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7 Evidential

7.1 Evidentiality

7.1.1 Evidentials

Grammatical coding of information source is expressed in Kumzari through a three-term system of clause-initial evidentials. The three evidentials correspond to the first three divisions of Willett’s semantic types of evidentiality (1988): attested (tamna), reported (awa), inferring (ēka). The evidential tamna is more specifically a marker of firsthand information gathered from sensory sources, thus it is hereafter referred to as a sensory evidential. Table 46 shows the three evidentials and their common equivalents in translation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evidential type</th>
<th>Kumzari</th>
<th>English translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sensory</td>
<td>tamna</td>
<td>[a person] saw/ heard/ felt that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reportive</td>
<td>awa</td>
<td>[a person] said that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inferred</td>
<td>ēka</td>
<td>[a person] knows that / obviously / it must be</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.1.2 Evidentiality in related languages

In some Iranian languages, the perfect verb form has developed evidential-like extended meanings of non-firsthand information as a secondary strategy to its verbal meaning (Aikhenvald 2004:11,38-9,77; Bulut 2000:176-8; Lazard 1985; Perry 2005:230-233, Soper 1996, Windfuhr 1982). However, unlike those evidentiality strategies which typically have a single non-firsthand term or extension, Kumzari distinguishes between reported information and inferred information, and information source is the evidentials’ primary meaning.

Evidentiality in Arabic is also not grammaticalised (Aikhenvald 2004:10). Yet because of the time-depth of Kumzari’s history on the edge of the Arabian peninsula and adjacent to Iran, it is not surprising that Kumzari exemplifies Isaksson’s assertion that it is only “in border areas … where contact phenomena are prominent,” “…in locations at the periphery of a language region, is an Arabic dialect likely to develop grammaticalised evidential categories” (Isaksson 2000:383,397).

7.1.3 Grammaticalisation of evidentiality

Evidentials in Kumzari are a grammaticalised word class “in that they are invariant and occur only in clause-initial position” (Palmer 2001:49). They have grammatical meaning, and are devoid of lexical meaning, despite their potentially lexical origins.

Non-firsthand sources of information, either reportive (awa) or inferred (ēka), are obligatorily marked. Unmarked information is assumed to be first-hand, but the sensory evidential tamna emphasises the fact that the information has been obtained by means of the immediate senses. An anecdote will illustrate the implications of this imbalance. A Kumzari man was in his house when a guest came to see him. The man did not want to see anyone so he told his little brother to answer the door and to tell the guest: brār mē ēwō na ‘my brother is not here’.

81 Kumzari represents B1 evidentiality system according to the terminology of Aikhenvald 2004:70.
Instead, the little brother used the reportive evidential: *awa ā brār mē ēwō na* ‘he said that my brother is not here’. The guest realised that the man was avoiding him, because the little brother’s answer was not firsthand information. The fact that *tamna* emphasises otherwise unmarked firsthand information is in accordance with DeLancey’s (2001:379) observation that “the unmarked form in an evidential system typically represents information which the speaker knows from first-hand, visual perception.”

Evidentials are distinct from other grammatical categories\(^8\), such as adverbs. Unlike adverbs, evidentials are obligatorily marked in contexts where their semantic parameters apply (i.e. where the information source is sensory, reportive, or inferred). They are also morphologically, syntactically, and semantically distinct from adverbs.

Evidentials take the subordinator alone; adverbs take a subordinator only as part of a subordinated clause. Adverbs vary in clause position but usually follow the verb; evidentials are always clause-initial. An adverb has lexical meaning and modifies a verb while an evidential has only grammatical meaning, denoting information source at clause level, even in verbless clauses.

Semantically, evidentials are distinct from other parts of speech. Replacing an evidential with an adverb or a different evidential results in a meaning change. For example, one could see Ḣamēdō’s sandals at the door and use the inferred evidential to say *ēka ā Ḣamēdō ēwō* ‘it must be that Ḣamēdō is here’. However, the same sentence would be incorrect if one saw Ḣamēdō in person; in the latter case one would rather say *tamna ā Ḣamēdō ēwō* ‘I see that Ḣamēdō is here’. Further, using both an evidential and a periphrastic can function to specify both information source and exactly which sense was used, e.g. *tamna* she heard or *tamna* she saw, or exactly who is was that reported it, e.g. *awa* the horse said or *awa* the boy said. This is an attested typological characteristic of evidentials: “one can add a lexical explanation to an evidentially marked clause, to disambiguate an evidential which has several meanings” (Aikhenvald 2004:10).

Evidentiality is also unrelated to epistemic concerns. Cross-linguistic typological research clearly delineates its separateness from modality: evidentiality “covers the way in which the information was acquired, without necessarily relating to the degree of speaker’s certainty concerning the statement or whether it is true or not” (Aikhenvald 2004:3). In Kumzari, epistemic modality is denoted in verb form: the Realis-Irrealis distinction. Unexpectedness of information, reflecting lack of prior knowledge, is revealed in the verb form as well: the Mirative. Thus Kumzari is one of those languages demonstrating that “there is a clear logical distinction between mirativity and evidentiality” and in which expressions of mirativity “have no grammatical connection to any evidential system” (DeLancey 2001:370, cf. Lazard 1999:101).

### 7.2 Morphosyntax of evidentials

#### 7.2.1 Subordinator

All three evidentials are followed by the subordinator.

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\(^8\) The criteria laid out in this section follow Dendale & Tasmowski (2001:344), who list determinants of evidentiality’s status in a language.
(363) B351
	\textbf{tamna} ā asp-ē insī inda yē wa ḫawṭ-ē șīrx.
	SENS SUB horse-a humanlike in 3s and pool-a gold

‘He saw that a talking horse was in it and a pool of gold.’

The subordinator may appear as a lengthening of the final vowel of the evidential.

7.2.2 \textit{Clause-initial position}

Evidentials occur at the beginning of a clause:

(364) P624
	\textbf{tamna} ā kōr-ē tay zēran.
	SENS SUB boy-a come:3sIMPF down

‘She saw that a boy was coming down.’

7.2.3 \textit{Complement}

An evidential is followed by its complement in the form of a clause or noun phrase:

(365) G213
	ēka ā yā ğrāb-ō.

INF SUB DEM crow-the

‘Obviously it was this crow.’

7.3 \textit{Semantics of evidentials}

Evidentials categorise information source as sensed (\textit{tamna}), reported (\textit{awa}), or inferred (\textit{ēka}).

7.3.1 \textit{The sensory evidential tamna}

The Kumzari sensory evidential \textit{tamna} marks immediate perception of sensory information, including visual, auditory, and even emotion and premonition. It is not marked in all cases where information is gleaned directly from a firsthand source. Rather, it emphasises the information source as being sensorily acquired. It is common diachronically for evidentials to become grammaticalised this way, from being optional to obligatory. In Kumzari, unmarked propositions are assumed to have a firsthand information source; this parallels DeLancey’s statement that firsthand knowledge is cross-linguistically “typically the unmarked member of the system” (DeLancey 1997:35).

7.3.1.1 \textit{The sensory evidential in nearby languages}

The sensory evidential \textit{tamna} has several potential origins, as morphemes with similar form and function occur in several languages of the wider region. Perhaps it was a lexical borrowing from the Arabic \textit{ṭumma} ‘then’ and later developed into an evidential (on \textit{ṭumma} and Arabic evidentiality see Isaksson 2000:396 and Aikhenvald 2004: §9.2.3). In the Arabic variety nearest to Kumzari, Shihhi, there is a clause-initial presentative particle \textit{trōh} meaning
something like ‘to see’ (Bernabela 2011:62), and it uses the third person, masculine, singular form for all referents.

A few of the Baluchi languages that have been analysed show signs of evidentiality. In Turkmenistani Baluchi, a conjunction ta or tā is used as a complementiser (Axenov 2006:246), and is glossed as ‘that’ and translated as ‘saw that’, followed by a complement clause (Axenov 2006:243,168). Just as tamna in Kumzari is used in discourse to convey vividness at the peak, the examples of ta cited from Baluchi could be considered to be a pragmatic extension of the visual evidential used for discourse peak: a boy and girl see ta that many demons are chasing them, and a woman comes and sees ta that her husband’s head has been cut off.

The sensory evidential tamna is likewise similar to what is called a ‘mirative evidential’ ta in Sistani Baluchi (Barjasteh 2010:113). It is noteworthy that, like tamna in Kumzari, when the word ta is present, perception verbs may be omitted, since ta implies visual perception (Barjasteh 2010:92).

In the Indo-Aryan language Palula, a particle ta (Liljegren 2008:341) is similarly translated as ‘they saw’ and followed by a complement clause. Examples in Liljegren’s grammar show that ta is used to cite auditory information (hearing drumming, singing, and a message)(Liljegren 2008:211, 219, 284, 347), recall a memory of killing an evil spirit (Liljegren 2008:122), experience itching (Liljegren 2008:315) or stomach pain (Liljegren 2008:119)83, as well as visual information (Liljegren 2008:112, 149, 150, 152, 217, 273, 296). This accords with the varied sensory experiences attached to tamna in Kumzari. In several cases in the Palula data, ta is translated or glossed as ‘when’ but takes a complement clause which may coincide with discourse peak-like events: ‘we came, ta an avalanche struck and swept us away’, and ‘the monster came inside, ta the man was eating’ (Liljegren 2008:110, 124, 164). In these same contexts, Kumzari would have tamna both for its primary meaning of a sensory evidential and its extended meaning as peak discourse marker. Incidents featuring the appearance of a bear, leopard, lion, dragon, or other dangerous or surprising thing seems to increase the probability that ta will be used in a Palula sentence. Also like tamna, the Palula particle ta is used for switch-reference to mark different subject clauses in chaining (Liljegren 2008:312).

A similar morpheme occurs in the South Arabian languages. In Mehri a particle written tē / tē / ta and in Soqotri a particle tōlī or twolī, and in Hobyot twālī (Simeone-Senelle 1997:411; Rubin 2010:125,201) are comparable to Kumzari tamna. The morphemes are glossed variously as adverbs or prepositions (e.g. ‘then when’), but precede clauses with dramatic events or counterexpectation semantics. Further research is needed to determine their exact grammatical function.

3.1.2 The sensory evidential in context

Usually tamna expresses information that is visually acquired:

83 sensory evidentials are employed to register pain in other languages, see Littell & Mackie 2012.
Now when he showed up at the banana garden, he saw his brothers were bound."

but it can also refer to an auditory information source:

‘They heard he was knocking on the door.’

or information obtained by other senses, like feeling:

‘He felt hungry.’

or even a sixth sense, like a premonition:

‘Now when the other girl looked into the future, she saw a path was coming to them.’

The sensory evidential has an extension in discourse to convey immediacy, adding a here-and-now effect to the statement. In narratives, tamna marks pivot and can have presentative semantics:

‘He saw a pearl in its stomach!’ (battle over the pearl ensues throughout the story)

Additionally, it may coincide with the introduction of a new character in the text:
tamna ā yak-ē dgur āmad ba yē. kōṭī-ē.
SENS SUB one–a other come:3sREAL to 3s mountain.bedouin-a
‘She saw another person was coming toward her: a mountain bedouin.’

or denote a magical appearance:

wa wākd-iš y’=ā, tamna ā asp-ē insī inda yē.
if/when open:3sREAL 3s= SUB SENS SUB horse–a humanlike in 3s
‘When he opened it, he saw there was a talking horse inside.’

7.3.2 The reportive evidential āwa

The non-firsthand evidential āwa labels reported information source, and includes both quotative (verbatim speech):

awa ā dō’-um yē na ba yē na.
REP SUB give:IMPF-1s 3s NEG to 3s NEG
‘He said “I will not give her to him.”’

awa ā dg-in ba yē tō kē =ī ā?
REP SUB say:IMPF-3p to 3s 2s who =EX:2s INTERR
‘They actually said to him, “Who are you?”’

and hearsay (indirect speech):

šēx wālēyt-ō, āwa ā ar čōt pi tō, tār-a.
sheikh country -the REP SUB that/which/who go:3sIMPF from 2s bring:IMPF-3s
‘O sheikh of the country, it is said whatever leaves you, comes back!’

awa ā zīn-ō kīšt-in.
REP SUB thief -the kill:REAL-3p
‘It is said they killed the thief!’

When combined with a verb in the imperative, āwa has a precative nuance:

tō āwa ā byō, āw ād ba mē!
2s REP SUB come:2sIMPER water give:2sIMPER to 1s
‘Please! I’m asking you, come on, give me water!’

7.3.3 The inferred evidential ēka
The evidential ḫa labels information that is not firsthand but that has been inferred from the situation. Often inferred evidentials take on a disclaimer role; in Uzbek and Kazakh, there is a “copular perfect” morpheme ēkan called a “non-confirmative” (Straughn 2011:9).

The Kumzari evidential ḫa incorporates information inferred from sensory evidence:

(379) G213
ar ġēla-an mā gis-ċ ā, ḫa ā yā ġrab-ō.
that/which/who wheat -PL 1p take:PERF-3s SUB INF SUB this crow -the
‘The one who has taken our wheat, it must have been this crow.’

and information inferred from general knowledge:

(380) S244
ēka ā ya kas tāt-a yē na.
INF SUB this PERS want:IMPF-3s 3s NEG
‘Obviously no one wanted this.’ (an abandoned boat covered in barnacles)

The inferred evidential also includes explanations appealing to the hearer’s deduction:

(381) G22
sā wa dimistān-an ā, kō’t =in
now if/when winter -PL SUB of.mountain =EX:3p
ēka ā bāram tō’-a na,
INF SUB rain become:IMPF-3s NEG
‘Now when it was wintertime, they were in the mountains as you know it doesn’t rain,’

(382) U176
ēka ā yā-an ā, pi drāz=in ā,… ḏaby-an. ġāzalē-ċ.
INF SUB DEM-PL SUB from long=EX:3p SUB oryx-PL gazelle-a
‘You know these ones which, that are long [antlers]… oryxes. A gazelle.’

The inferred evidential has pragmatic functions conveying irony:

(383) A581
afaḷḷa ēka ā ḥubbō tō, nakt-ō pī jāmal dār-iš ba mē.
Ar:God’s bounty INF SUB grandmother 2s little –a fat camel give:REAL-3s to 1s
‘It must be from God’s bounty, your grandmother gave me a little camel fat.’ (the speaker knows that in fact it was stolen.)

or to deceive:

(384) G746
ēka ā rōk-ō bap mē kīšt-ē.
INF SUB boy -the father 1s kill:PERF-3s
‘This boy has obviously killed my father.’ (in fact he did not, but it looks as though he did)

or to convey disbelief:
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7.4 Evidentials in discourse

Further to their place in syntax, evidentials have a compelling role as narrative devices. In the tale about the crow Ġrābō, the bedouins see tamna that their wheat has been eaten, they infer ēka that it must have been the crow who ate it, and later the crow caws to report awa that someone is lying.

Although all three evidentials are used in narrative discourse, none of them is a token of a genre. Rather, certain evidentials characterise different aspects of the plot.

7.4.1 Sensory evidential in foregrounding

In discourse grounding at the sentence level, commonly a backgrounding sā clause precedes a foregrounding tamna clause, for the effect of contrast and to highlight what is seen, heard, or felt:

(387) A316
sā wa raft awwa bār ā, tamna ā ḥāraṣ-an ba yē!
now if/when go:3sREAL first time SUB SENS SUB guard-PL to 3s
‘Now, when he went the first time, he saw that the guards were with it [at the grave]!’

As in many languages, the sensory evidential is also used as a strategy to convey vividness (Aikhenvald 2004:313). In the tale Kanēdō, a boy climbs to the top of a wild fig tree in the evening to await the arrival of a magic horse, whom he hopes to catch:

(388) K170
tamna ā, asp-ē rēsid, di-ta rōr wā yē.
SENS SUB horse-a arrive:3sREAL two-COUNT child with 3s
‘He saw that a horse came, with two foals.’

In the tale of Ahmad Tka, the thief evades capture only to return home to a criminal-sniffing police camel:

(389) A442
sā wa qaḥama y’=ā āma barra ā,
now if/when jumping up 3s=SUB come:3s outside SUB

tamna ā jāmal-ē raxama inda ḥawy yē.
SENS SUB camel–a reclining in courtyard 3s
‘Now when he jumped up and came outside, he saw a camel reclining in his courtyard.’
As an extension of its primary meaning citing a sensory information source, the evidential tamna marks the pivot in Kumzari discourse; as such, it directly precedes plot-significant information. In the tale Rōran Šēxō, the appearance of a snake is the catalyst for the gay youngest brother to prove his courage by killing it while the six macho brothers are too frightened:

(390) R209
tamna ā mār-ē! mār-ō āntē rāstī jāga xō, ḥūšu tka.
SENS SUB snake-a snake-the there correct place REFLECT slithering do:3sIMPF
‘They saw a snake! The snake was really there in its own place, it was slithering.’

The role of tamna in discourse is treated in more detail in chapter 11.

7.4.2 Sensory evidential in switch reference

With the verb gō ‘say’, the sensory evidential is used to denote switch reference within a conversation:

(391) B94
dg-in ba yē, ... iš wā mā rōr na.
say:IMPF-3p to 3s ... any with 1p child NEG
‘They said to him,… “we have no children.”

tamna ā dgō, mē rōr-an dō’-um ba šmā.
SENS SUB say:3sIMPF 1s child-PL give:IMPF-1s to 2p
[it was heard] he said, “I myself will give children to you.”’

and for change of syntactic subject:

(392) B787
inča ba’ada būr-in farra ā,
like this distancing become:IMPF-3p far away SUB

tamna ā dgō ba xwē xō,
SENS SUB say:3sIMPF to sister REFLECT

ēja! ḣin mē mād, ba šang-ō.
oh! what’s-it-called 1s stay:3sREAL for comb-the
‘Like this they became far away, [Then she said to her sister, “Oh! I left this comb of mine.”’

7.4.3 Reportive evidential in non-speech discourse

The conclusion of a tale prohibits direct speech (see chapter 11). In the tale Šōntyō’s coda, the homecoming of the sheikh’s daughter technically complies with this rule by using the reportive evidential instead of direct speech. In this context, the reportive evidential is used to indicate that no particular character is saying it, but the words are just “noise in a crowd”:
(393) S880
adala bur ḡār-ō.
go on become:MIR racket-the
‘‘The racket [of celebration] went on!’’

ḥawly-an! wa
male goat-PL and
Male goats! and
tāfaq-an! wa
gun-PL and
guns! and
matfa-ē bżand-in! wa
cannon-a hit:REAL-3p and
they fired a cannon! and
awa ā dit mā āmad! wa
REP SUB daughter 1p come:3sREAL and
it was said that ‘our daughter came [home]!’ and

awa ā rōr-ē wā yē! wa
REP SUB child-a with 3s and
it was said that ‘she has a child!’ and

awa ā dît kō šēx fālan gis-ē.
REP SUB daughter-the sheikh so-and-so take:PERF-3s
it was said that ‘the daughter has taken Sheikh so-and-so [in marriage]!’’’