

# Contents

<b>Contents</b>	<b>i</b>
<b>I Form</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>II Function</b>	<b>2</b>
<b>1 Information flow</b>	<b>3</b>
1.1 Identifying what belongs together . . . . .	3
1.1.1 Intonation . . . . .	3
1.1.2 Pauses . . . . .	3
1.1.3 Positional . . . . .	3
1.1.4 Head and dependent marking . . . . .	4
1.2 Referents and reference . . . . .	5
1.2.1 New referents . . . . .	5
1.2.2 Active referents . . . . .	6
1.2.3 Accessible referents . . . . .	8
1.2.4 Unretrievable referents . . . . .	9
1.3 Identifying new and old information . . . . .	9
1.4 Topic . . . . .	9
1.4.1 New topic . . . . .	9
1.4.2 Non-contrastive topic . . . . .	10
1.4.3 Contrastive topic . . . . .	11
1.5 Focus . . . . .	12
1.5.1 Predicate focus . . . . .	12
1.5.2 Argument focus . . . . .	13
1.5.3 Sentence focus . . . . .	13
1.5.4 Specification . . . . .	14
1.6 Canceling implicatures . . . . .	15
<b>2 Pragmatics</b>	<b>17</b>
2.1 Speech acts . . . . .	17

2.1.1	Providing information . . . . .	17
2.1.2	Requesting information . . . . .	17
2.1.3	Requesting confirmation . . . . .	18
2.1.4	Requesting action . . . . .	18
2.1.5	Allowing . . . . .	18
2.1.6	Answering . . . . .	18
2.2	Blending in the social tissue . . . . .	19
2.3	Speech genres . . . . .	21
2.4	Conversation . . . . .	21
2.4.1	Turn taking . . . . .	21
2.5	Conventions: how to ... . . . .	21
2.5.1	givon2001:319 . . . . .	21
2.5.2	... greet people . . . . .	21
2.5.3	... take leave . . . . .	21
2.5.4	... ask a favour . . . . .	22
2.5.5	... grant a favour . . . . .	22
2.5.6	... decline a favour . . . . .	22
2.5.7	... tell your age . . . . .	22
2.5.8	... thank . . . . .	22
2.5.9	... insist . . . . .	22
2.5.10	... get angry . . . . .	22
2.5.11	... upset people . . . . .	23
2.5.12	... end a conversation . . . . .	23
2.5.13	... tell stories . . . . .	23
2.5.14	... introduce yourself . . . . .	23

**Part I**

**Form**

# **Part II**

## **Function**

# Chapter 1

## Information flow

Information flows deals with the way in which the speakers structures the information she presents so that the hearer's knowledge about the world is modified in the way the speaker intended.

### 1.1 Identifying what belongs together

One important step in structuring information is to indicate what belongs to one unit of information and what does not. The coherence of constituent can be marked by intonation, pausing, and positional information in SLM.

#### 1.1.1 Intonation

Intonatory cues present in SLM are falling pitch for the end of a declarative sentence and rising pitch at the end of interrogative and subordinate sentences ( $\square \rightarrow ??$ , p. ??). By paying attention to these cues, the hearer can segment the speech signal in a number of presuppositions and assertions.

#### 1.1.2 Pauses

An instrumentary analysis of pauses has yet to be undertaken

#### 1.1.3 Positional

Within the phonological phrases identified by the contours, the morphosyntactic head is normally to the right, and modifiers are to the left. This means that the predicate (head) of a sentence can easily be identified. The arguments are then the remaining elements. Similar things can be said about NPs, where the rightmost element is normally the head noun. True, there are some cases where the head is not the rightmost element. This is not very often the case for clauses, but much more common for NPs. This entails that for the hearer, it is much more difficult to establish the constituency of the noun phrase as compared to the constituency of the clause. If one assumes that NPs have little constituency and are more appositional in nature ( $\square \rightarrow ??$ , p. ??), this need not be a problem.

Establishing NPs is also aided by the use of postpositions. These indicate the final boundary of noun phrases. Noun phrases cannot stretch beyond a postposition.

Verbs can be identified by the verbal prefixes *ara-*, *asa-*, *su-* etc, which can only combine with verbs.

Identification of individual words is aided by the bimoraic foot structure with its consequences on vowel length and consonant gemination (□→??, p. ??). On hearing a long vowel or a geminated consonant, the hearer can immediately assume that he is dealing with the penultimate syllable of a lexeme (with the exception of the very limited number of monosyllables with a long vowel.) In this way, a word boundary after the final syllable can be retrieved.

Given the positional restriction of a number of phonemes, which cannot occur in final position, such as palatals or voiced stops, the hearer has negative evidence that a word boundary is not present at that place. The negative cues for the beginning of a word are much weaker. Only /ɲ/ and /j/ cannot occur in this position and hence preclude a word boundary where they occur.

### 1.1.4 Head and dependent marking

SLM does not make use of head marking, but uses dependent marking extensively to indicate the relationship between two words. This is mostly done with postpositions, which indicate the semantic roles of the arguments of a predicate, as in (??).

- (1) *itthu batu=yang inciang seelong=dheri lae nigiri=nang as-baapi*  
 dem.dist stone=acc 3s.polite Ceylon=abl other country=dat cp-brign  
 ‘These stones, he brought them from Ceylon to other countries.’  
 (K060103nar01)

A postposition on the dependent is also used to indicate possessors in the noun phrase: *=pe*. The following example contains five possessive relationships. In all these, the dependent (possessor) is overtly marked, while the head is not.

- (2) *itthu=kaapang [se=pe baapa] [se=pe kaake] [[se=pe*  
 dem.dist=when 1s=poss father 1s=poss grandfather 1s=poss  
*kaakee=pe] baapa] kithang samma oorang [seelon=pe oorang]*  
 grandfather=poss father, 1pl all man Ceylon=poss man  
*pada*  
 pl  
 ‘Then my father and my grandfather and my grandfather’s father, all of us  
 people became Ceylon people.’ (K060108nar02.13)

Furthermore, a number of subordinate clauses indicate their dependent status on the verb. This is the case for clauses with *s-* and *ma-(??)(??)*.

- (3) a. [*pohong=dering baawa=nang asa-thuurung*]  
       tree=abl           down=dat   cp-descend  
       ‘(the monkeys) climbed down from the tree and’
- b. [*oorang ana-baawa samma thoppi=pada asa-ambel*]  
       man   relptl-bring all   hat=pl       cp-take  
       ‘took all the hats the man had brought and’
- c. [*ma-maayeng*]=*nang su-mulain*  
       inf-play=dat           past-start  
       ‘started to play.’ (K070000wrt01)

However, not all subordinate clauses are overtly marked for their dependent status.

- (4) *Blaakang=jo incayang ana-kuthumung [moonyeth pada pohong*  
       after=foc   3s.polite past-see           monkey   pl   tree  
       *atthas=ka ara-maayeng]*  
       top=loc   tns-play  
       ‘Then only he saw that the monkeys were playing on the top of the tree.’  
       (K070000wrt01)

## 1.2 Referents and reference

When several referents are established in discourse, it is important to know what referent is the present topic, the item on which new information (comment) will be given. Four different types of referents are distinguished: *new* referents are those which have not been talked about before, *active* referents are those which are currently topical, *accessible* referents are those which are not topical right now, but are still retrievable, and *unused* referents had already been introduced in discourse but have been superseded by other referents (?). Depending on which of those types the topic of a proposition belongs to, different strategies have to be employed.

### 1.2.1 New referents

In order to comment on referents, one has first to introduce them. This is often done with existential or locative predicates( $\Box \rightarrow ??$ , p. ??)( $\Box \rightarrow ??$ , p. ??)

- (5) *Hathu muusingka ... hathu kiccil ruuma su-aada*  
       indef time=loc ... indef small house past-exist  
       ‘Once upon a time, there was a small house.’ (K07000wrt04)

Very often, the indefinite article is used in presentationals. Another method is to introduce new referents as comment on an already existing topic. In this case, the indefinite article is also used.

- (6) *itthu=kapang baapa derang=pe kubbong=ka **hatthu** pohong*  
 dem.dist=when father 3pl=poss estate=loc indef tree  
*nya=poothong*  
 past-cut  
 ‘The father felled a tree in their estate.’ (K051205nar05)

New referents can also be introduced in adjuncts, as in (??)

- (7) *Andare hathu pohong=pe baawa=ka kapang-duuduk*  
 Andare indef tree=poss bottom=loc when-sit  
 ‘When Andare sat down under a tree.’ ((K070000wrt03))

### 1.2.2 Active referents

are normally not overtly coded in SLM as they are inferable from context.<sup>1</sup> Active referents may also be realized as pronouns for emphasis. Speaker and hearer are always active, which is why they are very often not overtly expressed.

It is possible to drop the agent of the sentence, as in (??), but other roles can also be dropped, as in (??), and dropping several roles is also possible (??).

- (8) *Hindu ara-maakang kambing, Øsamping thuma-maakang*  
 Hindu tns-eat goat beef neg.nonpast-eat  
 ‘Hindus eat goat, they do not eat meat.’ (K060112nar01)

In example (8), the first clause contains an overt reference to *Hindu(s)*. This makes this referent active in discourse. The assertion *aramaakang kambing* is then linked to that referent. In the second clause, the assertion *samping thumamaakang* is to be linked to *Hindu*. Since *Hindu* is the last active referent, overt expression/repetition is not required.

Example (??) shows that other roles than the agent/‘subject’ can be dropped.

- (9) *dee Ø athi-kaasi miskin ooraa*  
 3 irr-give poor man  
 ‘He would give (it=the money)’

<sup>1</sup>This is in sharp opposition to claims that ‘Pro-drop is not found in SLM’ (? :14). From my corpus it appears that pro-drop is rather the rule than the exception.



- (10) *hathu thaau*<sub>n</sub> *se=ppe* *umma-baapa*  $\emptyset$  *se=ppe* *maama=pe* *ruuma=nang*  
 indef year 1s=poss mother-father 1s=poss uncle=poss house=dat  
*su-kiiring*  
 past-send  
 ‘One year my parents sent me to my uncle’s house.’ (K051213nar02)

The following example shows that more than one referent can be dropped in a clause.

- (11) a. *inci*<sub>n</sub>*ang=jo*<sub>i</sub> *s-pi*  
 3s.polite=foc cp-go  
 ‘He goes there and.’  
 b. *paasa-da* *s-pi*  
 shop=dat cp-go  
 ‘goes to the shop and.’  
 c. *itthu* *samma*<sub>j</sub> *s-ba*  
 dem.dist all cp-bring  
 ‘brings everything and.’  
 d.  $\emptyset$ <sub>i</sub>  $\emptyset$ <sub>j</sub> *ara-juuwal*  
 tns-sell  
 ‘sells (it).’ (B060115cvs07a)

The fourth and final clause of (??) consists of the predicate *ara-juuwal*, which takes two arguments, one seller and one produce. The seller *incian* ‘he’ is introduced in the first clause, the produce *itthu samma* ‘all that’ (referring to vegetables mentioned earlier) is introduced in the third clause. Both seller and produce are topical and can thus be dropped in the last sentence.

Another example of more than one referent being dropped is (??), where both agent and patient of the transport are dropped.

- (12)  $\emptyset$ <sub>pat</sub> *ma-mathi-king=nang*,  $\emptyset$ <sub>ag</sub>  $\emptyset$ <sub>pat</sub> *siithu=jo* *ana-baapi*  
 inf-dead-caus=dat there=foc past-bring  
 ‘It was there that (they) brought (him) to make (him) dead.’  
 (K051206nar02)

Nevertheless, realization of pronouns is not ruled out. Active referents may be coded by pronouns or by  $\emptyset$  as the following sequence shows:

- (13) a. *Malay thiiga aanak pada ara-duuduk*  
 Malay three child pl tns-stay  
 ‘There are three Malay children [in this house].’
- b. *ka-thaama anak<sub>new</sub> daathampa klaaki*  
 card-early child copula boy  
 ‘The first one is a boy.’
- c. *incian<sub>active</sub> skaarang=nang Colombo University=ka ara-blaajar*  
 3s.polite now=dat Colombo University=loc tns-study  
 ‘He studies at Colombo University.’
- d. *∅<sub>active</sub> blaajar apa*  
 study after  
 ‘Having finished his studies,’
- e. *mareng doolu incian<sub>active</sub>=na HSBC=ka hatthu pukuran*  
 yesterday earlier 3s.polite=dat HSBC=loc indef job  
*se-daapath*  
 past-get  
 ‘he got a job at the HSBC bank the day before yesterday.’
- f. *kadua Daughter<sub>new</sub> Swarnamali=ka blaajar apa*  
 card-two d. Swarnamali=loc study after  
 ‘The second child, a daughter, studied at Swarnamali School’
- g. *incian<sub>active</sub> French lesson kijja*  
 3s.polite French lesson make  
 ‘and did French’
- h. *∅<sub>active</sub> karang Dialog GSM=ka junior executive hatthu*  
 now Dialog GSM=loc j e indef  
 ‘She is now junior executive at Dialog GSM [phone company].’
- i. *kanabisan anak<sub>new</sub>, incian=na Swarnamali=ka=jo blaajar*  
 last child 3s.polite=dat Swarnamali=loc=emph learn  
 ‘The last child studies at Swarnamali school.’
- j. *incian<sub>active</sub> 2007=ka A-level exam kijja*  
 3s.polite 2007=loc A-level e. make  
 ‘S/he will pass the A-level exams in 2007.’ (G051222nar01)

### 1.2.3 Accessible referents

are referents which are still present in the minds of speaker and hearer, but are not the currently active referent. They need not be overtly realized if there is no risk of confusion.

In example (??), the first clause makes *inciang* ‘he’ active, the third clause makes *itthu samma* ‘all that’ active (and *incian* inactive), and the last clause asserts that a relation of ‘selling’ holds. Sales

require a vendor and a good. Knowledge of the world tells us that vendors are normally people, and goods can be vegetables. We also know that vendors are normally not vegetables, and the entities sold are nowadays rarely people. This means that the two introduced referents do not compete for the semantic roles that *juuwal* ‘sell’ licenses. As a consequence, there is no risk of confusion, and neither referent is overtly expressed/repeated.

- (14) *inciango<sub>i</sub> s-pi, paasa-da s-pi, itthu samma<sub>j</sub> s-ba, Ø<sub>i</sub> Ø<sub>j</sub>*  
 3s.polite=foc cp-go shop=dat cp-go dem.dist all cp-bring tns-sell  
*ara-juuwal*

‘He goes, goes to the shop and brings all those goods and sells (them).’  
 (B060115cvs07a)

### 1.2.4 Unretrievable referents

could not be retrieved. It is probable that they are treated like new referents.

## 1.3 Identifying new and old information

It is important for the hearer to know which information the speaker presumes as known (presupposition), and which information she thinks of as new (assertion). It is also important to know what an utterance is about (topic) and what information is conveyed about the topic (comment).

In SLM, old information tends to occur at the beginning of the clause and is often pronominalized, if it is not dropped altogether. New information, in return, is located at the end of the clause, normally the predicate. The occurrence of the emphatic clitic =*jo* also points toward new information.

## 1.4 Topic

Topic refers to the element about which the sentences says something. We can distinguish ongoing topics, which are treated above under *active referents* ( $\odot \rightarrow ??$ , p. ??) and new topics. Furthermore, we can distinguish contrastive topics and non-contrastive topics.

### 1.4.1 New topic

It is rare for discourse to start of with a new topic. It is more common to introduce a referent in one of the manner discussed in ( $\odot \rightarrow ??$ , p. ??) and then use it as a topic in the following sentence. The following stretch of discourse provides a nice example for this. The new information goes to the right in the first sentence. In the second sentence, it is old information, and is found in topical position at the beginning.

- (15) a. *itthu muusing=ka kithang=nang ana-aajar [irish nuns pada]<sub>newinf</sub>*  
 dem.dist time=loc 1pl=dat past-teach Irish nuns pl

‘In former times, Irish nuns taught us (something).’

- b. *[irish nuns]<sub>oldinf</sub>, derang=pe english baaye, derang baaye=nang*  
 Irish nuns 3pl=poss English good 3pl good=dat  
*ana-aajar*  
 past-teach English nuns  
 ‘Irish nuns, their English is good, they taught well, the English nuns.’  
 (K051222nar06)

New topics can be indicated by *kalu* ‘as for’ (also the conditional marker)

- (16) *sedang kalu suda bannyak tharathaau inni=pe atthas*  
 1s.DAT if thus much ignore DEM.PROX=POSS about  
*ma-biilang=nang*  
 INF-say=DAT  
 ‘So, as for me, I cannot tell you much about this.’ (K051205nar04)

- (17) *kumpulan kalu thuuju oorang*  
 party if seven people  
 ‘If there is a party (for the sacrifice), there are seven people’

### 1.4.2 Non-contrastive topic

Topics are normally  $\emptyset$ , or at the leftmost position (cf.(15)). Since the order of terms before the verb is free, no special morphosyntactic operation (like passivization or extraction in English) is required to put an element into that position.

- (18) *[itthu batu=yang]<sub>top</sub> inciang seelong=dheri lae nigiri=nang*  
 dem.dist stone=acc 3s.polite Ceylon=abl other country=dat  
*as-baapi*  
 cp-brign  
 ‘These stones, he brought them from Ceylon to other countries.’  
 (K060103nar01)

In this case, the stones (*itthu batu=yang*) could be put in any position before the verb, but since this sentence is ‘about’ the stones, they are put in initial position to highlight their topical role.

If the item chosen to be topic is an active referent, it need not be mentioned at all since it is inferable from context (see above).

The passive and the nominalized pseudo-passive ( $\boxminus \rightarrow ??$ , p. ??) do not seem to be used for topicalization strategies. They seem to be restricted to unknown (instead of non-topical) agents ( $\ominus \rightarrow ??$ , p. ??).

### 1.4.3 Contrastive topic

Another kind of topic is the contrastive topic *As for A ... (but) as for B ...*, where two different states-of-affairs hold for two different referents. This can be marked by  $=jo(\boxminus \rightarrow ??$ , p. ??) in Sri Lankan Malay, although this is optional. In a narrative about different waves of Malay immigration to Sri Lanka (K060108nar02), the introduction of the first and second wave as referents receives no special marking, while the third wave is marked as contrastive topic by  $=jo$ .

- (19) a. *ka-dua an-daathang slaves pada,*  
card-two past-come s. pl  
'The second to come were slaves,'  
b. *soldier pada na-baa orang pada.*  
s. pl relp-bring man pl  
'people brought by soldiers.'  
c. *ka-thiga=jō rejiment*  
card-three=emph regiment  
'The third, then, were the regiment [Malays].'

Another example is (??), where foreign countries and the native country are compared. The second item of the comparison ' ' also receives  $=jo$ -marking.

- (20) a. *luwar nigiri kithang=nang ma-pii thara-suuka*  
 outside country 1pl=dat inf-go neg-like  
 ‘We do not want to go abroad.’
- b. *nni nigiri=ka=jo kitham=pe aanak buwa pada=yang*  
 dem.prox country=loc=emph 1pl=poss child fruit pl=acc  
*asa-simpang*  
 cp-keep  
 ‘We have raised our children in this country and’
- c. *inni schools pada=nang asa-kiiring*  
 dem.prox schools pl=dat cp-send  
 ‘We have send them to the schools here.’
- d. *samma asa-kirja karang asa-blaajar pukurjan asa-kirja ambel*  
 all cp-make now cp-learn work cp-make take  
 ‘we have done all that and now they have learned and they have taken up work’
- e. *skarang siini=jo ara-duuduk*  
 now here=foc tns-live  
 ‘and now we live here.’ (K051222nar04)

## 1.5 Focus

Focus is the portion of the utterance which makes the difference between the presupposition and the assertion (?). The elements which are in focus are said to be in the focus domain. If the focus domain includes the predicate, we speak of predicate focus, if the focus domain does not include the predicate, but rather an argument, we speak of argument focus. So *John drank tea.* has two different interpretations depending on the focus domain. *John DRANK TEA* has predicate focus. The presupposition was that John did something, the assertion is that John drank tea, and the focus, the difference between presupposition and assertion is DRANK TEA. We learn that John’s activity consisted in the ingestion of a liquid rather than going out for a hike or some other activity. *John drank TEA* on the other hand has the presupposition that John drank something, the assertion that John drank tea, and the focus domain is TEA alone. We learn that the beverage John consumed is tea, rather than coffee. In the first case, the focus domain includes the predicate ‘drink’, in the second one it does not.

There are two additional minor types of foci, namely sentence focus, where the focus domain covers the whole assertion (and the presupposition is void), and contrastive focus

### 1.5.1 Predicate focus

Predicate focus is the default case. There is no special marking for it in SLM.

### 1.5.2 Argument focus

An argument is put into focus by attaching the clitic =*jo*(□→??, p. ??).

- (21) *Sri Lanka=ka=jo kaving*  
 Sri Lanka=loc=foc marry  
 ‘Marry in Sri Lanka!’ (B060115cvs03)

The focus domain of example (21) is *Sri Lanka*, and does not include *kaaving* ‘marry’. This is clear from the context of the utterance, a dialogue where marriage is discussed. The presupposition is that the addressee will marry, the question is only where. The presupposition is not what the addressee should do in general, marry in Sri Lanka, work in Dubai or drive fancy cars in Monaco. The focus domain restricted to the argument is marked by =*jo* in example (21).

A similar example is (??), where the focus domain does not include the act of saying, but only the content of Mahinda’s utterance.

- (22) [*itthu katha*]=*jo Mahindha ara-biilang*  
 dem.dist quot=foc Mahindha tns-say  
 ‘That’s what Mahinda [Rajapaksa, President of Sri Lanka] is saying.’  
 (K051206nar11)

The focussed element does not have to appear in initial position, as the following example shows

- (23) *itthu kumpulan=dang derang=jo bannyak ara-banthu*  
 dem.dist association=dat 3pl=emph much tns-help  
 ‘It was them who helped the association a lot.’ (B060115cvs01)

The following example also clearly states the presupposition in the first part, but provides the surprising assertion in the second part.

- (24) *Suda kanabisan=ka raaja andare=yang ma-enco-king asa-pii, raaja=jo*  
 thus last=loc king Andare=acc inf-fool-caus cp-pi king=foc  
*su-jaadi enco*  
 past-become fool  
 ‘So finally the king had tried to make a fool out of Andare, but it was the king who turned out to be the fool.’ (K070000wrt02)

### 1.5.3 Sentence focus

Contrastive focus Contrastive focus indicates that a state-of-affairs contrasting with the presupposition holds, as in *John is not a teacher, he is a doctor*. This is also indicated by =*jo*.

- (25) a. *bissar atthu kumpulan thraa*  
           big    indef association neg  
           ‘There is not one big association.’  
       b. *kiccil kumpulan pada=jo*  
           small association pl=emph  
           ‘there are SMALL ASSOCIATIONS.’ (N060113nar01.58)
- (26) *itthu=ka        mlaayu thraa, bannyak=nang english=jo aada*  
       dem.dist=loc Malay neg    much=dat        English=foc exist  
       ‘There is no Malay. What there is, is a lot is English.’ (B060115prs15)

### 1.5.4 Specification

The normal case for a predication is to assert the predicate (*John is a criminal*). It is less common, but also possible, to assert the referent (*The president is Mahinda Rajapaksa*). In the latter case, we do not say something about the individual *the president*, rather we specify to what entity the predicate is.a.president(x) can be applied, in this case *Mahinda Rajapaksa*.

Specification is then very similar to argument focus, and is indeed also coded with =*jo* in SLM, as the following examples show. The difference between argument focus and specification is that =*jo* attaches to the argument in the former, but to the predicate in the latter.

- (27) *suda [itthu    kaake=pe            aade=pe            aanak]<sub>pred</sub>=jo*  
       thus DEM.DIST grandfather=POSS younger.sibling=POSS child=FOC  
       *baapa*<sub>arg</sub>  
       father  
       ‘So that grandfather’s younger sister’s child is my father.’ (K051205nar05)
- (28) *[aanak cuucu]<sub>pred</sub>=jo            [kithang]<sub>arg</sub>*  
       child    great.grand.child=foc 1pl  
       ‘The great.grandchildren are we.’ (K051205nar04)
- (29) *[itthu    kaake=pe            hatthu aanak]<sub>pred</sub>=jo [se=ppe umma]<sub>arg</sub>*  
       DEM.DIST grandfather=POSS once    child=FOC    1s=POSS mother  
       ‘One of that grandfather’s children is my mother.’ (K051205nar05)



- (30) *[[itthu ma-jaaga=nang ana-baa mlaayu]=dering satthu*  
 dem.dist inf-protect=dat past-bring Malay=abl past-bring  
*oorang]<sub>pred</sub>=jo [see]<sub>arg</sub>*  
 bring Malay=abl one man=foc 1s  
 ‘One of the Malays brought to protect him is me’ (K060108nar02)

## 1.6 Canceling implicatures

The knowledge of the world leads the speakers to make inferences based on the communicative content and what it implies. If the speaker assumes that such inferences have incorrectly been made, he can signal this, like English but as in *He is a sports star but he is not rich.* In this case, the conventional implicature drawn from our knowledge of the world (that sports stars are normally wealthy) is overtly canceled by *but*.

In SLM, adversative strategies like above are a lot less common than in English. If implicatures need to be canceled, this is normally done by using *=le*, which is also used for normal coordination (*John is a sports star and he is not rich*).

The following examples show the use of *itthule*. The implicature of paying the ransom was that the speaker would be sent back as he is, but instead and unexpectedly, he is turned into a bear.

- (31) a. *seppe baapa incayang=nang ummas su-kaasi*  
 1s=poss father 3w.polite-dat gold past-give  
 ‘My father gave him the gold.’  
 b. *Itthule see=yang ma-kiiring=nang duppang incayang see=yang*  
 But 1s=acc inf-send=dat before 3s.polite 1s=acc  
*hathu Buruan ma-jaadi su-bale-king*  
 indef bear inf-become past-turn-cause  
 ‘But before he send me back, he turned me into a bear.’  
 (K070000wrt04)

- (32) a. *Sudaaraa TB Jayah inni state council election pada=nang*  
 Brother TB Jayah dem.prox state council election pl=dat  
*duuduk aada*  
 exist.anim exist  
 ‘Brother TB Jayah was in that state council election.’
- b. *thiga-pulu ennam=ka incayang itthu=dering su-kaala*  
 three-ty six=loc 3s.polite dem.dist=abl past-lose  
 ‘He lost in the ’36 elections.’
- c. *kaala=le thara=na=apa incayang=nang appointed member=pe*  
 lose=assoc neg=dat=after 3s.polite=dat appointed member=pos  
*hathu thumpathan=yang government=ka ana-kaasi*  
 indef post=acc government=loc past-give  
 ‘In spite of having lost, he was given a post as appointed member in the government.’ (N061031nar01)
- (33) a. *duwa-pulu ennam riibu empath raathus lima-pulu duuwa votes*  
 two-ty six thousand four hundred five-ty two votes  
*incayang=nang ana-daapath*  
 3s.polite=dat past-get  
 ‘He got 26,452 votes.’
- b. *itthu=nang=le incayang=nang=le inni thumpath*  
 dem.dist=dat=assoc 3s.polite=dat=assoc dem.prox place  
*thara-daapath*  
 neg.past-get  
 ‘In spite of that, he did not get the seat either.’ (N061031nar01)

# Chapter 2

## Pragmatics

### 2.1 Speech acts

#### 2.1.1 Providing information

Assertion has been dealt with extensively in the preceding chapter

Speakers do not only want to provide information. Sometimes, they also want the hearers to do something, e.g. provide missing information or perform a certain action. They might also want to express their agreement with the hearer or someone else performing a certain action.

#### 2.1.2 Requesting information

The most common way to request information is to use a question ( $\odot \rightarrow ??$ , p. ??). Other possibilities are X Y Z.

The clitic =*si* is neutral as to the expected answer. To indicate that one expects a positive answer, the declarative sentence followed by a question tag *bukkang* ‘isn’t it’ is used.

- (34) *ithu saala, bukkang?*  
dem.dis wrong neg.nonv  
‘That is wrong, isn’t it?’ (K060116nar11)

- (35) *kandika ithu Thuan Skiilan aada bukkang*  
Kandy=loc dem.dist Thuan Skiilan exist tag  
‘Now there is this Thuan Skiilan in Kandy, you know.’ (B060115cvs04)

When expecting a negative answer, a negative sentence is used, followed by =*si*.

- (36) *puaasa.muusing thera-duuduk=si?*  
fastin season neg-stay=interr  
‘You were not here during the fasting season, were you?’ (B060115cvs03)

- (37) *terrorist=nang apayang ara-biilang, mlaayu=dering*  
 terrorist=dat what tns-say Malay=abl  
 ‘How do you say “terrorist” in Malay?’ (K051206nar02)

- (38) *simple=nang aapa ara-biilang*  
 simple=dat what tns-say  
 ‘What’s the word for “simple”?’ (B060115cvs01)

### 2.1.3 Requesting confirmation

- (39) *bannyak pukurjan ana-kirja soojor pada-saama, thaau=si*  
 much work past-do European pl=comit know=interr  
*soojor?*  
 European  
 ‘He worked together with “soojors”. You know “soojor”?’ (K061026prs01)

### 2.1.4 Requesting action

The most common way to request action is an imperative construction ( $\odot \rightarrow ??$ , p. ??). Other possibilities are X Y Z.

- (40) *‘Thussa ma-thaakuth’, Buruan su-biilang*  
 neg.imp inf-fear bear past-say  
 ‘“Don’t be afraid,” said Bear.’ (K070000wrt04)

14

- (41) *Binthan auntie=ka caanya, binthan auntie=yang konnyong panggell*  
 Binthan auntie=loc ask, Binthan auntie=acc few call  
 ‘Ask auntie Binthan, call Binthan auntie’ (K060116nar06)

### 2.1.5 Allowing

Allowing is also done via an imperative construction

### 2.1.6 Answering

If the answer to a question reasserts a known referent, it is repeated.

- (42) a. *Q: skuul dikkath=si*  
 school close.by=interr  
 ‘.’  
 b. *dikkath dikkath*  
 close.by close.by  
 ‘.’ (nosource)

**Positive Answer** Positive answers can be given with *iya* ‘yes’ or *saya* ‘OK’. It is also possible and perhaps more common to reassert the queried element as in *maangga aada=si* ‘Are there mangoes?’ – *aada* ‘yes, there are’. In that case, *iya* or *aada* are not used.

**Negative Answer** Negative answers are given with *thraa* ‘no’. It is also possible to repeat the predicate, but with a negative marker like *thera=* or *thama=*. This is much less common for negative contexts than for positive contexts.

- (43) *ithu=kampang derang nya-biilang thraa kithang giithu thama-pii*  
 dem.dist-when 3pl past-say no 1pl like.that neg.nonpast-go  
 ‘Then they said no, we cannot go like that.’ (K051213nar06)

## 2.2 Blending in the social tissue

This section is mainly concerned with politeness. The main expression of politeness are the personal pronouns *??*. By choosing the polite form, distance is conveyed, whereas the intimate form conveys closeness.

When speaking to relatives, the term for the relation may be used instead of the 2nd or 3rd person pronoun. This is also possible with proper names. In both cases, it conveys respect. This use is not possible for 1st person pronouns.

Elder relatives may also be addressed as or referred with the English terms *uncle* and *auntie*. This does not imply that the person is actually a sibling of a parent.

(44)

(45)

(46)

- (47) *Andare=nang asa-panggil ana-biilang* ‘Sedang Andare=*pe* *biini*=yang  
 Andare=dat cp-call past-say 1s.dat Andare=poss wife=acc  
*ma-caanda suuka.*  
 inf-meet want  
 ‘He called Andare and said: “I want to meet Andare’s wife”.’  
 (K070000wrt05)
- (48) *Aashik=nang hathu soldier ma-jaadi suuka=si katha ara-caanya*  
 Aashik=dat indef soldier inf-become like=interr quot tns-ask  
 ‘He asks if you want to become a soldier, Ashik.’ (B060115prs10)
- (49) *Sebastian saathe maakang aadasi*  
 Sebastian sate eat exist=interr  
 ‘Have you eaten sate, Sebastian?.’ (B060115cvs02)
- (50) *Sebastian puddas ara-maakang=si*  
 Sebastian spicy tns-eat=interr  
 ‘Do you eat spicy food, Sebastian?.’ (B060115cvs02)
- (51) *Sebastian su-kaaving=si*  
 Sebastian past-marry=interr  
 ‘Are you married, Sebastian?’ (B060115cvs03)
- (52) *sedang thaau mosthor=nang inni=jo inni kithang=pe*  
 1s.dat know manner=dat dem.prox=foc dem.prox 1pl=poss  
*inni Seelong=nang political news*  
 dem.prox Ceylon=dat political news  
 ‘As far as I know, this is the political news for Sri Lanka.’ (N061031nar01)

## 2.3 Speech genres

## 2.4 Conversation

How is conversation organized?

### 2.4.1 Turn taking

How is turn taking organized? *bukkang* indicates that another turn is to follow

## 2.5 Conventions: how to ...

### 2.5.1 givon2001:319

### 2.5.2 ... greet people

While the other native ethnic groups in Sri Lanka do not express greetings verbally, this is different for the Malays. The most common greeting is *slaamath*, which can be uttered at arrival or departure, and also on the telephone. It can be complemented by the period of the day *slaamath paagi* ‘good morning’, *slaamath soore* ‘good afternoon/evening’, *slaamath maalang* ‘good night’. More informal greetings do not exist, but English *hello* can be used for such purposes.

More formal is *slaamath dhaathang* ‘welcome’, which can be uttered at the same occasions as its English counterpart.

### 2.5.3 ... take leave

When leaving, one can use *slaamath* as described above, or one can use *spi daathang* ‘come and go’. This is modelled on analogous construction in Sinhala and Tamil. The rationale for this is that it is considered unfortunate to say *I leave* because that might mean departure from this world. Therefore, one has to specify that one will return, and this is done by adding the *daathang* ‘come’ part. Optionally, the *spi*-part can be left out, which leaves the curious situation that you can say *I am coming* to indicate you are leaving, as in the following example.

- (53) *sedang ara-late, bukkang, see ara-dhaathang*  
 1s.dat tns-late tag 1s tns-come  
 ‘I am getting late, aren’t I, goodbye.’ (B060115cvs08)

**2.5.4 ... ask a favour****2.5.5 ... grant a favour****2.5.6 ... decline a favour****2.5.7 ... tell your age**

There are two ways to tell your age, one modelled on the European pattern and one on the Lankan pattern. The European pattern is stating the number of your last birthday, while the Lankan way is stating the number of your next birthday with the verb *ginnap* ‘complete’. Both cases put the argument in the dative case, in the examples *sedang*.

- (54) *karang sedang ennam-pulu liima uumur*  
 now 1s.dat six-ty five age  
 ‘Now I’m sixty-five.’ (N060113nar03)

- (55) *sangke nyaari sedang limapullu tawon aragənnap*  
 until today 1s.dat fifty year tns-complete  
 ‘I am in the course of my fiftieth year on earth.’ (K060108nar01.15)

**2.5.8 ... thank**

Just as with greetings, Sinhalese and Tamils do not use verbal means for this function, but Malays do. The normal way of thanking is *thriima kaasi* ‘thank give’.

**2.5.9 ... insist****2.5.10 ... get angry**

14

- (56) *lorang pada asadaathang saapa=pe=ke baa thaangang=ka=jo pukurjan magijja*  
 2pl pl cp-come who=simil under hand=loc=foc work inf-make  
*athijaadi katha*  
 irr-become quot  
 ‘You will always have to work under someone’s command’ (K051206nar07)



**2.5.11 ... upset people****2.5.12 ... end a conversation****2.5.13 ... tell stories**

- (57) *karang liyath kithang=pe tsunami atthas=ka ini aapa*  
 now see.imp 1pl=poss tsunami about=loc dem.prox what  
*ara-jaadi katha*  
 tns-become quot  
 ‘Now see(hear) what happened with this Tsunami.’ (K061127nar03)

**2.5.14 ... introduce yourself**

- (58) *sudaara sudaari se=ppe naama Wahida Jamaldiin*  
 brother sister 1s=poss name Wahida Jamaldeen  
 ‘Brothers and sisters, my name is Wahida Jamaldeen.’ (B060115prs05)