

# Lexical typology: introduction

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## Modern linguistic typology vs. *linguistic universals*

“[T]he study of linguistics patterns that are found cross-linguistically, in particular, patterns that can be discovered solely by cross-linguistic comparison” (Croft 1990: 1)

“In the past century, typology was mostly used an alternative method in pursuing one of the same goals as generative grammar: to determine the limits of possible human languages and, thereby, to contribute to a universal theory of grammar. The paradigm result was the absolute universal law that would rule out as linguistically impossible what would see logically imaginable, e.g., a language with a gender distinction exclusively in the 1st person singular” (Bickel 2007: 238).

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## *Linguistic typology vs. linguistic universals*

### ➤ *Theoretical questions I:*

- What is universal / frequent and what is language particular in a specific phenomenon, what phenomena are frequent / rare?
- What generalizations can be made about attested vs. possible patterns?
- How can the attested cross-linguistic patterns / generalisations be explained?

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## *The Universals Archive in Konstanz*

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<b>Number</b>	517 (used to be 519 in the old version)
<b>Original</b>	If a language has gender distinctions in the 1st person, it always has gender distinctions in the 2nd or 3rd person, or in both.
<b>Standardized</b>	If there are gender distinctions in the 1st person [of the personal pronoun], THEN there are gender distinctions in the 2nd and/or 3rd person.
<b>Formula</b>	gender (1 person) → gender (2 &, V, 3 person)
<b>Keywords</b>	pronoun, gender, person, 1, 2, 3
<b>Domain</b>	inflection
<b>Type</b>	implication
<b>Status</b>	achronic
<b>Quality</b>	absolute
<b>Basis</b>	30 languages of Greenberg 1963 sample
<b>Source</b>	Greenberg 1963: 96, #44
<b>Counterexamples</b>	By Frans Plank <a href="#">✉</a> 03.08.2006, 09:49 In Thai (Daic, Austroasiatic) (Uspensky 1963: 214, Uspensky 1968: 11, Uspensky 1972: 63) gender (sex) can be distinguished only in the 1st person. Tocharian A (IE) has gender contrast in personal pronouns exclusively in 1st person singular.
<b>Comments</b>	By Frans Plank <a href="#">✉</a> 03.08.2006, 09:49 Supported by Corbett 1991: 131, on the basis of some 200 lgs.

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## Linguistic typology as population science

“Over the past decade... [i]nstead of asking “what is possible?”, more and more typologists ask “what’s where why?”. Asking “what’s where?” target universal preferences as much as geographical or genealogical skewings, and results in probabilistic theories stated over properly sampled distributions. Asking “why?” is based on premises that (i) typological distributions are historically grown and (ii) that they are interrelated with other distributions” (Bickel 2007:238)

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## Linguistic typology as population science

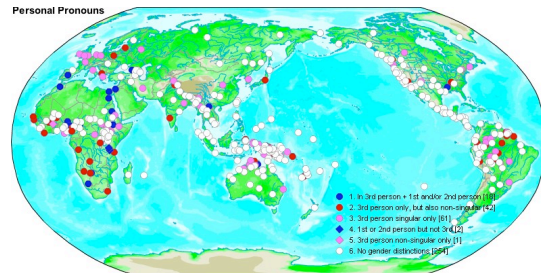
### ➤ Theoretical questions II:

- Which phenomena are genetically stable and which are subject to contact-induced change?
- How are the various linguistic phenomena distributed across the world’s languages?
- How can the attested distribution of the different patterns across languages be explained?

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## Gender distinctions in independent personal pronouns (Anna Siewierska)

Haspelmath, M., M. Dryer, D. Gil & B. Comrie (2005). The World Atlas of Language Structures (WALS). Oxford: Oxford University Press



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## Kinds of typology

Grammatical typology, syntactic typology, morphological typology, phonetic typology, phonological typology...

### Lexical typology

- the “characteristic ways in which language [...] packages semantic material into words” (Lehrer 1992: 249),
- typologically relevant features in the grammatical structure of the lexicon (Lehmann 1990: 163) / typologically relevant vs. language-specific patterns of lexicon-grammar interaction (Behrens & Sasse 1997).
- the cross-linguistic and typological dimension of lexicology (Maria Koptjevskaja Tamm 2007) [lexicology ≈ the characterization of words and vocabularies both as wholes and as units]

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## Lexical typology: major foci

- FOCUS 1 (onomasiology): what meanings can(not) be encoded as single word in different languages, what distinctions are made in lexical systems for encoding a particular cognitive domain and what factors underlie them?
- FOCUS 2 (semasiology): what different meanings can be expressed by one and the same lexeme or by lexemes synchronically and historically derived from each other (polysemy, semantic shifts etc.)?
- FOCUS 3: how does the lexicon interact with the grammar?

Illustrations: BODY, AQUA-Motion, TEMPERATURE

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## The structure of the course

- 1: Maria Koptjevskaja-Tamm (introduction)
- 2–4: Peter Koch (onomasiology, lexicon-grammar interaction)
- 5–6: Martine Vanhove (semasiology)
- 7: Maria Koptjevskaja-Tamm (methodology, theoretical implications)
- 8: Martine Vanhove, Maria Koptjevskaja-Tamm (wrapping up)

We will regularly introduce small tasks that will be used for discussions in the class.

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## The general issues of the course

1. Questions asked in lexico-typological studies
2. Methods of data collection and their positive and negative sides
3. Cross-linguistic identification of the studied phenomena: how do we know that we compare like with like, and what actually counts as like for the purposes of a particular investigation (again, if possible, what is gained / lost in this approach)? What kinds of meaning does the investigation aim at: e.g., denotation / extension vs. sense / descriptive meaning / intension, vague / approximate vs. precise (incl. the problem of polysemy / semantic generality).

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## The general issues of the course (cont.)

4. Methods of data analysis, ways of representing meanings, incl. meta-language used for semantic explications, and of formulating generalizations relevant for a particular investigation, with their positive and negative sides
5. Possible explanations for the attested phenomena/generalizations – e.g., environmental (rooted in the properties of the real world), biological (shaped by human perceptual and cognitive predispositions or simply innate), social or cultural, historical, etc.
6. Further theoretical contribution of lexical typology to both theoretical linguistics, and to other disciplines; interaction between lexical typology and related disciplines (cognitive science, computer sciences, language acquisition, anthropology etc.).

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## Case 1: BODY

The most universal, basic and crucial human domain.

Extensive research:

Andersen 1978, Brown 2001, 2005 a/b, Wilkins 1996,

ajid et al. (eds.) 2006,

Koch (DECOLAR, LexiTypeDia, num. Publications)

Enfield & Wierzbicka (eds.) 2002,

Heine 1997



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## Lexico-typological questions wrt to the BODY

- Focus 1: What body-part concepts are encoded as words across languages, what distinctions are made in the systems of body-part terms and what factors underlie them?
- Focus 2: How are body-part concepts lexicalized across languages in terms of word classes? Are there morphological peculiarities characteristic for body-part terms? What syntactic constructions are used for talking about body parts?
- Focus 3: What are the possible extensions of body-part terms to other domains? Where from do the body-part terms come? How can their meanings change?

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## FOCUS 1: onomasiology (stratification of lexical fields)

English	Italian	Ruman.	Eston.	Japan.	Russ
hand	mano	mina	käsi	ude	ruka
arm	braccio	brat	käsi(vars)	te	
foot	piede	pictor	jalg	ashi	noga
leg	gamba				
finger	dito	deget	sõrm	yubi	palec
toe			varvas		

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## A few statistical generalisations (Brown 2001, 2005)

- In a sample of 118 languages, 49 languages (42%) link 'eye' and 'face' either through polysemy or overt marking.
- In a sample of 617 languages, 228 languages use the same word for 'hand'/'arm'.
- In a sample of 593 languages, 72 languages use the same word for 'finger'/'hand'.

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## A few absolute generalisations

Andersen 1978, Brown 2001, Wilkins 1996

- If both hand and foot are labelled, they are labelled differently.
- If there is a distinct term for foot, then there will be a distinct term for hand.
- There are never more than six levels of depth in the partonomy relating to body-part terminology.

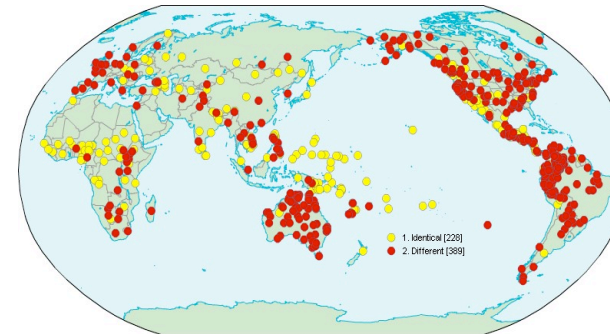
Recent research on the BODY (Majid et al. 2006): many of the earlier generalizations have proved to be wrong.

Lavukaleve (Papua) – *tau* 'arm / leg', *fe* 'foot'

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## HAND vs. ARM

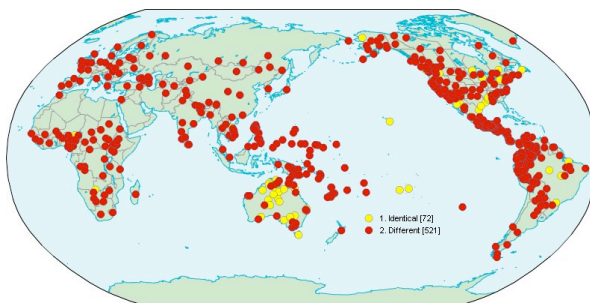
Brown in Haspelmath, M., M. Dryer, D. Gil & B. Comrie (2005). The World Atlas of Language Structures (WALS). Oxford: Oxford University Press



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## FINGER vs. HAND

Brown in Haspelmath, M., M. Dryer, D. Gil & B. Comrie (2005). The World Atlas of Language Structures (WALS). Oxford: Oxford University Press



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## Which factors shape the body-term system in a language / across languages?

- Biology-rooted explanations: perceptual discontinuities, different functions (cf. Majid et al. 2006)
- Socio-cultural practices (partly related to climatic conditions, cf. Brown 2005)

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## FOCUS 2 (semasiology): Polysemy, semantic associations and semantic shifts with respect to the BODY

Semantic shift – a pair of meanings A and B linked by some genetic relation, either synchronically (e.g., via polysemy or derivation), or diachronically

- Intrafield semantic shifts: A and B belong to the same semantic domain
- Interfield, or transfield semantic shift: A and B belong to different semantic domains

(Matisoff 1978, Wilkins 1996, DECOLAR, LexiTypeDia, Enfield & Wierzbicka (eds.) 2002, Heine 1997, Ojutkangas 2000, Kovács 2000, Schladt 2000)

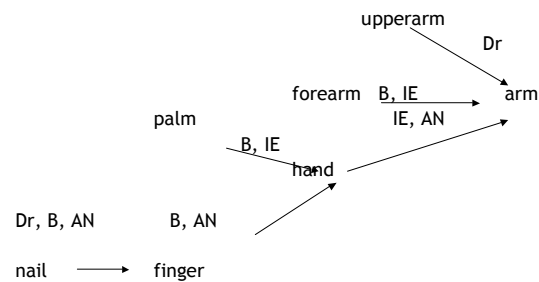
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## Deriving body-part terms, tendencies: Wilkins 1996

- A visible person-part term > the visible whole, but not vice versa
- A person-part term > a spatially contiguous person-part
- Terms for parts of the upper body <> terms for parts of the lower body
- An animal-part term > person-part
- A term for verbal action > person-part involved in that action

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## Intrafield semantic shifts, body parts => body parts: visible parts and wholes (Wilkins 1996)



Also: Matisoff 1978, DECOLAR, LexiTypeDia

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## Around the eye: LexiTypeDia (Tübingen, Koch)

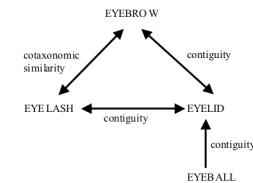


Figure 1. Attested semantic shifts within the frame EYE (Koch forthc.)

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### Transfield semantic shifts with body parts as source (mainly metaphor)

- 'Mapping' onto parts of other things
- Emotions
- Spatial relations
- Numbers
- Possession
- Reflexive-reciprocal-middles
- Etc.

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### Transfield semantic shifts with body parts as source: universal vs. specific

- Emotions: e.g., 'heart', 'liver', 'stomach', 'throat'
- Spatial relations: e.g. anthropomorphic vs. zoomorphic patterns, 'head' vs. 'trunc' (49% each in Oceania, 38% vs. 60% in Africa)
- Australian Aboriginal languages: animals and plants named after their most salient part, e.g. 'tooth' => 'dog' and 'wild asparagus'

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### Focus 3: Interaction between vocabulary and grammar and body-part terms

Body-part terms are normally nouns, but they can show various peculiarities:

- Special constructions for expressing possession (inalienable possession, constructions with external possessors, body-part-incorporation) – Chappell & McGregor 1996
- Body-part terms and number
- Body-part terms and gender

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### Case 2: Aqua-motion verbs



Majsak & Rakhilina eds. 2007,  
<http://aquamotion.narod.ru>;  
Koptjevskaja-Tamm, Divijak & Rakhilina 2010

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## Aqua-motion (motion and location of a non-liquid Figure in liquid medium)

Fairly universal and basic activity, but also dependent on the environmental factors and socio-cultural practices

Sub-domains of aqua-motion

- SWIMMING – prototypically self-propelled motion of animate figure
- SAILING – prototypically controlled motion of vessels and people aboard
- DRIFTING – motion of (in)animate figure driven by current
- FLOATING – containment of (in)animate figure in confined space

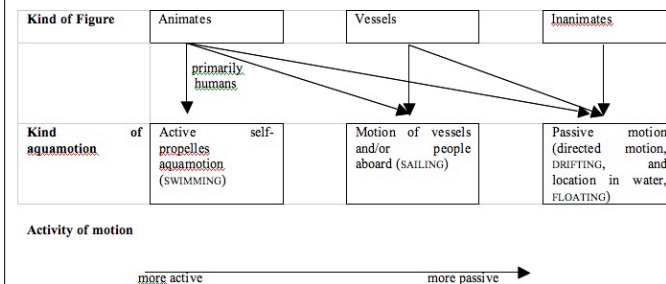
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## Lexico-typological questions wrt to AQUA-motion

- Focus 1: What AQUA-motion concepts are encoded as words across languages, what distinctions are made in the systems of AQUA-motion terms and what factors underlie them?
- Focus 2: How are AQUA-motion concepts lexicalized across languages in terms of word classes? Are there morphological peculiarities characteristic for AQUA-motion terms? What syntactic constructions are used for talking about AQUA-motion?
- Focus 3: What are the possible extensions of AQUA-motion terms to other domains? Where from do the AQUA-motion terms come? How can their meanings change?

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Figure 1. The activity-of-motion scale underlying the distinctions among the main aqua-motion sub-domains and possible kinds of Figure participating in each of them



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## FOCUS 1: stratification of the AQUA-motion domain – types of system

**Rich systems:** more than three verbs (e.g. Swedish). Indonesian – 14 (!) verbs.

**Middle systems (rare):** two dedicated aqua-motion verbs for active vs. passive motion and a general motion verb for motion on vessels (Hindi, Persian, Maninka)

**Poor systems:** Russian (*plyt' /plavat'*), Polish, Bulgarian; Turkish

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<sup>1</sup> **Table 1.** *The Swedish system of aquamotion verbs*

Active motion of an animate Figure	Motion of vessels and people aboard					Passive motion	
	Sailing boats	Motor-driven vessels	Rowing boats	Canoes	Motion out of control	Neutral motion / Location	
<i>simma</i>	<i>segla</i>	(no specific aquamotion verbs)	<i>ro</i> (indirectly)	<i>paddla</i> (indirectly)	<i>driva</i>	<i>flyta</i>	



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**Table 2.** *The English and Dutch systems of aquamotion verbs*

	Active motion of an animate Figure	Motion of vessels and people aboard				Passive motion	
		Sailing boats	Motor-driven vessels	Rowing boats	Canoes	Motion out of control	Neutral motion / Location
English	<i>swim</i>	<i>sail</i>	<i>row</i> (indirectly)	<i>paddle</i> (indirectly)	<i>drift</i>	<i>float</i>	
Dutch	<i>zwemmen</i>	<i>zeilen</i>	<i>roeien</i> (indirectly)	<i>paddelen</i> (indirectly)	<i>drijven</i>		
			<i>varen</i>				

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## FOCUS 2 (semasiology): Polysemy, semantic associations and semantic shifts with respect to the AQUA-motion

Cross-linguistically recurrent "AQUA-motion" based metaphors:

*SWIM* => *abundance, muchness* (e.g., to "swim" in money, tears)

*SAIL, FLOAT, DRIFT* => *non-inhibited motion* (e.g., a political party is drifting in a certain direction)

*FLOAT* => *absence of stability, formlessness* (e.g., when I am reading this text, the letters are floating in my eyes)

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## FOCUS 3 (semasiology): lexicon-grammar interaction with respect to AQUA-motion

AQUA-motion is a typical activity (or state, in the case of FLOATING) and is normally encoded by verbs. A couple of interesting cases:

- SAILING verbs can take different subjects (humans or vessels) and behave both as intransitive and transitive verbs;
- In languages with poor lexical AQUA-motion systems (e.g., Russian) constructional distinctions can partly encode the differences among the different sub-domains

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### CASE 3: Linguistics of temperature

[http://ling-asv.ling.su.se/mediawiki/index.php/Main\\_Page](http://ling-asv.ling.su.se/mediawiki/index.php/Main_Page)



Sutrop 1998, 1999; Plank 2003,  
Koptjevskaja-Tamm & Rakhilina  
2006,  
Koptjevskaja-Tamm & Sahlgren  
(work in progress)  
[se/mediawiki/index.php/Main\\_Page](http://ling-asv.ling.su.se/mediawiki/index.php/Main_Page)

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### Linguistics of temperature

Sutrop 1998, 1999; Plank 2003, Koptjevskaja-Tamm & Rakhilina 2006, Koptjevskaja-Tamm & Sahlgren (work in progress). Why temperature?

- Temperature phenomena are universal, relatively easily perceptible by humans and crucial for them;
- Their conceptualisation involves a complex interplay between external reality, bodily experience and evaluation of the relevant properties with regard to their functions in the human life in a particular cultural setting. Koptjevskaja-Tamm & Rakhilina (2006): temperature terms are anthropocentric. Goddard & Wierzbicka (2007): descriptors such as *hot* and *cold*, *hard* and *soft*, *rough* and *smooth*, and *heavy* and *light*, that attribute qualities to things, can be analysed as “touching something with a part of the body, feeling something in that part, knowing something about that thing because of it, and thinking about that thing in a certain way because of it”.

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### Temperature perception in humans : physiology

- Temperature sensation/evaluation of the temperature of other entities, based on perception received by the skin, and
- thermal comfort, having to do with maintaining heat balance between the heat produced by metabolism and the heat lost or gained as a result of other physiological processes.

Different temperature scales with their own reference points:

- the physiological zero and the neutral zone ( $\approx 31-36^{\circ}\text{C}$ ): subject to sustained thermal adaptation, and
- the comfort zone ( $3-4^{\circ}\text{C}$  within  $17.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $31^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), dependent on the habitual temperature in the group's environment.

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### Temperature perception vs. other physiological processes

- The same nociceptor, VR1 (sensory neurons involved in the detection of pain-producing stimuli) is activated by painful heat ( $\geq 45^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and by chilli peppers (i.e., by capsaicin found in them) (Clapham 1997).
- Certain emotional responses involve temperature regulation: e.g. anger leads to increased body heat.

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### Subdomains within the linguistic temperature domain

- EXPERIENCE-BASED (whereby an entity has a temperature that can be verified from “outside”)
  - tactile-temperature, or “touch-temperature”
- (1) *The floor / the kettle / the soup is COLD*
  - non-tactile temperature: *ambient* (2) and *clothing* (3) temperature
- (2) It is cold here; the weather / Moscow /the winter is cold.
- (3) This sweater is cold.
- EXPERIENCER-BASED (whereby an entity, i.e. a living being, experiences a certain state):
  - personal-feeling temperature
- (4) I am cold (because the room is not heated, because I am ill...)

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### Physical environment: variable

Humans live under amazingly different climatic conditions and differ in their exposure to high vs. low temperatures, both under natural and human-made conditions (cf. a sauna, a refrigerator).



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### Temperature properties of entities: variable

Entities differ wrt their temperature properties:

- some have constant temperature properties



- some have preferable temperature properties
- some are primarily used for thermal comfort



- some have irrelevant temperature properties (e.g., books)

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### Social-cultural practices: variable

Cultures differ in their “temperature-related” practices and in the symbolic value of temperature evaluation:

- sauna once again
- a division of the world into ‘hot’ and ‘cold’ entities in Mesoamerica
- a division of consumables and body conditions into ‘hot’, ‘cool’, ‘cold’ etc. in South-East Asia

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*What's there to be studied wrt to linguistics of temperature?*

- Focus 1: What temperature concepts are encoded as words across languages, what distinctions are made in the systems of temperature terms and what factors underlie them?
- Focus 2: How are temperature concepts lexicalized across languages in terms of word classes? What syntactic constructions are used for talking about temperature perception?
- Focus 3: What are the possible extensions of temperature terms to other domains? Where from do the temperature terms come? How can their meanings change?

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**FOCUS 1: Lexicalization of temperature concepts, universal vs. language-specific**

Do all languages lexicalize temperature concepts?

The null hypothesis: yes, but this has to be checked. However, we know already:

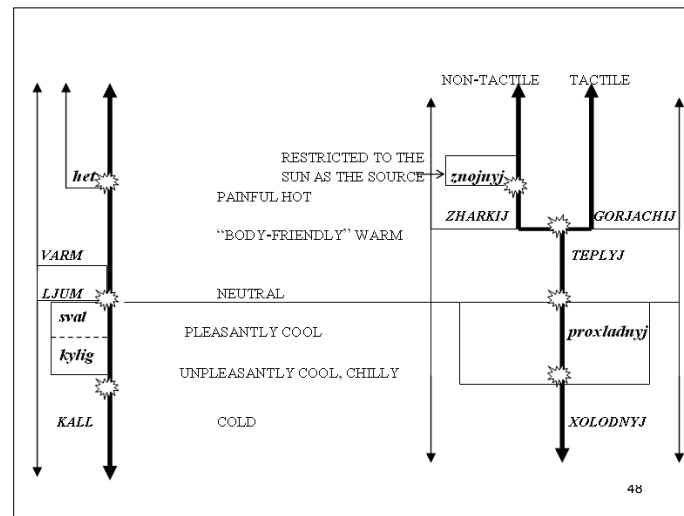
- Many (most?) languages lack the word for the functional concept 'temperature'
- Languages differ as to how many temperature terms they have and how these categorize the temperature domain in general.

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**FOCUS 1: Lexicalization of temperature concepts**

- English, Russian, Swedish: elaborated systems with six or more terms (e.g., hot, warm, lukewarm, chilly, cool, cold; freeze...)
- Many languages have only two temperature terms – e.g., the Oceanic languages spoken on Vanuatu (Alex François p.c.) – or three – e.g., Yucatec Maya (Olivier Le Guin p.c.).
- Even languages with a comparable degree of elaboration within their temperature systems can vary considerably as to what distinctions are relevant. E.g., what distinguishes 'warm' and 'hot'; whether there is a distinction between tactile and non-tactile perception, etc. (cf. Russian vs. Swedish, Koptjevskaja-Tamm & Rakhilina 2006)

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*Categorization within the temperature domain: talking about water in Ewe (Felix Ameka p.c.)*

- (1) Tsi-a fá  
'The water is cool/cold'
- (2) Tsi-a gblɔ  
'The water is lukewarm' (e.g., for medicinal purposes)
- (3) Tsi-a xɔ dzo (e.g., for medicinal purposes)  
'The water is hot'
- (4) Tsi-a vé  
'The water is painfully hot'
- (5) Tsi-a fie (e.g., for bathing dead corpses)  
'The water has boiled'

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**FOCUS 2: Semantic shifts relevant for the temperature domain**

- Temperature meanings are often semantically related to other meanings, either synchronically (within a polysemantic lexeme) or diachronically.
  - Temperature concepts are often used for talking about emotions ('hot temperament', 'warm feelings') and for referring to other perceptual modalities ('hot spices').
  - Temperature meanings can develop from others, e.g., 'burn, fire' > 'hot', or 'ice' > 'cold'.
  - The meanings of temperature terms can also change within the temperature domain itself (e.g., 'warm, hot' > 'lukewarm', as in Lat. *tep-* 'warm', Sanskrit *tāpas* 'heat' vs. English *tepid* 'lukewarm', or Swed. *sval* 'cool' vs. German *schwül* 'stiffy, unpleasantly warm').

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**FOCUS 3: Lexicon-grammar interaction within the temperature domain**

Languages vary considerably as to

- how temperature concepts are lexicalized across languages in terms of word classes (cf. *hot* – *heat*, *cold* – *freeze*), and
- what syntactic constructions are used for talking about temperature perception

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**Distinguishing among the temperature subdomains: syntactic constructions vs. lexical means**

- Syntactic constructions
  - English: The stones are cold, It is cold here, I am cold
  - German: Die Steine sind kalt, Es ist kalt hier, Mir ist kalt
  - French: Les pierres sont froides, Il fait froid, J'ai froid
- Lexical means
  - English: I am freezing
  - German: Ich friere
- Syntactic constructions and lexical means
  - Japanese: *Ishi ga* (SUB) *tsumetai*, *Kyô wa* (TOP) *samui*, (Watashi wa ((TOP) samui

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### Which factors shape the linguistic temperature system in a language / across languages?

- Are there temperature-related "universals" that can be explained by neurophysiology and cognition, rather than by the more external and accidental factors?

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### Possible generalizations? Universal 1

Plank 2003: "The number of basic temperature terms a language can maximally have is probably quite limited. Probably there are only 2-term, 3-term, or 4-term systems of basic terms.

The **2-term** system only distinguishes **warm** and **cold**, as an equipollent opposition.

The **3-term** system distinguishes **warm** (pleasant for the human perceiver/experiencer, unmarked), **cold** (unpleasantly non-warm, marked relative to warm), and **hot** (unpleasantly, even dangerously very-warm, also marked, forming the opposite of cold in terms of extremes).

The **4-term** system adds a neutral term for the absence of either a pleasant or an unpleasant perception/experience of temperature, **luke**. Luke can probably not be added to equipollent 2-term systems."

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### Other possible generalizations: temperature words used in other domains

- Universal metaphors suggested within cognitive linguistics:
  - 'AFFECTION IS WARMTH' (Lakoff & Johnson 1997:50)
  - 'ANGER IS HEAT' (Kövecses 1995, also Goossens 1998; cf. also Shindo 1998-99).
- Cross-modal perception: 'hot day' vs. 'hot pepper'

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### *Cross-linguistic differences*

- Not all languages use temperature expressions in other domains. Oceanic languages (Alex François), Pirahã (Dan Everett), Nganasan (Valentin Goussev & Maria Brykina): no uses of temperature words in addition to the straightforward temperature situations.
- Languages differ as to whether they can use 'hot' for cross-modal perception: e.g. peppers can be sharp (Russian, German) and strong (Swedish) (cf. Rakova 2003).

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### Cross-linguistic differences (cont.)

- Extensions from the temperature domain are dependent on categorization within it. Palula (Henrik Liljegren & Naseem Haider): due to the lack of lexical elaboration within the warmer part of the temperature domain, both metaphors 'anger is heat' and 'affection is warmth' are realized by one and the same adjective *taatu*, cf. *so taatu miish* 'He is an angry person' (lit. 'He is a hot/warm person') vs. and *taatu hiRu* 'generous' (lit. 'a hot/warm heart').
- Languages can show "unexpected" extensions. Swahili (Il'ja Grountov), Wolof (Michel-Loïc Perrin: 'nice' extensions from 'cool' rather than 'warm' (due to climatic conditions)

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### Which factors shape the linguistic temperature system in a language / across languages?

- Genetic factors: cf. *Hot, heiß, het, warm, varm; cold, kalt*. Temperature terms are very stable! But even closely related languages can show amazing differences.

Cf. Icelandic: *heitur* has been generalized to cover almost the whole warming zone (the cognate of warm has been more or less lost)

Turkic: Uzbek *sovuk* 'cold; chilly, cool' vs. Turkish *soğuk* 'cold' /serin 'cool'

The tactile/ non-tactile distinction: Russian vs. the other Slavic; Komi Zyryan (пӧсь / жар) vs. Udmurt (пӧсь)

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### Which factors shape the linguistic temperature system in a language / across languages (cont.)?

- Language contact: cf. *cool; hot line*; 'cold' for 'slow' in several African languages (e.g., Bambara and Bozo – Mande, Cerma and Nateni – Gur)? The Komi-Zyryan tactile vs. non-tactile distinction.
- Environmental (climatic) factors: can the paucity of the temperature terms in the Oceanic be related to the relatively narrow range of temperature fluctuations in the environment?
- Social-cultural practices: cf. the abundance of temperature terms for qualifying water in Ewe related to food preparation, bathing, washing, medicinal and ritual purposes.

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### Coda: more on lexical and semantic typology

The three foci do not exhaust all the possible issues within lexical typology. E.g., stability vs. borrowability of lexical concepts belongs also to lexical typology.

Semantic typology – "the systematic cross-linguistic study of how languages express meaning by way of signs" (Nick Evans, in press).

E.g., semantics of tense-aspect systems belongs to semantic typology but not to lexical typology.

Conversely, lexical typology is not necessarily restricted to semantic questions: e.g., cross-linguistic studies of "word".

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## Task 1

Imagine that you are going to conduct a lexico-typological study of (one of) the three domains introduced in the lecture. How will you attack the task? More precisely, what will you do for collecting data?

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