



Evidentiality in Uralic Languages

Exercise book

**Working Papers in Corpus Linguistics
and Digital Technologies:
Analyses and Methodology**

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Evidentiality in Uralic Languages
Exercise book
with selected bibliography

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Foreword

In February 2019, the topic of one of the workshops of the 7th Winter School of Finno-Ugric Studies (COPIUS) was “Evidentiality in Uralic languages”. Instead of providing an overview of evidentiality in all of the Uralic languages, the organizers of the workshop decided to concentrate, after an introduction to the topic, only on a few of them and to do so in an interactive and exciting way, with the help of creative tasks. The range of languages to be covered was defined, on the one hand, by the language proficiency of the organizing team, and, on the other hand, by how the various branches of Uralic were represented. This is the reason why the present volume does not discuss Finnic languages – but our hope is that a second volume will include those as well. The program of the Hamburg Winter School included Mansi, Nganasan, and Udmurt, and these are complemented by two others now: Meadow Mari and Komi-Permyak. The reason for the latter two is that the workshop included two excellent student presentations on these two languages, so we decided to include them in the volume, even though evidentiality in the two languages are very similar. This is how this collection of problems was organized, and only slight modifications were made on the material originally compiled. Participants’ feedback we received after the workshop also urged us to publish the materials. In recent years, we have tested and shaped most of the exercises in several courses to make them really usable. Here they are.

The present work is a textbook, a collection of linguistic problems. Therefore, we do not want to provide a detailed overview of the evidentiality in the relevant languages in this introduction. Instead, we want to present them in such a way that they could be used, in addition to a range of courses in Uralic studies, in courses of typology and be understandable to a wider audience of scholars and students beyond Finno-Ugrists. In accordance with this aim, we provide a (very) brief introduction to evidentiality, followed by a bibliography of the most important general and language specific sources in order to assist the reader in obtaining further information. Then we provide a short summary of basic information about the languages discussed in this volume.

The structure of the linguistic problems included in this volume is the same: after an overview of information relevant to evidentiality (description of the genre and/or situation), we provide texts, excerpts, and/or individual sentences and questions connected with these. We do not provide full and detailed solutions to the problems, only hints at solving them. A bibliography of sources referenced is included at the end of the volume.

Why did we choose to address the phenomenon of evidentiality? The investigation of this phenomenon provides an opportunity for an extremely complex analysis, since it is characterized by a wide range of forms (grammatical elements, syntactic structures, and lexical elements) as well as semantic and pragmatic perspectives.

Another, perhaps puzzling issue is why we chose to publish a collection of linguistic problems in this particular series. This is because of one of the aims of this series, to provide an outlet for demonstrating practical ways of using corpora from small languages.

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The authors

Evidentiality in a nutshell

Rebeka Kubitsch

Evidentiality is traditionally viewed as the linguistic marking of information source and type (Aikhenvald 2004). In the corresponding literature, several definitions can be found and there is no unanimity considering the nature of this category. One of the most prominent researchers of the topic, Aikhenvald (2004, 2014, 2018), considers evidentiality a grammatical category, just like tense, aspect and mood. In this sense, evidentiality is present only in such languages that have a grammaticalized form dedicated to mark the source of information. Others, however, define it as a semantic-functional category which can be expressed through various means, such as lexicon and morphosyntax (Diewald-Smirnova 2010). Evidentiality in the interpretation of Peterson et al. (2010) and Ekberg & Paradis (2009) is a universal cognitive category which expresses our source of information in communication.

Regardless which interpretation we accept, on the one hand, it can be seen that evidentiality reflects on the information source the proposition is based on. On the other hand, languages differ in a great deal in their ways of expressing this: some languages have dedicated grammatical elements whose primary meaning is to mark the information source, while in other languages lexical elements or the contextual reading of other categories (such as tenses, aspects, moods) can express this meaning.

Evidentiality and evidential markers in individual languages are in interaction with other concepts and categories related to knowledge, and their use can be affected by socio-cultural factors as well (Bernárdez 2017). Recent works propagate a more pragmatic, discourse-oriented approach in general. More and more languages prove that the speaker's choice of evidential is not only governed by the source of information but rather it depends on the speech-act participants' interpersonal dynamics and the respective position relative to the event in question (Bergqvist & Grzech 2023: 24).

1. Evidence types and evidential systems

Several typologies exist, the best known being those by Willett (1988), Aikhenvald (2004) and Plungian (2010). There are differences between the existing typologies in their details; however, the basic distinctions are the same: whether the speaker obtained the information in a direct or indirect way. Direct evidence is the visual experience of the speaker but non-visual sensory (hearing, smelling, touching) can also constitute direct evidence (although languages may differ in this regard). Indirect evidence typically involves inference and hearsay as well as their subtypes. The typology below is from Plungian (2001: 354, 2010: 37).

Direct/Personal evidence	Participatory/Endophoric; Common knowledge
	Visual
	Non-visual (Sensory)
Indirect/Personal evidence	Inferential (based on observed results)
	Presumptive (based on plausible reasoning); Common knowledge
Indirect/Non-personal evidence	Reported

Table 1. Types of Evidence based on Plungian

In languages with grammatical marking of the information source, evidence types can be grouped differently in respect of their marking. Aikhenvald (2004, 2018) classifies languages from a quantitative point of view (Table 2), i.e., evidential systems are established on the basis of how many evidence types are expressed with separate (primarily morphological) markers. According to this, there are small and large evidential systems. In small evidential systems, a single marker can cover several types of evidence.

-		VISUAL	NON-VISUAL SENSORY	INFERENCE	ASSUMPTION	REPORTED	QUOTATIVE	
2 choices	A1	firsthand		non-firsthand				
	A1	firsthand	non-firsthand					
	A2	< no term >		non-firsthand				
	A3	< no term >				reported		
	A4	< no term >	auditory	< no term >				
3 choices	B1	direct		inferred		reported		
	B2	visual	non-visual	inferred				
	B3	visual	non-visual	< no term >		reported		
	B4	< no term >	non-visual	inferred		reported		
	B5	< no term >				reported	quotative	
	B6	< no term >	non-visual	< no term >		reported		
4 choices	C1	visual	non-visual	inferred		reported		
	C2	direct (or experiential)		inferred	assumed	reported		
	C3	direct (or experiential)		inferred		reported	quotative	
	C4	visual	non-visual	inferred		< no term >		
	C5	direct	inferred		assumed		< no term >	
	C6	< no term >		inferred		reported	quotative	
5 choices	D1	visual	non-visual	inferred	assumed	reported		

Table 2. Semantic parameters om evidentiality systems (Aikhenvald 2018: 15)

It also has to be mentioned that there are languages in which there is an evidentially marked form but its “counterpart” (e.g., the form in the same morphosyntactic position) is evidentially unmarked, meaning, it is neutral in respect of expressing the the source of information. In such cases, it is the speaker’s choice whether they choose the evidentially marked or unmarked form in the discourse (Aikhenvald 2004: 75–76). We have little knowledge what factors can affect this kind of choice of the

speaker but it safely can be assumed that it is rather guided by discourse-interactional considerations than grammatical ones.

2. The interaction of evidentiality with other categories

Morphological markers of evidentiality are typically part of the verbal paradigm. Considering the synchronic relationship of evidentiality with other grammatical categories, the following interactions can be observed (Aikhenvald 2015: 243):

1. The marking of evidentiality can fuse with the marking of another category (e.g., tense, mood, aspect).
2. The possible number of evidential specifications may depend on another category (e.g., as a tendency, more evidential specifications are possible in declarative sentences, or in the past tenses)
3. An evidential can have a specific interpretation in combination with another category (e.g., a reportative evidential can express politeness in commands, or evidentials in first person can have extensions to the domain of volition).

Another category, which cross-linguistically evidentiality shows interaction with, is mirativity. Mirativity is referred to as the grammatical marking of unprepared mind or new information that may result in the speaker's surprise (DeLancey 1997). Recently, surprise as a defining semantic component has been more widely rejected, and it is more accepted to view mirativity as the signaling of new or unassimilated knowledge (Bergqvist & Kittilä 2023: 2). Mexas (2016: 10) also defines mirativity as the marking of realization which is a transition from a state of lacking awareness to a state of awareness. Mirativity is shown to be linked to the semantics and pragmatics of evidentiality (Peterson 2010: 132), and evidential markers often have a mirative interpretation as well (cf. Slobin & Aksu 1982, DeLancey 2001, Aikhenvald 2012, Brugman & Macaulay 2015).

The relationship of evidentiality and epistemic modality is also a topic frequently addressed. Epistemic modality is the speaker's evaluation/judgment of, degree of confidence in, or belief of the knowledge upon which a proposition is based (de Haan 1999). For a long time, evidentiality was considered a subtype of epistemic modality, because both categories are related to knowledge (Palmer 1986; Willett 1988). Nowadays they are treated as distinct categories in the typology of evidentiality (Aikhenvald 2004, de Haan 1999, Plungian 2010).¹ Nevertheless, evidential markers can reflect on the degree of certainty, but this property is considered to be language specific (cf. Brugman & Macaulay 2015). Givón (2001: 326) assumes a pragmatic relationship between the two categories. According to this, evidentiality primarily marks the source of information, and, implicitly, the strength of this source. This implicit connection links evidentiality to subjective certainty. The subtype of inferential evidence is where it is especially hard, if not impossible, to separate evidential and epistemic notions, since the evaluation of a piece of evidence always involves the speaker's own judgment, too (van der Auwera & Plungian 1998).

¹ For an elaborate summary for the existing views on the relationship of evidentiality and epistemic modality, see (Dendale & Tasmowski 2001).

3. Evidentiality in the Uralic languages

So far, the most detailed, typology-oriented overview of evidentiality in the Uralic languages was written by Skribnik & Kehayov (2018). Nevertheless, there are plenty of individual works on almost all languages.

Considering the marking of information source, Uralic languages do not show a unified picture. In Hungarian, in the Finnic languages with the exception of Estonian and Livonian, in the Saamic languages, furthermore in Erzya and Moksha, there are no morphological evidential markers, the source of information is primarily expressed by particles, adverbials, and as a contextual extension of other categories, such as tenses and moods. It is also typical to particles and adverbials that evidential and epistemic meanings cannot be separated, therefore, these elements reflect on the speaker's degree of certainty beside marking the source of information, or they attenuate the speaker's responsibility for the truth of the proposition.

In the other Uralic languages, it is possible to express the source of information with dedicated morphological markers. We can find such elements in Estonian and Livonian (Finnic branch), in Komi Permyak/Zyrian, Udmurt (Permic branch), in Mari, in the Northern dialects of Mansi and Khanty (Ob-Ugric), and in Enets, Nenets, Nganasan and Selkup (Samoyedic) (Skribnik & Kehayov 2018: 529). It is important to mention that besides these markers, these languages also have other ways of expressing the source of information.

In these languages, almost all the evidential markers originate from non-finite constructions (Jalava 2016). Typologically, non-finite forms often become markers of evidentiality or acquire evidential meanings (Aikhenvald 2004: 117-120, Plungian 2010: 40). Based on the classification of Skribnik & Kehayov (2018), the following grammaticalized evidentials can be found in the Uralic languages.

1. reportative evidential – Estonian, Livonian
2. indirect evidential – Permic languages (Udmurt, Komi, Komi-Permyak), Mari, Ob-Ugric languages
3. complex evidential systems with the separate marking of several evidence types (e.g., auditive/non-visual sensory, indirect, inferential evidential) – Samoyedic languages

Evidentials in Uralic are assumed to be developed by various means, such as the reanalysis of tenses, nominalizations and insubordination (Skribnik & Kehayov 2018: 553). The development of evidential systems in certain Uralic languages is considered to be the result of areal effects and also innovations within the languages. We cannot reconstruct the morphological marking of information source to Proto-Uralic, and similarities between evidential systems are not in accordance with their position in the language family. The importance of areal effects is supported by the fact that the Uralic evidential systems show similarities on an areal bases - the Estonian and Livonian system is similar to the ones found on Latvian and Lithuanian (Baltic language area), the Mari and Permic evidentials show similarities to the evidentials of Tatar, Chuvash, Bashkir, i.e., to the Turkic languages spoken in the Volga-Kama area. The systems of the Ob-Ugric languages (and more or less the Selkup system as well) have in common with the evidentials of languages spoken in the Taiga region. The complex evidential systems of the Northern Samoyedic languages are typical to the languages of the Tundra (Szeverényi 2020).

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Languages analyzed in the book

Mansi

The Mansi (or Vogul) language is one of the most endangered languages of the Finno-Ugric group of the Uralic language family. It is spoken in Western Siberia by the river Ob and its tributaries (the Sosva and the Sygva) in the Khanty-Mansi Autonomous District of the Tyumen Region. Mansi also can be found by the rivers Lozva and Ivdel in the Sverdlovsk Region. The dialects of Mansi are traditionally divided into four groups: Northern, Eastern, Southern and Western. There are noticeable differences between the dialects, and they concern each level of the language (they are of phonetic, morphologic, syntactic and lexical in nature), and there are significant differences between the dialects concerning the use of grammatical evidentiality, too. The only dialect that is still spoken today is Northern Mansi, and this dialect is also the base of the Mansi literary language, and this is the only dialect included in education as well.

Hungarian

Hungarian is the largest Uralic language, with a total of about 13-14 million speakers, of whom about 9.5 million live in Hungary. Outside Hungary, it is spoken mainly in the neighbouring countries of the Carpathian Basin, in Romania (mainly Transylvania), Slovakia (Felvidék), Serbia (Vojvodina), Ukraine, Croatia, Slovenia and Austria. Hungarian became the official language of Hungary in 1836 and since 1844 it has been the country's exclusive official language. In addition, Hungarian is an official language in Vojvodina and in three municipalities of Slovenia (Dobronak, Órihodos and Lendva). Its closest cognate languages are Mansi and Khanty, but these are also very distant relations.

Udmurt

Udmurt is a language of the Permic subgroup of the Uralic language family, which is spoken by appr. 267 000 speakers. Most of the speakers, 77,6%, live in the Udmurt Republic in the Russian Federation, which is located between the Vyatka and Kama rivers. In addition to the Udmurt Republic, the language is also spoken in the Kirov Oblast, the Perm Oblast, Bashkortostan, Tatarstan and the Mari Republic. The ethnic population is 380 000 according to the census held in 2020 (Rosstat 2020). The Udmurts form a minority in their own republic: Udmurts make up 21% of the republic's population, while the Russian population is 58%. On the EGIDS scale Udmurt is considered a threatened language (Ethnologue). Only 70% of Udmurts speak Udmurt, while all of them speak Russian (and in the southern areas usually Tatar too) (Pusztay 2022: 134). Therefore, the speakers are mostly Udmurt-Russian bilinguals (Salánki & Kondratieva 2018: 166–167). Although Udmurt is the official language of the Udmurt Republic, in the cities and in administrative life Russian is dominant, and Udmurt is often the language of home.

Udmurt is part of the Volga-Kama linguistic area, which comprises Mari, Chuvash, Tatar and Bashkir, whereas Erzya, Moksha (also known as Mordva) and Komi (Zyrian and Permyak) are on the periphery of the area. With the exception of Erzya and Moksha, evidentiality is present in the area as a

grammatical feature. In addition, it is postulated that in Udmurt evidentiality developed due to the intense contact with the Turkic languages spoken in the area (Tatar, Chuvash and Bashkir).

Komi-Permyak

Komi-Permyak is an endangered Finno-Ugric language spoken in the Perm Region of European Russia. Belonging to the Permic branch of the Uralic language family, it is closely related to Udmurt and Komi-Zyrian. Its speakers live in the Komi-Permyak District, which formerly was the titular Komi-Permyak Autonomous District until 2005, within the Perm Region. Some speakers live in neighbouring regions, notably the Kirov Region. The number of speakers has decreased in the last decades; data from the 2020 All-Russia population census indicate that nearly 40,000 people consider Komi-Permyak their mother tongue, approximately 72% of the population – a notably high figure in comparison to other Uralic-speaking communities (Rosstat 2020). In the same census, 55,000 people identified as ethnic Komi-Permyaks, marking a decline from around 94,500 in 2010. Komi-Permyak is a peripheral member of the Volga-Kama linguistic area, but Turkic influence on the language is marginal as compared to the impact of the Russian language, which dominates all the fields of communication.

Meadow Mari

Meadow Mari is a Finno-Ugric language, which is mainly spoken in the Republic of Mari El, an autonomous republic of the Russian Federation. Its closest relative is Hill Mari, which is regarded as a separate language. Dialectologists also separate Eastern Mari dialects, which are spoken by the Mari diaspora in Bashkortostan. They are considered a variation of Meadow Mari. The closest relative of the Mari languages is considered to be the Mordvin languages (Erzya and Moksha), though the existence of a common Volgaic proto-language is rejected by most etymologists. Meadow Mari has been heavily influenced by the neighbouring Turkic languages, especially Chuvash and Tatar. According to the latest census data (Rosstat 2020), the number of Mari speakers is roughly 352 000 (including Hill Mari). However, a large amount of skepticism must be applied here due to methodological concerns pertaining to the census, and the number of speakers is probably higher. Mari is categorized as "definitely endangered" according to the UNESCO Atlas of the World's Languages in Danger. Despite the relatively large number of speakers and being an official language of the Republic of Mari El, since native-language education is not secured, and the child-bearing population is reluctant to transfer the language to their children, the future of the language is worrisome.

Nganasan

Nganasan is the northernmost language of Eurasia. It is part of the Uralic language family with Tundra and Forest Nenets and the only living southern Samoyed language, Selkup. Nganasan is spoken in the Taymir Peninsula with most of its speakers living in two villages, Ust-Avam and Volochanka. There are Nganasans in cities, first of all, in Dudinka, and Nganasans live in the eastern part of the peninsula as well. The official data show a rapid decrease in the number of speakers (data are based on the official censuses of the Russian Federation). The latest census shows that the number of the speakers is appr. 300, the number of the population is 687 (Rosstat 2020). Today we can bravely state that there are no monolingual Nganasan speakers.

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Abbreviations

1	first person
2	second person
3	third person
ABL	ablative
ACC	accusative
ADJ	adjective
ADMON	admonitive
ADV	adverb
ALL	allative
AUD	auditive (non-visual sensory)
CAUS	causative
CNG	connegative
COMP	comparative
COND	conditional
CVB	converb
DAT	dative
DEF	definite
DET	determiner
DIM	diminutive
DST	destinative
DU	dual
ELA	elative
EMPH	emphatic
EXCL	exclamative
EV	evidential
FREQ	frequentative
FUT	future
GEN	genitive
ILL	illative
IMP	imperative
INCL	inclusive
IN	inessive
INF	infinitive
INFER	inferential
INTER	interrogative
IPFV	imperfective
LAT	lative

LIM	limitative
LOC	locative
NEG	negative
NMLZ	nominalizer
NOM	nominative
O	objective conjugation
ORD	ordinal suffix
PASS	passive
PCL	particle
PF	perfect
PL	plural
POSS	possessive
PP	postposition
PROL	prolative
PRS	present
PST	past
PST1	first past
PST2	second past
PTCP.ACT	active participle
PTCP	participle
R	reflexive
REP	reportative
RES	resultative
S	subjective
SG	singular
SUP	supine
SUPL	superlative
TRL	translative
VBLZ	verbalizer

TASK 1. Evidentiality and its cultural explanation

Sándor Szeverényi

Here is a summary of Bernárdez' (2017: 452) hypothesis on the cultural explanation of evidentiality:

„The factors influencing the keeping and/or development of a complex system of evidentiality (...) can be summarised as follows:

- **Small groups living in isolated environments** enhance the probability of developing evidentials.
- **Difficulties in accessing the world around** enhance the probability of developing evidentials; such difficulties can be the impenetrability of the forest, as is the case in the Amazon and also the rainy forest inhabited by the Chachi. They can also be due to the impossibility of easy travel even over short distances due to weather conditions, etc. As we saw above, absence of literacy, as in the case of Quechua, is another fundamental factor.
- **Very tight relations within the group** and with neighbouring groups also enhance the probability of developing evidentials.”

(...)

„A small set of culturally determined principles are at work here:

- (1) Every member of the community knows – to a greater or lesser degree – all, or most other members.
- (2) Members of the community trust each other -except perhaps in a few cases.
- (3) Sincerely telling (what one believes to be) the truth is a basic principle of behaviour in the community.
- (4) Whenever someone cannot say that something has been directly experienced, s/he will say that what is being told is indirect experience, inference, etc.

The central point is of course the need to guarantee the group's cohesion: as loss of cohesion leads to conflict and eventually to the disaggregation of the group, strategies were developed to avoid it. These strategies came to be incorporated (embodied) in the individuals' minds, in such a way that the whole community has at its disposal a number of common strategies, learnt, accepted and used by everyone, with the same purposes.”

(Bernardez 2017: 454)

QUESTIONS

What can you say about the following languages in the light of the hypothesis? Do they confirm the hypothesis?

Nganasan

Udmurt

Mansi

Hungarian

Use data from Uralic languages (e.g. Skribnik & Kehayov 2018)! Illustrate your view with examples or counterexamples!

SUGGESTED SOLUTION

Nganasan and Hungarian definitely confirm the hypothesis. Udmurt is a in-between case. In the case of Mansi, we could expect a greater degree of grammaticalization in the light of the cultural explanation.

Nganasan	complex evidential system	small group, isolated environment
Udmurt	indirect evidential	relatively small group, not isolated environment
Mansi	indirect evidential	small group, relatively isolated environment
Hungarian	no grammatical evidential	large population, not isolated environment

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TASK 2. “Create a story, apply evidentiality!”

Sándor Szeverényi

INSTRUCTIONS:

- Compile and perform a story (10-15 sentences) following the instructions below!
- Imagine a language and define your relationship to the world through evidentiality!
- How could you express your relationships to your information about the world if evidentiality was an obligatory category in your language?

(1) Choose a scene/frame/situation:

- A) The story-teller tells a real story about his/her grandfather. S/he never met him.
- B) Yesterday/Saturday there was a great party in your dormitory/university/home with friends/relatives etc. You, the story-teller, took part at the party. It was your best friend's birthday party that was a surprise for your friend. All of you drank a lot. You too... Today/On Sunday morning you wake up, and do not remember what happened on Saturday night. Try to tell your mother what could have happened. Your party mates are also in that room, and the circumstances can serve as basis for inference and assumption.
- C) You have always planned to keep a unicorn. So one night, in your dreams you meet a ghost who give advice how to take care a unicorn. Next morning you tell the story to your mum.
- D) You want to attend the final of Champions League/concert of Lady GaGa/Tosca in Budapest Opera/Superbowl in Atlanta etc. with your friends. You have got tickets, but your seats are in the worst place: you can not see the stage, just hear the music.
- E) You are a blind person. Please, say something about your ordinary days.
- F) Any other idea... Feel free to make up a story!

(2) Choose a genre:

- A) a conversation with a friend
- B) a speech to an unknown audience
- C) an oral monologue, personal story, life story
- D) a written monologue (e.g., blog)
- E) a tale (folklore)
- F) song, poem etc.
- G) other kind of narrative

(3) Choose (or „create”) a type of evidentiality:

- A) system or strategy
- B) suffixal and/or lexical and/or other means
- C) binary or extended

Example:

Yesterday, I drank-**blublu** a lot. When I woke up in my room today morning, my room was so messy. There was-**tsuptsup** a party yesterday, I do not remember what happened-(**tsuptsup**). Paul, my roommate, told: You drank-**tsuptsup** a lot! I have never seen you drunken!

Yesterday I drank-**REPORTATIVE** a lot. When I woke up in my room today morning, my room was so messy. There was-**INFERENTIAL** a party yesterday, I do not remember what happened-(**INFERENTIAL**). Paul, my roommate told: You drank-**MIRATIVE** a lot! I have never seen you drunken!

indicative	VISUAL, FIRST-HAND
inferential	INDIRECT, FIRST-HAND + mirative
reportative	INDIRECT, HEARSAY, REPORTATIVE-QUOTATIVE

TASK 3. Nganasan 1

Sándor Szeverényi

I. DESCRIPTION

PARTICIPANTS: a current speaker (= narrator/story-teller)
a quoted speaker (an old man)
two children

SITUATION: An old man meets two unknown children. The story was told by the original speaker (= the old man).

MEANS: lexical elements to express epistemic modality/inferential evidentiality

II. QUESTIONS

- (A) Why does the old man use lexical elements besides the suffix of the inferential-evidential mood?
- (B) Does UNCERTAINTY play a role in the choice of between lexical and morphological marking?
- (C) What is/can be the function of AUD in (288)?
- (D) What kind of moods appear in the sentences? What about evidential moods?
- (E) Can we draw a straight line between epistemic modality and inferential evidentiality in Nganasan?

III. TEXT

(Source: Brykina et al. 2018 – MVL_090807_Bebtie_flk.288-292)

(288)

Tə, munu-munu-t'ii:
well say-AUD-3SG

əiʔ, taharia əməniə, bəjku-naŋku-əi, əməniə taharia
oh now this.ACC old_man-DIM-EXCL this.ACC now

n'intuu n'aagəə-məni n'ili-tiə-gəj s'iðti n'üə kat'əmi-ʔə-m.
not good-PROL.SG live-PTCP.PRS-DU two. ACC child.ACC see-PF-1SG.S

'He says: Hey, old man, I saw two children there, not well living.'

(289)

ŋəndiʔiəiʔ n'intuu kərutəndi i-t'üə-gəj n'üə-gəj.
probably not ordinary be- PTCP.PRS-DU child-DU

'Probably, they are not simple children.'

(290)

<i>əməniə-gəi-t'ə</i>	<i>nəŋhə-məni</i>	<i>n'ili-tiə</i>	<i>n'üə-gəj</i>	<i>n'andi-ti-gəj.</i>
this-DU-NOM.PL.2SG	bad-PROL.SG	live-PTCP.PRS	child-DU	seem-PRS-3DU.S

'They **seem** to be poor living children.'

(291)

<i>Kat'əməkəi-t'ə,</i>	<i>kat'əmi-n'ə,</i>	<i>tə</i>	<i>nəmbə-ʔ</i>	<i>maðu-t'i</i>
see-ADMON-2SG	see-IMP.2SG	well	bad-NOM.PL	tent-NOM.PL.3DU
<i>kuə-d'üəd'əə-ʔ</i>	<i>əku</i>	<i>mintiägəni.</i>		
die-PTCP.PST-NOM.PL	maybe	probably		

'Look, ask, **maybe** they are from those camps where people have died.'

(292)

<i>Mintiägəni</i>	<i>is'atə-mti</i>	<i>n'ilu-tə-mti</i>
probably	be-NMLZ-DST-ACC.SG.3DU	herd-DST-ACC.SG.3DU
<i>huu-riə-gəj</i>	<i>n'üə-gəj</i>	<i>əku.</i>
look_for-PTCP.PRS-NOM.DU	child-NOM.DU	probably

'**Maybe**, they, these two children are looking for their parents, probably.'

IV. SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

(A) There are several reasons for using inferential/epistemic lexemes. One is that grammatical evidentials, especially the inferential, rarely occur in quoted speech. Another reason may be that the reasoning is verbally explicit.

(B) In the text, there are inferences and statements of probability, which point to the direction of epistemic tools. It also shows indirectly that evidentials are not likely to be epistemic in themselves.

(C) The exact function is not known. It probably could be to emphasize the fact that a quotation was made.

(D) The speaker does not use verbal moods, neither epistemic (e.g., unreal) nor evidential (e.g., inferential). This emphasizes probability, but also shows that the speaker infers and make predictions.

(E) It seems that, although there are epistemic mood suffixes in Nganasan, Nganasan prefers to use lexical devices to express epistemic content, or in cases where the basis for the inference is explicit.

References

Brykina, Maria & Valentin Gusev & Sándor Szeverényi & Beáta Wagner-Nagy. 2018. Nganasan Spoken Language Corpus (NSLC). Archived in Hamburger Zentrum für Sprachkorpora. Version 0.2. Publication date 2018-06-12. <http://hdl.handle.net/11022/0000-0007-C6F2-8>.

TASK 4. Nganasan 2

Sándor Szeverényi

I. DESCRIPTION

TYPE: folklore, tale
SPEAKER: a storyteller (current speaker) and a metanarrator (the "Mouth")
SITUATION: In Nganasan folklore, there is a so-called metanarrator: *ŋa* or *ŋalaa* 'the Mouth'. The Mouth typically appears at the beginning of the story, as the storyteller. Furthermore, it can appear (or it is quoted) when the scene of the story changes.

II. QUESTIONS

(A) Why is there a need for a metanarrator? What is its role from the viewpoint of information source?

(B) What could the speaker use as an alternative strategy?

III. TEXT

(Source: Brykina et al. 2018 – KES_080721_Disease_flkd)

(1)

<i>tə</i>	<i>ŋa-laa-rə</i>	<i>munu-ntu:</i>	<i>səŋhəl'əŋkə</i>	<i>maðə?əə</i>	<i>malə-baða-tə?</i>
well	mouth-LIM-DET	say-PRS.[3SG.S]	five	tent	build_a_tent-INFER-3PL.R

'The mouth says: "Five tents, they built a nomad camp." '

(2)

<i>birkiai?</i>	<i>bərə-ðu-tuə</i>	<i>maðə</i>	<i>ma-tənu</i>	<i>taharīa</i>	<i>bətənini</i>
the_most	edge-VBLZ-PTCP.PRS.[GEN]	tent.[GEN]	tent-LOC	now	there

<i>birkiai?</i>	<i>bərə-ðu-tuə</i>	<i>maða-ŋku</i>	<i>nən'd'i-ti</i>	<i>n'intuu-t'ə</i>	<i>ani?ə</i>
the_most	edge-VBLZ-PTCP.PRS	tent-DIM	stand-PRS.3SG.S	not-EMPH	big

'There is a small tent at the edge of the camp.'

(3)

<i>əi?</i>	<i>s'iba-?ku-ŋuðu-ðuŋ</i>	<i>n'ii?</i>
oh	worker-DIM-DEF-GEN.PL.3PL	probably

'Servants live in this tent, probably.'

(4)

<i>tə</i>	<i>ŋa-laa-rə</i>	<i>munu-ntu</i>	<i>təndə</i>	<i>ma-tə</i>	<i>taharīaa</i>
well	mouth-LIM-DET	say-PRS.[3SG.S]	that.[GEN]	tent-LAT	now

<i>ŋaŋ</i>	<i>t'ii-ʔə</i>
mouth	come_in-PF.[3SG.S]

'The mouth says, the mouth came into this tent.'

(5)

<i>ŋaŋ</i>	<i>t'ii-d'a</i>	<i>munu-ntu</i>	<i>əiʔ</i>	<i>əm-kümü-rə</i>	<i>təʔ</i>
mouth	come_in-INF	say-PRS.[3SG.S]	oh	this- EMPH-DET	you_know

<i>ŋuʔəiʔ</i>	<i>kuəd'ümu</i>	<i>n'üə-ʔkü-ði</i>
one	man	child-DIM-POSS.3DU

'As the mouth came in, and said: Ah, they only have a boy.'

IV. SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

(A) It is important that the narrator has to mark whether they did or did not see the events narrated. In folktales, the 'mouth' is often used as a metanarrator, which gives the storyteller the opportunity to present events from this fictional perspective. In other words, the story-teller uses this meta-viewpoint to avoid having to indicate the type of information, because this meta-narrator can be everywhere, experiencing and seeing everything.

(B) In a non-folklore text, if the speaker wants to indicate that they cannot see what is happening in the tent, for example, they can use the inferential or a reportative suffix, depending on the situation.

TASK 5. Nganasan 3

Sándor Szeverényi

I. DESCRIPTION

TYPE: Personal story, based on the speaker's own experience.
PARTICIPANTS: 1 current speaker (= narrator)
2 original speakers (the narrator + the narrator's mate)
SITUATION: The speakers of the situation will be taken to Paris. They want to get more information about the journey. The whole (15-24) sample is told by the narrator.

II. QUESTIONS

- (A) How many types of quotation can be recognized? What is the difference?
(B) In this sample, the Reportative suffix is translated as 'they say'. Is it plausible to translate it as 'it is said'? What is the difference?
(C) Who is/are the referent(s) of the endings:

first person:
second person:
third person:

III. TEXT

(Source: Brykina et al. 2018 – NSLC: KES_031115_Paris_nar.15-25)

(15)

<i>Tə,</i>	<i>mij</i>	<i>munu-ntu-mu?</i>	<i>Maa</i>	<i>Bələt'an̄ka</i>	<i>t'erə-?</i>	<i>kuni?iā</i>
well	we	say-PRS-1PL.S	what	Volochanka.[GEN]	resident-PL	how
<i>i-hūā-?</i>		<i>n'i-biā-?</i>		<i>heđiti-?</i>		
be-REP.INTER-3PL.S		NEG-REP.INTER-3PL.S		go-CNG		

'Well, we say: Won't the people from Volochanka also travel?'

(16) (

N'i-biāhi-?
NEG-REP-3PL.S

'No, they say.'

(17)

<i>Abamu</i>	<i>t'erə-raa-?</i>	<i>i-bahu-?</i>
Ust'-Avam.GEN	resident-LIM-PL	be-REP-3PL.S

'Only the people from Ust-Avam, they say.'

(18)

Kanə mətū? ɣanaʔsa-ru? ti-l'ia-ti? n'akələ-ri-ʔki-ʔi-ti? i-bahu.
how_many six person-2PL you-LIM-2PL take-PASS-RES-PF-2PL.R be- REP.[3SG.S]

'How many, they say, only six persons will be travelling.'

(19)

Təʔə, kaŋgə təu-tə-hiā-ni??
after_all when fly-REP.INTER-1PL.R

'Well, what do they say: when do we depart?'

(20)

Maa, biidə t'islo-təni təutə-biāhi-ndi?.
what ten.GEN date-LOC fly-REP-2PL.RS

'Well, they say you will travel on the tenth.'

(21-22)

Əm-kətə, Nəril'iskə-gitə. Küđiā-hü? təu-ʔki-ʔə-ri?.
this-ABL Norilsk-ABL.PL get_up-COND fly-RES-PF-2PL.S/O

'From here, from Norilsk. You will travel tomorrow.'

(23)

Mij munu-ntu-mu?: Tə-tə, kuniʔiā kət'i təu-gu-nu? tagaʔa.
we say-PRS-1PL.S well-well how let_it_be fly-IMP-1PL.R from_here

'We say: Well, we are going to travel.'

(24)

Bənsə latü-ʔə-mu? tahariāi? küđiā-ta-ʔku-d'aa-riāi-?
all get_ready-PF-1PL.S now get_up-NMLZ-DIM-ALL-LIM-ADV

ɣamiājt'ümə t'asə-tənu norbu-btu-ra-ʔa-mu?.
nine.GEN hour-LOC bustle-CAUS-PASS-PF-1PL.S/O

'We packed, they woke us early in the morning, at nine.'

IV. SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

(A) How many types of quotation can be recognized? What is the difference?

- reportative suffix as quotative – (20-23). The speaker used it for direct quotation.
- direct speech – (23)
- direct speech with the interrogative reportative suffix (15)
- reportative suffix in (17) having quotative function – the exact source of the information is clear from the context, namely the organizers of the journey.

(B) 'It is said' could express hearsay. In this text, the source of the information is known from the context: the organizers.

- (C) first person: The narrator and her mates (15, 19, 23, 24).
- second person: The narrator and her mates in the quoted speech of the narrator. Notice that the current speaker is talking about themselves in the second person, not using the indirect speech (there is no shift in person!), e.g., in (20-22).
- third person: The source of information: the organizers of the journey.

TASK 6. Hungarian 1

Sándor Szeverényi

I. DESCRIPTION

(Based on Nóra Kugler's works 2014, 2015. Source: Kugler 2015: 125–126)

SITUATION: Storytelling: The speaker had to watch a short (cc. 30 sec) video about a boy. Then, the speaker must tell the interviewer what they saw, what the video was about.

In a nutshell: A young man runs into a room. He is nervous and busy. He is in a hurry. He is looking for something on the table, under the books, etc.

(link to the video: Kivi film,
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=ouo5zV70tlQ>)

II. QUESTIONS

Collect lexical or morphological elements from the text a single element can belong to several categories) for:

VISUAL EVIDENCE
INFERENCE
LIKELIHOOD
EPISTEMIC UNCERTAINTY
EVALUATION

Collect elements for epistemic modality! Do they also express inference?

III. TEXT

(A) (interviewer's question:)

– Ki ez a fiú? (Whos is that boy?)

– *Hát elég fiatal volt,*
well **quite** young **was**
'well he was quite young'

úgyhogy valószínűleg egy tanuló, meg vagy mondjuk ee
so probably a student, and or nearly.so eh
'so he is probably a student, and, or nearly so, eh...'

minthogyha egy iroda lett volna a helység,
as if a office would_have been the place/room
'as if there hadbeen an office that place'

amibe berohant, tehát inkább hasonlított egy irodára,
 that ran_into so more be_alike a office
 ‘which he ran into, so it was more like an office’

mint egy mondjuk egy szobára valakinek, úgyhogy
 than a nearly_so a room for.someone so
 ‘than, perhaps, a room for someone, so’

az is lehet, hogy fiatalabb tanár
 that too could_be that younger teacher
 ‘or maybe he is a younger teacher’

esetleg tanársegéd vagy ilyesmi,
maybe assistant or like_this
 ‘maybe an assistant or something like that’

de mindenképp valamilyen mm tehát vagy tanuló,
 but in_any_case some_kind_of mm so or student
 ‘but in any case some kind of mm either a student’

aki ugye sok irattal kerül kapcsolatba [laughing],
 who really many document be in contact with
 ‘who has been in contact with a lot of paper (laughing)’

vagy valamilyen tanár, vagy vagy nem tudom,
 or some_kind_of teacher or or not know
 ‘or some kind of teacher or or I do not know’

de nem nem irodának vagy hát mm
 but not not office or well mm
 ‘but not an office, or, well’

tehát nem egy egyszerű szobának tűnt,
 so not a simple room seemed
 ‘so it didn’t seem like a simple room’

de nem is egy ilyen hivatalos helynek,
 but not too a such official place
 ‘but neither an official place’

mer mondjuk nem is úgy volt öltözve,
 because nearly_so no too that.way was dressed
 ‘because he was not dressed like that’

úgyhogy nem nem tudom nagyon eldönteni,
so not not know really decide
 ‘so I can not really decide it.’

de hát vagy tanuló, vagy egy tanár lehetett
 but well or student or a teacher could_have_been
 'but he could have been either a student or a teacher'

Szerintem.

in_my_opinion

'I think'

IV. SUGGESTED SOLUTION

Collect lexical or morphological elements from the text (a single element can belong to several categories):

VISUAL EVIDENCE	<i>elég fiatal volt</i> ('quite – young – was') <i>tűnt</i> ('seemed')
INFERENCE	<i>úgyhogy</i> ('so') <i>lehetett</i> ('could have been') <i>valószínűleg</i> ('probably') <i>esetleg</i> ('possibly')
LIKELIHOOD	<i>valószínűleg</i> ('probably') <i>esetleg</i> ('possibly')
EPISTEMIC UNCERTAINTY	<i>minthogyha</i> ('as if') <i>nem tudom</i> ('I do not know') <i>esetleg</i> ('possibly') <i>tűnt</i> ('seemed')
EVALUATION	<i>elég fiatal volt</i> ('quite – young – was') <i>tűnt</i> ('seemed')

In Hungarian, there is no grammatical evidentiality, it is primarily expressed by lexical means. These have both inferential and epistemic meanings: *lehet*, *lehetett*, *esetleg*, *valószínűleg*.

References

- Kugler, Nóra 2014. The dynamic construal of epistemic meaning. *Argumentum* 10: 403–420.
 Kugler, Nóra. 2015. *Megfigyelés és következtetés a nyelvi tevékenységben*. [Observation and inference in language activity.] Tinta Könyvkiadó, Budapest.

TASK 7. Hungarian 2

Sándor Szeverényi

I. DESCRIPTION

The sample and argumentation is based on Nóra Kugler's works (2014, 2015).

There are some examples for epistential lexemes, *szemlátomást*, *szemmel láthatóan* 'apparently, obviously (to the eye)'. The noun *szem* means 'eye' and the verb *lát* 'to see'.

(In this exercise, morphological glossing was not applied for better understanding.)

II. QUESTIONS

(A) Why 'eye' and 'see' play a role in the lexicalization of inferential/epistemic lexemes?

(B) What is the role of VISUAL/SENSORY EXPERIENCE?

(C) Which examples express POSSIBILITY, ASSUMPTION, INFERENCE?

III. TEXT

(Source and solution: Kugler 2014: 414.)

(11)

<i>A gondos előkészítés</i>	<i>megtette hatását:</i>	<i>a kormányzó</i>	<i>német</i>
careful planning	did the trick:	the ruling	German

<i>kereszténydemokraták</i>	<i>belső ellenzéke</i>	<i>szemlátomást</i>
Christian_Democrats	internal opposition	obviously (lit. obviously to the eye)

<i>elhallgatott</i>	<i>és</i>	<i>így</i>	<i>nem veszélyezteti</i>	<i>az egységdemonstrációt.</i>
has_fallen_silent,	and	so	poses no threat	to the demonstration of unity

'Careful planning did the trick: the internal opposition of the ruling German Christian Democrats has **obviously** (lit. obviously to the eye) fallen silent, and so poses no threat to the demonstration of unity.'

(12)

<i>Clinton szemlátomást</i>	<i>hosszú küzdelemre</i>	<i>igyekezett</i>	<i>felkészíteni</i>
Clinton obviously_to_the_eye ,	(for a) long fight	attempted	to_prepare

<i>amerikaiakat</i>	<i>a terrorizmus</i>	<i>elleni</i>	<i>harcban</i>
Americans	terrorism	against	in_the_war

'**Obviously to the eye**, Clinton attempted to prepare Americans for a long fight in the war against terrorism.'

(14)

Bár a zavarkeltés szemlátomást [Személynév]
Although causing_confusion obviously to the eye, [person's name],

egyik célja lehet, mégis korábbi kiállításaiban az egyes sorozatok
one_of goal may_be but previous in his exhibitions constellations

jóval összetartóbbnak tűntek.
more convergent seemed

'Although **obviously to the eye**, causing confusion may be one of the goals of [person's name], the constellations of his previous exhibitions **seemed** to be more convergent.'

(15)

A gyorsuló infláció közepette ez az álláspont
accelerating inflation in_the_midst_of, this stance

szemlátomást nem tartható.
obviously to the eye no longer tenable

'In the midst of accelerating inflation, this stance is no longer tenable, **obviously to the eye**.'

(17)

Így a látszólag továbbra is ötajtós
this way the seemingly still too with five doors

kocsi négyajtóssá alakult.
car with four doorw has become

'This way the **seemingly** still five-door car has become one with four doors.'

(18)

A tulajdonos látszólag belement az üzletbe, majd
The owner seemingly agreed on the deal, then

a látogatók távozása után értesítette a rendőrséget.
the visitors leaving after he informed the police

'The owner **seemingly** agreed on the deal, then after the leaving of the visitors he informed the police.'

IV. SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

(See details in Kugler 2014!)

(11) The extension in meaning and use typically profile perception/experiencing while keeping the source of sensory information unspecified (allowing for non-visual sources). In (11), whose processing is not hindered by the fact that the utterance profiles the lack of auditory stimuli, or at a more abstract level, the lack of any form of overt political action.

(12) Experience-based inference (inferentiality of the result type).

(14) These two excerpts are examples of epistential modality. In (14), *szemlátomást* may indicate the speaker's observations, but the verb form *lehet* 'may be' makes it clear that the observation is based on unspecified experience, the speaker is voicing their opinion on the goals of the artist, which they have no direct access to.

(15) *szemlátomást* profiles the speaker's personal views and commitments rather than the basis of her inference.

(17) and (18) are based on unreliable perception or inference, the expression is primarily interpreted as a counterfactual marker of deceptive experience (17) or purposeful deception (18).

References

- Kugler, Nóra 2014. The dynamic construal of epistential meaning. *Argumentum* 10: 403–420.
- Kugler, Nóra. 2015. *Megfigyelés és következtetés a nyelvi tevékenységben*. [Observation and inference in language activity.] Tinta Könyvkiadó, Budapest.

TASK 8. Udmurt 1

Rebeka Kubitsch

I. DESCRIPTION

TYPE: narrative (real events)
PARTICIPANT(S): speaker
SITUATION: The speaker's father was on a trip to Moscow but did not pick up his phone and the speaker was nervous. Later it turns out, he lost his phone.

II. QUESTIONS

- (A) What is the interpretation of the second past tense forms in this extract?
(B) What is the motivation for the use of the second past tense?
(C) Consider the particle *pe* at the end of sentence (1). What could be the function of this particle in this sentence?

III. TEXT

(Source: vuflower.blogspot.ru; 11/03/2015; last accessed:07/01/2020)

(1)

<i>Kuke</i>	<i>soku</i>	<i>mama</i>	<i>zvońit'</i>	<i>kar-i-z</i>	<i>no,</i>	<i>Votkinsk-yn</i>	<i>ńi,</i>	<i>pe.</i>
when	then	mom	call.INF	do-PST1-3SG	PCL	PN-IN	already	QUOT

'Some time then mom called me, he was already in Votkinsk, reportedly.'²

(2)

<i>T'el'efon-ze</i>	<i>Krasnoj</i>	<i>ploščad'-e</i>	<i>yšty-sa</i>	<i>kel't-em. [...]</i>
phone-ACC.POSS.3SG	red	square-ILL	lose-CVB	leave-PST2 [3SG]

'He lost his phone in the Red Square.'

(3)

<i>Pumišk-em-my</i>	<i>bere,</i>	<i>jua-šk-i</i>	<i>ińi</i>	<i>ot duši.</i>
meet-NMLZ-POSS.1PL	as	ask-FREQ-PST1 [1SG]	already	sincerely

'As we met, I asked him sincerely.'

² Votkinsk is a town in the Udmurt Republic.

(4)

Už-ze *lešt-em* *no,* *myn-em* *so* *Krasnoj ploščad-'e.*
job-ACC.POSS.3SG do-PST2 [3SG] PCL go-PST2 [3SG] he red square-ILL

‘He did his job, and went to Red Square.’

(5)

Kotyrsk-em.
go.around-PST2 [3PL]

‘He went around.’

(6)

Sere *mil'ym-en* *čaj* *ju-em.*
then pancake-INST tea drink-PST2 [3SG]

‘Then he had tea with pancakes.’

(7)

Mil'ym-ze *t'el'efon-az* *tus* *pukt-em,*
pancake-ACC phone-ILL.POSS.3SG picture put-PST2[3SG]

karman-az *ut'alt-em.*
pocket-IN.POSS.3SG keep-PST2[3SG]

‘He made a picture of the pancake with his phone, and then he kept it in his pocket.’

(8)

Sere *eššo* *porja-m* *na.*
then more walk-PST2 [3SG] more

‘Then he walked more.’

(9)

B. *Ñemcov-ez* *bydt-em* *vyž* *vyl-e* *no* *vuy-l-em.*
PN PN-ACC kill-PTCP.PRF bridge PP-ILL PCL arrive-FREQ-PST2 [3SG]

‘He even reached the bridge, where B. Nemtsov had been killed.’

(10)

Karman-az *pyr-e* *no –* *t'el'efon-ez* *övöl.*
pocket-ILL.POSS.3SG dive-PRS.3SG PCL phone-DEF NEG

‘He dives into his pocket and the phone is not there.’

(11)

Utčá-m - *utčá-m –* *övöl* *šed't-em.*
search-PST2[3SG] search-PST2[3SG] NEG find-PST2 [3SG]

‘He was looking for it but could not find it.’

(12)

Vokzal *pala* *myn-yny* ***karišk-em,***
station PP go-INF **do-PST2 [3SG]**

pojezd-leš *kyl'-ez* *šusa* *kyška-sa.*
train-ABL miss-POSS.3SG³ COMP be.afraid-CVB

'Then he headed towards the railway station because he was afraid of missing the train.'

IV. SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

(A) Hearsay - the speaker acquires the information from their mother and then retells it.

(B) The speaker has only indirect evidence, they can only rely on the words of someone else.

(C) It is a quotative particle and it shows that this piece of information originates from someone else (from the speaker's mother, in this case). It is often used for quoting someone else's words.

³ Grammatically, it should be *kyl'emez*, with an *-m* nominalizer.

TASK 9. Udmurt 2

Rebeka Kubitsch

I. DESCRIPTION

TYPE: narrative (real events)
PARTICIPANT(S): speaker
SITUATION: The speaker wanted to visit a festival but overslept and missed some programs.

II. QUESTIONS

- (A) How would you explain the use of first person second past tense forms in sentence (3) and (8)?
(B) What is the interpretation of the second past tense forms in sentence (9)? What is the information source of the speaker?
(C) Considering sentence (5), what possible interpretations does the second past tense form have?
(D) What is the motivation for using the second past tense form in sentence (7)?

III. TEXT

(Source: udmurto4ka.blogspot.ru; 13/12/2014; last accessed: 25/02/2021)

(1)

<i>Juri</i>	<i>kyl'-i</i>	<i>ta-jaz</i>	<i>ar'na-je</i>	<i>gorod-e,</i>
intentionally	stay-PST1 [1SG]	this-ILL.POSS.3SG	week-ILL	city-ILL

<i>čtoby</i>	<i>vetl-yny</i>	<i>"Voršud"</i>	<i>fest'ival'-e.</i>
so_that	visit-INF	vorshud ⁴	festival-ILL

'I deliberately stayed in the city this week, so I could visit the Vorshud festival.'

(2)

<i>I</i>	<i>mar?</i>	<i>Mon</i>	<i>prospala.</i>
and what?	I		oversleep:PST:FEM

'And what? I overslept.'

(3)

<i>Pervoj</i>	<i>čas-ož</i>	<i>iži-škem</i>	<i>uk.</i>
first	hour-TERM	sleep-PST2.1SG	PCL

'I slept till 1 o'clock.'

⁴ Vorshud is the guardian spirit of the family or the clan.

(4)

Sajka-sa t'el'efon-me pažge-m pote ni val kad'.
wake_up-CVB phone-ACC.POSS.1SG smash-NMLZ want already be.PST1 as_if

'Waking up, I was already close to smashing my phone.'

(5)

Zarjadka-je no pukty-sa, zarjad'it'sa karišky-mte, očkes. [...]
charger-ILL PCL put-CVB recharge:INF:REFL do-NEG.PST2 [3SG] stubborn

'I put it on the charger but it did not charge, stubborn.'

(6)

A mar? Xot' žyry-ze ke no adž-o.
and what? even_if half-ACC.POSS.3SG if PCL see-FUT[1SG]

'And what? It's good if I will see the half of it.'

(7)

Kak raz vu-i, ku pereryv vyl-em.
exactly arrive-PST1 [1 SG] when intermission be-PST2 [3SG]

'I arrived exactly during the intermission.'

(8)

Samoj tunsyko-ze kel'ti-škem.
most interesting-DEF.ACC miss-PST2.1SG

'I missed the most interesting one [programmes].'

(9)

Brangurt pešanaj-jos kyrža-l'am iñi (vuž sostav-ez),
PN grandmother-PL sing-PST2 [3PL] already old lineup-DET

povšedněvnoj trad'icionnoj mot'iv-jos-yn
everyday traditional motive-PL-INST

diš-en pokaz vyl-em ni
clothes-INST presentation be-PST2 [3SG] already

trad'icionnoj no kost'um-jos-yn pokaz vyl-em iñi..
traditional PCL costum-PL-IN presentation be-PST2 [3SG] already

'Buranovskiye Babushki have already sung (the old lineup), the presentation of clothes with everyday and traditional patterns has already taken place, the presentation of traditional costumes has already taken place...'

IV. SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

(A) The speaker acted unintentionally and realized their own actions at a later point (deferred realization).

(B) Here, the second past tense indicates that the speaker was not present during these events, they have not witnessed them. The exact information source cannot be determined as the speaker could see the programme and learnt that they had been over, or, just by knowing the time they could infer about missing these programs. The speaker could also have multiple information sources.

(C) Inference - as the speaker looks at the phone and sees that it has not charged. Or it could be mirative as we would expect a phone to charge if it is on charger, so the actual experience contradicts the expectations. Inferential and mirative interpretations often intertwine.

(D) The motivation could be mirative - since the speaker has just arrived, they are actually present during this intermission, therefore the “standard” evidential interpretation is less likely as it primarily indicates that the speaker has no direct evidence about the events.

TASK 10. Udmurt 3

Rebeka Kubitsch

I. DESCRIPTION

TYPE: educative dialogue for teaching Udmurt
PARTICIPANTS: buyer, seller
SITUATION: the buyer wants to buy currant

II. QUESTIONS

- (A) What is the interpretation of the ‘be’ verb in the second past tense in line (3)?
(B) How does correlate the morphological structure of the ‘be’ verb in line (3) and the meaning of the sentence?
(C) How is this use different from the ones observed in TASK 8 and TASK 9?

III. TEXT

(Source: Udmurt online corpus, social-media subcorpus.)

(1)

<i>Suter-dy</i>	<i>köña</i>	<i>syl-e</i>	<i>(stoit)?</i>
currant-POSS.2PL	how.much	stand-PRS.3SG	cost:PRS.3SG

‘How much does your currant cost?’

(2)

<i>Śu</i>	<i>kyž</i>	<i>mañet.</i>
hundred	twenty	ruble

‘120 rubles.’

(3)

<i>O!</i>	<i>Duno</i>	<i>vyl-em.</i>	<i>Kytyn</i>	<i>ulti-ges</i>	<i>meda?</i>
EXCL	expensive	be-PST2 [3SG]	where	cheap-COMP	PCL

‘Oh! It’s expensive. Where could it be cheaper?’

(4)

<i>Duno</i>	<i>övöl.</i>	<i>Uti.</i>	<i>Bašt-e.</i>	<i>Tabere duno-ges</i>	<i>lu-o-z.</i>
expensive	NEG	cheap	buy-IMP [2PL]	after expensive-COMP	become-FUT-3SG

‘It’s not expensive. It’s cheap. Take it. Later it’s going to be more expensive.’

(5)

Paket-ty *vań-a?* *Kyk* *kilo* *merta-le!*
bag-POSS.2PL exist-Q two kilo weigh-IMP[2PL]

‘Do you have a bag? Weigh me 2 kilos.’

(6)

Til'eštyd *kyk* *śu* *ńyl'don mańet.*
from_you two hundred forty ruble

‘It will be 240 rubles.’

(7)

Tau.

‘Thanks.’

IV. SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

(A) Mirative - the information (the price of the currant) is a novelty to the speaker.

(B) The morphological structure of the ‘be’ verb is past tense and indirect evidential but the interpretation concerns the present. The indirect evidential interpretation is not possible either as the speaker is present and has direct, immediate experience about the price.

(C) In TASK 8 and TASK 9 the ‘be’ verb had always past time reference in accordance with its morphological structure. In this task, however, it refers to the current state of affairs.

TASK 11. Mansi 1

Katalin Sipőcz

I. DESCRIPTION

TYPE: short story, mononarrative
PARTICIPANT(S): storyteller, his mother and father
SITUATION: The storyteller travels home for the holidays from Leningrad, where he studies, and enters his home.

II. QUESTION

Why does the speaker use the evidential forms in (2)?

III. SAMPLE

(Kálmán 1976: 146)

(1)

juw *śalt-s-əm.*
in enter-PST-1SG
'I entered.'

(2)

nosatim *āŋk-əm* *takket* *ōl-əm,* *ās-əm* *χūlpaj-aŋke* *min-əm.*
it_seems mother-POSS.1SG alone be-EV.PST.3SG father- POSS.1SG fish-INF go-EV.PST.3SG

'It seems my mother is alone, my father has gone fishing.'

(3)

am *tawen* *potart-as-əm,* *χumos* *ōl-s-əm,* *χumos* *χańistaχt-as-əm.*
I she.DAT tell-PST-1SG how be-PST-1SG how study-PST-1SG

'I told her how I had lived, how I had learnt.'

IV. SUGGESTED SOLUTION

The past evidential forms are used when the speaker was not present during the event, only perceiving its outcome (his father has gone and mother has left alone at home) – resultative, non-witness function. In example (2), speaking about the mother, the mirative function is also conceivable.

TASK 12. Mansi 2

Katalin Sipőcz

I. DESCRIPTION

GENRE: mythological tale

STORY: A tale about the ancestor of the Munkes people (a Mansi tribe), who was killed by his own mother.

II. QUESTION

How can you explain the use of the given evidential forms?

III. SAMPLE

(Kálmán 1976: 76)

(1)

<i>akwnakt</i>	<i>oma-m</i>		<i>ĕtiŷla-s-ləm,</i>		
once	mother- POSS.1SG		ask-PST-SG.1SG		
<i>muwŷtēs</i>	<i>māχəm</i>	<i>pāstər</i>	<i>māχəm-iŷ</i>	<i>manriŷ</i>	<i>lāw-awe-t.</i>
Munkes	people	Pastər	people-TRL	why	say-PASS-3PL

‘Once I asked my mother why the people of Munkes were called Paster People.’

(2)

<i>taw</i>	<i>lāw-i:</i>	<i>pēs</i>	<i>pōra-t</i>	<i>akw</i>	<i>ēkwa</i>	<i>ōl-əm.</i>
she	say-3SG	old	time-LOC	one	woman	be-EV.PST.3SG

‘She said: A long time ago there was a woman.’

(3)

<i>matm-e</i>	<i>ōrəm-t</i>	<i>piŷ</i>	<i>ōńś-əm.</i>
old-3SG	time-LOC	boy	have-EV.PST.3SG

‘She gave birth to a son when she was getting old.’

(4)

<i>ti</i>	<i>piŷ-e</i>	<i>χūrəm-ńila</i>	<i>χōtal</i>	<i>janiŷm-əm,</i>	
this	son-3SG	three-four	day	grow-EV.PST.3SG	
<i>akwaŷ</i>	<i>χōt-āĩ</i>	<i>jalasa-n</i>	<i>janit-iŷ</i>	<i>ta</i>	<i>jēm-t-əm.</i>
quite	where-NEG	walk-PTCP.PRS	size.of-TRL	PCL	became-EV.PST.3SG

‘Her son grew for three or four days and you see, he became so big he could walk anywhere.’

(5)

<i>maxəm</i>	<i>lāw-ēyət:</i>	<i>taml'e</i>	<i>šāń</i>	<i>ta</i>	<i>ōl-əm!</i>
people	say-3PL	such	mother	PCL	be-EV.PST.3SG

<i>takwi</i>	<i>piγ-e</i>	<i>takwi</i>	<i>ta</i>	<i>al-as-te.</i>
own	son-3SG	own	PCL	kill-PST-SG.3SG

'She killed her own son.'

IV. SUGGESTED SOLUTION

The past evidential forms are used to describe events of the distant past in tales and mythological texts. In sentence (5), the mirative use is also conceivable.

TASK 13. Mansi 3

Katalin Sipőcz

II. QUESTIONS

There are three evidential paradigms in Mansi: present, past and past passive. The past evidential paradigm has subjective and objective forms, the former paradigm refers only to the person and number of the subject, the latter refers to the number of the object, too. The main function of the present-tense evidential forms is to express mirativity, while past evidential forms serve various functions. (Historically, the evidential markers are based on non-finite forms.)

	EV.PRS (MIR)	EV.PST	EV.PASS
1SG	<i>-ne + -m</i>	<i>-m + -ə̃m</i>	<i>-ima + -m</i>
2SG	<i>-ne + -n</i>	<i>-m + -ə̃n</i>	<i>-ima + -n</i>
3SG	<i>-ne + -te</i>	<i>-m + ∅</i>	<i>-ima + ∅</i>
1DU	<i>-ne + -men</i>	<i>-m + -ə̃men</i>	<i>-ima + -men</i>
2DU	<i>-ne + -n</i>	<i>-m + -en</i>	<i>-ima + -n</i>
3DU	<i>-ne + -ten</i>	<i>-m + -ĩy</i>	<i>-ima + -y</i>
1PL	<i>-ne + -w</i>	<i>-m + -uw</i>	<i>-ima + -w</i>
2PL	<i>-ne + -n</i>	<i>-m + -en</i>	<i>-ima + -n</i>
3PL	<i>-ne + -nəl</i>	<i>-m + -ət</i>	<i>-ima + -t</i>

The objective paradigm of the past evidential:

EV.PST SG.O	EV.PST DU.O	EV.PST PL.O
<i>-m + -l-ə̃m</i>	<i>-m + -ãy-ə̃m</i>	<i>-m + -an-ə̃m</i>
<i>-m + -l-ə̃n</i>	<i>-m + -ãy-ə̃n</i>	<i>-m + -an-ə̃n</i>
<i>-m + -te</i>	<i>-m + -ãy-te</i>	<i>-m + -an-e</i>
<i>-m + -l-amen</i>	<i>-m + -ãy-men</i>	<i>-m + -an-men</i>
<i>-m + -l-en</i>	<i>-m + -ãy-en</i>	<i>-m + -an-en</i>
<i>-m + -ten</i>	<i>-m + -ãy-en</i>	<i>-m + -an-anen</i>
<i>-m + -l-uw</i>	<i>-m + -ãy-uw</i>	<i>-m + -an-uw</i>
<i>-m + -l-en</i>	<i>-m + -ãy-en</i>	<i>-m + -an-en</i>
<i>-m + -anəl</i>	<i>-m + (-ãy)-anəl</i>	<i>-m + -an-anəl</i>

(A) What types of evidential forms can you recognize? Write in the missing glosses!

(B) How could you explain the use of the given evidential forms in the examples above?

III. SAMPLE

(1)

ēkwä *kwonä* *kwāl-əs*,
woman out go-PST.3SG

kit *lilij* *pirwä* ***pūwmät-əm***
two alive duck catch-_____

jū *tūl-s-aye*, *alə-s-aye*
in bring-PST-DU.3SG kill-PST-DU.3SG

‘The woman went out, caught two living ducks, brought them in and killed them.’ (VNGY I. 29)

(2)

kwona *kwāl-s-əy*, *kuŋuw-en* *śama* ***pur-ima***
out go-PST-3DU dog-SG.3DU to.death bite-_____

‘They (two) went outside, their dog was bitten to death.’ (OUIDB 1234)

(3)

suns-i: *nāj* *ta-tēm* ***pālt-ima***, *por-ne* ***joχt-əm***
watch-3SG fire so light-_____ por_ne arrive-_____

‘She watches: the fire is burning („has been lighted”), the Por woman has arrived.’ (Kálmán 1976)

(4)

Māńyци кол щёвалыл вāрманыл, таве тирпац ёт пōцгуманыл, татем тāкыг блнэтэ, посым ювле ат харты.

mańsi *kol* *śowal-əl* ***wār-m-anəl***,
Mansi house stove-INSTR do-_____

tawe *tīrpaś* *jot* ***pōsy-əm-anəl***,
that.ACC brick with smooth-_____

tațem *tāk-iy* ***ōl-nē-te***, *posim* *juwle* *at* *xart-i*
so strong-TRL be-_____ smoke back NEG pull-3SG

‘They also made a stove for the Mansi house, reinforced it with bricks, very sturdy, the smoke doesn't come back.’

(LS 2022.1)

IV. SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

(1) EV.PAST.3SG

The past evidential form is used because the speaker was not present during the event (the woman went out and performed the action outside), the speaker only perceives the outcome of the action (she brought in the ducks) – resultative, non-witness function.

(2) EV.PASS.3SG

The past passive evidential form is used because the speaker was not present during the event, only perceives its outcome and speaks about the object (the dog) the action was directed to – resultative, non-witness function.

(3) EV.PASS.3SG / EV.PST.3SG

Again resultative, non-witness function: first, the speaker speaks about the object of the action (the fire) – the passive form is used, then the speaker speaks about the woman who has already arrived – the active evidential form is used.

(4) EV.PAST.SG3PL / EV.PST.SG3PL / EV.PRS.3SG

In the first two clauses, the speaker talks about non-witnessed actions performed earlier and directed towards an object (stove) – past evidential objective forms are used (3PL subject and SG object), while in the third clause, the speaker expresses surprise – the present evidential is used in mirative function.

References

Kálmán, Béla 1976. *Wogulische Texte mit einem Glossar*. Budapest: Akadémiai Kiadó.

LS = *Lujima Seripos*. Mansi newspaper. Khanty-Mansiysk. (<http://www.khanty-yasang.ru/>)

OUdb: Ob-Ugric Database: analysed text corpora and dictionaries for less described Ob-Ugric dialects. (<https://www.babel.gwi.uni-muenchen.de/>)

VNGy = Munkácsi, Bernát 1892–1896. *Vogul népköltési gyűjtemény I–IV*. [Vogul folklore collection, vols. 1–4] Budapest: MTA.

TASK 14. Komi-Permyak 1

Ditta Szabó

I. DESCRIPTION

Independent sentences from language corpus: Komi Kyv Korpus – Perem Komi Jukön (<http://perem.komicorpora.ru/>)

II. QUESTIONS

In the sentences in group A, the use of the second past tense refers to indirect evidentiality, while in the sentences of group B, the verbal form denotes resultativity (an action in the past with a result in the present). Consider the syntactic features of the sentences belonging to the different groups. What syntactic features appear in group A and in group B related to the different functions of the second past tense?

III. TEXT

A1

(1)

<i>Magellan</i>	<i>mun-öm</i>	<i>asyvlaí-ö,</i>	<i>vetlöt-öm</i>	<i>vel'dyr,</i>
Magellan	go-PST2.3SG	East-ILL	go-PST2.3SG	for_a_long_time

<i>a</i>	<i>sybör-yn</i>	<i>lokt-öm</i>	<i>pytlaí-šaí.</i>
and	after_that	come-PST2.3SG	West-DEL

'Magellan went to the East, went for a long time, and came from the West.'

(2)

<i>Syšaí</i>	<i>otir</i>	<i>pond-i-s</i>	<i>töd-ny:</i>	<i>mu-ys – šar.</i>
from_that	human	begin-PST-3SG	know-INF	Earth-DET rounded

'From this time. humans began to understand that the shape of the Earth is rounded.'

(География / Сторожов А. М. // Сторожов А. М. География. 3-öt во (1932))

A2

(1)

<i>A</i>	<i>ačys</i>	<i>Čapajev-ys</i>	<i>krestańin,</i>	<i>bedńacköj</i>	<i>pod-iš,</i>
but	himself	Čapajev-DET	farmer	poor	kind-ELA

<i>Balašovsköj</i>	<i>ujezd-iš,</i>	<i>Saratovsköj</i>	<i>gubernija-iš.</i>
Balašov	district-ELA	Saratov	province-ELA

'But Čapajev himself was a farmer, form the poor kind, from Balašov district, Saratov province.'

(2)

Ućöt god-dez-śań uźav-ny mun-öma.
little year-PL-DEL work-INF go-PST2.3SG

‘He started to work in his childhood.’

(Ойся баитөм / А. Кононов (комиөдіс В. Ф. Савельев) // А. Кононов. Чапаев йылісь расказзээ (1941))

A3

(1)

Kyź řu-öny orgańizator-rez, ućastik-kez löśötc-ömaś bura.
how say-3PL organizer-PL participant-PL prepare-PST2.3PL well

‘As the organizers say, the participants prepared well.’

(Ветераннээ озтісö «Таланттээзлісь енöшка» / Kinko // vk.com (2023-10-12))

B1

(1)

Ötik pustöj kerky remontırujt-ömaś i ker-ömaś setćö muzej.
one empty house renovate-PST2.3PL and do-PST2.3PL to_there museum

‘An empty house was renovated and a museum was founded there.’

(Синтомова деревняись вичкуын / А. М. Старцева // vk.com (2022-09-15))

B2

(1)

Sek tatiś vijs-ömaś una Firsov-vez-ös, top pö ny
Then from_here kill-PST2.3PL a_lot_of Firsov-PL-ACC until PCL well
vylyn völi kytşömkö prokljattö.
on be.PST1 some_kind curse

‘Then a lof of Firsovs were killed there, it is said, some kind of curse had been on them so far.’

(Быдыс пуктіс ассис пай / Kinko // vk.com (2021-10-28))

B3

(1)

Aktovej zal basöksöt-ömaś śaköj röm-a řar-rez-ön,
hall room become_beautiful-PST2.3PL all colour-ADV ball-PL-INS
gerd flažok-kez-en, plakat-tez-en.
red bannerette-PL-INS poster-PL-INS

‘The hallroom was decorated with balls in all kinds of colours, red bannerettes and posters.’

IV. SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

In group A, there are atelic verbs, and the subject of the sentence appears in the position of the subject.

In group B, there are telic verbs, and a valency change can be observed, in which the object of the sentence appears as a subject.

TASK 15. Komi-Permyak 2

Ditta Szabó

Here is the paradigm of the verb *munny* 'to go' in second past tense:

	Sg	Pl
1	–	–
2	<i>mun-öm-yt / mun-öm-at</i>	<i>mun-öm-nyt / mun-ömaś</i>
3	<i>mun-öm(a)</i>	<i>mun-ömaś</i>

QUESTION

What do you think, what is the reason of the missing first person forms in standard Komi-Permyak?

ANSWER

One of the main functions of the second past tense in Komi-Permyak is the expression of indirect evidentiality. As it covers non-witnessed events, logically, the form should not appear in first person. It has to be noted that some dialects have second past tense first person forms though.

TASK 16. Komi-Permyak 3

Ditta Szabó

I. DESCRIPTION

TYPE: short story, mononarrative
PARTICIPANT(S): Komi, Russian and Mansi people
SITUATION: The storyteller talks about his own home village, and the names of the village, the rivers, and lakes.

II. QUESTIONS

(A) What is the type of the text (e.g., tale, legend, article in a journal, fictional text, etc.)?
(B) Which tenses appear in the story? What is the function of the second past tense on the basis of the text?

III. TEXT

(Based on Klimov, Ponomareva 2010: 158.)

(1)

<i>Kosa</i>	<i>ju-lö</i>	<i>ńim-se</i>	<i>šet-ömaś</i>	<i>ńe</i>	<i>Komi-es.</i>
Kosa	river-DAT	name-ACC.3SG	give-PST2.3PL	NEG	Komi-PL.3SG

‘It’s not the Komi people who gave the name Kosa to the river.’

(2)

<i>Kosa</i>	<i>kyv</i>	<i>em</i>	<i>roć</i>	<i>otir-lön,</i>	<i>no</i>	<i>sylön</i>	<i>vezörtas-ys</i>
kosa	word	be.PRS	Russian	people-GEN,	but	it.GEN	meaning-3SG

<i>(ćikiś,</i>	<i>yćkiśan)</i>	<i>ju-ys</i>	<i>ponda</i>	<i>oz</i>	<i>leşav.</i>
(sickle,	scythe)	river-DET	for	NEG.PRS.3SG	suit.CNG

‘Russian people have the word *Kosa*, but its meaning (sickle, scythe) does not suit for the river.’

(3)

<i>Da</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>roć-ćes</i>	<i>oź-żyk</i>	<i>setćin</i>	<i>abu</i>
yes	and	Russian-PL.3SG	early-COMP	there	be.NEG.PRS

ov-l-emaś.

be-FREQ-PST2.3PL

‘Yes, and the Russians had not been there before.’

(4)

A	vot	Mańśi	jez-łen	em	sečöm	kyv,	köda
but	PCL	Mansi	peolpe-GEN	be.PRS	such	word,	that
ju-ys		ńim-lö	löśale-zyk:	Khosa	(mijan		moz – kuź).
river-DET		name-DAT	suitable-COMP	Khosa	(we.GEN		like – long)

‘But well, the Mansi people have such a word that is more suitable to be the name of the river: [that is] Khosa (for us, it’s long).’

(5)

A	Kosa	byliš	ena	mesta-ez-yn	med-kuź	ju.
but	Kosa	really	this	area-PL-IN	SUP-long	river

‘But in this area, Kosa is indeed the longest river.’

(6)

I	Mańśi-es	sy	gögör-yn	ovl-emas	(ńel’ki Mańśi
and	mansi-PL.3SG	that	around-IN	be-FREQ-PST2.PL3	(even Mansi
(Manći)	d’erevńa	em).			
(Mansi))	village	be.PRS).			

‘And the Mansi people have lived there (there is even a village called Mansi).’

IV. SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

(A) Legend, origin of the name of the river Kosa.

(B) Second past tense, present tense. The function of the second past tense in this story is to denote that the event happened in the past and the speaker was not a witness of it. The second past tense form is also a feature of folklore texts marking that the source of the information is unknown.

References

Ponomareva, Larisa 2010. *Komi-permják nyelvkönyv*. ELTE Finnugor Tanszék: Budapest. (Manuscript)

TASK 17. Komi-Permyak 4

Nikolett F. Gulyás

I. DESCRIPTION

TYPE: fictional short story

PARTICIPANT(S): storyteller

II. QUESTIONS

(A) What is the function of the particle *pö* in sentence (2)?

(B) Why do you think the particle is not used in other parts of the text?

III. TEXT

(Source: based on Ponomareva 2010)

(1)

<i>Menam</i>	<i>d'ed</i>	<i>siž</i>	<i>vištaš-l-i-s.</i>
I.GEN	grandfather	so	tell-FREQ-PST1-3SG

'My grandfather used to tell it like this.'

(2)

<i>Körkö</i>	<i>pö</i>	<i>völ-öm</i>	<i>kymör,</i>	<i>kymör</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>kymör.</i>
sometime	PCL	be-PST2.3SG	cloud,	cloud	and	cloud

'Back in the day, there were clouds, clouds, and clouds.'

(3)

<i>Mu</i>	<i>abu,</i>	<i>vör</i>	<i>abu.</i>
land	be.NEG.SG	forest	be.NEG.SG

'There is no land, no forest.'

(4)

<i>Lebž-a-s</i>	<i>kyčömkö</i>	<i>kaj,</i>	<i>košš-ö</i>	<i>pukšy-ny,</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>pukšy-ny</i>
fly-FUT-3SG	some_kind_of	bird	search-PRS.3SG	sit_down-INF	but	sit_down-INF

<i>ñem</i>	<i>vylö.</i>
nothing	onto

'Some kind of a bird is flying, looking for a place to sit down, but there was nothing to sit on.'

(5)

Kaj oröt-a-s bordtyv-sö da ćapk-a-sky mör-ok vylö.
bird tear_off-FUT-3SG wing-ACC.3SG and throw-FUT-3SG cloud-DIM onto

‘The bird tears off its wings and throws them onto a small cloud.’

(6)

Kymor-ys ćorź-a-s — mutor lo-a-s.
cloud-3SG harden-FUT-3SG piece_of_land became-FUT-3SG

‘The cloud hardens – a piece of land forms.’

(7)

Sy vylö kaj-ys pukś-a-s, ov-ny pond-a-s.
that onto bird-3SG sit_down-FUT-3SG live-INF start-FUT-3SG

‘The bird sits down on it and starts living (there).’

IV. SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

(A) The particle *pö* is often used as a quotative particle, it expresses a piece of information that was reported to the speaker. In this sense, it expresses hearsay evidence.

(B) By the use of the particle *pö* (together with the 2nd past tense) the storyteller frames the story which was reported by the grandfather. After this setting, they might not consider it important that the events took place in the mythical past.

References

Ponomareva, Larisa 2010. *Komi-permják nyelvkönyv*. ELTE Finnugor Tanszék: Budapest. (Manuscript)

TASK 18. Meadow Mari

Bogáta Timár

I. DESCRIPTION

TYPE: dialogue
PARTICIPANT(S): Eastern Mari grandmothers
SITUATION: the grandmas gossip about common acquaintances

II. QUESTIONS

- (A) Why is the second past used with the verb of being (*lijân*)?
(B) Why is the first past used in examples (1) and (7)?
(C) What does *maje* mean in Example 4 and why is it in the first past?

III. TEXT

(Source: based on Saypasheva 2018)

(1)

<i>Erikavaj</i>	<i>Balerjik</i>	<i>dek</i>	<i>mar-lan</i>	<i>kaj-âš</i>
Erikavaj	Balerjik	to	husband-DAT	go-PST1.3SG
<i>a</i>	<i>təvečānak</i>	<i>Nästā-m</i>	<i>nal-ân</i>	<i>kaj-âš.</i>
and	from_there	Nästā-ACC	take-CVB	go-PST1.3SG

‘Erikavaj married Balerjik, then she took Nästā and left.’

(2)

<i>Vot,</i>	<i>kuatle</i>	<i>kuva</i>	<i>lij-ân.</i>
see	strong	woman	be-PST2.3SG

‘See, she was a strong woman.’

(3)

<i>Təge</i>	<i>kalas-en:</i>	<i>māj</i>	<i>Balerjik-lan</i>	<i>üčü-m</i>	<i>âšt-en</i>	<i>gāna</i>
this_way	tell-PST2.3SG	I	Balerjik-DAT	revenge-ACC	make-CVB	only
<i>sian</i>	<i>den</i>	<i>Toljik-lan</i>	<i>mar-lan</i>	<i>tol'-â-m,</i>	<i>manân.</i>	
wedding	with	Toljik-DAT	husband-DAT	come-PST1-1SG	in_order_to	

‘That’s what she told: I only married Toljik to have revenge on Balerjik.’

(4)

Kâzât Kolomb-âšto il-a, marij ul-o, maj-e.
now Kolomb-INE live-3SG husband be-3SG say-PST1.3SG

A žü-š-an, maj-e, kokton žü-üt, maj-e.
but drink-PTCP.ACT-DER.ADJ say-PST1.3SG together drink-3PL say-PST1.3SG

‘Now she lives in Kolomb, she has a husband, she said. But they are drunkards, she said, they drink together, she said.’

(5)

Tudo kö tu Balerjik tugaj lij-ân?
he who this Valerjik such be-PST2.3SG

‘Who was this Balerjik?’

(6)

Gennadij-ân ača-že, oš üp-an.
Gennadij-GEN father-3SG white hair-DERIV.ADJ

‘Gennadij’s father, blonde man.’

(7)

Gennadij-lak tu pört gâč tu-š kajâ-št varšâm
Gennadij-PL that house from there-ILL go-PST1.3SG then

Banjuš-âm šket-š-âm kodo-št.
Banjuš-ACC alone-3SG-ACC leave-PST1.3SG

‘Gennadij and his family went from this house to another, then left Banjuš alone.’

(8)

Kunam Säjnavij kovaj den aza-m onžo-š-na me, tunam iктаž
when Säjnavij aunt with baby-ACC see-PST1-1PL we then some

kodlo šamle ijaš gaj-rak lij-ân dâr.
sixty seventy years.old like-COMP be-PST2.3SG maybe

‘When we went to Aunt Säjnavij to see the baby, he was maybe sixty-seventy years old.’

IV. SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS

(A) The second past is used for marking imperfective, a state persisting for a longer period of time. It is the preferred tense for descriptions.

(B) When multiple consecutive events are being told, the first past tense is used.

(C) The speaker emphasizes that she heard the information first-hand from the source, she’s not making it up herself.

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