



Desire Predicates in Presence and Absence of the Light Verbs: Addressing their Embedded Clausal Structure in Bangla

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Abstract: The current study focuses on an intriguing dichotomy seen in the Bangla (Bengali: Indo-Aryan) language, which centers on the desire predicates expressed by the term *itʃtʃʰe* 'desire'. In the Bangla language, the desire predicate *itʃtʃʰe* can be used independently or in conjunction with the light verb *hɔwa* 'happen' to form the NV conjunct *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa*, indicating the occurrence of the desire. According to the scholarly works of Dasgupta (1989), Chatterjee (2014), and Butt (2010) the Bangla language exhibits the presence of composite verb formations, whereby a nonverb is combined with a verb. These formations involve the occurrence of a light verb with a noun, adjective, or adposition. The primary focus of this study will be on the differentiation between the bare verb *itʃtʃʰe* 'desire' and its usage in conjunction with the light verb forming *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa*. The distinction between them pertains to their embeddability qualities, namely the clausal complements they choose.

Keywords: Desire Predicates, Clausal Dependency, Complex Predicates, Conjunct Verbs Illocutionary Force, Speech Acts, Syntax-Pragmatics Interface

1. Introduction

Desire predicates, which encompass a wide array of expressions related to human wants, wishes, and desires, have long captivated the interest of linguists and semantic theorists. These predicates serve as linguistic vehicles through which individuals convey their intentions and desires, making them a fundamental facet of human communication. While the study of desire predicates has been a central focus in linguistics, much of the existing research has primarily revolved around Indo-European languages, leaving a substantial gap in our understanding of these constructs in non-Indo-European languages. In our study, we turn our attention to desire predicates within the context of the Bangla (Bengali: Indo-Aryan) language. Our specific focus lies in dissecting the embedded clausal structure of the desire predicate, *itʃtʃʰe*, in Bangla, a topic that has received relatively scant attention in linguistic literature. Moreover, we explore the variations in this clausal structure when *itʃtʃʰe* is employed in conjunction with light verbs, as opposed to when they stand alone.

In this section, we are going to observe how these predicates are employed in the language. The desire predicate *itʃtʃʰe* and *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa* takes a subjunctive as its clausal complement. Observe the following examples. In example (1) and (2) both the predicates can occur in the same environment i.e. they take similar clause type. The problem arises in (3) and (4) when *itʃtʃʰe* and *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa* cannot sit in the same environment.

It is clearly visible from the examples (3) and (4) that the predicate *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa* is not consistent with the clause type where the subject of the embedded clause and the matrix clause is not the same person, but the lexical predicate *itʃtʃʰe* can accommodate a clause type of that kind. The examples (1) and (2) communicate two vital things; one is the fact that both *itʃtʃʰe* and *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa* can accommodate the respective clause type in the domain of clausal selection, but the second fact tells that they both are intrinsically different in the sense of expressing desire. Example (1) says that there exists a desire and the desire is about learning to sing, in (2) the desire happens to the subject.



- (1) *amar itftfhe ami gan fikh-i*
I.GEN desire I.NOM music learn-SUBJN.1
'It is my desire that I learn music'.
- (2) *amar itftfhe hɔ-e ami gan fikh-i*
I.GEN desire happen-PRS.3 I.NOM music learn-SUBJN.1
'Literally means: The desire to learn music happens/occurs (to me).'
- (3) *amar itftfhe meghna gan fikh-uk*
I.GEN desire meghna.NOM music learn-SUBJN.3
'It is my desire that Meghna learns music'.
- (4) **amar itftfhe hɔ-e meghna gan fikh-uk*
I.GEN desire happen-PRS.3 meghna.NOM music learn-SUBJN.3
'Means: I feel like Meghna learn music.' (A very inadequate translation)

The utilization of light verbs, which are prevalent in many languages, introduces a layer of complexity to the analysis of desire predicates. These light verbs, often serving as functional elements, interact with desire predicates, potentially altering their syntactic and semantic properties. Investigating the behavior of desire predicates in both the presence and absence of light verbs thus becomes a crucial endeavor in understanding the nuances of Bangla syntax and semantics. Our inquiry extends beyond the traditional realm of modality and possible world semantics (Heim (1992) , Villalta (2008), Harner (2016), Portner & Rubinstein (2020)) which have been the focal points of many previous studies on desire predicates. Instead, we adopt a novel approach, choosing to scrutinize these constructs through the lenses of 'speech acts' and 'illocutionary force.' This alternative perspective offers a fresh vantage point for unraveling the intricacies of desire predicates in Bangla. As we embark on this exploration, our primary goal is to shed light on the clausal dependency and dichotomy inherent in the constructions of the Bangla desire predicates "*itftfhe*" and "*itftfhe hɔwa*." These predicates, while signifying the fundamental sense of desire at a rudimentary level, harbor intricate subtleties that deserve rigorous examination. Our research objectives encompass a comprehensive analysis of these predicates, elucidating their structural variations and their implications for the broader landscape of linguistic theory. At this point, it is crucial to clarify the study aims that are directing this work, as described in the following manner:

- i. Understanding how the presence and absence of the light verb is affecting the sense of desire.
- ii. Why do the predicates *itftfhe* and *itftfhe hɔwa* select different environments to occur?

In the next section, we are going to observe how constructions like these; one where lexical predicates (or bare verb) like *itftfhe* occur and on the other hand how the light verb occurs with the host noun *itftfhe* forms a NV complex predicate functions in the language.

2. The verb '*hɔye*' in Bangla

As argued by Bhattacharya (1998) the lexical predicate *itftfhe* acts as a subjunctive trigger, and we also see that in examples (1) and (3). Now, the point which is crucial to bring forward is that *itftfhe* as a lexical predicate when sits with a subjunctive as observed in the examples, takes *holo* (copula) 'is' which according to vast literature acts as an 'Identity function'.¹ Following the literature (Heim & Kratzer, Semantics in generative grammar, 1998)

¹ According to the literature on type semantics by Heim and Kratzer (1988), Coppock and Champolion (2020), and many others, 'Identity Function' defines a function that returns whatever it takes in as input. For example in (a) Susan is kind, here the copula it will take a function of type $\langle e, t \rangle$ and will return that same function; resulting in the type of 'is' as $\langle e, t \rangle \langle e, t \rangle$. So the semantics of $[[is]] = \lambda P. P$; this simply implies that 'is' denotes a function that takes another function P as its first argument (where in this case P is of type $\langle e, t \rangle$) and returns P.



(Kearns, 2011) and many others, copulas are semantically vacuous. The copula *holo/hoye* is not obligatory, but it is implied above. Now let us invest some time in this sense of *holo* or *hoye* in Bangla. The *holo* or *hoye* in Bangla acts as the main verb in sentences, as seen below in examples (5) and (6).

- (5) *rahul (holo) amar mamar tʃʰele*
 rahul.NOM is-COP I.GEN uncle.GEN son
 'Rahul is my maternal uncle's son.'

- (6) *rita amar boro meye (ho-e)*
 rita-NOM I-GEN elder daughter is.COP.PRS-3
 'Rita is my elder daughter.'

Thompson (2004) notes that, in Bangla, we have occurrences like these where the main verb is omitted i.e. we can say the sentence and the meaning can be communicated well without mentioning the main verb. Ferguson (1967) said that the main verb is not omitted rather it is implied and it is always in the present tense. In the above examples, the main verb is mentioned in parenthesis because that is not obligatory. Similarly, our examples (1) and (3) also imply the copula *hoye*.

- (7) *amar itʃtʃʰe (holo) ami gan fikʰ-i*
 I.GEN desire is-COP I.NOM music learn-SUBJN.1
 'It is my desire that I learn music'.

- (8) *amar itʃtʃʰe (holo) megʰna gan fikʰ-uk*
 I.GEN desire is-COP meghna.NOM music learn-SUBJN.3
 'It is my desire that Meghna learns music'.

The sense of desire in examples (7) and (8) gives a sense of the existence of a possession; the copula implies the sense of an existence. It states an existence of a desire and the desire is about learning songs.

In Bangla we also have another *hoye* or *hoya* which means 'happen' and this *hoya* can be used as the main verb and as a light verb as well. Dasgupta (1989), Chatterjee (2014), Butt (2010), and many others argue that the light verb *hoya* in Bangla is very productive as it can occur almost with all host nouns conveying a mental attitude. Observe the examples below where in (9) *hoye* or *hoya* acts as the main verb and in (10) it acts as the light verb by occurring with a mental attitude predicate.

- (9) *tʃerapundʒi-te ʃɔbsomɔɔ bɾiʃti ho-e*
 cherrapunji-LOC always rain happen-PRS.3
 'It always rains in Cherrapunji.'

- (10) *ɔndʰokare biral-er tʃokʰ dekʰ-le amar bʰiʃon*
 darkness cat.GEN eyes see-COND I.GEN very
bʰiɔɔ ho-e
 scared happen-PRS.3
 'When I see cat's eyes in the dark, I get scared.'

As said above *hoya* is a light verb in noun and verb constructions where the noun generally signifies a mental state like *rag hoya* (become angry), *kʰuʃi hoya* 'become happy' *kaʃto hoya* 'become sad' etc. Similarly, we have the



NV complex predicate conjunct *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa*. The presence of the copula and the presence of the light verb *hɔwa* affect the entailment relation. As mentioned above the copula with the host noun *itʃtʃʰe* signifies a sense of an existence of desire. On the other hand, the light verb *hɔwa* occurring with *itʃtʃʰe* entails things that happen and in this case, it is the desire that happens. Now the dilemma is with the clause type where the lexical predicate *itʃtʃʰe* can occur but *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa* cannot, as observed in (3) and (4).

3. Delving into the subjunctives

At this stage, we need to bring the subjunctive into the whole situation as we can see that in (3) and (4) the clause type with verbal conjugation [-uk] i.e. the third person form of subjunctive accommodates *itʃtʃʰe* but not *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa*. Before arguing about that we need to have some idea on the subjunctives in Bangla. According to the literature Old Indo Aryan had five moods; indicative, imperative, optative, subjunctive, and injunctive. Grammarians shared a thought that Sanskrit as well as Bangla lost 3 moods. Chatterji (1926) as well as Bhattacharya (2013) claimed that Bangla has an optative and subjunctive mood with indicative and imperative mood. Chatterji says Bangla has future imperative markers [-io] and [-eo]. According to Rayhan (2016), future imperative markers can sometimes act as subjunctive as shown in the following example.

- (11) *dʒanala-ti* *kʰule* *rekʰo* *dʒate* *gʰɔr-e* *bataʃ*
window-CLF open keep.SUBJ.2 so that room-LOC wind
aʃe
come.SUBJN
'keep the window open so that air can blow in the room.'

- (12) *tumi* *amake* *boi-ta* *di-o*
you.NOM me.ACC book-CLF give-SUBJN
'Please give me the book.'

- (13) *tumi* *kadz-ti* *kor-o*
you.NOM work-CLF do-SUBJN
'Please do the work.'

English incorporates three forms of subjunctive; mandative, formulaic, and irrealis. These three distinctions are also followed in Bangla. In mandative subjunctives, verbs are commonly used to introduce subjunctive in the subordinate clause. In Bangla, as argued by Bhattacharya (2013) and Dasgupta (1996) certain verbs in Bangla acts as subjunctive triggers like *tʃai* 'want' and *itʃtʃʰe* 'desire' and another class like *dʒodi*, *dʒate*, and *dʒæno* i.e. they introduce subjunctive in the subordinate clause. Bhattacharya (2013) even argued that in Sanskrit the subjunctive in the first person was incorporated in the imperative paradigm. Later grammarians accepted first person imperative as subjunctive. The formulaic subjunctive is usually found in an independent clause conveying the meaning of let or may. The examples can help us understand the type

- (14) *ʃobai* *bhalo* *tʰak-uk*
all.NOM well stay.SUBJN
'May everyone stay well.'

- (15) *bʰɔgoban* *ʃɔkol-er* *bʰalo* *kor-uk*
god.NOM all-GEN good do.SUBJN
'God bless all.'

The third category is the irrealis subjunctive mood, referring to an unreal or hypothetical condition or event that is not true of that hasn't occurred. In Bangla, the [-am] marker is used with the verb to express situations like this.



- (16) *ami dzodi ækbar norwei dze-te par-t-am*
 I.NOM if once norway.LOC go-INF can-HAB-PST
 'If only I could go to Norway once.'

The [-uk] marker also acts both as the future imperative and subjunctive. We would now like to observe the functions of the subjunctive marker [-uk] in Bangla and think about the sentential force it can denote. In example (17) the [-uk] marker with the verb *kʰæ/ʌ* 'play' can mean an order, advice, or permission. On the contrary, in example (18) the [-uk] marker can only mean a desire, and the above readings are not permissible. In (14) and (15) the sentence conveys a prayer which is not the same as the kind of desire expressed in (18). Lastly, (19) signifies a request. One thing is important to mention that these readings can also be conveyed with the markers [-io] and [-eo] i.e. the second person form of the subjunctive.

- (17) Source: Rayhan (2016)
ora matʰ-e kʰel-uk
 they.PL playground-LOC play-SUBJN
 'They may play in the playground.'

- (18) *adʒ dzʰepe brʃti af-uk*
 today heavily rain come-SUBJN
 'Let the rain pour (come) today heavily.'

- (19) *ækbar amake didi bole dak-uk*
 once me.NOM sister PRT call-SUBJN
 'Please call me sister once.'

4. Desire predicate and the subjunctive

Before delving into the main aim of the paper it is a general concern to talk about the structural innards of *itʃtʃʰe* (with the light verbs). That is the very reason we should bring the matter of the 'impersonal structure' of Bangla to the table. As argued in Roychowdhury & Karmakar (2021), the occurrences of *itʃtʃʰe* (along with the light verbs) in Bangla demand an 'Impersonal Structure', i.e. the subject will always be genitive and the verb will occur in the third person form and there isn't any active counterpart. As argued in the initial section not only *itʃtʃʰe* as a lexical predicate takes a subjunctive as its clausal complement but *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa* can also take a subjunctive, but the problem lies not only with the subjunctive. Let us recall and elaborately understand some instances which were just addressed above precisely.

- (20) *amar itʃtʃʰe ami tfakri-ta tʃʰere di*
 I.GEN desire I.NOM job-CLF leave give.SUBJN.1
 'It is my desire that I leave this job.'

- (21) *amar itʃtʃʰe hɔ-e ami tfakri-ta tʃʰere di*
 I.GEN desire happen-PRS.3 I.NOM job-CLF leave give.SUBJN.1
 'I feel like I leave this job.'

- (22) *amar itʃtʃʰe anil tfakri-ta tʃʰere di-k*
 I.GEN desire anil.NOM job-CLF leave give.SUBJN.3
 'It is my desire that Anil leaves this job.'



5. The structural innards of *itʃtʃʰe* and *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa*

The sentences (20-22) above show a structure where *itʃtʃʰe* and *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa* acts as the matrix predicate and the embedded clause acts as the sentential arguments. According to Bayer (1995) and Bayer and Dasgupta (2016), Bangla exhibiting strict SOV word order can have sentences where the order is SVO and the above constructions are an example of this. The literature argues that this situation is primarily witnessed when complementizer *dʒe* ‘that’ introduces the embedded clause. In the above examples (20-22) the complementizer *dʒe* introduces the embedded clause. As Dasgupta (2016) says in Bangla we can say the sentence without uttering *dʒe* ‘that’ every time, but the complementizer is present there. Bayer (1995) and Bayer and Dasgupta (2016) in the same context tells that the embedded clause introduced by the complementizer *dʒe* cannot occur on the left of the matrix predicate and will occur on the right and that is the base generated position of the embedded clause. Observe the sentences with the incorporation of *dʒe*. We can have a syntactic representation of sentences (25) and (26) in Figures (1) and (2) below respectively.

(24) *amar itʃtʃʰe dʒe ami tʃakri-ta tʃʰere di*
 I.GEN desire that I.NOM job-CLF leave give.SUBJN.1
 ‘It is my desire that I leave this job.’

(25) *amar itʃtʃʰe dʒe ɔnil tʃakri-ta tʃʰere di-k*
 I.GEN desire that anil.NOM job-CLF leave give.SUBJN.3
 ‘It is my desire that Anil leaves this job.’

(26) *amar itʃtʃʰe hɔ-e dʒe ami tʃakri-ta tʃʰere di*
 I.GEN desire happen-PRS.3 that I.NOM job-CLF leave give.SUBJN.1
 ‘I feel like I leave this job.’

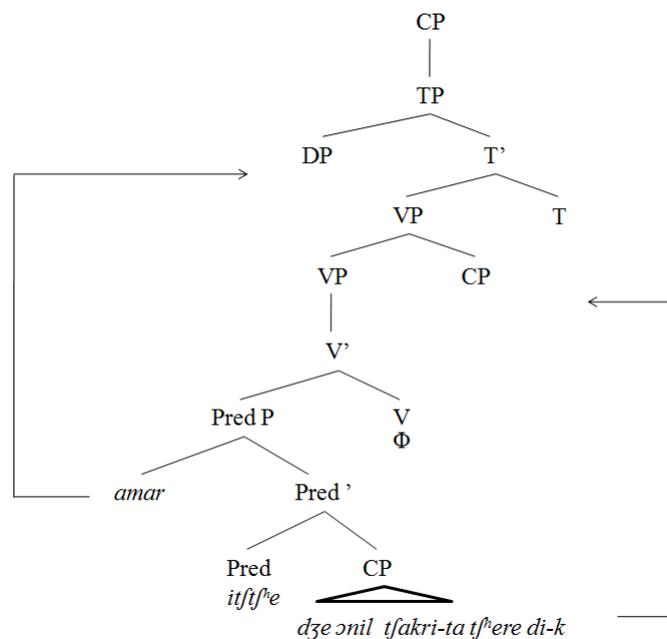


Figure 1 The syntactic representation of *itʃtʃʰe* as a lexical predicate

In the above syntactic construction, we would first design our argument for introducing the ‘predicate phrase’. As argued before, *itʃtʃʰe* acts as a lexical predicate here and we are not a good subscriber of making that



sit under the verbal head. Hence *itʃtʃʰe* sits under the predicate head of a predicate phrase. We have consciously kept the verbal head null, to convey the matter of the verb-less sentence. Following Bayer (1995) the CP as discussed above is in the right of the matrix predicate *itʃtʃʰe* and then it is raised in the above CP.

The syntactic representation of (26) will be a complex one due to the presence of the complex predicate i.e. an N+V conjunct verb *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa*. Following Davison (2005) & Chatterjee (2014), the structure of a complex predicate will be more critical than simplex predicates. Quite similarly, in the context of these predicates, we hence propose a matter of 'complex head'. In Figure (2) below, we have shown the instance of the complex head, by keeping it under the verbal head (V) comprised of a noun and a verb and then the verb is raised to the small v for theta assignment. According to Kratzer (1996) the external argument of the verb is introduced by small vP.

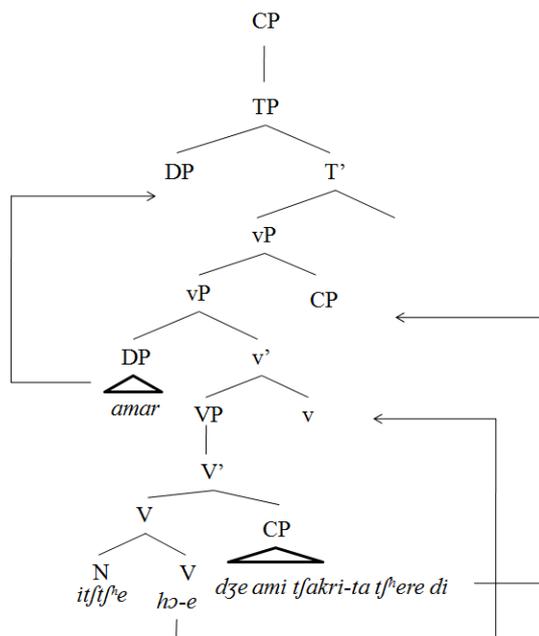


Figure 2 The syntactic representation N+V complex form *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa*

6. The predicates *itʃtʃʰe* and *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa* – a pragmatic interlude

Based on the analysis laid out in Sections 4 and 5, it is feasible to discern and investigate a minimum of two discrete components about the subject matter. Primarily, a distinction may be made between instances where the speaker's desire is self-directed and instances when the speaker's desire is oriented towards another individual. The lexical predicate *itʃtʃʰe* can occur without a light verb and is consistent with both mentioned contexts. In contrast, the occurrence of the predicate *itʃtʃʰe* with the light verb *hɔwa* in the construction *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa* is incompatible with a phrase in which the contextual focus pertains to the speaker's desire towards another individual. The analysis of the syntactic-pragmatic properties of the lexical predicate *itʃtʃʰe* extends beyond the boundaries of the IP (Inflectional Phrase). According to our understanding, IP is governed by different sentential forces invoked by *itʃtʃʰe* and *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa*. The present study builds upon the ideas put out by Searle (1969), who offers a similar perspective in explaining the interrelationship between illocutionary force (F) and propositional substance (p). Searle introduces a framework to exemplify the process of interaction: F(p). In light of the given circumstances, our objective in this paper is to identify a comprehensive theoretical framework that can effectively address the aforementioned process of constructing meaning in two layers about the predicate *itʃtʃʰe*, i.e. in one layer, the speaker's desire is directed towards themselves, while in the other layer, the desire is directed towards someone else.

6.1. Capturing Locution, Illocution and Perlocution with respect to *itʃtʃʰe* and *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa*

Searle (1969) & Austin (1975) are esteemed philosophers renowned for their contributions to the field of speech act theory, which explores the intricacies of linguistic usage that extend beyond straightforward semantic interpretations. The notions of locution, illocution, and perlocution were created to provide a clear distinction between



various components of speech actions. To capture *itʃtʃʰe* and *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa* within the given framework, it is necessary to analyze the locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary aspects associated with each lexical unit. The locutionary act, as put forth by Austin (1975), refers to the literal or surface-level meaning of an utterance. It encompasses the words used, their arrangement, and their grammatical structure. In other words, the locutionary act is what is said explicitly in a sentence. It's the basic building block of communication and involves the straightforward transmission of information without considering any underlying intentions or effects. The illocutionary act goes beyond the literal meaning of words and focuses on the speaker's intention or purpose in uttering a sentence. It refers to the social function performed by an utterance. This means that when we speak, we're not just conveying information; we're also trying to do something with our words, such as making requests, giving orders, asking questions, or making promises. The perlocutionary act concerns the effect an utterance has on the listener or recipient. It focuses on how the listener interprets and responds to the speaker's words. This includes any emotional reactions, changes in beliefs, or actions that the listener might undertake as a result of the speech act. In a nutshell, these three components can be exemplified using a single sentence:

Locutionary Aspect: The words and their literal arrangement in the sentence.

Illocutionary Aspect: The intended purpose or function of the sentence as a speech act.

Perlocutionary Aspect: The impact or effect the sentence has on the listener.

Understanding these components is crucial for comprehending the full scope of this research work, as they highlight that desire is expressed by the mentioned predicates not only by conveying information (locution) but also by accomplishing goals (illocution) and influencing the listener's response (perlocution). To have a more precise understanding, it is necessary to recapitulate the previously mentioned cases that were offered in references (20-22) and are now being referred to as (27-29).

(27) *amar itʃtʃʰe ami tʃakri-ta tʃʰere di*
I.GEN desire I.NOM job-CLF leave give.SUBJN.1

'It is my desire that I leave this job.'

(28) *amar itʃtʃʰe hɔ-e ami tʃakri-ta tʃʰere di*
I.GEN desire happen-PRS.3 I.NOM job-CLF leave give.SUBJN.1

'I feel like I leave this job.'

(29) *amar itʃtʃʰe anil tʃakri-ta tʃʰere di-k*
I.GEN desire anil.NOM job-CLF leave give.SUBJN.3

'It is my desire that Anil leaves this job.'

If we follow these examples minutely, we will see that the locutionary meaning of *itʃtʃʰe*, in (27) is centered on the concept of desire or wish. It represents a state of wanting something. On the contrary *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa* in (28) means something like the desire happens to the person, or the person becomes desirous. It suggests a change in one's state of mind. The illocutionary aspect of both the utterances in question expresses their desire. The perlocutionary component is what makes (27) and (28) intriguing. In this particular case, the perlocutionary effect in (27) might entail the hearer's (H) understanding of the speaker's (S) intention to quit the job and then initiating a discussion about potential options for finding a new employment opportunity. On the contrary, within the framework of (28), the potential perlocutionary outcome might involve an increased level of curiosity from the listener towards the speaker's intention, which may subsequently result in a reaction typified by inquiry or amazement. However, it is important to acknowledge that in all scenarios, the speaker is expressing their own ideas or emotions. The perlocutionary effect pertains to the influence exerted on the recipient that extends beyond the explicit content of the uttered words.



Our point of divergence gathers around the sentence in (29), as (29) does not adhere to the framework that was previously addressed. In contrast to the situation described in reference (27), the speaker (S) in (29) conveys the desire which is directed towards the hearer (H) and would like the hearer (H) to perform the future act of leaving the job. The predicate *itftf^{he} hɔwa* distinctly sets itself apart from constructs such as (29). An extensive analysis of the Bangla language would strongly demonstrate that the specific predicate *itftf^{he} hɔwa* in the subjunctive domain is limited to expressing the speaker's internal thoughts, but it lacks the ability to convey desires in a directive manner. This inconsistency is reflected in (30) below, resulting in a grammatically ill-formed sentence.

- (30) *amar itftf^{he} hɔ-e ɔnil tfakri-ta t^{he}ere di-k
 I.GEN desire happen-PRS.3 anil.NOM job-CLF leave give.SUBJN.3
 'I feel like Anil leaves this job.' (A very inadequate translation)

Given the above-mentioned understanding, the current study seeks to examine the methods of capturing the clarified illocutionary dichotomy of *itftf^{he}* and *itftf^{he} hɔwa* within their respective syntactic frameworks, as explicated in Section 4 and outlined in the ensuing sub-section.

6.2 The predicates *itftf^{he}* and *itftf^{he} hɔwa* – syntax of pragmatization

In order to achieve the aforementioned objective, we consider Rizzi's model, which was introduced in (1997). In this model, the syntactic representation of force is posited as the highest functional projection. According to Rizzi, the structure of the Complementizer Phrase (CP) consists of three components: ForceP (Force Phrase), FocP (Focus Phrase), and TopP (Topic Phrase). This is analogous to how the Inflectional Phrase (IP) carries information about the Tense Phrase (TP) and Agreement Phrase (Agr P). Rizzi's proposition in this context can be succinctly represented by the following diagram.

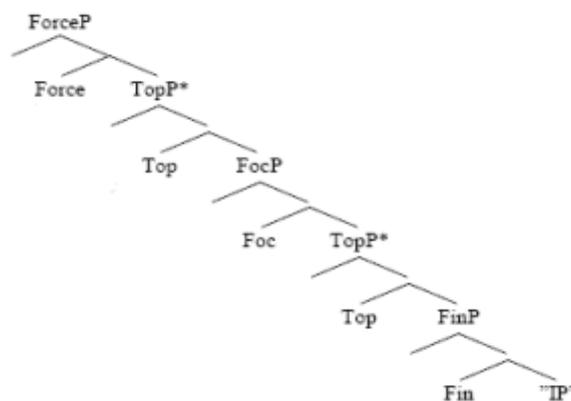


Figure 3 Pragmatization of Syntax, Rizzi (1997)

Rizzi's proposition offers a potential alternative for integrating pragmatic content inside the current framework of syntax. Put simply, syntax has developed to the point where it can now consider the entirety of an utterance. At this moment, the present study aims to explicitly declare its specific interest in the idea of Force P. Therefore, an attempt will be made to address the stated objective by adhering to this approach.

To integrate the illocutionary element of an utterance, it is necessary to make some alterations to the current theoretical framework depicted in Figure 1. But before we do that, the paper will look into Searle's five basic categories, representatives, directives, commissives, declarations, and expressive. Representative [+R] speech actions refer to utterances in which the speaker's words accurately reflect the state of the world. Directive [+Dr] speech actions are a type of communicative action that prompts the listener to perform a certain task or action. This also pertains to interrogative statements that aim to elicit a response from the recipient, as well as indirect instructions that are conveyed through implicatures. Through the utilization of a commissives [+C] speech act, individuals commit themselves to the fulfillment of a certain activity, therefore aligning their words with subsequent actions in order to bring about desired outcomes. Another classification of Searle's speech acts pertains to

declarations [+DI]. When said by an individual with the requisite power within certain and well-defined conditions, these statements give rise to events that align with the expressed words. Expressive [+E] speech refers to the verbal communication that conveys the speaker's emotions and sentiments towards oneself or the surrounding world. According to Norrick (1978), it is specified that expressive speech acts serve to express psychological states.

Taking into consideration the aforementioned point, a review of the examples provided in (27-29) reveals that the illocutionary force varies. When considering utterances (27) and (28) it can be seen that they align with the expressive speaking act, since they convey the speaker's internal thoughts or mental state, specifically including the [+E] force. In contrast, the utterance provided in (30) presents a divergent narrative. To have a comprehensive understanding, it is important to do a comparative analysis concerning (31)

- (31) **Context:** Senior authorities express dissatisfaction with Mr. Anil's performance. The intention is to transmit this directive to him via his supervisor

<i>anil</i>	<i>tʃakri-ta</i>	<i>tʃʰere</i>	<i>di-k</i>
anil.NOM	job-CLF	leave	give.SUBJN.3

'Anil must leave this job.'

The concept of "conversational backgrounds" or "mutual contextual beliefs" (MCB), as elucidated by Bach & Harnish (1979) plays a crucial role in the framework of a speech act schema (SAS). In a hypothetical scenario, let us consider a situation when a superior, communicates (31) to their subordinate, specifically a manager. In this regard, the statement assumes the form of a directed speech act, particularly classified as "order". According to Searle & Vanderveken (1985) the directive illocutionary force delivers the propositional content and the condition of the propositional content that it represents a future course of action of the hearer. Its sole preparatory condition is that the hearer can carry out the course of action represented in the propositional content and its sole psychological state is desire.

Table 2 Indirect Directive Speech Act, Searle (1975)

Searle's Generalization of Indirective Speech Act	
Generalization 1	S (Speaker) can make an indirect request (or other directive) by either asking whether or stating that a preparatory condition concerning H's (Hearer) ability to do A obtains
Generalization 2	S can make an indirect directive by either asking whether or stating that the propositional content obtains.
Generalization 3	S can make an indirect directive by stating that the sincerity condition obtains, but not by asking whether it obtains.
Generalization 4	S can make an indirect directive by either stating that or asking whether there are good or overriding reasons for doing A, except where the reason is that H wants or wishes, etc., to do A, in which case he can only ask whether H wants, wishes, etc., to do A.



The incorporation of the predicate *itʃtʃʰe* in (31) as illustrated in (29) indicates a deviation from our understanding stated above. Unlike (27) and (28), the utterance in (29) does not carry [+E] force of expressive speech act; instead, it demonstrates its speech act-wise resemblance to (31). But a closer look will ensure that the nature of the directive speech act exhibited in (29) is not the same as (31). The dual character of the directive speech act may be elucidated by examining the comprehensive taxonomy of the directive speech act, as posited by Searle (1975). Upon examination of the aforesaid sets of circumstances, one may discern a compilation of generalizations as follows:

The systematic examination of the utterance (29) may be attributed to the presence of these generalizations. Please reconsider (29) in (32) with a suitable context.

- (32) **Context:** Mr. Anil is a long-standing employee of the organisation. Despite the dissatisfaction expressed by top authorities over his performance, they are reluctant to terminate Mr. Anil's employment immediately due to his significant contributions throughout the years. Therefore, by means of the subsequent statement, the individual aim to strategically portray the case.

amar itʃtʃʰe ʌnil tʃakri-ta tʃʰere di-k
 I.GEN desire anil.NOM job-CLF leave give.SUBJN.3

'It is my desire that Anil leaves this job.'

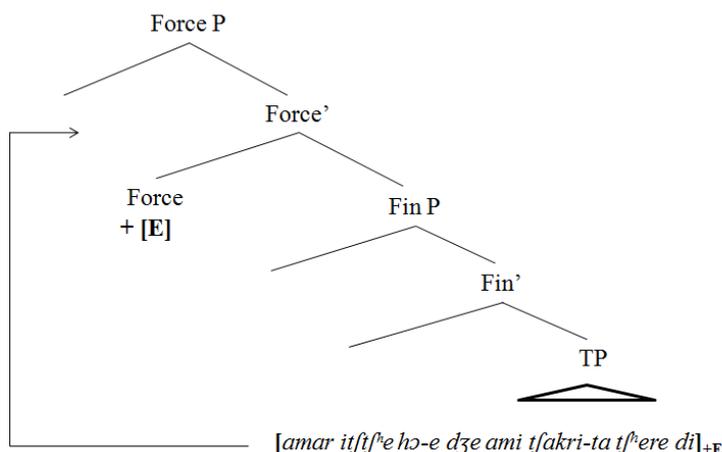


Figure 4 Capturing illocution of utterance (27)

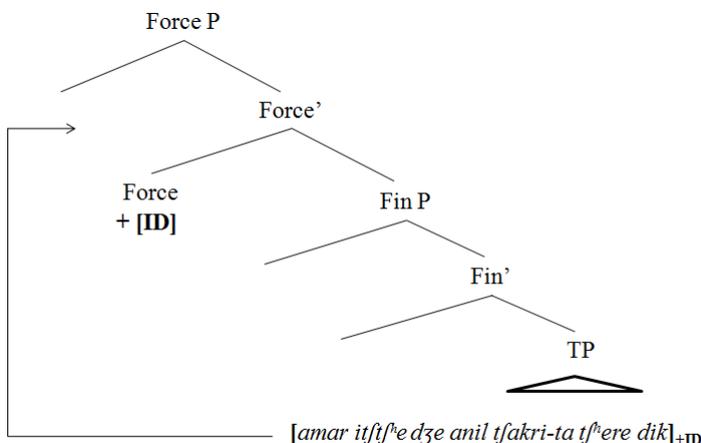


Figure 5 Capturing illocution of utterance (29)

In (32) the speaker (S) aims for an indirect form of directive rather than a direct command or suggestion. This choice is characterized by the use of the predicate *itʃtʃʰe* in a context where the speaker's desire is directed toward the hearer. This use of *itʃtʃʰe* can be classified as an indirect directive [+ID] speech act force, which aligns with the generalization stated in Table 2. With this knowledge, the primary unanswered question is how the syntactic structure that we addressed in Section 5 incorporates the projection of these forces ([+E] and [+ID]) structurally, represented in Figures 4 and 5 respectively.

By the works of Karmakar and Ghosh (2016) as well as Ghosh and Mukherjee (2023), this study posits that in the case of the structures depicted in Figure (4) and Figure (5), the TP undergoes movement to the Spec-ForceP location to verify the head feature of the ForceP. It should be noted that in Figure (4), the head feature is identified as [+E], while in Figure (5), it is identified as [+ID].

7. Conclusion

The present work featured an interesting dichotomy that is observed in Bangla (Bengali: Indo-Aryan) that revolves around the desire predicates *itʃtʃʰe* 'desire' and *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa* meaning 'the desire happens/ occurs' to the speaker. The contrasting behaviour of the two predicates is noticed in their embeddability properties i.e. the embedded clausal complements they select. The predicate *itʃtʃʰe* can occur in contexts where the desire of the speaker (S) is directed towards the speaker (S) and also where the desire of the speaker (S) is directed towards someone else or the hearer (H). On the contrary, the predicate *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa* denies occurring in a situation where the desire of the speaker (S) is directed towards the hearer (H). To address this intricacy, we have considered analyzing the sentential force or the 'illocutionary force' of both constructions. We have claimed that when *itʃtʃʰe* accommodates a context where the desire is directed towards the hearer (H), then it conveys an 'indirect directive' speech act. In the other context where the desire of the speaker (S) is directed towards the speaker (S), the predicate *itʃtʃʰe* conveys an 'expressive speech' act. On the other side of the table, the story is different and we claimed that *itʃtʃʰe* with the light verb *hɔwa* forming the NV conjunct *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa* only shows an 'expressive' illocutionary force. Hence the syntax of pragmatization conveys that the Force head of the Force phrase (Force P) will have the feature [+ID] when *itʃtʃʰe* conveys an 'Indirective directive' speech act. The force head will have the feature [+E] when *itʃtʃʰe hɔwa* conveys an 'expressive' speech act.

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Does this article screened for similarity?

Yes

Author Contributions

Debadatta Roychowdhury: Designed the analysis, Collected the data, Data analysis, Statistical analysis, Manuscript preparation, Manuscript editing and review; **Soumya Sankar Ghosh**: Conceived and designed the analysis, Manuscript preparation, Manuscript editing and review. **Samir Karmakar**: Manuscript preparation, Manuscript editing and review. All the authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

Conflict of interest

The Authors have no conflict of interest to declare that they are relevant to the content of the article.

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