

Focus-sensitive operators in Ntəʔkepmxcin (Thompson River Salish)

Karsten Koch
Zentrum für Allgemeine
Sprachwissenschaft, Berlin

Malte Zimmermann
Institut für Linguistik
Universität Potsdam

karstenak@hotmail.com

mazimmer@uni-potsdam.de

Abstract

Based on new fieldwork data, this paper gives the first overview and analysis of focus sensitive operators in Ntəʔkepmxcin. Free foci in discourse exchanges are obligatorily marked using a predicative strategy, resulting in a clefting strategy for DPs. Exclusive and additive readings are expressed using the same predicative strategy, and we show that exclusive $\lambda u?$ ‘only’ and additive $\text{ʔe}\lambda u?$ ‘also, even’ are adverbial: as 2nd position clitics, they occupy a high functional projection in the left periphery. There is no specific marker of scalarity like English *even*. Finally, although exclusive $\lambda u?$ is strictly f-sensitive in the sense of Beaver and Clark (2008), additive $\text{ʔe}\lambda u?$ has the more flexible syntax and association behaviour of Q-adverbials like *always*.

1 Introduction

This article presents the first overview and the first syntactic and semantic analysis of focus-sensitive operators in Ntəʔkepmxcin (Thompson River Salish), a severely endangered Salishan language of southwestern Canada. We concentrate on the expression of exclusive (*only*) and additive (*also, too*) readings, and show that there is no specific marker of scalarity like English *even*.

After briefly outlining some general properties of Ntəʔkepmxcin (§2), we review data showing that free foci are obligatorily marked using a predicative strategy, which results in a clefting strategy in case of DP-foci (§3). In section 4, we show that the formal expression of exclusive and additive readings is based on the same predicative strategy. Section 5 presents the syntactic analysis, according to which focus-sensitive operators $\lambda u?$ ‘only’ and $\text{ʔe}\lambda u?$ ‘also’ are adverbial in nature: as 2nd position clitics (2CL), they occupy a high functional projection in the left periphery of the clause.

Despite superficial similarities, the syntactic and (discourse-)semantic behaviour of exclusive and the additive particle differs in a number of ways (§6): unlike exclusive $\lambda u?$ ‘only,’ which is strictly f-sensitive in the sense of Beaver and Clark (2003, 2008), the additive particle $\text{ʔe}\lambda u?$ shows the more flexible association behaviour of Q-adverbials like

always. We conclude that exclusive and additive particles do not form a natural class of f-sensitive expressions in Ntɛʔkepmxcin, as in some West African languages (Hartmann and Zimmermann 2008).

2 General language background

Ntɛʔkepmxcin is one of 23 Salish languages, and is spoken in southwestern British Columbia, Canada (see Thompson and Thompson 1992, Kinkade 1992, Kroeber 1999, Davis and Matthewson 2009). Like in all Salish languages, word order is predicate initial, typically Verb-Subject-Object-Oblique-Adjunct (though post-predicative order is quite flexible). Transitivity and argument agreement is obligatorily marked on the verb/predicate (1), and topical arguments are typically null (*pro* in 1c). The Salish languages are well-known for their predicate-argument flexibility, since any open-class category can function as the predicate (e.g. bare NP predicates - 1d) without the use of a copula (e.g. Kuipers 1968, Kinkade 1983, Jelinek and Demers 1994, Kroeber 1999, Koch and Matthewson 2009).¹

- (1) a. V 2CL S O Oblique
 ń-t-Ø-és =xeʔ e=Bill e=qəłmín t=e=ʔescéq^w te=ʔéplɕ.
 give-TR-3O-3S =DEM DET=Bill DET=elder OBL=DET=red LINK=apple
 ‘Bill gave the elder a red apple.’
- b. V 2CL S O ADV
 ncíq-Ø-Ø-es =ek^wu=xeʔe e=Flóra ʔ=swúx^wt t=ʔspiʔxáwt.
 dig-TR-3O-3S =EVID=DEM DET=Flora DET=snow OBL=DET=day
 ‘Flora dug the snow out yesterday.’
- c. Aux 2CL V S O
 x^wúy =xeʔ ník-Ø-Ø-es *pro* e=syíqm.
 FUT =DEM cut-TRANS-3OBJ-3SUBJ *pro* DET=grass
 ‘He’s going to cut the grass.’
- d. NP 2CL S
 sqə́č =ek^wu=xeʔ e=Bób.
 chickenhawk =EVID=DEM DET=Bob
 ‘Bob is a policeman.’

Second position clitics (2CL) include situational deictics (xeʔ in 1a-d), modal evidentials

¹ Abbreviations used in the glosses (based on Thompson and Thompson 1992, 1996; Kroeber 1997) are as follows: ‘-’ = affix, ‘=’ = clitic, * = ungrammatical structure or interpretation, # = pragmatically infelicitous, APPL = applicative, AUG = augmentative reduplicant, AUT = autonomous [intransitive suffix], AUX = auxiliary, CAUS = causative, CLEFT = cleft predicate, CnCl = conjunctive subject clitic, COMP, C = complementizer, DEM = demonstrative, D, DET = determiner, DIM = diminutive reduplicant, DRV = directive transitivizer, EMPH = emphatic, EVID = evidential, FUT = future, IDF = indefinite, IMPF = imperfective, INCH = inchoative, InCl = indicative subject clitic, INTRANS, INTR = intransitive, IRL = irrealis, LINK = attributive link marker, LOC = locative, MDL = middle, NCM = non-control middle, NEG = negation, NOM = nominalizer, OBJ, O = object, OBL = oblique, PERF = perfective, PL = plural, PoCl = possessive subject clitic, POSS, PS = possessive, PRT = particle, Q = yes/no question marker, RED = reduplicant, REL = relational [transitive suffix], SG = singular, STAT = stative prefix, SUBJ, S = subject (transitive), SUBJ.GAP = subject gap marker, TRANS, TR = control transitivizer.

Data are presented in the orthography developed in Thompson and Thompson (1992, 1996). Acute accent ´ on vowels indicates word-level stress. The phonemic key to the orthography follows; symbols not listed have the standard International Phonetic Alphabet interpretation. See Thompson and Thompson (1992) in particular for the phonetic realizations of phonemic vowels across contexts.

c = [tj], ç = [ts], č = [tsʰ], e = [æ, a, ə, ε, e], ɛ = [ʌ], s = [ʃ], ś = [s], x = [χ], y = [j, i].

(*ek^wu* in 1b and 1d), clause-typers (*us* in 2), and (to be shown) focus-sensitive operators with exclusive and additive meanings. Clitic strings can include up to five or six elements:²

- (2) Aux 2CL V
 ʔéx =us =meʔ =iʔʕuʔ =xeʔ =neʔ ʕwóyʔ.
 IMPF =3CnCl =indeed =still =DEM =there sleep
 ‘Better let him sleep.’

Direct arguments (S of V_{INTRANS}, S and O of V_{TRANS}) must be marked by one of the determiners (*he*, *ʔ*, or *k* (3a-c). Oblique arguments (e.g. O of formally V_{INTRANS}) additionally have an oblique marker *t* (1a, 3d). Determiners do not encode a definite/indefinite-distinction, nor a uniqueness presupposition (c.f. Matthewson 1998, 1999, 2006, von Stechow and Fintel and Matthewson 2008 on St’át’imcets Salish).

- (3) a. k^wéw-Ø-Ø-es=xeʔ e=Jóhn e=syép.
 float-TR-3O-3S=DEM DET=John DET=tree
 ‘John is floating the logs down the river.’ [DPs visible]
 b. zóq^w=ʕəmə́ ncéʔ ʔ=n-kíx.
 die=PERF 1SG.EMPH DET=1SG.POSS-older.sister
 ‘My older sister died.’ [DP not visible/deceased; cf. Burton 1997]
 c. ʕík=ʕəmə́ k=sqyéytn.
 use.up=PERF IRL=salmon
 ‘The salmon is all gone.’ [DP no longer in existence]
 d. wík-m=k^w=ʔ t=k=smíyc.
 see-MDL=2SG.InCl=Q OBL=IRL=deer
 ‘Did you see any deer?’ [DP_{OBLIQUE} of V_{INTRANS}]

Finally, relative clauses are head external (typically head initial). One determiner introduces the head NP, while a second introduces the relative clause. The second determiner reflects operator movement of the clause-internal DP to Spec,CP (Kroeger 1997, Davis 2004, Koch 2006, Koch 2008b): the determiner of the fronted DP is pronounced and functions as a quasi-relative pronoun (predicate abstraction – Heim and Kratzer 1998). An attributive LINK marker between the head NP and the relative clause marks predicate modification (Kroeger 1997), c.f. (4a), but is absent in locative relative clauses (4b):

- (4) a. e=cítx^w t [CP [DP ʔ]_i] s=cuw-éʔx^w=s ʔ=Jóhn t_i
 DET=house LINK DET NOM=build-house=3PoCl DET=John t_i
 ‘the house which John built’
 b. e=npúytn [CP [PP in=e]_i] x^wúy^ʔ=wn ʕwóyʔ t_i
 DET=bed in=DET FUT=1SG.CnCl sleep t_i
 ‘a bed in which I will sleep’

Headless relative clauses realize only the initial determiner. The LINK marker and the second determiner are not pronounced (shown by strikethrough in 5):

- (5) ʔés-xək-st-Ø-éne=xeʔ ʔ=[NP [NP Ø] ʔ=[CP [DP ʔ]_i] q^wc-íyx u=ʔ=ʕəmə́cín t_i]]
 STAT-know-TR-3O-1SG.S=DEM DET= LINK DET leave-AUT to=DET=Lytton t_i
 ‘I know the one that went to Lytton.’

² It is important to observe that the 2CL-position in Nleʔkepmxcin is the position after the first word. As a result, we find (strings of) 2CL-elements inside complex nominal constituents.

3 Free foci

This section shows that Nteʔkepmxcin employs a purely predicative focus marking strategy (Kroeber 1997, Koch 2008a; Davis 2007 for St'át'imcets, Benner 2006 for Sencóthen): the focus constituent, or the focus exponent, form (part of) the syntactic predicate in sentence-initial position. Parallel to three syntactic types of focus constituents (V(P)-predicate/sentence, bare NP, or DP-argument), three different syntactic focus structures emerge: (i.a) V(P) initial; (i.b) Nominal Predicate Construction (NPC); and (ii.) DP-argument cleft.

Before we go into the data, observe that syntactic focus marking in Nteʔkepmxcin seems to be primarily triggered by the need to indicate the question under discussion (Roberts 1996, Beaver & Clark 2008), and not contrastivity as such. Thus, all examples of focus marking in this section come from discourse exchanges between participants; contrastive focus within a speaker's discourse turn is not necessarily marked (see 39b-d).

All instances of predication focus (V-, VP-, Tense/Aspect/Mood, verum-focus) as well as CP-focus on the extended verbal projection are realized with the verbal predicate in default sentence-initial position (for reasons of space, wh-questions are just given in English):

- (6) a. A: *What's going on?* [CP focus]
 B: wʔéx=xéʔ=neʔ ʔes-tét-ix e=Pátricia.
 IMPF=DEM=DEM STAT-stand-AUT DET=Patricia
 'Patricia is standing there.'
- b. A: *What are you doing?* [VP focus]
 B: ʔéx=xéʔ ʔes-kʷéñ-st-Ø-ne e=stéʔ=us=nke.
 IMPF=DEM STAT-look.at-TR-3O-1SG.S DET=what=3CnCl=EVID
 'I'm looking at something.'
- c. A: *Does your grandmother like cherries?* [verum focus]
 B: heʔáy, ýecín-m-Ø-s=xéʔ e=n-kʷé
 yes, like-TR-3O-3S=DEM DET=1SG.POSS-grandmother DET=cherry
 'Yes, my grandmother likes cherries.'

For focus on a bare NP, a Nominal Predicate construction is employed. The nominal predicate is realized in sentence-initial position (Davis et al. 2004). This is a subcase of predication focus.

- (7) a. A: *What is Betsy going to put in her soup?* [O-focus]
 B: [kálec]_{FOC}=xéʔ=néʔ [e=xʷúý méʔ-e-Ø-s]_{BACKGROUND}.
 carrot=DEM=DEM COMP=FUT MIX-TRANS-3OBJ-3SUBJ
 '[What she's going to put in]_{BACKGROUND} is [carrots]_{FOC}.'
- b. A: *What appeared now?* [S-focus]
 B: [nčesqáʒa]_{FOC}=neʔ [e=wʔáz cʔéyʔ]_{BACKGROUND}.
 horse=there COMP=appear now
 '[What appeared now]_{BACKGROUND} is [a horse]_{FOC}.'

Finally, focus on DP-arguments is marked by means of a cleft-structure in which the focused DP is base-generated after the cleft-marker *če* or *ʔe* in sentence-initial position. The background (cleft remnant) is realized as an argument clause: this is introduced by a complementizer *e* or *k*, and contains a gap *t_x* marked by subordinating morphology on the

verb (Kroeber 1997, 1999, Koch 2008a, 2008b; Davis et al. 2004 on St’át’imcets Salish). The gap is coreferent with the clefted focus.

- (8) a. A: *I heard that it was Fred who painted it.* [S-focus]
 B: $\acute{c}\acute{e}$ [†=Róss]_{FOC} [e pínt-t-Ø-mus t_x]_{BACKGROUND}.
CLEFT DET=ROSS COMP paint-TRANS-3O-SUBJ.GAP t_x
 ‘It was [Ross]_{FOC} [that t_x painted it]_{BACKGROUND}.’
 b. A: *What do you see there?* [O-focus]
 B: $\text{ʔ}\acute{e}=\text{x}\acute{e}\text{ʔ}=\text{n}\acute{e}\text{ʔ}$ [e=kréps]_{FOC} [e=wík-t-Ø-ne t_x]_{BACKGROUND}.
CLEFT=DEM=there DET=grape COMP=see-TR-3O-1SG.S t_x
 ‘It’s [grapes]_{FOC} [that I see t_x]_{BACKGROUND}.’

Syntactically, the cleft predicate takes the cleft-DP and a cleft-remnant CP as arguments (9a). Thus, clefts conform to the general constraint that focus is always initial and (part of) the predicate. Semantically, the cleft marker denotes a 2place-function that takes an individual ([[cleft-DP]]) and a property ([[cleft-remnant]]) as arguments (9b). For detailed argumentation, see Kroeber (1997, 1999), Koch (2008a, 2008b) and Davis et al. (2004).

- (9) a. DP-CP analysis of clefts: [PredP $\acute{c}e_{\langle e, \langle et, t \rangle \rangle}$ [DP $\langle e \rangle$] [$\langle et \rangle$ CP]
 b. denotation of cleft predicate: [[$\acute{c}e$]] = $\lambda x \in D_e. \lambda P \in D_{et}. P(x)$

Two kinds of evidence for the structure in (9a) are: (i.) The cleft predicate $\acute{c}e$ behaves like other verbal predicates in taking particular morphology under embedding (e.g. nominalization and possessive morphology in 10); (ii.) the cleft-remnant must be introduced by complementizing elements that are independently attested on complement clauses (e in 8bB, k in 11), but it cannot be introduced by the determiner † (11), which is found in free relative DPs, such as (5) above.

- (10) a. Embedded verb with nominalizer and possessive morphology $s=\dots=s$ on V:
 $q\acute{e}\text{ʔn}\acute{í}\text{m}-\text{Ø}-\text{n}\acute{e}=\text{x}\acute{e}\text{ʔ}$ $k=s=w\text{ʔx}\acute{ú}\text{m}=s$ $e=\text{Súe}$ $t=k=n\acute{c}\acute{e}\text{sqá}\chi\acute{a}$.
hear-TR-3O-1SG.S=DEM C=NOM=have=3PoCl DET=Sue OBL=IRL=horse
 ‘I heard that Sue has some horses.’
 b. Embedded cleft with nominalizer and possessive morphology $s=\dots=s$ on $\acute{c}e$:
 $q\acute{e}\text{ʔn}\acute{í}-\text{m}-\text{Ø}-\text{n}\acute{e}$ $k=s=\acute{c}\acute{e}=s$ †=Fréd $k=\text{p}\acute{í}\text{n}\text{t}-\text{et}-\text{Ø}-\text{mus}$.
hear-TR-3O-1SG.S C=NOM= $\acute{c}e$ =3PoCl D=Fred C=paint-TR-3O-SUBJ.GAP
 ‘I heard that it was Fred who painted it.’
 (11) $\acute{c}\acute{e}=\acute{n}=\text{m}\acute{e}\text{ʔ}=\text{x}\acute{e}\text{ʔ}$ †=Monique $k=(/*\text{†})$ †aʔxáns t=e=sfaʔxáns.
CLEFT=Q=indeed=DEM DET=Monique COMP= (*DET=) eat OBL=DET=food
 ‘Was it Monique that ate the food?’

Semantically, Nleʔkepmxcin clefts differ from English clefts in two important respects. First, they do not introduce an existence presupposition (Soames 1982, Rooth 1996, Percus 1997, Hedberg 2000 on English; Davis et al. 2004, Koch 2007, 2008a, on Salish): speakers do not judge discourse-initial clefts as infelicitous when presented with them (Davis et al. 2004, Matthewson 2006, von Stechow and Matthewson 2008, on St’át’imcets & Straits Salish):

- (12) A: $\acute{c}\acute{e}=\text{x}\acute{e}\text{ʔ}$ $e=káh$ $e=s=\text{t}\text{x}^w-\acute{u}\text{p}=s$ $e=\text{Pátrick}$.
CLEFT=DEM DET=car COMP=NOM=buy-INCH=3PoCl DET=Patrick
 ‘Patrick bought a car.’ (more literally: ‘It was a car that Patrick bought.’)

- B: teté? k=s=tx^w-úp=s xé?e. Áu?, uh
 NEG COMP=NOM=buy-INCH=3PoCl DEM. but, uh
 ‘He didn’t buy one. He, uh’
- C: ?éx=xé? q^wáx-m.
 IMPF=DEM borrow-MDL
 ‘He borrowed one.’

Secondly, Nte?kepmxcin clefts come without a uniqueness or exhaustivity effect: they are felicitous even if the cleft-denotation does not exhaust the domain of individuals satisfying the backgrounded predicate (13).

(13) [Context: There are 6 people in a picture. Several of them are carrying apples.]

- A: *Who is carrying apples?*
- B: ?é=xé? e=Bétsy e=?es-k^wák^w-m t=e=péye?,
 CLEFT=DEM DET=Betsy COMP=STAT-carry-MDL OBL=DET=one,
 ?et ?é=xé? e=Jón.
 and CLEFT=DEM DET=Jon.
 ‘Betsy is carrying one, and so is John.’
 (literally: ‘It is Betsy that is carrying one (basket), and it is John.’) (≠ only Betsy)

Since Nte?kepmxcin clefts are semantically not exhaustive, additive particles should be able to associate with the focused cleft-DP. We show that this prediction is borne out in §4.2.

4 Exclusive ‘only’, additive ‘also’, and scalar readings

4.1 Expression of the exclusive reading ≈ only

Exclusive readings are obligatorily expressed by means of the 2CL Áu?. Áu? must associate with a syntactically-marked focus. Completely parallel to the three syntactic focusing strategies observed in section 3, this focus is either the initial verbal or nominal predicate (14ab), or a clefted DP (14c). When the 2CL Áu? associates with a clefted DP-focus, the default predicative cleft marker ?é or ?e is replaced by the exclusive cleft marker cuk^w (14c).

- (14) a. 2CL Áu? in a verb-initial clause associates with VP focus (also V, CP focus):
 n?w?q^w-?m=kn=Áu?=ne? t=e=he?úse?.
 boil-MDL=1SG.InCl= Áu?=DEM OBL=DET=egg
 ‘I only [boiled an egg]_{FOC}.’ / ‘I only [boiled]_{FOC} an egg.’
 (NOT * ‘Only [I]_{FOC} boiled an egg.’ / * ‘I boiled only [an egg]_{FOC}.’)
- b. 2CL Áu? with initial nominal predicates associates with bare NP-focus:
 tíy=us=Áu?=ne? k=ex=e?=s=?úq^we?.
 tea=3CONJ= Áu?=DEM COMP=IMPF=2SG.PoCl=NOM=drink
 ‘You should only drink [tea]_{FOC}.’
 (NOT: * ‘Only [you]_{FOC} should drink tea.’ / * ‘You should only [drink]_{FOC} tea.’)
- c. 2CL Áu? preceded by exclusive cleft marker cuk^w and associated with clefted DP:
 cúk^w=Áu?=we? [DP e=kéyx]_{FOC} [CP e=wík-t-Ø-ne]_{BG}.
 CLEFT_{only}= Áu?=DEM DET=hand COMP=see-TRANS-3OBJ-1SG.SUBJ
 ‘I only see [a hand]_{FOC} there.’ (literally ‘It’s only [a hand]_{FOC} that I see.’)
 (NOT: * ‘Only [I]_{FOC} see a hand there.’ / * ‘I only [see]_{FOC} a hand there.’)

The negative judgements in (14) show that the 2CL $\lambda u?$ must associate with the syntactically-marked foci (in situ or clefted). In the absence of overt cleft-structure, $\lambda u?$ must associate with the sentence-initial verbal (14a) or nominal predicate (14b). With DP-argument clefts, 2CL $\lambda u?$ must associate with the clefted focus DP (14c).

The exclusive meaning component of the 2CL $\lambda u?$ is truth conditional, like English *only*, since it can be targeted by negation (15), and is not cancellable (16).

- (15) Exclusiveness can be targeted by negation (= *only*):
 tetéʔ k=s=cúk^w=s= $\lambda u?$ e=Şám k=k^wən-nwéfn t=k=sqyéytn.
 NOT COMP=NOM=cuk^w=3PoCl= $\lambda u?$ DET=Sam COMP=get-NCM OBL=IRL=salmon
 ‘Not only Sam caught a fish.’
 k^wən-nwéfn= $\text{?et}\lambda u?$ =xeʔ e=Tóm t=e=sqyéytn.
 get-NCM= $\text{?et}\lambda u?$ =DEM DET=Tom OBL=DET=salmon
 ‘Tom also caught a fish.’

- (16) Exclusive meaning is not cancellable (= *only*):
 cúk^w= $\lambda u?$ e=Jánet e=q^wyéw[!]-m t=e=qémies.
 CLEFT_{only}= $\lambda u?$ DET=Janet COMP=pick-MDL OBL=DET=mushroom
 ‘Only Janet picked mushrooms.’
 # ?et xáy-m= $\text{?et}\lambda u?$ e=Tóm.
 and do.SO-MDL= $\text{?et}\lambda u?$ DET=Tom
 # ‘And so did Tom.’

4.2 Expression of the additive reading \approx *also, too*

Additive readings are expressed by means of the expression $\text{?et}\lambda u?$, which is also typically realized as a 2CL (but see §6). Again parallel to the basic focusing strategies outlined in section 3, $\text{?et}\lambda u?$ can associate with sentence-initial verbal (17a) or nominal predicates (17b). In cleft-structures, it associates with the clefted DP-argument (17c). Unlike the exclusive $\lambda u?$, when the 2CL $\text{?et}\lambda u?$ associates with a clefted DP-focus, it co-occurs with the default predicative cleft marker $\acute{c}e$ or ?e in initial position.

- (17) a. 2CL $\text{?et}\lambda u?$ in a verb-initial clause, associating with VP focus (also V, CP):
 ?et [k^wúk^w=kn= $\text{?et}\lambda u?$ =xeʔe t=Şáp=us]_{FOC}.
 and cook=1SG.InCl= $\text{?et}\lambda u?$ =DEM DET=dusk=3CONJ
 ‘And I also [cooked supper]_{FOC}.’
 b. 2CL $\text{?et}\lambda u?$ associating with a bare NP predicate that is narrowly focused:
 [NP npúytn]_{FOC}= $\text{?et}\lambda u?$ =xeʔ [CP e=s=púpn=s]_{BACKGROUND}.
 bed= $\text{?et}\lambda u?$ =DEM COMP=NOM=find[DIM]=3PoCl
 ‘[What he also found was]_{BACKGROUND} [a bed]_{FOC}.’
 c. 2CL $\text{?et}\lambda u?$ associated with a clefted DP:
 $\acute{c}é$ = $\text{?et}\lambda u?$ [DP e=Súe]_{FOC} [CP e= $\acute{c}q$ -əp-qn t=e= $\text{?épl}\text{!}\text{!}\text{!}$]_{BG}.
 CLEFT= $\text{?et}\lambda u?$ DET=Sue COMP=hit-INCH-head OBL=DET=apple
 ‘It was also [Sue]_{FOC} [that got hit in the head by an apple]_{BG}.’

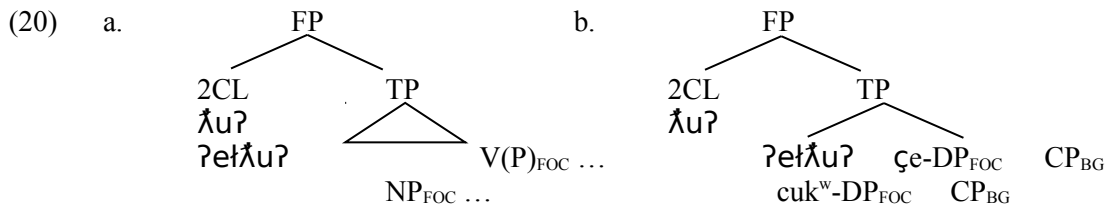
However, in section 6 we will see that the syntactic distribution and the association behaviour of additive $\text{?et}\lambda u?$ are more flexible compared to exclusive $\lambda u?$: $\text{?et}\lambda u?$ can also occur in sentence-final adverb position, and can associate freely with the focus. This raises

truth-conditional, while the additive interpretation with ʔeʔʕuʔ is presuppositional. Since plain DP-clefts do not come with uniqueness presuppositions, the additional occurrence of exclusive ʕuʔ is not redundant, nor is the co-occurrence of additive ʔeʔʕuʔ incompatible.

5 Analysis: Focus-Sensitive Expressions in Thompson

5.1 The general picture

We propose that the exclusive and additive meaning components are coded in the 2CL elements, since only the 2CL are mandatory for all 3 focus-marking strategies (V-initial, NP-initial, DP-cleft). Under our account, the 2CLs ʕuʔ and ʔeʔʕuʔ are adverbial elements in a high functional projection FP, where they take proposition-denoting expressions (= clauses) as their arguments. This is parallel to recent accounts of 2CL modal and evidential markers in Salish (e.g. Matthewson et al. 2007).



On our analysis, the cleft predicates ʕe / ʔe and *cuk^w* do not form part of complex focus-sensitive operators: ʕe / ʔe in additive clefts is simply the ordinary cleft-marker found in plain DP-clefts, while we treat *cuk^w* in exclusive clefts as a semantically vacuous focus-agreement cleft marker; see below.

5.2 The analysis of exclusive readings ≈ *only*

We assign the adverbial 2CL ʕuʔ the same meaning as its adverbial proposition-taking counterpart *only* in English, on the analysis in Rooth (1996):

$$(21) \quad \llbracket \text{ʕuʔ} \rrbracket^w = \lambda p. p(w) \wedge \forall q \in \llbracket p \rrbracket^f : [q(w) \rightarrow q = \llbracket p \rrbracket^0] \quad (\text{Rooth 1996})$$

Relevant alternative propositions are computed off the surface structure, where the focus constituent is (part of) the sentence-initial predicate:

- (22) a. 2CL (V(P)_{FOC} X) (predication focus)
 b. 2CL ([NP_{FOC}][e-CP]_{BG}) (bare NP-focus)
 c. 2CL ([cuk^w DP_{FOC}][e-CP ...]_{BG}) (DP-argument focus)

The 2CL ʕuʔ is focus-functional (strictly f-sensitive in the sense of Beaver and Clark 2003, 2008), in that it can only associate with the focus-marked predicative constituent (or its extended projection) in sentence-initial position. Sample derivations are given below:

- (23) a. $\llbracket (14a) \rrbracket =$ (= ‘I only [boiled an egg]_{FOC}.’)
 b. = $\llbracket \text{ʕuʔ} \rrbracket$ ($\llbracket \text{nʕʔqʔ-w-ʕm=kn=neʔ t=e=heʔuʕeʔ} \rrbracket_{\text{FOC}} \rrbracket$)
 c. = $\lambda p. p(w) \wedge \forall q \in \llbracket p \rrbracket^f : [q(w) \rightarrow q = \llbracket p \rrbracket^0]$ ($\lambda w. \text{I boiled an egg in } w$)

von Stechow 1991), this follows from the fact that adnominal instances of *only* can undergo QR and thus take wide scope (29).

- (28) a. They were advised [to **only** learn Spanish] ADVERBIAL ONLY
 ‘The advice was: Learn Spanish and nothing else.’
 b. They were advised [to learn **only** Spanish] ADNOMINAL ONLY
 i. ‘The advice was: Learn Spanish and nothing else.’ (=26a)
 ii. ‘Spanish is the only language such that they were advised to learn it (but they were free to learn other languages in addition).’

(29) *LF for (28bii): only-DP₁ advise [... t₁ ...]*

(30) shows that inverse scope construals are available in Nleʔkepmxcin, in principle, as the universal QNP *tekm* ‘all’ can take inverse scope over the higher negation predicate, possibly after QR (see Davis 2005 on negation in Salish):

- (30) tetéʔ k=s=ʔupi-t-Ø-íyxs tékm e=scméʔmiʔt e=sčwén-s.
 NEG COMP=NOM=eat-TR-3O-3PL.S all DET=children D=dry.salmon-3POSS
 ‘All the kids did not eat their dried salmon.’ [*all* > *not*]

However, as expected on our analysis, exclusive 2CL *ʔuʔ* cannot take inverse scope over the negation predicate *tetéʔ* in (31a). The semantic scope of *ʔuʔ* always corresponds to its surface position: In order to take wide scope, *cuk^w ʔuʔ* must be the leftmost matrix predicate, while negation *tetéʔ* is embedded in the cleft-remnant (31b):

- (31) a. tetéʔ [k=s=cúk^w=s=ʔuʔ e=šám k=k^wən-nwéʔn t=k=sqyéytn].
 NEG C=NOM=cuk^w=3PoCl= ʔuʔ D=Sam C=get-NCM OBL=IRL=salmon
 ‘Not only Sam caught a fish.’ [*not* > *only* (**only* > *not*)]
 b. cúk^w=ʔuʔ e=šám [tetéʔ k=s=k^wən-nwéʔn=s t=k=sqyéytn].
 cuk^w=ʔuʔ DET=Sam C.NOT C=NOM=get-NCM=3PoCl OBL=IRL=salmon
 ‘Only Sam didn’t catch any fish.’ [*only* > *not* (**not* > *only*)]

Nor can 2CL *ʔuʔ* scope over other verbal predicates (‘forget’ in 32). Again, to take wide scope, *cuk^w ʔuʔ* must be the matrix predicate (33), while the verbal predicate is embedded in the cleft-remnant CP (‘remember’ in 33).

- (32) CONTEXT: my mother tells me to only buy potatoes. But I forget and I come home with a whole bag full of groceries: *forget* > *only*; *only* embedded.
 ʔép-Ø-Ø-ne=xéʔ [k=s=cúk^w=s=ʔuʔ
 forget-TRANS-3OBJ-1SG.SUBJ=DEM COMP=NOM=CLEFT_{only}=3PoCl= ʔuʔ
 e=štqólš x^wúy e=n=s=k^wn-šm].
 DET=potato FUT COMP=1SG.PoCl=NOM=get-MDL
 ‘I forgot that it was only potatoes that I was supposed to get.’
 (NOT: * ‘It was only potatoes that I forgot to get.’)

- (33) CONTEXT: I went grocery shopping. And I forgot everything that I was supposed to buy. I remembered to buy only potatoes: *only* > *remember*, *verb embedded*.
 cúk^w=ʔuʔ e=štqólš [e=ʔək^w-mín-Ø-ne
 CLEFT_{only}= ʔuʔ DET=potato COMP=remember-TRANS-3OBJ-1SG.SUBJ
 k=x^wúy n=s=k^wn-šm].
 COMP=FUT 1SG.PoCl=NOM=get-MDL

‘Only potatoes did I remember that I had to get.’
 (NOT: * ‘I forgot to buy only potatoes, I bought more than just potatoes.’)

Thus, the semantic scope of 2CL $\lambda u?$ is clause-bounded, consistent with adverbial status.

The second prediction of the adverbial analysis is that 2CL focus particles are not possible in left-extraposed contrastive topics. Since left-extraposed topics are not propositional in nature, they are incompatible with adverbial focus-sensitive operators and have no left-peripheral position to host these clitics:

- (34) a. Intended: * ‘Only [Bill]_{FOC}, he’s wearing only [shorts]_{FOC}.’
 * $[e=Bill]_{FOC}=\lambda u?$, $c\acute{u}k^w=\lambda u?$ $[e=s\acute{k}\acute{a}t\acute{k}\acute{a}t\acute{w}\acute{e}yus]_{FOC}$ $e=?es-t\acute{u}m-st-\emptyset-s$.
 DET=Bill= $\lambda u?$ $c\acute{u}k^w=\lambda u?$ DET=cut.off.pants COMP=STAT-wear-TR-3O-3S
- b. Intended: ‘[Their cat]_{FOC} too, it’s also [smiling]_{FOC}.’
 * $[e\ pu\zeta-iyxs]_{FOC}=?ei\lambda u?$, $?e\acute{x}=?ei\lambda u?=xe?=ne?$ $[?es-d\acute{w}i\lambda]_{FOC}$.
 DET=cat= $?ei\lambda u?$, IMPF= $?ei\lambda u?$ =DEM=DEM STAT-smile

The third prediction is the absence of multiple occurrences of 2CL focus particles in a single clause. Since there is only one structural position for focus-sensitive 2CLs and only one structural focus position (sentence-initial predicate), we expect to find no more than one focus-sensitive particle per clause. Again, this prediction is borne out, as second occurrence focus (SOF) contexts incur no additional focus particle (35iv). However, when there is a second clause-embedding predicate, a second focus-sensitive particle is possible, alongside syntactic marking of the second occurrence focus (36).

- (35) Intended: ‘Only [Bill]_{FOC} is wearing only [shorts]_{SOF}.’
 $c\acute{u}k^w=\lambda u?$ $[e=Bill]_{FOC}$...
 CLEFT_{only}= $\lambda u?$ DET=Bill ...
 ‘It is only [Bill]_{FOC} ...’
- * i. $e=s-t\acute{u}m-st-\emptyset-mus$ ($c\acute{u}k^w)=\lambda u?$ $[e=s\acute{k}\acute{a}t\acute{k}\acute{a}t\acute{w}\acute{e}yus]_{SOF}$.
 C=STAT-wear-TR-3O-SUBJ.GAP (CLEFT_{only})= $\lambda u?$ DET=cut.off.pants
 intended: ‘... that is wearing only [shorts]_{SOF}.’
- * ii. $e=[s\acute{k}\acute{a}t\acute{k}\acute{a}t\acute{w}\acute{e}yus]_{SOF}(=c)=\lambda u?$ $e=?es-t\acute{u}m-st-\emptyset-s$.
 COMP=cut.off.pants(=3PoCl)= $\lambda u?$ COMP=STAT-wear-TR-3OBJ-3SUBJ
 intended: ‘... that what he’s wearing is only [shorts]_{SOF}.’
- * iii. $e=s=c\acute{u}k^w=s=\lambda u?$ $[e=s\acute{k}\acute{a}t\acute{k}\acute{a}t\acute{w}\acute{e}yus]_{SOF}$ $e=?es-t\acute{u}m-st-\emptyset-s$.
 COMP=NOM=c $\acute{u}k^w$ =3PoCl= $\lambda u?$ DET=cut.off.pants C=STAT-wear-TR-3O-3S
 intended: ‘... that it is only [shorts]_{SOF} that he is wearing.’
- √ iv. $e=s-t\acute{u}m-st-\emptyset-mus$ $e=s\acute{k}\acute{a}t\acute{k}\acute{a}t\acute{w}\acute{e}yus$.
 COMP=STAT-wear-TR-3O-SUBJ.GAP DET=cut.off.pants
 ‘... that is wearing shorts.’
- (36) $?e=ek^wu=?ei\lambda u?$ $[e=T\acute{o}m]_{FOC}$ $k=\acute{x}\acute{a}k-s-t-\emptyset-\acute{e}mus$
 CLEFT=EVID= $?ei\lambda u?$ DET=Tom COMP=know-CAUS-TR-3O-SUBJ.GAP
 $k=s=c\acute{u}k^w=s=\lambda u?$ $[e=sq\acute{y}\acute{e}tn]_{SOF}$
 COMP=NOM=CLEFT_{only}=3PoCl= $\lambda u?$ DET=salmon
 $k=ex=?\acute{u}pi-\emptyset-\emptyset-s=xe?e$ $e=Mon\acute{i}k$.
 COMP=IMPF=eat-TR-3O-3S=DEM DET=Monique
 ‘Even [Tom]_{FOC} knows that Monique eats only [fish]_{SOF}.’
 (literally: ‘It is even Tom that knows that it is only fish that Monique eats.’)

Finally, if focus-sensitive 2CLs are proposition-taking operators, then they should behave like other proposition-taking operators, such as modal evidential markers. This appears to be the case. Modal evidentials are also realized as 2CLs (1b, 1d), and operate at the propositional level in Salish (Matthewson et al. 2007). The scope of modal/evidential markers is also clause-bounded, except for when they double the matrix verb of saying/hearing (Matthewson et al. 2007, Davis p.c.):

- (37) qeʔní-m-Ø-ne=xéʔ k=s=x^wúy^ʔ=s=ek^wu kətní-m̄
 hear-TR-3O-1SG.S=DEM COMP=NOM=FUT=3POCI=EVID rodfish-MDL
 ték^m=us e=séytknm̄x.
 all=3CnCI DET=people
 ‘I heard that [reportative] everyone was going to go fishing.’

Thus, Nleʔkepmxcin surface structure mirrors the semantic relations between operator and propositional complement in a fully transparent way. This is unlike English, where the semantic relations of operator and complement are not visible at surface structure (on some analyses). For such cases, LF-movement of the focus particle to a high left-peripheral position is typically assumed (e.g. Rooth 1996).

6 Exclusives ≠ Additives: Two kinds of focus-sensitivity?

In this final section, we take up recent work by Beaver and Clark (2008), who suggest that exclusive, scalar AND additive particles belong to a natural class of focus-functional items that conventionally associate with focus. This contrasts with freely associating Q-adverbials like *always*. We show that, in Nleʔkepmxcin, only exclusive 2CL ʔuʔ requires syntactic focus-marking, whereas the additive/scalar particle ʔeʔʔuʔ is more flexible in its syntactic distribution and its association behaviour, on a par with the Q-adverbial ʔeʔkm̄ix ‘always.’

Beaver and Clark primarily show the focus-functional nature of exclusive particles in Germanic, but suggest that their account should extend to scalar and additive particles. Under their *Conventionalized Association with Focus*, the focus particles *only* and *even* are anaphoric on the current question under discussion (QUD). The particles mark assertions as weaker (*only*) or stronger (*even*) than the expected answer to the current QUD. In Germanic, the current QUD is indicated by focus accent. Thus, focus-functional particles require a focus-marked constituent to associate with.

In Nleʔkepmxcin, we saw that the QUD is marked by a syntactic strategy rather than by focus accent (Koch 2008a, to appear). We saw in (14) that the exclusive 2CL ʔuʔ can only associate with a syntactically marked focus, in line with Beaver and Clark’s (2008) account of English *only*. While the data that we have seen so far for additive ʔeʔʔuʔ (17) are also consistent with a conventional focus association account, additional data show that, in fact, additive ʔeʔʔuʔ patterns with the Q-adverbial ʔeʔkm̄ix ‘always,’ and associates freely.

- (38) i. exclusive ʔuʔ: conventional association + FOC-marking
 ii. additive ʔeʔʔuʔ & Q-adverbials: free association

Syntactically, exclusive ʔuʔ must be realized as a 2CL, whereas additive ʔeʔʔuʔ can also occur in the sentence-final adverbial position (the canonical adjunct position) (39a), sharing this property with the Q-adverbial ʔeʔkm̄ix ‘always’ (39b).

- (39) a. ʔeʔ [nés=ek^wu=xéʔ míl't-m-Ø-s e=snu^kwnú^kwéʔ-s]_{FOC} $\text{ʔeʔ}\lambda\text{u}ʔ$.
 and go=EVID=DEM visit-TR-3O-3S DET=friend[RED]-3POSS $\text{ʔeʔ}\lambda\text{u}ʔ$
 ‘And she [visited her friends]_{FOC} too.’
- b. [ʔéx=xéʔe yémit]_{FOC} e=Jóhn $\lambda\text{e}ʔ\text{k}\acute{\text{m}}\acute{\text{i}}\text{x}$.
 IMPF=DEM pray DET=John always
 ‘John always [goes to church]_{FOC}.’
 (‘If there is something that John always does, it’s go to church.’)

In terms of association behaviour, we saw that exclusive 2CL $\lambda\text{u}ʔ$ must associate with the sentence-initial focus constituent under all three focus-marking strategies (14, 40a). In contrast, both the additive 2CL/adverbial $\text{ʔeʔ}\lambda\text{u}ʔ$ and the Q-adverbial $\lambda\text{e}ʔ\text{k}\acute{\text{m}}\acute{\text{i}}\text{x}$ can freely associate with *in situ* arguments (in the absence of clefted DP-foci) (40b-e). Note that (40b-e) come from within the speaker’s discourse turn, rather than a conversational exchange; thus, there is no explicit QUD and the contrastive DP focus is not obligatorily marked via clefting (compare to the data in §3).

- (40) a. *V-initial*: Mandatory association of exclusive $\lambda\text{u}ʔ$ with V(P)-focus:
 $\text{n}\acute{\text{r}}\text{w}\acute{\text{t}}\text{q}^{\text{w}}\text{-}\acute{\text{e}}\text{m}=\text{k}\text{n}=\lambda\text{u}ʔ=\text{ne}ʔ$ t=e=heʔúseʔ.
 boil-MDL=1SG.InCl= $\lambda\text{u}ʔ$ =DEM OBL=DET=egg
 ‘I only [boiled an egg]_{FOC}.’ / ‘I only [boiled]_{FOC} an egg.’
 (NOT * ‘Only [I]_{FOC} boiled an egg.’ / * ‘I boiled only [an egg]_{FOC}.’)
- V-initial*: Association of additive $\text{ʔeʔ}\lambda\text{u}ʔ$ and Q-adverbial with *in situ* DPs possible!
- b. $\text{w}\acute{\text{i}}\text{k-t-}\acute{\text{e}}\text{s}=\text{ek}^{\text{w}}\text{u}=\text{ʔeʔ}\lambda\text{u}ʔ=\text{xéʔe}$ [e=Tóm]_{FOC} e=səx^wsúx^w. [SUBJ]
 see-TR-3O-3TS=EVID= $\text{ʔeʔ}\lambda\text{u}ʔ$ =DEM DET=Tom DET=grizzly.bear
 (Bill saw the grizzly and ...) ‘[Tom]_{FOC} also saw the grizzly bear.’
- c. $\text{w}\acute{\text{i}}\text{k-t-}\acute{\text{e}}\text{s}=\text{ʔeʔ}\lambda\text{u}ʔ=\text{xéʔe}$ [e=səx^wsúx^w]_{FOC}. [OBJ]
 see-TR-3O-3S= $\text{ʔeʔ}\lambda\text{u}ʔ$ =DEM DET=grizzly.bear
 (Tom saw some other animals and ...) ‘He also saw a [grizzly bear]_{FOC}.’
- d. ʔeʔ wʔxúm=xéʔ=neʔ [t=e=káh]_{FOC} $\text{ʔeʔ}\lambda\text{u}ʔ$. [OBLIQUE]
 and have=DEM=DEM OBL=DET=car $\text{ʔeʔ}\lambda\text{u}ʔ$
 (Penny has a dog, and she has a table, ...) ‘And she has a [car]_{FOC} too.’
- e. $\text{k}\acute{\text{i}}\text{ye}ʔ$ [cnít]_{FOC} $\lambda\text{e}ʔ\text{k}\acute{\text{m}}\acute{\text{i}}\text{x}$. [SUBJ]
 precede 3SG.EMPH always
 ‘[She]_{FOC} always went first.’ (‘If someone went first, it was always her.’)

Finally, observe that, even in the absence of an explicit QUD, exclusive $\lambda\text{u}ʔ$ requires syntactic focus marking of the DP-argument that it associates with (41). In contrast, with additive $\text{ʔeʔ}\lambda\text{u}ʔ$, no DP-clefting is required (40b-d), even when the associate of $\text{ʔeʔ}\lambda\text{u}ʔ$ does not match the QUD (i.e. is not a syntactically marked focus) (42). In (42), the syntactically marked focus is the initial verb (matching the QUD), while $\text{ʔeʔ}\lambda\text{u}ʔ$ associates with *in situ* *John* (shown by the numerical index).

- (41) CONTEXT: Several people are each making soup. The consultant remarks that some of them are smiling, because they have a lot of things to put in their soup. Next she notes that Pam looks upset, and goes on to offer the following observation:

$\text{c}\acute{\text{u}}\text{k}^{\text{w}}=\lambda\text{u}ʔ=\text{xéʔ}$ [ə=təmétoš]_{FOC} e=wʔex-s-t-Ø-és
 CLEFT_{only}= $\lambda\text{u}ʔ$ =DEM DET=tomato COMP=IMPF-TR-3O-3S
 ‘She has only [tomatoes]_{FOC} (to put in her soup)’
 (more literally: ‘It is only [tomatoes]_{FOC} that she has.’)

- (42) A: *Betsy is hollering. What about John?*
 B: [čəxni-m]_{FOC}=ŦełʌŦ₁=xeŦ [e=Jóhn]_{FOC,1}.
 holler-MDL=ŦełʌŦ₁=DEM DET=John
 ‘[John]_{FOC,1} is [hollering]_{FOC} too₁.’
 QUD: *What is John doing?* [VP wide-focus, marked as V-initial]
 Associate of ŦełʌŦ₁: *John* [in situ DP, not focus-marked, ≠ QUD]

To conclude, exclusive 2CL ʌŦ and the additive particle ŦełʌŦ differ syntactically and semantically, and, in NĒŦkepmxcin, do not belong to the same class of focus-sensitive items. Exclusive 2CL ʌŦ is focus-functional in the sense of Beaver and Clark (2008), since it must associate with a syntactically marked focus; it is therefore possible to analyse the exclusive particle as directly relating to the current QUD (Beaver and Clark 2008: ch.10). On the other hand, additive ŦełʌŦ patterns like the Q-adverbial ʌeŦkmíx ‘always:’ both show free association behaviour and should not make direct reference to the focus value in their lexical semantics. As a result, the strong reading for additive ŦełʌŦ in (27) should be weakened to the Q-adverbial reading in (43), according to which ŦełʌŦ expresses the fact that there is at least one event satisfying a comparable (\approx) proposition to p, where comparability is governed by syntactic focus marking.

- (43) $[[\text{ŦełʌŦ}]^w = \lambda p: \exists q \exists e [q(e) \wedge q \neq p \wedge q \approx p]: q(e) : p$

7 Conclusion: Towards a typology of focus markers

In NĒŦkepmxcin, focus particles are adverbial (corresponding to the general predicative focus marking strategy). Exclusives rely on syntactic focus marking, and hence are (like in English) anaphoric on the QUD. Q-adverbials do not rely on syntactic focus marking (again like English), but neither do additive particles, with both showing free association behaviour. Finally, scalar ‘even’ readings are expressed through the use of the additive particle, and are not explicitly coded in the grammatical system.

Cross-linguistically, then, we suggest the following possible dimensions of variation for focus particles.

First, in terms of syntactic status, focus markers may be strictly adverbial in some languages, as we have suggested for Salish (arguably also for German, Jacobs 1983, Büring and Hartmann 2001). This corresponds nicely to the more general predicative/verbal focus marking strategy observed in this language (and as noted by Davis 2007 for St’át’imcets Salish, Benner 2006 for Sencóthen Salish). On the other hand, languages with a nominal focus marking strategy may employ strictly adnominal focus particles. This has been observed for the West Chadic languages Tangale, Bole, Guruntum, and Hausa, and for Bura (Central Chadic), in Hartmann and Zimmermann (2007a, 2007b, 2008, 2009). Finally, mixed languages like English (Rooth 1985) and arguably German (Reis 2005), may have both adverbial and adnominal focus markers, possibly correlating with a flexible prosodic focus marking system via pitch accent.

Second, we have seen variation in the degree of focus association by different focus particles, and in different languages. Exclusives seem to display the most stability cross-linguistically, associating with focus conventionally (NĒŦkepmxcin, English, Hausa (Zimmermann 2006), Tangale (Hartmann and Zimmermann 2007b) Bura (Hartmann and

Zimmermann 2008)). In contrast, additive markers may be a less uniform class, cross-linguistically. The additive marker in Nt̥eʔkepmxcin shows free association. While Beaver and Clark (2008) suggest that English additives associate conventionally with focus, stressed additives in English/German (Krifka 1999) and Bura (Hartmann and Zimmermann 2008) have been argued to associate with contrastive topics instead. This would leave only unstressed additives in English as conventionally associating with focus, though this conclusion certainly merits further work.

Acknowledgements

We are indebted to our consultants Flora Ehrhardt and Patricia McKay, without whom this research would not be possible. This research has been supported by Jacobs and Kinkade Research Grants from the Whatcom Museum Foundation, Bellingham, Washington; Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada and Deutscher Akademischer Austausch Dienst Research Fellowships; SFB 632 “Information Structure,” in particular project A5 “Focus realization, focus interpretation, and focus use from a cross-linguistic perspective.” All errors are our own.

References

- Beaver, David, and Brady Clark (2003) “Always and only: why not all focus sensitive operators are equal”, *Natural Language Semantics* **11**(4), 323-362.
- Beaver, David, and Brady Clark (2008) *Sense and Sensitivity: How Focus Determines Meaning*, Blackwell.
- Benner, Allison (2006) “The prosody of Senchóthen”, paper given at *The 41st International Conference on Salish and Neighbouring Languages*, University of Victoria.
- Büring, Daniel, and Katharina Hartmann (2001) “V3 or not V3 – an investigation of German focus particles”, *Natural Language and Linguistic Theory* **19**, 229–281.
- Burton, Strang (1997) “Past tense on nouns as death, destruction and loss”, in *Proceedings of NELS 27*, GLSA, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, 65-77.
- Davis, Henry (2004) “Locative relative clauses in St’at’imcets (Lillooet Salish)”, in Brown, J.C., and T. Peterson (eds.), *Papers for the 39th ICSNL*, UBC Working Papers in Linguistics 14, 83–116.
- Davis, Henry (2005) “On the Syntax and Semantics of Negation in Salish”, *International Journal of American Linguistics* **71**, 1-55.
- Davis, Henry (2007) “Prosody-focus dissociation and its consequences: The case of Salish”, Paper presented November 10, 2007, Nagoya, Japan.
- Davis, Henry, and Lisa Matthewson (2009) “Issues in Salish syntax and semantics”, *Language and Linguistics Compass* **3**/4, 1097-1166.

- Davis, Henry, Lisa Matthewson and Scott Shank (2004) “On the presuppositionality of clefts in Samish and St’át’imcets”, in Gerds D. B. and L. Matthewson (eds.), *Studies in Salish Linguistics in Honor of M. Dale Kinkade*, University of Montana Occasional Papers in Linguistics 17, 100-117.
- Gauker, Christopher, (1998) “What is a context of utterance?”, *Philosophical Studies* **91**, 149-172.
- Hartmann, Katharina and Malte Zimmermann (2007a) “In place – out of place: Focus in Hausa”, in Schwabe, K., and S. Winkler (eds.), *On Information Structure: Meaning and Form*, John Benjamins, 365–403.
- Hartmann, Katharina and Malte Zimmermann (2007b) “Focus strategies in Chadic: The case of Tangale revisited”, *Studia Linguistica* **61(2)**, 95–129.
- Hartmann, Katharina and Malte Zimmermann (2008) “Not only „only“ but „too“ too. Alternative sensitive particles in Bura”, in Grønn, A. (ed.), *Proceedings of SuB 12*, Department of Literature, Area Studies and European Languages, U of Oslo, 196–211.
- Hartmann, Katharina and Malte Zimmermann (2009) “Morphological focus marking in Gùrùntùm /West Chadic)”, *Lingua* **119(9)**, 1340-1365.
- Hedberg, Nancy (2000) “The referential status of clefts”, *Language* **76**, 891-920.
- Heim, Irene, and Angelika Kratzer (1998) *Semantics in Generative Grammar*. Blackwell.
- Hole, Daniel (2008) “EVEN, ALSO and ONLY in Vietnamese”, in Ishihara, S., et al. (eds.), *ISIS* 8, Universität Potsdam, 1-54.
- Jacobs, Joachim, (1983) *Fokus und Skalen*, Niemeyer.
- Jelinek, Eloise, and Richard A. Demers (1994) “Predicates and Pronominal Arguments in Straits Salish”, *Language* **70**, 697-736.
- Kinkade, M. Dale (1983) “Salish evidence against the universality of ‘Noun’ and ‘Verb’”, *Lingua* **60**, 25-39.
- Kinkade, M. Dale (1992) “Salishan languages”, in Bright, W. (ed.), *International Encyclopedia of Linguistics*, Oxford University Press, 359-362.
- Koch, Karsten (2006) “Nominal modification in NĪEʔkepmxcin (Thompson River Salish)”, in Bischoff, S.T., L. Butler, P. Norquest, and D. Siddiqi (eds.), *MIT Working Papers on Endangered and Less Familiar Languages: Salishan Volume*, 127-158.
- Koch, Karsten (2007) “Questions and answers in NĪEʔkepmxcin: Facilitating transfer from theoretical linguistics to education”, in Oberg, M., and K. Johannsdottir (eds.), *Papers for the 42nd ICSNL*, UBC Working Papers in Linguistics 20, 293-323.
- Koch, Karsten (2008a) *Intonation and Focus in NĪEʔkepmxcin (Thompson River Salish)*, Ph.D. dissertation, University of British Columbia. <https://circle.ubc.ca/handle/2429/2848>

- Koch, Karsten (2008b) "Some issues in the structure and interpretation of clefts in Nl̥əʔkepmxcin (Thompson River Salish)", in Lyons, J. (ed.), *Papers for the 43rd ICSNL*, UBC Working Papers in Linguistics.
- Koch, Karsten, and Lisa Matthewson (2009) "The Lexical Category Debate in Salish and its Relevance for Tagalog", *Theoretical Linguistics* **35(1)**, 125-137.
- Krifka, Manfred (1999) "Additive particles under stress", in *Proceedings of SALT 8*, CLC Publications, 111–128.
- Kroeber, Paul (1997) "Relativization in Thompson Salish", *Anthropological Linguistics* **39(3)**, 376-422.
- Kroeber, Paul (1999) *The Salish Language Family: Reconstructing Syntax*, University of Nebraska Press.
- Kuipers, Aert H. (1968) "The categories Verb-Noun and Transitive-Intransitive in English and Squamish", *Lingua* **21**, 610-626.
- Lahiri, Utpal (1998) "Focus and negative polarity in Hindi", *Natural Language Semantics* **6**, 57-123.
- Matthewson, Lisa (1998) *Determiner Systems and Quantificational Strategies: Evidence from Salish*, Holland Academic Graphics.
- Matthewson, Lisa (1999) "On the Interpretation of Wide-Scope Indefinites", *Natural Language Semantics* **7**, 79-134.
- Matthewson, Lisa (2006) "Presuppositions and Cross-Linguistic Variation", *NELS* **36**, GLSA.
- Matthewson, Lisa, Hotze Rullmann and Henry Davis (2007) "Evidentials as Epistemic Modals: Evidence from St'at'imcets", in *The Linguistic Variation Yearbook* **7**, 201-254.
- Montler, Timothy (2003) "Auxiliaries and other categories in Straits Salishan", *International Journal of American Linguistics* **69(2)**, 103-134.
- Percus, Orin (1997) "Prying open the cleft", in Kusumoto, K. (ed.), *Proceedings of NELS 27*, 337-351.
- Reis, Marga (2005) "On the syntax of so-called focus particles in German – a reply to Büring and Hartmann (2001)", *NLLT* **23(2)**, 459–438.
- Roberts, Craige (1996) "Information structure in discourse: towards an integrated formal theory of pragmatics", in *OSU Working Papers in Linguistics* **49**, *Papers in Semantics*.
- Rooth, Mats (1985) *Association with Focus*, Ph.D. Dissertation, UMass, Amherst.
- Rooth, Mats (1996) "Focus", in Lappin, S. (ed.), *The Handbook of Contemporary Semantic Theory*, Blackwell, 271–297.
- Soames, Scott (1982) "How presuppositions are inherited: A solution to the projection problem", *Linguistic Inquiry* **13**, 482-545.

- Stalnaker, Robert (1974) "Pragmatic presuppositions", in Munitz, M.K., and P.K. Unger (eds.), *Semantics and Philosophy*, New York University, 197-213.
- Taglicht, Josef (1984) *Message and Emphasis*, Longman.
- Thompson, Laurence C., and M. Terry Thompson (1992) *The Thompson Language*, University of Montana Occasional Papers in Linguistics 8.
- Thompson, Laurence C., and M. Terry Thompson (1996) *Thompson River Salish Dictionary*, University of Montana Occasional Papers in Linguistics 12.
- von Stechow, Kai (2004) "Would you believe it? The King of France is back! Presuppositions and truth value intuitions", in Bezuidenhout, A., and M. Reimer (eds.), *Descriptions and Beyond*, Oxford University Press, 261-296.
- von Stechow, Kai, and Lisa Matthewson (2008) "Universals in semantics", *The Linguistic Review* **25(1-2)**, 139-201.
- von Stechow, Arnim (1991) "Current issues in the theory of focus", in von Stechow, A., and D. Wunderlich (eds.), *Handbuch Semantik*, Mouton de Gruyter, 804-825.
- Zimmermann, Malte (2006) „Adverbial quantification and focus in Hausa“, in Ebert, C., and C. Endriss (eds.), *Proceedings of Sinn und Bedeutung (SuB) 10*, Berlin, 453-467.