

Verbs of speaking in Nganasan: A corpus-based approach

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Abstract

The study aims at categorizing verbs of speaking and thinking in Nganasan. All verbs that can be associated with thinking and speaking are examined in the texts found in the annotated Nganasan Spoken Language Corpus (Brykina et al. 2018). The approach as a whole is rather formal and quantitative, primarily focusing on which verbs are involved in constructing report speech. It can be shown that in the Nganasan texts, several verbs express utterances, but according to their number of occurrences, *munu-* ‘say’ is the most common and most frequently used verb of speaking. According to the distribution in the corpus data, it seems that the overall number of verb-of-speaking is not high.

Keywords: Nganasan, verbs of speaking, corpus study

1 Introduction

Verbs referring to acts of verbal communication (*verba dicendi*) have already been studied in numerous languages (Zwicky 1971, Lehrer 1988; in Sinitic languagesd Chappell 2008; in Igbo Mmadike 2015; in Mishnaic Hebrew Shemesh 2002, among others), but this topic has not yet received much attention in the the literature concerning Samoyedic languages. According to Austin’s description (1962: 92–132), an utterance is an activity which is composed of three actions: locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts. Most studies that deal with verbs of speaking focus on illocutionary acts. However, the action as described above can include both locutionary and illocutionary acts.

A prototypical speaking event usually includes the following participants: the addresser (speaker), the addressee (hearer), the information, the topic (the thing or the person that the speech is about), and sometimes the instrument. These latter two participants are less prototypical.

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The speaker is usually the subject of an active sentence in the nominative case, and its referent is human. The addressee is the indirect object of the clause and is usually expressed by a noun in a dative(-like) case or by an adpositional construction. The information is the direct object of the clause and, depending on the language, can be marked in one of several means, but it is usually in the accusative (or nominative case). Example (1) illustrates the prototypical speaking event.

(1) *Peter told the news to Julian.*

There are some verbs with which the addresser cannot transmit information to the addressee. To this group belong such verbs as ‘speak’ or verbs characterizing speech such as ‘whisper’ and the circumstances of speech production such as ‘speak quickly’. These verbs emphasize the action and not the result like the verbs of the former group.

(2) *The director is speaking now about Julian.*

There are some important differences between the verbs of the two groups mentioned above. One of these is transitivity. The verb ‘tell’ in (1) is transitive, requires a direct object, and its indirect object acts as addressee, while the verb ‘speak’ in (2) is an intransitive verb and can have an indirect object, however, this can only be the topic (in this case, Julian), and not the addressee. With verbs like ‘tell’ and ‘say’, indirect and direct quotations can be introduced (see section 3 below). Introducing indirect quotations is not possible with verbs like ‘speak’.

In this study we use a wider definition, thus we consider all verbs referring to any type of verbal behavior to be speaking verbs. Consequently, not only information verbs are examined, but also directives like ‘ask’, verbs expressing emotions like ‘scold’, etc.

It is not easy to set up a semantic system that describes the speech events in all their facets. The reason for this is that although “illocutionary force is an important aspect of constructing semantic classes, but the manner of speaking, means of communicating, conversational interactional, and textual sequencing are also important semantic notions are incorporated into verbs” (Lehrer 1988: 159).

The purpose of this study is to categorize verbs of speaking and of thinking in Nganasan based on corpus data. For this goal, we examine all verbs that can be associated with thinking and speaking. Our approach is rather formal and quantitative. It is not our goal to explore all illocutionary speech acts which are expressed by one of the speech verbs.

1.1 Nganasan: An overview

Nganasan belongs to the Samoyedic group of the Uralic languages and is spoken in Northern Siberia on the Taimyr Peninsula. Usually, two dialects of Nganasan, Avam and Vadeyev, are distinguished, even though they are mutually intelligible. Nganasan is an agglutinating language with a high degree of fusion and complex morphophonology. Verbs are inflected for tense and mood and agree in person and number with their subjects. There are three types of conjugation: subjective, so-called objective, and reflexive. If the clause has an object which is known from the context (but not necessarily expressed lexically), the verb agrees in number also with the object, thus it takes the verbal ending of the objective conjugation set (e.g. Helimski 1998, Wagner-Nagy 2019, among others). The mood system is very rich, there are twelve moods (including a developed system of evidential forms).

Nouns are inflected for number, case, and possessivity. There are three syntactic cases (Nominative, Accusative, and Genitive) and four local cases (Lative, Locative, Elative, and Prolative). The lative case expresses dative as well. Additionally, local and other meanings can be expressed by several postpositions. Nganasan is a nominative-accusative language, i.e. the subject of both the transitive and the intransitive clause is marked by the nominative case, while the direct object takes the accusative case. The word order is relatively free, i.e. partially depending on information structure, even though there is a tendency for unmarked sentences to have an SOV order.

1.2 Data used in this study

This study is corpus-based, however, other materials such as the Nganasan–Russian dictionary (Kosterkina et al. 2001) were also considered. The examples used here are taken from the extended version of the *Nganasan Spoken Language Corpus* (Brykina et al. 2018), which is based on of fieldwork materials collected by several scholars. The extended version of the corpus contains about 1,000 sentences more than the already published version. The corpus contains folklore texts, narratives (everyday stories, biographies, etc.), songs as well as spontaneous and stimulated conversations. The “oldest” transcription was collected by Prokofiev in 1933, while the most recent transcriptions are from 2019. The listing in (3) provides the basic figures of the extended corpus. Examples are coded as [XYZ_year_title of text_genre.number of the sentence], where XYZ refers to the speaker. In this study, we have adapted both the glosses and the translations. (For more about on the corpus, see Wagner-Nagy & Szeverényi 2015 or Wagner-Nagy et al. 2018.)

| | | |
|-----|---------------------------|---------|
| (3) | Number of utterances: | 23,865 |
| | Number of tokens: | 155,245 |
| | Number of types: | 37,609 |
| | Number of transcriptions: | 188 |
| | Number of speakers: | 39 |

2 Verbs of speaking and thinking

There are 16 verbs expressing speaking which are listed in (4) below. The list is based on the data of the dictionary (Kosterkina et al. 2001), which was verified and extracted from the NSL corpus. Not only the verbs but the absolute numbers of their occurrences are also given. As can be seen, verbs like ‘promise’, ‘allow’, and performatives are missing, but that only means that they do not appear in the texts. Such verbs are not investigated here, because based on dictionary entries their usage is not specifiable. For example, Kosterkina et. al (2001) gives two verbs with the meaning ‘reply, answer’: *ɣumsiðasi* and *točəʔkəsa*. However, these do not occur in the corpus, so they are not considered further here.

Theoretically, it can be assumed that other verbs of speaking exist in the language, but their use is likely peripheral. The listing in (4) shows the verbs of speaking found in the dictionary and in the corpus.

| | | |
|--|------------------------|-----------------------|
| (4) List and statistics of verbs of speaking | | |
| lexeme | meaning | number of occurrences |
| <i>mun(u)-</i> | ‘say’ | 2,664 |
| <i>buə-</i> | ‘speak’ | 247 |
| <i>d'ebtu-</i> | ‘tell’ | 159 |
| <i>kumun-</i> | ‘what say’ | 84 |
| <i>laŋə-</i> | ‘shout (out)’ | 36 |
| <i>d'urimi-</i> | ‘converse, chat’ | 33 |
| <i>təʔibti-</i> | ‘ask’ | 30 |
| <i>hūaru-</i> | ‘scold’ | 17 |
| <i>d'omtu-</i> | ‘scold’ | 17 |
| <i>ŋaŋkəɾə-</i> | ‘cry out, scream’ | 9 |
| <i>hiris-</i> | ‘swear’ | 9 |
| <i>ɣumaʔsu-, ɣumiāsi-</i> | ‘speak in a low voice’ | 7 |
| <i>kira-</i> | ‘shout, cry’ | 7 |
| <i>berkiti-</i> | ‘scream’ | 6 |
| <i>nenintu-</i> | ‘whisper’ | 1 |

It can be stated at first glance that the most often used verbs are *munud'a* and *mununsa* 'say'. The difference between the two verbs is only aspectual, therefore they are treated here as one and the same verb. After that comes the verbs with the meaning 'tell' (*buəd'a*, *d'ebtud'a*, and *d'uriminsi*), however, they occur much less frequently. Furthermore, the occurrence of all other types is minimal and sporadic, this is the reason why it is not possible to describe them accurately. We divide the verbs of speaking into six semantic groups:

- (1) Common verbs of speaking such as *munu-* ~ *mun-* 'say', *buə-* 'speak', *d'urimi-* 'talk' describes the act of speaking.
- (2) Information verbs such as *d'ebtu-* 'tell', 'inform' refer to a quoted utterance or to the speech act.
- (3) Directive verbs such as *kumun-* 'say what', *təl'ibti-* 'ask', 'order', 'request' are used to get the addressee to do something.
- (4) Verbs of the volume of voice such as *ɣumaʔsu-*, *ɣumiāsi-* 'speak in a low voice', *nenintu-* 'whisper'. Such verbs usually express emotions as well, e.g. *huāru-* 'scold', *d'omtu-* 'scold', *hiris-* 'swear'.
- (5) Verbs of the manner of speaking: *kira-* 'shout, clank', *berkiti-* 'scream', *laŋə-* 'shout (out)', *ɣaŋkəɾə-* 'cry out, scream'.
- (6) Verbs of thinking that express only inner speech.

Comissive verbs such as 'promise', verbs expressing emotions, and verbs expressing evaluations do not occur in the corpus, therefore they are not considered here.

2.1 Common verbs of speaking

There are 3 verbs that belong to the group of the common verbs of speaking. These verbs, such as 'say' and 'speak', only refer to the act of speaking.

2.1.1 *mun(u)-* 'say'

The most frequently used information verbs are *mun-* and *munu-*, more than 90% of the speech verb occurrences include these two verbs. The difference between them is not semantic but only aspectual: *munsa* is a perfective verb (6a), while *munud'a* is imperfective. For this reason, semantically considered it is only one verb with the meaning 'say', 'tell'. The verb *munu-* takes the so-called subjective conjugation, there are no examples of it with objective conjugation endings. In its passive form, reflexive personal suffixes are applied. The main functions of the verb *munu-* are as follows:

- (i) Marking of direct quotation: Most typically, it introduces direct quotation without a complementizer, as in (5), but it also can follow the quoted utterance or even interrupt it, as in (6).

- (5) *kou-ðu* *munu-baŋhu:* *hə-hə* *ma-küə*
 sun-POSS3SG say-REP.3SG he-he tent-EMPH
ma-ŋalə-ndi? *tə* *čüü-ŋalə-baða-ŋ* *tə-tə*
 tent-EMPH-LAT.PL well arrive-EMPH-INFER-2SG well-well
 ‘The sun said: Ahah, you even got to these tents.’
 (KVB_97_Djuhode_nar.100)
- (6) *tə-tə,* *tə* *mənə* *mütəmə-bü-tə*
 well-well well 1SGPRO.ACC put-COND-OBL.POSS2SG
koni-? *ni-li-m* *əhi,* *tibijkiä* *munu-ntu*
 go-CNG NEG.AUX-DUB-1SG perhaps youth say-CO.3SG
 ‘Well, if you send me, of course, I will go,’ the boy says.
 (JDH_000901_DolganChief_flkd.072)

It can introduce not only declarative utterances but sentences with an interrogative, imperative or epistemic modal predicate, for instance:

Question

- (7) *tə* *munu-ntu:* *maad’a* *d’orə-ŋu-ŋ,* *maa-rə*
 well say-CO.3SG why cry-INTER-2SG what-POSS2SG
kuni?iä *mej-ŋi-??*
 how do-INTER-3SG.RFL
 ‘He says: Why are you crying, what happened?’
 (ChND_041213_Hibula_flkd.059)

Command, request

- (8) *təgətəti* *ŋamiäj* *munu-ntu:* *tə* *təi-kəl-ŋəə!*
 then other say-CO.3SG that be.available-TEMP-IMP.3SG
 ‘Then, the other one says: Stop that!’
 (KH_960811_TwoWomen_flkd.012)

Exclamation, warning

- (9) *siti* *munu-ntu:* *si’i?iä-ðəu!*
 3SGPRO say-CO.3SG I.do.not.know-EXCL
 ‘He says: I don’t know!’
 (KNT_940903_KehyLuu_flkd.096)

It can also express a range of other types of speech act, such as prediction:

- (10) *təti-rə* *taharīāa* *tunti* *munu-ntu*
 that-POSS2SG now fox say-CO.3SG
ña-tu *d'a:* *miŋ-gümü-ni?* *tə?*
 fellow-GEN.PL all we-EMPH-OBL.POSS1PL you.know
četuā *kuə-ʔsutə-mu?* *ñandi-ti.*
 very die-FUT-1PL seem-CO.3SG
 ‘Well, the fox tells his friends: It seems we’ll soon die for sure.’
 (KNT_960809_WildAnimals_flkd.038)

(ii) Expressing different types of speech acts such as answer (see 13), asking, order, anger, or request. See examples above in (i).

(iii) Expressing thinking

- (11) *suəbəsa əmti* *bikaa-ʔkü-tü* *munu-d'üə-m:* *Ou,*
 because this river-DIM-POSS3SG say-PST-1SG EXCL
tə *əmti-rə* *čerəl'ika-ʔku*
 well this-POSS2SG contents-DIM.3SG
ñi-siðə-mə *ŋonə-nə* *bəud'ə-ʔ,*
 NEG.AUX-FUT-1SG>SG self-OBL.POSS1SG get.across-CNG
bəu-ʔsutə-mə *ñəndīai?*
 get.across-FUT-1SG>SG probably
 ‘This river was so narrow, I thought I would get across it.’
 (MVL_080226_TwoHorses_flks.303)

The role and use of *munu-* is well illustrated in those examples where the finite form of *munu-* as the main verb occurs with an infinitive form of a verb expressing manner, speaking or another type of utterance, e.g. scaring as in (12) and laughing as in (13).

- (12) *ŋad'ə-um* *hiim-si* *munu-ntu:*
 younger.sibling-SEL get.afraid-INF say-CO.1SG
hil'i-ti-mə.
 be.afraid-CO-1SG>SG
 ‘The younger brother, frightened, said: I’m scared.’
 (SEN_061025_Moose_nar.010)

- (13) *təti-rə* *taharīaa* *hiši-ri-btiā-d'i*
 this-POSS2SG now laugh-CAUS-ATT-INF
munu-ntu: ...
 say-CO.1SG
 'He smiles and answers: ...'
 (ChND_080729_SevenNjote_flks.409)

Further verbs in infinitive before the finite form of *munu-* are 'speak', 'tell', 'sing', 'shout', 'speaking in Nganasan', 'think', 'shamanize', and 'be surprised'.

2.1.2 *buə-* 'speak'

According to Kosterkina et al. (2001: 25) the verb *buə-* has the following meaning: 'speak' (14a), 'tell' (14b), 'address', and 'promise'. This last meaning is not verified based on the corpus data, but the meaning 'talk' can be added (14c). The verb can be modified by an adverb of manner as in (14a-b). The most often used adverbial is *təniʔiā* 'so' as in (14b).

- (14)
- a. *d'ondalaku* *buə-ŋu-ruʔ* *basu-d'üəd'əə-muʔ*
 low speak-IMP-2PL hunt-PTCP.PST-POSS1PL
bəna-ʔa
 get.tired-co.3SG
 'Speak quietly, our hunter is tired.'
 (PKK_71_Djajku_flkd.095)
- b. *baarbi-nə* *d'a* *təniʔiā* *buə-guə-m*
 chief-GEN.POSS1SG ALL so speak-IMP.FUT-1SG
 'I will report it to my master like this.'
 (KNT_960809_WildAnimals_flkd.163)
- c. *miŋ* *bələukə-tənu* *nagul'ü-nüʔ* *ŋomtü-šüə-muʔ*
 1PLPRO balok-LOC three-OBL.POSS1PL sit-PST-1PL
buə-d'üə-muʔ
 speak-PST-1PL
 'We three sat in the balok and talked.'
 (KES_050723_Predictions_nar.004)

Although *buə-* is a transitive verb, there are no occurrences of it with the verbal endings of the objective conjugation. The prototypical adjunct is not the direct object. The direct object only rarely appears, and when it does occur, it

is the interrogative pronoun *maa* ‘what’ (15), and the constituent is the topic of the speaking act. The instrument with which one can speak to someone, e.g. a telephone, can also appear as an adjunct, in this case, it is marked by the prolativ, as in (16).

- (15) *tə, maa-kü-raa-j buə-kə-tu šiti*
 well what-DIM-LIM-ACC.PL speak-ITER-CO.3SG two
ni
 woman
 ‘Two women are talking about something.’
 (JDH_00_Njaakju_flkd.165)

- (16) *buə-bsa-mənu buə-tu-gəj.*
 speak-INSTR-PROL speak-CO-3DU
 ‘They speak on the phone.’
 (JAB_060901_Chairman_nar.167)

This verb can be passivized, and passive forms express necessity (17a) and impersonality (17b).

- (17)
 a. *nerəbtü?kü? tak buə-ru-šüü-? luu-ði*
 first so speak-PASS-PST-3SG.RFL parka-POSS3SG
kəhi ənti kəhi kuhu i-šüə
 partridge sort.of partridge.GEN skin be-PST.3SG
 ‘First, it has to be said that his clothes were made of partridge skin.’
 (KNT_940903_KehyLuu_flkd.076)

- b. *tahariaa əməniə počtə ŋonəə maa*
 now this.ACC mail one.more what.ACC
buə-ru-huəðu təndə nəkələ-kuə-mi
 speak-PASS-INFER.3SG that.ACC take-IMP.FUT-1DU
 ‘We talked about the mail, we’ll take the mail.’
 (PED_080731_Competition_nar.275)

It is quite unusual for this verb to introduce a direct quotation, but there are some examples like this, as in (18).

- (18) *ɲuʔənə* *d'ali-təni* *Ibula-ʔa* *ɲad'a*
 one-GEN day-LOC Ibula-AUG.GEN younger.sibling
bua-gəl-tə-ki-ʔə: *tə* *tənə* *Ibula* *i-ša*
 speak-TEMP-IPFV-RES-CO.3SG well 2SGPRO Ibula be-INF
hüə-tə *ɲurəkuə-mimbīa-ti-ɲ*
 time-LAT idle-HAB-PRS-2SG
 'Ibula's brother says one day: Ibula, you are idling about all the time.'
 (PKK_71_Ibula.011)

2.1.3 *d'urimi-* 'converse, chat'

This verb is often used in connection with a language, such as telling or talking in a language, as in (19a). It has also the meaning 'make a conversation, chat' – in this case, its argument is *nanu* 'with' as (19b) shows. It always occurs with the subjective conjugation suffixes, thus, the verb ending cannot refer to the object. That means that the object is always expressed lexically in the clause.

- (19)
 a. *d'üriakə-ðə* *śiadə* *d'urimi-ti.*
 Nenets-ADJ.ACC language.ACC converse-CO.3SG
 'She speaks Nenets.'
 (PKM_93_Njisyme_flk.194)
 b. *ouʔ*, *iniʔiaʔku-tu* *nanu* *ɲansə*
 EXCL wife-GEN.POSS3SG with again
d'urimi-nti-gəj.
 talk-CO-3DU
 'He talks to his wife.'
 (TKF_061105_FoxFosterling_flk.184)

2.2 The information verb *d'ebtu-* 'tell'

With the help of the so-called information verb such as the verb 'tell', a transfer of information is described. There are two such verbs in Nganasan: *d'ebtud'a* and *d'ebtuðasa*. The verb *d'ebtu-* means 'tell'. About 40% appear in the form *d'ebtaða-*, in which the function of derivation suffix is not clear. The verb *d'ebtu-* is a perfective verb, while *d'ebtaða-* is imperfective, however, the suffix is not the regular imperfectivizer. Both verbs have a regular morphology, however, due to their nature, reflexive conjugation cannot be used. The verbs can take other derivative suffixes, such as the iterative or inchoative-resultative suffix (20a-b), mood, and tense markers (21a-b). A direct object may appear next to either verb, (21a) and (21b), but the objective conjugation can also refer to the object.

(20)

- a. *maa-raa-j salitu-gə-tu, təniʔiā*
 what-LIM-ACC.PL babble-ITER-CO.3SG so
i-muə-d'əi-č̣u bəh'də-j
 be-VN.PRF-NPST-ACC.PL. POSS3SG all-ACC.PL
d'ebta-əa-gə-tu
 tell-DRV-ITER-CO.3SG
 'He just babbles and tells how it was with him.'
 (JSM_090809_ParentsAndUncles_nar.239)
- b. *naad'ə-əə d'ebtu-ʔki-ʔə-mə, miəd'i-riāa- d'i.*
 Nganasan-ADJ tell-RES-CO-1SG>SG go.on.foot-LIM-INF
 'I'll tell you in Nganasan by walking (i.e., without a song).'
 (PKM_93_Njisyme_flk.003)

(21)

- a. ... *tənə təə čühə-ni*
 2SGPRO this.GEN time-ADV.LOC
d'ebta-əa-küü-čə, kuniʔiā i-muə-d'əi-čə,
 tell-DRV-IMP.FUT-2SG>PL how be-VN.PRF-NPST-PL.POSS2SG
kuniʔiā i-muə-d'əi-čə.
 how be-VN.PRF-NPST-PL.POSS2SG
 'Then go [to the town] and tell how it was with you.'
 (JSM_090809_ParentsAndUncles_nar.270)
- b. *d'ebtu-baaəəi-əə ŋanabta-ʔi-əə.*
 tell-IRR-1SG>PL forget-CO-1SG.RFL
 'I would have told you, but I forgot.'
 (KES-ChND_080725_Dialog2_conv.021 (KES))

The derived verb *d'ebtaəa-* may introduce a complement clause without a complementizer, as example (21b) demonstrates. There are no examples of such use of the verb *d'ebtu-*.

2.3 Directive verbs

Directives convey an illocutionary force of requesting, suggesting, commanding, prohibiting, permitting, or requesting by the speaker. Based on the NSLC data, it seems that there are very few directive verbs in Nganasan. It seems that the lack of directive speech act verbs is a typical characteristic of Siberian languages. For instance, Kotorva & Nefedov (2021) showed that in another Siberian language, Ket, such speech act verbs as 'request' are missing.

However, it must be noted that speech acts have not been extensively studied in Samoyed languages, or in other Siberian languages.

Directives mostly appear in the following way: the predicate of the quoted clause can stand in the imperative mood (see example 8 above), as there is no directive speech act verb in the corpus (such as command). A special directive verb *kumunsa* usually appears in the interrogative mood (see 2.3.2 below).

2.3.1 *təl'ibti-* ‘ask’

The verb *təl'ibtiši* ‘ask a question’ is not used very frequently; there are only a few examples of its usage. Usually, this verb is used only to indicate that the speaker is going to ask someone a question. The addressee from whom the speaker expects the information is not obligatory to express lexically, but if it appears in the clause, it is always marked with the accusative (22). Otherwise, the verbal ending can indicate it, as in (23). It should be noted, however, that in this example the verbal ending refers to the complement clause, and the addressee is not expressed lexically. There is no example of the verbal ending referring to the addressee. The verb has a regular morphology, thus it can take mood and tense markers, but the reflexive conjugation cannot be used with this verb.

- (22) *təti ɲami̯aj ńa-mtu təl'ibti-guj-či*
 that other fellow-ACC.POSS3SG ask-DUR-CO.3SG
 ‘He asks him.’
 (TKF_990819_SomatuShaman_fld.166)

- (23) *sili təl'ibti-gü-ɲi-či*
 who ask-DUR-INTER-3SG>PL
 ‘Who is asking them?’
 (TTD-ChND_080719_Dialog_conv.196)

The verb can introduce direct speech and also indirect speech (24), however, the latter is not typical. The subordinate clause does not contain a complementizer (25a), but it is either introduced by the question word or remains unmarked (25b).

- (24) *təti ńinibtiʔia tuu-ʔə, təbtə kona-ʔa,*
 that elder.brother come-CO.3SG also go.away-CO.3SG
təl'ibti-ʔki-ʔə. takəə ńolhəðu-ra-ʔa-ɲ?
 ask-RES-CO.3SG that.remote release-PASS-CO-2SG
 ‘The elder brother came, she went [to him] and asked: What, did they let you go?’ (JSM_090809_ParentsAndUncles_nar.029-030)

(25)

- a. *tənə* *təl'ibti-gü-č̣i-m* *kundə*
 2SGPRO.ACC ask-DUR-CO-1SG how.long
heðiti-ŋi-ŋ *timiñiä*
 go-INTER-2SG now
 'I am asking you how far you are going now.'
 (JDH_99_ThreeTents_flkd.100)
- b. *tə-tə* *təl'ibti-kəə-rə* *koni-ʔs̥itə*
 well-well ask-ADM-2SG>SG go.away-FUT.3SG
i-huä
 be-REP.INTER.3SG
 'Well, ask him if he is going or not.'
 (JDH_000901_DolganChief_flkd.071)

As has been stated above, usually this verb does not introduce a report. For this purpose, the verb *munud'a* is used. A segment of a conversation given in (26) illustrates the interaction of the two verbs in discourse.

- (26) [TTD: *mi'isə təiču əmni*. 'There is a policeman.]
 ChND: *təndə-ʔə-mti* *ni-h̃iäaðəə-m* *təl'ibti-ʔ*
 that-AUG-ACC.POSS3SG NEG.AUX-IRR-1SG ask-CNG
 'I would ask him.'
 ChND: *munu-baaðəə-m:* *sili* *ŋətə-ru-tuə?*
 say-IRR-1SG who find-PASS-PTCP.PRS
 'I would say: who was found?'
 (TTD-ChND_080719_Dialog_conv.122-124)

2.3.2 *kumun*- 'what say'

This verb is a special verb with the meaning 'say what, tell what'. The closely related Nenets and Enets languages also have a corresponding verb with the same meaning (cf. Mus 2020). It is a morphologically complex verb with the verbal stem *mun*- 'say' and the ancient interrogative pronominal stem *ku*-. The verb functions as the predicate of the clause and obligatorily takes the interrogative mood marker. A question is usually directed either to the future or to the past. For this reason, the verb occurs most often in future or past tense form. As for Nganasan, here the forms with the future marker predominate, as in (27a-b), but the reportative interrogative also can appear, as in (28). No mood marker can be attached to it. This verb cannot show object agreement, thus it only agrees with the subject in person and number, as in (27a).

(27)

- a. *tə, kumun-tə-ŋu-gəj*
 well say.what-FUT-INTER-3DU
 ‘What can they say to it?’
 (ChND_080729_Mosquitos_flkd.161)
- b. *ŋuali kumun-tə-ŋu-gəj təɾəd'i*
 certainly say.what-FUT-INTER-3DU such.GEN
ŋanaʔsan-ə d'a
 person-EP.GEN ALL
 ‘What could they say to such a man?’
 (ChNS_080214_Hibula_flkd.059)

Although the verb has a regular morphology, the use of the objective conjugation is not possible, and the use of the reflexive conjugation is restricted: it is used only with the passive verb form (28).

- (28) *təniʔiā kumu-lu-huā-ðə* *təniʔiā i-ču.*
 so say.what-PASS-REP.INTER-3SG.RFL so be-CO.3SG
 ‘As he said, it was like this.’
 (ChND_041212_Girl.flkd.130)

The verb has non-verbal forms (29a) and can be negated as well (29b).

(29)

- a. *təti tiŋ nanu-ntuʔ kumun-tuə*
 that 2PLPRO.GEN near-OBL.POSS2PL say.what-PTCP.PRS
buəðu əməni mənə ɲolhəðu-ʔ tə-gümü
 word here 1SGPRO release-IMP.2SG that-EMPH
kumun-tuə
 say.what-PTCP.PRS
 ‘What does it mean in your language: Get away from me, set me free!’
 (JDH_00_Njaakju_flkd.053)
- b. *tə, ɲi-nti-gəj kumuŋ-kəl'ičə-ʔ.*
 well NEG.AUX-CO-3DU what.say-EMPH-CNG
 ‘They don’t say anything.’
 (ChNS_080214_Hibula_flkd.058)

As the examples above show, in most cases, neither the addresser nor the addressee are expressed lexically. However, if the addressee does appear, as in

(27b), it is marked with the allative postposition *d'a*. In this respect, this construction works in the same way as the other mental transfer (here information) verbs used in ditransitive constructions (cf. Wagner-Nagy 2019: 397–400). The addresser is usually not expressed overtly and only the verbal ending refers to it.

2.4 Manner-of-speaking verbs

Some verbs do not refer to or introduce an utterance but refer to the manner of the speaking (Zwicky 1971). Manner-of-speaking verbs most typically stand in their infinitive form, which is followed by an utterance verb, mostly the *munu-* ‘say’. There are five such verbs, which are described in the following sections. The subject of these verbs is typically a human.

2.4.1 *kira-* ‘shout, cry’

This verb occurs very seldom, there are only seven examples of its use in the corpus. This verb is most often used with the frequentative suffix *-r* or in a form *kiratu-*. This latter form is a derivative in which the status of the suffix *-tu* is not clear. In both cases, the verb is imperfective. The verb has two meanings, on the one hand, it means ‘shout’ (30a), but one speaker (MVL) uses this verb with the meaning ‘cry’ (30b).

(30)

- a. *ou?* *kaŋkə-güə* *ñaagəi-?* *sili-čə-küə-mu?*
 EXCL when-EMPH good-ADV who-EMPH-EMPH-POSS1PL
kira-məbtu-munu-čə-ðə: *əi?* *maa*
 shout-DRV-AUD-CO-3SG.RFL oh what
kuni?iä-j-ŋəu
 how-be-INTER.EXCL.3SG
 ‘And then one of us cried: What has happened?!’
 (KES_031115_Paris_nar.215)
- b. *ñuə-gəi-či* *taharīāa* *śiti* *ñuə-?kü-tü*
 child-DU-PL.POSS3SG now two child-DIM-POSS3SG
ŋuəli *əhi* *taka-?ku-ði*
 certainly perhaps that.remote-DIM-POSS3DU
kira-r-kə-tu
 shout-FRQ-ITER-CO.3SG
 ‘Their children, two (children), of course, the little one, is crying.’
 (MVL_090807_Hungabtadja_flks.150)

This verb can introduce direct quotation, as the following example shows. The verb takes the verbal ending of the objective conjugation, which refers to the complement.

- (31) *təti-rə* *baritətu* *ŋanuə* *kira-tu-tu:*
 that-POSS2SG with.all.one's.might real shout-CO-3SG>SG
əj, *bintiʔʃi-əj,* *tənə* *tahariāa*
 EXCL wolverine-VOC 2SGPRO now
ni-ŋi-ŋ *tahariāa* *nirʃi-ʔʔ*
 NEG.AUX-INTER-2SG now be.loathsome-CNG
 ‘And this one shouts with all its might: Oh, wolverine, aren’t you loathsome?’
 (KNT_960809_WildAnimals_fkd.146)

2.4.2 *berkiti*- ‘scream’

The verb is not often used, and it is recorded only in the speech of two speakers (MVL and TAM). The examples suggest that this verb cannot refer to a direct quotation, but it emphasizes the volume of speaking. Example (32b) illustrates that the volume is the salient part of the meaning.

- (32)
- a. *ŋad’a-tu* *nili-bśa* *ŋətə-nantu-d’a*
 younger.sibling-GEN.POSS3SG live-ACTN.ACC examine-VOL-INF
bəðürbiə *kad’a-məni* *berkiti-śi* *hojka-ʔi-ðə.*
 corpse.GEN near-PROL scream-INF run-CO-3SG.RFL
 ‘To see if his brother was alive, he started to run, shouting around the grave.’
 (TAM_6810_Djajku_fkd.026)
- b. *əə,* *hursə-biʔə-nə* *čühə-ni,*
 yes come.back-NMLZ-GEN.POSS1SG time-ADV.LOC
munu-bü-tə: *əmə* *čühə-ni*
 say-COND-OBL.POSS2SG this.GEN time-ADV.LOC
hursəki-ʔi-ðə *ŋəndiaiʔ* *ŋuantə*
 come.back-CO-3SG.RFL probably door-GEN.POSS2SG
biari-məni *aniʔə-məni* *d’amu-ʔua-rə*
 opening-PROL big-ADV voice-AUG-POSS2SG
sojbu-ŋəə, *berkiti-iŋhiā-ʔ.*
 sound-IMP.3SG shout-HAB-IMP.2SG
 ‘When I come back when you think that it’s time for me to come back, scream loudly so that I can hear your voice through the door.’
 (MVL_090807_Hungabtadja_fks.359–360)

2.4.3 *d'omtu*- ‘scold’

The verb *d'omtu*- is a perfective verb. It can be followed by direct quotation, in this case, its argument is lative (*d'a*), that is, the same as in the case of the verb *munu*-:

- (33) *Ibula* *ηad'a* *tuu-ʔə*, *Ibula*
 Ibula.GEN younger.sibling come-CO.3SG Ibula.GEN
d'a *d'omtu-ʔki-ʔə* : *četua* *nuə-mi*
 ALL scold-RES-CO.3SG very child-ACC1DU
sal'i-ʔə-η, *maad'ə-δə-η* *bəδürbüə-η*
 spoil-CO-2SG what-ADJZ-2SG corpse-2SG
 ‘Ibula’s brother came and started to scold Ibula: You have spoiled our
 baby, what a devil you are!’
 (PKK_71_Ibula_flk.056)

It seems that this verb has two meanings. One of them is when the speaker verbalizes his/her anger, like in example (33), or it refers to the state or relation of two (or more) persons, as in (34).

- (34) *ou*, *ηamīaj-kəj* *taharīaa* *təti* *šetəgəə-ti*
 EXCL other-DU now that chief-GEN.POSS3DU
nanu, *l'üəʔsaʔa*, *d'omtu-mu-ʔə-gəj* *i-bahu*.
 with Russian.ACC scold-MOM-CO-3DU be-REP.3SG
aśa *i-mu-ntə* *tənə*
 Dolgan be-VN.IPF-OBL.POSS2SG 2SGPRO.ACC
d'iðu-ʔki-ʔə-m.
 shoot-RES-CO-1SG
 ‘The other one quarreled with the chief (with the Russian). You are
 Dolgan, I will shoot you.’
 (MDN_97_War1_nar.035–036)

2.4.4 *ηaŋkəri*- ‘cry out’

This verb is relatively rare. Most of the examples have the personal endings of the reflexive conjugation. The verb is followed by a direct quotation. The reflexive conjugation is motivated by the fact that the verb is inherently inchoative-resultative. In the Samoyedic languages, inchoative verbs are conjugated reflexively. This is also true in Nganasan, even if this is not obligatory, as in Nenets.

- (35) *[təti D'ajkürə níŋi čündümüd'ia i hontəiʔ ŋil'iʔia sígiʔiatə (hüčəʔa).*
 'Dyaiku jumped down and climbed into the Ogre's skirts.']
ŋaŋkəri-ʔi-ðə: iŋaa iŋaa
 cry.out-CO-3SG.RFL hoo hoo
 'He shouted out: hoo, hoo!'
 (ChZS_080212_Djajku_flkd.011–012)

Another example has a similar context: the current speaker enters the tent and shouts – he is warning his mates and informs them that the storm has become more dangerous.

- (36) *kəiŋü-śa náagəi-ʔ səü-čü*
 sing-INF good-ADV side-PL.ACC.POSS3SG
kəmə-d'a ŋaŋkərə-gə-ta-ðə: koðu-tu
 catch-INF cry.out-ITER-CO.RFL-3SG.RFL blizzard-POSS3SG
təŋku-ŋə-iðə!
 be.strong-IMP-3SG.RFL
 'Holding tightly to the sides, he shouts: The blizzard shall get stronger!
 (MACH_XX_Nenets_flkd.012)

Example (37) demonstrates that the addressee is marked with the allative postposition *d'a*, and this verb can introduce a question.

- (37) *təni-ðə Igula kačəmi-ʔə čalbanae*
 there-ABL.ADV Igula see-CO.3SG ??
kəmpəti bəbə-d'əə, təniðə ŋaŋkərə-süðə
 bonbon.GEN place-ANT there-ABL.ADV cry.out-FUT.3SG
ńini-nti d'a ...
 elder.brother-GEN.POSS3SG ALL
 'Then Igula saw a box of sweets and shouted to his brother ...'
 (MACH_XX_Igula_flkd.65)

2.4.5 *laŋə*- 'shout, scream'

This verb is the most frequent verb with the meaning 'shout, scream'. It is an intransitive-perfective verb. Its perfective aorist form introduces a quotation, and the quoted utterance typically expresses anger, fear, fright, or command:

- (38) *taharíaa laŋə-ʔki-ʔə: ńükü-əj*
 now shout-RES-CO.3SG child-voc
ŋuə-ðə ŋojbuə-ʔtuə laŋə-ki-ʔə, ńükü-oj,
 one-DST.ACC head-PTCP.PRS shout-RES-CO.3SG child-voc

mənə *heliʔði-kə-əu-ŋ!*
 1SGPRO.ACC help-IMP-EXCL-2SG
 ‘He shouted out: Boy - shouted the one-headed ogre - boy, help me!’
 (KNT_940903_KehyLuu_flkd.053)

Its imperfective form usually refers to shouting as a speech act event:

(39) *ʂigiʔi-ini-ʔiā* *təni* *laŋü-r-kə-təu,*
 ogre-FEM.AUG there shout-FRQ-ITER-CO.EXCL.3SG
 laŋü-r-kə-tu.
 shout-FRQ-ITER-CO.3SG
 ‘The ogre screams and screams from the middle of the river.’
 (ChND_080729_Mosquitos_flkd.128)

2.5 Verbs of the volume of voice

2.5.1 *ɣuma-* ‘speak in a low voice’

According to the corpus data, the exact meaning(s) of the verb is/are not clear: ‘to speak calmly, quietly’ or ‘to speak in silence, whisper’ or ‘to mumble’, but that is clear that this verb can refer to an utterance or introduce/follow a direct quotation.

(40)
 a. *nɪ-jki-ʔiā-rə* *ɣumaʔsu-tu*
 woman-DRV-AUG-POSS2SG speak.in.a.low.voice-CO.3SG
 ɣonəraa-tu *ɣuma-tu ʔi?* *ʔi?*
 oneself-POSS3SG speak.in.a.low.voice-CO.3SG oj
 kəmə-baa-m...
 catch-OPT-1SG
 ‘The woman says quietly to herself: If only I could catch...’
 (ChND_080729_SevenNjote_flks.037–039)

b. *bəjkuə* *ɣumiāsi-či:* *miŋ*
 old.man speak.in.a.low.voice-CO.3SG 1PLPRO
 hii *horü-ʔ* *ɣanasamu?...*
 night.GEN face-GEN.PL person-POSS1PL
 ‘The old man says in a low voice: We are night-faced people.’
 (MVL_080225_Tanjdjaa_flks.045)

2.5.2 *nenintu-* ‘whisper’

There is only one occurrence in the corpus, which, however, shows well that the verb highlights the way of the utterance, and not the act of speech itself.

In example (41) it appears in its infinitive form as an adverbial to the verb *munu-* ‘say’, introducing the quoted clause:

- (41) *taharia kangüčäküä təti kuraa konə*
 now when that cow.GEN cub
henintu-sa munu-munu-ču satəra-tu
 whisper-INF say-AUD-POSS3SG polar.fox-GEN.POSS3SG
d’a: satəraə-j, taanika koni-ʔ!
 ALL polar.fox-VOC a.little.farther go-IMP.2SG
 ‘After some time, the calf whispers audibly to the polar fox: Polar fox,
 go away from here!’
 (KNT_960809_WildAnimals_fkd.311)

2.6 Verbs of thinking

In some respects, inner utterance/speech verbs can differ from speaking verbs. From the examples taken from the corpus it can be concluded that the speaking verb *munud’a* can express inner speech, thus, it can be used with the meaning ‘think, wonder’. However, there are some real thinking verbs as well, which are listed in (42).

- (42) **Verbs of thinking**
- | lexeme | meaning | number of occurrences |
|------------------|---------------|-----------------------|
| <i>natəmunu-</i> | ‘assume’ | 10 |
| <i>siñəri-</i> | ‘think’ | 51 |
| <i>siñəruə-</i> | ‘think about’ | 8 |
| <i>duməir-</i> | ‘think’ | 2 |

The verb *natəmunu-* is a complex verb form that is the result of a lexicalization process. The first part, *natə* is the inflected *na* ‘to; near’ followed by the oblique form of the 2SG possessive suffix, and means ‘to you’. The second part is the verb *munu-*. The verb *duməir-* is a Russian loanword with the frequentative suffix *-r*. As can be seen in (42), the verb *siñəri-* is the most frequently used verb of thinking, however, it occurs often in its infinitive form, as the modifier of the verb *munu-* (44), but of course, it can be inflected (43).

- (43) *siti* *ŋonə-raa-tu* *siŋəri-r-i* *ou*
 3SGPRO oneself-LIM-POSS3SG think-FRQ-CO.3SG EXCL
əmi-čə *ŋəndiai?* *koli-nə* *biə*
 this-PL.POSS2SG probably fish-GEN.POSS1SG smell.ACC
d'indi-ʔə-ʔ *hi-ntiə* *koli*
 hear-CO-3PL get.warm-PTCP.PRS.ACC fish.ACC
 'She thinks: They probably smell my fish, the boiled fish.'
 (ChND_080729_SevenNjote_fls.062)
- (44) *siŋəri-r-si* *munu-ŋkə-tu* *əm-kümü-rə*
 think-FRQ-INF say-ITER-CO.3SG this-EMPH-POSS2SG
munu-d'üə: *təʔ* *tənə*
 say-PST.3SG you.know 2SGPRO.ACC
kondu-ʔki-ʔə-m *ŋemibtiʔia-ðə-nə* *i-ša*
 take.away-RES-CO-1SG wife-DST-GEN.POSS1SG be-INF
 'She thinks: He said that he would take me away and I would become his wife.'
 (ChND_080729_SevenNjote_fls.253)

The examples above show that this usually appears with a frequentative *-r* suffix.

3 Verbs of speaking in reported speech

We have dealt with the reported speech in several papers (Szeverényi & Sipőcz 2019, 2020, and Wagner-Nagy 2019: 467ff.). Since Nganasan does not syntactically link the quoted clause to the introductory verb, the nature of the statement is not always clear, but in the case of other verbs, in addition to *mun-*, other verbs can introduce direct speech.

In Nganasan, there is direct reported speech that is usually introduced by a speaking verb. A direct quotation is applied also in personal narratives:

- (45) *tahariabə* *S'idorinə-mə* *mun-u-ʔə*
 now Sidorina-POSS1SG say-EP-CO.3SG
d'atə-nə, *ʔijkümü-mə:* *šüamu*
 ALL-OBL.POSS1SG Ngijkyumyu-POSS1SG cousin
əmti *merigiai?* *əmiʔia* *ŋiədə-rə*
 this.ACC quickly in.this.way belt-POSS2SG
sarə-ʔ.
 tie-IMP.2SG
 'Then Sidorina said to me: Nijkyumyu, my dear friend, fasten your seatbelt in that way.'
 (KES_031115_Paris_nar.049)

The reported utterance usually contains a verb of speaking, most often the verb *munu-* ‘say’, which can also follow the quoted sentence(s), however, an explicit speaking verb is not necessary. In narrative stories, intonation plays a very important role: a break is used to indicate that one of the characters will speak and the events are presented by the speaker from his point of view. Another common indicator of a change of viewpoint is the particle *ou?*.

The reported speech constructions that involve shifts of deictic elements are the result of Russian influence on Nganasan.

Another way of quotation is the use of the narrative/reportative evidential in the quotative function (see section 4). In such cases, it is clear from the context who the reporter is. It follows somewhat from this, and it seems that this evidential can also be used as quotative when the quotation is introduced by a verb of speaking, but the quoted speech consists of several sentences, in which case the speaker indicates that it is still part of the quotation.

4 Reportative evidential as a quotative

There is a special morphological suffix in Nganasan that could refer to an utterance. It is the so-called narrative evidential, a member of the evidential system. The basic function of the narrative evidential is to mark the source of the speaker’s information as an indirect source. It can express hearsay or reportativity, but also it can be a marker of a direct quoted utterance. As has been mentioned in the Nganasan Grammar, “The speaker may refer to the narration of a certain person, but reportative can also be used to speak about events that are generally spoken about in the community. This mood is very often used, if a story is told about a certain person. In this case, the feeling of reality is enhanced by the usage of the mood. It must be noted, however, that tales and myths are told in the indicative and not in reportative mood. In a folklore text, the reportative mood appears, if the storyteller reports anything or the information comes from a specific person. During shamanic ceremonies, the shaman reports the information heard from gods in the renarrative to those present. Normally, the information source is not specified, but in some cases the specific person can be expressed. In this case, the reportative form semantically expresses the quotative ...” (Wagner-Nagy 2019: 280). In the next example, a small group traveled together, one of them being the speaker. They were informed and led by their Russian guides, so in this situation, these leaders could be the source of the information:

- (46) *tahariābə* *Maskvaa-tə* *čüü-ʔə-muʔ*.
 now Moscow-LAT reach-CO-1PL
S'er'em'ent'evə-təni *i-bahu-muʔ*.
 Sheremetyevo-LOC be-REP-1PL
 'Now we landed in Moscow. They say it's Sheremetyevo.'
 (KES_031115_Paris_nar.052-053)

5 Conclusion and further plans

We can get a relative detailed picture of the Nganasan verbs of speaking based on the corpus data. This, of course, means that our findings refer to the corpus and do not necessarily reflect real language use. At the same time, we have several findings that address relevant and previously undiscussed phenomena.

In the Nganasan texts, several verbs express utterances, but according to their number of occurrences, *munu-* 'say' is the most common and most frequently used verb of speaking. According to the distribution in the corpus data, it seems that the number of verb-of-speaking is not high.

Our investigation could not confirm the presupposed hypothesis of the correlation between evidentiality vs. verbs of speaking and speech act verbs based on Nuckolls's (2018) paper on the Pastaza Quichua language. As Nuckolls writes, "[p]aradoxically, although PQ speakers make abundant use of represented discourse, their language is impoverished concerning illocutionary speech act verbs. Despite this impoverishment, speakers may express many kinds of illocutionary speech acts employing evidential markings, which, in certain contexts, and assisted by second person forms of pronouns and verbs, have speech act consequences involving major changes in people's understandings and alignments and re-alignments with each other" (Nuckolls 2018: 221; our emphasis). Furthermore, "[u]nlike many languages familiar to linguists, Pastaza Quichua is impoverished concerning illocutionary verbs. Verbs such as 'to warn', 'to announce', 'to proclaim', 'to threaten', 'to reassure', 'to insist', are just a sample of the many illocutionary speech act verbs that populate everyday English language discourse. By contrast, PQ verbs that involve speaking constitute an extremely small group" (Nuckolls 2018: 207; our emphasis). Nuckolls does not provide any further explanation for the lack of speech act verbs in Quichua, and does not explain what "extremely small" means, but as can be clearly read, she presupposes a correlation between the evidential system and the small number of verbs of speaking. Based on the corpus data, there is also the possibility in Nganasan that there are few speech act verbs in the language (this is confirmed by similar research in other Siberian languages, e.g. Ket, by Kotorova & Nefedov 2021). The question is whether the supposed correlation between the use/amount of utterance verbs and the reportative evidential can also be applied to Nganasan.

As the first step in this work, in this study, we have reviewed the Nganasan verbs of speaking and verbs of thinking, primarily focusing on which verbs are involved in constructing report speech. We have aimed to list the speech verbs, their corpus statistics, and to categorize them on the basis of the conclusions that the available corpus data allow, i.e. first of all, their meaning, occurrence in a reported speech, and arguments.

Abbreviations

| | | | |
|------|---------------------|--------|--------------------------|
| ABL | ablative | INFER | inferential |
| ACC | accusative | INTER | interrogative |
| ADM | admonitive | IRR | irrealis |
| ADV | adverbial suffix | ITER | iterative |
| ANT | anterior | LAT | lative |
| ATT | attenuative | LIM | limitative |
| AUD | auditive/sensitive | LOC | locative |
| AUG | augmentative | MOM | momentaneous/momentative |
| AUX | auxiliary | NAR | narrative |
| CAUS | causative | NEG | negation |
| CO | coaffix | OBL | oblique |
| conv | conversation | OPT | optative |
| DIM | diminutive | SG | singular |
| DRV | derivational suffix | PASS | passive |
| DST | destinative | PL | plural |
| DU | dual | POSS | possessive |
| DUR | durative | PRO | pronoun |
| EMPH | emphatic | PROL | prolative |
| EXCL | exclamative | PRS | present |
| FEM | feminine | PST | past |
| flkd | folklore d'urymy | PTCP | participle |
| flks | folklore šitəby | REP | reportative |
| FRQ | frequentative | RES | resultative |
| FUT | future | RFL | reflexive |
| GEN | genitive | SG | singular |
| HAB | habitual | TEMP | temporal |
| IMP | imperative | VN.IPF | imperfective verbal noun |
| INF | infinitive | VOC | vocative |

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