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Assertion, presumption and presupposition:

an account of the erstwhile nominalizer YUM in Khalkha Mongolianⁱ

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In memory of John C. Street (1930-2017)

Abstract:

In this paper, we analyze the clitic YUM (< ‘thing’) in Khalkha Mongolian which, in different syntactic contexts, reinforces assertiveness or expresses different shades of presumption or presupposition. The former holds for declaratives where the presence of YUM conveys the speaker’s strong subjective commitment. In question clauses, YUM is used to indicate the speaker’s subjective and often strong guess, sometimes to the point that the speaker presupposes that the proposition actually obtains. In subordinate clauses, YUM may fulfill the same function or serve as a structurally necessary nominalizer for adjectival predicates without introducing any semantic opposition. In declaratives marked as immediately perceived, YUM conveys inference via assumptive reasoning. We thus analyze YUM as the

23 marker of subjective speaker conviction that within the Khalkha Mongolian declarative
24 system is opposed to both simple factuality and overt evidential marking.

25

26 **Keywords:** assertion; presumption; presupposition; inference; evidentiality

27

28

29 1. Introduction

30

31 In studies related to language philosophy and pragmatics, the question has been raised as to what
32 it means to make and interpret an assertion. On the one hand, it has been assumed that the
33 interpretation of assertions entails that the hearer attributes a belief to the speaker. Interpreting
34 would thus be the reverse of asserting in some Gricean approaches (e.g. Bach & Harnish 1979:
35 16), i.e. making a statement to the effect that a given proposition holds true, for which the speaker
36 must intend the hearer to think that the speaker believes said proposition. Conversely, hearers
37 may conceive of assertions as primary information similar to information perceived through
38 observation (Dummett 1981: 355), and speakers, in order to assert, merely need to intend to
39 impart information about the world. The latter understanding is supported by the cognitive
40 development of children who make and interpret assertions before they can attribute beliefs.
41 Fully competent speakers, in turn, may choose to interpret a given statement as the speaker's
42 mere belief rather than immediate information about reality e.g. if they have reason to doubt its
43 actual veracity or are participating in a type of discourse (such as scientific discourse) that entails
44 the intent to persuade rather than to communicate facts about the world as true (cf. Jary 2010:
45 37-44).

46 In the above-mentioned disciplines, the meaning of assertions is mostly presumed to be
47 language-independent (cf. Pagin 2016). However, since the realization of assertions is sensitive to
48 discourse type, one would expect that it may also vary between languages. For instance, the
49 Siouan language Hidatsa (Matthews 1965: 99-100; also quoted in Palmer 2001: 68-69)
50 distinguishes two types of assertion markers. The weaker marker indicates that the speaker
51 BELIEVES the statement to be true and would be mistaken if it turned out to be wrong. But by using
52 the stronger marker, the speaker claims that s/he KNOWS the statement to be true and could
53 otherwise be considered a liar. The starting point, then, could be that speech acts often entail
54 particular relationships between interlocutors that differ cross-culturally. Consider, for example,
55 the speech act encoded by English *warn* or *threaten*, compared to that for Japanese *satos-* which
56 invokes a benevolent, responsible, higher-ranking speaker. Social principles for interpreting
57 linguistic constructions such as modal questions may likewise vary cross-culturally (Wierzbicka
58 2003: 152-154). Now if constructions exist in hierarchical networks, then even very general
59 concepts such as subject and object are best understood as language-specific semantically related
60 groupings of participant roles of events in conceptual space (cf. Goldberg 1995, Croft 2001: 132-
61 171, Barðdal 2011). A similar case could then be made for the language-specific semantics of plain
62 declarative constructions due to differing conversational conventions, and this is indeed what
63 Behrens (2012) sets out to do for English and Hungarian. Plain English declaratives appear to
64 require hedging (such as *I think*) if they are used to express subjective opinions, while their
65 Hungarian equivalents do not (and structurally similar linguistic devices like *én azt hiszem* are
66 rather used to reinforce beliefs). Plain English declaratives would thus be closer to strong
67 assertives in Hidatsa, while plain Hungarian declaratives would resemble its weak assertives.

68 While English or Hungarian might each (possibly) field a single declarative construction with
69 language-internally consistent epistemological meaning, things become more complicated in

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70 languages with grammaticalized evidentiality. Evidentials differ from modals in that they don't
71 necessarily relativize the speaker's own claim to factuality, but communicate the speaker's
72 knowledge (cf. Aikhenvald & Dixon [eds.] 2014's *Grammar of knowledge*) given the way how a
73 speaker has accessed or learnt about it (Tournadre & LaPolla 2014). Direct sensory access to an
74 event does not necessarily imply reliable information (Lazard 1999 on Persian, Johanson 2006 on
75 Turkish, Brosig 2014 on Middle Mongol) and thus may well be used (in conventions established
76 by specific language communities) if a speaker merely wants to convey her sensory perception of
77 an event that she, in terms of world knowledge, is not entirely convinced of (cf. Jary [2010: 40]'s
78 label "perception-by-proxy").

79 One such system that operates with a number of epistemologically qualifying categories is
80 found in Khalkha Mongolian. Here, most indicative (declarative or interrogative) forms distinguish
81 categories such as tense, time of acquisition, evidentiality and, marginally, surprise. First, most
82 indicative (declarative or interrogative) forms distinguish between immediate and established
83 knowledge.¹ Forms that code immediate knowledge (*-laa*, *-žee*, *[bai]-n*) are morphologically finite
84 (i.e. can only be used in finite position) and refer to events that the speaker realizes, re-accesses,
85 evaluates or re-evaluates at the time of speech. In the past tense, they are subdivided according
86 to evidentiality into the type of personal access that the speaker had to the event, i.e. whether
87 the speaker perceived the event directly (*-laa*) or inferred it from directly perceivable evidence (*-*
88 *žee*). Established forms (*-saŋ*, *-dag*, *[bai[G]]-aa*), in contrast, are morphologically participles in finite
89 uses. They refer to information that has already been integrated as facts into the speaker's mental
90 representation of the world (cf. Brosig 2015, 2018, Brosig & Skribnik 2018).

¹ This excludes imperatives and hortatives that are expressed by suffixes that would occupy the same slot (see Janhunen 2012). It also excludes the suffix *-n* which refers to temporally unspecific potential developments (Brosig 2015: 51-63) when it is attached to verbs other than *bai-* (see next paragraph). It is unclear whether it extends to surprise-related uses of the habitual participle in *-dag* (Brosig 2015: 93-96, 101-104) and to the old past marker *-w* (Brosig 2018: 61-62).

91 Since past tense is always marked overtly, speakers always have to distinguish between
92 established (*-san*), direct (*-laa*) and inferred (*-žee*) knowledge. The distinctions in the present
93 tense are more complicated: evidentiality is not expressed, but time of acquisition closely
94 interacts with the aspectuality. For temporally delimited (stage-level) predications, speakers
95 always have to distinguish between events that they actively perceive (via the senses or in their
96 mind) or infer at the time of speech (marked by *X + bai-n*) as in (1a) and those that they have
97 already been aware of for a while and for which no currently available evidence is resorted to
98 (marked by *X + bai-[G]aa*) as in (1b). Regular verbal habitual predications (marked by *-dag*) and
99 nominal predications that denote properties of an individual (marked by bare nominal predicates)
100 usually lack explicit marking for time of realization, as in (1c), though this type of marking
101 ultimately tends to code established knowledge. However, these dividing lines are not carved in
102 stone. Habitual markers are occasionally used within the scope of an explicit marker of time of
103 realization such as *bai-n* in (1d),² and habitually re-occurring events with an internal time structure
104 may use a complex aspect-marking construction in the scope of habitual marking (*X + bai-dag*) as
105 in (1e).³

107 (1) (a) *nasn-ii xan'-aa xai-ž bai-n.* (IC)

108 life-GEN longterm.sexual.partner-RPOSS search-CVB AUX-PRS.IMM

² In a Spoken Corpus (SC, see §2) which is biased towards autobiographical narrative data, bare habitual forms were used in 98,4% (n=479) of all instances, while established marking in *-dag bai-(G)aa* was used in 7 cases and immediate marking in *-dag bai-n* in 1 case (see Brosig 2015). In the more balanced Internet Corpus (IC), the immediate perception form *-dag bai-n* is 20,3 times as frequent (10844:535) as the form for established perception *-dag bai-[G]aa*. Notably, inference in scientific and administrative texts is very often marked by *X + bai-n*.

³ “X” here is used to represent three different types of dependent aspectual structures (corresponding to the three rightmost columns of Table 1). First, it represents progressive, continuative-resultative and perfect marking via the converbal suffixes *-ž* and *-aad* and the participial suffix *-san*, respectively. These dependent aspectual constructions, followed by the copular auxiliary *bai-* as a dummy verb, can combine with all finite and finitely used markers. The dependent marking of habituality by *-dag bai-*, on the other hand, cannot combine with finitely used *-dag*. Finally, if the main predicate is not a verb but a nominal, it does not require any additional marking if no temporal delimitation is intended.

- 109 ‘[I] am searching for my life partner {consciously, as I am telling you}.’
- 110 (b) *min-ii üyiinxeŋ saiŋ nōxōr xai-ž bai-(g)aa.* (IC)
- 111 1SG-GEN peer good husband search-CVB AUX-PRS.EST
- 112 ‘My friend is searching [without me being present] for a good husband.’
- 113 (c) *lim üy-d az.žargal-tai bai-x öör xüŋ xai-dag.* (IC)
- 114 such time-DAT happiness-COM AUX-PTCP.NPST other person search-PTCP.HAB
- 115 ([Men] wait for women to make the first step. If the woman doesn’t make the first
- 116 step, they lose confidence in themselves or even think that the woman is rejecting
- 117 them.) ‘At such a point, [men] search for another person to be happy with.’
- 118 (d) *Üün-tei xolboo-toi-goor er-čüüd öör xeŋ.negeŋ seks-iin*
- 119 DEM.PROX-COM connection-COM-INS male-PL other somebody sex-GEN
- 120 *xamtragč emegtei-g er-ž xai-dag bai-n.* (IC)
- 121 partner woman-ACC search-CVB search-PTCP.HAB AUX-PRS.IMM
- 122 ‘In connection with this [e.g. as I have observed on multiple occasions], men look
- 123 for some other sex partner.’
- 124 (e) *bid ürgelž xeŋ.negn-iig xai-ž bai-dag.* (IC)
- 125 1PL permanently somebody-ACC search-CVB AUX-PTCP.HAB
- 126 ‘We’re always [in regular intervals] [in the course of] searching for somebody.’
- 127
- 128 Table 1 gives an overview of this system for past and present tense forms.⁴
- 129

⁴ In the Khalkha Mongolian past tense, the same aspectual distinctions are found as in the present, but since they don’t seem to influence aspectual choices (in contrast to Middle Mongol [Brosig&Skribnik 2018: 557-559] and Oirat [Bläsing 1984: 28, Gotō 2009: 127-8]). In the table, the past tense forms are not listed individually, except in the case of habitually re-occurring past forms, which we included into the past tense column to facilitate comparison between past and present habitual forms. Future reference is achieved via potential *-n*, present tense prospectives, perfective past suffixes and actional markers in an eclectic system that will have to be described in a future paper.

130 [intended location of Table 1]

131

132 Since immediate perceptual forms are also used for visual and supposive contexts, while
133 established markers entail a certain reification and abstraction from concrete memory (see Brosig
134 2018), there is no reason to assume that they are ranked in terms of the speaker’s commitment.
135 The evidential and time-of-acquisition-related distinctions are primarily intended to enable the
136 addressee to properly assess the truth of an assertion, thus relegating part of the responsibility
137 for accepting it to the addressee.

138 However, there is one additional distinction shown in Table 1 where a clitic =*iin* ~ =*n* (or a
139 particle *yum*) can be attached to participles or other nominals under certain circumstances, either
140 in finite position or before the copular auxiliary *bai*-. This particle originated from an abstract noun
141 *yum* (**jaɔma*) that can refer to physical entities as in (2a) and events as in (2b).⁵ As a clitic in post-
142 predicative position, it can reinforce an assertion as in (2c) or mark a proposition as presumed or
143 presupposed as in (2d), while it appears to somewhat lower the degree of epistemic certainty
144 when expressing presumptive reasoning as in (2e).⁶ As an erstwhile functional noun, =*iin* has
145 retained most of the distributional properties of nominal *yum* in that it is regularly “modified” by
146 participles and adjectives and cannot be preceded by finite verbs. It has, however, developed a
147 limited ability to cliticize to nouns.

148

⁵ While reflexes of **jaɔma*~**jama* are common to all modern Mongolic languages (Nugteren 2011: 544-545), it is first attested in a single Late Western Middle Mongol source and thus cannot be reconstructed for Proto-Mongolic. It might have developed from either Early Middle Mongol (13th century) *yau ba* what even ‘anything’ (John Street, p.c., 2017-01-29) or an unattested Late Middle Mongol form **yau ma* ‘anything’ < *yau* ‘what’ + Turkic *yämä* ‘also’ (Hans Nugteren 2011: 544, p.c., 2017-02-15).

⁶ In this paper, we define the term PRESUPPOSE from a speaker’s vantage point as “for the speaker to presume a proposition to hold and to further assume that the addressee can plausibly be expected to accept the proposition as a background assumption as well”. At the same time, we define PRESUME as “for the speaker to assume a proposition to hold on the basis of defeasible reasoning” (both definitions partially adapted from Macagno 2018: 299-308).

149 (2) (a) *ter yum id-seŋ.*

150 that thing eat-PST.EST

151 ‘She ate something.’

152 (b) *iim yum tox’oold-soŋ.*

153 such thing happen-PST.EST

154 ‘Such an event happened.’

155 (c) *ter id-s=iim.*

156 that eat-PTCP.PRF=ASS

157 ‘She ate!’

158 (d) *ter id-s=iim bol saiŋ.*

159 that eat-PTCP.PRF=ASS if good

160 ‘If she has indeed eaten, that’s good.’

161 (e) *ter id-s=iim bai-n.*

162 that eat-PTCP.PRF=ASS/NMLZ AUX-PRS.IMM

163 ‘She has eaten / must have eaten.’ (inferred at speech time)

164

165 In studies on the predicative or past tense system of Khalkha Mongolian (e.g. Byambasaŋ et al.

166 1987, Svantesson 1991, Song 1997, Binnick 2012, Brosig 2015a, 2018), the function of *yum* has

167 not been integrated into the analysis since it would be regarded as a “sentence-final particle” and

168 thus be assigned to another structural domain. Conversely, Kang (2003: 28-33)’s study of

169 sentence-final particles features *yum* but focuses on distribution rather than meaning. There are,

170 however, three dedicated studies on the particle *yum*. Möŋx-Amgalaŋ (1996) investigates *yum* in

171 collocations with interrogative words, participles and other nominals, sentence-final particles,

172 copulas, conjunctions and negators. He captures the respective meanings of these collocations by

173 using Mongolian speech act verbs (such as *xüürneŋ batalsaŋ* ‘asserted’ or *čuxalčlaŋ songgosaŋ*

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174 'emphasized as important' for the collocation *-saŋ yum*) and sometimes in terms of modal
175 categories. Mukai (2001) examines *yum* at the end of declarative main clauses (positive or
176 negated by *biš*) and interrogatives. Primarily focusing on information structure, Mukai analyzes
177 the 'focus adjustment form' 焦点調整形式 *yum* as a nominalizer that shifts attention away from
178 the main predicate to some other sentence constituent that is either syntactically peripheral or
179 semantically detailed or defined by contrast to adjacent clauses. He lists several uses not covered
180 by his analysis, but suggests that they are secondary extensions. Jīngāng (2007) also examines at
181 the end of declarative constructions and, building on Mukai's discussion of *yum* as a nominalizer,
182 claims a development from a general noun for physical entities 名詞 (もの) via an event-referring
183 noun こと (状能) to a noun that refers to 'generally known facts' 一般通念のこと, and from
184 there either to a 'result that necessarily follows from a causal relation' 因果関係による必然的
185 結果 or a 'reason why something occurred' 事柄成立の理由.

186 What these studies do not yet take into the picture is how the semantic contribution of *yum*
187 in subordinate clauses relates to its meaning in matrix clauses. Mönx-Amgalaŋ doesn't address
188 this problem because he is not concerned with the distinction between meaning and contextual
189 implicatures or the semantic contribution of *yum* to the collocations it partakes in. Mukai and
190 Jīngāng don't discuss these types of structures at all, emphasizing meanings or connotations that
191 are restricted to some of the attested contexts. In this paper, then, we set out to describe the
192 functions that *yum* fulfills in several syntactic positions in an attempt to come up with a unified
193 account of its semantic contribution to declarative, interrogative and subordinate clauses that
194 accounts for its assertive meaning in clause-final position and its presumptive to presuppositional
195 meaning in non-final position.

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196 To set the foundation of our study, we will first provide preliminary information about our
197 linguistic data, methods and transcription conventions (§2). Next we will provide an overview of
198 the construction types that *yum* is involved in (§3), and discuss its morphological and morphemic
199 status (§4). Following that, we will discuss *yum* as a referential noun (§5). We then discuss the
200 assertive and presumptive functions of *yum* in sentence-final position (§6), in post-predicative
201 position as part of clause connectors (§7), and in the presumptive reasoning construction (§8). In
202 the conclusion (§9), we will summarize our findings and explore the implications that
203 grammaticalized *yum* has for the overall system of assertive distinctions encoded in the Khalkha
204 Mongolian tense-aspect-evidentiality system.

205

206 **2. Data, methods and conventions**

207

208 This study takes as its starting point a spoken corpus (SC) of Khalkha Mongolian (Zolžargal & Brosig
209 2012) consisting of 60,000 words mostly taken from unscripted TV programs (see Brosig 2015a).
210 All tokens found in this corpus were categorized by function and analyzed within their discourse
211 context.⁷ When conducting this analysis, we used Brosig (2015a, 2018)'s fieldnotes from
212 contrastive elicitation and the classification of Mönx-Amgalaᠭ (1996) as our starting points. We
213 relied on SC to identify *yum*-based construction types and analyze constructions with a high token
214 frequency. We additionally relied on a larger internet corpus (IC) consisting of 34.6 million words
215 in Cyrillic script (Östling & Brosig 2011) to clarify the use of some patterns with low token
216 frequency. Where relevant, we also cite Mönx-Amgalaᠭ (1996)'s examples which were taken from

⁷ For identifying tokens in SC, we partially relied on the tagging used by Brosig (2015a, 2018). Here, the verbs *teg-* 'do like that', *iḡg-* 'do like this' and *yaa-* 'do how' were excluded if not accompanied by overt arguments, the verb *bai-* was only annotated as an auxiliary but not as a locational/possessive verb, and the verbs *bol-* 'become' and *ge-* 'say' (a quotative verb) were mostly excluded when not preceded by verbs.

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217 a corpus of nine theatre plays. For retrieving specific lexical collocations for expositional rather
218 than heuristic purposes, we occasionally used the internet search engine Google. The source of
219 each individual example is indicated throughout the text. Elicitation involving 2-4 informants was
220 used to check the results of text analysis and distributional analysis throughout most of the paper.
221 It played no role for most of the structure-oriented data in §5, while the distributionally
222 contradictory data in §7.2 was discussed with 6-8 informants. Informants consisted of a
223 convenience sample of adults between 18 and 50 years of age who were living in Ulaanbaatar,
224 had not studied Mongolian at university level nor worked as teachers, and had stated that both
225 of their parents were Khalkha speakers.

226 The language variety investigated in this study is the Khalkha dialect of Mongolian, the
227 dominant language of the Mongolian state. Findings would presumably also hold for other Central
228 Mongolian dialects such as Chakhar and Shilingol, but we did not undertake to demonstrate this.
229 The distribution of *yum* in other branches of Central Mongolic such as Eastern Mongolian and
230 Western Mongolian (=Oirat) is briefly mentioned for two dialects, Khorchin and Kalmyk, which
231 might or might not be representative of their branches. For instance, there is cursory evidence
232 that assertive *yum*, which is absent from Kalmyk, might exist in Qinghai Oirat (Deedmongol), i.e.
233 the south-easternmost dialect of Western Mongolian.

234 Examples from SC are transcribed phonemically with a transcription standard that draws
235 both from conventional transcription systems for Cyrillic and from IPA. The transcription of
236 examples from written sources is adjusted to better represent consonant phonemes and
237 syllabification, though the non-cliticization of *yum* in most writing is retained faithfully even
238 though it may contradict syllabification rules of the spoken language. The glossing and translation
239 of examples from other sources are always ours. In the translations of examples, parentheses
240 mark utterances present in the source that, in order to save space, are only given in translation,

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241 or information that would be inferred from such passages. Brackets indicate information that was
242 not (literally) present in the source material or that resisted literal translation. Descriptions of the
243 overall context are given in curly brackets.

244

245 **3. Uses of *yum*: an overview**

246

247 In this section, we shall provide a brief overview of the synchronic network of *yum*-based
248 constructions and its historical implications. As a starting point, let us take a look at Table 2 that
249 shows the frequencies of *yum*-based constructions found in SC:

250

251 *[intended location of Table 2]*

252

253 Apart from its referential uses, *yum* occurs in two constructions in which it falls within the scope
254 of a sentence-final existential copula: action denial ('it is not the case that I V-ed', as discussed
255 below in (60)) and presumptive reasoning, as in (2e). Here, *yum* would appear to function as
256 matrix clause subject (i.e., if one would try to (mis)interpret *ter id-seŋ yim* in (2e) as 'the issue that
257 she ate') and simultaneously as the head of a preceding attributive clause (*yim bai-n* 'there is a
258 case / there are cases'). However, this analysis is incorrect since regular attributive clauses in
259 Central Mongolic allow for genitive subjects (i.e. *tüün-ii id-seŋ yim*), while this construction
260 requires a nominative subject (as in (2e)). Consequently, *yum* in these constructions is not a
261 subordinating element (anymore), but functions as an epistemological modifier of the matrix
262 clause in a syntactically flat structure. The two uses differ with regard to the morphological status
263 of *yum*: In the action denial construction, *yum* is a phonotactically distinct word (a particle), while
264 in the presumptive reasoning construction it may be cliticized to the preceding element. YUM as

265 a clitic or particle without a copula can also be found in the final position of subordinate clauses
266 (e.g. conditionals and similatives) or the matrix clause. These uses are mostly assertive /
267 presumptive / presuppositional and constitute the main research object of this paper. Among the
268 clause-final uses, there are also those in which *yum* and the subsequent element have turned into
269 a compound word. In such cases, the assertive meaning of *yum* is partially reinterpreted in terms
270 of a new clause-connecting function.

271 Since the main goal of this paper is a synchronic analysis, we have opted to discuss the
272 constructions at hand in an order that is semantically motivated: We first discuss assertive and
273 presumptive uses of *yum* in sentence-final position (§6), then its presumptive reinterpretation in
274 clause connection (§7), and finally the presumptive uses of copula-assisted *yum* in main clauses
275 (§8). Uses that don't fully fit into these classifications (action denial, 'or', 'because') will briefly be
276 mentioned in contexts where they structurally fit in.

277

278 **4. The morphological status of *yum***

279

280 Morphologically, as has been mentioned in §3, *yum* can morpho-syntactically take the form of an
281 independent noun, a particle that (in contrast to the noun) participates in syntactically flat
282 structures, and a clitic that is attached to the preceding element. Morpho-phonologically, this
283 development towards a bound morpheme is gradual and crucially depends on the frequencies of
284 individual morphological collocations. As a noun or particle, *yum* takes the form /jʊm/, i.e. [jʊm]
285 or [jim]. The clitic, by contrast, has the phonological form /jin/, but its realization differs somewhat:
286 When attaching to adjectives or nouns, it is [jin] or vowel-harmonic [jAn]. When attaching to the
287 participial suffixes [sʌŋ] (perfect/established past), [tʌg] (habitual) and [v̥x] (nonpast), /jin/ is
288 mostly realized as [in], and the codas of the perfect participle (obligatorily) and habitual participle

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289 (optionally) drop, along with their non-phonemic reduced vowels (yielding [sin], [t(g)in] and [xin]).

290 Alternatively, speakers sometimes retain the full form [jin], but connect it to the preceding

291 participle with an epenthetic [i] (yielding [sijin], [tjin] and [xijin]).⁸ When attaching to the

292 established present form *baigaa* [pæ:-ga] of the copula, *yum* only takes the form [n]. The final [n]

293 of the clitic is often realized as nasalization of the preceding vowel (e.g. [sĩ̃] instead of [sin]). If

294 retained, it is realized as [m] before bilabials or in intervocalic position.

295 While this phonetic variation can be described more or less objectively, the answer to the

296 question of how many morphemes should be postulated is an analytical decision. Different

297 Mongolian orthographies answer this question differently. In normative Cyrillic Mongolian as

298 used in the Mongolian state, reflexes of Common Mongolic *jɑʊma are always rendered as юм

299 <yum>, though reduced forms occasionally make it into writing. In Contemporary Written

300 Mongolian as used in Inner Mongolia, a noun ᠶᠠᠭᠠᠮᠠ <yagum-a> and a particle ᠶᠤᠮᠤ <yum> are

301 distinguished. The approximate interdependence of cliticization and grammatical construction,

302 summarized in Table 2, provides evidence for two morphemes. This evidence is most

303 straightforward with participles which tend to require the use of the cliticized form =iin (unless in

304 very formal speech or in reading aloud), while nouns and adjectives (particularly those not derived

305 through the comitative suffix -tAi, cf. (7a)) more often co-occur with a de-accented, but

306 segmentally unreduced particle form.

307 In the remainder of this paper, we will use “YUM” as a shorthand for all non-referential uses

308 of *yum*/=iin irrespective of morphological form. In examples, we will disambiguate it by using the

⁸ Judging from the transcription of SC, this longer variant might be most common in subordinate clause contexts, but since the transcription was not made to catch such quasi-allophonic variation, this might also be an artefact of the transcription process.

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309 glosses “thing” and “ASS[ERTIVE]”. In contexts that might arguably contain a non-referential noun,

310 we will occasionally use “NMLZ” (for “nominalizer”) as an alternative glossing.

311

312 5. Referential uses

313

314 In Khalkha Mongolian, referential *yum* is used to refer to physical entities as in (3) ($n_{SC}=94$) or non-

315 material entities (including activities and processes in addition to concepts) ($n_{SC}=280$)⁹ as in (4)

316 and (5).¹⁰ In most contexts, *yum* is devoid of particular evaluative connotations, though its

317 semantic indeterminacy can be exploited for intentional indirectness in taboo contexts (e.g. *yum*

318 *uu-* thing drink- in the sense ‘drink vodka’ or *gazr-iij yum* ground-GEN thing ‘anthrax’).¹¹ When referring

319 to humans, animals or organizations ($n_{SC}=16/94$)¹² as in (6), the non-agentive (since inanimate)

320 core meaning of *yum* is reinterpreted in terms of pity or contempt. *Yum* is the most common

321 abstract noun for things and processes, being far more frequent than its semantically most similar

322 competitor *zül* ‘event, process, issue, thing’ ($n_{SC}=37$).

323

324 (3) *bi yeröösöö ix yum züü-(y)ii ge-ž bod-[dog=güi] (SC)*

325 1SG at.all many thing put.on(jewelry)-CHRT COMP-CVB think-PTCP.HAB=NEG

326 ‘I don’t think at all that I want to put on a lot of things.’

327 (4) *yer-eed oŋ-ii exen-d am’dral xecüüd-xed neg bük=(e)l yum*

⁹ This number includes 16 ambiguous cases.

¹⁰ This use is first attested in the Late Western Middle Mongol (15th century?) source *Muqaddimat al-Adab* (edited by Saito 2008) where an abstract noun *ya:ma* is used with reference to inanimate physical entities and in some instances to non-physical non-eventive entities such as knowledge. In this function, it is also attested in corpora of Khorchin [Hán et al. 2012/2016] (0,48%, $n=169/35000$) and Kalmyk [Baranova 2007-2014] (0,45%, $n=35/7743$), with token frequencies that resemble Khalkha (0,62%, $n_{SC}=374/60032$). *Yum* cannot refer to time which in Khalkha is covered by *üy* ‘period’ and *cag* ‘time’.

¹¹ <https://mongoltoli.mn/dictionary/detail/137961>, retrieved 2017-01-17

¹² That is, the overall number of tokens in which *yum* refers to physical entities is 94, and of these 16 refer to humans, animals or organizations

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328 90-APPROXIMAL year-GEN beginning-DAT life become.difficult-CVB.when one all=FOC thing
 329 *xecüüd-seŋ*. (SC)
 330 become.difficult-PST.EST
 331 ‘In the early 1990s, when life became more difficult, all things became more difficult.’

332 (5) *ta bol öör=öö telwiz-ees öör yum xii-x=güi bai-n=uu?* (SC)

333 2SG.HON TOP self=RPOSS TV-ABL other thing do-PTCP.NPST=NEG AUX-PRS.IMM=Q

334 ‘So you yourself are not doing anything else except for TV?’

335 (6) *gexdee manai-d yadruu yum bai-x=güi=l=dee*. (SC)

336 but 1PL.EXCL.GEN-DAT somewhat.poor thing be-PTCP.NPST=NEG=FOC=DP

337 ‘But there are no impoverished individuals around here [i.e. at this place of ours].’

338

339 There are three properties that referential *yum* shares with all other countable nouns: it is a
 340 prosodically independent word which can receive accent; it can occur in clause-initial or clause-
 341 medial position, and it can be morphologically marked ($n_{sc}=122$) for number, case and possession
 342 as in (7a-c) and reduplicated for distributional and attitudinal readings as in (7d), where *yum~xum*
 343 helps to tone down the importance that the speaker assigns to the referents. Morphologically
 344 unmarked clause-final *yum* is potentially ambiguous between referential and assertive uses (see
 345 §6.1). Structural ambiguity is higher in writing, since normative orthography ignores cliticization
 346 and accent and always represents *yum* as an independent word.

347

348 (7) (a) *end min-ii yum(n)-uud dutuu bai-(G)aa=daa*. (SC)

349 here 1SG-GEN thing-PL incomplete AUX-PRS.EST=DP

350 ‘[We have just moved.] Here, many of my things are missing.’

351 (b) *texeeree nögöö xüüxed=čín’ nuu-x yum-tai bol-ž exel-deg*. (SC)

352 so aforementioned child=STC hide-PTCP.NPST thing-COM become-CVB begin-PTCP.HAB

353 'So those children develop things that they [want to] hide.'

354 (c) *dur-tai yum=aa üz-(e)n* (SC)

355 like(desire-COM) thing=RPOSS look-POT

356 'They watch the things they like'

357 (d) *tend-ees yum~xum aw-aa=l* (SC)

358 there-ABL thing~DISTRIBUTIVE take-CVB.PFV=FOC

359 'From there, we bought this and that and ...'

360

361 In most cases ($n_{SC}=229/374$, 61.2%), *yum* hosts short attributes consisting of one or two elements
362 such as quantifiers in (3) and (4), determiners in (5), adjectives in (6), comitative nouns in (7c),
363 and participles in (7b). Since words from these word classes (with the exception of some
364 determiners) usually cannot refer to participants purely on their own, using *yum* as the most
365 abstract noun available is an efficient way to create participant-referring noun phrases for non-
366 human(-resembling) patients and themes. *Yum* is not as commonly used for agents and humans
367 (which can be referred to by specific nouns or by the general noun *xüŋ* 'person, someone'), places,
368 times (for which the abstract nouns *üy* and *cag* exist along with converbial expressions) and events,
369 which are more commonly nominalized by participles followed by either case suffixes as in (8a)
370 or personal possessive clitics as in (8b). On the other hand, the number of cases in which *yum* is
371 preceded by more complex attributes ($n_{SC}=33$) is relatively small.

372

373 (8) (a) *En xereg xezee gar-sŋ-iig med-(e)x=güi*. (IC)

374 this event when OCCUR-PTCP.PRF-ACC KNOW-PTCP.NPST=NEG

375 '[I] don't know when this event occurred.'

376 (b) *Tiim xereg gar-saŋ=n' üneŋ*. (IC)

377 such event occur-PTCP.PRF=3POSS true

378 'It is true that such an event occurred.'

379

380 Apart from this, *yum* can also occur without attributes ($n_{SC}=64$). In the case of direct objects, this
381 results in quantification since the presence/absence of the accusative case indicates
382 specificity/non-specificity (see Guntsetseg 2016), as (9) illustrates.

383

384 (9) *xüŋ-tei yum yar'-ž čad-ax=güi.* (SC)

385 person-COM thing speak-CVB can-PTCP.NPST=NEG

386 'I cannot talk with people [even a bit].'

387

388 Guntsetseg (p.c., 2017-04-03) further suggests that *yum* might occasionally be used as a dummy
389 argument inthetic (or “unanchored”) sentences to fill an obligatorily overt argument position.

390

391 6. Sentence-final YUM

392

393 Apart from its primary function as an abstract referential noun, Khalkha YUM can be used in clause-
394 and sentence-final predicates in a modal or interactional function.¹³ It is highly frequent in such
395 functions, being present in a total of 3-15% of sentences in the theatre plays of Mönx-Amgalaŋ
396 (1996)'s corpus and constituting or being part of 2,1% of words in SC ($n=1282$). This section will
397 focus on the most frequent among these secondary uses, which is to either reinforce
398 assertiveness in statements or presume certain states-of-affairs in questions. In SC, this usage is

¹³ *Yum* did not develop non-referential uses in Kalmyk and Khorchin at all. In Khorchin, though, it converted to a verb *jim-* 'do so' (Bayancoytu 2002: 277-278).

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399 attested in 777 of 4248 finitely used positive indicative verbal predicates (18%) and in overall 145
400 nominal predicates. Morpho-syntactically, sentence-final YUM forms a grammatical class unto
401 itself in that it occupies a dedicated slot in-between nominals (participles, nouns, adjectives,
402 existential-identificational particles) and all other sentence-final (modal or discourse) particles. It
403 patterns with sentence-final particles in that it cannot be used on its own as an answer to a
404 question (Umetani 2013: 305, 308-310). Since most modal particles (which express epistemic and
405 evidential notions without referring to the relationship between the interlocutors) are fossilized
406 copulas, it is indeed expected that they should follow YUM as an erstwhile noun under SOV word
407 order. Due to its nominal provenience, it is also expected that YUM cannot follow finite (indicative
408 or mood) suffixes. Its position within the overall system of sentence-final particles, with slight
409 simplifications, is shown in Table 3 (building upon Kang 2003: 41):

410

411 *[intended location of Table 3]*

412

413 Table 3 shows that YUM combines with participles which express established information, while
414 it does not combine with indicative declarative suffixes that express immediate realization (see
415 Brosig & Skribnik 2018) or with non-indicative mood suffixes (such as imperatives, hortatives, or
416 preventives). It may precede most modal particles with their various epistemological meanings
417 (e.g. *baix* ‘possibly, probably’, *šiw* ‘apparently’, *bilee* [recollection], *až* [indirect evidence]), which
418 are in turn followed by epistemic discourse particles that intersubjectively allocate epistemic
419 authority to the speaker (=šüü) or addressee (question particle =UU).¹⁴ Its meaning must

¹⁴ The diachronically heterogeneous discourse particle =AA fulfills a variety of stance-related functions such as expressing politeness (Brosig 2015: 61,75-76), enthusiasm (Kullmann&Tserenpil 1996: 337) or insistence, but more research is needed for a somewhat consistent account of its functions.

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420 therefore be compatible with both epistemic and intersubjective notions, though there might
421 certainly be some conventionalized interaction.¹⁵ In the following, our discussion will only take up
422 the distinction between unmarked declaratives and interrogatives marked by =*uu* and =*be*, while
423 leaving aside the synergies that YUM develops with the other sentence-final particles or even with
424 particular participles.¹⁶

425

426 6.1 Sentence-final YUM in declaratives

427

428 Declarative sentence-final YUM ($n_{SC:PTCP}=465$, $n_{SC:OTHER.NOMINALS}=36$) indicates the **speaker's full**
429 **subjective commitment** to an utterance, thus increasing its assertive force. Mönx-Amgalaŋ
430 (1996), in his detailed but decontextualized analysis, describes this in terms of individual meanings
431 such as *xüč nemeŋ batalsaŋ* / *oncloŋ batalsaŋ* / *čuxalčlaŋ batalsaŋ* 'assert while adding force /
432 particularly singling out / emphasizing as important', *medeelenŋ songosoŋ* 'inform and familiarize'
433 and *ünemšüülenŋ itgüülex* '(try to) convince', which can be interpreted in terms of the different
434 conversational purposes that motivate such commitment. In contrast to a discourse particle
435 combination such as *š=d* (i.e. *šüü=dee*) which indicates the speaker's and a third party's higher
436 epistemic authority and thus "objective truth", the commitment conveyed by YUM appears to be
437 the speaker's own evaluation or subjective truth, and YUM indeed often occurs in contexts where
438 the speaker talks about her own feelings or intentions such as (10) or tries to explain and justify
439 her deeds as in (11). Informants suggest that the speaker actually expresses her feelings by
440 uttering (10), while she would merely report them if YUM was absent. A similar situation can be

¹⁵ For instance, *šiw* combines with -*x*/YUM, hinting at a distributional pattern similar to the one discussed in §7.2, while *dag* tends to combine with -*siiin* or *bai-n*.

¹⁶ The interpretation of *yum* in combination with participles, the modal particles *dAg*, *bil(ee)* and *sAŋ*, and all discourse particles except *xöö* is, however, discussed by Mönx-Amgalaŋ (1996).

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441 observed in (12) where the absence of YUM would either result in a mere statement about the
442 past (which would not be felicitous in the context of the teachers' meeting during which this
443 sentence was uttered) or about an entire lack of concern on the part of the speaker. In the pattern
444 -x *ge*-PAST which denotes subject intention (see especially Song 2002), the YUM-based variant
445 requires a first-person subject (Möñx-Amgalañ 1996: 29) as in (13).

446

447 (10) *en čemdañ-g odoo bi ix xairal-d=iin.* (SC)

448 this suitcase-ACC now 1SG very love-PTCP.HAB=ASS

449 '[The things that I am most proud of in my home, the things that I am most happy about
450 and would like to show people are my books. When I came from London, I brought seven
451 suitcases of books.] This suitcase now I love a lot. [In this suitcase, I used to put my most
452 important books.]'

453 (11) Ranma: Hey...Where's Ryoga?

454 Genma: Oh, he took the Kinjakan [a kind of magical staff that can be used
455 like a supersonic motorcycle] to get some food.

456 Ranma (dazzled): Eh...Ryoga...

457 Muus (dazzled): Took off with the Kinjakan...

458 Ranma (angry): And you just let him go?

459 Genma (sweating): Um... I wanna eat sometime...

460 *Mm... bi yum id-meer bai-s-iin...*¹⁷

461 um 1SG thing eat-wish.CVB AUX-EST.PST=ASS

462 (Lit. Um ... I wanted to eat something.)

¹⁷ Takahashi, Rumiko. 1996. Ranma½ 37(8): 123. Japanese-English translation of this manga by Jason Bridgmon, English-Mongolian translation by Atagu (2013).

463 (12) *Bi zügeer aŋg_daa-saŋ_bagš-iij xuw'd tan-d xel-ye ge-ž bod-son yum.*

464 1SG just class_teacher for 2SG.HON-DAT say-HORT QV-CVB think-PTCP.PRF ASS

465 'I just thought, as the class teacher, that I should tell you this.'

466 (13) *Noyo<o>ŋ, bi ta(n)-d belegl-ex ge-seŋ yum.* (Mönx-Amgalaŋ 1996: 29)

467 lord<EMPH> 1SG 2SG.HON-DAT present-PTCP.NPST say-PTCP.PRF ASS

468 'Lord, I want to offer a present to you.'

469

470 However, YUM is not limited to such contexts, and it is perfectly possible for a speaker to use YUM
471 about events in which the speaker is not a participant, such as *soxtuu yaw-x=iin* '[they] would
472 always be drunk' in (14), or also when adding emphasis (i.e. conveying the writer's conviction) in
473 newspaper texts. In emotionally loaded contexts such as (14), where a speaker tries to convince
474 his addressee of an opinion that contradicts the published opinion, YUM may be used in several
475 consecutive clauses, while such sustained use is precluded in formal style. Interestingly,
476 informants interpret *taar-x=iin* in (14) in two ways, namely either as the speaker's emotional
477 conviction that he wants immediately enforced or as the speaker's subjective opinion that he
478 seeks support for but which the addressee need not (yet) share.

479

480 (14) *odoo en süüliij ... šuud xel-xed süüliij doloŋ naimaŋ žil saixaŋ ox'-duud*

481 now this recent direct say-CVB.when last seven eight year beautiful girl-PL

482 *dandaa soxtuu soxtuu yaw-x=iin. en baar zaar-uud-iig bügd-ii=n xaa-wal*

483 always drunk drunk go-PTCP.NPST=ASS this baar RED-PL-ACC all-ACC=3POSS close-CVB.COND

484 *taar-x=iin. bi šuud xel-žai-(g)aa=m šüü. en xüüxd-iij-x=aa tölöö.*

485 fit-PTCP.NPST=ASS 1SG direct say-PROG-PTCP.PRS=ASS DP this child-GEN-NMLZ=RPOSS for

486 *ard_tümn-ii xüüxed dund surguul' oydl-iij surguul' yaagaad tögs-č*

487 people-GEN child middle school sewing-GEN school why finish-CVB

488 **bol-d=güi=n.** *neg xüüxed yaagaad gutl-iij surguul' tögs-ööd gutal*

489 may-PTCP.HAB=NEG=ASS one child why shoe-GEN school finish-CVB.PFV shoe

490 **xii-ž** *yaagaad bol-d=güi=n.* (SC)

491 make-CVB why may-PTCP.HAB=NEG=ASS

492 'Now these last ... saying it outright, beautiful girls would always be drunk throughout

493 these last seven, eight years. One ought to close down these bars, all of them. I'm

494 speaking straight. For the sake of these children! Why may the children of our people not

495 graduate from middle school or sewing school? Why may some child not graduate from

496 cobbler's school and make shoes?'

497

498 One common type of usage that Mukai (2001: 85-86) mentions but leaves unclassified is in

499 expository sentences like (15). In our account, these are explained in terms of the writer's

500 subjective commitment. When explaining such sentences, informants emphasize the speaker's or

501 writer's expertise or subjective certainty. Due to this subjective commitment, the proposition of

502 the sentence is understood as soundly asserted and not in need of further explanation, something

503 that occasionally leads to an interpretation as a sentence that in itself constitutes an explanation.

504 We thus interpret Jīngāng's (2007) explanation in terms of 'reason why something occurred' as a

505 relatively frequent connotation, while our analysis leaves no room for his interpretation of YUM

506 as marking 'generally known facts'.^{18,19}

507

¹⁸ Subjective examples like (10)-(13) obviously don't convey generally known facts, and neither do expository examples like (15) when interpreted by informants. In (14), the presence or absence of YUM mostly correlates with the personal confidence and conviction of a speaker who uses YUM in an attempt to convince the audience.

¹⁹ The reader may notice that we do not cite any examples from Jīngāng (2007). The reason for this is the overall sparsity of examples in Jīngāng's paper with regard to this part of his semantic analysis (arguably only his examples (30)-(34)), the lack of contextualization of these examples, and structural features in his examples (31)-(33) that were rejected by some of our informants during elicitation (presumably for dialect-related reasons).

508 (15) *Šizofreni šinž_temdeg oloŋ yanz-iij ilrel-tei yum.* (Mukai 2001: 85)

509 schizophrenia sign many kind-GEN manifestation-COM ASS

510 ‘Schizophrenia has many different manifestations.’

511

512 The specific use of YUM as a ‘focus adjustment marker’ claimed by Mukai (2001) is illustrated in
513 (16). Here, the presence of YUM is claimed to shift the focus from the main predicate to the
514 subject, *bi* ‘I’, as contrasted to some other agent. While informants tended to mention the
515 speaker’s sincerity and the explanatory power of the sentence when discussing the contribution
516 of YUM to this sentence, they indeed were unwilling to accept any interpretation that puts a focus
517 on the predicate. However, this is also due to the predicate itself, since the Mongolian verb *zur-*
518 as a general term also covers drawing and other techniques, so that virtually any normal picture
519 must have been produced by an activity that can be described by this verb. However, if the verb
520 is changed to *xuul-* ‘copy > plagiarize’, all informants immediately assume a contrast with a
521 predicate, namely *bič-* ‘write [oneself]’. Since this operation does not change the overall structure
522 of the sentence, it seems that the contribution of YUM cannot be explained purely in terms of
523 focus even in this type of sentence.

524

525 (16) *Ünen-iig xel-exed BI zur-saŋ yum.* (Mukai 2001: 81)

526 truth-ACC say-CVB.when 1SG paint-PTCP.PRF ASS

527 ‘To say the truth, “I” painted it [myself].’

528

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529 Among non-participial predicates combining with YUM, adjectives²⁰ as in (17) are prevalent. In
530 such predications, the status of YUM as particle or noun in written contexts is potentially
531 ambiguous. As seen in (18), occasional co-occurrences with nouns, where *yum* is unambiguously
532 interpreted as a sentence-final particle, are attested as well.

533

534 (17) *za za sūrxii yum=aa.* (SC)

535 well well terrific thing/ASS=HON

536 1. 'Well well, that's terrific!'

537 2. 'Well well, that's a terrific thing.'

538 (18) *en бүхe᠓ kaimr-i᠓ ᠦᠷ_дᠦᠩ yum=aa.* (SC)

539 this all camera-GEN result ASS=HON

540 'All of this [i.e our increased ability to detect crime] is the result of the cameras!'

541

542 6.2 Sentence-final YUM in questions

543

544 YUM in questions differs from its declarative counterpart both in terms of function and frequency.

545 In functional terms, interrogative YUM is epistemically weaker than declarative YUM: While the

546 speaker uses declarative YUM to designate a given statement as her own personal conviction and

547 thus conveys (subjective) epistemic certainty, in interrogatives this conviction may get

548 reinterpreted in weaker terms such as expectation of certain facts or the anticipation of a certain

549 assertion on the part of the addressee. In other words, the speaker may use YUM to indicate that

550 she, at the time of speaking, **presumes** a certain state-of-affairs to hold (or that she expects the

²⁰ In Mongolian, the comitative case *-tai* can still express its original possessive meaning, e.g. *son'orxol-tai* 'having interest > interesting, exciting' or *xereg-tei* 'having necessity > must'. The words thus derived have an adjective-like distribution and, for the purpose of this paper, are treated as adjectives.

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551 authoritative addressee to be committed to a certain state-of-affairs). Consequently, YUM can be
552 used in **interrogative** structures that are not meant to improve the speaker's understanding of
553 the world with regard to the content that the question, if understood as such, would elicit. Apart
554 from exam questions, this is also true of **exclamatives** and **rhetorical questions**, where a certain
555 state of affairs is not only presumed, but fully presupposed. Alternatively, the speaker may take
556 a disinterested stance with regard to the information asked about since it is already presumed.

557 In terms of frequency, interrogative YUM in SC accounts for 41% ($n_{SC:PTCP}=321/786$) of the
558 overall sentence-final tokens of YUM with participial predicates and for 71% ($n_{SC:NOM.PRED}=89/125$)
559 of sentence-final tokens with other nominal predicates. While the ratio of interrogative to
560 declarative sentences in SC cannot be calculated based on its current annotation, it is safe to
561 assume that it must be below 1:2. This means that the relative frequency (and prominence) of
562 YUM in interrogatives is much higher than in declaratives. The diverging relative frequencies with
563 participles and other nominals also indicate that the word class of the predicate's core lexeme
564 plays a certain role.

565 As stated, one of the two main functions of YUM in questions is expressing that the speaker
566 anticipates a certain answer (*lawlaŋ batlaž asuux* 'asking to consult and confirm', Möñx-Amgalaŋ
567 1996: 36). The presence of YUM usually distinguishes such questions from open questions (cf.
568 Kang 2003: 31) where such anticipation is lacking. In (19)(a), for instance, the speaker uses YUM
569 when asking about a state-of-affairs that he had already guessed on the basis of his observations
570 while being a guest in the home of the family he is visiting. In contrast, a visitor with no previous
571 knowledge about the addressee's family who thus wouldn't anticipate any particular answer,
572 would ask the same question without YUM, as in (19)(b) from the Frequently Asked Questions
573 section of a personal website. The use of YUM in polar questions can entail different nuances, for
574 instance offence (Möñx-Amgalaŋ 1996: 36) as in (20), or confirmation of newly learnt information

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575 along with a shade of doubt (Mönx-Amgalaŋ 1996: 37) as in (21). In the latter case, a pre-existing
576 personal conviction is replaced by what the speaker assumes she is entitled to believe given the
577 conversational context. In (22), informants hold that Speaker B had not anticipated to be given a
578 present earlier on but that, at the time of speaking, she does anticipate to receive this present
579 and, thus, a positive answer. (23) illustrates an alternative question in which the speaker suspects
580 that the addressee has actually broken the object, thus anticipating a negative answer to the first
581 and a positive answer to the second alternative.

582

583 (19)(a) *ta ail-iij tom yum=uu, tee?* (SC)

584 2SG.HON family-GEN large ASS=Q INTERJ

585 ‘You are the oldest (child) of the family, right?’

586 (b) *Ail-iij tom=uu?*²¹

587 family-GEN large=Q

588 ‘Are you the oldest [child] of the family?’

589 (20)Či *nadad xair=güi bol-čix-son yum=uu?*²²

590 2SG 1SG.DAT love=NEG become-COMPL-PTCP.PRF ASS=Q

591 ‘Have you lost your love for me?’

592 (21)Aa *öndör Ceweeŋ-ii xüü yum=uu?* (Mönx-Amgalaŋ 1996: 37)

593 INTERJ large NAME-GEN SON ASS=Q

594 ‘Oh, he’s the son of Big Ceween?’

595 (22)A: *en moŋgol-oos aw-saŋ beleg.*

596 this Mongolia-ABL take-PTCP.PRF present

²¹ <https://ask.fm/anukaorji>, ca. July 2016, retrieved 2017-03-13. From a question-answer section.

²² Mönxsaihan Xongorzul (reporter): Duučin B.Amarxüü, Aziin Top model’ O.Ar’uunzul: Am’draliij utag učir xüüxed yum bain. <http://www.ubs.mn/news/12275>, 2015 or 2016, retrieved 2017-03-13

597 'This is a present [that I] brought from Mongolia.'

598 B: *nadaa ög-č bai-(g)aa yum=uu?* (Mukai 2001: 78)

599 1SG.DAT give-CVB AUX.PRS.EST ASS=Q

600 'Are you giving [it] to ME?'

601 (23)*Xagar-san yum=uu, xagal-san yum=uu?* (Mukai 2001: 78)

602 break(INTR)-PTCP.PRF ASS=Q break(TR)-PTCP.PRF ASS=Q

603 'Did it break, or did you break it?'

604

605 When asking YUM-based polar questions, the speaker thus presumes that the state-of-affairs
606 asked about either holds or does not hold. In content questions, no possible state-of-affairs that
607 might serve as an answer is put into words, but the speaker still anticipates a specific answer or
608 type of answer. For instance, in (24), the speaker is asking about the age of a small child which
609 she can approximately guess. In (25), a police officer asks a suspected thief about a phone that he
610 presumes the suspect to have stolen from one of the (not specifically known) customers of a large
611 street market.

612

613 (24)*xüüxed=čin' odoo xedeŋ sar-tai yum=be?* (SC)

614 child=STC now how.many month-COM ASS=Q

615 'How many months is your child now?'

616 (25)*en xeŋ-ii utas yum=be?* (SC)

617 this who-GEN phone ASS=Q

618 'Whose phone might this be?'

619

620 When the speaker considers her own knowledge as authoritative, YUM can be used in “insincere”
621 questions such as topical questions meant to draw the addressee’s attention that the asker later
622 answers herself as in (26) or exam questions like (27). In this type of questions, the addressee is
623 not necessarily expected to know the full answer, but is at least presumed to hold relative
624 knowledge that could be used when approximating the actual state-of-affairs.

625

626 (26) *Yaagaad mongol aaw öglöö cai=(g)aa uu-xd=aa ger-iij*

627 why Mongolian father morning tea=RPOSS drink-CVB.when=RPOSS yurt-GEN

628 *baruuj xoimor-t suu-dag yum=be?* (IC)

629 western seat.of.honour-DAT sit-PTCP.HAB ASS=Q

630 ‘Why does a Mongolian father, when he drinks his tea in the morning, sit at the western
631 seat of honor {at the north side} of the yurt? (As science has confirmed, [the reason is]
632 that the beautiful, auspicious morning sun is first reflected on the north-western wall of
633 the tent. (...))’

634 (27) *Üün-d=čin’ yamar dörwön nügel bagt-dag yum=be?* (IC)

635 this-DAT=STC what four sin belong-PTCP.HAB ASS=Q

636 ‘What four sins belong here (i.e. to the sins of the tongue)?’

637

638 The presumptive meaning expressed by YUM makes it a viable device in fully presuppositional
639 question types such as rhetorical questions and exclamatives. In the absence of a typologically
640 viable definition, we will consider as a “rhetorical question” an utterance that is structurally coded
641 as a question, but is primarily meant to implicate a certain state-of-affairs. The rhetorical question
642 retains a hybrid status as a quasi-statement, short of a direct assertion, and potentially with the
643 option of being interpreted as sincere. That it is not intended as a sincere question is often only

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644 made transparent through formal devices such as intonation pattern, special particles or verbal
645 (subjunctive) mood. Functionally, rhetorical questions in several Romance and Germanic
646 languages often communicate the speaker's guarded reserve towards the truth of the proposition
647 or conversely the status of the implied proposition as intersubjectively self-evident, along with
648 more specific propositional attitudes (like reproach, indignation, protest, wonder, perplexity,
649 dismay or emphasis) (Schmidt-Radefeldt 1977). Since the speaker asking a rhetorical question
650 implicates that she presupposes a certain state-of-affairs, one would expect rhetorical questions
651 in Khalkha to often feature YUM. For rhetorical content questions, this prediction generally seems
652 to hold. In (28), YUM helps to prevent the question from being interpreted as sincere and to
653 implicate a certain disregard.²³ YUM is also occasionally found in rhetorical polar questions such
654 as (29). In this particular case, the variant without YUM, lacking the courtesy of implying a
655 (negative) answer, would be perceived as a real question and thus as offensive. However, polar
656 rhetorical questions are formed from a wide range of source patterns including *ge-ž=üü* 'Are you
657 saying (as I infer) that ...?', *gež bod-(o)ž bai-n=uu* 'Are you [really] thinking that ...?' and *biš=üü*
658 'Isn't it rather the case that ...' (cf. Gāo 2013) which mostly build on an incredulous stance towards
659 the addressee's thoughts rather than a presupposed common ground between the interlocutors.

660

661 (28) 1000 xüŋ xičeelel-deg sport-oor awrag bol-(o)xod

662 1000 person practice-PTCP.HAB sport-INS champion become-CVB.when

663 yuu=n' tiim sürtei bai-dag yum=be. (IC)

664 what=3POSS so terrific AUX-PTCP.HAB ASS=Q

²³ Mönx-Amgalaŋ (1996: 34-35) analyzes such constructs in modal rather than illocutionary terms, but this probably exaggerates the extent to which these rhetorical patterns are grammaticalized.

665 'What is so great if somebody becomes champion in a sport that is practiced by [merely]

666 1000 people?

667 → There is nothing special about becoming the champion of such a sport.

668 (29)čī **teneg yum=uu?** (Gāo 2013: 16; IC)

669 2SG stupid ASS=Q

670 'Are you stupid?'

671 → While I know that you are not stupid, what you are doing would suggest you are, so

672 stop it!

673

674 Exclamatives express the speaker's affective stance and surprise towards the extent of some

675 scalar property. While the specific extent of the scalar property is not precisely clarified, its

676 applicability as such is presupposed (cf. Michaelis 2001). In Khalkha, the most common pattern to

677 form exclamatives is through content questions containing scalar question words, especially *ya-*

678 *saŋ* do.what-PTCP.PRF 'how' / 'has done what'. Whether YUM is present in exclamatives largely

679 depends on the word class of the predicate.²⁴ YUM is usually required in questions based on bare

680 adjectival predicates ($n_{IC}=122/135$, 90%) as in (30)²⁵ and participles ($n_{IC}=81/110$, 74%) as in (31),

681 though these also arguably also allow for alternative strategies of structural subordination

²⁴ The following conclusions are drawn from an analysis of collocations of *yaasaŋ* followed by one of the adjectives *aixtar* ~ *aimaar* 'awful, notable', *aztai* 'lucky', *ert* 'early', *ewgüi* 'awkward', *ix* 'much', *muuxai* 'ugly, bad', *oloŋ* 'many', *saiŋ* 'good', *saixaŋ* ~ *goy* 'beautiful, nice', *son'orŋ* 'interesting', *teneg* 'stupid', *udaanŋ* 'slow', *üneŋ* 'true', *üntei* 'expensive', *xatuu* 'hard', *xecüü* 'difficult' and *xöörxöŋ* 'cute' ($n_{IC}=439$).

²⁵ The adjective-based examples lacking YUM show rather particular contexts, e.g. in two cases very long preceding subject clauses. A simple constructed YUM-less exclamative sentence, *En yaasaŋ xačij we?* (presumably intended) 'How strange this is!', is considered ungrammatical by Kang (2003: 32) and (if we discount a marginally possible use as a self-directed sincere question) considered unacceptable by our informants, as would be (30) without YUM.

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682 ($n_{IC}=27/110$, 25%).^{26,27} If YUM is present, the content question clitic =*be* may be present or absent.
683 With nouns as in (32), YUM is almost never found ($n_{IC}=1/141$), but =*be* is used consistently
684 ($n_{IC}=137/141$). That is, the structural conditions that obtain here differ from those of simple YUM-
685 based assertives. Exclamatives also allow for finite verb forms ($n_{IC}=44$), mostly the surprised past
686 -*w(=aa)* and an emphatic form of the potential, -*n=aa*, in which case YUM is absent as well (which
687 is expected since even most older sentence-final particles that developed from nouns are
688 incompatible with these finite suffixes). In conclusion, it appears that forms that lend themselves
689 to nominalization like adjectives and participles by and large require YUM in exclamatives, while
690 nouns don't require these and the requirement is waived for finite verbs (which remain in place
691 and do not e.g. have to be replaced by participles, as would be the case under negation).

692

693 (30) *Ter xödöö(n)-ii zurag yaasan saixan yum=bee ... (IC)*

694 that countryside-GEN picture how beautiful ASS=Q

695 'How beautiful these pictures from the countryside are!'

696 (31) *Ta yaasan goy žüžigle-sen yum=be? (IC)*

697 2SG.HON how nice play.role-PTCP.PRF ASS=Q

698 'How beautifully you played your role [in the theatre play/movie]!'

699 (32) *Yooooo ... Yaasan aimar zurag=we? (IC)*

700 INTERJ how awful picture=Q

701 'Eww/Eek ... What a disgusting picture!'

²⁶ These alternative patterns are based on either the quotative verb *ge-* (especially *geeč* 'say!') or the conditional particle *bol* 'if > I am wondering', though it is not in all cases clear whether these should be classified as exclamatives or rather as bona fide miratives (*geeč*) and actual questions for the extent of a feeling (*bol*). Examples are *Ter üy-d yaasan ix gancaard-san ge-eč* that time-DAT how much feel.lonely-EST.PST QI-IMP(imploring) '(Imagine) how much [I] was feeling lonely in this time!' and *erx.čölöö-tei bol-go-wol yaasan ix bayarl-ax bol=doo* freedom-COM become-CAUS-COND.CVB how much feel.happy-FUT.PTCP IMP=DP 'If you would give them freedom, how happy they would feel!'

²⁷ This count excludes the resultative participle *-aa* as attached to stems other than *bai-*. In our materials, *-aa* only combines with =*be* and never with YUM or other formal subordinators ($n_{IC}=25$).

702

703 In some contexts, YUM in regular (i.e. non-rhetorical) questions is used not so much to signal
704 presumption, but DISINTERESTEDNESS, in the sense of a lack of specific gain that the speaker could
705 derive from the answer. This use may have originated from presumptive questions where the
706 speaker is only expecting a confirmation rather than any real gain in world knowledge from the
707 answer. Weak epistemic questions with YUM=*uu* like (33), which convey guesses that often
708 implicate that the validity of the guess is of no concern to the speaker, would thus constitute an
709 intermediate stage between presumptive and disinterested questions. An instance of a
710 disinterested question would be , asked by a reporter in the course of an at-home interview.
711 Judging from the wider conversational context, the reporter did not have any reason to expect a
712 positive answer to this question, but the reporter was mostly using YUM to signal empathy and
713 curiosity. In other words, “the speaker is really interested in the coming answer” (Street 1963:
714 160). In (35), disinterested YUM deemphasizes the negative consequences that the addressee’s
715 behavior might have had on the speaker. Namely, it ensures that the sentence is not interpreted
716 as an insistence that the addressee should have taught the speaker frankly (Mönx-Amgalaŋ 1996:
717 35). The expression of disinterest need not necessarily smoothen conversation, since the
718 presence of YUM can also be interpreted in terms of the speaker asking in a *xol xöndii baidlaar*
719 ‘distant, disattached/alooft way’ (Mönx-Amgalaŋ 1996: 32), i.e. as lack of both interest and
720 curiosity. In this type of usage, the original implication that the speaker already anticipates a
721 certain answer is lost, and disinterestedness becomes the main semantic contribution of YUM.

722

723 (33)A: *izrail-d xeden xonog bol-ox=we?*

724 Israel-DAT how.many overnight.stay become-PTCP.NPST=Q

725 B: *oŋgc-oor bol bog'on, end-ees bogoŋ yaw-ax=güi. end-ees=čin' oŋgc-oor*

726 plane-INS TOP short here-ABL wagon go-PTCP.NPST=NEG here-ABL=STC plane-INS
727 *moskwo damži-ŋ xor'orŋ xedeŋ cag yum=uu.* (SC)
728 Moscow pass.through-CVB twenty how.many hour ASS=Q
729 A: 'How many days does it take to Israel?'
730 B: 'It's not far by plane, there's no train connection from here. From here with a plane via
731 Moscow, it would perhaps take twenty odd hours?'

732 (34) *či en ger-iig öör=öö xii-s=iim=uu?* (SC)

733 2SG this house-ACC self=RPOSS do-PTCP.PRF=ASS=Q

734 'Have you built this house yourself?'

735 (35) *Tegeed bid(n)-iig öglöö oč-(o)xod šuluu=xarŋ zaa-(ɣ)aad ög-öx=čin'*

736 then 1PL-ACC morning come-CVB.when plain=DIMINUTIVE show-CVB.PFV give-PTCP.NPST=STC

737 *yaa-san yum=be.* (Mönx-Amgalaŋ 1996: 34-35)

738 do.what-PTCP.PRF ASS=Q

739 'Then when we arrived there in the morning, would it have been possible to teach us
740 frankly?'

741 without YUM: '... how would it have been if you had [just] taught us frankly?'

742

743 Since YUM in polar questions not only communicates that the speaker presumes a certain state-
744 of-affairs to hold, but also allows the addressee to (more or less) unequivocally identify that state-
745 of-affairs, polar questions containing YUM, by extension, can also be used to suggest a
746 presupposed state-of-affairs as a possibility for consideration. Put differently, the question is not
747 addressed to a real interlocutor, but to an imagined ideal evaluator (cf. Tantucci 2017) who could
748 assess the reasonability of the claim. This usage is illustrated by (33) and by (36), the latter a self-
749 directed question from a monologue conveying epistemic possibility. In a cline of epistemic

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750 markers, this use of YUM=*uu* would represent explicit non-commitment to a proposition,²⁸ while
751 *baix* in (37) would express an inclination to accept the proposition, and *biz* in (38) would signal
752 strong (intersubjectivized) commitment. In other words, epistemic probability increases from
753 YUM=*uu* via *baix* to *biz*.

754

755 (36)... *en xair yum=uu bi med-(e)x=güi yum=aa*²⁹

756 this love ASS=Q 1SG know-PTCP.NPST=NEG ASS=DP

757 ‘Is this love? I really don’t know.’

758 (37){Enumerating a number of behavioral traits of a life partner such as taking one’s partner’s
759 interests as being as important as one’s own, not imposing demands in return, etc., the
760 writer concludes:}

761 *En=(e)l žiηxen xair baix*.³⁰

762 this=FOC true love MP

763 ‘Probably only this is true love.’

764 (38)*Bi=č č(i)n-ii aηx(n)ii xair biz=dee*³¹

765 1SG=FOC 2SG-GEN first love MP=DP

766 ‘(You are my first love,) and isn’t it so that I am your first love, too? (If not, say so!)’

767

768 The use of question-final YUM in contexts of disinterest has led to a certain epistemic ambiguity
769 or underdeterminacy of YUM. To this, we can add an additional observation. If content questions
770 contain YUM in our spoken data, it is very likely to occur in absolute sentence-final position (i.e.

²⁸ Мөнх-Амгалан (1996: 37-38) associates such constructs with the expression of either guessing or doubt, while we hold that it always denotes both notions, though the larger context may of course give prominence to one of them.

²⁹ <http://www.cekc.mn/2013/10/хайр-ийм-хүчтэй-юм-үү>, 2013-10-26, retrieved 2017-04-02

³⁰ <http://www.uqluu.mn/190246.html>, 2016-03-30, retrieved 2017-05-12

³¹ <http://www.cekc.mn/2014/02/Жаргахын-тулд-эсвэл-тэсэхийн-тулд-юм-болов-үү?>, 2014-02-27, retrieved 2017-05-12

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771 without being followed by any modal or discourse particle). This absolute sentence-final use
772 accounts for 73% ($n_{\text{PTCP}}=135/185$) of participial and 98% ($n_{\text{NOMINALS}}=39/40$) of other nominal
773 predicates in SC, while participle-based content questions without YUM generally require the
774 presence of a question particle.³² This contrasts with the written data from IC, where bare YUM
775 is only found in 31% of content questions ($n_{\text{PTCP}}=493/1596$, $n_{\text{NOMINALS}}=80/250$), while the remainder
776 is followed by the content question particle =*be* or similar devices such as *bol* ‘if > maybe?’³³ If the
777 differences between SC and IC reflect the dimension INNOVATIVE/CONSERVATIVE, this would suggest
778 a tendency of YUM in content questions to semantically bleach out and, perhaps while carrying
779 sentence-final question prosody,³⁴ develop into a general content question particle. Such
780 considerations are irrelevant for polar questions, since the polar question clitic =*UU* is consistently
781 used.

782

783 7. YUM in connectors

784

785 Apart from its uses at the end of matrix clauses, reflexes of **jaɔma* form part of four clausal
786 connectors: conditional YUM *bol* ‘if’, similitive YUM *šig* ‘as if’, causal *yumč’in* ‘since’ and
787 alternative *yumuu* ‘or’. Syntactically, YUM *bol* and *yumč’in* function as subordinating conjunctions,

³² Judging from the not entirely complete annotation of Brosig (2015, see 47-48: fn 3), SC contains 99 structural participle-based content questions without YUM, 68 of which contain a question particle and 10 more are embedded by the quotative verb *ge-*. Of the remaining 21 questions, 12 are part of enumerations, topicalizing questions that the speaker herself immediately answers etc., leaving only 9 instances in which a participle (in all 9 cases the perfect participle *-saŋ*) forms a syntactically free-standing question without question particle.

³³ Since IC is not annotated for word class and semi-automatic morpheme-string-based annotation is not feasible due to the large set of false-positives, we operationalized the sequence “interrogative pro-word + word + YUM” with the interrogative pro-words *xezee* ‘when’, *yaagaad* ‘why’, *yaaž* ‘how’, *xed* ‘how many’, *xaan* ‘where’, *xer* ‘who’, *yuu* ‘what’ (for the last three including case forms). Participles were defined as *-dAg* / *-sAŋ* / *-x* / *-AA*. For SC, this method would have identified 42% of relevant sequences. If so, this would mean that content questions containing YUM are 28.6 times more frequent in SC than in IC. Since SC is very interview-heavy, while IC contains many newspaper articles and similar narrative text types, this is conceivable.

³⁴ Karlsson (2003) observes a rising fundamental frequency as a general option consistently realized by 2 of 7 speakers for all question types in her sample of isolated read sentences.

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788 while the versatile, somewhat postposition-like YUM *šig* serves, for example, as complementizer
789 for morphologically passive cognitive/perceptive verbs, and *yumuu* coordinates clauses or even
790 phrases. All four forms also allow for sentence-final uses. However, both *yumčin'* and *yumuu* are
791 lexicalizations in which the morph *yum* cannot be cliticized to the preceding word, and both
792 exhibit more or less discourse-connective semantics. *Yumčin'* is presuppositional, but trivially so
793 due to its causative semantics. *Yumuu*, in turn, which must have developed from alternative
794 questions (*A yum=uu, B yum=uu?* 'Is it A or is it B?'), has synchronically lost its original presumptive
795 or epistemic meaning, even though its etymology might still render it more inclusive (in the sense
796 'or also' as opposed to 'either ... or') than alternative forms such as *eswel* 'or' (< **ese a-bala* 'if it
797 is not'). With the conditional (YUM) *bol* and similative (YUM) *šig*, in contrast, the presence or
798 absence of the clitic YUM is usually semantically rather than structurally conditioned. An
799 exception to this is the use of YUM *šig* with adjectives, in which case YUM functions as a
800 semantically empty nominalizer for some informants. In other contexts, however, YUM functions
801 as the assertive particle, which may implicate notions ranging from (the speaker's) presumption
802 to (agreed-upon) certainty (i.e. presupposition). YUM thus indicates a gradual increase in the level
803 of subjective epistemic commitment as compared to bare conditionals or similatives. In the
804 following, we will discuss YUM *bol* (§7.1) and YUM *šig* (§7.2), while leaving aside the lexicalized
805 forms *yumčin'* and *yumuu*.

806

807 7.1 YUM in conditionals

808

809 Conditional clauses are regularly formed with the conditional converbal suffix *-WAI* or, if relative
810 tense and some other features have to be marked, by the etymologically related conditional
811 particle *bol*. YUM *bol*, in turn, denotes presumptive conditional clauses, in which the speaker is

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812 strongly inclined to believe that the condition actually holds. This view is shared by Mönx-
813 Amgalaṅ (1996: 43) who describes YUM *bol* as emphasizing causation over conditionality. The
814 difference between the two forms is illustrated in (34a-c):

815

816 (39)(a) LYRICS *üg buruu bič-seṅ bol uučlalt xüs-ii!*³⁵

817 lyrics word wrong write-PTCP.PRF if excuse wish-VOL

818 {Statement made while posting a video with text on an internet video platform:}

819 ‘If I should have written down the lyrics incorrectly, I beg your excuse.’

820 (b) A: *end aldaa gar-čee.*

821 here mistake come.up-PST.IMM.INFER

822 [admits, in reaction to B’s complaint] ‘A mistake has occurred here.’

823 B: *buruu bič-seṅ yum bol ter-iig=ee zas-aac*³⁶

824 wrong write-PTCP.PRF ASS if that-ACC=RPOSS correct-IMP(imploing)

825 ‘If you [indeed agree that you] have written [it] incorrectly, please correct it!’

826 (c) *Engiiṅ üg-eer bič-seṅ bol deer bai-ž.*³⁷

827 normal word-INS write-PTCP.PRF if above AUX-PST.IMM.INFER

828 ‘If I had written it in plain words, it would have been better.’

829

830 In (34a), where YUM is absent, it is merely considered possible that mistakes occurred. In (34b)

831 with YUM, the interlocutors have already reached agreement on this point, and the condition is

832 indeed presupposed. Without this previous agreement, the occurrence of mistakes would merely

³⁵ <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=GW8oxnbhleI>, 2009-03-19, retrieved 2017-02-23

³⁶ <http://forum.asuult.net/viewtopic.php?t=78968>, 2005-12-06, retrieved 2017-02-23

³⁷ <https://www.mongolianeconomy.mn/en/p/6912>, 2014-11-04, retrieved 2017-02-23

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833 be presumed, i.e. considered as likely by the speaker alone. In irrealis conditionals, like (34c), non-
834 referential YUM must be absent.

835 Apart from its subordinating clause-final use, *bol* also occurs in sentence-final position in two
836 functions. Firstly, it can introduce conditions as afterthoughts, which leads to the same semantic
837 patterns just discussed. Secondly, it may be used as a question particle for content questions
838 which then expresses that the speaker is puzzled and wondering about the issue at hand, and
839 might then ask for approximate rather than precise answers. In this context, the distinction
840 between the presence and absence of YUM parallels its presence and absence in regular questions
841 as discussed in §6.2, i.e. between presumptive questions as in (40) and actual questions as in (41):

842

843 (40) *Soc'aalizm-iij üy-d=č ma(n)-ai-x biy_daasan tusgaar_togtnosoj, bürenj erx-t*
844 socialism-GEN period-DAT=FOC 1PL-GEN-NMLZ autonomous independent full right-COM
845 *uls bai-sñ-iig oloj žil "ax düü-(g)iij nairamdalt xar'alcaa-tai"*
846 state AUX-PTCP.PRF-ACC many year older.brother younger.brother-GEN amiable relationship-COM
847 *yaw-sañ "ax nar"=maan' yaagaad med-ee=güi öngör-söñ yum bol=oo? (IC)*
848 go-PTCP.PRF older.brother-PL=STC why realize+know-PTCP.RES=NEG pass-PTCP.PRF ASS if=DP

849 'Even at the time of socialism, why did our "elder brothers" [from Russia] who lived in an
850 "amiable relationship of older and younger brother" with us, ignore for so many years
851 that ours was an autonomous, independent, plenipotentiary state?'

852 (41) *En üzegdel xer udaan ürgelžl-ex bol=oo. (IC)*

853 this phenomenon how long continue-PTCP.NPST if=DP

854 'How long might this phenomenon [i.e. having such kind of sexual urges] last?'
855

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856 In (40) with YUM, a national-conservative politician puts forward a rhetorical question in order to
857 suggest a “chauvinist, contemptuous” stance of Soviet Russia towards Mongolia. In YUM-less (41),
858 the writer who just detailed her socially slightly non-conforming sexual preferences is sincerely
859 asking for advice.

860

861 7.2 YUM in similitive complements

862

863 Similitive constructions are based on the distributionally unique, somewhat postposition-like
864 word *šig* ‘like’, which under certain conditions may or has to be preceded by YUM. Depending on
865 construction type and the word class preceding it, the function of YUM differs. It either
866 nominalizes adjectives or disambiguates strong epistemic probability from actual resemblance. In
867 the following, we will look at the sequence “NOUN/ADJECTIVE/PARTICIPLE (YUM) *šig*” as part of three
868 construction types: similitive attributes, similitive identity predications, and complements of
869 passive perception verbs.

870 If *šig* introduces similitive attributes, e.g. to *xüŋ* ‘person’, the clitic YUM never precedes it.
871 When the collocation *yum šig xüŋ* is attested ($n_{IC}=7$), *yum* is a person-referring noun as in (42):

872

873 (42) *Bi=čin’ dar’-tai torxoŋ deer suu-ž bai-(G)aa yum šig xüŋ šüü dee.* (IC)

874 1SG=STC powder-COM keg on sit-CVB AUX-PTCP.PRS thing like person DP DP

875 ‘I am somebody like the (poor) thing sitting on the powder keg.’

876

877 In similitive identity constructions of the structure (YUM) *šig bai-n* NMLZ/ASS like AUX-PRS.IMM and
878 passive perception constructions of the structure (YUM) *šig sana-gd-* NMLZ/ASS like seem(think.of-PASS-),
879 speakers rarely use bare adjectives (e.g. $n_{IC(SIMILATIVE.IDENTITY)}=4/280 \sim 1.4\%$ and $n_{IC(PASSIVE.PERCEPTION)}=24/681$

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880 ~ 3.5%, respectively) or any words (including nouns) to which a focus clitic is attached. Instead,
881 speakers usually combine these adjectives with other elements, typically YUM and occasionally
882 *baix*. In the simulative identity construction in (43) and the passive perception construction in (44),
883 YUM is thus understood by some informants as a semantically empty, but structurally required
884 nominalizer. With words that are marked by the limitative focus clitic =/ or the additive focus clitic
885 =č as in (45), there is indeed no alternative to YUM (which is almost always present, e.g. in
886 $n_{IC(PASSIVE,PERCEPTION)}=207/209$).³⁸ However, for adjectives there is a certain dichotomy between YUM
887 and the non-past participle copular auxiliary form *bai-x* (10.7%), which also can be interpreted in
888 semantic terms.³⁹ Thus, while YUM in (43) is understood by some informants to convey the
889 speaker's commitment to a guess, *baix* in (46) rather conveys a proposition that is posited on the
890 basis of visual evidence available at the time of speech. Given a suitable conversational context,
891 these informants would accept either YUM or *baix* in both (43) and (46).⁴⁰

892

893 (43) *Dawkaa bid xoyor ix tös(-)tei yum šig bai-n.* (IC)

894 NAME 1PL two very similar(similarity-COM) thing/ASS like AUX-PRS.IMM

895 'Davka and I seem to be very similar (people).'

896 (44) *bi=č_geseŋ žiremseŋ bai-saŋ. bas arai=l ert yum šig sanagda-ž*

897 1SG=even pregnant AUX-PST.EST also rather=FOC early NMLZ/ASS like seem-CVB

898 *bai-saŋ=č odoo saixaŋ bai-n.* (IC)

899 AUX-PTCP.PRF=FOC(>although) now beautiful AUX-PRS.IMM

³⁸ Both exceptions involve the non-past participle -x.

³⁹ *Baix* means 'is' if used attributively. While in sentence-final position it historically meant 'will be', but its synchronic meaning in the latter position is 'maybe'.

⁴⁰ The nature and size of our informant sample (see §2) does not allow any conclusion about potential social variables that could account for this variation.

900 'I, too, was pregnant. Although it seemed rather early to me, too, now it feels wonderful.'

901 (lit. '... like an early thing ...')

902 (45) *ter neeree šal oncgüi zaluu=č yum šig sanagd-čix-laa.* (IC)

903 DEM.DIST indeed completely unpleasant young.man=FOC NMLZ like seem-COMPL-PST.IMM

904 'He indeed (inadvertently) seemed like a very unpleasant fellow to me.'

905 (46) *Coŋx-oor xara-xad gadaa ix goy bai-x šig bai-n.* (IC)

906 window-INS look-CVB.when outside very nice AUX-PTCP.NPST like AUX-PRS.IMM

907 'When I look through the window, it seems to be very nice outside.'

908

909 However, if the preceding element is a noun, the presence of YUM is not uncommon in the passive
910 perception construction ($n_{IC}=118/528$, 22.3%) and is even frequent in the simulative identity
911 construction ($n_{IC}=127/242$, 52.5%). The basic distinction between zero and YUM in this type of
912 context thus is very evidently semantic rather than structural, which we shall illustrate with
913 examples from the simulative identity construction. Zero in (47) expresses the proposition that
914 two entities resemble each other: the parliamentarians in question are adults, but resemble
915 children in sharing some of their traits. In contrast, YUM in (48) expresses epistemic uncertainty
916 on the part of the speaker: the speaker contemplates that the subject is (and does not merely
917 resemble) a cute girl, but is not sure as to whether this is actually true. The absence of YUM would
918 report an observation of actual resemblance on the basis of visual evidence.

919

920 (47) *Gišüü-d-iig xüüxed šig bai-n ge-x yum.* (IC)

921 member-PL-ACC child like AUX-PRS.IMM say/COMP-PTCP.NPST ASS

922 'One might say the members [of parliament] are like children.'

923 not: 'One might say the members [of parliament] seem to be [actual] children.'

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924 (48) *Bod-wol ix xöörxöŋ=l ox'oj yum šig bai-n.* (IC)

925 think-CVB.COND very cute=FOC girl ASS like AUX-PRS.IMM

926 '(But why doesn't she find anything but money to think about?) If you look at her, she just

927 seems to be a very cute girl.'

928

929 Apart from nouns, adjectives and words marked by focus clitics, the two constructions under
930 discussion may involve participles as a fourth major morphological class. Here, an actual
931 resemblance between subjects (which typically denote physical entities) and the events coded by
932 these participles is usually impossible, so the clear-cut semantic distinction found with nouns
933 cannot be at work here. The frequency of YUM with non-focused participles of all verbs except
934 *bai-* in the simulative identity construction is at 92.1% and might be approaching the threshold of
935 structural obligatoriness ($n_{IC}=741/804$), but this can be ruled out for the passive perception
936 construction in which YUM only collocates with 78.8% ($n_{IC}=781/991$) of such participles. Similar
937 to the contrast between (43) and (46), the contrast here runs between confident guessing as
938 indicated by YUM in (49) and objective (if approximate and incomplete) recollection as indicated
939 by the absence of YUM in (50). For some informants, guessing implies the absence of actual
940 firsthand knowledge, so for them the presence of YUM in combination with the contextually given
941 first-person cognitor would render (50) unacceptable. In both examples, one could use *baix*
942 instead of either YUM or zero to indicate that the speaker is interpreting visual evidence that is
943 immediately accessible to her at the time of speaking.

944

945 (49) *90-eed oŋ-oos ömön manai šüüx, cagdaa xariŋ=č gaigüi*

946 1990-COLLECTIVE year-ABL before 1PL.GEN court police but=FOC passable

947 *šudrag ažiilla-dag bai-saŋ yum šig sana-gd-dag.* (IC)

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948 upright work-PTCP.HAB AUX-PTCP.PRF ASS like think.of-PASS-PTCP.HAB

949 ‘But it seems to me that before the 1990s our courts and police were indeed doing their

950 work rather honestly.’

951 (50) *Tegeed ter möng-öör=öö nair xii-ž bai-san šig sana-gd-(a)ž bai-n.* (IC)⁴¹

952 then that money-INS=RPOSS celebration do-CVB AUX-PTCP.PRF like think.of-PASS-CVB AUX-PRS.IMM

953 ‘[Along with the title of “distinguished [sportsperson]”, they were at that time awarding

954 me 2000 tugrik.] I recall that with that money we were holding a celebration.’

955

956 Judging from this data, it appears that YUM in similative complements with an opposition

957 between zero, YUM and *baix* expresses a subordinated guarded assertion that is supported by

958 evidence other than observation, but subjectively supported by the speaker. The extent to which

959 such variation exists is not entirely clear, though, and requires further research.

960

961 8. The presumptive reasoning construction YUM + copula

962

963 Next to sentence-final (§6) and (quasi-)clause-final uses (i.e. those discussed in §7), YUM also

964 combines with the copula mainly to express presumptive reasoning, i.e. a form of inference that

965 cannot be straightforwardly deduced from concrete observations but involves some defeasible

966 general considerations that the speaker commits to. The relevant construction consists of a

967 nominal clause followed by YUM, the copula *bai-*, and an ongoing present tense suffix (*-n* or *-AA*).

968 Mönx-Amgalaŋ (1996: 42, our translation) describes the main function of *yum bai-n* as follows:

969

⁴¹ Р.Даваадалай: Биднийг гавьяа байгуулаад ирэхэд баярын бичиг ч өгөөгүй, <http://davka0624.blog.gogo.mn/read/entry192001>, 2010-12-16, retrieved 2017-04-03

970 The event passed when [the speaker] was not aware of it. But given this, even though the
971 speaker has insufficient information about the event and is connected to it only indirectly,
972 s/he relates to the event by drawing some form of conclusion (...).

973

974 This description captures a process of inference that is not based on immediate visible evidence,
975 but on general knowledge or other kinds of information (cf. Aikhenvald 2004: 2-3) that don't allow
976 for proper (near-infallible) inference. This indirect reasoning process is illustrated by (51) and (52):

977

978 (51) *tan-ai kompan' maš saiŋ bar'alag bar'-ž*

979 2GEN--PL company very good construction construct-CVB

980 *bai-(g)aa yum bai-n.* (IC)

981 AUX-PTCP.PRS ASS/NMLZ AUX-PRS.IMM

982 [I told C, "Take a look at the quality of our construction work", and showed it to him. C
983 then said:] "Your company is apparently doing construction work very well. [I will help
984 you. Let me find out what possibilities there are]." (Brosig & Skribnik 2018: 563)

985 (52)(a) *bi yag=(a)l öwčöŋ aw-saŋ yum bai-n* (IC)

986 1SG precise=FOC illness take-PTCP.PRF ASS/NMLZ AUX-PRS.IMM

987 ('My genital emitted a bad smell, and white liquid came out of it amass, and it was
988 itching. I thought) "I've precisely contracted a disease."

989 (b) *belg-iij zam-iij xaldwart öwčöŋ aw-saŋ bai-n.*⁴²

990 genital-GEN way-GEN infectious illness take-PTCP.PRF AUX-PRS.IMM

⁴² www.cekc.mn/2015/04/Хэлэхгүйгээр-нууцаар-эмчлэх-байсан-г, 2015-4-15, retrieved 2016-12-13

991 ‘(I couldn’t tell it to anyone and just went directly to the women’s hospital and showed
992 it to them. Upon seeing it, they said:) “You’ve contracted a sexually transmitted
993 disease.”’

994

995 In (51), the speaker has some firsthand knowledge of the construction site, but is still drawing an
996 evaluative conclusion about a present situation from multiple connected observations after the
997 fact. The contrast between presence and absence of YUM is illustrated in (52). In (52a) [with YUM],
998 a layperson infers that he has acquired an illness from symptoms of which he only has a vague
999 understanding. In (52b) [a present perfect without YUM], a medical doctor evaluates the same
1000 kind of evidence on the basis of her/his scientific knowledge. While the speakers of (51) and (52a)
1001 highlight that they arrived at the proposition through a subjective reasoning process that drew
1002 from incomplete information, they don’t necessarily relativize it in terms of factuality or
1003 subjective certainty. This can be seen from the meaning of typical matrix verbs with which the
1004 presumptive reasoning construction occurs (see Table 4):

1005

1006 *[intended location of Table 4]*

1007

1008 Here, the two most common matrix verbs *bod-* and *oilG-*, as in (53), refer to a reality that has been
1009 arrived at through the speaker’s reasoning processes, but that nevertheless is assessed as
1010 objectively true. Among the three next-common forms, two indicate the speaker’s uncertainty
1011 about reality, either in terms of non-commitment (*bod-ogd-* think-PASS-) or partial commitment
1012 (*dügn-*), and one (*üz-*) commits the speaker, but doesn’t lay claim to objective reality. While the
1013 meaning of YUM *bai-n* thus still appears to be somewhat compatible with matrix verbs that
1014 relativize speaker commitment or the speaker’s claim to objectivity like *bod-ogd-*, *dügn-* and *üz-*,

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1015 it mostly co-occurs with matrix verbs that commit the speaker like *bod-* and *oilG-*, which in turn
1016 suggests that the use of YUM *bai-n* itself tends to express such commitment.⁴³

1017

1018 (53) *Ter üy-d en бүх(n)-iig xii-x xüsel zor'og, ermelzel čadwar MAXN,*

1019 that time-DAT this all-ACC do-PTCP.NPST wish courage aspiration ability PARTY

1020 *AN-d bai-x=güi yum bai-n ge-ž oilog-soŋ.* (IC)

1021 PARTY-DAT AUX-PTCP.NPST=NEG ASS/NMLZ AUX-PRS.IMM COMP-CVB understand-PST.EST

1022 'At that time we understood that the wish and courage, aspiration and ability to
1023 undertake all of this is absent in the Mongolian People's Revolutionary Party and the
1024 Democratic Party. (Therefore, we considered it correct to establish a separate party.)'

1025

1026 The presumptive reasoning construction encodes event time and evaluation time separately. As
1027 can be seen by comparing ongoing present forms such as *bar'-ž bai-gaa* 'is constructing' in (51)
1028 and *bai-x=güi* in (53) with the perfect *aw-saŋ* 'has taken' in (48a), the time of the event itself is
1029 expressed by the (formally attributive) participial forms that precede YUM. The time at which the
1030 evaluation is drawn and holds true is expressed through the tense form of the copula. It can only
1031 be an ongoing present form, as the use of other forms such as the Established Past in (54) entails
1032 the interpretation of YUM as a noun. If the Immediate Present *-n* is used ($n_{SC}=115$) as in (51)-(53),
1033 it involves the speaker assessing the event at the time of speech. If the Established Present *-AA* is
1034 used ($n_{SC}=20$), it refers to an inference that the speaker drew earlier and still advocates, but this

⁴³ One could also argue (as one of the reviewers did) that overall frequency determines the likeliness of a given lexical item to be used in a particular construction. From this perspective, any given token of *bodogd-* relative to its overall frequency in IC is more than twice as likely to be used in this particular construction than any given token of *bod-* or *oilG-*, while while *dügn-* would be half and *üz-* (due to the relatively low text frequency of its cognitive extension) less than a tenth as likely. While this observation is certainly relevant, we still maintain that the meaning of a particular construction is determined by absolute rather than relative frequencies.

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1035 collocation is usually accompanied by a modal particle such as *biz* and used in contexts where the

1036 speaker wants to cross-check this inference with the addressee, as illustrated in (55).

1037

1038 (54) *ergelz-(e)x yum bai-san biz=dee.* (IC)

1039 doubt-PTCP.NPST thing AUX-PST.EST DP=DP

1040 ‘There were things to be skeptical about, right?’

1041 (55) *yuu=g-san üg=üü öör=öö, öör-iij eež aaw*

1042 what=say-PTCP.PRF word=Q self-RPOSS self-GEN mother father

1043 *xoyor bai-dg=iin bai-(g)aa biz=dee.* (SC)

1044 two be-PTCP.HAB=ASS/NMLZ AUX-PRS.EST MP=DP

1045 ‘What are you saying there? Your parents also live at your place, don’t they?’

1046

1047 The presumptive reasoning construction can be used with first person participants who recollect

1048 with effort (cf. Mönx-Amgalaŋ 1996: 42) witnessed events as in (56). With regular presumptive

1049 reasoning, “effortful recollection” shares the conscious, effortful thought process that aims at

1050 inferring some state-of-affairs from unreliable evidence (general knowledge, vague memories)

1051 and the somewhat reduced reliability of the conclusion ultimately arrived at.

1052

1053 (56) *Bi döröw, tawaŋ žil-iij ur’d neg unš-san yum bai-n.* (Mönx-Amgalaŋ 1996: 42)

1054 1SG four five year-GEN before one read-PTCP.PRF ASS/NMLZ AUX-PRS.IMM

1055 ‘I remember that I read this once four, five years ago.’

1056

1057 As can be seen from (54), the presumptive reasoning construction is structurally similar to the

1058 existential construction. While ambiguity cannot usually be assumed for most participle-based

1059 presumptive sentences, referential interpretations such as ‘I am precisely a poor thing who
1060 contracted a disease’ for (48a) or ‘The wish (...) to (...) was something absent in the Mongolian
1061 People’s Revolutionary Party (...)’ for (53) are theoretically conceivable with unreduced accented
1062 *yum*. Actual cases of ambiguity (in reading) are mostly found with adjectival predicates as in (57),
1063 for which a reader, without any prosodic information or contextual disambiguation, might indeed
1064 assume a presumptive interpretation as in (53a) or a referential interpretation as in (53b).
1065 Ambiguity does not usually arise with nouns for which attributive interpretations are much less
1066 accessible; the interpretation for YUM *bai-n* (along with YUM *bol*) in (58) is decidedly non-
1067 referential. Ambiguity does not arise with numerals, quantifiers or pro-adjectives (like *iim*
1068 ‘such_{proximal}’) either, but for the opposite reason: since they strongly favour attributive
1069 interpretations, they always yield a referential interpretation as seen in (59).

1070

1071 (57) *gexdee aygüi zöölön yum bai-n.* (SC)

1072 but fairly soft thing/NMLZ AUX-PRS.IMM

1073 (a) ‘But it apparently turns out to be fairly soft.’

1074 (b) ‘But it is a fairly soft thing.’

1075 (58) *xulgaič yum bol ter ünexeer songodog xulgaič yum bai-n.* (IC)

1076 thief ASS if that really exceptional thief ASS AUX-PRS.EST

1077 ‘(But this time there is nobody who matches [former president] Enkhbayar.) If he is indeed
1078 a thief, then he is really an exquisite thief / a really exquisite thief.’

1079 (59) *bi bai-wal бүx yum bai-n.* (IC)

1080 1SG be-CVB.COND all thing be-PRS.EST

1081 ‘If I am there, everything is there.’

1082

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1083 Structurally, the presumptive reasoning construction resembles the action denial construction in
 1084 (60) which usually features an overt or covert first-person possessor and takes *bai-x=güi* AUX-
 1085 PTCP.NPST=NEG or *alag* ‘absent’ as main predicate. The possessor can be nominative, in which case it
 1086 parallels a privative possessive pattern (cf. Brosig 2015b: 98), where the referential interpretation
 1087 of YUM (60b) is synchronically no longer acceptable. Alternatively, it could be in the dative, in
 1088 which case it would parallel a negated locative possessive construction (see Brosig 2015b: 100-
 1089 101). Similarly to the presumptive reasoning construction, the actual synchronic meaning (60a)
 1090 suggests a flat clause structure which could in theory also go back to a subject that is internal to
 1091 the relative clause as suggested by (60c), but such an attributive clause (here and in the
 1092 presumptive reasoning construction) should allow for an internal genitive subject (cf. Seesing
 1093 2013 on Kalmyk). However, genitive subjects are already impossible in the pattern PARTICIPLE (*yum*)
 1094 *biš* ‘it is not so that ..., but rather ...’ (Mukai 2001: 76-78), and the same holds for the presumptive
 1095 reasoning and action denial constructions.⁴⁴

1096

1097 (60) *bügd=l biy=ee ün-el-d=ii šüü yag yas yum-an deer=ee ...*

1098 all=FOC body=RPOSS put.a.price.on-PTCP.HAB=ASS DP precisely bone thing-ATT on=RPOSS

1099 *bi law neex üzeṅ_yad-aad bai-x yum alag ... (IC)*

1100 1SG certainly very hate-CVB.PFV AUX-PTCP.NPST NMLZabsent

1101 (a) ‘All [people] are prostituting themselves, essentially at the heart of the matter ... I

1102 definitely don’t hate this particularly much ...’

1103 (b) [impossible:] ‘I certainly have nothing that I keep on hating particularly much.’

⁴⁴ Mukai (2001: 76-78) observes that genitive subjects are likewise impossible in the pattern PARTICIPLE (*yum*) *biš* ‘it is not so that ..., but rather ...’. However, this only shows that *yum* doesn’t behave as a noun in this context, which, given that it is facultative in this context, is synchronically to be expected. Semantically, Jīngāng (2007: 15) interprets YUM in YUM *biš* as denying that an assertion is based on a more general understanding, i.e. in the same way as sentence-final YUM in declaratives. In this respect, it resembles YUM in structurally non-obligatory contexts of §7.

1104 (c) 'There is no respect in which I keep on hating [this] particularly much.'

1105

1106 As far as synchronic structure is concerned, we may at any rate conclude that the collocation YUM
1107 *bai-n/- \langle G \rangle aa* does not structurally subordinate, but that it fulfills a copula-like function. At the
1108 same time, semantically, YUM *bai-n* brings about a presumptive meaning similar to YUM in
1109 questions and at the end of subordinate clauses. Arguably, it might do so by combining the
1110 speaker's subjective support for a proposition as expressed by sentence-final YUM with the
1111 perceptive evidence that is suggested by *-n* in *bai-n*.

1112

1113 9. Discussion and conclusions

1114

1115 In this paper, we have analyzed the synchronic uses of the particle/clitic YUM, an erstwhile
1116 nominalizer that has developed from the noun *yum* '(some)thing' in Khalkha Mongolian. In the
1117 sentence-final position of declaratives, YUM expresses the speaker's strong subjective
1118 commitment to a proposition, thus increasing its assertive force. In interrogatives, the speaker
1119 commits by presuming a particular answer, which in sincere questions and guesses can be
1120 interpreted as anticipation and in exam questions as a claim to the speaker's full knowledgeability.
1121 Since agreement between the interlocutors on a certain state-of-affairs is anticipated in rhetorical
1122 questions and exclamatives, the proposition is even presupposed here. Underdeterminacy
1123 between subjective commitment, anticipation and a claim to actual knowledge is also found in
1124 noun- and participle-based conditionals and similatives. If combined with a marker of direct
1125 perception at speech time (of an event itself or of evidence for that event), the presumptive
1126 reasoning construction combines the inferential dimension of the latter with the subjective
1127 dimension of the former, thus bringing about the meaning of the speaker's personal

1128 interpretation of the evidence on the basis of objective external evidence. Overall, subjective
1129 commitment or assertive force in finite declaratives and presumption, presupposition or
1130 epistemic strength in non-declarative contexts seem to be conceptualized as different sides of the
1131 same coin.⁴⁵

1132 In spite of the assertive and epistemic dimensions that YUM has gained, it has not fully
1133 ceased to function as what can most likely be assumed to be its source function, namely as a
1134 general noun that can be used as a dummy for other word classes in constructions that require
1135 the use of nouns. For instance, YUM does not equally contribute assertive/presumptive meaning
1136 when used in adjectival complements of simulative constructions or in exclamatives, since its
1137 presence in these constructions is, to a specifiable extent, structurally required.⁴⁶

1138 Into the system of Khalkha Mongolian assertions, the forms YUM and YUM *bai-n* introduce
1139 an important distinction not found in most other Central Mongolic dialects. For instance, among
1140 the past tense forms of Khalkha Mongolian, all forms except for the quotative *-san ge-*
1141 unequivocally and without epistemic modal graduation assert a certain state-of-affairs, but the
1142 epistemological foundation for asserting differs, as seen in Table 5.

1143

1144 *[intended location of Table 5]*

1145

1146 In this analysis, all forms except *-san ge-* assert a certain state-of-affairs, the only two forms that
1147 personally commit the speaker, to a varying degree, to the truth of the assertion are *-san YUM*
1148 and *-san YUM bai-n*. But even here, the commitment is not meant as a claim of the speaker's

⁴⁵ Presupposing, due to its intersubjective epistemological component, defeasibly implicates a stronger epistemological commitment of the speaker than presuming, i.e. implicating certainty rather than strong probability.

⁴⁶ Mönx-Amgalaŋ (1996: 44) argues along similar lines for YUM *bol*, but his examples are not chosen well.

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1149 infallibility or of objective truth, but merely as an indication of the status that said information
1150 occupies within the speaker's representation of the world, thus enabling the addressee to
1151 independently assess its reliability. In contrast, if a speaker were to claim something resembling
1152 objective truth (which is in itself a culture-specific concept [cf. Hughes 1988: 61-62 cited in
1153 Wierzbicka 2003: 103]), she would have to resort to discourse markers such as the compound
1154 particle *šdee*⁴⁷ which presents the speaker's knowledge as superior to the addressee's (*šüü*) and
1155 indicates that reality has to be constructed in this particular way on grounds that are independent
1156 of what the interlocutors might personally wish (*dee*). Pragmatically, though, YUM does often
1157 implicate the speaker's wish to convince the addressee of the speaker's claim, accommodating
1158 for the Gricean perspective, while bare participial and especially finite forms are much more
1159 suitable for presenting information to the addressee on a take-it-or-leave-it basis (as proposed by
1160 Dummett 1981). For a competent adult speaker to assert, at any rate, proves to be something so
1161 firmly entrenched in language-specific epistemological systems that any valid cross-linguistic
1162 generalizations can only be derived from a typological basis. The social consequences that a false
1163 statement (uttered using a particular linguistic form including those containing YUM) might entail
1164 for the speaker, in turn, are an empirical question that could perhaps best be studied on the basis
1165 of speaker intuition as instantiated in truth-focused discourse such as arguments or court hearings
1166 and its lexical codification in word fields including terms such as *xudlaa* 'lie, false, fake' which
1167 seems to cover a much wider, but as of yet not precisely delimited semantic range than its closest
1168 English translation equivalents.

1169 This paper must leave multiple tasks for future research. One relevant issue is the
1170 grammaticalization of *yum*. This includes both the uses discussed in this paper (for which it would

⁴⁷ Or to the modal particle *biz* the *z* of which is cognate with a Middle Mongol discourse particle *je* which requires more research but seems to have expressed either high probability/necessity or the speaker's conviction (cf. Brosig 2014: 14).

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1171 be particularly helpful to find out whether finite or non-finite uses developed first) and the
1172 secondary development of *yum* as a functional noun into the discourse markers *yumuu* ‘or’ and
1173 *yumčin* ‘since’. Secondly, for want of space, we did not discuss the meanings that *yum* expresses
1174 in connection with the irrealis particle *san* that relate to unfulfilled wishes or futile aspirations.⁴⁸
1175 Thirdly and finally, while the current analysis roughly identifies the meaning and functional range
1176 of YUM, it does not predict when it is infelicitous to use YUM, an issue that is most problematic
1177 for finite declaratives which might benefit from a discourse-analytic approach.

1178

1179 Glosses

1180

1181 Below we list all glosses that are not part of the Leipzig Glossing Rules.

1182

1183 *[intended location of Table with glosses]*

1184

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⁴⁸ For instance, *Ter ner_dewšigč-d-ees bi Amaržargal bagš-iig yal-aasai ge-ž ix zalb'ar-saŋ yum-saŋ* (IC) that candidate-PL-ABL 1SG NAME teacher-ACC win-DES QI-CVB much pray-EST.PST ASS-IRR ‘Among the candidates, I prayed that Amarjargal, our revered teacher, would win. (But it didn’t come about.)’

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