



## *LEXICAL TYPOLOGY*

Peter Koch (Part I)



**A. General introduction**

**B. Lexical hierarchies**

**C. Lexical motivation**

**D. Syntagmatic axis**

**E. Outlook**

# 1. The problem of the *tertium comparationis*

“Any typology requires a language-independent **yardstick** against which the units under comparison can be measured [...]. This problem is particularly acute in semantic typology [...]” (Evans, in press: 508).

“From a theoretical point of view, the overriding issue for lexical typology concerns the *tertium comparationis*. What are the optimal concepts and categories to support the systematic investigation of lexicons and lexicological phenomena across the world’s languages?” (Goddard, submitted).

# 1. The problem of the *tertium comparationis*

language  
comparison = comparison  
of linguistic **signs**

linguistic **signs** = (two?)-level entities

# Semiotics in the Saussurean (1916) tradition:

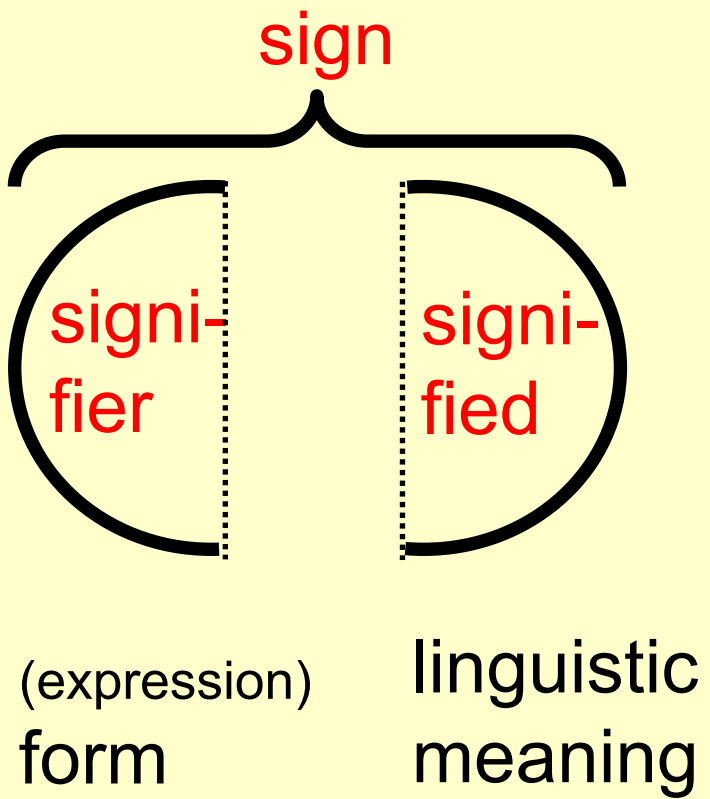


Fig. 1

## Semiotics in the “cognitive semantics” tradition

(e.g. Haiman 1980; Taylor 1999):

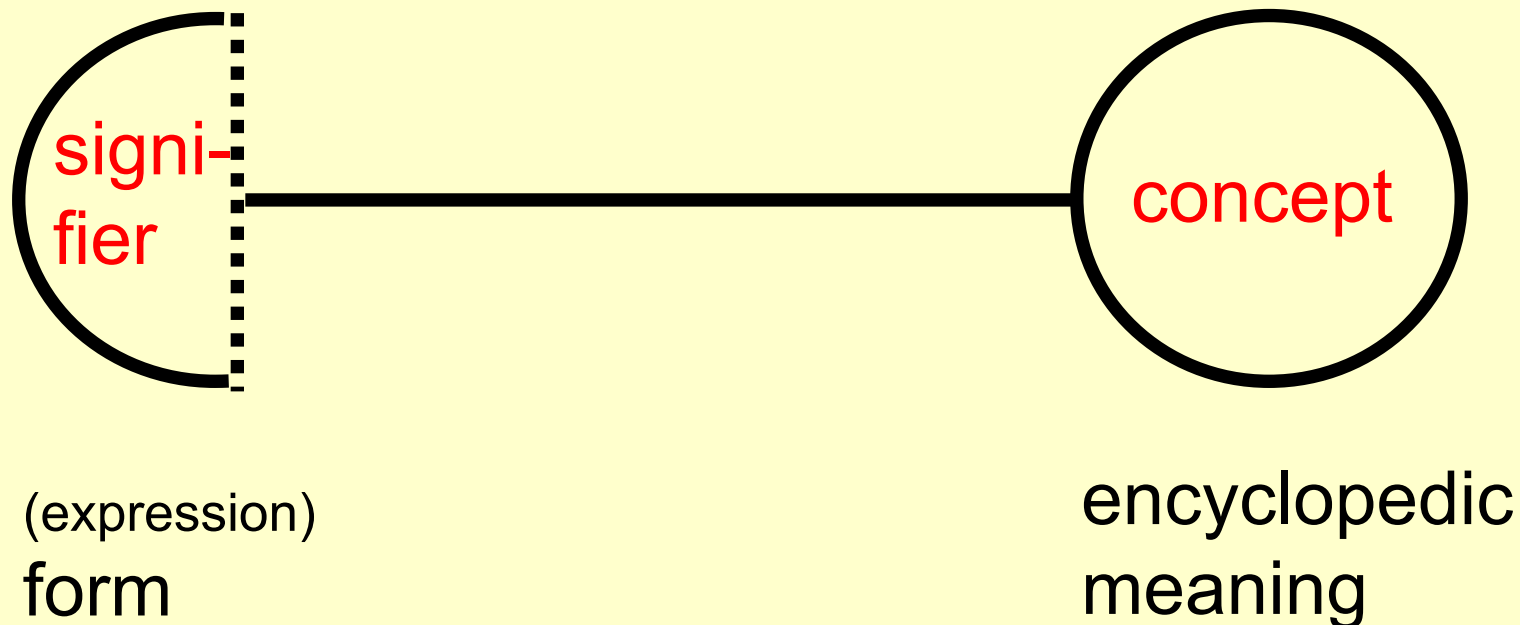


Fig. 2

A realistic semiotics (cf. Raible 1983, 5; Blank 1997: 98-102;  
Koch 1998; 2003):

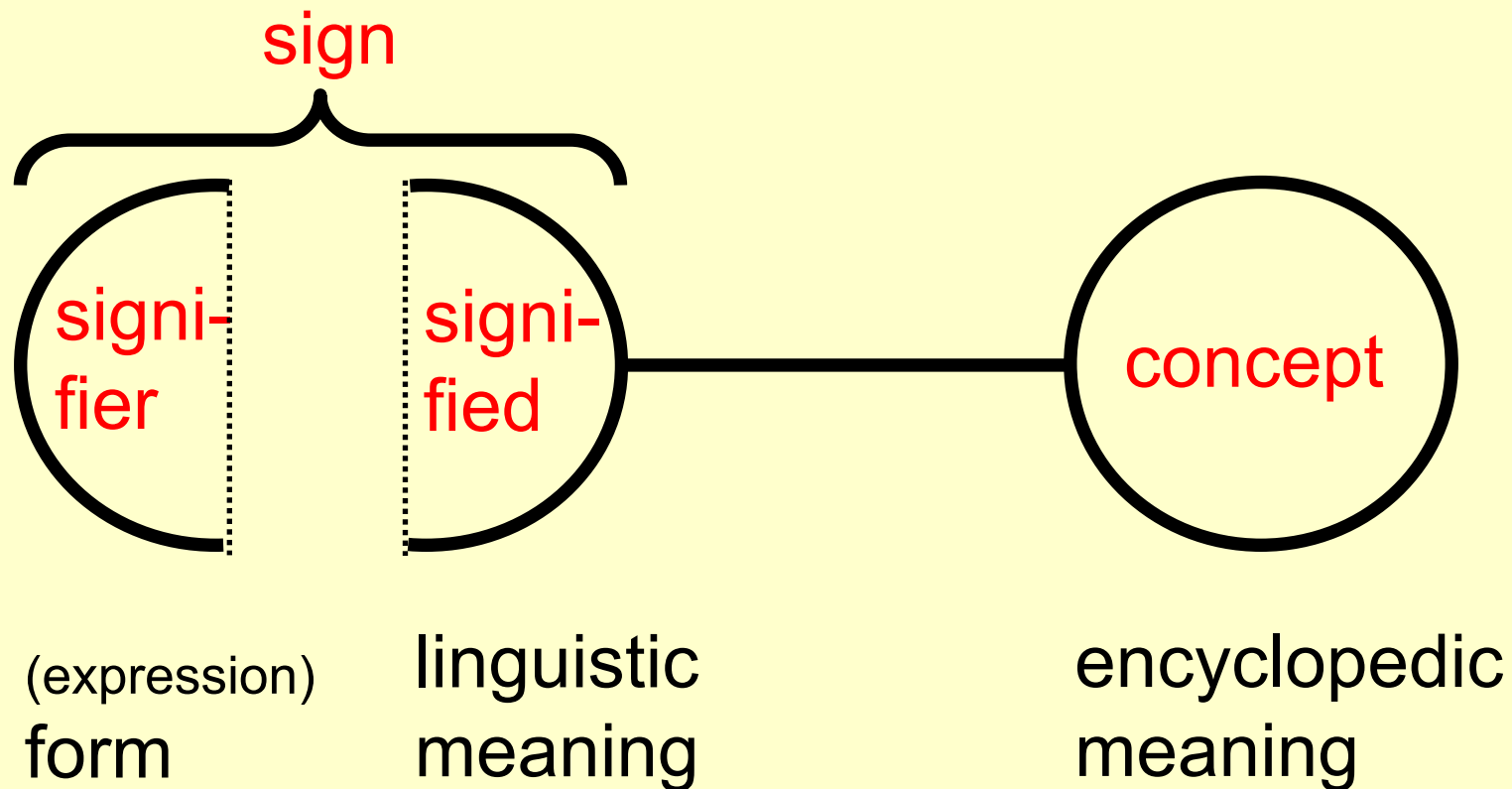
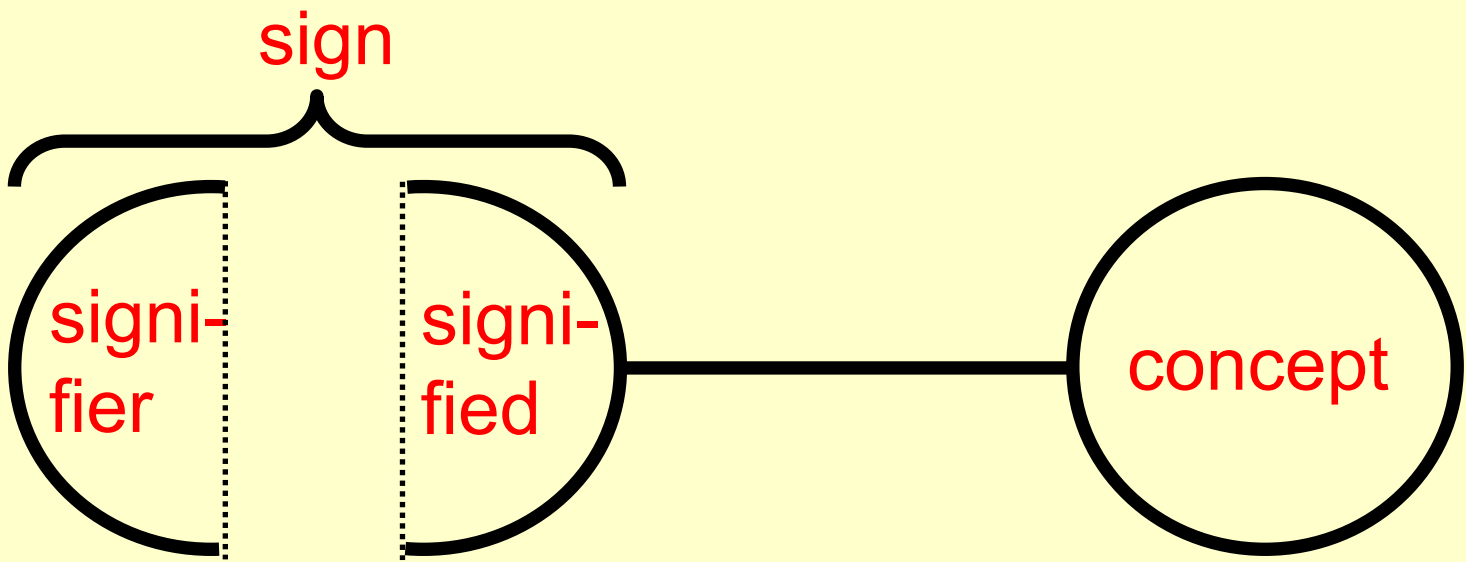


Fig. 3

# A realistic semiotics, exemplified:



Fr. *viande*  
( vs.  
Fr. *chair*)

'meat'  
(as opposed  
to 'flesh')

all we know  
about MEAT

Fig. 4



# A realistic semiotics, exemplified:

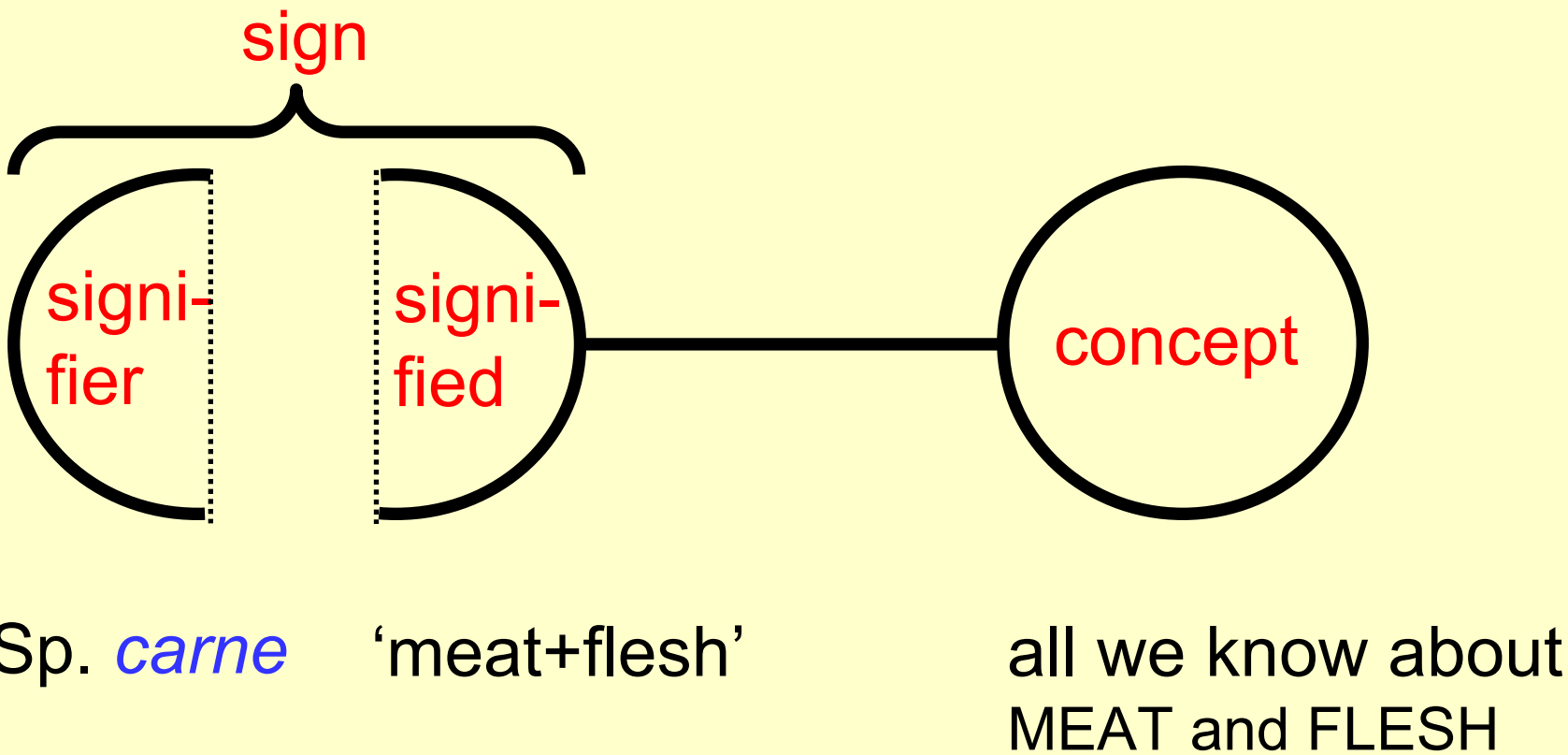


Fig. 5

# Semiotic perspectives:

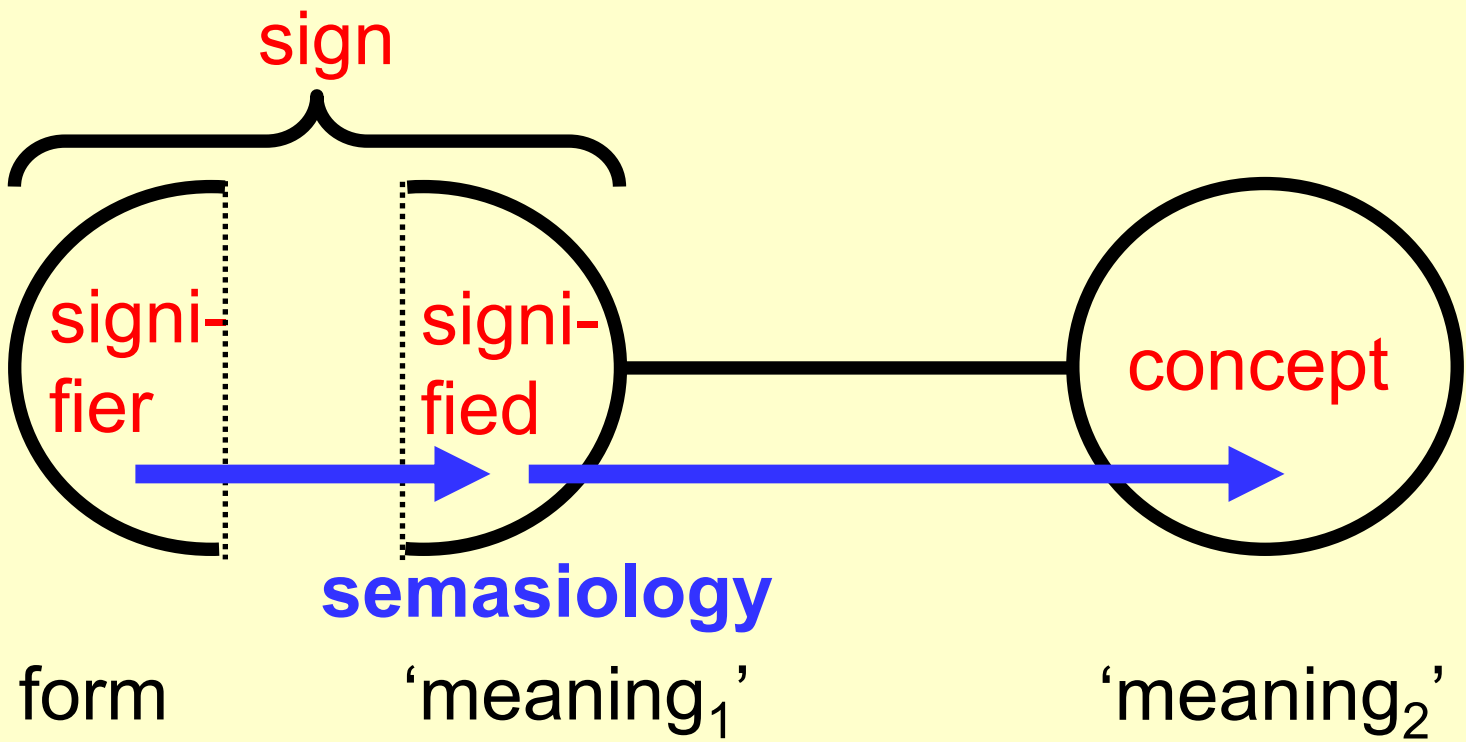


Fig. 6

# Semiotic perspectives:

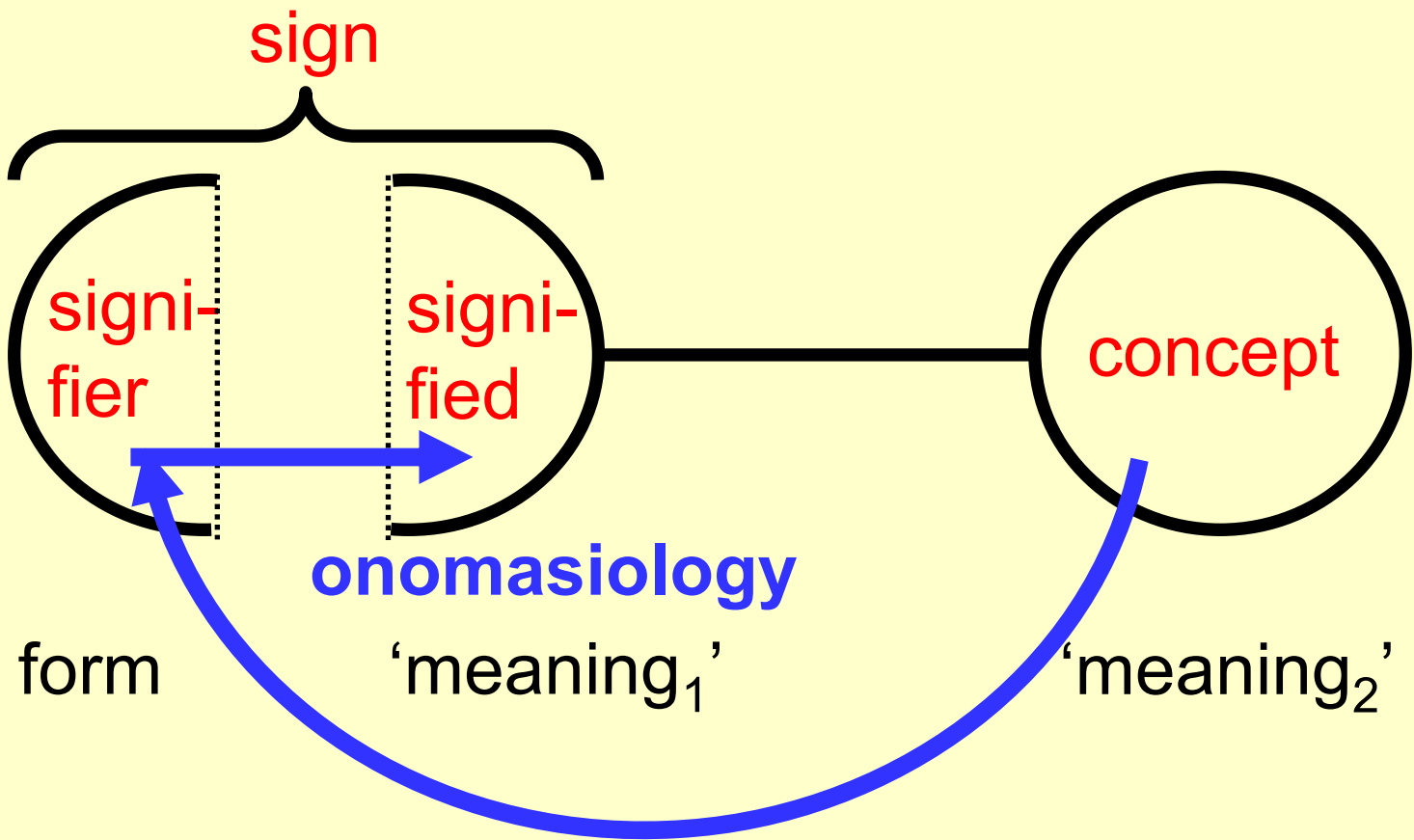
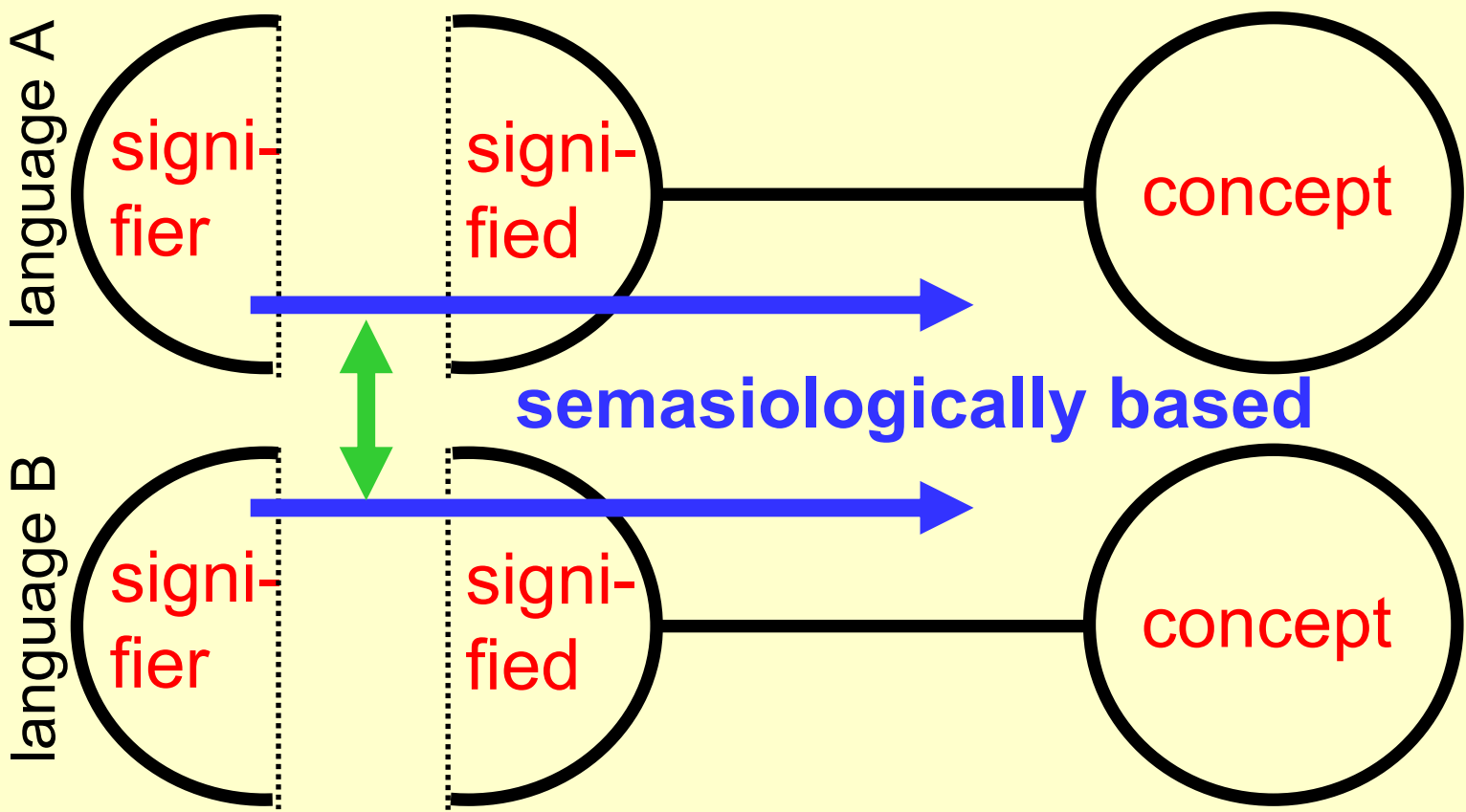


Fig. 7a

Typological comparison based on **signifying** units:



e.g.: Are there languages that have more polysemy than others?

Fig. 9

Typological comparison based on **signifying** units:

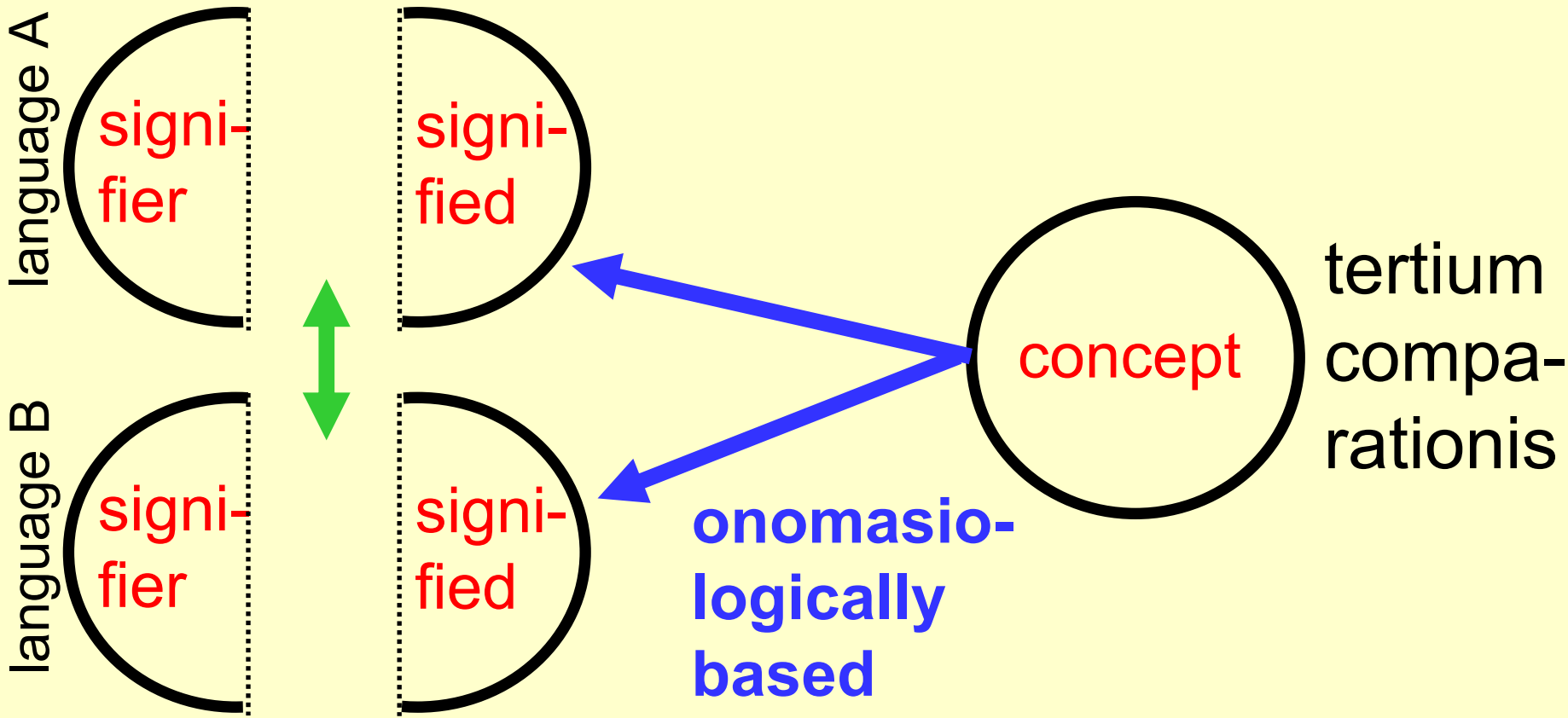


Fig. 11

# The new discussion on linguistic ‘relativity’:

- Lucy 1992
- Niemeier 2000; Pütz 2000
- Gentner/Goldin-Meadow 2003

- cf. also:
- Luque Durán 2001: 15-53, 489-541
  - Koptjevskaja-Tamm 2008: 13-26
  - Evans, in press: 508-511

“For morphosyntactic comparison to be possible, we must hold the meaning constant – at least this must be universal. [...] The question of semantic universals is the most difficult to answer [...]. Translation is generally possible, even if not always straightforward. Notice that for the purpose of typological comparison we do not need identity of strictly linguistic meanings. All we need is some level of meaning at which meanings must be commensurable. [...] as long as there is translatability of simple concepts, comparison should be possible” (Haspelmath 2007: 127f.).

“[...] posing some abstract, ‘universal’ level of semantic representation leaves open the question what kind of meaning-based categories these ‘simple concepts’ belong to. Are they psychologically real or are they theoretical constructs? Are they linguistic or non-linguistic semantic categories? [...] how can we be sure that the translational equivalent in some other language involves the same, rather abstract meaning” (Rijkhoff 2009: 101).



## Conceptual inventories for onomasiological research:

denomination	reference	number of concepts	purpose
<i>Begriffssystem</i>	Hallig/Wartburg 1963	over <b>8,000</b>	dialectological investigation
<i>Dictionnaire onomasiologique des langues romanes</i>	Vernay 1991-96 (DOLR)	uncompleted with nearly <b>3,000</b>	onomasiological systematics
<i>Dictionary of Selected Synonyms in the Principal Indo-European Languages</i>	Buck 1949	nearly <b>1,500</b>	etymology of Indo-European

→ basis of the *Intercontinental Dictionary Series* (IDS), edited by EVA Leipzig (Key/ Comrie) [<http://lingweb.eva.mpg.de/ids/>]: **1,310** concepts; 214 languages; → typological research

## Conceptual inventories for onomasiological research:

denomination	reference	number of concepts	purpose
<i>Wörterbuch der vergleichenden Bezeichnungslehre</i>	Schröpfer 1979-94	uncompleted with nearly <b>1,100</b>	recurrent diachronic semantic patterns
Swadesh list(s)	Swadesh 1955; 1960	2 versions: about <b>200</b> and <b>100</b>	lexicostatis- tics, glotto- chronology
<i>Natural Semantic Meta-language</i> (NSM)	Wierzbicka 1996; God- dard, sub- mitted	<b>63</b>	claim for universality

# NSM primes (Goddard, submitted: Table 1):

I, YOU, SOMEONE, SOMETHING~THING, PEOPLE, BODY	<b>substantives</b>
KIND, PART	<b>relational substantives</b>
THIS, THE SAME, OTHER~ELSE	<b>determiners</b>
ONE, TWO, SOME, ALL, MUCH~MANY	<b>quantifiers</b>
GOOD, BAD	<b>evaluators</b>
BIG, SMALL	<b>descriptors</b>
KNOW, THINK, WANT, FEEL, SEE, HEAR	<b>mental predicates</b>
SAY, WORDS, TRUE	<b>speech</b>
DO, HAPPEN, MOVE, TOUCH	<b>actions, events, movement, contact</b>
BE (SOMEWHERE), THERE IS, HAVE, BE (SOMEONE/SOMETHING)	<b>location, existence, possession, specification</b>
LIVE, DIE	<b>life and death</b>
WHEN~TIME, NOW, BEFORE, AFTER, A LONG TIME, A SHORT TIME, FOR SOME TIME, MOMENT	<b>time</b>
WHERE~PLACE, HERE, ABOVE, BELOW, FAR, NEAR, SIDE, INSIDE	<b>space</b>
NOT, MAYBE, CAN, BECAUSE, IF	<b>logical concepts</b>
VERY, MORE	<b>intensifier, augmentor</b>
LIKE~WAY	<b>similarity</b>

## 1.2. Conceptual inventories

<b>inventory</b>	<b>number of concepts</b>	<b>claim for universality?</b>
<i>Begriffssystem</i> Hallig/Wartburg	~8,000	no
DOLR Vernay	~3,000	no
Buck/IDS	1,300-1,500	no
Schröpfer	1,100	only with respect to the patterns
Swadesh list	~200/100	yes, but problematic
NSM	63	<b>YES!</b>

### 1.3. Substantialist vs. relational approach

“[...] semantic molecules are complex meanings which are decomposable into combinations of semantic primes but which function as units in the structure of other, more complex concepts” (Goddard, submitted: section 2.):

<b>(63) universal concepts</b>	(hundreds of thousands of) <b>concepts</b> expressed in languages
--------------------------------	---

identity

“[...] language can serve as its own metalanguage [...]” (Evans, in press: 516).  
molecule [m]

**(63) NSM primes**

Fig. 12

### 1.3. Substantialist vs. relational approach

“[...] semantic molecules must be meanings of lexical units in the language” (Goddard, submitted: section 2.).

“[...] many complex concepts have multiple “nestings” of molecule within molecule” (ibid.).

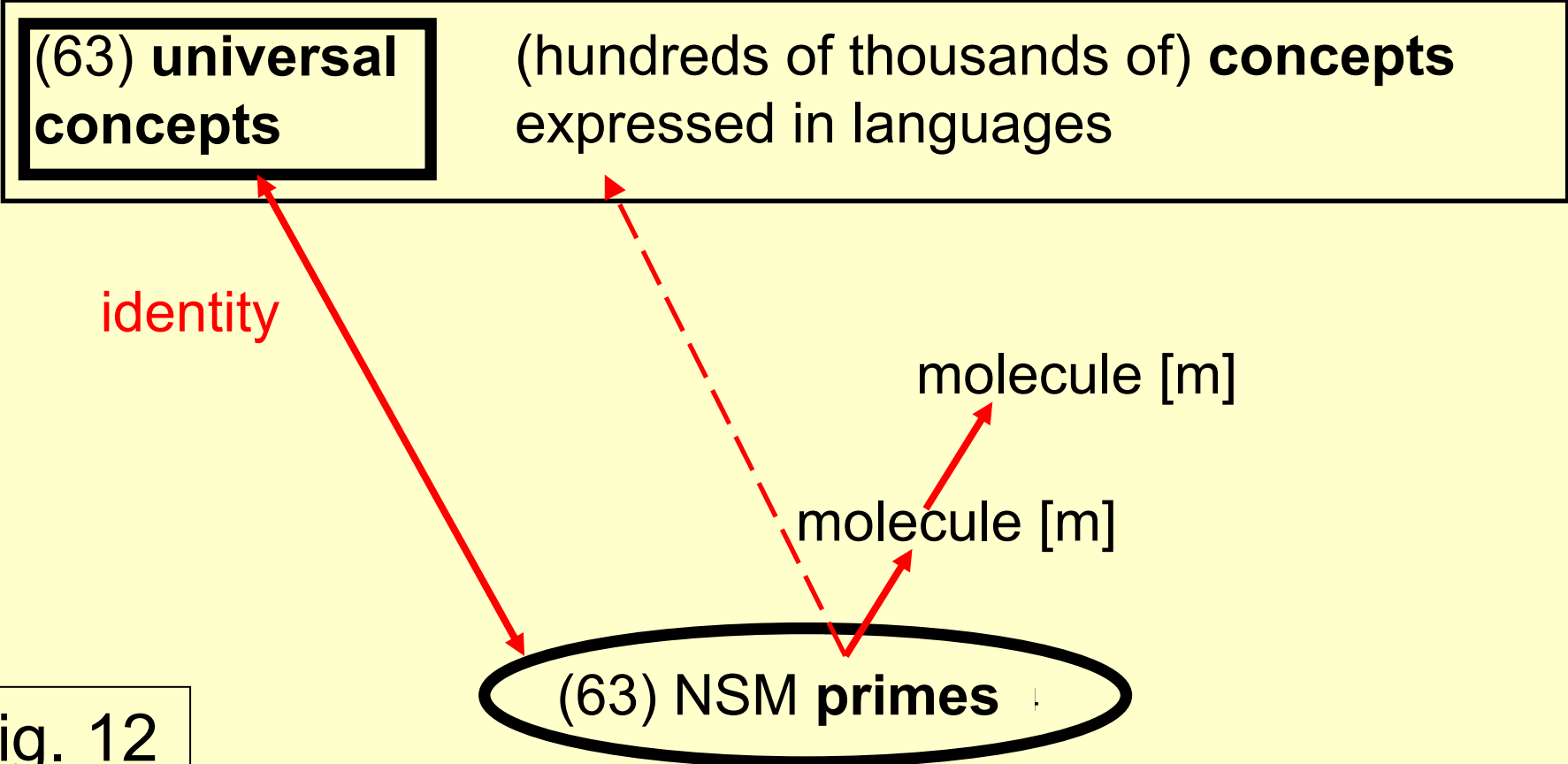


Fig. 12

# 1.3. Substantialist vs. relational approach

“[...] a semantic template is a structured set of component types shared by words of a particular semantic class [...]”  
(Goddard, submitted: section 3.)

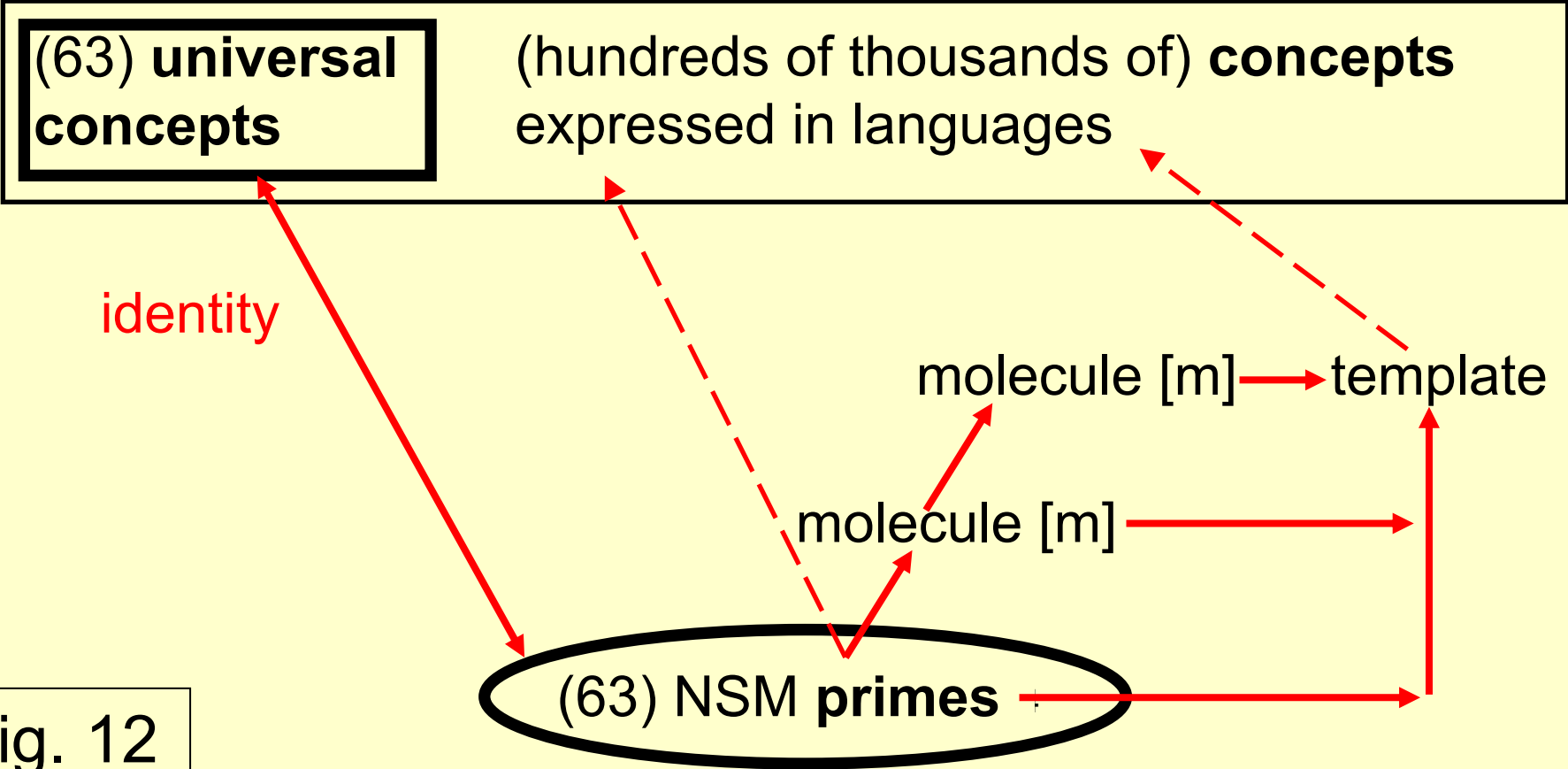


Fig. 12

### 1.3. Substantialist vs. relational approach

(1/2/3) Someone X was *drink-/eat-/ñb-ing* something Y:  
(English/Kamal)

- a. s.o. X was doing s.th. to s.th. Y with the mouth [m] for some time because of this, s.th. was happening to this s.th. at the same time
- b. at many times s.o. does s.th. like this to s.th. when it is like this:  
this s.th. is s.th. like / not like water [m] / Ø ← relational analysis  
this s.o. wants this s.th. to be inside their body
- c. when s.o. does s.th. like this to s.th. for some time the same thing happens many times  
it happens like this:  
this s.o. does s.th. to this s.th. with their mouth [m]  
because of this, after this, part of this s.th. is for a very short time inside this s.o.'s mouth [m]  
after this, this s.o. does s.th. else to it with their mouth [m]  
because of this, after this, it is not inside this s.o.'s mouth [m] anymore, it is somewhere else inside this s.o.'s body for some time
- d. if s.o. does s.th. like this to s.th. for some time, after some time, all parts of this s.th. can be inside this s.o.'s body



# 1.3. Substantialist vs. relational approach

*tertia comparationis* = substantially based on the (very few) universal concepts

→ 'substantialist' approach

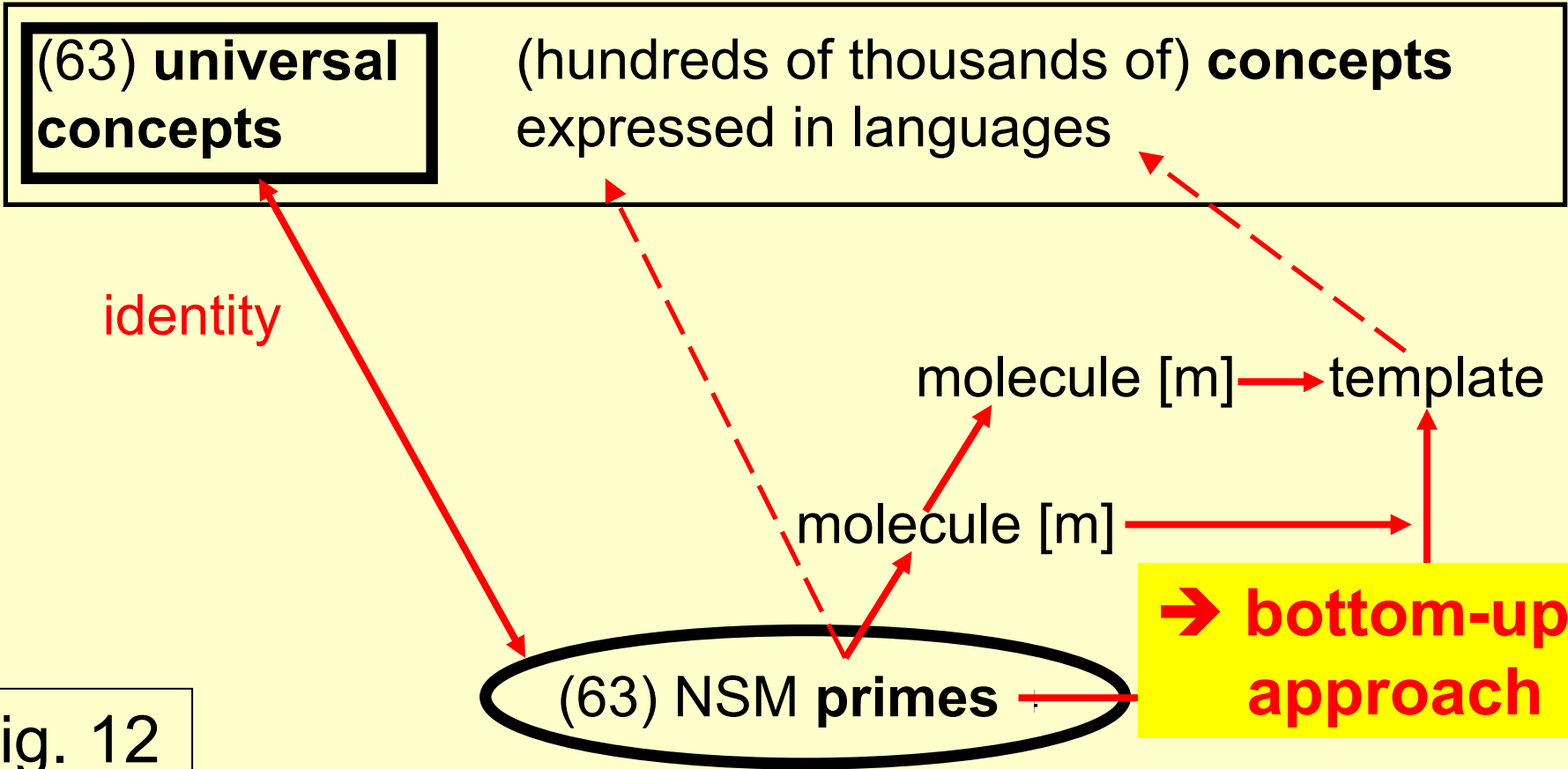


Fig. 12

### 'substantialist' approach

**(63) universal  
concepts**

(hundreds of thousands of) **concepts**  
expressed in languages

Is the “substance” correct?

*WANT* = prime? (cf. Koptjevskaja-Tamm 2008: 26; Evans, in press: 516)

# 1.3. Substantialist vs. relational approach

e.g. INGESTION

identification of a given conceptual field/domain

→ top-down

(hundreds of thousands of) **concepts** expressed in languages

signifier(s) and signified(s) in particular languages

language 1:  
Kamal *ñb*

language 2:  
E. *eat* vs. *drink*

language 3:  
Germ. *essen* vs. *trinken* vs. *fressen* vs. *saufen*

Koch, Lexical typology, 2010-8-24

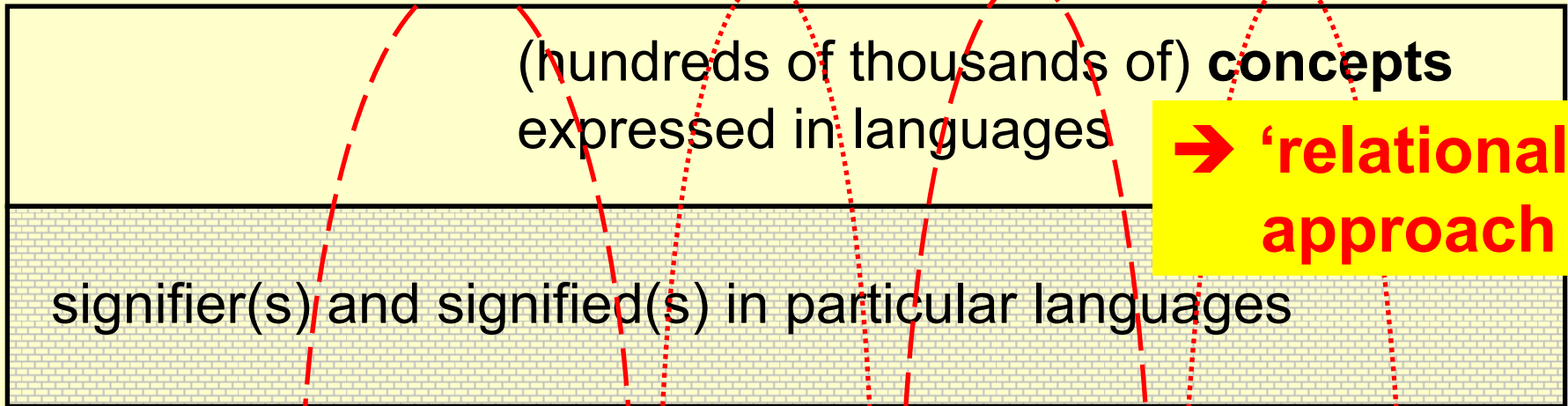
Fig. 13

# 1.3. Substantialist vs. relational approach

identification of conceptual distinctions and constants

→ **bottom-up**

analysis of conceptual interrelations



→ **'relational' approach**

signifier(s) and signified(s) in particular languages

language 1

language 2

language 3

*tertia comparationis*: depend on relations between concepts

Fig. 13

# Relational approach:

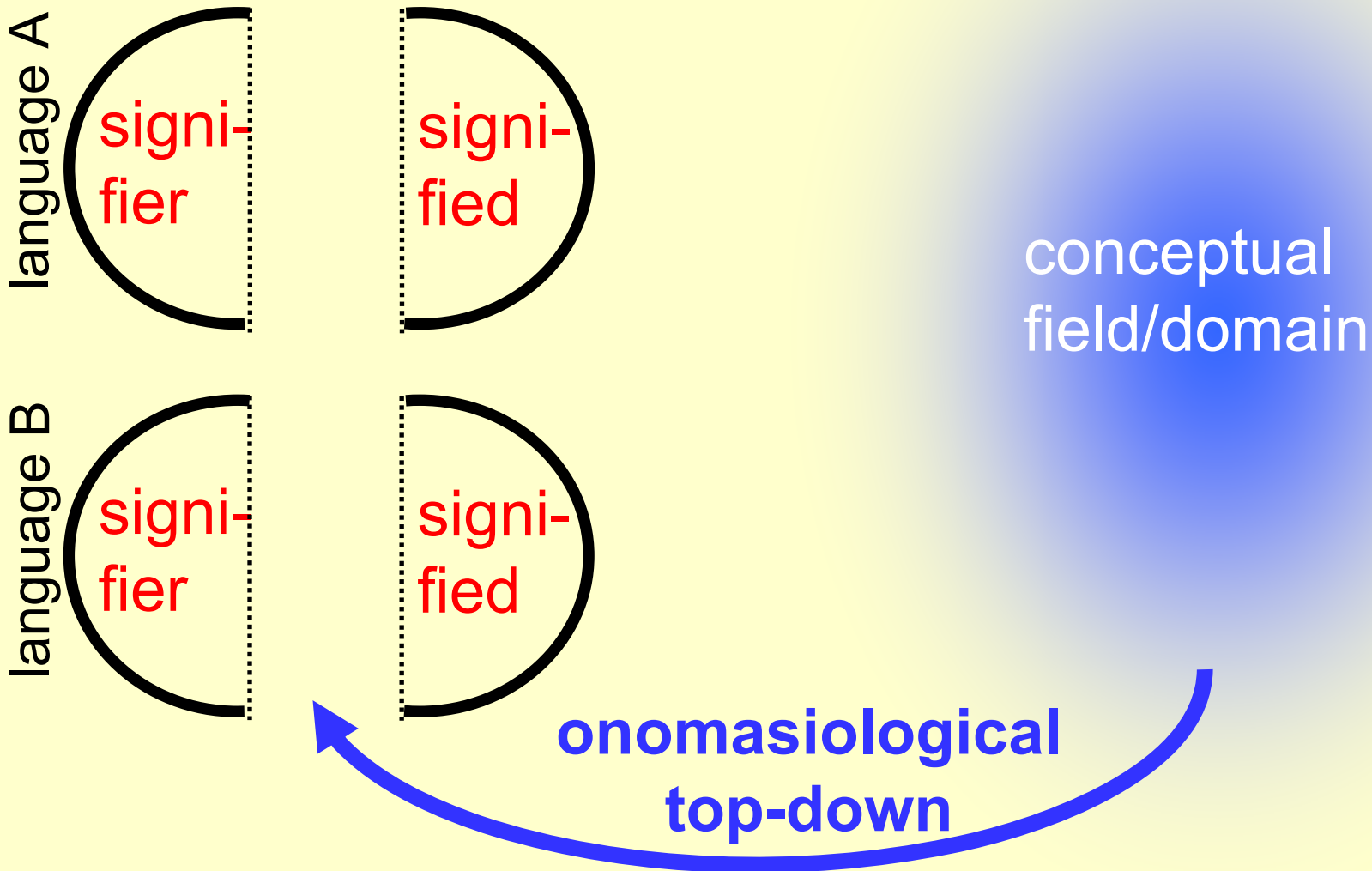


Fig. 14a

**Relational approach:**

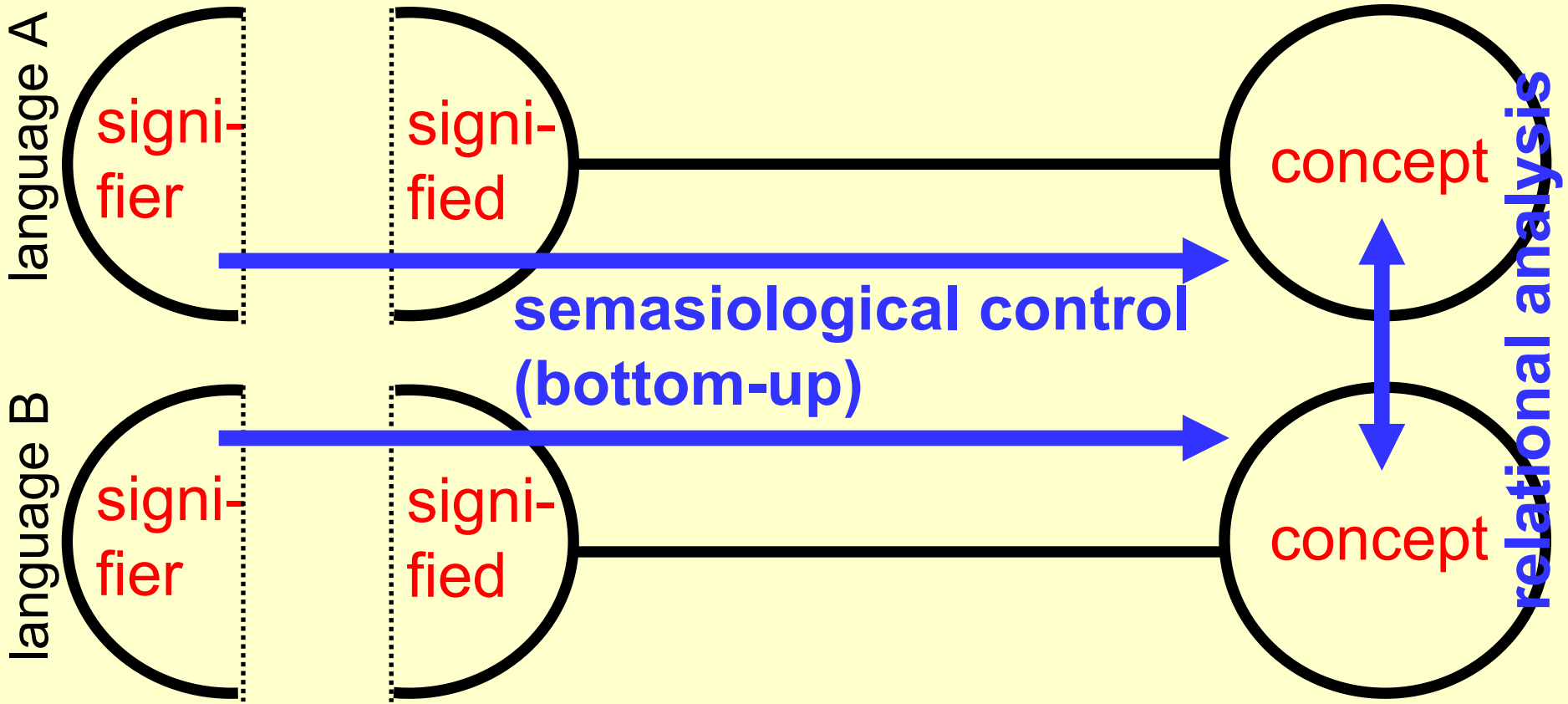


Fig. 14b

**‘substantialist’  
bottom-up  
approach**

vs.

**‘relational’ top-  
down-bottom-up  
approach**

e.g. NSM

- strictly universalist (as for the *tertia*)
- ☞ Its application to particular languages ultimately **presupposes** a previous **relational** approach

- not necessarily universalist (as for the *tertia*), but open to universals  
*Außereinzelsprachlichkeit*  
(Heger 1990/91)
- not simply structural semantics !

## 2. Parameters of lexical typology

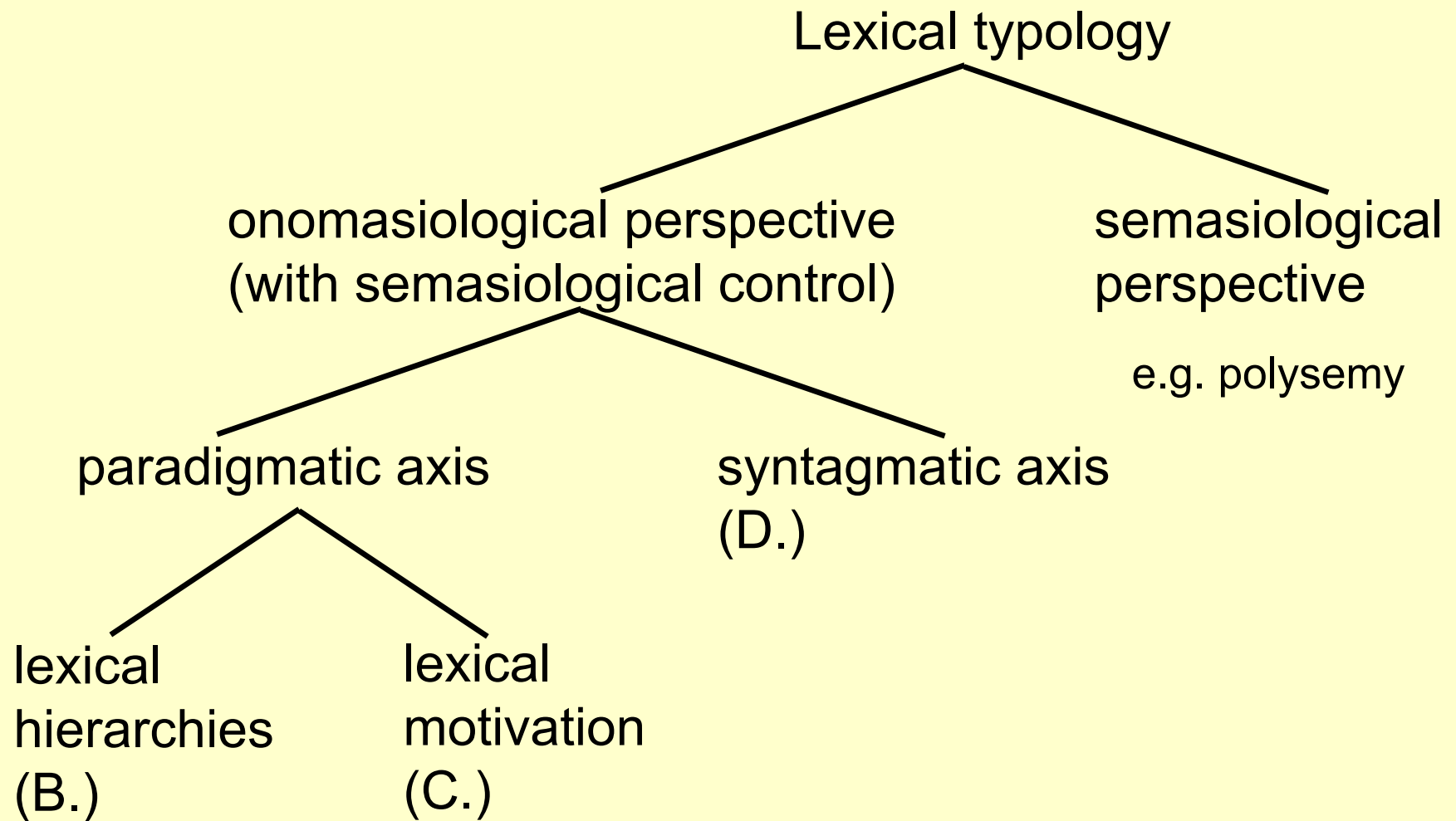


Fig. 15b



## 2. Parameters of lexical typology

“[...] the characteristic ways in which language [...] packages semantic material into words” (Lehrer 1992: 249)

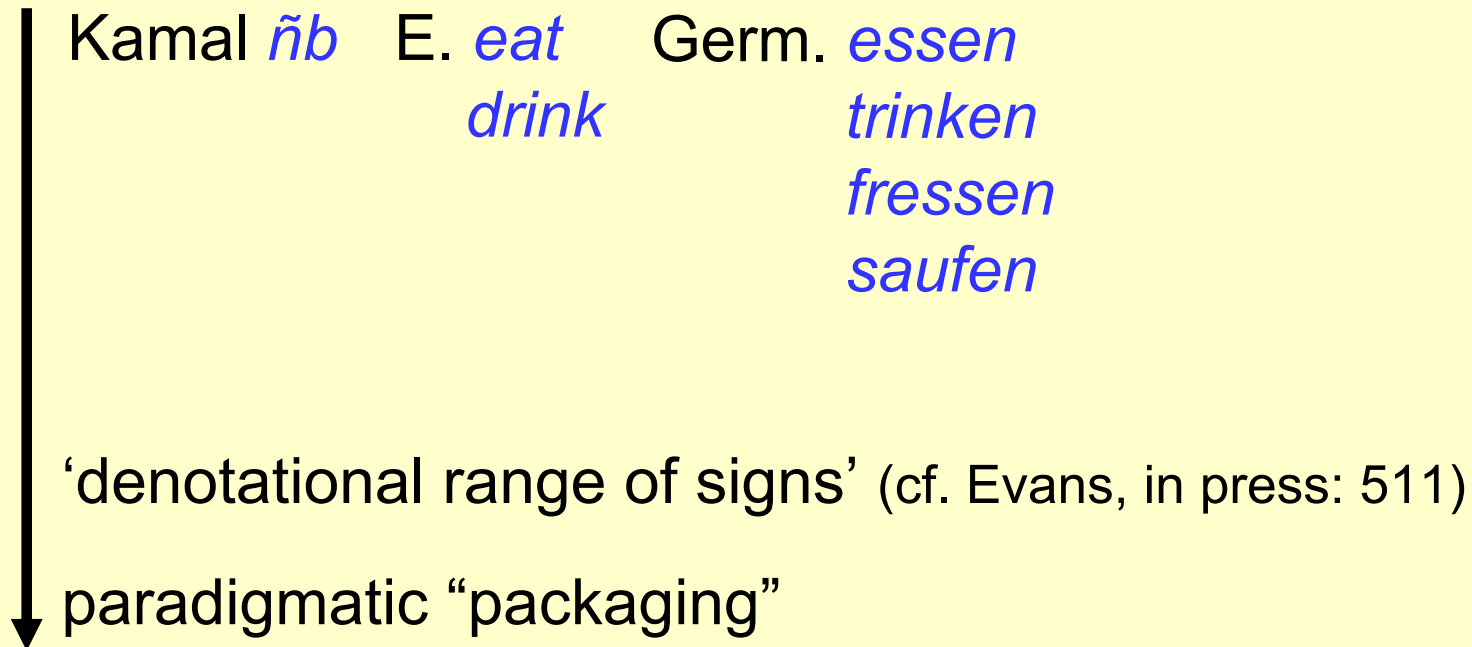


Fig. 16b

## 2. Parameters of lexical typology

“[...] the characteristic ways in which language [...] packages semantic material into words” (Lehrer 1992: 249)

E. *sibling(s)*

Fr. *frères et sœurs*

syntagmatic  
“packaging”

= projection of conceptual material onto single vs. sequences of lexical items

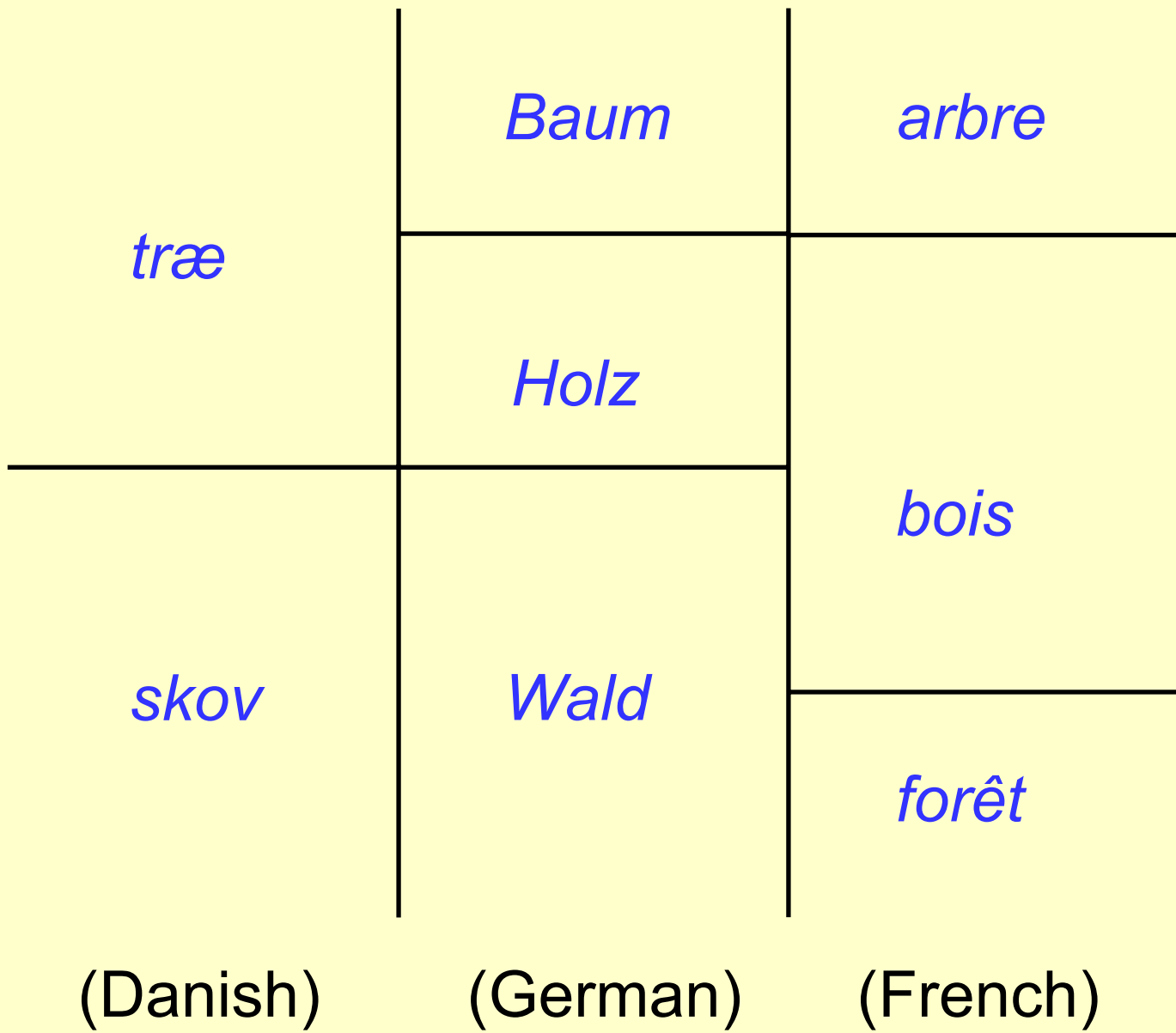
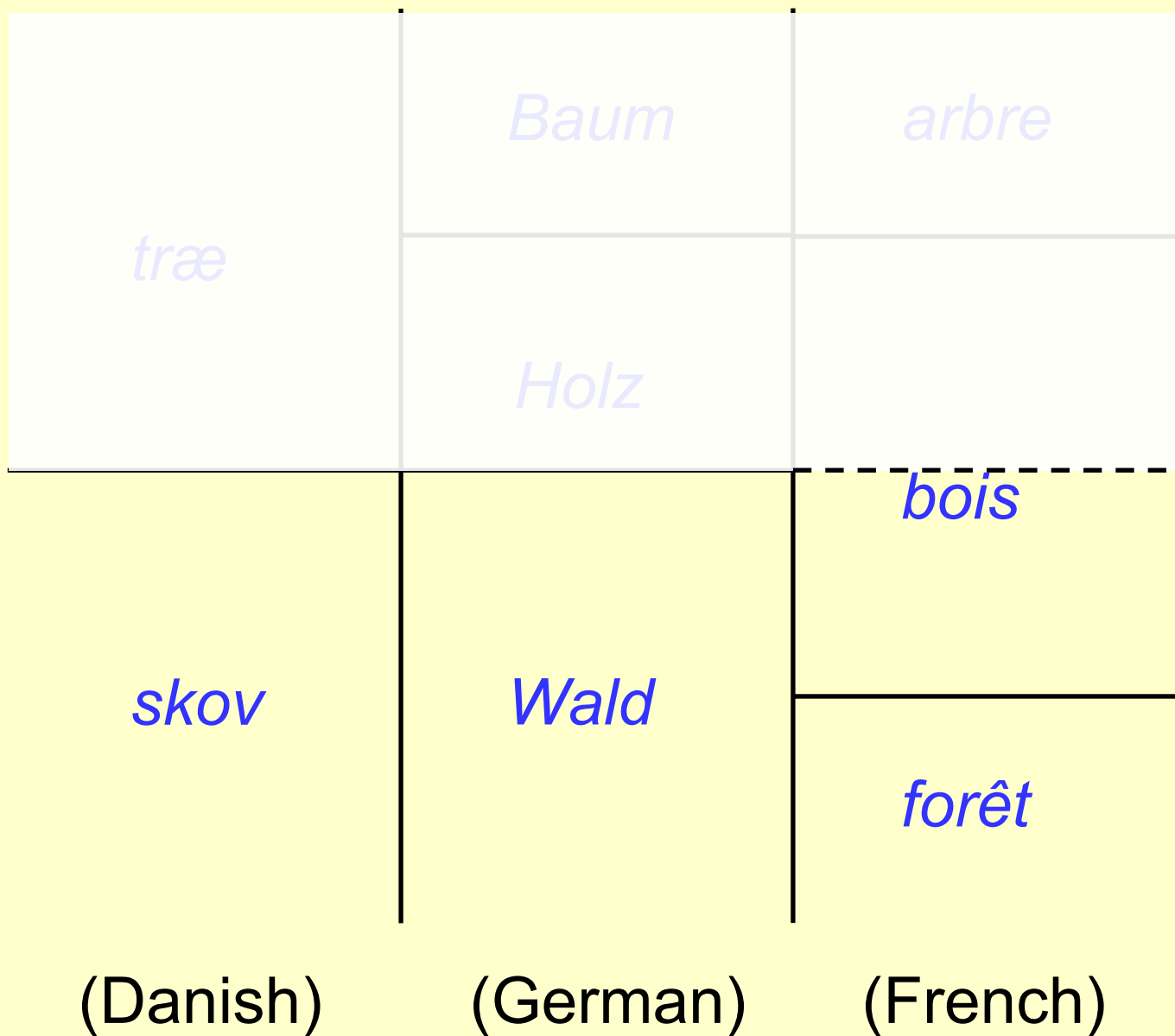


Fig. 17b

### 3.1. Introduction: the Hjelmlev example



(Danish)

(German)

(French)

Koch, Lexical typology, 2010-8-24

Fig. 18

### 3.1. Introduction: the Hjelmslev example

## Taxonomic hierarchy

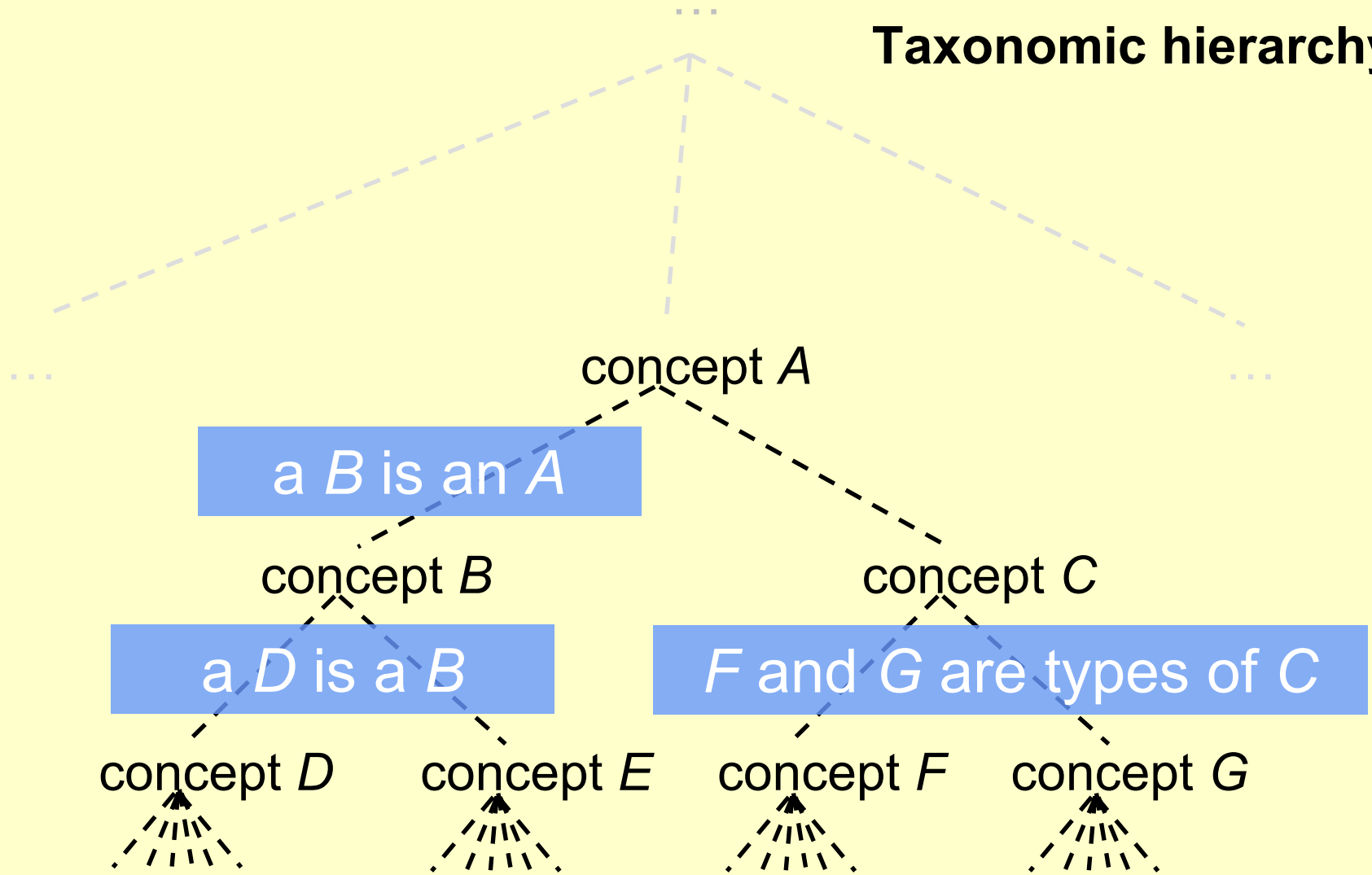


Fig. 19

### 3.1. Introduction: the Hjelmslev example

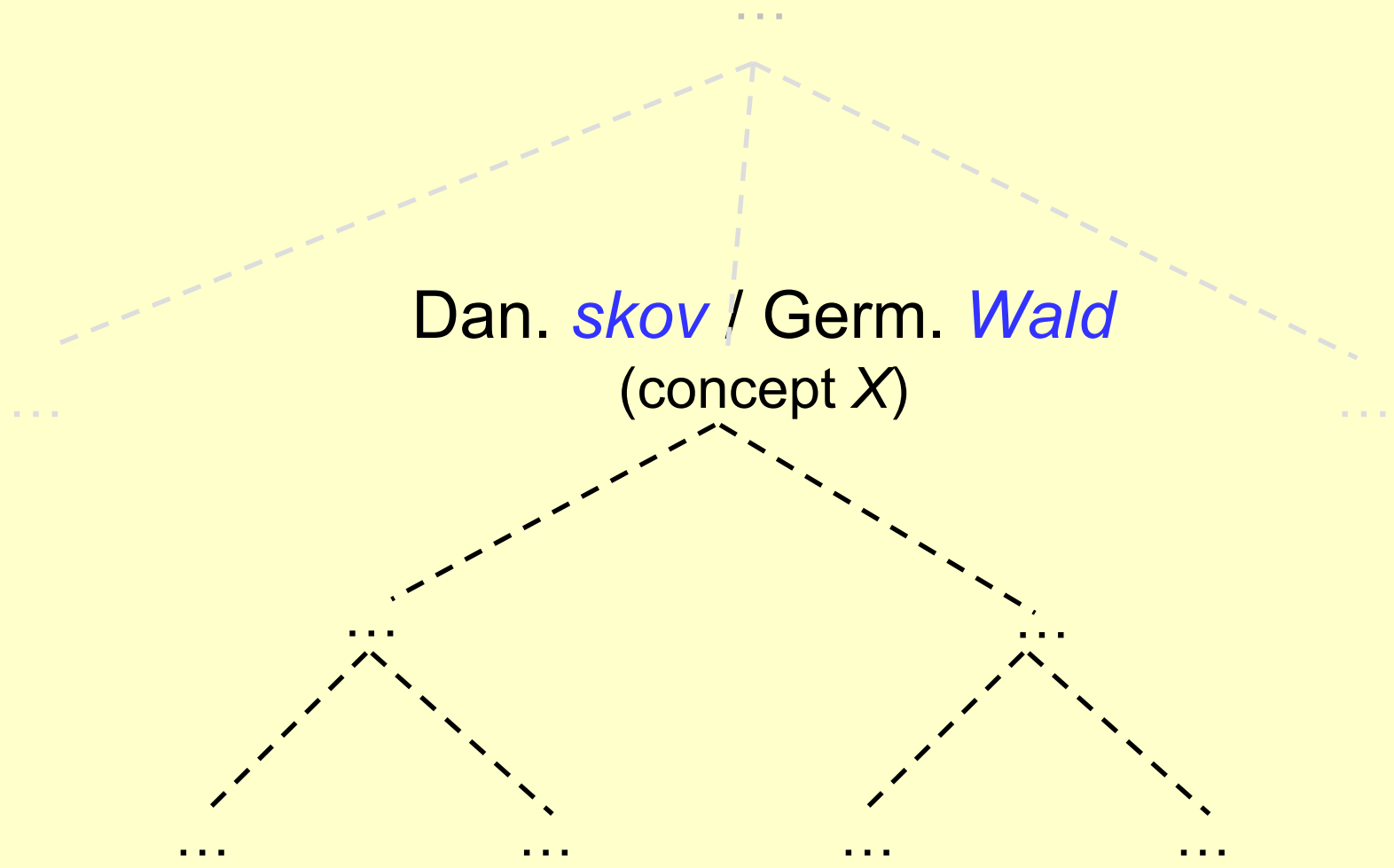


Fig. 20

### 3.1. Introduction: the Hjelmlev example

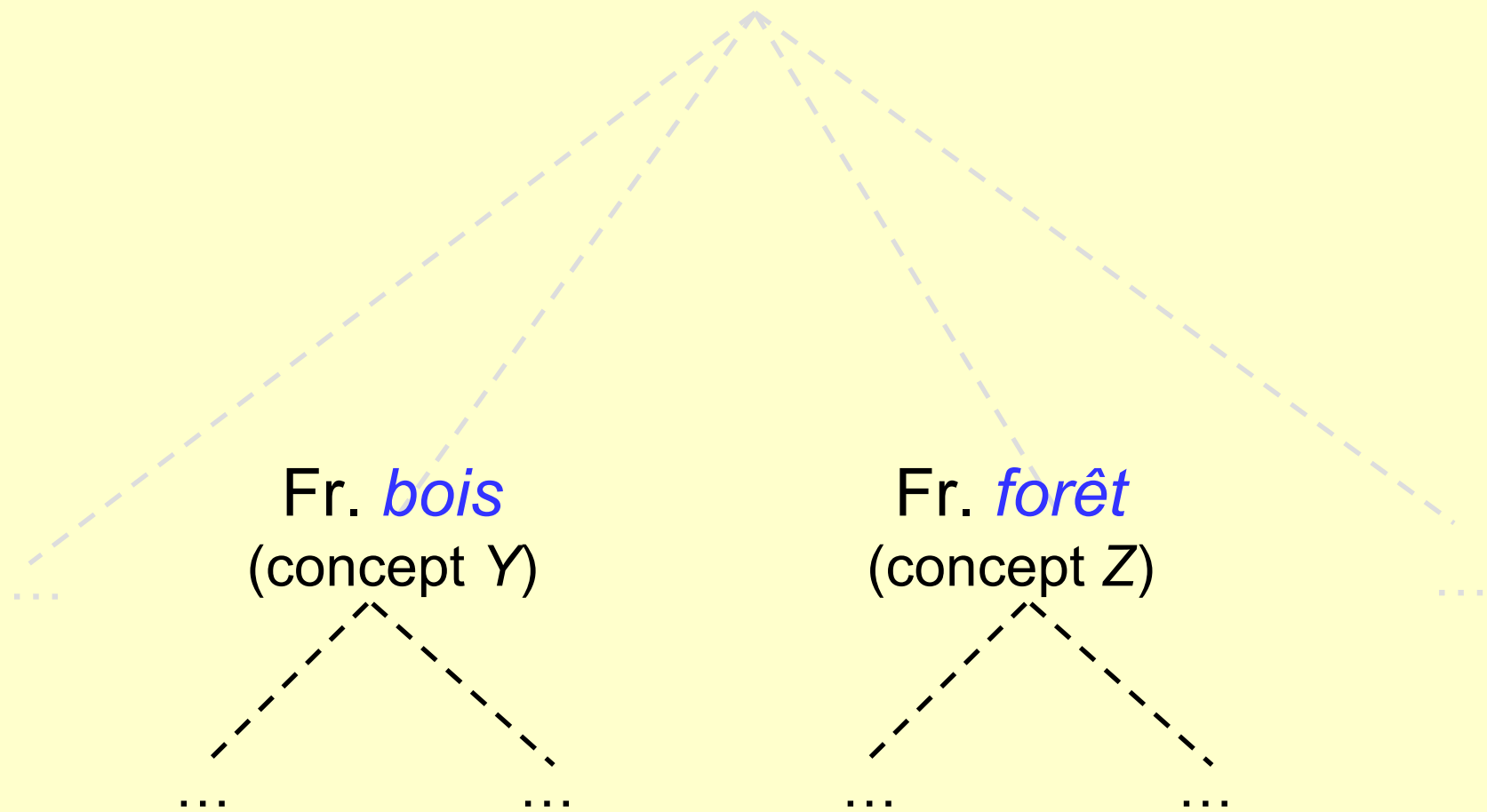
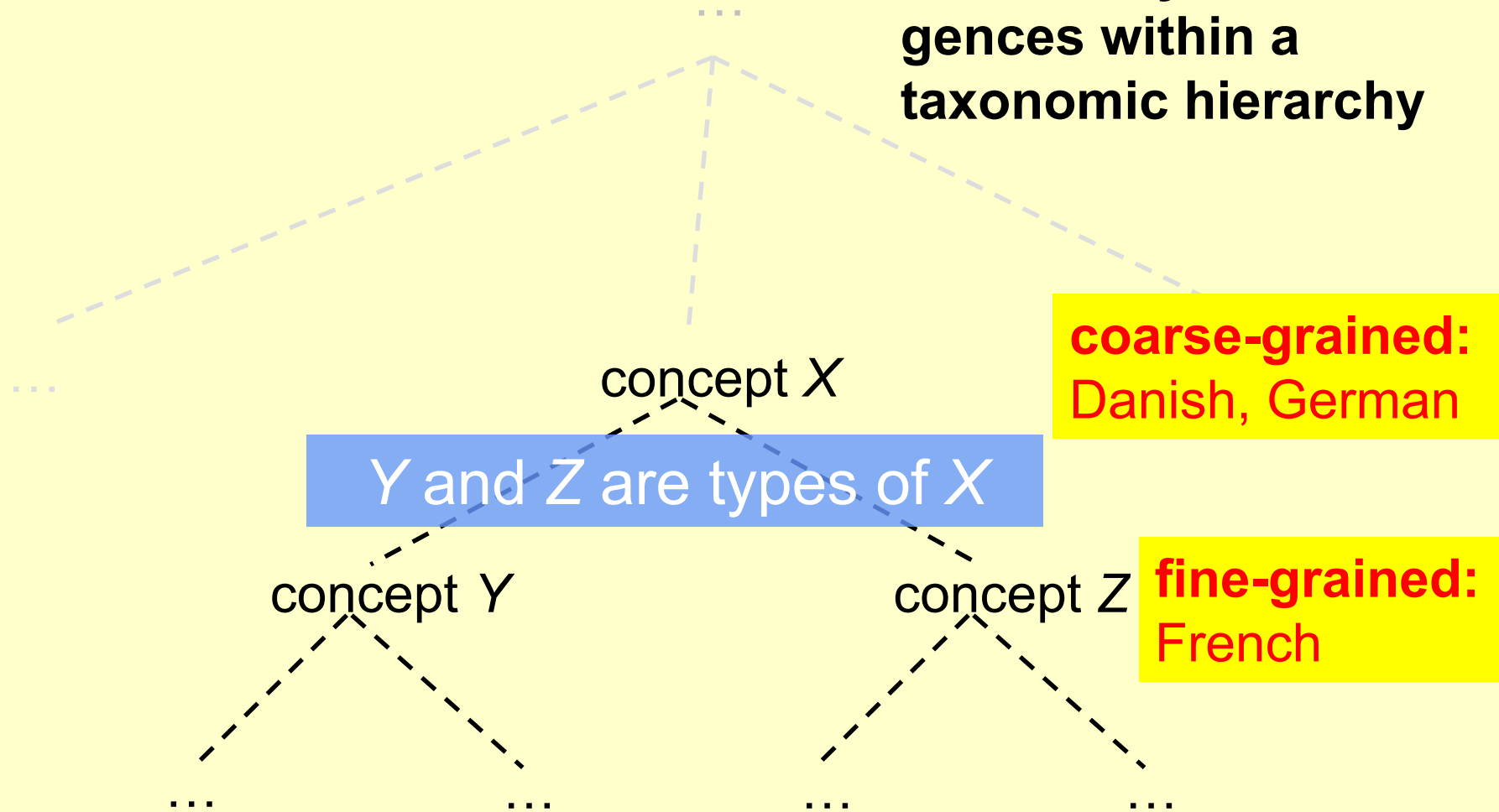


Fig. 21

### 3.1. Introduction: the Hjelmslev example

**Granularity divergences within a taxonomic hierarchy**



(cf. Koch 1998; 2005)

Koch, Lexical typology, 2010-8-24

Fig. 22



## The typological relevance of taxonomic granularity

Dan. <i>skov</i>	Fr. <i>bois</i>	It. <i>bosco</i>	Sp. <i>monte</i>
Germ. <i>Wald</i>			Sp. <i>bosque</i>
Lat. <i>silva</i>	E. <i>wood(s)</i>		
Russ. <i>l'es</i>			
Anc.Gr. <i>hýlē</i>	Fr. <i>forêt</i>	It. <i>foresta</i>	
Mod.Gr. <i>óσos</i>			
Hung. <i>erdő</i>	E. <i>forest</i>	It. <i>selva</i>	Sp. <i>selva</i>
Jap. <i>mori</i>			

(cf. Koch 2005)

### 3.1. Introduction: the Hjelmlev example

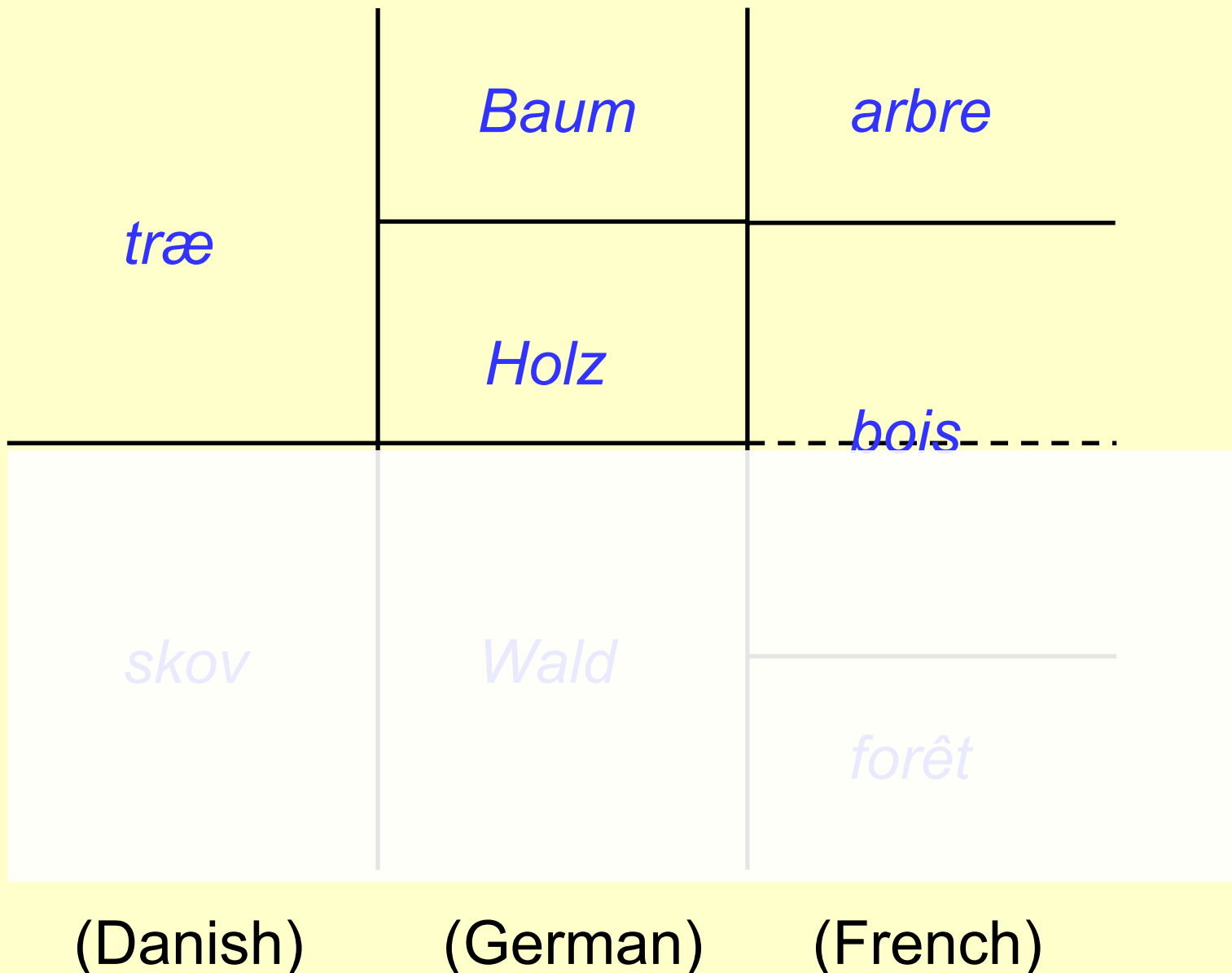


Fig. 24

### 3.1. Introduction: the Hjelmslev example

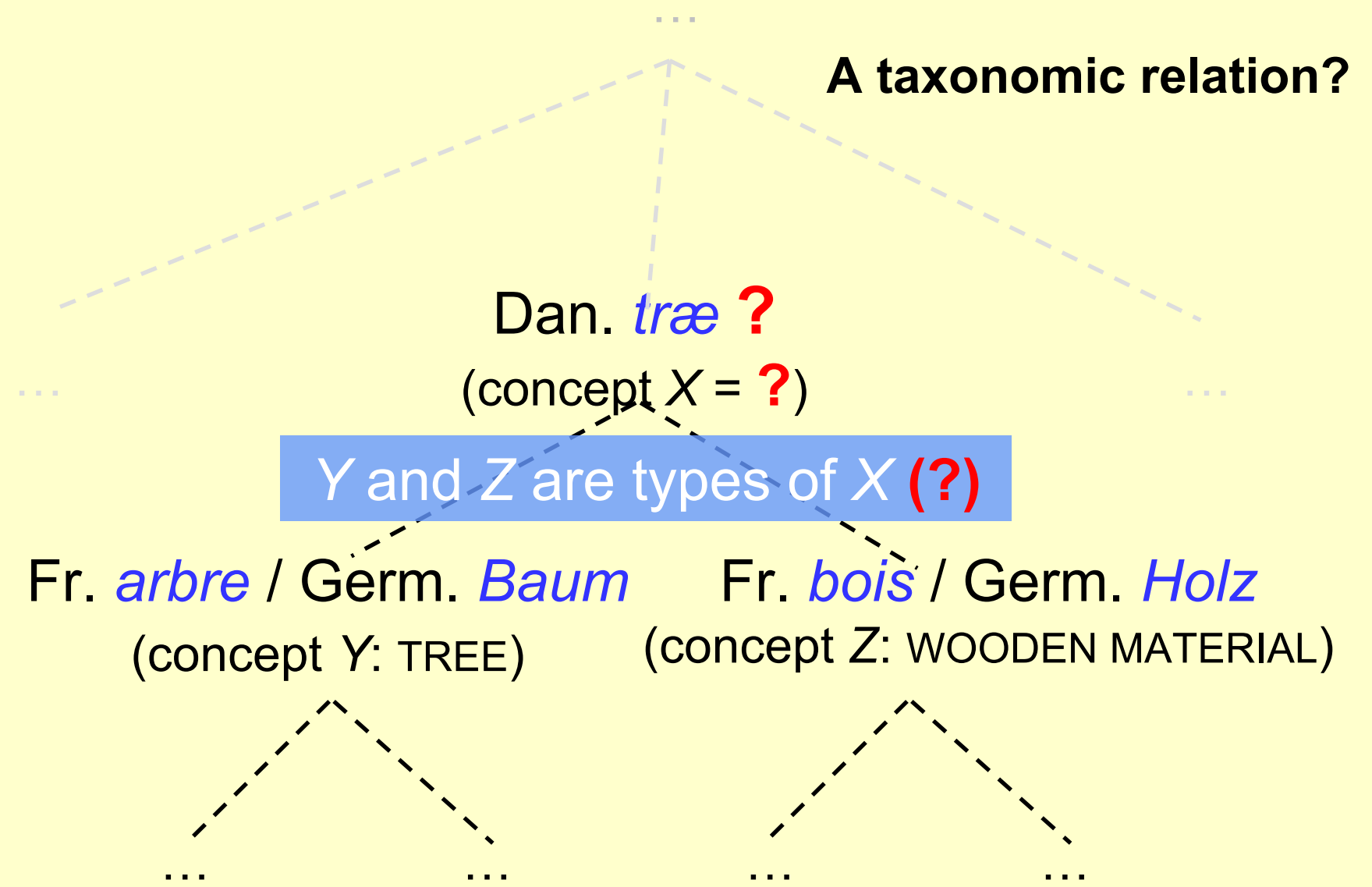


Fig. 25

### 3.1. Introduction: the Hjelmslev example

Aristotle: (*sýn*)engys  
'close, contiguous'

'Engynomic' hierarchy

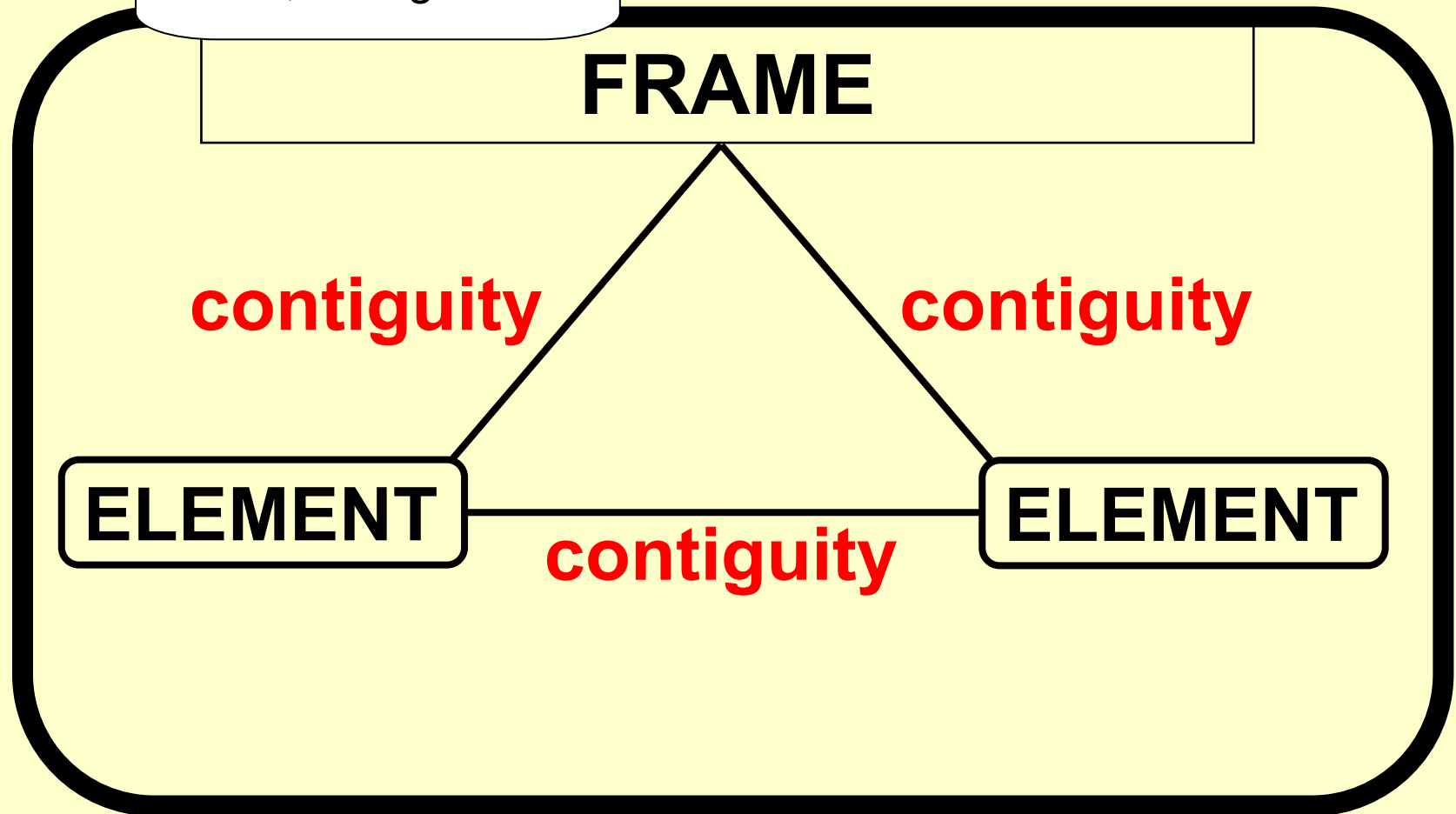
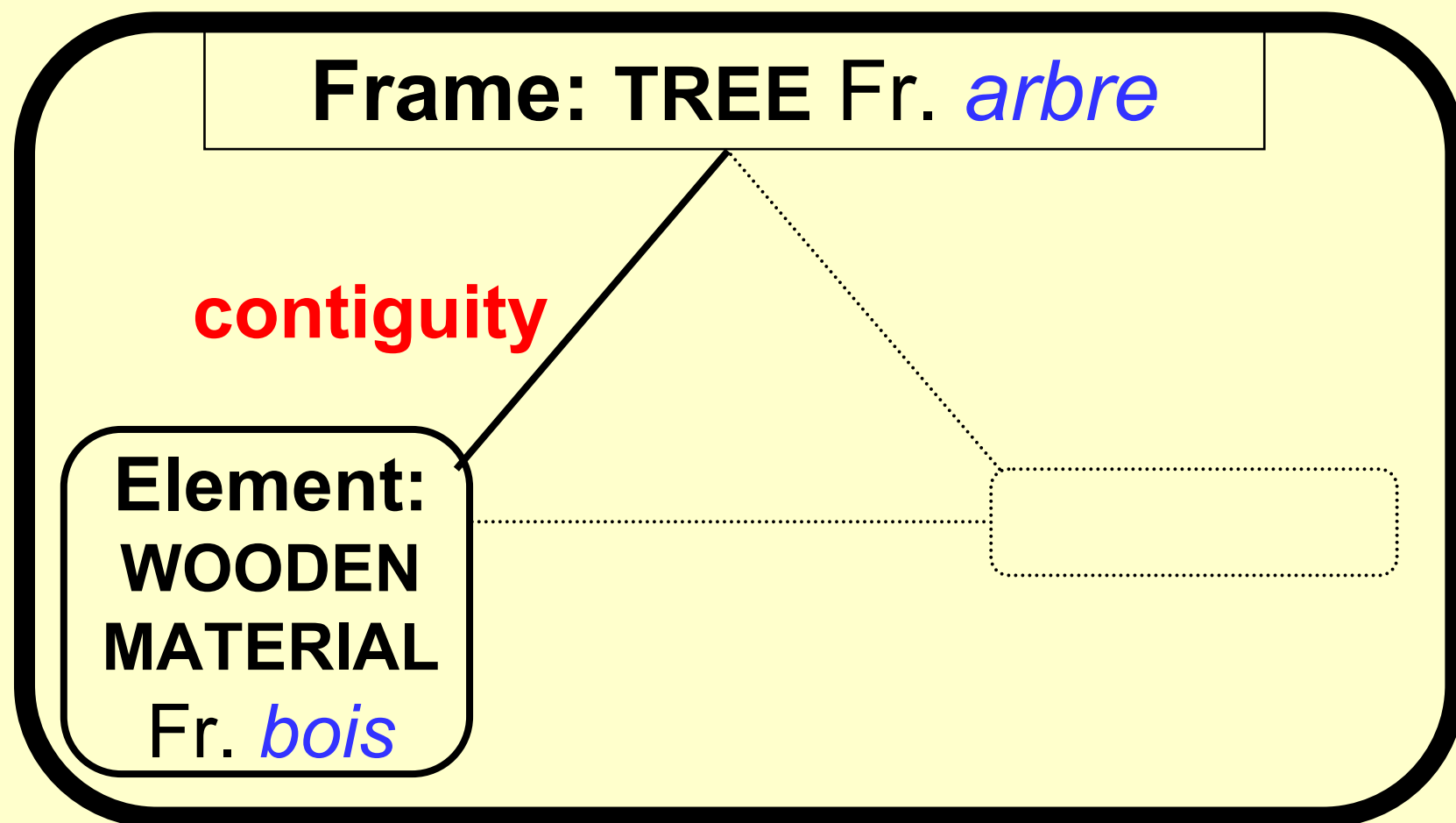
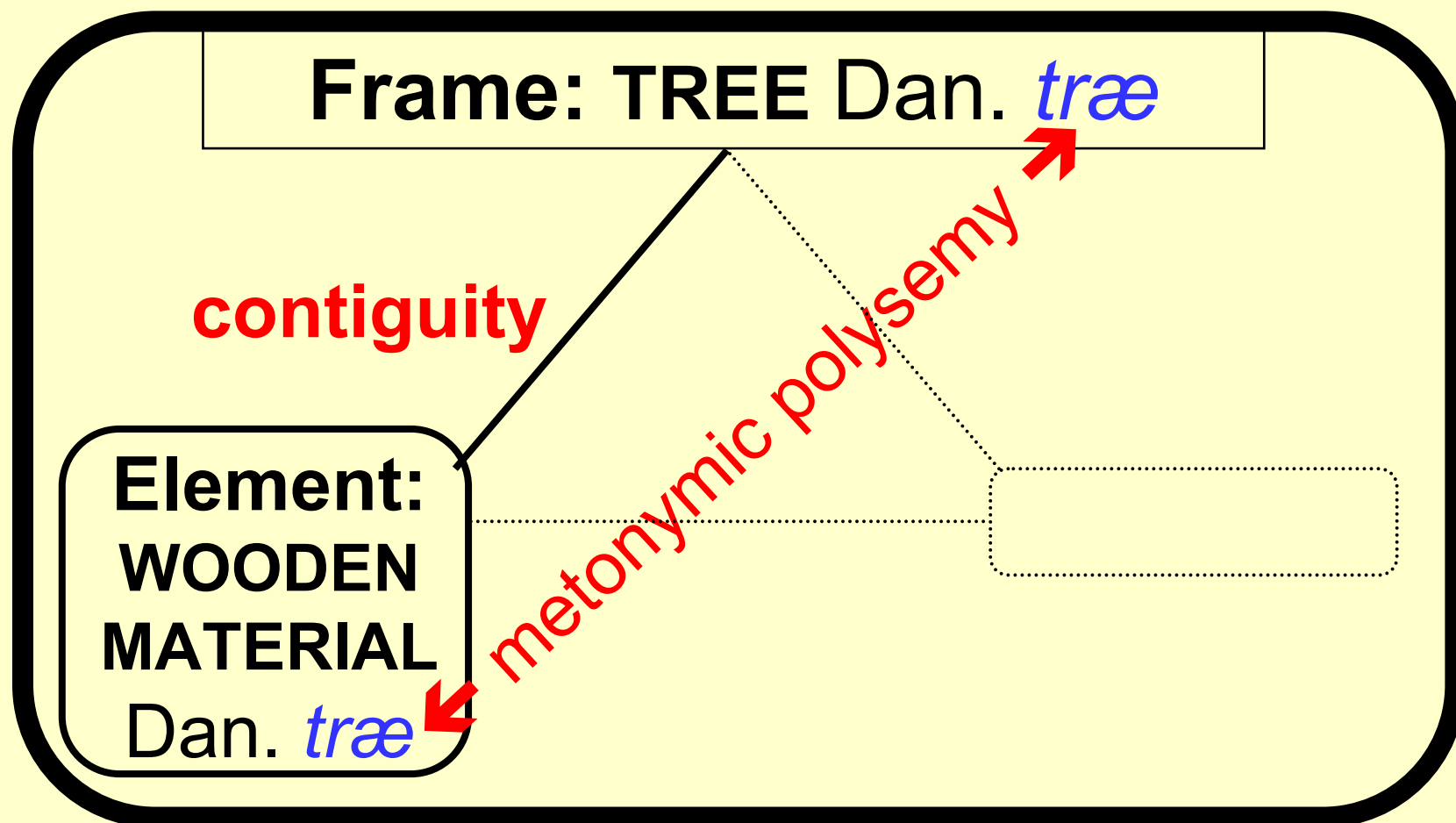


Fig. 27

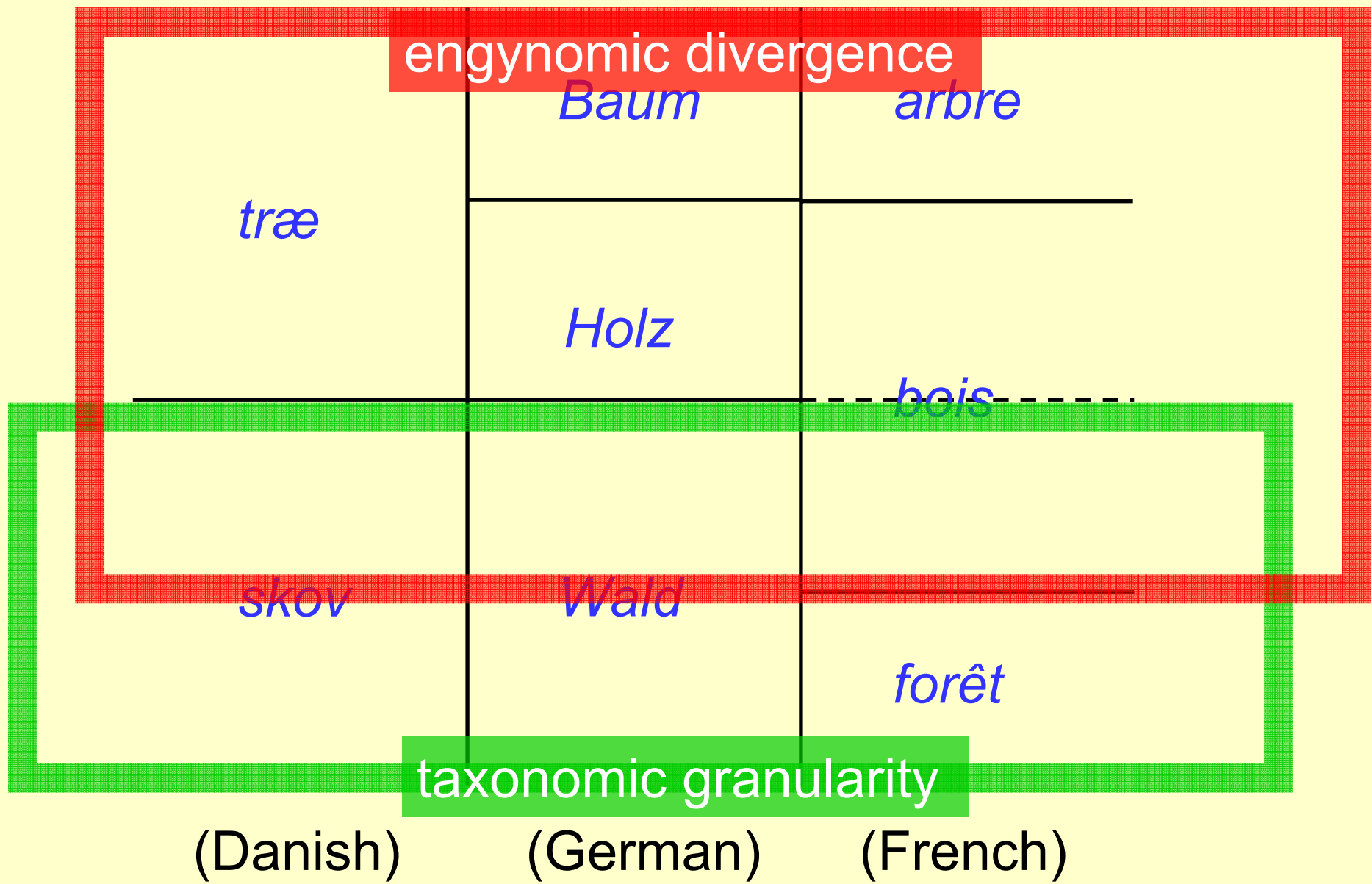


Typological relevance of  $\pm$  polysemy  
within 'engynomic' hierarchies  $\rightarrow$  5.1.



Typological relevance of  $\pm$  polysemy  
within 'engynomic' hierarchies  $\rightarrow$  5.1.

### 3.2. Taxonomic vs. engynomic hierarchies



(Danish)

(German)

(French)

Koch, Lexical typology, 2010-8-24

Fig. 29

### 3.2. Taxonomic vs. engynomic hierarchies

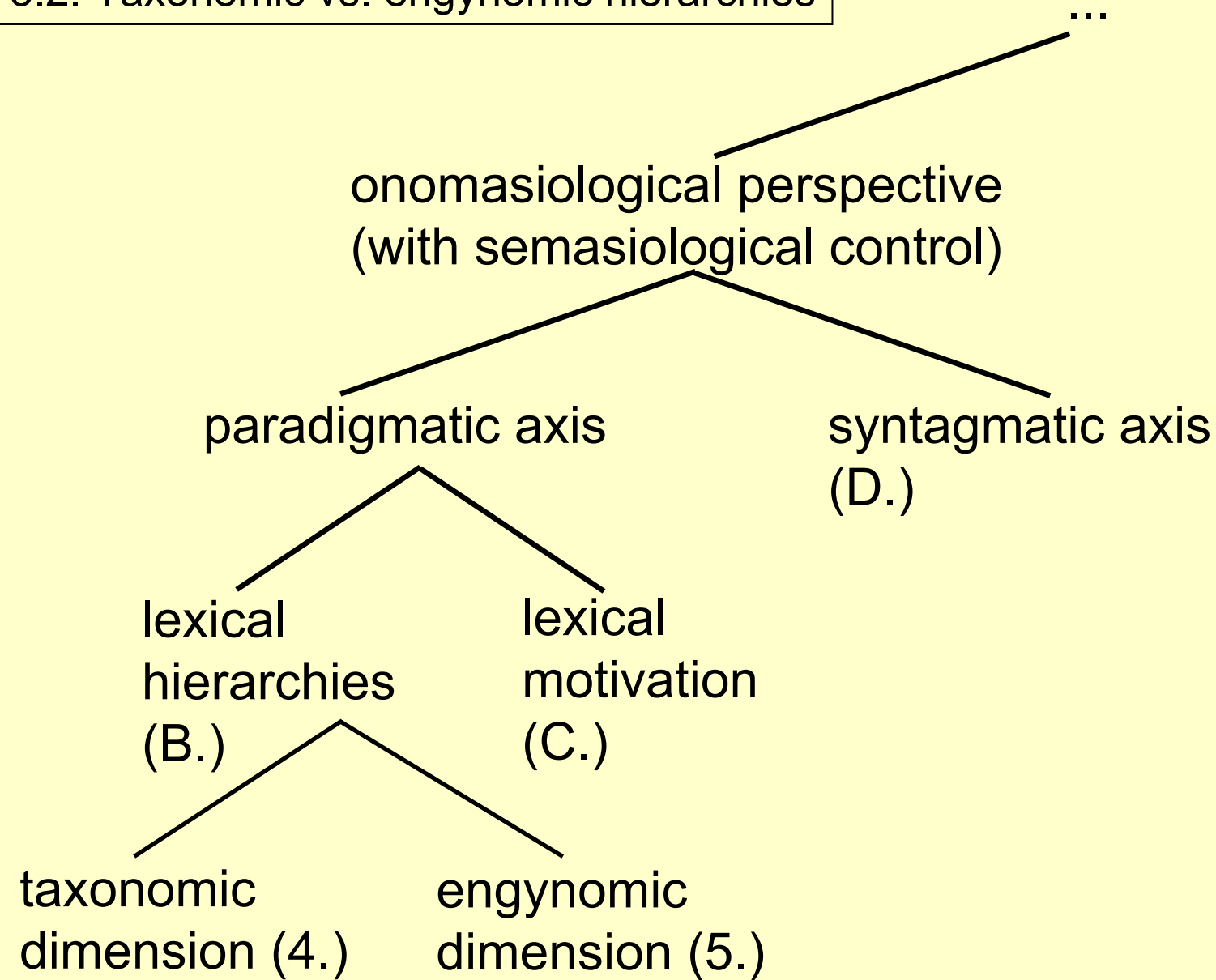


Fig. 15c



## 3.2. Taxonomic vs. engynomic hierarchies

### lexical hierarchies

```
graph TD; A[lexical hierarchies] --> B[taxonomic dimension]; A --> C[engynomic dimension];
```

#### taxonomic dimension

- conceptual 'fields'
- extension of categories
- categorization
- relations of inclusion
- "Y is a X",  
"Y and Z are X"

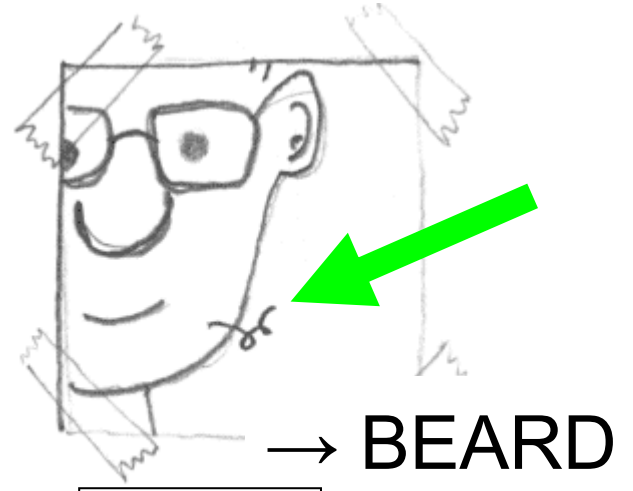
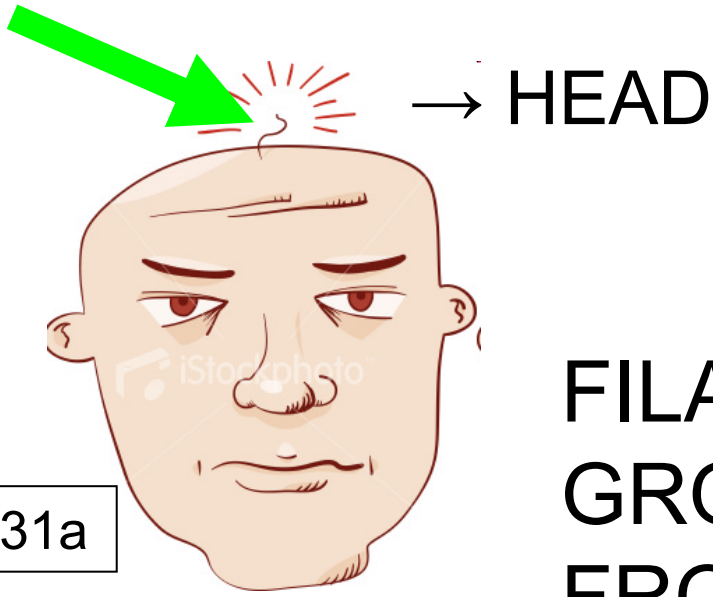
#### engynomic dimension

- conceptual 'domains'
- frames
- joint lexicalization
- relations of contiguity
- "Y is part of X", "Y and Z are part of X", "Y (and Z) belong(s) to X", etc.

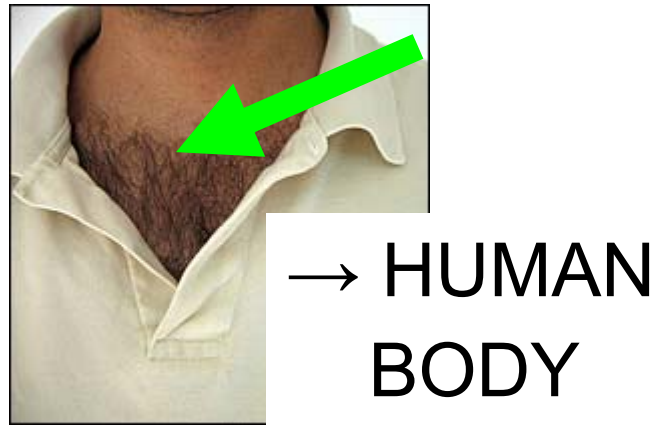
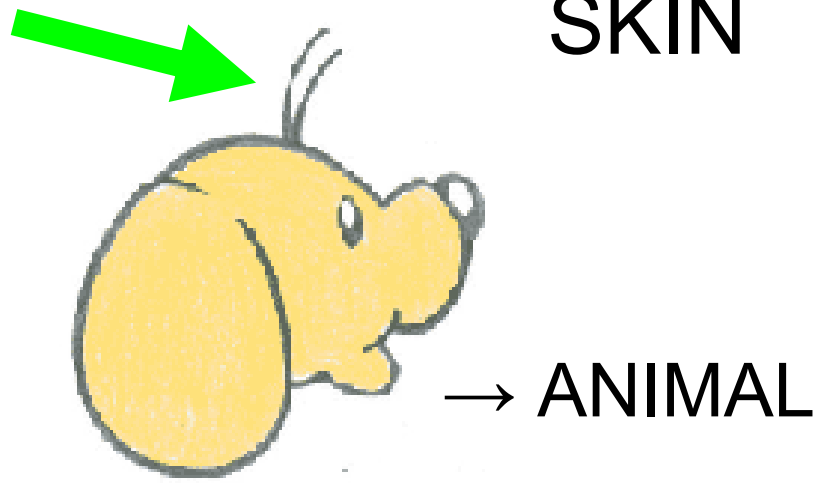
# Task ① for students

conceptual field/domain HAIR

# Task 1 for students: HAIR



FILAMENT  
GROWING  
FROM THE  
SKIN



# A taxonomic problem for lexical typology: HAIR as a conceptual field

→ HEAD	→ BEARD	→ H. BODY	→ ANIMAL
Swahili <i>unywele</i>	Swahili <i>udevu</i>	Swahili <i>laika</i>	Swahili <i>(u)nyoya</i>
Guaraní <i>ava / acärague</i>	Guaraní <i>tendîvá</i>	Guaraní <i>tagué</i>	
Fr. <i>cheveu</i>	Fr. <i>poil</i>		
E. <i>hair</i>			

## Questions with respect to the **taxonomic level**:

1. To which taxonomic type belong(s)
  - your mother tongue?
  - the language(s) of your speciality?
2. Are there other types in your material?
3. Is there some kind of implicational hierarchy with respect to the taxonomic distinctions? Possible explanation?

# An **engynomic** problem for lexical typology: HAIR as a conceptual domain

ISOLATED HAIR



Fig. 32a

AGGREGATE  
OF HAIRS

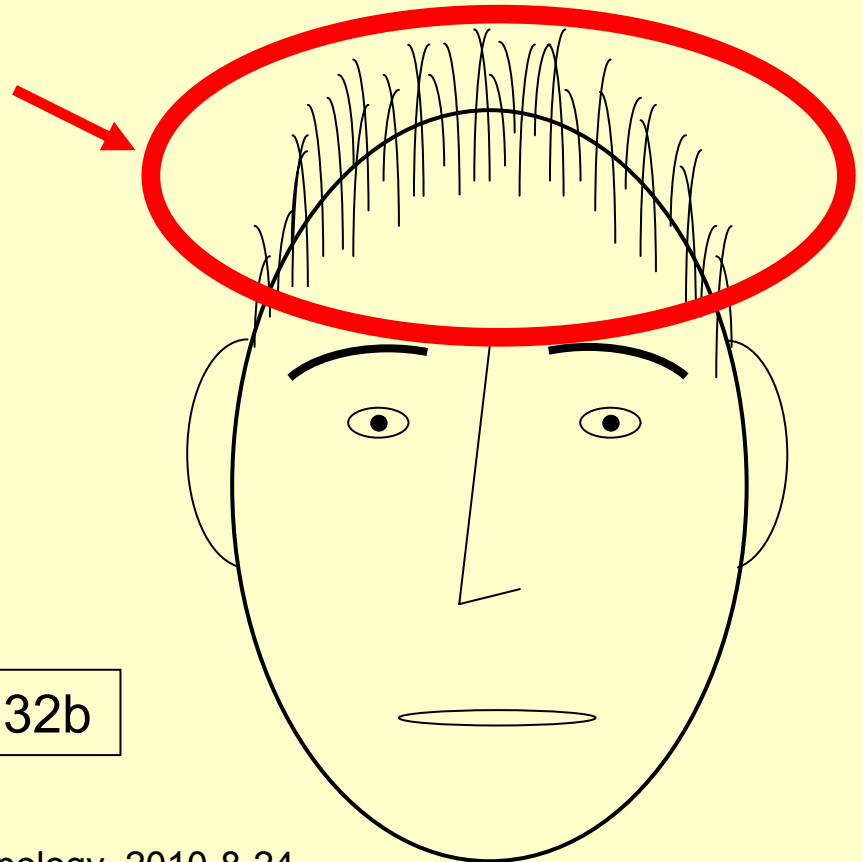


Fig. 32b

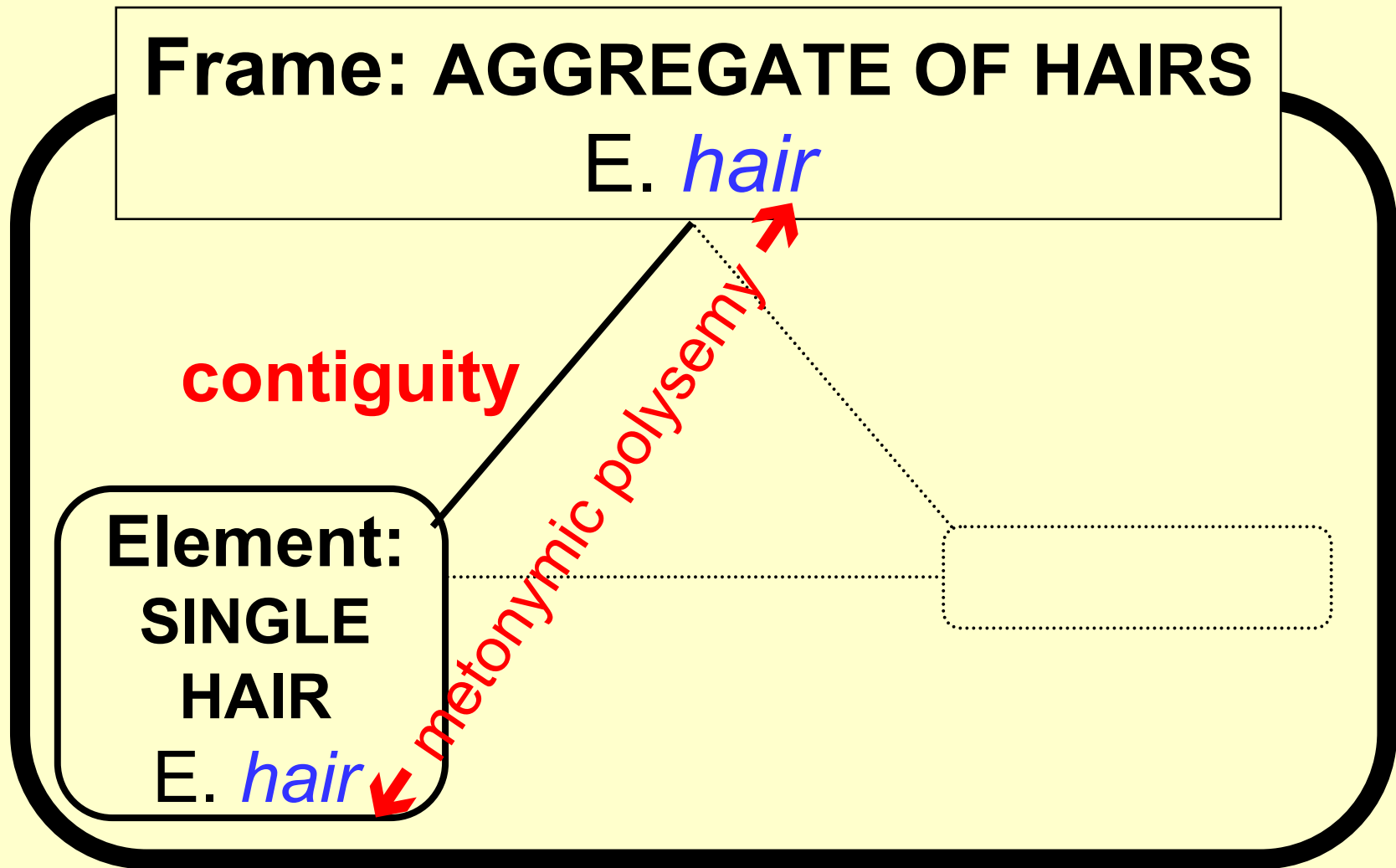


Fig. 33b

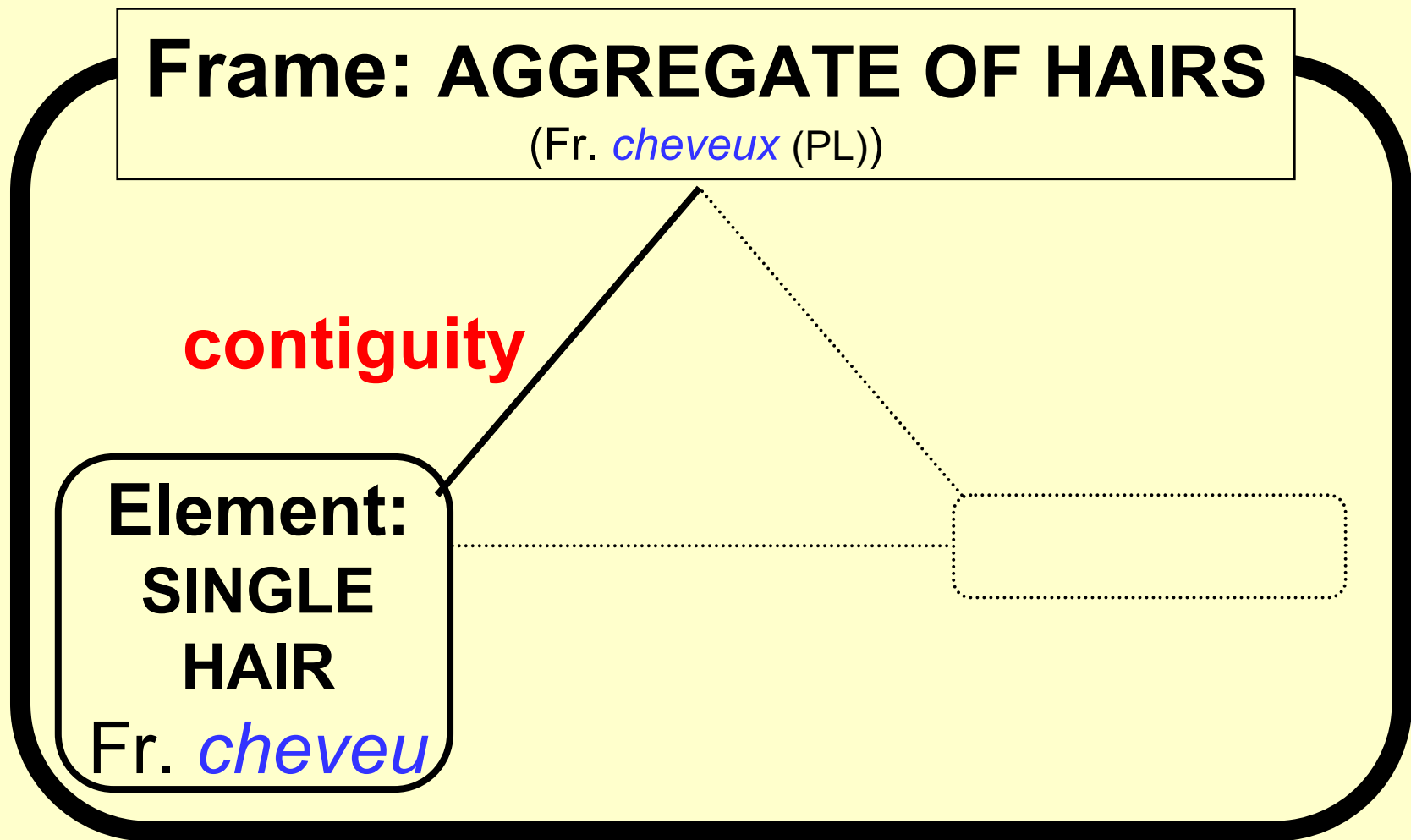


Fig. 33c



 Questions with respect to the **engynomic** level:

1. To which engynomic type belong(s)
  - your mother tongue?
  - the language(s) of your speciality?
2. Why seems joint lexicalization of SINGLE HAIR and of AGGREGATE OF HAIRS so “natural”?

The SIBLING section of the KINSHIP field:

<b>Malay</b>	[born of the same parents] <i>saudara</i>							
<b>E.</b>	<i>sibling</i>							
	[female] <i>sister</i>				[male] <i>brother</i>			
<b>Fr.</b>	<i>sœur</i>				<i>frère</i>			
<b>Hung.</b>	<i>növér</i>				<i>fivér</i>			
	[elder] <i>néne</i>		[younger] <i>hug</i>		[younger] <i>öcs</i>		[elder] <i>bátya</i>	
<b>Malay</b>	<i>kakak</i>		<i>adik</i>				<i>abang</i>	
<b>Jap.</b>	[+own] <i>ane</i>	[-own] <i>imōto</i>	[+own] <i>onē- san</i>	[-own] <i>imōto- san</i>	[+own] <i>ōtōto</i>	[-own] <i>ōtōto- san</i>	[+own] <i>ani</i>	[-own] <i>onīsan</i>

(cf. Ullmann 1966: 251f.; Greenberg 1980; Baldinger 1984; Koch 2001: 1145; Evans, in press: 508-511)

Fig. 34

## 4.2. Case study II: LOCATIVE predicates

(4a) E.  
*The book is on the table.*

Fig. 35a

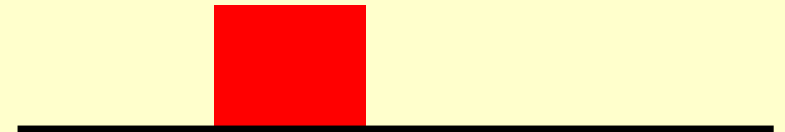
(4b) Germ.  
*Das Buch liegt auf dem Tisch.*



(5a) E.  
*The cup is on the table.*

Fig. 35b

(5b) Germ.  
*Die Tasse steht auf dem Tisch.*



(6a) E.  
*The picture is on the wall.*

etc.

(6b) Germ.  
*Das Bild hängt an der Wand.*

Fig. 35c



(cf. Ameka/Levinson 2007)

## 4.2. Case study II: LOCATIVE predicates

verbless construction:  
Saliba

single verb:

- copula: English, Tamil, Chukchi, Tiriyo
- locative/existential verb: Japanese, Ewe, Yukatek, Lavukaleve

3-7 verbs:

- postural verbs: Arrern-te, Dutch, Goemais
- ground-space verbs: Tidore

9-100 postural verbs:

Tzeltal, Zapotec, German, Laz, Likpe

verbless construction: Saliba								
single verb: - copula: English, Tamil, Chukchi, Tiriyo - locative/existential verb: Japanese, Ewe, Yukatek, Lavukaleve								
3-7 verbs: - postural verbs: Arrern-te, Dutch, Goemais								
- ground-space verbs: Tidore								
9-100 postural verbs: Tzeltal, Zapotec, German, Laz, Likpe								

(cf. Ameka/Levinson 2007)

Fig. 36

# 5.1. Case study III: TREE—WOODEN MATERIAL—LAND COVERED WITH TREES

(cf. Koch 1998; 2001: 1154; 2005: 15f.; 20f.)

## TRACT OF LAND COVERED WITH TREES

It. *bosco*  
etc.

Sp.  
*bosque*  
etc.

Germ.  
*Wald*

## TREE

It. *albero*

Sp. *árbol*

Germ.  
*Baum*

## WOODEN MATERIAL

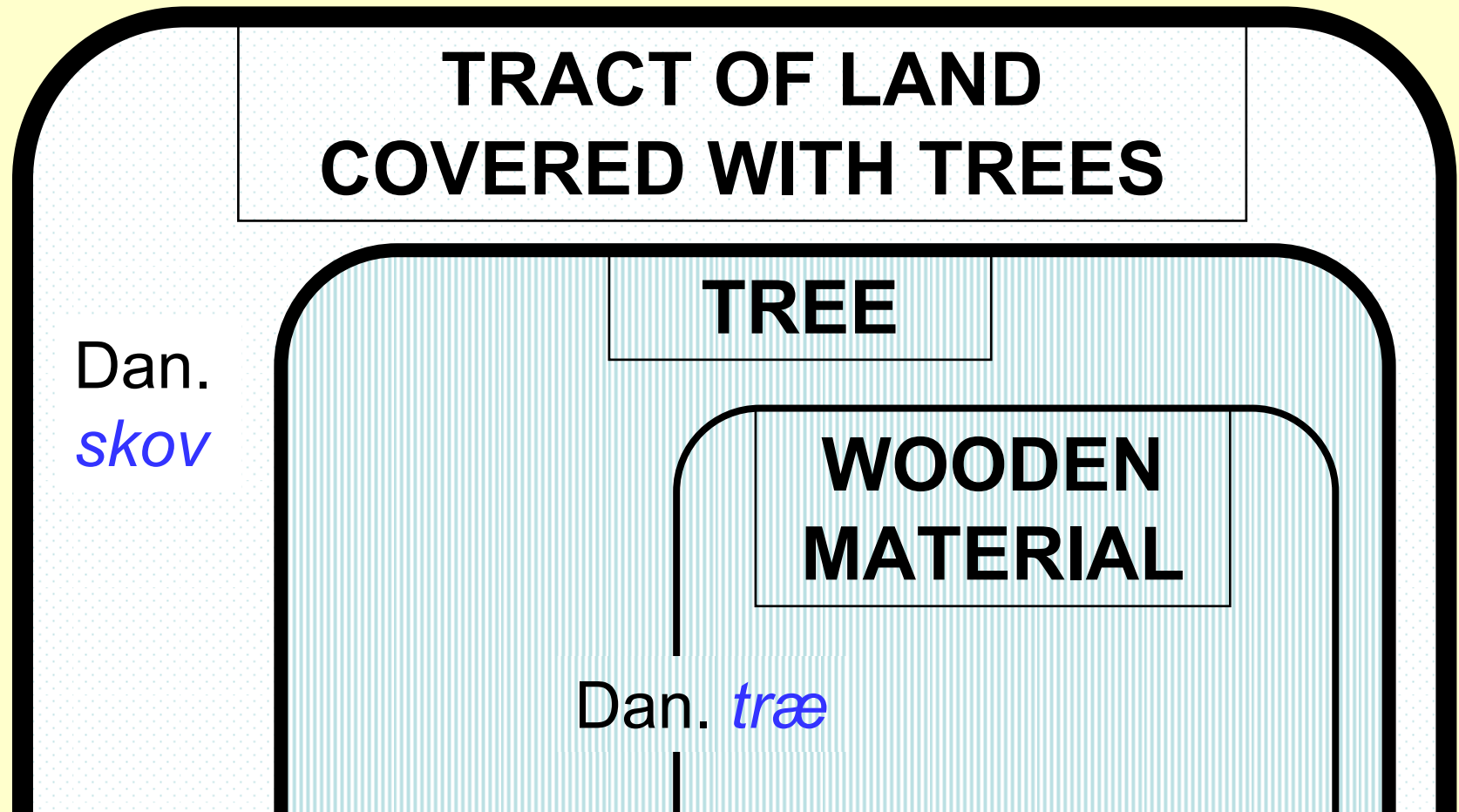
It. *legno*

Sp. *madera*

Germ. *Holz*

## 5.1. Case study III: TREE—WOODEN MATERIAL—LAND COVERED WITH TREES

(cf. Koch 1998; 2001: 1154; 2005: 15f.; 20f.)



Solution of 66% of the language sample  
studied in Witkowski et al. 1981

## 5.1. Case study III: TREE—WOODEN MATERIAL—LAND COVERED WITH TREES

(cf. Koch 1998; 2001: 1154; 2005: 15f.; 20f.)

**TRACT OF LAND  
COVERED WITH TREES**

**TREE**

Fr. *arbre*

**WOODEN  
MATERIAL**

Fr. *bois*

Rather rare:  
French, Breton, English (*wood(s)*) [Old Irish]

## +Causative/–causative alternation

(7) Germ. *Das Parlament hat die Gesetze geändert.*

S =

(PROTO-)AGENT

DO =

(PROTO-)PATIENT

‘Parliament has changed the laws.’

(8) Germ. *Die Gesetze haben sich geändert.*

S =

(PROTO-)PATIENT

‘The laws have changed.’



## Lexical +causative/–causative alternation

(9) Fr. *Le parlement a changé les lois.*

S =

(PROTO-)AGENT

DO =

(PROTO-)PATIENT

‘Parliament has changed the laws.’

(10) Fr. *Les lois ont changé.*

S =

(PROTO-)PATIENT

‘The laws have changed.’

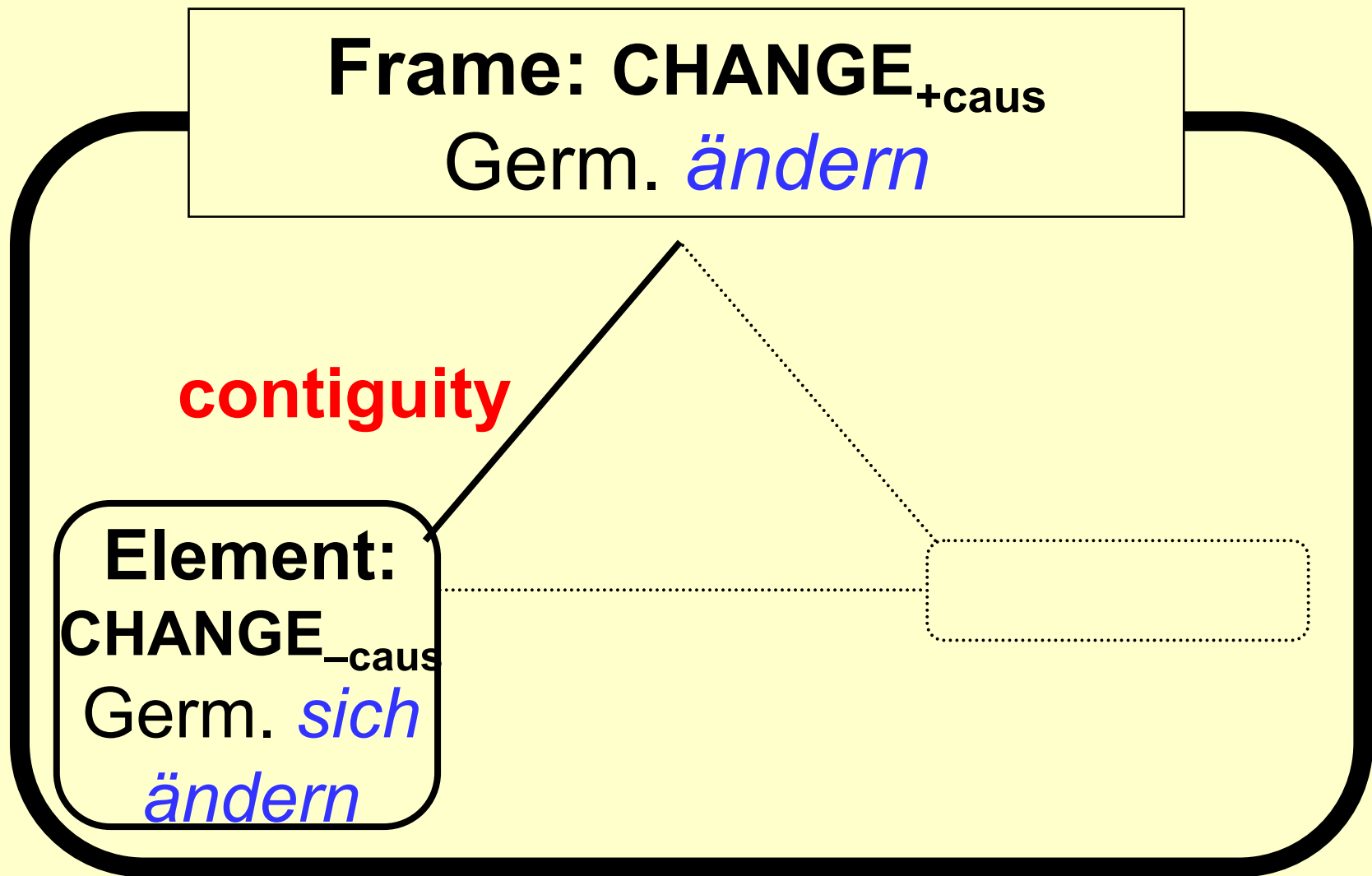


Fig. 28a

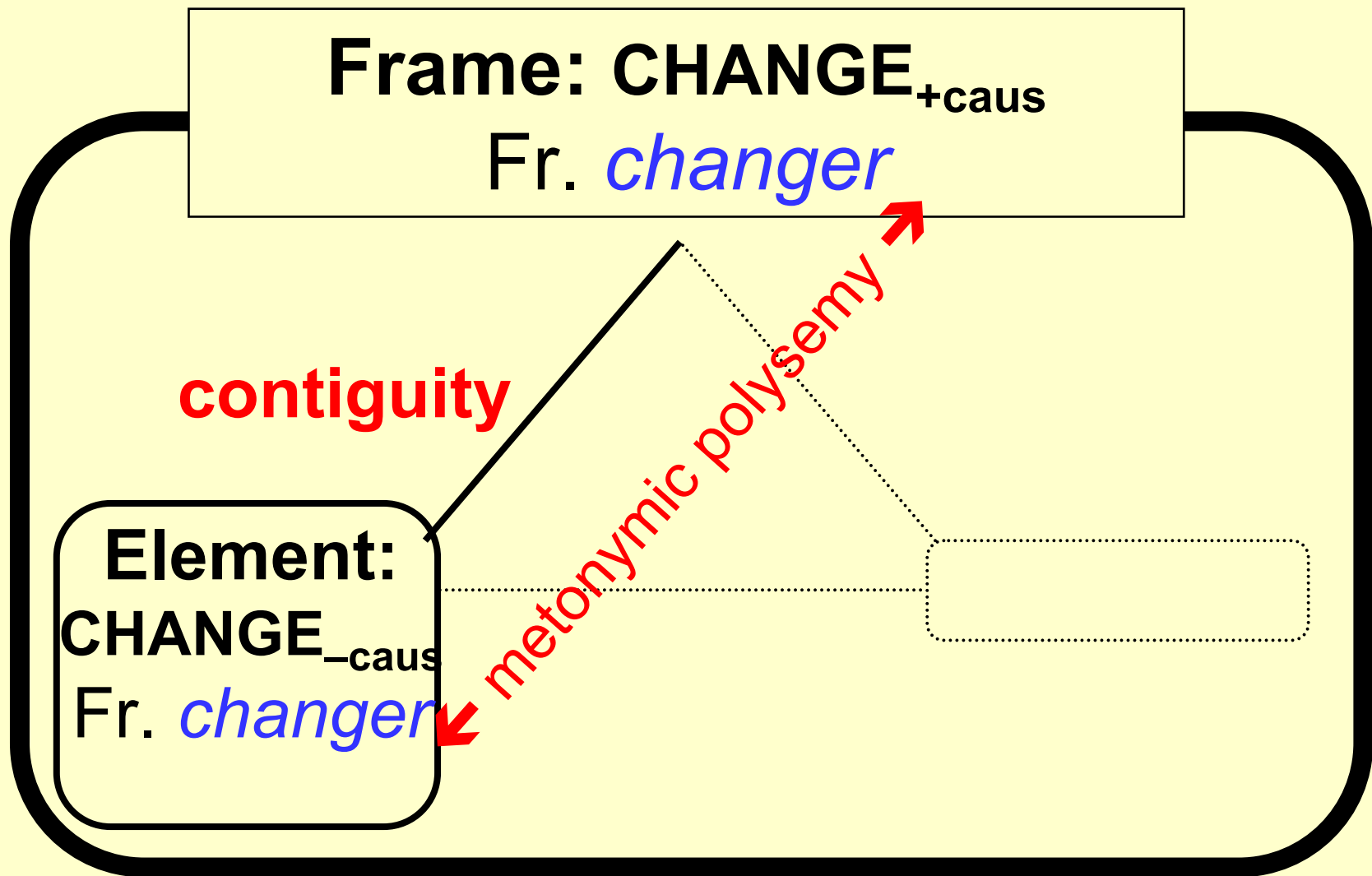


Fig. 28a

**Lexical  $\pm$ causative alternation**

<b>sample: 21 languages</b>	<b>concepts tested: 31</b>
<b>English</b>	25
<b>Modern Greek</b>	16,5
<b>German</b>	9,5
French	8
<b>Lezgian</b>	5
Romanian	3
Udmurt	2,5
Hindi-Urdu	2
Arabic, Hebrew	1
Finnish, Japanese, Lithuanian	0,5
Armenian, Georgian, Indonesan, Mongolian, Russian, Swahili, Turkish, Hungarian	0

(numbers  
according to  
Haspelmath  
1993)

**Lexical  $\pm$ causative alternation**

sample: 80 languages	concepts tested: 18
Ossetic	9
<b>German</b> , Hausa, Mandarin, Thai	5,5–6
Efik, <b>Lezghi</b>	4,5–5
<b>Greek</b> , Nharo, Piro, Portuguese	4
Drehu, Siberian, Tibetan, Yupik	2,5–3
Fula, Garawa, Knwme, Malay, Ngbandi, Tolai, Tunica, Vietnamese	1,5–2
Araona, Arabic, Ewe, Ingush, Kolami, Martuthunira, Mixe, Neneta , Nunggubuyu, Papago, Seneca, Tiwi, Warao, Western Desert, Yagaria, Yimas	0,5–1
(42 languages)	0

(numbers according to Nichols et al. 2004 )