con'jump'
thuk thuk conba
'to palpitate'
'to heat at the rhythr

pin pin čonba 'to beat at the rhythm of a pulse'

phan phan čonba 'to jump jerkily'

phərən phərən čonbə 'to take jumps in quick succession' phran phran čonbə 'to jump in a bouncing fashion'

láw- 'soft'

nəp nəp láwbə 'to be supple'

haw- 'start'

grun grun həwbə 'to be a tumultuous start'

han- 'open'

sət sət hanbə 'to open in quick succession'

húk- 'eat'

kok kok húkpa 'to put into the mouth in quick succession'

sa- 'hot'

phon phon saba 'to get so hot that steam appears'

lumbu lumbu sabə 'to be lukewarm'

sút- 'blow'

liri liri sútpa 'for the wind to blow softly'

# Chapter 9 Functional and pragmatic aspects

This chapter describes the encoding of epistemic modality and pragmatics by the formal categories covered in Chapters 3–7, concentrating on how the force of direct speech acts are attenuated through particular lexical or affixal morphology and through indirect speech acts. I also discuss how the formal categories discussed in Chapters 5, 6 and 7 are used to encode evidentiality.

# 9.1 Indirect speech acts

In chapter 5, I showed how sentence types are signalled in Meithei and I described what speech acts these sentence types perform. The default mapping between a sentence type and the speech act it conveys can be utilized through unconventional mappings to modify the communicative force of a particular sentence. In many cases it is culturally more appropriate to use an indirect speech act or in some other way attenuate the force of a direct speech act.

# 9.1.1 Commanding

The force of a command issued through the use of -u 'imperative' and -nu 'prohibitive' can be attenuated either through particular words or affixes or through the use of interrogative or supplicative sentences.

## 9.1.1.1 Attenuating commands with words or affixes

A command can take the shape of a request through the use of the words čan-bidúnə 'please', thə́wjanbidúnə 'kindly', or nínsibidúnə 'affectionately' (Ch. Yashawanta Singh 1984 and B. Premavati Devi 1988).

(1)	a. čanbidúnə			isiŋ	ədu		thákpiyu	
	čan	-pi	-túnə	isiŋ	Э	-tu	thák -pi	-u
	let	-REC	-ING	water	ATT	-ddet	drink -REC	-IMP
	pleas	e		water	that		please drink	
	Plea	se drink	the wat	er!'				

b. tháwjánbidúna ayna
tháw -ján<sup>99</sup> -pi -túna ay -na
duty -let -REC -ING I -CNTR
kindly I

háyjəribəsi yábiyu
háy -čə -li -pəsi yá -pi -u
say -SELF -PROG -DCOMP agree -REC -IMP
saying that for youself
'Kindly accept my request!'

c. níŋsibidúnə layrik əsi
níŋ -si -pi -túnə layrik ə -si
desire -PDET -REC -ING book ATT -pdet
please book this

aynónda píbiro

ay -ŋón -tə pí -pi -lə -o

I -to -LOC give -REC -INT -SOLCT

to me won't you please give

'Please give this book to me!'

The force of a command can also be reduced by placing an easily attainable upper limit to the task that the addressee will have to perform in order to fulfill the conditions of the imperative. This limit is indicated by use of *khərə* 'some' as in (1d) or *amukta* 'just once' as in (1e).

háŋbiru (1) d. Tombəgi nabə khərə hən -pi -lu Tomba -ki па -pə khərə ask -REC -ADIR-IMP -GEN sick -NOM some Tomba please go and ask Tomba's to be sick some 'Please go and inquire about Tomba's illness.'

-lém -tə

mə

e. nəháknə Tombədə əygi
nə -hák -nə Tombə -tə əy -ki
2P -here -CNTR Tomba -LOC I -GEN
you to Tomba my
pəysadugi mərəmdə

-ki

pəysa

-tu

əmuktə níŋsíŋkho

a -muk -tə níŋ -síŋ -khi -o

ATT -once -LOC desire -wise -STILL -SOLCT

once again inform

'Please (just do this and) inform Tomba about my money.'

When the two adverbs are used in conjunction the task is made to seem easier still.

(1)f. əygi wá khərə əse wá khərə Э -si Эγ -ki -GEN word ATT -pdet some word this some my

amukta tábiyu

a -muk -ta tá -pi -u

ATT -once -LOC listen -REC -IMP
once again please listen

'Please listen to me!'

The force of a command can also be reduced with suffixes that urge the hearer to do some action for the sake of the speaker, for the hearer's own sake, or because the doing of the action is the right thing to do. These are -pi 'V for someone other than self' as in (1g); -co 'reflexive', which urges the hearer to perform the relevant action for his/her own sake as in (1h,i); and -how 'inceptive' which indicates an objective evaluation that it would be beneficial for V to be performed as in (1j,k).

(1) g. thákpirənu

thák -pi -lə -nu

drink -REC -PRO -PROBH

'Please don't smoke!'

h. thúna hánlakčaw
thú -na hán -lak -ča -u
quick -ADV return -DISTAL -SELF -IMP
quickly return
'...please return soon.'

(2)

a. nən

i. nəŋnə lakpədə čák čárəkčəw lak -pə čák čá -lək nən -nə -tə -u you -CNTR come -NOM -LOC rice eat -DISTAL -SELF -IMP upon coming you food eat 'Eat before you come (or you won't feel good).'

j. nan asida layhaw
nan a -si -ta lay -haw -u
you ATT -pdet -LOC be -START -IMP
you here sleep
'You sleep here (that will be best).'

k. tačawnə pháhəwge
tačaw -nə phá -həw -ke
elder brother -CNTR good -START -OPT
by elder brother to want it to be good

kánnəhəwge
kánnə -həw -ke
use -START -OPT
to want to be useful

'Elder brother, you want it to be good, you want to make it useful.'

## 9.1.1.2 Attenuating the force of commands through indirect speech

ədudə

Declarative, interrogative, solicitive and supplicative sentences can be used to issue a command or request. A suggestion for some course of action may be expressed in a declarative sentence as in (2a).

-phém ə nən -tu -tə NM-place ATT -ddet -LOC you place that you čátpa pháy čát -pə -í phá -NOM good -NHYP is good to go 'You had better give this shirt to Tomba.'

məphəm

The force of a command can be softened by framing it indirectly in the form of a solicitive as in (2b). Additional weakening of imperative force can be accomplished with -pi 'action done for others' as in (2c).

(2) b. phómmo

phóm -lo -o

sit -INT -SOLCT

'(Won't you) go ahead and sit!'

c. oza oza leŋbiro
oja oja leŋ -pi -lə -o
teacher teacher go ahead -REC -INT -SOLCT
'Teacher, teacher, won't you go ahead and go!'

Expressing a command with -u 'imperative' or an interrogative with -o 'solicitive' are functionally distinct. An imperative is used to command a stranger or someone of the same age as the speaker, while an interrogative with -o 'solicitive' is used for commands to younger familiars or between familiars that have an intimate or well-established relationship (husband to wife, son to mother, student to teacher). The interrogative with -o 'solicative' is an unacceptable form for a command to a stranger (Ch. Yashawanta Singh 1984: 224).

Such conventional appropriateness guidelines can be utilized creatively by a speaker to negotiate the social distance he/she would like to place between himself/herself and the hearer. For example in (2d), the speaker uses both an -u 'imperative' and -o 'solicitive' with the same addressee, establishing first a distant relationship and then moving to a more intimate one.

d. yeŋbiyune məkha ləvkaygi (2)ləy -kay -ki -kha -pi -u mə -REC -IMP -GEN -SI NM -south be -roost please look southern our neighborhood

Pebəmgi Ibotombinə
Pebəm -ki Ibotombi -nə
Pebəm -GEN Ibotombi -CNTR
family Pebam Ibotombi of

tawribase

taw -li
-pasi
-pasi
yen -pi
-o

do
-PROG
-DCOMP
see -REC -SOLCT
what is doing
please see, will you

"...see what that Ibotombi Pebam from the south side of our neighborhood is doing, please look at that."

When an imperative is used unconventionally between familiars, the sentence has a sarcastic interpretation (Ch. Yashawanta Singh 1984: 224).

(2) e. habiyu habiyu
ha -pi -u ha -pi -u
have -REC -IMP have -REC -IMP
'Please have it, please have it.'

There are certain situations where a choice of ways to issue a command do not exist. When one is asked permission to V, for example, the appropriate way to give permission is to use an -o 'solicative'. 101

(2) f. Request: čátge Response: čátlo

čát -ke čát -lə -o
go -OPT go -INT -SOLCT
'I'd like to go.' 'Why not go!'

Interrogatives express commands by asking whether the addressee wants to perform a required action as in (2g,h), what the intent of the addressee is about the action that needs to be performed as in (2i), and what the best course to follow would be as in (2j).

(2) g. phurit əsi Tombədə pígerá
phurit ə -si Tomba -tə pí -ke háy -pə -lə
shirt ATT -pdet Tomba -LOC give -OPT say -NOM -INT
shirt this to Tomba do you want to give
'Will you give this shirt to Tomba?' (Literally: 'Do you say you want
to give...')

```
әdи
                                       sáku
h. nəŋ
           isáv
           isáy
                                       sək
                                              -u
  nəŋ
                   Э
                               -tu
                   ATT
                               -ddet
                                              -IMP
           song
                                       sing
  you
                                       sing
                   that
  vou
           song
```

sókkerá
sók -ke háy -pə -lə
sing -OPT say -NOM -INT
do you want to sing
'Sing that song, will you?'

i. fijól hóŋgədra әтә -kə -lə -čón hón -tə phi Ð -mə change -POT -NES -INT cloth -weave ATT -one will you change dress one 'Will you (kindly) change into another dress?'

j. phijól əmə hóŋbənə
phi -čón ə -mə hóŋ -pə -nə
cloth -long ATT -one change -NOM -INST
dress one for changing

phágadra
phá -ka -ta -la
good -POT -NES -INT
will it be good
'Wouldn't it be better to change into another dress?'

A supplicative is used to urge the listener to join in some action with the speaker; therefore, when it is used to issue a command, the speaker is implying that both the speaker and hearer will be performing the action. This indirect method of issuing a request helps the hearer save face since he/she does not have to follow a command but is invited to participate in an action. Ch. Yashawanta Singh (1984: 281) illustrates that the request can be made extremely polite by suggesting that the invitation is issued by the hearer as in (2k).

k. fijol hónkhisirá ama -mə hón -čon ə -khi -si háy -Jə cloth -long ATT -one change -STILL -SUP say -NOM -INT dress one shall we change 'Would you kindly change into another dress? (Literally: 'Are you saying that we should change into another dress?")

# 9.1.2 Requesting permission

A polite and respectful way to ask for permission is with -ke 'optative' which expresses the desire of the speaker to perform some action as in (3a). The request is extra polite with -čə 'V for the sake of self' as in (3b). A less idiomatic but acceptable way of asking for permission is to make the optative clause a subordinate clause as in (3c).

(3) a. əy apəl čáge
 I apəl čá -ke
 I apple eat -OPT
 'May I eat this apple?' (Literally: 'I intend/wish to eat this apple.')

b. čátčage
čát -ča -ke
go -SELF -OPT
'May I go?' (Literally: 'I wish for myself to go.')

yágədra c. əy učéksi pháge yá -kə -t⊋ -lə phá əy učék -si -OPT agree -POT -NES -INT I bird -PDET catch will you agree I this bird want to catch 'May I catch this bird?' (Literally: 'I intend to catch this bird, do you agree?")

## 9.1.3 Warning

In the default case, warnings and admonishments are issued through imperative or prohibitive constructions. A warning may also be given through a permissive where a speaker knows that a state is undesirable but feigns indifference as to whether or not it is attained (N. Nonigopal Singh 1987: 84). Examples such as (4a,b) can be used as a kind of warning, translating roughly as 'Just let V happen, see if I care'.

(4) a. sasənu b. má padəsənu
sa -sənu má pa -tə -sənu
hot -PERMIT he read -NEG -PERMIT
'Let him suffer from the heat!' he don't let him read
'Let him not read (see if I care)!'

## 9.1.4 Persuading

Exhortations can be expressed through causative constructions; for example, in (5a) someone (2nd person) can be urged to allow the speaker to perform an action. The person who is to perform the action may be a third party as in (5b).

təwhəllu thábák adu a. əybu təw -həl -u -tu thébék e əy -pu -CAUS -IMP -ddet do I -PAT work ATT cause to do that work 'Let me do the work.' (Literally: 'Cause me to do the work.')

b. phámhanganu
phám -han -ka -nu
sit -CAUS -POT -PROBH
'Don't let him sit!'

## 9.1.5 Blessing or cursing

Blessings or curses can be expressed through imperatives as in (6a,b) or with the solicative as in (6c).

(6) a. pátlu b. nunnayyu c. khállo
pát -u nunay -u khán -o
ulcer -IMP happy -IMP wise -SOLCT
'May you suffer from scabies!' 'Be happy!' 'Be wise!'

Similarly when -sənu 'permissive' is used with stative verbs, the speaker is urging the listener to allow the state referred to in the verb to be attained. Thus, permissives are used to issue blessings as in (6d,e).

(6) d. má nunaysənu
má nunay -sənu
he happy -PERMIT
he let be happy
'May he be happy!' (Literally: 'Let him be happy!')

óysənnu tháwján píbə nənbu e. ishoma tháw -čán pí óv -sənu -pə nən -pu ishor -nə -CNTR you -PAT duty -let give -NOM be -PERMIT may it be kindness to give you god 'May god bless you!'

# 9.1.6 Indirect questions

Questions can be posed through the interjection -ha 'please repeat that' as in (7a). See also section 7.3.4 for a discussion of the enclitic -ye 'confirmative' which can also be used to solicit information.

a. Tomba

nəsi nə -si day -PDET this day 'Today.'

Tombi:

ha ha inti

> what's that "What's that?"

Tomba:

baro púŋ nəsi baro púŋ na -si time twelve day -PDET twelve hour this day

'Today at twelve o'clock.'

The quotative háybə along with rising intonation can solicit information. In (7b), the speaker (the character, Son) asks a participant in the conversation to restate in clearer terms what he/she has just implied: namely, that the police have arrived to arrest Nimay. With this use of the quotative, the speaker indicates a certain amount of skepticism or uncertainty about the questioned proposition.

lak?ibá b. Nimay phábə lak -li háy -pə Nimay phá -pə -NOM come -PROG say -NOM Nimay arrest Nimay to arrest coming 'You mean to say, they've come to arrest Nimay?'

# 9.2 Evidentiality

Evidentiality -- the identification of the source of information (Bybee 1985: 184) -- is encoded in disparate formal categories in Meithei. As noted by Willett (1988: 51), "there are only a few languages in the world where evidentiality is represented by a distinct grammatical category; rather its meaning is usually coded as part of the modal system of a language with overlap into certain areas of tense and aspect." In Meithei evidential values are signalled through derivational verb morphology (in particular the indirect evidence, aspect and direction markers, see section 7.1); the class of enclitics called attitude markers (see section 7.3); the complementation system (such as the choice of nominalizer or complementizing quotative, see sections 6.1 and 6.2); and the type of question construction used (see section 5.6).

# 9.2.1 Evidentiality in the complementation system

In choosing a particular nominalizing or complement-constructing device to use in a given utterance, the speaker must consider the evidential value placed on the subordinated proposition, since particular nominalizers, complementizers and quotatives convey distinct evidential values.

#### 9.2.1.1 Lexical nominalizers

As described in section 6.1.1, a phrase or clause may be nominalized by a lexical nominalizer like -jat 'type' which indicates that an action or state has occurred or come into being on the basis of some indirect evidence. For example in (8a) the speaker sees that some object is battered and from this draws the most probable conclusion that it was beaten. Similarly in (8b), the speaker professes to have at first been unaware about the writing of the letter in question but has now become aware of it (through someone else's report of the letter to him).

(8) a. məsi phúrəbəjatni
mə -si phú -lə́bə -jat -ni
NM -pdet beat -HAVING -TYPE -COP
this is a type of having been beaten
'It looks like it might have been beaten.'

b. mədəy əy əhənnə
mə -tu -təgi əy ə -hən -nə
NM -ddet -ABL I ATT -first -CNTR
then I old man

məŋóndəJohndəčithimə -ŋón -təJohn -təčithi3P -to -LOCJohn -LOCletterto himto Johnletter

pieyčdi irəmjatne ayse pieyčdi -si -jat -ləm -ne Эy Ph.D. -EVD -TYPE -SI I -PDET write Ph.D. my wrote

'Then, it seems that the old man wrote a letter to John for my Ph.D. under his supervision.'

The nominalizer -jat may also be used with the - $l\partial$  'interrogative' to indicate that it would be contrary to the speaker's expectation if the proposition in the nominalized phrase actually occurred. If the proposition has already come into being, the speaker expresses surprise at this occurrence.

(8) c. má nəran skul má nəran skul he yesterday school he vesterday school

čátpajatla

čét -pe -jat -le go -NOM -TYPE -INT

'Could it be that he went to school yesterday?!'

# 9.2.1.2 The evidential value of nominalized clauses

Speakers make functionally determined choices between using a verb with finite inflection or a nominalized phrase with copula -ni as the main predication of the clause. In (9a,b), for example, where a nominalized clause is made into a copulative sentence, the speaker indicates knowledge about the truth of a proposition; but in (9c), which has a finite verb, the assertion does not imply the truth of the proposition with the same force.

lənthok?ábəni phi ədu (9)a. əynə lən -thok -lébə -ni phi ə -tu eu- ve -HAVING -COP throw -OUT I -CNTR cloth ATT -ddet have thrown out that cloth '(It is that) I have thrown out that cloth.'

tumməkpəni nayhák b. má -ni tum -lək -pə -hák má ŋay sleep -DISTAL -NOM -COP -here wait he was sleeping up to now he '(I could swear that) up to now he was here sleeping.'

c. əynə phi ədu

əy -nə phi ə -tu

I -CNTR cloth ATT -ddet

I cloth that

lanthokhre

len -thok -khi -le -e throw -OUT -STILL -PERF -ASRT have thrown out 'I threw out that cloth.'

The nominalizer -pa may be used to head a complement when the speaker has some knowledge supporting the truth of the complement. Consequently, this complementizer is not found with verbs such as 'believe' or 'think'.

The knowledge supporting the truth of the proposition may be based on sensory evidence as in (9d), predictable habitual activity as in (9e,f) or a generally known fact as in (9g).

(9) d. mánə ləybáktə pukhɨm má -nə ləy -pák -tə pu -khɨm he -CNTR land -broad -LOC carry -obstruct he on the floor plate

thámba tíy
thóm -pə ú -í
place -NOM see -NHYP
placing see
'(I) see him placing the plates on the floor.'

thoybə pamde e. Ramna *Tombibu* thoy -pə pam -tə -е Tombi -pu Ram -nə first -NOM like -NEG -ASRT -CNTR Tombi -PAT Ram Tombi to win does not want Ram 'Ram doesn't like the fact that Tombi won.'

háy f. mána каррә həy -í kap -pə má -nə ten proficient -NHYP shoot -NOM he -CNTR arrow is proficient shooting arrow he 'He knows how to shoot an arrow.'

thákpa pháy g. səngom phá -í -khom thék -pə sən good -NOM -NHYP -udder drink cow to drink good milk 'To drink milk is good.'

Determiner complementizers are used when the proposition in the complement is an undisputed fact in the discourse. -pasi is used if the event described in the complement either takes place in the immediate past, is to take place in the immediate future, or is a permanent condition.

(9) h. Tombəbu kasidəgi
Tombə -pu ka -si -təgi
Tomba -PAT room -PDET -ABL
Tomba from this room

cáthankhibasi aynani
cát -han -khi -pasi ay -na -ni
go -CAUS -STILL -DCOMP I -CNTR -COP
that caused to go it is I
'I am the one that caused Tomba to leave the room. (We are now sitting in the room, and Tomba has recently left.)'

If the event described takes place in the remote past or describes a single occurrence of an event, then -padu is used.

(9) i. Tombəbu kadudəgi čáthənkhibədu

Tomba -pu ka -tu -təgi čát -hən -khi -pədu

Tomba -PAT room -DDET -ABL go -CAUS -STILL -DCOMP

Tomba from the room that caused to go

əynəni

əy -nə -ni
I -CNTR -COP
it is I

'I am the one that caused Tomba to leave the room (in the past).'

takhibədu isin ŋəraŋ -khi -pədu пэгап isiŋ ta -DCOMP -STILL fall yesterday water that would fall vesterday water

əynə khənnî əy-nə khən -i I -CNTR know -NHYP I know

'I know the water was turned on yesterday.'

Since a complement headed by -pəsi or -pədu indicates an undisputed fact, these complementizers do not occur with verbs that express potentially unrealized states or events (verbs such as 'think and believe'), or verbs that indicate an uncertainty of outcome (verbs such as 'wants to, would like it if'). Thus (9k) is ungrammatical.

(9) k. \*nupidunə nádu

nu -pi -tu -nə ná -tu

person -female -DDET -CNTR fish -DDET

that woman that fish

phábəsi pammí
phá -pəsi pam -i
catch -DCOMP like -NHYP
that catching wants
'The woman wants to catch fish.'

# 9.2.1.3 The distribution of the complementizers

The distribution of the four complementizers háybə, háybəsi, háybədu, and háynə can be determined by taking into consideration how much evidence the speaker has for the proposition expressed in the complement and the tense of the main clause. Each complementizer is used with some unique combination of these two values.

The quotative complementizer  $h\acute{a}ybsi$  is used when the speaker is certain about the truth of the proposition as in (10a).

(10) a. məháknə thoyre
mə -hák -nə thoy -lə -e
3P -here -CNTR first -PERF -ASRT
she had won

háybəsi Tombinə khənni háy -pəsi Tombi -nə khən -i say -DCOMP Tombi -CNTR know -NHYP that Tombi knew that she had won.'

When used in the future tense, háybəsi indicates that the proposition in the complement will certainly come into being; for example, in (10b) the speaker conveys his/her certainty about the outcome of the elections.

kakhigədra mánə (10) b. botsi -lə -khi -kə -tə má -пә ka -si bot -CNTR gain -STILL -INT -POT -NES -PDET he vote

háybəsi əy ki
háy -pəsi əy ki -i
say -DCOMP I fear -NHYP
that I fear
'I am afraid (because) he is certain to be winner of the elections.'

háybəsi can be opposed to háynə, which is used when a speaker is not sure about the truth of a proposition as in (10c).

Dilidə (10) c. šuti mənuŋdə Dili -tə -tə čhuti mə -ոսդ -LOC Delhi -LOC -in holiday NM Delhi holiday during

> wákhálni aphába čátpase -khén -ni wá -pəsi -phá -pə čát -good -NOM word -think -COP -DCOMP ATT go idea is that going good

háynəTombənəyárəmmíháy -nəTomba -nəyá -ləm -ísay -INSTTomba -CNTR agree -EVD -NHYPthatTombaagrees

"Tomba thinks that it is a good idea to go to Delhi for the holidays."

In the future tense, the use of  $h\acute{a}yn\eth$  indicates that the proposition in the complement might come into being, but the speaker has no evidence to show that it certainly will, as in (10d,e). For this reason  $h\acute{a}yn\eth$  can be found to occur with verbs that describe the attitude of the speaker towards the subordinated proposition (e.g. verbs such as 'believe, think, and doubt') and it is never used with verbs of knowledge or acquisition of knowledge (e.g. 'know', 'discover'). This explains a further fact about the distribution of  $h\acute{a}yn\eth$ : it is the quotative-complementizer that is used with verbs of saying where the speaker reports the words of someone else but cannot be sure of their truth value, as in (10f,g).

tházáy háynə əvnə čugani (10) d. nóŋ tházə -í əy -nə -ni háy -nə ču -kə nón -CNTR believe-NHYP say -INST I fall -POT -COP rain believe that will fall rain 'I believe that it will rain.'

kakhigədra mánə e. botsi -lə -tə -khi -kə ka má -nə bot -si -STILL -POT -NES -INT he -CNTR rise vote -PDET will win he this vote κί əν hávnə -1 ki háy -nə Эγ fear -NHYP say -INST fear that 'I am afraid that he (might just) be the winner of the elections.'

čátkhre Tombi f. Tombana -e -khi -lə Tombi čát Tomba -пә -STILL -PERF -ASRT -CNTR Tombi go Tombə Tombi has gone Tomba háyrəmmí háynə/\*háybəsi

háy -nə háy -ləm -í
say -INST say -EVD -NHYP
that said
'Tomba said (to me, the speaker) that Tombi left.'

phúgəni g. Tombəbu həyeŋ phú -kə -ni hayen Tomba -pu beat -POT -COP tomorrow -PAT Tomba will beat tomorrow Tomba

háynə/háybəsi háy
háy -nə háy -í
say -INST say -NHYP
that said

'It is said that Tomba will be beaten tomorrow.'

As seen in (10f),  $h\acute{a}yb \not= si$  cannot be used since the proposition involves hearsay. In (10g),  $h\acute{a}yb \not= si$  is marginally acceptable if the event of beating is indisputably going to take place but in (10f,g)  $h\acute{a}yn \not= si$  is the most appropriate complementizer.

The use of háybə indicates that the speaker has some evidence (not necessarily visual) about the truth of the proposition expressed in the complement. Its use is restricted to verbs such as 'know' and 'see' and it never occurs with propositional attitude verbs such as 'believe' and 'think'. Note that háynə cannot be used in (10h), since háynə can only occur with propositional attitude

verbs. (Thus, if the complement in (10h) occurred with khalli 'thinks, feels', háyna could be the complementizer.)

(10) h. Raninə Tombidə layrik pibəsi
Rani -nə Tombi -tə layrik pi -pəsi
Rani -CNTR Tombi -LOC book give -DCOMP
Rani Tombi book that giving

háybə/\*háynə khənni Johnna phátte khən -i phá -tə -е háy -pə John -nə -NOM know -NHYP John -CNTR good -NEG -ASRT say know that John is not good 'John knows that it is not good that Rani gave the book to Tombi.'

i. má thón mərumdə lotli
má thón mə -lum -tə lot -li
he door NM -behind -LOC hide -PROG
he door behind hiding

háybə əy khəŋŋí
háy -pə əy khəŋ -i
say -NOM I know -NHYP'
that I know
'I know that he is hiding behind the door.'

má khənní háybə čágəni əy čák má khən -í čá -kə -ni háy -pə əy čák eat -POT -COP that -NOM he know -NHYP I rice he knows I food will eat that 'He knows that I will eat.'

The quotative complementizer  $h\acute{a}ybadu$  is used when the speaker has first-hand evidence of the truth of the subordinated proposition. When using it to refer to a past event, the speaker implies he/she is an eyewitness to that event.

(10) k. əhəldunə yén húráli
ə -həl -tu -nə yén húrán -li
ATT -old -DDET -CNTR chicken steal -PROG
that old man chicken stealing



háybədu/*háybə/*háynə	əynə	)	ily	
háy -pədu	I	-nə	ú	-í
say -DCOMP	I	-CNTR	see	-NHYP
that	I		saw	

'I saw the old man stealing the chicken.'

When  $h \acute{a} y b \circ d u$  is used, the hearer can assume that the speaker has irrefutable facts to support the truth of the subordinated proposition. The speaker may use this expected interpretation to convince the hearer of a particular forecast for the future, by indicating that he/she has adequate facts to make such a forecast. This is limited to cases where it is clear to the speaker that his/her interlocutors may not agree with this assessment of future events and the speaker must make an extra effort to convince his/her interlocutors of the forecast being made. See (101) where the speaker is trying to convince his skeptical family that a book he would like to publish will have a market.

Since with the use of háybədu the speaker is indicating a degree of knowledge about the subordinated proposition that the hearer is not privy to, háybədu cannot be used with present tense when the speaker and hearer have access to the same event. This point is illustrated in (10m). Where the tense of the main verb is kawthorəmmi (past perfect) or kawthok²i (nonhypothetical past), the complement gets a past reading and háybədu may be used as the complementizer. If the main verb were kawthok²i (progressive), háybədu could not be used.



(10)	m.	Tombənə	$Tombin  ilde{ ho}$	mábu	ŋayhəwri
` '		Tomba -nə	Tombi -лә	má -pu	ŋay -həw -li
		Tomba -CNTR	Tombi -CNTR	he -PAT	wait -START -PROG
		Tomba	Tombi	(for) him	begun waiting

háybədukawthorəmmiháy -pədukaw -thok -ləm -isay -DCOMPforget -OUT -EVD -NHYPthatforgot completely

'Tomba forgot that Tombi had been waiting for him.'

Only one quotative complementizer is possible per sentence, except with verbs of saying and reporting, where each complementizer indicates that the speaker is one additional step removed from the actual reporting of some event. This is illustrated in (10n) where Tomba is reported as stating that Tombi has gone. There is an implication that Tomba has witnessed Tombi's departure. This is in keeping with the earlier description of háyna as occurring only with complements for which the speaker has no direct perceptual evidence, since the speaker hasn't seen Tombi leave but only heard about the departure from someone else.

čátkhre (10) n. Tombənə Tombi Tombi čát -khi -]ə Tombe -ne -STILL -PERF -ASRT Tomba -CNTR Tombi go Tombi has gone Tomba

háynə háyrəmmí
háy -nə háy -ləm -i
say -INST say -EVD -NHYP
that has said
'Tomba said that Tombi went.'

If the reporting is removed a step further from the source of the original report, one more level of embedding is added. For example, in (100) Tomba sees Tombi leaving, reports the fact of Tombi's departure to a friend, who in turn reports Tomba's statement to the speaker, who is now reporting the departure to the hearer.

čátkhre (10) o. *Tombana* Tombi Tombe -ne Tombi čát -khi -lə -е -PERF Tomba -CNTR Tombi -STILL -ASRT Tomba Tombi has gone hávnə háyrəmmí háyye háy -ləm -í háy -ye háy -nə

say -INST say -EVD -NHYP say -CONFM have been told that

'Tomba told (someone to tell me) to say that Tombi went.'

There are certain types of discourse, such as political campaign speeches, where the speaker wants the audience to accept propositions as fact. This is accomplished by subordinating clauses with a quotative complementizer, which allows the speaker to give credit and responsibility about the truth of a statement to an outside authority other than the self. It is easier to imagine this outside authority, rather than the speaker, presenting unbiased information. Thus, the pragmatic function of the quotative is determined on the basis of the type of discourse it is used in. On the one hand, in personal interactions or in traditional narratives, the speaker-narrator can use the quotative to distance herself/himself from a statement to show that the truth of the statement is questionable. On the other hand, in discourses that are meant to persuade and convince, the speaker can use the quotative to distance himself/herself from a statement and, without any hint of self-aggrandizement, work to convince the hearer/audience of the validity of that statement.

## 9.2.1.4 Restrictions on tense and aspect in subordinate clauses

There are restrictions on the subordination of clauses in the assertive future (i.e. *V-kəni*). As seen in examples (11a-d), when *V-kəni* appears in a subordinate clause, the quotative must be used as the subordinator. This restriction is attributable to the inability of the speaker to be totally sure of the occurrence of a future event. The use of the quotative indicates that the speaker can only predict that it will take place.

## (11) a. with a relative clause

\*čágənibə must be čágəni háybə´
čá -kə -ni -pə čá -kə -ni háy-pə
eat -POT -COP -NOM eat -POT -COP say-NOM

b. with a complement

\*čágənibədu must be čágəni háybədu

čá -kə -ni -pədu čá -kə -ni háy -pədu

eat -POT -COP -DCOMP eat -POT -COP say -DCOMP

'that (he) will eat'

c. with a complement

páykhrəgəni kolomdu mánə páy -khi -Jə -kə -ni má -nə kolom -tu he -CNTR hold -STILL -PRO -POT -COP -DDET реп will hold that pen he

háybədu čúmmí
háy -pədu čúm -í
say -DCOMP true -NHYP
that is true
'It is true that he is going to hold the pen.'

d. with adverbial subordination

\*čágənirəbədi

\*čá -kə -ni -ləbədi eat -POT -COP -IF

must be:

čágəni háyrəbədi
čá -kə -ni háy -lə -pə -ti
eat -POT -COP say -PRO -NOM -DLMT
'if (he) will eat'

A second restriction is noted by P. Madhubala Devi (1979: 178), who shows that conditional clauses headed by the sequence -labadi cannot occur with progressive and perfect aspect. Thus to make a conditional clause of (11e), the quotative must be used as the subordinator as in (11f). Implicit in the meaning of the conditional clause is the fact that the speaker has no evidence about whether or not the proposition in the embedded clause has ever existed. Thus the quotative must be used for subordination.

```
čáre/čárəmmi
(11) e. má
               čák
                                                          -li
               čák
                           -lə
                                   -e
                                                  -ləm
       má
                                              eat -EVD -PROG
                       eat -PERF -ASRT
               тісе
       he
                                             eating
       he
               meal
                      has eaten
       'He has eaten/was eating.'
```

	čák		-lə -PERF	-e -ASRT		-ləm -EVD	-li -PROG
that if tha	-lə -PRO at	-NO	-ti M -DI	LMT en/if he	it is	i - good	-í -NHYP

## 9.2.1.5 Summary

Thus the choice of complementizer is a formal representation of the meanings obtained from the superimposition of tense and evidentiality. The relevant

Table 1. The intersection of tense, evidence and complementation

Compleme	ntizer Tense	Meaning/Use		
V-pə V-pəsi V-pədu	present present/future past	eyewitness, habitual, generic generally known, existent state generally known		
háybədu	past future	eyewitness claim for sufficient evidence to infer future event/state		
háybəsi	present future	assert to be true assert will be true		
háynə háybə	past/present/future present	guess/belief/hearsay inferential		

tense distinctions are past, present and future. The relevant evidential distinctions are: generally known, asserted (known but nature of evidence not explicit), eyewitness, inference, guess/belief and hearsay.

## 9.2.2 Other evidential markings

In the inflectional morphology, as noted in Chapter 5, declarative sentences formed through the suffixation of the nonhypothetical marker indicate a mild assertion, whereas those formed through the suffixation of an assertive marker indicate a strong assertion. The strong assertion is possible because the speaker has a strong belief in the truth of the proposition being expressed. (See section 5.1 for examples and further discussion.)

Inflectional aspect in questions can indicate what previous knowledge a speaker has about the topic being questioned. In (12a), the speaker has no inkling whether or not the actor of the sentence does or does not chew betelnut, but in (12b), with use of the perfect marker, the speaker implies that he/she knows that the actor does indulge in the habit of chewing betel-nut, so the question is whether he/she has done so recently.

(12) a. məhák kwá čábra

mə -hák kwá čá -pə -lə

he -here betel nut eat -NOM -INT

he betel nut does he eat

'Does he chew betel-nut?'

b. kwá čárəbra
kwá čá -lə -pə -lə
betel nut eat -PERF -NOM -INT
betel nut has he eaten
'Has (he) already eaten betel-nut?'

Derivational markers may also carry evidential value. Bhat and Ningomba (1986b) note that there is an implication with -haw 'inceptive' that the speaker is a witness to the initiation of an action. If the action is to take place in the future, the speaker has access to evidence that allows an accurate prediction of what is to occur in the future.

(12) c. túren pahawwí
túlen pa -haw -í
river overflow -START -NHYP
river began to overflow
'The river was overflowing (when I was there).'

d. məhák yolhəwgəni
mə -hák yon -həw -kə -ni
3P -here sell -START -POT -COP
he will start to sell
'(Under the circumstances I'm sure that) he will sell it.'

Similarly, in (12c) where -haw is used, the speaker indicates that he/she knows that Tomba has arrived at the place in question. In (12d), however, the speaker has no prior information about whether Tomba has come or not.

(12) e. həwjik Tomba lak?əmbədu -ləm -pədu Tombə lak həwjik -DCOMP -EVD Tomba now come Tomba that coming now

#### úhəwbra

ú -həw -pə -lə see -START -NOM -INT

have seen now

'Did you just see Tomba around here?' (Literally: 'Have you begun to see that coming of Tomba's just now?')

f. nan Tomba lakpa úbra
nan Tomba lak -pa ú -pa -la
you Tomba come -NOM see -NOM -INT
you Tomba to come
'Did you see Tomba?'

-la 'prospective' also has evidential value in that it implies that the speaker can see or has knowledge of the culminating point of an action. For example, in (12g) the speaker bases the statement on knowledge of a specific plan of action.

(12) g. numit tarəhədi тí loynə loy -nə mí -ti numit ta -lə -pə -ADV all -PRO -NOM -DLMT man fall day all man if it falls day

tumnərəgəni
tum -nə -lə -kə -ni
sleep -RECIP -PRO -POT -COP
will be going to sleep
'When the sun sets we will all be going to sleep.'

For the same reason, in questions such as (12h) the speaker expects for the theme to be engaged in Ving.

čátladra (12) h. nəŋ yum -lə čát -lə -tə yum nəŋ -PRO -NES -INT house go you should you not be going you house 'Aren't you on your way home yet?'

When used with the prohibitive marker, the use of -lo indicates that the speaker knows of the possible implementation of a plan and asks that this plan not be carried out.

(12) i. čátlənu j. háythok?urənu

čát -lə -пu háy -thok -lu -lə -пu
go -PRO -PROBH say -OUT -ADIR -PRO -PROBH
'Don't go after all.' 'Don't reveal my secret (after all).'

Finally, the primary purpose of indirect evidence marker -lam, discussed in section 7.1.2, is to indicate the evidential value of a proposition.

## 9.2.3 Asking questions

When asking a question, the speaker can indicate what answer he/she expects to elicit. For example, when the interrogative marker is suffixed to a noun (as in (13a), it acts like a tag marker: the speaker holds a belief that the proposition in the question is true and asks for confirmation of that belief. However, when suffixed to a verb or a nominalized verb as in (13b) the interrogative

(13) a. həyen cutila
həyen cuti -lə
tomorrow holiday -INT
tomorow is it a holiday
'Is tomorrow a holiday?'

b. sémdok?əbro
sém -thok -lə -pə -lə -o
correct -OUT -PERF -NOM -INT -SOLCT
'Did they complete the corrections?'

#### 9.2.4 Conclusion

In this section I have shown how the category evidentiality is encoded in various formal categories of Meithei grammar. Table 2 provides a summary of types of evidence indicated and examples of formal marking that encodes these values. The Meithei evidential system consists of a basic distinction between perceptual evidence (seen, heard or felt) and the lack of it. Even though it is a covert category (with no formal location), and is low on the "hierarchy of elicitability" (Silverstein 1979: 234), evidentiality is functionally important in Meithei since native speakers need to take evidentiality into consideration every time a clause is subordinated.

Table 2. Summary of evidential values grammatically indicated in Meithei

Evidence	Meaning	Formal marking
perceptual	eyewitness to an event	háybə
inferable	knowledge gained through observable evidence or intuition	nominalizer <i>jat</i> ; -ləm 'indirect evidence'
indirect	assuming validity of proposition based on 2nd or 3rd hand	other quotative complementizers
indirect	knowledge found in oral history, culturally shared knowledge	nominalizer -pə

# Appendix I Meithei-English glossary

This glossary lists Meithei roots and words that occur in this book as well as minimal pairs useful in the study of Meithei tone. Entries are alphabetized according to the Bengali alphabet. The chart below should be read, line by line, from left to right.

Э	é	a	á	i	í
u	ú	e	é	0	ó
k	kh	g	gh	• •	ŋ
k č	čh	j	j̇́h		
t	th	d	dh	n	
p	ph	b	bh	$\mathbf{m}$	
	r	1	w		
y š	<b>S</b> .	h	•		

Main entries are roots; secondary entries (indented one tab) are related compounds and stems. Ideophones are listed under the verbs they describe. Proper names are listed in phonetic transcription; their common transliteration on the right, along with indications as to whether it is a masculine or feminine name and the meaning or origin of the name. Place names are also included with commentary if necessary. Borrowed words are followed by [E], [B], [H] or [IA] to indicate borrowing from English, Bengali, Hindi-Urdu or from an Indo-Aryan loan not further specifiable. Dashes between words indicate compound phrases or common collocations. Dashes after a form indicate that it is a bound root. A category label, from the following set, is provided after each entry:

adj.	adjective
adv.	adverb
conj.	conjunction
¢omp.	complementizer
det.	determiner
ideo.	ideophone
intj.	interjection
n.	noun
pn.	pronoun
Quant	quantifier