba*, *czas*, *jeżdżę*, while in other regions, they changed into *s*, *z*, *c*, [dz], as in *syc*, *zaba*, *cas*, *jezdzę*, which is called Masovian pronunciation (*mazurzenie*) (Milewski 1973: 101).

Italian – włoski język
See **Romance languages**, **proto-language**

Italic languages – italskie języki

A major branch of **Indo-European** family of languages. Its best known languages are divided into two main subgroups: Latino-Faliscan, consisting of Latin and its close relative Faliscan, and Sabellian, consisting of Oscan and Umbrian, and some others.
See **Indo-European languages**

iterative verbs – czasowniki iteratywne, iterativa
See **Aktionsart**

jargon – żargon

Technical expressions used among members of a particular profession, craft, or trade, not intelligible to the general public. When expressions pass from general language into **jargon**, their meaning becomes narrower and more precise, while it becomes more general when expressions pass from jargon into general language, with the accompanying impoverishment of the meaning content. Jargons functioning within fairly rare and precisely defined situations limit the meaning of words to these narrow possibilities; general language, used in much more variegated situations, broadens the meaning of words. For example, in Polish the word *osnowa* (warp) has been used among weavers to refer to parallel shreds into which the weaving apparatus weaves the transverse woof, *wątek*. These words transferred from the jargon into the general language took on a more general, abstract meaning, 'thread', e.g., *thread of thought* (Milewski 1973: 147).

junction – junkcja
See **nexus**

kernel sentence – zdanie jądrowe

In the **Standard Model of Transformational-Generative Grammar**, a simple, positive, declarative sentence which is the result of the application of the **Phrase-Structure rules** and **obligatory transformations.** All other types of sentences, called **derived sentences**, are the result of the operation of **optional transformations**.
See **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**

kernel string – rządek jądrowy

In early **Transformational-Generative Grammar** (N. Chomsky's *Syntactic Structures*), a type of structure produced by **phrase-structure rules** of a grammar.
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **phrase-structure rules**

Key Word In Context (**KWIC**) – słowo kluczowe w kontekście

Key Word In Context is the most common format for **concordance** lines. The term was created by Hans Peter Luhn (1896–1964), a researcher in the field of computer science, and Library and Information Science for IBM. The KWIC tool is used to generate a list of all instances of a searched term in a corpus in the form of a **concordance**. It is usually used in order to, e.g. find the frequency of a word or phrase in a given corpus, frequencies of different word classes (nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc.), complex linguistic structures (the passives, etc.), etc.
See **concordance**, **corpus**

kinesics – kinezyka

The discipline which studies the communicative functions of gestures, body movements, etc., constituting part of the paralinguistic system of communication.
See **paralinguistic system**

koinē – koinē, język ogólnonarodowy

A more or less uniform variety of a language which develops by the levelling out of originally significant dialectal variation. The term was originally applied to the leveled variety of Greek which spread through the empire of Alexander

the Great. In the Old English period it was West-Saxon that provided the dialect which became the **koinē** (the 'cultural language') of the whole of England.
See **koinēization**

koinēization, **dialect levelling**, **dialect levelling** – koineizacja

The creation of a **koinē**.
See **koinē**

labelled bracketing – nawiasowanie znakowe
See **Phrase-Structure Grammar**

labial consonant – spółgłoska labialna (wargowa)

A consonant whose articulation involves the use of the lips. For example, *pat*, *bat*, *fat*, and *vat* all begin with **labial consonants**. See also **labialization**.

labialization – labializacja

Any noticeable rounding of the lips occurring during the production of a consonant.
See **labial consonant**

labio-dental consonant – spółgłoska labio-dentalna (wargowo-zębowa)
See **fricative consonant**

laminal consonants – spółgłoski laminalne (predorsalne)

Consonants articulated by means of the blade (or **lamina)** of the tongue. Depending on the place of articulation, the following types of **laminal consonants** are distinguished: **lamino-dental** consonants (przedniojęzykowo-zębowe/lamino-dentalne), **lamino-alveolar** (przedniojęzykowo-dziąsłowe/lamino-alweolarne), **lamino-postalveolar** (przedniojęzykowo-zadziąsłowe/lamino-postalweolarne).
See **apical consonant**

langage – mowa

A French term introduced by Ferdinand de Saussure (1857–1913) to refer to the human biological faculty of speech. Saussure made a distinction between three main senses of language, and concentrated on two of them. He envisaged **langage** (human speech as a whole) to be composed of two aspects, which he called **langue** (the language system) and **parole** (the act of speaking). Langage is that faculty of human speech present in all normal human beings due to heredity, but which requires the correct environmental stimuli for proper development. It is our facility to talk to each other. Langage, then, is a universal behaviour trait – more of interest to the anthropologist or biologist than the linguist, who commences his study with **langues** and **paroles**.

language – język

(1) The system of human communication which consists of the structured arrangement of sounds into larger units (e.g. morphemes, words, phrases, sentences). In common usage it can also refer to non-human systems of communication such as the "language" of bees, the "language" of dolphins, etc.

(2) Any particular system of communication, e.g. the French language, the Hindi language, etc. Sometimes a language is spoken by most people in a particular country, for example, Japanese in Japan, but sometimes a language is spoken by only part of the population of a country, for example, Tamil in India, French in Canada, etc. Languages are usually not spoken in the same way from one part of a country to the other. Differences in the way a language is spoken by different people are described in terms of regional and social variation (see **dialect**, **sociolect**). In some cases there is a continuum from one language to another. Dialect A of Language X on one side of the border may be very similar to Dialect B of Language Y on the other side of the border if language X and language Y are related. This is the case between Sweden and Norway and between Germany and the Netherlands.

Language Acquisition Device (**LAD**) – mechanizm akwizycji języka

Another term for **language faculty**. N. Chomsky (1965/1966) maintains that it is only by assuming that the child is born with a knowledge of the highly restrictive principles of **universal grammar** (what Chomsky refers to as **formal** and **substantive universals**), and the predisposition to make use of them in analysing the utterances he hears about him, that we can make any sense of the process of language learning (or acquisition). Chomsky maintains that language faculty is one of the **modules** of the mind, but also that it is itself modular in structure. However, there are alternative explanations. One of these is that, although there is no language-acquisition device as such (i.e. no device that is restricted to the acquisition of language and is species-specific in the biologist's sense of being both common to all members of the species and unique to that species), the child is born with a set of species-specific problem-solving "strategies," and with biologically determined limitations on the maturation of these "strategies" and on the development of the psychological "equipment" (memory, etc.) involved in language-processing. Concerning these two alternative hypotheses, Lyons (1971: 123) has the following to say: "Perhaps the fairest evaluation of the situation is to say that such results as have been obtained so far in the investigation of child language-acquisition speak neither for nor against the existence of genetically-transmitted language-acquisition device of the kind that Chomsky postulates in *Aspects* and elsewhere."

See **language universals**, **language faculty**, **Universal Grammar**, **module**

language birth (**genesis**) – narodziny (geneza) języka

The creation of a new natural language. The term is most commonly applied to the appearance of a **non-genetic language** (i.e. a language which cannot be regarded as descending directly from a single **ancestor** in the normal way), such, e.g., as a **creole** (RLT).
See **ancestor language**, **creole language**

language change – zmiana językowa

The central object of study in **historical linguistics**. Every **living language** is always changing. Historical linguists seek both to explain the long sequences of changes which have occurred in the past in particular languages and language families and to extract general principles of **language change**. All aspects of language are involved, though most attention has been paid to **phonology** and **lexis**, where change is most noticeable and frequent (RLT). See also McMahon (1996).
See **historical linguistics**, **lexis**, **phonology**

language contact – kontakt językowy

Contact between different languages, especially when at least one of them is influenced by the contact. This influence takes place typically when the languages are spoken in the same or adjoining regions, and when there is a high degree of communication between the peoples speaking them. The influence may affect, **phonology**, **syntax**, **semantics**, communicative strategies such as **address forms** and greetings. Language contact occurs or has occurred in areas of considerable immigration, such as USA, Australia, Latin America, and parts of Africa, as well as language border areas such as parts of India. See also **contact language**, **pidgin**.
See **phonology**, **semantics**, **syntax**, **address form**

language death (**extinction**) – śmierć języka

In linguistics, a term used for the situation which arises when a language ceases to be used by a speech community. The disappearance of a language usually results from **language shift** (i.e. the process in which a speech community makes steadily decreasing use of its ancestral language and increasing use of another language seen as more valuable or more prestigious), but may involve more dramatic circumstances (e.g. genocide, disease, or natural disaster). A language is often declared to be **dead** (or **extinct**) even before the last native speaker of the language has died. If there are a few elderly speakers of a language remaining, and they no longer use that language for communication, then the language is effectively dead. A language that has reached such a reduced stage of use is generally considered "moribund".

language engineering – inżynieria językowa
See **language planning**

language faculty – zdolność językowa

In his *Knowledge of language* (in Gunderson and Maxwell eds., 1975) Chomsky argues that human beings have an innate **language faculty** (i.e. brain module) which provides them with an algorithm (i.e. a set of procedures or programme) for developing a grammar of their native language. According to Chomsky, all the evidence available suggests that children are not born with a predisposition to learn any one language rather than any other. It may therefore be assumed that all children, regardless of race and parentage, are born with the same ability for learning languages; and, in normal circumstances, children will grow up as what is called "native speakers" of that language which they hear spoken in the community in which they are born and spend their early years. Chomsky maintains that it is only by assuming that the child is born with a knowledge of the highly restrictive principles of **universal grammar**, and the predisposition to make use of them in analysing the utterances he/she hears about him/her, that we can make any sense of the process of language learning. As Lyons (1991: 135) says, these principles (governing the structure of human language) "[…] are part of what we call the 'mind', being represented in some way no doubt in the structure or mode of operation of the brain, and may be compared with 'innate ideas' of Descartes and the rationalist tradition going back to Plato." **Language Acquisition Device** (**LAD**) is a term that is sometimes also used for language faculty.
See **Universal Grammar**

language family – rodzina językowa

One language system may have a number of descendants as a result of the fact that it evolved differently in the different areas in which it was used. Such a group of languages arising as a result of the uninterrupted evolution, in different regions, of a single, common **proto-language** is called a **language family**. The languages in a family are therefore linked in a genetic relationship. According to RLT, the number of secure language families currently spoken on the planet is around 300. For example, English is included in the **Germanic family** of languages.
See **proto-language**, **Germanic languages**

language loss – utrata znajomości języka

(1) In **language pathology**, a term used for the disappearance of language in an individual as a result of some trauma, such as brain damage or shock. The loss may be permanent or temporary, and vary in the severity with which it affects different aspects of language structure.
See **language pathology**

(2) See **language death**

language pathology, **speech pathology** – patologia mowy

The study of abnormalities in the development and use of language in children and adults (such as stuttering and **aphasia**). **Speech pathology** includes the diagnosis of such disorders and the development of techniques (including clinical techniques) to treat them. **Speech therapists** (see **speech therapy**) are sometimes called **speech pathologists**, especially in the USA.
See **aphasia**, **speech therapist**

language planning (**engineering**) – polityka językowa

In **sociolinguistics**, a term used for a deliberate, and systematic and theory-based attempt to solve the communication problems of a community by studying its various languages and dialects, and developing official language policy, concerning their selection and use: often referred to as **language engineering**. Planning, often by a government or government agency, concerning choice of national or official language(s), support for minority and community languages, ways of spreading the use of one or more languages, spelling reforms, the addition of new words to the language, and other problems. Through **language planning** an official **language policy** is established and/or implemented. For example, in Indonesia, Malay was chosen as the national language and was given the name Bahasa Indonesia (Indonesian language). It became the main language of education. There were several spelling reforms and a national planning agency was established to deal with the problems such as the development of scientific terms. In pluralistic countries or federal states language planning may not be monolithic and several "plans" may coexist (JCRandRSch).
See **dialect**, **language**, **official language**

language policy – polityka językowa
See **language planning**

language proficiency – sprawność językowa

The degree of skill with which an individual can use a language, such as how well a person can read, write, speak, and understand the language. **Language proficiency** can be measured through the use of **proficiency test** (JCRandRSch).
See **proficiency test**

language skills – sprawności językowe

In language teaching, the mode or manner in which language is used. Listening, speaking, reading, and writing are generally called the four **language skills**. Sometimes speaking and writing are called the **active/productive skills**

(sprawności produktywne), and reading and listening, the **passive/receptive skills** (sprawności receptywne).

language system – system językowy

The term is equivalent to de Saussure's **langue**. De Saussure's langue is contrasted with **parole.** Cf. also **competence** and **performance**.
See **langue**, **parole**

language typology – typologia lingwistyczna, klasyfikacja typologiczna języków

The branch of linguistics which studies structural similarities between languages, regardless of their history, as part of an attempt to establish a satisfactory classification of languages.

language universals – uniwersalia językowe

(1) The term is equivalent to the general "design features of language" (see e.g. Hockett and Altman 1968 in Sebeok 1968) in respect of which languages may be compared with other semiotic systems used by men and animals. These features are identified under such labels as **arbitrariness**, **duality**, **productivity**, **displacement**, **cultural transmission**, etc. (Lyons 1968, 1977, and elsewhere).

(2) In N. Chomsky's early generative works (Chomsky 1965/1966, 1968, 1975), two types of **language universals** are distinguished: **substantive universals** and **formal universals.** Chomsky holds that it is the central purpose of linguistics to construct a deductive theory of the structure of human language which is at once sufficiently general to apply to all languages (and not only to known languages, but also all possible languages), and at the same time not so general that it would also be applicable to other systems of communication or anything else that we should not wish to call languages. Put differently, linguistics should determine the universal and essential features of human language. Language universals are "universal," not in the sense that they are necessarily present in all languages, but in the less usual sense of the term, that they can be defined independently of their occurrence in any particular language, and can be identified, when they do occur in particular languages, on the basis of their definition within the general theory. For example, it is held that there is a fixed set of up to twenty "distinctive features" of **phonology** (e.g. the feature of *voicing* that distinguishes /p/ from /b/ and /t/ from /d/ in the pronunciation of English words such as *pin* and *bin*, and *ten* and *den*, or the feature of *nasality* that distinguishes /b/ from /m/, or /d/ from /n/, in words such as *bad* and *mad,* or *pad* and *pan*, etc.). Well, not all these features will be found in the phonemes of all languages. But from their various combinations every language will, as it were, make its own

selection. Similarly, at the level of **syntax** and **semantics**. For example, such syntactic categories as *noun, verb, adjective*, *noun phrase, verb phrase,* etc., and such components of meaning as, say, "male," "female," "physical object," etc., belong to fixed sets of elements in terms of which it is possible to describe the syntactic and semantic structure of all languages, although no particular language will necessarily manifest all the elements recognised as "universal" in the general linguistic theory. These phonological, syntactic, and semantic elements are what Chomsky calls "substantive universals" of the linguistic theory. Far more characteristic of Chomsky's thought is his emphasis on what he refers to as "formal universals," that is, the general principles (or constraints) which determine the form of the rules and their operation in the grammars of particular languages. One such "principle" is what Chomsky labels as **Structure-Dependency Principle,** which states that all grammatical rules (e.g. **transformational rules**) operate on structures, not on individual words. The **A-Over-A principle**, another one among those suggested by Chomsky, states that no **constituent** of category A can be moved out of a larger containing constituent of category A (i.e. category of the same type). Some of the other Principles proposed by Chomsky are: **Coordinate Structure Constraint**, **Sentential Subject Constraint**, **Consistent Serialization Principle**, etc. The Structure-Dependency Principle, the A-Over-A principle, and the Sentential Subject Constraint are treated as **absolute language universals**, since they operate in all languages without exception. These are also called **nonstatistical universals**. The other types of formal universals are called **relative** (also **statistical**) **universals**. An example of this type of universals is the Consistent Serialisation Principle, according to which all languages tend to place modifying elements either consistently before or consistently after modified elements (i.e. **heads**). For example, languages like English and Japanese generally place their **modifiers** before heads (and thus, from this point of view, they are "pre-modifying" languages). A language like French, with its general tendency to place modifiers after heads, is a good example of a "post-modifying" language (e.g. *le chat **noir*** 'black cat'). Though the Consistent Serialisation Principle represents a general word-order tendency in the languages of the world, there are many exceptions to it. There are languages that represented "mixed" types, that is, they put some modifiers before, other after heads (examples of such languages include Basque and Greek).
See **design features of language**, **head**, **modifier**

language user – użytkownik języka

A member of a particular linguistic community who, in speaking (or writing), attempts to achieve a particular interactional goal or set of goals using particular linguistic and non-linguistic strategies. Interactional goals include

attempts to elicit information or action on the part of the addressee, to provide information, to establish interpersonal rapport, and so on. The linguistic strategies employed to achieve these goals might include the use of **speech acts** (e.g. requesting, promising, thanking, etc.), choices over words and grammatical constructions, etc. Non-linguistic strategies might include facial expressions, gestures, proximity of interlocutors in terms of interpersonal space, etc.
See **speech act**

langue – język, kod (system) językowy

A French term introduced into linguistics by Ferdinand de Saussure (1857–1913), to distinguish one of the senses of the word "language" (the others being **langage** and **parole**). It refers to the "language system" shared by a community of speakers, and is usually contrasted with **parole**, which is the concrete utterances produced by individual speakers in actual situations. Parole is identical with the Chomskyan notion of **performance**. **Langue** is also something which the individual speaker can make use of but cannot affect by himself: it is a corporate, social phenomenon. Langue was considered by Saussure to be the totality, the "collective fact," as he put it, of a language, deducible from an examination of the memories of all the language users. It is a "storehouse": "the sum of word-images stored in the minds of individuals." Saussure argued that the characteristics of langue are really present in the brain, and not simply abstractions. The langue of a community can be arrived at only by a consideration of a large number of paroles. As such, parole is not of primary importance to the linguist; it is the langue of a speech community which is the ultimate purpose of the linguist to establish. Saussure's notion of langue is very similar in principle to the notion of **competence** as defined by Noam Chomsky in his *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*.
See **langage**, **competence**, **performance**

lapsus calami – pomyłka w pisaniu

An error made by a scribe in writing or copying a document. On occasion, it can be difficult to decide whether we are looking at a rare or unusual form or only at a **lapsus**. Cf. **lapsus linguae**.

lapsus linguae – przejęzyczenie się

(Latin, 'slip of the tongue') A mistake in uttering a word; an imprudent word inadvertently spoken. Similar adoptions from Latin are *lapsus calami*, 'a slip of the pen', and *lapsus memoriae*, 'a slip of the memory'. A **spoonerism** is usually a *lapsus linguae*.
See **spoonerism**

larynx – krtań

A casing of cartilage and muscles in the upper part of the windpipe (in the throat) which contains the **vocal cords**.
See **vocal cords**

lateral consonant – spółgłoska boczna (lateralna)

A consonant formed by placing an obstacle in the centre of the air-channel, but leaving a free passage for the air on one or both sides of the obstacle: e.g. in English the /l/ in /lait/ *light* is a **lateral consonant** (or just a **lateral**).

lateralization, **cerebral dominance** – lateralizacja

The development of control over different functions in different parts of the brain. As the brain develops, it is thought that different bodily functions (e.g. speech, hearing, sensations, actions) are gradually brought under the control of different areas of the brain. Those parts of the brain which control language are usually in the left hemisphere. One area in the left hemisphere is known as **Broca's area**, or the speech centre, because it is an important area involved in speech. Another area, called **Wernike's area**, is thought to be involved in understanding language. Damage to these areas of the brain leads to different types of **aphasia**. Whether or not there is a relationship between **lateralization** and a critical period for **language acquisition** has been much debated (JCRandRSch).
See **aphasia**, **language acquisition**

Latin – łacina, łaciński język

The language of the city of Rome in the first millennium BC, which later became the principal language in much of the Roman Empire. Latin belongs to the **Italic** branch of **Indo-European**.
See **Indo-European**, **Italic languages**

Latvian – łotewski język
See **Baltic languages**, **Balto-Slavic languages**

league of languages – liga językowa

A group of neighbouring languages which, owing to mutual influences, become more similar to one another in phonological, morphological, or syntactic structure. The evolution of languages does not always lead to their divergence, to the differentiation of a language zone. Sometimes the very opposite occurs, the result of language evolution is such that different languages gradually and unobtrusively become more similar to one another, thus integrating a language zone. While the divergence of languages is a consequence of the loss of

geographical contact among them, convergence of languages results from the establishment of such contact, from the mutual influence of these languages. A group of neighbouring languages which, owing to mutual influences, become more similar to one another in phonological, morphological, and syntactic structure, is called a **league of languages**. Languages belonging to the same league are affiliated languages. Linguists have claimed, for example, the existence of a **Balkan league of languages** composed of Modern Greek, Albanian, Bulgarian, and Rumanian. The first and second of these languages constitute distinct language categories, Bulgarian belongs to the **Slavic family** and Rumanian to the **Romance family** – all four of these languages, therefore, were very different from one another in structure in between the 6th and 10th centuries AD, when they came into geographical contact. Another example of a league of languages is the **Negro league**. The hundreds of languages used by the Negroes of Africa belong to several separate families, which, as a result of mutual influences, have become so similar to one another in respect to vocabulary and the structure of the system that they constitute a secondary entity called the Negro league (see Milewski 1973: 100).

See **Slavic family of languages**, **Romance languages**, **Proto-Slavic**, **Proto-Romance**

learnability – wyuczalność

Learnability is the property of language that is closely related to **cultural transmission**. This property of language makes it possible for any human individual of whatever race or intelligence to learn in childhood any language. N. Chomsky goes even so far as to say that human beings are doomed to learn some language, that people are biologically equipped with, what the linguist calls, **Language Acquisition Device** (LAD). In his *Aspects* (1965: 56) we come across the statement: "The language acquisition device is only one component of the total system of intellectual structures that can be applied to the problem solving and concept formation; in other words, the *faculte de langage* is only one of the faculties of the mind. […] a child cannot help constructing a particular sort of grammar to account for the linguistic data he is exposed to any more than he can control his perception of solid objects or his attention to line or angle." The linguistic data the child is exposed to constitute the input and the grammar underlying the data the output of the LAD. This can be diagrammatically shown thus:

INPUT (primary linguistic data) → LAD → OUTPUT (the grammar)

See **cultural transmission, Language Acquisition Device**

lemma (pl. **lemmata**) – lemat

A term used particularly by lexicographers and corpus linguists to refer to a word in all its inflectional and spelling forms. A word-list from a text is said

to be **lemmatised** when all the **word-forms** are associated with their **lexemes**. **Lemma** is another word for a **headword** in a dictionary.
See **word-form**, **lexeme**, **headword**

length – długość

A term used in **phonetics** to refer to the physical duration of a sound or **utterance**, and in **phonology** to refer to the relative durations of sounds and syllables when these are linguistically contrastive; also referred to as **quantity**.
See **phonetics**, **utterance**, **phonology**

lengthening – wzdłużenie

Any phonological change in which a formerly short segment (usually a vowel) becomes long. For example, in **Middle English**, certain short vowels were lengthened before certain consonant clusters; the ancestors of *gold*, *child*, *mild*, *bind*, *climb*, all with long vowels, had short vowels in **Old English**.
See **Middle English**, **Old English**

lenition, **weakening** – lenicja, osłabienie dźwiękowe

A phonological change which affects only consonants. It consists in a weakening in the overall strength of a sound (whether synchronically or diachronically) and it is opposed to **fortition**. Typically, lenition involves the change from a **stop consonant** to a **fricative consonant**, a voiceless consonant to a voiced consonant, or a sound being reduced to a zero. A "weaker" consonant is one which involves less articulatory effort than a corresponding "stronger" one, or which is generally less "consonantal" and more "vocalic."
See **fortition**, **fricative consonant**, **phonological change**, **stop (plosive) consonant**

letter – litera

The name of a character used to represent a sound. The word came into English from Old French *letter*, itself from Latin *littera*, 'letter of the alphabet'. There are 26 letters in the English **alphabet**.
See **alphabet**

level (**of a linguistic system**) – poziom (systemu języka), warstwa (systemu języka)

(1) A layer in a linguistic system, e.g. a **morpheme** level, **word** level, **phrase** level, **clause** level. These levels are often considered to form a hierarchy from lower levels containing the smaller linguistic units to higher levels containing larger linguistic units, e.g. morpheme level – word level – phrase level – clause level.
See **morpheme**, **word**, **phrase**, **clause**

(2) In **Generative Grammars**, the term **level** is used to refer to the different types of representation encountered within the **derivation** of a sentence. For example, **deep** and **surface structure** levels of representation are recognised, as are systematic **phonological** and **phonetic** levels.
See **Generative Grammar**, **derivation** (2)

level intonation – intonacja pozioma

When the pitch of the voice remains on one note for an appreciable time, we have **level intonation**.
See **rising intonation**, **falling intonation**

lexeme – leksem

A lexeme is an abstract unit. It can occur in many different forms in actual spoken or written sentences, and is regarded as the same lexeme even when inflected. For example, English *give*, *giving, gave, given* all belong to the one lexeme GIVE. In Crystal (2008) and Richards and Schmidt (2002) **lexeme** is treated as synonymous with the term **lexical item**.

lexical calque, loan translation – kalka językowa, klisza, refleks

Lexical calques (or loan translations) are words or groups of words composed of elements of the native language which are arranged on the model of a foreign language; new meanings are being expressed by native lexical material. Cf. e.g. English *skyscraper*, which has yielded Polish *drapacz chmur* as well as French *gratte-ciel*, German *Wolkenkratzer*, and Russian *nebo skrjób*.

lexical change – zmiana leksykalna

In English linguistics, another term for **lexical replacement**, or sometimes for **borrowing**, A **lexical replacement** (also **lexical innovation**) is defined in Trask (RLT) as "The disappearance from a language of a word (at least in its central sense) in favour of a new word (of whatever origin). […]. The replaced term need not disappear entirely; native English *deer* 'animal' (OE *deor*) has been replaced in its original sense by the Latin loan *animal*, but remains in use to denote a specific kind of animal. Lexical replacement is pervasive in languages over time, and it constitutes one of the most severe obstacles to the identification of remote relationships between languages; it is often claimed that words in the **basic vocabulary** are particularly resistant to replacement." There is evidence that certain semantic classes of words are much less likely to be borrowed than other words. These are chiefly the items of very high frequency which we would expect to find in every language; pronouns, lower numerals, kinship terms, names of body parts, simple verbs like *go, be, have, want, see, eat, die*, etc., widespread colour terms like *black, white*, and *red*, simple adjectives like *big, small, good, bad*, and *old*, names of natural phenomena like *sun, moon, star, fire, rain, river, snow, day, night*, etc.,

grammatical words like *when*, *here*, *if*, *and*, *this*, and a few others. Such words are often called the "basic vocabulary". In Jeffers and Lehiste (1979: 179), **lexical change** is simply defined as "changes in the meaning of words."

lexical (**content**) **word** – wyraz leksykalny (pełnoznaczny)
See **content word**

lexical corpus (pl. **corpora**) – korpus leksykalny
A collection of words for purposes of language analysis. Many lexical corpora contain millions of words that can be analyzed by a computer.
See **corpus**

lexical decomposition – dekompozycja leksykalna

An alternative term for **componential analysis**.
See **componential analysis**

lexical density – gęstość leksykalna

In statistical and lexical studies, a measure of the difficulty of a **text**, using the numer of different words (**word types**) to the total numer of words in the text (**word tokens**); also called **type-token ratio** (TTR). It is calculated by dividing the numer of different words by the total number of words and multiplying by 100. The result is given as a percentage. The assumption is that increasing the number of different words (i.e. a higher TTR) increases textual difficulty (DC).
See **type**, **token**

lexical entry – artykuł hasłowy

A **lexical entry** is an entry for a particular word in a dictionary, and hence by extension refers to the set of information about the word given in the relevant dictionary entry. In the **Standard/*Aspects* Model of Transformational-Generative Grammar**, a lexical entry contains "information that is required by the phonological and semantic components of the grammar and by the transformational part of the syntactic component of the grammar, as well as information that determines the proper placement of lexical entries in sentences, and hence, by implication the degree and manner of deviation of strings that are not directly generated" (Chomsky 1966: 88). The information given in a lexical entry usually includes: (a) its pronunciation, (b) its meaning, which is given in a formalised way, e.g., [+human], [+male], etc., (c) its lexical category (i.e. the word class it belongs to; e.g. N(oun), V(erb), A(djective)), etc., (d) other linguistic items it may co-occur with in a sentence; e.g., whether or not a verb can be followed by an object. In later models of TGG, a lexical entry would also contain **semantic roles**, such as Agent, Patient, Goal, etc.
See **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**

lexical-functional grammar – gramatyka leksykalno-funkcjonalna

A linguistic theory in which the role of the **lexicon** is central, and grammatical functions are taken as primitive (i.e. given by a theory). The syntactic structure of a sentence consists of a constituent structure (c-structure) and a functional structure (f-structure), which represent superficial grammatical relations. In this approach, the lexical component is assigned much of the role formerly associated with the syntactic component of a **transformational grammar** (DC). See **lexicon (2)**, **transformational**

lexical gap – leksykalna luka

The absence of a word in a particular place in a **lexical field** of a language. For example, in English there is no singular noun that covers both cow and bull, as *horse* covers *stallion* and *mare*.
See **lexical field**

lexical insertion rules – reguły insercji leksykalnej (wstawienia) leksykalnego

In the *Aspects* (Chomsky 1966) version of Transformational-Generative Grammar **lexical insertion rules** of the Base attach words under appropriate word-level categorial nodes, e.g., inserting *man* under the category *N* in the underlying structure generated by the rewriting rules of the Base.

```
              S
            /   \
          NP     VP
         /  \
        D    N
           (man)
```
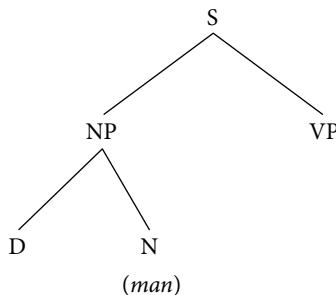
(where D stands for Determiner)

See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**

lexical item – jednostka leksykalna, leksem

Another term for **lexeme**. **Lexical items** are often referred to, loosely, as "words."
See **lexeme**, **word**

lexical meaning – znaczenie leksykalne (potencjalne)

The meaning of a **lexical** item on the plane of **langue** (i.e. language system). It is opposed to **contextual meaning**. Cf. also **lexical (content) word**.
See **context meaning**, **content (full, lexical) word**, **langue**

lexical morpheme – morfem leksykalny

A **morpheme** which has a **lexical meaning** and which can be used as a separate word (e.g. *book*, *car*, *black*, etc.). Cf. also **grammatical morpheme**.
See **morpheme**, **lexical meaning**

lexical (semantic) changes – zmiany leksykalne (semantyczne)

These involve substituting the old value of a word by one of its contextual meanings, which then becomes its new value. Consequently, these changes always represent either an **extension**, a **narrowing**, or **transference** of the earlier value. It is often assumed that such changes are possible primarily because of the lack of continuity in the transmission of language. The child who is learning how to speak is not presented with the lexical system in prepared form, but must infer its entirety from what he hears around him. In these conditions, it often happens that children attach a different value to a word than that which it has in the lexical system of the older generation. For example, the Polish word *babka* originally meant 'mother's mother' and later, 'old woman,' in general. Under appropriate circumstances, it could be used ironically or metaphorically for designating a young girl. In the meantime, this metaphorical meaning was impressed upon youth and the word *babka* came to mean 'girl' in their language (e.g. *fajna babka* 'a beautiful girl').

lexical (semantic) field – pole leksykalne (semantyczne)

The organization of semantically related words (and expressions) into a system which shows their relationship to one another. For example, kinship terms such as *father, mother, brother, sister, uncle, aunt* belong to a **lexical** (or **semantic**) **field** whose relevant features include generation, sex, membership of the father's or mother's side of the family, etc. To take another example, the words denoting colour are often cited as an example of a lexical/semantic field; the precise meaning of a colour word can be understood only by placing it in relation to the other words which occur with it in demarcating the colour spectrum. The absence of a word in a particular place in a lexical field of a language is called a **lexical gap**. For example, in English, there is no noun that covers both cow and bull as *horse* covers *stallion* and *mare*. Cf. **onomasiology**.

lexical semantics – semantyka leksykalna

The subfield of **semantics** concerned with the meaning relationships between lexical items, and how these relationships are structured.
See **semantics**

lexical replacement
See **lexical change**

lexical word – wyraz leksykalny
See **content** (**full**, **lexical**) **word**

lexicalization n., **lexicalize** v. – leksykalizacja

(1) The process of becoming less **transparent** and fusing into an unanalyzable word. As a morphologically complex word becomes more familiar with use, its internal structure becomes less important for the speaker or listener. For example, English *lord* once had two elements in it corresponding to *loaf* and *ward* 'guardian'. *Lord* is no longer transparently analyzed into these elements, but is **lexicalized.** The process of lexicalization is a gradual one, and the point at which something is lexicalized may be contentious. **Lexicalization** may be a consequence of the fact that a particular rule that was involved in the derivation of a word is no longer **productive** in the language. For instance, in earlier English the suffix -*ure* was productive in deriving English deverbal nouns such as, e.g. *departure, enclosure*, etc., and even *praisure, raisure,* which are obsolete now. In contemporary English new words are not derived by means of this suffix any longer, which means that all words ending in –*ure* now must be listed in the lexicon. But what is more common is the lexicalization of derivatives within a productive morphological pattern. For example, English derivative *transmission* is treated as a case of lexicalization when it is taken to mean 'a part of an automobile' (Pol. *przekładnia*) since its meaning is unlike the regular meaning of deverbal nouns (**nominalizations**) ending in -*ion* 'act/process of V-ing' (Pol. *doręczenie, przenoszenie, np. choroby*). Here *transmission* refers to a specific act/process. This kind of lexicalization is called **semantic lexicalization**.

(2) In **Transformational-Generative Grammar,** the insertion of lexical items into the strings of symbols generated by a grammar.

(3) G.N. Leech in his *Semantics* (1974/1976: 191) defines lexicalization as "the process of finding words for particular sets of **semantic features**, and has the psychological role of "packaging" a certain semantic content, so that it can be manipulated syntactically as an individual lexeme. For example, the word *bachelor* (of Arts) **lexicalizes** the semantic features: 'human,' 'adult,' 'having an academic degree' (Szymanek 1989: 29 ff.).

See **semantic features**

lexicalized – zleksykalizowany

(1) Realized, or represented, as a **lexical item**, rather than a purely grammatical element.

(2) Operating as one lexical item, rather than as a phrase consisting of a number of distinct lexical items (e.g. *red herring* as used in its idiomatic sense).

See **lexical item**

lexicon (1) – leksykon, słownik

A dictionary, usually of an ancient language such e.g as Latin, Greek, or Hebrew. In this use the term is oldfashioned.

lexicon (2) – słownictwo

In its most general sense, the term **lexicon** is synonymous with **vocabulary**, i.e. an inventory of lexical items (**lexemes**), including single words, compound words and idioms, seen as part of a native speaker's knowledge of his language. Thus understood **lexicon**, is not a physical book, and it is not arranged like a physical dictionary. It allows access through multiple routes such as form and meaning and it contains much more information than a normal dictionary.

lexicon (3) – słownik

The words and phrases listed in the **Base** component of a **Transformational-Generative Grammar** and information about them.
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**

lexicographer – leksykograf

A person who writes and compiles a **dictionary**.
See **lexicography**, **dictionary**

lexicography – leksykografia

Lexicography is concerned with the activity of writing and editing dictionaries. It is sometimes referred to as **dictionary-making**.

lexicologist – leksykolog

A student of the vocabulary items (**lexemes**) of a language, including their meanings and relations, and changes in their form over time.
See **lexeme**, **lexicology**

lexicology – leksykologia

The study of vocabulary items of a language, including their meanings and relations between them, and changes in their form and meaning over time.

lexicostatistics – leksykostatystyka

A technique (proposed by the American linguist Morris Swadesh (1909–1967) in a series of his papers) used in **glottochronology**. Trask (2000) points out that some linguists use **lexicostatistics** interchangeably with **glottochronology**, but as the author says, "this is poor practice" (RLT).
See **glottochronology**

lexis – leksyka, słownictwo

A term used in linguistics to refer to the vocabulary of a language. A unit of vocabulary is generally referred to as a **lexical item**, or **lexeme**. A complete inventory of the lexemes of a language constitutes the language's dictionary, or **lexicon**, a term particularly used in **Generative Grammar**.
See **lexeme**, **lexicon (1)**, **Generative Grammar**

liaison, **linking** – ligatura

French for 'linking' or 'ligature'; a term borrowed from French phonetics and grammar, designating the custom of pronouncing an otherwise mute final consonant letter of a word when the immediately following word begins with a vowel, thus pronouncing the two words more or less as one unit (e.g. Fr. *les home* [lezom], or *chez elle* [shezel]) or English here /hɪə/ becomes /hɪər/ in such phrase as *here are*.

linear structure of a sentence – struktura linearna zdania
See **Phrase-Structure Grammar**, **ultimate constituent**

linearity – linearność, liniowość

A property of language consisting in that all its expressions (e.g. sentences, phrases, words, etc.) are composed of elements following one another in time and thus reflecting the time sequence (from earlier to later) in spoken utterance, or the left-to-right ordering of written sentences in the written conventions used for most languages of the world today; e.g. sentences are composed of a succession of **constituents** following one another in a left-to-right order, the constituents are in turn made up of a sequence of words, etc. The **linear** nature of linguistic expressions (signs) was underlined by Ferdinand de Saussure (*Cours de linguistique générale*, 1916). However, as contemporary linguists (and especially **generativists**) claim, **linearity** is characteristic only of the **surface structure** of sentence, the **deep structure** of a sentence cannot be described solely in terms of linearity.
See **constituent**, **Generative Grammar**, **surface structure**, **deep (underlying) structure**

lingua franca (pl. **lingue franche**) – lingua franca

A language which is routinely used in some region for dealings between people who have different **mother tongues**. The original *Lingua Franca* was a variety of Italian, laced with words from a number of other languages, used as a trade language in the eastern Mediterranean in the late Middle Ages. **Lingua franca** is synonymous with **trade language** (RLT).
See **mother tongue**

linguist – językoznawca, lingwista

A specialist in **linguistics**. Sometimes the term "linguistician" is used, but as David Crystal (DC) notices "it is a rather self-conscious title which linguistics scholars themselves never use, but which is sometimes useful to help avoid confusing the two senses of 'linguist', namely, 'student of language' (the sense intended here) and 'speaker of many languages', which is what is popularly meant by the word."
See **linguistics**

linguistic analysis – analiza lingwistyczna

Investigation into the structure and functions of a particular language or language variety or of language in general as a system of human communication.
See **language**

linguistic archeology – archeologia lingwistyczna

A term occasionally applied to the use of philological data to shed light on a social or sociolinguistic state of affairs in the past. For example, the study of naming practices in medieval England can tell things about the use of English, Norman French and Old Norse (RLT).
See **Norman French**, **Old English**

linguistic creativity – twórczość (kreatywność) językowa

Creativity contrasts with **productivity** and refers to the non-rule-governed creation of new linguistic forms.
See **linguistic productivity**

linguistic data – dane językowe

The data used for making hypotheses about a particular language. These are of the following three kinds:

a. **Corpus of utterances** (= linguistic texts: spoken or written, or both). This type of data is always restricted, since the number of sentences that have been produced, though it can be astronomically large, is always finite.

b. **Linguistic intuitions** of "naïve" native speakers of a language (the elicited reactions of "linguistically naïve" speakers of the language in question). This sort of linguistic data is the only type of data available to the linguist who sets out to describe a living language which has no written records. To arrive at a grammar of such a language, the linguist must rely on the linguistic judgements of its native speakers.

c. **Introspection**, i.e. the linguistic intuition of the linguist himself, who either is a native speaker of the language he is concerned with or, at least, has a reasonable knowledge of the language.

There are schools of linguistics, e.g. **American Structural School** (represented by Leonard Bloomfield and some of his followers), which are highly distrustful of linguistic hypotheses arrived at on the basis of linguistic intuitions. American structuralists insisted on limiting all linguistic investigations to what can be directly observable only. Thus, for them, corpora of utterances are the only reliable type of linguistic data.

A quite different position to linguistic data is taken by **Transformational-Generative** grammarians who regard corpora of utterances as unreliable on two counts: (1) the corpus is always finite in scope, and no linguistic grammar can be constructed on the basis of a finite, restricted corpora; (2) besides, the corpus contains utterances that are never described in the grammar, i.e. ungrammatical structures. Having disposed of corpora of utterances as unreliable linguistic data, transformational linguists make abundant use of the other two kinds of data (i.e. b and c). They treat linguistic intuitions as part of the object, as well as the tool of investigation.
See **American Structural School**, **Transformational-Generative Grammar**

linguistic determinism – determinizm językowy
See **Sapir–Whorf Hypothesis**

linguistic geography – geografia językowa

The study of the distribution of languages and **language families** over the planet, including changes in the distribution over time, sometimes also including attempts at explaining that distribution in terms of non-linguistic factors. **Linguistic geography** utilizes the method of **linguistic atlases**. These atlases present the linguistic differentiation of the territory studied on hundreds of maps. Another term for linguistic geography is **geographical linguistics**.
See **language family**

linguistic historiography – historiografia lingwistyczna

The study of the history of ideas in **linguistics** and language study. The subject traces the origins of thinking about language from classical times, using Greek, Roman, Indian, Arabic, and other sources, continuing with the various schools of thought in the Middle Ages and the emergence of "traditional" accounts of pronunciation, spelling, grammar, lexicography, etc., down to the antecedents of present-day scientific and popular views of language and languages. The subject also includes debate on the methodological and philosophical foundations of **linguistic historiography**, including its relationship to the history and philosophy of science (DC).
See **linguistics**

linguistic intuition – intuicja językowa

A term used in **linguistics** referring to the judgement of speakers about their language, especially in deciding whether a sentence is **acceptable** or not, and

how sentences are interrelated. It is sometimes referred to as "tacit" linguistic knowledge or *Sprachgefühl*. Native-speaker **intuitions** are always a crucial form of evidence in linguistic analysis, but they are given a special theoretical status in **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, where in his *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* Noam Chomsky sees them as part of the data which the grammar has to account for. Linguists (cf. Crystal 1971) distinguish between the intuition of the native speaker (the man who is "linguistically naïve") and the intuition of the linguist, i.e. the analyst. The two intuitions work in different ways. As Crystal (1971: 110) writes, "The native speaker's [intuition] can only be safely used to provide information about what he feels is in the language – about what is a normal usage or meaning, or what is deviant; it cannot be safely asked to provide opinions as to how this data should be analysed. Reliable intuitions on the latter point are the product of training and professional experience – and in this respect, of course, the linguist is no different from, say, a physicist. The difference between linguist and physicist, though, is that the linguist may be a native speaker as well: the two kinds of intuition can reside in the one man."
See **linguistic data**, **acceptability**

linguistic minority – mniejszośc językowa

A group of persons, usually a racial minority, whose native language or language of customary daily communication is different from that of the majority of the country or political subdivision.

linguistic paleontology – paleontologia lingwistyczna

The study of the meaning of words in **reconstructed language** (a hypothetical, usually unattested language formed by making comparisons between the similarities of actual sentences) for the purpose of making social, cultural and geographic inferences about the speech communities that used those languages.

linguistic productivity – produktywność językowa

One of the **design** (defining) **features** of language, i.e. the feature of the language system which enables native speakers to construct and understand an indefinitely large number of utterances, including utterances that they have never previously encountered.
See **design features of language**

linguistic relativity – relatywizm językowy

A term used to identify an influential view of the relationship between language and thought, generally known as **linguistic relativity**, which asserts, in its strongest form, that language determines the way people perceive and organize

their worlds. The view, called **linguistic determinism**, was first expounded by the German ethnologist Wilhelm von Humboldt (1767–1835): in the 20th century it came to be known as the **Sapir–Whorf Hypothesis**. In recent years, the study of the relationships between cognition and linguistic expression has been viewed in a more subtle form within **cognitive linguistics** (DC).
See **Sapir–Whorf Hypothesis**, **cognitive linguistics**

linguistic reconstruction – rekonstrukcja językoznawcza

In practicing **reconstruction**, linguists begin with the earliest actual data available for the members of a language family, whether written or spoken, and attempt to ascertain what earlier stages of languages, or ultimately their common ancestor, might have been like. For instance, in:

Proto-Indo-European *owis*

Lithuanian	*awis*	Greek	*ois*
Luwian	*hawi*	Sanskrit	*avis*
Latin	*ovis*	English	*ewe*
Old Irish	*oi*		

Some words, **cognate** with English *ewe*, from various Indo-European languages, are given; by the methods of **linguistic reconstruction**, these can be traced back to a projected ancestral form in Proto-Indo-European, the mother language. This **proto-form** appears with a preceding superscript asterisk (as in *owis* above) to indicate that there is no direct evidence for it; we have no texts and no speakers, and must rely on comparative reconstruction using the daughter forms to hypothesise what the word would have been (McMahon 1996: 6–7).
See **cognate words**

linguistic school – szkoła lingwistyczna

Another name for **linguistic theory**.

linguistic sign – znak językowy

The words and other expressions of a language which "signify," i.e. stand for other things. **Linguistic signs** are arbitrary and conventional.
See **sign**

linguistic units – jednostki językowe (języka)

Not further analysable elements of a given language level: e.g., **phonemes** at the phonological level, **morphemes** at the morphological level, **sentences** at the syntactic level. A **linguistic unit** is determined by the relations that hold between it and the other units of a language system; in this sense, it is said that they are abstract in nature. See also DC.
See **morpheme**, **phoneme**, **sentence**

linguistic variation – zróżnicowanie języka

A label referring to the existence of competing linguistic forms within a single speech community or language. The linguists of the past often tended to regard a language as essentially homogeneous and invariant at any point in time, and they accordingly interpreted **language change** as a more or less abrupt shift from one steady state to another. In this view, **linguistic variation** was regarded as peripheral at best and a nuisance at worst. However, almost all contemporary work on language change (cf., e.g., McMahon 1994/1996, Trask 1996, etc.) recognizes the central role of variation; i.e. variation is viewed as the vehicle of change. Since the 1960s, it has become clear that variation is the norm in languages, and that language uniformity, (i.e. the absence of variation in language) is at best a sometimes convenient abstraction, and at worst a serious distortion of reality. Linguists such as U. Weinreich, W. Labov and M.I. Herzog (1968) see language as a system containing "orderly heterogeneity." The authors' claim is that variation is not random but strictly controlled, often by extralinguistic factors, the specification of which may help account for language change. Dialectological and sociolinguistic studies reveal correlations of linguistic variation with geographical region, sex, age, social class, and ethnic group; shifts in these correlations may tell us why linguistic features spread through the speech community, and conceivably how this spread begins (Trask 1996: 267 ff.). See also Fisiak (1993: 16–17).
See **language change**

linguistics n., **linguistic** a. – językoznawstwo, lingwistyka

Linguistics is usually defined as the scientific study of language. For the linguist, language is both the end and means of his investigation: his job is to analyse language, using language. The word "scientific" is crucial here. A scientific description is one that is carried out systematically on the basis of objectively verifiable observations and within the framework of some general **theory** appropriate to the data. It is often said that linguistics properly so-called is of relatively recent origin and that the investigation of language as practiced in Europe and America before the 19th century was subjective, speculative and unsystematic. One of the characteristics of modern linguistics is its autonomy, i.e. its independence of other scientific disciplines. When the linguist claims autonomy for his subject he is asking to be allowed to take a fresh and objective look at language without prior commitment to traditional ideas and without necessarily adopting the same point of view as philosophers, psychologists, literary critics, and representatives of other disciplines. One of the principal aims of modern linguistics is to construct a theory of grammar which is more "general" than the traditional theory – one that is appropriate for the description of all human languages and which is not biased in favour of those languages which are similar in grammatical structure to Greek or Latin. Different branches of linguistics are distinguished depending on the

linguist's focus and range of interest: for example, **synchronic linguistics** (i.e. the study of the state of language at any given point in time), **diachronic** (or **historical**) **linguistics** (which studies how languages change over time), **theoretical** (or **general**) **linguistics** (concerned with the establishment of the general principles for the study of all languages and the determination of the characteristics of human language as a phenomenon), **typological linguistics**, **mathematical linguistics, sociolinguistics**, **psycholinguistics**, etc.
See **mathematical linguistics**, **psycholinguistics**, **sociolinguistics**, **typological linguistics**

linking *r* – epentetyczne (wtrącone) *r*

In some **non-rhotic accents** of English, an instance of non-prevocalic /r/ which has been lost in isolation but which reappears when the position of the lost /r/ is directly followed by a vowel, as in *far* /fa:/ but *far away* /fa:rəwei/.
See **non-rhotic accent**

linking verb, **copula** – copula, łącznik, spójka

A verb that links a subject to a **complement** (e.g. *She **is** sick, She **looked** afraid*). In English, the following verbs can be used as **linking verbs** or **copulas** (**copulative verbs**): *feel*, *look, prove, resemble*, *sound*, *seem*, *stay*, *become*, *grow*, *turn*, *smell*, *taste*. The verb *be* is sometimes known as the **copula** since this is its main function in English. In some languages, e.g. in Russian, Arabic, Thai and all English-based **creole languages**, the copula is absent in the present tense (cf. e.g. the Russian *Ivan durak* 'Ivan is a fool').
See **complement**, **creole language**

literal translation – tłumaczenie dosłowne, przekład dosłowny
See **translation**

Lithuanian – litewski język
See **Baltic languages**, **Balto-Slavic languages**

litotes – litotes, antyfraza, chwyt stylistyczny

Understatement, such as the use of *not half bad* to mean 'good,' *not a silly man* instead of *a clever man*. **Litotes** is quite commonly used in everyday language and journalistic style. The opposite is **hyperbole**.

liturgical language – liturgiczny język

A language, most often a **dead language**, which is used in some community for religious purposes.
See **dead language**

live metaphor – metafora żywa

Live metaphors are those which are used in non-conventional circumstances, e.g. in poetry, literature, art, etc. Cf. **dead metaphor**.

living language – język żywy

A language that is still spoken and undergoes changes. Cf. **dead language**

loan translation
See **calque**

locative case – miejscownik, locativus

In languages which express grammatical relationships by means of **inflections**, the term refers to the form taken by a **noun phrase** (often a single noun or pronoun) when it typically expresses the idea of location of an entity or action. For example, The Latin *Romae* 'in Rome', or Sanskrit *grame* 'in a village' from *gramma* 'village'. English does not have a **locative case**. To express location, English typically uses **prepositional phrases**, as in *The woman was standing at a bus stop,* where *at a bus stop* is a locative phrase.
See **case**, **inflection**, **noun phrase**, **prepositional phrase**

locutionary act – akt lokucyjny

In **Speech Act Theory**, the basic act of utterance; producing a meaningful linguistic expression; in other words, the act of saying something that makes sense in a language, i.e. follows the rules of pronunciation and grammar.
See **Speech Act Theory**

logical constants, **connectives** – spójniki (konektywy) logiczne

In logic, symbols with a fixed value that combine with propositional **variables** in a logical calculus to form valid (i.e. well-formed) formulae. The principal **logical constants** in the **propositional calculus** are 'and' ('&'), 'or' ('V'), and 'not' (~). For example, ~ pVq is a well-formed formula with two logical constants and two propositional variables. Regardless of the value of the variables, (i.e. no matter what actual propositions are substituted for them) this disjunction is true provided that either 'not-p' is true (i.e. 'p' is false) or 'q' is true (or both 'not-p' and 'q' are true) (Allwood et al. 1979: 27).
See **variable**, **propositional calculus**, **logical constants**

logical subject – podmiot logiczny
See **subject**

logical truth – prawda logiczna

A term used in logic, and often in semantic theory, for truth which is guaranteed by the principles of logic alone.

logogram n., **logogrammatic** a., **logograph** n., **logographic** a. – logogram, logograf

In the study of **writing systems**, a written or printed symbol which represents a word (or **morpheme**). A good example of a **logographic** system is Chinese. As it is, not only words are represented by the symbols, but also less meaningful elements, such, e.g., as **affixes** and **roots**. The logographic system was known in ancient Egypt and Babylon.
See **writing system**, **morpheme**, **affix**, **root**

London School of Linguistics – Londyńska Szkoła Lingwistyczna

The term refers to the linguistic school in Great Britain which developed under the formative influence of J.R. Firth (1890–1960), Professor of General Linguistics in the University of London (1944–1956). Some of the Firthian notions include his **contextual theory of meaning**, with strong emphasis on the social context of situation, **prosodic phonology**, and **collocation**. In Firth's theory, meaning is seen as a multiple phenomenon, its various facets being relatable on the one hand to features of the external world, and on the other hand to the different levels of linguistic analysis, such as phonetics, grammar, and **semantics**.
See **contextual** (**Firthian**) **theory of meaning**, **prosodic phonology**, **semantics**

long-term memory – pamięć długotrwała

Long-term memory is that part of the memory system where information is stored more permanently. Information in long-term memory may not be stored in the same form in which it is received. For example, a listener may hear sentence a) below, and be able to repeat it accurately immediately after hearing it. The listener uses **short-term memory** to do this. On trying to remember the sentence a few days later the listener may produce sentence b), using information in long-term memory which is in a different form from the original message:
a) *The car the doctor parked by the side of the road was struck by a passing bus.*
b) *The doctor's car was hit by a bus* (JCRandRSch).
See **short-term memory**

low-rising tone – ton słabo rosnący
See **tone unit**

Lower Lusatian – dolnołużycki język
See **Slavic languages**, **Proto-Slavic**

Macedonian – macedoński język
see **Slavic languages**, **Proto-Slavic**

machine translation – przekład maszynowy

The use of a translation program to translate texts without human input in the translation process. Although a great progress has been made in this field in recent decades, **machine-translated** text still varies greatly in quality, mostly depending on the complexity of the **source text**, and is seldom adequate for publication without human intervention to correct errors of grammar, meaning, and style (JCRandRSch).
See **source text**, **translation**

macrolinguistics – makrolingwistyka

A term used by some linguists, especially in the 1950s, to identify an extremely broad conception of the subject of linguistic enquiry. In a **macrolinguistic** approach, linguistics is seen in an overall relation to **phonetic** and **extralinguistic** experience. It is divided into three main subfields: **prelinguistics** (whose primary subject-matter is **phonetics**), **microlinguistics** (whose primary subject-matter is **phonology**, **morphology**, and **syntax**) and **metalinguistics** (whose subject-matter is the relationship between language and all extralinguistic features of communicative behaviour, e.g. including what would now be called **sociolinguistics**) (DC).

macron – znak długości samogłoski

A short, straight **diacritic mark** (-) placed horizontally over a vowel (as in **Old English** *gōd* 'good'), to show that it is long.
See **diacritics**, **Old English**

macrosememe – makrosemem

The meaning of an expression taken as a whole and showing no relation to the meanings (or **sememes**, i.e. meanings of **morphemes)** of its parts; e.g. *Tell that to the marines!* meaning 'I am sceptical' (Potter 1966: 208, 212).
See **sememe**

main (**independent**) **clause** – zdanie główne (nadrzędne)

It is a free-standing clause which is not contained in any other clause, e.g., in *I think she loves you*, *I think* is a **main clause**. Cf. **subordinate clause**.
See **clause**

main verb – czasownik główny

The lexical verb in the **main clause** of a complex or compound sentence, e.g. *know* in the sentence *I **know** that John is a linguist.*

malapropism, **catachresis** – malapropizm

The erroneous use of a word in place of an intended word which is somewhat similar in form but typically unrelated in meaning, such as the use of *facilities* for *faculties,* of *prostrate* for *prostate*, or of *epitaph* for *epithet.*

Malayo-Polynesian (**Austronesian**) **languages** – malajo-polinezyjskie (austronezyjskie) języki

The **language family** stretching from Madagascar to Easter Island. This family includes Malagasy (in Madagascar), Malay, Indonesian, all the languages of Indonesia, all the languages of the Philippines, the indigenous languages of Taiwan, and all the languages of the Pacific. The Polynesian branch of the family includes such languages as Hawaiian, Tahitian, Samoan, and the Maori of New Zealand (Milewski 1973: 27, 118).

Mandarin – mandaryński język
See **Chinese** (**Sinitic**) **languages**

manner of articulation – sposób artykulacji

The way a speech sound is produced by the speech organs. There are different ways of producing a speech sound; e.g., with **vowels**, in addition to the position of the tongue in the mouth, the lips may be:
a) rounded, e.g. for /u:/ in /ʃu:/ *shoe*; or
b) spread, e.g. for /i:/ in /mi:n/ *mean.*
See also **place of articulation**

manuscript – manuskrypt

A handwritten text on paper or a similar soft material. The study of **manuscripts** is **paleography**. The abbreviation for *manuscript* is **ms**.
See **paleography**

marginalia – marginalia

Notes written in the margin of a **manuscript**.
See **manuscript**

marked member (of an opposition) – człon nacechowany (opozycji)

Having a characteristic or a feature not possessed by a closely related unit; for example, *baked* is **marked** for the grammatical feature 'past tense', but

bake is unmarked, and the phoneme /b/ is marked for voicing, but /p/ is **unmarked**.
See **opposition**

markedness theory – teoria nacechowaności

The theory that within and across languages certain linguistic elements can be seen as **unmarked**, i.e. simple, prototypical, while others are seen as **marked**, i.e. complex, peripheral, or exceptional. Some markedness relations are **binary**. For example, vowels can be either voiced or voiceless. Voiced vowels are considered unmarked, while voiceless vowels (which occur in fewer languages of the world) are marked (McMahon 1996: 97 ff.). See also DC.
See **binary**, **(un)marked terms**

masculine gender – rodzaj męski
See **grammatical gender**

mathematical linguistics – językoznawstwo matematyczne, lingwistyka matematyczna

It constitutes a practical application of **information theory** to language research. **Mathematical linguistics** is divided into two trends – statistical and algebraic – both combining purely linguistic questions with problems of logic, mathematics, physics, and technology. It is widely used with such language problems as describing the distribution of language elements in a text or dictionary, studying the individual language features of various authors, and dealing with certain questions concerning the typology of languages.
See **information theory**

mathematical methods – metody statystyczne

Any of various approaches to **comparative linguistics** which depend upon the use of **mathematical methods**, most often statistical ones. In most cases these methods are applied in an attempt to determine whether there exists good evidence for a remote relationship between certain languages, though some linguists are interested in determining the degree of closeness between related languages, in sub-grouping, or in the time depth at which related languages separated. Named methods include **lexicostatistics**, **glottochronology**, the **probabilistic approach**, and **best-tree approaches** (RLT).
See **comparative linguistics**, **glottochronology**, **lexicostatistics**

matrix clause – zdanie matrycowe (macierzowe)

In a sentence like *I think* [*you are right*], to say that the *think*-clause is the **matrix clause** for the bracketed clause is equivalent to saying that it is the clause which immediately contains the bracketed clause (hence that the bracketed

clause is **embedded** within the *think*-clause). The term is used especially in **Generative Grammar**.
See **embedded clause**, **Generative Grammar**

maximal projection – projekcja maksymalna
See **projection**

maxims of conversation – maksymy konwersacji
See **cooperative principle**

meaning – znaczenie

It is the basic notion in linguistic analysis; what a language expresses about the world we live in or any possible world. The study of meaning is called **semantics**, which is usually concerned with the analysis of the meaning of words, phrases and sentences, and sometimes with the meaning of **utterances** in **discourse** or the meaning of a whole **text**.
See **discourse**, **semantics**, **utterance, text**

meaning-changing transformation – transformacja zmieniająca znaczenie

In early **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, a distinction is made between two types of **transformations**: if the operation of a transformation involves a change in the meaning between input and **derived sentences**, the transformation is said to be **meaning-changing**; the other type of transformation is called **meaning-preserving**; in meaning-preserving transformations there is no such change.
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **transformation**, **derived sentence**

meaning-preserving transformation – transformacja zachowująca znaczenie
See **meaning-changing transformation**

mental lexicon – leksykon mentalny

The term refers to a mental system which contains all the information a person possesses about words. The total set of words a speaker knows forms his or her **mental lexicon**. The content of the mental lexicon and how a mental lexicon is developed are studied in **psycholinguistics** and **language acquisition**. According to psycholinguists, people's knowledge of a word includes:
a) knowing how a word is pronounced,
b) the grammatical patterns with which a word is used,
c) the meaning(s) of a word.
See **psycholinguistics**, **language acquisition**

mentalism n., **mentalistic** a. – mentalizm

In linguistics, the influence of this school of thought (viz. that mental states and processes exist independently of their manifestations and human behaviour, and can explain behaviour) is most marked in the work of Noam Chomsky, especially in his notions of **competence** and **innateness**, and in his general views of the relationship between language and mind (a 'theory of mind') (see N. Chomsky, *Language and Mind*, 1968; *Reflections on Language*, 1976). **Mentalistic linguistics** is, thus, opposed to the **behaviourism** of the earlier psychological work on language. See also Lyons (2005: 40 ff.).
See **competence**, **innateness hypothesis**, **behaviouristic psychology**

mentalistic linguistics – lingwistyka mentalistyczna
See **mentalism**

merger, **dephonologisation** – defonologizacja

The loss of contrast which formerly existed between two (or more) phonemes. In **unconditioned merger**, the contrast disappears in every case and the number of phonemes is reduced. For instance, the historical Basque contrast between terminal /s/ and apical /ś/ has been lost in western varieties in favour of /ś/ – that is, the **laminal** has become **apical** in every case. This is presented in the following graph:

X   X

X   (unconditioned merger)
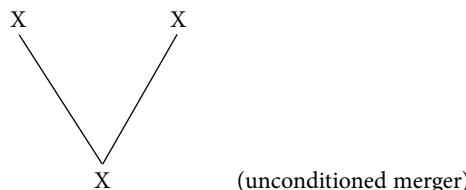
In **conditioned merger**, the contrast only disappears in specified environments. For instance, in southern varieties of American English the contrast between /e/ (as in *bed*) and /i/ (as in *bid*) before a nasal, but not otherwise, making *pen* and *pin* **homophones**, but not *bed* and *bid* (RLT, Jeffers and Lehiste 1979: 41–42).
See **phonemic split**, **homophones**, **apical consonant**, **laminal consonants**

meronym – meronim
See **meronymy**

meronymy – meronimia

A term used in **semantics**. It is like **hyponymy** in that it relates words hierarchically, but the relation is a "part of" relation. The **meronyms** of a **superordinate word** represent the parts of that word. For example, *ball*, *heel*, and *instep* are meronyms of *foot*; *hub*, *rim* and *spoke* are meronyms of *wheel*.

Together, hyponymy and meronymy serve to group words into semantic sets, known as **lexical fields**, in which the lexemes all refer to the same area of meaning.
See **semantics**, **hyponymy**, **superordinate word (term)**, **lexical field**

message – komunikat, przekaz

What is conveyed in speech or writing from one person to one or more other people. The **message** may not always be stated in verbal form but can be conveyed by other means; e.g. wink, gestures, etc. A distinction may be made between message form and message content. For example, in a spoken request, the message form is how the request is made (e.g. type of sentence structure, use or non-use of courtesy words, type of intonation), and the message content is what is actually requested (e.g. the loan of some money) (JCRandRSch).

metalanguage – metajęzyk

Linguists distinguish between **metalanguage** and **object-language**. These two are correlative, in the sense that the one depends upon the other. We have to use language to talk about or describe a language. Instead of using a given language, reflexively, in order to describe itself, we can employ one language to describe another. In this case, we may say that the language being described is the object-language and the language which is used to make the descriptive statements is the metalanguage. Thus, we might use English to describe French, or French to describe English, and so on. For example, the following sentence *The French word "homme" is a noun* might be used to make a metalinguistic statement in English about a word in French – the object-language. Here we have one natural language serving as metalanguage with respect to another.

metalexicographer – metaleksykograf
See **metalexicography**

metalexicography – metaleksykografia, teoria leksykografii

Metalexicography (or **academic lexicography**) is concerned, among other things, with the business of dictionary criticism, which proposes methods and criteria for reviewing and evaluating dictionaries. A further consideration in dictionary criticism is the perspective from which the review is conducted. The **metalexicographer**'s primary focus is on the adequacy of a dictionary as a lexical description. Dictionary criticism not only provides informed reviews of dictionaries for the potential users, it also contributes to advances in **lexicography** and to improvements in dictionaries (Jackson 2002).
See **lexicography**

metalinguistic function of language – funkcja metalingwistyczna (metajęzykowa) języka

This function serves to describe some language. For example, the statement "The word group *the tall boy* is a noun phrase and functions as the subject of the sentence *The tall boy is a liar*" is a **metalinguistic** statement. Here language is used about language. See also other functions of language: **cognitive/symbolic**, **social/interpersonal**, **phatic**, **poetic**, **expressive/emotive**, **performative**. See **functions of language**

metalinguistic knowledge – wiedza metalingwistyczna

A term used, among others, in language learning, where it refers to forms, structure, and other aspects of a language which a learner arrives at through reflecting on and analysing the language. In **linguistic analysis**, researchers sometimes make use of a native speaker's **metalinguistic knowledge** as one source of information about the language (JCRandRSch).
See **linguistic analysis**

metanalysis – metanaliza

The term has been introduced by O. Jespersen (1860–1943) in his *Language, Its Nature, Origin and Development*. As used by the author, the term **metanalysis** means "that words or word-groups are by a new generation analysed differently from the analysis of a former age" (p. 173). Thus, the term refers to the formation of a new lexical item (word) through a wrong analysis of an existing word boundary; e.g., in early English a *naddre* came to be heard in the popular mind as an *adder*, which has become the modern form. Crystal (2008) sees it as a kind of **folk etymology**.
See **folk etymology**

metaphor – metafora, przenośnia

An expression which means or describes one thing or idea using words usually used of something else with very similar qualities, as in *the sunshine of her smile*, without using the words *as* or *like*. M. Black (1962) distinguishes between **extinct**, **dormant**, and **active metaphors**. **Extinct metaphors** are historical: they functioned as metaphors in the past, but nowadays no one perceives them as metaphorical any more. A good illustration is the word *muscle* coming from Latin *musculus*, which means 'a little mouse'. **Dormant metaphors** function in everyday language as conventional expressions but they may be restored as active in some contexts. For instance, the use of the word *bondage* becomes metaphorical when it implies some kind of obligation. **Active metaphors** are easily recognisable as non-literal, i.e., metaphorical expressions. Communication through metaphor depends on the cultural backgrounds of the participants in the act of communication. It can only be successful when they

share the same cultural knowledge. Under the **cognitive** approach, metaphor is "an instrument of gaining knowledge about the reality which is not easily accessible through our sensory, motor, emotional or mystical experience. Cognitive linguists see metaphor as a means whereby ever more abstract and intangible areas of experience can be conceptualized in terms of the familiar and concrete. Metaphor is thus motivated by a search for understanding. It is characterized, not by a violation of **selection restrictions** (the 'deviance hypothesis' put forward by **generativists**), but by the conceptualization of one cognitive domain (e.g. space, time, colour) in terms of components more usually associated with another cognitive domain." For the cognitive linguists G. Lakoff and M. Johnson (1980), the essence of metaphor is understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another. "Metaphor is pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action. Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature. Much of our understanding of everyday experience is structured in metaphor. In its view of metaphor as a general cognitive process, the cognitivists' approach contrasts with the purely stylistic account of metaphor, with its distinction between literal and figurative meaning, and its focus on rhetorical and literary contexts." (Lakoff and Johnson 1980: 3).
See **Cognitive Grammar**, **selection restrictions**, **Generative Grammar** (**Theory**)

metaphor *in absentia* – metafora *in absentia*

The term was introduced by J. Dubois et al., the authors of *Rhétorique générale* (in Dobrzyńska 1994: 17). In this kind of metaphor the **tenor** is absent from the metaphorical expression. Proper interpretation of such metaphors requires some knowledge about the context in which they appear; e.g. in *The bird has flown out of the cage* the tenor is hidden behind the literal meaning, and only knowing the context, which can refer to a prisoner escaping from the prison, may reveal the real meaning of the metaphor. Cf. **metaphor *in praesentia***.
See **tenor**

metaphor *in praesentia* – metafora *in praesentia*

The term was introduced by J. Dubois et al., the authors of *Rhétorique générale* (in Dobrzyńska 1994: 17). In this type of metaphor the **tenor** is present in the metaphorical expression, and as a result such a metaphor is easily understandable; e.g. ***This book** is a mine of information*, ***Kowalski** is a pup*. Cf. **metaphor *in absentia***.
See **tenor**

metaphorical extension – rozszerzenie metaforyczne

One of the principal factors operative in **semantic change** is **metaphorical extension**, as when the word *foot* meaning 'terminal part of a leg' also came

to mean 'lowest part of a hill or mountain' (e.g. *at the foot of the Highgate Hill*).
See **semantic change**, **metaphor**

metaphorization n., **metaphorize** v. – metaforyzacja

In cognitive processes taking place in people's minds some concepts are formed on the basis of other concepts. This process is called **metaphorisation**, and its result, or product, is **metaphor**. Metaphorisation is always connected with the emergence of a new quality, a new concept, different from both the **tenor** concept and the **vehicle** concept. As Krzeszowski (1994: 86) puts it, "This new concept is only an approximation to the theme (i.e. tenor) through the vehicle" (Krzeszowski 1994, 1997).
See **metaphor**, **tenor**, **vehicle**

metathesis – metateza, przestawka

It involves arranging two phonemes in the opposite order. Thus, e.g., from the earlier **błcha* we have in present-day Polish – as a result of **metathesis** of the group *łch* into *chł* – the word *pchła* ('flea'). (Polish examples taken from KP.) Cf. also **Old English** *acsian* and present-day English *ask*, or Old English *brid* and present-day English *bird*.
See **Old English**

method of internal reconstruction – metoda rekonstrukcji wewnętrznej

The method of **internal reconstruction** (part of which involves determining relative chronology) is based on the existence of variant elements in the language of a particular period. By analyzing the language system, this method determines which of these elements are older and which are earlier (Milewski 1973: 102–103).

methodology (**in research**) – metodologia

The procedures used in carrying out an investigation, including the methods used to collect and analyse data.
See **linguistic data**

metonymy – metonimia

Metonymy arises from contiguity of meanings, and involves a real rather than an imagined link between concepts. In the most common *part-for-whole* type, one characteristic of an entity is directly referred to but the whole entity is understood; examples include *redhead* 'a person, especially a woman, whose hair is a colour that is between red and brown'. A subcategory of metonymy is **synecdoche**; here reference to the whole is made by reference to a salient part: e.g. *We need some new faces around here*. Alternatively, the name of an

institution may stand for an influential person or group of influential persons who work in the institution: e.g. *The Government has stated…* Sometimes double metonymies are in operation: e.g. when we talk of *negotiations between Washington and Moscow*, we are using the names of places to refer to important persons associated with institutions located in those places. Some linguists consider metonymy to be "one of the most fundamental processes of meaning extension, more basic perhaps, even than **metaphor**" (Taylor 1995: 124).
See **synecdoche**, **metaphor**

microlinguistics – mikrolingwistyka

A term used by some linguists, especially in the 1950s, to refer to the main areas of linguistics, especially phonology, morphology, and syntax, these being seen as constituting a sharply defined field of study differentiable from **prelinguistics** and **metalinguistics**. In this frame of reference, it was seen as a branch of **macrolinguistics**. More broadly, the term can be used to distinguish complementary views of a subject, one being strictly linguistic, the other being wider; for example, a study of meaning which concentrates on **denotative** meaning and does not take sociolinguistic, etc., factors into account might be called **microlinguistic** (as opposed to 'macrolinguistic') semantics (DC). See also **macrolinguistics**.
See **denotational meaning**, **morphology**, **phonology**, **syntax**, **prelinguistics**, **macrolinguistics**

micro-sense, **sub-sense** – mikrosens, sens podrzędny

A term coined by A. Cruse (*Lexical Semantics* 1986). A distinct word meaning that appears to be motivated by the specific situational context in which the word (and the utterance in which the word is embedded) occurs. However, the distinct sense disappears in other contexts. This suggests that **micro-senses** lack full autonomy (VE).

Middle English – średnioangielski

English as it was spoken in the period 1100–1500.

Middle English dialects – dialekty średnioangielskie

Scholars assume that **Middle English** had five major dialects: **Northern**, **West-Midland**, **East-Midland**, **South-Western**, and **Kentish**.
See **Middle English**

middle voice – strona średnia

Examples of sentences with the **middle voice** include: *The book sells well*, *The door opened*, *The water boiled*, etc. The processes implied in these sentences are

going on in the subjects themselves (as if of their own will), and the verbs are not followed by noun phrases that would function as objects, the verb thus must be treated as intransitive. In **active voice** sentences, the subject is the point of departure for the action involved and the direct object is the point of destination. In **passive voice** sentences, the relation is reversed, that is to say, here the grammatical subject is the target of the action and the agent (the **logical subject**) is the point of departure (Lyons 1968: 372 ff.).
See **logical subject**

minimal pair – para minimalna

The words in a language which differ from each other by only one distinctive sound (one **phoneme**) and which also differ in meaning. For example, the English words *bear* and *pear* are a **minimal pair** as they differ in meaning and in their initial phonemes /b/ and /p/.
See **phoneme**

minimal pair test – test pary minimalnej

It is a technique which establishes which sounds in a language "make a difference," and which do not. It works like this: you take a word – on its own, to begin with – and you alter one of its sounds; if you get a different word thereby – that is, if a speaker of the language tells you the words are no longer the same – then you have a **minimal pair**, and the two sounds which alternate are considered important sounds (i.e. **phonemes**) in the language. For example, consider the pairs /pet/ and /bet/, /bet/ and /set/, /set/ and /sat/, etc. (JCRandRSch, DC).
See **minimal pair**, **phoneme**

minimal projection – projekcja minimalna
See **projection**

Minimalist Programme (**Theory**) – teoria minimalistyczna

A theory of grammar introduced by Noam Chomsky in 1995 as an advance on **Government-Binding Theory** while remaining within the general paradigm of the principles and parameters model of **Universal Grammar**. The cornerstone of the theory is that grammars should make use of the minimal theoretical apparatus necessary to provide a characterisation of linguistic phenomena that meets the criterion of **descriptive adequacy**. This goal is motivated in part by the desire to minimise the **language acquisition** burden faced by children and account for the fact that children acquire any language they are exposed to (JCR and RSch, DC).
See **Government-Binding Theory**, **Universal Grammar**, **descriptive adequacy**

minority language – język mniejszości narodowej

A language spoken by a minority of a population of a territory. Such people are called **linguistic minorities** or language minorities. Examples of such languages are, among others, Italian and Spanish in the USA.

mixed language – język mieszany

A language which does not descend from a single **ancestor language** in the normal way but which has instead been assembled by combining large chunks of material from two (or more) existing languages: one type of **non-genetic language**. The term is commonly applied only to **mother tongues** and not to **pidgins**, which otherwise may have a similar origin, and it is not usually applied to **creoles** either. The term **mixed language** has sometimes been applied far more broadly to any language which has been significantly influenced by another (such, e.g., as English), but this broad usage seems objectionable since in this sense there are hardly any mixed languages. Examples of mixed languages include: **Mednyj Aleut**, spoken on Copper Island (a mixture of Aleut and Russian), and **Michif**, in the USA and Canada (Cree and Canadian French), which are characterised by the presence within them of large and monolithic blocks of material imported wholesale from each of the ancestor languages. Another mixed language, **Ma'a** (or **Mbugu**), spoken in Tanzania, is a historically a **Cushitic language**, which retains around 50 per cent Cushitic vocabulary, a few residual elements of Cushitic structure, but the rest has been borrowed from **Bantu** (RLT).
See **ancestor language**, **Bantu languages**, **Cushitic family of languages**, **pidgin**, **creole language**

modal auxiliaries – modalne czasowniki posiłkowe

A closed set of **auxiliary verbs** all of which have unconventional morphology and are primarily used to denote various **modal** meanings, such as, e.g. obligation, willingness, uncertainty, etc. In English the **modal auxiliaries** comprise items such as *will/would*, *shall*, *can/could*, *may/might*, *must*, *should*, *ought to*, *dare*, and *need*.
See **auxiliary verbs**

modal frame – rama modalna

In A. Wierzbicka (1969), **modality** is inseparably bound with every sentence and it forms its constitutive feature. Wierzbicka postulates the following schema for the basic sentence in her *lingua mentalis* (i.e. mental language):

[M that S is P] (mental sentence)

where S refers to the subject, i.e. the concrete spatio-temporal object the speaker has in mind, P signifies a feature or relation, and M is a **modal frame**

which signals the speaker's attitude towards the state of affairs in which P is predicated of S, i.e. the subject. See also **modality**.
See **modality**

modality – modalność

In John Lyon's *New Horizons in Linguistics* (1971: 332) **modality** is regarded as "having to do with possibility or probability, necessity or contingency, rather than merely with truth or falsity." A narrower meaning of modality is suggested by another British linguist M.A.K. Halliday (1970: 36). For Halliday, modality is equivalent to "[…] a system derived from the interpersonal function of language, expressing the speaker's assessment of probabilities." In Ch. Fillmore's (1966, 1968) **Case Grammar** modality (M) is one of the two major constituents of a sentence's **deep structure**, the other being **proposition** (P). The first base rule of Fillmore's grammar is: Sentence → Modality + Proposition.
See **Case Grammar**, **deep** (**underlying**) **structure**, **proposition**

Modern English – nowoangielski język

The English language used from 1700 to the present.

modifier, **qualifier** – określnik

For example, in the noun phrase (NP) *favourite odalisk* the adjective *favourite* functions as a **modifier** of the noun *odalisk*, which functions as the **head** of the NP in question. Thus, the modifier *favourite* is the syntactically subordinate constituent in relation to its head *odalisk*. Modifiers occurring before the head are called **premodifiers**, e.g. *favourite* in the phrase *favourite odalisk,* and modifiers appearing after the head are called **postmodifiers**, e.g. *with a white beard* in the phrase *the man with a white beard.* Some linguists (e.g. Halliday 1973) restrict the term "modifier" to premodifier and call postmodifiers **qualifiers** (Lyons 1977: 391).
See **head**

modularity – modularność

A term used in linguistics in two slightly different ways. On the one hand, it is proposed especially in J.A. Fodor's *The Modularity of Mind* (1983), that the mind is **modular** in the sense that it consists of a number of different systems (**modules**), each with its own distinctive properties, such as the language system and the vision system. On the other hand, it is suggested, especially in **Government-Binding Theory**, that the language system itself is modular in the sense that it consists of a number of different subsystems (modules) which interact in specific ways (DC).
See **Government-Binding Theory**

modularity principle – zasada modularności
See **module**, **modularity**

module – moduł
See **modularity**

Mongolian languages – mongolskie języki

A group of about a dozen closely related languages spoken in central Asia, the most important being the standard *Khalka* **Mongolian** of the Mongolian People's Republic. All the Mongolian languages appear to be descended from the classical Mongolian of Genghis Khan. The Mongolian languages form one branch of the **Altaic** family (RLT).
See **Altaic languages**

monogenesis – hipoteza monogenetyczna

The idea that language arose only once in human history, and hence that all the languages ever spoken are descended from a single common ancestor. Most linguists consider **monogenesis** a plausible idea, but there is no way we can test it, since tens of millennia of geographical dispersion and language change are enough to obliterate all traces of a common ancestry many times over. The opposing view is **polygenesis** (RLT).

monolingual n., a. – monolingwalny, jednojęzyczny

A person who knows and uses only one language. Cf. **bilingual**.

monolingualism – monoligwalizm, jednojęzyczność

Knowledge and use of only one language. Cf. **bilingualism**, **multilingualism**.

monomorphemic word – wyraz jednomorfemowy

A word containing only one morpheme, thus having no morphological structure, e.g. *knight* and *blow* are **monomorphemic words** in English. Cf. **polymorphemic word**.
See **morpheme**

monophthong – monoftong, samogłoska pojedyncza

A term used in **phonetics**, referring to a phoneme comprising one **phone**, e.g. the vowel sound in *bat*, as contrasted with the **diphthong** in *bout*.
See **phone**, **diphthong**, **phonetics**

monophthongization – monoftongizacja

The conversion of a **diphthong** to a pure vowel.
See **diphthong**, **diphthongization**

monosemy, **univocality** – monosemia, jednoznaczność

The term used in **semantics** and referring to the association of a single sense with a single linguistic form; e.g. (the) *sky* (Pol. *niebo*). The term is opposed to **polysemy**.
See **semantics**, **polysemy**

monosyllabic word – wyraz monosylabiczny (jednosylabowy) (jednozgłoskowy), jednozgłoskowiec

A word consisting of one **syllable** (e.g. English *dog*, *book*, etc.). Compare **disyllabic word**, **polysyllabic word**.
See **syllable**

monosyllable – monosylaba

A word consisting of one **syllable**.

monotransitive verb – czasownik jednomiejscowy (przechodni)

A **monotransitive verb** is one which takes a single object, e.g., the verb *said* in a sentence like *He said nothing* is monotransitive, its only object being *nothing*.
See also **ditransitive verb**, **transitive verb**

Montague grammar – gramatyka (semantyka) Montague'a

A term referring to the kind of syntactic and semantic work associated with the American logician and mathematician Richard Montague (1930–1970). Montague took the view that the semantic structure of natural languages could, and should, be analyzed like the semantic structure of **formal languages**. The approach, thus, uses a conceptual apparatus derived from the study of the semantics of formal (logical) languages, and applies it to the analysis of natural languages. The grammar contains a **semantic** and a **syntactic component**, which are strictly related, in that there is a one-to-one correspondence between the categories set up at the two levels. The syntax is introduced through **categorial rules** (i.e. rules which expand a category into other categories) which define syntactic categories. The corresponding semantic rules construct a **propositional** interpretation of these sentences, using the notions of truth-conditional **predicate calculus**. When it comes to excluding certain strings of words as ill-formed, Montague puts much more weight on the semantics than on the syntax (DC).
See **categorial grammar**, **formal language**, **truth-conditional semantics**, **predicate calculus**, **proposition**

mood – tryb

A term describing inflectional properties of finite verbs. Verbs in English can be in the **indicative mood**, **subjunctive mood**, and **imperative mood**. In the

following examples each type of mood is given by the bold-printed verb: *John* **hates** *spaghetti* (indicative mood), *The court ordered that he* **be** *detained indefinitely* (subjunctive mood), ***Keep*** *quiet!* (imperative mood). O. Jespersen (1924) calls these moods, respectively, the **fact**-mood, the **thought**-mood, and the **will**-mood. As Jespersen (1924: 313) himself puts it: "[…] these express certain attitudes of the mind of the speaker towards the contents of the sentence. We speak of mood only if this attitude is shown in the form of the verb; mood is thus a morphological category, not a notional category." Thus mood is a grammatical category as compared with **modality** which is a semantic, or as, Jespersen puts it 'notional', and thus universal category. The relation between mood and modality is just like that between tense and time.
See **modality**, **tense**

morph – morf

A textual, context-sensitive, realisation of a **morpheme**. Most morphemes are realised by single **morphs**. Some morphemes, however, are realised by more than one morph according to their position in a word or sentence, such alternative morphs are called **allomorphs** (i.e. morphemic alternants/variants). For example, the morpheme of plurality, represented orthographically by *-s*, is represented phonetically by [-s], [-z], and [-iz], as in *books*, *dogs*, and *dishes*, respectively.
See **morpheme**

morpheme n., **morphemic** a. – morfem

A minimal unit of grammatical description, in the sense that it cannot be analysed further into distributionally classifiable units. In J. Fisiak (1968) **morpheme** is defined as a "form-meaning composite," i.e., the smallest unit where sound is associated with meaning. A morpheme can occur as a free form (i.e. as a word) or as a part in **complex** words. Morphemes have either **lexical** or **grammatical** meaning. In contrast to morphemes, **phonemes** perform only a differentiating function in language, they help distinguish between morphemes, they are completely meaningless.
See **grammatical meaning**, **lexical meaning**, **phoneme**

morpheme (**morphological**) **boundary** – granica morfologiczna

In **morphology**, the boundary between two **morphemes**; e.g. in *kindness* there is a clear **morpheme boundary** between the **stem** *kind* and the suffix *-ness*. On the other hand, in the adverb *doubly* (from *double + -ly*) it is hard to establish the boundary. The question is: Does the *l* go with *double, with -ly,* or with both? (JCRandRSch).
See **morphology**, **morpheme**, **stem**

morphological change – zmiana morfologiczna

A change in the morphological form or structure of a word, a **word-form**, or a set of such forms. The simplest type of a **morphological change** is **reanalysis.** In reanalysis, a word which historically has one particular morphological structure comes to be perceived by speakers having a second quite different structure. For example, the lexical item *hamburger* takes its name from the German city Hamburg, but since the first syllable looks like the name of a kind of meat, the word has been **reanalysed** as a compound of *ham* and *-burger*, and the new morpheme *-burger* is now used to derive names for all kinds of things in a bun; e.g. *cheeseburger, chickenburger*, etc. (Trask 1996: 102 ff.).

morphological doublets – dublety morfologiczne

Two or more forms of the same word, the use of the proper form being determined by its context or position or function in the sentence (e.g., the English articles *a* and *an*).

morphological opacity – morfologiczna nieprzeźroczystość
See **analogy**

morphological transparency – przeźroczystość morfologiczna
See **analogy**

morphologization – morfologizacja, gramatykalizacja morfologiczna

A type of **grammaticalization**. In **morphologization** what was originally a separate word becomes an element of a word. For example, the *-ric* in *bishopric* was once a separate word, related historically to the German word *Reich* 'empire'. See also **grammaticalisation**.

morphology – morfologia

The branch of grammar dealing with **morphemes**, their types, forms, functions, and combinations. It is divided into **inflectional** and **derivational morphology**. Inflectional morphology deals with morphemes called **inflectional morphemes** which express morpho-syntactic categories such as, e.g., PERSON, PLURAL, NUMBER, TENSE, CASE, MOOD, etc. These categories are relevant for the syntax, i.e., sentence building and are referred to by the grammar. For instance, there is a grammatical rule in English which requires that a third-singular subject be followed by a verb (in the present tense) which is also marked as third-singular (e.g., *He smokes.*). This is called **subject-verb agreement**, which is also relevant for plural marking in sentences. Thus, this grammatical rule accounts for the grammatical and ungrammatical sentences: *The students are drinking coffee* and **The students is drinking coffee*. Derivational morphology is one part of **word formation**, the other part being compounding. Morphemes

that are used to create new words on the basis of the existing morphemes are **derivational morphemes**.
See **morphology**, **morpheme**

morphophonemic component – komponent morfofonemiczny (morfofono-logiczny)
See **morphophonemic rule**

morphophoneme, **morphoneme** – morfofonem, morfonem

In **morphonology** (also **morphophonemics**), the basic unit in a **morphopho-nemic level** of analysis. It is usually symbolized by the use of a capital letter within brace brackets, as, e.g., in {F}. One of the original examples used in order to justify establishing this entity was the alternation between /f/ and /v/ in some English plurals, such as *knife~knives, loaf~loaves*. There is no predictable alternation between /f/ and /v/ for English words in general, but only in this specific grammatical context. This fact can be captured by setting up a **mor-phophoneme** {F}, as in /naɪf/; in a singular context, this is realized as /f/, in a plural context as /v/. Each morphophonemic symbol thus represents the class of **phonemes** which occur in a particular set of grammatical contexts (DC).
See **morphophonemics** (**morphonology**), **phoneme**

morphophonemic rule – reguła morfofonemiczna (morfonemiczna)

In **transformational** grammar, a rule which converts a string of words and **morphemes** into a string of **phonemes**. **Morphophonemic rules** rewrite, e.g., {may} + {s} as the phonemic representation of what is spelled *may*, {open} + {en} as the phonemic representation of what is spelled *opened*, and so on. Morpho-phonemic rules constitute the **morphophonemic component** of the transfor-mational grammar propounded in N. Chomsky's *Syntactic Structures* (1957).
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **morphophonemics**, **phoneme**

morphophonemics, **morphophonology**, **morphonology** – morfofonemika, morfofonologia, morfonologia

That branch of **morphology** which deals with the phonemic aspect of the structure of the morphemes of a language, and with the phonemic variations in morphemes appearing in different grammatical forms. In the European tradition, **morphophonology** (or **morphonology**) is the preferred term; in the American tradition, it is **morphophonemics**. In some theories morphopho-nemics is seen as a separate level of linguistic structure intermediate between grammar and phonology (DC).
See **morphology**, **morpheme**, **phonology**

morphosyntactic neologisms – neologizmy morfosyntaktyczne
See **neologism**

morphosyntactic word – wyraz morfosyntaktyczny

For instance, the past tense of *love* and the past participle of *love* are two distinct **morphosyntactic words** which are realised by the same **word-form**, i.e. *loved.*
See **word-form**, **syncretism**

morphosyntax n., **morphosyntactic** a. – morfosyntaksa

That part of syntax for which morphology is relevant, such as the definition of word-classes like noun and verb, or the specification of categories such as Tense and Number. Traditional properties such as SINGULAR, PERFECT, INDICATIVE, PASSIVE, ACCUSATIVE, THIRD PERSON are examples of **morphosyntax**.
See **morphology**, **syntax**

morphotactics – morfotaktyka

The study of the way in which **morphs** are concatenated into words.
See **morph**

Morse code – alfabet Morse'a

A system of dots and dashes, or short and long sounds or flashes, used to represent letters, numerals, etc. in telegraphy, signaling, and the like.
See **code**

mother tongue – język ojczysty (rodzimy)

Usually, a first language which is acquired at home.
See **first language**

movement rule – reguła przesunięcia

In **transformational-generative** syntax, a rule that plays a role in deriving a **surface structure** by the reordering of **constituents**. For example, in the question *What did you see*?, *what* is assumed to be generated initially in the **direct object** position, *you saw what*, and then moved to sentence initial position.
See **surface structure**, **constituent**, **Transformational-Generative Grammar**

multilingual n., a. – multilingwalny, wielojęzyczny

A person who knows and uses three or more languages. Usually, a **multilingual** does not know all the languages equally well (he or she may speak and understand one language best). Cf. also **monolingual**, **bilingual**.

narrowing (**restriction**) **of meaning** – zwężenie znaczenia

A type of **semantic change** which involves an increase in information conveyed, since a restricted form is applicable to fewer situations, but tells us more about each of them; the scope (i.e. **extension**) of the word has been narrowed/restricted, but its meaning (i.e. **intension**) has been enriched with an additional feature. Good illustrations of this type of semantic change are Old English words like *dēor, fugol,* and *steorfan*. Cf. e.g. Old English *steorfan* (meaning 'to die') and its Modern English counterpart *starve* (meaning 'die of hunger'), *dēor* 'animal' and Modern English *deer* (kind of) graceful quick-running animal, the male of which has horns (Pol. jeleń, łoś, sarna). Cf. **extension** (**generalization**) **of meaning**. See also McMahon (1996: 178 ff.). See **semantic change**, **extension**, **intension**

narrow transcription – transkrypcja fonetyczna
See **transcription**

nasal cavity – jama nosowa
See **vocal tract**

nasal consonant, **nasal** – spółgłoska nosowa

A consonant produced by a complete closure of the mouth, the soft palate being, however, lowered so that the air is free to pass out through the nose, e.g. /m/ and /n/.

nasalization n., **nasalize** v. – nazalizacja, unosowienie

Articulation caused by lowering of the soft palate during a sound in which air is going out through the mouth. For example, the vowels in words like English *beam*, *bean*, and *king* are **nasalized** due to the influence of the following nasal consonant. The opposite is **denasalization**.
See **nasal consonant**, **denasalization**

national language – język narodowy

A language which is usually considered to be the main language of a nation. For example, Polish is the **national language** of Poland. A government may declare a particular language or dialect to be the national language of a nation, e.g. Standard Chinese (Putonghua) or Filipino in the Philipines. Usually

the national language is the **official language**; that is the language used in government and courts of law, and for official business. In multilingual nations there may be more than one official language, and in such cases the term "official language" is often used rather than "national language." For example, the Republic of Singapore has four official languages; English, Chinese (Mandarin), Malay and Tami (JCRandRSch).
See **official language**

native language – język ojczysty (macierzysty)

The first language which a given human being learns to speak.

native speaker – rodzimy użytkownik języka

A person who learns language as a child and continues to use it fluently as a dominant language. One of the goals of linguistics is to account for the intuitions the native speaker has about his/her langauge.

nativisation – natywizacja
See **adaptation**, **naturalization**

nativism – natywizm
See **innateness**

natural approach (**method**) – metoda naturalna

The term refers to a number of language-teaching methods which were developed in the 19th century as a reaction to the **grammar translation method**. These methods emphasised: (a) the use of the spoken language, (b) the use of objects and actions in teaching the meanings of words and structures, (c) the need to make language teaching follow the natural principles of first language learning (JCRandRSch).
See **grammar translation method**

natural category – kategoria naturalna

In **cognitive linguistics** the membership in a **natural category** is determined by **family resemblance**, as understood by Wittgenstein in his *Philosophical Investigations*. Such categories contain members whose status is not determined by a definition, i.e. a specification of necessary and sufficient conditions, but by the degree of similarity to other members, especially **prototypical** ones. Categories are believed to come into existence and take on members along the parameters determined by the human mind and its capacities.
See **cognitive linguistics**, **family resemblance**, **prototype**

natural gender – rodzaj naturalny

In case of **natural gender** the basis of the division into gender groups is the sex of the objects to which they refer. Gender distinction is not marked morphologically in nouns and it does not have any effect on the form of the associated verbs or attributive modifiers. English happens to be the only Indo-European language which has natural gender. Cf. **grammatical gender**. See also Lyons (1968: 183 ff.).

natural language – język naturalny

Human language; more specifically, a language acquired in a natural setting by human beings, hence, excluding e.g. computer languages, animal communication systems, etc. Cf. **artificial language**.

natural morphology – morfologia naturalna

A theory of **morphology** that describes a "natural" (or "unmarked") system and the laws that govern deviations from it. The most natural type of morphology would be one in which every **morpheme** corresponds to one and only one meaning, and every meaning has one and only one form (a relation called **bi-uniqueness**). For example, the *-s* morpheme on the verb *goes* in *John goes to work* does not meet this condition, because it encodes information relating to tense (present here) and person (third person), and number (singular). However, this condition is met by the plural number morpheme *-s* in *dogs*, where it encodes information relating to plural number only. Thus natural forms are **iconic** in character, since they correspond to the principle of "one meaning – one form." The regular English past-tense pattern is represented by *love/loved*, which is just as iconic and "natural" as *dog/dogs*. In **natural morphology** (**NM**) "naturalness" is defined in terms of **markedness**; unmarked forms and constructions are said to be preferred by speakers. There is a checklist for assessing markedness; unmarked or natural features occur frequently cross-linguistically; are relatively resistant to change, but often result from changes; are acquired early by children, but unaffected or lost late in **aphasia**. Besides, borrowings and **neologisms** in a language will typically follow the unmarked pattern. By assessing which categories and types of expression of these categories adhere most closely to these desiderata NM can establish which are most natural (DC, McMahon 1996: 98 ff.).
See **morphology**, **morpheme**, **markedness theory**, **aphasia**

natural phonology – fonologia naturalna

A theory of phonology that stresses universal processes of phonology that are motivated by the physiology of the speech organs and the acoustic characteristics of speech sounds. Some examples of natural processes are the neutralisation of unstressed vowels (which occurs in English) and the

devoicing of final voiced stops (which occurs, e.g., in Polish and German) (JCRandRSch).
See **devoicing**

negation – negacja, przeczenie

A process or construction in grammatical and semantic analysis in which some **proposition** is said to be false. Negation involves the use of some negative item such, e.g., as *not*, *nobody*, *nothing*, *never*, etc., and in **lexis**, there are several possible means, e.g. **prefixes**, such as *-un-*, *-non-* or words such as *deny*.
See **proposition**, **prefix**, **lexis**

negative face – twarz negatywna
See **face**

negative politeness strategies – negatywne strategie grzecznościowe
See **politeness**

negative transfer – transfer negatywny
See **interference**

Negro league – liga negrycka
See **Balkan league of languages**, **league of languages**

Neo-Bloomfieldians, **distributionalists** – neobloomfieldowcy, dystrybucjonaliści

Neo-Bloomfieldians (also **distributionalists**), that is, linguists like Z.S. Harris, Ch. Hockett, B. Bloch, G.L. Trager, A.A. Hill and C.C. Fries, left no place for meaning (semantic criteria) in their theory of language. Partly responsible for this stance towards linguistic description was L. Bloomfield's statement to the effect that "The study of language can be conducted without special assumptions only so long as we pay no attention to the meaning of what is spoken" (Bloomfield 1933: 75). Neo-Bloomfieldians made the sound features of an utterance the foundation of their theory and practice. One of the eminent Neo-Bloomfieldians, B. Bloch, completely eliminated semantic criteria, pointing out that "In our wording we shall avoid all semantic and psychological criteria. The implication is that such criteria play no part, or at least need not play one, in the theoretical foundations of **phonemics**. The basic assumptions that underlie phonemics can be stated without any mention of mind or meaning" (Bloch 1948: 35–36). Accordingly, the Neo-Bloomfieldians claimed that the machinery needed to describe linguistic data consisted of two steps: (a) the setting up of linguistic elements, (b) the statement of the **distribution** of these elements relative to each other.
See **American Structural School**, **distribution**

neophilology – neofilologia

A discipline concerned with modern languages and literature

Neogrammarian Hypothesis, **regularity hypothesis** – hipoteza o regularnym charakterze zmian głosowych

The hypothesis that all **phonological change** is regular, formulated as follows: every sound change takes place according to laws that admit no exception. According to this view, a phonological change must apply absolutely and simultaneously to every linguistic form in the language which exhibits the relevant phonological form. That is, neither the meaning nor the grammatical nature of a form is of the slightest relevance. Their nickname in German *Junggrammatiker* ('young grammarians') arose from the attitude of older scholars who, while not necessarily rejecting the principle, objected to the forceful way in which it was promulgated (RLT).
See also **Neogrammarians**, **phonological change**

Neogrammarians – młodogramatycy

The school of the **Neogrammarians** originated in Leipzig and gradually embraced all the countries of the civilized world. In Germany, this school was represented by Karl Brugmann (1849–1919) and Berthold Delbruck (1842–1922) who, following Franz Bopp and August Schleicher, produced the third elaboration of *Comparative Grammar of Indo-European Languages,* and Hermann Paul, author of *Priciples of Historical Linguistics* in which he formulated the school's programme of investigation. In France, work similar to that of the Neogrammarians was carried on by Antoine Meillet (1866–1936), author of *Introduction to the Comparative Study of Indo-European Languages.* The principal Neogrammarians in Poland were Jan Łoś (1860–1928), and Jan Rozwadowski (1867–1935), and in Russia F.F. Fortunatov, A.A. Sachmatov, and A.I. Sobolevski, active in the 19th and the beginning of the 20th centuries. The work of the Neogrammarians was characterised by psychologism and historicism. The Neogrammarians considered language norms a fiction; for them true language exists in individuals. They believed that there does exist in the subconsciousness of individual speakers a permanent set of memorised language forms related by a system of associations enabling it to function and constantly creating, by analogy, new forms and sentences. The Neogrammarians held the view that the designating function of language has no influence on its evolution, which proceeds mechanically, in accordance with laws which, like natural laws, are without exception, but which, unlike natural laws, are not universal. In any given region, at a given period, one sound, having a given position within a word, becomes transformed into another sound in all words, without exception. After the functioning of such a phonological law, in the next period of the language's evolution, new forms may arise through analogy or borrowing, which do not agree with the expired phonological law. These

exceptions are apparent only, since they did not exist in the period when the law was in function (Milewski 1973: 29–30).

neolinguistics n., **neolinguist** n. – neolingwistyka, szkoła neolingwistyczna

The school of linguistics founded by Matteo Bartoli (1873–1946) as a reaction to the Neogrammarians. Along with the neo-idealists it was one of the main rivals of the **Neogrammarians**, until **structuralism**, which emerged from the neo-grammarian tradition, got the upper hand.

The neolinguists deemphasised the importance of tree structures in the relationship of language and emphasized the importance of variation, especially geographic variation (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Neolinguistics). See also RLT.
See **Neogrammarians**, **structural linguistics**

neologism – neologizm

A newly coined and as yet not generally accepted word or expression. McMahon (1994/1996) distinguishes two types of neologisms: phonological and morphosyntactic. **Phonological neologisms** include onomatopoeias and formations *ex nihilo*. New onomatopoeias are nonce formations, introduced once and forgotten, but others, like English *tut-tut*, enjoy a more general distribution in the language. Some may even be incorporated into the morphology, as *dring* 'bell ringing' has given the French verb *dringuer*. Formations *ex nihilo* are rather rare, but might include *blurb*, coined in 1907 by Gelett Burgess, and *Kodak*, created by George Eastman. Such neologisms are found primarily in brand and business names. **Morphosyntactic neologisms**, like phonological ones, may be nonce formations which are used only once or catch on briefly and then drop out of use. In present-day English, e.g., there is a fashion for *post-*, as in *postmodernism*, *post-feminism*, and a host of others, few of which seem likely long-term survivors. Neologisms of any sort also have to struggle against conservative attitudes, and new words often stand more chance of acceptance if they are introduced first by some prominent person or in a more prestigious publication. Finally, new words are most likely to survive, and indeed to be created in the first place, if they are felt to be necessary in the society concerned (McMahon 1996: 190 ff.).

neurolinguistics, **neurological linguistics** – neurolingwistyka

A branch of linguistics which studies the neurological basis of language development and use and attempts to construct a model of the brain's control over the processes of speaking, listening, reading and writing. **Neurolinguistics** includes research into how the structure of the brain influences **language acquisition**, how and in which parts of the brain language is stored and how damage to the brain affects the ability to use language.
See **Language Acquisition Device**

neuter gender – rodzaj nijaki
See **grammatical gender**

neutralization n., **neutralize** v. – neutralizacja
"An approach to linguistics developed by the Italian Matteo Bartoli in the first half of the 20th century. Its proponents were interested in maps, and often maintained that the study of dialect maps could be used to establish a valid diachronic perspective independent of Neogrammarian methods. The movement has had little influence outside Italy" (RLT).
See **dialect map**, **Neogrammarians**

nexus – nexus

A term introduced by O. Jespersen in his *The Philosophy of Grammar* (1963) to label predicative relation, i.e., the relation that exists between the subject group and the predicate group of a sentence (for example, *John* (subject) and *is running* (predicate), as opposed to **attributive** relation (i.e. the function of adjectives and nouns when they occur as **modifiers** of the **head** of a **noun phrase**) which constitutes a syntactic phrase called **junction** by Jespersen. Jespersen makes it clear that the same semantic content can be expressed by means of either junction (e.g. *the barking dog*) or **nexus** (e.g. *The dog barks*). In a junction the modifier (adjunct in Jespersen) and the head (primary element in Jespersen) form one denomination, a composite name for what might as well have been called by a single name. "A junction is therefore a unit, a single idea, expressed more or less accidentally by means of two elements" (Jespersen 1963: 116). A **nexus**, on the contrary, always contains two ideas which must necessarily remain separate; the predicate element adds something new to what has already been named. "Whereas the junction is more stiff or rigid, the nexus is more pliable; it is, as it were, animate or articulated. […]. A junction is like a picture, a nexus is like a process or drama" (Jespersen 1963: 116).
See **head**, **modifier**, **noun phrase**

Niger-Congo languages – nigrycko-kongijskie języki

A vast **language family** occupying most of sub-Saharan Africa. The family contains between 1,000 and 1,500 languages. Though the validity of the family is accepted by most specialists, the large number of languages and the seemingly great time depth at which they are related has posed difficulties; sub-grouping is controversial and only a limited progress has been made in reconstructing the **ancestral language**; a few skeptics have wondered whether **Niger-Congo** is a secure family at all (RLT).
See **language family**, **ancestor language**

node – węzeł, wierzchołek

In **Generative Grammar**, a term used to denote a point in a **tree diagram** which carries a category symbol. For instance, in the tree diagram below for a noun phrase (NP) *the child*, the NP node **dominates** the D (Determiner) node and the N (Noun) node:

```
              NP
           /      \
         D          N
         |          |
        the       child
```
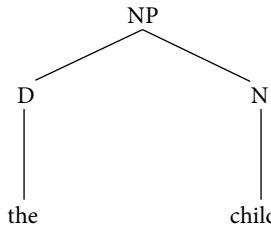
See **Generative Grammar**, **dominance**, **tree diagram**

nomina actionis, **names of actions** – nazwy czynności, *nomina actionis*

Names of actions, e.g. English: *formation*, *derivation*, *declaration*, etc. formed from a verbal base plus the suffix *-ation*. It appears that the suffix *-ation* is the most **productive** of all the formal exponents of the category **nomina actionis** in English. Some of the other suffixes used to form nomina actionis in English are: *-ment*, *-al*, *-ure*, *-ance/ence,* etc. In Polish the suffix *-nie* is used for names of actions, as in *kochanie*, *bieganie*, etc.
See **productivity**

nomina agentis – nazwy wykonawców czynności, *nomina agentis*

Names of agents of actions, e.g., Polish *nauczyciel* ('teacher').

nomina essendi – nazwy cechy

The category **nomina essendi** denotes a class of abstract names meaning roughly 'quality/state of being X' (in case of English X = adjective). In English the following **suffixes** are used to derive nomina essendi from adjectival **bases**: *-ness* (e.g. *falseness, recentness, frankness*, etc.), *-ity/-ty/-y* (e.g. *acceptability, brutality, eccentricity*, etc.), *-(anc)y/-(enc)y* (e.g. *elegance, importance, complacency*, etc.), *-(ac)y* (e.g. *accuracy, intimacy, privacy,* etc.). And compare the Polish *starość*, derived from *stary, dobroć* from *dobry*, etc.
See **derivational base**, **suffix**

nomina instrumenti, **names of instruments** – nazwy narzędzi, *nomina instrumenti*

For example, English *toaster*, *grinder*, *blotter*, etc. The derived **names of instruments** are usually coined on transitive verb bases, though intransitive verb bases are not entirely forbidden (e.g. *buzzer*, *hooter*). In English names of

instruments are derived by means of the following co-functional suffixes: *-or* (e.g. *calculator, elevator, duplicator,* etc.), *-ant/-ent* (e.g. *lubricant, solvent, relaxant,* etc.), *-ing* (*covering, dressing, coating,* etc.), plus the already mentioned suffix *-er*, which happens to be the most **productive** exponent of the category "instrument."
See **productivity**

nominal n., **nominal** a. – konstrukcja (grupa, fraza) nominalna

Belonging to the **word class** "noun," or having the characteristics of a noun. See **word class**

nominalization n., **nominalize** v. – nominalizacja

Nominalization is a process by which some other type of expression is converted into a **nominal** (i.e. a noun expression). For example, *-ness* is a **nominalizing** affix in that if we attach *-ness* to, say, *sad*, we form the noun *sadness.*

nominal predicate – orzeczenie nominalne (imienne)

A construction consisting of a copula *be* and following adjectival or nominal phrase, as in *These books **are very interesting**, These books **are dictionaries**.*

nominative case – mianownik, nominativus

Grammatical **case** exhibited by a noun functioning as the subject of the verb, and usually, expressing semantically the agent of the action that the verb denotes. The **nominative case** is usually the first form to be listed in a grammatical **paradigm**, or in a dictionary, and is often the **unmarked** form. For example, in the Polish *Chłopiec idzie do lasu*, *chłopiec* is in the nominative case. See **case**, **marked member, paradigm** (1)

nonce-words, **nonce-formations** – wyrazy-efemerydy

A **nonce-word** is a newly coined word, invented on the spot to serve some immediate need. For some linguists, a nonce-word is by definition ephemeral, and then contrasts with a **neologism**. Other linguists do not see any difference between these two. Some examples of nonce-words are found in Shakespeare's plays; e.g.: in *King Henry V,* IV.4.29:

> Pistol. *Master **Fer**! I'll **fer** him, and firk him and ferret him,...*
> (Pan Fer? To ja go tu **wesferuję**, wyfeferuję, ... – trans. by L. Ulrich)

> *King Richard 2,* II.3.87:
> York. ***Grace** me no grace, nor **uncle** me no uncle,...*
> (Nie **mość** mnie mością, nie **stryjaszkuj** stryjem,... – trans. by St. Koźmian)

non-count nouns, uncountable nouns, mass nouns – rzeczowniki niepoliczalne

These are nouns that cannot be directly preceded by cardinal numbers. Many **non-count nouns** are concrete, i.e. they refer to things that have a physical reality. In order to count a concrete non-count noun, a speaker must choose a **partitive**, which is usually a container or measurement of some kind; e.g. *four pounds* of rice, *a carton* of milk, etc. Because concrete non-count nouns cannot be counted without partitives, they do not co-occur with numerals or the article *a*, which entails the meaning *one* (hence **a gold*). Although abstract non-count nouns do not refer to concrete entities, they sometimes occur with partitives, too, as in *a score* of music, *two works* of art, etc. The group of non-count nouns includes also words like *furniture, crockery, jewelry*, etc., each of which represents a category of disparate items (e.g. *jewelry* – one ring, two bracelets, two necklaces) and plural non-count nouns like *measles, mumps*, etc.
See **partitive**

non-factive verb – czasownik niefaktywny
See **factive verb**

non-finite verb – forma nieosobowa czasownika
See **finite verb**

(**non**)-**prosodic languages** – języki (nie)prozodyczne

Languages can be divided into two groups – prosodic and non-prosodic – on the basis of their phonological exploitation of prosodic features. The former of these categories includes those languages in which the prosodic features function to differentiate words. Latin, e.g., is a prosodic language containing forms which are differentiated from one another on the sole basis of the quantity of a single syllable, e.g., *venit* ('he is coming'):*vēnit* ('he came'). Russian is also a **prosodic language** in which we find words differentiated solely by the point of accent, e.g., *múka* ('torment'):*muká* ('flour'). **Non-prosodic languages**, on the other hand, are those in which prosodic features are not distinctive but serve only to delimit words (moderately non-prosodic languages), or serve no function at all (extremely non-prosodic languages). Polish is a moderately non-prosodic language in which the accent on the penultimate syllable is the principal signal separating words from one another. The Turkic languages are extremely non-prosodic languages in which the phonological signal delimiting words is not accent but vowel harmony (Milewski 1973: 160).
See **prosodic features**

non-restrictive, (**non-defining**) **relative clause** – zdanie względne opisowe

A relative clause which contains information not essential to identifying the noun modified by the relative clause. I have only one brother, so when I say *My brother,* **who lives in Edinburgh**, *got married to Kate*, the relative clause *who lives in Edinburgh* is non-essential information, and is thus **non-restrictive**.

non-terminal symbol – symbol nieterminalny
See **terminal symbols**

Norman French, **Anglo-French**, **Anglo-Norman** – normandzki, anglo-normandzki

The French of the Normans or Normandy, as spoken in England by the Norman conquerors; it was not imposed on the English as an **official language** at the Conquest, but gained legal and administrative currency after the accession of Eleanor of Aquitaine as queen (1152) (Web's).
See **official language**

normative (**prescriptive**) **grammar** – gramatyka normatywna (preskryptywna)

Normative grammar prescribes rules which, in the opinion of the grammarian, native speakers of a language ought to follow in order to speak "correctly." There are, however, many examples of prescriptive rules set up by grammarians which have no basis in the normal usage of native speakers of English. One such instance is the rule which says that, e.g., *It is I*, rather than the more usual *It is me*, is correct English.
See **descriptive grammar**

Norwegian – norweski język
See **Germanic languages**, **Proto-Germanic**

nostratic – nostratic

A hypothetical "super language," linking together several existing language families, proposed in the 1960s by two Russian scholars, Vladislav M. Illych-Svitych and Aaron B. Dolgopolsky. The label **Nostratic** relates to the Latin word for "our" (language). Nostratic is assumed to cover Indo-European, the Dravidian languages of India, the Kartvelian language of the southern Caucasus, the Uralic family including Finnish and Hungarian, Altaic covering Turkish and Mongolian, and Afro-Asiatic, which includes Arabic, Berber and others. Some scholars have proposed an even wider super-grouping called **Super-Nostratic**, which adds in extra language families, such as Eskimo-Aleut from America, Chukchi-Kamchatkan from Siberia, and Niger-Kordofanian and Nilo-Saharan from Africa (RLT). See also Aitchison (1998: 168).

notation n., **notational** a. – notacja, zapis

(1) In **linguistics** and **phonetics**, a term used to refer to any system of graphic representation of speech (as in a **phonemic** notation, where the term **transcription** is widely used). Specifically it refers to the set of symbols which represent a mode of **linguistic analysis**, as in the **phrase-structure** notation in **Generative Grammar**. An analytic convention, in this sense, which is introduced into an analysis to facilitate the formulation of a statement, such as a **rule**, is often called a **notational device**, e.g., the use of ( ) to indicate optionality in generative syntax (DC).

(2) And, as Crystal (1971: 122) writes, "A specially devised **notation**, for symbolically representing the linguistic variables we are studying and their relationships, is of inestimable benefit to consistent and productive inquiry in linguistics, as it is in logic, or mathematics, or music. To develop a notation for handling a problem is half the battle. […] In linguistics, special notations are very much in evidence, particularly in the fields of phonetics and syntax. They are sometimes extremely complex. And part of learning to do linguistics is learning to master the technicalities of a particular notational system."

See **linguistic analysis**, **phonetics**, **transcription**, **phrase structure**, **Generative Grammar**, **optional** (**facultative**) **transformational rule**

notional grammar – gramatyka pojęciowa

A characteristic feature of a **notional grammar** was the assumption that there existed extralinguistic categories in terms of which the units of grammar could be defined. Well-known **notional** definitions were of the noun as the name of a "person, place or thing" (but, e.g. is *beauty* a thing?), of the verb as a "doing word" (but is to *have* a "doing" word?), of a sentence as a "complete thought", and so on and on. However, linguists are critical of the notional approach in so far as the notions involved are incapable of systematic and consistent exposition, and replace it with an emphasis on **formal criteria**. **Traditional grammar** was often notional in its approach and sometimes attempted to apply some categories to a language without first investigating whether they were useful and appropriate for describing that language. For example, some traditional grammars stated that English had six **cases** because Latin had six cases (a case system is found in Polish, German, Latin, etc., but not in English). See also Lyons (1968: 134).

See **formal criteria**, **case**, **traditional grammar**, **normative** (**prescriptive**)

noun – rzeczownik, substantivum (pl. substantiva)

The **word class** (traditionally, part of speech) which includes words denoting individuals, objects, qualities, and abstract concepts. The main syntactic functions of the **noun** are those of the subject and object. The morphological char-

acteristics of the English noun comprise: two numbers: singular (*boy, teacher*) and plural (*boys*, *teachers*), and the genitive case (*Paul's father, the boy's book*).
See **word class**, **noun**, **number**, **case**

noun (**nominal**) **phrase** – grupa nominalna (imienna), fraza (syntagma) nominalna

A phrase whose **head** (the central component) is a noun. For example, the expression *lovers of opera* is a noun phrase, since its head is the noun *lovers*.
See **head**, **phrase**

novial – novial

One of the **artificial languages**, a bit similar to **Esperanto**, invented by the Danish linguist Otto Jespersen (1860–1943).
See **artificial language**, **Esperanto**

nucleus (**peak**) **of a syllable** – ośrodek (jądro, rdzeń) sylaby

The central part of a **syllable** (usually a vowel; e.g. in the English word *bite* / bayt/, /ay/ is the **nucleus**).
See **syllable**

null a. – wyzerowany (pusty)

A term used in **generative grammars** with the general meaning of 'empty' or 'zero', as in **null** subject (i.e. a phonologically empty constituent) or 'null element'. For example, in a structure such as *He may try* [to *PRO* escape from prison], the bracketed clause has a null/empty subject pronoun, symbolized here as PRO.
See **Generative Grammar**, **Transformational-Generative Grammar**

null (**zero**) **morpheme** – morfem zerowy (pusty)

In **morphology**, a morpheme involved in null affixation. For example, the plural of *sheep* is *sheep*, which can be analysed as the noun *sheep* plus the **null variant** of the plural morpheme.
See **morphology**, **variant**

number – liczba

The grammatical distinction based on a morphological differentiation according as the speaker intends to designate one object, thing, etc., or more than one. The form designating *one* is called **singular**, that designating *more than one* is the **plural**. However, not all languages have a grammatical category of number. For example, in Chinese and Vietnamese, and many other languages, the distinction between, say, *I wrote a letter* and *I wrote some letters* can be

made, if necessary, by means of a numeral or a word meaning 'several', but it may be equally well left unexpressed.
See **grammatical category**

numeral – liczebnik

The part of speech which includes words denoting number.
See **cardinal numerals**, **ordinal numerals**

object – dopełnienie, obiekt, przedmiot

A term used in the analysis of **grammatical functions**; it refers to the **noun phrase** or **clause** in sentences with **transitive verbs**, traditionally described as being affected by the action denoted by the verb. The **object** of a verb can be affected by the action of the verb either directly or indirectly. If it is affected directly, it is called the **direct object** (DO). If the object of the verb is affected indirectly, it is called the **indirect object** (IO). In English, the distinction between direct object and indirect object is marked by a contrast using prepositions (*to* or *for*) and **word order**; e.g.:

> *The teacher gave a letter* (= DO) ***to the girl*** (= IO)
> *The teacher gave the girl* (= IO) *a letter* (= DO)

In **inflecting languages**, the distinction between these two kinds of object is marked **inflectionally**, i.e. by different **cases**, the direct object case being the **Accusative** and the indirect object case being the **Dative**. Consider:

> *Jan dał dziewczynce* (IO-Dative case) *jabłko* (DO-Accusative case)

Indirect objects cannot appear in sentences without direct objects (hence, **He gave the girl/her*), though the reverse can, and does, take place: e.g. *John ordered two whiskies* (= DO). Still another type of object distinguished by grammarians is the so-called **cognate object**, which is a noun or noun phrase that is semantically linked with the verb (e.g. *He died **a miserable death***).
See **noun phrase**, **clause**, **grammatical functions**, **transitive verb**, **word order**, **inflecting language**, **case**

object language – język przedmiotowy
See **metalanguage**

object – obiekt

The **object** occupies the central position in the **object-oriented approach** (OOA) description of lexical items (proposed by Banyś 2002, 2005). In the OOA the emphasis is placed on the behaviour of an object in a language, i.e. highlighting its lexical environment. The object is interpreted as identifiable element of a real world, which may be concrete or abstract, and what proves its being real is its coming into existence or disappearance. The distinctive features of the *object* are: its structure, its behaviour, and its modus operandi. The object is described from the point of view of all the operations that apply

to it, thus it is assigned some operations and attributes which are identifiable in its environment in different contexts. Each object is included in a **class of objects** thus constituting one of its elements (for more see Banyś 2002, 2005; Drzazga and Żłobińska-Nowak 2014).
See **object-oriented approach**

object-oriented approach (**OOA**) – metoda (podejście) zorientowane obiektowo

The **object-oriented approach** (OOA), proposed by Wiesław Banyś (2002, 2003), is one of lexicographic methods whose aim is to create an electronic lexical database of specialist as well as general languages. The OOA was created mainly for the purpose of **automatic translation** of texts. Polysemy of words in a natural language is one of the major problems in automatic translation of texts. Thus, a process of disambiguation of a polysemous lexeme should be carried out enabling a correct generation of its equivalents in a **target language**. The idea of the OOA is to include in the description of a lexical item all the data which derive from a language (i.e. those which are given directly/explicitly from traditional/paper dictionaries) as well as those that can be brought out on their basis, in an implicit way (e.g., lexical hierarchy, semantic relations). The OOA enables the analysis of lexical items from the point of view of an **object** which is interpreted as identifiable element of a real world, which may be concrete or abstract, and what proves its being real is its coming into existence or disappearance. Each object is included in a **class of objects**, thus constituting one of its elements. Each class includes objects sharing the same characteristic features. The object, thus, is understood as functional not ontological. The object is described from the point of view of all the operations that apply to it. Thus, a lexical unit is described with the emphasis put on the attributes and typical operations that a given object may perform or that may be performed on the object, thus: $x \rightarrow f$, where f stands for function, predicate, and x stands for arguments which may fill in the positions opened by the predicate (for more see Banyś 2002, 2005; Drzazga and Żłobińska-Nowak 2014).
See **automatic translation**, **target language**

obligatory transformational rule – obligatoryjna reguła transformacyjna

For example, in N. Chomsky's *Syntactic Structures* model of transformational grammar the transformational rule which accounts for the "agreement" between subject and verb manifested in such sentences as, e.g., *The man goes* vs. **The man go.* The rule is referred to as the *Number Transformation*:

s/NPsing-

         Present →

0/elsewhere

The Number Transformation is a **context-sensitive** rule, which says that Present is to be rewritten as s if and only if it is preceded in the underlying string by a sequence of one or more elements dominated by NPsing in the associated phrase marker, but it is to be rewritten in all other contexts as "zero," i.e., as the absence of the suffix.
See **context-sensitive phrase-structure rules**, **Transformational-Generative Grammar**

oblique case – zależny przypadek

Other than nominative and accusative cases.

observational adequacy – adekwatność obserwacyjna
See **adequacy**

obsolete – przestarzały, wyszły z użycia

No longer in fashion; out of date; passé (Webster's). Jackson (2002: 113) defines the term "obsolete" as referring to words or senses that have definitely ceased to be used.

occupational dialect – gwara zawodowa

The distinctive language of a particular professional group.
See **dialect**

official language – oficjalny język
See **national language**

Old Bulgarian – starobułgarski język
See **Old Church Slavic**

Old Church Slavic – staro-cerkiewno-słowiański język

The language of the first texts written in a Slavic language, between AD 863 and about 950. This was a south Slavic language, and it is sometimes called **Old Bulgarian**.
See **Slavic languages**

Old English, **Anglo-Saxon** – staroangielski, anglosaski język

The name given to the earliest recorded period of English, from the first texts around AD 700 to about 1100.

Old English dialects – dialekty staroangielskie

Scholars assume that **Old English** had four basic dialects: **West-Saxon**, **Mercian**, **Northumbrian**, and **Kentish**.
See **Old English**

Old Frisian – starofryzyjski język

A **Germanic** language attested in writing about AD 1275–1600 along with the North Sea coast of Europe and more or less directly ancestral to modern Frisian.
See **Germanic languages**

Old High German – staro-wysoko-niemiecki język

The earliest recorded form of the Germanic varieties which underwent the **second Germanic consonant shift**, the varieties which are the more or less direct ancestors of modern standard German.

Old Norse – pranordyjski język

The language of the Vikings, a **Germanic** language ancestral to Icelandic, Faroese, Norwegian, Danish, and Swedish. The language is abundantly attested in writing from about the 9th to the 13th century AD, chiefly in Iceland. Repeated Viking invasions of England, and its conquest by the Danes in 1016, led to the substantial introduction of **Old Norse** vocabulary into Old English (RLT).
See **Germanic languages**

Old Persian – staroperski język

An early **Iranian language**, the principal language of the Persian Achaemenid Empire, abundantly recorded between the 6th and 4th centuries BC.
See **Iranian languages**

Old Prussian – staropruski język

An extinct language (it died out in the 17th century) belonging to the **Baltic family** of languages (Milewski 1973: 127).
See **Baltic languages**

Old Saxon – starosaksoński język

A **Germanic** language formerly spoken in much of north-western Germany and substantially recorded from about the 8th to 10th century AD. **Old Saxon** is the more or less direct ancestor of some northern (Low) varieties of German.
See **ancestor language**, **Germanic languages**

one-place predicate – predykat jednomiejscowy

A **predicate** which has only one **argument** (e.g. *leave* in *John left yesterday*, where *John* is the sole argument of the predicate *leave*).
See **predicate**, **argument**

onomasiology n., **onomasiological** a. – onomazjologia

In **semantics**, whereas **semasiological** analysis starts with a word and tries to discover the various senses it may have, **onomasiological** analysis starts from a given concept and investigates the words that are used to name that particular concept. What is the purpose of the onomasiological analysis? First of all, it can help us to find out where (new) lexical items come from and which mechanisms are used to introduce different words for the same concept into the vocabulary of a language. The main purpose of onomasiological analysis is to discover patterns in a group of conceptually related words, called a lexical field. A **lexical field** is a collection of words that all name things in the same **conceptual domain**. Thus words such as *breakfast*, *lunch*, *brunch* are related and belong to the same lexical field because they all name things in the domain of "meals".
See **semasiology**, **conceptual domain**, **semantics**

onomastics – onomastyka

The branch of **semantics** which studies the origin (etymology) of institutionalised "proper" names, such as the names of people (**anthroponymy** and **anthroponomastics**) and places (**toponymy** or **toponomastics**). In a looser usage, **onomastics** is used for personal names and "toponymy" for place names.
See **semantics**

onomatopoeia n., **onomatopoeic** a. – onomatopeja, wyraz dźwiękonaśladowczy

The formation of words imitating natural sounds. Milewski (1973: 87) defines **onomatopoeia** as "acoustical images expressed in phonemes." Onomatopoeic words are conventionalized images of real sounds represented in onomatopoeia by means of the closest, though certainly not identical, conventional phonemes. **Onomatopoeic words** represent various acoustical phenomena, e.g., Polish *huczeć*, *hukać*, *świstać*, *szumieć*, etc., and English *hum, murmur, howl, miaow*, etc. In Polish onomatopoeic words like, e.g., *dyndać* ('dangle') and *bimbać* ('to take it easy') certain visual phenomena are being expressed. In some cases the onomatopoeia of an animal cry is transferred to the animal itself. Thus, in Polish we have names for birds such as, e.g., *kukułka* (*ku ku* are the sounds made by cuckoos). Onomatopoeic words are not the same in all languages; e.g. a cock-crow in English is *cock-a-doodle-doo*, in German *kikeriki,* in Polish *kukuryku*, etc., a dog's bark in French is *ouah ouah*, *bow-wow*

in English and *hau-hau* in Polish, etc. All this shows that in onomatopoeia **conventionality** is still at work.
See **arbitrariness**

onomatopoeic theory – onomatopeiczna teoria mowy

It maintains that human speech originated as an imitation of the sounds produced by animals and other natural sounds (often referred to as the **bow-wow theory**).

onomatopoeic words – wyrazy dźwiękonaśladowcze
See **onomatopoeia**

onset (**of a syllable**) – nagłos (sylaby)

The beginning of a **syllable**; a consonant or consonants preceding the **nucleus** (or **peak**) of a syllable, e.g. *d* in Polish *do* ('to, toward').
See **syllable**

ontogeny, **ontogenesis** – ontogeneza

In child language acquisition, the development of language in an individual is sometimes referred to as **ontogeny** (or **ontogenesis**), and the historical development of language in a speech community as **phylogeny** (or **phylogenesis**). Linguists are interested in whether the ontogeny of language in the child shows similar stages to those which a language has gone through its historical development. In other words, they are interested in the famous question whether ontogeny recapitulates phylogeny (JCRandRSch).

ontological metaphor – metafora ontologiczna

One of the three types of **conventional conceptual metaphor** distinguished in Lakoff and Johnson (1980). **Ontological metaphors** make a non-entity into an entity; these are ways of viewing events, activities, ideas, etc. as entities and substances. For example, in *We need to combat inflation* (inflation perceived as an entity) and *He's coming out of the coma* (as if coma were an entity). A special extension of ontological metaphor is personification. In this case a wide variety of non-human entities can be comprehended in terms of human motivations, characteristics, and activities, e.g. *Life has cheated me, Inflation has robbed me of my savings,* etc.
See **metaphor**, **conventional conceptual metaphor**, **personification**

ontology n., **ontological** a. – ontologia

A branch of philosophy directed to the question: What really exists? Hence, by **ontological** commitment (or by being commited to a certain **ontology**) is

meant the acceptance, as a consequence of one's philosophical beliefs, that certain entities exist or are real.

open class (**system**) – zbiór (system) otwarty

A word class to which new members can be added, i.e. noun, verb, adjective or adverb, but not preposition, pronoun, determiner or conjunction.
See **closed system** (**class**)

open syllable – sylaba otwarta

A syllable ending in a vowel, e.g. in *ba-na-na* (*banana*) there are three **open syllables**, all ending in -/a/.
See **syllable**, **vowel**

open vowel – samogłoska otwarta

Vowels can be divided into sets in a number of ways. One of them is in terms of how high the tongue is raised, distinguishing between **high** (or **close**) **vowels**, as in *beat* and **low** (or **open**) **vowels**, as in *bat*.
See **vowel**

opposition – opozycja

Two linguistic units may contrast with one another (be **opposed** to one another) with respect to some feature. In such an **opposition** one of the terms ('term' = człon opozycji) is **unmarked** and the other the **marked** term. For example, English consonants /p/ and /b/ are the two terms of the opposition based on the **distinctive** phonological **feature** +/– voice: /p/ is the –voice (= voiceless) term of the opposition, /b/ the +voice (= voiced) term. The term of an opposition which possesses a given feature (in our example the **+voice** feature) is the marked term/member (człon nacechowany) of the opposition, while the other term is the unmarked term/member (człon nienacechowany). In the following pairs of word-forms the plural forms are the marked terms of the noun +/– **plural** opposition. The unmarked form of an opposition is more general in meaning and consequently has a wider distribution than the marked form. Consider e.g. the phonological opposition /d/:/t/ in Polish. The marked member of the opposition /d/ never occurs in word final position, while the unmarked term /t/ can freely appear word initially as well as word finally; e.g. *pot* and *tak*. To take another example of an opposition, this time from the lexical level of language, the two lexical forms *dog* and *bitch*, of these forms *dog*, not *bitch*, is semantically neutral. Whereas *female dog* and *male dog* are perfectly acceptable, both **female bitch* and **male bitch* are semantically anomalous; **female bitch* is **tautological** and **male bitch* is contradictory. Thus, *dog* is the unmarked, i.e. semantically neutral, term of the opposition *dog*:*bitch* and its distribution is much less restricted than that of *bitch* (the

unmarked term). The division into marked and unmarked terms also applies to morphological categories; e.g. in the English system of moods the indicative mood is unmarked, the other moods are marked. In the tense system the Present Tense is unmarked, in contrast to the Past Tense, it can express various temporal relations: 'present time', as in *I work very hard*, 'future time', as in *I go to Warsaw tomorrow*, etc. Thus, in the opposition **Present Tense:Past Tense**, the first term is unmarked and as such has a wider distribution than the marked Past Tense member.
See **marked member**, **distinctive feature**, **tautology**

optative mood – tryb życzący, optativus

A term referring to a category of **mood** which expresses a desire, hope or wish. The **optative mood** (the "optative") is chiefly known from classical Greek. Optative expressions in English use the **modal verbs** or the **subjunctive**.
See **mood**, **modal verbs**

optional (**facultative**) **transformational rule** – fakultatywna reguła transformacyjna

According to **Standard Model of Transformational-Generative Grammar**, different types of simple sentences are accounted for by means of **optional transformational rules**. For example, all of the following sentences are related in that they derive from the same underlying string (or **base phrase marker**): (a) *The man opened the door*, (b) *The man did not open the door*, (c) *Did the man open the door?*, (d) *The door was opened by the man*, (e) *The door was not opened by the man*, and (vi) *Was the door opened by the man*? These sentences differ in that: (a) has had no optional transformation applied to the underlying string, (b) has had the negative transformation applied, (c) the interrogative transformation, etc. Cf. **obligatory transformational rule**.
See **phrase-marker** (also **P-Marker**), **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**

oral cavity – jama ustna
See **vocal tract**

ordering of rules – uporządkowanie reguł

In a **Generative Grammar**, rules are said to be **ordered** (v. **unordered**), if they have to apply in a particular sequence. They may be extrinsically or intrinsically ordered: i.e. by external convention or by the interrelationships of the rules themselves.
See **Generative Grammar**

ordinal numerals – liczebniki porządkowe

These denote the position or order of persons or things in a series (e.g. *in the first row, our fourth lesson*, etc.).
See **numeral**

orientational metaphor – metafora orientacyjna

One of the three types of the **conventional conceptual metaphor** distinguished in Lakoff and Johnson (1980). **Orientational metaphors** are found in ordinary language and they constitute part of the spatial organisation of people's lives. For example, in *He's at the peak of health* and *He dropped dead* health and life are 'up', while sickness and death are 'down'. This orientation is not arbitrary but it stems from people's everyday experience: one lies down when one is ill.
See **conventional conceptual metaphor**

orthographic word – wyraz ortograficzny

A word as recognized by the spelling system of a particular language.

orthography – ortografia

The term **orthography** is used for:

(1) Spelling in general.

(2) Correct or standard spelling.

ostensive definition – definicja ostensywna

You might be told: *Do you see those animals over there? They are cows.* This method of conveying the meaning of the word *cow* includes an element of what philosophers refer to as **ostensive definition**. An ostensive definition is one which defines an object by "pointing" to it.

oxymoron – oksymoron, określenie sprzeczne

A **figure of speech** in which effect is produced by the juxtaposition of contradictory terms, such, e.g., as English *cold fire*, *sweet sorrow* or Pol. *rozkoszne bóle*, *bolesne rozkosze*, and the like. The word is the Greek for 'pointedly foolish'.
See **figure of speech**

oxytonic accent – akcent oksytoniczny

An accent on the last syllable of a word, as, e.g. in French. Cf. **paroxytonic accent**.

output – wyjście
See **input**

O

overt gender – rodzaj jawny

For example, *he*, *she*, *it* have **overt gender**, while *I, you*, etc. have **covert gender**, since in isolation they can refer to either a male or female person. See also **gender**.
See **gender**

palatal a. – palatalny

The term refers to a speech sound made when the front of the tongue is in contact with or approaches the **hard palate**: e.g. the initial sound in English *you* /ju:/, and the /k/ in *keep*; /k/ is normally described as **velar**.
See **hard palate**, **velar**

palatalization n., **palatalize** v., **palatal** a. – palatalizacja, zmiękczenie

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**. 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 (DC).
See **phoneme**, **palatal**, **velar**

paleographer – paleograf

Someone who studies the handwritings of the past, and often the manuscripts as well, so that they may be dated, read, etc., and may serve as historical and literary sources. Cf. **paleography**.

paleography – paleografia

A discipline that is concerned with forms of writing and their distribution in time and space, the history and evolution of writing.

palimpsest – palimpsest

A document from which an earlier text has been erased in order to make way for a new one.

palindrome – palindrom

A word which can be written or transcribed from back to front, or from front to back, indifferently: e.g. *pip*, *madam*.

panchrony – hipoteza panchroniczna

A label applied to several distinct but related views put forward in recent years, by which **diachrony** cannot be rigidly separated from **synchrony**, and

language use is seen as fundamentally creative, with the synchronic state of a language always involving decisions currently being made by speakers and hence as always involving a diachronic element (RLT).
See **diachrony**, **synchrony**

pangram – pangram
See **alphabet**

paradigm – paradygmat

(1) In **morphology**, the set of inflectional forms which are repeated in a parallel way in a series of words. **Paradigms** which are based on the categories of case, number, and gender are **declensional paradigms**, while those based on the categories of person, number, mood, time, and voice are **conjugational paradigms**. A group of words inflected according to the same declensional paradigm is a **declension**, while a group of words inflected according to the same conjugational paradigm is a **conjugation**.

(2) A term also used to refer to a conceptual framework of beliefs, theoretical assumptions, accepted research methods, and standards that define legitimate work in a particular science or discipline. The scientist T.S. Kuhn (1962) described the process of change in the sciences as a **paradigm shift**. He argued that change in a scientific field does not occur as a step-by-step cumulative process. Instead, new paradigms emerge as the result of revolutions in the thinking of a particular professional community. These shifts involve the adoption of a new outlook or paradigm on the part of members of that community. A paradigm shift in the physical sciences was the shift from Newtonian to quantum physics. Paradigm shifts also occur in the social sciences such as the shift from grammar-based to communicative approaches in language teaching. Theories are representative of particular paradigms (JCRandRSch).

paradigmatic relationship (**relation**) – relacja paradygmatyczna

It is a relationship *in absentia*, between the element in question, which is there (in the utterance) and other elements, which are not there in that particular utterance. Cf. *Janek idzie spać* i *On idzie spać*. The relationship that holds between *Janek* and *on* in the utterances, both function as subject and occur in the same relationship with all other words which appear in the subject position in an abstract sentence schema of the following shape: X V/erb/ O/bject/, where X = subject position. Likewise, in words like Polish *dom-ek, płot-ek, kot-ek*, the elements *dom, płot* and *kot* occur in a **paradigmatic** (Saussure's term "associative") **relationship** with one another, since they constitute a certain class of elements which can combine with the diminutive suffix *-ek*.
See **syntagmatic relationship**

paralinguistic features – cechy paralingwistyczne

Non-vocal phenomena such as facial expressions, head or eye movements, and gestures, which may add support, emphasis or particular shades of meaning to what language users are saying.
See **paralinguistic system**

paralinguistic system – system paralingwistyczny

The total communication process comprises not only language (i.e. human verbal communication), but also various kinds of non-linguistic signals (i.e. non-verbal communication) such as: prosodic features, gestures, body movements, etc. Thus the non-verbal component of human language communication consists of non-vocal as well as vocal elements:
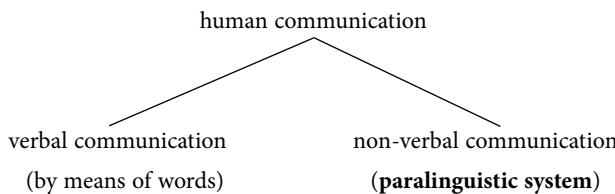
The **paralinguistic system** comprises vocal and non-vocal elements which are not words. It is superimposed upon the verbal (language) system, in that it adds extra shades of meaning to utterances, and thus is complementary to the verbal system. While the verbal system is more closely associated with the description of certain states of affairs, the paralinguistic (non-verbal) system fulfills the **social** and **expressive functions** of language. Part of the paralinguistic system of communication is constituted by such prosodic features as stress and intonation.
See **functions of language**

parameter – parametr

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). To take another example, the "pro-drop" (or null subject) **parameter** determines whether the subject of a clause can be suppressed. The overall approach has been called the **principles-and-parameters theory** (DC).
See **principles**, **Government-Binding Theory**, **principles-and-parameters theory**, **head**

parasynthesis – parasynteza

In **word formation**, the process of forming words by means of **affixation** and **composition** (**compounding**), for example, *screwdriver* (*screw-drive-er*), *big-hearted* (*big-heart-ed*).
See **word formation**, **affixation**, **composition**

paraphrase – parafraza

A rewording of the meaning expressed in something spoken or written. K. Polański (1993) speaks of two types of **paraphrase** *regular* and *irregular*. The former type may be illustrated by the Polish sentences: *Widziałem, jak szedł przez park* and *Widziałem go idącego przez park*. The following Polish sentences are illustrative of the irregular type of paraphrase: *Czy to można jeść?*, *Czy to się je?*, *Czy to jest jadalne?*, etc.

parataxis n., **paratactic** a. – parataksa, współrzędność

Coordination; juxtaposition of independent constructions. For example, **compound sentences** are built up on the basis of **parataxis**. The clauses making up a compound sentence are linked by means of **coordinating conjunctions**, such as *and*, *or*, *but*, *either … or*, *thus*, *therefore*, etc. Cf. **hypotaxis**.
See **coordinating conjunctions**

parent language – język przodek
See **ancestor language** (cf. also **daughter language**, **sister language**)

parole – mówienie, wykonanie (realizacja) kodu, użycie systemu językowego
See **langage**, **langue**

paronomasia – paronomazja

The technical term for a pun or play on words.
See **pun**

paronymy, paronym – paronimia, paronim

In **semantic** analysis, a term used to refer to the relationship between words derived from the same root. The term is especially applied to a word formed from a word in another language with only a slight change: e.g. French *pont* and Latin *pons* are **paronyms**, and the relationship between them is one of **paronymy** (DC).
See **semantics**

parsing n., **parse** v. – rozbiór gramatyczny zdania, analiza składniowa

The operations of assigning linguistic structure to a sentence. **Parsing** is a well-established technique of **traditional grammar**. For example, the sentence *The noisy frogs disturbed us* can be **parsed** as follows:

subject	verb	object
The noisy frogs	*disturbed*	*us*
def. art. adj. noun pl.	verb (past tense)	pronoun

See **traditional grammar**

part of speech – część mowy

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. Because of the inexplicitness with which these parts of speech were traditionally defined, and the restricted nature of their definitions (often 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 (not notional) criteria of a more universally applicable kind.
See **traditional grammar**

participant role – rola uczestnika
See **deep case**, **semantic role**

participle – imiesłów, participium

A non-finite form of a verb which functions as an adjective and is used in passive sentences and to form **progressive** and **perfect aspect.** There are two **participles** in English: the **present/progressive participle** and the **past participle.** The present participle is formed by adding *-ing* to a verb base. It functions as an adjective (e.g. *a smiling girl*), and it is used with *be* to form the progressive aspect (e.g. *It's raining*). The past participle is usually formed by adding *-ed* to a verb base; exceptions are the *-en* suffix (e.g. *break–broken*) and some irregular verbs (e.g. *build–built*). It is used as an adjective (e.g. *a broken window*), and with *be* to form the passive (*the window was broken*) and to form the perfect aspect *She has disappeared.*
See **perfect aspect**, **progressive aspect**, **non-finite verb**

particle – partykuła

A term sometimes used for a word which cannot readily be identified with any of the main **parts of speech** (e.g. nouns, verb, adjective, etc.). The word *not* and the *to* used with infinitives are sometimes called **particles** (e.g. according

to the *Concise Oxford Dictionary*, a particle is 'a minor part of speech, esp. short indeclinable one').
See **part of speech**

partitive – partitivus

Partitives are constructions which are used to express quantity of mass (non-count) nouns; e.g. ***a foot of*** *water*, ***an acre of*** *land*, ***a pound of*** *butter*, etc.

passim – passim

(Latin 'here and there', 'in various places'). A direction often found in the index of an annotated book that tells the reader that reference to the matter at hand will be found in many passages in the book. The term is sometimes preceded by *et* ('and').

passive language knowledge – bierna znajomość języka
See **active language knowledge**

passive vocabulary – słownictwo bierne

The words the native speaker will recognize and understand if someone else uses them. Neither the **passive** nor the **active vocabulary** of any native speaker of a language is fixed or static even for relatively short periods of time. See also (JCRandRSch).
See **active vocabulary**

passive voice – strona bierna, passivum

In English a **passive voice** construction contains the auxiliary *be* or *get* plus a **past participle**. The subject in a passive construction is typically affected by the action denoted by the lexical verb, as in *He got killed in Africa last year*, *The car was stolen a week ago*. Cf. **active voice/activum**.
See **past participle**

passivization n., **passivize** v. – pasywizacja

A movement operation whereby the complement of a verb (traditional direct object noun phrase) becomes its subject. Thus, *Bill* is the complement (direct object) of *kill* in *John killed Bill* (an active sentence) and the subject of *kill* in the passive *Bill was killed by John*.
See **complement**

past participle – imiesłów przeszły
See **participle**

patient – pacjens, patiens

The **semantic role** of a noun phrase that is affected by the action of the verb, for example, *The boy caught **a big fish***.
See **semantic role**

pause – pauza

A commonly occurring feature in natural speech in which gaps or hesitations appear during the production of **utterances**. The commonest types of **pauses** are: **silent pauses** (i.e. silent breaks between words) and **filled pauses** (i.e. gaps which are filled by such expressions as *ah*, *er*, *mm*, *um*). People who speak slowly often use more pauses than people who speak quickly. According to Richards and Schmidt (2002), when people speak, up to 50% of their speaking time may be made up of pauses. In grammar, the notion of **potential pause** is sometimes used as a technique for establishing word units in a language – pauses being more likely at word boundaries than within words.
See **utterance**

peak (of a syllable) – ośrodek (jądro, szczyt) sylaby
See **syllable**

pedagogical grammar – gramatyka pedagogiczna

The primary objective of **pedagogical grammar** is of purely didactic nature, and it is often, though not necessarily, theoretically **eclectic**, in the sense that it makes use of the findings of two or more linguistic theories (i.e. it employs the concepts and terms worked out, not by one specific, but by various linguistic theories). This type of grammar is designed specifically for the purposes of teaching or learning a (foreign) language, or for developing of one's awareness of the mother tongue.

pejoration – pejoratywizacja, degradacja znaczenia

The opposite of (**a**)**melioration**; a downward move in evaluative attitude, frequently due to social prejudice (very often involves words for women and foreigners). For example, *maitresse*, Modern French 'mistress', once meant 'bride'. Consider also English *knave*, which once meant 'boy', today is used as a word of abuse meaning 'rascal, rogue' (McMahon 1996: 179).
See (**a**)**melioration**

pejorative word – pejoratyw, wyraz o zabarwieniu ujemnym

See **pejoration** (cf. also **amelioration**)

perfect (**perfective**) **aspect** – aspekt dokonany

In English grammar, the **perfect aspect** is formed from the auxiliary verb *have* and the past participle form of the main verb. It shows a relationship between one state or event and a later state or event, or time. For example, *I have finished.* If the auxiliary is in the present tense, the verb group is described as the **present perfect**, and if the auxiliary is in the past tense, the verb group is described as the **past perfect** (e.g. *They had finished*). Cf. also **progressive aspect**. See **aspect**

performance – wykonanie (działanie) językowe, performancja

In his *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* Noam Chomsky makes a fundamental distinction between a person's knowledge of his language, i.e., the system of rules he has mastered, and his actual use of the language in real-life situations. He calls the first competence, the second performance.
See **Generative Grammar**, **competence**, **parole**

performative function of language – funkcja performatywna języka

The **performative function** of language is one of the language functions distinguished by some linguists (cf. Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk 1993). This function consists in the use of language to **perform** certain, frequently ritualised, **acts**, as is the case, e.g., with the following: *I pronounce you man and wife*, *I name this ship the Athena*. See also **functions of language**.
See **Speech Act Theory**, **performative**

performative, **performative utterance** – wypowiedź performatywna

Unlike **constative utterances**, which can be either true or false, these do not describe anything and they may be only characterized in terms of so-called **felicity** (**happiness**) **conditions**, i.e. a **performative** may be either felicitous/happy or infelicitous/unhappy. For example, for naming the ship, it is essential that I should be the person appointed to name her, as in *I name this ship "Queen Elisabeth"* (uttered when smashing the bottle against the stem). **Performative utterances** are divided into **explicit** and **implicit performatives**. Explicit performatives are utterances whose main clauses are expressions such as *I warn*, *I ask*, etc.; e.g. *I request you to pass me the salt.* Implicit performatives are utterances which do not have the performative clause expressed overtly. For example, *Pass me the salt* is an example of an implicit performative.
See **fellicity** (**happiness**) **conditions**, **Speech Act Theory**

performative verb – czasownik performatywny

A verb that explicitly names the **speech act**, e.g. the verb *promise* in the utterance *I promise to be there.*
See **Speech Act Theory**

peripheral (**marginal**) **member of a category** – peryferyjny (marginalny) element kategorii
See **prototype**, **prototype structure**; cf. **prototypical member**

period – kropka
See **full stop**

peripheral grammar – gramatyka peryferyjna
See **core grammar**

periphrasis n., **periphrastic** a. – peryfraza

(1) A roundabout or long-winded form of expression, a **circumlocution**. A good example is, *Persons prejudicial to the public peace may be assigned by administrative process to definite places of residence*, i.e., *Breakers of the law may be sent to prison*.

(2) In grammatical description, the term refers 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 the possibilities.
See **inflection**

periphrastic form – forma peryfrastyczna (opisowa)

A phrase that expresses a **grammatical word** when no appropriate word-form exists, e.g. *more interesting* for comparative of *interesting*.
See **grammatical word**, **periphrasis** (2)

perlocutionary act – akt perlokucyjny

It is concerned with what follows an utterance: the effect or "take-up" of an **illocutionary act**. This is also known as the **perlocutionary effect**.
See **Speech Act Theory**, **illocutionary act**

permutation n., **permute** v., **reordering** – permutacja, przestawienie

In **transformational grammars**, a term referring to one of the basic transformational operations. **Transformational rules** can perform four basic types of operations. They can **permute** constituents, they can **delete** constituents, they can **substitute** constituents, and they can adjoin them. **Permutation** consists in moving a constituent from one part of a **phrase-marker** to another, as, e.g. in the following, where *up* has been moved from the position before the noun phrase *the project* to sentence final position:

*Fred has given **up** the project.*
*Fred has given the project **up**.*

The four basic types of operations mentioned here are viewed as having a universal character, as it is very likely that all languages make use of them while organising **surface structures** of their sentences.
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **surface structure**, **phrase-marker**, **substitution**, **deletion**

person – osoba

In **traditional grammar**, English is said to have three **persons**: a **first person** expression (e.g. *I/we*) is one whose reference includes the speaker(s); a **second person** expression (e.g. *you*) is one which excludes the speaker(s) but includes the addressee(s) (i.e. the person or people being spoken to); a **third person** expression (e.g. *he*, *she*, *it*, *they*) is one whose reference excludes both the speaker(s) and the addressee(s) – i.e. an expression which refers to someone or something other than the speaker(s) or the addressee(s).
See **traditional grammar**

personal pronouns – zaimki osobowe

These are pronouns which carry inherent **person** properties – i.e. first person pronouns such as *I/we*, second person pronouns such as *you*, and third person pronouns such as *he/she/it/they*.
See **person**

personification – personifikacja, uosobnienie

A **figure of speech** in which a thing, quality or idea is represented as a person. For example, when Th. Gray (1716–1771) in his *Elegy written in a country churchyard* writes thus: "Let not Ambition mock their useful toil" (personification of ambition). And one of the most beautiful in the English literature is the **personification** of sleep in Shakespeare's *Henry IV,* B:

O sleep, O gentle sleep, Nature's soft nurse, how have I frighted thee…
(*Henry IV,* Part 2, Act III, sc. 1)

See **figure of speech**

pharyngeal (**pharyngal**) **consonant** – spółgłoska faryngalna (gardłowa)

A **consonant** involving the root of the tongue and the **pharynx** (the back of the throat). Several such speech sounds occur in **Arabic**.
See **consonant**, **Arabic**

pharyngealization n., **pharyngerealize** v., **pharyngeal** a. – faryngalizacja

The term refers to any articulation involving a constriction of the **pharynx**. For example, a **pharngealized** /s/ is a **secondary articulation** produced by simultaneously constricting the pharynx while making the /s/ articulation. See **pharynx**, **pharyngeal consonant**, **secondary articulation**

pharynx – gardło, jama gradłowa

That part of the throat which extends from above the **vocal cords** up to the **velum** (the soft palate) at the back of the mouth. The **pharynx** is like a large chamber and in the production of speech sounds its shape and volume can be changed in various ways. See **velum**, **vocal cords**

phatic communion – więź fatyczna

A term introduced by the Polish-English anthropologist Bronisław Malinowski (1884–1942) and used subsequently by many linguists (e.g. J.R. Firth) 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. See **phatic function**

phatic function – funkcja fatyczna

The function of language referred to in Bronisław Malinowski's works by the term "phatic communion" to label non-symbolic uses of language. Malinowski describes phatic communion as "the type of speech in which ties of union are created by a mere exchange of words." This use of language will include idle chatter, small talk, polite conversation about anything and everything, etc. The **phatic function** of language is sometimes included within the **communicative function** of language. See **communicative function**, **phatic communion**

philology – filologia

In linguistic literature, the term **philology** is understood and used in different senses. For example, Richards and Schmidt (2002) treat **philology** as being synonymous with **comparative historical linguistics**, and **historical linguistics** which the authors define as follows: "[…] a branch of linguistics which studies language change and language relationships. By comparing earlier and later forms of a language and by comparing different languages, it has been possible to show that certain languages are related. It has also been possible to

reconstruct forms which are believed to have occurred in a particular language before written records were available. For example, *p in an ancestor language to all the Indo-European languages is said to be related to /p/ in Sanskrit, as in *pita* 'father', and /f/ in English, as in *father*." And another British scholar, David Crystal (2008) defines the term **philology** as "The traditional term for the study of language history, as carried on by *comparative philologists* since the late 18th 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." And the term **comparative** is defined by Crystal as a term used to "characterise a major branch of linguistics, in which the primary concern is to make statements comparing the characteristics of different languages (dialects, varieties, etc.), or different historical states of a language. During the 19th century, the concern for comparative analysis was exclusively historical, as scholars investigated the relationships between such families of languages as Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, their hypothetical ante-cedents (i.e. the proto-language from which such families developed) and the subsequent processes which led to the formation of the language groups of the present day. This study became known as **comparative philology** (or simply **philology**) – sometimes as **comparative grammar**." The term philology is also used with reference to the studies concerned with a given language or languages including their literature and culture (one of the uses of the term taken from Polański 1993).

Phoenician – fenicki język

An extinct northwest **Semitic** language formerly spoken in Lebanon and Syria and recorded in writing from about the 11th century to the 1st century BC, in an alphabetic script. A variety of Phoenician called **Punic** was spoken in Carthage and in the Punic Empire; Punic is recorded from the 9th century BC to the 1st century AD, but was probably spoken for several centuries longer (RLT).
See **Semitic languages**, **Punic**

philological method – metoda filologiczna

The method which involves comparing texts written in the same language but originating in different periods. Thus, comparing the elements of a language which fulfill the same function in progressively later texts, we can trace their gradual transformation. A comparison, for example, of the declension of nouns in Polish texts from the 14th century (e.g. *Kazania świętokrzyskie* – The Holy Cross Sermons), and from the 15th century (e.g. *Biblia królowej Zofii* – Queen Sophia's Bible), etc., has enabled us to establish the evolution of Polish declensional forms in the course of the last six centuries (Milewski 1973: 102–103).
See **declension**

phonation – fonacja

There are two stages distinguished in the production of speech sounds: **phonation** and **articulation**. **Phonation** stands for the airstream becoming voiced or voiceless. As air is expelled from the lungs, it passes through the **glottis**. Located in the glottis are the vocal folds – two flaps of flesh that can be brought together or held apart. Phonation refers to the modulation of the airstream in the glottis. If the vocal cords are brought together, they may vibrate, to produce voice. If air passes freely through the glottis, the airstream is minimally affected – this is the state of voicelessness.
See **articulation**, **glottis**

phone – głoska, dźwięk mowy

A sound regarded as a rudimentary member of a **phoneme**.
See **phoneme**

phonematic unit – jednostka fonotaktyczna

One of the two analytic categories used in the Firthian theory of **prosodic phonology**, the other being **prosody**. **Phonematic units** comprise consonats 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) (DC). See also **phonotactics**.
See **prosody**, **phoneme**, **phonological opposition**

phoneme n., **phonemic** a. – fonem

A set of simultaneously occurring **distinctive features** functioning to differentiate one form from another; e.g. /p/ and /b/ are distinctive in English because words like *pan* /pæn/ and *ban* /bæn/ are different words with different meanings. Members of a **phoneme** are called **allophones** and it is common practice to write allophone symbols between square brackets and phoneme symbols between oblique brackets. Thus in English, [t] and [th] are allophones of the phoneme /t/ (for other definitions of the phoneme see, among others, L. Bloomfield, *Language*, N. Trubetskoy, *Grundzuge der Phonologie* (*Principles of Phonology*)).
See **distinctive features**

phonemic split, **phonologization** – rozszczepienie fonemu

Phonologization of the variants (i.e. **allophones**) of a **phoneme**. Any phonological change in which a single phoneme gives rise to two distinct phonemes.

Two distinct types are recognized: **primary split** and **secondary split**. In primary split, one outcome of the split immediately merges with another existing phoneme, so that the total number of phonemes remains unchanged. For example, early Latin /s/ changed to [r] between vowels and merged with the existing /r/, so that only the distribution of /s/ and /r/ changed. This can be graphically presented as follows:

```
    X              X
     \            /|
      \          / |
       \        /  |
        \      /   |
         \    /    |
    X         X        (conditioned merger/primary split)
```
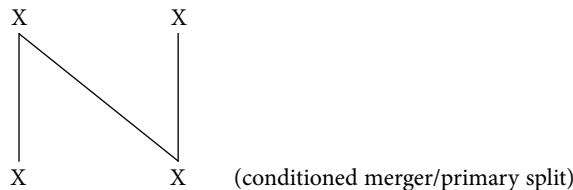
In secondary split, neither outcome of the split finds anything to merge with, and hence the total number of phonemes increases, which phenomenon can be presented thus:

```
           X
          / \
         /   \
        /     \
       X       X      (secondary split)
```
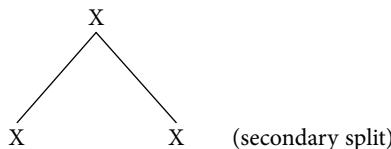
For instance, OE /θ/ has split into two phonemes, /θ/ and /ð/, in Modern English. Frequently, though not invariably, secondary split results from loss of the conditioning environment. The opposite is **merger** (Trask 1996: 78–79).
See **phonologization**, **merger**, **Old English**

phonemic transcription – transkrypcja fonologiczna
See **transcription**

phonetic (subphonemic) change – zmiana fonetyczna

Any **phonological change** which affects the phonetic realization of one or more segments and has no consequences for the **phonological system**. For example, the English vowel /æ/ has undergone various types of raising, backing and **diphthongization** in many **accents**, but this is purely a **phonetic change** so long as /æ/ remains distinct from all other vowels and retains its distribution in words. Trask (2000) notes that in some European languages, the literal equivalent of phonetic change is used for phonological change.
See **diphthongization**, **accent**, **phonological system**

phonetic representation – reprezentacja fonetyczna
See **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**

phonetic transcription – transkrypcja fonetyczna

See **transcription**

phonetics – fonetyka

The study of the production, transmission, and reception of speech sounds. There are three main areas of phonetics: (a) **articulatory phonetics** which deals with the way in which speech sounds are produced. Sounds are usually classified according to the position of the lips and the tongue, how far open the mouth is, whether or not the **vocal cords** are vibrating, etc.; (b) **acoustic phonetics** dealing with the transmission of speech sounds through the air. When a speech sound is produced, it causes minor air sound waves. Various instruments are used to measure the characteristics of these sound waves; (c) **auditory phonetics** which deals with the perceptual response to speech sounds, as mediated by ear, auditory nerve and brain. People engaged in the study of phonetics are known as **phoneticians**. Cf. **phonology**.

phonetician – fonetyk

A person engaged in the study of **phonetics**.
See **phonetics**

phonogram – fonogram

In the study of writing systems a symbol representing a speech sound (Pol. dźwięk). Any writing system which represents individual speech sounds (as in the alphabet or **syllabary**) is a **phonography**.
See **syllabary**

phonography – fonografia
See **phonogram**

phonological change – zmiana fonologiczna

Any kind of change in the phonological system of a language, in the phonological structures of particular linguistic forms. Types of **phonological change** include, among others: **fortition** and **lenition**.
See **fortition**, **lenition**, **phonology**

phonological component – składnik fonologiczny

In linguistic theories, **phonology** is seen in one of two ways: (a) as a level of linguistic organisation, contrasted with the levels of **phonetics**, **grammar,** and **semantics**, in the first instance; (b) as a component of a **Transformational-Generative Grammar** (**TGG**), it is contrasted with the **syntactic** and **semantic components**, e.g. in the *Aspects* model of TGG, where the phonological component assigns phonetic representations to **surface structures**.

See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **phonetics**, **phonology**, **semantics**

phonological neologism – neologizm fonologiczny
See **neologism**

phonological opposition – opozycja fonologiczna

According to R. Jakobson (1896–1982), all **phonological oppositions** in all the languages of the world are **binary**, i.e., they are the result of a contrast between features. Jakobson divides all **binary oppositions**, comprising the phonological systems of all the languages of the world, into twelve types, each of which involves the contrast between two mutually exclusive acoustic features: e.g., *vowel*:*non-vowel*, *consonant*:*non-consonant*, *voiced*:*voicelss*, *nasal*:*non-nasal*, etc. Each phoneme is a set of several such features, which contrast with the features of other phonemes. The set of types of acoustical opposition is different in each language.

phonological system – system fonologiczny

The set of consonant and vowel units that make up the words of a language or language variety, it is a list of contrastive sounds used in a language that are capable of distinguishing two words with different meanings together with the ranges of variety each sound has and where those **variants** are found (Ball and Mueller 2005: 120). It is one of the fundamental systems which a language is considered to comprise, like its **syntax**, its **morphology**, and **vocabulary**.
See **variant**, **syntax**, **morphology**

phonological word – wyraz fonologiczny

(1) A word defined by the phonological systems of the individual language, though different criteria may be used to identify these in different languages.

(2) Words are the physically definable units which one encounters in a stretch of writing (bounded by spaces) or speech (where identification is more difficult, but where there may be phonological clues to identify boundaries such as a pause or juncture features). Word in this sense is often referred to as the **orthographic word** (for writing) or the **phonological word** (for speech) (DC).

phonologist – fonolog

A person engaged in the study of **phonology**.
See **phonology**

phonologization – fonologizacja

A change in the sound system of a language involving the development of conditioned **allophones** into separate **phonemes** as a result of loss of a conditioning factor. For example, in 15th century English a final /g/ was dropped after the phoneme /n/ and caused the **phonologization** of the two allophones [n] and [ŋ] which henceforth occurred in opposition, as in *sin* /sin/:*sing* [siŋ] (RLT). See **allophone**, **phoneme**

phonology, **phonemics** – fonologia, fonemika

The area of grammar concerned with how speech sounds function to distinguish words in a language. The scope of **phonology** includes how sounds are related, how they are combined to form syllables and larger units, and how relationships between syllables are indicated by features such as stress. A basic assumption of phonology has been that a stream of speech can be exhaustively segmented into a linear sequence of **phones**. One of its major concerns has been to set up, for a given language, a finite inventory of phonological units, i.e. **phonemes**, to which these phones can be assigned. Phonemes in turn are analyzed into sets of features (**distinctive features**). For example, the phoneme /i:/ of English, appearing in words like *see*, *seat*, etc., can be described as a vowel which is articulated with a high front tongue position and, and thus may be represented by means of the features [VOCALIC], [HIGH], and [FRONT]. The phoneme /u/ contrasts with [i] with respect to the backness of the tongue. Phonemes, then, are units defined in terms of features. The features are **binary**, i.e. they can take only one of two values, either present or absent, [+] or [−]. Thus, a phoneme is either a vowel, i.e. it is either [+VOCALIC] or [−VOCALIC]; a vowel is either [+HIGH], such as /i/ and /u/ in English or [−HIGH] (e.g. English /e/ or /a/), etc. The features in terms of which phonemes are described are also assumed to be primitive and universal. They are primitive in that they are not further decomposable into more basic elements of sound structure. Features are the ultimate constituents, the atomic components of phonology. A related assumption concerns the universality of features, that is to say, the phonemes of all human languages are to be defined in terms of features drawn from a universal feature inventory. The set of universal features can be thought of as characterizing the sound-producing capabilities of man. The best known universal feature inventory would seem to be that proposed in Chomsky and Halle (*The Sound Pattern of English*, 1968: chap. 7). However, many phonologists have felt it necessary to revise the existing inventories and propose their own (cf., e.g., Ladefoged 1975, Lass 1984). However, disagreement on the choice of features does not hide the general consensus concerning the feasibility and desirability of the goal. Phonology is sometimes called **functional phonetics**.
See **distinctive feature**, **phoneme**, **phone**, **phonetics**

phonotactic restrictions (**constraints**) – ograniczenia fonotaktyczne

Phonotactics defines permissible syllable structure, consonant clusters and vowel sequences by means of **phonotactic restrictions/constraints**. In English, for example, consonant sequences such as /fs/ and /spm/ do not occur word initially, and Japanese consonant clusters like /st/ do not occur.
See **phonotactics**

phonotactic rules – reguły fonotaktyczne
See **phonotactics**

phonotactics n., **phonotactic** a. – fonotaktyka

A branch of **phonology** that deals with restrictions in a language on the permissile combinations of **phonemes.** For example, in English initial clusters of /pl/ and /tr/ are permissible, but word initial /kn/ and /gn/ are not. Interestingly, initial /kn/ and /gn/ were permissible in **Old English** (Fisiak 1968).
See **phoneme**, **Old English**

phrasal compound – zestawienie (compositum) frazowe, nazwa wielowyrazowa

A lexical item which is derived from a complete phrase, or sometimes from an even larger syntactic structure. English examples include *lady-in-waiting, toad-in-the-hole* (an item of cuisine), etc. English *good-bye* derives from the complete sentence *God be with ye*. Consider also the flower names: *love-in-a-mist* and *forget-me-not*.

phrasal verb – czasownik złożony

A verbal construction consisting of a verb plus an adverb particle. A characteristic of particles is that they can appear in a position after the **direct object**: e.g. *He **called up** the boss*, *He **called** the boss **up***. A distinction is made between **phrasal verbs** and **prepositional verbs**. In the following we have to do with a prepositional verb: *He called **up the street*** which cannot be paraphrased by **He called **the street up*** (the asterisk indicates ungrammaticality). Prepositional verbs are followed (or complemented) by **prepositional phrases** (**PPs**).
See **direct object**, **prepositional phrase**

phrase – fraza, grupa składniowa, syntagma

(1) Any group of words that is grammatically equivalent to a single word and which does not have its own subject and predicate (Lyons 1968: 171).

(2) If a sequence of words in a given sentence can be replaced by a single word without this causing the change of the basic structure of the sentence, then the sequence functions as a **constituent** and is therefore a **phrase**. For

example, in the sentence *Old Sam did regular press-ups* the sequence *Old Sam* makes up a phrase being replaceable by *he*, as in *He did regular press-ups*. But in *Although he was old, Sam did regular press-ups*, *old* and *Sam* do not constitute a phrase, and thus cannot be replaced by a single word. Notice that in the second sentence *old* and *Sam* do not occur in the same clause. Phrases are not only syntactic units (i.e. constituents), but also semantic units i.e. coherent units of sense (they are semanto-syntactic units).
See **constituent**

phraseologism – frazeologizm

A syntactic construction which has been to some degree frozen into a fixed **collocation**, usually with some kind of metaphorical extension of its original meaning, and usually with restrictions on its wider collocability (or **collocational range**).
See **collocation**

phraseology (a branch of **lexicology**) – frazeologia

It is the study of a set of fixed expressions, such as idioms, phrasal verbs and other types of multi-word lexical items (often collectively called "phrasemes") in which the component parts of the expression take on a meaning more specific than or otherwise not predictable from the sum of their meanings when used; e.g. *Dutch auction* is composed of the words *Dutch* 'of or pertaining to the Netherlands' and *auction* 'a public sale in which goods are sold at the highest bidder,' but its meaning is not 'a sale in the Netherlands where goods are sold at the highest bidder.' Instead the phrase has a conventionalised meaning referring to any auction where instead of rising, the prices fall. Cf. **idiom**.
See **lexicology**

phrase structure – struktura frazowa
See **constituent structure**, **Phrase-Structure Grammar**

Phrase-Structure Grammar – gramatyka struktur frazowych

Phrase-Structure Grammar is the second of Noam Chomsky's three models for the description of language. Any set of sentences that can be generated by a **finite state grammar** can be generated by a phrase-structure grammar. But the converse does not hold: there are sets of sentences that can be generated by a phrase structure grammar, but not by a finite state grammar. Phrase structure grammars are intrinsically more powerful than finite state grammars, i.e., they can do everything that finite state grammars do – and more. Consider the sentence: *The man hit the ball*: the words out of which the sentence is composed can be called **ultimate constituents**, i.e., elements not further analyzable at the syntactic level. The order in which the constituents

occur relative to one another can be described as the **linear structure of the sentence**. The notion of phrase structure is comparable with the notion of **bracketing** in mathematics or symbolic logic. Two strings of elements may have the same linear structure, but differ with respect to their phrase structure (e.g. *old men and women*, which may be interpreted as either *(old men) and women* or as *old (men and women)*) and that the difference in their phrase structure may be semantically relevant. The theoretical importance of this phenomenon, which may be referred to as **structural ambiguity** (Chomsky's term in *Syntactic Structures* is **constructional homonymity**) lies in the fact that the ambiguity of such strings as *old men and women* cannot be accounted for by appealing to a difference of linear structure. Chomsky's major contribution to the theory of **immediate constituent analysis** has been much discussed by Chomsky's predecessors. Chomsky's major contribution to this model of syntactic structure was first of all to show how it could be formalized by means of a system of generative rules and then to demonstrate that, although phrase-structure grammar was more powerful and more satisfactory for the description of natural languages than finite state grammar, it had certain limitations. Chomsky's formalization of phrase structure grammar may be illustrated by means of the following rules (identical with those given in *Syntactic Structures*):

(i)   Sentence → NP + VP

(ii) NP → T + N

(iii) VP → Verb + NP

(iv) T → the

(v) N → {man, ball, …}

(vi) Verb → {hit, took, …}

This set of rules (which will generate only a small fraction of English sentences) is a simple phrase-structure grammar. Each of these rules is of the form X → Y, where X is a single element and Y is a **string** consisting of one or more elements. The arrow is to be interpreted as an instruction to replace the element that occurs to its left with the string of elements that occur to its right (rewrite X as Y). Rules (v) and (vi) employ brace brackets to list a set of elements any one of which, but only one of which, may be selected. The rules (i) – (vi) are **rewriting rules**. The phrase-structure rules generate **terminal strings**. It should be emphasized that terminal strings are not sentences. In this type of grammar whenever we apply a rule we put brackets around the string of elements that is introduced by the rule and we label the string within the brackets as an instance of the element that has been rewritten by the rule. For example, the string NP + VP derived by rule (i) is bracketed and labeled as Sentence (NP + VP). The labeled bracketing assigned to the string NP + Verb + NP is Sentence (NP + VP (Verb + NP)); etc.

An alternative and equivalent means of representing the labeled bracketing assigned to strings of elements generated by a phrase structure grammar is a **tree diagram**:

```
                         S
                ┌────────┴────────┐
               NP                 VP
            ┌───┴───┐          ┌───┴───┐
            T       N        Verb      NP
            │       │          │     ┌──┴──┐
            │       │          │     T     N
            │       │          │     │     │
           the     man        hit   the   ball
```
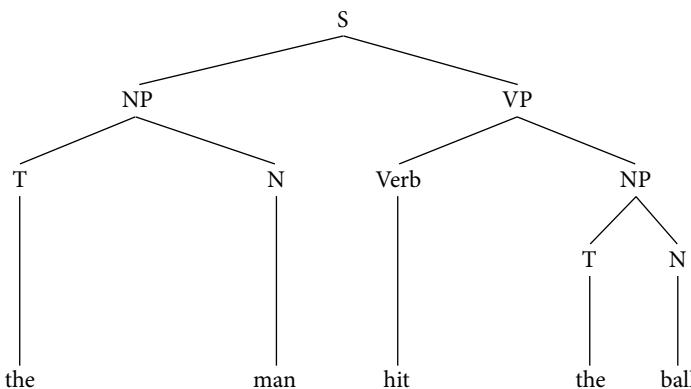
The labeled bracketing, associated with a terminal string, is called a **phrase marker**. The phrase marker represented by a tree diagram conveys the following information: the string of terminal elements <u>the + man + hit + the + ball</u> is a sentence which consists of two constituents NP (= the man) and VP (= hit the ball). The NP which occurs to the left of VP consists of two constituents T (the) and N (man); and the NP that occurs to the right of VP consists of two constituents T (the) and N (ball). The notion of subject is defined as the NP which is **directly dominated** by Sentence, and the object as that NP which is directly dominated by VP.

A phrase-structure grammar not only generates strings of **terminal symbols** (terminal strings), but it assigns to each such terminal string a particular kind of **structural description**, i.e., an analysis of the terminal string in terms of a labeled bracketing.

phrase-marker (also **P-Marker**) – znacznik frazowy
See **Phrase-Structure Grammar**

phrase-structure (**rewrite**, **substitution**) **rules** – reguły frazowe (formowania) (przepisywania) (substytucji)

One of the two types of syntactic rules in **Transformational-Generative Grammar** (TGG) (the *Aspects* model of TGG). These rules have the shape: X<u>A</u>Y → X<u>B</u>Y, where the single solid arrow means 'rewrite, substitute', hence this type of rules are also called **rewrite/substitution rules**. X and Y are variables standing for any linguistic units, including zero as a possible value. The sign "+" symbolizes **concatenation** which must not be identified with ordinary mathematical addition. PS-rules generate **deep structures** (or base Phrase-Markers) underlying sentences which contain all the information necessary for the determination of the meaning of a sentence. (examples of PS-rules: S → NP + Pred.Phrase (where S = sentence, Pred.Phrase = predicate phrase), Pred.Phrase → AUX + VP (where AUX = auxiliary, VP = verb phrase)).
See **concatenation**, **deep (underlying) structure**, **context-free phrase-structure rules**, **context**-sensitive phrase-structure rules

phylogeny, **phylogenesis** – filogeneza
See **ontogeny**, **ontogenesis**

physicalism – fizykalizm

By **physicalism** is meant the system according to which all statements made by a person's thoughts, emotions and sensations can be reformulated as statements about his bodily condition and observable behaviour, and can thus be brought within the scope of "physical" laws (Shorter Oxford English Dictionary). (cf. **empiricism**)

Pictish (**language**) – piktyjski język

An extinct language which is very sparsely attested in some inscriptions in Scotland dating from the first millennium AD. Most of these inscriptions conceal a **Celtic** language, but opinion is divided over whether a few of them might represent an entirely different language (RLT). See also McMahon (1996: 59).
See **Celtic languages**

pidgin – pidżyn, pidgin

A **pidgin** is essentially a **contact language**, developed in a situation where different groups of people require some means of communication but lack any common language. A pidgin is nobody's first language; all speakers learn it as adults as a **second** or further language, and all have native languages of their own. Pidgins are typically restricted in function, since they are used only in contact situations. Pidgins often arise in areas where many disparate languages are spoken – Papua New Guinea has one of the densest concentrations of indigenous languages of any area, and **Tok Pisin** has become very successful there as a **lingua franca**. Along with this restriction in function goes a restriction in form. Pidgins will generally have at least three parent languages. One will typically be a European language, since pidgins arose predominantly in the context of European colonization; this language is known as the **superstrate**, and was typically spoken by the dominant social group, and consequently more socially prestigious in the community. Two or more **substrate** languages will also be involved; these are typically less prestigious and are often indigenous. A pidgin becomes a **creole** when it is adopted as the native language of a speech community (McMahon 1996: 253–254).
See **contact language**, **lingua franca**, **creole language**

pidginization – pidginizacja

The process when a language becomes made up of two or more other languages and used for contacts, especially trading contacts, between speakers of other languages.
See **pidgin**

pitch – wysokość dźwięku

When we listen to people speaking, we can hear some sounds or sequences of sounds in their speech to be relatively higher or lower than others. This relative height of speech sounds as perceived by a listener is called **pitch**. It is an **auditory phonetic** feature; what we can hear as pitch is produced by the **vocal cords** vibrating. The faster the vocal cords vibrate, the higher the pitch.
See **auditory phonetics**, **vocal cords**

place name – nazwa miejscowa

A **proper name** denoting a place (town, village, river, etc.), e.g., *London*, *the Thames*, etc.
See **proper noun**

place of articulation – miejsce artykulacji

The place (or point) to which an **articulator** moves in the production of a sound.
See **articulator**

pleonasm n., **pleonastic** a. – pleonazm

(1) The use of more words than is necessary for the expression of an idea. Cf., e.g., Polish *stary dziadek*, *straszne nieszczęście*, and the like. Used deliberately, a **pleonastic** expression often helps to enhance artistic expression, as illustrated by W. Broniewski's words *My pracujemy w trudzie i znoju* (adopted from Polański 1993). Used accidentally (unconsciously), a pleonastic expression is a stylistic error leading to a circumlocution (e.g. Pol. *masło maślane*). See also **tautology**.

(2) A formation containing two elements bearing the same meaning; e.g. the British word *fruiterer* 'a person who deals in fruit', containing two instances of the suffix *-er*, or, to take another example, the regional German *gingte* 'went', in which past tense *-te* has been attached to the already past tense form *ging*.

plereme – plerem

In linguistics, a term which is sometimes used to refer to the minimal units of meaning in **Componential Analysis** – what are often called **semantic features** or **semantic components**. In **glossematics**, the term refers to the minimal unit of meaningful expression (i.e. **sememe**).
See **componential analysis**, **semantic feature**, **glossematics**

plosive, **stop consonant** – spółgłoska zwartowybuchowa (eksplozywna)
See **stop (plosive) consonant**

plurale tantum (pl. **pluralia tantum**) – plurale tantum (pl. pluralia tantum)

A Latin term, meaning 'plural only', referring to a noun which is plural in form and has no singular counterpart. Examples include: *oats*, *scissors*, *trousers*, *alms*, etc. And Polish examples include: *nosze*, *fusy*, *drzwi*, etc. Cf. **singular tantum**.

pluperfect tense, **past perfect** – czas zaprzeszły

The **pluperfect** is normally used to place the activity denoted by the main verb in a period of time preceding, but going up to, a past point of time, as e.g. in: *I had already seen him, when you arrived* (During the period before, and up to, your arrival, I saw him). The pluperfect is also used to indicate an activity preceding one already in the past, as in: *I had seen him an hour before you arrived* (The period indicated by *an hour before* does not include the time of arrival). See **tense**

P-Marker – znacznik frazowy

An abbreviation for **phrase-marker**.
See **phrase-marker**

poetic (aesthetic) function of language – funkcja poetycka języka

It is orientated towards the linguistic text. It focuses on its phonological, grammatical and lexical properties. For example, the **poetic function** of language manifests itself in puns found in literary texts; the following pun *My pony is a little hoarse,* when spoken is ambiguous, as it may mean either that the pony is a small animal or that the pony has a throat infection. See also **functions of language**.

poetics – poetyka

In linguistics, a term referring to the application of linguistic theory and method to the analysis of poetry. However, some linguists (e.g. 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 (DC).
See **poetic function of language**

Polabian – połabski język

An extinct west **Slavic language** spoken southeast of the city of Hamburg until the 18th century (Milewski 1973: 136).
See **Slavic languages**

Polish – polski język
See **Slavic languages**, **Proto-Slavic**

politeness – grzeczność

In language study: (a) how languages express the **social distance** between speakers and their different **role relationships**; (b) how **face-work** (FACE), that is, the attempt to establish, maintain, and save face during conversation, is carried out in speech community. Languages differ in how they express **politeness**. In English, phrases like *I wonder if I could…* can be used to make a request more polite. Many other languages (Japanese and Javanese are examples) devote far more linguistic resources and require more complex work on the part of a speaker to encode levels of politeness. **Politeness markers** include differences between formal speech and colloquial speech, and the use of **address forms**. In expressing politeness, the anthropological linguists Brown and Levinson distinguished between **positive politeness startegies** (those that signal the closeness, intimacy, and rapport between speaker and hearer) and **negative politeness strategies** (those which address the social distance between speaker and hearer and minimise the imposition that a face-threatening action unavoidably effects) (JCRandRSch).
See **role relationship**, **address form**, **politeness markers**

politeness phenomena – zjawiska grzecznościowe

In **pragmatics**, the term is used to specify linguistic features mediating norms of social behaviour in relations to such notions as courtesy, rapport, deference, and distance. Such features include special discourse markers (e.g. *please*), appropriate tone of voice and acceptable forms of **address** (DC). See also **politeness**.
See **pragmatics**, **discourse**, **address form**

polygenesis – hipoteza poligentyczna

The view that human language arose more than once in the remote past, and that the living or attested languages therefore do not necessarily share a common origin. The opposing view is **monogenesis** (RLT). See also DC.
See **monogenesis**

polymorphemic word – wyraz polimorficzny

A word consisting of more than one morpheme, e.g. English *doorknob, unhelpfulness*, etc. Cf. **monomorphemic word**.
See **morpheme**

Polynesian (**languages**) – polinezyjskie języki

A subgroup of the **Austronesian** family, containing about twenty-eight languages mostly spoken in the eastern and southern Pacific, such as Hawaiian, Tahitian, Samoan, and Maori.
See **Austronesian**

polysemy n., **polysemous** a. – polisemia, wieloznaczność

Multiple meaning, where one lexical item has more than one meaning (cf., e.g., the use of Polish *głowa* in the following: *Boli mnie głowa*, *Jan jest głową rodziny, głowa państwa polskiego*) (Polish examples taken from KP). The meanings of a **polysemous** word are closely related: e.g. *foot* in: *He hurt his foot* and *He stood at the foot of the stairs*, where the foot is the lowest part of the stairs just as the foot is the lowest part of the human body. **Polysemy** was often considered an inadequacy in a language, especially in the late-17th century, when the equation "one notion (or even one object) = one term" was considered the ideal to aim at (Görlach 1983: 193). Cf. **homonymy**.

polysyllabic word – wyraz wielosylabowy

A word consisting of more than one **syllable** (e.g. *telephone*, *linguistics*, etc.) Cf. **monosyllable**.
See **syllable**

polysyllable n. – słowo wielosylabowe

A word consisting of more than two syllables. Cf. **polysyllabic word**.

polysynthetic languages – języki polisyntetyczne
See **incorporation**

Port Royal School – Szkoła Port Royal

The name given to a group of 17th-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 Chomsky's *Language and Mind*, 1968, *Reflections on Language*, 1976, *Knowledge of Language: Its Nature, Origin and Use*, 1985) (DC).

Portuguese – portugalski język
See **Romance languages**, **Proto-Romance**

positive face – twarz pozytywna

In communication between two or more persons, the good image that people have of others and themselves and wish others to have of them as well (JCRandRSch). Cf. **negative face**.

See also **face**, **politeness**

positive politeness strategies – pozytywne strategie grzecznościowe
See **politeness**

possible world – świat możliwy

In logic, the concept **possible world** was first introduced by the German philosopher Gottfried W. Leibniz (1646–1716), according to whom a **proposition** can be said to be true in one particular world (real or imaginary) and false in another. For example, if we envisage a world in which there are no human beings, the proposition "Human beings do not exist" will be true of that world, but false of the actual (real) world at the present moment. A proposition which is true in all possible worlds is eternally true. Thus, the actual world is just one of an infinite set of possible worlds (DC). See also Allwood et al. (1979: 22 ff.). See **proposition**

postfix – postfiks

An **affix** in a word placed after a **root**. **Postfixes** are divided into suffixes and inflectional endings. For example, in the word *friendships*, *friend* – is a root, *-ship* is a suffix, and *–s* an inflectional ending. Consider the example: *Restoring ties with Israel would not affect Bulgaria's traditional friendships with other countries* (Col. Co.). Cf. also **prefix**, **interfix**.

postposition – poimek, postpozycja

A word (or morpheme) which follows a noun or noun phrase and indicates location, direction, possession, etc. Many languages make regular use of **postposed** items, for example, Japanese, Hindi, etc. Consider, e.g., the Japanese *Tokyo-kara* 'Tokyo from'. English prefers **preposition** to **postposition** (DC). See also **prepositional languages**. Cf. **preposition**.
See **adposition**, **preposition**

postpositional languages – języki postpozycyjne (sufiksalne)

These comprise languages in which **affixes** occur in postposition, i.e., after **roots**. The number of such languages includes, among others, the **Turkic family** (of about 30 languages), and, generally, Indo-European languages (among them, Polish and Latin). For example, Latin *puell-a puell-ae puell-am,* Polish *dziewczyn-a dziewczyn-y dziewczyn-ie*, etc. (Milewski 1973: 170 ff., KP). Cf. **prepositional languages**.
See **affix**, **root postposition**

potential word – wyraz potencjalny

In linguistics, a term for any word which can be formed using the **word formation** rules of a language, even though it has not yet been attested. For example,

in English the attested lexicon includes *revision* derived from *revise*, but not *devision* from *devise*, which thus remains part of the potential lexicon (DC).
See **word formation**, **actual word**

pragmalinguistics n., **pragmalinguistic** a. – pragmalingwistyka

The interface between linguistics and **pragmatics** focusing on the linguistic means used to accomplish pragmatic goals. For example, when a learner asks "How do I make a compliment (or a request, or a warning) in this language?," this is a question of **pragmalinguistic** knowledge. This can be contrasted with **sociopragmatic** knowledge, which concerns the relationship between social factors and pragmatics. For example, a learner might need to know in what circumstances it is appropriate to make a compliment in the target language and which form would be most appropriate given the social relationships between speaker and hearer (JCRandRSch).
See **pragmatics**

pragmatic a. – pragmatyczny
See **pragmatics**

pragmatic competence – kompetencja pragmatyczna

The ability to understand another speaker's intended meaning. Cf. **competence, linguistic competence**.

pragmatic function – funkcja pragmatyczna

The use of language for establishing social roles, for influencing other people's behaviour.
See **pragmatics**

pragmatic (**interpersonal**) **universals** – uniwersalia pragmatyczne

Language is primordially used as a means of communication, which would suggest that there must be something like **interpersonal universals** regulating the way we communicate with one another. The **maxims of conversation**, at least those of quality, quantity, and relevance, can be claimed to be some of the interpersonal or **pragmatic universals** (Kryk 1990).
See **pragmatics**, **maxims of conversation**

pragmatic meaning – znaczenie pragmatyczne

A language user's intended (or implied) meaning, as distinct from **semantic meaning**. This kind of meaning is the concern of **pragmatics**, which studies the relationships between linguistic forms and the user of those forms. As G. Yule (2000: 4) puts it, "The advantage of studying language via pragmatics is that one can talk about people's intended meanings, their assumptions,

their purposes or goals, and the kinds of action (for example, requests) that they are performing when they speak." Unlike **semantics**, which examines meaning that is conventional or "coded" in a given language (called **semantic meaning**), pragmatics studies how the transmission of meaning depends not only on structural and linguistic knowledge of the speaker and listener, but also on the context of the **utterance**, any pre-existing knowledge about those involved, the inferred intent of the speaker, and other factors. Consider the example: *Jane hasn't taken a shower*. Did the speaker of this sentence really mean to say that Jane has not ever taken a shower, not even once? Although the sentence says just that (its semantic meaning), the listener in the conversation may understand, based on other factors, that the speaker means that Jane has not taken a shower… *today*.
See **pragmatics**, **semantics**, **utterance**

pragmatic presupposition – presupozycja pragmatyczna

A relation holding between an individual, typically the speaker, and a **proposition**. In the pragmatic account of presuppositions it is not one sentence that presupposes another sentence (i.e. **logical presupposition**) but the participants of discourse who make assumptions about what is being said. In other words, **pragmatic presupposition** is a relation holding between either the speaker or the addressee and the content of the utterance.
See **proposition**, **presupposition**

pragmatics n., **pragmatic** a. – pragmatyka

In modern linguistics, the study of the relationships between linguistic forms and the users of those forms. The advantage of studying language via **pragmatics** is that one can talk about people's intended meanings, their assumptions, their purposes or goals, and the kinds of actions (e.g. requests) that they are performing when they speak. 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**, and **discourse** structure (see Yule 2002). See also **semiotics**.
See **deixis**, **discourse**, **implicature**, **presupposition**

Prague School – Szkoła Praska

The principal representatives of the Prague School were N.S. Troubeckoj and R. Jakobson. This school, having achieved a synthesis of the views of de Baudoin de Courtenay and F. de Saussure, concentrated on the development of phonology and related fields. Troubeckoj's *Grundzüge der Phonologie*, published in 1939, embodied a synthesis of the **Prague School's** achievements. In *Grundzüge* Troubeckoj accepts Karl Buhler's distinction of three functions of language: **expression** from the speaker, **appeal** to the hearer, and **reference** to, or **representation** of a state of affairs. He also accepts Saussure's

distinction of *langue* and *parole* (which he calls in German *Sprachgebilde* and *Sprechakt*) and of **signifiant** and **signifié**. Phonetics studies the *signifiants* of parole. Phonology is for Troubeckoj the study of the *signifiants* of *langue* on the representational (or referential) plane. The study of the signifiants on the expressive and appellative planes is the field of **phonostylistics** (*Lautstilistik*), which is divided into phonetic stylistics that studies parole, and phonological stylistics, that studies langue. Troubeckoj mentions a number of linguists who preceded him in formulating the notion of **system in langue** and in particular of sound system, and in distinguishing between **sound** and **phoneme**, and thus between phonetics and phonology. **Phonemes** are defined by Troubeckoj (1939: 34) as "phonological units which […] cannot be analysed into shorter successive phonological units." A phoneme is thus "the smallest phonological unit in the language under consideration." According to Troubeckoj, recourse to psychology in the definition of the phoneme must be avoided, for the phoneme is a linguistic and not a psychological concept.

The main tenets of the Prague School are as follows: (a) Language is viewed as a **functional system**. It is a product of human activity which has a character of **finalism**; it is a system of means of expression appropriate to an end; this end is the realisation of the subject's intention to express and communicate; (b) **Synchronic analysis** of contemporary facts is the best way to know the essence and character of a language. But no insuperable barrier is erected in order to separate the synchronic and diachronic methods. On the one hand, in order to judge language changes, one has to consider the system in which they take place; on the other, synchronic description itself cannot eliminate the notion of evolution, in the shape of stylistic elements felt as archaistic, of productive and non-productive forms, etc.; (c) A **comparative method** must be used not only for diachronic purposes, reconstruction and genealogical problems, but also for synchronic purposes, to discover the structural laws of linguistic systems, and the systems being compared need not be genetically related; (d) As regards **synchronic phonology**, its main tasks are: 1) to characterise the phonological system (using the inventory of the phonemes and the specification of their relationships); 2) to determine the realised phoneme clusters in relation to the possible ones; 3) to determine the degree of utilization and the density of realisation of phonemes and phoneme clusters, their functional load; 4. to describe the morphological utilisation of phonological differences (see Milewski 1973: 31 ff., Lyons 1971: 141 ff.).
See **morphophonology** (**morphonology**), **comparative reconstruction method**

precedence n., **precede** v. – poprzedzanie
See **dominance**

predicate (1) – predykat

In logic, a term used in combination with a name in order to give some information about the individual to which the name refers, i.e. in order to ascribe to

it some property. Logicians distinguish **one-place**, **two-place**, **three-place**, etc. **predicates**. The name is an **argument**, and an argument is a term that is used to refer to what are called subjects and objects in grammatical terminology. For example, *died* in *John died* is a one-place predicate.
See **argument**

predicate (2) – orzeczenie

In traditional linguistic terminology, that part of the sentence that expresses something about the subject, e.g. *rises in the east* functions as the predicate of *The sun rises in the east.*

predicate (3) – czasownik

The term is also sometimes used interchangeably with the term "verb," as, e.g., in D.T. Langendoen's (1970) *Essentials of English Grammar.*

predicate calculus, **predicate logic** – rachunek predykatów

The branch of logic that deals not only with relations between **propositions** as a whole, but also with their internal structure, especially the relation between subject and **predicate**. Symbols are used to represent the subject and predicate of the proposition, and the **existential** and **universal quantifier** is used to denote whether the proposition is universal or particular in its application. **Functional calculus** is still another term for **predicate calculus** (DC).
See **predicate (1)**, **proposition**, **existential quantifier**, **universal quantifier**

predicate logic
See **predicate calculus**

predication n. – predykacja
See **proposition**, **predicate (1)**

predicative adjective – przymiotnik predykatywny (orzecznikowy)
Cf. **attributive**

prefix – przedrostek, prefiks

A **bound morpheme** that precedes the **root**, e.g., *un-*, *dis-*, *pre-*, etc.
See **bound morpheme**, **root**

prefixation n. – prefiksacja

The addition of a **prefix** to a derivational base (e.g. **un**gentlemanly, **dis**honest, etc.).
See **base**, **prefix**, **affixation**

prelexical a. – preleksykalny

A term used in some models of **Generative Grammar** (e.g. the *Aspects* model of TGG) 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**.
See **Generative Grammar**, **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **deep (underlying) structure**, **terminal node**, **complex symbol**

prelinguistics n., **prelinguistic** a. – prelingwistyka

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 frame 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 (DC).
See **acoustic phonetics**, **articulatory phonetics**, **phonology**, **macrolinguistics**

preposition – przyimek, prepozycja

The word that precedes **noun phrases** (or single nouns or pronouns) to form a single constituent (a **prepositional phrase**); e.g. *at the corner*, *with a knife*, etc. Cf. **preposition**.

prepositional languages – języki prepozycyjne (prefiksalne)

Languages in which **affixes** generally occur in preposition, i.e., before **roots**. This group of languages includes, among others, the **Bantu family**. Thus, for example, Swahili *m-toto* 'a child' *–wa-toto* 'children', *ki-su* 'knife', *vi-su* 'knives', *ni-na-piga* 'I hit', *ni-li-piga* 'I hit (simple past tense)'. The **prepositional** type of languages is predominant in the languages of Africa and in those of Oceania and Indochina (**Austronesian** and **Austro-Asiatic** families), while in the remaining parts of the world the **postpositional** predominates (Milewski 1973: 170, KP). Cf. also **postpositional languages**.
See **affix**, **Austronesian** and **Austroalian** languages

prepositional phrase – wyrażenie przyimkowe

A phrase governed by a preposition, with a noun phrase embedded in it; e.g. *to the lighthouse*. Generally **prepositional phrases** function as **post-head modification** (e.g. *The car in the window*), or as adverbial elements (e.g. ***In the window**, the car looked great*).
See **head**, **post-head modification**

prepositional verb – czasownik przyimkowy
See **phrasal verb**

prescriptive grammar – gramatyka normatywna

Another term for **normative grammar**.

prescriptivism – preskryptywizm

The doctrine that part of the linguist's task is to **prescribe** "good" linguistic usage in order to improve general use of the language. **Prescriptivist** declarations have been at least partly responsible for driving such widespread **vernacular** forms as *I ain't got none* and *Me and him was there* out of standard English, though condemnations of *It's me* and of so-called **split infinitives** have had more limited effect (RLT). As Fisiak (1993: 131) notices, "the English grammatical scene was dominated by prescriptive tradition until well into the 19th century. Within this tradition 18th century grammarians intended to accomplish three things: (1) to codify the language by reducing it to rules; (2) to eliminate cases of divided usage; (3) to indicate errors, real or supposed, and remove them from the language." **Traditional grammars** are often prescriptive (or normative).
See **vernacular**, **normative grammar**, **split infinitive**, **traditional grammar**

prestige language – prestiżowy język

A language which is perceived by speakers of a different language as in some way superior or preferable to their own – most commonly, perhaps, because its speakers enjoy greater power or wealth. A good example of a **prestige language** is French in medieval England; French was the language of upper classes and the court, it carried a mark of social and cultural prestige.

presupposition n., **presuppose** v. – presupozycja

There are several senses in which **presupposition** has been used in linguistic literature. Thus, in most **transformational-generative** works presupposition is treated as that part of the sentence which is assumed to be true by the speaker and the hearer and which remains as such when the sentence is negated (cf. Keenan 1971: 45). In Chomsky (1971: 205), it is stated that each sentence "[…] is associated with a class of pairs (F, P), where F is **focus**, and P a presupposition, each such pair corresponding to one possible interpretation." According to Chomsky, presupposition and focus are elements of the semantic representation of the sentence which are determined from the **surface structure**, the focus being the phrase containing the intonation centre, and the presupposition being what remains after the replacement of the focus by a variable. For example, with the primary stress on *Yankees*, the sentence *Did the Red Sox play the **Yankees**?*, under one of the three interpretations that may

be ascribed to it, will have *the Yankees* as focus and 'the Red Sox played some-one' as presupposition. For pragmatic linguists, presupposition is the relation between an individual (typically the speaker) and a **proposition**. Under this view of presupposition (**speaker-presupposition**), it is speakers, not sentences, that have presuppositions. For example, in producing the utterance *Mary's brother bought three horses* the speaker will normally be expected to have the presuppositions that a person called Mary exists and that she has a brother. The speaker may also hold the more specific presuppositions that Mary has only one brother and that he has a lot of money. All of these presuppositions are the speaker's and all of them can be wrong.
See **focus**, **surface structure**, **proposition**, **Transformational-Generative Grammar**

preterite, **simple past tense** – czas przeszły prosty

Especially in **traditional grammar**, a term referring to a form of the verb expressing past time reference without any **aspectual** consideration; also called **simple past tense**. A **preterite** form, such, e.g., as *(I) spoke* thus contrasts with such non-preterite forms as (*I*) *was speaking,* (*I*) *have been speaking*, etc.
See **aspect**, **tense**, **traditional grammar**

preterite-present verb – praeterite praesentia (czasowniki)

Especially in the **Germanic** languages, a verb in which an original past tense (preterite) or perfect form has become the present tense, and a new past tense has been created. **Old English** had a number of such verbs, such as *cunnan* 'be able, know' and *witan* 'know'.
See **Germanic languages**, **Old English**, **tense**

preterminal string – rządek (ciąg) preterminalny
See **terminal string**

prevarication n. – nadużywalność

By **prevarication** is meant the possibility of using a semiotic system to deceive or misinform (as in lying or irony, etc.). Many linguists consider that prevarication is the property which, with **reflexivity** (or **reflexiveness**), most clearly distinguishes language as a semiotic system, from all other signaling-systems. However, some linguists are inclined to believe that prevarication should not be regarded as a property of the semiotic system as such, but as a feature of the behaviour and intentions of those using the system (DC). See also Lyons (1977: 83–84).
See **semiotics**

primary articulation – artykulacja podstawowa (prymarna)

In phonetics and phonology, sounds may be produced involving two points of articulation, in which case two articulatory possibilities emerge: two points of articulation both contribute equally to the identity of the sound (**double articulation**); or one point of articulation may be the dominant one (**primary (co-)articulation**), the other having a lesser degree of stricture (the **secondary (co-)articulation**). Examples of secondary articulation are: palatalization, velarization, and labialization (DC).
See **articulation**, **palatalization**, **labialization**, **velarization**

primary auxiliary verbs – prymarne czasowniki posiłkowe
See **auxiliary verbs**

primary cardinal vowels – prymarne samogłoski podstawowe
See **cardinal vowels**

primary data – dane prymarne

In Chomsky's *Aspects* **Model of Transformational-Generative Grammar** and in **language acquisition**, the term refers to the utterances to which the child is exposed in his early years.
See **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**

primary domain – domena prymarna
See **domain** (3)

primary stress – akcent główny

The strongest degree of **stress** placed on a syllable in the pronunciation of a word. For example, in British English the word *laboratory* is pronounced with **primary stress** on the second syllable, while in American English the primary stress falls on the initial syllable. Cf. **secondary stress**.
See **stress**

primitive language – prymitywny język

From a linguistic point of view a meaningless term, since every human language has a large vocabulary and a rich and complex grammar. As John Lyons (1968: 44) observes: "The truth is that every language so far studied, no matter how 'backward' or 'uncivilized' the people speaking it, has proved on investigation to be a complex and highly developed system of communication. Moreover, there is absolutely no correlation between the different stages of cultural development through which societies have 'evolved' and the 'type' of language spoken in these stages of cultural development." The linguist's

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first task is to **describe** the way people actually speak (write) their language, not to **prescribe** how they ought to speak and write. Cf. **prescriptivism**.

primitive (**undefined**) **term**, **prime** – termin pierwotny

In linguistics, a term not derived or reducible to something else, a term which a theory need not bother to explain. Examples of terms often taken as **primitive** include, among others, "utterance", "acceptable", "sound", "meaningful", etc., though any of these might become the focus of controversy in an investigation, and could not thereby be assumed to have primitive status (Lyons 1968: 137). See also DC.
See **proposition**

principles – zasady
See **Universal Grammar**

principles-and-parameters theory – teoria zasad i parametrów

A theory devised by Noam Chomsky (Government-Binding Theory) which maintains that universal properties of natural language grammars reflect the operation of a set universal grammatical **principles**, and that grammatical differences between languages can be characterized in terms of a restricted set of **parameters**.
See **paremeters**, **principles**

principle of least effort (also **economy-of-effort principle**) – zasada najmniejszego wysiłku

In **historical linguistics**, any of several related but distinct putative principles of language structure and change, according to which languages tend to change in such a way as to minimize the effort involved in speaking. A version of the **principle of least effort** is one of the principles advanced by Georg Zipf (1949), according to which a segment of high frequency tends to become phonologically simple or **unmarked**.
See **marked member**

privative oppositions – opozycje prywatywne

Privative oppositions are based on the presence or absence of a single feature. For example, to this category belong oppositions between Polish voiced and voiceless consonants: /b/:/p/, /d/:/t/, /g/:/k/, etc., in which the voiced consonant, which possesses the distinguishing feature is the **marked member** of the opposition, while the voiceless consonant, which does not possess this feature, is the **unmarked member**.
See **opposition**, **markedness theory**

PRO (also **big PRO**) – pro

A term used in the **Government-Binding Theory** to refer to the subject of **embedded clauses** with infinitives. For example, the **D-Structure** for (a) *I want to leave* would be this: (b) I want [PRO to leave], while the D-Structure for (c) *I want John to leave* would be as follows: (d) I want John [PRO to leave]. In the D-Structures the element PRO behaves like an **anaphor**; in (b), it refers to *I*, and in (d) to *John*. Cf. **pro** (also **little pro**) (Radford 1990: 313–315). See **Government-Binding Theory**, **binding principle**, **D-Structure**, **embedded clause**

pro, **little pro** – pro

In the **Government-Binding Theory**, a term associated with **subject** position in **finite clauses** in **pro-drop languages**. It is a covert nominative-case pronoun which represents the understood subject (Radford 1990: 313–315). See **Government-Binding Theory**, **finite clause**, **pro-drop language**

pro-drop languages – pro-drop języki

In the **Government-Binding Theory**, a term used for a **parameter** which determines whether the subject of a sentence may be omitted. There are languages (e.g. Polish, Italian, Spanish, Irish, etc.) which can have subjectless sentences (e.g. Polish *przyszedł* 'he has come') and are referred to as **pro-drop languages**. But there are languages, such, e.g. as English, French, and German which do not typically omit the subject; they are **non-pro-drop languages**. Languages that can drop not only subjects, but also objects are called **radical pro-drop languages** (Japanese can serve as an example of such a language) (DC, JCRandRSch). See **Government-Binding Theory**, **parameter**, **subject**

proclitic – proklityka
See **clitic**

productive language skills – produktywne sprawności językowe
See **language skills**

productive morpheme – morfem produktywny

One that can be attached regularly to any word of the appropriate class. For example, the English plural number morpheme *-s* on noun can be said to be fully **productive**, because all count nouns can take plural endings in English (plural morphology in English is fully productive). By the "appropriate class" here is meant the class of count nouns; non-count nouns regularly do not take plural *–s*. In contrast to **inflectional morphemes**, **derivational morphemes** are not fully productive. For example, the derivational morpheme *-ive* cannot

be attached to the whole class of verbs in English. Thus, we have: *exhaustive, operative*, but not *walkive or *readive*.
See **inflectional morpheme**, **derivational morpheme**

productivity (**of language**) – produktywność (języka)

This property of language enables us to produce and comprehend an infinitely large number of sentences, actual as well as potential ones. **Productivity** must not be confused with linguistic **creativity**. All competent speakers of a language are **productive**, but only speakers with special linguistic and other abilities can be **creative**. There are utterances whose novelty does not consist in the fact that they have never been produced before, but in their originality of style, and it is just for this kind of novelty that the term "creativity" is most appropriate. For example, linguistic creativity may manifest itself in the metaphorical use of words (not all speakers are capable of creating metaphors!), or their unusual, but stylistically affective, combination. A good illustration of this would be the utterance *I saw him two cigarettes ago*. Linguistic creativity, unlike linguistic productivity, is not rule-governed, and consequently usually unpredictable. See also **design features of language**.

proficiency test – test sprawności językowej

In language teaching, a test that measures how much of a language someone has learned. A **proficiency test** is not linked to a particular course of instruction, but measures the learner's general level of language mastery. Some proficiency tests have been standardized for worldwide use, such, for example, as the American TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) that is used to measure the English language proficiency of international students who wish to study in the USA (JCRandRSch).

profile n., **profile** v. – profil, profilować

In **Cognitive Grammar**, the entity or relation designated by a word. The **profile** functions by highlighting a substructure within a larger unit known as the **base**. For example, consider the word *hypotenuse*. This word **profiles** the longest side in a right-angled triangle, while the base is the entire triangle, including all three of its sides. Without the base, the profile would be meaningless, as there is no hypotenuse without a right-angled triangle. Hence the word *hypotenuse* designates (profiles) a particular substructure within a larger conceptual structure (VE).
See **Cognitive Grammar**, **base** (2)

profiling n. – profilowanie

In **Cognitive Grammar**, the conceptual highlighting of some aspect of a **domain**. Specifically, **profiling** is the process whereby an aspect of some **base**

is selected. For example, the expression *elbow* **profiles** a substructure within the larger structure ARM, which is the base (VE).
See **Cognitive Grammar**, **base** (2), **domain**, **profile**

pro-form – forma zastępcza, zastępnik

A term used in some models of grammatical description (e.g. in Quirk et al. 1972, **Government-Binding Theory**) 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*), **prepositional phrases** (e.g. *then, there*), **verb phrases** (e.g. *do*, as in *I like films and John **does** too*). When used in this function, *do* is sometimes referred to as a **pro-verb**.
See **Government-Binding Theory**, **adjectival phrase**, **noun phrase**

progressive (**continuous**) **aspect** – aspekt ciągły

In English grammar, the **progressive aspect** is formed with the auxiliary *be* and the *-ing* form of the verb (e.g. *She's taking a shower*). The auxiliary verb is marked for **tense**. It may occur with the futurity marker *shall/will* or with a **modal auxiliary** (e.g. *must, should, may*, etc.). The progressive aspect may co-occur with the **perfect/perfective aspect** (e.g. *I have been reading a book*). The general meaning of progressive forms is that of "activity in progress" at some temporal point of reference (e.g. *I'm writing a letter* (at the moment of speaking), *I was writing a letter* (when someone knocked at the door)). Cf. also **perfect aspect**.
See **aspect**, **tense**, **modal auxiliary**

progressive assimilation – asymilacja postępowa (progresywna)
See **assimilation**

projection n., **project** v. – projekcja

In some models of **Generative Grammar** (e.g. in N. Chomsky's model of **Government-Binding Theory**), a **projection** is a **constituent** which is an expansion of a **head** word. For example a noun phrase such as *students of linguistics* is a projection of its head noun *students* (equivalently, it can be said that the noun *students* here **projects** into the noun phrase *students of linguistics*). A **minimal projection** is a constituent which is not a projection of some other constituent; hence, heads (i.e. words) are minimal projections. An **intermediate projection** is a constituent which is larger than a word, but smaller than a phrase. A **maximal projection** is a constituent which is not contained within any larger constituent with the same head. So, for example, in a sentence like *He's proud of you*, the adjectival phrase *proud of you* is a maximal projection,

since it is a projection of the adjective *proud*, but is not contained within any larger projection of the same adjective *proud*. By contrast, in a sentence such as *He's proud* the adjective *proud* is both a minimal projection (by virtue of the fact that it is not a projection of some other head) and a maximal projection (by virtue of the fact that it is not contained within any larger structure which has the same head adjective).
See **Government-Binding Theory**

prominence n., **prominent** a. – wyrazistość

In **phonotactics**, **prominence** depends on combinations of quality with length, stress and, in the case of voiced sounds, intonation. When length and stress are constant and the intonation is level (i.e. when the pitch of the voice remains on one note for an appreciable time), the sounds defined as vowels are more than the sounds defined as consonants; **open vowels** are mostly more prominent than **close vowels**; voiced consonants are more prominent than voiceless consonants. The voiceless consonants have very little prominence in comparison with the voiced sounds, and the differences in prominence between the various voiceless consonants may as a rule be considered as negligible for practical linguistic purposes.
See **open vowel**, **close vowel**

pronominalization – pronominalizacja

In **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, a term used to refer to a rule which replaces a lexical **noun phrase** (NP) with a pronoun.
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**

pronoun – zaimek

In grammar, a word which is used to replace a noun or a noun phrase, e.g. *he* can replace *the old man* in *The old man left* (*He left*). There are **personal pronouns**, e.g., *he*, *she*, *you*, etc., **interrogative pronouns**, e.g., *who*, *what*, *which*, etc., **demonstrative pronouns**, e.g., *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, and **reflexive pronouns**, e.g., *myself, himself*, etc.).

pronunciation – wymowa

The way a certain sound or sounds are produced. Unlike **articulation**, which refers to the actual production of speech sounds in the mouth, **pronunciation** stresses more the way sounds are perceived by the hearer (e.g. *You haven't pronounced this word correctly*) and often relates the spoken word to its written form (e.g. *In the word knife, the k is not pronounced*) (JCRandRSch).
See **articulation**

proper noun (**name**) – rzeczownik własny, nazwa własna

A noun which is the name of a particular person, place, or thing. **Proper nouns** are spelled in English with a capital letter, e.g. *John*, *London*, etc.

proposition – sąd

A term used to describe the semantic content (i.e. meaning) of a sentence. For example, we might say that the sentence *Does John smoke?* questions the truth of the **proposition** *John smokes*. Different sentences of the same language may express the same proposition, and a sentence may express two or more propositions. For example, *It's Monday today*, uttered on a Monday, expresses the same proposition as *It was Monday yesterday*. To indicate a proposition in ordinary language, we often use a *that*-clause. The traditional distinction between direct and indirect speech can thus be said to be a distinction between talking about sentences and talking about propositions. Cf.: (1) John Smith said: "Taxes are good for peasants" and (2) *John Smith said that taxes were good for peasants*. (1) is true only if John Smith used the words "Taxes are good for peasants", and (2) is true if he expressed the content of the *that*-clause – that taxes were good for peasants. For every proposition we can find a set of **possible worlds** for which the proposition is true. This is called the **truth-set of** the **proposition.** Propositions consist of (a) something which is named or talked about (known as the **argument**, or entity) and (b) **predication** which is made about the argument (i.e. properties being **predicated** of the argument). Propositions are tenseless, i.e. temporally unrestricted. The notion of time is irrelevant to propositions; they are themselves eternal, but may be believed or affirmed in relation to some universe, they will be true or false of that universe.

In **Speech Act Theory**, a distinction is made between the **propositional** meaning of a sentence and its **illocutionary force**, i.e. the use made of the sentence in communication, e.g. as a request, a promise, a warning, etc.
See **possible worlds**, **illocutionary force**, **Speech Act Theory**

propositional attitude – postawa prawdziwościowa

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** (DC).
See **proposition**

propositional calculus – rachunek zdań

In logic, a logical system for the representation of **propositions** as formulaic combinations of **variables** (*p, q, r,...*) and a limited number of **operators** (or **logical constants**), such as *not*, *and*, *or* (Allwood et al. 1979:44).
See **logical constant**, **operator**, **variable**

prosodic features, **prosodemes** – cechy prozodyczne

Prosodic features involve the features of syllables and sets of syllables which are of significance in differentiating and delimiting morphemes and words. They can be of three kinds: tone, force, and quantity, and they can be **intersyllabic**, if they contrast with features of other syllables, or **intrasyllabic**, if they contrast with features of the same syllable (Milewski 1979: 160, JCRandRSch). See **morpheme**, **syllable**, **prosody**

prosodic phonology – fonologia prozodyczna

In **prosodic phonology** (the theory of phonology proposed by J.R. Firth), prosody is treated as a count noun, and given special status. It is distinguished in this approach from **phonematic unit**: the latter is a segmental unit, such as a 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. 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 nasalisation, when these are used to account for **phonotactic restrictions**, or to characterise 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 word may not be the same as those which occur at the end, and this fact is given special attention in this approach (DC).
See **phonematic unit**, **utterance**, **secondary articulation**, **phonotactic restrictions**

prosody – prozodia

In **phonetics** and **phonology**, a collective term for variations in **loudness**, **pitch**, and **rhythm**.
See **phonetics**, **phonology**, **pitch**, **rhythm**

prothesis n., **prosthesis** n., **prothetic** a. – proteza

In **phonology** and **phonetics**, the addition of a sound to the beginning of a word. **Prothetic** sounds are common in historical change: as, e.g., in the development of Latin *stannum* into Spanish *estaño*, Latin *stella* into French *étoile*. Some linguists restrict this term to the addition of an initial vowel. **Prothesis** is usually treated as a sub-type of **epenthesis**. The opposite is **aphaeresis** (RLT).
See **aphaeresis**, **epenthesis**, **phonetics**, **phonology**

proto- – pra-

A prefix used in **historical linguistics** to refer to a linguistic form or a state of a language said to be the **ancestor** of attested forms/languages, e.g. **Proto-Indo-European**, **Proto-Germanic**, **Proto-Romance**, etc.
See **historical linguistics**, **ancestor language**, **Proto-Indo-European**

proto-form – praforma

A hypothesised form from which **cognates** in various languages appear to have descended. **Proto-forms** are usually asterisked in written linguistic texts.
See **reconstruction**, **comparative historical method**, **cognate**

Proto-Germanic – pragermański język

The unrecorded ancestor of the **Germanic languages**, which about 500 BC was still used in a small area, the Germanic homeland. This included today's Schleswig-Holstein with Jutland and the Danish Isles as its communicative centre, and the southern parts of the Scandinavian peninsula. No documents are preserved from that remote date. In the first centuries AD, the Germanic dialects split into three groups: eastern, northern, and western. The split was not simultaneous but successive. The Goths and the other East Germanic tribes (e.g. Burgundians and Vandals) were the first to separate from the main body of the Germanic community (**Proto-Germanic**). From the **eastern group** we know only the language of the Goths, who were divided into two main groups *Ostrogoths* ('eastern Goths') and *Visigoths* ('western Goths'). Apart from a few fragments, our only record of **Gothic** is a partial translation of the Bible by the Visigoth Wulfilas in the 4th century AD. Gothic died out in most of Europe around the 8th century AD, but a form of the language called **Crimean Gothic** was found to be still spoken in the Crimea in the 16th century, though this too died out not long after. The Norsemen, speakers of **North Germanic** (Scandinavian), from which the Scandinavian languages (i.e. Danish, Swedish, Norwegian and Icelandic) developed later on, were the next to disintegrate from the main body of the Germanic community which was no more Proto-Germanic but should be referred to by another name, viz., **North-West Germanic**. The third, **West** (or **Central**) group of languages comprised Old English, Old Frisian, Old Saxon, Old Dutch, and Old High German (Trask 1996).
See **ancestor language**, **proto-language**

Proto-Indo-European – praindoeuropejski język

The hypothesised language from which the present **Indo-European languages** appear to have descended.
See **Indo-European languages**

protolanguage, **proto-language** (Ger. **Ursprache**) – prajęzyk, język-przodek

An unrecorded and hypothetical language which is ancestral to one or more languages and whose properties are deduced by some process of **reconstruction**, most often **comparative reconstruction** in characterising the ancestor of a **language family** (see e.g. **Proto-Indo-European**, **Proto-Germanic**, **Proto-Romance**, etc.).
See **reconstruction**, **comparative historical method**, **language family**

Proto-Romance – praromański język

The ancestor language of the **Romance** family of languages. Reconstruction of **Proto-Romance** reveals a language which is very close to classical Latin, but nevertheless distinct from it in a number of respects, and it is concluded that Proto-Romance should be identified with a popular spoken form of Latin (i.e. vulgar Latin, known from inscriptions and texts in the Vulgate). The **Romance languages** which include **Rumanian**, the now extinct **Dalmatian** dialects on the Adriatic, **Italian**, **Sardinian**, the **Raeto-Romanic** dialects in the Alps and on the Isonzo, **French**, **Provençal**, **Catalonian**, from the vicinity of Barcelona, **Spanish**, and **Portuguese** – clearly differ from one another today. The further back we go into the past, however, the fewer these differences, so that, as we approach the first centuries AD, these differences disappear almost completely and all of the Romance languages merge into vulgar Latin (RLT). See also Trask (2000: 179). See Milewski (1973: 98).
See **classical languages**, **language family**

Proto-Slavic – prasłowiański język

The **ancestor language** of all **Slavic languages**. The **Proto-Slavic** first split into three language groups: the Proto-Russic or East-Slavic group, the South-Slavic group, and the West-Slavic group. Only later did three Russic languages branch off from Proto-Russic to form **White-Russian** (**Belorusan**, **Belorussian**), **Russian**, **Ukrainian**; the South-Slavic group split up into **Bulgarian-Macedonian**, **Serbo-Croation**, and **Slovene**; the West-Slavic group became differentiated into **Czecho-Slovakian branch** of languages, the **Lusatian** languages (including two distinct languages – **Lower Lusatian** and **Upper Lusatian**) as well as **Polish** (including the **Kashubian dialects**). It appears that the Slavic languages are not all related to one another to the same degree. Ukrainian, for example, is more closely related to Russian than to Polish because, together with Russian, it derived from the Proto-Russic group, which constituted a relative unity up to the 12th century AD (Milewski 1973: 97 ff.).
See **ancestor language**, **proto-language**

prototype n., **prototypical** a. – prototyp

In **cognitive linguistics**, most succinctly a **prototype** may be defined as the best example of a category (conceptual or linguistic). Just as there are **prototypical** (**central**) and **peripheral** (**marginal**) members of the conceptual category BIRD, so too a linguistic category like, say, NOUN has prototypical and peripheral members. For example, in the American culture robin is more prototypical in the category of BIRDS than duck (or penguin). Thus robin is more bird-like than duck (or penguin). A linguistic category like WORD merges at its boundaries with categories like **affix** or **clitic word**. Members of a linguistic category do not necessarily exhibit a common set of properties. For example, not every transitive verb has a passive counterpart (e.g. *resemble* does not passivise, hence the incorrect **Paul is resembled by Henry* as compared to the fully correct *Henry resembles Paul*), not every noun can be inserted with equal facility into the possessor slot of the possessive construction (e.g., while *John's book* is perfectly normal, **the table's leg* seems very doubtful). According to J. Ross (1972), all grammatical categories exhibit prototypical effects. We have more or less prototypical nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc. All types of grammatical constructions, such as, e.g. passive, transitive, relative, etc., also display prototypical effects. **Cognitive linguistics** rejects the classical (**Aristotelian**) view of the world consisting of discrete categories. Specifically, it rejects the view that the world can be described in terms of categories defined by means of "necessary and sufficient conditions" which must be fulfilled by all members of a given category. The classical view does not admit intermediate categories: everything is either or not a member of a given category, depending on whether it fulfils the required conditions (VE, DC). See Lakoff (1977).
See **affix**, **clitic**, **cognitive linguistics**, **Aristotelian categories**

prototype structure – struktura prototypowa

In **cognitive linguistics**, the term related to the occurrence of repeated attributes across distinct members, or exemplars, of a particular category which gives rise to a **prototype**. **Prototype structure** thus concerns the degree to which redundancy in the category members is employed in categorisation, by virtue of providing a salient set of attributes that organise the category. Prototype structure also gives rise to **typicality effects** (VE).
See **category**, **prototype**, **cognitive linguistics**, **typicality effects**

prototype theory – teoria prototypów (kategoryzacji)

A theory of human **categorisation** that was posited by Eleanor Rosch in order to account for experimental findings that she and her colleagues uncovered during the 1970s. **Prototype theory** holds that there are two basic principles that guide the formation of **categories** in the human mind: (1) the principle of **cognitive economy**; and (2) the principle of **perceived world structure**.

These principles together give rise to the human categorisation system. The first principle, the principle of cognitive economy, states that an organism like a human being attempts to gain as much information as possible about his environment while minimising cognitive effort and resources. This cost-benefit balance drives category formation. In other words, rather than storing separate information about every individual stimulus experienced, humans can group similar stimuli into categories, which maintains economy in cognitive representation. The second principle, the principle of perceived world structure, posits that the world around us has correlational structure. For example, it is a fact about the world that wings most frequently co-occur with feathers and the ability to fly (as in birds) rather than with fur or the ability to breathe under water. This principle states that humans rely upon correlational structure of this kind in order to form and organise categories. This correlational structure gives rise to a **prototype**. Since the 1970s, Rosch's findings and claims have been called into question. Today, Prototype Theory is no longer seen as an accurate view of categorisation. Nevertheless, it was historically important for the development of **cognitive semantics** (VE).
See **prototype**, **cognitive semantics**, **cognitive linguistics**

prototypical (**central**) **member of a category** – prototypowy (centralny) element kategorii
See **prototype**, **prototype structure**. Cf. **peripheral/marginal member**

pro-verb – zastępnik czasownika
See **pro-form**

Provençal – prowansalski język
See **Romance languages**, **Proto-Romance**

proxemics n., **proximal** a. – proksemika

A discipline which is concerned with the speaker's uses of space. It deals with how people use the space between speakers and hearers in the process of communication. There are appropriate distances for talking to friends, for communicating with strangers, for addressing one's superiors, etc. Cf. **kinesics**, **semiotics**.

proximal a. – proksymalny, bliższy

Near the speaker, e.g., *this*, *here*. Cf. distal. See also **proxemics**.

pseudo-cleft sentence – zdanie pseudo-rozszczepione

A sentence such as *What he bought was a car* or *What I said was that I was tired*, where the constituent following the verb (viz. *a car, that I was tired*) is

said to have undergone **pseudo-clefting**. The different term **cleft sentence** is traditionally used for sentences like *It was a car that he bought*, where the constituent *a car* is said to have undergone **clefting**.
See **cleft sentence**

psycholinguist – psycholingwista

A specialist in **psycholinguistics**.
See **psycholinguistics**

psycholinguistics – psycholingwistyka

Psycholinguistics is the study of the mental aspects of language and speech. It is primarily concerned with the ways in which language is represented and processed in the human brain. Psycholinguistics is part of the field of **cognitive science**.
See **cognitive science**

psychological subject – podmiot psychologiczny
See **subject**

pun, **play on words** – gra słów

A **pun** is a clever and amusing use of a word with more than one meaning, or a word that sounds like another word, so that what we say has two different meanings. For example, if someone says *My pony is a little hoarse*, this is a pun because it can be interpreted as meaning either that it was a small animal, or that the pony has a throat infection.

punctual verb – czasownik momentalny (punktualny)

A verb that refers to an event of very brief duration, e.g., *blink*, in *He blinked at her*. Cf. **Aktionsart**.

punctuation – interpunkcja, przestankowanie

The term refers to the use of **punctuation** signs such as full stops, commas, question marks, etc. to divide written texts into sentences and their parts.
See **punctuation marks**

punctuation marks – znaki interpunkcyjne (przestankowe)

English **punctuation marks** comprise:
1. full stop/period – kropka (**.**)
2. comma – przecinek (**,**)
3. semicolon – średnik (**;**)
4. colon – dwukropek (**:**)

5. dots/ellipsis – wielokropek (**…**)
6. dash – myślnik (**–**)
7. inverted commas/quotation marks – cudzysłów (**"…"**)
8. parenthesis – nawias okrągły (**( )**)
9. exclamation mark – wykrzyknik (**!**)
10. apostrophe – apostrof (as in *don't*, *can't*)
11. question mark – pytajnik (**?**)
12. hyphen – łącznik (-)

Though punctuation is not in itself part of the grammatical system of a language, it cannot be ignored in treatises on grammar, as it often acquires grammatical significance. The other layer of language with which punctuation is connected is its **phonetic** layer, i.e. **intonation**. In different languages the relations between punctuation, intonation, and grammar (syntax) may be different, that is, punctuation may tend to indicate intonation to a greater or to a smaller extent. However, it always has something to do with grammar.
See **phonetics**, **intonation**

Punic – punicki język
See **Phoenician**

purism n., **purist** a., n. – puryzm

The view that **loan words** and other linguistic features of foreign origin constitute a kind of "contamination" sullying the "purity" of a language and should be eliminated in favour of "native" features. Linguistic **purism** is a form of **prescriptive** linguistics; it is often presented as conservative, as a protection of a language from the "aggression of other languages," or of conservation of the "national spirit." **Purists** generally look upon change with suspicions and are inclined to view all changes in language as corruptions. English linguistic purism is discussed by David Crystal in the *Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. The idea dates at least to the **inkhorn** term controversy of the 16th and 17th centuries. In the 19th century, writers such as Charles Dickens, Thomas Hardy, and William Barnes advocated linguistic purism and tried to introduce words like *birdlore* for *ornithology* and *bendsome* for *flexible* (by the way, purists frequently make use of **calques** in their efforts to eliminate foreign words). A notable supporter in the 20th century was George Orwell, who advocated what he saw as plain Saxon words over complex Latin or Greek ones, and the idea continues to have advocates today. Like other tabooing practices, language purism seeks to constrain the linguistic behaviour of individuals by identifying certain elements in a language as "bad." The **purist** concern is considered misplaced by linguists, who point to the inevitability of language change, as a reflex of social, cultural and psychological development. "In retrospect, language purists seem often melancholy figures, fighting a losing fight, many times living to see the usages against which they

fought so valiantly become universally accepted" (Baugh and Cable 2002: 336). Baugh and Cable provide examples of words used by the 19th century English journalists that were stigmatised by Dean Alford, the author of *The Queen's English* (1864). In Alford's book the reader comes across such statements as "Another horrible word, which is fast getting into our language through the provincial press, is to *eventuate… Avocation* is another monster patronised by these writers… *Desirability* is another terrible word… *Reliable* is hardly legitimate" (cited after Baugh and Cable 2002: 336). These words, and many others, are in common use today. Regarding this issue, Quirk (1971: 36) observes that "It can be argued that being receptive to foreign language influence does not mean that a language is decadent or impure, its speakers weak and losing their identity, but rather that the members of the speech community are keenly alive to what is going on in the world and eager to keep pace with cultural developments elsewhere." See also DC, RLT.
See **borrowing (2)**, **prescriptivism**, **prescriptive grammar**, **calque**

purist n. – purysta
See **purism**

Q

qualifier – określnik
See **modifier**

quantifier – kwantyfikator

(1) In grammar, a **quantifier** is a special type of **determiner** used to denote quantity. Typical quantifiers include the universal quantifiers *all/both*, the distributive quantifiers *each/every*, the partitive quantifiers *some/any*, etc.
See **determiner**

(2) In logic, **quantifiers** are operators whose effect with respect to the **variables** they bind is similar to that of such words as *some, any, all,* and the indefinite article (in its non-referential use) in English. It is possible to bind either a name-variable or a predicate-variable. See also **existential quantifier**, **universal quantifier**.
See **variable**

quantitative (**statistical**) **approach to language variation** – kwantytatywne (statystyczne) podejście do zróżnicowania językowego

A method of investigating **linguistic variation**, including the involvement of that variation in language change. This method was devised by the American scholar William Labov in the 1960s; the method rests on the premises that **variation** is normal in language, and that particular instances of variation often have social significance. The central technique is to select speakers belonging to the social groups of interest and to obtain a corpus of utterances from those speakers in varying contexts, after which a statistical examination is carried out to obtain correlations between the choice of a **variant** (i.e., any one of two or more different forms in which a single word or other linguistic item exists in the same language at the same time) and both the social factors and the context (RLT). Cf. Labov (1966, 1994). See also **quantitative linguistics**.
See **linguistic variation**

quantitative (**statistical**) **linguistics** – językoznawstwo kwantytatywne (statystyczne)

A branch of linguistics which studies the frequency and **distribution** of linguistic units using statistical techniques. The subject has both a pure and an applied aspect; the former aims to establish general principles concerning the statistical regularities governing the way sounds, words, etc. are used; the latter

investigates statistical techniques that can be used to account for problems, such as **functional load**, the distinctive characteristics of the speaker or writer (authorship identity), etc. Considerable use is made of **corpora**.
See **corpus**, **distribution**, **functional load**

quantity – iloczas

Phonological opposition of long and short vocalic segments, e.g., Latin *legit* '(he) reads' and *lēgit* '(he) read', English *bid* /bid/ and *bead* /bīd/.
See **length**, **phonological opposition**

quotation – cytat, przytoczenie

A group of words taken from a book, play, speech, etc. and used again, usually by somebody other than the original author. **Quotations** are inseparable from their authors, and as such, they are only parts of longer texts, without constituting any literary genre on their own. Anything that someone said or wrote may be a quotation, but the usual reference is to sentences which have become famous over the years (cf. Cowie 1992). For instance, both "To be or not to be" and "Let me see one" are taken from Shakespeare's *Hamlet*, but the first one would be easily recognised as a quotation, whereas the second would not. David Crystal (1996: 184) says that quotations are "freely available for anyone to use, but readily sensible to abuse. An error (misquotation) may not always be noticed, but if it is, there is a real risk of peer group derision." A quotation from William Congreve's *The Mourning Bride*: "Music has charms to sooth a savage breast" is frequently misquoted, "beast" being often substituted for the original "breast."

question mark – pytajnik, znak zapytania

The **question mark** always shows the sentence to be interrogative, even though the question contained in it may be rhetorical, which does not affect the grammatical type of the sentence.
See **punctuation marks**

quotation marks – cudzysłów

Quotation marks are punctuation marks that are used in writing to show where speech or a quotation begins and ends. They are usually written or printed as '…' and "…".
See **punctuation marks**

raising rule – reguła podnoszenia

In **transformational** grammar, a transformational rule which moves a constituent from a lower **embedded** sentence into a higher sentence (e.g. Subject Raising, which raises an NP out of subordinate subject position into main clause subject position). **Double raising** involves two such movements.
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **embedded clause**

rationalism – racjonalizm

The doctrine which holds that all knowledge comes from basic concepts known intuitively through reason (or the mind), such as **innate ideas**. In **rationalism**, **language acquisition** is seen as resulting from maturation of a language faculty ("organ") governed by various innate principles. Rationalism is contrasted with **empiricism**.
See **innateness hypothesis**, **language acquisition**, **empiricism**

rationalist – racjonalista

The advocate of **rationalism**.

reanalysis n., **reanalyze** v. – reanaliza

(1) In the study of **language change**, of a lexical item, the moving of a historical morpheme boundary to a different location, or the insertion of a morpheme boundary not formerly present, in order to extract a word or morpheme not present in the original formation. To illustrate, the English adjective *darkling*, historically *dark + -ling*, was **reanalyzed** as *darkle + -ing*, leading to the use of a new verb *darkle*. Or take *hamburger*, originally *Hamburg + -er*, was reanalyzed as *ham + -burger*, leading to the extraction of *-burger* and its use in new formations like *cheeseburger, beefburger, eggburger*, etc.

(2) The historical process by which a syntactic structure comes to be assigned a different structure from the one it formerly had, with no change in its surface form and with little or no change in interpretation. It is generally impossible to tell that **reanalysis** has taken place until the new structural assignment leads to the production of utterances which were previously not possible, a step called **actualisation**. To take an example, the older English structure *It will be* [*easy for us*] *to do that* was reanalysed as *It will*

be easy [*for us to do that*], leading eventually to the innovating structure [*for us to do that*] *will be easy* (RLT).
See **actualization**, **language change**

Received Pronunciation (**RP**) – wzorcowa wymowa brytyjska

The regionally neutral **accent** (in sense 2) in British English, historically deriving from the prestige speech of the Court and the public schools. **RP** is the accent which tends to be associated with the better-educated parts of society, and is the one most often cited as a norm for the description of British English, or in teaching it to foreign learners. The BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation) originally adopted RP for its newsreaders because it was the form of pronunciation most likely to be nationally understood, and to attract least regional criticism – hence the association of RP with the phrase **BBC English**. Today, RP no longer has the prestigious social position it once held. As Crystal (2008: 404) says, "In the eyes of many (especially of the younger generations), regionally, marked forms of accent are more desirable. The present-day situation is plainly one of rapid change."
See **accent** (2)

receiver – odbiorca
In an act of communication there is usually at least one speaker or **sender**, a message which is transmitted, and a person or persons for whom this message is intended, i.e. the **receiver**.

receptive language skills – receptywne sprawności językowe
See **language skills**

recipient language – język zapożyczający (biorący)
See **borrowing**

reciprocal pronouns – zaimki wzajemnie zwrotne

Reciprocal pronouns typically have the same **referents** as the subject; the difference is that the subject to which a reciprocal pronoun refers must include more than one entity. Thus, the subject noun phrase must be plural, or there must be two or more coordinated noun phrases. The action in such constructions is reciprocal; each individual subject has the same relationship to the other subjects in the construction; e.g. *My children fight with **each other**, Jack and Jill hate **one another***. *Each other* generally implies only two, *one another*, more than two. But this distinction is not always strictly observed, as in *The two men supported **one another***, which is perfectly normal.
See **referent**

reconstruction – rekonstrukcja

In **historical linguistics**, any of various procedures which are used to arrive at conclusions about the nature of an unrecorded language which is the ancestor of one or more **attested** languages. The term is most commonly encountered in respect of determining the forms of individual words and morphemes (this is **lexical reconstruction**) and of determining a phonological system; the two chief methods are **comparative reconstruction**, and **internal reconstruction. Morphological reconstruction**, **syntactic reconstruction** and **semantic reconstruction** can also be undertaken when conditions are favourable. A reconstructed language which is the common ancestor of two or more languages is a **proto-language**. The reconstruction of proto-languages is merely a means for achieving the primary aim of historical linguistics, i.e. the historical classification of languages and the presentation of their evolution (RLT). See also McMahon (1996: 6–9).
See **historical linguistics**, **attested form**, **comparative method**, **internal reconstruction**

recursion n., **recursiveness** n., **recursive** a. – rekurencja, rekursywność

A **recursive** operation is one which can be repeated any number of times. For example, the process by which an adjective comes to modify a noun may be said to be recursive in that we can position potentially any number of adjectives in front of a noun, e.g., *a **tall**, **dark**, **handsome** stranger*. **Recursion** can yield conjoined structures, e.g., *John and Paul* or embedded structures like, e.g., the following: *I know **that Paul is mad***. The importance of recursion (or recursiveness) is that recursive rules are the main formal means of accounting for the **productivity** of language; by using this grammatical device, an infinite set of sentences can be generated from a finite set of rules. See also Lyons (1968: 221–222).
See **productivity**, **recursive rules**

recursive rules – reguły rekursywne (rekurencyjne)

In **transformational** grammars, phrase-structure rules which may be reapplied indefinitely many times, and they apply to one another's or to their own output. The following is a simple illustration of such rules:

NP → Det + N (+ Prep Phrase)
Prep Phrase → Prep + NP

These rules say that there is in principle no limit to the number of **prepositional phrases** which may occur following a noun in a noun phrase, e.g. *the man in a coat with a collar…* The phenomenon is also known as "iteration."
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **recursion**, **prepositional phrase**

redundancy n., **redundant** a. – redundancja

The degree to which a message contains more information than is needed for it to be understood. Languages have built-in **redundancy**, which means that sentences contain more information than is necessary for comprehension. For example, in English, plural number may be shown on the demonstrative, the noun and the verb, as in: *These books are expensive*. However, if the *-s* on *books* is omitted, the message would still be understood. Therefore, the *-s* is **redundant** in this context.

reduplication – reduplikacja, podwojenie, powtórzenie

The repetition of some part of the **base** (sometimes all of the base) as a morphological process. One can distinguish (a) **complete reduplication** and (b) **partial reduplication**. For example, Tagalog *pantay-pantay* 'thoroughly level' (from *pantay* 'level') is a case of complete reduplication, while Tagalog *ta-tawa* 'one who will laugh' (from *tawa* 'a laugh') illustrates partial reduplication.
See **derivational base**

reference n., **refer** v., **referential** a. – odniesienie, referencja

(1) The relationship between linguistic expressions and the persons or objects they designate (or otherwise identify): e.g. *this man* might refer to one person on one occasion and another person on a different occasion. Besides, different expressions may refer to the same entity: e.g. *Walter Scott* and *the author of "Waverley."*

(2) In grammar, pronouns are often said to refer, either **anaphorically** to an **antecedent** noun or noun phrase, or **deictically**, to a person or object or other "feature" of the situation of utterance.
See **antecedent**, **deixis**

referent – referent, odnośnik

That to which a noun or a noun phrase refers, e.g., the referent of the name *George Bush* is George Bush himself.
See **noun phrase**

referential coherence – koherencja referencyjna
See **coherence**

referential function of language – funkcja referencyjna języka
See **functions of language**

referential indices – indeksy referencjalne

A term used in **Transformational-Generative Grammar** (since the **Standard Model**), to refer to markers attached to a set of items in a sentence to show

identity or difference of **reference**. For example, both the sentences (1) *The dog saw the dog* and (2) *The dog saw itself,* could, on one analysis, be derived from the same **underlying** structure *The dog saw the dog.* To mark the difference, sentence (1) would be marked *The dog[i] saw the dog[j]*, whereas (2) would be *The dog[i] saw the dog[j]*. The items marked with the same **referential index** variable are **co-referential**; with different indices, they are **non-co-referential**.
See **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **reference**

reflexive pronoun – zaimek zwrotny

This is a form of a **pronoun** which is used when the **direct** or **indirect object** in a sentence refers to the same person or thing as the **subject** of the sentence. In English, **reflexive pronouns** are formed by adding *-self*, *-selves* to the pronoun, as, e.g. in *I hurt* **myself**, *They hurt* **themselves**. The group of English reflexive pronouns includes the following forms: *myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, themselves, oneself.* These correspond to only four Polish forms: *siebie, się, sobie, sobą* (see KP).

reflexive verb – czasownik zwrotny, reflexivum

This is a verb used so as to imply that the subject is doing something to himself/herself. In English, this is typically expressed by means of a **reflexive pronoun** added to the verb; e.g. *They hurt themselves.* However, the same meaning can be expressed by the verb on its own, as, e.g., in *I was shaving.* "True" **reflexive verbs** are these which never occur without a reflexive pronoun. The form of the reflexive pronoun (**person** and **gender**) depends on the person and gender of the subject **noun phrase** (e.g. *He absents* **himself** *from classes*, *Mary availed* **herself** *of that opportunity*, etc.).
See **person**, **gender**, **noun phrase**

reflexivization transformation, **reflexivize** v. – transformacja zwrotna (refleksywna), refleksywizacja

In the **Standard Version of Transformational-Generative Grammar**, the **reflexivization transformation** operates as follows: When there are two **coreferential** noun phrases (NPs) in the same clause, the rightmost of the two must be converted into a reflexive pronoun (e.g. *myself, himself, yourself*, etc.) which agrees with the former in person, number, and gender; e.g. the structure *John killed John* is transformed into the structure *John killed himself* (or *I shaved I* is converted into *I shaved myself*). In this model of transformational grammar reflexivisation transformation is an obligatory rule. See also Thomas and Kintgen (1974).
See **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **coreferential**, **obligatory transformation rule**

regional dialect – dialekt regionalny

A **dialect** which is characteristic of a particular geographical area. Other terms are also used, e.g. **local**, **territorial**, and **geographical** (e.g the dialect of Wharfedale in the West Riding of Yorkshire).
See **dialect**

relational coherence – koherencja relacyjna
See **coherence**

register (1) – styl

Another term for **style**.

register (2) – rejestr

A speech variety used by a particular group of people, usually sharing the same occupation or the same interests (e.g. stamp collectors, baseball fans, etc.) (JCRandRSch).

regressive assimilation – asymilacja wsteczna (regresywna)
See **assimilation**

regular verbs – czasowniki regularne

The English **regular** (lexical) **verbs** have only four different forms: (V): **base** (e.g. *call*, *like*, *try*, etc.), (V-*ing*): **ING Participle** (e.g. *calling*, *liking*, *trying*), (V-*s*): **S Form** (e.g. *calls*, *likes*, *tries*), and (V-*ed*): **PAST/-ED Participle** (e.g. *called*, *liked*, *tried*). The reason why they are called regular is that we can predict what all the other three forms are if we know the base of such a verb. The base is the form of a verb which is listed in dictionaries and the vast majority of English verbs belong to this regular class. What is more, all new verbs that are coined or borrowed from other languages adopt the regular pattern. **Irregular verbs** are like regular verbs in having *-s* forms and *-ing* forms predictable from the base, but they differ from regular verbs in the following ways: they typically, but not necessarily, have variation in their base vowel. The reason for this phenomenon (called **ablaut** or **gradation**) is historical, and it is a characteristic of **Indo-European languages** in general (German, among others): *find – found – found*; *write – wrote – written*; *choose – chose – chosen* (all these are examples of irregular verbs). Since the *-s* form and the *-ing* form are predictable for regular and irregular verbs alike, the only forms that need be listed for irregular verbs are the base (V), the past, and the past participle forms.
See **base**, **ablaut**

related languages – języki pokrewne

To say that two languages are **related** is equivalent to saying that they have developed from some earlier single language (**proto-language**). This is otherwise expressed by saying that they belong to the same **language family**. A synonymous term is **sister languages**.
See **proto-language**, **language family / family of languages**, **sister languages**

relative chronology – chronologia względna
See **method of internal reconstruction**

relative clause – zdanie względne

A **clause** that is a part of a **noun phrase** and modifies the **head** of that noun phrase, e.g., *that he wants* in *Give him the book that he wants.*
See **clause**, **noun phrase**, **head**

relative pronoun – zaimek względny

The pronoun which introduces a **relative clause** and which substitutes for a noun phrase in that clause, e.g., *that* in *Give him the book **that** he wants.*
See **pronoun**, **relative clause**

representational function of language – funkcja przedstawieniowa języka
See **functions of language**

restriction of meaning, semantic restriction – zwężenie znaczenia
See **narrowing of meaning**

restrictive relative clause – zdanie względne ograniczające

A relative clause which contains information essential to identifying the noun modified by the relative. If I had two brothers, one in Edinburgh and one in Helsinki, the relative clause would be essential to identifying which brother married Kate: *My brother **who lives in Edinburgh** got married to Kate*. Cf. also **non-restrictive relative clause**.

resultative verbs – czasowniki rezultatywne
See **Aktionsart**

retroflex consonant – spółgłoska retrofleksywna (cerebralna)

A **consonant** which is produced with the tip of the tongue curled back to touch or nearly touch the hard palate at the top of the mouth. For example, the /r/ used by some speakers in the south-west of England, and in many varieties of American English, is a **retroflex consonant**.
See **consonant**

Revised Extended Standard Theory (**REST**) – zmodyfikowana rozszerzona teoria standardowa

The name given to the revised version of **Extended Standard Theory** (EST), proposed by Noam Chomsky in the mid-1970s.
See **Extended Standard Theory**

rewrite (**rewriting**) **rules** – reguły przepisywania
See **Phrase-Structure Grammar**, **phrase-structure rules**

rheme – remat
See **word order**, **theme**

rhetoric n., **rhetorical** a. – retoryka

The study of effective use of language in communication; the art of using language skillfully for persuasion, literary expression, public speaking, etc.

rhetorical question – pytanie retoryczne

A **rhetorical question** is one which is asked in order to make a statement rather than to get an answer; e.g. *He grimaced slightly, obviously expecting no answer to his rhetorical question* or *He made no answer to the Commandante's question, which had been rhetorical in any case*. A **rhetor** was an ancient Greek or Roman teacher or professor of **rhetoric**.
See **rhetoric**

rhetorical triangle – trójkąt retoryczny

In the 4th century BCE, in his *Rhetoric*, Aristotle outlined the concept of the **rhetorical triangle**, which encompasses the three persuasion strategies in **rhetoric** arranged on an equilateral triangle. The strategies are: LOGOS, PATHOS and ETHOS which roughly translate as logic, emotions and ethics. The equilateral triangle symbolizes the equal importance of each strategy to effective communication and persuasion.
See **rhetoric**

rhotacism n., **rhotic** a. – rotacyzm

Any **phonological** change in which some other **segment** turns into a **rhotic** consonant (an *r*-sound). For example, in Pre-Latin, **intervocalic** /s/ changed first to /z/ and then to /r/, producing in the classical language alternations like *flos* 'flower', genitive *floris*, from earlier **flosis* (RLT). See also Jeffers and Lehiste (1979: 76–77).
See **intervocalic**

rising–falling tone – ton rosnąco-opadający
See **tone unit**

rising intonation – intonacja rosnąca
See **intonation**

Romance languages – języki romańskie

The group of languages descended from the spoken Latin of the late Roman Empire. They include: Portuguese, Spanish, French, Italian, Romanian, etc.

Romanian, **Roumanian**, **Rumanian** – rumuński język
See **Romance languages**, **Proto-Romance**

Roman script – skrypt romański
See **alphabetic writing**

root – pierwiastek, rdzeń, źródłosłów

A form which is not further analysable, either in terms of **derivational** or **inflectional morphology**. It is that part of a word-form that remains when all inflectional and derivational affixes have been removed. A **root** is the basic part always present in a lexeme. In the form *untouchables*, e.g., the root is *touch-*, to which first the suffix *-able* and finally the suffix *-s* have been attached. In a compound word like, e.g., *wheelchair* there are two roots, *wheel* and *chair*.
See **derivational morphology**, **inflectional morphology**

rounded vowel – samogłoska zaokrąglona

During the production of a **rounded vowel** the lips are rounded, as in *shoe*. In English, rounding is **allophonic** (**back vowels** are rounded, **front vowels** are not).
See **allophone**, **back vowel**, **front vowel**

rule – reguła

(1) In **traditional grammar**, the term refers to a statement (a) about the formation of a linguistic unit, e.g. how to form the past tense of verbs, passive sentences, etc., or (b) about the correct usage of a linguistic unit or units, e.g. that verbs are modified by adverbs (*Come here quickly*) and not by adjectives (**Come here quick*).
See **traditional grammar**

(2) In **Generative Grammar**, the term refers to a formal statement of correspondence between linguistic elements or structures. In the classical model of Generative Grammar (the *Aspects* **model**), a grammar is seen

as a set of rules which generate all and only the grammatical sentences of a language. In this type of grammar, the rules are of two basic types: **Phrase-Structure rules** and **transformational rules**.

See **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **phrase-structure rules**, **transformational rules**

rule ordering – uporządkowanie reguł

In a **transformational** grammar, rules are said to be **ordered** if they have to apply in a particular succession. The rules of a transformational grammar are **ordered** at least in that each set of rules in the grammar is presented in a certain order, namely, the **Phrase-Structure rules** are first, the syntactic **transformational rules** are second, and the **morphophonemic rules** are third. A basic consideration for ordering transformational rules and morphophonemic rules is whether the **output** of one rule can serve as the **input** of another rule. In the case of Phrase-Structure rules, rules expanding higher-order symbols precede rules expanding lower-order symbols; more specifically, symbols that are introduced as part of the expansion of another symbol are themselves expanded by later rules. In transformational grammars based on the assumptions of Chomsky's *Aspects* **Theory**, transformational rules apply in a fixed order. This may be illustrated on the example of the **Reflexive** and **Imperative transformations**. For example, to derive a sentence like, say, *Shave yourself!*, we need to apply the Reflexive and Imperative transformations, with the Reflexive transformation preceding the Imperative transformation. If we applied the Imperative transformation before the Reflexive transformation, the condition for the application of the Reflexive transformation (this transformation applies to deep structures that involve subject and object noun phrases that are co-referential) would not be met, and consequently we would get the ungrammatical structure **shave you*. Thus, the Imperative transformation applies to the **output** of the Reflexive transformation. See also Kaznowski (1980: 227, 276).

See **Transformational-Generative Grammar, Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**

rune writing – pismo runiczne
See **runes**

runes – runy

Letters or characters of the earliest alphabet in use among the Gothic tribes of northern Europe. **Runic inscriptions** most commonly occur in Scandinavia and parts of the British Isles. **Runes** were employed for the purposes of secrecy, charms and divination, and the term is also applied to ancient lore or poetry expressed in runes. *Run* is related to Old Norse *run* 'secret'. The deeds of warriors were recorded on runic staves and knowledge of **rune writing** was

supposed to have been introduced by Odin (the Scandinavian name of the god called Woden by the Anglo-Saxons. He was god of wisdom, poetry, war, and agriculture. He was master of magic and discovered the runes (Brewer's).

runic inscriptions – inskrypcje, napisy runiczne
See **runes**

Russian – rosyjski język
See **Slavic languages**, **Proto-Slavic**

Samoan – samoański język

The **Polynesian** language of the Samoans.
See **Polynesian**

Samoyed(ic) languages – samojedzkie języki

A group of about five languages spoken in northern Siberia (Kamssin, Yenisei-Samoyed, Ostyak-Samoyed, Yurak and Tagvi) and forming one of the main branches of the **Uralic family**, the other branch being the **Finno-Ugric** group.
See **Uralic languages**, **Finno-Ugric languages**

sandhi – sandhi

A term of **Sanskrit** origin (literally meaning 'linking, joining'), designating the phonetic changes whose domain is more extensive than the individual word. Such changes occur either across morpheme boundaries (**internal sandhi**) or across word boundaries (**external sandhi**). An example of internal sandhi is "velar softening" in English (i.e. palatalisation of **velar** /k/ and /g/ to respectively /s/ and /dʒ/ before certain suffixes beginning with a **front vowel**, as e.g. in *electric/electricity*, *analogous/analogy*. And following is an example of external sandhi: the elision of word-final /e/ before a vowel in French, as in *l'école* (Jeffers and Lehiste 1979: 13, 44, DC).
See **Sanskrit**, **morpheme**, **velar consonant**, **front vowel**

Sanskrit – sanskryt

Old Indic, the conventionalised literary language considered to be the parent of **Indic languages**. **Sanskrit** was derived from an unknown old Indic dialect, closely related to the Vedic language (the language of the Vedas) and became the literary language of the educated in India about the 4th century BC.
See **Indic languages**, **Vedic**

Sapir–Whorf Hypothesis – hipoteza Sapira-Whorfa

The **Sapir–Whorf Hypothesis** as it is known today can be broken into two basic principles: **linguistic determinism** and **linguistic relativity**. Linguistic determinism refers to the idea that the language we use to some extent determines the way in which we view and think about the world around us. The concept has generally been divided into two separate groups – *"strong" determinism* and *"weak" determinism*. Strong determinism is the extreme

version of the theory, stating that language actually determines thought, that language and thought are identical. Weak determinism, however, holds that thought is merely affected by or influenced by our language, whatever that language may be. This version of determinism is widely accepted today. Linguistic relativity states that distinctions encoded in one language are unique to that language alone, and that there is no limit to the structural diversity of languages. If, for example, one imagines the colour spectrum, it is a continuum, each colour continually blending into the next; there are no sharp boundaries. But we impose boundaries; we talk of red, orange, yellow, green, etc. These discriminations appear to be arbitrary, as in other languages the boundaries are different. In neither Spanish, Italian or Russian is there a word that corresponds to the English meaning 'blue', and likewise in Spanish there are two words *esquina* and *Rincon*, meaning an inside and an outside corner, which necessitate the use of more than one word in English to convey the same concept. These examples show that the language we use, whichever it happens to be, divides not only the colour spectrum, but indeed our whole reality, which is a kaleidoscopic flux of impressions, into completely arbitrary compartments (cf. also DC). See also Lepschy (1970: 76–84, DC).

Sardinian – sardyński język
See **Romance languages**, **Proto-Romance**

satem languages – języki satemowe

Any branch of **Indo-European** in which certain **Proto-Indo-European** consonants developed into palatals, and later into sibilants. These consonants remained distinct from the inherited Proto-Indo-European velars, which in the **satem languages** usually merged with the inherited labio-velars. The Satem languages include: Indo-Iranian, Balto-Slavic, Armenian and Albanian (RLT). Cf. **centum languages**.
See **Indo-European languages**, **Proto-Indo-European**

Saussurean paradox – paradoks Saussure'a

The label refers to the following problem: How can a language continue to function effectively as a structured system when it is in the middle of a number of changes? This paradox has only been resolved since the 1960s with the realisation that **linguistic variation** is always part of the structure of a language, and that variation is the vehicle of change (RLT). See also Fisiak (2005: Introduction).
See **linguistic variation**

Saxon genitive – dopełniacz saksoński

The **Saxon genitive** case is formed by adding the -*s* suffix (preceded by an apostrophe) to singular and plural noun forms if they do not end in -*s*; e.g. *the*

lion's den, James' book (though *James's* is also possible), *schoolboys' books*, *women's suffrage.*
See **case**

schema (pl. **schemas** or **schemata**) – schemat

(1) In **psycholinguistics**, the concept is used especially in the study of reading for a mental structure in which language is organised. **Schema theory** has been developed to explain how people use background knowledge to shape their expectations about what a text (spoken or written) will contain. Readers create mental models (**schemata**) which they actively use to make sense of a text (DC).
See **psycholinguistics**

(2) In **text linguistics** and **discourse analysis**, the underlying structure which accounts for the organisation of a **text** or **discourse**. Different types of texts and discourse (e.g. stories, descriptions, letters, reports, etc.) are distinguished by the ways in which the **topic**, **propositions**, and other information are linked together to form a unit. This underlying structure is known as the **schema** (also **scheme**) or **macrostructure**. For example, the scheme underlying many stories is as follows:
Story = Setting (= state + state + …) + Episodes (= Event(s) + Reaction)
which means that stories consist of a setting in which the time, place, and characters are identified, followed by episodes leading towards a reaction. A text or discourse in which suitable underlying scheme or macrostructure is used is said to be **coherent** (JCRandRSch).
See **coherence**, **proposition**, **topic**, **discourse analysis**, **text linguistics**

(3) The term is used also in **cognitive linguistics**; for example, the American cognitivist R. Langacker (1987: 371) defines it as "an abstract characterization that is fully compatible with all the members of the category it defines; it is an integrated structure that embodies the commonality of its members, which are conceptions of greater specificity and detail that elaborate the schema in contrasting ways." See also VE.
See **cognitive linguistics**, **image schema**

schwa, shwa – schwa, szwa

The neutral vowel /ə/ – e.g., the vowel corresponding to the bold-printed letters in words like *a*bout, *a*ffair, p*o*tato, etc.
See **vowel**

scope of negation – zasięg negacji

The range of constituents which are affected by negation, e.g., in the sentence *You ought not to have any difficulty getting a ticket* it is not the modality of

ought to that is affected by the negative particle *not* but the content of the lexical verb.

scribe – skryba, kopista

A professional penman who copied manuscripts before the invention of printing.

script – skrypt

In **cognitive linguistics**, the term refers to the "temporal sequencing and causal relations which link events and states within a certain action frame" (cf. Taylor 1995: 87). However, in Richards and Schmidt (2002), the terms **script** and **frame** are regarded as synonymous terms, which is a position not followed by Taylor for whom frames are "static configurations of knowledge," while scripts are "more dynamic in nature." As Taylor (1995: 87) puts it, "Typically, scripts are associated with what we have referred to earlier as basic level events such as 'do the washing up' and 'visit the doctor', which are structured according to the expected sequencing of subordinate events."
See **cognitive linguistics**, **frame**

second language – drugi język

In a broad sense, any language learned after one has learnt one's **native language**. However, when contrasted with foreign language, the term refers more narrowly to a language that plays a major role in a particular country or region though it may not be the first language of many people who use it. A **second language** is used for a special purpose, e.g. for education, government, etc. (JCRandRSch). Cf. **first language**.
See **native language**

second language acquisition – akwizycja języka drugiego (obcego)
See **language acquisition**

secondary articulation – artykulacja dodatkowa (sekundarna)

An **articulation** made by two of the organs of speech that are not involved in the **primary articulation.** For example, the English alveolar lateral /l/ at the end of a syllable, as in *eel*, is often made with the back of the tongue raised, and thus has the secondary articulation of **velarization** (JCRandRSch).
See **articulation**, **primary articulation**, **velarization**

secondary auxiliary verbs – sekundarne czasowniki posiłkowe
See **auxiliary verbs**

secondary cardinal vowels – sekundarne samogłoski podstawowe
See **cardinal vowels**

secondary domain – domena sekundarna
See **domain** (3)

secondary stress – akcent poboczny

The weaker of two degrees of **stress** in the pronunciation of a word; the stronger degree of stress is called **primary stress**. **Secondary stress** usually only applies to longer words of four or more syllables. For example, in the word *counterintuitive,* consisting of six syllables, the fourth syllable receives the primary stress, and the initial syllable receives the secondary stress. Some languages are described as having both primary and secondary stress (DC, JCRandRSch).
See **primary stress**, **stress**

secret language – tajny język

A language of whatever origin, known to and used by only a subsection of a speech community and used only for certain special purposes. **Secret languages** make use of either words taken from general language, used in another meaning, or words borrowed from other, sometimes extinct, languages. For example, tribes inhabiting the northern coast of New Guinea colloquially speak dialects belonging to the Austronesian family; their secret language, however, used only by men, includes many words from the Papuan dialects which previously occupied these regions. Men use their secret language when, i.e. they are communicating information which women or children should not know about; e.g. information about war, which could evoke panic. (A good example of a secret language is, among others, **thievish slang**). See also Milewski (1973: 179–181).

segment – segment

In linguistics, a **segment** is "any discrete unit that can be identified, either physically or auditorily, in the stream of speech" (Crystal 2003: 408–409). The term is mostly used in **phonetics** and **phonology** and refers to the smallest elements in a language, and this usage can be synonymous with the term **phone**. In spoken languages, segments will typically be grouped into consonants and vowels, but the term can be applied to any minimal unit of a linear sequence meaningful to the given field of analysis, such as a **mora** or a syllable in **prosodic phonology**, a morpheme in **morphology** (Bussmann 2006: 1038). Segments are called "discrete" because they are, at least at some analytical level, separate and individual, and temporally ordered. See also **segmentation.** See also Robins (1967: 90–91), Lyons (1968: 181 ff.).
See **phonetics**, **phonology**, **morphology**, **prosodic phonology**

segmental phonology – fonologia segmentalna

The branch of **phonology** which deals with the properties of segmental phonemes, i.e. vowels and consonants and with their combinations. **Segmental phonology** comprises **allophony**, **phonotactics** and **allomorphy**.
See **phonology**, **allophony**, **phonotactics**, **allomorphy**, **suprasegmental phonology**

segmentation – segmentacja

The analysis of utterances in terms of their basic units. At the phonological level, the **segmentation** of a portion of a text can be carried out at various points. For example, if we compare the phoneme sequence in *bit* with the phoneme sequence in *bid*, we can see that the segment *bi-* is shared by both the sequences, and thus it is separable from the rest of the text. Now, comparing *bi-* and *ba-* (in *bat*), we can further separate *b* and *i* as two independent segments. It was assumed by **distributionalists** that this kind of segmentation of linguistic elements was feasible without recourse to the meanings of the elements. For **segmentation** in historical linguistics see RLT.
See **distributionalists**

selectional restrictions, **restrictions of co-occurrence** – ograniczenia selekcyjne

The semantic restrictions that a word imposes on the environment in which it occurs. For example, the verb *kill* requires that its object be animate, which would account for the grammatical sentence *He killed the lion*, and the incorrect **He killed the table* (unless the sentence is understood figuratively).
See **semantics**

semantic assimilation – asymilacja semantyczna

A term used by I.M. Schlesinger (1979) to label instances of semantic broadening such as the extension of English *with* from an instrumental sense (as in *She wrote it with a pen*) to a manner sense (as in *She wrote it with enthusiasm*) (RLT).

semantic component – komponent (składnik) semantyczny
See **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**

semantic change – zmiana semantyczna

Any type of change in the meaning of a linguistic form, usually, though not invariably, excluding changes in the grammatical function of a **grammatical word**. Words can lose or gain meanings, and they do not have to lose an earlier sense to gain a new one. The American structuralist Leonard Bloomfield

(1933) points out that each word has one central (*denotational*) meaning and various occasional, marginal (*connotational*) meanings, and that **semantic change** occurs when speakers stop using the central meaning and reinterpret a marginal meaning as the central one. According to McMahon (1996: 176–177), "This may happen because new analogical forms encroach on the central meaning, as the spread of *slowness* ousted earlier *sloth*. *Sloth* was related to *slow* as *truth* still is to *true*, but is now retained in its previously peripheral meaning of 'laziness'." And a **loanword** may take over the central meaning of a native word, which may then become obsolete or be retained with an altered marginal sense; cf. e.g. the Old English *deor* 'animal' with its modern English counterpart *deer* 'any of a group of ruminant mammals with cloven hoofs and antlers in the males', or Old English *fugol* 'bird' and its modern English counterpart *fowl* meaning 'any of the larger domestic birds used for food'. Semantic change is sanctioned by Saussure's doctrine of the **arbitrariness** of the linguistic sign. The sign is bipartite, that is to say, made up of a **signifier** (an actual string of letters or sounds) and a **signified**, i.e. a concept. These two components of the linguistic sign are arbitrarily linked; for example, there is no reason why the English *tree* should refer to a tree and not to a car or a tiger. Before the idea of arbitrariness became current in linguistics, semantic change could not really be studied at all. Arbitrariness allows to regard the signifier and the signified as essentially independent; either may therefore change with time." The following types of semantic change are usually mentioned: **extension** (or **broadening**), **narrowing** (or **restriction** or **specialisation**), **amelioration** (or **elevation**), and **pejoration** (or **deterioration**) (cf. e.g. McMahon 1996). Thus, **narrowing of meaning** involves an increase in the information conveyed, since a restricted form is applicable to fewer situations, but tells us more about each of them. The **extension** of the word has been restricted but its sense (i.e. **intension**) has been enriched with an additional feature. Good examples of this type of semantic change provide the earlier mentioned forms *deor*, *fugol*, and *steorfan*. Compare OE *steorfan* 'to die' and its modern PDE counterpart *starve* meaning 'to die of hunger', but also 'be extremely hungry', and dialectally 'be very cold'. **Extension of meaning** results from a generalisation from the specific case to the class of which the specific case is a member. Extension here means an extension of possible referents, or contexts of occurrence. A good illustration of this type of semantic change provide English words which historically derived from proper names. For example, *quisling* was originally a proper name and now it used to refer to a class of objects. *Quisling* is of Norwegian origin. A Norwegian by the name Vidkun Quisling was known for his collaborating with the Nazis during World War Two. Today the form *quisling* refers to anyone who collaborates with an enemy. **Amelioration** involves improvement in assigned value. **Ameliorative** words are thus words conveying positive meanings. To take one example, compare the Old English word *cniht* 'boy, attendant, servant' and its PDE counterpart *knight*. Finally, by **pejoration** is meant the development of a less favourable

meaning or unpleasant connotation of a word. The attitude of speakers and hearers to particular words may also change as the value assigned to the **referents** of words alters. For example, the English adjective *notorious*, which once meant 'widely known', now it means 'widely and unfavourably known' (as in the sentence *West Berlin has long been notorious for its street violence*). To take one more example from English, *sely* meant 'blessed' and now it means 'foolish'. The most commonly cited causal classification of semantic changes was formulated by A. Meillet (1912), who proposed three causes: linguistic, historical, and social. S. Ullmann (1962) added one more category, namely psychological. **Linguistic causes** are language-internal (structural/systemic) causes, i.e. they are linguistically conditioned exclusively, they have nothing to do with external, contextual factors like the material structure. The best example of a linguistically conditioned semantic change is **grammaticalisation** (a process whereby a lexical word acquires the function of a grammatical word). For example, the Old English verb *habban* 'have, possess' over time acquired the function of the perfect aspect auxiliary, in which it occurs, e.g., in *He has seen this film many times*. **Historical causes** are language-external, in that they involve a change in the material culture of speech communities. Referents of words frequently change due to technological innovation, but the name (form) remains intact; for example, the English *pen*, which historically goes back to the Latin *penna* 'feather', now denotes any writing implement and its original meaning was 'quill pen', which in those days was the only tool for writing. Meillet's last category are **social causes**; here a word tends to acquire a new meaning due to its use by a particular social group, or a word used in a specific sense by some group comes into common currency with an extended meaning. For example, English *bishop*, from the Greek *episcopos* 'overseer', the religious sense of the word results from its use within Christian community. **Psychological causes** of semantic change proposed by Ullmann figure largely in **taboo** and **euphemism**. Often religious concepts, dangerous animals, and objects thought of as unpleasant or distasteful become taboo, i.e., something which religion or custom regards as forbidden. Their names cannot be pronounced, and euphemisms are substituted, and thus causing semantic change. For example, English *bear* originally denoted 'brown', as its Lithuanian **cognate** still does. War and violence provide fertile ground for euphemism in English as well as in other languages. A recent example is the coining of *collateral damage* for 'dead and injured civilians' during the 1990–1991 Gulf War. Interestingly, euphemistic terms in English generally involve Latinate vocabulary, partly because such words tend to have more prestigious connotations, and partly because their meaning will be less transparent to the observer (cf. McMahon 1996: 179 ff.). More interesting, in her two articles published in the 1980s, Elizabeth Traugott (in McMahon 1996: 187) suggests three tendencies in semantic change:

Tendency I: external descriptions of reality become internal descriptions of perceptions and evaluations.

Tendency II: external and internal descriptions become textual meanings – that is, they acquire meanings that give overt structure to discourse.

Tendency III: meanings become increasingly based in the speaker's subjective beliefs and attitudes.
See **arbitrariness**, **extension** (**generalization**) **of meaning**, **grammaticalisation**, **intension**, **loanword**, **referent**, **denotation**, **connotation**

semantic component (**feature**) – składnik semantyczny, cecha semantyczna

In linguistic **semantics**, the term refers to the basic meaning in a word. The meanings of words may be described as a combination of **semantic components** (or **features**). For example, the semantic feature (+MALE) is part of the meaning of the English noun *father*, as is the feature (+ADULT). But other features are needed to give the whole sense of *father*. The same semantic feature may be part of the meaning of several different words. For example, the feature (+MOVEMENT) is common to a group of English verbs, such as *walk*, *run*, *jump*, *gallop*, and the like. Sometimes semantic features are established by contrasts and are stated in terms of (+) or (–); e.g.,

> *man* (+HUMAN), (+MALE), (+ADULT)
>
> *boy* (+HUMAN), (+MALE), (–ADULT)

Alternative terms are: **sense-components**, **atomic components** (cf. Lyons 1977: 317), **semantic primitives/primes** (cf. Wierzbicka 1972, 1992). See also **componential analysis**.
See **semantics**

semantic feature – cecha semantyczna

In **semantics**, a minimal contrastive element of a word's meaning; in some approaches (e.g. **Componential Analysis**) called a **semantic component**. For example, the **semantic feature** MALE is part of the meaning of the noun *father*, and so is the feature ADULT, but other features are needed to give the whole sense of *father*. The same feature may be part of a whole group of words. For example, the feature MOVEMENT is part of the meaning of words like *go*, *run*, *walk*, *stroll*, *jump*, *gallop*, etc.
See **semantics**, **componential analysis**, **semantic component**

semantic field – pole semantyczne (leksykalne)

The term **semantic field** was first used by G. Ipsen in 1924. According to the linguist, semantic fields are series of words not related **etymologically**, but rather by virtue of semantic associations in such a way that the meaning

of each word is qualified by the meaning of others (G. Ipsen 1924 in Lyons 1977). For instance, kinship terms such as *father, mother, brother, sister, uncle, aunt* belong to a semantic field whose relevant features involve generation, sex, membership of the father's or mother's side of the family, etc. **Lexical field** is another term for semantic field.
See **etymology**

Semantic Field Theory (**SFT**) – teoria pola semantycznego

The basic premise of this theory is that to understand the precise lexical meaning of a word it is necessary to look at sets of semantically related words, not simply at each word in isolation. "Semantically related" here refers to relationships between lexical items, such as **synonymy** (as in *big* and *large*), **antonymy** (as *big* and *small*), **hyponymy** (as in *rose* and *flower*), **converseness** (as in *buy* and *sell*), etc. The words denoting colour are often cited as an example of a **semantic field**: the precise meaning of a colour word can be understood only by placing it in the relation to the other terms which occur with it in demarcating the colour spectrum. One of the earliest linguists who contributed to the development of SFT was J. Trier (1931). The linguist showed that the theory may be useful for studies in **historical semantics**. He pointed to the connection between semantic change and semantic fields. He showed that semantic change affects the structure of semantic fields. In her article, A. Lehrer (2005: 286) proposes the hypothesis that "semantically related words are more likely to undergo parallel semantic changes than semantically unrelated ones precisely *because* of their semantic relationships." See also Lyons (1977: 250 ff.).
See **lexical meaning**, **antonymy**, **hyponymy**, **synonymy**, **converseness**, **historical semantics**

semantic frame – rama semantyczna

In **cognitive lexical semantics**, the term refers to a knowledge structure required in order to understand a particular word or related set of words. The **semantic frame** is central to the theory of **frame semantics**. To illustrate, consider the related group of words: *buy, sell, pay, spend, cost, charge, change*, etc. According to frame semantics, in order to understand these words, we need access to a COMMERCIAL EVENT frame, which provides the background knowledge, based on experience, to which these words relate. For instance, the COMMERCIAL EVENT frame includes a number of attributes which must include, at the very least, BUYER, SELLER, GOODS, and MONEY. Thus a given word foregrounds a particular part of the semantic frame to which it is relativised, and yet cannot be understood without the other elements which make up the frame (VE).
See **cognitive lexical semantics**, **frame semantics**

semantic lexicalization – leksykalizacja semantyczna
See **lexicalization** (1)

semantic meaning – znaczenie semantyczne

The meaning of a linguistic expression without the **context**, i.e. the meaning that the grammar and lexicon of a language impart. This kind of meaning is accounted for by **semantics** (DC). Cf. **pragmatic meaning**.
See **context**, **semantics**, **pragmatics**

semantic primes (**primitives**) – elementy pierwotne semantyki

Semantic primes are thought of as universal concepts or as the basic "atoms" of meaning, in terms of which the thousands upon thousands of complex meanings are composed; e.g. *I*, *you*, *someone*, *say*, *do*, *happen*, *good*, *bad*, *big*, *small*, *if*, *because*, *not*, etc., are some examples of such universal semantic primes (see Wierzbicka 1992).

semantic (**sense**) **relations** – relacje semantyczne (znaczeniowe)

The term refers to the system of linguistic relationships (**semantic relations** or **sense relations**) which a linguistic item contracts with other lexical items, e.g. the relationships of **synonymy**, **antonymy**, etc.
See **synonymy**, **antonymy**

semantic representation – reprezentacja semantyczna, zapis semantyczny
See **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**

semantic role – rola semantyczna

A term used in **syntax** and **semantics** to refer to the semantic relations that link a **predicate** (the main verb) to its **arguments** in the description of a state of affairs. For example, in the sentence *Kate milked the cow, Kate* and *the cow* are related by the action described by the verb *milk*: *Kate* as the volitional instigator is often termed the AGENT; and *the cow*, the affected entity, the PATIENT. Other **semantic roles** include: INSTRUMENT (the means by which an action is performed, EXPERIENCER (the entity that is aware of the action described by the predicate, but which is not in control, e.g *The dentist* heard *a noise, The book interested Paul*), GOAL (the entity or place towards which something moves, e.g. *I insist on your taking me to a nice restaurant*), etc. The roles are important in the establishment of semantic classes of verbs. Other names for role include: **deep case**, **participant role**, **thematic** (or **theta**) **role** (DC).
See **argument**, **Case Grammar**, **Government-Binding Theory**, **semantics**, **syntax**

semantic shift – przesunięcie semantyczne

In **historical linguistics,** a type of semantic change in which the meaning of a word changes so completely that nothing at all is covered by both the earlier and later meanings. Examples include the shift of English *bead* from 'prayer' to 'small ball', OE *sely* from 'blessed' to 'silly, foolish'. McMahon (1996: 186 ff.) Milewski (1973: 146) affirms that if the transmission of language were not discontinuous from generation to generation, **semantic shifts** would not occur at all.
See **semantic change**

semanticity – znaczącość, semantyczność

A property of language which implies that language allows us to convey any type of meaning. There are various types of meaning, e.g., cognitive (or descriptive), social, expressive, etc. But there are kinds of meaning that can be conveyed only by human language; e.g. cognitive (descriptive) meaning. Linguistic expressions are used not only for social communication, but also for the description of the extralinguistic reality, whereas animal signals are at best expressive and social. See also **design features of language**.

semanticist – semantyk

A person who specializes in **semantics**.
See **semantics**

semanticization n., **semanticize** v. – semantycyzacja

In **historical semantics**, the term refers to the acquisition of a new semantic value by a linguistic form, often especially as part of some kind of **reanalysis**. For example, English *while* formerly meant 'during', and still does, as in cases like *While I was in the bath, the phone rang*. However, it has also been **semanticized** to the concessive sense 'although', with which it is used in *While I'd like to see the match, I can't spare the time* (RLT).
See **historical semantics**, **reanalysis**

semantics – semantyka

A major branch of **linguistics** devoted to the study of meaning in language. The term is also used in philosophy and logic, but not with the same range of meaning or emphasis as in linguistics. In linguistics, the emphasis is on the study of the semantic properties of natural languages (as opposed to "logical languages"), the term **linguistic semantics** often being employed to make the distinction clear. Different linguists' approaches to meaning none the less illustrate the influence of general philosophical or psychological positions. The "behaviourist" semantics of Leonard Bloomfield (1887–1949), for example,

refers to the application of the techniques of the **behaviourist** movement in psychology, restricting the study of meaning to only observable and measurable behaviour. Partly of the pessimism of this approach, which concluded that semantics was not yet capable of elucidation in behavioural terms, semantics came to be much neglected in post-Bloomfieldian linguistics, and has received proper attention only since the 1960s. Of particular importance here is the approach of **structural semantics**, which displays the application of the principles of **structural linguistics** to the study of meaning through the notion of **semantic relations** (i.e. sense or meaning relations such as synonymy, antonymy, etc.). See also Kempson (1979), Lyons (1977).
See **behaviouristic psychology**, **semantic relations**, **structural linguistics**

semasiology – semazjologia

The term was introduced by Christian Karl Reisig in 1825 in his *Versuchungen über lateinische Sprach Wissenschaft* (*Lectures in Latin Linguistics*). It is an approach to the lexicon which describes the **polysemy** of a word and the relationship between these various meanings. It starts from a word and lists its various meanings. For example, the word *fruit* has more than just one meaning. Next to the basic, every day sense 'sweet and soft edible part of a plant', it has various other senses, e.g. 'the part of a plant, bush or tree that contains the seeds', 'the good results that you have from something after you have worked very hard', etc. Today **semasiology** is treated as a sub-field of **lexicology**. The opposite approach is **onomasiology**.
See **lexicology**, **onomasiology**, **polysemy**

semicolon – średnik

The **semicolon** (**;**) is used: a) When a greater pause is required than is indicated by a comma (*Six o'clock came; the factory motors were shut off, and died away with a last lingering sound*). b) To give greater emphasis to different clauses (*As Caesar loved me, I weep for him; as he was fortunate, I rejoice at it; as he was ambitious, I slew him*).
See **punctuation marks**

semiotics – semiotyka

A general theory of **signs**; especially, the analysis of the nature and relationships of signs in human language, usually including three branches: **semantics** (i.e. the study of the relations between linguistic expressions and the objects in the world which they refer to or describe), **syntactics** (i.e. the study of the relation of these expressions to each other), and **pragmatics** (i.e. the study of the dependence of the meaning of these expressions on the users, including the social situation in which they are used).
See **sign**

Semitic languages – semickie języki

A large **family of languages** in the Near East and northern and eastern Africa, containing about twenty languages (some of them extinct), and forming one branch of the **Afro-Asiatic** family. The eastern branch consists only of the extinct **Akkadian**; the southern branch includes **Arabic**, the **Epigraphic South Arabian** languages, and the numerous Semitic languages of Ethiopia; the northwestern branch includes **Hebrew**, **Aramaic**, the extinct **Phoenician**, and a few others (RLT).
See **language family**

semi-vowel – półsamogłoska

A **vowel**-like sound which functions phonologically like a consonant: e.g. the initial sound of *wet* or *yet*.
See **vowel**, **phonology**

sender – nadawca
See **receiver**

sense – sens, znaczenie

A distinction is made between the **sense** of a linguistic expression and its **reference** (Lyons 1968: 424 ff.). Reference has to do with the designation of entities in the world. Sense is the abstract linguistic meaning. For Lyons (1968: 424, 1977: 177) the sense of a word is to be equated with the set of relations (i.e. synonymy, hyponymy, implication, etc.) which hold between the item in question and other items in the same **lexical field**. Thus construed, sense is independent of things outside the language system itself.
See **reference** (1), **lexical field**

sentence – zdanie

In **traditional grammar**, the term is often defined as: (1) a word or group of words stating, asking, commanding, or exclaiming something; conventional unit of connected speech or writing usually containing a subject and predicate: in speaking a sentence begins following a silence and concludes with any of various final pitches followed by a terminal juncture. (Web's). (2) a word or group of words capable of expressing a complete thought or meaning. Whether or not a given word or group of words is capable of doing this in any one language depends on the way in which that language constructs its sentences, that is, on their form (H. Sweet: *New English Grammar*, Oxford: The Clarendon Press, 1982, p. 155). See also Zandvoort (1957/1960: 573 ff.).

L. Bloomfield, the structural linguist in his Language (New York, 1933) defines the sentence as "the largest unit of grammatical description – a grammatical unit between the constituent parts of which distributional limitations

and dependencies can be established, but which can itself be put into no distributional class." And in **Generative Grammar**, there are several models of analysis for sentence structure, with competing views as to the direction in which a sentence derivation should proceed (see e.g. N. Chomsky' s Syntactic Structures, 1957, Aspects of the Theory of Syntax, 1965/1966).

There are various types of sentences: simple sentences, complex sentences, interrogative sentences, negative sentences, elliptical sentences, etc.

The linguitic literature abounds in over 200 definitions of the grammatical unit sentence (e.g. S. Karolak – KP, D. Crystal – DC).

See **traditional grammar**, **structural linguistics** (and **Bloomfieldian School**), **Generative Grammar**

sentence stress – akcent zdaniowy

The term refers to the pattern of stressed and unstressed words in a sentence or utterance. English **sentence stress** most commonly falls on **content words** that contain new information, e.g. *He was going to LONdon*, where the strongest stress falls on the first syllable of the word *London*.

See **stress**, **content (full, lexical) word**

sequence of tenses – następstwo czasów, consecutio temporum

In many languages (including English), the use of certain verbal tenses, depending on the tense in which the verb of the **main clause** is used. **Sequence of tenses** is found, e.g., in the sentence *What did you say your name was?* The past *was* in the **subordinate** (complement) **clause** is not used because of its own meaning; the question is not about what the person's name was in the past, but about what it is now. So the use of the past tense in the subordinate clause is due to the fact that there is a past tense in the main (matrix) clause.

See **main clause**, **subordinate clause**

Serbo-Croatian – serbochorwacki język
See **Slavic languages**, **Proto-Slavic**

short-term memory – pamięć krótkotrwała (krótkoterminowa)

This term refers to that part of the memory where information which is received is stored for short periods of time while it is being analyzed and interpreted (JCRandRSch). Cf. **long-term memory**.

sibilant consonant – spółgłoska sycząca

A **fricative** in which there is a high-pitched turbulent noise, as English /s/ in *sip*.
See **fricative consonant**

sign – znak

As it is defined by semioticians, **sign** is something physical and perceivable by our senses; it refers to something other than itself and depends on a recognition by its users that it is a sign. Peirce (1983) distinguished three categories of signs, each of which showed a different relationship between the sign and its object, i.e., that to which it refers: **icon** – in an icon the sign resembles its object in some way; it looks or sounds like it, e.g., a photograph is an icon. **Onomatopoeia** is an attempt to make language iconic; **index** – in an index there is a direct link between a sign and its object; the two are connected, e.g., the *smoke* is an index of *fire* (cf. the proverb: *There is no fire without smoke*); **symbol** – in a symbol there is no connection or resemblance between a sign and its object; a symbol communicates only because people agree that it will stand for what it does. In *Cours de linguistique generale*, the Swiss scholar Ferdinand de Saussure (1857–1913) proposes a linguistic definition of the **sign** according to which the sign is an **arbitrary** bipartite entity consisting of the *signifier* (Fr. *signifiant*) and the signified (Fr. *signifié*). So, for de Saussure a sign is a two-faced entity consisting of *form* (expression) and *content* (meaning). See **arbitrariness**, **semiotics**, **onomatopoeia**

sign language – język migowy (gestów)

A method of communicating by using movements of your hands and arms. There are several formal systems of **sign language**, used, for example, by deaf people, as well as informal methods that you might invent when you talk to someone who does not speak the same language as you. See also DC.

signal – sygnał
See **information theory**

simile – porównanie

A **figure of speech** in which one thing is likened to another, in such a way as to clarify and enhance an image. It is an explicit comparison typically recognisable by the use of the words *like* or *as*. There are, however, cases where *like* or *as* are not necessary comparison markers, as in *Her mind resembles a fig tree* ('Her mind is like a fig tree').
See **figure of speech**

simple extended sentence – zdanie proste rozwinięte

A sentence which, apart from a subject and predicate, contains other elements, such as, e.g. a direct object, and/or indirect object, an adverbial phrase, etc. Following is an example of this type of sentence *A terrible storm destroyed many old houses.* Cf. **simple unextended sentence**.

simple unextended sentence – zdanie proste nierozwinięte

A sentence consisting of two basic constituents: a subject and a **predicate (3)**; e.g. *John disappeared.* Cf. **simple extended sentence**.
See **predicate (3)**

simplicity criterion – kryterium prostoty

One of the criteria used by early **generative** linguists for choosing the best of the available grammars mirroring the native speaker's **competence**. Early generative linguists assume that the native speaker's internalised grammar (i.e. his/her competence) operates with minimal apparatus, generating all the necessary data with the minimum complexity; that is, they must be maximally simple. If the linguist's grammar is to match the internal one, it must also be maximally simple, and early generativists measured **simplicity** by counting the number of rules and units in the grammar, with lower numbers preferred (Bach 1960, Chomsky 1966).
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**

sincerity conditions – warunki szczerości

In the **theory of speech acts**, requirements on the genuine intentions of a speaker in order for an utterance to count as a particular **speech act**. For example, for a speech act like a promise the speaker must genuinely intend to carry out a future action, for a warning he must genuinely believe that the future event will not have a beneficial effect. Cf. **felicity (happiness) conditions**.
See **Speech Act Theory**

singulare tantum (pl. **singularia tantum**) – singulare tantum (pl. singularia tantum)

A Latin term, meaning 'singular only', referring to a noun which has only singular forms, e.g., *money, furniture,* etc. Polish examples include: *złoto, woda, wilgoć*, etc. Cf. also **plurale tantum**.

Sino-Tibetan languages – chińsko-tybetańskie języki

A large **language family** of eastern Asia, usually divided into two branches: **Chinese** (or **Sinitic**) and **Tibeto-Burman** (see **Chinese (Sinitic)**, **Tibeto-Burman**).
See **language family**

sister (related) languages – języki pokrewne

Related languages descended from a common direct **ancestor/parent language**: e.g. **Romance languages** are **sister languages**.
See **ancestor language**, **Romance languages**

situational method – metoda sytuacyjna

In **language teaching**, a term sometimes used to refer to a teaching programme or method in which the selection, organization and presentation of language items is based on situations (e.g. *at the bank, at the supermarket, at home*, etc.). A **syllabus** for such a language course or textbook may be referred to as a **situational syllabus**. Many methods make use of simulated situations as a way of practicing language items, but use other criteria for selecting and organizing the content of the course. Only if situations are used to select, organize and practise would the term **situational method** strictly apply (JCRandRSch).
See **syllabus**

slang – slang, żargon

Very informal speech, using expressive but informal words and expressions (**slang words/expressions**). **Slang** is used for a very informal speech variety which often serves as "in-group" language for a particular set of people such a teenagers, army recruits, pop groups, etc. Most slang is rather unstable as its words and expressions can change quite rapidly, for example: *Beat it!, Scram!, Rack off!* (JCRandRSch). Slang items may be coined for just about anything of interest to speakers, but are particularly frequent in certain semantic areas. An example of these is 'excellent', for which such slang terms as *groovy*, *fab*, *rill*, *tremendous*, *wicked*, *ace*, *spiffing*, *cool*, *awesome*, *sweet*, *triff,* and *def* have been used by some English speakers in the 20th century. Slang terms rarely endure, but *booze* 'alcoholic drinks' is an example of a slang term which has been in English for centuries, while *mob* is an example of a former slang term which has lost its slang status and became mainstream English (RLT).
See **colloquial speech**

Slavic languages – słowiańskie języki

The **Slavic language family** is a major branch of the **Indo-European** language family. It comprises the following three groups of languages: **West-Slavic**: Polish, Lower Lusation, Upper Lusation, Czech, and Slovak; **South-Slavic**: Slovene, Serbo-Croation, Macedonian, Bulgarian; **Proto-Russic**: Ukrainian, Russian, and White Russian.
See **language family**, **Indo-European languages**, **Proto-Slavic**

slot – miejsce, pozycja

A term in grammatical analysis referring to a place in a **construction** into which a class of items can be inserted. For instance, in the sentence *The children — home,* the **slot** marked by the dash can be "filled" by *came*, *are*, *went*, etc., that is, a subclass of verbs.
See **construction**

Slovak – słowacki język
See **Slavic languages**, **Proto-Slavic**

Slovene – słoweński język
See **Slavic languages**, **Proto-Slavic**

social context – kontekst społeczny

The environment in which meanings are exchanged. According to the linguist M.A.K. Halliday (1925–2018), the **social context** of language can be analyzed in terms of three factors:
a. The **field of discourse** refers to what is happening, including what is being talked about.
b. The **tenor of discourse** refers to the participants who are taking part in the exchange of meaning, who they are and what kind of relationship they have to one another see **role relationship**).
c. The **mode of discourse** refers to what part of the language is playing in this particular situation, for example, in what way the language is organised to convey the meaning, and what channel is used – written or spoken or a combination of the two (JCRandRSch).

social dialect, **sociolect** – dialekt społeczny, socjolekt

A distinctive variety of a language used by the members of a particular social group (e.g. women versus men, older versus younger speakers, members of different social classes).

social distance – dystans społeczny

The feeling a person has that his or her social position is relatively similar to or relatively different from the social position of someone else. The **social distance** between two different groups or communities influences communication between them, and may affect the way one group learns the language of another (e.g. an immigrant group learning the language of the dominant group in a country). Social distance may depend on such factors as differences in the size, ethnic origin, political status, social status of two groups, and has been studied in **second language acquisition** research (JCRandRSch).
See **second language acquisition**

sociolect – socjolekt
See **social dialect**

sociolinguistics n., **sociolinguistics** a. – socjolingwistyka, socjologia języka

A branch of linguistics which studies all aspects of the relationship between language and society. **Sociolinguists** study such matters as the linguistic

identity of social groups, social attitudes to language, standard and non-standard forms of language, the patterns and needs of national language use, social varieties and levels of language, the social basis of **multilingualism**, etc. The study of dialects is sometimes seen as a branch of sociolinguistics, and sometimes differentiated from it, under the heading of **dialectology**.
See **dialectology**, **multiligualism**

sonority, **voicedness** – sonorność, dźwięczność

A term used in **auditory phonetics** for the overall loudness of a sound relative to others of the same **pitch**, **stress** and duration. For example, the distinction between **vowels** and **consonants** is not an arbitrary physiological distinction. It is in reality a distinction based on acoustic considerations, namely, on the relative **sonority** (or carrying power) of the various sounds. Some sounds are more **sonorous** than others, that is to say, they can be heard at a greater distance when pronounced with the same length, stress, and voice pitch. For example, the sound *a*, pronounced in the normal manner, can be heard at a much greater distance than the sound *p* or the sound *f*, pronounced in the normal manner (DC).
See **auditory phonetics**, **vowel**, **consonant**, **pitch**, **stress**

sound law (Ger. *Lautgesetz*) – prawo głosowe

A traditional term for a **phonological change** which is perceived as being totally regular and exceptionless, as required by the **Neogrammarian Hypothesis**.
See **phonological change**, **Neogrammarian Hypothesis**

sound symbolism – symbolika dźwięków

A term used to refer to a range of phenomena in which there is a non-**arbitrary** relationship between the sound of a word and its meaning, including **interjections**, **onomatopoeia**, and **ideophones** (JCRandRSch). See also Lyons (1968: 5).
See **arbitrary**, **interjection**, **onomatopoeia**, **ideophones**

sound waves – fale dźwiękowe

Wave-like movements of air which transmit sounds. In **speech**, **sound waves** are caused by the vibration of **vocal cords**.
See **speech**, **vocal cords**

source language – język źródłowy

In language **borrowing**, a language from which words have been taken into another language. For example, French was the **source language** for a great number of words which entered English in various periods of its history

(especially after the Norman Conquest 1066); for example, *just, prince, saint, noble*, etc. And some examples of French words which entered English at a later stage: *garage, restaurant*, etc.
See **donor language**, **borrowing (1)**

source domain – domena źródłowa

In **Cognitive Grammar**, the term refers to the **domain** which provides structure by virtue of **metaphor**. This is achieved by cross-domain mappings projecting structure from the **source domain** to the **target domain**, thus establishing a conventional link at the conceptual level. For example, in the metaphor LOVE IS JOURNEY, as evidenced by examples such as *This relationship is going nowhere*, *Our relationship is stuck in the mud*, JOURNEY is the source domain, and LOVE is the **target domain** (Krzeszowski 1997: 151 ff.). See also Evans (2007).
See **Cognitive Grammar**, **domain**, **metaphor**

source text – tekst źródłowy (wyjściowy)

A text that is to be translated into another language.
See **translation**

Spanish – hiszpański język
See **Romance languages**, **Proto-Romance**

special languages – języki specjalistyczne

A term used for the varieties of language used by specialists in writing about their subject matter, such as the language used in law, nuclear physics, or linguistics. The study of **special languages** includes the study of terminology (i.e. the special lexemes used in particular disciplines) and **register** (i.e. the distinctive linguistic features which occur in special languages).

specialised discourse – dyskurs specjalistyczny

Specialised discourse is a kind of language communication which consists in the transfer, adoption and understanding of specialist texts. It is understood as the "verbal and nonverbal realisation of the communicative system" (Widdowson 1979: 43) of a given field of interest. And in this connection, we can speak of literary discourse, political discourse, scientific discourse, or technology, and technological discourse, etc. The interlocutors in specialist discourse are specialists belonging to various professional and social groups, and communicating in order to transfer specialist knowledge through specialist texts.
See **discourse**

spectrogram – spectrogram
See **spectrograph**

spectrograph – spektrograf

An instrument for the acoustic analysis of speech showing the distribution of energy over the sound spectrum (i.e. at different frequencies). A **spectrogram** is a visual representation of the analysis produced by a **spectrograph**.

speech – mowa, mówienie

The term **speech** refers to the actual use of a speaker's linguistic knowledge, or the act of speaking. F. de Saussure (1857–1913), the founder of **Structuralism**, introduced the distinction between **langue**, i.e. the language system shared by a community of speakers, and **parole**, i.e. the concrete act of speaking in actual situations by an individual (cf. the term **performance**, as used by **generative** grammarians). So the term "speech" corresponds, *mutatis mutandis*, to Saussure's parole, while the term **language** corresponds to Saussure's notion of **langue** (and the notion of **linguistic competence**, as used in generative grammars). Langue and parole are the two aspects of what Saussure calls **langage** (human speech as a whole).
See **structuralism**, **Generative Grammar**, **performance**, **competence**

speech act – akt mowy

A term derived from the work of the philosopher J.L. Austin (1911–1960), now used widely in linguistics to refer to a theory (**Speech Act Theory**) which analyses the role of **utterances** in relation to the behaviour of speaker and hearer in interpersonal linguistic communication. Thus, a **speech act** is an utterance as a functional unit in communication. In Speech Act Theory, utterances have two kinds of meaning: (a) **propositional** meaning (also known as **locutionary** meaning). This is the basic literal meaning of the utterance which is conveyed by the particular words and structures which the utterance contains; (b) **illocutionary** meaning (also known as **illocutionary** act). This is the effect the utterance has on the listener. For example, in *I'm thirsty* the propositional meaning is what the utterance says about the speaker's physical state. The illocutionary force is the effect the speaker wants the utterance to have on the listener. It may be intended as a request for something to drink. A Speech Act is an utterance which has both propositional meaning and illocutionary force (Austin 1962).
See **proposition**, **Speech Act Theory**, **utterance**

Speech Act Theory – teoria aktów mowy

A term derived from the work of the philosopher J.L. Austin (1911–1960) and now used widely in linguistics to refer to a theory which analyses the role of

utterances in relation to the behaviour of speaker and hearer in interpersonal communication. J.L. Austin was the first to undertake a systematic study of the use of sentences. In his *How to Do Things with Words* (1962) the philosopher distinguishes two basic types of utterances: **constatives** and **performatives**. The function of constative utterances is to describe a given state of affairs; they can be either true or false. Performative utterances do not describe anything: the uttering of a sentence is the doing of an action (e.g. naming a ship, announcing a marriage, etc.). Performatives are neither true nor false, they can only be characterised by various conditions pertaining to the appropriateness of use (so-called **felicity** (**happiness**) **conditions**). Thus, a performative utterance can be **felicitous/happy** or **infelicitous/unhappy**. For example, for naming a ship (*I name the ship Queen Elizabeth*), it is essential that I should be the person officially appointed to name it, or, say, for Christian marrying (*I pronounce you man and wife*) it is essential that I should not be already married with a living wife, sane, and undivorced. Austin says that when we say something we perform an act, and we can perform the act in a variety of ways. The philosopher makes a distinction between three different types of act involved in the utterance of a sentence: **locutionary act** (i.e. the saying of something which is meaningful and can be understood; e.g. saying the sentence *Shoot the snake* is a locutionary act if the hearer understands the words and can identify the particular snake referred to); **illocutionary act** (i.e. uttering a sentence to perform a function; e.g. *Shoot the snake* may be intended as an order or a piece of advice – thus, illocutionary acts are not merely sentences uttered by the speaker with some sense and references; they are used by the speaker with a certain intention to express some definite function (or force, referred to as **illocutionary force**)); **perlocutionary act** (i.e. an act performed by making an utterance which intrinsically involves an effect on the behaviour, beliefs, feelings, etc. of the hearer; examples of such acts will include frightening, insulting, persuading, etc.). A single utterance may involve all the three kinds of act. Austin makes a distinction between illocutionary force and meaning. However, some linguists (e.g. Cohen 1971) prefer to speak about two types of meaning: meaning and **performative meaning**, rather than about meaning and illocutionary force. Austin (1971) soon comes to realise that the distinction between constatives (i.e. statements) and performatives is untenable. Saying (or asserting) that something is so is itself a kind of doing. Constative utterances, or statements, are therefore just one kind of performatives. Austin draws a distinction within performative utterances between what he called **primary** (**implicit**) **performatives** and **explicit performatives**. For example, the act of promising in English can be performed in either of two ways: (a) *I'll be there at two o'clock* or (b) *I promise to be there at two o'clock*. (a) is a primary (implicit) performative, while (b), containing the **performative verb** *promise*, is an explicit performative. Or consider the primary (implicit) statement *The cat is on the mat* and the explicitly performative statement *I tell you that the cat is on the mat,* containing the performative

verb *tell*. Explicit performatives are thus utterances whose main clauses are expressions such as *I warn*, *I tell*, *I promise*, *I order*, etc. Another philosopher, J. Searle (1971), who continued Austin's work, established a five-part classification of speech acts: **directives** (i.e. utterances whereby the speaker tries to get his/her listener to do something, e.g. commanding, requesting, begging, etc.); **commisives** (i.e. utterances whereby the speaker commits him/herself to a future course of action, e.g. promising, guaranteeing, etc.); **expressives** (utterances whereby the speaker expresses his/her feelings, e.g. apologising, sympathising, welcoming, etc.); **declaratives** (this class comprises speech acts the performance of which causes that a certain state of affairs comes into existence by virtue of someone's declaring it; the speaker's utterance brings about a new external situation, e.g. christening, marrying, etc.); **representatives** (these convey the speaker's belief about the truth of a proposition, e.g. asserting, hypothesising, claiming, etc.). See also Searle (1969), Tsohatzidis (1994).

speech community – społeczność językowa

A group of people who form a community, e.g. a village, a region, a nation, and who have at least one speech variety in common.

speech pathologist – patolog mowy
See **speech pathology**

speech pathology – patologia mowy

The study of abnormalities in the development and use of language in children and adults (such as stuttering, **aphasia**). **Speech pathology** includes the diagnosis of such disorders and development of techniques to treat them. **Speech therapists** are sometimes called **speech pathologists**.

speech perception – percepcja mowy

In **phonetics** and **psycholinguistics**, a term for the process whereby a listener extracts a sequence of discrete phonetic and linguistic units from the continuous acoustic signal of speech. The term also applies to the study of the neuropsychological mechanisms governing this ability (DC).
See **phonetics**, **psycholinguistics**

speech synthesis – synteza mowy

The automatic synthesis of speech-like sounds by a computer using **speech synthesizer** or **voice synthesizer**, such as when a computer takes printed text and produces a spoken version of it. Many of the recorded messages heard on the telephone are not natural language but are reproduced by **speech synthesis** (JCRandRSch).
See **speech synthesizer**

speech synthesizer – syntetyzator mowy
See **speech synthesis**

speech therapist – logopeda
See **speech pathology**

spelling pronunciation – wymowa zgodna z pisownią

A way of pronouncing a word which is based on its spelling and which may differ from the way the word is generally pronounced. For example, many English speakers have introduced a /t/ into *often* under the influence of the spelling (but not into *soften, fasten*). To take another example, all Britons now pronounce *herb* with an /h/ under the influence of the spelling (RLT).

spirant, **fricative consonant** – spółgłoska frykatywna (trąca), spirant

A speech sound produced by narrowing the distance between two **articulators** so that the airstream is not completely closed but obstructed enough that a turbulent airflow is produced, as in the English /f/, /v/, /s/ and /z/ sounds in *enough, valve, sister* and *zoo*.
See **articulator**, **consonant**

spirantisation – spirantyzacja

A type of **lenition** consisting in a change of a **plosive** to a **spirant** consonant as the result of lenition. Following are the Italian examples of **spirantisation:**

> Latin *habebat* > Italian *aveva*
> Latin *faba* > Italian *fava* (Trask 1996: 56–57).

See **lenition**, **plosive consonant**, **spirant consonant**

split infinitive – bezokolicznik rozszczepiony

For example, in *Wilberforce carried a motion **to** gradually **abolish** the slave trade in the world*, where *to* is separated from *abolish* by the adverb *gradually*.

spoken language – język mówiony
See **written language**

spoonerism – spuneryzm

A form of **metathesis** that consists of transposing the initial sounds of words so as to form some ludicrous combination, often the accidental result of mental tiredness or absentmindedness. It is so called from the Rev. W.A. Spooner (1844–1930), Warden of New College, Oxford. One of the best attributed to him is: *We all know what it is to have a half-warmed fish within us* (for 'half-formed wish'). Sometimes the term is applied to the accidental transposition

of whole words, as when the teashop waitress was asked for *a glass bun and a bath of milk*. This sort **spoonerism** can lend itself to deliberate word play, as when Oscar Wilde said, *Work is the curse of the drinking classes* (Brewer's). See **metathesis**

standard language (**variety**) – standardowa odmiana języka, język literacki, ogólnonarodowy

The variety of a language which has the highest status in a community, a nation, and which is usually based on the speech and writing of educated native speakers of the language. A **standard variety** is generally:
(a) used in the news media and in literature;
(b) described in dictionaries and grammars;
(c) taught in schools and taught to non-native speakers when they learn the language as a foreign language.

A standard variety may show some variation in pronunciation according to the part of the country where it is spoken, e.g. Standard British English in Scotland, Wales and Southern England. Standard English is sometimes used as a cover term for all national standard varieties of English. These national standard varieties have differences in spelling, vocabulary, grammar and particularly pronunciation, but there is a common core of the language, which makes it possible for educated speakers of the various national standard varieties of English to communicate with one another (JCRandRSch).

Standard Version (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar** – standardowa wersja gramatyki transformacyjno--generatywnej

The version of **Transformational-Generative Grammar** proposed in the mid-1960s, according to which every sentence has two identifiable levels of structure: **deep structure** (DS) and **surface structure** (SS). DSs are **phrase-markers** (P-Ms) (containing lexical items) that are generated by the rules of the **base-component**. They are converted into surface structures by the application of an ordered set of **transformational rules** (TRs), some of which apply cyclically. The DSs serve as input to the **semantic component** and the SSs as input to the **phonological component**. Both the semantic rules and the phonological rules are purely "interpretive": the function of the semantic rules is to interpret the output of the base-component by assigning to each sentence a **semantic representation** (or several semantic representations in the case of ambiguous sentences) and the function of the phonological rules is to assign to each sentence a **phonetic representation**. The semantic interpretation associated with a sentence by the grammar is not its meaning, but a formal representation of its meaning in terms of a set of symbols each of which denotes a universal atomic concept; and the phonetic interpretation of a sentence is not its pronunciation, but a formal representation of its pronun-

ciation in terms of a set of symbols each of which denotes some universal phonetic feature. Thus, the Standard Version consists of three components:

III. The SYNTACTIC COMPONENT consisting of:
    a) The BASE and
    b) The TRANSFORMATIONAL SUB-COMPONENT
III. The SEMANTIC COMPONENT
III. The PHONOLOGICAL COMPONENT

The BASE consists of Phrase-Structure rules and the Lexicon (containing a list of all words in a language together with a specification of their idiosyncratic syntactic, semantic, and morphological features, i.e. features which specify which morphological and syntactic processes apply to structures containing them), the Transformational Sub-component consisting of T-rules (optional and obligatory), and, as indicated above, the Semantic Component and the Phonological Component, which provide only semantic and phonological interpretations of the sentences generated by the rules of the Syntactic Component. The Semantic Component helps the grammarian to account for the fact that speakers are able not only to produce grammatical sentences but also to comprehend them. See N. Chomsky's *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965/1966).

standardization – standardyzacja

The process of creating a **standard language**, or an attempt by a community to impose one dialect as a standard.
See **standard language**

statement – oznajmienie, zdanie oznajmujące

A sentence which describes a state of affairs, action, feeling or belief, e.g. *It's very cold here in winter*, *I think she looks very pretty*. A statement occurs in the form of a **declarative sentence**. Thus, semantically, it is used primarily to convey information. The term is usually contrasted with three other major sentence functions: question, command, and exclamation.
See **declarative sentence**

statistical linguistics – lingwistyka statystyczna (kwantytatywna)

A branch of linguistics which studies the application of **statistical methods** in language theory and description.
See **statistical methods**

statistical methods – metody statystyczne

In linguistics, techniques employed for establishing general principles concerning the statistical regularities governing the way words, sounds, etc., are

used. Techniques used in the study are concerned with the frequency and **distribution** of linguistic units and with problems such as stylistic distinctiveness, authorship identity, etc. See also **statistical linguistics**. See also Lyons (1968: 81 ff.).
See **distribution**

statistical universals – uniwersalia statystyczne
See **language universals**

stem – temat fleksyjny, pień, osnowa

In **morphology**, that part of the word-form which remains when all the inflectional **affixes** have been removed. For example, *cooker* is the **stem** of *cookers*, with *cook* as its **root**. A stem is of concern only when we deal with inflectional morphology. It may be complex, either in that it contains derivational affixes as, e.g., does *government*, or in that it contains more than one root, as in *redskin*.
See **morphology**, **root**, **stem**, **affix**

stop (**plosive**) **consonant** – spółgłoska zwarto-wybuchowa (eksplozywna)

A consonantal sound made by completely blocking the airstream; e.g. all the following words begin with **stop consonants**: *pole*, *toll*, *coal*, *dole*, *bowl*.
See **consonant**

strategic competence – kompetencja strategiczna
See **communicative competence**

stratificational theory – teoria stratyfikacyjna

An approach to linguistic structure propounded by S.M. Lamb (1966). Lamb posits four levels (or *strata*) within linguistic structure for the analysis of sentences: **sememic** level (*warstwa sememiczna*), **lexemic** level (*warstwa leksemiczna*), **morphemic** level (*warstwa morfemiczna*), and **phonemic** level (*warstwa fonemiczna*). The strata (levels) are hierarchically related and linked together by the relation of representation or realisation, in that the lexemic level represents the sememic and is represented by the morphemic, which in turn is represented by the distinctive features of the lowest structural stratum (level), the phonemic. The nature of representation varies from simple, when one unit of a higher level is represented by one unit at the next lower level, to such complex representations as neutralisation (two or more units not structurally distinguished in representation), composite representation (one unit represented by more than one lower level unit, as in multiple allomorphic representation of a morpheme), zero representation, portmanteau representation, etc. According to Lamb, linguistic system consists of two parts: grammar, which comprises the first three strata, and phonology, which is one-stratum (level) part.

Streitberg's law – prawo Streitberga

A putative change in early **Proto-Indo-European** (PIE), put forward by W. Streitberg (1983, 1984) in multiple versions. A familiar version says this: if an unaccented syllable disappears a preceding accented syllable becomes long if previously short and circumflex (RLT). For critical discussion of Streitberg's proposal see N.E. Collinge. *The Laws of Indo-European* (Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 1985).
See **Proto-Indo-European**

stress (also **accent**) – akcent, przycisk

The pronunciation of a syllable or word with more respiratory energy or muscular force than other syllables or words in the same utterance. Different types of stress are distinguished (e.g. **word stress**, **sentence stress**, etc.)

stress shift – przesunięcie akcentu

In **historical linguistics**, any **phonological change** in which the position of a **word**-stress is moved from one syllable to another within a word. A **stress shift** may be highly systematic, affecting all words of a particular class, or it may be sporadic, affecting only the occasional word (RLT).
See **historical linguistics**, **phonological change**, **word stress**

strict subcategorisation rules – reguły ścisłej subkategoryzacji

In the **Standard Version of Transformational-Generative Grammar**, these are rules which analyse a symbol in terms of its categorial context; e.g. the strict **subcategorisation rule** proposed by Chomsky in his *Aspects* (1966: 94) for verb subclassification looks as follows:

$$(4) \ V \rightarrow CS \ / \ - \begin{cases} NP \\ \# \\ Adjective \\ Predicate\text{-}Nominal \\ like \ Predicate\text{-} \ Nominal \\ Prepositional\text{-}Phrase \\ that \ S \\ NP \ (of \ Det \ N) \ S \end{cases}$$
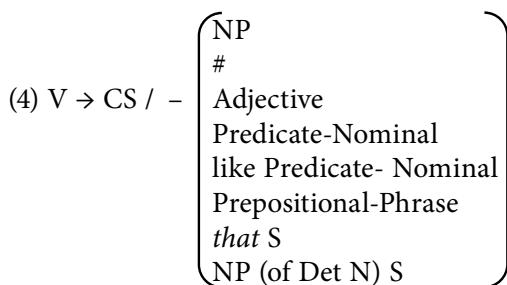
where CS stands for "complex symbol." The rules supplemented by the lexicon will permit such sentences as *John eats food*, *A week elapsed, John grew sad*, etc.
See **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**

string – ciąg, rządek

A term used in **Generative Grammar** to refer to a linear sequence of elements of determinate length and constitution. For example, the following sentence *The cat sat on the mat* can be analyzed as a **string** of elements: *the + cat + sit + Past + on + the + mat.* Within this, several **substrings** could be recognized: *the + cat, the + cat + sit + past,* etc.
See **Generative Grammar**

strong equivalence – ekwiwalencja mocna
See **equivalence**, **strongly equivalent grammars**

strong verb – czasownik mocny

In the **Germanic** languages, a verb which inflects by changing the vowel of the **stem**, like English *sing, sang, sung,* or *drive, drove, driven.* Cf. also **weak verb**.
See **ablaut**, **Germanic languages**, **stem**

strongly equivalent grammars – gramatyki mocno-równoważne (ekwiwalentne)
See **equivalence**, **Generative Grammar**

structural ambiguity – wieloznaczność strukturalna, strukturalna polisemia
See **Phrase Structure Grammar**

structural description – opis strukturalny, deskrypcja strukturalna
See **Phrase Structure Grammar**

structural dialectology – dialektologia strukturalna

An approach to **dialectology**, most commonly to phonological variation, in which a single abstract underlying system (an "overall pattern") is set up for a number of related dialects, and then the facts of each dialect are interpreted as identifiable variations on the overall pattern. The approach was pioneered by Uriel Weinreich in the 1950s (RLT).
See **dialectology**

structural(ist) linguistics – lingwistyka strukturalna, językoznawstwo strukturalne

In the broadest sense, the term has been used for various groups of linguists, including those of the **Prague School**, but most often it is used to refer to the group of American linguists, such as L. Bloomfield and Ch. Fries, who published mainly in the 1930s to 1950s. The work of these linguists was based on the theory of **behaviourism** and had a considerable influence on language

teaching methods, e.g. the **audiolingual method**. See also **Bloomfieldian Linguistics**.
See **Prague School**, **behaviouristic psychology**, **audiolingual method**

structural metaphor – metafora strukturalna

One of the types of **conventional conceptual metaphor** distinguished in Lakoff and Johnson (1980). In case of **structural metaphor** one concept is metaphorically structured in terms of another. For example, in *He attacked every weak point in my argument* the concept of war structures our behaviour during arguing (ARGUMENT IS WAR).
See **metaphor**, **conventional conceptual metaphor**

structural description (**SD**) – deskrypcja strukturalna, opis strukturalny

In **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, a term used to refer to an analysis of a **terminal string** in terms of a **labeled bracketing**. In transformational analysis, the SD identifies the input to a **transformational rule**; it specifies which **Phrase-Markers** are to be affected by the rule, i.e. which will meet/satisfy the conditions of the rule. The term **structure index** is also used.
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **terminal string**, **labeled bracketing**, **transformational rules**, **phrase-marker**

structural semantics – semantyka strukturalna

An approach to linguistic **semantics** that is based on the principles of **structuralism**. One of the most basic and most general principles of structural linguistics is that languages are integrated systems, the component subsystems (or levels) of which – grammatical, lexical and phonological – are interdependent. See also Lyons (2005: 103 ff.).
See **semantics**, **structural linguistics**

structure-dependency principle – warunek strukturalnej zależności

One of the constraints on the grammars of particular languages formulated by N. Chomsky in his *Language and Mind*. **Structure-Dependency Principle** implies that all grammatical rules operate on structures, not on individual words.

structure index – indeks, wskaźnik strukturalny
See **structural description**

Sturtevant's Hypothesis (**paradox**) – hipoteza (paradoks) Sturtevanta

The hypothesis states that sound change is regular but creates irregularity, whereas **analogy** is irregular but creates regularity. **Sturtevant's Hypothesis**

well encapsulates the interaction between sound change and analogy (McMahon 1966: 70, Trask 1996: 108).
See **analogy**, **Neogrammarians**

style n., **stylistic** a. – styl

(1) Variation in a person's speech or writing. **Style** usually varies from casual to formal according to the type of situation, the person or persons addressed, the location, the topic discussed, etc. A particular style, e.g., a formal style or a colloquial style is sometimes referred to as a **stylistic variety**.

(2) **Style** can also refer to a particular person's use of speech or writing at all times or to a way of speaking or writing at a particular point of time, e.g. Dickens's style, the style of Shakespeare, an 18th-century style of writing, etc. (JCRandRSch).

stylistic meaning – znaczenie stylistyczne

The type of meaning which a linguistic expression conveys about the social circumstances of its use. Thus, some expressions are recognized as being "dialectal," i.e. as telling us something about the social or geographical origin of the speaker. Other features inform us about the social relationship between the speaker and the addressee. There is also a scale of status of usage, ranging from "literary/formal" English to "familiar/colloquial" English, and eventually **slang**. For example, *little* (general, stylistically neutral), *tiny* (colloquial, informal), *wee* (colloquial and dialectal, used in the North of England and Scotland); *throw* (general and neutral), *chuck* (informal or even slang for some lexicographers), etc. The style dimension of status is especially important in distinguishing **synonymous** expressions. In the following examples the difference in social status finds reflection in the syntax and vocabulary of the sentences: (a) *They chucked a stone at the cop, then did a bunk with the loot* (*do a bunk* 'dać dyla/drapaka/zwiać', *loot* 'łup', *cop* 'glina, gliniarz'), (b) (a stylistically formal version of (a) *After casting a stone at the police, they absconded with the money*. Note the syntactically complex nature of (b), as contrasted with (a) and the "formal" or stylistically neutral, words *cast, police, money, abscond*. Thus, (a) and (b) are **cognitively**, but not stylistically, synonymous sentences. The branch of linguistics that studies stylistic variation is called **stylistics.** This discipline is concerned with the linguistic choices that are available to the speaker/writer and the reasons why particular forms and expressions are used rather than others (Leech 1976: 16–18).
See **cognitive meaning**, **synonym**, **slang**

stylistic variation – zróżnicowanie stylistyczne

Differences in the speech or writing of a person or group of people according to the situation, the topic, the addressee(s), and the location. **Stylistic varia-**

tion can be observed in the use of different speech sounds, different words or expressions, or different sentence structures. The stylistic variation of an individual or group can be measured by analyzing recorded speech and making comparisons (JCRandRSch).
See **stylistics**, **style**

stylistic variety – odmiana stylistyczna
See **style**, **stylistics**

stylistics – stylistyka

A branch of linguistics which studies the features of situationally distinctive uses of language, and tries to establish principles capable of accounting for the particular choices made by individual and social groups in their use of language. **General stylistics** deals with the whole range of non-dialectal varieties encountered within a language; **literary stylistics** deals with the variations characteristic of literature as a genre and of the "style" of individual authors. Style usually varies from casual to formal according to the type of situation, the person or persons addressed, the location, the topic discussed, etc. A particular style, e.g. a formal style or a colloquial style is sometimes referred to as a **stylistic variety** (DC).

subcategorisation n., **subcategorise** v. – subkategoryzacja

In **Transformational-Generative Grammars** (**TGGs**) (e.g. in the *Aspects* **Theory**), the term refers to the further subclassification of a syntactic category. For example, in the *Aspects* **Model of TGG** the function of **strict subcategorisation features** is to specify a class of restrictions operating on the choice of verbs. Verbs are **subcategorised** according to what other elements must appear with them in the Verb phrase (VP). In other words, they are subcategorised in terms of what **complements** they must take: e.g. the verb *kick*, which is a transitive verb, must be followed by a direct object noun phrase (NP), as in *He kicked the ball*. This establishes transitive verbs as a **subcategory** of the category of verbs.
See **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **complement**, **strict subcategorisation features**, **syntactic category**

subcategory – podkategoria, subkategoria

A subset of the members of some **category** which share one or more grammatical properties in common, but which differ in some way from other members of the category. For example, **count nouns** are a **subcategory** of the category **noun**, in that all (regular) count nouns are countable, but differ from other types of noun in that e.g. **mass nouns** are uncountable.
See **category**, **countable** (**count**) **noun**

subject – podmiot

A term used in the analysis of **grammatical functions** to refer to a major constituent of sentence or clause structure, traditionally associated with the "doer" of an action, as in *The monkey bit the cat*. The oldest approaches make a twofold distinction in sentence analysis between **subject** and **predicate** (here: *orzeczenie*), and this is still common, though not always in this terminology; other approaches distinguish subject from a series of other elements of sentence structure (e.g. object, complement, verb, adverbial). Linguistic analyses have emphasized the complexity involved in this notion, distinguishing, for example, the **grammatical subject** from the underlying or **logical subject** of a sentence, as in *The cat was chased by the dog*, where the noun phrase *the cat* is the grammatical and *the dog* is the logical subject. Not all subjects, moreover, can be analysed as the doers of an action, as in such sentences as *Dirt attracts flies*. In **Generative Grammar**, subject is sometimes defined as that NP (noun phrase) which is immediately (directly) dominated by S (sentence). And a predicate is a VP (verb phrase) immediately dominated by S (Burton-Roberts 1998: 37). While NP is the typical formal realization of subject, other categories can perform this function, e.g., a clause, as in the following sentence *That oil floats on water is obvious*, or a prepositional phrase, as in ***Between six and nine*** will suit me. The terminological distinction between a grammatical and logical subject was adopted by Noam Chomsky (1965). Chomsky further suggested that **Topic-Comment** is the basic grammatical relation of **surface structure** corresponding roughly to the fundamental subject-predicate relation of **deep structure**. Thus, following Chomsky, the topic of the sentence may be defined as the leftmost NP immediately dominated by S in the surface structure, and the comment of the sentence as the rest of the structure. However J. Lyons (1968: 343) points out that the topic cannot be simply identified with the surface structure "grammatical" subject. Thus, in terms of Chomsky's proposal the NP *this book* would be identified as the topic in both the active sentence *This book millions of people have read* and the passive sentence *This book has been read by millions of people*. Lyons argues that it is only in the passive sentence that it is a grammatical subject, and that the notion of topic cannot be restricted to nominal expressions (e.g. in the Russian sentence *Bežal Ivan* 'ran away Ivan'), the occurrence of the verb in initial position may be taken as an indication that it is the topic of discourse, although *Ivan* is presumably both the grammatical and logical subject.
See **Generative Grammar**, **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **topic**, **comment**, **deep** (**underlying**) **structure**, **surface structure**

subjunctive mood – tryb łączący

One of the three **moods** distinguished in grammars of English. In modern English the **subjunctive mood** survives in both present tense (= the **Present Subjunctive**) and past tense (= the **Past Subjunctive**) forms. The Present

Subjunctive is used more in American English than in British English, where it is little more than an archaism of legalistic style, as, e.g., in: *It is proposed that the Assembly **elect** a new Committee.* Subjunctive Mood here is shown by the absence of *-s* from the third person singular present tense verb, and by the use of *be* in place of the indicative *am/is/are.* The Present Subjunctive is the indicator of non-actual meaning. The Past Subjunctive expresses hypothetical meaning, and it survives as a distinct form from the **Indicative Mood** only in the use of *were* in the singular as well as in the plural: e.g. *If he **were** my friend, he would speak for my cause,* nowadays this form is frequently replaced by the past indicative form *was* (*If he was my friend,…*). As Quirk et al. (1972: 76) state, "The subjunctive is not an important category in contemporary English and is normally replaced by other constructions." They thus distinguish three types of subjunctive: (a) The **Mandative Subjunctive**, which in *that*-clauses has only one form, i.e. the **base** (V) (= **root/stem** form); there is no regular indicative concord between subject and **finite verb** in the third person singular present and the present and past tenses are indistinguishable. This subjunctive is productive to the extent that it can be used with any verb in subordinate *that*-clauses when the main clause contains an expression of recommendation, resolution, demand, surprise, etc. The use of the Mandative Subjunctive occurs chiefly in formal style (and especially in American English) where in less formal contexts stylistic devices are preferable, such as *to*-infinitive or *should* plus infinitive; e.g. *It is necessary that every member **inform** himself of these rules* (formal), *It is necessary that every member **should inform** himself of these rules* (less formal). The form *should* plus infinitive is modally marked by its having the auxiliary verb *should*, while the subjunctive form *inform* is modally marked in that it has no *-s* ending. (b) The **Formulaic Subjunctive** also consists of the base (V) but is only used in clauses in certain set expressions which have to be learnt as wholes. For example, *Come what may, we will go ahead*, *So be it then, Heaven forbid that…* (c) The **Were-Subjunctive**, which is hypothetical in meaning and is used in conditional and **concessive clauses** and in subordinate clauses after optative verbs (i.e. verbs expressing hope, desire and wish, e.g. verbs like *wish*). This subjunctive is restricted to one form, viz. *were*. It occurs in the first and third person singular past of the verb *be*, matching the indicative *was*. Which is more common in less formal style. Finally, concerning the various meanings commonly associated by grammarians with the subjunctive A. Szwedek (1972: 8) has the following to say: "[…] all the meanings, such as realisability, possibility, etc. as regard the subjunctive depend on the context which refers to reality and our experience. The verb form itself does not convey any of the meanings." The linguist then proposes to call the subjunctive the *non-assertive mood*, since, as he says, "in fact, the speaker does not assert anything. Non-assertion here is to be understood as the negation of the OED definition of *assertion* ('a positive statement, a declaration, an averment'). Cf. also **indicative mood**, **imperative mood**.
See **finite verb**, **concessive clause**, **mood**

subordinate clause – zdanie podrzędne

A **clause** which must be used with another clause to form a complete grammatical construction. For example, in *He said that he wouldn't come, that he wouldn't come* is a **subordinate** (or **dependent**) **clause**, and *he said* is an **independent** (or **main** or **superordinate**) **clause**. An independent clause does not depend on another clause, although it can be linked to another independent clause, as e.g. in *I will go to the cinema and you will go to the theatre.*
See **clause**

subordinating conjunctions – spójniki podrzędne (hipotaktyczne)
See **hypotaxis**

substance – substancja

A term referring to the undifferentiated raw material out of which language is constructed – the sound waves of speech (phonic substance), the marks of writing (graphic substance). **Substance** is opposed to **form**, i.e. the abstract pattern of relationships imposed on this substance by a language. In the Saussurean theory, meaning is too conceived as having substance, viz., the conceptual store of thoughts, feelings, etc., which exist independently of language. However, in modern linguistics the term tends to be restricted to the phonetic and graphetic media (as in Hallidayan theory, where "substance" is recognized as a separate level) (DC).

substantive n., **substantivize** v. – rzeczownik

In some grammars (e.g. in R.W. Zandvoort's *A Handbook of English Grammar* 1960) a term sometimes used for a noun or any word which can function as a noun, such as a pronoun, adjective (e.g. in *the old, the rich, the poor*), a **gerund** (or **gerundive**) (e.g. **Swimming** *is good for you*), etc. These items, functioning as nouns, lack some of the characteristics of that class. However, there is a number of adjectives in English which have been wholly **substantivized**; they have acquired all the characteristics of nouns: e.g. *a native, a relative, a savage, a criminal, a black, a European, a conservative*, etc. Consider the examples: *In the distance we saw **a native's** hut, The coconut palm is **a native** of Malaysia, They used force to banish **the natives** from the more fertile land, He lived many years among **savages**.* Names of colours also belong to wholly substativized adjectives: e.g. ***Blue** suits you best. The sky was **a** pale **blue.** The trees in the garden were turning **yellows** and **browns**.*
See **gerund**

substantive universals – uniwersalia materialne (substancjalne)
See **language universals**

substitution n., **substitute** v. – substytucja, podstawienie

In **transformational** grammar, one of the four basic operations performed by **transformational rules** (the other ones being **deletion**, **permutation**, and **adjunction**), replacing one element (or **constituent**) by another at a particular place in a structure. For example, **substitution** can be observed in *The boy who played best was awarded a first prize*, the phrase *the boy* of the underlying sentence *The boy* [*the boy played best*] *was awarded the first prize* has been replaced by the relative pronoun *who*, due to the referential identity of the two occurrences of the same phrase (viz. *the boy*). See also **deletion**, **adjunction**, and **permutation**.
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **transformational rules**, **constituent**

substitution (**rewrite**) **rules** – reguły substytucji (przepisywania)
See **phrase-structure rules**

substrate theory – teoria substratu językowego

In **historical linguistics** the theory which regards the linguistic **substratum** as the cause of grammatical or phonological changes in the replacing of superimposed language, i.e., **superstratum**. According to the adherents of this theory, as the speakers of socially, politically, economically or otherwise subordinate languages adopted the language of their conquerors or a language of colonization, or in general the language of a culturally or economically more advanced nation, difficulties in pronunciation caused words, even grammatical forms and constructions, to be affected by under-surface speech habits. Substratum influence explains, among others, the disappearance of closed *a* in literary Polish. In the past, in the eastern territories of the former Polish state, White Russian and Ukrainian constituted the linguistic substratum, while the superstratum was Polish. The Russic languages had no closed *a* and consequently in becoming polonised, the Russian nobility introduced open *a* in place of closed *a* into their Polish. Because of the political predominance of these eastern territories, this pronunciation was extended in the first half of the 18th century to the literary language of the whole of Poland (Milewski 1973). See also McMahon (1996: 220–222). See also **substrate explanation of change** in RLT.
See **substratum**, **superstratum**, **historical linguistics**

substratum, **substrate** – substrat językowy

In **sociolinguistics** and **historical linguistics**, the term is used to refer to a language displaced, as dominant tongue, by another language, e.g., by the language of a conquering military power, of a colonizing nation, etc.
See **historical linguistics**, **sociolinguistics**

substring – podrządek, subrządek
See **string**

sub-sense – sens podrzędny
See **micro-sense**

suffix – przyrostek, sufiks, formant przyrostkowy

In **morphology**, a bound morpheme that follows the **root**, e.g. *-less*, *-et*, *-ee*, etc.
See **morphology**, **morpheme**, **root**

suffixation – sufiksacja, derywacja przyrostkowa (sufiksalna)

The addition of a **suffix** to a **base** (e.g. *hopeless*, *fulfillment*, etc.).
See **suffix**, **base**

Sumerian – sumeryjski język

An ancient language of Mesopotamia (modern Iraq), recorded earlier than 3000 BC in a larger number of **cuneiform** inscriptions. It is believed that the Sumerians invented writing, and that **Sumerian** was the first language ever written down. After the conquest of Sumer by the speakers of **Akkadian**, Sumerian eventually disappeared as a spoken language, though it continued to be used as a written language for many more centuries (RLT).
See **cuineform**, **Akkadian**

superordinate word (**term**) – wyraz nadrzędny
See **hyponymy**

superstratum – superstrat językowy

The language of a culturally, economically, politically superior nation, or of a military conqueror, introduced into a foreign national or geographical territory and affecting and even supplanting the native language of the latter. Cf. **substratum**.

suppletion, **suppletivism** – supletywizm

Phenomenon whereby one **lexeme** is represented by two or more different **roots**, depending on the context; e.g. the verb GO is represented by *went* in the past tense and *go* elsewhere. Cf. also Polish *człowiek – ludzie*, *zły – gorszy*, etc.
See **lexeme**, **root**

suprasegmental features – cechy suprasegmentalne

A term used in **phonetics** and **phonology**, it refers to features like **stress**, **tone**, **length**, etc. which may combine with (be superimposed upon) segments. The

segments are normally consonants and vowels. The term is used particularly by American linguists (JCRandRSch).
See **phonetics**, **phonology**

suprasegmental (**non-segmental**) **phonology** – fonologia suprasegmentalna

In **phonology** and **phonetics**, while **segmental phonology** analyzes speech into discrete segments, such as **phonemes**, **suprasegmental phonology** analyzes those features which extend over more than one **segment**, such as **intonation contours**. The term "suprasegmental" is used particularly by American linguists (JCRandRSch).
See **phonology**, **phonetics**, **segmental phonology**, **intonation contour**, **segment**

suspension points – wielokropek

A series of dots, properly three, indicating the omission of a word, phrase, sentence, etc., as from something quoted.

Swedish – szwedzki język
See **Germanic languages**, **Proto-Germanic**

surface (**superficial**) **structure** – struktura powierzchniowa

According to one of the basic assumptions of **transformational** grammar, all sentences have a **deep** (or **underlying**) **structure** determining the meaning of a sentence and a **surface structure** relating to its actual phonetic shape (realization). In the **Standard/*Aspects* Model** of transformational grammar, surface structures are the effect of the application of transformational rules to deep structures generated by the rules of the base-component of the grammar.
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **deep** (**underlying**) **structure**, **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**

syllabary – sylabar
See **syllabic writing**

syllabic writing, **syllabary** – sylabar, sylabariusz

A writing system in which each symbol represents a syllable, e.g. the Japanese syllabic systems Katakana and Hiragana. Cf. JCRandRSch.

syllabification – sylabifikacja, sylabacja

Dividing a word up into **syllables**; e.g. *locomotive* can be divided up into four syllables: *lo-co-mo-tive*.
See **syllable**

syllable – sylaba

A unit in the phonological system of a language with a vowel as its nucleus. Phonetically, the term **syllable** has frequently been used to refer to a sequence of speech sounds having a maximum or peak of inherent sonority between two minima of sonority. Generally speaking, vowels are more sonorous than consonants, and continuant consonants than stop consonants. A single vowel can constitute a syllable, as in *ah* /a:/, and a syllable division can be established between two vowels as in *seeing* /si:iŋ/. A syllable can be divided into three parts: a) the beginning, called the **onset**, b) the central part, called the **nucleus** or **peak**, c) the end, called the **coda** or final. For example in the English one-syllable word *bite* [bayt], /b/ is the onset, /ay/ the peak, and /t/ the coda.
See **phonetics**, **phonology**

syllabus, **curriculum** – program nauczania

A description of the contents of a course of instruction and the order in which they are to be taught. **Language-teaching syllabuses** may be based on different criteria such as (a) grammatical items and vocabulary (*structural syllabus*), (b) the language needed for different types of situations (*situational method*), (c) the meanings and communicative functions which the learner needs to express in the **target language** (*notional syllabus*), (d) the skills underlying different language behaviour, or (e) the **text** types learners need to master. Cf. JCRandRSch.
See **target language**, **text**

symbol – symbol
See **sign**

symbolic function of language – funkcja symboliczna języka
See **functions of language**

synaesthesia (also **synaesthetic metaphor**) – synestezja

A subcategory of metaphor. **Synaesthesia** involves transfer of some features from one **domain** of sensual experience to another. For example, in *a warm colour* some feature associated with fire is transferred to colours. It is important to know that it is not the percept of touch that is transferred to sight, but some experience that accompanies the feeling of heat. Thus, synaesthesia is an associative process that cancels the literal interpretation. Other examples of synaesthesia will include *sweet music* (where gustatory sensation is transferred to the auditory domain), *black mood* (where colour is transferred to an emotional state), etc. For **cognitive** linguists, synaesthesia is an example of perceived similarity across different domains.
See **cognitive linguistics**, **metaphor**

synchronic – synchroniczny
See **synchrony**, **synchronic analysis**

synchronic analysis – analiza synchroniczna

By **synchronic analysis** is meant the investigation of a language as it is, or was, at a certain time; and the study of changes in the language between two given points in time is called **diachronic analysis**. What we have underlying the language behaviour of people living at different periods are distinct **language systems**; each of these systems can be studied, **synchronically**, independently of the other; and diachronic linguistics can investigate how an earlier system was transformed into a later system. When we talk of a language-community existing in a particular place at a point in time, we are not using the term "point in time" in a literal sense. As Lyons (1977: 243) puts it, "It would be absurd to think of language changing overnight, or even from one year to the next. The synchronic language system is a theoretical construct of the linguist; and it rests upon the more or less deliberate, and to some degree arbitrary, discounting of variations in the language behaviour of those who are held, pre-theoretically, to speak the same language." Cf. also **synchronic linguistics** and **synchrony**.
See **language system**

synchronic linguistics – językoznawstwo synchroniczne

Languages can be described either **synchronically**, i.e. by looking at them at a particular point in time, or **diachronically**, i.e. by taking into account their development from one point in time to a later one. **Synchronic linguistics** thus sees language as a living whole, existing as a state at a particular point in time (i.e. an *état de langue*, as de Saussure called it). In order to study it, the linguist must collect samples within the stated period, describing them regardless of any historical considerations which might have influenced the state of the language up to that time. The 19th century **Neogrammarian School of Linguistics** was exclusively concerned with the diachronic aspect of language study. For example, the German Neogrammarian linguist Herman Paul put it quite bluntly that what was not historical in language study was not scientific. It was not until Ferdinand de Saussure, the Swiss scholar, that a clear distinction had been made between these two points of view on linguistic studies. The Swiss scholar is responsible for introducing the term **diachronic linguistics** for historical investigations and **synchronic linguistics** for descriptive studies. De Saussure said: "Synchronic is everything that has to do with the static aspect, while diachronic is everything which is related to evolution. Thus **synchrony** and **diachrony** correspond to language state and its evolution, respectively" (*Course in General Linguistics*). It is now widely believed that a description of a language at a particular time (e.g. a descrip-

tion of present-day English syntax) need not take into account its historical development.
See **Neogrammarians**

synchrony n., **synchronic** a. – synchronia

The absence of a time element in language; the examination of a language at any given moment in time not necessarily the present; e.g. an analysis of **Old English** (cf., e.g., Reszkiewicz 1973), or of **Middle English** (cf., e.g., Fisiak 1968) without reference to earlier or later stages of the language. Compare **diachrony**.
See **Old English**, **Middle English**

syncope – synkopa

A **syntagmatic** change in which a (usually unstressed) vowel is lost between consonants in a **polysyllabic** word (The term "syntagmatic" here refers to relationships between elements in a linear sequence). This phenomenon is fairly frequent in fast and casual speech, as, e.g. in Polish, *uniwerstet* and *uniwersytet*. Cf. also **elision**, **apocope**.
See **polysyllabic word**

syncretism n., **syncretise** v. – synkretyzm

Phenomenon whereby, in systematic fashion, two grammatical words associated with the same lexeme, are represented by the same word. For example, regular verbs in English (i.e. those with -*ed* in the past tense) **syncretise** the past tense form (e.g. in *Mary organized the concert*) and the perfect participle (e.g. in *Mary has organized the concert*).
See **grammatical word**

synecdoche – synekdocha, ogarnienie

A term used in **semantics** and **stylistics** referring to a **figure of speech**. It consists in the use of a part to denote the whole, or of the whole to denote a part, as when we use *hand* to mean 'employee' or *Warsaw* to denote the Polish Government.
See **semantics**, **stylistics**, **figure of speech**

synonymy n., **synonymous** a. – synonimia, równoznaczność, bliskoznaczność

In **semantics**, the term refers to a major type of **sense** relation between lexical items; lexical items which have the same meanings are **synonymous**. In his *Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics* (1968: 447–448) John Lyons speaks of two types of **synonymy**: a) total synonymy and b) complete synonymy. Expressions *x and y* are **totally synonymous** if they meet the following two criteria:

1. They are interchangeable in all contexts.
2. They have identical both cognitive and emotive meaning.

   X and *y* are **completely synonymous** if they meet only the second condition. For example, *liberty* and *freedom* are only cognitively synonymous and are thus completely equivalent. Total synonymy is extremely rare in natural language, if it is possible at all. To quote Ullmann (1957): "it is almost a truism that total synonymy is an extremely rare occurrence, a luxury that language can ill afford." There are some linguists (Grzegorek-Lipińska 1979) who propose to treat synonymy as a "relative concept." Under this approach to synonymy, two linguistic expressions are regarded as synonymous with reference to the solution of some linguistic problem X, and as non-synonymous with reference to the solution of some linguistic problem Y, under the condition that these two expressions are similar in meaning. For example, the modal items *can*, *may*, and *be allowed to*, under this approach, will be treated as synonymous as long as they denote "non-speaker-based permission," i.e. with somebody else than the speaker as the authority underlying the permission. On this interpretation then all the following sentences are synonymous: *John can leave tomorrow*, *John may leave tomorrow*, *John is allowed to leave tomorrow*. But when permission is granted by the speaker, only *can* and *may* can be used as its exponents.
See **semantics**, **sense**, **cognitive meaning**

syntactic categories – kategorie syntaktyczne
See **grammatical category**

syntactic change – zmiana syntaktyczna

In **historical linguistics**, change in the syntactic patterns of a language. Among the principal known pathways for such change we can mention, among others: **reanalysis**, **extension**, and **grammaticalization**.
See **historical linguistics**

syntactic component – komponent (składnik) syntaktyczny
See **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**

syntagm(a) n., **syntagmatic** a. – syntagma, grupa składniowa

A structurally significant combination of two or more units in a language. For example, a **syntagm** may consist of: a) two or more morphemes constituting a word (e.g. *re- + -write = rewrite*), or b) combinations of words forming phrases (e.g. *a + big + man = a big man*, which is a noun phrase) (JCRand RSch). See also **syntagmatic relationship**.
See **morpheme**, **word**

syntagmatic relationship – relacja syntagmatyczna

If a linguistic sign is in contrast with other signs which come before and after it in an utterance, it has with the preceding and following signs a **syntagmatic relationship**. This is a relationship *in praesentia*, i.e., between elements which are all present in the utterance. For example, in *domek* the relationship between *dom* and *-ek* is syntagmatic. Cf. also the utterances: *piękny domek* and *Janek idzie spać*, where the relationship between *piękny* and *domek* is syntagmatic like that between *Janek*, *idzie*, and *spać*. Cf. **paradigmatic relationship**.

syntax – składnia, syntaktyka

A major component of the grammar of a language (together with lexicon, phonology, and semantics), **syntax** concerns the ways in which words combine to form sentences and the rules which govern the formation of sentences, making some sentences possible and others not possible within a particular language. The interface between syntax and **morphology** (e.g. the rules for modifying words to reflect their grammatical roles in sentences) is called **morphosyntax**. One of the major goals of linguistics is to identify the syntactic rules of a language and to provide descriptions that group together those words in a sentence which hang closely together both formally and syntactically. These groups are called **constituents**. The study of syntax has been perhaps the most active branch of linguistics for the past half century and disputes concerning syntax and the ways in which it is to be represented have been the basis of many theoretical proposals and controversies (JCRandRSch).

synthetic languages – syntetyczne języki

Agglutinating and **inflecting languages** together are called **synthetic languages**.
See **agglutinating languages**, **inflecting languages**

synthetic proposition – sąd syntetyczny

A **proposition** is **synthetic** if its truth or falsity is a matter of contingent fact and cannot be determined by purely logical analysis. A synthetic proposition is thus an empirical proposition. In contrast with **analytic propositions**, synthetic propositions may be true or false, i.e. they are subject to verification. For example, *All men are nine feet tall* is a synthetic proposition (Lyons 1977: 164). Cf. also **analytic proposition**.
See **proposition**

system – system

In **linguistics**, in its most general sense, the term refers to a network of patterned relationships constituting the organization of language. Language

as a whole is then characterized as a **system**, and often as a hierarchically ordered arrangement of systems. Language is often viewed as a system of systems, i.e. as being constituted by the phonological, grammatical and semantic systems; and, e.g. the phonological system comprises the segmental and suprasegmental systems, etc.

systemic grammar – gramatyka systemowa

An approach to grammatical analysis, where the notion of **system** is made a central explanatory principle and in which language is viewed as a system of meaning-creating choices; the whole language being conceived as a "system of systems." **Systemic grammar** is concerned to establish a network of systems of relationships (where "systems" are finite sets of **paradigmatically** related items functioning in classes) which will account for all the semantically relevant choices in the language as a whole. See also M. A. K. Halliday's *System and Function in Language* (Oxford University Press, 1976).
See **system**, **paradigmatic relations**

ta-ta theory – teoria natywistyczna
See **ding-dong theory**

taboo – tabu

The avoidance of the use of certain words and their replacement by **euphemistic** expressions for superstitious, moral, social, etc. reasons. Often religious concepts, dangerous animals and acts or objects which are thought of as unpleasant or distasteful become **taboo**; their names cannot be used, and euphemisms are thus substituted. Thus, e.g., in the Malanesian language the names of the dead and of anything once connected with them are taboo, so as not to call up ghosts. To take another example, in the Proto-Slavic language, the word designating the threatening bear (related to the Latin word *ursus*) became completely taboo and was substituted by a **euphemism** meaning 'honey eater' (*miodojad*). Cf. in this connection Russian *medv'ed* (McMahon 1966: 181, Milewski 1973: 93).
See **euphemism**, **Proto-Slavic**

tag question – pytanie rozłączne

A question that follows a statement and seeks confirmation of the truth of that statement, e.g., *You are not leaving, **are you**?*

tagmeme – tagmem

In **tagmemics**, the basic unit of grammatical analysis. A **tagmeme** is a unit in which there is a relationship between a grammatical function, for instance, the function of subject, object or predicate, and a class of **fillers** (a 'filler' refers to a form which can be used at a given place). For example, in the sentence *The baby bit Mary* the subject tagmeme is filled by the noun phrase *the baby*, the predicate tagmeme is filled by the transitive verb *bite* in its past tense form (*bit*), and the object tagmeme is filled by the proper noun **Mary**.
See **tagmemics**, **predicate (3)**

tagmemics – tagmemika

A theory of language originated by the American linguist Kenneth Lee Pike (1912–2000). In **tagmemic** analysis there are three hierarchies or systems: grammatical, phonological and lexical. In each of these systems (or **modes**) there are a number of levels. For example, in the grammatical system (mode)

there are: the **morpheme** level, the **word** level, the **clause** level, the **sentence** level, and the **paragraph** level. On each level of the grammatical system there are **tagmemes** displaying relationships between grammatical functions and classes of linguistic items which can fill these functions (i.e. **fillers**).
See **tagmeme**

target domain – domena docelowa
See **source domain**

target language – język docelowy

(1) In language teaching, the language which a person is learning, in contrast to a **first language** or mother tongue.

(2) The language into which a translation is made. Cf. **source language**.
See **first language**, **mother tongue**

Tasmanian languages – języki tasmańskie

Extinct languages spoken before 1877 by the indigenous people of Tasmania, who are also extinct. No relationship between the **Tasmanian languages** and any other languages of the world has been discovered. Scholars originally divided the Tasmanian languages into two groups, a western group, spoken in western Tasmania and northern Tasmania, and eastern group, containing the three languages of eastern Tasmania. More recent studies suggest that there may have been eight or more languages (http:/www.Brittanica.Com./EB checked/topic/583948/Tasmanian-languages). T. Milewski (1973: 117) speaks of "five various related dialects constituting a distinct family, which had originally reached the southern extremes of Australia."

tautology n., **tautological** a. – tautologia

An apparently meaningless expression in which one word is defined as itself, e.g. *Boys will be boys*. If such **tautological** expressions are used in a conversation, clearly the speaker intends to communicate more than is said. It is argued that the tautological statement *Boys will be boys* is inferred to mean something like: 'That's the kind of unruly behaviour you would expect from boys'. Cf. also **pleonasm**.

taxonomic linguistics – językoznawstwo taksonomiczne

The approach based on the procedure of selecting linguistic units and studying their features in terms of sequence and **distribution**. From the **taxonomic** perspective, the essential features of a given linguistic element/unit (e.g. the phoneme, morpheme, etc.) and its membership in a given class can be determined on the basis of its formal features with which it occurs in actual utter-

ances. The taxonomic approach is in contrast with the **generative** approach of **Generative Grammar** (**Theory**).
See **distribution**, **Generative Grammar**

taxonomy n., **taxonomic** a. – taksonomia

In linguistics, the term refers to the classification of items into classes and sub-classes. **Taxonomic** approaches have been used in phonology, syntax, and semantics. For example, in taxonomic **phonology** the distinctive speech sounds of a language (phonemes) are classified as vowels and consonants, the consonants are classified as stops, fricatives, nasals, etc., the stops are classified as voiced or voiceless, and so on. The limitations of a taxonomic approach in linguistic analysis have, however, been emphasized by **generative linguists**, who have criticized the overreliance of "taxonomic" linguistics on procedure of segmentation and classification.
See **phonology**, **Generative Grammar** (**Theory**), **taxonomic linguistics**

teleological explanation of language change – teologiczne (celowościowe) wyjaśnianie zmian językowych

Any proposal to account for **language change** which maintains that changes are typically motivated by the internal requirements of the linguistic system – that is, in some sense the system itself is "striving" to attain some goal. Dismissed by most linguists, **teleological accounts** were to some extent favoured by the **Prague School**, who spoke of change as "therapeutic" – that is, as occurring to "repair" the damage caused by earlier changes. Such interpretations have also been defended for phonological change by Roman Jakobson (1931), who spoke of languages as attempting to maintain their "equilibrium" in the face of disturbances (RLT). See also McMahon (1996: 325 ff.).
See **language change**, **Prague School**

tenor (**of a metaphor**) – temat (metafory)

One of the two components of the **metaphor**, the other being the **vehicle**. The **tenor** is the target concept, while the vehicle is the source concept. For example:

*You're my **sunshine***

tenor   vehicle
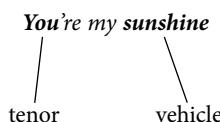
See **metaphor**

tense – czas

The grammatical (inflectional) category of the verb primarily expressing the time of the action denoted by the verb relative to the time of utterance (the time

of utterance being "now"). **Tense** is therefore a **deictic** category, which is simultaneously a property of the **sentence** and the **utterance**. In Indo-European languages the category of tense is restricted to verbs, but, e.g., in Japanese also adjectives show tense inflection; in the Sudanese language Mende, personal pronouns are inflected to show tense distinctions.
See **deixis**, **sentence**, **utterance**

term – termin

A word or phrase having a limiting and definite meaning in some science, art, etc. (Web's).
See **terminology**

terminal node – węzeł (wierzchołek) terminalny

In **Generative Grammar**, **nodes** which do not **dominate** other nodes, i.e. they are at the bottom of the **tree**, are **terminal nodes**.
See **Generative Grammar**, **dominance**, **node**, **tree diagram**

terminal symbols – symbole terminalne (końcowe)

In the terminology of **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **terminal symbols** are symbols which cannot appear on the left side of a **phrase-structure rule**. In generative grammars of natural languages terminal symbols are concrete words and morphemes. For example, in the following **phrase marker** the items *the*, *man*, *Past*, *open*, *the*, and *window* are terminal symbols:

```
                         Sentence
              NP                        VP
         T         N          Verb              NP
                           Aux    V          T        N
        the      man      Past   open       the    window
```
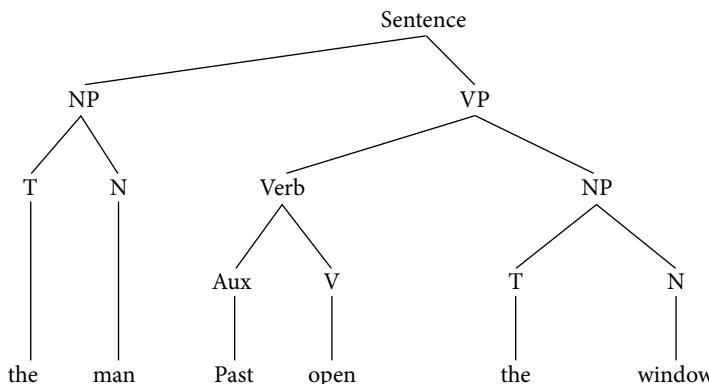
The symbols *NP*, *VP*, *Aux*, *T*, *Verb*, and *V* are **non-terminal symbols**.
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **phrase-structure rules**, **phrase-marker**

terminal string – rządek (ciąg) terminalny (końcowy)

In the *Aspects* version of **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, the output of the application of the Base rules of the syntactic component (PS-Rules +

Lexicon), consisting of exclusively **terminal symbols**. **Terminal strings** are derived from **preterminal strings**, which are generated by the Base rules of the syntactic component and consist of **non-terminal** (**auxiliary**) **symbols**.
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **terminal symbols**

terminology – terminologia, słownictwo fachowe

(1) The special lexical items which occur in a particular discipline or subject matter. For instance, *sentence, tense, mood*, etc. are part of the terminology of grammar.

(2) The development or selection of lexical items for concepts in a language. **Terminology** is often a part of **language planning**, since when languages are being adapted or being developed for different purposes, new **terms** are often needed for scientific or technical concepts.
See **language planning**, **term**

term of address – forma adresatywna (zwracania się do innych)
See **address form**

teutonic (**languages**) – teutońskie języki

An obsolete term for **Germanic languages**.
See **Germanic languages**

text – tekst

A segment of spoken or written language that has the following characteristics:
1. It is normally made up of several sentences that together create a structure or unit, such as a letter, a report, or an essay. However, one-word **texts** also occur, such, e.g. as *DANGER!* on a warning sign.
2. It has distinctive structural and **discourse** characteristics.
3. It has a particular communicative function or purpose.
4. It can often only be fully understood in relation to the context in which it occurs.
Whereas linguistic description traditionally focused on the structure and function of sentences and their constituents, texts are thought of as a more appropriate unit of analysis for many purposes since learning to understand and produce appropriate texts is an important goal in language learning and teaching. See also **text linguistics** (JCRandRSch).
See **discourse**

textlinguistics – lingwistyka tekstu

A branch of linguistics which studies spoken or written texts, for instance, a descriptive passage, a scene in a play, a conversation, etc. It is concerned, for instance, with the way the parts of a text are organised and related to one

another in order to form a meaningful whole. Some linguists prefer to include the study of all spoken texts, particularly if they are longer than one sentence, under **discourse** analysis. Text here has central theoretical status. Texts are seen as language units which have a definable communicative function, characterised by such principles as **cohesion**, **coherence**, and informativeness, which can be used to provide a formal definition of what constitutes their identifying **textuality**, or **texture.** On the basis of these principles, texts are classified into **text types**, or **genres**, such as, e.g., news reports, poems, conversations, etc. The approach overlaps considerably with that practiced under the label **discourse analysis**, and some linguists see very little difference between them (DC).
See **coherence**, **cohesion**, **discourse analysis**, **text**

text structure – struktura tekstu

The organizational pattern of ideas and information found in a **text**. Different types of texts (e.g. paragraphs, essays, letters, reports, etc.) are identified by the way information is sequenced and organized and this structure creates the text's **coherence** (JCRandRSch).
See **coherence**, **text**

theme – temat
See **word order**, **functional sentence perspective** (**FSP**)

thematic role, **theta-role**, **Ø-role** – rola tematyczna

In **Government-Binding Theory** and the **Minimalist Programme**, a term used for the role performed by each **argument** of a **predicate**, defined with reference to a restricted universal set of **thematic functions** (or **thematic relations**); also known as **theta-roles**. Thematic roles are usually interpreted in the same way as semantic cases in Fillmore's **Case Grammar**, such as agent, patient, locative, source, and goal.
See **Government-Binding Theory**, **Minimalist Programme**, **argument**, **predicate (1)**, **Case Grammar**

theoretical linguistics – językoznawstwo teoretyczne, lingwistyka teoretyczna

The study of the properties of the grammars of natural languages. Also called **general linguistics**.

theory – teoria

(1) A statement of general principle or set of propositions, based upon reasoned argument and supported by evidence, that is intended to explain a particular fact, event or phenomenon. One view of the difference be-

tween a **theory** and **hypothesis** is that a theory is more strongly supported by evidence than a hypothesis. As Crystal (1971: 87) puts it, "Hypotheses are made to be tested; that is their purpose. Another view is that the distinction is related to breadth of coverage, a theory being broader than a hypothesis. Despite many misconceptions, a theory is never divorced from reality: on the contrary, much of the point of theory-construction is in order to explain reality – or data. In the case of the linguist, the reality he wants to understand and explain is language. He wants to find out how language works. And only a theory can do this for him. The whole point of a theory is that it purports to be a general explanation: the explanation that the theory proposes will handle all the data which we first investigated, but it will handle other data besides, and indeed any other data that would be produced within the same frame of reference. So we talk of a theory 'transcending' the data which it originally took into account. In other words, a theory makes claims about the pattern, or system, which underlies the data and predicts that this system will equally well explain future samples of data. The extent to which its predictions turn out to be true is the measure of the theory's validity."

(2) The part of science that deals with general principles and methods as opposed to practice: a set of rules or principles of the study of a subject.

theory of grammar – teoria gramatyki

A theory which specifies the types of categories, relations, operations, and principles found in natural language grammars.

thesaurus – tezaurus

A reference book where words are arranged by topic. The best-known thematic wordbook is *Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases* compiled by Peter Mark Roget and first published in 1852. Roget's *Thesaurus* contains words arranged according to the ideas which they express. In the Introduction to his *Thesaurus* Roget writes: "The object aimed at in the present undertaking is […] the idea being given, to find the word, or words, by which that idea may be most fitly and aptly expressed" (Jackson 2002: 149). Roget's classification scheme embraces six broad "classes," initially subdivided into "sections," as in:

Class	*Section*
I ABSTRACT RELATIONS	I Existence
	II Relation
	III Quantity
	IV Order
	V Number
	VI Time
	VII Change

The sets of words and phrases are listed in the main body of the *Thesaurus*, on two-column pages, under word classes, with nouns first, followed by verbs, the adjectives and adverbs. No other information is given – no definitions, no pronunciation, or etymology. Roget's *Thesaurus* remains as an institution among reference works for the English language as a monument to the thematic tradition of wordbooks (Jackson 2002: 149–155).

thesis of embodied experience – teza o poznaniu ucieleśnionym
See **embodied cognition**

theta-criterion – kryterium theta

A principle of **Universal Grammar** which specifies that each argument bears one and only one **theta-role**, and theta-role is assigned to one and only one argument.
See **Universal Grammar**, **thematic role**

theta-theory, Ø-role – teoria relacji tematycznych, teoria theta
See **Government-Binding Theory**, **Minimalist Programme**

Tibeto-Burman (**Burmese**) – tybeto-burmańskie języki

A large group of languages in southeast Asia, forming one of the two main branches of the **Sino-Tibetan** group, the other branch being the **Chinese** (or **Sinitic**) group. Its two best-known members are **Tibetan** and **Burmese** (RLT).

Tocharian (**Tokharian**) – tocharski język

The term refers to a major branch of Indo-European, consisting of two languages, **Tocharian A** (East Tocharian, Angean) and **Tocharian B** (West Tocharian, Kuchean), both recorded in manuscripts dating from the second half

of the first millennium AD in what is now the Xinjiang-Uyghur province of China. Both of these languages died out in the 8th century, driven out of use by the Turkish dialect of the Uighurs (RLT).
See **Indo-European languages**

token – okaz (okurencja) wyrazu

In **lexical** study, an instance or individual occurrence of a **type**. For example, the sentence *Next week I go to Edinburgh and next month Alice arrives from Washington* contains two **tokens** of the word-form *next*. Equivalently, the word-form *next*, as a type, is instantiated twice in this sentence.
See **lexicology**, **type**

tone – ton

In **phonology**, relative pitch or movement of pitch, characteristic of certain languages (**tone languages**) which serves to distinguish words or grammatical categories.
See **pitch**, **tone language**

tone (**tonal**) **language** – język tonalny (toniczny)

A language (e.g. Mandarin Chinese or some Bantu languages) in which **pitch** variation is used to distinguish words that would otherwise sound alike. For example, the two Chinese words *hào* 'day' and *hǎo* 'good', differ from one another phonologically in that the first has what is conventionally referred to as "the fourth tone," (realised as a fall in the pitch of the syllable from high to low), and the second has "the third tone" (realised as a variation in the pitch of the syllable from medium to low and back to medium) (Robins 1967b: 111–112, Ornstein and Gage 1964: 37, 79).

tone unit – jednostka toniczna

According to the British Linguistic School (with M.A.K. Halliday as its typical exponent), the domain of intonation is a rhythmically and intonationally coherent stretch of speech known as the **tone unit**. The tone unit contains one or more stressed (in Halliday's 1970 terminology, "salient") syllables. Stressed syllables tend to occur at approximately regular intervals of time; the occurrence of stressed syllables thus determines the rhythm of English speech. Of the stressed syllables in a tone unit, one is especially prominent. This is the **tonic syllable**. The perceptual prominence of the tonic syllable is largely due to the fact that this syllable is the bearer of the **tone**, i.e. it is the centre of the intonation contour with which the tone unit is spoken. Halliday recognises five tones in Standard British English: **falling**, **high rising**, **low rising**, **falling rising**, and **rising falling**.
See **intonation**, **syllable**

tonic – toniczny

Of a vowel or syllable, bearing the word-stress. Cf. **atonic**.
See **word stress**

tonic syllable – sylaba toniczna
See **tone unit**

topic – temat, topik

A **topic** is a sentence constituent which receives special emphasis by virtue of being positioned at the beginning of a clause, and which may be moved to that position by an operation called **topicalization** (See **topicalization**). Topics represent given information.
See also **comment**, **functional sentence perspective** (**FSP**)

topicalization n., **topicalize** v. – topikalizacja

A process by which a constituent is made into the **topic** of a sentence by being moved into a more prominent position at the front of the sentence, e.g., *such behaviour* might be said to be **topicalized** in a sentence such as *Such behaviour we cannot tolerate in a civilised society.*
See **topic**

toponym, place name – toponim, nazwa geograficzna

In **onomastics**, the name of a feature of the landscape: the name of a town, a hill, a lake, or any other feature of the landscape, natural or man-made. The study of toponyms is **toponymy**.
See **onomastics**

toponymy, **toponomastics** – toponimia, toponomastyka
See **toponym**

trace – ślad
See **trace theory**

trace theory – teoria śladowa

A development in the **Transformational-Generative Grammar** initiated by Noam Chomsky in the 1970s. According to the **Trace Theory**, when a **category** is moved in a **derivation**, it leaves behind a coindexed **empty category** (**trace**) in its original position. The moved category and the trace it leaves behind are **coindexed**, i.e. assigned some unique subscript which they share, e.g. NP1 (the moved category) and NP1e (the empty category or trace). For example, in (a) below, since *who* has been moved from subject position in a lower clause, a trace (t1) is left behind in that position:

(a) who did you say [t1 left]

It is categories, not lexical items, that carry subscripts. See also Radford (1990: 553 ff.).

See **category**, **derivation** (2), **empty category**, **Transformational-Generative Grammar**

trade language – handlowy język

Another term for a **lingua franca**, or sometimes also for a **pidgin** used in trading.

See **lingua franca**, **pidgin**

traditional grammar – gramatyka tradycyjna

It originated in Greece of the 5th century BC and has since its beginnings been intimately connected with philosophy and literary criticism. At various times either the literary or the philosophical influence has been predominant, but they have both been present to some degree in all periods and together they have shaped the attitudes and presuppositions with which scholars for centuries mainly concerned with the preservation and interpretation of the texts of classical Greek writers. Scholars tended to concentrate upon the written language and to ignore the difference between speech and writing, the spoken language was only regarded as an imperfect copy of the written language. By contrast, most linguists today take it as axiomatic that speech is primary, and that the written language is secondary and derived from it. Every known language existed first as a spoken language, and thousands of languages have never, or only very recently been committed to writing. Traditional grammarians were concerned more or less exclusively with the standard, literary language; and they tended to disregard, or to condemn as "incorrect," more informal or colloquial usage both in speech and writing. They often failed to realise that the standard language is, from a historical point of view, merely that regional or social dialect which has acquired prestige and become the instrument of administration, education and literature (on the origin of Standard English the reader may be referred, among others, to Fisiak 1993: 81 ff.). Because of its more widespread use, by a greater number of people and a far wider range of activities, the standard language may have a richer vocabulary than any of the co-existent sub-standard dialects, but it is not intrinsically more correct. Traditional grammarians defined linguistic units in terms of notional categories (hence this type of grammar is often referred to as **notional grammar**). For example, the sentence was defined as 'the expression of a complete thought', the noun as 'the name of a person, place or thing', the verb as a 'doing word', etc. See also **normative/prescriptive grammar**.

transcription – transkrypcja

The use of symbols to represent sounds or sound sequences in written form. There are different systems of phonetic symbols. One of the most commonly used is the **International Phonetic Alphabet**. A distinction is commonly made between two general types of **transcription**:

1. A **narrow transcription** (or **phonetic transcription**) which is one that shows phonetic details (e.g. length, aspiration, etc.) by using a wide variety of symbols. A systematic phonetic transcription shows all the phonetic details that can be recorded.
2. A **broad transcription** (also called **impressionistic transcription**) is one that uses a simple set of symbols and does not show a great deal of phonetic detail. A **phonemic transcription** is a broad transcription that shows all and only those sounds that are distinctive **phonemes** in the language being transcribed (JCRandRSch).

See **phoneme**

transfer (or **language transfer**) – transfer

(1) In foreign-language learning, term referring to the effect of one language on the learning of another. Two types of **language transfer** may occur. **Positive transfer** is transfer which makes learning easier, and may occur when both the native language and the target language have the same form. For example, both Polish and English have the word *dentist*, which has the same meaning in both languages. **Negative transfer**, also known as **interference**, is the use of a native-language pattern or rule which leads to an **error** or inappropriate form in the target language (JCRandRSch).

See **error**, **interference**

(2) In historical linguistics, the acquisition by a language a linguistic feature which it formerly lacked as a result of contact with neighbouring language (RLT).

See **historical linguistics**

transformational – transformacyjny
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**

Transformational-Generative Grammar (**TGG**) – gramatyka transformacyjno-generatywa

This kind of grammar was first presented by Noam Chomsky in his *Syntactic Structures* (1957) as an illustration of a device that **generates** all of the grammatical and ungrammatical sentences of a language, a device that is more powerful than **finite-state grammars** or **phrase-structure grammars**. Whereas a phrase-structure grammar is one which consists solely of phrase-structure rules, a **transformational grammar** (as originally conceived by Noam Chom-

sky 1957) does not consist only of transformational rules. It includes a set of **phrase-structure rules** as well. The **transformational rules** depend upon the previous application of the phrase-structure rules and have the effect, not only of converting one string of elements into another, but, in principle, of changing the associated phrase-marker. John Lyons (1968: 248) says that "any grammar that claims to assign to each sentence that it generates both a **deep structure** and **surface structure** analysis and systematically relates these two analyses is a transformational grammar, whether it uses the label or not." See **deep** (**underlying**) **structure**, **generate**, **surface structure**, **Phrase-Structure Grammar**

transformational rules, **T-rules** – reguły transformacyjne (przekształcania)

In the *Aspects* model of TGG **transformational rules** constitute the transformational subcomponent of the syntactic component. These rules operate on deep structures (or base Phrase-Markers) and apply under strictly specifiable conditions. Each T-rule consists of two parts: **Structural Index** (**SI**), which specifies the conditions under which it applies, and **Structural Change** (**SC**), which specifies the operations that it carries out and the effects of these operations. By way of illustration, let us see how the **Passive T-rule** operates in English. In the *Aspects* (or **Standard**) **Model of TGG** active and their corresponding passive sentences are assumed to differ only formally, i.e. at the surface structure level, not semantically (i.e. at the level of deep structure). The SI part of the Passive T-rule tells us that the transformation applies only to structures that contain a transitive verb and in which the subject and the object NPs are not **co-referential** (they do not stand for the same extralinguistic individual). Thus the Passive would apply to the structure underlying the sentence *John hit the boy*, but not to that underlying *John hit John* (where both occurrences of *John* would refer to the same individual):

```
                          S
              _____
             NP                   Pred. Prase
             |                _____
             N           AUX                    VP
             |            |              _____
             |         T(ense)          V               NP
             |            |              |          _____
             |            |              |        DET         N
             |            |              |         |          |
           JOHN         PAST            HIT       THE        BOY
```
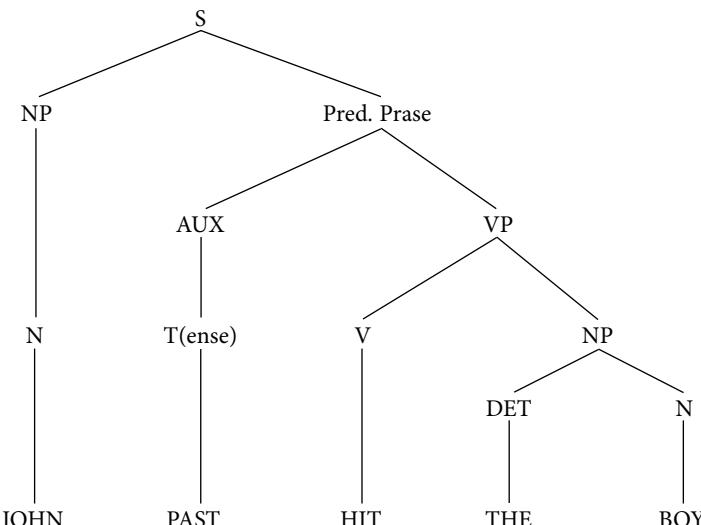
The Passive transformation involves two operations: rearrangement (it rearranges the subject NP (JOHN) and the object NP (THE BOY)) and introduces in the appropriate positions of the underlying structure grammatical elements such as BE, the past participle morpheme -EN and the preposition BY. Thus, after the application of the Passive rule, the new derived structure is as follows:

```
                              S
                 ┌────────────┴────────────┐
                NP                    Pred. Prase
                 │              ┌──────────┼──────────────┐
                 │             AUX         VP       Adverbial P.
                 │              │          │              │
                 │          T(ense)        V          PrepP.
                 │           ┌──┴──┐        │          ┌───┴───┐
                 │           │     │        │          P       NP
                 │           │     │        │          │       │
             THE BOY       PAST   EN       HIT         BY     JOHN
```
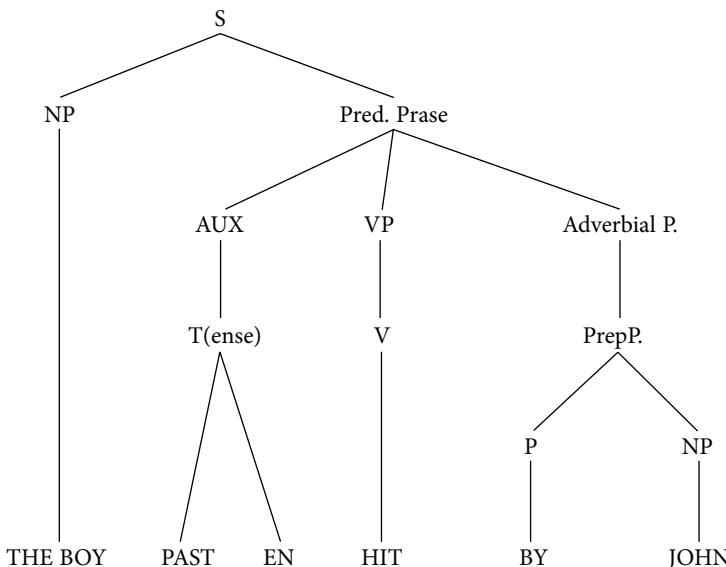
In the Standard Model of TGG transformations are strictly formal operations that have no impact on the meaning of sentences, they are thus **meaning-preserving** operations. The meaning of each sentence is derived mainly from its deep structure by means of the rules of semantic interpretation.
See **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**

transformationalist – transformacjonalista

A practitioner of **Transformational-Generative Grammar**

transitive verb – czasownik przechodni, transitivum (pl. transitiva)

A verb that is accompanied (generally or in a particular context) by a noun phrase fulfilling the syntactic function of object, denoting usually the goal or patient of the action of the verb. For example, in *John was sleeping (when I came in) sleeping* is intransitive, but in *John eats breakfast before going to work*, *eats* is **transitive** (more specifically, **monotransitive**).
See **monotransitive verb**

translation n., **translate** v., **translational** a. – przekład, tłumaczenie

The process of rendering written text that was produced in one language (the **source language**) into another (the **target language**), or the target language version that results from this process. Translation in which more emphasis is given to overall meaning than to exact wording is known as a **free translation**. A translation that approximates to a word-for-word representation of the original is known as a **literal translation**. A translation that has been produced by a computer is known as a **machine translation**. Translation should be distinguished from **interpretation**, the latter referring to spoken discourse and the unrehearsed transfer of a spoken message from one language to another (JCRandRSch).

translation equivalence – ekwiwalencja tłumaczeniowa

The degree to which linguistic units (words, syntactic structures) can be translated into another language without loss of meaning. Two items with the same meaning in two languages are said to be **translation equivalents**.

translation equivalents – ekwiwalenty tłumaczeniowe
See **translation equivalence**

translatology – translatologia

In **applied linguistics**, the study of translation, subsuming both interpretation of oral **discourse** and translation (in a narrow sense) of written discourse. The process of transferring an oral message from one language to another at the moment of utterance is variously known as **simultaneous interpretation** or **simultaneous translation** (DC).
See **applied linguistics**, **discourse**

transliteration – transliteracja

In the study of writing systems, the conversion of one writing system into another. Each character of the **source language** is given an equivalent character in the **target language**, as, e.g., in the representation of Russian names in English. **Transliteration** is commonly carried out for the names of people, places, institutions and inventions. Transliteration must be distinguished from **transcription**, in which the sounds of a source word are conveyed by letters in the target language (DC).
See **source language**, **target language**

tree diagram – drzewo derywacyjne

In **Generative Grammars**, an alternative, and equivalent means of representing the **labeled bracketing** assigned to strings of elements generated by **phrase-structure rules**:

```
                              S
                  _____
                 NP                       VP
              _____               _____
             T      N             V                 NP
                                              _____
                                             T          N

            the    man           hit       the        ball
```
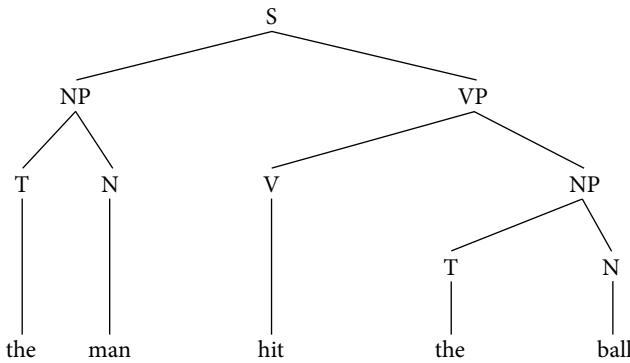
where NP = noun phrase, T = determiner, V = verb, N = noun. The **tree diagram** above represents the structure underlying the sentence *The man hit the ball*. **Labelled bracketing** is an alternative to a tree diagram as a way of representing the internal structure of linguistic expressions.
See **Generative Grammar**, **labelled bracketing**, **phrase-structure rules**

triphthong – tryftong, trójgłoska

In **phonetics**, a term referring to a combination of three vowels; e.g. in English *fire* /faiə/ or in *tower* /tauə/. Cf. **diphthong**, **monophthong**.
See **phonetics**

truncation – obcięcie

Truncation is a morphophonemic process which is assumed to delete material from a **base** before a particular affix is added. For example, *nominee* is usually assumed to be derived from the verb base *nominate*, but with the truncation of *-ate* before the addition of *-ee*.
See **base**, **morphophonemics**

truth-conditional semantics – semantyka prawdziwościowa

Semantics based on the assumption that the meaning of a sentence is equated with its **truth-conditions**, where truth-conditions are taken to be the conditions the world (or rather the **possible world**) must meet for the sentence to be true. For example, the meaning of the sentence *Jan jest aktorem* is defined as the state of affairs in all possible worlds in which the individual called 'Jan' is a professional actor (Lyons 1977: chap. 6).
See **possible world**

truth conditions – warunki prawdziwości

In logic and **semantics**, a term referring to the conditions under which a sentence is true. For example, the sentence *Snow is white* is true if and only if snow is white.

See **semantics**, **truth-conditional semantics**

truth-value – wartość logiczna

In logic, every declarative sentence has one and only one **truth-value**. A true sentence has the truth-value 'true' (t), while a false sentence has the truth-value 'false' (f). For example, the compound sentence *It's warm and it's windy* is true only when both *It's warm* and *It's windy* are true. If one of the sentences or both are false, the whole compound sentence is false. It can therefore be said that the truth-value of the compound sentence is a function of the truth-value of the simple sentences (Alwood et al. 1979: 27).

turn-taking – wymienianie się rolami

In conversation, the roles of speaker and listener change constantly. The person who speaks first becomes a listener as soon as the person addressed takes his/her turn in the conversation by beginning to speak. The rules for **turn-taking** may differ from one community to another as they do from one type of speech event (e.g. a conversation) to another (e.g. an oral test). Turn-taking and rules for turn-taking are studied in conversational analysis and **discourse analysis** (JCRandRSch).
See **discourse analysis**

type – typ

In linguistics, a distinction is sometimes made between classes of linguistic items (e.g., phonemes, words, utterances) and actual occurrences in speech or writing of examples of such classes. The class of linguistic units is called a **type** and examples or individual members of the class are called **tokens**.

typicality effects – efekty prototypowe

In **cognitive linguistics**, the term refers to the phenomenon whereby a particular instance or exemplar is judged as being more or less representative of a given **category**. **Typicality effects** are held, in **Prototype Theory**, to result from a prototype structure of human categories and are measurable by **goodness-of-example ratings**. For instance, while a *robin*, for many people, might be judged to be a representative example of the category BIRD, *ostrich* would be judged to be not very representative and thus **non-typical**. These differential judgements in terms of representativeness are what are known as typicality effects (VE).
See **cognitive linguistics**, **category**, **prototype theory**, **goodness-of-example ratings**

typological linguistics – językoznawstwo typologiczne

Typological linguistics is concerned with the classification of languages according to their structural similarities. This kind of procedure was first

proposed by A.W. von Schlegel (1767–1845), who suggested that there were three types of language: at one extreme, there were **analytic languages** (or **isolating**), such as Chinese, which are devoid of all inflection; at the other extreme, there were **synthetic** (or **inflectional**) languages, such as Greek or Sanskrit; and in between there were **agglutinative** languages, such as Turkish or Korean, which string verbal elements together in long sequences. Typological linguistics is a kind of synchronic comparative linguistics.
See **analytic**, **agglutinative**, **synthetic languages**

typological classification (**of languages**) – klasyfikacja typologiczna (języków)
See **classification of languages**

Ukrainian – ukraiński język
See **Slavic languages**, **Proto-Slavic**

ultima – wygłos

The last syllable of a word.
See **syllable**

ultimate constituent – składnik terminalny (końcowy)

A term used in grammatical analysis to refer to the irreducible elements
which are the result of an **immediate constituent analysis**. For example, in
the sentence *The girl stopped the bus*, the **ultimate constituents** would be:
the + girl + stop + ed + the + bus.
See **Immediate Constituent Analysis**

umlaut – przegłos, umlaut

A term used in German grammar to indicate the relationship between **back
vowels** and **front vowels** in morphologically related words, marked in the
German spelling by means of two dots (called an **umlaut sign**) placed over the
basic vowel: e.g. *Mann* and *Männer*. Historically, this morphological relation
is explained as being due to the "fronting" of the vowel in particular contexts.
This process also occurred in **Old English** and has left traces in Modern
English: e.g. *man*, *men*.
See **back vowel**, **front vowel**, **Old English**

unattested form – forma niezaświadczona

A linguistic form in a language which is nowhere recorded but which has
been **reconstructed** or posited by linguists. Such a form is always preceded by
an **asterisk**. Cf. **attested form**.
See **reconstruction**

unconditioned-merger
See **merger**

underlying phrase marker – wyjściowy znacznik frazowy

In **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, a **phrase-marker** associated
with an **underlying string**. For example, the following phrase marker is as-
sociated with the underlying string: *the + man + Past + open + the + door*:
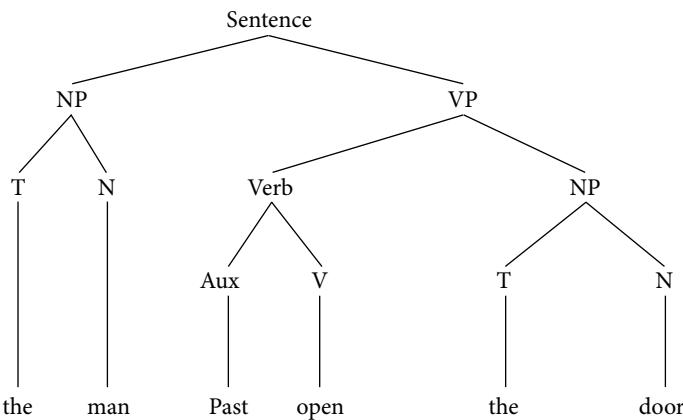
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **phrase-marker**

underlying string – rządek (szereg) wyjściowy

In early **transformational** grammar, a string of elements generated by the system of **Phrase-Structure rules**. It should be emphasised that an **underlying string** is not a sentence. This underlying string then acts as the input to the **transformational rules**, which thereby produce **derived** phrase-markers (Chomsky 1957).
See **Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **phrase-structure rules**

unidirectionality (**of a language change**) – jednokierunkowy charakter zmian językowych, jednokierunkowość zmian językowych

In **historical linguistics**, the property of a type of linguistic change which frequently happens in one direction but not in the reverse direction. The term is most often encountered in studies of **grammaticalization**, in which **unidirectionality** appears to be the norm: words of concrete meaning develop abstract meanings (but not the reverse). Such observation constitutes one kind of diachronic universal, and the statement that such changes are unidirectional is called **Unidirectionality Hypothesis** (RLT).
See **grammaticalisation**

unidirectionality hypothesis (**principle**) – zasada (hipoteza) jednokierunkowości zmian językowych
See **unidirectionality**

univerbation – uniwerbizacja

Any linguistic change in which two or more independent words are fused into a single word. The term is most commonly used in connection with **morphologization**. For example, the development of Latin phrases like *clara mente* 'with a clear mind' into Romance adverbs like Spanish *claramente*, French *claire-*

ment 'clearly' (RLT). The **univerbating** process is aptly epitomized in Talmy Givón's (1971: 415) aphorism "today's morphology is Yesterday's syntax."
See **morphologization**

universal base hypothesis – hipoteza bazy uniwersalnej

In **generative** linguistics, the hypothesis that states that all languages can be generated by using the same set of basic rules, though whether these are seen as rules of the **base syntactic component** or a set of **semantic formation rules** whose function it is to generate a set of well-formed **semantic representations** depends on the theory employed. The **generative semanticist** thus holds that it is the formation rules that are universal. In contrast, the **interpretivist**, who subscribes to the **universal base hypothesis**, maintains that the purely syntactic rules of an *Aspects*-type of the base-component are universal (DC).
See **Generative Grammar**, **Standard Version** (**Model**) (also *Aspects* **Version**) **of Transformational-Generative Grammar**, **Generative Semantics**, **inter-pre(ta)tive semantics**

Universal Grammar – gramatyka uniwersalna (ogólna)

A theory which claims to account for the grammatical competence of every adult no matter what language he or she speaks. It claims that every speaker knows a set of **principles** which apply to all languages and also a set of **parameters** that can vary from one language to another, but only within certain limits. The theory was proposed by Noam Chomsky and has been stated more specifically in his model of **Government-Binding Theory**. According to this theory, acquiring a language means applying the principles of universal grammar to a particular language, e.g. English, Polish, or French, and learning which value is appropriate for each **parameter**. For example, one of the principles of Universal Grammar is **structure dependency**. It means that a knowledge of language relies on knowing structural relationships in a sentence rather than looking at it as a sequence of words. One of the parameters in Universal Grammar may vary, within certain limits, from one language to another, it is the **head parameter**. It concerns the position of **heads** within each phrase. For example, in English, the head is first in a phrase, e.g. *with the car* (where the preposition *with* is the head of the prepositional phrase *with the car*). In Japanese, the head is last in the phrase: *Nihon ni* ('in Japan') 'Japan in' (JCRandRSch). See also KP, Lyons (1968: 14–16).
See **Government-Binding Theory**, **head**, **parameters**, **principles**

universal quantifier – kwantyfikator ogólny

In logic, the **universal quantifier** is symbolised by prefixing to the **variable** that it binds an upturned letter A and putting both in paranetheses. Thus, Vx reads: 'for all x it is the case that…'. Or, (x) f(x): 'for all x it is the case that x has the property denoted by the predicate f' (translated into Polish,

it would read as follows: 'dla każdego x jest tak, że x ma właściwość oznaczoną predykatem f') (Allwood et al. 1979: 62). Cf. **existential quantifier**.
See **quantifier**, **variable**

universal syllable – sylaba uniwersalna

A syllable of the type CV, i.e. a syllable composed of a consonant and a vowel, occurring in all languages, and often in the speech of small children.

universe (**domain**) **of discourse** – uniwersum dyskursu

The term refers to the range of entities, situations, etc. within which a particular speech event makes reference. In this sense, the **universe of discourse** of sermons, for example, will be predictably different (usually) from the universe of discourse of commercial advertising (DC). In Lyons (1968: 327) a term defined as "[A]ll the assumptions and **presuppositions** accepted as relevant in a given discussion and determining the interpretation of otherwise ambiguous words and sentences."
See **presupposition**
See **discourse**

unmarked term – człon nienacechowany
See **opposition**

Upper Lusatian – górnołużycki język
See **Slavic languages**, **Proto-Slavic**

Uralic languages – uralskie języki

A large language family occupying much of northern Europe and Siberia and also a sizable area of central Europe. The **Uralic** family is divided into two branches (or sub-families): the **Samoyed** branch and the much larger **Finno-Ugric** branch (RLT).
See **Samoyed languages**, **Finno-Ugric languages**

urban dialect – gwara miejska

A **dialect** which is typical of an urban area. Early dialectologists were inclined to think that only rural areas preserved "pure" dialects, while urban speech was merely "corruptions" of standard speech and unworthy of study. However, thanks to the investigations of the sociolinguists, we now know that this is not so. First, **urban speech** is invariably vernacular (i.e. ordinary everyday speech) in form, and cannot be regarded as derived from standard varieties. Second, there is a great deal of evidence that most linguistic changes originate in urban communities and then spread slowly out over adjoining rural areas,

so that **rural dialects**, far from being "pure," are often no more than versions of the urban speech of several generations ago (RLT).
See **dialect**, **dialectology**, **sociolinguistics**

Urdu – urdu język

One of the modern **Indic** (or **Indo-Aryan**) languages, with Hindi and Bengali being the other important members of this group of languages.
See **Indic** (**Indo-Aryan**) **languages**, **Hindustani**

Ursprache

The German for **proto-language**.

Uto-Aztecan languages – uto-azteckie języki
See **Hopi language**

usage – uzus, zwyczaj językowy

The language actually used by a particular group of people. In this sense, **usage** is closely related to **performance** and can be studied by the analysis of specimens of authentic language. Linguists emphasise the importance of describing the facts of usage as a control on the claims made by grammars. The study of usage can reveal, for example, that the passive voice is more than ordinarily frequent in scientific writing, or that the spelling *all right* and *alright* both occur. It is also possible to study reactions to usage and on this basis to make recommendations when usage is divided.
See **performance**

utterance – wypowiedź, wypowiedzenie

In Z.S. Harris (1951) the **utterance** is defined as "any stretch of talk, by one person, before and after which there is a silence on the part of that person." Thus defined, the utterance is not identical with the **sentence**; the utterance is a **textual** unit, while the sentence is an (abstract) **grammatical** unit. One commonly used definition of the term refers to "a stretch of speech preceded and followed by silence or a change of speaker." The definition just given applies equally to a one-word response and a sermon. Attempts have been made to produce a more restricted definition, using such features as pause, rhythm, breath patterns, etc. See, e.g., DC. Cf. e.g. Lyons (1968: 171–172).
See **utterance meaning**

uvula – języczek, uvula

One of the parts of the oral cavity that is used in the production of speech sounds. It is a small fleshy appendage hanging down from the middle of the soft palate above the back of the tongue.

vagueness – nieokreśloność

A term referring to generality and indeterminacy of meaning. For example, in *There is a bird in the garden* the word *bird* is **vague** with respect to which kind of bird is meant (any member of the category could be meant, including its more marginal members). However, many semanticists prefer to reserve this term for expressions whose meaning involves reference to a category whose boundaries are **fuzzy** (DC). Cf. **ambiguity**.
See **fuzzy category**

valency (also **valence**) – walencja, wartościowość syntaktyczna

A term introduced by the French linguist Lucien Tesnière (1893–1954), which has been particularly influential in the development of models of **dependency grammar** in Europe and Russia. A **valency grammar** presents a model of a sentence containing a fundamental element, typically the verb, and a number of dependent elements, variously referred to as **arguments**, **complements**, or **valents**, whose number and type is determined by the **valency** attributed to the verb. For example, the valency of *vanish* (e.g. *The aircraft vanished without trace*) includes only the subject element (it has a valency of 1, **monovalent**), whereas that of *scrutinise* (e.g. *Her purpose was to scrutinise his features to see if he was an honest man*) includes both subject and direct object (a valency of 2, **bivalent**) Verbs which take more than two complements (e.g. *He put the book on the table*) are **polyvalent**. A verb which takes no complements at all (e.g. *rain*) is said to have **zero valency** (be **avalent**). An alternative term is **argument structure** (DC). In **cognitive grammar**, argument structure is another term for valence. See VE.
See **argument**, **complement**, **dependency grammar**

valency grammar – gramatyka wartościowości syntaktycznej

A **valency grammar** presents a model of a sentence containing a fundamental element (typically, a verb) and a number of dependent elements (variously referred to as arguments, expressions, complements, or **valents**) whose number and type is determined by the **valency** attributed to the verb. For example, the valency of *vanish* includes only the subject element (it has a valency of 1, **monovalent** or **monadic**), whereas that of *scrutinise* includes both subject and direct object (a velancy of 2, **bivalent** or **dyadic**). Verbs which take more than two complements are **polyvalent** or **polyadic**. A verb which takes no complements

at all (such as *rain*) is said to have **zero valency** (be **avalent**). Valency deals not only with the number of valents with which a verb is combined to produce a WELL-FORMED sentence nucleus, but also with the classification of sets of valents which may be combined with different verbs. For example, *give* and *put* usually have a valency of 3 (**trivalent**), but the valents governed by the former (subject, direct object, INDIRECT OBJECT) are different from those governed by the latter (subject, direct object, and LOCATIVE ADVERBIAL). Verbs which differ in this way are said to be associated with different **valency sets**. The notion is similar to that used in case grammar, where cases are sometimes referred to as **valency roles** (DC). See also Lyons (1977, vol. 2).
See **valency**

value – wartość (znaku językowego)

According to Ferdinand de Saussure (*Cours de linguistique generale*), the **value** of a linguistic sign does not come from its intrinsic signification, and it cannot be determined by the sound image alone. In fact, this arbitrarily chosen "signifier" has no value, and the concept – "the signified" – does not have true value by itself because it exists within a language system. Instead, the linguistic value of a sign is determined by other factors within its environment, by the other linguistic signs. The value of a sign grows in relations to its external environment within the language system, not from its internal components. Conceptually, linguistic meanings do not exist in a vacuum; they are not independent. Rather, they are dependent on other linguistic signs within their language system to determine what they are. Therefore, the actual idea or concept that the sign expresses can be understood by what it is not – by its differences to other linguistic signs.
See **Geneva School**

variable – zmienna

(1) In logic (e.g. in symbolic logic or mathematical logic), a symbol that may assume any of a given set of values, its "range" of values.

(2) The term is also used in grammar and **semantics** in its general sense of a symbol which may assume any set of values (e.g. a category variable, say, X stands for any major word-level category, e.g. N, V, Adj).
See **semantics**

variant – wariant

The term applies to a linguistic form which is one of a set of alternatives in a given context; it contrasts with **invariant**. For example, **allomorphs** are different variants of a **morpheme**. Thus, /s/, /z/, and /iz/ are different variants of

the PLURAL MORPHEME occurring in *cats*, *dogs*, and *classes*. **Allophones** are different variants of a phoneme.
See **morpheme**, **phoneme**, **invariant**

variation (also **language variation**) – zróżnicowanie językowe

Differences in pronunciation, grammar, or word choice within a language. **Variation** in a language may be related to a region (dialectal, regional variation), to social class and/or educational background (see **sociolect**), or to the degree of formality of a situation in which a language is used. Variation is seen as the vehicle of linguistic change. To use J. Fisiak's words: "The existence of variants in language is the precondion of linguistic change" (Fisiak 2005: 17).

Vedic – wedyjski, wedycki język

The earliest recorded **Indic** language, and one of the earliest **Indo-European languages** to be recorded. **Vedic** is the language of the Vedas, the earliest-known Hindu hymns; the first records of it go back at least to 1000 BC and possibly to the middle of the second millennium BC. Once regarded as a distinctive early version of **Sanskrit**, Vedic today is usually classified as a distinct language (RLT).
See **Indic languages**, **Indo-European languages**, **Sanskrit**

vehicle – nośnik
See **tenor**

velar consonant – spółgłoska tylnojęzykowa (welarna)

A consonant which is produced by the back of the tongue touching the soft palate at the back of the mouth. For example, in English the /k/ in *kin*, and the /g/ in *get* are **velar consonants** or, more precisely, **velar stops**.
See **consonant**

velarization n., **velarize** v., **velar** a. – welaryzacja

In **phonology**, a **secondary articulation** in which the back of the tongue is raised towards the soft palate. In many forms of English syllable final /l/, as in *hill*, is strongly **velarized** (JCRandRSch).
See **phonology**, **secondary articulation**

velum, **soft palate** – podniebienie miękkie, velum

The soft, fleshy part at the rear of the roof of the mouth.

verb – czasownik, verbum (pl. verba)

A **word class** often marked in English by the ability to take the third person, past and progressive suffixes; e.g. *bake*, *bakes*, *baked*, and *baking* is a verb. Just as nouns refer to the actors and things in our world, verbs allow us to express states, events, and actions involving actors and things. All verbs share one characteristic – they encode information about time. Regardless of the intrinsic meaning of a verb, a speaker can always manipulate the time frame it expresses by the use of tense and aspect. The English verb is marked for tense, aspect, mood, and voice.
See **word class**, **tense**, **aspect**

verbal predicate – orzeczenie werbalne (czasownikowe)

In traditional grammar, a finite form of a verb, as in *I **speak** English*, *They **will** finish their work*, *Fortune **favours** the brave*.
See **traditional grammar**

verb phrase – fraza (grupa, syntagma) werbalna (czasownikowa)

There are two senses of the term:

(1) Within the general **transformational-generative** framework, VP is treated as one of the major constituents of a sentence. For example, in O. Thomas (1966: 29 ff.), a **sentence** (S) consists of a subject, which is a **noun phrase** (NP) plus a predicate, which is a **verb phrase** (VP): S → NP + VP. A verb phrase (VP) may consist of one or more **auxiliary verbs** (Aux) plus a **main verb** (MV). Thus, VP → Aux + MV. A main verb consists of either *be* followed by a predicate **complement** (as illustrated in *Children may be happy*) or any other verb (as in *Children may sleep*). In this grammar, three "primary types" of verb (V) are distinguished: **intransitive** verbs, **transitive** verbs, and **copulative** verbs. The set of copulative verbs includes most of the verbs traditionally **called linking verbs** (e.g. *seem*, *become*, *taste*, *grow*, etc.).

In Jacobs and Rosenbaum (1968: 41 ff.), the **Auxiliary** is treated as one of the three major constituents of a sentence: NP, Aux, VP, and is not thus a part of VP. See also Kaznowski (1980: 43 ff.).

```
                     S
          ┌──────────┴──────────┐
         NP                     VP
          │              ┌───────┴───────┐
          │             AUX             MV
          │              │               │
       Children         may            sleep
```
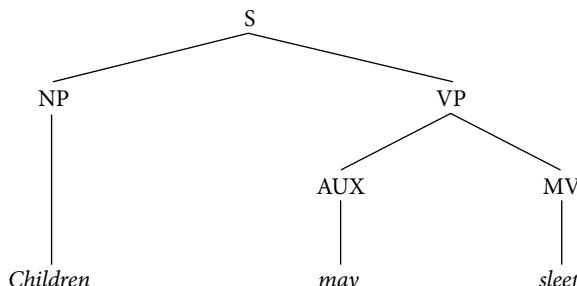
(2) In **traditional grammar**, the term refers to the combination of an auxiliary and a main (lexical) verb having the same syntactic function as a single verb, e.g. *is coming, will come* (*He will come tomorrow, He's coming here*) (DC, JCRandRSch).
See **traditional grammar**

vernacular – język rodzimy, język narodowy, język lokalny, gwara miejscowa (lokalna), język potoczny

A term used of a language or language variety (dialect): (a) when it is contrasted with a classical language, such as Latin, e.g. *Church services in the Roman Catholic Church used to be conducted in Latin, but now they are in the vernacular* (e.g. in English, Italian, etc.), *The high prestige of Latin meant that it had considerable influence on all Renaissance vernaculars.* (b) when it is contrasted with an internationally used language such as English, e.g. *If you want to teach English in that country, it will be useful to know the vernacular.* (c) in **bilingual** and **multilingual** countries, when it is spoken by some or most of the population but when it is not an **official** or **national** language of a country, e.g.: *In addition to schools that teach in the national language, there are also vernacular schools* (JCRandRSch).
See **national language, official language**

Verner's law – prawo Vernera

In **historical linguistics**, a sound change, first worked out by the Danish linguist Karl Verner (1846–1896), which explained a group of apparent exceptions to **Grimm's law**. Verner found that Grimm's Law worked well whenever the stress fell on the **root** syllable of the Sanskrit word; but when it fell on another syllable, the consonants behaved differently; voiceless plosives then did not stay as voiceless fricatives, but became voiced plosives (McMahon 1966: 24 ff., Strang 1977: 411–412).
See **historical linguistics**, **Grimm's law**, **root**

vocal cords – więzadła głosowe

The folds of tough flesh, flexible tissue in the **larynx** extending from the back to front. The space between the **vocal cords** is the **glottis**. During speech, the vocal cords open and close the air passage from the lungs to the mouth. In the production of vowels and voiced consonants, the vocal cords vibrate.
See **larynx**

vocal tract – aparat głosowy

In **phonetics**, the air passages which are above the vocal cords and which are involved in the production of speech sounds. The **vocal tract** can be divided

into the **nasal cavity**, which is the air passage within and behind the nose, and the **oral cavity**, which is the air passage within the mouth and the throat.
See **phonetics**

vocalization – wokalizacja

A phonetic process consisting in the conversion of a consonant into a vowel.

vocative case – wołacz, vocativus

In languages which express grammatical functions by means of **inflections**, the term refers to the **case** form taken by a **noun phrase** (often a single noun or a pronoun) when it is used in the function of **address**; e.g. Polish *Hej ty, chodź no tutaj!*, or *Mamo, nie gniewaj się na mnie*. English does not make use of the **vocative case** inflectionally, but expresses the notion using an optional noun phrase, in certain positions, and usually with a distinctive intonation, as, e.g., in *Jane, are you ready?*, *That's a pretty dress, Mrs. Johnson*.
See **case**, **address form**, **inflection**

voice n. – strona

A morphological category marked on the verb which allows changes of focus by making different arguments of the verb become the subject of the verb. For example, the sentence *The farmer killed the duckling* is in the **active voice**, and *the farmer* is the agent and the subject of the verb, while in the corresponding **passive** *The duckling was killed by the farmer*, the direct object of the active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb. As can be seen, the passive voice is an analytical form in Modern English: it is built up by means of a corresponding tense of the auxiliary verb *to be* and the past participle of the given verb.

voiced a. – dźwięczny

Speech sounds which are produced with the **vocal cords** vibrating are called **voiced**: e.g. English /b/, /d/, /g/ are voiced consonats. And all vowels are voiced.
See **vocal cords**

voiced consonant – spółgłoska dźwięczna

A consonant which is produced with the **vocal cords** vibrating.
See **consonant**, **vocal cords**

voice synthesiser – syntetyzator mowy
See **speech synthesis**

voicing – udźwięcznienie

Any **phonological change** in which a formerly voiceless segment becomes voiced. For example, Latin intervocalic /p t k/ have been voiced to /b d g/ in Spanish (e.g. Latin *sēcūru(m)* 'sure' became *seguro* in Spanish).
See **phonology**, **phonological change**

vowel – samogłoska

A voiced sound in forming which the air issues in a continuous stream through the pharynx and mouth, there being no obstruction and no narrowing such as would cause audible friction. For example /a/, /o/, /u/, /i/, etc. are **vowels**.

vowel alternations – alternacje samogłoskowe

Alternations of vowels in the **allomorphs** of a **morpheme**; e.g. in Polish, replacement of [e] by [o], *ni[e]sie* ('(he) carries') – *ni[o]sę* ('I carry').
See **allomorph**, **morpheme**

vowel harmony – harmonia samogłoskowa (wokaliczna)

A modification (assimilation) of the pronunciation of vowels in a word so that one agrees or 'harmonizes' with another one. For example, in Turkish the word for the number *1* is *bir* and for the number *10* is *on.* When suffixes are added to them, the vowel of the suffix must be either a front vowel or a back vowel, depending on the vowel that precedes it, e.g.: *bir + de* (*birde*) 'at one', both /i/ and /e/ are front vowels; *on + da* (*onda*) 'at ten', both /o/ and /a/ are back vowels. **Vowel harmony** is a type of **progressive assimilation** (JCRandRSch). Consonant harmony is another type of harmony. See e.g. DC.
See **assimilation**

vowel reduction – redukcja samogłoskowa

A change in vowel quality in certain environments, as, e.g., under weak stress, or when unstressed. Unstressed vowels in English typically lose their distinctive quality and take on the quality of the **schwa** vowel; cf., e.g., the /æ/ vowel that occurs in stressed *and* with the schwa vowel /ə/ that occurs in the unstressed *and*. Reduction can even go as far as total loss of the vowel (see Trask 1996: 64).
See **schwa**

vowel shift – przesuwka samogłoskowa

Any development in which several vowels in a language change their phonetic values significantly within a fairly short period. The **Great Vowel Shift** of English is a well-known example.
See **Great Vowel Shift**

vulgar Latin – łacina ludowa

The everyday speech of the Roman people, from which the **Romance languages** developed; it is distinguished from the literary (or standard) variety called **classical Latin**.
See **classical Latin**, **Romance languages**

vulgarism – wulgaryzm

A word, phrase or expression that is regarded as nonstandard, unrefined, coarse or obscene; especially one that makes explicit and offensive reference to sex or bodily functions.

wave theory (**model**) – teoria falowa

Wave theory claims that every **language change** arises in a particular defined locality and then spreads in all directions over the territory inhabited by a given society. In dispersing, these changes extend into the territory of ever wider circles, similar to the circles of waves on the surface of a body of water radiating out from the place into which a stone has been thrown. It is this comparison which determined the name of the theory. Wave theory became the take-off point of the development of **linguistic geography**, or **dialectology**, which studies linguistic differentiation of territories as the result of language evolution (Trask 1966: 185–187, Jeffers and Lehiste 1979: 32–33).
See **language change**, **dialectology**

weak equivalence – ekwiwalencja słaba
See **equivalence**

weakly equivalent grammars – gramatyki słabo ekwiwalentne (równoważne)
See **quivalence**, **Generative Grammar**

well-formed a. – gramatyczny, poprawnie skonstruowany

A term used in linguistics, especially in **Generative Grammar**, to refer to the grammaticality (**well-formedness**) of a sentence. A sentence is **well-formed** if it can be generated by the rules of a grammar; it is **ill-formed** if it cannot be. The term usually applies to **syntax**, **semantics**, **phonology**.
See **Generative Grammar**, **phonology**, **semantics**, **syntax**

well-formed sentence – zdanie gramatyczne (poprawne)
See **ill-formed sentence**

well-formedness – gramatyczność, poprawność gramatyczna
See **well-formed**

Welsh – walijski język

A language belonging to the **Celtic languages**, which also includes Irish, Scots/Scottish, and Breton.
See **Celtic languages**

Weltanschauung hypothesis – hipoteza językowego obrazu świata

The hypothesis proposed by Wilhelm von Humboldt (1767–1835), who suggested that there is a *Weltanschauung* (world-view) implicit in each language, and that language does not so much express our ideas, as help to condition and shape them. Humboldt viewed thought as being impossible without language, language as completely determining thought. Humboldt's hypothesis is in fact a version of the extreme form of the **Sapir–Whorf Hypothesis**.
See **Sapir–Whorf Hypothesis**

Wernicke's area – ośrodek Wernickego
See **lateralization**

wh-words – wyrazy pytające
See **interrogative pronouns**

White Russian – białoruski język

Belarusian language (other spellings Belarusan, Belorussian, Byelorussian) formerly called **White Russian**. East **Slavic language** that is historically the native language of most Belarusians.
See **Slavic languages**, **Proto-Slavic**

word – wyraz

One of the available definitions of the word is that proposed by Leonard Bloomfield (1933) in his *Language*. In this work, the American linguist defines this linguistic unit as "the minimum free form" which can function as an **utterance**. Thus, Bloomfield's definition of the word relies on the concept of syntactic freedom/autonomy. According to another definition, viz., that adopted by Fisiak (1968: 27), the word is "the smallest isolable and meaningful unit which consists of one or more **morphemes** the arrangement of which is constant." "Isolable" here is synonymous with "syntactic freedom" in Bloomfield's definition, and the constancy of the arrangement of word components (i.e. morphemes) would account, say, for *looking* and the impossible **inglook*. There is evidence that native speakers of a language tend to agree on what are the words of their language. In writing, word boundaries are usually recognized by spaces between the words, while in speech word boundaries may be recognized by slight pauses. Cf. also **lexeme**.
See **morpheme**, **utterance**

word blindness – dysleksja

Another term for **dyslexia**.

word class, **part of speech** – część mowy, kategoria leksykalno-gramatyczna

One of the classes to which words (more precisely, **lexemes**) are allocated on the basis of their grammatical behaviour, including **noun**, **verb**, **adjective**, etc. See **lexeme**

word derivation, affixation – derywacja słowotwórcza (afiksalna)

The type of **word formation** in which new lexical items are created by adding affixes to bases, as in *powerful* from *power*, *writer* from *write*, etc.
See **word formation**, **affix**, **base**

word-for-word translation – przekład dosłowny, tłumaczenie dosłowne
See **literal translation**

word-form – forma wyrazowa, słowo-forma

The particular shape that a word has on a particular occasion (i.e. in a particular syntactic context). **Word-forms** have phonological and orthographic shape, in contrast to **lexeme**, which is an abstract unit. For example, *look*, *looks*, *looking*, *looked* are the word-forms associated with the lexeme LOOK. One such word-form is usually selected as the "citation-form." "By the citation-form of a lexeme is meant the form of a lexeme that is conventionally employed to refer to it in standard dictionaries and grammars of the language" (cf. Lyons 1977: 19). It should be made clear that the citation-form is a form of the lexeme (*look* in case of our example above), which should not be identified with the lexeme itself. Lyons points out that linguists use italics for both word-forms and lexemes.
See **lexeme**, **citation form**

word formation – słowotwórstwo

The processes by which new lexemes/words are created, including **derivational morphology**, **compounding**, **conversion**, and processes which are less obviously morphological, such as **blending**, **clipping**, **acronymisation**, and the like.
See **derivational morphology**, **compounding**, **conversion**, **lexeme**

word-formational competence – kompetencja słowotwórcza

The native speaker's **linguistic competence** comprises **word-formational competence**, since we can easily show that native speakers are capable of producing not only an unlimited number of sentences (**syntactic competence**), but also an infinite number of new (derived) words.
See **linguistic competence**, **syntactic competence**

word order – szyk wyrazów

A term representing the linear sequencing of words within a phrase or sentence. It is often asserted that **word order** in English is fixed (a language like English relies on word order as a means of expressing grammatical relationships), whereas in a language like Polish it is free (in a language like Polish or Latin grammatical relations are expressed by inflections). The truth, however, is that neither is Polish word order entirely free nor is English word order entirely fixed. The normal, "neutral" word order of an English sentence is as follows: Subject – Aux-Main Verb – Direct Object – Prep. Indirect Object (e.g. *John gave the book to his friend*). Changes of this word order result either in the ungrammaticality of a sentence (e.g. **The book gave John to his friend*), or a change of the meaning of a sentence (cf. *John hit Paul, Paul hit John*). The main factors that cause changes in the neutral word order are contextual and stylistic. In the majority of sentences we can distinguish the information that is given and the information which is new in a given context. The part of the sentence which corresponds to the given information is called the **theme**. The new information is called the **focus** (or **rheme**). In both English and Polish, a general principle of contextually motivated word order is that focus is to be found at the end of the clause. The last lexical item receives the main stress. The most frequent word order in both languages is such that theme corresponds to the subject of a sentence and focus to the predicate part. Sometimes word order is marked for style, i.e., it is not motivated grammatically or contextually. It may be motivated by such factors as emotional attitude of the speaker or requirements of a specific language style, e.g., rhythm and rhyme in poetry. In sentences marked for style any syntactic elements of a simple sentence can be fronted. The fronted word may receive a special emphasis even if it functions as theme (e.g. *Relaxation you call it* and *Wypoczynkiem to nazywasz*).

word stress – akcent wyrazowy

The term refers to the pattern of stressed and unstressed syllables in a word. **Word stress** may distinguish between two words (e.g. a verb and a noun) that are otherwise alike; e.g. *IMport* (noun) and *imPORT* (verb), where the noun is stressed on the first syllable and the verb on the second syllable.

writing system – pismo

A system of written symbols which represent the sounds, syllables or words of a language. The three main types of **writing system** are **alphabetic**, based on sounds, **syllabic**, based on syllables, and **ideographic**, based on words.

written language – język pisany

The written form of a language, as opposed to its spoken form, which may be substantially different. It is now generally assumed that **spoken language** is primary and that **written language** is essentially a means of representing speech in another medium. Speech is older and more widespread than writing. Many hundreds of languages have never been associated with a writing-system (e.g. native American Indian languages) until they were committed to writing by missionaries or linguists in our own day.

X-Bar theory – teoria kreskowa, teoria X-Bar (also: teoria składni frazowej wielostopniowej, a term suggested for the theory by K. Polański, cited in I. Bobrowski 1988)

An approach to syntax (X-Bar syntax), which attempts to show the general principles of language rather than deal with the structures of one particular language. The syntax is based on four main lexical categories: verbs, nouns, adjecives, and prepositions, which become the **heads** of phrases, e.g. the noun *dog* becomes the head of the noun phrase *the dog with black ears*. To show the structure within each phrase and within the **phrase-marker** of the whole sentence, constituents are marked N, N′, N′′, etc. X-Bar theory was first proposed by Noam Chomsky in 1970 (*Remarks on Nominalization*) building on Zellig Harris's *Methods in Structural Linguistics* (1951), and further developed by Ray Jackendoff (*A Study of Phrase Structure*, 1977).
See **head**, **phrase-marker**

Y

Yiddish – żydowski język, jidysz

(Ger. *jüdish* = Jewish) Language spoken by the Jews of Estern Europe. Descended from the German of the Middle Ages, with many **Hebrew** words, it has absorbed expressions from whatever country the Jews reside in. The Hebrew characters are used, Hebrew being the language of the learned Jews. **Yiddish** was long scorned as a medium for authors, and literature in Yiddish did not begin to flourish until the middle of the 19th century. The father of modern Yiddish literature is Mendele Mocher Sforim. Yiddish became the **lingua franca** of world Jewry. *Yid* is a derogatory term for a Jew.
See also **Hebrew**, **lingua franca**

zero-derivation – derywacja zerowa
See **conversion**

zero (**null**) **morpheme** – morfem zerowy (pusty)

A morpheme which is given no phonetic manifestation, e.g., the plural morpheme of English **sheep**, as it is used in the sentence *The sheep are coming*. So the plural **sheep** here is morphologically realized as {SHEEP-} + {-Ø}, where the zero morph realizes the plural morpheme that is in English regularly realized by [-s].
See **morpheme**

zeugma n., **zeugmatic** a. – zeugma

A **figure of speech** whereby two distinct senses of a word are incongruously "yoked" together in a single construction. For example, the oddity of *Arthur and his driving licence expired last Thursday* suggests that *expire* has two distinct senses. The oddity can be lessened by "unyoking" the two senses, as in *Arthur expired last Thursday; his driving license also expired*.
See **figure of speech**

Zipf's law – prawo Zipfa

Two putative principles advanced by George Zipf, the first in 1929, the second in 1936: 1. A segment will remain phonologically stable so long as it remains within its range of acceptable frequency of incidence, but if it becomes either too frequent or too rare, it is susceptible to **phonological change**. 2. A segment of very high frequency tends to become phonologically simple (**unmarked**). This second is one version of the **economy-of-effort principle** (RLT). See also Lyons (1968: 89 ff.).
See **unmarked term**, **principle of least effort**, **economy-of-effort principle**, **segment**, **phonological change**

zoösemiotics – zoosemiotyka

A branch of **semiotics** that studies the modes of animal communication. The term was introduced by Thomas A. Sebeok (1965).
See **semiotics**

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Indeks polski / Polish-English glossary of terms

A

ablaut – vowel gradation, apophony, ablaut

aborygeński język – aboriginal language

abstrakta – abstract nouns

accusativus – accusative case

accusativus cum infinitivo – accusative with infinitive

activum – active voice

adaptacja – adaptation

adekwatność – adequacy

  obserwacyjna – observational adequacy

  opisowa – descriptive adequacy

  wyjaśniająca – explanatory adequacy

adjektywizacja – adjectivalisation, adjectivization

adopcja – adoption, importation

adpozycja – adposition

adverbium – adverb

adwerbializacja – adverbialisation

afazja – aphasia

afereza – aphaeresis, aphesis

afiks – affix

afiksacja – affixation

afonia – aphonia

afrikaans – Afrikaans (language)

afroamerykańszczyzna – African American English (AAE), Black English, Ebonics

afro-azjatyckie języki – Afro-Asiatic (languages)

afrykański – Afrikaans

afrykańskie języki – African languages

afrykata – affricate

agens – agent

agentivus – ergative

aglutynacja – agglutination

aglutynacyjny język – agglutinating (agglutinative) language

agrafia – agraphia

agramatyzm – agrammatism

akadzki język – Akkadian (language)

akcent – accent, stress

  akutowy – acute accent

  emfatyczny – emphatic stress

  główny – primary stress

  gravis – grave accent

  inicjalny – initial accent

  kontrastywny – contrastive stress

  oksytoniczny – oxytonic accent

  poboczny – secondary stress

  stały – fixed accent

  swobodny – free accent

  wyrazowy – word stress

  zdaniowy – sentence stress

akceptowalność – acceptability

akomodacja fonetyczna – coarticulation, accomodation

akronim – acronym

akronimizacja – acronimisation

akt – act

  illokucyjny – illocutionary act

  komunikacyjny – act of communication

  lokucyjny – locutionary act

  mowy – speech act

  perlokucyjny – perlocutionary act

  zagrożenia dla twarzy – face threatening act

Aktionsart – Aktionsart

aktualizacja – actualization, realization

akut – acute accent

akuzatyw – accusative case

akwizycja – acquisition

  języka drugiego – second language acquisition

  języka obcego – second language acquisition

  języka ojczystego – first language acquisition

albański – Albanian (language)
aleksykalizm – alexicalism
aleucki – Aleut (language)
aleut – Aleut (language)
alfabet – alphabet
    Braile'a – Braille
    Morse'a – Morse code
algorytm – algorithm
aliteracja – alliteration
allofon – allophone
allofonia – allophony
allograf – allograph
allomorf – allomorph
allomorfia – allomorphy
alternacja – alternation
    samogłoskowa – ablaut, vowel gradation, apophony
    spółgłoskowa – consonant alternation
alternacyjne języki – alternating languages
ałtajskie języki – Altaic languages
amerykanizm – Americanism
amerykańska lingwistyka deskryptywna – American descriptive linguistics
amerykańska odmiana języka angielskiego – American English (AE)
amerykańska szkoła strukturalistyczna – American Structural School
amerykański język migowy – American Sign Language (ASL)
amfibolia – amphiboly
amfibologia – amphibology
anafora – anaphora, anaphor
anagram – anagram
anakolut – anacoluthon
analiza – analysis
    błędów – error analysis
    dyskursu – discourse analysis
    komponencjalna – componential analysis, lexical decomposition
    kontrastywna – contrastive analysis, contrastive linguistics
    lingwistyczna – linguistic analysis
    składnikowa – componential analysis, lexical decomposition

składników bezpośrednich – Immediate Constituent Analysis (ICA)
    składniowa – parsing
    synchroniczna – synchronic analysis
analogia – analogy
anaptyksa – anaptyxis (svarabhakti)
anatolijskie języki – Anatolian languages
angielski biznesu – business English
angielski język – English (language)
angielski specjalistyczny – English for special (specific) purposes (ESP)
anglicyzacja – anglicization
anglicyzm – anglicism
anglonormandzki – Anglo-Norman, Anglo-French, Norman French
anglo-saksoński – Anglo-Saxon
anglosaski język – Anglo-Saxon
anomia – anomia
antonim – antonym
antonimia – antonymy
antroponimia – anthroponymy
antyfraza – litotes
aparat głosowy – vocal tract
apelatyw – eponym, appelative
apelatywizacja – appelativization
apodyktyczny – apodeictic
apofonia – apophony
apokopa – apocope
apozycja – apposition
arabski – Arabic (language)
aramejski – Aramaic (language)
arbitralność – arbitrariness, conventionality
arbitralny – arbitrary
archaiczny – archaic
archaizm – archaism, relic
archeologia lingwistyczna – linguistic archeology
archifonem – archiphoneme
argot – argot, cant, slang
argument – argument
artykuł hasłowy – entry, lexical entry
artykulacja – articulation
    dodatkowa – secondary articulation
    podstawowa – primary articulation

prymarna – primary articulation

sekundarna – secondary articulation

artykułowanie – articulation

arystotelesowski model kategoryzacji – classical (Aristotelian) theory of categorisation

aspekt – aspect

ciągły – progressive (continuous) aspect

dokonany – perfect (perfective) aspect

aspiracja – aspiration

aspirata – aspirate

asterisk – asterisk

asymilacja – assimilation

postępowa – progressive assimilation

progresywna – progressive assimilation

regresywna – regressive assimilation

semantyczna – semantic assimilation

wsteczna – regressive assimilation

asyndeton – asyndeton, asyndetic coordination

asyndetoniczny układ zdania – asyndeton, asyndetic coordination

atrofia – atrophy, attrition, erosion

atrybutywny – attributive

augmentativum – augmentative

australijskie języki – Australian languages

austronezyjskie języki – Malayo-Polynesian (Austronesian) languages

B

bahuvrīhi – bahuvrīhi, exocentric compound

bałkańska liga językowa – Balkan league of languages

bałtosłowiańskie języki – Balto-Slavic languages

bałtyckie języki – Baltic languages

bank danych – database, data bank

bantuidalne języki – Bantu languages

baskijski język – Basque (language)

baza danych – database, data bank

behawioryzm – behaviourism

benefactivus – benefactive case

benefactor – benefactive case

bengalski język – Bengali (language)

bengali – Bengali

bezkontekstowe reguły frazowe – context-free phrase-structure rules

bezokolicznik – infinitive

bazowy – bare infinitive

czysty – bare infinitive

rozszczepiony – split infinitive

białoruski język – White Russian (language)

bierna znajomość języka – passive language knowledge

biernik – accusative case

z bezokolicznikiem – accusative with infinitive

bilingwalny – bilingual

bilingwizm – bilingualism

biolingwistyka – biolinguistics

bit – bit

bliskoznaczność – synonymy

bliższy – proximal

bloomfieldowska szkoła lingwistyczna – Bloomfieldian School of Linguistics

bretoński język – Breton (language)

brytańskie języki – Brittonic languages

brytyjska odmiana języka angielskiego – British English

brytyjski język – British (language)

bułgarski język – Bulgarian (laguage)

burgundzki język – Burgundian (language)

buruszaski język – Burushaski (language)

C

cecha – feature

binarna – binary feature

dystynktywna – distinctive feature

semantyczna – semantic feature (component)

kontekstualna – contextual feature

paralingwistyczna – paralinguistic feature

prozodyczna – prosodic feature, prosodeme

suprasegmentalna – suprasegmental feature

cedille – cedilla

cedylla – cedilla

cel – goal

celownik – dativus, dative case

celowościowe wyjaśnianie zmian językowych – teleological explanation of language change

celtyckie języki – Celtic languages

centralny element kategorii – prototypical (central) member of a category

centumowe języki – Centum languages

chińskie języki – Chinese (Sinitic) languages

chińsko-tybetańskie języki – Sino-Tibetan family

chronologia względna – relative chronology

chwyt stylistyczny – litotes

ciąg – string

końcowy – terminal string

preterminalny – preterminal string

terminalny – terminal string

cockney – Cockney

coda (sylaby) – coda (of a syllable)

compositum – compound, compound word

frazowe – phrasal compound

consecutio temporum – sequence of tenses

copula – linking verb, copula

cudzysłów – inverted commas, quotation marks

cyfra binarna – binary bit

dwójkowa – binary bit

cykl językowy – cycle of language, language cycle

cyrylica – Cyrillic alphabet

cytat – quotation

czas – tense

przeszły prosty – preterite, simple past tense

zaprzeszły – pluperfect tense, past perfect

czasownik – predicate (3), verb

dwuprzechodni – ditransitive verb

dynamiczny – dynamic verb

ergatywny – ergative verb

faktywny – factive verb

główny – main verb

inceptywny – inchoative (inceptive) verb

inchaotywny – inchoative (inceptive) verb

iteratywny – iterative verb

kauzatywny – causative verb

mocny – strong verb

momentalny – punctual verb

niefaktywny – non-factive verb

nieprzechodni – intransitive verb

nieregularny – irregular verb

performatywny – performative verb

posiłkowy – auxiliary verb

przechodni – transitive verb

przechodni dwumiejscowy – ditransitive verb

przechodni jednomiejscowy – monotransitive verb

przyimkowy – prepositional verb

punktualny – punctual verb

regularny – regular verbs

rezultatywny – resultative verbs

ułomny – defective verb

złożony – phrasal verb

zwrotny – reflexive verb

część mowy – word class, part of speech

czeski język – Czech (language)

człon (zdania, frazy) – constituent (of a sentence, phrase)

luźny – adjunct

nacechowany (opozycji) – marked member (of an opposition)

nienacechowany – unmarked term

czynna znajomość języka – active language knowledge

czysty bezokolicznik – bare infinitive

D

dalszy – distal

dane językowe – linguistic data
dane prymarne – primary data
dativus – dative case
definicja ostensywna – ostensive definition
definicyjne cechy języka – design features of language
defonologizacja – merger, dephonologization
degeminacja – degemination
degradacja znaczenia – pejoration
deiktyczność – deixis
dekategoryzacja – decategorialisation
deklinacja rzeczownika – declension
dekodowanie – decoding
dekompozycja leksykalna – componential analysis, lexical decomposition
dekreolizacja – decreolization
delabializacja – delabialization
deminutivum – diminutive
denazalizacja – denasalization
denominalny – denominal
denotacja – denotational meaning, denotation, extension
depalatalizacja – dispalatalization
derywacja – derivation
    afiksalna – word derivation, affixation
    przyrostkowa – suffixation
    słowotwórcza – word derivation, affixation
    sufiksalna – suffixation
    wsteczna – back-formation (derivation)
    zerowa – zero-derivation
derywat – derivative
derywowany znacznik frazowy – derived phrase marker
desemantyzacja – bleaching, semantic weakening (fading) (depletion), desemanticization
desiderativum – desiderative
deskrypcja strukturalna – structural description
desygnat – designatum (pl. designata)
determinator – determiner

determinizm językowy – linguistic determinism
devanagari – Devanagari
dewerbalny – deverbal
deverbativum – deverbal
diachronia – diachrony
diachroniczny – diachronic
dialect – dialect
    regionalny – regional dialect
    społeczny – social dialect, sociolect
dialektologia – dialectology
    historyczna – historical dialectology
    strukturalna – structural dialectology
dialekty
    średnioangielskie – Middle English dialects
    staroangielskie – Old English dialects
dialektyzm – dialectism
diereza – dieresis
diglosja – diglossia
długość – length
dokumentacja – evidence
dolnołużycki język – Lower Lusatian (language)
domena – domain
    docelowa – target domain
    doświadczeniowa – experiential domain
    dyskursu – domain of discourse
    konceptualna – conceptual domain
    podstawowa – basic domain
    prymarna – primary domain
    sekundarna – secondary domain
    źródłowa – source domain
dominacja – dominance
    bezpośrednia – immediate dominance
dopełniacz – genitive case
    grupowy – group genitive
    saksoński – Saxon Genitive
dopełnienie – complement, object
    bliższe – direct object
    dalsze – indirect object
dopowiedzenie – apposition
dopuszczalność – acceptability

doświadczający – experiencer
doświadczenie ucieleśnione – embodied experience
drugi język – second language
drzewo derywacyjne – tree diagram
drzewo genealogiczne języków – genealogical tree (of languages), language family tree
dublet – doublet
    etymologiczny – etymological doublet
    morfologiczny – morphological doublet
duński język – Danish (language)
dvanda – dvanda, coordinate (copulative) compound
dwugłoska – diphthong
dwujęzyczność – bilingualism, diglossia
dwujęzyczny – bilingual
dwukropek – colon
dwustopniowość – duality, double articulation
dwuzgłoskowiec – disyllabic word
dwuznak – digraph
dyftong – diphthong
dyftongizacja – diphthongization
dysfazja – dysphasia
dysfemizm – dysphemism
dysjunkcja – disjunction
dyskretność – discreteness
dyskurs – discourse
    specjalistyczny – specialised discourse
dysleksja – dyslexia, word blindness
dyspalatalizacja – depalatalization, dispalatalization
dystalny – distal
dystans społeczny – social distance
dystrybucja – distribution
    kontrastująca – contrastive distribution
    swobodna – free variation
    uzupełniająca – complementary distribution
dystrybucjonaliści – Neo-Bloomfieldians, distributionalists
dystrybucjonalizm – distributionalism

dysymilacja – dissimilation
działanie językowe – performance
dźwięczność – sonority, voicedness
dźwięczny – voiced
dźwięk mowy – phone

E

echolalia – echolalia
efekty prototypowe – typicality effects
egipski język – Egyptian (language)
egzystencjalne *there* – existential *there*
eklektyczny – eclectic
eklektyk – eclectic
eklektyzm – eclecticism
eksklamacja – exclamation, exclamatory sentence
eksplicytne wypowiedzenie performatywne – explicit performative utterance
ekspansja – expansion
eksperienser – experiencer
eksplicytność (opisu językowego) – explicitness
ekstensja – extension
ekstralingwistyczny – extralinguistic
ekstrapozycja – extraposition
ekwiwalencja – equivalence
    mocna – strong equivalence
    słaba – weak equivalence
    tłumaczeniowa – translation equivalence
ekwiwalenty tłumaczeniowe – translation equivalents
element zastępczy – dummy, dummy element
elementy pierwotne semantyki – semantic primes (primitives)
elipsa – ellipsis
elizja – elision
emergentyzm – emergentism
empirysta – empiricist
empiryzm – empiricism
encyklopedia – encyclop(a)edia
enklityka – enclitic
epentetyczne *r* – linking *r*
epenteza – epenthesis, intrusion
epigrafika – epigraphy

eponim – eponym, appelative
ergativus – ergative
eskimo-aleuckie języki – Eskimo-Aleut (languages)
esperanto – Esperanto
estetyczna funkcja języka – aesthetic function of language
etnolingwistyka – anthropological linguistics, ethnolinguistics
etymolog – etymologist
etymologia – etymology
 ludowa – folk etymology, popular etymology
etymon – etymon
eufemizm – euphemism
eufonia – euphony
eufuizm – euphuism

F

fakultatywna reguła transformacyjna – optional (facultative) transformational rule
fale dźwiękowe – sound waves
fałszywi przyjaciele – false cognates, false friends, faux amis, homonimy międzyjęzykowe
faryngalizacja – pharyngealization
fenicki język – Phoenician (language)
figura retoryczna – figure of speech
filogeneza – phylogeny, phylogenesis
filologia – philology
Firthowska teoria (szkoła) lingwistyczna – Firthian linguistic theory
Firthowska teoria znaczenia – contextual (Firthian) theory of meaning
fizykalizm – physicalism
fleksja – inflection
fleksyjny język – inflecting (inflectional) language
florilegium – florilegium
fonacja – phonation
fonem – phoneme
fonemika – phonology, phonemics
fonetyk – phonetician
fonetyka – phonetics
 akustyczna – acoustic phonetics

 artykulacyjna – articulatory phonetics
 audytywna – auditory phonetics
 percepcyjna – auditory phonetics
fonografia – phonography
fonogram – phonogram
fonolog – phonologist
fonologia – phonology, phonemics
 naturalna – natural phonology
 prozodyczna – prosodic phonology
 segmentalna – segmental phonology
 suprasegmentalna – suprasegmental (non-segmental) phonology
fonologizacja – phonologization
fonotaktyka – phonotactis
forma – form
 adresatywna – address form, term of address
 hasłowa – citation form
 nieosobowa czasownika – non-finite verb
 niezaświadczona – unattested form
 opisowa – periphrastic form
 peryfrastyczna – periphrastic form
 poświadczona – attested form
 skostniała – frozen (fossilized) form
 wyrazowa – word-form
 zastępcza – pro-form
 zwracania się do innych – term of address, address form
formalny – formal
formant przyrostkowy – suffix
formatyw – formative
formy grzecznościowe – honorifics
fraktura – breaking, fracture
francuski język – French (language)
fraza – phrase
 adwerbialna – adverbial phrase
 czasownikowa – verb phrase
 nominalna – noun (nominal) phrase
 przymiotnikowa – adjectival phrase
 przysłówkowa – adverbial phrase
 werbalna – verb phrase
frazeologia – phraseology
frazeologizm – phraseologism
fryzyjski język – Frisian (language)
funkcje języka – functions of language

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ekspresywna języka – expressive function of language
emotywna – emotive function of language
fatyczna – phatic function
gramatyczna – grammatical function
impresywna – impressive function of language
kognitywna – cognitive function of language
komunikatywna – communicative function of language
konatywna – conative function of language
metajęzykowa – metalinguistic function of language
metalingwistyczna – metalinguistic function of language
performatywna – performative function of language
poetycka – poetic (aesthetic) function of language
pragmatyczna – pragmatic function
przedstawieniowa – representational function of language
referencyjna – referential function of language
symboliczna – symbolic function of language
funkcjonalna perspektywa zdania – functional sentence perspective (FSP)
fuzja – coalescence, desegmentalisation, fusion

G

galicyzm – gallicism
gałąź – branch (in a tree diagram)
    rodziny językowej – branch (of a language family), sub-family
gardło – pharynx
gatunek mowy – genre
geminacja – gemination
geminata – geminate
generatywista – generativist
generatywny – generative

generować – generate
generowanie – generation
genetivus – genitive case
geneza języka – language birth (genesis)
genre – genre
geografia językowa – linguistic geography
germanista – Germanist
germanizm – Germanism
gerundium – gerund
gestalt – gestalt
gestaltyzm – Gestalt psychology
gęstość leksykalna – lexical density
glosa – gloss
glosarium – glossary
glosariusz – glossary
glosator – glossator
glossematyka – glossematics
glottalizacja – glottalization
glottochronologia – glottochronology
glottodydaktyka – glottodidactics
glottogonia – glottogony, glossogenetics
głoska – phone
głośnia – glottis
główny człon (konstrukcji) – head (of a construction)
gocki język – Gothic (language)
goidelskie języki – Goidelic languages
górnołużycki język – Upper Lusatian (language)
gra słów – pun, play on words
grafem – grapheme
grafematyka – graphemics
grafemika – graphemics
grafologia – graphology
gramatycznie niepoprawny – illformed
gramatyczność – well-formedness
gramatyczny – well-formed
gramatyka – grammar
    aplikacyjna – applicational grammar
    formalna – formal grammar
    funkcjonalna – functional grammar (FG)
    generatywna – Generative Grammar (Theory)
    kategorialna – categorial grammar

kognitywna – Cognitive Grammar
leksykalno-funkcjonalna – lexical-functional grammar
leksykalno-gramatyczna – word class, part of speech
Montague'a – Montague grammar
normatywna – normative (prescriptive) grammar
ogólna – Universal Grammar
opisowa – descriptive grammar
pedagogiczna – pedagogical grammar
peryferyjna – peripheral grammar
pojęciowa – notional grammar
preskryptywna – normative (prescriptive) grammar
przypadków – Case Grammar
rdzeniowa – core grammar
struktur frazowych – Phrase-Structure Grammar
systemowa – systemic grammar
tradycyjna – traditional grammar
transformacyjno-generatywa – Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG)
uniwersalna – Universal Grammar
gramatykalizacja – grammaticalisation, grammaticization
morfologiczna – morphologization
gramatyki – grammars
bezkontekstowe – context-free grammars
ekwiwalentne – strongly equivalent grammars
kontekstowe – context-sensitive grammars
mocno równoważne – strongly equivalent grammars
skończenie stanowe – finite state grammars
słabo ekwiwalentne – weakly equivalent grammars
słabo równoważne – weakly equivalent grammars
wartościowości syntaktycznej – valency grammars
zależności – dependency grammars

granica morfologiczna – morpheme (morphological) boundary
gravis – grave accent
grupa – cluster
adwerbialna – adverbial phrase
czasownikowa – verb phrase
imienna – noun (nominal) phrase
nominalna – noun (nominal) phrase
przymiotnikowa – adjectival phrase
przysłówkowa – adverbial phrase
składniowa – phrase, syntagm
spółgłoskowa – consonant cluster
werbalna – verb phrase
grzeczność – politeness
gwara – dialect, cant
lokalna – vernacular
miejscowa – vernacular
miejska – urban dialect
zawodowa – occupational dialect
gwaryzm – dialectism

H

handlowy język – trade language
hapaks legomenon – hapax, hapax legomenon
haplologia – haplology
harmonia – harmony
samogłoskowa – vowel harmony
wokaliczna – vowel harmony
hausa język – Hausa (language)
hausa-musgu języki – Hausa-Musgu languages
hawajski język – Hawaiian (language)
hebrajski język – Hebrew (language)
heteronim – heteronym
hetycki język – Hittite (language)
hiatus – hiatus
hindi język – Hindi (language)
hindustani (język) – Hindustani (language)
hiperbola – hyperbole
hiperonim – hypernym, hyperonym
hiperpoprawność – hypercorrection, overcorrection, hyperurbanism
hipokorystykum – hypocoristic
hipokoryzm – hypocorism
hiponim – hyponym

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hiponimia – hyponymy
hipotaksa – hypotaxis
hipoteza – hypothesis
    bazy uniwersalnej – universal base hypothesis
    Bickerton'a – Bickerton's hypothesis, bioprogram hypothesis
    jednokierunkowości zmian językowych – unidirectionality hypothesis (principle)
    językowego obrazu świata – Weltanschauung hypothesis
    monogenetyczna – monogenesis
    natywistyczna – innateness (nativist) hypothesis
    o regularnym charakterze zmian głosowych – Neogrammarian Hypothesis, regularity hypothesis
    panchroniczna – panchrony
    poligentyczna – polygenesis
    Sapira–Whorfa – Sapir–Whorf hypothesis
    Sturtevanta – Sturtevant's hypothesis (paradox)
historia – history
    parasystemowa – external history
    wewnątrzsystemowa – internal history
    wewnętrzna – internal history
    zewnętrzna – external history
historiografia lingwistyczna – linguistic historiography
hiszpański język – Spanish (language)
holenderski język – Dutch (language)
holofraza – holophrase
homofon – homophone
homograf – homograph
homonim – homonym
    fonetyczny – homonym
    graficzny – homograph
homonimia – homonymy
homonimiczność – homonymy
homonimy międzyjęzykowe – false cognates, faux amis
homorganiczne głoski – homorganic sounds
hopi język – Hopi (language)

hybryda – hybrid
hydronim – hydronym
hydronimia – hydronymy

I

ibero-romańskie języki – Ibero-Romance languages
iberyjski język – Iberian (language)
idealizacja – idealization
idealny użytkownik – ideal speaker
ideofony – ideophones
ideogram – ideogram
idiolekt – idiolect
idiom – idiom
ikona – icon
ikoniczność (w języku) – iconicity (in language)
iloczas – quantity
imiesłów – participle
    przeszły – past participle
imperativus – imperative mood
implikacja – entailment, implication
implikatura – implicature
    konwersacyjna – conversational implicature
    konwencjonalna – conventional implicature
implikować – entail, implicate
importacja – adoption, importation
inchoativum – inchoative (inceptive) verb
indeks – structure index
indeksy – indices
    referencjalne – referential indices
indicativus – indicative mood
indoeuropejskie języki – Indo-European languages
indoirańskie języki – Indic (Indo-Aryan) languages
indyjskie języki – Indic (Indo-Aryan) languages
infiks – infix
infiksacja – infixation
infinitivus – infinitive
informacja zwrotna – feedback
informator – informant
ingressivum – inchoative (inceptive) verb

inkompatybilność – incompatibility

inkorporacja – incorporation

innatyzm – innateness (nativist) hypothesis

insercja – epenthesis, intrusion

inskrypcja – inscription

inskrypcje – runic inscriptions

instrumentalis – instrumental case

intensja (znaku językowego) – intension, sense

intensyfikator – intensifier

interferencja – interference

interfiks – interfix

interiekcja – interjection

interjęzyk – interlanguage

interlokutor – interlocutor

intermorf – interfix

internacjonalizm – internationalism

interpunkcja – punctuation

interwokaliczny – intervocalic

intonacja – intonation
    opadająca – falling intonation
    pozioma – level intonation
    rosnąca – rising intonation

intuicja językowa – linguistic intuition

inwariant językowy – invariant

inwersja – inversion

inżynieria językowa – language engineering

irańskie języki – Iranian languages

irokeskie języki – Iroquoian languages

islandzki język – Icelandic (language)

italskie języki – Italic languages

iterativa – iterative verbs

izofona – isophone

izoglosa – isogloss

izoleksa – isolex

izomorfa – isomorph

izomorfizm – isomorphism, transparency

J

jądro sylaby – nucleus (peak) of a syllable

jama gardłowa – pharynx

jama nosowa – nasal cavity

jama ustna – oral cavity

jawne wypowiedzenie performatywne – explicit performative utterance

jednojęzyczność – monolingualism

jednojęzyczny – monolingual

jednokierunkowość zmian językowych – unidirectionality (of a language change)

jednokierunkowy charakter zmian językowych – unidirectionality (of a language change)

jednostka – item, unit
    fonotaktyczna – phonematic unit
    języka – linguistic unit
    leksykalna – lexical item
    toniczna – tone unit
    wejściowa – input

jednozgłoskowiec – monosyllabic word

jednoznaczność – monosemy, univocality

języczek – uvula

język – language
    afiksalny – affixing language
    akuzatywny – accusative language
    analityczny – analytic (isolating) language
    autochtoniczny – autochtonous language, indigenous language
    biorca – borrowing language
    docelowy – target language
    egzotyczny – exotic language
    ergatywny – ergative language
    gestów – sign language
    inkorporacyjny – incorporating language
    izolujący – analytic (isolating) language
    kontaktowy – contact language
    literacki – standard language (variety)
    lokalny – indigenous language, vernacular
    macierzysty – native language
    martwy – dead (extinct) language
    międzynarodowy – international language
    mieszany – mixed language
    migowy – sign language

mniejszości narodowej – minority language

mówiony – spoken language

narodowy – national language, vernacular

naturalny – natural language

nieprozodyczny – non-prosodic language

ogólnonarodowy – koinē

ojczysty – mother tongue, native language, first language

pisany – written language

pokrewny – related (sister) language

polisyntetyczny – polysynthetic language

pomocniczy – auxiliary language

postpozycyjny – postpositional language

potoczny – colloquial speech, vernacular

prefiksalny – prepositional language

prepozycyjny – prepositional language

programowania – computer language

przedmiotowy – object language

rdzeniowy – core language

rodzimy – mother tongue, vernacular

satemowy – satem language

specjalistyczny – special language

sufiksalny – postpositional language

tonalny – tone language

toniczny – tone language

uzewnętrzniony – e-language, externalized language

zapożyczający – borrowing language, recipient language

zewnętrzny – e-language, externalized language

źródłowy – source language

żywy – living language

język-dawca – donor language

język-potomek – daughter (descendant) language

język-przodek – ancestor (parent) language

języki

germańskie – Germanic languages

romańskie – Romance languages

tasmańskie – Tasmanian languages

językoznawca – linguist

stosowany – applied linguist

językoznawstwo – linguistics

autonomiczne – autonomous linguistics

diachroniczne – diachronic (historical) linguistics

historyczne – historical (diachronic) linguistics

kognitywne – cognitive linguistics

kontrastywne – contrastive analysis (linguistics)

korpusowe – corpus linguistics

kryminalistyczne – forensic linguistics

kwantytatywne – quantitative (statistical) linguistics

matematyczne – mathematical linguistics

sądowe – forensic linguistics

statystyczne – quantitative (statistical) linguistics

stosowane – applied linguistics

strukturalne – structural(ist) linguistics

synchroniczne – synchronic linguistics

taksonomiczne – taxonomic linguistics

teoretyczne – theoretical linguistics

typologiczne – typological linguistics

jidysz – Yiddish

junkcja – junction

K

kalka językowa – calque, loan translation

kanoniczny – canonical

kasacja – deletion

katachreza – catachresis

katafora – cataphora

kataloński język – Catalonian (language)

kategoria – category

    arystotelesowska – classical (Aristotelian) category

    gramatyczna – grammatical category

    klasyczna – classical (Aristotelian) category

    leksykalno-gramatyczna – word class, part of speech

    naturalna – natural category

    pusta – empty category

    rozmyta – fuzzy category

    rządząca – governing category

    syntaktyczna – syntactic category

kategoryzacja – categorisation

kentumowe języki – Centum languages

kinezyka – kinesics

klasa obiektowa – class of objects (object class)

klasa zamknięta – closed system (class)

klasyczne języki – classical languages

klasyczny model kategoryzacji – classical (Aristotelian) theory of categorisation

klasyfikacja – classification

    genealogiczna (języków) – genetic classification of languages

    genetyczna (języków) – genetic classification of languages

    geograficzna (języków) – geographical classification (of languages)

    języków – classification of languages

    typologiczna (języków) – typological classification (of languages), language typology

klisza – (lexical) calque, loan translation

klityka – clitic

koartykulacja – coarticulation, accomodation

kod – code

kod językowy – langue

kodować – code

kodowanie – coding, encoding

kognitywista – cognitivist

kognitywistyka – cognitive science

kognitywna semantyka leksykalna – cognitive lexical semantics

koherencja – coherence

    referencyjna – referential coherence

    relacyjna – relational coherence

kohezja – cohesion

kohiponim – co-hyponym

koinē – koinē

koineizacja – koinéization, dialect levelling

kolektywa – collective nouns

kolokacja – collocation

kolokat – collocate

kolokwializm – colloquialism

kolokwialna odmiana języka – colloquial speech

kompetencja – competence

    dyskursywna – discourse competence

    gramatyczna – grammatical competence

    językowa – competence, linguistic competence

    komunikacyjna – communicative competence

    pragmatyczna – pragmatic competence

    słowotwórcza – word-formational-competence

    strategiczna – strategic competence

kompilacja – compilation

komplementarność – complementarity

komponent – component

    bazowy – base-component

    kategorialny – categorial component

    morfofonemiczny – morphophonemic component

    morfofonologiczny – morphophonemic component

    syntaktyczny – syntactic component

    semantyczny – semantic component

kompozycja – composition

komunikacja – communication

komunikat – message

konceptualizacja – conceptualisation

konektyw – interfix

logiczny – logical constant, connective

konfiguracjonizm – configurationism

kongruencja – concord, agreement

koniugacja – conjugation

koniunkcja – conjunction

koniunkty – conjuncts

konkatenacja – concatenation

konkordancja – concordance

konotacja – connotation

konsonant – consonant

konstrukcja – construction

    egzocentryczna – exocentric construction

    endocentryczna – endocentric construction

konsytuacja – consituation

kontakt językowy – language contact

kontaminacja – contamination

kontaminowanie – blending

kontekst – context

    językowy – co-text

    kulturowy – context of culture

    społeczny – social context

    sytuacyjny – context of situation

kontekstowa (Firthowska) teoria znaczenia – contextual (Firthian) theory of meaning

kontekstowe reguły frazowe – context-sensitive phrase-structure rules

kontekstualizacja – contextualization

kontrakcja – contraction

kontrprzykład – counter-example

konwencjonalna metafora pojęciowa – conventional conceptual metaphor

konwencjonalność – conventionality, arbitrariness

konwergencja – convergence

konwersacja – conversation

konwersja – conversion, zero-derivation

konwersywność – converseness

kookurencja – co-occurrence

kopenhaska szkoła strukturalistyczna – Copenhagen School

kopista – scribe

koptyjski język – Coptic (language)

kopula – copula

koreferencyjny – co-referential

kornicki język – Cornish (language)

korpus – corpus

    leksykalny – lexical corpus

kreatywność – creativity

    językowa – linguistic creativity

kreolizacja – creolization

kreolski język – creole (language)

kropka – full stop, period

krtań – larynx

kryptograf – cryptograph

kryptografia – cryptography

kryptogram – cryptogram

kryterium – criterion

    formalne – formal criterion

    prostoty – simplicity criterion

    theta – theta-criterion

krytyczna analiza dyskursu – critical discourse analysis

krzyżowanie wyrazów – blending

kuszyckie języki – Cushitic family of languages

kwantyfikator – quantifier

    ogólny – universal quantifier

    szczegółowy – existential quantifier

kwantytatywne podejście do zróżnicowania językowego – quantitative (statistical) approach to language variation

L

labializacja – labialization

lateralizacja – lateralization, cerebral dominance

leksem – lexeme, lexical item

leksyka – lexis

leksykalizacja – lexicalization

    semantyczna – semantic lexicalization

leksykalna luka – lexical gap

leksykograf – lexicographer

leksykografia – lexicography

leksykolog – lexicologist

leksykologia – lexicology

leksykon – lexicon

    mentalny – mental lexicon

leksykostatystyka – lexicostatistics

lemat – headword, entry word, lemma
lenicja – lenition, weakening
liczba – number
liczba podwójna – dual number
liczebnik – numeral
liczebniki główne – cardinal numerals
liczebniki porządkowe – ordinal numerals
liga językowa – league of languages
liga negrycka – Negro league
ligatura – liaison
linearność – linearity
lingua franca – lingua franca
lingwista – linguist
lingwistyka – linguistics
    antropologiczna – anthropological linguistics
    informatyczna – computational linguistics
    kartezjańska – Cartesian linguistics
    komputerowa – computational linguistics
    korpusowa – corpus linguistics
    kwantytatywna – statistical linguistics
    krytyczna – critical linguistics
    matematyczna – mathematical linguistics
    mentalistyczna – mentalistic linguistics
    statystyczna – statistical linguistics
    strukturalna – structural(ist) linguistics
    tekstu – text linguistics
    teoretyczna – theoretical linguistics
liniowość – linearity
litera – letter
litewski język – Lithuanian (language)
litotes – litotes
liturgiczny język – liturgical language
locativus – locative case
logika formalna – formal logic
logograf – logograph
logogram – logogram
logopeda – speech therapist
londyńska szkoła lingwistyczna – London School of Linguistics

Ł

łacina – Latin (language)
    klasyczna – classical Latin (language)
    ludowa – vulgar Latin (language)
łaciński język – Latin (language)
łączliwość leksykalna – collocation
łącznik – conjunction, connective, copula, linking verb, hyphen
    koordynujący – coordinating conjunction (connective)
    współrzędny – coordinating conjunction (connective)
łotewski język – Latvian (language)

M

macedoński język – Macedonian (language)
makrolingwistyka – macrolinguistics
makrosemem – macrosememe
maksymy konwersacji – maxims of conversation
malajo-polinezyjskie języki – Malayo-Polynesian (Austronesian) languages
malapropizm – malapropism, catachresis
mandaryński język – Mandarin (language)
manuskrypt – manuscript
mapa dialektów – dialect map
marginalia – marginalia
marginalny element kategorii – peripheral (marginal) member of a category
materiały źródłowe – evidence
matryca domen – domain matrix
mechanizm akwizycji języka – language acquisition device (LAD)
melioryzacja (znaczenia) – (a)melioration, elevation
mentalizm – mentalism
meronim – meronym
meronimia – meronymy
metafora – metaphor
    aktywna – active metaphor
    in absentia – metaphor *in absentia*
    in praesentia – metaphor in praesentia

martwa – extinct (dead) metaphor

ontologiczna – ontological metaphor

orientacyjna – orientational metaphor

pojęciowa – conceptual metaphor

strukturalna – structural metaphor

uśpiona – dormant metaphor

zleksykalizowana – extinct (dead) metaphor

złożona – complex metaphor

żywa – live metaphor

metaforyzacja – metaphorization

metajęzyk – metalanguage

metaleksykograf – metalexicographer

metaleksykografia – metalexicography

metanaliza – metanalysis

metateza – metathesis

metoda – method

audiolingwalna – audiolingual (aural-oral) method

badań terenowych – field method

filologiczna – philological method

geograficzna – geographical method

gramatyczno-tłumaczeniowa – grammar translation method

historyczno-porównawcza – comparative historical method

holistyczna – holistic approach

naturalna – natural approach (method)

rekonstrukcji porównawczej – comparative reconstruction method

rekonstrukcji wewnętrznej – internal reconstruction method

statystyczna – mathematical (statisctical) method

sytuacyjna – situational method

zorientowana obiektowo – object-oriented approach

metodologia – methodology (in research)

metonimia – metonymy

mianownik – nominative case

miejsce – slot

artykulacji – place of articulation

miejscownik – locative case

mieszanie kodów – code-mixing

międzynarodowy alfabet fonetyczny – International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)

mikrolingwistyka – microlinguistics

mikrosens – micro-sense, sub-sense

mlask – click

młodogramatycy – Neogrammarians

mniejszość językowa – linguistic minority

modalne czasowniki posiłkowe – modal auxiliaries

modalność – modality

aletyczna – alethic modality

deontyczna – deontic modality

epistemiczna – epistemic modality

model CARS – CARS model

modulanty – hedges, downtoners

modularność – modularity

moduł – module

mongolskie języki – Mongolian languages

monoftong – monophthong

monoftongizacja – monophthogization

monolingwalizm – monolingualism

monolingwalny – monolingual

monosemia – monosemy, univocality

monosylaba – monosyllable

morf – morph

morfem – morpheme

derywacyjny – derivational morpheme

fleksyjny – inflexional morpheme

gramatyczny – grammatical morpheme

końcówkowy – inflexional morpheme

leksykalny – lexical morpheme

produktywny – productive morpheme

pusty – null (zero) morpheme

słowotwórczy – derivational morpheme

swobodny – free morpheme

zerowy – null (zero) morpheme

związany – bound morpheme

morfofonem – morphophoneme, morphoneme

morfofonemika – morphophonemics, morphophonology, morphonology

morfofonologia – morphophonemics, morphophonology, morphonology

morfologia – morphology
    derywacyjna – derivational morphology
    fleksyjna – inflectional morphology
    naturalna – natural morphology

morfologiczna nieprzeźroczystość – morphological opacity

morfologizacja – morphologization

morfonem – morphophoneme, morphoneme

morfonologia – morphophonemics, morphophonology, morphonology

morfosyntaksa – morphosyntax

morfotaktyka – morphotactics

mowa – langage, speech
    ciała – body language
    niezależna – direct speech
    zależna – indirect speech

mówienie – parole, speech

multilingwalny – multilingual

N

nadawca – sender

nadrzędnik – head (of a construction)

nadużywalność – prevarication

nagłos (sylaby) – onset (of a syllable)

nagłośnia – epiglottis

napis – inscription
    runiczny – runic inscription

narodziny języka – language birth (genesis)

narząd mowy – articulator

narzędnik – instrumental case

następstwo czasów – sequence of tenses

natywizacja – adaptation, nativisation

natywizm – innateness (nativist) hypothesis, nativism

nawiasowanie – bracketing
    klamrowe – brace bracketing
    znakowe – labelled bracketing

nazalizacja – nasalization

nazwa – name
    geograficzna – toponym, place name
    miejscowa – place name
    pieszczotliwa – hypocoristic
    wielowyrazowa – phrasal compound
    własna – proper noun (name)
    zdrobniała – hypocoristic

nazwy
    cechy – nomina essendi
    czynności – nomina actionis, names of actions
    narzędzi – nomina instrumenti, names of instruments
    wykonawców czynności – nomina agentis

negacja – negation

negatywne strategie grzecznościowe – negative politeness strategies

neobloomfieldowcy – Neo-Bloomfieldians, distributionalists

neofilologia – neophilology

neolingwistyka – neolinguistics

neologizm – neologism
    fonologiczny – phonological neologism
    morfosyntaktyczny – morphosyntactic neologism

neurolingwistyka – neurolinguistics, neurological linguistics

neutralizacja – neutralization

nexus – nexus

niderlandzki język – Dutch (language)

nieciągłość – discreteness

niegramatyczny – ill-formed

niemiecki język – German (language)

nieokreśloność – vagueness

nieregularny – irregular

niezgodność – incompatibility

nigrycko-kongijskie języki – Niger-Congo languages

nominalizacja – nominalization

nominativus – nominative case

normandzki – Norman French, Anglo-French, Anglo-Norman

norweski język – Norwegian (language)

nośnik – vehicle

nostratic – nostratic

notacja – notation
novial – novial
nowoangielski język – Modern English

O

obciążenie funkcjonalne – functional load (yield)
obcięcie – truncation
obcy język – foreign language
obiekt – object
obligatoryjna reguła transformacyjna – obligatory transformational rule
oboczność – alternation
odbiorca – receiver
odczasownikowy – deverbal
odimienny – denominal
odmiana
    czasownikowa – conjugation
    rzeczownika – declension
    stylistyczna – stylistic variety
odmiękczenie – dispalatalization
odniesienie – reference
    anaforyczne – anaphoric reference
    egzoforyczne – exophoric reference
    endoforyczne – endophoric reference
    kataforyczne – cataphoric reference
odnośnik – referent
odpodobnienie – dissimilation
odrzeczownikowy – denominal
odwieloznacznić – disambiguate
odwieloznacznienie – disambiguation
oficjalny język – official language
ogarnienie – synecdoche
ogniskowa – focus, rheme
ogólnonarodowy język – standard language (variety)
ograniczenia – constraints (on grammatical rules)
    fonotaktyczne – phonotactic restrictions (constraints)
    selekcyjne – selectional restrictions, restrictions of co-occurrence
    kolokacyjne – collocational restriction
ojczysty język – first language
okaz wyrazu – token

określenie sprzeczne – oxymoron
określnik – modifier, qualifier
oksymoron – oxymoron
okurencja wyrazu – token
ominięcie – ellipsis
onomastyka – onomastics
onomatopeiczna teoria mowy – bow-wow theory, onomatopoeic theory
onomatopeja – onomatopoeia
onomazjologia – onomasiology
ontogeneza – ontogeny, ontogenesis
ontologia – ontology
opis strukturalny – structural description
opozycja – opposition
    fonologiczna – phonological opposition
    ekwipolentna – equipollent opposition
    gradualna – gradual opposition
    prywatywna – privative opposition
    równorzędna – equipollent opposition
optativus – optative mood
oratio recta – direct speech
organ mowy – articulator
ormiański – Armenian (language)
ortografia – orthography
orzeczenie – predicate (2)
    czasownikowe – verbal predicate
    imienne – nominal predicate
    nominalne – nominal predicate
    werbalne – verbal predicate
osłabienie dźwiękowe – lenition, weakening
osnowa – stem
osoba – person
osobowa forma czasownika – finite verb
ośrodek Broki – Broca's area
ośrodek sylaby – nucleus (peak) of a syllable
ośrodek Wernickego – Wernicke's area
oszczędność poznawcza – cognitive economy
oznajmienie – statement

P

pacjens – patient
palatalizacja – palatalization
palatalny – palatal
paleografer – paleograph
paleografia – paleography
paleontologia lingwistyczna – linguistic paleontology
palimpsest – palimpsest
palindrom – palindrome
pamięć – memory
    długotrwała – long-term memory
    krótkoterminowa – short-term memory
    krótkotrwała – short-term memory
pangram – pangram
para minimalna – minimal pair
paradoks
    Saussure'a – Saussurean paradox
    Sturtevanta – Sturtevant's hypothesis (paradox)
paradygmat – paradigm
    deklinacyjny – declensional paradigm
    fleksyjny leksemu – inflectional paradigm
    koniugacyjny – conjugational paradigm
parafraza – paraphrase
paragraf – paragraph
parametr – parameter
parasynteza – parasynthesis
parataksa – parataxis
paronim – paronym
paronimia – paronymy
paronomazja – paronomasia
participium – participle
partitivus – partitive
partykuła – particle
passim – passim
passivum – passive voice
pasywizacja – passivisation
patiens – patient
patolog mowy – speech pathologist
patologia mowy – language pathology, speech pathology
pauza – pause

pejoratyw – pejorative word
pejoratywizacja – pejoration
percepcja mowy – speech perception
performancja – performance
perintegracja – metanalysis
permutacja – inversion, permutation, re-ordering
personifikacja – personification
peryferyjny element kategorii – peripheral (marginal) member of a category
peryfraza – circumlocution, periphrasis
pęk izoglos – bundle of isoglosses
pidgin – pidgin
pidginizacja – pidginization
pidżyn – pidgin
pień – stem
pierwiastek – root
pierwsza germańska przesuwka spółgłoskowa – Grimm's law, first Germanic consonant shift
pierwszy język – first language
piktyjski język – Pictish (language)
pismo – writing system
    alfabetyczne – alphabetic writing
    ideograficzne – ideographic writing
    klinowe – cuineform
    runiczne – rune writing
    sylabiczne – syllabic writing, syllabary
plan (**płaszczyzna**)
    treści – content plane
    wyrażania – expression plane
pleonazm – pleonasm
plerem – plereme
plurale tantum – plurale tantum
pochodzenie
    języka – glottogony, glossogenetics
    wyrazów – etymology
podkategoria – subcategory
podmiot – subject
    gramatyczny – grammatical subject
    logiczny – logical subject
    psychologiczny – psychological subject
podniebienie miękkie – velum, soft palate

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podobieństwo rodzinne – family resemblance

podrodzina językowa – branch (of a language family), sub-family

podrządek – substring

podstawa (konstrukcji) – head (of a construction)

    derywacji – derivational base

    derywacyjna – derivational base

    słowotwórcza – base, derivational base

podstawienie – substitution

podwojenie – reduplication

    spółgłosek – gemination

podwójna artykulacja (języka) – duality, double articulation

podwójne przeczenie – double negative

podwójny dopełniacz – double genitive

poetyka – poetics

    kognitywna – cognitive poetics

poimek – postposition

pojęcie – concept

pokrewieństwo genetyczne – genetic affiliation (relationship)

pole leksykalne – lexical (semantic) field

    semantyczne – lexical (semantic) field

polinezyjskie języki – Polynesian languages

polisemia – polysemy

polityka językowa – language planning (engineering) (policy)

polski język – Polish (language)

połabski język – Polabian (language)

pomyłka w pisaniu – lapsus calami

poprawnie skonstruowany – well-formed

poprawność gramatyczna – well-formedness

poprzednik – antecedent

poprzedzanie – precedence

porównanie – simile

portugalski język – Portuguese (language)

posesywa niezbywalne – inalienable possessives

    zbywalne – alienable possessives

pośredni akt mowy – indirect speech act

postać – Gestalt

    czynności – aktionsart

postawa prawdziwościowa – propositional attitude

postfiks – postfix

postpozycja – postposition

potoczna odmiana języka – colloquial speech

powtórzenie – reduplication

pozajęzykowy – extralinguistic

poziom (systemu języka) – level (of a linguistic system)

poznanie ucieleśnione – embodied cognition

pozycja – slot

pozytywne strategie grzecznosciowe – positive politeness starategies

pożyczka – borrowing

półsamogłoska – glide, semi-vowel

praesens historicum – historic (dramatic) present

praeterite praesentia (czasowniki) – preterite-present verbs

pra – proto

praforma – proto-form

pragermański – Proto-Germanic

pragmalingwistyka – pragmalinguistics

pragmatyczny – pragmatic

pragmatyka – pragmatics

    historyczna – historical pragmatics

    kontrastywna – contrastive pragmatics

    międzyjęzykowa – interlanguage pragmatics

praindoeuropejski – Proto-Indo-European

prajęzyk – ancestor (parent) language, proto-language

pranordyjski język – Old Norse (language)

praromański – Proto-Romance (language)

prasłowiański – Proto-Slavic (language)

prawda logiczna – logical truth

prawo głosowe – sound law

prawo Grimma – Grimm's law, first Germanic consonant shift
prawo najmniejszego wysiłku – economy-of-effort principle
prawo Streitberga – Streitberg's law
prawo Vernera – Verner's law
prawo Zipfa – Zipf's law
predykacja – predication
predykat – predicate (1)
    jednomiejscowy – one-place predicate
prefiks – prefix
prefiksacja – prefixation
preleksykalny – prelexical
prelingwistyka – prelinguistics
prepozycja – preposition
preskryptywizm – prescriptivism
prestiżowy język – prestige language
presupozycja – presupposition
    pragmatyczna – pragmatic presupposition
PRO – PRO
pro – pro
pro-drop języki – pro-drop languages
procedura
    oceny – evaluation procedure
    odkrycia gramatyki – grammar discovery procedure
    odkrywcza – discovery procedure
produktywne sprawności językowe – productive language skills
produktywność (języka) – productivity (of language), linguistic productivity
    językowa – linguistic productivity
profil – profile
profilować – profile
profilowanie – profiling
program nauczania – syllabus, curriculum
projekcja – projection
    maksymalna – maximal projection
    minimalna – minimal projection
proklityka – proclitic
proksemika – proxemics
proksymalny – proximal
pronominalizacja – pronominalization
proteza – prothesis, prosthesis

prototyp – prototype
prototypowy element kategorii – prototypical (central) member of a category
prowansalski język – Provençal (language)
prozodia – prosody
prymarne
    czasowniki posiłkowe – primary auxiliary verbs
    samogłoski podstawowe – cardinal vowels
prymitywny język – primitive language
przecinek – comma
przeciwstawnia – inversion
przeczenie – negation
przedimek – article
    nieokreślony – indefinite article
    określony – definite article
przedmiot – object
    bezpośredni – direct object
    pośredni – indirect object
    wewnętrzny – cognate object
przedrostek – prefix
przegłos – umlaut
przejęzyczenie – lapsus linguae
przekaz – message
przekazywanie drogą kulturową – cultural transmission
przekład – translation
    dosłowny – literal translation, word-for-word translation
    maszynowy – machine translation
przekodowanie – code-switching, code-shifting
przełamanie – breaking, fracture
przemiana kategorialna – conversion, zero-derivation
przemienność – interchangeability
przeniesienie wyrazu – adoption, importation
przenośnia – metaphor
przesadnia – hyperbole
przestankowanie – punctuation
przestarzały – obsolete
przestawienie – permutation, reordering
przestawka – metathesis

przesunięcie
    akcentu – stress shift
    funkcjonalne – functional shift
    semantyczne – semantic shift
przesuwka samogłoskowa – vowel shift
przetwarzanie informacji – information processing
przeźroczystość morfologiczna – morphological transparency
przycisk – stress, accent
przydawkowy – attributive
przydech – aspiration
przyimek – preposition
przymiotnik – adjective
    atrybutywny – attributive adjective
    orzecznikowy – predicative adjective
    predykatywny – predicative adjective
przypadek – case
    głęboki – deep case
przyrostek – suffix
przysłówek – adverb
przytoczenie – quotation
psycholingwista – psycholinguist
psycholingwistyka – psycholinguistics
psychologia – psychology
    behawiorystyczna – behaviouristic psychology
    kognitywna – cognitive psychology
    postaci – gestalt psychology
punicki język – Punic (language)
purysta – purist
puryzm – purism
pusty – null
pytajnik – question mark
pytanie – question
    echowe – echo question
    retoryczne – rhetorical question
    rozłączne – disjunctive question, tag question

R
rachunek
    funkcyjny – functional calculus
    predykatów – predicate calculus, predicate logic
    zdań – propositional calculus
racjonalista – rationalist
racjonalizm – rationalism
rama – frame
    modalna – modal frame
    semantyczna – semantic frame
rdzeń – root
    sylaby – nucleus (peak) of a syllable
realizacja – actualization, realization
    kodu – parole
reanaliza – reanalysis
receptywne sprawności językowe – receptive language skills
redukcja samogłoskowa – vowel reduction
redundancja – redundancy
reduplikacja – reduplication
referencja – reference
referent – referent
refleks – loan translation, (lexical) calque
refleksywizacja – reflexivization transformation
reflexivum – reflexive verb
reguła – rule
    fakultatywna – facultative rule
    fonotaktyczna – phonotactic rule
    formacji – formation rule
    formowania – phrase-structure (rewrite) (substitution) rule
    frazowa – phrase-structure (rewrite) (substitution) rule
    insercji leksykalnej – lexical insertion rule
    kategorialna – categorial rule
    morfofonemiczna – morphophonemic rule
    morfonemiczna – morphophonemic rule
    podnoszenia – raising rule
    podwójnego podniesienia – double raising
    przekształcania – transformational rule, T-rule
    przepisywania – phrase-structure (rewrite) (substitution) rule
    przesunięcia – movement rule

rekurencyjna – recursive rule

rekursywna – recursive rule

substytucji – phrase-structure (rewrite) (substitution) rule

ścisłej subkategoryzacji – strict subcategorisation rule

tworzenia – formation rule

wstawienia leksykalnego – lexical insertion rule

transformacyjna – transformational rule, T-rule

rejestr – register (2)

rekcja – government

rekonstrukcja – reconstruction

językoznawcza – linguistic reconstruction

rekurencja – recursion, recursiveness

rekursywność – recursion, recursiveness

relacja paradygmatyczna – paradigmatic relationship (relation)

syntagmatyczna – syntagmatic relationship

semantyczna – semantic (sense) relation

znaczeniowa – semantic (sense) relation

relatywizm językowy – linguistic relativity

remat – comment, focus, rheme

reprezentacja fonetyczna – phonetic representation

semantyczna – semantic representation

retoryka – rhetoric

rodzaj – gender

czynności – Aktionsart

gramatyczny – grammatical gender

jawny – overt gender

męski – masculine gender

naturalny – natural gender

nijaki – neuter gender

utajony – covert gender

żeński – feminine gender

rodzajnik – article

nieokreślony – indefinite article

określony – definite article

rodzimy użytkownik języka – native speaker

rodzina językowa – language family

rola

semantyczna – semantic role

tematyczna – thematic role, theta-role, ө-role

uczestnika – participant role

rosyjski język – Russian (language)

rotacyzm – rhotacism

rozbiór gramatyczny zdania – parsing

rozszczepienie fonemu – phonemic split

rozszerzenie metaforyczne – metaphorical extension

rozszerzenie znaczenia – generalization (extension) of meaning

rozszerzona wersja gramatyki transformacyjno-generatywnej – Extended Standard Theory (Model) of Transformational-Generative Grammar (EST)

rozszerzony model gramatyki transformacyjno-generatywnej – Extended Standard Theory (Model) of Transformational-Generative Grammar (EST)

rozwijanie – adjunction

rozwinięcie – expansion, adjunct

rozziew – hiatus

równoznaczność – synonymy

rumuński język – Rumanian (language)

runy – runes

rząd – government

rządek (szereg) – string

derywowany – derived string

jądrowy – kernel string

końcowy – terminal string

preterminalny – preterminal string

terminalny – terminal string

wyjściowy – underlying string

rzeczownik – noun, substantive

abstrakcyjny – abstract noun

kolektywny – collective noun

konkretny – concrete noun

materialny – concrete noun

niepoliczalny – non-count noun, uncountable noun, mass noun

policzalny – countable (count) noun
pospolity – common noun
własny – proper noun (name)
zbiorowy – collective noun

S

sąd – proposition
  analityczny – analytic proposition
  syntetyczny – synthetic proposition
samoański język – Samoan (language)
samogłoska – vowel
  ciemna – back vowel
  jasna – front vowel
  otwarta – open vowel
  palatalna – front vowel
  podstawowa – cardinal vowel
  pojedyncza – monophthong
  przednia – front vowel
  tylna – back vowel
  wysoka – close (high) vowel
  zamknięta – close (high) vowel
  zaokrąglona – rounded vowel
samojedzkie języki – Samoyed languages
sandhi – sandhi
sanskryt – Sanskrit (language)
sardyński język – Sardinian (language)
schemat – schema
  wyobrażeniowy – image schema
schwa – schwa, shwa
segment – segment
segmentacja – segmentation
sekundarne czasowniki posiłkowe – secondary auxiliary verbs
sekundarne samogłoski podstawowe – secondary cardinal vowels
semantycy generatywni – generative semanticists
semantycyzacja – semanticization
semantyczność – semanticity
semantyk – semanticist
semantyka – semantics
  encyklopedyczna – encyclopaedic semantics
  generatywna – generative semantics
  interpretacyjna – interpre(ta)tive semantics

  interpretatywna – interpre(ta)tive semantics
  kognitywna – cognitive semantics
  leksykalna – lexical semantics
  Montague'a – Montague grammar (semantics)
  prawdziwościowa – truth-conditional semantics
  ramowa – frame semantics
  strukturalna – structural semantics
semazjologia – semasiology
semickie języki – Semitic languages
semiotyka – semiotics
sens – sense
serbo-chorwacki język – Serbo-Croatian (language)
siła illokucyjna – illocutionary force
singulare tantum – singulare tantum
sinickie języki – Chinese (Sinitic) languages
składnia – syntax
  rządu – government
  zgody – agreement, concord
składnik (zdania, frazy) – constituent (of a sentence, phrase)
  bazowy – base-component
  bezpośredni – immediate constituent
  fonologiczny – phonological component
  kategorialny – categorial component
  końcowy – ultimate constituent
  nieciągły – discontinuous constituent
  semantyczny – semantic component (feature)
  syntaktyczny – syntactic component
  terminalny – ultimate constituent
skrót wyrazowy – clipped word, clipping
skrótowiec – abbreviation
skryba – scribe
skrypt – script
  cyryliczny – cyrillic script
  romański – Roman script
skrzyżowanie wyrazów – blend, contamination

slang – argot, cant, slang
słowacki język – Slovak (language)
słoweński język – Slovene (language)
słowiańskie języki – Slavic languages
słownictwo – lexicon, lexis
    akademickie – academic vocabulary
    bierne – passive vocabulary
    czynne – active vocabulary
    fachowe – terminology
    podstawowe – core (basic) vocabulary
słownik – dictionary, lexicon
    etymologiczny – etymological dictionary
    uniwersalny – general-purpose dictionary
słowo wielosylabowe – polysyllable
słowo kluczowe w kontekście – key word in context (KWIC)
słowo-forma – word-form
słowotwórstwo – word formation
socjolekt – social dialect, sociolect
socjolingwistyka – sociolinguistics, sociology of language
socjologia języka – sociolinguistics, sociology of language
sonorność – sonority, voicedness
spektrogram – spectrogram
spektrograf – spectrograph
spirant – spirant, fricative consonant
spirantyzacja – spirantisation
sposób artykulacji – manner of articulation
spotęgowanie – hyperbole
spójka – linking verb, copula
spójnik – conjunction, connective
    hipotaktyczny – subordinate (subordinating) conjunction
    koordynujący – coordinating conjunction (connective)
    logiczny – logical constant, connective
    podrzędny – subordinate (subordinating) conjunction
    współrzędny – coordinating conjunction (connective)
spójność formalna – cohesion

spójność właściwa – coherence
społeczność językowa – speech community
spółgłoska – consonant
    alweolarna – alveolar consonant
    apikalna – apical consonant
    bilabialna – bi-labial consonant
    boczna – lateral consonant
    cerebralna – retroflex consonant
    dentalna – dental consonant
    długa – geminate
    dwuwargowa – bi-labial consonant
    dziąsłowa – alveolar consonant
    dźwięczna – voiced consonant
    eksplozywna – stop (plosive) consonant
    faryngalna – pharyngeal (pharyngal) consonant
    frykatywna – spirant, fricative consonant
    gardłowa – pharyngeal (pharyngal) consonant
    interdentalna – interdental consonant
    interwokaliczna – intervocalic consonant
    labialna – labial consonant
    labio-dentalna – labio-dental consonant
    laminalna – laminal consonant
    lateralna – lateral consonant
    międzyzębowa – interdental consonant
    nosowa – nasal consonant
    podwojona – geminate
    predorsalna – laminal consonant
    przydechowa – aspirate
    retrofleksywna – retroflex consonant
    sycząca – sibilant consonant
    szczelinowa – fricative consonant
    trąca – spirant, fricative consonant
    tylnojęzykowa – velar consonant
    wargowa – labial consonant
    wargowo-zębowa – labio-dental consonant
    welarna – velar consonant

zębowa – dental consonant
zwarto-szczelinowa – affricate
zwartowybuchowa – stop (plosive) consonant
sprawca – agent, causer
obowiązku – deontic source
sprawność językowa – language profficiency
sprawności językowe – language skills
sprzężenie zwrotne – interchangeability
spuneryzm – spoonerism
stan języka – éta de langue
końcowy – final state
na wejściu – initial state
początkowy – initial state
standardowa odmiana języka – standard language (variety)
standardowa wersja gramatyki transformacyjno-generatywnej – Standard Version (Model) (also *Aspects* Version) of Transformational-Generative Grammar
standardyzacja – standardization
staroangielski – Old English, Anglo-Saxon
starobułgarski język – Old Bulgarian (language)
staro-cerkiewno-słowiański – Old Church Slavic (language)
starofryzyjski język – Old Frisian (language)
staroperski język – Old Persian (language)
staropruski język – Old Prussian (language)
starosaksoński język – Old Saxon (language)
staro-wysoko-niemiecki – Old High German (language)
statystyczne podejście do zróżnicowania językowego – quantitative (statistical) approach to language variation
stopa – foot
strona – voice
bierna – passive voice
czynna – active voice
średnia – middle voice

struktura – structure
argumentowa – argument structure, valence
frazowa – constituent, phrase (syntactic) structure
głęboka – deep (underlying) structure
linearna zdania – linear structure of a sentence
powierzchniowa – surface (superficial) structure
prototypowa – prototype structure
składnikowa – constituent (phrase, syntactic) structure
tekstu – text structure
strukturalna polisemia – structural ambiguity
styl – register (1), style
stylistyka – stylistics
subkategoria – subcategory
subkategoryzacja – subcategorisation
subordynator – complementizer
subrządek – substring
substancja – substance
substantivum – noun
substrat językowy – substratum, substrate
substytucja – substitution
sufiksacja – suffixation
sufix – suffix
sumeryjski język – Sumerian (language)
superstrat językowy – superstratum
supletywizm – suppletion, suppletivism
symbolika dźwięków – sound symbolism
sygnał – signal
sylaba – syllable
otwarta – open syllable
toniczna – tonic syllable
uniwersalna – universal syllable
zamknięta – closed syllable
sylabacja – syllabification
sylabar – syllabic writing, syllabary
sylabariusz – syllabic writing, syllabary
sylabifikacja – syllabification
symbol – symbol

kategorialny – category symbol
kompleksowy – complex symbol
końcowy – terminal symbol
nieterminalny – non-terminal symbol
terminalny – terminal symbol
synchronia – synchrony
synchroniczny – synchronic
synekdocha – synecdoche
synestezja – synaesthesia, synaesthetic metaphor
synkopa – syncope
synkretyzm – syncretism
synonimia – synonymy
syntagma – phrase, syntagm
nominalna – noun (nominal) phrase
werbalna – verb phrase
syntaktyka – syntax
syntetyczne języki – synthetic languages
syntetyzator mowy – speech synthesizer, voice synthesizer
synteza mowy – speech synthesis
system – system
językowy – language system, langue
otwarty – open class (system)
paralingwistyczny – paralinguistic system
pojęciowy – conceptual system
zamknięty – closed system (class)
szczyt sylaby – coda (final) of a syllable, peak (of a syllable)
szkoła genewska – Geneva School
szkoła kopenhaska – Copenhagen School
szkoła lingwistyczna – linguistic school
szkoła neolingwistyczna – neolinguistics
Szkoła Port Royal – Port Royal School
szkoła praska – Prague School
szpara głosowa – glottis
sztuczny język – artificial language
szwa – schwa, shwa
szwedzki język – Swedish (language)
szyfr – cipher
szyk wyrazów – word order

Ś

ślad – trace
śmierć języka – language death (extinction)
średnik – semicolon
średnioangielski – Middle English (language)
świat możliwy – possible world

T

tabu – taboo
tagmem – tagmeme
tagmemika – tagmemics
tajny język – secret language
taksonomia – taxonomy
tautologia – tautology
tekst – text
wyjściowy – source text
źródłowy – source text
temat – theme, topic
fleksyjny – stem
metafory – tenor (of a metaphor)
teologiczne wyjaśnianie zmian językowych – teleological explanation of language change
teoria – theory
aktów mowy – Speech Act Theory
bliskości – bounding theory
falowa – wave theory (model)
generatywna – Generative Grammar (Theory)
gramatyki – theory of grammar
informacji – communication (information) theory
kategoryzacji – prototype theory
komunikacji – communication (information) theory
kreskowa – X-Bar theory
leksykografii – metalexicography
minimalistyczna – minimalist (programme) theory
nacechowaności – markedness theory
natywistyczna – ding-dong theory, ta-ta theory
teoria pola semantycznego – Semantic Field Theory (SFT)

prototypów – prototype theory
przypadka – case theory
relacji tematycznych – theta-theory, ө-role
rządu i wiązania – Government and Binding Theory (GB-theory)
skłani frazowej wielostopniowej – X-bar theory
stratyfikacyjna – stratificational theory
substratu językowego – substrate theory
śladowa – trace theory
theta – theta-theory, ө-role
wiązania – binding theory
x-bar – x-bar theory
zasad i parametrów – principles-and-parameters theory
termin – term
pierwotny – primitive (undefined) term, prime
terminologia – terminology
test pary minimalnej – minimal pair test
sprawności językowej – profficiency test
teutońskie języki – Teutonic (languages)
teza o poznaniu ucieleśnionym – thesis of embodied experience
tezaurus – thesaurus
tłumacz
przysięgły – certified (accredited) translator
żywego słowa – interpreter
tłumaczenie – translation
dosłowne – literal translation, word-for-word translation
dowolne – free translation
swobodne – free translation
żywego słowa – interpretation
tocharski język – Tocharian, Tokharian (language)
ton – tone
mocno rosnący – high-rising tone
opadająco-rosnący – falling-rising tone
opadający – falling tone

rosnąco-opadający – rising-falling tone
słabo rosnący – low-rising tone
toniczny – tonic
topik – topic
topikalizacja – topicalization
toponim – toponym, place name
toponimia – toponyms, toponomastics
toponomastyka – toponyms, toponomastics
transfer – transfer (or language transfer)
negatywny – negative transfer
transformacja – transformation
łącząca – double-base transformation
refleksywna – reflexivization transformation
zachowująca znaczenie – meaning-preserving transformation
zbiorcza – generalized (double-base) transformation
zmieniająca znaczenie – meaning-changing transformation
zwrotna – reflexivization transformation
transformacjonalista – transformationalist
transformacyjny – transformational
transitivum – transitive verb
transkrypcja – transcription
fonetyczna – narrow (phonetic) transcription
fonologiczna – phonemic transcription
translatologia – translatology
transliteracja – transliteration
treść (znaku językowego) – intension, sense
trójgłoska – triphthong
trójkąt retoryczny – rhetorical triangle
tryb – mood
łączący – subjunctive mood
oznajmujący – indicative mood
rozkazujący – imperative mood
warunkowy – conditional mood
życzący – optative mood
tryftong – triphthong

twarz – face
    negatywna – negative face
    pozytywna – positive face
twórczość językowa – linguistic creativity
tybeto-burmańskie języki – Tibeto-Burman (Burmese) (language)
typ – type
typologia lingwistyczna – language typology

U

ubezdźwięcznienie – devoicing
udźwięcznienie – voicing
ugrofińskie języki – Finno-Ugric languages
ukraiński język – Ukrainian (language)
umlaut – umlaut
uniwerbizacja – univerbation
uniwersalia
    absolutne – absolute universals
    formalne – formal universals
    implikacyjne – implicational universals
    językowe – language universals
    materialne – substantive universals
    pragmatyczne – pragmatic (interpersonal) universals
    statystyczne – statistical universals
    substancjalne – substantive universals
uniwersum dyskursu – universe of discourse
unosowienie – nasalization
uosobnienie – personification
upodobnienie – assimilation
uporządkowanie reguł – rule ordering
uprzednienie – fronting
uralskie języki – Uralic languages
urdu język – Urdu (language)
usilnienie – fortition, strengthening
ustalenie stopnia reprezentatywności – goodness-of-example ratings
usunięcie wieloznaczności – disambiguation
usuwanie – deletion

utoazteckie języki – Uto-Aztecan languages
utrata znajomości języka – language loss
uvula – uvula
uzupełnienie – complement
uzus – usage
użycie systemu językowego – parole
użytkownik języka – language user

V

velum – velum, soft palate
verbum – verb
verbum infinitum – infinitive
vocativus – vocative case

W

walencja – argument structure, valency
walijski język – Welsh (language)
wariant – variant
    fonemu – allophone
    morfemu – allomorph
    językowy – variant
warstwa (systemu języka) – level (of a linguistic system)
wartość (znaku językowego) – value
wartość logiczna – truth-value
wartościowość syntaktyczna – valency
warunki – constraints, conditions
    fortunności – felicity (happiness) conditions
    skoordynowanej struktury – Coordinate Structure Constraints
    strukturalnej zależności – structure-dependency principles
    prawdziwości – truth conditions
    szczerości – sincerity conditions
wczesnonowoangielski – early Modern English (language)
wedycki – Vedic (language)
wedyjski – Vedic (language)
wejście – input
welaryzacja – velarization
węgierski język – Hungarian (language)
węzeł – node
    kategorialny – category node
    terminalny – terminal node

wiązać – bind
wiązanie – binding
wiązka izoglos – bundle of isoglosses
wiedza językowa – competence, linguistic competence
    metalingwistyczna – metalinguistic knowledge
wielka przesuwka samogłoskowa – Great Vowel Shift
wielojęzyczny – multilingual
wielokropek – suspension points
wieloznaczność – polysemy, ambiguity
    gramatyczna – grammatical ambiguity
    strukturalna – structural ambiguity
wieloznaczny – ambiguous, polysemous
wierzchołek – node
    terminalny – terminal node
więzadła głosowe – vocal cords
więź fatyczna – phatic communion
własność zbywalna – alienable possession
włoski język – Italian (language)
wokalizacja – vocalization
wołacz – vocative case
wrostek – infix
wskazywanie – deixis
wskaźnik
    dyskursu – discourse marker
    strukturalny – structure index
    upodrzędnienia – complementizer
wspólne pochodzenie – common origin
współrzędność – parataxis
współwystępowanie – co-occurrence
wtrącone *r* – intrusive *r*, linking *r*
wulgaryzm – vulgarism
wygłos – ultima
wyjście – output
wyjściowy znacznik frazowy – underlying phrase marker
wykładnik – exponent
    intensywności – intensifier
wykonanie
    językowe – performance
    kodu – parole
wykonawca czynności – agent

wykrzyknik – exclamation mark, interjection
wymienianie się rolami – turn-taking
wymowa – pronunciation
    zgodna z pisownią – spelling pronunciation
wypowiedzenie – utterance
wypowiedź – utterance
    konstatująca – constative utterance
    performatywna – performative, performative utterance
    performatywna explicite – explicite performative utterance
    performatywna prymarna – implicit performative utterance
wyraz – word
    adiektywalny – deadjectival word
    autosemantyczny – content (full) (lexical) word
    deadwerbialny – deadverbial word
    derywowany – complex word, derivative
    dwuzgłoskowy – disylabic word
    dźwiękonaśladowczy – onomatopoeia
    fonologiczny – phonological word
    funkcyjny – function (grammatical) word
    gramatyczny – function (grammatical) word
    gwarowy – dialectism
    hasłowy – entry word, headword, lemma
    istniejący – actual word
    jednomorfemowy – monomorphemic word
    jednosylabowy – monosyllabic word
    jednozgłoskowy – monosyllabic word
    leksykalny – content (full, lexical) word
    monosylabiczny – monosyllabic word
    morfosyntaktyczny – morphosyntactic word
    nadrzędny – superordinate word (term)

o zabarwieniu ujemnym – pejorative word

odprzymiotnikowy – deadjectival word

odprzysłówkowy – deadverbial word

ortograficzny – orthographic word

pełnoznaczny – content (full, lexical) word

pochodny – derivative

pokrewny – cognate word, cognate

polimorficzny – polymorphemic word

pomocniczy – function word

potencjalny – potential word

potoczny – colloquialism

przeciwstawny – antonym

pusty – empty word

pytający – wh-word

wielosylabowy – polysyllabic word

zdrobniały – diminutive

wyraz-efemeryda – nonce-word, nonce-formation

wyrazistość – prominence

wyrażenie

　anaforyczne – anaphoric expression

　deiktyczne – deictic expressions

　egocentryczne – deictic expression

　potoczne – colloquialism

　przyimkowe – prepositional phrase

　wskazujące – deictic expression

wyrównanie analogiczne – analogical levelling

wyróżnik – distinguisher

wysepka – island

wysokość dźwięku – pitch

wyszły z użycia – obsolete

wyuczalność – learnability

wyzerowany – null

wzdłużenie – lengthening

wzorcowa wymowa brytyjska – Received Pronunciation (RP)

Z

zaimek – pronoun

　nieokreślony – indefinite pronoun

　osobowy – personal pronoun

　pytający – interrogative pronoun

　wskazujący – demonstrative pronoun

　wzajemnie zwrotny – reciprocal pronoun

　względny – relative pronoun

　zwrotny – reflexive pronoun

zależny przypadek – oblique case

zanik – atrophy, attrition, erosion

zanurzenie – embedding

zapis – notation

　semantyczny – semantic representation

zapożyczanie – borrowing (the process of borrowing)

　kulturowe – cultural borrowing

zapożyczenie – borrowing

zasada – principle

　„A-nad-A" – A-over-A principle

　Fregego – Frege's principle

　jednokierunkowości zmian językowych – unidirectionality hypothesis (principle)

　kooperacji – cooperative principle

　modularności – modularity principle

　najmniejszego wysiłku – principle of least effort

　wiązania – binding principle

zasięg negacji – scope of negation

zastępnik – pro-form

　czasownika – pro-verb

zbiór otwarty – open class (system)

zbitka – cluster

　spółgłoskowa – consonant cluster

　wyrazowa – blend, contamination

zdalność – displacement

zdanie – sentence

　derywowane – derived sentence

　dewiacyjne – ill-formed sentence

　egzystencjalne – existential sentence

　główne – main (independent) clause

　gramatyczne – well-formed sentence

　jądrowe – kernel sentence

　macierzowe – matrix clause

　matrycowe – matrix clause

　nadrzędne – main (independent) clause

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niegramatyczne – ill-formed sentence

osobowe – finite clause

oznajmujące – declarative sentence, statement

podrzędne – subordinate clause

poprawne – well-formed sentence

proste nierozwinięte – simple unextended sentence

proste rozwinięte – simple extended sentence

przyzwalające – concessive clause

pseudo-rozszczepione – pseudocleft sentence

rozszczepione – cleft sentence

składowe – clause

składowe poboczne – dependent clause

składowe podrzędne – dependent clause

warunkowe – conditional clause

wykrzyknikowe – exclamation, exclamatory sentence

względne – relative clause

względne ograniczające – restrictive relative clause

względne opisowe – non-restrictive (non-defining) relative clause

zanurzone – embedded clause

złożone współrzędnie – compound sentence

złożone podrzędnie – complex sentence

zdolność językowa – language faculty

konceptualizacji – conceptualising capacity

zdrobnienie – diminutive, hypocoristic

zestawienie frazowe – phrasal compound

zeugma – zeugma

zgrubienie – augmentative

zinternalizowany język – internalized language, i-language

zleksykalizowany – lexicalized

złożenie – compound, compound word

egzocentryczne – bahuvrīhi, exocentric compound

kopulatywne – appositional (copulative, coordinate) compound, dvanda

współrzędne – dvanda, coordinate (copulative) compound

zmiana allomorficzna – allomorphic change

analogiczna – analogical change

fonetyczna – phonetic (subphonemic) change

fonologiczna – phonological change

funkcjonalna – functional change

językowa – language change

leksykalna – lexical (semantic) change

morfologiczna – morphological change

semantyczna – lexical (semantic) change

syntaktyczna – sytactic change

wewnątrzsystemowa – internal change, endogenous innovation

zewnątrzsystemowa – external change

zmienna – variable

kontekstowa – contextual variable

zmiękczenie – palatalization

zmodyfikowana rozszerzona teoria standardowa – Revised Extended Standard Theory (REST)

znaczącość – semanticity

znaczenie – meaning, sense

denotatywne – denotational meaning

gramatyczne – grammatical/structural meaning

kognitywne – cognitive meaning

konotacyjne – connotational meaning

kontekstowe – contextual meaning

leksykalne – lexical meaning

potencjalne – lexical meaning

pragmatyczne – pragmatic meaning

referencyjne – cognitive (denotativ) (referential) meaning

semantyczne – semantic meaning

strukturalne – grammatical (structural) meaning

stylistyczne – stylistic meaning

znacznik frazowy – phrase-marker (P-Marker)

znak – sign

  diakrytyczny – diacritic (diacritical) mark

  długości samogłoski – macron

  interpunkcyjny – punctuation mark

  językowy – linguistic sign

  przestankowy – punctuation mark

  zapytania – question mark

zoosemiotyka – zoösemiotics

zróżnicowanie językowe – variation (language variation)

zróżnicowanie stylistyczne – stylistic variation

zwarcie krtaniowe – glottal stop

zwężenie znaczenia – narrowing (restriction) of meaning, semantic restriction

zwroty grzecznościowe – honorifics

zwyczaj językowy – usage

Ź

źródło deontyczne – deontic source

źródłosłów – etymology, root

Ż

żargon – argot, cant, slang, jargon

żydowski język – Yidish, Yiddish (language)

żywotny – animate

Notatki/Notes

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Redaktor
Krystian Wojcieszuk

Projekt okładki
Tomasz Tomczuk

Redakcja techniczna
Małgorzata Pleśniar

Korekta
Adriana Szaforz

Łamanie
Bogusław Chruściński, Ireneusz Olsza

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Więcej o książce