AULA 10 DE TIPOLOGIA
PERÍODO SIMPLES
ORDEM VOCABULAR
POLIDEZ

ORAÇÕES SIMPLES

PREDICADOS E ARGUMENTOS

Core participants or arguments; peripheral participants or adjuncts

Papéis semânticos (ab 230):

- Agente
- Paciente
- Experienciador
- Instrumento
- Recipient
- Tema

Adverbiais ou oblíquos:

- Comitativo
- Locativo
- Temporal

Papéis pragmáticos (ab 233) :

Tópico (ou tema) e comentário (ou rema)
Tópico primário e secundário

Relações/Funções gramaticais [ab 235]:

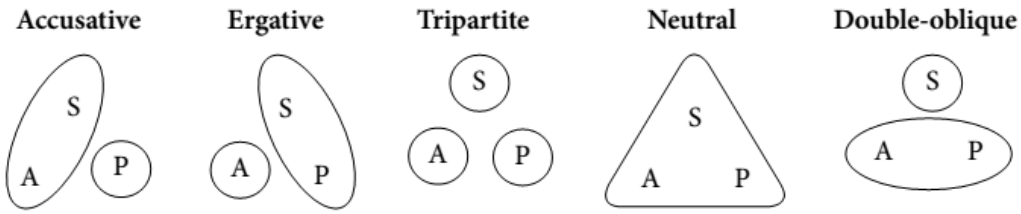
Sujeito e objeto
Transitividade

ALINHAMENTO DO SUJEITO (ab 237) :
https://wals.info/chapter/98

(153) a. He went.
S V
b. He saw him.
S V O

Pitjantjatjara (Australian (Pama-Nyungan): Australia)

(154) a. minyma-ngku tjitji nya-ngu
woman-ERG child-Ø(ABS) see-PAST
S O V
'The woman saw the child.'
b. tjitji a-nu
child-Ø(ABS) go-PAST
S V
'The child went.'
c. tjitji-ngku minyma nya-ngu
child-ERG woman-Ø(ABS) see-PAST
S O V
'The child saw the woman.'



Hungarian (Uralic (Ugric): Hungary)

(155) a. a lány-Ø áll
the girl-Ø stand.INDEFOC.3SG
S
'The girl is standing.'
b. a lány-Ø ir-ja a level-et
the girl-Ø write-DEFOC.3SG the letter-ACC
A P
'The girl is writing the letter.'

In Comrie's (2011a) sample of 190 languages, 52 (27.4%) are accusative, spread all over the world except Southeast Asia and Papua New Guinea. Most commonly accusative languages either have overt marking for both the nominative and the accusative or an overt marker for the accusative only (as in the Hungarian example above). However in six languages (3.2% of the entire sample) in the sample the nominative is overtly marked while the accusative is unmarked. Murle is an example of such a language:

Murle (Nilo-Saharan (Surmic): Sudan)

(156) a. adokony ɛɛt-i
runs man-NOM
S
'The man runs.'

(156) b. agam kayuu-wi kulugit-Ø
catches eagle-NOM fish-Ø(ACC)
A P
'The eagle catches a fish.'

In an **ergative-absolutive** (or **ergative**) system S and P are marked in the same way while A is marked differently. Pitjantjatjara, as shown above, is an example of a language with an ergative system. Epena Pedee is an example of a language where both the full noun phrases and the pronouns have an ergative system.

Epena Pedee (Choco (Choco): Colombia)

(157) a. josé-Ø kʰāi-hí
PN-Ø sleep-PAST
S
'José slept.'

b. josé-pa pʰáta-Ø kʰo-hí
PN-ERG plantain-Ø eat-PAST
A P
'José ate (the) plantain.'

c. mɨ́-Ø kʰāi-itʰée
1SG-Ø sleep-FUT
S
'I will sleep.'

d. mɨ́-a pʰáta-Ø kʰo-hí
1SG-ERG plantain-Ø eat-PAST
A P
'I ate (the) plantain.'

(Example (d)). In Comrie's two surveys (2011a and b) 32 of 190 languages (16.8%) have an ergative system for full noun phrases and 20 of 172 languages (11.6%) have an ergative system for their pronouns. While languages with an ergative system in Comrie's samples are spread globally, they are completely absent in Africa, and almost completely absent in Europe and on the northern part of the Eurasian landmass (Basque and Chukchi being the respective exceptions).

In a **tripartite** system S, A and P are all marked differently. This is very rare cross-linguistically and is found in only four languages (2.1%) in Comrie's (2011a) survey on full noun phrases: Hindi, Marathi (Indo-European (Indic): India), Nez Perce (Penutian (Sahaptian): USA) and Semelai (Austro-Asiatic (Aslian): Malaysia). All but Marathi also have a tripartite system for the pronouns (while the pronouns in Marathi have an accusative system). In Nez Perce, for example, the S is unmarked while the A carries an ergative suffix (*-nim*/*-nm*/*-m*) and the P carries a direct object suffix (*-ne*), as shown in Example (158).

Nez Perce (Penutian (Sahaptian): USA)

(158) a. kaa wáago hi-x̣íic'em-ne háama-Ø
and now 3.NOM-be.angry-PFV man-Ø
S
'And now the man became angry.'

b. 'iceyéeye-nm x̣áx̣aas-na hi-náas-wapci'yaw-na
coyote-ERG grizzly-DO 3NOM-PLDO-kill-PFV
A P
'Coyote killed the grizzlies.'

In Comrie's sample mapped for full noun phrases, 98 of 190 (or 51.6%) languages have a neutral system, while in the sample mapped for pronouns 79 languages (or 45.9%) have a neutral system. These languages are spread all over the world, but concentrate in the areas where languages have little or no morphological marking or where most of the morphological marking occurs on the verb.

Koromfe (Niger-Congo (Gur): Burkina Faso, Mali)

(159) a. a hem koŋ gɔl
ART water(SG) DET.NHUM.SG boil
S
'The water is boiling.'

b. bʌdini homs a hem koŋ
PN heat ART water(SG) DET.NHUM.SG
A P
'Badini boils the water.'

The fifth logical possibility of subject argument alignment is that A and P look the same while S looks different, called **double-oblique** (or sometimes "**accusative-focus**", cf. for example, Whaley 1997:158). This is exceedingly rare and is only known to occur in a few Iranian languages of the Pamir region, specifically with Rushan (Indo-European (Iranian): Tajikistan) pronouns in clauses of the past tenses, although there have been reports of a double-oblique system for both full noun phrases and pronouns in Pashai (Indo-European (Iranian): Afghanistan) (Skalmowski 1974).

Rushan (Indo-European (Iranian): Tajikistan)

(160) a. mu tā wunt
1SG.OBL 2SG.OBL see.PAST
A P
'I saw you.'

b. tā mu wunt
2SG.OBL 1SG.OBL see.PAST
A P
'You saw me.'

c. az-um sut
1SG.ABS-1SG go.PAST(M.SG)[146]
S
'I went.'

SPLIT INTRANSITIVITY (253-255)

Choctaw (Muskogean (Muskogean): USA)

(178) a. hilha-li-tok
dance-1SG.NOM(ACTOR)-PAST
'I danced.' [S = +VOLITIONAL]

b. sa-hohchafo-h
1SG.ACC(UNDERGOER)-hungry-PRED
'I am hungry.' [S = −VOLITIONAL]

c. chi-bashli-li-tok
2SG.ACC(ACTOR)-cut-1SG.NOM(UNDERGOER)-PAST
'I cut you.' [A = +VOLITIONAL; P = −VOLITIONAL]

d. is-sa-sso-tok
2SG.NOM(ACTOR)-1SG.ACC(UNDERGOER)-hit-PAST
'You hit me.' [A = +VOLITIONAL; P = −VOLITIONAL]

e. sa-hohchafo-cha tobi hoponi-li-tok
1SG.ACC(UNDERGOER)-hungry-SS bean cook-1SG.NOM(ACTOR)-PAST
'I was hungry, so I cooked some beans.' (Davies 1986: 14–5, 28)

In (178e) the same person is once an undergoer (S_P) and once an actor (S_A). In Eastern Pomo (Hokan (Pomoan): USA) the semantic feature of volition is particularly dominant in governing the choice of the alignment. The S_A is used when the intransitive argument is volitional, while the S_P is used when it is nonvolitional. This works both ways: with some verbs either S_A or S_P can be used, affecting the meaning of the whole clause.

Eastern Pomo (Hokan (Pomoan): USA)

(179) a. há mi·pal šá·k'a
1SG.A 3SG.O killed
'I killed him.'

b. xá·su·là wí ko·k^{h}óya
rattlesnake 1SG.O bit
'(A) rattlesnake bit me.'

c. há c̓e̓·xélka
1SG.A(S_A) slide/slip
'I am sliding.' (on purpose)

d. wí c̓e̓·xélka
1SG.O(S_P) slide/slip
'I am slipping.' (not on purpose)

SPLIT ERGATIVITY (ab 255)

While split intransitivity is based on the semantics and/or pragmatics of the intransitive clause, **split ergativity** is based on the semantics and/or pragmatics of the transitive clause.[153] One determining factor of the split in alignment may be the animacy of the arguments, especially the agent-like arguments. Thus it is often the case that pronouns, which are higher up the animacy hierarchy (or empathy hierarchy, see, for example DeLancey 1981), have an accusative alignment, while all other nominals have an ergative alignment. This is sometimes called agent-worthiness or topic-worthiness (cf., for example, Payne 1997). In Kham, for instance, the speech act participants (SAP) have an accusative alignment while all other nominals (i.e. those ranking lower than the speaker and the addressee on the animacy hierarchy) have an ergative alignment.

Kham (Sino-Tibetan (Bodic): Nepal)

(180) a. la:-Ø si-ke
leopard-ABS die-PFV
'The leopard died.'

b. Tipəlkya-e la:-Ø səih-ke-o
PN-ERG leopard-ABS kill-PFV-3SG
'Tipalkya killed a leopard.'

c. no:-ye la:-Ø səih-ke-o
3SG-ERG leopard-ABS kill-PFV-3SG
'He killed a leopard.'

d. ŋa:-Ø la:-Ø ŋa-səih-ke
1SG-NOM leopard-ABS 1SG-kill-PFV
'I killed a leopard.'

e. nɨ-Ø ŋa-lai nə-rɨ̄:h-na-ke
2SG-NOM 1SG-OBJV 2SG-see-1SG-PFV
'You saw me.'

Another determining factor of the split alignment may be the tense, mood or aspect of a clause. More often than not the tenses referring to the past and perfective or completive aspects trigger an ergative alignment while nonpast tenses and imperfective aspects trigger an accusative alignment. Chol is an example of a language where the accusative alignment is used only in imperative declarative sentences while all others follow an ergative alignment.

Chol (Mayan (Mayan): Mexico)

(181) a. ʧa-h k'el-e-Ø
ASP-1SG.A see-PFV-3SG.P
'I saw it.' (perfective)

b. ʧa til-ig-on
ASP come-PFV-1SG.SP
'I came.' (perfective)

c. mi-h wahl-en-et
ASP-1SG.A mock-IPFV-2SG.P
'I ridicule you.' (imperfective)

d. mi-h suht-el
ASP-1SG.SA return.IPFV
'I return.' (imperfective)

ORDEM VOCABULAR

281: Ordem fixa vs livre

Nhanda (Australian (Pama-Nyungan): Australia)

(197)	abarla-lu	wumba-yi	wur'a-tha
	child-ERG	steal-PPERF	money-1SGOBL
	S	V	O
	abarla-lu	wur'a-tha	wumba-yi
	S	O	V
	wumba-yi	wur'a-tha	abarla-lu
	V	O	S
	wumba-yi	abarla-lu	wur'a-tha
	V	S	O
	wur'a-tha	wumba-yi	abarla-lu
	O	V	S
	wur'a-tha	abarla-lu	wumba-yi
	O	S	V

'The child stole my money.'

283 + 284: há línguas com duas ordens básicas
ALEMÃO:
Er studiert Linguistik. [SVO]
Ich glaube, dass [er Linguistik studiert]. [SOV]

Table 10.1 Word order patterns for three constituents: S, O and V (Dryer 2011r).

	N	%
SOV	565	41
SVO	488	35.4
VSO	95	6.9
VOS	25	1.8
OVS	11	0.8
OSV	4	0.3
ND	189	13.7
Total	1377	99.9

Ainu (Isolate: Japan)

(200) kamuy aynu rayke
bear person kill
S O V
'The bear killed the person.'

Matuumbi (Niger-Congo (Bantoid): Tanzania)

(201) abụnwaásị aachéngịte ñụ́ụ́mba
PN he.built house
S V O
'Abumwas built a house.'

Irish (Indo-European (Celtic): Ireland)

(202) tógann Máire an cat
lift.PRES PN ART cat
V S O
'Mary lifts the cat.' (Ó Docharta

Cèmuhî (Austronesian (Oceanic): New Caledonia)

(203) [ɛ ālī-hī] [ā-li mwà] [ɔ pā-li āpūlīp]
[3SG see-TR] [ART:NEUT-DEF house] [SUBJ ART:NF-DEF man]
V O S
'The man saw the house.' (Lync

Päri (Nilo-Saharan (Nilotic): Sudan)

(204) dháagɔ́ á-yàaŋ ùbúrr-ì
woman COMPL-insult PN-ERG
O V S
'Ubur insulted the woman'.

Warao (Isolate: Venezuela)

(205) erike hube abun-ae
PN snake bite-PAST
O S V
'A snake bit Enrique.'

SOV word order is spread over the globe in Dryer's (2011r) sample, but is especially prominent in Asia (except Southeast Asia and the Middle East) as well as Papua New Guinea and Northern America (except the Pacific coast). SVO word order is especially common in Europe, sub-Saharan Africa and Southeast Asia. Verb initial languages (VSO and VOS) are scattered around the world, but are very rare on the Eurasian continent (except for the Celtic languages in the far west of Europe). VOS order is not found at all on the Eurasian of African mainland in Dryer's sample. The object initial languages in the sample are not found on the Eurasian continent or in North America. Of the nine OVS languages, six are found in South America, Asuriní (Tupian (Tupi-Guaraní)), Hixkaryana and Tiriyo in Brazil, Cubeo (Tucanoan (Tucanoan)) in Colombia, Urarina (Isolate) in Peru and Selknam in Argentina, two in Australia (Mangarrayi (Australian: Mangarrayi) and Ungarinjin) and one in Sudan (Päri). Of the four OSV languages, two are found in South America (Nadëb in Brazil and Warao in Venezuela), one in Indonesia, Tobati (Austronesian (Oceanic)) and one in Australia, Wik Ngathana (Australian (Pama-Nyungan)).

287: muitas vezes só um argumento é expresso
os levantamentos ignoram VI
pra resolver isso, Dryer V + S separado de V + O

Of the 1498 languages in Dryer's (2011q) sample, the vast majority, 1194 languages (79.7%) have the dominant order subject-verb (SV) while 194 (13%) have the dominant order VS and 110 languages (7.3%) do not have any dominant order. Again the languages have been mapped for clauses where the subject is a nominal. The languages with VS are found largely in the same areas as VSO and VOS languages (cf. above). Examples of SV and VS orders follow:

POLIDEZ – INTRODUÇÃO

[367] face

Politeness is a way of interaction which shows awareness of and respect for someone else's face. A **face threatening act** is an act that threatens the integrity and self-image of another person. For example, giving someone a direct order such as *Sit down and be quiet!* implies having social power over that person. It is acceptable for a parent

[368] atos de fala indiretos. Podem ser mal interpretados, principalmente entre culturas

HONORÍFICOS

⇨ **Honorífico relacionado ao referente (de quem se está falando) 370-372**

- Francês *tu* (2sg) vs *vous* (2pl). Pronomes T ou V
- Alemão *du* (2sg) vs *Sie* (3pl)
- Italiano *tu* (2sg) vs *Lei* (3sg fem)

Línguas com três níveis:

- Híndi *tu* (2sg) vs *tum* (2pl polidez média) vs *a:p* (2pl polidez elevada)

Nepali (Indo-European (Indic): Nepal)

(347)

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
LOW GRADE HONORIFIC ('informal')	tã	timī-haru
MID GRADE HONORIFIC ('polite')	timī	timī-haru
HIGH GRADE HONORIFIC ('superpolite')	tapāï	tapāï-haru

There are also languages where a pronoun is avoided for the sake of politeness, a strategy sometimes termed '**pronoun avoidance**'. In these languages it may be con-

- Japonês evita usar pronome de 2ª pessoa. Usa expressão de 3ª pessoa. Falando com o pai, a pessoa diz o equivalente a *o papai*.

Notice that with referent honorifics, which pronoun politeness is a part of, the choice of form is dependent on who or what is being referred to. With the second person pronouns the referent and the target happen to be the same. But we may also have honorific distinctions in the third person. In Korean, for example, the choice of the third person pronoun is dependent on what is being referred to and what level of politeness is required:

Korean (Isolate: N, S Korea)

(348)

3RD PERSON	SINGULAR	PLURAL
THING	D-kes 'it'	D-kes-tul 'they'
CHILD	D-ay 's/he'	D-ay-tul 'they'
ADULT: FAMILIAR	D-salam 's/he'	D-salam-tul 'they'
ADULT: BLUNT	D-i 's/he'	D-i-tul 'they'
ADULT: POLITE	D-pun 's/he'	D-pun-tul 'they'

D = determinante nos exemplos, podendo ser *i-*, 'este'.

⇨ **Honorífico relacionado ao destinatário 373-375**

Importa com quem se está falando. Exs. do japonês:
Watashi-wa o-cha-o nomu. 'Eu tomo chá.' (não polido)
Watashi-wa o-cha-o nomi-masu. 'Eu tomo chá.' (polido)
Kodomo-wa o-cha-o nomu. 'A criança toma chá.' (não polido)
Kodomo-wa o-cha-o nomi-masu. 'A criança toma chá.' (polido)

Korean (Isolate: N, S Korea)

(350)

plain	pi	ka	o-n-ta
	rain	NM	come-IN-DC
intimate	pi	ka	w-a
	rain	NM	come-INT
familiar	pi	ka	o-ney
	rain	NM	come-FML
blunt	pi	ka	o-o
	rain	NM	come-BLN
polite	pi	ka	w-a.yo
	rain	NM	come-POL
deferential	pi	ka	o-p-ni-ta
	rain	NM	come-AH-IN-DC
neutral	pi	ka	o-t-a
	rain	NM	come-IN-DC
	'It is raining.'		

⇨ **Honorífico relacionado aos presentes 375-377**

With **bystander honorifics** the linguistic form of the language is not dependent on the speaker or on the addressee, but on who is within earshot of the utterance. That is, it is not dependent on the relationship between the speaker and the addressee, nor is it dependent on what is being referred to, but simply who can hear what is being said. This therefore covers participants, such as audiences, as well as non-participants, or 'bystanders'. This is often termed 'avoidance language' or 'honorific register'. Many Australian languages had or have bystander honorifics to varying degrees. Dyirbal is famous for having had two language variants, Guwal and Dyalŋuy. Guwal was used in all circumstances except when certain 'taboo relatives' were present, in which case Dyalŋuy had to be used.

> No man or woman would closely approach or look at a taboo relative, still less speak directly to them. The avoidance language, Dyalŋuy, had to be used whenever a taboo relative was within earshot. The taboo was symmetrical – if X was taboo to Y so was Y to X.
>
> Taboo relatives were:
>
> [1] a parent-in-law of the opposite sex; and, by the symmetry rule, a child-in-law of the opposite sex.
> [2] a cross-cousin of the opposite sex – that is, father's sister's or mother's brother's child. (Dixon 1972: 32)

Dyirbal (Australian (Pama-Nyungan): Australia)

(352)	**Guwal**	**Dyalŋuy**	
	yanu(l)	bawalbil	'go'
	buɽal	ɲuɽimal	'see, look at'
	ɲalŋga	ɲalmaru	'child'
	ɲinay	maḏirabil	'sit, stay, camp'