Clausal Demonstratives in ?ayʔajuθəm (Comox-Sliammon)*

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Abstract: This paper provides a first detailed analysis of the clitics kʷa, kʷi, ta, and ti in ?ayʔajuθəm (a.k.a. Comox-Sliammon). Although most of these particles have been briefly described by Watanabe (2003), not much is known about their semantic contribution or their syntactic status. Based on data gathered from several speakers, we argue that these elements act as clausal demonstratives and exhibit remarkable parallels to the regular demonstratives that can be found in the language. However, while the latter locate a place or an entity relative to the speaker, the four clausal demonstratives appear to encode information that relates the event situation with the utterance situation. Adopting Ramchand and Svenonius (2014)’s model, this would place them in Fin*, above T (the domain of the event situation) and below C (the domain of the utterance situation).

Keywords: Comox-Sliammon, deixis, second-position clitics, clausal spine, functional hierarchy

1 Introduction

This paper provides a first-pass analysis of the clitics kʷa, kʷi, ta, and ti in ?ayʔajuθəm (a.k.a. Comox-Sliammon), a highly endangered Central Salish language. While not much is known about these particles, their existence has been noted by several researchers (e.g., Blake 2000, Watanabe 2003). The most thorough description can be found in Watanabe (2003:520–528), who describes three of these four particles in his grammar for ?ayʔajuθəm. In particular, he analyzes the clitic ta as encoding ‘direct observations’, i.e., the speaker must be seeing the specified event while it happens, while the clitic kʷa is glossed as marking ‘direct evidence’ and appears to be used when the speaker describes an event based on their own firsthand experience.¹ Furthermore, Watanabe (2003:521) also mentions a seemingly separate clitic kʷu, which is described as not well-understood, but appears to be used when talking about past or finished events. Blake (2000:149–150) distinguishes these two particles as well.

In addition to kʷa, Watanabe (2003:521) also mentions a seemingly separate clitic kʷu, which is described as not well-understood, but appears to be used when talking about past or finished events. Blake (2000:149–150) distinguishes these two particles as well. In our own elicitations, we have noticed a tendency for speakers to change kʷu to kʷa when repeating sentences back, which may indicate that kʷa is found in careful speech, while

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provides a few examples for the use of kʷi, but acknowledges that the function of this particle is not well-understood. The fourth clitic, ti, remains undiscussed in Watanabe (2003).

Cognates of the four particles we are concerned with can also be found in Sechelt, a closely-related Central Salish language. Beaumont (2011) glosses t’a as ‘over there’ and explains that this particle usually refers to the location of someone or something. The particle t’i (sometimes also realized as t’e, or t’ before the vowels a and e) is analyzed as describing an event in the past, present, or future (whether or not it can be seen by the speaker), while kʷu (realized as kʷ before a) refers to events unseen by the speaker, listener, or both. Last, Beaumont (2011) also notes that Sechelt has a particle (s)kʷa, which seems to act as a future marker.

Taking both Watanabe (2003) and Beaumont’s (2011) descriptions into account, establishing a unified analysis for these particles seems difficult. However, in this paper, we argue that – at least forʔayʔajúθəm – the particles kʷa, kʷi, ta, and ti form a paradigm of clausal demonstratives. We propose this nomenclature as a result of striking phonological and semantic parallels between these four clitics on the one hand and the regular demonstratives tiʔi, taʔa, kʷiši, kʷaʔa on the other.

As illustrated by Table 1, the regular demonstratives in ʔayʔajúθəm form a paradigm where initial consonants encode visibility and vowels encode proximity. While this observation appears to hold for the four clausal demonstratives as well, there seem to be significant functional differences. In particular, we will show that the regular demonstratives locate a place or an entity relative to the speaker, whereas the four clausal demonstratives appear to locate the event situation relative to the utterance situation.

kʷu is a variation of pronunciation found in faster speech. We have also noticed a similar variation in the pronunciation of negation xʷa. However, more research on this matter is necessary.

2 Watanabe’s (2003:521–522) chapter on clitics also contains the particles kʷit and kʷut. While he acknowledges that both of these clitics are not well-understood, he indicates that kʷit seems to encode something aspectual (having a meaning roughly corresponding to English ‘already’), while kʷut is analyzed as a potential evidential marker. Furthermore, he speculates that kʷit might not be a single unit, but a combination of the clitics kʷi and t. To us, it seems plausible that the same argument can also be made for kʷut. For more details on the potential semantic contribution of t, see J. Davis (this volume).

3 Blake (2000:149–150) presents several sentences that involve the clausal determiners kʷa, kʷi, and kʷu. Apart from a cautious conjecture that kʷi means roughly ‘just now’, she does not provide a detailed analysis for these particles.

4 Thanks to Bruno Andreotti (p.c., 2018) for pointing out the parallels in vowels between the clausal demonstratives and the regular demonstratives.
Table 1: The inventory of clausal and regular demonstratives in ʔayʔajuθəm

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>CLAUSAL DEMONSTRATIVES</th>
<th>REGULAR DEMONSTRATIVES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PROXIMAL</td>
<td>DISTAL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VISIBLE</td>
<td>ti</td>
<td>ta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOT VISIBLE</td>
<td>kʷi</td>
<td>kʷa/kʷu</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This paper is structured as follows. Section 2 explores the syntactic distribution of the four clausal demonstratives. Sections 3 and 4 compare the semantic properties of the regular and the clausal demonstratives, while Section 5 examines the behavior of the clausal demonstratives in embedded contexts. Subsequently, Section 6 feeds these generalizations into Ramchand and Svenonius’s (2014) model of functional hierarchies and Section 7 discusses some further observations and questions regarding the distribution of clausal demonstratives. A brief summary of our results concludes this paper.

2 Syntax

In this section, we examine the four clausal demonstratives from a syntactic perspective. First, we will take a look at the basic distribution of kʷa, kʷi, ta, and ti in Section 2.1, while Section 2.2 discusses how the surface distribution of the clausal demonstratives relates to their syntactic representation.

2.1 Basic distribution

The clausal demonstratives can either precede or follow the initial word of the clause, which may be the main predicate, a verbal auxiliary, or an adverb. Examples illustrating the pre- and post-predicative use are given in (1) and (2), respectively.⁶

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⁵ There is also a feminine form of this demonstrative θiʔi.

⁶ Abbreviations used in this paper are: CLF = cleft; CNJ = conjunction; COMP = complementizer; CTR = control transitivizer; DEM = demonstrative; DET = determiner; ERG = ergative; EVD = evidential; EXCL = exclusive marker; FUT = future; INCP = inceptive; INF = inferential; IPFV = imperfective; MD = middle; NEG = negation; NMLZ = nominalizer; NTR = non-control transitivizer; PASS = passive; PL = plural; POL = polarity marker; POSS = possessive; PST = past; Q = question marker; RDP = reduplicant; REFL = reflexive; RPT = reportative; SBJ = subject; SG = singular; STAT = stative; TR = transitivizer. The boundary between a reduplicant and stem is demarcated by •, and clitic boundaries are marked with =.
(1) a. kʷa čə̌-at-as
   DEM cut-TR-3ERG
   ‘He already cut it up.’

   b. kʷi ƛaʔayin ʔaxʷ
   DEM start snow
   ‘It’s started to snow.’

c. č=ta huj-əxʷ-an
   1SG.SBJ=DEM finish-NTR-1SG.ERG
   ‘I finished it.’

   d. ti qʷəl̓ɬ liθ
   DEM come drizzle
   ‘It’s starting to drizzle.’

(2) a. hu=kʷa hi•hiw-thut
   go=DEM IPFV•front-CTR.REFL
   ‘He went ahead.’

   b. čigitom=št=kʷi huy
   almost=1PL.SBJ=DEM finish
   ‘We’re almost finished.’

c. č=ta rain=DEM
   ‘[I see that] it started to rain.’ (adapted from Watanabe 2003:528)

   d. liθ-im=ti
drizzle-MD=DEM
   ‘It’s drizzling.’

When the clausal demonstratives precede the predicate, they can also host any of
the subject clitics, which otherwise cannot occur pre-predicatively. 7 The
sentences in (3a) to (3d) illustrate this phenomenon, while the example given in
(3e) shows that a subject clitic on its own cannot precede the predicate.

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7 We assume that this pattern holds true for the entire paradigm of indicative subject
clitics – at least in their reduced form. The full forms of the subject clitics (with the
exception of the 2PL clitic čap), however, appear to be unavailable in this particular
construction, as noted by Watanabe (2003:54). Consequently, a sentence like
*čan=kʷi=huy (‘I am finished’) will be rejected, while the same sentence with a
shortened subject clitic (i.e., č=kʷi=huy) is generally seen as felicitous. We will return
to this issue in Section 2.2.
As exemplified by the sentences in (4), the clausal demonstratives may also host a following subject clitic, though this order is less common in our data so far.

\[(4)\]  
  a. \( \text{i}=\text{ti} \quad \text{huy} \)  
      \[\text{DEM}=1\text{SG.SBJ} \quad \text{finish}\]  
      ‘I’m finished.’
  
  b. \( \text{kw}=\text{k=i} \quad \text{huy} \)  
      \[\text{DEM}=1\text{PL.SBJ} \quad \text{finish} \]  
      ‘We’re ready.’
  
  c. \( \text{ta}=\text{cx} \quad \text{huj-ox}\)  
      \[\text{DEM}=2\text{SG.SBJ} \quad \text{finish-NTR}\]  
      ‘You finished it.’

The clausal demonstratives occur in a fixed order with respect to other clitics, both when preceding or following the initial prosodic word. As shown in (5), they follow the evidential clitics (e.g., \( \text{c}=\text{a} \) or \( \text{k}^{\text{wa}} \)) and the future marker \( \text{s}\text{om} \).

\[8\]

While \( \text{s}\text{om} \) is generally analyzed as a plain future marker (e.g., Watanabe 2003:527; Davis in this volume), our data suggest that this clitic does not always convey real futurity. Under certain circumstances, namely when \( \text{s}\text{om} \) is directly followed by a clausal demonstrative, the future interpretation seems to be abandoned in lieu of an epistemic interpretation. In other words, a string like \( \text{s}\text{om}=\text{kw} \) does not express real futurity, but rather the speaker’s beliefs about something. As illustrated by the examples (i) and (ii), the English modal \text{will} allows both of these interpretations as well.
Given that the clausal demonstratives can either precede or follow the main predicate, the question arises what motivates this distributional flexibility.

### 2.2 Syntactic position

Because the clausal demonstratives form part of the second-position clitic string when following the predicate, questions concerning the distribution of the clausal demonstratives are linked to a broader question concerning the motivation for the position of the second-position clitic string. ?ayʔajʔəm is generally head-initial, with words pronounced linearly to the left semantically scoping over words to their right. The semantic scope of the clitics in the clitic string does not seem to be reflected by the linear position of the clitic string, however. Many of the second-position clitics obviously scope semantically over the word that precedes them, whether it is an adverb, auxiliary, or main verb, suggesting that there is movement taking place to derive the pronounced order.

The ordering of the initial prosodic word relative to the clitics does not exhibit the characteristics of syntactic movement, however. There is no obvious motivation for movement of elements of different syntactic categories to occur.

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(i) Saoirse will be home in three hours. (real futurity)
(ii) Saoirse will be home by now. (epistemic futurity)

For a more detailed analysis of this issue, see Reisinger (this volume).
to a position preceding the clitics, subsequently blocking movement of any following adverb, auxiliary, or predicate. Moreover, this movement would have to be able to take place out of syntactic islands. Second-position clitics can follow the initial prosodic word of the clause, scoping over the entire clause, even when this means interrupting conjoined predicates. For instance, in (6), the question marker *turns the whole clause into a question and appears after the

We have not done extensive testing to differentiate the syntactic categories of predicate, auxiliary, and adverb yet. We do have evidence that predicates exhibit some different behaviors compared to auxiliaries and adverbs. For instance, predicates can stand alone in the answer to a question, whereas adverbs and auxiliaries cannot, as shown in (iii) to (v).

(iii) a.  qəjí=aʔut ḷʔqíʔimaš?  b.i  *ʔi,  qəjí=ʔut
         still=Q=EXCL IPFV•walk  yes  still=EXCL
         ‘Is he still walking?’  Intended: ‘Yes, he still is.’
   b.ii. qəjí=ʔut ḷʔqíʔimaš
         still=EXCL IPFV•walk
         Intended: ‘Yes, he still is.’

(iv) a.  kʷən=a qʷəl̓təs?  b.i  *ʔi,  qʷəl̓  ₋
         POL=Q come arrive
         ‘Did he arrive?’  Intended: Yes, he arrived.’
   b.ii. ʔi,  qʷəl̓ təs
         yes  come  arrive
         ‘Yes, he’s arrived.’

(v) a.  ḷʔqíʔimaš=aʔ?  b.  ḷʔʔi,  ḷʔqíʔimaš
         IPFV•walk  yes  IPFV•walk
         ‘Is he walking?’  ‘Yes, he’s walking.’

Word order evidence also shows that adverbs precede auxiliaries – though qəjí ‘still’ can also occur phonologically reduced as a second-position clitic (Watanabe 2003:525) – and auxiliaries precede predicates, suggesting that these are distinct categories with somewhat rigid ordering restrictions between them.

(vi) a.  paya ʔu ṣəʔm•ʔimaš  Marianne
         always  go  PL•walk  Marianne
         ‘Marianne is always going walking.’
   b.  *ʔu  paya ṣəʔm•ʔimaš
         go  always  PL•walk
         Intended: ‘She’s always going walking.’
   c.  *ʔə  ṣəʔm•ʔimaš  ʔu  Marianne
         PL•walk  go  Marianne
         Intended: ‘Marianne is going walking.’

In textual material, however, there are instances where auxiliaries follow main predicates, as in (vii). Considering this, more research on this matter will be necessary.

(vii) hihiw ɣ̌əʕər̓-im qʷəl̓ l=ɣawgəs
      really  worry-MD come  DET=grizzly
      ‘Grizzly was starting to worry.’

(adapted from Watanabe 2003:564)
initial prosodic word.\textsuperscript{10} Similarly, both predicates are understood to be in the future, but the future marker \textit{səm} only appears following the initial prosodic word. This means that both of these clitics are not taking scope where they appear linearly. However, if the predicate preceding them had undergone syntactic movement to a position higher in the clause to precede the clitics, it would violate the Coordinate Structure Constraint (Ross 1967).\textsuperscript{11}

\begin{equation}
\begin{align*}
\text{qət}^6-\text{əθut}=\text{a}=\text{čap}=\text{səm} \quad & \text{i} \quad \text{q}^\text{w}i\text{q}^\text{w}=\text{čap}?
\text{gather-CTR.REFL}=\text{Q}=\text{2PL.SBJ}=\text{FUT} \quad \text{CNJ} \quad \text{IPFV}\text{•talk}=\text{2PL.SBJ}
\end{align*}
\end{equation}

‘Are you going to gather together to talk?’

Nevertheless, \textit{ʔayʔajuθəm} otherwise shows standard Coordinate Structure Constraints, as illustrated by the rejected example sentences given in (7).

\begin{equation}
\begin{align*}
\text{(7)} \quad \text{a.} & \quad * \text{gət} \quad \text{kʷən-əxʷ-əxʷ-əl} \quad \text{higa} \quad \text{Gloria}?
\text{who} \quad \text{see-NTR-2SG.ERG-PST} \quad \text{CNJ} \quad \text{Gloria}
\text{Intended: ‘Who did you see ___ and Gloria?’}
\end{align*}
\end{equation}

\begin{equation}
\begin{align*}
\text{b.} & \quad * \text{tatam}=\text{čxʷ} \quad \text{i} \quad \text{qaqsim-θin-əm}=\text{čxʷ} \quad \text{s-nanat}
\text{do.what}=\text{2SG.SBJ} \quad \text{CNJ} \quad \text{play-mouth-MD}=\text{2SG.SBJ} \quad \text{NMLZ-night}
\text{Intended: ‘What are you doing and singing tonight?’}
\end{align*}
\end{equation}

Considering this, it seems likely that some sort of prosodically driven linearization is occurring.\textsuperscript{12} Most of the second-position clitics are prosodically deficient, not meeting the bimoraic requirement for a prosodic word (Blake 2000:117–123). This means that they require a prosodic host. \textit{ʔayʔajuθəm} prosodic structure shows influence of Kwak’wala, which famously lacks both prefixes and proclitics, with all independent, prosodically light material realized as enclitics (e.g., Anderson 2005). Like Kwak’wala (but unlike other Salish languages), \textit{ʔayʔajuθəm} lacks prefixes. However, the language clearly allows proclitics, as evident from the examples given in (1) and (3). Not all clitics are permitted as proclitics, however. Notably, the clitics from the second-position clitic string which lack a vowel never occur as proclitics. Therefore, reduced

\begin{footnotesize}
\textsuperscript{10} Unlike the question marker and the future marker, the person clitics must occur in both conjuncts. The reason behind this requires further investigation. It could be that the subject clitics are too low in the syntactic structure to scope over both conjuncts, but then we have an additional puzzle as to their linear order with respect to other clitics that can scope over both conjuncts, such as \textit{səm}.

\textsuperscript{11} See Davis (2013) for arguments that the predicate in St’at’imcets does not move to a position as high as C.

\textsuperscript{12} See Huijsmans (2016) for a similar analysis in SENĆOTEN.
\end{footnotesize}
forms of person clitics (the most common realizations) cannot occur as proclitics unless they are accompanied by a clausal demonstrative (8).\textsuperscript{13}

\begin{align*}
(8) & \quad *\texttt{št=huy} \\
& \quad 1\text{PL.SBJ}=\text{finish} \\
& \quad \text{‘We’re finished.’}
\end{align*}

This indicates that enclisis is the least marked option available to all the clitics.

It should also be noted that, having a full vowel, the clausal demonstratives have the same monomoraic weight as the verbal auxiliary \texttt{θu/hu} ‘go’ which also occurs preceding the predicate; Blake (2000:119) notes that this auxiliary seems to be an exception to the usual requirement for prosodic words to be bimoraic. It is possible, then, that clausal demonstratives occurring initially in the clause behave as independent prosodic words, even though the clausal demonstratives do not meet the usual bimoraic requirement. Indeed, when the person clitics follow the clausal demonstratives, the clausal demonstratives behave in parallel to verbal auxiliaries. When the person clitics precede clausal demonstratives (a position unavailable with verbal auxiliaries), the clausal demonstrative is still likely acting as the host; the availability of proclisis for the person clitic is then probably the result of pressure to maintain ordering within the second-position clitic string, reflecting the relative syntactic positions of the clitics. The two different positions of the subject clitics relative to clausal demonstratives are then likely a reflection of competing pressures between a realization that represents their relative syntactic positions and one which conforms better to the prosodic norms of the language.

\section{(Regular) Demonstratives}

Documentation of demonstratives in \texttt{ʔayʔajuʔom} is limited. Both Watanabe (2003:79–80) and Davis (1978:25–26) list a large number of demonstratives, providing glosses, but do not explore their semantic contributions in detail. In this paper, we focus only on one set of demonstratives that closely resembles the clausal demonstrative system and for which we have conducted the most extensive documentation. This set includes the \texttt{t}-demonstratives \texttt{tiʔi} and \texttt{taʔə} and the \texttt{kʷ}-demonstratives \texttt{kʷiši} and \texttt{kʷaʔa}.

The demonstrative \texttt{tiʔi} indicates that something is proximate and visible, and is commonly used when handing something to someone. In contrast, the demonstrative \texttt{taʔə} indicates that something is further away, but still visible. Examples highlighting this distinction are given in (9) and (10) below.

\footnotetext[13]{A similar observation has been made by Watanabe (2003:54).}
(9)  Context: Handing someone something they’ve asked for, like salt at the table.
    niš tiʔi
    be.here DEM
    ‘Here it is.’

(10) niʔ taʔa
    be.there DEM
    ‘It’s over there.’
    Consultant’s comment: You’re talking about something over there…; you still see it.

To indicate that something is close by, but not visible, the demonstrative kʷiši is used, as exemplified by the sentence in (11). If the referent is not visible and further away, speakers use the demonstrative kʷaʔa, as shown in (12).

(11) Context (volunteered): It’s in the closet [which is right beside the table where we were talking].
    niʔ kʷiši
    be.there DEM
    ‘It’s right there.’

(12) niʔ kʷaʔa
    be.there DEM
    ‘It’s over there.’
    Consultant’s comment: You don’t see it.

In sum, we can classify tiʔi as proximal and visible, taʔa as distal and visible, kʷiši as proximal and not visible, and kʷaʔa as distal and not visible.

While the examples given in (9) to (12) illustrate that the four particles tiʔi, taʔa, kʷiši, and kʷaʔa can function as demonstrative adverbs, they sometimes also act as demonstrative determiners, as shown in (13), or as demonstrative pronouns, as shown in (14).

(13) θəqʔay=a tiʔi ʔaʔanxʷ sockeye.salmon=Q DEM fish
    ‘Is this fish a sockeye salmon?’ (adapted from Watanabe 2003:88)

(14) čəmʔ qaʔt̓-əm-(m)ut tiʔi
    why CLF=NMLZ=really-3POSS heavy-MD-very DEM
    ‘Why is this so heavy?’

4 The semantics of clausal demonstratives

While Section 3 examined the regular demonstratives in terms of form and meaning, this section will take a closer look at the semantic contribution of their clausal cognates. In general, our data suggest that the clausal demonstratives function as deictic markers encoding both proximity and visibility. However,
while regular demonstratives encode the spatial distance between the speaker and an entity, the clausal demonstratives express the spatial or temporal distance between the utterance situation and the event situation.

Analogous to the regular \textit{t}-demonstratives, both clausal \textit{t}-demonstratives are used to indicate that the described event was observed by the speaker. This is exemplified by the sentences given in (15) and (16).

(15) \begin{align*}
\text{ti} & \quad \lambda a\text{ayin} \quad ?\text{ax}\w \\
\text{DEM} & \quad \text{start} \quad \text{snow}

de \text{‘It’s starting to snow.’}
\end{align*}

✓ \hspace{1cm} \text{Context 1: It’s starting to snow and I’m looking at it.}

✗ \hspace{1cm} \text{Context 2: It’s starting to snow, but I’m looking at Daniel and not out of the window. [Consultant’s comment: ti \(\lambda a\text{ayin} \quad ?\text{ax}\w \) is when you’re looking at it.]

✓ \hspace{1cm} \text{Context 3: Gloria is facing the window and can see the snow, but I can’t. She says ti \(\lambda a\text{ayin} \quad ?\text{ax}\w \) to me.}

(16) \begin{align*}
\text{Context: Betty and I are weaving baskets. She leaves, returns, and asks me if I am still weaving.}
\end{align*}
\begin{align*}
\text{č=} & \quad \text{ta} \\
1\text{SG.SBJ} & \quad \text{huj}-\text{ax}\w-\text{an}
\end{align*}
\begin{align*}
\text{DEM} & \quad \text{finish-NTR-1SG.ERG}
\end{align*}
\begin{align*}
de \text{‘I’ve finished it.’}
\end{align*}

\text{Consultant’s comment: It [the basket] is right there.}

In contrast, the clausal \textit{k}\textsuperscript{w}-demonstratives can only be used in contexts where the speaker is not directly observing the described event, as shown in (17). Once again, this matches the observations we made for the regular \textit{k}\textsuperscript{w}-demonstratives in Section 3.

(17) \begin{align*}
\text{k}\textsuperscript{i}/\text{k}\textsuperscript{a} & \quad \lambda a\text{ayin} \quad ?\text{ax}\w \\
\text{DEM} & \quad \text{start} \quad \text{snow}

de \text{‘It’s starting to snow.’}
\end{align*}

✗ \hspace{1cm} \text{Context 1: Gloria is facing the window and can see the snow, but I can’t. She says \textit{k}\textsuperscript{i}/\textit{k}\textsuperscript{a} \(\lambda a\text{ayin} \quad ?\text{ax}\w \) to me. [Consultant’s comment: If she’s not looking at it [she can use it.]]}

✓ \hspace{1cm} \text{Context 2 (volunteered): You’re telling someone inside that it’s snowing outside.}

\footnote{Whether the listener observed the event or not seems to be irrelevant. This is in contrast to some observations made by Beaumont (2011) for the cognates of these clausal demonstratives in Sechelt.}
We also have evidence that proximity is involved in the choice of clausal demonstratives, parallel to the regular demonstratives that we examined in Section 3. For instance, \(kʷi\) encodes a proximal relationship between the speaker and the event, while \(kʷa\) encodes a more distal relationship. This distribution is exemplified by the sentences in (18) and (19) below.

(18) \(kʷi=θu\ \text{DEM}=\text{go} \ \text{ju} \ \text{home}\)  
\quad ‘He’s just going home.’  
\quad Consultant’s comment: [It’s] more recent, he’s just left to go home.

(19) \(kʷa=θu\ \text{DEM}=\text{go} \ \text{ju} \ \text{home}\)  
\quad ‘He’s gone home.’  
\quad Consultant’s comment: If it was a little longer, over a longer time that he left...

Similarly, \(ti\) is preferred in (20) when referring to the speaker’s work, while \(ta\) is preferred in (21) when referring to the addressee’s work.

(20) \(ti\ \text{huy} \ tə=θ \ \text{DET=1S.POSS} \ \text{DEM} \ \text{finish} \ \text{DET} \ \text{work}\)  
\quad ‘My work is finished.’  

(21) \(ta\ \text{huy} \ tə=θ \ \text{DET=2S.POSS} \ \text{DEM} \ \text{finish} \ \text{DET} \ \text{work}\)  
\quad ‘Your work is finished.’

5 Embeddability

While the examples presented so far show that the clausal demonstratives can be found in matrix clauses, our data suggest that they can occur initially in embedded clauses as well. This is exemplified by the sentence given in example (22), which consists of two clauses: [\(\text{CP} \ kʷən-at-as \ \text{CP} \ ti \ \text{qʷəl̓ʔaxʷ}\)].

(22) Context: Amaya (little girl) is excited to see snow because she thought there would be no school.  
\(kʷən-at-as \ \text{DEM}=\text{come} \ \text{ti=qʷəl̓ʔaxʷ} \ \text{see-CTR-3ERG} \ \text{DET} \ \text{snow}\)  
\quad ‘She saw it started to snow.’  
\quad Consultant’s comment: ‘cause you’re there too, you’re looking at the snow...

However, as indicated by the consultant’s comment, the contribution of the demonstrative is still speaker-oriented. It cannot be coerced into being oriented towards the matrix subject, as shown in (23).
(23)  

a. Context: Amaya is watching the snow, but I’m somewhere else doing laundry or something.
# kʷən-at-as  ti=qʷəl  ?axʷ
see-CTR-3ERG  DEM=come  snow
‘She saw it started to snow.’
Consultant’s comment: Because you didn’t see it yourself, you wouldn’t say ti qʷəl ?axʷ.

b. (21a) was corrected to:
 kʷənatas  kʷi=qʷəl  ?axʷ
see-CTR-3ERG  DEM=come  snow
‘She saw it started to snow.’

6 Analysis of syntax-semantics mapping

Considering all of this, the clausal demonstratives appear to encode information that relates the event situation with the utterance situation, specifically to the speaker of the utterance. In Ramchand and Svenonius’s (2014) model of functional hierarchies, this would place them in Fin*, above T (the domain of the event situation) and below C (the domain of the utterance situation). This is compatible with what we know of their linear order relative to other functional material. As shown in (24), they must follow evidential modals, which belong to the propositional zone (C domain) since they involve information about speaker knowledge. On the other hand, like other elements within the clitic string, they scope above the VP domain of the clause.

(24)  

a. kʷayimut=č̓a=kʷi  Daniel
hid=EVD.INF=DEM  Daniel
‘Daniel must have hid.’

b. * kʷayimut=kʷi=č̓a  Daniel
hid=DEM=EVD.INF  Daniel
‘Daniel must have hid.’

It is less clear based on distribution alone that they occur above T, since the past tense marker (-ul) is a suffix and its scope relative to these clitics is not apparent from linear order, while the future marker səm precedes the clausal demonstratives, but seems to act as an epistemic modal rather than a future marker when it co-occurs with the clausal demonstratives and precedes them (25).

(25)  
səm=kʷi  qʷəl  ʔiʔəqʷ  qaya
FUT=DEM  come  tide.high water
‘The tide is up now (I’m guessing).’

Determining more precisely the relationship between clausal demonstratives and T will require further research into the nature of T in ?ayʔaʔuθəm. However,
since their distribution seems to be sensitive to the temporal location of the event, not just the properties of the VP, we feel they are best represented as occurring above T.

(26)

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\text{CP} \\
\text{C} \\
\text{Fin}^*\text{P} \\
\text{Fin}^* \\
\text{TP} \\
q^{\text{\`\!}\text{\`\!}q} \lambda q^{\text{\`\!}qya}
\end{array}
\]

Semantically, we propose that the clausal demonstratives take an expression of type \(s, t\), i.e., the TP node which embeds the event and has an unsaturated event situation argument (following Ramchand & Svenonius 2014), and outputs an expression of type \(s, t\) that can combine with higher modal clitics. They place restrictions on the contexts of use, such that the event situation \(s\) is proximal/distal to the utterance situation \(s^*\) and visible/not-visible at the utterance situation. We assume that the utterance situation is given by the context and includes the speaker, relative to whom the constraints can be evaluated, as well as a world and time parameter. The clausal demonstrative \(k^\text{\`i}\), then, would get the denotation in (27).

(27) \[ [k^\text{\`i}]^{s^*} = \lambda P \in D_{(s,t)}, \lambda s : [\text{proximal}(s,s^*) \& \text{not-visible}(s,s^*)], P(s) \]

Because the event situation is evaluated relative to the utterance situation, clausal demonstratives never express a relationship between an embedded and a matrix clause. When embedded in a subordinate clause, as in (20) and (21), they express a relationship between the embedded event situation and the utterance situation.

7 Further notes and puzzles

While the clausal demonstratives occur quite frequently in dialogue, their contexts of use are fairly restricted. Currently, we are still working to understand the exact nature of the contexts which license their occurrence. Based on the data we have presented in this paper, they seem to be common in contexts that involve a punctual event that can be situated relative to the speaker, such as a change in weather, someone’s arrival or leaving, or the completion of a task. In contrast, they are often incompatible with imperfective predicates, as illustrated by the examples given in (28) and (29). We speculate that the use of clausal
demonstratives in these scenarios is not felicitous because the predicates are not temporally bounded in a way that makes them accessible for deictic reference.

\[ (28) \quad * t=qji?=ut \quad ?a?axw \]
DEM still=EXCL IPFV•snow
‘It’s still snowing.’

\[ (29) \quad * t=tiiχ-im \]
DEM IPFV•sunshine-MD
‘It’s sunshining.’

Nevertheless, we encountered some contexts where the clausal demonstratives were accepted with imperfective predicates, as shown in (30).

\[ (30) \quad Context: You see Freddie coming towards the house. \]
\[ t=qw=qI Freddie \]
DEM IPFV•come Freddie
‘Freddie is coming.’

8 Conclusion

In this paper, we have argued that the four second-position clitics \( k^i, k^i, ta, \) and \( ti \) form a paradigm of clausal demonstratives, which parallels the regular demonstrative system in several regards. Specifically, we show that both the clausal demonstratives and the regular demonstratives encode visibility and proximity. However, while the regular demonstratives encode the deictic relationship between the speaker and an entity, we propose that the clausal demonstratives deictically link the event situation to the utterance situation.

Ramchand and Svenonius (2014) propose that structure is built in a way such that information complexity is monotonically increasing, with events embedded in situations which are embedded in propositions. The clausal demonstratives in \( ?ayʔaʔjutθm \) fit well in this model since their position relative to other functional material indicates that they occur above the domain of the event/situation and below modals that belong to the propositional domain. Considering this, we propose that they belong in Fin*, where we expect material that links the situation to the utterance context to occur.

This means that their ability to appear following an initial adverb, verbal auxiliary or predicate, patterning with other second-position clitics, cannot reflect base Merge positions. Further, we provide preliminary evidence that the linearization of clausal demonstratives relative to the preceding word cannot be derived by syntactic movement. Instead, we suggest that the linearization of second-position clitics, including clausal demonstratives, may be sensitive to prosodic preferences in the language. When they occur preceding an initial adverb, auxiliary, or predicate, we speculate that they are functioning as independent prosodic words, despite not meeting the usual requirement for words to be bimoraic (Blake 2000:117–123).
References


