

Quantifying semantic shift for reconstructing language families

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Abstract

In comparative historical linguistics, one must weigh evidence from large numbers of putative cognates in order to arrive at the best hypothesis of the family tree and reconstructions. The comparativist presently uses unquantified knowledge of these processes. We present a typological study of word polysemy in order to construct a quantified network of semantic similarity among basic vocabulary items for comparative historical research. We investigate 22 concepts denoting natural objects in the Swadesh list across a typological sample of over 50 languages. In addition to its value for comparative historical linguistics, the study also reveals universals of lexical conceptual space.

1. Introduction

The need

‘...historical linguistics cannot ignore semantic change. For unless we can relate words such as Old English *hlāf* ‘bread’ and New English *loaf* not only phonetically but also semantically, it is impossible to trace many historical developments and to do meaningful historical linguistic research’ (Hock 1986:284).

The problem

‘there seem to be no natural constraints on the directions and results of semantic change. Given enough imagination—and daring—it is possible to claim semantic relationship for almost any two words under the sun.’ (Hock 1986:308)

‘There is...little in semantic change which bears any relationship to regularity in phonological change’ (Fox 1995:111)

The status quo

‘If the correspondences are regular, the set of words is cognate, however unlikely the semantics. That is, structural grounds—regular correspondences—are sufficient for establishing cognacy, while semantic grounds are neither necessary nor sufficient. (Nichols 1996:57, describing a ‘working assumption’ of the comparative method)

A better way

*What matters is not **possibility**—yes, anything can happen—but **probability**—the greater or lesser likelihood of semantic shift to take place. This requires **quantification** on an **empirical** basis.*

2. An example: Eskimo-Aleut and Dravidian ‘night’

- In Eskimo-Aleut (Fortescue, Jacobson and Kaplan 1994:373), Yupik ‘night’ is equated with Inuit ‘evening’; this equation is necessary to link these two branches
- Eskimo ‘night’/‘evening’ is equated with an Aleut word ‘long ago’ which appears to be a negative suffix attached to a stem glossed as possibly ‘tonight’
- In Dravidian (Burrow and Emeneau 1984, etymology 2552), South Dravidian forms meaning ‘night’ and ‘darkness’ are equated
- South Dravidian ‘night’/‘darkness’ is equated with Central Dravidian forms meaning ‘charcoal, coal, soot’

3. How can we quantify semantic relationships?

Direct observation

- Survey documented semantic changes (Williams 1976, Sweetser 1990, Traugott & Dasher 2003, and many grammaticalization studies—e.g., Heine & Reh 1980, Lehmann 1982/1997, Heine & Kuteva 2002).
- Problem*: there are very few languages documented across time, and they do not form a good sample of the world’s languages. Also, present research has focused on grammaticalization, not lexical semantic change

Reconstructed changes

- Survey reconstructed semantic changes in various language families, as has been done for body-part terms (Wilkins 1996)
- Problem*: presupposes what we are trying to discover—it is based on linguist’s intuitions of what are plausible semantic relationships; cannot be quantified

Typology of polysemy

- Survey polysemy patterns in a synchronic typological sample.
- The first step in a semantic change is extension of a word to a new meaning
- A crosslinguistic sample will allow us to quantify the likelihood of semantic change in a particular time slice (represented by the synchronic description)

Antecedents

- Typological analyses of polysemy have been made of domains such as perception verbs (Viberg 1983) and color metaphors (Derrig 1978); they do not discuss the implications for comparative historical linguistics.
- Evans (1992) surveys polysemy of concepts associated with FIRE, and Evans & Wilkins (2000) surveys the polysemy of perception/cognition verbs, in Australian Aboriginal languages, with the goal of aiding comparative historical linguistics; they focus on culture-specific polysemies (see our Results and Discussion).
- Brown and colleagues do typological studies of the polysemy of body-part terms, which form an important part of the basic vocabulary used for comparative historical linguistics (Swadesh 1952, 1955; see Brown 1976, 1979; Brown et al. 1976; Witkowski & Brown 1978; Brown & Witkowski 1981) and also cardinal direction terms (Brown 1983) and deictic terms (Brown 1985). These studies are the most direct antecedents to ours. Brown et al. do not focus on the ability to quantify semantic shift.
- Brown et al., Evans & Wilkins and Viberg start from a set of concepts and survey their expression across languages. Derrig and Evans start from a set of concepts and surveys what other concepts are expressed with the same word forms. Ideally, both methods should be used in combination. In the pilot study reported here, we follow Derrig and Evans; in future work, we will survey the expressions of all the concepts with the strongest links to the initial concept set.

4. Methods

Selecting the sample

- 81 languages from different genera (Dryer 1989) with a broad geographical distribution, using available, good quality dictionaries (see Appendix).
- 22 concepts from the Swadesh basic vocabulary lists referring to physical entities other than body parts:

Celestial Phenomena

SUN
MOON
STAR
NIGHT
DAY/DAYTIME
YEAR

Natural Substances

SALT
WIND
SMOKE
WATER
FIRE
ASH(ES)
STONE/ROCK
SAND
EARTH/SOIL
DUST

Landscape Features

SEA/OCEAN
LAKE
RIVER
MOUNTAIN
SKY
CLOUD(S)

Finding polysemies

- All word forms expressing these concepts were identified in the dictionaries
- Polysemies for the word forms were then identified.
- Meanings under separate entries were generally excluded.

- Borrowed words were included, as well as derived or otherwise analyzable expressions.
- An English word used in the analysis may correspond to a set of near-synonyms in the actual dictionaries. For example, we grouped together semantically similar translation equivalents (e.g. ‘sunlight’, ‘sunshine’, ‘daylight’; ‘pile, heap, mound’; ‘stream, brook, creek’).

5. Results and discussion

Historical linguistics

- There are clearly major differences in the probability of semantic shift for different concepts which are not intuitively obvious. Hence typological studies of polysemy can provide empirically justified quantification of degrees of semantic similarity, which allows one to evaluate probabilistically hypotheses of cognacy among words that are not translation equivalents (see the Postscript below right)

Semantics

- The study also has consequences for understanding the nature of semantic change. For example, what appears to be the “same” metonymic shift does not have the same frequency in different cases:

- TIME INTERVAL \Leftrightarrow BEGINNING OF INTERVAL “explains” NIGHT \Leftrightarrow EVENING and DAY/DAYTIME \Leftrightarrow DAWN. But the former is far more frequent than the latter.
- CELESTIAL OBJECT \Leftrightarrow TIME PERIOD OF CYCLE “explains” MOON \Leftrightarrow MONTH and SUN \Leftrightarrow DAY (or SUN \Leftrightarrow YEAR). But the former is far more frequent than the latter.
- CELESTIAL OBJECT \Leftrightarrow LIGHT EMITTED BY OBJECT “explains” SUN \Leftrightarrow SUNLIGHT/DAYLIGHT, MOON \Leftrightarrow MOONLIGHT and STAR \Leftrightarrow STARLIGHT. But the last one is much less frequent than the other two.
- On the other hand, LARGE LANDSCAPE FEATURE \Leftrightarrow SMALLER LANDSCAPE FEATURE, a type of semantic extension or generalization, does appear to occur with similar frequency among MOUNTAIN \Leftrightarrow HILL, LAKE \Leftrightarrow POND, and RIVER \Leftrightarrow STREAM/BROOK/CREEK.

Typology and universals

- Cultural and ecological factors appear to play a role in influencing certain polysemy patterns (cf. Witkowski, Brown & Chase 1981; Brown & Witkowski 1983; Witkowski & Brown 1985; Evans & Wilkins 2000)
 - SUN \Leftrightarrow MOON occurs only in North America
 - STAR \Leftrightarrow LUCK is found only in the Middle East area
- Hence language universals will need to incorporate cultural and ecological properties in their formulation

6. P.S. So what about Eskimo-Aleut and Dravidian ‘night’?

- Eskimo NIGHT \Leftrightarrow EVENING is a highly likely equation, so the semantics supports these cognates
- Aleut suggested etymology (not) TONIGHT \Leftrightarrow NIGHT is not supported by the

typological survey. A more plausible candidate would be LAST NIGHT or 24HR PERIOD ⇔ NIGHT.

•Dravidian NIGHT ⇔ DARKNESS is a quite likely equation, so the semantics supports these cognates

•Dravidian NIGHT ⇔ CHARCOAL/COAL/SOOT is not supported by the typological survey; in fact, CHARCOAL/COAL/SOOT (symbolized by EMBERS) is likely to be equated with FIRE or SMOKE

7. Appendix: languages in the sample

Region	Family*	Genus	Language	
Africa	Khoisan	Northern	Ju 'hoan	
		Central	Khoekhoegowab	
		Southern	!Xoó~	
	Niger-Kordofanian	NW Mande	Bambara	
		Southern W. Atlantic	Kisi	
		Defoid	Yoruba	
		Igboid	Igbo	
		Cross River	Efik	
		Bantoid	Swahili	
		Nilo-Saharan	Saharan	Kanuri
			Kuliak	Ik
	Nilotic		Nandi	
	Bongo-Bagirmi-Kresh		Kaba Deme	
	Afroasiatic	Berber	Tumzabt	
		West Chadic	Hausa	
		E Cushitic	Rendille	
		Semitic	Iraqi Arabic	
			Basque	
	Eurasia	Basque	Basque	
		Indo-European	Armenian	Armenian
			Indic	Hindi
			Albanian	Albanian
			Italic	Spanish
Slavic			Russian	
Uralic			Finnic	Finnish
Altaic			Turkic	Turkish
			Mongolian	Khalkha Mongolian
Japanese			Japanese	Japanese
Chukotkan			Kamchatkan	Itelmen (Kamchadal)
Caucasian			NW Caucasian	Kabardian
			Nax	Chechen
Kartvelian			Kartvelian	Georgian
Dravidian		Dravidian Proper	Badaga	
Sino-Tibetan		Chinese	Mandarin	
		Karen	Karen (Bwe)	
		Kuki-Chin-Naga	Mikir	
		Burmese-Lolo	Hani	
		Naxi	Naxi	

Oceania†	Hmong-Mien	Hmong-Mien	Hmong Njua	
	Austroasiatic	Munda	Sora	
		Palaung-Khmuic	Minor Mlabri	
		Aslian	Semai (Sengoi)	
	Daic	Kam-Tai	Thai	
	Austronesian	Oceanic	Trukese	
	Indo-Pacific/Papuan	Middle Sepik	Kwoma	
		E NG Highlands	Yagaria	
		Angan	Baruya	
		C and SE New Guinea	Koiari	
		West Bougainville	Rotokas	
		East Bougainville	Buin	
	Australian	Gunwinyguan	Nunggubuyu	
		Maran	Mara	
		Pama-Nyungan	E and C Arrernte	
	Americas	Eskimo-Aleut	Aleut	Aleut
		Na-Dene	Haida	Haida
		Athapaskan	Koyukon	
Algic		Algonquian	Western Abenaki	
Salishan		Interior Salish	Thompson Salish	
Wakashan		Wakashan	Nootka (Nuuchahnulth)	
Siouan		Siouan	Lakhota	
Caddoan		Caddoan	Pawnee	
Iroquoian		Iroquoian	Onondaga	
Coastal Penutian		Tsimshianic	Coast Tsimshian	
		Klamath	Klamath	
		Wintuan	Wintu	
		Miwok	Northern Sierra Miwok	
Gulf		Muskogean	Creek	
Mayan		Mayan	Itzaj Maya	
Hokan		Yanan	Yana	
		Yuman	Cocopa	
Uto-Aztecan		Numic	Tümpisa Shoshone	
		Hopi	Hopi	
Otomanguean		Zapotecan	Quiavini Zapotec	
Paезan		Warao	Warao	
		Chimúan	Mochica/Chimu	
Quechuan		Quechua	Huallaga Quechua	
Araucanian		Araucanian	Mapudungun	
Tupi-Guaraní		Tupi-Guaraní	Guaraní	
Macro-Arawakan		Harakmbet	Amarakaeri	
		Maipuran	Piro	
Macro-Carib		Carib	Carib	
		Peba-Yaguan	Yagua	

*Families vary as to degree of acceptance.

†Includes families in Southeast Asia.

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