

**Handout LECTURE 1**  
**THE OBJECT AND METHOD OF LINGUISTIC TYPOLOGY**

1. The typological method in Contrastive Linguistics
2. Language Universals
3. The notion of “type” in typology
4. Metalanguage
5. Taxonomy of linguistic typologies

There are several approaches in contrastive linguistics which share the typological method:

- 1) COMPARATIVE LINGUISTICS
- 2) AREAL LINGUISTICS
- 3) COMPARATIVE TYPOLOGY
- 4) LINGUISTIC TYPOLOGY

APPROACH	OBJECT	DATA
<b>Comparative Linguistics</b>	a) to establish genetic relationship of languages b) to reconstruct an original proto-language that gave rise to a number of languages	an unlimited number of kindred languages, like Indo-European e.g.: E. <b>two</b> : R. <b>два</b> : F. <b>deux</b>
<b>Areal Linguistics</b>	to establish common features due to common features (borrowings, bilingualism, language contacts), i.e. secondary relationship of languages	all languages, e.g.: English and French in the 11 <sup>th</sup> century cf. E. <b>part</b> < F. <b>partir</b> , E. <b>technic</b> < F. <b>technique</b> , E. <b>finish</b> < F. <b>finir</b> , E. <b>reason</b> < F. <b>raison</b> , E. <b>technic</b> < F. <b>technique</b>
<b>Comparative Typology</b>	to establish common and distinctive features	a limited number (2-6) of kindred languages
<b>Linguistic Typology</b>	a) to establish common and distinctive features b) to establish universals c) to classify languages	all languages

LINGUISTIC TYPOLOGIES CLASSIFIED according to certain parameters:

PARAMETER	TYPOLGY
<b>1. Number of Languages Compared</b>	
All	<b>universal</b> : unrealistic, considering 5 000 world languages out of which only 2-3% have been described

Up to 100	<b>special</b> : realistic (this course is based on 3 languages: Russian, English, French)
<b>2. Language Material Analyzed</b>	
All language systems	<b>whole system (holistic)</b> : unrealistic now
One language system: phonetic, morphological, lexical, syntactic	<b>private</b> : realistic
<b>3. Aim of Research</b>	
To classify languages into type-groups	<b>classificatory typology</b>
To establish specific features of contrasted languages	<b>characterology</b> (comparative typology)
<b>4. Character of Cross-linguistic Variation</b>	
A phenomenon of one language is absent from another language	<b>qualitative typology</b> (e.g.: article in English and Russian; gender in English and French)
A phenomenon of one language prevails over the same phenomenon in an another language	<b>quantitative typology</b> (e.g.: compounding is more widely used in English than in French and more widely used in French than in Russian) (features: dominant vs. recessive)
<b>5. Level of Analysis</b>	
Studies types of derivation and means of their expression	<b>structural typology</b> (e.g.: in English conversion does not change the form of a converted word, while in Russian it does: E: <b>work</b> (v.) ~ <b>work</b> (n.), R: <b>работа</b> (n.) ~ <b>работать</b> (v.))
Studies how derivational types function in contrasted languages	<b>functional typology</b> (compounding is more widely used in English than in French, while affixation is more widely used in French than in English)
Studies semantic patterns of derivational morphemes	<b>semantic typology</b> (in Russian a person name, as a rule, expresses sex, while in English it is usually not expressed: R: <b>учитель</b> ~ <b>учительница</b> , E: <b>teacher</b> ~ <b>teacher</b> )
<b>6. Approach</b>	
From form to meaning	<b>semasiological approach</b> (e.g. the suffix <b>-er</b> in English can express “agent”: <b>hunter</b> )
From meaning to form	<b>onomasiological approach</b> (e.g. the meaning “agent” may be taken as a basis to study ways of expressing it English and Russian: E: <b>-er</b> , <b>-ant</b> , <b>-ee</b> , <b>-man</b> , etc. R: <b>-ник(-ница)</b> , <b>-чик(-чица)</b> , <b>-щик (-щица)</b> , <b>-тель</b> , <b>-ец</b> , <b>-овец</b> , <b>-арь</b> , <b>-ша</b> , <b>-ха</b> , <b>-ка</b> )

**Handout LECTURE 2**  
**THE WORD AS A VOCABULARY UNIT IN TYPOLOGY**

1. Word formal structure
2. Word semantic structure

**WORD FORMAL STRUCTURE**

**MORPHOLOGICAL STRUCTURE.** As is known, the word may consist of morphemes, classified into roots and affixes, on the one hand, and into flecional and derivational morphemes, on the other hand..

As it follows from structural typology there are 3 basic types of combining morphemes:

1) agglutination, 2) fusion and 3) isolation.

**AGGLUTINATION** : “one meaning > one auxiliary morpheme”

(T: **урман-нар-ыбыз-га**)

(E: **beauti-ful-ly**)

Languages where this type prevails are called **agglutinative** (< **glue**) (Turkic).

**FUSION** : “several meanings > one auxiliary morpheme”

(R: **крас-ив-ая** > **ая** = feminine gender+nominative case+singular form)

Languages where this type prevails are called **flective** (<type of affix: flection) (R).

**ISOLATION**: no distinction between types of morphemes: roots may function as auxiliaries, and vice versa.

Languages where this type prevails are called isolating (amorphous) (Chinese).

**DERIVATIONAL STRUCTURE.** Morphological structures may or may not match derivational structures, and this clearly stands out in cross-linguistic analysis.

1) R(root) = S(stem) = W(word)    agglutinative tongues

English

The type “**coat**” prevails over the type “**surcoat**”

2) R ~ S = W

French

The type “**mechanique**” prevails over the type “**laisser-passer**”

The root **mechan-** is only distinguished thru oppositions in a number of words:

**mechan-ique** <> **machan-ization** <> **mechan-izer**

(R ~ W)

(R ~ W)

(R ~ W)

3) R ~ S ~ W

Russian

/e.g./: **железный** > [**желез-** (root) + **-н-** (affix) STEM + **-ый** (affix)]

**WORD SEMANTIC STRUCTURE: DENOTATION AND CONNOTATION**

**DENOTATION**

**HYPONYMY.** Research into hyponymy concerns distribution of words with more general senses (**hyperonyms**) against words with more specific senses (**hyponyms**). Hyperonyms tend to be relatively less motivated than hyponyms. Take, for example some Russian verbs of motion:

**HYPERONYM**

**ехать**

**HYPONYMS**

**приехать** “arrive in a vehicle”

**подъехать** “drive up”

**съехать** “move out (from an apartment)”

A hyperonym in one language may correspond to a hyponym in another language due to difference in cross-linguistic strategies, and this is what causes a basic difference in motivation cross-linguistically. For example:

**HYPERONYMS**

English    French

**HYPONYMS**

Russian

**arrive    arriver**

**прибыть**    “arrive”

**приехать**    “arrive in a vehicle”

**прийти**    “arrive on foot”

**прилететь**    “arrive by air”

**приплыть**    “arrive by water”

**POLYSEMY.** The basic cross-linguistic difference concerns polysemy, because semantic structures of polysemantic words are allegedly unique. Compare some words for garments in English and French:

English **coat 1 = overcoat** = French **paletot**    “short overcoat”

= French **pardessus**    “male coat”

= French **manteau**    “female coat”

English **coat 2 = jacket** = French **veste**

= French **veston**

**POLYSEMANTIC UNIVERSALS** (in body-part terminology):

	Russian	English	French	Tartar
1) HEAD : INTELLIGENCE	<b>голова</b>	<b>head</b>	<b>tête</b>	<b>баш</b>
2) HEAD : LEADER	<b>голова</b>	<b>head</b>	<b>tête</b>	<b>баш</b>
3) HEAD : FRONT (UPPER) PART OF	<b>голова</b>	<b>head</b>	<b>tête</b>	<b>баш</b>
4) HAND : HANDWRITING	<b>рука</b>	<b>hand</b>	<b>main</b>	<b>кул</b>
5) BREAST : FEMALE BREAST	<b>грудь</b>	<b>breast</b>	<b>poitrine</b>	<b>күкрәк</b>
6) TONGUE : LANGUAGE	<b>язык</b>	<b>tongue</b>	<b>langue</b>	<b>тел</b>
7) TONGUE : STYLE OF SPEECH	<b>язык</b>	<b>tongue</b>	<b>langue</b>	<b>тел</b>
8) TOOTH : A THING LIKE A TOOTH	<b>зуб</b>	<b>tooth</b>	<b>dent</b>	<b>тел</b>

**CONNOTATION**

Research into connotation differentiates 2 types of connotation:

Type 1 is independent of lexical motivation: **glorious, splendid, democracy, happiness, love, etc.**

Type 2 depends on lexical motivation, i.e. the relationship between word form and meaning, and between word form and a corresponding phrase form:

Russian  
**умереть как собака**  
**собачья жизнь**  
**ах ты собака!** (literally: “oh you dog!”)  
 ?  
 ?

English  
 = **die like a dog**  
 = **dog’s life**  
 = **you dirty dog!**  
 = **jolly dog**  
 = **lucky dog**

Connotation may show cross-linguistic universality, too, for example in applying an animal name to characterize a human being; see the following universals alternated by variation:

MEANING	LANGUAGE			
	Russian	English	French	Tartar
“shy, timid”	<b>овца</b>	<b>sheep</b>	<b>mouton</b>	<b>сарык</b>
“cunning”	<b>лиса</b>	<b>fox</b>	<b>renard</b>	<b>төлкө</b>
“stupid, stubborn”	<b>осёл</b>	<b>(jack-)ass</b>	<b>âne</b>	<b>ишэк</b>
“brave person”	<b>лев</b> <b>сокол</b> <b>*ястреб</b>	<b>lion</b> <b>*falcon</b> <b>hawk</b>		
“clumsy person”	<b>медведь</b> <b>*бык</b> <b>слон</b>	<b>*bear</b> <b>bull</b> <b>elephant</b>		
“uncouth, uncivilized person”	<b>*медведь</b> <b>свинья</b>	<b>bear</b> <b>pig</b>		

**Handout LECTURE 3**  
**TYPOLOGY OF DERIVATIONAL**  
**SYSTEMS**

- 1) Ways of enriching language vocabulary
- 2) A typology of conversion
- 3) A typology of affixation
- 4) A typology of compounding

**Ways of enriching language vocabulary.** Apart from borrowing which is an external way of enriching a language vocabulary there is also the internal way which comprises 3 basic types:

- 1) WORD-FORMATION
- 2) SEMANTIC CHANGE
- 3) WORD COMBINATION

Especially important for typology is word-formation which includes 3 principal means:

- 1) CONVERSION
- 2) AFFIXATION
- 3) COMPOUNDING

English has plenty of productive patterns:

PATTERN	ENGLISH EXAMPLES
N > V	<b>word, dress, camp</b>
V > N	<b>try, drive, go</b>
Adj > N	<b>round, good, mechanic</b>
Adj > V	<b>select, sallow</b>
Adj > Adv	<b>sheer, scarce</b>
V > Adj	<b>suspect</b>
N > Adj	<b>rose, summer</b>

Productivity of English conversion results in 2 consequences:

- 1) an indefinite number of identical word-chains correlated semantically (up to 5):  
/e.g./ round: Adj > N >> Adv > Prep > V
- 2) semantic diversity of conversion relations: various types:
  - a) abstract noun > name of an action (**dream > to dream**)
  - b) concrete noun > name of an action (**hand > to hand**)
  - c) collective noun > name of an action (**crowd > to crowd**)
  - d) name of substance > name of an action (**water > to water**)

French is also characterized by conversion

PATTERN	FRENCH EXAMPLES
N > V	<b>clou</b> “nail” > <b>clouer</b> “hammer a nail”
V > N	<b>marcher</b> “march” > <b>la marche</b> “marche”
Adj > N	<b>français</b> “french” > <b>français</b> “French”
N > Adj	<b>sport</b> “sport” > <b>sport</b> “sport” (as in “un robe sport”)

Adv > Adj	<b>bien</b> “good” > <b>bien</b> (as in “un homme bien”)
Adj > Adv	<b>bas</b> “low” > <b>bas</b> (as in “parler bas”)
Adv > N	<b>bien</b> > <b>le bien</b>
V > Adj	<b>fatiguer</b> “get tired” > <b>fatigué</b> “tired”
Adj > V	<b>grand</b> “large” > <b>grandir</b> “increase”

In French, like in English the borderlines between parts of speech are fuzzy, hence identical word-chains correlated semantically:

**fermer** (V) “close” > **fermé** (Adj) “firm”(as in “**la terre fermé**”) > **ferme** (N) “farm” > **ferme** (Adv) (as in “**travailler ferme**” = “work hard”)

There is conversion in Russian, too, though it is less extensively used and all the patterns are non-productive.

PATTERN	RUSSIAN EXAMPLES
V > N	<b>ходить</b> > <b>ход</b> , <b>смотреть</b> > <b>смотр</b>
N > V	<b>глаз</b> > <b>глазеть</b> , <b>зёв</b> > <b>зевать</b>
N instr > Adv	<b>утром</b> > <b>утром</b> , <b>шагом</b> > <b>шагом</b>
Adj short neut. > Adv	<b>дело плохо</b> > <b>сделать плохо</b>
Adj > N	<b>столовая комната</b> > <b>столовая</b>
V > Adj > N	<b>ранить</b> > <b>раненый солдат</b> > <b>раненый</b>
V > Adv	<b>молчать</b> > <b>молча</b> , <b>стоять</b> > <b>стоя</b>

TYPOLOGY OF CONVERSION IN ENGLISH, FRENCH AND RUSSIAN

Patterns Involved	Languages		
	English	French	Russian
<i>Parts of speech involved</i>	5	4	4
N > V	+	+	+
N > Adj	+	+	-
V > N	+	+	+
Adj > N	+	+	+
Adj > Adv	+	+	+
Adj > V	+	+	-
V > Adj	+	+	-
N > Adv	-	-	+
V > Adv	-	-	+
V > N	-	-	+
Adv > N	-	+	
Adv > Adj	-	+	

## Handout LECTURE 4 TYPOLOGY OF AFFIXATION

Structurally there are 3 types of derivatives each represented by 2 subtypes according to the number of affixes:

1. THE SUFFIXAL TYPE [R + S]: a) [R + s]; b) [R + s1 + s2]
2. THE PREFIXAL TYPE [p + R]: a) [p + R]; b) [p2 + p1 + R]
3. THE PREFIX-SUFFIXAL TYPE [p + R + s]: a) [p + R + s]; b) [p2 + p1 + R + s]

THE SUFFIXAL TYPE.

**RUSSIAN.** The “agent” in nearly every derivative discriminates the sex of the person in 3 basic patterns:

PATTERN 1 (nominal): [Rn + s] PRODUCTIVE

The derivative based on “occupation” refers to both male and female agents

/e.g./: **работа** > **работник**, **газета** > **газетчик**, **камень** > **каменщик**

PATTERN 2 (nominal): [Rn + s] PRODUCTIVE

The derivative based on “male” refers to “female”

/e.g./: **повар** > **повариха**, **парикмахер** > **парикмахерша**, **студент** > **студентка**

PATTERN 3 (verbal): [Rv + s] NON-PRODUCTIVE

/e.g./: **делать** > **делец**, **зубрить** > **зубрила**, **ломаться** > **ломака**, **задаваться** > **задавака**

**ENGLISH.** Both in nominal and verbal patterns normally there is no sex discrimination in 3 basic patterns:

PATTERN 1 (verbal): [Rv + suffix –er(-or)]. SUPERPRODUCTIVE

/e.g./: **teach** – **teacher**, **sing** – **singer**, **hunt** – **hunter**

In one and the same word the suffix may have various senses:

- 1) “person who hunts”
- 2) “a dog trained for hunting”
- 3) “a horse trained for hunting”

In different stems the suffix may be polysemantic, too:

/e.g./: **teacher** “person” – **boiler** “object” – **setter** “animal”

PATTERN 2 (verbal): [Rv + suffix –ee]. PRODUCTIVE

/e.g./: **employ** > **employee**, **nominate** > **nominee**, **pay** > **payee**

PATTERN 3 (nominal): [Rn/adj + suffix –ist]. PRODUCTIVE

**art** > **artist**, **escape** > **escapist**, **column** > **columnist**

**FRENCH.** The “agent” frequently discriminates the sex of the person in 3 basic patterns:

PATTERN 1 (verbal) [Rv + pair suffix –eur/euse]. SUPERPRODUCTIVE

/e.g./: **acheter** “buy” – **acheteur** (**acheteuse**).

In different stems the suffix may be polysemantic, like –er in English:

/e.g./: **marcheur** (“one who marches”) “person”

**rongeur** (“one who gnaws”) “animal”

**condenseur** (“smth. that condenses electric charge”) “object”

PATTERN 2 (verbal) [Rv + suffix –ant(e)]. PRODUCTIVE

/e.g./: **habiter** “live, inhabit” > **habitant**

PATTERN 3 (nominal) [Rn/adj + pair suffix –ien/ienne]. PRODUCTIVE

/e.g./: **technique** > **technicien**

PATTERN 4 (nominal) [Rn/adj + pair suffix –ier/-iere]

/e.g./: **jardin** “garden” > **jardinnier**, **chanson** “song” > **chansonnier**

The other suffixal structure [R + s1 + s2] is rarely used except in science and fiction to form abstract nouns:

**ENGLISH:** **friend-ly-ness**; **hopeful-ness**; **care-less-ness**

**FRENCH:** **transit-iv-ité** **nation-al-ité**, **admiss-ibil-ité**

**RUSSIAN:** **строи-тель-ство**

THE PREFIXAL TYPE. The prefixal structure [p + R] is widespread and used in different parts of speech.

**RUSSIAN** in verbs: **вы-вести**, **за-ключить**, **под-лечить**

**ENGLISH** in verbs, nouns and adjectives: **mis-fortune**, **out-line**, **dis-obey**, **re-construct**

**FRENCH** in nouns and verbs: **non-american**, **deformer**, **mal-propre** “filthy”, **in-success** “failure”.

THE PREFIX-SUFFIXAL TYPE. The prefix-suffixal structure [p+ R + s] includes a number of unproductive patterns:

**RUSSIAN:** **без-жизн-енн-(ый)**, **за-мор-ск-(ий)**

**ENGLISH:** **un-certain-ty**, **un-law-ful**, **de-place-ment**

**FRENCH:** **non-atom-ique**, **in-estim-able**

THE RESULTS OF A TYPOLOGICAL RESEARCH ON AFFIXATION

Parameter	Language		
	Russian	English	French
STRUCTURE			
[R + s]	+	+	+
[R + s1 + s2]	(+)	(+)	(+)
[p + R]	+	+	+
[p2 + p1 + R]	-	-	-
[p + R + s]	(+)	(+)	(+)
[p2 + p1 + R + s]	-	-	-
SEMANTIC VARIATION	+	+	+
GENETIC VARIATION	-	+	+
AFFIXAL HOMONYMY	-	(+)	+
AFFIXAL POLYSEMY	(+)	+	+

+ stands for high degree, - for absence and (+) for low degree. English and French show a certain degree of universality, particularly in representing derivational structures. In general, English and French stand closer to one another than any of them to Russian, though in some respect ( expression of sex not represented here) it is Russian and French which form a closer unity.

**Handout LECTURE 5**  
**TYPOLOGY OF WORD COMPOSITION**

1. A compound may consist of 2 or more components (roots)
2. There are 3 ways of linking components:
  - a) with the help of a special linker (inner inflection)  
ENGLISH: **sportsman, speedometer**; RUSSIAN: **паровоз, пылесос, небосвод**
  - b) without any linker  
ENGLISH: **snowball, railway**, RUSSIAN: **диван-кровать, плащ-палатка**
  - c) with the help of a special auxiliary, i. e. syntactically  
ENGLISH: **commander-in-chief**, FRENCH: **robe-de-chambre, arc-en-ciel, va-et-vient** “walking up and down”
3. It is possible to distinguish 3 types of syntactic relations:
  - a) the predicative type which corresponds to the sentence structure  
/ e. g./: ENGLISH: **sunrise** = [N + N] > **the sun rises**; thus the components of a compound are transformed into a sentence
  - b) the attributive type which corresponds to the attributive word combination  
/ e. g. / ENGLISH: **bluebell** = [Adj + N] > **blue bell**
  - c) the object type which corresponds to a verbal word combination  
/ e. g. / ENGLISH: **turnscrew** = [N + N] > **turn the screw** > **that which turns the screw**.
4. It is possible to distinguish between 2 types of position (preposition and postposition) of the main component that accounts for part-of-speech  
/ e. g. /: English: **bluebell** > **bell** [N], FRENCH: **arc-en-ciel** > **arc** [N].

According to the number of components there are 2 basic types, which I will consider one by one: type [R + R] and 2) type [R + R + R].

- 1) **TYPE [R + R] with three subtypes:**
  - a) linker subtype, b) without linker subtype c) auxiliary element subtype
- a) **LINKER SUBTYPE.**
  - the predicative group:  
/ e. g. /: **водопад** > **вода падает; пароход** > **пар идёт**
  - the attributive group:  
/ e. g. /: **чернозём** > **чёрная земля; газопровод** > **газовый провод**
  - the object group:  
/ e. g. /: **винодел** > **делать вино; сталевар** > **варить сталь**
- b) **WITHOUT LINKER SUBTYPE.**
  - the predicative group: ENGLISH: **snowfall, earthquake, sunrise**, etc.
  - the attributive group: **shorthand, bluebell, daytime**; FRENCH: **timbre-poste**
  - the object group: ENGLISH: **blood-test** > **test the blood**  
FRENCH: **brise-glace** “ice-breaker” > **briser la glace; grate-ciel** “sky-scraper” > **grater le ciel** “scrape the sky”. In Russian this is scarcely represented by such examples as **марш-бросок, плащ-палатка, диван-кровать**.
- c) **AUXILIARY ELEMENT SUBTYPE.** This is typical of English and French:  
ENGLISH: **hide-and-peek, editor-in-chief, mother-of-pearl**

FRENCH: **arc-en-ciel** “rainbow”, **robe-de-chambre** “dressing-gown”,  
**eau-de-vie** “vodka”, **pied-à-terre** “temporary habitation”

Such compounds are based as occasional words without regular patterns representing the main typological feature characterizing both the English and the French word: its monomorphic nature. Russian is hardly represented if at all: **сумасшедший** > **с ума сойти**.

- 2) **TYPE [R + R + R]** occurs seldom in all the three languages and so will not be taken into account.

Parameter	Language		
	Russian	English	French
<b>Number of Components</b>	2	2	2
<b>Way of Linking</b>			
The linker Type	+	-	-
No Linker Type	-	+	+
The auxiliary Type	-	+	+
<b>Relations of Components</b>			
The Predicative type	+	+	( + )
The Attributive Type	( + )	+	+
The Object Type	+	( + )	+

This affords to draw some conclusions.

There are some universal features, for example, the number of components typical of a language, the ways of linking and types of their relations.

As for cross-linguistic variation English shows a greater similarity with French than Russian:

- a) a linking element in Russian vs. no linker type is predominant in English and French,
- b) the auxiliary type is much better represented in English and French than in Russian.

Apart from the major ways of deriving words there are also some less commonly used ways such as grammaticalization and lexicalization of grammatical means.

Grammaticalization denotes the use of derivational affixes for grammatical purposes, for example to express the grammatical category of aspect: This is typical of RUSSIAN: **играть – сыграть, падать – упасть, задерживать – задержать**

Lexicalization denotes the use of grammatical affixes for lexical purposes, for example the plural form may be used to coin a new word. This is typical of English and French:

ENGLISH: **sweet – sweets, color – colors, cloth – clothes**  
FRENCH: **bordel - Bordeaux** (pl.).

**Handout LECTURE 6**  
**LEXICAL MOTIVATION AND LINGUISTIC TYPOLOGY**

1. Motivated and non-motivated words
2. Types of motivation (phonetic, morphological, semantic)
3. The inner form of the word
4. The inner form in phrases

In all languages the lexicon comprises non-motivated, partially motivated and motivated words.

The tendency in any lexicon is for motivated words to lose their motivation and become obscure, though this process is gradual and contradictory, because there is the counter tendency – folk etymology. Examples: **lord** < **hlæweard** (**hlæf** “loaf” + **weard** “guard”)

A motivated word in one language may correspond to a non-motivated word in another language. /e.g./

**потолок** (Russian) = **ceiling** (English) = **plafond** (French)  
(non-motivated) (partially motivated) (motivated:  
**plat** “flat” + **fond** “bottom”)

One can compare equivalent words, for instance:

Russian: <b>глаз</b> - <b>глазной</b>	<b>брат</b> - <b>братский</b>	<b>месяц</b> - <b>месячный</b>
English: <b>eye</b> - <b>eye</b>	<b>brother</b> - <b>brotherly</b>	<b>month</b> - <b>monthly</b>
Tartar : <b>куз</b> - <b>кузле</b>	<b>туган</b> - <b>туганлэ</b>	<b>ай</b> - <b>айлэ</b>
French : <b>œil</b> - <b>oculaire</b>	<b>frère</b> - <b>fraternal</b>	<b>mois</b> - <b>mensuel</b>

There are 3 types of motivation: *phonetic*, *morphological*, and *semantic*.

**The phonetic type** embraces all cases of sound imitation.

The Italian boy : **bu-bu**  
The German boy : **wau-wau**  
The Dutch boy : **waf-waf**  
The French boy : **oua-oua**  
The Japanese boy: **wan-wan**  
The Navajo boy : **hyah-hyah**

**The morphological type** deals with morphologically motivated words which have meanings based on the meanings of their morphemes. These words may be classified into 2 groups according to the structure and meaning of their components.

**The first group** derives from the distinction between *direct* and *indirect* motivation. Direct motivation characterizes words with free morphemes, while indirect motivation characterizes words in which at least one morpheme is bound, for example:

DIRECT	INDIRECT
English <b>love-letter</b> ( <b>love</b> + <b>letter</b> )	<b>lovable</b> ( <b>love</b> + <b>-able</b> )
Russian “run up”	<b>достигать</b> “reach”
(до preposition + <b>бежать</b> “to run”)	(до preposition + <b>стиг</b> bound root)

**The second group** derives from the distinction between **full** and **partial** motivation. In a fully motivated word all components are singled out structurally and semantically, while in partially motivated words there is some component that is singled out only structurally, in other words, the meaning of this component remains obscure:

E: <b>blue-berry</b> ( <b>blue</b> “color” + <b>berry</b> “plant”)	FULL
E: <b>cranberry</b> ( <b>cran</b> ? + <b>berry</b> “plant”)	PARTIAL
R: <b>добежать</b> ( <b>до</b> preposition + <b>беж</b> root “run” + <b>a</b> suffix + <b>ть</b> suffix)	FULL
R: <b>снегирь</b> “bullfinch” ( <b>снег</b> “snow” + <b>ирь</b> ?)	PARTIAL

**The semantic type** functions as an association between the primary and secondary (derived) meanings of a word based either on *metaphor* or *metonymy*. *Metaphor* is built as a similarity between two objects one of which resembles the other (**leg 1** in the sense ‘body-part’ and **leg 2** in the sense “leg of an article of furniture”), *Metonymy* is built as a contiguity between two objects one of which makes part of the other, for example, there is a metonymic association between an object and material it is made of (**an iron – iron**), a building or institution and people related to the building or institution (**the whole house applauded; the parliament voted against war**), a party and a member of the party (**the Labor – a Labor**), quality and bearer of this quality (**youth – a youth**), etc.

The way of building a semantic motivation varies cross-linguistically, too. See, for example, the body-part terminology in Russian, English and French:

Russian	English	French
<b>нога</b> - <b>ножка</b>	<b>leg</b> - <b>leg (of a bed, etc.)</b>	<b>pied</b> - <b>pied</b>
<b>нога</b> - <b>подножье</b>	<b>foot</b> - <b>foot (of a hill, etc.)</b>	<b>pied</b> - <b>pied</b>
<b>локоть</b> - <b>подлокотник</b>	<b>arm</b> - <b>arm (of an armchair, etc.)</b>	<b>bras</b> - <b>bras</b>

From the word structure point of view here are two types of metaphor :full and partial. In a full metaphor there is no difference in form between the representation of the source non-motivated and the target motivated senses. This is just the case in English and French. These languages show a great degree of uniformity cross-linguistically. Suffice it only to compare 3 metonymic models in naming identical objects in English and French:

1) “quality” – “bearer of a quality”  
English : **youth** - **a youth** = French **la jeunesse** - **une jeunesse**  
[ cf. Russian **юность** “youth” (root **юн-** + suffix **-ость**) :  
**юноша** “ a youth” ( root **юн-** + suffix **-ш-** + **-а**) ]  
English : **beauty** - **a beauty** = French **la beauté** - **une beauté**

2) “material” – “object made of this material”  
[cf. Russian **красота** “beauty” (root **крас-** + suffix **-ота**) :  
**красавец** “male beauty” (root **крас-** + suffix **-авец**): **красавица** “female beauty”  
(root **крас-** + suffix **-ица**) ]  
English : **brass** - **the brass** = French **le cuivre** - **les cuivres**  
English : **iron** - **an iron** = French **le fer** - **un fer**



3) “organization” - a member of this organization”

English: **Labour: a Labor**

French : l’**Action Francaise - un Action Francaise**

[cf. Russian **лейбористская партия** “the Labor party” (root **лейборист** +grammatical adjectival suffix): **лейборист** (non-motivated word)].

Cross-linguistic variation concerns not only the quantity of motivated words and type of motivation, but also the inner form of the word(its motivating components). There are two types of motivating components: *the identifier* and *the modifier*. The identifier informs of the category where the word belongs, in fact, it points to a semantic field (lexical set), which includes it as a member. The modifier provides some circumstantial, indirect information about word meaning. /e.g./ **topcoat**. Here the component **coat** points to a class, namely the class of outer garments, and the component **top** adds to it by providing information, that it is not just a coat, but an over-coat, or a coat worn over other garments.

The inner form, that is the image underlying a motivated lexical unit, is not typical only of words but of a certain type of phrases, too. Like words phrases are also divided into non-motivated (idiomatic) and motivated (transparent). There are equivalent phrases across languages which coincide both in meaning and in the inner form.

MEANING	INNER FORM	EXAMPLES
“inebriate” (of a beverage)	[go (come up)+<where>+head]	English: <b>go to one’s head</b> French: <b>monter a la tête</b>
“take good care” (of smth)	[protect+<like>+eye(pupil of)]	English: <b>cherish as the pupil of one’s eye</b> Tartar: <b>күз карасе кебек саклау</b>
“despise, look down” (on smb or smth as bad)	[turn (twist) +nose]	Russian: <b>воротить нос</b> French: <b>tordre le nez</b> Tartar: <b>борын черу</b>

A typological analysis of phrases containing body-part names has established quite a number of cases of full coincidence across Russian, English, French and Tartar:

MEANING	INNER FORM	REPRESENTATION
“control, subordinate”	[have(hold)+<where>hand(s)]	R: <b>держат в руках</b> E : <b>have in hand</b> F: <b>avoir entre les mains</b> T: <b>кулэнда тоту</b>
“keep silence”	[hold+tongue]	R: <b>держат язык за зубами</b> E: <b>hold one’s tongue</b> F: <b>tenir sa langue</b> T: <b>телне тыю</b>
“get confused”	[lose+head]	R: <b>терять голову</b> E: <b>lose one’s head</b> F: <b>prendre la tête</b> T: <b>баш югалту</b>
“ignore, pretend not to see”	[close+eye(s)]	R: <b>закрывать глаза на</b> E: <b>close one’s eyes to</b> F: <b>fermer les yeux</b> T: <b>күз яму</b>
“interfere in smb’s affairs”	[poke+nose]	R: <b>совать нос в</b> E: <b>poke one’s nose into</b> F: <b>fourrer son nez partout</b> T: <b>борын тыгу</b>
“risk or fail”	[break+neck]	R: <b>сломать себе шею</b> E: <b>break one’s neck</b> F: <b>se casser le cou</b> T: <b>муен сындыру</b>
“get alert”	[lift up(stretch)+ear(s)]	R: <b>наострить уши</b> E: <b>prick up one’s ears</b> F: <b>prêter l’oreille</b> T: <b>колак торгызу</b>
“waste away time”	[fold+arm(s)]	R: <b>сложить руки</b> E: <b>fold one’s arms</b> F: <b>croiser les bras</b> T: <b>кул кушыру</b>

## Handout LECTURE 7 WORD ASYMMETRY IN TYPOLOGY

1. Word asymmetry
2. Polysemy
3. Synonymy
4. The results of word asymmetry

Word asymmetry is non-correspondence between the two facets of the word (form and meaning): in **polysemy** one form corresponds to more than one meaning; in **synonymy** one meaning corresponds to more than one form. Word asymmetry may cause a rupture between the word facets which has two results:

1. LACUNIZATION, i.e. appearance of a lacuna or some lacunas
2. DELEXICALIZATION, i.e. disappearance of a clear lexical meaning.

**Polysemy** is a language universal connected with the main function of language – to communicate information – and is based on three basic types of semantic association; metaphor, metonymy and inclusion.

**Synonymy** is a language universal connected with the phenomenon that may be termed language superfluity. In every language a synonymic set of words represents an opposition based on conceptual (ideographic) or stylistic differences among words. Synonymy mainly functions as a stylistic device. For example, native and borrowed words in a synonymic set differ stylistically.

Language	SOURCE		
English	NATIVE neutral	FRENCH more formal	LATIN bookish
	<i>begin</i>	<i>commence</i>	<i>initiate</i>
Russian	NATIVE neutral	OLD SLAVONIC more emphatic	ENGLISH more formal
	<i>глава</i>	<i>лидер</i>	<i>руководитель</i>
French	NATIVE neutral	LATIN more formal	
	<i>frêle</i>	<i>fragile</i>	

### LACUNIZATION

RUSSIAN: **сутки, кипятик, щи**

ENGLISH: **kidnapping, canvass** “make up lists of voters before elections”

FRENCH: **savoir-vivre** “good manners, decorum”

A system-bound word is not always available in any language, as there is no absolute regularity in lexical paradigms, as, for example, in color vision words:

RUSSIAN	ENGLISH	FRENCH
<b>чёрный</b>	<b>black</b>	<b>noir</b>
<b>чернеть</b>	<b>blacken</b>	<b>noircir</b>
<b>чернить</b>	<b>blacken</b>	<b>noircir</b>
<b>чернота</b>	<b>blackness</b>	<b>noirceur</b>

розовый	pink	rose
розоветь	pinken	rosir
?	pinken	rosir
?	pinkness	roseur

Thus, in some cases one and the same word may be used for two adjacent referents (English **blacken, pinken**, French **noircir, rosir**); in other cases there is just no adequate correspondence for a word in another language ( Russian). See some words denoting physical perception:

RUSSIAN	ENGLISH	FRENCH
видеть	see	voir
слышать	hear	entendre
обонять*	smell	sentir
?	taste	goûter
осязать*	feel*	palper*

The same holds for antonymic sets where a potential antonym is frequently missing. See the following antonyms:

RUSSIAN	ENGLISH	FRENCH
мелкий	shallow	?
глубокий	deep	profound
дорогой	expensive	cher
дешевый	cheap	?

There are 2 types here: *phraseological* and *grammatical*.

**PHRASEOLOGICAL delexicalization** refers to phraseological units in which some word has either lost its meaning or become vague, /e.g./:

ENGLISH: **in full fig, to and fro**

FRENCH: chercher **noise** “seek a quarrel” (**noise** - archaic)

sans coup **ferir** “easily, without having to strike a blow”

(**ferir** “to strike a blow” - archaic)

RUSSIAN: **бить баклуши, ни зги не видно, сгореть до тла**

**GRAMMATICAL delexicalization** refers to form words such as ENGLISH **to be to have**, FRENCH **être, avoir**; the meanings of these words have become vague; the words have only categorical (grammatical) meaning. See the following lexical patterns in ENGLISH: **have a talk** (what is had here?).

It is typical of the lexico-semantic systems of both English and French, where a lot of verbs such as ENGLISH **put, get, give, take**, FRENCH **mettre, donner, prendre, apprendre** are used as form words.

**Handout LECTURE 8**  
**TYOLOGY OF LEXICAL MEANING**

1. The denotational meaning of the word
2. The connotational meaning

**Denotational meaning.** Typologically denotational meaning suggests the distribution of general and special meanings (hyperonyms and hyponyms) in languages.

Generally speaking, it is more natural for English and French to use a hyperonym, while Russian typically favors a hyponym. See some more examples:

ENGLISH	FRENCH	RUSSIAN
<b>boat</b>	<b>bateau</b>	<b>лодка, катер, корабль, подводная лодка</b>

Due to lexical oppositions it is possible to distinguish all the uses of a hyperonym, which may be used as extensively as a hyponym:

**boat** : **ship** (size) : **submarine** (position in the water) : **launch** (motor)

ENGLISH	FRENCH	RUSSIAN
<b>box</b>	<b>boite</b>	<b>коробка коробочка шкатулка ящик ящичек</b>
<b>flask</b>	<b>flacon</b>	<b>фляга фляжка склянка пузырёк</b>
<b>pot</b>	<b>pot</b>	<b>горшок котелок банка кружка кринка</b>

Naturally it is possible to find opposite examples, too, in which a Russian word is more general in meaning than its counterparts in English and French.

ENGLISH	FRENCH	RUSSIAN
<b>finger</b> <b>toe</b>	<b>doigt</b> <b>orteil</b>	<b>палец</b>
<b>hand</b> <b>arm</b>	<b>main</b> <b>bras</b>	<b>рука</b>
<b>watch</b>	<b>montre</b> “watch”	<b>часы</b>

<b>clock</b>	<b>pendule</b> “clock <b>horloge</b> “tower clock”	
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HYPERONYMS		HYPONYMS
ENGLISH	FRENCH	RUSSIAN
<b>jump over</b>	<b>sauter pardessus</b>	<b>перепрыгнуть</b>
<b>jump off</b>	<b>sauter de</b>	<b>отпрыгнуть</b>
<b>jump on</b>	<b>sauter sur</b>	<b>вспрыгнуть</b>

Depending on the context Russian uses a special prefixal derivative where English has a general word:

ENGLISH	RUSSIAN
<b>to cut grass</b>	<b>срезать (косить) траву</b>
<b>to cut a finger</b>	<b>порезать палец</b>
<b>to cut one’s throat</b>	<b>зарезаться, перерезать себе горло</b>
<b>to cut a road</b>	<b>перерезать дорогу</b>

\*It depends much on the subject of an action. Thus, if it is a snake in Russian it is said to crawl in or out:

RUSSIAN: **змея выползла из норы**  
ENGLISH: **the snake got out of the hole**  
FRENCH: **le serpent sortit de son trou**

If it is a staircase a Russian sentence shows that it runs either upstairs or downstairs

RUSSIAN: **лестница вела вверх (вниз)**  
ENGLISH: **there was a staircase**  
FRENCH: **il y avait un escalier**

\*\*It depends on the object of an action, too. Thus in a number of object phrases in English with basic verb this verb is translated into Russian by special words, /e.g./:

ENGLISH	RUSSIAN
<b>make snowballs</b>	<b>лепить снежки</b>
<b>make doughnuts</b>	<b>печь пирожки</b>
<b>make lines</b>	<b>чертить</b>
<b>make tea</b>	<b>заваривать чай</b>
<b>make the bed</b>	<b>постелить постель</b>

**Connotational meaning.** Connotational meaning is the attitude of the speaker toward what is being spoken about. Connotation may or may not depend on lexical motivation. If it does not it equals any association that an individual speaker may have with reference to a word in question, any type of individual implication. If it does an association is caused by the relation of word meaning to its origin. There are 2 types of connotation resulting from motivation: *descriptive and evaluative*.

**Handout LECTURE 9**  
**THE STYLISTIC REFERENCE OF THE WORD**

1. Functional styles.
2. A typology of the elevated style.
3. A typology of the specialized style.
4. A typology of the colloquial style.

According to the 3 major life spheres, such as home, public life, spiritual life it is possible to distinguish 3 basic functional styles in the background of neutral style:

THE ELEVATED STYLE, represented by literary and poetic speech

THE SPECIALIZED STYLE, represented by special terminologies

THE LOWERED STYLE, represented by colloquial speech

**THE ELEVATED STYLE.** Compare some names for body parts:

English	French	Russian	
		Neutral Style	Elevated Style
<i>eye</i>	<i>œil</i>	<i>глаз</i>	<i>око</i>
<i>mouth</i>	<i>bouche</i>	<i>рот</i>	<i>уста</i>
<i>head</i>	<i>tête</i>	<i>голова</i>	<i>глава</i>
<i>neck</i>	<i>cou</i>	<i>шея</i>	<i>вья</i>
<i>hand</i>	<i>main</i>	<i>ладонь</i>	<i>длань</i>
<i>finger</i>	<i>doigt</i>	<i>палец</i>	<i>перст</i>
<i>breast</i>	<i>poitrine</i>	<i>грудь</i>	<i>перси</i>
<i>cheek</i>	<i>joue</i>	<i>щека</i>	<i>ланиа</i>
<i>forehead</i>	<i>front</i>	<i>лоб</i>	<i>чело</i>

Compare also some verbs in English and Russian:

ENGLISH	RUSSIAN	
hide	скрывать	таить
draw	тянуть	влачить
listen	слушать	внимать
descend	спускаться	нисходить
ascend	подниматься	восходить

The derivational function of French borrowings from Latin ; compare:

NATIVE	BORROWING
<b>etoile</b> "star" [N]	<b>stellaire</b> "star" [Adj]
<b>sourd</b> "deaf" [Adj]	<b>surdite</b> "deafness" [N]
<b>mourir</b> "die" [V]	<b>mort</b> "death" [N]
<b>frère</b> "brother" [N]	<b>fraternal</b> "brotherly" [Adj]
<b>mois</b> "month" [N]	<b>mensuel</b> "monthly" [Adj]

**THE SPECIALIZED STYLE**

A marked similarity between English and French in terminology:

ENGLISH	RUSSIAN (common)	RUSSIAN
<b>limit</b>	<b>граница</b>	<b>допуск</b> (technical)
<b>arm</b>	<b>рука</b>	<b>спица</b> (technical)
<b>crawler</b>	<b>пресмыкающаяся</b>	<b>гусеничный ход</b> (technical)
<b>fissure</b>	<b>трещина</b>	<b>надлом</b> (medical)
<b>creature</b>	<b>создание</b>	<b>предмет военного обихода</b> (military)

It is typical for Russian to use a borrowing as a term; and such a borrowing frequently comes from English or French. See the following examples:

SOURCE OF BORROWING	RUSSIAN COMMON	RUSSIAN SPECIAL
<b>credit</b> < English	<b>доверие</b>	<b>кредит</b> (finance)
<b>liquid</b> < English	<b>жидкий</b>	<b>ликвидный</b> (finance)
<b>diamond</b> < English	<b>алмаз</b>	<b>диамант</b> (in printing)
<b>ballon</b> < French	<b>шар</b>	<b>баллон</b> (technical)
<b>allure</b> < French	<b>походка</b>	<b>аллюр</b> (sport)
	NATIVE	BORROWING

In Russian it is the diminutive form that is typically used to build a technical metaphor (a partial metaphor), and in this case the affix loses its diminutive force. But if a word with a diminutive affix is widely used in everyday speech a full form begins to function as a term. See the following examples:

Common	Special	Common	Special
FULL	DIMINUTIVE	DIMINUTIVE	FULL
<b>нос</b>	<b>носик</b>	<b>клетка</b>	<b>клеть</b>
<b>глаз</b>	<b>глазок</b>	<b>бутылка</b>	<b>бутыль</b>
<b>рог</b>	<b>рожок</b>	<b>чашка</b>	<b>чаша</b>
<b>ухо</b>	<b>ушко</b>		

In Russian archaic words, too, may start functioning as terms rather than disappear from language. See some words originally denoting covering, but now associated with machinery, for which other languages, such as French, have commonly used words:

RUSSIAN archaic as a term

ковш

кожух

кузов

FRENCH common

cuiller 1)“spoon”2) “scoop”?

chemise 1) “shirt” 2) “covering”(technical)

panier 1) “basket” 2)

### THE LOWERED STYLE

There are various means of creating this style.

ENGLISH: derivation (**roadster** < **-ster**, **skirt-happy**, **bomb-happy** < **-happy**); metaphor and metaphoric transformations (**patriot** > **paytriot**, **politician** > **pullitician**, **trip** “travel” > **trip** “narcotic trance”)

FRENCH: mainly metaphor (**quille** “stick?” > **quille** “leg”, **boite** “box” > “work place”, **singe** “monkey” > **singe** “boss, chief”)

RUSSIAN: mainly derivation to form doublets for common words (**картофель** > **картошка**, **даром** > **здарма**, **газированная вода** > **газировка**); sometimes metaphor **варежка** “mouth”, **чурбан** “head”, **тащиться** “be delighted”, etc.)

The word stylistic reference is connected with emotive charge. There are 2 sources of emotive charge :

1) the word’s own expressive force usually manifest in the root or derivative

e.g.: ENGLISH : **tremendous** “so big that it causes admiration and fear”

RUSSIAN: **домик** “not just a small house, but a nice little house”

2) stylistic doublets caused by borrowing.

*The first source* is mainly representative of Russian. What is impossible to express in English (French) is quite possible in Russian: **домик – домишко – домина - домище**.

*The second source* is representative of Russian more than of English .The stylistic doublet is poetic in Russian and bookish in English which causes difference in the emotive charge, /e.g./

cf. ENGLISH: **go down - descend** = RUSSIAN: **спускаться - нисходить**

ENGLISH: **look - regard** = RUSSIAN: **смотреть – зрить**

### QUESTIONS

1. The aim and method of typology in linguistics.
2. Ways of classifying linguistic typology.
3. A typology of the word formal structure.
4. A typology of the word meaning.
5. Language universals, types and meta-language as the main categories of linguistic typology.
6. A typology of conversion.
7. A typology of affixation.
8. A typology of compounding.
9. Word motivation in typology.
10. Types of motivation represented in individual languages.
11. The inner form of the word and word equivalent.
12. Word asymmetry and its results.
13. Polysemy and synonymy as the main types of word asymmetry.
14. The denotational meaning in typology.
15. The word stylistic reference.