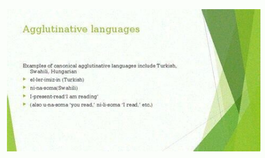


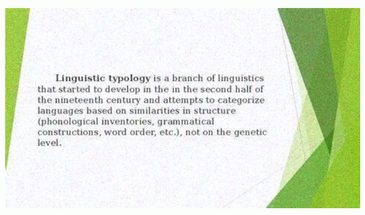

I am not robot!

# How are language families classified.  What are the classification of languages.  What is typological classification.
# Genetic and typological classification of languages.

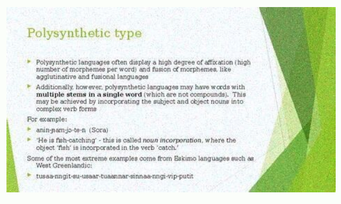
Home Philosophy & Religion Humanities There are two kinds of classification of languages practiced in linguistics: genetic (or genealogical) and typological. The purpose of genetic classification is to group languages into families according to their degree of diachronic relatedness.
For example, within the Indo-European family, such subfamilies as Germanic or Celtic are recognized; these subfamilies comprise German, English, Dutch, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish, and others, on the one hand, and Irish, Welsh, Breton, and others, on the other. So far, most of the languages of the world have been grouped only tentatively into families, and many of the classificatory schemes that have been proposed will no doubt be radically revised as further progress is made. A typological classification groups languages into types according to their structural characteristics. The most famous typological classification is probably that of isolating, agglutinating, and inflecting (or fusional) languages, which was frequently invoked in the 19th century in support of an evolutionary theory of language development.




For example, within the Indo-European family, such subfamilies as Germanic or Celtic are recognized; these subfamilies comprise German, English, Dutch, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish, and others, on the one hand, and Irish, Welsh, Breton, and others, on the other. So far, most of the languages of the world have been grouped only tentatively into families, and many of the classificatory schemes that have been proposed will no doubt be radically revised as further progress is made.

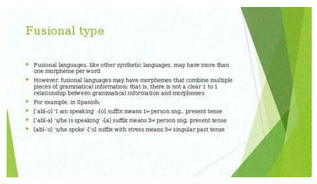



Home Philosophy & Religion Humanities There are two kinds of classification of languages practiced in linguistics: genetic (or genealogical) and typological. The purpose of genetic classification is to group languages into families according to their degree of diachronic relatedness. For example, within the Indo-European family, such subfamilies as Germanic or Celtic are recognized; these subfamilies comprise German, English, Dutch, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish, and others, on the one hand, and Irish, Welsh, Breton, and others, on the other. So far, most of the languages of the world have been grouped only tentatively into families, and many of the classificatory schemes that have been proposed will no doubt be radically revised as further progress is made. A typological classification groups languages into types according to their structural characteristics. The most famous typological classification is probably that of isolating, agglutinating, and inflecting (or fusional) languages, which was frequently invoked in the 19th century in support of an evolutionary theory of language development. Roughly speaking, an isolating language is one in which all the words are morphologically unanalyzable (i.e., in which each word is composed of a single morph); Chinese and, even more strikingly, Vietnamese are highly isolating. An agglutinating language (e.g., Turkish) is one in which the word forms can be segmented into morphs, each of which represents a single grammatical category. An inflecting language is one in which there is no one-to-one correspondence between particular word segments and particular grammatical categories. The older Indo-European languages tend to be inflecting in this sense. For example, the Latin suffix -is represents the combination of categories “singular” and “genitive” in the word form hominis “of the man,” but one part of the suffix cannot be assigned to “singular” and another to “genitive,” and -is is only one of many suffixes that in different classes (or declensions) of words represent the combination of “singular” and “genitive.” There is, in principle, no limit to the variety of ways in which languages can be grouped typologically. One can distinguish languages with a relatively rich phonemic inventory from languages with a relatively poor phonemic inventory, languages with a high ratio of consonants to vowels from languages with a low ratio of consonants to vowels, languages with a fixed word order from languages with a free word order, prefixing languages from suffixing languages, and so on.
The problem lies in deciding what significance should be attached to particular typological characteristics. Although there is, not surprisingly, a tendency for genetically related languages to be typologically similar in many ways, typological similarity of itself is no proof of genetic relationship. Nor does it appear true that languages of a particular type will be associated with cultures of a particular type or at a certain stage of development. From work in typology in the second half of the 20th century, it emerged that certain logically unconnected features tend to occur together, so the presence of feature A in a given language will tend to imply the presence of feature B. The discovery of unexpected implications of this kind calls for an explanation and gives a stimulus to research in many branches of linguistics. Get access Cite Type Chapter Information DOI: [Opens in a new window] Publisher: Cambridge University Press Print publication year: 2002 Get access to the full version of this content by using one of the access options below. (Log in options will check for institutional or personal access.
Content may require purchase if you do not have access.) @inproceedings{Aikhenvald2017TheCH, title={The Cambridge handbook of linguistic typology}, author={Alexandra Y. Aikhenvald and Robert M. W. Dixon}, year={2017}, url={ 152235218} }Linguistic typology identifies both how languages vary and what they all have in common. This Handbook provides a state-of-the art survey of the aims and methods of linguistic typology, and the conclusions we can draw from them. Part I covers phonological typology, morphological typology, sociolinguistic typology and the relationships between typology, historical linguistics and grammaticalization. It also addresses typological features of mixed languages, creole languages, sign languages and… Ulrike ZeshanNick PalfreymanLinguistics2020This article sets out a conceptual framework and typology of modality effects in the comparison of signed and spoken languages. This is essential for a theory of cross-modal typology. We distinguish… Caitie CoonsLinguisticsFrontiers in Communication2021Although spoken language nominal typology has been subject to much scrutiny, research on signed language nominal word order typology is still a burgeoning field. Yet, the structure of signed… Erich R. RoundLinguistics2017In “Where’s phonology in typology?” Hyman (2007) observed that phonology, a discipline with an abiding interest in typology and much to offer it, had only a slender profile in publications… S. TóthYдкLinguistics2018Most cognitive linguists focus on lexical semantics in one or more languages from the aspect of culture. Yes, word derivation, especially the motivation of the lexemes shows much from the cognitive… D. LawLinguistics2020Linguistic similarity can play a significant role in language contact. Many Mayan languages evince both pattern and matter borrowing (Matras and Sakel 2007) from other Mayan languages. Here, I focus… Nathan M. WhiteLinguistics2021 The “dynamic coevolution of meaning and form” of Bybee et al. (1994: 20) has been the subject of significant discussion as regards the languages of Mainland Southeast Asia. However, little work has… Jesse StewartFelicity MeakinsLinguistics2021Mixed languages have provided a fascinating platform for linguistic inquiry for the better part of four decades when initial works began to appear in the literature. From the 1990s to approximately… Katarzyna I. WojtylakLinguistics2020This is the first detailed description of Murui (Bue variety), a Witotoan language spoken by about 2,000 people in the Colombian and Peruvian parts of the Amazon Basin. Following Basic Linguistic… N. EvansS. LevinsonLinguisticsThe Behavioral and brain sciences2009This target article summarizes decades of cross-linguistic work by typologists and descriptive linguists, showing just how few and unprofound the universal characteristics of language are, once the authors honestly confront the diversity offered to us by the world's 6,000 to 8,000 languages.Joan L. BybeeRevere D. PerkinsWilliam PagliucaLinguistics1994This analysis reveals that lexical substance evolves into grammatical substance through various mechanisms of change, such as metaphorical extension and the conventionalization of implicature, providing clear evidence that language use is a major factor in the evolution of synchronic language states.Preface. Part I: Introduction 1.
Introduction. Part II: The Evolution of Language 2. The Evolution of Language. Part III: Universalism: Innate Constraints of Mind 3. Mind, Universals and the Sensible… R. DixonA. AikhenvaldLinguistics2011This chapter suggests a typology of syntactic derivations and associated construction types which relate to predicate arguments. Four basic types are distinguished, and a number of subtypes within… W. Bruce CroftLinguistics19901. Introduction 2. Typological classification 3. Implicational universals 4. Markedness in typology 5. Grammatical hierarchies 6. Prototypes and the interaction of typological patterns 7. External… F.

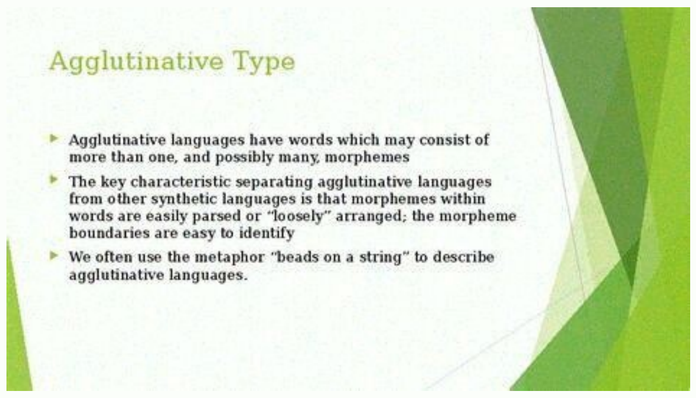



Genetic and typological classification of languages.

Home Philosophy & Religion Humanities There are two kinds of classification of languages practiced in linguistics: genetic (or genealogical) and typological. The purpose of genetic classification is to group languages into families according to their degree of diachronic relatedness. For example, within the Indo-European family, such subfamilies as Germanic or Celtic are recognized; these subfamilies comprise German, English, Dutch, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish, and others, on the one hand, and Irish, Welsh, Breton, and others, on the other. So far, most of the languages of the world have been grouped only tentatively into families, and many of the classificatory schemes that have been proposed will no doubt be radically revised as further progress is made. A typological classification groups languages into types according to their structural characteristics. The most famous typological classification is probably that of isolating, agglutinating, and inflecting (or fusional) languages, which was frequently invoked in the 19th century in support of an evolutionary theory of language development. Roughly speaking, an isolating language is one in which all the words are morphologically unanalyzable (i.e., in which each word is composed of a single morph); Chinese and, even more strikingly, Vietnamese are highly isolating. An agglutinating language (e.g., Turkish) is one in which the word forms can be segmented into morphs, each of which represents a single grammatical category. An inflecting language is one in which there is no one-to-one correspondence between particular word segments and particular grammatical categories. The older Indo-European languages tend to be inflecting in this sense. For example, the Latin suffix -is represents the combination of categories “singular” and “genitive” in the word form hominis “of the man,” but one part of the suffix cannot be assigned to “singular” and another to “genitive,” and -is is only one of many suffixes that in different classes (or declensions) of words represent the combination of “singular” and “genitive.” There is, in principle, no limit to the variety of ways in which languages can be grouped typologically. One can distinguish languages with a relatively rich phonemic inventory from languages with a relatively poor phonemic inventory, languages with a high ratio of consonants to vowels from languages with a low ratio of consonants to vowels, languages with a fixed word order from languages with a free word order, prefixing languages from suffixing languages, and so on. The problem lies in deciding what significance should be attached to particular typological characteristics. Although there is, not surprisingly, a tendency for genetically related languages to be typologically similar in many ways, typological similarity of itself is no proof of genetic relationship. Nor does it appear true that languages of a particular type will be associated with cultures of a particular type or at a certain stage of development. From work in typology in the second half of the 20th century, it emerged that certain logically unconnected features tend to occur together, so the presence of feature A in a given language will tend to imply the presence of feature B.
The discovery of unexpected implications of this kind calls for an explanation and gives a stimulus to research in many branches of linguistics. Get access Cite Type Chapter Information DOI: [Opens in a new window] Publisher: Cambridge University Press Print publication year: 2002 Get access to the full version of this content by using one of the access options below. (Log in options will check for institutional or personal access. Content may require purchase if you do not have access.) @inproceedings{Aikhenvald2017TheCH, title={The Cambridge handbook of linguistic typology}, author={Alexandra Y. Aikhenvald and Robert M. W.




So far, most of the languages of the world have been grouped only tentatively into families, and many of the classificatory schemes that have been proposed will no doubt be radically revised as further progress is made. A typological classification groups languages into types according to their structural characteristics. The most famous typological classification is probably that of isolating, agglutinating, and inflecting (or fusional) languages, which was frequently invoked in the 19th century in support of an evolutionary theory of language development. Roughly speaking, an isolating language is one in which all the words are morphologically unanalyzable (i.e., in which each word is composed of a single morph); Chinese and, even more strikingly, Vietnamese are highly isolating. An agglutinating language (e.g., Turkish) is one in which the word forms can be segmented into morphs, each of which represents a single grammatical category. An inflecting language is one in which there is no one-to-one correspondence between particular word segments and particular grammatical categories. The older Indo-European languages tend to be inflecting in this sense. For example, the Latin suffix -is represents the combination of categories “singular” and “genitive” in the word form hominis “of the man,” but one part of the suffix cannot be assigned to “singular” and another to “genitive,” and -is is only one of many suffixes that in different classes (or declensions) of words represent the combination of “singular” and “genitive.” There is, in principle, no limit to the variety of ways in which languages can be grouped typologically. One can distinguish languages with a relatively rich phonemic inventory from languages with a relatively poor phonemic inventory, languages with a high ratio of consonants to vowels from languages with a low ratio of consonants to vowels, languages with a fixed word order from languages with a free word order, prefixing languages from suffixing languages, and so on. The problem lies in deciding what significance should be attached to particular typological characteristics.




Genetic and typological classification of languages.

Home Philosophy & Religion Humanities There are two kinds of classification of languages practiced in linguistics: genetic (or genealogical) and typological. The purpose of genetic classification is to group languages into families according to their degree of diachronic relatedness. For example, within the Indo-European family, such subfamilies as Germanic or Celtic are recognized; these subfamilies comprise German, English, Dutch, Swedish, Norwegian, Danish, and others, on the one hand, and Irish, Welsh, Breton, and others, on the other. So far, most of the languages of the world have been grouped only tentatively into families, and many of the classificatory schemes that have been proposed will no doubt be radically revised as further progress is made. A typological classification groups languages into types according to their structural characteristics. The most famous typological classification is probably that of isolating, agglutinating, and inflecting (or fusional) languages, which was frequently invoked in the 19th century in support of an evolutionary theory of language development. Roughly speaking, an isolating language is one in which all the words are morphologically unanalyzable (i.e., in which each word is composed of a single morph); Chinese and, even more strikingly, Vietnamese are highly isolating. An agglutinating language (e.g., Turkish) is one in which the word forms can be segmented into morphs, each of which represents a single grammatical category. An inflecting language is one in which there is no one-to-one correspondence between particular word segments and particular grammatical categories. The older Indo-European languages tend to be inflecting in this sense. For example, the Latin suffix -is represents the combination of categories “singular” and “genitive” in the word form hominis “of the man,” but one part of the suffix cannot be assigned to “singular” and another to “genitive,” and -is is only one of many suffixes that in different classes (or declensions) of words represent the combination of “singular” and “genitive.” There is, in principle, no limit to the variety of ways in which languages can be grouped typologically. One can distinguish languages with a relatively rich phonemic inventory from languages with a relatively poor phonemic inventory, languages with a high ratio of consonants to vowels from languages with a low ratio of consonants to vowels, languages with a fixed word order from languages with a free word order, prefixing languages from suffixing languages, and so on. The problem lies in deciding what significance should be attached to particular typological characteristics. Although there is, not surprisingly, a tendency for genetically related languages to be typologically similar in many ways, typological similarity of itself is no proof of genetic relationship. Nor does it appear true that languages of a particular type will be associated with cultures of a particular type or at a certain stage of development. From work in typology in the second half of the 20th century, it emerged that certain logically unconnected features tend to occur together, so the presence of feature A in a given language will tend to imply the presence of feature B. The discovery of unexpected implications of this kind calls for an explanation and gives a stimulus to research in many branches of linguistics. Get access Cite Type Chapter Information DOI: [Opens in a new window] Publisher: Cambridge University Press Print publication year: 2002 Get access to the full version of this content by using one of the access options below. (Log in options will check for institutional or personal access.
Content may require purchase if you do not have access.) @inproceedings{Aikhenvald2017TheCH, title={The Cambridge handbook of linguistic typology}, author={Alexandra Y. Aikhenvald and Robert M.
W. Dixon}, year={2017}, url={ 152235218} }Linguistic typology identifies both how languages vary and what they all have in common. This Handbook provides a state-of-the art survey of the aims and methods of linguistic typology, and the conclusions we can draw from them.
Part I covers phonological typology, morphological typology, sociolinguistic typology and the relationships between typology, historical linguistics and grammaticalization. It also addresses typological features of mixed languages, creole languages, sign languages and… Ulrike ZeshanNick PalfreymanLinguistics2020This article sets out a conceptual framework and typology of modality effects in the comparison of signed and spoken languages. This is essential for a theory of cross-modal typology. We distinguish… Caitie CoonsLinguisticsFrontiers in Communication2021Although spoken language nominal typology has been subject to much scrutiny, research on signed language nominal word order typology is still a burgeoning field.
Yet, the structure of signed… Erich R. RoundLinguistics2017In “Where’s phonology in typology?” Hyman (2007) observed that phonology, a discipline with an abiding interest in typology and much to offer it, had only a slender profile in publications… S.
TóthУдкLinguistics2018Most cognitive linguists focus on lexical semantics in one or more languages from the aspect of culture. Yes, word derivation, especially the motivation of the lexemes shows much from the cognitive… D. LawLinguistics2020Linguistic similarity can play a significant role in language contact. Many Mayan languages evince both pattern and matter borrowing (Matras and Sakel 2007) from other Mayan languages. Here, I focus… Nathan M. WhiteLinguistics2021 The “dynamic coevolution of meaning and form” of Bybee et al. (1994: 20) has been the subject of significant discussion as regards the languages of Mainland Southeast Asia. However, little work has… Jesse StewartFelicity MeakinsLinguistics2021Mixed languages have provided a fascinating platform for linguistic inquiry for the better part of four decades when initial works began to appear in the literature. From the 1990s to approximately… Katarzyna I. WojtylakLinguistics2020This is the first detailed description of Murui (Bue variety), a Witotoan language spoken by about 2,000 people in the Colombian and Peruvian parts of the Amazon Basin. Following Basic Linguistic… N. EvansS. LevinsonLinguisticsThe Behavioral and brain sciences2009This target article summarizes decades of cross-linguistic work by typologists and descriptive linguists, showing just how few and unprofound the universal characteristics of language are, once the authors honestly confront the diversity offered to us by the world's 6,000 to 8,000 languages.Joan L. BybeeRevere D. PerkinsWilliam PagliucaLinguistics1994This analysis reveals that lexical substance evolves into grammatical substance through various mechanisms of change, such as metaphorical extension and the conventionalization of implicature, providing clear evidence that language use is a major factor in the evolution of synchronic language states.Preface. Part I: Introduction 1. Introduction. Part II: The Evolution of Language 2.
The Evolution of Language. Part III: Universalism: Innate Constraints of Mind 3. Mind, Universals and the Sensible… R.
DixonA. AikhenvaldLinguistics2011This chapter suggests a typology of syntactic derivations and associated construction types which relate to predicate arguments. Four basic types are distinguished, and a number of subtypes within… W. Bruce CroftLinguistics19901. Introduction 2. Typological classification 3. Implicational universals 4. Markedness in typology 5. Grammatical hierarchies 6. Prototypes and the interaction of typological patterns 7. External… F.
NewmeyerLinguistics1998Part 1 The form-function problem in linguistics: setting the stage with a (not totally) imaginary dialogue the goals of this book the two orientations in modern linguistics on the variety of… Frans PlankLinguistics2009Abstract After a brief discussion of what The world atlas of language structures can and cannot (easily) be used for, the critical emphasis is on value assignments for the 140 features mapped.
In… This chapter investigates expressions of perception and cognition in Luwo, a Western Nilotic language of South Sudan, spoken in the rural area around the town of Waw. It presents data on the various… Tania KutevaLinguistics1998On the basis of data from both genetically and geographically remote languages the present paper builds a case for the existence of ACTION NARROWLY AVERTED (ANA) as a cross-linguistically… From the Sumerians to the Cognitivists1995, Pages 212-217Author links open overlay panel rights and contentView full textCopyright © 1995 Elsevier Science Ltd. All rights reserved. Academia.edu uses cookies to personalize content, tailor ads and improve the user experience. By using our site, you agree to our collection of information through the use of cookies. To learn more, view our Privacy Policy. Branch of linguistics Part of a series onLinguistics OutlineHistoryIndex General linguistics Diachronic Lexicography Morphology Phonology Pragmatics Semantics Syntax Syntax–semantics interface Typology Applied linguistics Acquisition Anthropological Applied Computational Conversation Analysis Corpus linguistics Discourse analysis Distance Documentation Ethnography of communication Ethnomethodology Forensic History of linguistics Interlinguistics Neurolinguistics Philology Philosophy of language Phonetics Psycholinguistics Sociolinguistics Text Translating and interpreting Writing systems Theoretical frameworks Formalist Constituency Dependency Distributionalism Generative Glossematics Functional Cognitive Construction grammar Functional discourse grammar Grammaticalization Interactional linguistics Prague school Systemic functional Usage-based Structuralism Topics Autonomy of syntax Compositionality Conservative/innovative forms Descriptivism Etymology Iconicity Internet linguistics LGBT linguistics Origin of language Orthography Philosophy of linguistics Prescriptivism Second-language acquisition Theory of language Portalvte Linguistic typology Morphological Analytic Isolating Synthetic Fusional Agglutinative Polysynthetic Oligosynthetic Morphosyntactic Alignment Nominative–accusative Marked nominative Ergative–absolutive Split ergative Symmetrical voice Active–stative Tripartite Nominative–absolutive Direct-inverse Ditransitive/Monotransitive Secundative Indirective Zero-marking Dependent-marking Double-marking Head-marking Null-subject Syntactic pivot Theta role Word order VO languages Subject–verb–object Verb–subject–object Verb–object–subject OV languages Subject–object–verb Object–subject–verb Object–verb–subject V1 word order V2 word order OS word order Free word order Time–manner–place Place–manner–time Lexicon Color terms Numerals vte Linguistic typology (or language typology) is a field of linguistics that studies and classifies languages according to their structural features to allow their comparison. Its aim is to describe and explain the structural diversity and the common properties of the world's languages.[1] Its subdisciplines include, but are not limited to phonological typology, which deals with sound features; syntactic typology, which deals with word order and form; lexical typology, which deals with language vocabulary; and theoretical typology, which aims to explain the universal tendencies.[2] Linguistic typology is contrasted with genealogical linguistics on the grounds that typology groups languages or their grammatical features based on formal similarities rather than historic descendence.[3] The issue of genealogical relation is however relevant to typology because modern data sets aim to be representative and unbiased. Samples are collected evenly from different language families, emphasizing the importance of lesser-known languages in gaining insight into human language.[4] History Speculations of the existence of a (logical) general or universal grammar underlying all languages were published in the Middle Ages, especially by the Modistae school. At the time, Latin was the model language of linguistics, although transcribing Irish and Icelandic into the Latin alphabet was found problematic.
The cross-linguistic dimension of linguistics was established in the Renaissance period. For example, Grammaticae quadrilinguis partitiones (1544) by Johannes Drosaeus compared French and the three ‘holy languages’, Hebrew, Greek, and Latin. The approach was expanded by the Port-Royal Grammar (1660) of Antoine Arnauld and Claude Lancelot, who added Spanish, Italian, German and Arabic. Nicolas Beauzée's 1767 book includes examples of English, Swedish, Lappish, Irish, Welsh, Basque, Quechua, and Chinese.[5] The conquest and conversion of the world by Europeans gave rise to 'missionary linguistics' producing first-hand word lists and grammatical descriptions of exotic languages. Such work is accounted for in the ‘Catalogue of the Languages of the Populations We Know’, 1800, by the Spanish Jesuit Lorenzo Hervás. Johann Christoph Adelung collected the first large language sample with the Lord's prayer in almost five hundred languages (posthumous 1817).[5] More developed nineteenth-century comparative works include Franz Bopp's 'Conjugation System' (1816) and Wilhelm von Humboldt's ‘On the Difference in Human Linguistic Structure and Its Influence on the Intellectual Development of Mankind’ (posthumous 1836). In 1818, August Wilhelm Schlegel made a classification of the world's languages into three types: (i) languages lacking grammatical structure, e.g. Chinese; (ii) agglutinative languages, e.g. Turkish; and (iii) inflectional languages, which can be synthetic like Latin and Ancient Greek, or analytic like French.
This idea was later developed by others including August Schleicher, Heymann Steinthal, Franz Misteli, Franz Nicolaus Finck, and Max Müller.[3] The word 'typology' was proposed by Georg von der Gabelentz in his Sprachwissenschaft (1891). Louis Hjelmslev proposed typology as a large-scale empirical-analytical endeavour of comparing grammatical features to uncover the essence of language.
Such a project begins from the 1961 conference on language universals at Dobbs Ferry. Speakers included Roman Jakobson, Charles F. Hockett, and Joseph Greenberg who proposed forty-five different types of linguistic universals based on his data sets from thirty languages. Greenberg's findings were mostly known from the nineteenth-century grammarians, but his systematic presentation of them would serve as a model for modern typology.[3] Winfred P. Lehmann introduced Greenbergian typological theory to Indo-European studies in the 1970s.[6] During the twentieth century, typology based on missionary linguistics became centered around SIL International, which today hosts its catalogue of living languages, Ethnologue, as an online database. The Greenbergian or universalist approach is accounted for by the World Atlas of Language Structures, among others. Typology is also done within the frameworks of functional grammar including Functional Discourse Grammar, Role and Reference Grammar, and Systemic Functional Linguistics. During the early years of the twenty-first century, however, the existence of linguistic universals became questioned by linguists proposing evolutionary typology.[7] Method Quantitative typology deals with the distribution and co-occurrence of structural patterns in the languages of the world.[8] Major types of non-chance distribution include: preferences (for instance, absolute and implicational universals, semantic maps, and hierarchies) correlations (for instance, areal patterns, such as with a Sprachbund) Linguistic universals are patterns that can be seen cross-linguistically. Universals can either be absolute, meaning that every documented language exhibits this characteristic, or statistical, meaning that this characteristic is seen in most languages or is probable in most languages. Universals, both absolute and statistical can be unrestricted, meaning that they apply to most or all languages without any additional conditions.
Conversely, both absolute and statistical universals can be restricted or implicational, meaning that a characteristic will be true on the condition of something else (if Y characteristic is true, then X characteristic is true).[9] An example of an implicational hierarchy is that dual pronouns are only found in languages with plural pronouns while singular pronouns (or unspecified in terms of number) are found in all languages. The implicational hierarchy is thus singular < plural < dual (etc.). Qualitative typology develops cross-linguistically viable notions or types that provide a framework for the description and comparison of languages. Subfields The main subfields of linguistic typology include the empirical fields of syntactic, phonological and lexical typology. Additionally, theoretical typology aims to explain the empirical findings, especially statistical tendencies or implicational hierarchies. Syntactic typology Main article: Word order Syntactic typology studies a vast array of grammatical phenomena from the languages of the world.
Two well-known issues include dominant order and left-right symmetry.
Dominant order One set of types reflects the basic order of subject, verb, and direct object in sentences: Object–subject–verb (OSV) Object–verb–subject (OVS) Subject–verb–object (SVO) Subject–object–verb (SOV) Verb–subject–object (VSO) Verb–object–subject (VOS) These labels usually appear abbreviated as "SVO" and so forth, and may be called "typologies" of the languages to which they apply. The most commonly attested word orders are SOV and SVO while the least common orders are those that are object initial with OVS being the least common with only four attested instances.[10] In the 1980s, linguists began to question the relevance of geographical distribution of different values for various features of linguistic structure. They may have wanted to discover whether a particular grammatical structure found in one language is likewise found in another language in the same geographic location.[11] Some languages split verbs into an auxiliary and an infinitive or participle and put the subject and/or object between them. For instance, German (Ich habe einen Fuchs im Wald gesehen - *"I have a fox in-the woods seen"), Dutch (Hans vermoedde dat Jan Marie zag leren zwemmen - *"Hans suspected that Jan Marie saw to learn to swim") and Welsh (Mae'r gwirio sillafu wedi'i gwblhau - *"Is the checking spelling after its to complete"). In this case, linguists base the typology on the non-analytic tenses (i.e. those sentences in which the verb is not split) or on the position of the auxiliary. German is thus SVO in main clauses and Welsh is VSO (and preposition phrases would go after the infinitive). Many typologists[who?] classify both German and Dutch as V2 languages, as the verb invariantly occurs as the second element of a full clause. Some languages allow varying degrees of freedom in their constituent order, posing a problem for their classification within the subject–verb–object schema. Languages with bound case markings for nouns, for example, tend to have more flexible word orders than languages where case is defined by position within a sentence or presence of a preposition. For example, in some languages with bound case markings for nouns, such as Language X, varying degrees of freedom in constituent order are observed. These languages exhibit more flexible word orders, allowing for variations like Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) structure, as in 'The cat ate the mouse,' and Object-Subject-Verb (OSV) structure, as in 'The mouse the cat ate.' To define a basic constituent order type in this case, one generally looks at frequency of different types in declarative affirmative main clauses in pragmatically neutral contexts, preferably with only old referents.
Thus, for instance, Russian is widely considered an SVO language, as this is the most frequent constituent order under such conditions—all sorts of variations are possible, though, and occur in texts. In many inflected languages, such as Russian, Latin, and Greek, departures from the default word-orders are permissible but usually imply a shift in focus, an emphasis on the final element, or some special context.
In the poetry of these languages, the word order may also shift freely to meet metrical demands. Additionally, freedom of word order may vary within the same language—for example, formal, literary, or archaizing varieties may have different, stricter, or more lenient constituent-order structures than an informal spoken variety of the same language. On the other hand, when there is no clear preference under the described conditions, the language is considered to have "flexible constituent order" (a type unto itself). An additional problem is that in languages without living speech communities, such as Latin, Ancient Greek, and Old Church Slavonic, linguists have only written evidence, perhaps written in a poetic, formalizing, or archaic style that mischaracterizes the actual daily use of the language.[12] The daily spoken language of Sophocles or Cicero might have exhibited a different or much more regular syntax than their written legacy indicates. Theoretical issues The below table indicates the distribution of the dominant word order pattern of over 5,000 individual languages and 366 language families. SOV is the most common type in both although much more clearly in the data of language families including isolates. 'NODOM' represents languages without a single dominant order.[13] Type Languages % Families % SOV 2,275 43.3% 239 65.3% SVO 2,117 40.3% 55 15% VSO 503 9.5% 27 7.4% VOS 174 3.3% 15 4.1% NODOM 124 2.3% 26 7.1% OVS 40 0.7% 3 0.8% OSV 19 0.3% 1 0.3% Though the reason of dominance is sometimes considered an unsolved or unsolvable typological problem, several explanations for the distribution pattern have been proposed. Evolutionary explanations include those by Thomas Givon (1979), who suggests that all languages stem from an SOV language but are evolving into different kinds; and by Derek Bickerton (1981), who argues that the original language was SVO, which supports simpler grammar employing word order instead of case markers to differentiate between clausal roles.[14] Universalist explanations include a model by Russell Tomlin (1986) based on three functional principles: (i) animate before inanimate; (ii) theme before comment; and (iii) verb-object bonding. The three-way model roughly predicts the real hierarchy (see table above) assuming no statistical difference between SOV and SVO, and, also, no statistical difference between VOS and OVS. By contrast, the processing efficiency theory of John A. Hawkins (1994) suggests that constituents are ordered from shortest to longest in VO languages, and from longest to shortest in OV languages, giving rise to the attested distribution. This approach relies on the notion that OV languages have heavy subjects, and VO languages have heavy objects, which is disputed.[14] Left-right symmetry A second major way of syntactic categorization is by excluding the subject from consideration. It is a well-documented typological feature that languages with a dominant OV order (object before verb), Japanese for example, tend to have postpositions. In contrast, VO languages (verb before object) like English tend to have prepositions as their main adpositional type. Several OV/VO correlations have been uncovered.[15] Correlation VO languages Example (VO)[16] OV languages Example (OV) Adposition type prepositions of..., than..., on... postpositions ...of, ...than, ...on Order of noun and genitive noun before genitive father + of John genitive before noun John-of + father Order of adjective and standard of comparison adjective before standard taller + than Bob standard before adjective Bob-than + taller Order of verb and adpositional phrase verb before adpositional phrase slept + on the floor adpositional phrase before verb floor-on + slept Order of verb and manner adverb verb before manner adverb ran + slowly manner adverb before verb slowly + ran Order of copula and predicative copula before predicate is + a teacher predicate before copula a teacher + is Order of auxiliary verb and content verb auxiliary before content verb want + to see Mary content verb before auxiliary Mary see-to + want Place of adverbial subordinator in clause clause-initial subordinators because + Bob has left clause-final subordinators Bob has left-because Order of noun and relative clause noun before relative clause movies + that we saw either we-seen + movies or movies we-seen Theoretical issues Several processing explanations were proposed in the 1980s and 1990s for the above correlations. They suggest that the brain finds it easier to parse syntactic patterns that are either right or left branching, but not mixed. The most widely held such explanation is John A. Hawkins' parsing efficiency theory, which argues that language is a non-innate adaptation to innate cognitive mechanisms. Typological tendencies are considered as being based on language users' preference for grammars that are organized efficiently, and on their avoidance of word orderings that cause processing difficulty. Hawkins's processing theory predicts the above table but also makes predictions for non-correlation pairs including the order of adjective, demonstrative and numeral in respect with the noun.
This theory was based on corpus research and lacks support in psycholinguistic studies.[14] Some languages exhibit regular "inefficient" patterning. These include the VO languages Chinese, with the adpositional phrase before the verb, and Finnish, which has postpositions. But there are few other profoundly exceptional languages. It is suggested more recently that the left-right orientation is limited to role-marking connectives (adpositions and subordinators), stemming directly from the semantic mapping of the sentence. Since the true correlation pairs in the above table either involve such a connective or, arguably, follow from the canonical order, orientation predicts them without making problematic claims.[17] Morphosyntactic alignment Main article: Morphosyntactic alignment Another common classification distinguishes nominative–accusative alignment patterns and ergative–absolutive ones.
In a language with cases, the classification depends on whether the subject (S) of an intransitive verb has the same case as the agent (A) or the patient (P) of a transitive verb. If a language has no cases, but the word order is AVP or PVA, then a classification may reflect whether the subject of an intransitive verb appears on the same side as the agent or the patient of the transitive verb. Bickel (2011) has argued that alignment should be seen as a construction-specific property rather than a language-specific property.[18] Many languages show mixed accusative and ergative behaviour (for example: ergative morphology marking the verb arguments, on top of an accusative syntax). Other languages (called "active languages") have two types of intransitive verbs—some of them ("active verbs") join the subject in the same case as the agent of a transitive verb, and the rest ("stative verbs") join the subject in the same case as the patient[example needed]. Yet other languages behave ergatively only in some contexts (this "split ergativity" is often based on the grammatical person of the arguments or on the tense/aspect of the verb).[19] For example, only some verbs in Georgian behave this way, and, as a rule, only while using the perfective (aorist). Phonological typology Main article: Phonology Linguistic typology also seeks to identify patterns in the structure and distribution of sound systems among the world's languages. This is accomplished by surveying and analyzing the relative frequencies of different phonological properties. Exemplary relative frequencies are given below for certain speech sounds formed by obstructing airflow (obstruents).
These relative frequencies show that contrastive voicing commonly occurs with plosives, as in English neat and need, but occurs much more rarely among fricatives, such as the English niece and knees. According to a worldwide sample of 637 languages,[20] 62% have the voicing contrast in stops but only 35% have this in fricatives.
In the vast majority of those cases, the absence of voicing contrast occurs because there is a lack of voiced fricatives and because all languages have some form of plosive (occlusive),[21] but there are languages with no fricatives. Below is a chart showing the breakdown of voicing properties among languages in the aforementioned sample. Fricative VoicingPlosive Voicing Yes No Total Yes 117 218 395 (62%) No 44 198 242 (38%) Total 221 (35%) 416 (65%) 637 [20] Languages worldwide also vary in the number of sounds they use. These languages can go from very small phonemic inventories (Rotokas with six consonants and five vowels) to very large inventories (!Xóõ with 128 consonants and 28 vowels). An interesting phonological observation found with this data is that the larger a consonant inventory a language has, the more likely it is to contain a sound from a defined set of complex consonants (clicks, glottalized consonants, doubly articulated labial-velar stops, lateral fricatives and affricates, uvular and pharyngeal consonants, and dental or alveolar non-sibilant fricatives). Of this list, only about 26% of languages in a survey[20] of over 600 with small inventories (less than 19 consonants) contain a member of this set, while 51% of average languages (19-25) contain at least one member and 69% of large consonant inventories (greater than 25 consonants) contain a member of this set. It is then seen that complex consonants are in proportion to the size of the inventory. Vowels contain a more modest number of phonemes, with the average being 5–6, which 51% of the languages in the survey have. About a third of the languages have larger than average vowel inventories. Most interesting though is the lack of relationship between consonant inventory size and vowel inventory size. Below is a chart showing this lack of predictability between consonant and vowel inventory sizes in relation to each other. Consonant Inventory Vowel Quality Inventory Small Average Large Total Small 47 153 65 265 (39%) Average 34 105 98 237 (35%) Large 34 87 57 178 (26%) Total 115 (17%) 345 (51%) 220 (32%) 680 [20] See also Grammaticalization Sources References ^ Ferguson, Charles A. (1959). "Diglossia". WORD (Worcester). 15 (2): 325–340. doi:10.1080/00437956.1959.11659702. ISSN 0043-7956. S2CID 239352211 – via Tandfonline-com. ^ Plungyan, V. A. (2011). Modern linguistic typology. Herald of the Russian Academy of Sciences, 81(2), 101-113.
doi:10.1134/S1019331611020158 ^ a b c Graffi, Giorgio (2010). "The Pioneers of Linguistic Typology: From Gabelentz to Greenberg". In Song, Jae Jung (ed.).
The Oxford Handbook of Linguistic Typology. Oxford University Press. pp. 25–42. doi:10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199281251.013.0003. ^ Rijkhoff, Jan (2007). "Linguistic Typology: a short history and some current issues". Tidsskrift for Sprogforskning. 5 (1): 1–18. doi:10.7146/tfs.v5i1.529. Retrieved May 19, 2022. ^ a b Ramat, Paolo (2010). "The (Early) History of Linguistic Typology". In Song, Jae Jung (ed.). The Oxford Handbook of Linguistic Typology.
Oxford University Press. pp. 9–23. doi:10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199281251.013.0002.
^ Lehmann, Winfred P. (1974). "The Syntactic Framework". Proto-Indo-European Syntax. University of Texas Press. ISBN 9780292733411.[permanent dead link] ^ Evans, Nicholas; Levinson, Stephen C. (2009). "The myth of language universals: Language diversity and its importance for cognitive science". Behavioral and Brain Sciences. 32 (5): 420–429.
doi:10.1017/S0140525X0999094X.
hdl:11858/00-001M-0000-0012-C29E-4. PMID 19857320. ^ Quantitative methods in typology.
(2005). In R. Köhler, G. Altmann & R. G. Piotrowski (Eds.), (). Berlin • New York: Walter de Gruyter. doi:10.1515/9783110155785.9.554 ^ Moravcsik, Edith (2013).
Introducing Language Typology. Cambridge, London: Cambridge University Press.
p. 9. ISBN 9780521193405. ^ Gell-Mann, Murray; Ruhlen, Merritt (October 18, 2011). "The origin and evolution of word order".
Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America.
108 (42): 17290–17295. Bibcode:2011PNAS..10817290G. doi:10.1073/pnas.1113716108. ISSN 0027-8424. PMC 3198322. PMID 21987807. ^ Comrie, Bernard, et al. “Chapter Introduction.” WALS Online - Chapter Introduction, The World Atlas of Language Structures Online, 2013. ^ [1] Archived February 11, 2021, at the Wayback Machine Issues in the Linguistic Analysis of a Dead Language, with Particular Reference to Ancient Hebrew, Holmstead, R 2006 ^ Hammarström, Harald (2016). "Linguistic diversity and language evolution". Journal of Language Evolution. 1 (1): 19–29. doi:10.1093/jole/lzw002. hdl:11858/00-001M-0000-0029-2F3E-C. Retrieved May 19, 2022. ^ a b c Song, Jae Jung (2012). Word Order. Cambridge University Press. ISBN 9781139033930. ^ Dryer, Matthew S. (1992). "Greenbergian Word Order Correlations" (PDF). Language. 68 (1): 81–138. doi:10.2307/416370.
JSTOR 416370. Archived (PDF) from the original on July 1, 2010. Retrieved January 1, 2021. ^ Dryer, Matthew S. (1992). "Greenbergian Word Order Correlations" (PDF).
Language. 68 (1): 81–138. doi:10.2307/416370. JSTOR 416370. Archived (PDF) from the original on July 1, 2010. Retrieved January 1, 2021. ^ Austin, Patrik (2021). "A semantic and pragmatic explanation of harmony". Acta Linguistica Hafniensia. 54 (1): 1–23. doi:10.1080/03740463.2021.1987685. S2CID 244941417. ^ Bickel, B.
"What is typology? - a short note" (PDF).
www.uni-leipzig.de (in German). Retrieved March 6, 2017. ^ Legate, J. A. (2008). Morphological and abstract case. Linguistic Inquiry, 39(1), 55-101. doi:10.1162/ling.2008.39.1.55 ^ a b c d Song, J.J. (ed.) (2011). The Oxford Handbook of Linguistic Typology. Oxford: Oxford University Press. ISBN 978-0-19-928125-1. ^ König, W. (ed) dtv Atlas zur deutschen Sprache dtv 1994 (in German) Bibliography Bisang, W. (2001). Aspects of typology and universals. Berlin: Akademie Verlag. ISBN 3-050-03559-5. Comrie, B. (1989). Language universals and linguistic typology: Syntax and morphology. Oxford: Blackwell, 2nd edn. ISBN 0-226-11433-3. Croft, W. (2002). Typology and universals. Cambridge: Cambridge UP. 2nd ed. ISBN 0-521-00499-3. Cysouw, M.
(2005). Quantitative methods in typology. Quantitative linguistics: an international handbook, ed. by Gabriel Altmann, Reinhard Köhler and R.
Piotrowski.
Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. ISBN 3-11-015578-8. Grijzenhout, J. (2009). Phonological domains : universals and deviations. Berlin; New York: Mouton de Gruyter. ISBN 3-110-20540-8. Moravcsik, Edith A. (2013). Introducing language typology. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Nichols, J.
(1992). Linguistic diversity in space and time. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. ISBN 0-226-58057-1. Nichols, J.
(2007). What, if anything, is typology?[permanent dead link] Linguistic Typology.
Volume 11, Issue 1, Pages 231–238, ISSN (Online) 1613-415X, ISSN (Print) 1430–0532, doi:10.1515/LINGTY.2007.017, July 2007 Song, J.J. (2001). Linguistic typology: Morphology and syntax. Harlow and London: Pearson Education (Longman). ISBN 0-582-31220-5. Song, J.J. (ed.) (2011). The Oxford Handbook of Linguistic Typology. Oxford: Oxford University Press. ISBN 978-0-19-928125-1. Whaley, L.J. (1997). Introduction to typology: The unity and diversity of language. Newbury Park: Sage. ISBN 0-8039-5963-X. External links Association for Linguistic Typology Ivan G. Iliev. On the Nature of Grammatical Case, Language Typology, and on the Origin of Cognate Objects and Subjects. [2] Plank, F. Themes in Typology: Basic Reading List. [3] Bickel, B. (2001). What is typology? - a short note. [4] Bickel, B. (2005). Typology in the 21st century: major developments. [5] "Linguistic typology" (PDF). (275 KiB), chapter 4 of Halvor Eifring & Rolf Theil: Linguistics for Students of Asian and African Languages World Atlas of Language Structures Linguistic Typology Retrieved from "